

HUMAN SECURITY AND PATRIARCHAL VIOLENCE: A SOCIOLOGICAL STUDY OF LUCKNOW DISTRICT

Thesis

SUBMITTED TO THE
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Prashant Chaudhary

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Dr. Jaya Shrivastava

Associate Professor

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY
SCHOOL FOR AMBEDKAR STUDIES
BABASAHEB BHIMRAO AMBEDKAR UNIVERSITY

(A CENTRAL UNIVERSITY)

VIDYA VIHAR, RAEBARELI ROAD, LUCKNOW-226 025

UTTAR PRADESH, INDIA

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This Work is Dedicated
to
My Grand-mother

DECLARATION

I, Prashant Chaudhary, declare that the work embodied in the Thesis entitled "**Human Security and Patriarchal Violence: A Sociological Study of Lucknow District**" has been carried out by me, under supervision of Dr. Jaya Shrivastava, Associate Professor, Department of Sociology, Babasaheb Bhimrao Ambedkar University (A Central University), Lucknow.

The work included in this thesis has not been submitted for any other degree and unless otherwise stated, is all original. I have duly acknowledged all the sources used by me in the preparation of this thesis.

Lucknow

Date:

(Prashant Chaudhary)
Research Scholar
Department of Sociology,
School for Social Sciences,
B.B.A.(Central), University, Lucknow.



बाबासाहेब भीमराव अम्बेडकर विश्वविद्यालय
विद्या विहार, रायबरेली रोड, लखनऊ-226025

BABASAHEB BHIMRAO AMBEDKAR UNIVERSITY
(A Central University) – NAAC 'A' Grade
Vidya Vihar, Rae Bareli Road, Lucknow-226025

Date.....

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that Mr. Prashant Chaudhary has completed the thesis entitled "**Human Security and Patriarchal Violence: A Sociological Study of Lucknow District**" for the award of Ph.D. Degree in Sociology from Babasaheb Bhimrao Ambedkar University (A Central University-NAAC 'A' Grade), Lucknow, under my supervision. To the best of my knowledge and belief the thesis under reference is based on original research work done by him. He fulfils the conditions laid down in relevant ordinances.

The Thesis submitted to **Babasaheb Bhimrao Ambedkar University, Lucknow**, satisfies all the requirement as stipulated in the *Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) Regulations-1999 as amended in 2010* and it is fit for submission and evaluation for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy of the University.

Dr. Jaya Shrivastava
Associate Professor
(Supervisor)
Department of Sociology
School for Social Sciences
Babasaheb Bhimrao Ambedkar University,
Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh

Prof. Manish Kumar Verma
(Head of the Department)
Department of Sociology
School for Social Sciences
Babasaheb Bhimrao Ambedkar University,
Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh

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Place: Lucknow

Date:

Prashant Chaudhary

PREFACE

Human security refers to the protection of the vital core of all human lives in ways that enhance human freedom and human fulfilment. This definition combines Human Rights, Human Development and Human Security as three facets of common ethical base for the protection of human life and dignity as enshrined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) and the subsequent Human Rights treaties. In other words, human security has brought together issues of human dignity, human rights and human well-being in a comprehensive way. It is concerned with people "in their total context of living". It directs attention to basic priorities such as life, health, and dignity and it considers degree to which ordinary people are able to fulfil these basic priorities. Human security means protecting people from critical and pervasive threats and situations, building on their strengths and aspirations. It also means creating systems that give people the building blocks of survival, dignity, and livelihood. Human security connects different types of freedoms- freedom from want, freedom from fear, and freedom to take action on one's own behalf. Here, it is pertinent to mention Amrtya Sen's definition of the minimal account of human security as state provision of a limited set of rights and capabilities by which individuals and groups are able to maintain a threshold of survival with dignity.

In short, human security represents an effort to re-concetualize security in a fundamental manner. It is primarily an analytical tool that focuses on ensuring security for individual, not the state. Exploring options aimed at mitigating threats to the insecurity of individuals thus becomes a central goal of policy recommendations and actions. In line with the expanded definition of human security, the causes of insecurity are subsequently broadened to include threats to socio-economic and political conditions, food, health, and environmental, community and personal safety. Policy initiatives generated through the application of the human security framework have incorporated considerations far beyond the traditional focus on military force, greatly reducing the emphasis on armies, if not replacing them altogether. Human security is therefore: people-centred, multidimensional and interconnected which can be considered under several main categories, i.e. Economic security; Food security; Health security; Environmental security; Political security; Community security; and Personal security. Against this backdrop, the present study tries to examine how security needs of women fulfilled in the highly patriarchal society of India. The entire

study veers around the argument that how patriarchal violence against women is associated with the human security.

As we know, since ages women have been victim of patriarchal violence. Patriarchal violence against women built on hegemonic masculinity and the subordination of women is a widespread universal phenomenon. It is supported and reinforced by socially constructed stereotypical gender norms and values that put women in subordinate position, cuts across all caste, religion and education levels. In many societies violence is considered 'normal' and a prerogative of men. Similarly, in India the roots of patriarchal violence are deeply embedded in its socio-cultural structure. Patriarchal violence exists within a socio-cultural environment, which legitimizes the use of power and control against women. It has many harmful consequences for women and it lowers their performance levels due to increased subordination and subjugation to the established patriarchal order. Over the past few decades, the issue of patriarchal violence in its myriad of forms has attained/gained increasing recognition both at national and global level. Despite significant changes in private and public spheres, patriarchal violence affect women from a range of cultural and geographical backgrounds, and it remained low on international human security agendas until recently. It is true that conceptualizing patriarchal violence as a human security issue is an uphill task.

Therefore, the present study analyses how gender power structure affects patriarchal violence and human security. It also tries to examine the interlinkages between different components of human security and patriarchal violence. The following are the specific objectives of the study:

1. To analyse the concepts of human security and patriarchal violence.
2. To examine the interlinkages between various dimensions of human security and patriarchal violence from sociological perspective.
3. To prioritise the relevance of the different dimensions of human security with patriarchal violence.
4. To explore the nature of relationship between different aspects of human security and patriarchal violence.
5. To find out the policy implications of human security for removal of patriarchal violence.

The hypotheses of the present study are:

1. There is close interlinkages between human security and patriarchal violence.
2. Personal and economic securities have strong negative association with patriarchal violence.
3. Political security and food securities have medium association with patriarchal violence.
4. Environment and health security have weak negative association with patriarchal violence.
5. There is relationship between human security and severity of patriarchal violence.

The present study entitled "**Human Security and Patriarchal Violence: A Sociological Study of Lucknow District**" is organised in seven chapters. List of referred books, Reports, Journals and Magazines is given at the end as per alphabetical order.

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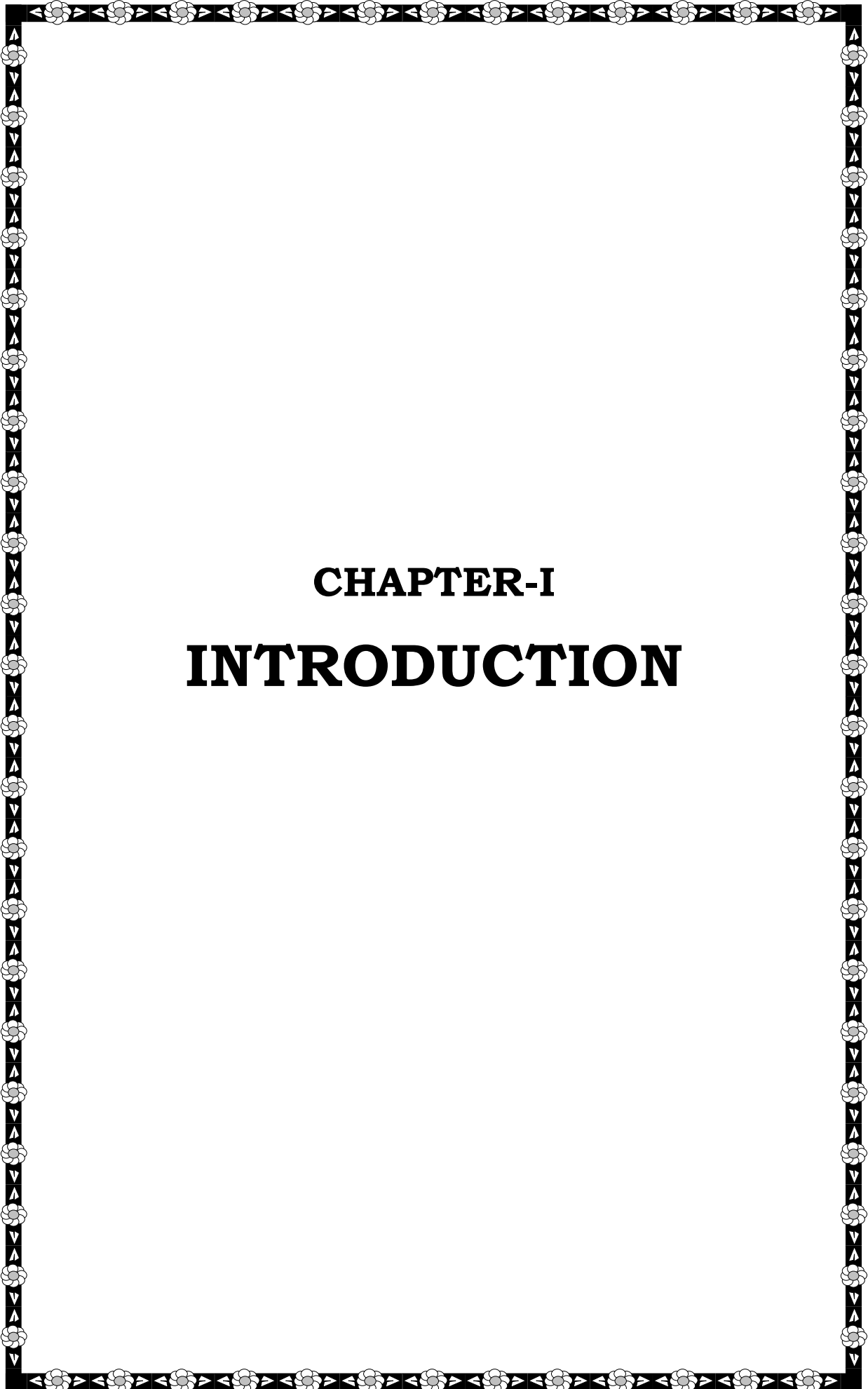
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CHAPTER-I
INTRODUCTION

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INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND OF STUDY

Human Security: Human security is concerned with people "in their total context of living." It directs attention to basic priorities such as life, health, and dignity and it considers degree to which ordinary people are able to fulfil these basic priorities.¹ Human security means protecting fundamental freedoms that are the essence of life. It means protecting people from critical and pervasive threats and situations. It means using processes that build on people's strengths and aspirations. It means creating political, social, environmental, economic, military and cultural systems that together give people the building blocks of survival, livelihood and dignity.² Human security involves focusing on individuals and recognising the diverse factors that pose threats of want and fear, which includes states, internal conflict, human rights abuses, environmental deterioration, poverty and oppression, and disease and malnutrition.

The development of human security in last two decades exemplifies the increasing demands for providing security for individuals and the limitation of national security paradigm.³ Human security challenges the state-centric approach to security by suggesting that people threatened by political violence can be 'as insecure as those threatened by conflicts between states.'⁴ The 'narrow' approach of human security argues that the primary object of human security is to eliminate threats to individuals namely 'freedom from fear.' Contrary, the 'broad' approach of human security claims the multi-dimensional character of security and expands the scope of security discourse to 'freedom from want.' Finally, on 10 September 2012, the UN General Assembly issued Resolution 66/290 and succeeded in settling an international agreement upon the definition of human security. It provides that human security is 'an approach to assist Member States in identifying and addressing widespread and cross-cutting challenges to the survival,

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1. Murphy, C.N. (2006), *The United Nations Development Programme: A Better Way?* Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, pp. 241-42.
 2. CHS (2003), *Human Security Now*, Report of the Commission, Commission on Human Security, New York, p. 4.
 3. Shani, G. (2007). "Introduction: Protecting Human Security in a Post 9/11 World", in G. Shani, M. Sato, and M.K. Pasha (eds.), *Protecting Human Security in a Post 9/11 World : Critical and Global Insights*, Palgrave MacMillan, Hampshire, pp. 1-2.
 4. Kerr, P. (2010), "Human Security", in A. Collins ed.), *Contemporary Security Studies*, Oxford University Press, Oxford, p. 123.

livelihood and dignity of their people.' It also clarifies that human security does not entail any coercive measurement through military forces; thus it is 'distant from the responsibility to protect and its implementation.' In short, the General Assembly formulates human security based on 'the interlinkages between peace, development and human rights' and the full implementation of 'the purposes and principles' of the UN Charter.⁵

Human security sheds lights on the relationship between development and international security, peace and human rights. Oberleitner (2005) points out that human security counsels reforming international institutions comprehensively, such as the United Nations, based on 'a value-based approach to security with a focus on the individual.'⁶ Human security recognises individuals as 'ultimate beneficiary', and is understood as 'a natural step in further moving international law beyond being concerned with national security'. Benedek (2008) argues that human security has a clear interdependency with the international legal framework of human rights.⁷ He suggested that human security redefines and refines our approach to the realisation of all human rights for all'. Thakur (2006) claimed that 'the conceptual vocabulary of human security' provides 'a policy template' for international organisations to pursue a 'pluralistic coexistence' between national and human security.⁸ Overall, these advocates look upon human security as 'a response to new opportunities' with which state security is complemented, and human rights are enhanced.⁹

By contrast, critiques caution that human security reduces the protection of individual to a policy goal but that it proposes some new types of threats that 'are not remediable either by states or the international system.' Rhoda Howard-Hassmann criticises that most academic writings on human security pay little attention to the fundamental difference between human security and international human rights law. She claims that international human rights law recognises 'threats to human well-being' to be 'inherently political' whereas human security aims at de-politicising 'standard threats to human well-being.' Howard-Hassmann cautions against possible bypassing,

5. UNGA Resolution 66/290 2012.

6. Oberleitner, G. (2005), "Human Security: A Challenge to International Law?" *Global Governance*, Vol. 11, pp. 185-203.

7. Bedenk, W. (2008), "Human Security and Human Rights Interaction", *International Social Science Journal*, Vol. 59, pp. 7-17.

8. Thakur, R. (2006), *The United Nations, Peace and Security*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, p. 90.

9. Commission on Human Security 2003, United Nations Organisation, New York, p. 2.

misinterpretations, and neglect of the protection of 'individuals' capacities to claim their human rights from the state.¹⁰ Critical human security studies argue that human security has a danger to reinforce national security paradigm in the name of protection. They consider that a 'theoretical weakness' of human security arises from its 'problem-solving' and 'uncritical' character, thus pose questions about the basic assumptions of human security.¹¹ They reveal that uncritical human security is a 'double-edged sword.'¹² On one side, human security succeeds in shifting the primary subject of security from national defence to protection of individuals. On the other side, it leads to the securitisation of a society with a 'state-oriented technology of intervention' where 'the ultimate responsibility for securing humans is passed back to the state.'¹³ Unlike Howard-Hassmann, many researchers argued that critical human security tackles 'a normative commitment to de-securitization' and seeks to 'lessen the power of oppressive structures over human life.'¹⁴

While they contribute to disclose the limitation of human security, these critical insights contradict each other. Howard-Hassman claims that threats to individuals are 'inherently political' whereas critical human security assumes that issues of human security come from 'securitization' which is an 'extreme form of politicization.'¹⁵ Neither Resolution 66/290 nor advocates of human security succeed in providing theoretical responses to 'securitization' and its implication towards individuals. Some Japanese writers suggest that human security is complementary to 'the right to live in peace' and propose to consider threats to peace as matters of human rights.¹⁶ But, neither human security nor 'the right to live in peace' provides immanent justification for considering these conceptions as human rights. Some international lawyers recognise that 'peace' hardly becomes a positive legal right.

The notion of the human security paradigm indicates that most people recognize their own feelings of insecurity as stemming "not from a cataclysmic world event, but

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10. Howard-Hassmann, R.E. (2012), "Human Security: Undermining Human Rights?" *Human Rights Quarterly*, Vol. 34, pp. 88-112.
 11. Newman, E. (2010), "Critical Human Security Studies", *Review of International Relations*, Vol. 36, pp. 77-94.
 12. Shani, G. (2007). "Introduction: Protecting Human Security in a Post 9/11 World", *Op.cit.*, pp. 6-7.
 13. Duffield, M. (2008), *Development, Security and Unending War: Governing the World of Peoples*, Polity Press, Cambridge, p. 121.
 14. Shani, G., and Pasha, M.K. (2007), "Conclusion." in G. Shani, M. Sato, and M.K. Pasha (eds.), *Op.cit.*, pp. 197-198.
 15. Howard-Hassmann, Rhoda E. (2012), "Human Security: Undermining Human Rights?" *Op.cit.*
 16. Okubo, T. (2007), "Globalization, Ningen-no-Anzen-Hoshou to Nihonkoku-Kenpou." Nippon Hyouronsha, Tokyo, p. 32.

from worries about daily life."¹⁷ Due to the complex and indeterminate features of these insecurities, the notion of human security also exposes the fact that a nation state is no longer the only framework for promoting security, and a person's potential ability to "act on their own behalf and on behalf of others"¹⁸ is a key to addressing human security. Human security means protecting vital freedoms. It means protecting people from critical and pervasive threats and situations, building on their strengths and aspirations. It also means creating systems that give people the building blocks of survival, dignity, and livelihood. Human security connects different types of freedoms- freedom from want, freedom from fear, and freedom to take action on one's own behalf. To do this, it offers two general strategies: protection and empowerment. Protection shields people from dangers, and human security helps identify gaps in the infrastructure of protection and ways to strengthen or improve it. This requires concerted effort to develop norms, processes, and institutions that systematically address insecurities. Empowerment enables people to develop their potential and become full participants in decision making. Protection and empowerment are mutually reinforcing, and both are required in most situations.¹⁹

Although human security tries to take into consideration the impact that gender has on security issues the current concept of human security has not directly confronted the ideologies and structures that oppress and deny justice and equity to women. In a presentation of the United Nations Commission on Human Security Report at the National Council for Research on Women Annual Conference in May 2003, Sadako Ogata said that the Commission decided not to isolate women as a special area of concern in the report. By not taking up women as subjects, the report fails to explore core matters that are critical to intimate security such as reproductive rights and violence against women in the family.²⁰ The Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) recognises that Violence Against Women (VAW) "inhibits women's ability to enjoy rights and freedoms on the basis of equality with men". VAW is connected to other forms of oppression and

17. UNDP (1994), *Human Development Report 1994*, Oxford University Press, New York, p. 3.

18. Commission on Human Security (2003), *Human Security Now: Protecting and Empowering People*, The Commission on Human Security, New York, p. 11.

19. Ibid.

20. Chenoy, M.A. (2009), "The Gender and Human Security Debate", *IDS Bulletin*, Vol. 40, No. 2, pp. 44-49.

discrimination that manifest in the political, economic, social, cultural, and gender inequities spheres, associated with patriarchal relations that subordinate women.²¹

The concept of human security has been acclaimed for its focus on the security of individuals because it incorporates more than the absence of violent conflict. It encompasses human rights, good governance and access to economic opportunity, education and health care. The Human Development Report states that there may be no other aspect of human security so vital for individuals as their security from physical violence. The report empathises that women face the worst personal threats and that there is no society where women are as secure as men or treated equally to men. Men's and women's experiences and interests differ within class, culture and race. Masculinities and femininities are constructed within these spheres.²² Feminists argue that knowledge is situated in time and place, and embodied in cultural constructions. Feminist epistemology identifies knowledge that is harmful for women with the aim to reshape these power constructions.²³

Human security challenges the notion of state security and advocates that states must concern itself with the security of the individual. Human security includes all kinds of threats: environmental, economic, social, cultural etc. The very essence of human security means to respect human rights and fundamental freedoms. Human rights help us to understand a security situation and answer the question; "how should human security be ensured?" By upholding human security we achieve individual, national and international security. Ogata and Cels (2003) argue that human security offers a framework for identifying rights and obligations in a particular security situation.²⁴ In the same vein, Bunch (2004)²⁵ asks, "whose security are we talking about and who has not felt secure in terms of gender, class, race, ethnicity, sexual orientation etc?" The United Nations Commission on Human Security highlights that "Human security in its broadest sense embraces far more than the absence of violent conflict. It encompasses human rights, good governance, access to education and

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21. POWA (2010), *Criminal Injustice: Violence against Women in South Africa*, Shadow Report on Beijing +15.
 22. Harding, S. (1987), "Introduction: Is There a Feminist Method?" in Harding, S. (ed.), *Feminism & Methodology*, Indiana University Press, Bloomington and Indianapolis, p. 7.
 23. Sarantakos, S. (2005), "Social Research", Palgrave Macmillan, Basingstoke, p. 55.
 24. Ogata, S. and Cels, J. (2003), "Global Insights, Human Security-Protecting and Empowering the People", *Global Governance*, Vol. 9, No. 3, pp. 273-82.
 25. Bunch, C. (2004), "A Feminist Human Rights Lens on Human Security", *Centre for Women's Global Leadership*. Available: <http://www.cwgl.rutgers.edu/globalcenter/charlotte/humansecurity.pdf>, accessed on 14 Sep, 2015.

health care and ensuring that each individual has opportunities and choices to fulfil his or her own potential".²⁶

Hudson (2005) highlights that gender dimensions tend to be overlooked in the concept of human security and that there is a real danger of grouping femininity and masculinity into the term "human" as if the term is gender-neutral.²⁷ There is also a danger of grouping all women together as if the security needs of all women are the same. Women's security must be examined in the terms of their specific gender roles which require that a feminist notion of security is integrated into the mainstream discourse of human security. Women have a very specific role in the family and in the community and their safety impacts the whole society.²⁸ VAW is a particular concern for feminists since women are more likely to be victims of private violence (domestic violence) than men. Structural violence impacts women's daily lives and prevent them from fully participating in society.²⁹ The threat of violence creates fear and insecurity in women's lives. It is a permanent constraint on women's mobility and limits their access to resources and basic activities. VAW is a social mechanism that forces women into a subordinated position and it is major obstacle to achieving gender equality.³⁰ Caprioli (2004) argued that VAW is considered to be outside the boundaries of state control and is therefore often excluded from state measures that focus on public rights. He opined that "throughout the world, women are still relegated to second-class status that makes them more vulnerable to abuse and less able to protect themselves from discrimination".³¹

Patriarchal Violence: The word 'patriarchy' literally means the rule of the father or the 'patriarch'. Originally it was used to describe a specific type of 'male-dominated family', the large household of the patriarch which included women, junior men, children, slaves and domestic servants all under the rule of this dominant male. More

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26. Mlambo, N. (2005), "Perceptions of Human Security in Democratic South Africa, Opinions of Students from Tertiary Institutions" in Muloongo, Kibasomba and Kariri. (eds.). *The Many Faces of Human Security, Case Studies of Seven Countries in Southern Africa*, Institute for Security Studies, Pretoria, p. 230.
 27. Hudson, H. (2005), "'Doing Security As Though Humans Matter: A Feminist Perspective on Gender and the Politics of Human Security", *Security Dialogue*, Vol. 36, No. 2, pp. 155-74.
 28. Bunch, C. (2004), "A Feminist Human Rights Lens on Human Security", *Op.cit.*.
 29. Chenoy, M.A. (2009), "The Gender and Human Security Debate", *Op.cit.*.
 30. Zeitlin, J, and Mpoumu, D. (2004), "No human security without gender equality". *Women's Environment & Development Organization (WEDO) Social Watch*; 30-31.
 31. Caprioli, M. (2004), "Democracy and Human Rights Versus Women's Security: A Contradiction?", *Security Dialogue*, Vol. 35, No. 4, pp. 411-28.

generally, it is used to refer to male domination, to the power relationships by which men dominate women, and to characterise a system whereby women are kept subordinate in number of ways.³² Walby (1990) defines patriarchy as 'a system of social structures and practices in which men dominate, oppress and exploit women.'³³

Patriarchy can be defined as a set of social relations between men and women, which have a material base, and which, though hierarchical, establish or create independence and solidarity among men that enable them to dominate women.³⁴ Patriarchy, in its wider definition, means the manifestation and institutionalization of male dominance over women and children in the family and the extension of male dominance over women in society in general. It implies that 'men hold power in all the important institutions of society' and that 'women are deprived of access to such power'. However, it does not imply that 'women are either totally powerless or totally deprived of rights, influence, and resources'.³⁵ According to Lerner (1989), patriarchy was not one event but a process developing over a period of almost 2500 years and a number of factors and forces are responsible for the establishment of male supremacy.

Violence against women within the family is universally found across cultures, religions, regions, and classes. Traditionally such violence is not acknowledged and has remained invisible due to social norm that 'women', 'wife', 'family' and 'home' are private issues. Further, the patriarchal structure of family enforces male dominance and male authority in the family which believes that violence against women and children within home is necessary to maintain discipline, peace and harmony. Women in Indian society, on the one hand, have been prayed as mother goddess and on the other hand, they have been considered as fickle, fragile, and root of all evils that should be kept under strict control. Being fragile she needs protection at all stages of her life; in childhood by her father, in youth by her husband, and in old age (after the husband's death) by her sons.³⁶

Patriarchal violence is an abused behaviour whether it is emotional, psychological, physical or sexual that one person in an intimate relationship uses to control the other. It can take many different forms such as threat name calling, isolation, withholding of money, power or privilege, beating, abusing, threatening

32. Bhasin, K. (2006), *What Is Patriarchy*, Women Unlimited, New Delhi, p. 3.

33. Walby, S. (1990), *Theorizing Patriarchy*, Blackwell Publishers Ltd, Oxford, UK, p. 20.

34. Jagger, M.A. and Rosenberg S.P. (ed) (1984), *Feminist Frameworks*, MC Grew-Hill, New York.

35. Lerner, G. (1989), *The Creation of Patriarchy*. Oxford University Press, New York, p. 239.

36. Dube, S.C. (1990), *Indian Society*, National Book Trust, New Delhi, p.94.

physical harm or sexual assault. Violence faced by women in their conjugal relations particularly wife beating is the most endemic and widespread form of violence in Indian society.

Family is the basic institution of society. It is considered as sanctuary of tranquillity, peace, and harmony. Like all other social system, family also rests on some degree of force and power which is necessary to control the behaviour of members in the family. Goode (1973) explains the intimate violence on the basis of a Resource theory.³⁷ It assumes that all social system (including family) rest to some degree of force or threat. The greater the resource a person can command in a social system, the more force he or she can muster. Further, Goode explains that family is a power system in which four sets of resources are in operation to maintain stability: economic variables, prestige or respect, love and force or threat of force. Walker (1979)³⁸ in his cyclic theory explored the three distinct phases of battering cycle. They are:

1. The tension building phase, in which minor-battering incidents may occur, which she tolerates to avoid growing violence. She may placate him and be docile but this validates her belief that he has power over her.
2. The acute battering incident is marked by episodes of brutality and destructiveness that may lead to death.
3. The Patriarchal, loving (or non-violent) phase follows, where he may promise never to do it again and that if she leaves, he will not be able to survive.

Traditionally, the basis of social differentiation was biological. Since women had to undergo pregnancy, delivery and child nursing as natural process of reproduction, which did not involve men. As a result men were predisposed for livelihood and earning for the family. They were assigned the role of fathers and husbands and were treated as heads of households under a patriarchal system. They held all centres of power, resources, property etc. whereas women were restricted to the husband and children through the institution of marriage and family. Firestone (1972) writes, "Women busy with bearing and nursing children became dependent of men for their survival. The dependence on men resulted in unequal distribution of

37. Goode, W.J. (1971), Force and Violence in The Family, *Journal of Marriage and The Family*, Vol. 33, N. 4, pp. 624-636.

38. Walker, L. (1979), *The Battered Woman*, Harper and Row, London.

power relations in the family".³⁹ Since the role allocated to women is unpaid and uneconomic, her position in the society automatically becomes inferior and subordinate. Further, the very agencies of socialization in Indian society i.e. customs, rituals and traditions, force women to accept that the prime aim of her life is to bear, rear and look after the home. The various studies shows that while man are usually exposed to violence outside the family, women and girls are primarily the victim of violence in the home and within the family. This is not only made violence invisible and placed victim group at risk but also made it more difficult to provide protection against extensive, systematic violence and oppression.

The causes of patriarchal violence are traditional inequalities and customs, legal inequalities such as denial of the state's obligation to promote and protect the fulfilment of all human and democratic rights and equal opportunities for all its citizens, to ownership, to inheritance, to the right to education, work, the right to choose one's partner, and the right to sexual and reproductive health as defined in the main UN conventions on universal human rights. To prevent patriarchal violence, governments are responsible for enacting and enforcing gender-neutral laws and practices in accordance with UN human rights instruments and join the efforts of international organizations to promote measures against honour crimes and protect potential victims.

Kjaerulf and Barahona (2010)⁴⁰ argued for integrated community-driven and national interventions to create cooperative national–local linkages and embed international human rights law at the national and local levels. Nations struggling with violence should be encouraged to apply an integrated framework to prevent violence and reinforce human security.

1.2 NEED OF STUDY

India, as Srinivas, (1978) put it, is 'a congeries of micro-regions'. There is considerable variation among regions, classes, religions, and ethnic and caste groups. Family structure and kinship patterns, social and economic milieus, culture, and social practices vary widely within the country. The rural-urban divide has also to be taken

39. Firestone, S. (1972), *The Dialectic of Sex*, Bantam, New York.

40. Kjaerulf, F., Barahona, R. (2010), Preventing Violence and Reinforcing Human Security: A Rights-based Framework for Top-down and Bottom-up Action, *Rev Panam Salud Publica*, Vol. 27, Issue 5, pp. 382–95.

into account as a consistent factor. This great diversity is complicated further by the changes wrought by colonial rule. Traditional and modern values have been perennially in conflict since then and many ambiguities have resulted. The absence of social, cultural and economic homogeneity makes it difficult to generalise about Indian women in the crucible of change, and images of Indian women are paradoxical and contradictory. In one context, a subordinate status can coexist with advanced education. In another, a free status coexists with illiteracy and low caste. But an impression has gained ground that Indian women are developing fast in various spheres. The fact is that the vast mass of Indian women has still to be emancipated. Complex socioeconomic processes implicit in development, such as modernisation, urbanisation, industrialisation, commercialisation, technological change in the methods of production, and the spread of education have had a differential impact on Indian women in terms of the diversities indicated above.

Though the status of women in India, both historically and socially, has been one of the respect and reverence, but the hard truth is that even today, they are struggling for their own identity, shouting for diffusion of their voices and fighting for their own esteem. Problem of Unemployment, Poverty, Economic Inequality, Gender discrimination, Lack of Proper Education etc. which are the part and parcel of society, prevail mostly in women. In addition, society has been experiencing that money controls everything. Although gender discrimination has been banned by the constitution and women have been guaranteed political equality with men, yet there is a difference between constitutional rights and rights enjoyed in reality by women.⁴¹ The Government of India had ushered in the new millennium by declaring the year 2001 as 'Women's Empowerment Year' to focus on a vision 'where women are equal partners like men'. Government policy has been to promote women's participation in political, social and economic life of the nation and identical access to health care, quality education, career and vocational guidance, employment, equal remuneration, occupational health and safety, social security and public office etc. The objective has been also to strengthen legal system aimed at elimination of all forms of discrimination against women and changing the societal attitudes and community practices by active participation and involvement of both men and women. Consequently, single or in a group of people has been using women and women also

41. Bhuyan, D., Panigrahy. R.L. (2006), *Women Empowerment*, Discovery Publishing House, New Delhi.

to torture, harassing and exploiting the women in different forms. Moreover, in women daily life lack of the women respect and lack of the financial empowerment and patriarchal system is responsible for exploitation of women in present society.

In the grip of growing consumerism, violence against women has been rapidly increasing and a legitimate human right issue in connection to their socio-economic stability has got impetus. Trafficking of women is strongly associated with economic disparity as prevailing in the country which brings massive development of women into prostitution.⁴² Contrary to popular belief, child prostitutes are not primarily children of lower socio-economic circumstances but also from families from higher income group.⁴³

In Indian family the man is the master and women is the inferior and subordinate partner and societal pressure force women to maintain this status quo. The irony lies in fact that in our country where women are worshipped as *shakti*, the atrocities are committed against her in all sections of life. She is being looked down as commodity or as a slave, she is robbed of her dignity and pride not only outside her house but also faces ill-treatment and other atrocities within her house. The main root cause of all the evils practices faced by the women are illiteracy, economic dependence, social restrictions, religious prohibition, lack of leadership qualities and apathetic and callous attitude of males in the society. The patriarchal system in India made women to live at the mercy of men, who exercise unlimited power over them and after time-being which become a threat to their freedom and life, problem of gender discrimination and their development. In spite of constitutional and legal safeguards, the women in India continue to suffer. It is realized that the long run supremacy of male over female in all respect in the patriarchal society in India is highly responsible for arresting the empowerment of women.⁴⁴

Most violence in the patriarchal Indian home is attributed to patriarchal beliefs and the manifestations of a culture that is tolerant of violence. But we cannot fully understand the influence of social structures on patriarchal violence unless we take into consideration the interactions that individuals have with these social structures. Patriarchal explanations are criticized as one-dimensional and fixed. When patriarchy

42. Barry, K., (1995), *The Prostitution of Sexuality*, NY University Press, New York.

43. Flowers, R.B. (1994), *The Victimization and Exploitation of Women and Children- A Study of Physical Mental and Sexual Maltreatment in United States*, Mc Fasland & Company, USA.

44. Nagindrappa, M. & Radhika, M.K. (2013), *Women Exploitation in Indian modern society*, *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications*, Volume 3, Issue 2, Feb.

is seen as a single explanatory variable, it fails to account for variance across time and cultures.⁴⁵

Despite increasing trends of egalitarian attitudes towards gender equality in both the developed and developing societies, the prevalence of violence against women have been alarmingly high.⁴⁶ Men might be pro to women's empowerment through acquiring higher education and participation in job market but they are least likely to compromise on losing control on women's gender specific and sexuality related activities of life. In a way, almost all the societies of the world are patriarchal in nature. Perhaps, ideas about gender equality, linking women's sexuality with family honor, male dominance, and condoning violence against women might not equally prevalent among men across the diverse cultures and societies of the world. Correspondingly, men's differential adherence to the traditional ideas about treating women differently in different aspects of gender relations may determine varying chances of their violent conduct with them in families.

Feminists argue that adherence to patriarchal ideology of male dominance has been the single most significant risk marker of violence against women. Feminist theory maintains that stronger patriarchal attitudes in a society are linked with higher level of prevalence of male violence against women.⁴⁷ For measuring patriarchal ideology of gender relations, researchers commonly used an accumulative index of multiple dimensions of gender relations like extent of adherence to the conventional ideas about gender inequality, rigid segregation of gender roles, male dominance and condoning violence against women.⁴⁸ Macey (1999)⁴⁹ found significant association of culture, religion and patriarchy or the combination of all the three with male violence against and control on women. Usually all the sub-measures of patriarchal ideology of gender relations are given equal weight as the predictors of violence against women.

45. Gelles, R.J. (1993). Through a Sociological Lens: Social Structure and Family Violence. In R.J. Gelles and D.R. Loseke (eds.), *Current Controversies on Family Violence*. Sage Publications, Newbury Park, CA, pp. 31-46.

46. Koenig, M.A., Stephenson, R., Ahmed, S., Jejeebhoy, S.J., and Campbell, J. (2006), Individual and Contextual Determinants of Domestic Violence in North India, *American Journal of Public Health*, Vol. 96, No. 1, pp. 132-38.

47. Brownridge, D.A. (2002), Cultural Variation in Male Partner Violence Against Women: A Comparison of Quebec with the Rest of Canada, *Violence Against Women*, Vol. 8, No. 1, pp. 87-115.

48. Ali, T.S. and Khan, N. (2007), Strategies and Recommendations for Prevention and Control of Domestic Violence Against Women in Pakistan, *Journal of Pakistan Medical Association*, Vol. 57, No. 1, 27-32.

49. Macey, M. (1999), Religion, Male Violence, and the Control of Women: Pakistani Muslim men in Bradford, UK. *Gender and Development*, Vol. 7, No. 1, pp. 48-55.

Several studies have highlighted importance of the conventional patriarchal ideology as a determinant of violence against women. Mostly, researchers have focused on it as a single construct of male dominance and gender-based discrimination of women. Arguably, conventional patriarchal ideology has multiple context dependent dimensions of gender relations between men and women. For instance, male family members, like father, brother, or even husband may be least concerned with preventing women from getting education and their participation in paid work inside or outside the four walls of their house. But, they may hardly tolerate women's overt challenges to their authority. Men may be least concerned with what women decide to cook and which type of dressing they like for them. But, they may not compromise on letting women to select their marriage partners on their own or purchasing/selling valuables of the households and immovable property without their consent. Perhaps, men's ideas about giving women equal opportunity for getting education and doing jobs, respecting their autonomy, concerns with controlling women's sexuality, and reasons of justifying violence against women are not uniform across the diverse nature of their gender relations with women.

Human security represents an effort to re-conceptualize security in a fundamental manner. It is primarily an analytical tool that focuses on ensuring security for the individual, not the state. Exploring options aimed at mitigating threats to the insecurity of individuals thus becomes a central goal of policy recommendations and actions. In line with the expanded definition of human security, the causes of insecurity are subsequently broadened to include threats to socio-economic and political conditions, food, health, and environmental, community and personal safety. Policy initiatives generated through the application of the human security framework have incorporated considerations far beyond the traditional focus on military force, greatly reducing the emphasis on armies, if not replacing them altogether. Human security is therefore: people-centred, multidimensional and interconnected which can be considered under several main categories, i.e. Economic security; Food security; Health security; Environmental security; Personal security; Community security; and Political security.

An important challenge to conceptualizing human security is how to define the security of women, which is regarded as one of the many perceived threats to human security. This threat is not only brought about by the physical, emotional, and material differences between men and women, but also by the existing social, economic, and

political inequalities that women are subject to. As a result, women and children turn out to be the greatest victims in humanitarian crisis situations such as war, disease, famine and poverty. It is thus pressing to draw up institutional and policy measures that aim at providing social and physical protection for women from such threats to their personal security. However, because past efforts at creating and implementing policies have usually concentrated more on promoting security at the general level, there has been much skepticism on how much these policies have actually contributed to the promotion of security for women and the improvement of their status in society. Therefore, it is also important to conduct research and provide policy plans on human security from a perspective aimed at promoting the rights of women and satisfying their needs.

Present research investigates the interlinkages between human security and patriarchal violence with respect to women in Indian society. From the point of view of indicators suggested by UNDP 2000 which are freedom from fear, want, & discrimination and freedom to improve the quality of life of the people, people empowerment and tolerance for diversity, study explore the relationship between human security and patriarchal violence. Questions/issues raised by the scholars related to human security and patriarchal violence, not only have important policy implications but normative ones also. Therefore present study addresses the gap in terms of theoretical, practical and normative consequence of patriarchal violence on Human Security.

1.3 OBJECTIVES

The main objective of this study is to study the interlinkage between Human Security and Patriarchal Violence. The following are the major objectives of the present study:

1. To analyse the concepts of human security and patriarchal violence.
2. To examine the interlinkages between various dimensions of human security and patriarchal violence from sociological perspective.
3. To prioritise the relevance of the different dimensions of human security with patriarchal violence.
4. To explore the nature of relationship between different aspects of human security and patriarchal violence.

5. To find out the policy implications of human security for removal of patriarchal violence.

1.4 HYPOTHESES

Hypothesis is tentative assumption made in order to draw out and test its logical or empirical consequences. According to Ohab (2010), research questions and hypotheses provide a sound conceptual foundation for a research project.⁵⁰ According to Stuermer (2009), developing research questions and hypotheses is the most important task in your research project as it influences every aspect of your research including; theory to be applied, method to be used, data to be gathered and unit of analysis to be assessed etc.⁵¹ Well thought out research questions provide focus to a researcher and determine what, when, where and how the data will be collected and provide an important link between conceptual and logistic aspects of research project.⁵² They also affect the manner in which tests must be conducted in the analysis of data and indirectly the quality of data which is required for the analysis.

The hypotheses of the present study are:

1. There is close interlinkages between human security and patriarchal violence.
2. Personal and economic securities have strong negative association with patriarchal violence.
3. Political security and food securities have medium association with patriarchal violence.
4. Environment and health security have weak negative association with patriarchal violence.
5. There is relationship between human security and severity of patriarchal violence.
6. Strengthening of human security for women leads to eradication of violence against them.

50. Ohab, J. (2010), How to Defining your Research Questions and Hypotheses, available at <http://science.dodlive.mil/2010/10/04/defining-the-beginning-importance-of-research-questions-hypotheses/>, accessed on 26 Oct 2015.

51. Stuermer, M. (2009), *Basics of Scientific Work-2. Find the gap*, available at [http://www.smi.ethz.ch/education/courses/lectureslides/BOSW_2_ Research Question.pdf](http://www.smi.ethz.ch/education/courses/lectureslides/BOSW_2_Research%20Question.pdf), accessed on 28 Sep. 2015.

52. Ohab, J. (2010), How to Defining your Research Questions and Hypotheses, available at <http://science.dodlive.mil/2010/10/04/defining-the-beginning-importance-of-research-questions-hypotheses/>, accessed on 26 Oct 2015.

1.5 SELECTION OF VARIABLES

(i) DEPENDENT VARIABLES

a. Human Security

Human security is the idea that individual human beings, rather than the sovereign state, should be the referent object of security, and that a wide range of interconnected factors beyond external military attacks constitute threats to human life and dignity.⁵³ Human security though, refers to right of people to live in a safe environment, in term of preventing economic deprivation, achieving a dignified life, ensuring the fundamental human rights, all elements require to state. Besides, it has to do not only with the individual protection regarding violence and fear of violence, but also with food safety, access to housing against poverty. It directs attention to basic priorities such as life, health, and dignity and it considers degree to which ordinary people are able to fulfil these basic priorities.⁵⁴

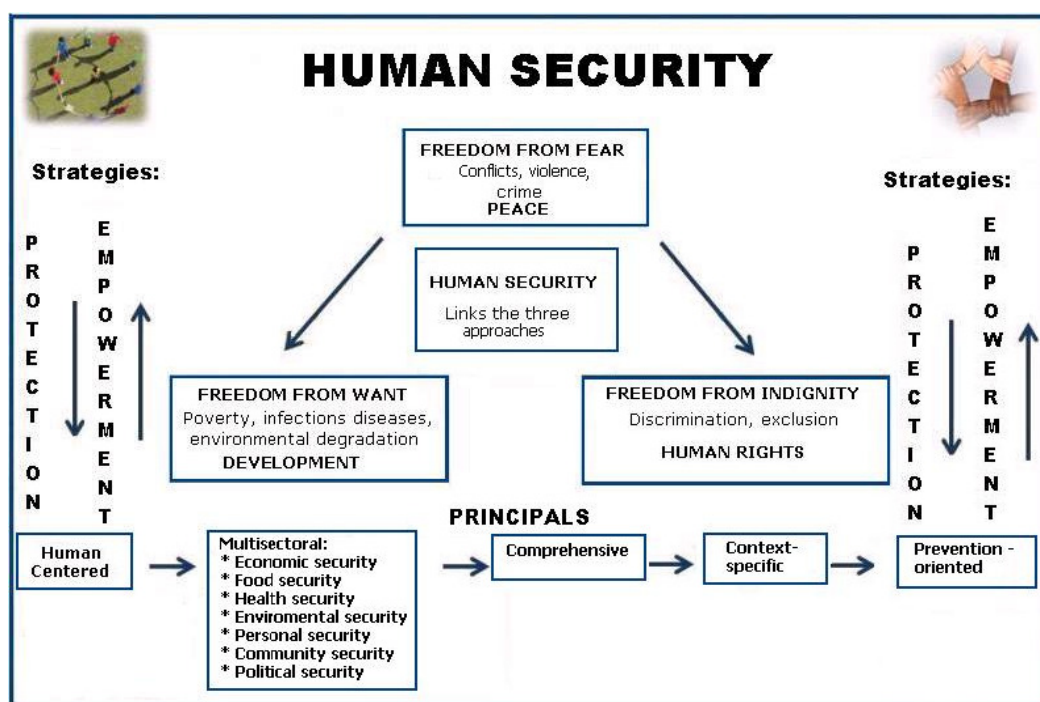


Fig. 1.1 : Concept of Human Security⁵⁵

53. Commission on Human Security (2003), *Human Security Now*, UNO, New York.

54. Murphy, C.N. (2006), *The United Nations Development Programme: A Better Way?* Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, pp. 241-42.

55. Mostafavi, Mehrnaz (2009), Human Security Unit, OCHA at the CMC Finland organized Human Security Training on 21 April, Tuusula, Finland.

Human security is a complex issue to measure and evaluate, and different priorities and values are assigned by different localities. For each of the indicators/dimensions listed below, it is necessary to understand its local relevance, its relation with human security itself, the variables that need to be measured, and the condition that these indicators portray.

1. Economic Security: It includes income, level of income, access to social safety nets, reliability of incomes, sufficiency of incomes, standard of living, employment, share of employed/unemployed, risk of joblessness, protection against unemployment etc.

2. Food Security: Food security includes availability and supply of food, access to basic food, quality of nutrition, share of household budget for food, access to food during Natural/man-made disasters, etc.

3. Environmental Security: It includes availability of pure drinking water, air, prevention of deforestation, land conservation, concern on environmental problems, ability to solve environmental problems, protection from toxic and hazardous wastes, prevention of traffic accidents and related impacts, natural hazard mitigation (droughts, floods, cyclones or earthquakes) etc.

4. Health Security: It includes assessment of the health status, access to safe water, living in a safe environment, security from exposure to illegal drugs, access to housing/shelter from natural elements, accessibility to healthcare systems (physical and economic), accessibility to safe and affordable family planning, quality of medical care, prevention of diseases, basic awareness and knowledge on healthy lifestyles, etc.

5. Personal Security: It includes freedom from fear of violence, prevention of accidents and crimes, security from illegal drugs, prevention of harassment and gender violence, prevention of domestic violence and child abuse, etc.

6. Community Security: It includes freedom from fear of conflicts, conservation of traditional/ethnic cultures, languages and values, abolishment of ethnic discrimination, protection of indigenous people etc.

7. Political Security: It includes level of democratization, protection against state repression (freedom of press, speech, voting etc.), respect of basic human rights and freedom, democratic expectations, abolishment of political detention, imprisonment, systematic torture, ill treatment, disappearance etc.

Therefore, in the present study, human security with its above mentioned 07 indicators/dimensions; i.e. economic security, food Security, environmental security, health Security, personal security, community security, and political security is selected as dependent variable.

b. Patriarchal Violence

Patriarchy does not only subordinate people; it subordinates culture, sexuality, economy and state. Sylvia Walby defines patriarchy as a "system of social structures and practices in which men dominate, oppress and exploit women." It insists that males are inherently dominating, superior to everything and everyone deemed weak, especially females, and endowed with the right to dominate and rule over the weak and to maintain that dominance through various forms of psychological terrorism and violence.

Patriarchal violence is then any kind of violence that creates or maintains men's power and dominance, or avenges the loss of their power. Male dominance seems to be upheld primarily through violent means. These means are on a wide scale from verbal, psychological, economic and physical violence to sexual violence or murder.⁵⁶

Therefore, in the present study patriarchal violence is selected as another dependent variable.

56. HCWG (2006), *Do you know What patriarchal violence is?*, Stop-Male Violence Project, Habeas Corpus Working Group, Budapest, Hungary.

(ii) INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

In the present study, following variables have been selected as independent variables:

a. Geographical background: Patriarchal violence exists everywhere but the extent of it varies between countries and regions. Its expressions vary, depending upon how states protect the human rights of all their citizens, how perpetrators of violence and oppression are prosecuted and/or the existence of impunity.

b. Social and Cultural norms (Position of women in family): Violence against women is shaped by attitudes and social norms, gendered inequalities of power, and a wide variety of other social factors. Violence-supportive attitudes are grounded in wider social norms regarding gender and sexuality. In fact, in many ways, violence is part of 'normal' sexual, intimate, and family relations.⁵⁷ A woman's response to abuse is often limited by the options available to her. Women consistently cite similar reasons for remaining in abusive relationships: fear of retribution, lack of other means of economic support, concern for the children, emotional dependence, lack of support from family and friends, and an abiding hope that "he will change."⁵⁸ At the same time, denial and fear of social stigma often prevent women from reaching out for help. While some cultural norms and practices empower women and promote women's human rights, customs, traditions and religious values are also often used to justify violence against women. Certain cultural norms have long been cited as causal factors for violence against women, including the beliefs associated with "harmful traditional practices" (such as female genital mutilation/cutting, child marriage and son preference), crimes committed in the name of "honour", discriminatory criminal punishments imposed under religiously based laws, and restrictions on women's rights in marriage.

Culture is formed by the values, practices and power relations that are interwoven into the daily lives of individuals and their communities.⁵⁹ Social

57. Flood, M. (2007), Why Violence Against Women and Girls Happens, and How to Prevent it, *Redress*, August, pp. 13-19.

58. Heise, L., Ellsberg, M., Gottemoeller, M. (1999), *Ending Violence Against Women*, Population Information Program, Report Series L, No. 11, School of Public Health, John's Hopkins University, Baltimore.

59. Raday, F. (2003), "Culture, Religion and Gender", *ICON*, vol. 1, No. 4, pp. 663-715.

behaviour is mediated by culture in all societies and culture affects most manifestations of violence everywhere. But the particular relationship between culture and violence against women can only be clarified in specific historical and geographic contexts. Since culture is constantly being shaped and reshaped by processes of material and ideological change at the local and global levels, the capacity to change is essential to the continuation of cultural identities and ideologies.⁶⁰ Culture cannot be reduced to a static, closed set of beliefs and practices. Culture is not homogenous. It incorporates competing and contradictory values. Particular values and norms acquire authority when political, economic and social developments bring their proponents to power or positions of influence. Determinations of what needs to be preserved change over time, as, for example, when male leaders willingly accept technology that massively affects culture, but resist changes in women's status, reflecting a tendency to treat women as the repositories of cultural identity.⁶¹ Women are also actors in constituting culture: they "influence and build the cultures around them, changing them as they resist, and reinforcing and recreating them as they conform".⁶² Key aspects of women's individual identities are interwoven with their cultural communities and their participation in cultural customs and practices. Women not only suffer from negative aspects of the cultures in which they live, they also benefit from and are supported by positive cultural values and practices within their communities.

Violence against women is reinforced by doctrines of privacy and sanctity of the family and by legal codes which link individual family or community honour to women's sexuality. However, the greatest cause of violence against women is government tolerance and inaction. Its most significant consequence is fear, which inhibits women's social and political participation.⁶³

c. Age: There is a strong correlation between patriarchal violence and age. Various surveys of different regions of the world have revealed that most violence against

60. Mama, A., Melber, H. and Nyamnjoh, F.B. (2001), "Concluding Reflections on Beyond Identities: Rethinking Power in Africa", *Identity and Beyond: Rethinking Africanity*, Nordic Africa Institute, Uppsala, p. 30.

61. Milillo, D. (2006), "Rape as a Tactic of War : Social and Psychological Perspectives" *Affilia*, Vol. 21, No. 2, , pp. 196-205.

62. Jolly, S. (2002), *Gender and Cultural Change : Overview Report*, Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex, Brighton, p. 9.

63. Wach, H. and Reeves, H. (2000), *Gender and Development : Facts and Figures. Institute of Development Studies*, University of Sussex, Brighton, UK, pp. 1-46.

women in relationships is committed by men under 40. By contrast, men over 60 are much less likely to be violent towards women. Among young women, rates of violence are higher for those who are not involved in schools or do not experience positive parenting and supervision in their families. In adult couples, social isolation is both a cause and a consequence of wife abuse. Women with strong family and friendship networks experience lower rates of violence. Intimate partner violence is shaped also by communities' levels of poverty, unemployment, and collective efficacy, neighbours' willingness to help other neighbours or to intervene in anti-social or violent behaviour.⁶⁴

d. Caste: The social location of violence suggests that there are several complex and interconnected factors which occur at various social and cultural contexts that have kept women particularly vulnerable to violence. Violence against women in the social structure is supported and reinforced by gender norms and values that put women in subordinate position than men. Although, it cuts across all social categories, religion and education levels, there are still variations by caste, race, geography or region.⁶⁵ The agricultural caste groups in India follow caste endogamy, village and clan exogamy and territorial exogamy while settling marriages. Within the same caste, the Hindus follow the rule of gotra exogamy. The concept of caste honour is usually appropriated by the upper castes in India who do not recognize any honour being possessed by the lower caste groups.⁶⁶ Breach of the caste and community moral norms, family and kinship codes by a woman leads to greater social pressure and protest since it is treated as a direct attack on the patriarchal power and is deemed fit to be crushed, controlled and channelled.⁶⁷

e. Educational Status: Access to education is a fundamental human right. Violation of this primary right will inevitably establish unequal relations in other spheres of life. In many parts of the World, girls have less access to education than boys. Later on, this puts them to a disadvantage in the labour market and influences their access to

64. Flood, M. (2007), Why Violence Against Women and Girls Happens, and How to Prevent it, *Redress*, August, pp. 13-19.

65. Samantroy, E. (2010), Structural Violence and Gender, *Women's Link*, Vol. 16, No. 4, pp. 25-32.

66. Chowdhary, P. (2007), *Contentious Marriages, Eloping Couples: Gender, Caste and Patriarchy in Northern India*, Oxford University Press, New Delhi, p. 19.

67. Vishwanath, J. & Palakonda, S.C. (2011), Patriarchal Ideology of Honour and Honour Crimes in India, *International Journal of Criminal Justice Sciences*, Vol. 6, Issue 1 & 2, pp. 386-395.

ownership of property.⁶⁸ Education of women as well as family member has significant relationship with patriarchal violence. Flood (2007) studied the correlation between violence against among young women and educational status. He found that rates of violence are higher for those who aren't involved in schools or don't experience positive parenting and supervision in their families.⁶⁹

The education framework is one of the most important ways of promoting ideas of human security in society. Human security stands 'on the shoulders of human development with a particular adaptation of its rich vision and perspective, and this applies especially strongly to the critical role of elementary education' (Sen, 2002).⁷⁰ Significant state and private investments in education mean more freedom from fear and want. Primary education for many people is a first step to security, employment, political participation and legal rights.

f. Nature of Family: Family is the basic institution of society. It is considered as sanctuary of tranquillity, peace, and harmony. Like all other social system, family also rests on some degree of force and power which is necessary to control the behaviour of members in the family.

g. Nature of Occupation & Economic Status of respondent and Family: Economic inequalities can be a causal factor for VAW both at the level of individual acts of violence and at the level of broad-based economic trends that create or exacerbate the enabling conditions for such violence.⁷¹ Women's economic inequalities and discrimination against women in areas such as employment, income, access to other economic resources and lack of economic independence reduce women's capacity to act and take decisions, and increase their vulnerability to violence. Rates of reported domestic violence are higher in areas of economic and social disadvantage. Members of disadvantaged communities may learn a greater tolerance of violence through

68. HCWG (2006), *Do you know What patriarchal violence is?*, Stop-Male Violence Project, Habeas Corpus Working Group, Budapest, Hungary.

69. Flood, M. (2007), *Background Document for Preventing Violence Before It Occurs: A Framework and Background Paper to Guide the Primary Prevention of Violence Against Women in Victoria*, Victorian Health Promotion Foundation, Melbourne, p. 12.

70. Sen, A. (2002), *Basic Education and Human Security*. Background paper for 'Basic Education and Human Security' workshop, jointly organized by the Commission on Human Security, UNICEF, the Pratiche (India) Trust, and Harvard University, 2-4 January, Kolkata.

71. Merry, S. E. (2003), "Constructing a Global Law? Violence against Women and the Human Rights System", *Law and Social Inquiry*, Vol. 28.

exposure to violence by their parents, delinquent peers, and others.⁷² According to Villarreal (2000), access to productive resources such as land, credit, technical know-how, knowledge, technology transfer is strongly determined along gender lines, with men frequently having more access to all these resources than women.⁷³

In the present study, geographical background (as rural & urban disparities), social and cultural norms (as position of women in family), age, caste, educational status, nature of family, nature of occupation & economic status of respondent, and nature of occupation & economic status of family are selected as independent variables. Therefore, the present study attempts to examine/investigate any variation in the status of dependent variables (patriarchal violence and various dimensions of human security) with respect to these independent variables, as well as association between dependent variables, if any.

1.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The word research describes a careful, systematic, patient study and investigation in some field of knowledge, undertaken to establish facts or principles. Research in common parlance refers to a search for knowledge. In fact, research is an art of scientific investigation. According to Walliman (2005)⁷⁴, research is not just about gathering facts without purpose, or presenting information or data without interpretation. Rather, research is something which is undertaken to find out things in a systematic manner where data is collected and interpreted systematically and there is a clear purpose guiding the enquiry.⁷⁵ It involves series of well-planned and carefully executed activities to find solutions to research problems.⁷⁶

Research methodology is a way to systematically solve the research problem. It may be understood as a science of studying how research is done scientifically. In it we study the various steps that are generally adopted by a researcher in studying his

72. Flood, M. and Pease, B. (2006), *The Factors Influencing Community Attitudes in Relation to Violence Against Women : A Critical Review of the Literature*, Victorian Health Promotion Foundation, Melbourne.

73. Villarreal, M. (2000). *A Gender Perspective on the Impact of HIV/AIDS on Food Security and Labour Supply : Leadership Challenge*, Production Programme Service, FAO, Rome

74. Walliman, N. (2005), *Your Research Project : A Step by Step Guide for the First-Time Researcher* (2nd edition), Sage, London.

75. Saunders, M., Lewis P., & Thornhill, A. (2009), *Research Methods for Business Students* (5th edition), Prentice Hall, New Jersey.

76. Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R. (2010), *Research Methods for Business: A Skill Building Approach* (5th edition), John Wiley and Sons, New Jersey.

research problem along with the logic behind them. According to Lundberg (1951)⁷⁷, scientific method consists of three basic steps: systematic observation, classification and interpretation of data. Through these steps, scientific method brings about not only verifiability of the facts, but also it lays the confidence in the validity of conclusions. Scientific method is the pursuit of truth as determined by logical considerations. In scientific method, logic aids in formulating propositions explicitly and accurately so that their possible alternatives become clear. Further, logic develops the consequences of such alternatives, and when these are compared with observable phenomena, it becomes possible for the researcher or the scientist to state which alternative is most in harmony with the observed facts. All this is done through experimentation and survey investigations which constitute the integral parts of scientific method.

1.7 NATURE OF THE STUDY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

A Research design is the logical and systematic planning and directing outline of a piece of research.⁷⁸ "It is the process of making decisions before the situation arises in which the decision is to be carried out. It is process of deliberate anticipation directed towards bringing as expected situation under control."⁷⁹ The statement of the problem, research questions and research objectives call for a specific research design.⁸⁰ Research design addresses important issues relating to a research project such as purpose of study, location of study, type of investigation, extent of researcher interference, time horizon and the unit of analysis.⁸¹ According to Kerlinger and Lee (2000), "Research design is the plan, structure and strategy of investigation conceived so as to obtain answers to research questions and control variance".⁸²

Cross-sectional descriptive research design is adopted in present study. To fulfil the objectives of the study in depth investigation is required. Therefore

77. Lundberg, G.A. (1951), *Social Research*, Longmans Green & Co., New York.

78. Young, P.V. (1960), *Scientific Social Surveys and Research*, Asia Publishing House, Bombay, P. 131.

79. Acoff, R.L. (1953), *The Design of Social Research*, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, p. 5.

80. Saunders, M., Lewis P., & Thornhill, A. (2009), *Research Methods for Business Students* (5th edition), Prentice Hall, New Jersey.

81. Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R. (2010), *Research Methods for Business: A Skill Building Approach* (5th edition), John Wiley and Sons, New Jersey.

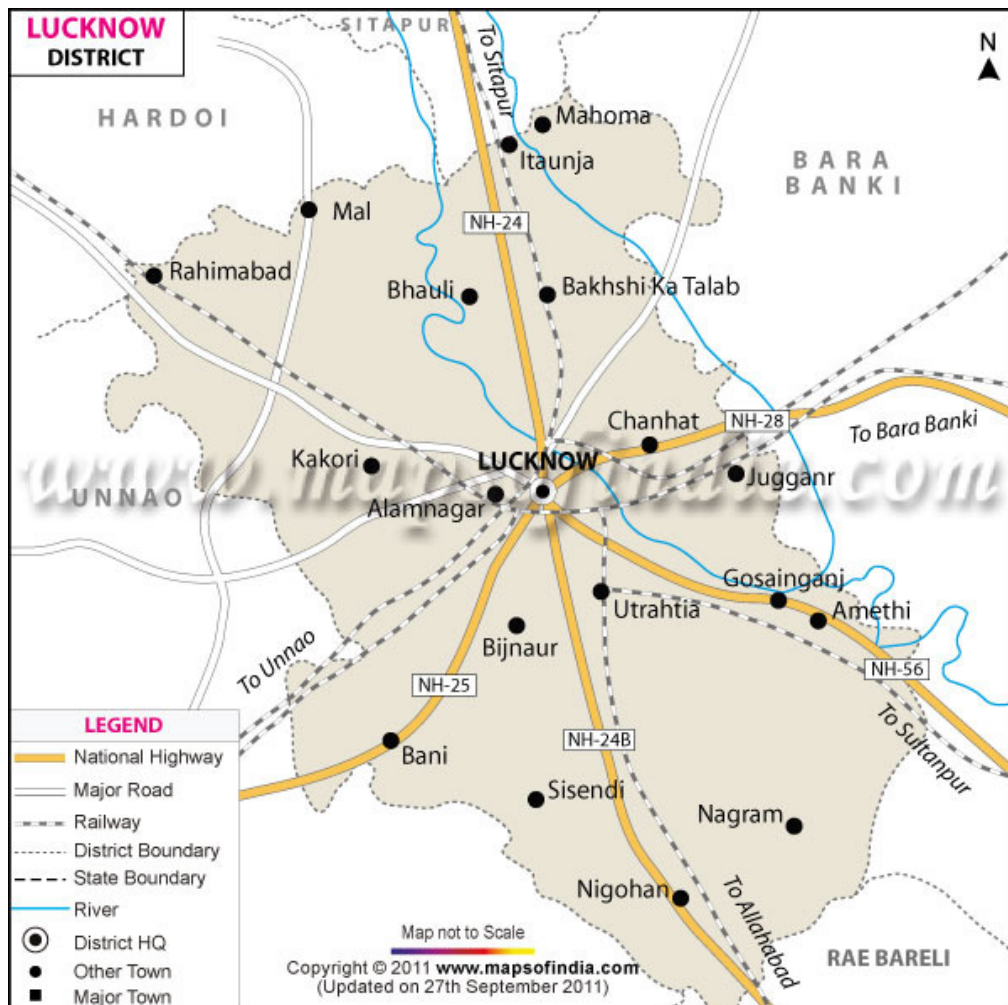
82. Kerlinger, F. & Lee, H. (2000), *Foundations of Behavioral Research*, International Thomson Publishing, New York, p. 300.

extensive interviews are taken into account to maintain the objectivity of the study. The method adopted to carry out the present work is mainly quantitative in nature.

1.8 AREA OF STUDY

Research area, population and study material are the main components of any research study. District Lucknow is purposively selected as research area of the present study.

District Lucknow: Covering an area of 2528 sq. km, Uttar Pradesh's capital city Lucknow encompasses the stretch ranging from 26°30' to 27°10' North latitude and 80°30' to 81°13' East longitude. Nestled on the banks of the Gomti River, Lucknow is flanked by Barabanki District on the east, Unnao on the west, Raebareli on the south and Sitapur and Hardoi districts on the north, respectively.



Source: <http://www.mapsofindia.com/maps/uttarpradesh/districts/lucknow.htm>

Fig. 1.2 : District Lucknow

As per Census Report 2011 population of district Lucknow was 45,89,838, with 23,94,476 male and 21,95,362 female. The total population of urban area was 30,38,996, in which 15,80,724 male and 14,58,272 female. The Rural population was 15,50,842, which include 81,3,752 male and 7,37,090 female. The number of households in urban area were 5,77,510 and 2,83,193 in rural area with total households residing were 8,60,703. Decadal growth of district was 25.79% and population density was 1815 per sq km. The sex ratio of district was 906.⁸³

Awadh, known as the granary of India, was important strategically for the control of the fertile plain between the Ganges and the Yamuna rivers known as the Doab. Situated in the heart of the great Gangetic plain, Lucknow city is surrounded by its rural towns and villages like the orchard town of Malihabad, historic Kakori, Mohanlal ganj, Gosainganj, Chinhat, Itaunja. On its eastern side lies Barabanki District, on the western side is Unnao District, on the southern side Raebareli District, and on the northern side the Sitapur and Hardoi districts. The Gomti River, the chief geographical feature, meanders through the city, dividing it into the Trans-Gomti and Cis-Gomti regions. Lucknow city is located in the seismic zone III.

Lucknow has a warm humid subtropical climate with cool, dry winters from December to February and dry, hot summers from April to June. The rainy season is from mid-June to mid-September, when Lucknow gets an average rainfall of 896.2 millimeters (35.28 in) from the south-west monsoon winds, and occasionally frontal rainfall will occur in January. In winter the maximum temperature is around 25 °C (77° F) and the minimum is in the 2 to 3 degrees Celsius range. Fog is quite common from late December to late January. Summers are extremely hot with temperatures rising to the 40 to 45 degree Celsius range.⁸⁴

For administrative point of view, district is divided into 04 sub-districts, namely Malihabad, Bakshi Ka Talab, Lucknow and Mohanlalganj (On July 21, 2015, the Government of Uttar Pradesh decided to create Sarojininagar as the new Sub-district.)⁸⁵ and 08 Blocks namely Malihabad, Bakshi Ka Talab, Kakori, Chinhat, Maal, Sarojininagar, Gosaiganj and Mohanlalganj.

83. Census report (2011), Office of Registrar General and Census Commissioner, Ministry of Home, Government of India, New Delhi.

84. Brief Industrial Profile of District Lucknow, MSME-Development Institute, Ministry of MSME, Govt. of India, New Delhi, pp. 5-6.

85. <http://www.uniindia.com/news/regional/lucknow-s-sarojininagar-has-been-named-as-new-tehsil/135725.html#8p75rRGyh3erG1FM.99>, accessed on 17 Nov. 2015.

1.9 SOURCES OF DATA

The data to be collected may be primary or secondary or both.⁸⁶ Primary as well as secondary data sources are used in present study. Primary data constitute the information gathered from respondents, whereas secondary data consist of information gathered from available literature related to subject under study, which includes annual report of various government departments, periodicals, Research journals, health policy documents, statistical abstracts of India and international organisations etc.

1.10 TOOLS AND METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION

There are several ways of collecting the appropriate data which differ considerably in context of money costs, time and other resources at the disposal of the researcher. In a research study, the data can be collected through surveys, observation or experiments.⁸⁷ According to Simons (2006)⁸⁸, data may be gathered through direct observations, face to face interview or by mail, telephone or through the internet.

In the present study, data were collected by using interview and observation method of data collection. Interview schedule is used as tool of data collection.

Interview schedule is a form containing some questions or blank tables, which are to be filled by the researchers after getting information from informants. The basic purpose of the schedule is to provide a standardized tool for observation or interview in order to attain objectively and facilitate classification and tabulation. Semi-structured standardized interview schedule proforma is considered suitable for present study. Semi-structured interview schedule, according to Bernard (1988)⁸⁹, is best to use when you won't get penalty of chances. The semi-structured interview schedule provides a clear set of instructions for interviewers and can provide reliable, comparable quantitative data. In such proforma, identical questions with same wording and in the same order are presented to all respondents. This format of

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86. Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R. (2010), *Research Methods for Business: A Skill Building Approach* (5th edition), John Wiley and Sons, New Jersey.
 87. Cooper, D.R., & Schindler, P.S. (2003), *Business Research Methods* (8th edition), McGraw-Hill, New York.
 88. Simon, M. (2006), *Dissertation and Scholarly Research : Recipes for Success*, Kendall-Hunt publishing, Dubuque, IA.
 89. Bernard, H.R. (Ed.) (1988), *Person-centered Interviewing and Observation*, AltaMira Press, Walnut Creek, CA.

interview schedule, as per Young (1967)⁹⁰ and Selltiz (1966)⁹¹, ensures that all respondents are replying to the same question as the difference in questions or their order can influence the meaning and implications of a given question. The standardized interview schedule proforma ensures some uniformity in recording responses.

Interview Schedule is constructed by consulting various scales/inventory/questionnaires prepared by scholars including Relational Dimensions Instrument (Fitzpatrick, 1988⁹²), Sex Role Orientation scale (Brogan and Kutner, 1976⁹³), Revised Conflict Tactics Scale (Straus et al., 1996⁹⁴), decision-making ability (Agarwal & Lynch, 2006⁹⁵; Niraula & Morgan, 1996⁹⁶), Level of agreement to patriarchal, situational (Johnson, 1995⁹⁷; Kelly & Johnson, 2008⁹⁸), family honor motivated reasons (Jilani & Ahmed, 2004⁹⁹) etc. Through the preliminary interview schedule, views of respondents were solicited on the content and meaning of each question in the interview schedule. This exercise was conducted to ascertain that respondents understood the questions and that none of the important questions had been left out.

Preliminary interview schedule included questions on existence of patriarchal violence, various socio-cultural causes of patriarchal violence against woman within family as well as society and various aspects of selected areas of human security. Details regarding respondents' age, religion, caste, educational qualification,

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90. Young, P.V. (1967), *Scientific Social Survey and Research*, Prentice Hall, New Jersey, pp. 41-47.
 91. Selltiz, J. (1963), *Research Method in Social Relations*, Hold and Rinehart, New York, p. 50.
 92. Fitzpatrick, M.A. (1988), *Between husbands & wives: Communication in Marriage*, Sage Publications, London.
 93. Brogan, D. and Kutner, N.G. (1976), Measuring sex-role orientation: A Normative Approach, *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, February, pp. 31-40.
 94. Straus, M.A., Hamby, S.L., Boney, M.S., and Sugarman, D.B. (1996), The revised Conflict Tactics Scales. *Journal of Family Issues*, Vol. 17, pp. 283-316.
 95. Agarwal, R. and Lynch, S.M. (2006), Refining the measurement of Women's Autonomy: An International Application of A Multidimensional Construct. *Social Forces*, Vol. 84, pp. 2077-2099.
 96. Niraula, B., and Morgan, S.P. (1996), Marriage formation, post-marital contact with natal kin and autonomy of women: Evidence from two Nepali settings, *Population Studies*, Vol. 50, pp. 35-50.
 97. Johnson, M.P. (1995), Patriarchal Terrorism and Common Couple Violence: Two Forms of Violence Against Women. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 57(2), 283-294.
 98. Kelly, J. B. and Johnson, M. P. (2008). Differentiation among types of Intimate Partner Violence: Research Update and Implications for Interventions. *Family Court Review*, Vol. 46, No. 3, pp. 476-499.
 99. Jilani, H., and Ahmed, E.M. (2004), Violence Against Women: The Legal System and Institutional Responses in Pakistan. In Savitri Goonesekere (Ed.), *Violence, Law and Women's Rights in South Asia*, Sage Publications, New Delhi, pp.148-206.

occupation of self and family, monthly income of self and family, ancestral place, education of family members, nature of family and basic facilities available in home were also included. The final draft of the interview schedule emerged only after the preliminary interview schedule was tested with the help of pre-testing survey. Many questions had to be added and/or deleted on the basis of our experience during pre-testing. A copy of the final Interview Schedule used for the study is given as the appendix available in Section-1 of the thesis.

Check type close ended questions were formulated as respondents find such questions understandable and easy to answer. Most of the questions were formed with 05-point Likert scale having five answers for each question.

Interview schedule comprises 10 parts. Each part consists of questions on different aspects of the study. Details of interview schedule are as follows:

Part-I. Background Information- Part-I of interview schedule aims to gather detailed information on personal and family background of the respondents. Questions included in this part are related to respondent's age, marital status, religion, caste, educational qualification, occupation, monthly income, Geographical background of family, place of present stay, structure of housing, basic amenities/facilities available in house/family and basic information of family members .

Part-II. Status of socio-cultural norms - This part is completely devoted to determine the prevailing status of socio-cultural norms in respondent's family and concerned society. A set of objective type questions were framed to measure the position of women in family. Code numbers were devised for five different levels of status. This part has 13 questions, related to position of woman in family and nature of social norms.

PART- III. Violence Against Women- This part of interview schedule aims to obtain detailed information regarding prevalence, nature and intensity of violence against women. This part contains 11 questions pertaining to prevalence, nature, intensity, persons involved and factors responsible for violence.

PART- IV. Status of Personal Security- This part of interview schedule aims to assess efficiency of government policies and law & order functionaries to provide personal security to women as well as also to measure the level of satisfaction from it. This part contains 16 questions pertaining to prevalence and fear from occurrence of violence, tension between religious & social groups, satisfaction from present social-law & order situation, working of police, administration and judicial functionaries.

PART- V. Status of Food Security- This part of interview schedule aims to measure the status of food security. This part contains 12 questions pertaining to availability and supply of food, Access to basic food, Quality of nutrition, Share of household budget for food, access to food during Natural/man-made disasters, discrimination in distribution, etc.

PART- VI. Status of Community Security- This part of interview schedule aims to measure the status of community security. This part contains 9 questions pertaining to fear of conflicts, conservation of traditional/ethnic cultures, ethnic discrimination, discrimination in society, social activeness, respect and decision-making power in society, etc.

PART- VII. Status of Health Security- This part of interview schedule aims to measure the status of health security. This part contains 24 questions aims to assess the status of women health, access to safe water, living in a safe environment, access to housing/shelter from natural elements, accessibility to healthcare systems (physical and economic), accessibility to safe and affordable family planning, quality of medical care, prevention of diseases, health trends, basic awareness and knowledge on healthy lifestyles, etc.

PART- VIII. Status of Economic Security- This part of interview schedule aims to measure the status of economic security. This part contains 25 questions aim to assess the economic status of women and family, access to economic safety nets, freedom of choice in selecting occupation, reliability of incomes, sufficiency of incomes, standard of living, employment. Share of employed/unemployed, risk of joblessness, protection against unemployment, etc.

PART- IX. Status of Political Security- This part of interview schedule aims to measure the status of political security provided to women. This part contains 16 questions included to assess the status of freedom of speech, voting, choice political thoughts, democratic expectations, participation in political activities, present political situation, and opportunity for women, needs of protection from political exploitation, etc.

PART- X. Status of Environmental Security- This part of interview schedule aims to measure the status of political security provided to women. This part contains 20 questions related to assessment of air, water and environment pollution, prevention of deforestation, land conservation and desertification, concern on environmental problems, ability to solve environmental problems, protection from toxic and

hazardous wastes, prevention of traffic accidents and related impacts, natural hazard mitigation (droughts, floods, cyclones or earthquakes), etc.

PILOT SURVEY:

One of the important aspects of instrument development is checking for its validity and reliability through pilot testing.¹⁰⁰ In the present study, a pilot survey was conducted in first half of April 2015 at selected study area and the interview schedule was administered on 10% of respondents to test validity and reliability, explicitness, ease of understanding, and appropriateness of interview Schedule. On the basis of the experience in the pilot survey, interview schedule was revised and re-drafted.

This pilot survey also furnished information regarding physical state of sample frame.

FINAL SURVEY:

Any investigation in the area of attitude and behavioural investigation is beset with number of formidable problems. This is particularly so, where the research is being conducted by an individual. The time and financial constraints do not permit the researchers the luxury of field staff. Seeking cooperation from unknown group of respondents during field survey is a difficult and challenging job. Most of the respondents try to avoid any field investigator on one excuse or the other. They do often did not agree to cooperate even with investigators appointed by the government and given the authority to conduct the survey. A doctoral scholar has to seek the cooperation on his own. It was an uphill task to seek an interview with the people of various fields and areas.

Field survey was conducted to collect primary data from the study area through direct personal interview with the help of the pre-tested interview schedule. For that, Researcher had met with each and every selected respondent requesting them to co-operate by giving time for interview in given time schedule. But, some of the selected respondents could not be contacted or refused to participate after several attempts and requests. These respondents were excluded/replaced as per inclusion/exclusion criteria and survey was completed for all respondents contacted and accepted participation.

100. Saunders, M., Lewis P., & Thornhill, A. (2009), *Research Methods for Business Students* (5th edition), Prentice Hall, New Jersey.

The final survey work was completed in four months period of August 2015 to November 2015. On completion of survey, final list has 389 respondents (197 from rural area and 192 from urban area).

1.11 PROCESSING OF DATA

Data collected should be accurate, complete and suitable for further analysis.¹⁰¹ After collection of data, data are processed in accordance with the outline laid down for the purposes at the time of developing the research plan. Processing operations basically implied editing, coding and classification of data obtained.

(a) Editing: Editing of data is a process of examining raw data to detect errors and omissions and to correct these when possible. It involves a close scrutiny of the completed schedules to assure the data are accurate, consistent and other facts gathered, uniformity entered, complete and have been well organized to facilitate coding and tabulation.

(b) Coding: Coding refers to the process of assigning numerals or other symbols to answers so that responses are put into limited number of categories or classes. It should possess exhaustiveness and exclusivity, which means specific answers, can be placed in one cell. It is also uni-dimensional as one class is defined in terms of only one concept.

(c) Classification: Classification refers to arrangement of data into homogenous groups on the basis of common characteristics for the purpose of obtaining meaningful relationships. Data obtained can be grouped into classes or groups.

(d) Tabulation: When a mass of data has been assembled, it becomes necessary to arrange it in a concise and logical order. This procedure is referred as tabulation. Tabulation helps in summarizing raw data and displaying it in a compact for further analysis in order to facilitate comparison, detect errors and omissions, and provide a basis for statistical computation.

1.12 ANALYSIS OF DATA

After the data were collected and tabulated, they were analyzed both logically and statistically. Logical analysis of data was necessary to build an intellectual edifice

101. Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R. (2010), *Research Methods for Business: A Skill Building Approach* (5th edition), John Wiley and Sons, New Jersey.

in properly sorted and sifted observations and facts locate their true meaning. Statistical analysis used for summarizing the available data to make it more intelligible. It helped in establishing association between variables, drawing inferences from a given set of data in form of generalizations and in the testing of the reliability of results. The variations in responses are revealed by statistically organizing the data in terms of frequency distribution and percentage distribution. Various statistical tools like Percentages, Average, Chi-square test, t-test, correlation coefficient, correlation matrix and multiple regression are employed. Suitable graphs are used to get the some interrelation etc.

1.13 SAMPLE PLAN

The foremost objective of quantitative research is to generalize. In every quantitative research, it may not be possible for the researcher to study the whole population of interest. To get information about population of interest and to draw inferences about the population, researchers use sample which is a subgroup of the population.¹⁰² With a good sample plan, researchers save lot of time and money, get more detailed information, and they are able to get information which may not be available otherwise.¹⁰³ To formulate a well explained sample plan researcher must define population frame, scientifically calculated sample size, sampling technique(s) and sub-groups/clusters of population, if required. Although there are number of sampling methods to use but the choice of right method is dictated by the nature of study and the specific research questions and hypotheses.

As, the area of universe in present study, the entire area of district Lucknow is too wide which comprises 04 sub-district, 08 blocks, 799 villages and 8,60,703 households constituting in them with total population of 45,89,838, (23,94,476 male and 21,95,362 female), a census survey will not be feasible. Thus, sampling technique is adopted for selecting a representative sample of all constituents of universe.

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102. Lind, D.A., Marchal, W.G., & Wathen, S.A. (2008), *Statistical Techniques in Business & Economics* (13th edition), McGraw-Hill, New York.
103. Bluman, A.G. (2009), *Elementary Statistics : A step by step approach*, (7th edition), McGraw-Hill, New York.

Determination of Sample Size

Sample size is determined by using Cochran (1963)¹⁰⁴ formula:

$$n_0 = \frac{Z^2 pq}{e^2}$$

where n_0 is the sample size, Z is the desired confidence level (The value for Z is found in Z-score table), e is the desired level of precision, p is the estimated proportion of an attribute that is present in the population (variability), and q is $1 - p$.

Calculation of Sample size for proposed study having too large population:

Confidence level (Z) = 95% (1.96 from Z-score table)

Level of precision (e) = 5% (0.05)

Variability (p) = 0.5 (Maximum variability)

Estimated variable (q) = $1 - 0.5$ (0.5)

By putting above values in Cochran formula

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Sample size} &= [(1.96)^2 \times \{0.5 \times (1 - 0.5)\}] / (0.05)^2 \\ &= (3.8416 \times 0.25) / 0.0025 \\ &= 384 \end{aligned}$$

10% of calculated sample size is increased, as many scholars (Salkind, 1997¹⁰⁵; Fink, 1995¹⁰⁶; Cochran, 1963¹⁰⁷ etc.) has opined that Practical sample size must be 10-15% more of theoretical sample size to eliminate the any effect of factors which may reduce the sample size, (e.g. not able to contact any adult female member of household on several attempt or unwilling to participate or household does not consists of any adult female member etc.) **So, the theoretical sample size of present study is set to 422.**

To select the study area and respondents for present study, following sampling plan is used:

1. District Lucknow is divided into 08 blocks and city area, may have difference in socio-cultural indicators and human development index due to proximity to Lucknow city. As many scholars (Sorokin and Zimmerman, 1929¹⁰⁸; Wirth, 1938¹⁰⁹; Srinivas, 1956¹¹⁰, Theodorson and Theodorson, 1979¹¹¹, Salou,

104. Cochran, W.G. (1963), *Sampling Techniques*, John Wiley and Sons, Inc., New York, p. 75.

105. Salkind, N.J. (1997), *Exploring Research* (3rd ed.), Prentice Hall, New Jersey, p. 107.

106. Fink, A. (1995), *The Survey Handbook*, Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, CA, p. 36.

107. Cochran, W.G. (1963), *Sampling Techniques*, John Wiley and Sons, Inc., New York, p. 396.

108. Sorokin, P.A. and Zimmerman, C.C. (1929), *Principles of Rural-urban Sociology*, Holt, New York.

109. Wirth, L. (1938), Urbanism As a Way of Life, *The American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. 44, No. 1, July, pp. 1-24.

110. Srinivas, M.N. (1956), *Social Changes in Modern India*, Alied Publishers, Bombay.

111. Theodorson, G.A. and Theodorson, A.C. (1979), *A Modern Dictionary of Sociology*, Barnes and Noble Books, New York.

1985¹¹² etc.) have shown significant difference in development and social structure in rural and urban areas, equal representation is given to rural and urban area. For this, Area under Lucknow municipal corporation (LMC) is selected as urban area and Maal block as rural area are purposively selected.

2. LMC has 06 zones and 110 wards. 02 zones namely zone-2 and zone-3 are randomly selected using simple random sampling method and 02 Wards from each selected zones namely Yahiyaganj & Aishbagh from Zone-2 and Daliganj & Aliganj from Zone-3 were also selected by using simple random sampling method. 53 households (Total 212 households) from each selected wards were randomly selected using latest voter-list (General election 2014) and one adult female member from each household is selected as respondent.
3. Maal block has 87 villages. 04 villages namely Atari, Bhanpur, Patauna & Narayanpur from these 87 villages are selected through simple random sampling method and 53 households from each selected village (Total 212 households) are selected through systematic random sampling method by using latest Voter-list.
4. One adult female member from each selected households (424 households) is selected as respondent.

Criteria for inclusion and exclusion

If researcher/surveyor is not able to contact any adult female member of household on several attempts or unwilling to participate or does not consist of any adult female member or household is female-headed, than that household is excluded.

1.14 SIGNIFICANCE

The present study seeks to examine the interlinkages between human security and patriarchal violence, which is not easy to find in the available literature in this area. The study would contribute to establish gender just society. It would also help to eradicate patriarchal violence from the society and it would also help in amplifying the awareness of the society about magnitude of patriarchal violence and its implications on human security. Therefore, this study would be significant and it would also add to the academia.

112. Salou, A.T. (1985), *Quality of Life and City Size : An Exploratory Study of Nizeria*, Socail Indicators Research, Vol. 18, pp. 193-203.

1.15 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

Informed verbal rather than written consent was taken from the study participants because the reluctance to sign paper formats was reported amongst participants in many studies. Any compulsion for written consent would have biased the data and affected its quality. The interviews were conducted at the residence of the participants as to ensure their comfort and confidentiality. The time spent in rapport building with participants prior to the interviews and informing them about steps that will be taken to protect their identity and confidentiality as well as ensured their comfort in sharing information during interviews. The names of participants and their address are not mentioned in this study to ensure this confidentiality. The individual participants were coded and their responses were grouped to ensure confidentiality.

1.16 PREPARATION OF THE REPORT

After collection of data, the researcher had analysed the data by doing a number of closely related operations to find out the results of study and formulated the conclusion. On the basis of results, researcher has also formulated some useful suggestions and scope for policy implication. Researcher has prepared the report with great care keeping in view the prescribed layout of the thesis.

1.17 LIMITATION

1. Study is limited to Lucknow district of Uttar Pradesh only
2. Sampling method is used to select respondents.
3. Only 07 indicators of human security have been taken in the study.
4. Only adult female are selected as respondents.

1.18 CHAPTER PLAN

The study is organised in seven chapters. List of referred books, reports, journals and magazines is given at the end as per alphabetical order.

The first chapter deals with **Introduction** which comprises background to the study including the concepts of human security, patriarchal violence as well as their linkages. Need of Study, its objectives, hypotheses, selection of variables, significance and limitations are also described in this chapter. This chapter also provides details about research methodology, including nature and research Design,

area of study, sample Plan, tools and methods of data collection and statistical tools which were used to analyse the data.

The second chapter entitled **Review of Literature and Conceptual Framework** provides a review of theories and existing literature about the subject matter, research gap and Conceptual Framework.

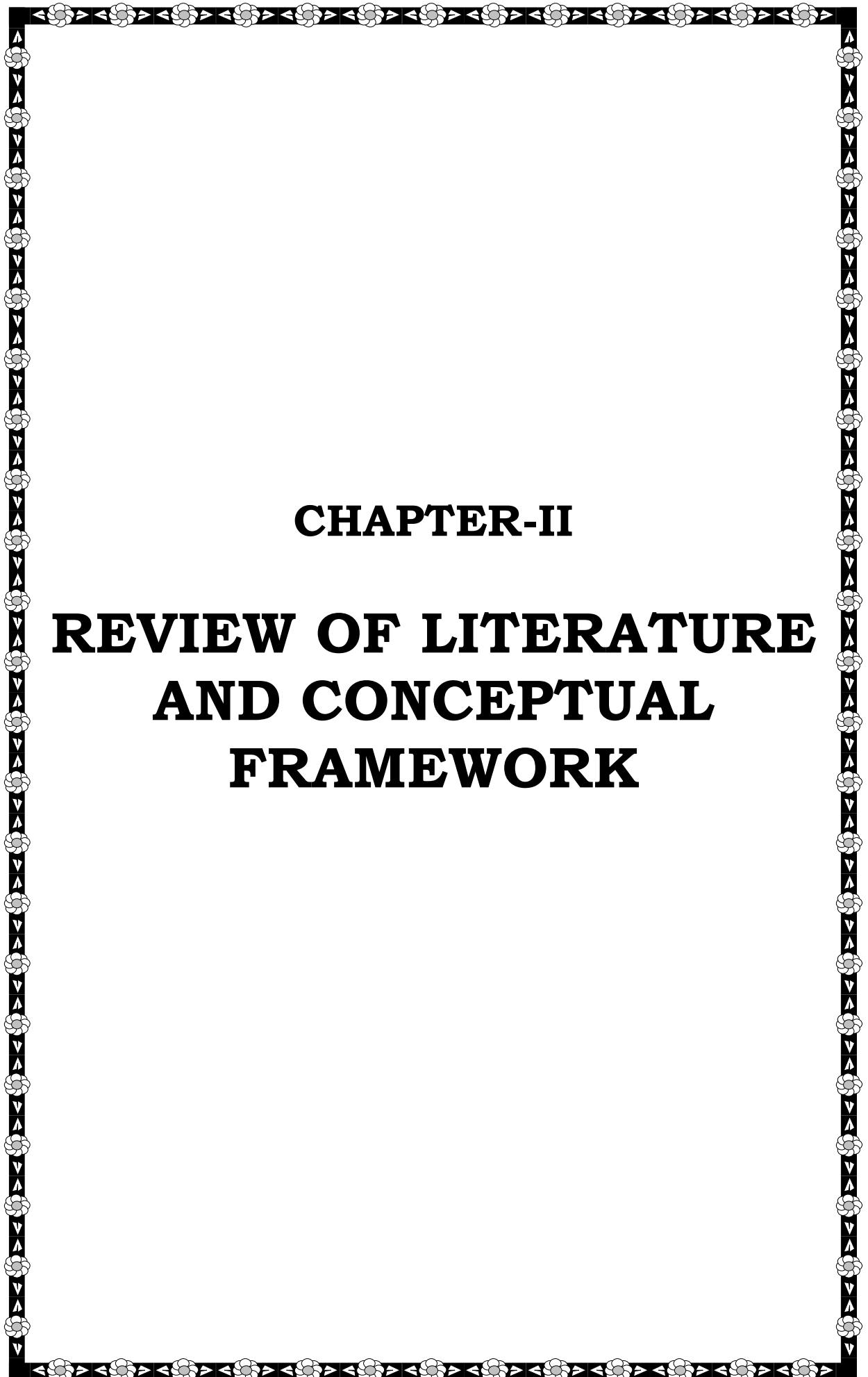
The third chapter entitled **Human Security and Patriarchal Violence: A Conceptual Analysis** deals with prevalence of patriarchal violence in India, its linkages with prevailing socio-cultural structure of society, essential elements of human security, government policies and measure taken to ensure human security and prevent patriarchal violence. It also discusses linkages between various elements/indicators of human security and patriarchal violence and priorities in terms of preventing violence against women and to ensure their well being.

In fourth chapter entitled **Profile of Respondents**, analysis of data related to various demographic indicators of respondents e.g. age, religion, caste, education, nature of family, number of members in family, main occupation and income of the family and facilities available in their house, has been presented.

The fifth chapter of the thesis provides details about **Prevalence of Patriarchal Violence and Status of Human Security in Indian Society: An Empirical Analysis**, which include analysis of information related to status of various elements of human security and patriarchal violence and relation between socio-economic dimensions and various dimensions of human security and Patriarchal Violence.

Chapter Six entitled **Establishing Interlinkages between Human Security and Patriarchal Violence on the Basis of Empirico-Statistical Analysis** provides details about analysis of data to examine correlation and association between various elements of human security and patriarchal violence and to prioritise the relevance of the different dimensions of human security with patriarchal violence.

Finally, chapter seven entitled **Summary and Conclusion** provides summary of study, result, comparison of the findings of present and previous studies. This chapter also provides some useful suggestions based on conclusions and policy implications.



CHAPTER-II

**REVIEW OF LITERATURE
AND CONCEPTUAL
FRAMEWORK**

Chapter-II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The term 'patriarchy' refers to the system of male domination over women in society. Patriarchy in its wider definition means the manifestation and institutionalization of male dominance over women and children in the family and in society as well. It includes the mechanisms, ideologies and social structures which have facilitated men to gain and maintain their dominance and control over women. It is a system for maintaining class, gender, racial, and heterosexual privilege and the status quo of power relying both on crude forms of oppression, like violence; and subtle ones, like laws; to perpetuate inequality. Patriarchal beliefs of male, heterosexual dominance lie at the root of gender-based violence.¹

A human security approach attempted to transform traditional notions of security, framed in terms of national and regional stability and the stability of political and economic systems, and to focus on human beings. This meant that the primary threats to be dealt with were no longer the exclusive domain of military forces.² Human security as public good constitutes a responsibility for the state, but there is a complementary duty for the people themselves to become engaged in the process. As the *Human Security Now* report puts it, "achieving Human Security includes not just protecting people but also empowering people to fend for themselves".³ Human security is thus not simply the challenge of "protecting" and "providing" but involves fostering the empowerment of the people and their participation. If the state is to be entrusted with the responsibility to provide public goods, people have to play an active role in order to be in a position to hold it accountable. People are not passive recipients of "security", or victims of its absence, but active subjects who can contribute directly to identifying and implementing solutions to security problems.

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1. Madhavi, A.R. & Lalitha, K. (2016), Women in Patriarchal Society, Journal for Advanced Research in Humanities : A Peer Reviewed International Research Journal, available at <http://www.jarh.sspublications.co.in/v1/JARH%207.pdf>, accessed on 16 Feb. 2016.
 2. Tadjbakhsh, S.(2005), Human Security: Concepts and Implications with an Application to Post-Intervention Challenges in Afghanistan, *Les Etudes du CERI*, No. 117-118, Sept.
 3. CHS (2003), *Human Security Now*, Report of the Commission, Commission on Human Security, New York.

Security cannot be compared to material goods that can be imported from the outside; it is a shared public good which involves subjective feelings and which requires people to formulate requests and demands, and to be prepared to make effective use of what they are granted.

Due to the widespread nature of the threats, the range of actors dealing with human security is much greater. Apart from the state, which still plays its important security role, a broad set of regional, international and nongovernmental organisations are considered to be involved in managing security issues. The concept pays attention both to the protection of people from the aforementioned threats and to empowerment, being concerned both with safeguarding and expanding people's vital freedom. Protecting people from critical and pervasive threats is of the same salience as empowering them to take charge of their own lives.⁴ Human security does not seek to displace state security, but rather to complement it. 'States cannot be secure if people's security is at stake, but neither people can be secure in the absence of strong, democratic and responsible states.'⁵

Gender is widely understood as a social construct, based upon basic biological differences between the sexes which differentiate men and women according to gender roles learnt during socialisation processes and expectations regarding their proper behaviour, attitudes and activities. As such, men are socialised mainly for assertiveness, autonomy, authority and responsibility and women for submission, dependence, care and love.⁶

Generally, violence is any intentional behaviour aiming at causing physical or mental harm to the victim. It can be a violent action, a threat or coercion or a deprivation of freedom or basic commodities of an individual. Johan Galtung differentiates between direct (personal) and indirect (structural) violence, the latter being committed by states and institutions. 'There may not be any person who directly harms another person. The violence is built into the structure and shows up as unequal power and consequently as unequal life chances.'⁷ Galtung (1990) is even more concrete in stating, 'thus when one husband beats his wife there is a clear case of

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4. CHS (2003), *Human Security Now, Report of Commission for Human Security*, United Nations Organisation, New York, p. 10.
 5. Ogata, S. (2003), Safeguarding Freedom: A New concept of human security, *International Herald Tribune*, 8 May.
 6. Clarke, E.A., & Lawson, T. (1985), *Introduction to Gender*, Sheridan House: New York
 7. Galtung, J. (1996), 'Violence, Peace and Peace Research', *Journal of Peace Research*, vol. 6, no.1, pp. 170–71.

personal violence, but when one million husbands keep one million wives in ignorance there is structural violence'.⁸ Galtung's typology of personal and structural violence helps to define the whole scope of the forms of gender-based violence, ranging from physical assaults to deprivation issuing from their inability to satisfy basic needs in any situation of restricted resources. Women and girls in poverty circumstances are often victims of economic and sexual exploitation.

The UN General Assembly Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women of 1993, the first international document recognising women's specific vulnerability to certain types of violence, brings a very broad definition into which both public and private spheres are included. The scope of violence encompasses: 'physical, sexual and psychological violence occurring in the family and in the general community, including battering and sexual abuse of children, dowry-related violence, rape, female genital mutilation and other traditional practices harmful to women, non-spousal violence and violence related to exploitation, sexual harassment and intimidation at work, in educational institutions and elsewhere, trafficking in women, forced prostitution, and violence perpetrated or condoned by the state.'⁹

In the Beijing Platform for Action, the core document of the Beijing Fourth World Conference on Women, violence against women is considered to be a violation of human rights and an obstacle to the objectives of equality, development and peace. A wide scope of types of violence is classified according to the place of its occurrence. Cynthia Cockburn created a typology based upon the stages which a society experiencing war had to undergo and described the most frequent types of gender-based violence in the course of war preparation, outbursts of conflict and post-conflict reconstruction. Such an approach enables one to recognise the changing patterns of behaviour of a pre-war society and the accentuation of masculinity accompanying militarization and armament, which not only silences war opposing voices but tends to a renewal of a patriarchal ideology 'deepening the differentiation of men and women, masculinity and femininity, preparing men to fight and women to support them in doing so'. Another typology of violence was brought by the World Health Organisation (WHO) whose definition encompasses all kinds of violent actions that damage the health or well-being of individuals, groups or communities.

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8. Galtung, J. (1990), 'Cultural Violence', *Journal of Peace Research*, vol. 27, no. 3, pp. 291–305.
 9. UNO (1993), *Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women*, United Nations Organisation, New York, pp. 5-6.

According to its nature, violence can be physical, sexual and psychological. Deprivation and neglect are also considered as damaging to one's health and well-being. According to the object, violence can be self-directed (suicidal behaviour and self-abuse), interpersonal – targeting family and intimate partners, and (or) collective (social, political or economic).¹⁰

In spite of its gravity, the response from state institutions to patriarchal violence is inadequate due to distorted cultural and societal norms on gender roles, deeply embedded traditional customs, and the prevailing notion of impropriety of state interventions into private lives of its citizens. Violence against women is alarmingly high in certain states is often due to a grave security dysfunction such as illustrated by the 'indifference of state officials and the failure to seriously investigate and prosecute cases of violence'.¹¹ Indeed, studies revealed the highly inadequate response of the police, military guards and prison staff to patriarchal violence cases or violence against women in custody or other forms of detention. A major problem lies in the fact that their social and cultural mentality tends to misjudge such cases as a private or family matter and thus outside their competence. Yet, violence against women is a violation of women's human dignity and consequently women's human rights. Under international human rights law, states have the obligation to prevent violence against women and protect victims. This obligation is derived from its due diligence to ensure the protection and respect of human rights and guarantee equal protection under the law.¹²

This chapter provides a review of theories and existing literature about the subject matter, research gap, and conceptual framework for present study.

2.2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A literature review surveys books, scholarly articles, and any other sources relevant to a particular issue, area of research, or theory, and by so doing, provides a description, summary, and critical evaluation of these works in relation to the research

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10. WHO(2000), *World Report on Violence and Health*, World Health Organisation, Geneva, p. 5-8.
 11. HRW (2000), 'What Will It Take? Stopping Violence Against Women: A Challenge to Governments', *Human Rights Watch Background*, June.
 12. Coomaraswamy, R. (1996), *Report of the Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences*, E/CN.4/1996/53, pp. 32–39

problem being investigated. Review of literature related to present research work is organised in two categories:

- (i) Literature related to Human Security
- (ii) Literature related to Patriarchal Violence

(i) Literature related to Human Security

Muthien (2003)¹³ explained four sources of human security. First, the environment we live in needs to be able to sustain human life. Second, our basic needs for physical survival are met. Third, our fundamental human dignity, personal and cultural identities should be respected. Fourth, we need protection from avoidable harm. The Human Development Report (1994) divides threats to human security in seven main categories, i.e. economic security, food security, health security, environmental security, personal security, community security and political security.

Chenoy (2005) argues that the human security approach takes into account gender discrimination, gender violence and the need for gender equality but in this conceptualisation, gender is subsumed under the larger problem of people and does not recognise that the concept of power is gendered. Women experience human insecurity differently from men. Women are subject to gender hierarchies and power inequities that increase their insecurity.¹⁴

Coomaraswamy (2005)¹⁵ analysed the human security measures taken by South Asian countries to combat gender violence. Author opined that all countries comprising the South Asian region have responded in some measure to the challenges posed by violence against women in the region. However, apart from India, none of the other South Asian countries have adopted domestic violence legislation or made the necessary changes to anti-trafficking legislation. Progress to ensure security and a world without violence for women has been slow but its pace especially in the last decade has been heartening. Violence against women, as borne out by research from around the world, can be effectively combated if a healthy partnership prevails between women's groups and the state apparatus.

13. Muthien, B. (2003). "Engendering Security". *John Paul II Peace Institute, Peace Papers*, 9.
14. Chenoy, A. (2005), "A Plea for Engendering Human Security", *International Studies*, Vol. 42, pp. 167-79.
15. Coomaraswamy, R. (2005), Human Security and Gender Violence, *Economic and Political Weekly*, Vol. 40, No. 44-45, pp. 4729-36.

Hudson (2005)¹⁶ discussed the feminist perspective on gender and the politics of human security. Author opined that a feminist perspective highlights the dangers of masking differences under the rubric of the term 'human'. A critical feminist perspective is geared towards addressing the politics of multiple overlapping identities. Since gender is intertwined with other identities such as race, class and nationality, the dichotomy between universalism and cultural relativism is overcome by connecting individual experiences in a particular location to wider regional and global structures and processes. An overview of a number of feminist and security-studies schools of thought reveals the extent of universalizing tendencies and gender silences within such discourses. The conceptual and political commensurability of the gender and security constructs is often overlooked. An emphasis on identity politics may thus help to clarify the ambivalence of human security as both a political project of emancipation and an analytical framework.

Hudson (2006)¹⁷ described how empirical evidence shows that while the near absence of women at the formal level as peace negotiators and as political decision-makers, as well as their informal peacebuilding contributions at the grassroots level, have been routinely recognized, it remains difficult to translate gender awareness into workable plans for implementation. Author argued for a hybrid position between cultural relativism and "one size fits all" solutions. He highlighted four areas of attention, namely women's ambivalent roles in peace and conflict, the challenges of inclusive post-conflict transformation processes, the need for organized women's movements, and connecting the international legislative frameworks within national contexts.

Truong, et al. (2006)¹⁸ focus upon a variety of feminist perspectives on human security under globalisation. Looking at gender as a multifaceted power domain, and human security as policy framework, it explores the configuration of state, power/knowledge system and the implication for the people living with deprivation and social exclusion. It offers new forms of analysis to expose the gendered character of global transformation and the explicit and implicit threats to human security in different places. The contributors explore the gendered implication of transnational

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16. Hudson, H. (2005), "'Doing' Security as Though Humans Matter: A Feminist Perspective on Gender and the Politics of Human Security", *Security Dialogue*, Vol. 36, No. 2, pp. 155-74.
 17. Hudson, H. (2006), *Human Security and Peacebuilding Through a Gender Lens*, W.P. No. 37, Danish Institute for International Studies (DIIS), Copenhagen.
 18. Truong, Thanh-Dam, Wieringa, S. and Chhachhi, A. (eds) (2006), *Engendering Human Security: Feminist Perspectives*, Woman Unlimited, New Delhi.

processes such as conflicts, international migration, human trafficking, the changing boundaries of work and care, environmental degradation, neo-conservation and body politics. They challenges conventional approaches to politics and economics and suggest alternative ways of framing strategies and policies.

Adjbakhsh and Chenoy (2007)¹⁹ said that Human security is an important subject for the whole world. And through this book they traces the key evolutions in the development of the concept of human security, the various definitions and critiques, how it relates to other concepts, and what it implies for polities, politics, and policy. It also focuses on its implications for analysis and action.

Moussa (2008)²⁰ analysed various gender aspects in its relation to different human security dimensions. Author focuses on the dimensions in human security that influence gender equality. These are violence as a threat to human security and negative influences in achieving gender equality, the needs approach, poverty alleviation and considering women as among the most vulnerable groups in the society. Raising the capabilities of women is essential in achieving gender equality, thus security and participation is needed to guarantee equality and to realise gender equality.

Porter (2008)²¹ analysed the broadening of security studies to encompass human security. It gives a short outline of different ways that feminist scholars understand security, explaining the rationale for the gendering of human security. Author maintained that human security is a peacebuilding tool and offered reasons why it has particular appeal for feminists. It provides an emancipatory framework within which to judge whether concrete goals further just peace with security. Author suggested that feminist ethics affords an analytic tool through which to understand our responsibilities for human welfare by practicing political compassion.

Hiranandani (2009)²² examined the human security discourse using the lenses of disability and food studies. Author opined that the human security agenda must

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19. Adjbakhsh, S. & Chenoy, Anuradha M. (2007), *Human Security: Concepts and Implications*, Routledge, London.
 20. Moussa, G. (2008), Gender aspects of human security, *International Social Science Journal*, Vol. 59, No. 193, pp. 81-100.
 21. Porter, E. (2008), *Is Human Security a Feminist Peacebuilding Tool?*, Paper presented at the International Studies Association's 49th Annual Convention, San Francisco, CA, March 26-29.
 22. Hiranandani, Vanmala (2009), Disability, Poverty and Food Sovereignty: Advancing the Human Security Agenda, *Review of Disability Studies: An International Journal*, Vol 5, No 3, pp. 73-85.

embrace the principle of food sovereignty that counteracts neo-liberal notions on food security. Author argued that horizontal alliances are imperative for systemic change, as poverty, food insecurity, and disability are manifestations of similar development processes.

Goucha and Crowley (2009)²³ address the interlinkages of human security with other major issues as the human rights and human security nexus, gender aspects of human security, ethical and environmental challenges, human security as a basic element for a policy framework, the human security agenda developed by the Human Security Network, and debates on human security within the United Nations.

Hudson (2009)²⁴ raised three basic questions: How Security is defining and practices within the context of International Organization. In what ways, if any, has women activism been able to challenge traditional conception of security? What are the implications of the 'Security framework' for the broader goals of the woman's movement? She interrogates the meaning of the security in term of discourses and practices, particularly from a feminist perspective, but it is not just a matter of what women or a gender perspective does for a security agenda. But she also understands the implications of the security framework for the global movement as well.

Clark (2010)²⁵ discussed trafficking in persons within a human security framework by identifying factors that heighten the insecurity of women and children within countries of origin, transit and destination. The author begins by reviewing the definitions in use and assessing the scope of the problem, and describing vulnerable populations and harmful practices. He then addresses conditions of vulnerability, including economic conditions, the entrenchment of organized crime, and civil war and unrest. It examines responses to the problem in countries of origin, transit, and destination, and concludes with recommendations for future policy intervention.

Dutta (2010)²⁶ adopted an innovative combination of realist analysis with a human security approach. The study invokes human security as a chief policy consideration, and truly the term has received considerable attention of late in policies

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23. Goucha, M. & Crowley. J. (2009), *Rethinking Human Security*, John Wiley & Sons, New York.
 24. Hudson, N.F. (2009), *Gender, Human Security and the United Nations: Security Language as a Political Framework for Women*, Routledge, New York.
 25. Clark, M.A. (2010), Trafficking in Persons: An Issue of Human Security, *Journal of Human Development*, Vol. 4, No. 2, pp. 247-63.
 26. Dutta, Rekha (2010), *Beyond Realism: Human Security in India and Pakistan in the Twenty-First Century (Studies in Public Policy)*, Lexington Books, Lanham.

studies. It is a valuable resource for a wide variety of scholars, practitioners, and analysts who focus on policy analysis in South Asia.

Reardon and Asha (2010)²⁷ in the book "The Gender Imperative: Human Security Vs State Security", asserted that human security derives from the experience and expectation of human well-being which depends on four essential conditions: a life sustaining environment, the meeting of essential physical needs, respect for the identity and dignity of persons and groups, protection from avoidable harm and expectations of remedy from them. The book demonstrates their integral relationship to human security. Patriarchy being the germinal paradigm from which most major human institutions such as the state, the economy, organised religions and social relations have evolved, the book argues that fundamental inequalities must be challenged for the sake of equality and security. The fundamental point raised is that expectation of human well-being is a continuing cause of armed conflict which constitutes a threat to peace and survival of all humanity and human security cannot exist within a militarised security system.

Barnett (2011)²⁸ defines some key concepts of vulnerability, adaptation, and human security, which all come together in research and policy on climate change and human security. Author explained relationship between these concepts as is the distinction between securities as is it has traditionally been understood within the discipline of political science, and human security. He also provides an overview of the critical and applied uses of the concept of human security as it relates to climate change.

Fukuda-Parr and Messineo (2012)²⁹ reviewed the concept of human security, its use in policy debates and the academic literature on the concept as an idea in international relations. Authors argued that in spite of the controversy, human security is an important concept not be ignored as a significant discourse in contemporary debates about the world order. It opens up new lines of analysis, gives voice to new actors. Its value added in the security field is that it focuses attention on human beings and integrates non-military mechanisms as means to security. Its value added in the

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27. Reardon, B. and Asha, H. (2010), *The Gender Imperative: Human Security Vs State Security*, Routledge, New Dehli.
 28. Barnett, J. (2011), Human Security, in Dryzek, J.S., Norgaard, R.B. and Schlosberg, D. (Eds.), *The Oxford Handbook of Climate Change and Society*, Oxford University Press, New York.
 29. Fukuda-Parr, S. and Messineo, C. (2012), *Human Security: A Critical Review of the Literature*, Centre for Research on Peace and Development (CRPD) W.P. No. 11., Jan.

development field is to focus attention on downside risks. Authors opined that human security is closely related to human development and to human rights.

O'Brien and Barnett (2013)³⁰ reviewed research on global environmental change and human security, providing retrospective and tentative prospective views of this field. Authors explained the various roles played by the concept of human security in research on environmental change, as well as the knowledge that it has contributed. They discussed the Global Environmental Change and Human Security (GECHS) project as an example of how this research has encouraged a more politicized understanding of the problem of global environmental change, drawing attention to the roles of power, agency, and knowledge.

Tripp, Ferree and Ewig (2013)³¹ in the book 'Gender, Violence, and Human Security: Critical Feminist Perspectives' analysed specific case studies from around the globe, ranging from post-conflict security in Croatia to the relationship between state policy and gender-based crime in the United States.. Authors opined that the nature of human security is changing globally, yet threats to individuals and communities persist. Large-scale violence by formal and informal armed forces intersects with interpersonal and domestic forms of violence in mutually reinforcing ways. Gender, Violence, and Human Security takes a critical look at notions of human security and violence through a feminist lens, drawing on both theoretical perspectives and empirical examinations through case studies from a variety of contexts around the globe. Shifting the focus of the term 'human security' from its defensive emphasis to a more proactive notion of peace, the book ultimately calls for addressing the structural issues that give rise to violence. A hard-hitting critique of the ways in which global inequalities are often overlooked by human security theorists, Gender, Violence, and Human Security presents a much-needed intervention into the study of power relations throughout the world.

Parmar, et al (2014)³² undertook a population-based health and livelihood study of female refugees from conflict-affected Central African Republic living in

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30. O'Brien, K. and Barnett, J. (2013), Global Environmental Change and Human Security, Annual Review of Environment and Resources, Vol. 38, Oct., pp. 373-91.
 31. Tripp, A.M., Ferree, M.M. and Ewig, C. (eds.) (2013), Gender, Violence, and Human Security: Critical Feminist Perspectives, New York University Press, New York.
 32. Parmar, P. Kaur, Agrawal, P., Goyal, R., Scott, J. and Greenough, P. Gregg (2014), Need for a Gender-sensitive Human Security Framework: Results of A Quantitative Study of Human Security and Sexual Violence in Djohong District, Cameroon, *Conflict and Health*, Vol. 8, No. 1, May 7.

Djohong District, Cameroon and their female counterparts within the Cameroonian host community. Embedded within the survey instrument were indicators of human security derived from the Leaning-Arie model that defined three domains of psychosocial stability suggesting individuals and communities are most stable when their core attachments to home, community and the future are intact. Results of that study indicate that while the female refugee human security outcomes describe a population successfully assimilated and thriving in their new environments based on these three domains, the ability of human security indicators to predict the presence or absence of lifetime and six-month sexual violence was inadequate. Using receiver operating characteristic (ROC) analysis, the study demonstrates that common human security indicators do not uncover either lifetime or recent prevalence of sexual violence. Study suggest that current gender-blind approaches of describing human security are missing serious threats to the safety of one half of the population and that efforts to develop robust human security indicators should include those that specifically measure violence against women.

Watanuki (2015)³³ examined the interrelationship between 'the right to live in peace' and human security. By reviewing the works of constitutional lawyers and political theorists on the right to live in peace, this paper seeks to identify its possible implications towards human security after the settlement of internationally agreed defection on it. As a conclusion, this paper argues that the anti-hegemonic character of the right to live in peace results in the failure of identifying the scope of human security, which has a potential to theorise protection and the empowerment of people under the struggle of constituting their sovereignty. This also implies that critical insights on human security need to provide immanent critiques in order to develop the concept of human security after GA Resolution 66/290.

Newman (2016)³⁴ explores the concept of human security as an idea that the referent object and beneficiary of security should be individuals. It demonstrates that the concept has had some success as a normative reference point for human-centred policy movements internationally, and it reflects a broader shift towards human agency and human-centred conceptions of security. As a theoretical concept,

33. Watanuki, R. (2015), The Pitfalls of the “Right to Live in Peace”: Human Security after UN General Assembly Resolution 66/290, *Journal of Human Security Studies*, Vol. 4, No. 1, Spring, pp. 20-40.

34. Newman, E. (2016), Human Security: Reconciling Critical Aspirations with Political ‘Realities’, *British Journal of Criminology*, Vol 56, Issue 1, February 17.

therefore, the idea contributes to a multi-disciplinary reconceptualization of security that draws upon theoretical debates in political science and criminology. Author opined that operationalisation of these concepts have exposed fundamental problems in the new security discourse more broadly, generating critiques in political science and criminology which share common foundations but which are rarely engaged in an integrated manner.

(ii) Literature related to Patriarchal Violence

Studies have underlined several factors leading to Patriarchal violence such as cultural, individual, community and societal factors. An important factor in certain societies is the traditional notion of male honour which is based on the female's sexual purity. In these societies, if a woman has been defiled through rape or voluntary sex outside marriage, she is considered to have brought dishonour to the family, in which case the honour can only be redeemed by killing the woman in question. Cultural notions of proper gender roles of men and women also lead to a justification or accepted violence against women in diverse societies.³⁵ Among the individual factors, poverty, a history of violence in the family and alcohol abuse is cited as possible causes of violence against women.³⁶

Odimegwu and Okemgbo (2003)³⁷ conducted a community-based survey in rural and urban settings in Imo State by interviewing 308 randomly selected adult women of age 15-49 years. The findings demonstrated an overwhelmingly unequal gender division of labour and control over resources. Traditional beliefs regarding gender roles expecting men as head of the household and breadwinner and wife as primarily responsible for doing household chores were overwhelmingly prevalent. The study found a significant relationship between the adherence to the traditional gender role ideology and the high level of physical violence against women in both the rural and urban households in African Igbo culture.

35. Jahangir, A., (2000), *Civil and Political Rights, Including Questions of Disappearances and Summary Executions: Report of the Special Rapporteur: Submitted Pursuant to Commission on Human Rights Resolution 1999/35*, E/CN.4/2000/3, UN Commission on Human Rights: New York, 25 January.

36. *World Report on Violence and Health*, pp. 97-99.

37. Odimegwu, C., and Okemgbo, N. O. (2003). Gender role ideologies and prevalence of violence against women in Imo state, Nigeria. *Anthropologist*, 5(4), 225-236.

Totten (2003)³⁸ conducted a study on the development and effects of familial and gender ideologies on the masculine identities of marginal male youth in American Society. The qualitative data led to derive the following five specific assumptions:

- i. The sexual division of labour was natural i.e. the women were considered the natural child-rears and home-makers whereas the men were believed to be the natural breadwinners.
- ii. In general rigid gender roles were suggested that women should be obedient to, respectful of, and dependent on men. Female intimates should be sexually accessible, loyal, and faithful to their male partners.
- iii. Women were taken as sexual objects to be conquered by men. Heterosexuality was reported as natural and moral, and all other sexual orientations were considered immoral and punishable.
- iv. Abusive behaviour was justified as an appropriate way for biological fathers and boyfriends to resolve conflicts and maintain dominance in traditional gender role relationships of men with women.
- v. The reported views about manhood were indicative of glorifying physical toughness by being strong, to be wealthy and breadwinner, heterosexual and sexually active, and having control on life and women.

Almosaed (2004)³⁹ found that most of the respondents were pro to using physical violence against women as necessary. Majority of the male respondents opined that violence was effective way of dealing with females' misconduct.

Rahman and Rao (2004)⁴⁰ used household survey data collected from 800 married women in 1995 who belonged to both the Northern and Southern states. The results of the study indicate that practices of observing *purdha* and *gunghat* negatively influenced women's mobility whereas household wealth, husband's education, and being Muslim were associated with lesser negative impact on women's mobility.

Hayes and Lee (2005)⁴¹ conducted a study for testing the competing assumptions whether using violence in interpersonal relations was a sub-culture

38. Totten, M. (2003). Girlfriend abuse as a form of masculinity construction among violent, marginal male youth. *Men & Masculinities*, 6(1), 70-92.

39. Almosaed, N. (2004). Violence against women: A cross-cultural perspective. *Journal of Muslim Affairs*, 24, 67-88.

40. Rahman, L., and Rao, V. (2004). The determinants of gender equity in India: Examining Dyson and Moore's thesis with new data. *Population and Development Review*, 30(2), 239-268.

41. Hayes, T. C., & Lee, M. R. (2005). The Southern culture of honor and violent attitudes. *Sociological Spectrum*, 25, 593-617.

specific phenomenon in certain regions and races or people approved of violence under certain conditions. The study focused on the prevalence of a culture of honor among Southern white males dwelling from rural areas of United States. The findings revealed that the Southern white males belonging to rural areas were more pro to violence only under certain conditions that were dominantly defensive in nature but on the whole they had moderate to low level of approval to use of violence.

Lynin Welchman and Sara Hossain (2005)⁴² in book "Honour': Crimes, Paradigms and Violence Against Women," explain the reasons for variation in causes and nature of honour crimes in various countries, which are very useful for human-rights activists, policy-makers, and lawyers, and also about what strategies are needed to combat them. The authors ask for more discussion on honour crimes from a culturally specific to a human-rights based framework, and urge the reform many National Legal System which enable man to rely on the pretext of 'honour-crime' in order to get a reduced sentence. And this book provides disciplinary approaches through the collection useful data to those in field from gender studies, violence and security.

Milhem (2005)⁴³ conducted an empirical study in Jordan and found that almost one-fourth (24%) of the male subjects justified the act of honor killing on the basis of incest, women's absence from home (98%), and illegitimate pregnancies (8%). The notion of the defilement of male honor had been extended over time to include not only sexual 'misdemeanor' but also other acts of defiance of male control.

Deif and Mair (2006)⁴⁴ opined that Violence against woman and girls in the west Bank and Gaza ranges from spousal and child abuse, to rape, incest, and murder committed the under the guise of family 'honour'. Baur and Hail (2006) explain violence committed by non-state actors such a member of family or the community or during armed conflict happens the world over, but take different form depending on the context. Covering honour and sexual crime, family violence and sexual slavery, this manual with a particular focus on Muslim communities, is specifically written for groups and individuals not well versed in legal matters. It provide tools to investigate violence perpetrated against women by non-state actors, and offers explanation of the

42. Welchman, L. and S. Hossain (eds) (2005), *'Honour': Crimes, Paradigms and Violence Against Women*, Zed Books, London.

43. Milhem, R. (2005). Crimes of Honor in Jordan and the Attitudes of Judges towards them. Unpublished thesis. Amman: University of Jordan.

44. Deif, Farida, and Mair, Lucy (2006), *A Question of Security: Violence Against Palestinian Women and Girls: Occupied Palestinian Territories*, 18 (7). New York: Human Rights Watch.

legal definitions and human-rights protection mechanisms that may help to compel state to fulfill their obligations to protect women against violence perpetrated by non-state actors.

Gill (2006)⁴⁵ in the article "Patriarchal Violence in the Name of Honour" explained how notions on honour can act as catalysts for so-called honour-based violence when ideas of family and community are challenged by women, and highlights a number of recent and high-profile examples of honour crimes in the UK. A key question is how these crimes should be regarded in the context of our increasingly multi-cultural society. The article argues that a better understanding of the relationship between culture and morality could lead to a more nuanced approach to the construction of a human rights framework.

Johnson (2006)⁴⁶ suggests measures to combat patriarchal violence and oppression, particularly act committed in the name of honour directed at women, homosexuals, bisexuals and transgender persons. The study focuses on how to influence and change structures to end violence and oppression in a human-rights context.

Bhanot and Senn (2007)⁴⁷ examined the attitudes of South Asian male university students towards violence against women. Results of the study revealed that lower acculturation was only related to higher level of acceptance of wife beating. It was argued that low levels of acculturation were related to more restrictive and conservative beliefs about the gender roles of men and women.

Kim-Goh and Baello (2008)⁴⁸ conducted a study to examine the effect of gender, ethnicity, acculturation, age and level of education of the Korean and Vietnamese Americans on their attitudes towards domestic violence. It was found that gender; level of education, and acculturation significantly predicted the attitudes toward domestic violence. Men who were less acculturated and less educated were more likely to approve of pro-violence attitudes. However, no significant ethnic

45. Gill, A. (2006), Patriarchal Violence in the Name of 'Honour', International Journal of Criminal Justice Sciences, Vol 1 Issue 1 Jan.

46. Johnson, M.P. (2006), Conflict and Control, Gender Symmetry and Asymmetry in Domestic Violence, *Violence Against Women*, Vol. 12 No. 11, Nov.

47. Bhanot, S., and Senn, C. Y. (2007). Attitudes towards violence against women in men of South Asian ancestry: Are acculturation and gender role attitudes important factors. *Journal of Family Violence*, 22, 25-31

48. Kim-Goh, M., and Baello, J. (2008). Attitudes toward domestic violence in Korean and Vietnamese immigrant communities: Implications for human services. *Journal of Family Violence*, 23, 647-654.

differences were noticed regarding the global attitudes towards domestic violence between the two ethnic groups.

Stephenson, et al. (2008)⁴⁹ examined the relationship between male-to-female physical domestic violence and unwanted pregnancy among women in three economically and culturally diverse areas of India. Data from National Family Health Survey, 1998–99 and a 2002–03 follow-up survey for which women in four states were re-interviewed, are analyzed, and the factors associated with the inter-survey adoption of contraception and the experience of an unwanted pregnancy are examined. It is found that the women who experience physical violence from their husbands are significantly less likely to adopt contraception and more likely to experience an unwanted pregnancy. The results demonstrate a clear relationship between a woman's experience of physical violence from her husband and her ability to achieve her fertility intentions.

Watto (2009)⁵⁰ has examined differential significance of the multiple dimensions of conventional patriarchal ideology of gender relations as predictors of perpetrating male physical violence against women. Mainly, opposition to gender equality and women's autonomy, linking women's sexuality with family honor, religious orientations towards treating women as subordinate partners, and approval to violence against women were identified as multiple dimensions of conventional patriarchal ideology of gender relations. It has been hypothesized that: i) adherence to conventional patriarchal ideology of gender relations, as a single summative index of its multiple dimensions, is inexplicit predictor of perpetrating male physical violence against women; and ii) it undermines the differential significance of its multiple dimensions (sub-measures) as direct predictors of physically violent conduct of men with women. Data was collected from the randomly selected male heads of the households (n=400) from rural and urban settings of district Gujrat, Pakistan. Application of Pearson Correlation revealed that all the multiple dimensions of conventional patriarchal ideology of gender relations were not significantly correlated with the propensity of perpetrating male physical violence against women. However, as a single summative index of its sub-measures (multiple dimensions) the level of

49. Stephenson, R., Koenig, M.A., Acharya, R. and Roy, T.K. (2008), Domestic Violence, Contraceptive Use, and Unwanted Pregnancy in Rural India, *Stud Fam Plann*, Sep., Vol. 39, No. 3, pp. 177–186.

50. Watto, S. Ahmad (2009), Conventional Patriarchal Ideology of Gender Relations: An Inexplicit Predictor of Male Physical Violence against Women in Families, *European Journal of Scientific Research*, Vol.36 No.4, pp.561-569.

adherence to conventional patriarchal ideology of gender relations was strongly correlated with its sub measures as well as the varying propensity of perpetrating physical violence against women. Hence, the findings substantiated the hypotheses.

Sultana (2011)⁵¹ analysed the concept of patriarchy and women's subordination in a theoretical perspective. Author opined that patriarchy is the prime obstacle to women's advancement and development. Despite differences in levels of domination the broad principles remain the same, i.e. men are in control. The nature of this control may differ. Patriarchal institutions and social relations are responsible for the inferior or secondary status of women. Patriarchal society gives absolute priority to men and limits women's human rights.

Ayodapo (2013)⁵² analyse socio-cultural factors influencing gender based violence on agricultural livelihood activities of rural household in Ogun State Nigeria. Multistage sampling techniques were used for to select 50% of the zones, blocks, circles and villages respectively. Thereafter, 5 women as respondents were randomly selected from each village to give a total of 220 respondents. Pearson Products Moment Correlation Coefficient and chi square test were used to determine relationship between variables. The correlation coefficient obtained from the statistical analysis shows that there was a significant relationship between the effect of domestic violence on women agricultural livelihood activities ($r = -0.218^{**}$, $p < 0.01$). The result of chi-square analysis shows that there is a significant relationship between the effect of domestic violence on women's agricultural livelihood activities and religion ($x^2 = 70.29$, $p < 0.05$); and educational level ($x^2 = 43.80$, $p < 0.05$); occupation ($x^2 = 59.26$, $p < 0.05$) and member of social organization ($x^2 = 151.80$, $p < 0.05$).

Chowdhury (2014)⁵³ argued that to truly understand the complexity and 'high prevalence' of acid violence against women in Bangladesh, attention must paid to the confluence of political, economic and historical forces that make certain social groups more vulnerable to such extreme violence and suffering. Author opined that acid throwing, a form of gendered violence, has to be understood beyond a culturalist'

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51. Sultana, A. (2011), Patriarchy and Women's Subordination: A Theoretical Analysis, *The Arts Faculty Journal*, Special Issue, July 2010-June 2011.
 52. Ayodapo, O.G. (2013), Socio-Cultural Factors Influencing Gender-Based Violence on Agricultural Livelihood Activities of Rural Households In Ogun State, Nigeria, *International Journal of Biodiversity and Conservation*, Vol. 5, No. 1, Jan., pp. 1-14.
 53. Chowdhury, E.H. (2014), Rethinking Patriarchy, Culture and Masculinity: Transnational Narratives of Gender Violence and Human Rights Advocacy, *Journal of Women of The Middle East and The Islamic World*, Vol. 12, pp. 79-100.

framework, which explains this phenomenon as a product of harmful patriarchal cultural practices. Such violence has to be understood within a broader 'structural inequality' framework, which maps the vulnerability of the victims onto their life trajectory shaped by complex forces of globalization, neo-liberal development, patriarchy and poverty. Focusing on the systemic oppressions faced by vulnerable social groups whether embedded in family, kin and community structures or the global capitalist system, he argued that mapping a trajectory of suffering, can aid in imagining a more nuanced, and humane trans-national analytic and response with regards to violence against women.

Manjoo (2016)⁵⁴ focuses on violence against women as a barrier to the realisation of women's civil, political, economic, social, cultural and developmental rights, as well as the consequences of this for the effective exercise of citizenship. The value of adopting a citizenship lens, identifying the nexus between violence against women and human rights, and adopting an approach that acknowledges the multiplicity, intersectionality and continuity of violence across the public and private spheres serves to assist in identifying and providing an analysis of the continuing challenges in the quest to eliminate violence against women.

2.3 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Although female-to-male partner violence occurs in many settings, the overwhelming form of patriarchal violence is perpetrated by men against women. Recognition of the prevalence of patriarchal violence in India is growing; high levels of violence have been reported in both rural and urban areas (Jeyaseelan et al. 2004; Salam et al. 2006; Jeyaseelan et al. 2007). A range of frequent, serious, adverse outcomes associated with patriarchal violence that affect women have been documented globally (Krug et al. 2002; Ahmed et al. 2006).

Mohanty (2003)⁵⁵ has argued that Indian women are not merely located within the patriarchal family structure as wives, daughters, or mother-in-laws; it is within these patriarchal structures that women as Indian wives, Indian daughters, and Indian mother-in-laws are constructed, often being defined within and by the patriarchal structure. The

54. Manjoo, R. (2016), Special Guest Contribution: Violence Against Women as A Barrier to the Realisation of Human Rights and the Effective Exercise of Citizenship, *Feminist Review*, Vol. 112, Issue 1, Feb., pp. 11-26.

55. Mohanty, C.T. (2003), *Feminism without Borders : Decolonizing Theory, Practicing Solidarity*, Duke University Press.

desired characteristics of an Indian woman are often designed to serve a specific purpose in the Indian family household, and are closely aligned to the roles to the woman play in the household. Thus, the construction of an Indian woman cannot necessarily be dissociated from the context of the Indian family. The violence experienced by Indian women must be situated in a specific familial context, so as to clearly detail the influences that families have on the identities of women. The only problem with this concentration on the specificity of contexts is that it disintegrates into conversations of difference usually based on 'culture', without paying attention to socio-historical processes that 'produce' these differences.⁵⁶ In order to measure patriarchal violence, simultaneous attention must be paid not only to the specific contexts within which violence takes place, but also to the 'cultural' explanations that are often applied to violence against Indian woman. Thus, to get an accurate picture of the nature of patriarchal violence in India, simplistic relationships among patriarchal structures, agency, and violence must be re-examined to include other interpersonal elements such as marital roles or expectations.

It is conceptualized in present study that patriarchal violence exist in study area, but it differs in nature and intensity with variance in geographical area (Urban and Rural), existing social structure of social group, family as well as socio-economic profile of individuals and reach of human security measures. The nature and intensity of patriarchal violence (ΔY) is the sum of function ($\square \Delta SE$) of various socio-economic factors (Age, caste, Educational status, Occupation & Economic Status of self and family, status of rituals and norms, geographical area) and sum of function ($\square \Delta HS$) of reach to human security Measures (07 selected areas: Economic security, Food Security, Environmental security, Health Security, Personal security, Community security, & Political security). The impact of these variables can be presented as follows:

$$\Delta Y \propto \square \Delta SE + \square \Delta HS \quad (1)$$

$$\square \Delta SE = \alpha_1 A + \alpha_2 Re + \alpha_3 C + \alpha_4 Edn + \alpha_5 Occ + \alpha_6 In + \alpha_7 Nos + \alpha_8 Geo + \alpha \quad (2)$$

$$\square \Delta HS = \beta_1 ES + \beta_2 FS + \beta_3 EvnS + \beta_4 HS + \beta_5 PS + \beta_6 CS + \beta_7 PolS + \beta \quad (3)$$

A Regression Equation is developed for prediction of positive impact of selected Human Security measures on Patriarchal violence, based on significant variables has been given as follows:

56. Narayan, Uma (1997), "Contesting Cultures: Westernization, Respect for culture and Third World The Feminists." in *The Second Wave: A reader in Feminist Theory*, edited by Linda J. Nicholson, Routledge, New York.

$$\Delta Y = \beta_1 ES + \beta_2 FS + \beta_3 EvnS + \beta_4 HS + \beta_5 PS + \beta_6 CS + \beta_7 PolS + \beta$$

Where:

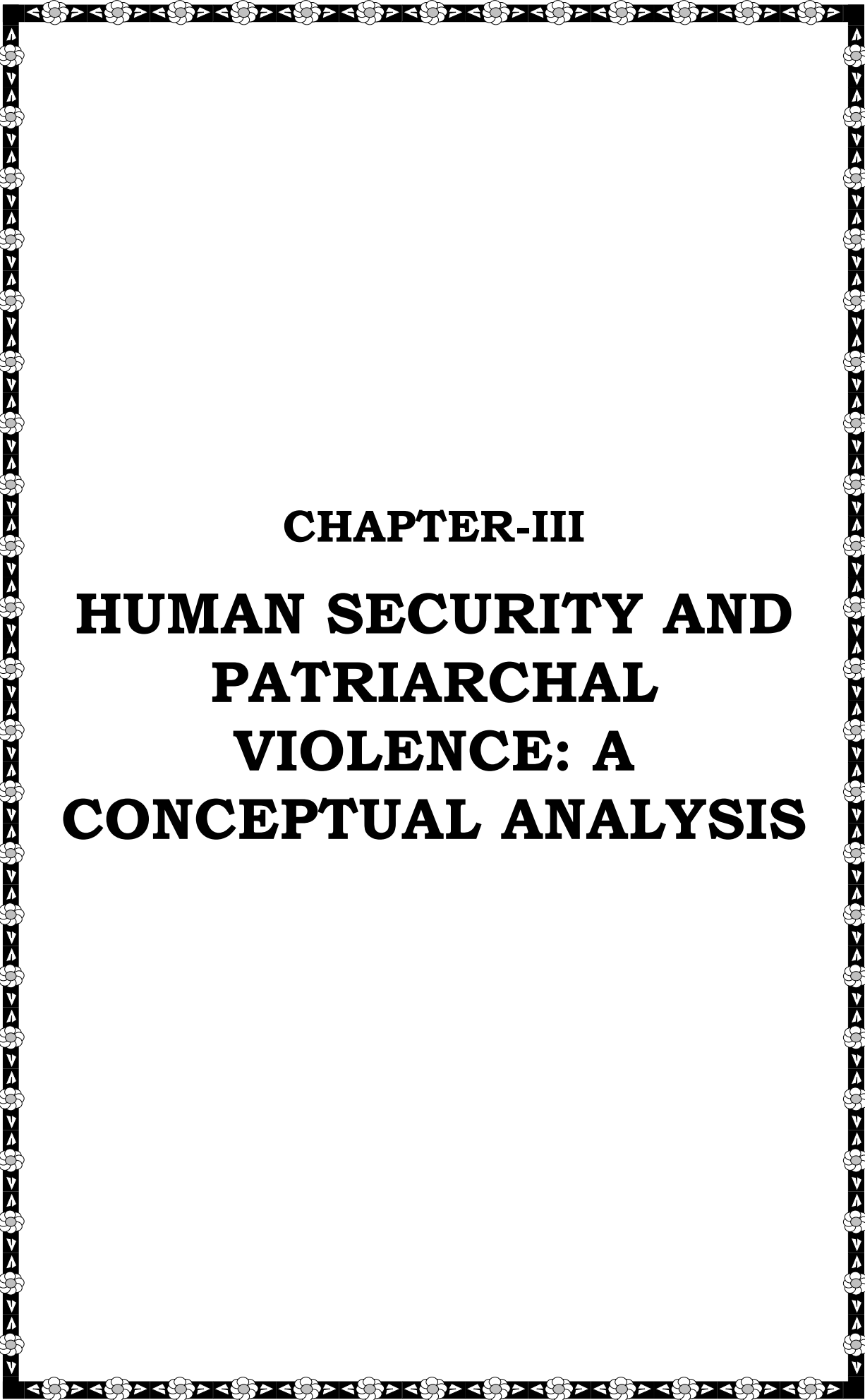
- ΔY = Impact on Patriarchal Violence
- $\square \Delta SE$ = Total impact of Socio-economic variables
- $\square \Delta HS$ = Total impact of Human Security variables
- α_1 to α_8 = Co-efficient of Socio-economic variable
- β_1 to β_8 = Co-efficient of Human Security variable
- α & β = Regression Co-efficient

SE variables: A=Age, Re=Religion, C=Caste, Edn= Educational status of self and family, Occ=Occupation of Self and Family, In=Income of Self and Family, Nors=Socio-cultural Norms, Geo=Geographical Area

HS variables: ES=Economic Security, FS=Food Security, EvnS=Environment Security, HS=Health Security, PS=Personal Security, CS=Community Security, PolS=Political Security.

Priorities of various element of Human Security are determined by the value of its Regression co-efficient.

To analysis the prevalence of patriarchal violence, status of human security measures and correlation between prevalence of patriarchal violence and selected areas of human security, and difference, if any, with various socio-cultural categories of individuals, measurement of selected variables of human security and severity/nature of patriarchal violence has been planned by collecting data from selected respondents through semi-structured interview schedule constructed with the help of various scales, questionnaire and inventories made by scholars.



CHAPTER-III

**HUMAN SECURITY AND
PATRIARCHAL
VIOLENCE: A
CONCEPTUAL ANALYSIS**

CHAPTER-III

HUMAN SECURITY AND PATRIARCHAL VIOLENCE: A CONCEPTUAL ANALYSIS

3.1 HUMAN SECURITY

In 1989, UNDP Administrator Bill Draper recruited the distinguished Pakistani economist Mahbub-ul-Haq to provide a new level of critical intellectual leadership for the UN's development work. Based on his long involvement in the global debate over the ultimate purpose of the development enterprise, Haq articulated the concept of human development and launched what quickly became UNDP's signature research program, the Human Development Reports. In 1994, Haq used the annual global-level Human Development Report to articulate the concept of human security, or, in brief, "secure human development."¹ Haq, who was still looked to for critical intellectual leadership, provided "human security" as an umbrella concept under which all the work of the UN system could be organized: the development work of UNDP, UNICEF, and the like, along with the security work of the humanitarian agencies and the peacekeepers serving under the Security Council.²

Haq's work on human development and human security was, in part, aimed at articulating the values that UNDP staff had long embraced, and privately espoused. Conversely, the existence of the advocacy track assured that human security analysis would continue to be valued within UNDP even if the human development paradigm were to be supported by only a few member governments. A revolutionary idea like Haq's suggestion that human security was the true agenda of UN system "cannot be assessed on whether it has succeeded or failed in having its principles implemented so far, but rather on whether the values it stands for might advance normative changes in the existing order."³ In that sense, Haq's equation of human security with the goals of the UN system was more an argument about what should be done, not one about what had been done.

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1. Murphy, Craig N. (2006), *The United Nations Development Programme: A Better Way?* Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, pp. 241-42.
 2. Murphy, Craig N. (2015), Dignity, Human Security, and Global Governance, *Journal of Human Security Studies*, Vol. 4, No. 1, Spring, pp. 1-12.
 3. Langley, W. (1960), "What Happened to the New International Economic Order," *Socialist Review*, Vol. 20, Issue 3, July-September, p. 264.

UNDP Human Development Report (1994) define human security as "freedom from fear and freedom from want", had two aspects i.e.

Minimum human security Aspects:

- (i) Protection from sudden and damaging disruptions in the patterns of daily life;
- (ii) Safety from chronic threats such as hunger, disease, discrimination and repression;
- (iii) Freedom from alienation, deprivation and damage caused by misunderstandings or misperceptions, which are often manipulated by a government or different groups; and

Maximum human security Aspects:

- (i) Enjoyment of life to its fullest by helping the individual realizes his/her capacities through equal opportunities;
- (ii) improved access to resources, and social/political empowerment through the institutionalized protection of vulnerable groups;
- (iii) Enhancement of tolerance, understanding and respect for diversity through long-term, open-ended and multi sectoral dialogues between civilizations, as well as exerting pressure on governments that exercise discriminatory policies or practices against minority groups.

Threats to human security can be accordingly considered under the 7 categories, i.e. *economy, food, health, environment, personal security, community security, and freedom to engage in political activities.*

Human security is identified as a universal need that emphasises the interdependence of all people, for many of the threats to human security cross borders and are common to people everywhere (e.g. unemployment, poverty, terrorism, ethnic disputes, pollution). Human security is ultimately concerned with preventive measures related to how people live in society, whether they have access to health care and to social, economic and educational opportunities, and whether they live in conflict or peace. Human development was about expanding people's freedom to live a life of their choice by providing an equitable, participatory process of economic growth; human security, on the other hand, focused on the "downside risks", abrupt changes or disruptions that threatened people's livelihoods. In terms of the UNDP definition, human security means that people should be able to exercise their choices safely and freely, while being relatively confident that the opportunities they have today are not lost tomorrow

Human Security: The Broad Concept

Security can no longer be narrowly defined as the absence of armed conflict, be it between or within states. Gross abuses of human rights, the large-scale displacement of civilian populations, international terrorism, the AIDS pandemic, drug and arms trafficking and environmental disasters present a direct threat to human security, forcing us to adopt a much more coordinated approach to a range of issues Secretary-General Kofi Annan. Most of the definitions of human security are rooted in the broad school of thought. Although critics rightfully point to a potential ambiguity from grouping so many threats under one heading, clarity emerges if three key attributes of the broad conception are considered, its scope of coverage, its system-based approach to understanding causal relationships, and its focus on the vital core of the individual. These three critical aspects of broadly defined human security are exemplified by the concept of human security as advocated by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), Jorge Nef and the independent Commission on Human Security. First, the UNDP conceptualization establishes human security's broad scope.

According to Hampson et al., "the concept of 'security' can be defined as the absence of threat to core human values, including the most basic human value, the physical safety of the individual." They identify other core human values as physical security, and the protection of basic liberties, economic needs and interests.⁴ After tracing the distinct roots of human security- in human rights, in sustainable development, and in safety of the peoples- they argue that human security in all instances is regarded as an "underprovided public good."

The broad conception is closely related to, and reflects the intellectual roots in, the theories of capabilities and of human rights. Not surprisingly, the articulation of human security in the 1994 HDR and in the 2003 CHS report conceptualizes human security in terms of Sen's capabilities approach⁵. According to this approach, human freedoms are the ability of individuals to be and do the things they value, and the choices they have to lead their lives accordingly. The concept of human security considers the down-side risks: 'human security means people can exercise these

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4. Hampson, Fen Osler, with Jean Daudelin, John B. Hay, Todd Martin, and Holly Reid (2002), *Madness in the Multitude: Human Security and World Disorder*, Oxford University Press, Ottawa, p. 4.
 5. Sen, A. (1981), *Poverty and Famines: an Essay on Entitlement and Deprivation*, Clarendon Press, Oxford.

choices freely-and that they can be relatively confident that the opportunities they have today will not be lost tomorrow.' Leaning and Arie (2000) emphasize the psychological sense of well-being that is attendant upon material aspects of human security. Their concern is not merely for access to reliable shelter, but also for "a sustainable sense of home;" not merely for political freedom and lack of repression but also for "constructive group attachment;" not merely for safety from sudden downward dislocations but also for "an acceptance of the past and a positive grasp of the future".⁶ Thomas (2000) writes about "personal autonomy, control over one's life and unhindered participation in the life of the community".⁷ Using these broad criteria, human security encompasses a life lived with dignity as well as one free from fear.

The UNDP *Human Development Report* (1994) describes human security as having two principal aspects: the *freedom* from chronic threats such as hunger, disease and repression, coupled with the *protection* from sudden calamities. The report concedes that the definition is broad, but explains that this is simply a reflection of the number of significant harms that go unmitigated. As a conceptual structure, the UNDP proposes seven components of human security: economic, food, health, environmental, personal, community and political security.

Leaning and Arie (2000) propose three key measurable components of human security: 1) a sustainable sense of home; 2) constructive social and family networks; and 3) an acceptance of the past and a positive grasp of the future. It is suggested that these components can be best measured by trends in their inverse indicators.

According to the report published by International Commission on Intervention and State Sovereignty (2001), human security means "the security of people, their physical safety, their economic and social well-being, respect for their dignity and worth as human beings, and the protection of their human rights and fundamental freedoms." This working definition focuses "attention where it should be most concentrated, on the human needs of those seeking protection or assistance."

The broad formulation has been proposed by a number of authors, including UN documents on human security since 1994, the 1994 UNDP Human Development

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6. Leaning, J. and Arie, S. (2000), *Human Security: A Framework for Assessment in Conflict and Transition*, WP Prepared for US AID / Tulane Complex Emergency Response and Transition Initiative (CERTI), Tulane University. December, p. 38.
 7. Thomas, Caroline (2000), *Global Governance, Development and Human Security*, Pluto Press, London, pp. 6-7.

Report (HDR), the European Council and the Barcelona Group, the Commission on Human Security, Government of Japan, as well as academics. While some take a more reductionist approach to focus on threats from disease and natural disasters⁸, others take a broader approach to include all threats and vulnerabilities to human freedom and dignity including threats of hunger, disease, natural disasters, economic downturns, political repression. In UN documents and debates, human security is often characterized as incorporating the two pillars of the UN charter which are the foundations of human rights instruments: "freedom from want" and "freedom from fear".⁹

Human security represents an effort to re-conceptualize security in a fundamental manner. It is primarily an analytical tool that focuses on ensuring security for the individual, not the state. Exploring options aimed at mitigating threats to the insecurity of individuals thus becomes a central goal of policy recommendations and actions. In line with the expanded definition of human security, the causes of insecurity are subsequently broadened to include threats to socio-economic and political conditions, food, health, and environmental, community and personal safety. Policy initiatives generated through the application of the human security framework have incorporated considerations far beyond the traditional focus on military force, greatly reducing the emphasis on armies, if not replacing them altogether. Human security is therefore: people-centred, multidimensional and interconnected.

In addressing human security, a comprehensive view is required of all threats to human survival and dignity, with special emphasis on the promotion of human rights, social development, and environmentally sound and sustainable development, as well as the elimination of violence, social strife, terrorism, state atrocities and genocide, and discrimination of all kinds. With this in mind, the United Nations Secretary-General Kofi Annan declared the need to promote human security at the Millennium Summit of 2000, which addressed the concepts of 'freedom from fear' and 'freedom from want' and recognized that 'individual sovereignty takes precedence over state sovereignty'. He also maintained the legitimacy of international intervention in cases where the state violated the fundamental rights of the individual in order to

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8. King, G. and Murray, C. J. L. (2001). "Rethinking Human Security", *Political Science Quarterly*, 116(4), pp. 585-610
 9. Thakur, R. (1997), 'From National to Human Security' *Asia Pacific Security: The Economics-Politics Nexus*. Eds. Stuart Harris, and Andrew Mack. Sydney: Allen & Unwin.

realize its vested interests. However, it stills remains to be seen whether and how effectively international law and institutions will be able to promote human security, considering that the successful implementation of their efforts largely depends on the political will and commitment of individual sovereign states.¹⁰

Human Security: The Narrow Concept

The narrow formulation focuses on threats of violence, particularly organized political violence, and is used by the Human Security Network at the UN, the annual Human Security Reports, and academics such as MacFarlane and Khong. They specify human security as "freedom from organized violence," that is (1) committed by an identifiable perpetrator and (2) is not random but rather is organized in a way that "makes that violence potent".¹¹ The proponents of the narrow definition criticize the broad definition as being too broad to be useful.¹² They defend the narrow definition for the reverse reason: "This narrower focus on human security emphasizes the more immediate necessity for intervention capability rather than long-term strategic planning and investing for sustainable and secure development".¹³

The *Human Security Report* (2004) at Centre for Human Security at the University of British Columbia uses a narrowly defined understanding of human security, limiting its scope for pragmatic and methodological reasons. For instance, pragmatically, the UNDP's annual *Human Development Report* already covers the freedom from want side of the spectrum, so they feel another such report would be redundant. Methodologically, the report proposal argues, understanding the relationship between underdevelopment and violence necessarily requires a separation of the dependant and independent variables. A strong argument for the narrow conception is simply the number of successful international initiatives using its parameters. In fact, most of the significant policy advances achieved in the name of human security have used this narrow definition. For instance, the Mine Ban Convention, the International Criminal Court, as well as the recent international focus

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10. Annan, Kofi (2000) Secretary-General Salutes International Workshop on Human Security in Mongolia. Two-Day Session in Ulaanbaatar, May 8-10, 2000. Press Release SG/SM/7382.
 11. MacFarlane, S.N and Y. F.Khong (2006), *Human security and the UN; a critical history*. Indianapolis: Indiana University Press, p. 245.
 12. Mack, A. (2002), Human security in the new millennium. *Work in Progress: A Review of Research of the United Nations University* 16 (Summer2): 4
 13. Liotta, P.H. and Taylor Owen. 2006 'Why Human Security?' *The Whitehead Journal of Diplomacy and International Relations*. Vol 7, No. 1 Winter/Spring 2006: 37-54.

on child soldiers, small arms and the role of non-state actors in conflict, have all been undertaken using a narrow human security perspective.

In 1999, Japan established the United Nations Trust Fund for Human Security (UNTFHS) with the UN Secretariat to promote a human security agenda as something that can be operational and implemented on the ground, and to finance community development in health, education, and agriculture; landmine removal; and post-conflict reconstruction and peace-building.¹⁴ This strand of initiative contrasts with the Human Security network in the formulation of the concept, definition of threats, and policy response. While the Human Security Network promotes global policy initiatives, this initiative promotes national development programs supported by development cooperation.¹⁵

The simplest definition of security is "absence of insecurity and threats". It deals with the capacity to identify threats, to avoid them when possible, and to mitigate their effects when they do occur. It means helping victims cope with the consequences of the widespread insecurity resulting from armed conflict, human rights violations and massive underdevelopment. This broadened use of the word "security" encompasses two ideas: one is the notion of "safety" that goes beyond the concept of mere physical security in the traditional sense, and the other the idea that people's livelihoods should be guaranteed through "social security" against sudden disruptions. UNDP describes the term 'human security' as (i) safety from chronic threats such as hunger, disease and repression; and (ii) protection from sudden and hurtful disruption in the course of everyday life. The international community is widely agreed on the need to define human security and its concerns. Over the past decade, both the academic and policymaking communities have engaged in theoretical debates to better define and conceptualize human security. Of particular interest is the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) 1994 report, which set the tone for other succeeding definitions of human security by stating that the main objective of human security is to guarantee the freedom of every individual in order for the promotion and preservation of his/her well-being and dignity. The report also states that human security is best ensured through the prevention of threats that belong

14. Atanassove-Cornelis, E. (2006), *Defining and Implementing Human Security: the Case of Japan*, pp. 39-51 in Debiel, Tobias and Sascha Werthes (eds.), *Human Security on Foreign Policy Agendas. Institute for Development and Peace*, University of Duisburg-Essen, INEF Report 80/2006

15. UNDAW - United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women, Women's Rights Unit. (1998) *Sexual Violence and Armed Conflict: United Nations Response*. Women 2000. April.

to the following seven domains: economic, food, health, environmental, personal, community, political.¹⁶

Unless minimum human security is met, individuals cannot pursue maximum security. Such conceptualization can be further explained by Abraham Maslow's 'hierarchy of needs', which postulates five hierarchical levels of need. The base level is that of physiological needs (hunger, thirst, shelter, etc.). Succeeding levels to be satisfied after physiological needs have been met are safety and security needs (removal from physical danger), followed by social needs (feelings of belonging, love, acceptance, etc.), ego and esteem needs (competence, approval, recognition, etc.), and finally the need for self-actualization (being a fully functional and realized human being with a healthy psyche). According to Maslow (1954), each level is dependent on the previous level. In order for an individual to satisfy higher-level needs, all the lower levels must be fulfilled.¹⁷ Physiological and security needs, the lowest levels of Maslow's hierarchy, can be interpreted as the minimum elements of human security whereas self actualization would represent the highest objective of human security.

Nef (1999) attempted to revise the UNDP definition by reducing the number of issues from seven to five and finding more connections between the issues themselves.¹⁸ King and Murray (2001-02) provided a consistent and more objective definition by basing it on a mathematical formula that identified a set of domains for measuring individual human security such as income, health, education, political freedom and democracy.¹⁹ Bajpai (2000) suggested a 'human security audit', which would measure direct and indirect threats to people's physical safety and freedom and their 'capacity to deal with threats, namely, the fostering of norms, institutions, and democratization/representativeness indecision-making structure'.²⁰

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16. U.N.D.P. (1994), *Human Development Report : New Dimensions of Human Security*. United Nations Development Programme, UNO, New York, pp. 22-23.
 17. Maslow, A. (1954), *Motivation and Personality*, Harper, New York.
 18. Nef, J. (1999), *Human Security and Mutual Vulnerability: The Global Political Economy of Development and Underdevelopment*, International Development Research Centre, Canada.
 19. King, G. and Murray, C. (2001-2002), Rethinking human security, *Political Science Quarterly*, Vol. 116, No. 4.
 20. Bajpai, K. (2000), *Human Security: Concept and Measurement*. Occasional Paper No. 10:OP:1, Joan B. Kroc Institute for International Peace Studies, University of Notre Dame, Ind.

A report published by the Commission on Human Security (2003)²¹ reflects manifold aspects of human well-being by using protection and empowerment as two strategies to help build human security. Protection involves shielding people from dangers by a concerted effort to develop norms, processes and institutions to establish minimum levels of human security. Empowerment means ensuring that people have the ability to develop their human potential and fully participate in decision-making to reach maximum/positive human security. Stating that threats to human security are critical because they present large-scale, recurrent and pervasive dangers to people's core activities and functioning, the CHS report examines six broad areas that a human security approach would improve: (1) protecting people (civilians) in violent conflict; (2) protecting and empowering people on the move because of conflicts or serious human rights violations; (3) protecting and empowering people in post-conflict situations; (4) addressing economic insecurity and the power to choose among opportunities; (5) ensuring better health; (6) promoting knowledge through basic education and public information, as well as life skills and respect for diversity.²²

As a reaction to the criticisms of a too-broad and ambiguous concept of human security, the ICISS report attempts to distinguish the 'responsibility to protect' from a broader concept of human security defined as the 'security of people- their physical safety, their economic and social well being, respect for their dignity and worth as human beings, and the protection of human rights and fundamental freedoms'.²³ The report emphasizes the needs of people at risk by redefining the issues of sovereignty and intervention in view of states' responsibility to protect. Lodgaard (2000)²⁴ has also offered a restrictive definition of what falls under the human security paradigm. By focusing on freedom from fear, he has confined his concept of human security to only that relating to physical, direct, personal violence on the individual. While Lodgaard's concept is considered as too narrow by some, this report also recognizes the shortcomings of a broad definition. It is difficult to rule out the fact that the concept of physical violence needs to somehow include all activities that in some way damage

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21. C.H.S. (2003), *Human Security Now: Protecting and Empowering People*, Commission on Human Security New York.
 22. C.H.S. (2002), *Conceptual Framework for Human Security*, Commission on Human Security New York.
 23. ICISS (2001), *The Responsibility to Protect*, International Commission on Intervention and State Sovereignty, Ottawa, p. 15.
 24. Lodgaard, S. (2000), *Human Security: Concept and Operationalization*, Norwegian Institute of International Affairs, Oslo.

the physical condition of an individual, such as malnutrition brought about by poverty as well as by armed conflict. In fact, individuals or groups are as vulnerable in situations of famine, poverty, powerlessness and discrimination as they are in situations of violent conflict or warfare. This shows how strongly the concepts of freedom from fear and freedom from want are interlinked. No wonder that this definition of human security can arouse doubts over the feasibility of the operational implementation of the concept. Thus, in order to apply what has been discussed in past theoretical debates on human security into real operational policy, human security issues must compose a large part of political agendas around the world. This task would demand discussions to be more issue-specific and to identify the distinct, critical and pervasive threats to human security.

In this context, it seems that human security can be best defined by examining its opposite concept, i.e. human insecurity, which is specified as a crisis situation where the level of rights and capacities of the individual or groups fall under the minimum level of freedom from want and/or freedom from fear. This kind of crisis situation requires immediate and effective countermeasures that will assist people in want or those subject to fear and, ultimately, conflict resolution and/or developmental activities at all levels of governance and cooperation: local, national, regional and international. There have been numerous intergovernmental efforts to promote the concepts and practices of human security. After the publication of the UNDP *Human Development Report 1994* and its approach equating security with people rather than territories, UNESCO and the Organization of American States (OAS) jointly organized the Inter-American Symposium on Security for Peace: Peace-building and Peace-keeping, which took place at UNESCO Headquarters in Paris in 1996. This symposium led to the establishment by UNESCO of an informal group of specialists to elaborate on the concept of security. The outcome of this meeting was published by UNESCO under the title *What Kind of Security?*²⁵ Subsequently, UNESCO and the Institut des Hautes Études de Défense Nationale (IHEDN, France), jointly organized an international symposium, *From Partial Insecurity to Global Security*.²⁶

In November 2000, the First International Meeting of Directors of Peace Research and Training Institutions on the theme *What Agenda for Human Security in*

25. UNESCO (1997), *What Kind of Security?* UNESCO, Paris, available at <http://dmzfs1/ulis/docs/0010/001096/109626eo.pdf>, accessed on 15 Feb 2015.

26. UNESCO (1997), *From Partial Insecurity to Global Security*, UNESCO, Paris, available at <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0011/001106/110639e.pdf>, accessed on 15 Feb 2015.

the Twenty-first Century? took place at UNESCO Headquarters.²⁷ A number of specific proposals were formulated in its Agenda for Action as a result of this meeting. One such decision was to create the International SecuriPax Network for the Promotion of Human Security and Peace.²⁸ The objective of the SecuriPax Network is to ensure exchange and interaction among its members, which include academics, experts and opinion leaders from around the world. These people come together for the purpose of facilitating dialogue and the exchange of information that includes the best examples of application and practices in the field of human security. Regional meetings on the subject have also been decided by members. In July 2001 an expert meeting, jointly organized by UNESCO and the South African Institute for Security Studies (ISS), was held on the theme *Peace, Human Security and Conflict Prevention in Africa*.²⁹ Another was held in Santiago (Chile) for the Latin America and the Caribbean region.³⁰ The regional meeting on the Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks for the Promotion of Human Security in East Asia is therefore another step in UNESCO's global strategy on human security. Governments as well as individuals and international organizations have been involved in defining human security, but some have been more active than others.

3.2 PATRIARCHAL VIOLENCE

Violence- Definitions of violence are important and warrant considerable scrutiny because of the power conveyed by "scientific" and "political authority".³¹ Indeed, the ways acts are defined have major effects on research techniques, policies, and ultimately, the lives of many people. Together with poverty, unemployment, terrorism, and other social problems, violence against women is a topic of social scientific inquiry.³²

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27. UNESCO (2001), *What Agenda for Human Security in the Twenty-First Century?* UNESCO, Paris, available at <http://www.unesco.org/securipax/whatagenda.pdf>, accessed on 15 Feb. 2015.
 28. UNESCO (2000), *SecuriPax Forum and Network*, UNESCO, Paris, available at <http://www.unesco.org/securipax>, accessed on 15 Feb. 2015.
 29. UNESCO/ISS (2001), *Peace, Human Security and Conflict Prevention in Africa*, available at http://www.unesco.org/securipax/UNESCO_ISSfinal.pdf, accessed on 15 Feb. 2015.
 30. UNESCO/FLACSO-Chile (2003), *Human Security, Conflict Prevention and Peace*, available at http://www.unesco.org/securipax/seguridad_humana.pdf, accessed on 15 Feb. 2015.
 31. Muehlenhard, C.L., Powch, I.G., Phelps, J.L., & Giusti, L.. (1992), Definitions of Rape: Scientific and Political Implications. *Journal of Social Issues*, Vol. 48, pp. 23-44.
 32. Ellis, D. (1987), *The Wrong Stuff: An Introduction to The Sociological Study of Deviance*. Collier Macmillan, Toronto.

Many researchers focus only on physical abuse or sexual assaults involving penetration. Psychological, verbal, spiritual, and economic abuse are absent from their formulations for several reasons, including the claim that grouping these harms with physically injurious behaviours muddies "the water so much that it might be impossible to determine what causes abuse".³³ Many other proponents of narrow legalistic definitions argued that violence-against-women studies are often ideologically driven and are designed to artificially inflate the rates of woman abuse to make political points.³⁴ Fox (1993) views psychological or emotional victimization as "soft-core abuse". He stated that "by combining what is debatably abusive with what everyone agrees to be seriously abusive," the latter becomes trivialized.³⁵ Similarly, some researchers, right-wing fathers' rights groups, and other antifeminists who claim that women are as violent as men do not include homicide, stalking, sexual assault, separation/divorce assault, strangulation, and a host of other harms that thousands of women experience daily in their definitions.³⁶

Many studies show that if we limit our operational definitions of male-to-female violence to the limited realm of the criminal law and acts that people perceive to be covered there, then we will uncover relatively less intimate violence against women. If we use broader definitions of conflict and violence, the amount of violence uncovered is many times higher. Tjaden & Thoennes (2000) uncovered a very low incidence of women victimized by one more of these acts committed by an intimate partner: rape, physical assault, rape and/or physical assault, and stalking.³⁷ The problem is it seems that unless women clearly label hurtful behaviours as "criminal" in their minds, they tend not to report them on a survey of criminal behaviour.³⁸ In fact, many women who experience what the law defines as rape do not label their

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33. Gelles, R.J., & Cornell, C.P. (1985), *Intimate Violence in Families*. Sage Publication, Beverly Hills, CA, p. 23.
 34. Dutton, D.G. (2006), *Rethinking Domestic Violence*, University of British Columbia Press, Vancouver.
 35. Fox, B.J. (1993), On Violent Men and Female Victims: A Comment on DeKeseredy and Kelly. *Canadian Journal of Sociology*, Vol. 18, pp. 320-324.
 36. DeKeseredy, W.S., & Dragiewicz, M. (2007), Understanding the Complexities of Feminist Perspectives on Woman Abuse: A Commentary, in Dutton, D.G. (ed.), *Rethinking Domestic Violence. Violence Against Women*, pp. 874-884.
 37. Tjaden, P., & Thoennes, N. (2000), *Extent, Nature, and Consequences of Intimate Partner Violence: Findings From The National Violence Against Women Survey*, U.S. Department of Justice, Washington, DC.
 38. Schwartz, M. D. (2000). Methodological Issues in The Use of Survey Data for Measuring and Characterising Violence Against Women. *Violence Against Women*, Vol. 8, pp. 815-838.

assaults as such or even as a form of victimization.³⁹ By comparison, when surveys are not operated in the context of criminal assault and victimization, there are major reporting differences.⁴⁰ Mihalic and Elliot (1997) found that up to 83% of the marital violence incidents reported in surveys of family behavior are not reported in contexts where the emphasis is on criminal assault and victimization.⁴¹

There are a number of reasons why many researchers worry about low rates uncovered by government studies. Perhaps one of the most important is that policy makers tend to listen only to large numbers.⁴² When narrow definitions are used, some government officials offer these findings as a rationale for withholding funding to deal with the problem.⁴³ Narrow definitions not only exacerbate the problem of underreporting, they trivialize women's real-life feelings and experiences.

Another common worry is that narrow definitions discourage abused women from seeking social support. If a survivor's male partner's brutal conduct does not coincide with what researchers, criminal justice officials, politicians, or the general public refer to as abuse or violence, she may be left in a "twilight zone" where she knows that she has been abused but cannot define it or categorize it in a way that would help her or cause her to seek help.⁴⁴ In a study of rape survivors by Pitts and Schwartz (1993), all of the women who were encouraged by their "most helpful" person to self-blame denied that they had been raped, while all of the women who were encouraged to believe that they were not at fault claimed that they had been raped. As Pitts and Schwartz point out, not only do women who deny their rape fail to seek social support, but too often society "takes away their right to feel angry about it".⁴⁵

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39. Littleton, C., & Henderson, C.E. (2009), Evaluation of Predictors of PTSD Symptomology Among College Rape Victims. *Violence Against Women*, Vol. 15, pp. 148-167.
 40. Fisher, B. (2009). The Effects of Survey Question Wording on Rape Estimates: Evidence From A Quasi-experimental Design. *Violence Against Women*, Vol. 15, pp. 133-147.
 41. Mihalic, S.W., & Elliot, D. (1997), If Violence is Domestic, Does It Really Count? *Journal of Family Violence*, Vol. 12, pp. 293-311.
 42. DeKeseredy, W.S. (2000), Current Controversies in Defining Nonlethal Violence Against Women in Intimate Heterosexual Relationships: Empirical Implications, *Violence Against Women*, Vol. 6, pp. 728-746.
 43. Smith, M.D. (1994), Enhancing the Quality of Survey Data on Violence Against Women: A Feminist Approach. *Gender and Society*, Vol. 8, pp. 109-127.
 44. DeKeseredy, W.S. (2009), Patterns of Violence in The Family, in M. Baker (Ed.), *Families: Changing Trends in Canada*, McGraw-Hill Ryerson, Whitby, pp. 179-205.
 45. Pitts, V.L., & Schwartz, M.D. (1993), Promoting Self-blame Among Hidden Rape Survivors. *Humanity & Society*, Vol. 17, pp. 383-398.

How one defines violence is one of the most important research decisions that a methodologist will make.⁴⁶ This has been particularly debated in the areas of psychological and emotional abuse. Psychological abuse can be just as injurious as physical violence, if not more so.⁴⁷ Follingstad, *et al.* (1990) found that 72% of their abused female interviewees reported that psychological abuse had a more severe effect on them than did physical abuse.⁴⁸ Some woman say that most physical wounds heal, but the damage to their self-respect and ability to relate to others caused by emotional, verbal, and spiritual violence affects every aspect of their lives.⁴⁹

Of central concern to a growing number of scholars is the problem of coercive control, which frequently involves psychologically and emotionally abusive behaviors that are often subtle, hard to detect and prove, and seem to be more forgivable to people unfamiliar with the abuse of women and its consequences. Many men also use other tactics of coercive control to suppress their intimate female partner's personal freedom, including what Evan Stark (2007) refers to as "microregulating a partner's behavior".⁵⁰

DeKeseredy and MacLeod (1997) define Woman abuse as the misuse of power by a husband, intimate partner, ex-husband, or ex-partner against a woman, resulting in a loss of dignity, control, and safety as well as a feeling of powerlessness and entrapment experienced by the woman who is the direct victim of ongoing or repeated physical, psychological, economic, sexual, verbal, and/or spiritual abuse. Woman abuse also includes persistent threats or forcing women to witness violence against their children, other relatives, friends, pets, and/or cherished possessions by their husbands, partners, ex-husbands, or ex-partners.⁵¹

Patriarchy- Patriarchy is a social system that insists that males are inherently dominating, superior to everything and everyone deemed weak, especially females, and endowed with the right to dominate and rule over the weak and to maintain that dominance through various forms of psychological terrorism and violence. The

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46. Ellis, D. (1987), *The Wrong Stuff: An Introduction to The Sociological Study of Deviance*. Collier Macmillan, Toronto.
 47. Adams, A.E., Sullivan, C.M., Bybee, D., & Greeson, M.R. (2008), Development of The Scale of Economic Abuse. *Violence Against Women*, Vol. 15, pp. 563-588.
 48. Follingstad, D.R., Rutledge, L.L., Berg, B.J., Hause, E.S., & Polek, D.S. (1990), The role of Emotional Abuse in Physically Abusive Relationships, *Journal of Family Violence*, Vol. 5, pp. 107-120.
 49. DeKeseredy, W.S., & Schwartz, M.D. (2009), *Dangerous Exits: Escaping Abusive Relationships in Rural America*, Rutgers University Press, New Brunswick, NJ.
 50. Stark, E. (2007), *Coercive Control: How Men Entrap Women in Personal Life*, Oxford University Press, New York, p. 229.
 51. DeKeseredy, W.S., & MacLeod, L. (1997), *Woman Abuse: A Sociological Story*, Harcourt Brace Toronto, p. 5.

dictionary defines 'patriarchy' as a 'social organization marked by the supremacy of the father in the clan or family in both domestic and religious functions'. Patriarchy is characterized by male domination and power. Patriarchal rules still govern most of the world's religious school systems, and family systems. Potter (1995) argues that "ideologies of inequity and the practice of violence are inextricably linked" because the logic of patriarchy provides one just cause for battery, namely female subordination.⁵²

Patriarchy, in its wider definition, means the manifestation and institutionalization of male dominance over women and children in the family and the extension of male dominance over women in society in general. It implies that 'men hold power in all the important institutions of society' and that 'women are deprived of access to such power'. However, it does not imply that 'women are either totally powerless or totally deprived of rights, influence, and resources'.⁵³ Jagger and Rosenberg (1984) define the patriarchy as a set of social relations between men and women, which have a material base, and which, though hierarchical, establish or create independence and solidarity among men that enable them to dominate women.⁵⁴

Frederick Engels (1940)⁵⁵ believed that women's subordination began with the development of private property, when according to him, the world historical defeat of the female sex took place. He says both the division of classes and the subordination of women developed historically. At the stage when private property arose in the society, men wanted to retain power and property. To ensure this inheritance, mother-right was overthrown. In order to establish the right of the father, women had to be domesticated and confined and their sexuality regulated and controlled. According to Engels, it was the period, during which both patriarchy and monogamy for women were established. Radical feminists (e.g. Brownmiller, 1976⁵⁶;

52. Potter, M. Engel (1995), "Historical Theology and Violence against Women: Unearthing a Popular Tradition of Just Battery," in *Violence against Women: A Christian Sourcebook*, Carol J. Adams and Marie M. Fortune (ed.), Continuum, New York, pp. 248-58.

53. Lerner, G. (1989), *The Creation of Patriarchy*. Oxford University Press: New York, p. 239.

54. Jagger, M.A. and Rosenberg S.P. (ed) (1984), *Feminist Frameworks*, MC Grew-Hill, New York.

55. Engels, F. (1940), *The Origin of the Family, Private Property and the State*, Lawrence and Wishart, London.

56. Brownmiller, S. (1976), *Against Our Will : Men Women and Rape*, Penguin, Harmonds Worth.

Firestone, 1974⁵⁷) believe that the original and basic contradiction is between the sexes and not between economic classes. They consider all women to be a class. Unlike the traditionalists, however, they do not believe that patriarchy is natural or that it has always existed and will continue to do so.

Socialist feminists accept and use the basic principles of Marxism but have tried to enrich and extend it by working on areas which, they believe, were neglected by conventional Marxist theory. They do not consider patriarchy to be a universal or unchanging system because of their commitment to a historical, materialist method as well as of their own observation of variety in the sexual division of labour. Socialist feminists view the struggle between women and men as changing historically with changes in modes of production.⁵⁸

Mies (1988) puts forward some ideas regarding the possible reasons for and the sequence of historical developments leading to the origin of gender hierarchy or patriarchy. She says, whatever the ideological differences between the various feminist groups, they are united in their rebellion against this hierarchical relationship between men and women, which is no longer accepted as biological destiny. Their enquiry into the social foundations of this inequality and asymmetry is the necessary consequence of their rebellion. According to Mies (1988), male-ness and female-ness are not biological givens, but rather the result of a long historical process. In each historic epoch male-ness and female-ness are differently defined, the definition depending on the principal mode of production in those epochs. This means that the organic differences between women and men are differently interpreted and valued, according to the dominant form of appropriation of natural matter for the satisfaction of human needs. According to Mies (1988), women were the first producers of life, of social production, of the first tools of production and if they were also the first to initiate social relations, why were they unable to prevent the establishment of an hierarchical and exploitative relationship between the sexes? She answers this by saying that male supremacy, far from being a consequence of men's superior economic contribution, was a result of the development and control of destructive tools through which they controlled women, nature and other men.⁵⁹

57. Firestone, S. (1974), *The Dialectic of Sex : The Case for Feminist Revolution*, Morrow, New York.

58. Beechey, V. (1977), Some Notes on Female Wage Labour in Capitalist Production, *Capital and Class*. Vol. 3, Autumn, pp. 45-66.

59. Mies M. (1988), *Women: The Last Colony*, Kali for Women, Delhi.

One socialist feminist school of thought prefers to use the concept of subordination of women rather than patriarchy, which they reject as being historical. Patriarchy, according to them, is neither universal nor an all embracing phenomenon as different kinds of relationships have always existed between men and women in history. According to them, it is not sex but gender which is important; sex is biological, gender is social. This group is concerned with what they call gender relations.⁶⁰

Patriarchy creates an environment ripe for abuse. A weakened immune system does not create the virus that leads to deadly infection, but it provides the environment in which the virus can thrive and do its killing. Patriarchal beliefs weaken the marital system so that the deadly virus of violence can gain a stronghold.⁶¹

Feminist scholarship has repeatedly demonstrated that throughout human history patriarchy (male authority and power over females) has provided the foundation for male domination and often abuse. This is clearly evident in ancient cultures, and in spite of the feminist revolution of the late twentieth century, patriarchy-inspired abuse against women continues on to the present.⁶² Patriarchal ideology to keep women away the power systems has been attempted through the construction of private and public realms for women and men respectively. Theories of patriarchy by Walby (1990) shows two distinct forms of patriarchy : private and public patriarchy.⁶³

According to Lim (1997:220), patriarchy is the system of male domination and female subordination in economy, society and culture that has characterized much of human history to the present day.⁶⁴ Patriarchal institutions and social relations are responsible for the inferior or secondary status of women in the capitalist wage-labour market. The primacy of the sexual division of labour within the family has several consequences for the women who seek wage employment.

60. Oakley, A. (1972), *Sex Gender and Society*, Temple Smith, London.

61. Ezell, Cynthia (1998), "Power, Patriarchy, and Abusive Marriages," in *Healing the Hurting: Giving Hope and Help to Abused Women*, Catherine Clark Kroger and James R. Beck (ed.); Grand Rapids: Baker, p. 39

62. Watts, C. and Cathy Zimmerman (2002, "Violence against Women: Global Scope and Magnitude," *Lancet*, Vol. 359, pp. 1232-37.

63. Walby, S. (1990), *Theorizing Patriarchy*, Blackwell Publishers Ltd.: Oxford, UK, p. 24.

64. Lim, Y.C. Linda (1997), Capitalism, Imperialism and Patriarchy : The Dilemma of Third-World Women Workers in Multinational Factories, in Visvanathan, N. (ed.). *The Women Gender and Development Reader*. The University Press Limited, Dhaka, pp. 215-230.

3.3 LINKAGES BETWEEN HUMAN SECURITY AND PATRIARCHAL VIOLENCE

The concept of human security is important to gender equality advocates not just because of what it is thought to include, but also because of who is using it and how. The concept is not just employed by activists to draw attention to a political agenda or mobilize support for ending poverty. It is not just used by academics to redefine theoretical frameworks. Rather it is being used by governments to develop policy responses, to set priorities and to justify their actions.

Despite the different interpretations, definitions and emphases, the concept of human security does have common elements. The following characteristics are emerging as central to a human security agenda:

- *It shifts the emphasis from the security of states to the security of people.* This is considered one of the primary contributions of the concept of human security. For centuries, security has been seen primarily as national or state security. The State was the basic building block of the international community with its sovereignty and territorial integrity of paramount importance. The notion of human security brings people into international discussions and raises concerns around the security and safety of people, not just States.
- *It implies and re-emphasizes the obligations of states to ensure the security of their citizens.* The focus on people's security raises the profile of states to provide and protect their citizens. One recommendation in the 1994 **Human Development Report** was that "national governments in rich and poor countries adopt policy measures for human security. They should ensure that all people have the basic capabilities and opportunities, especially in access to assets and to productive and remunerative work."⁶⁵
- *It recognizes the inter-relatedness of people and that many issues cross borders and boundaries.* A human security position highlights the inter-dependent nature of people in today's world stressing that many problems do not have passports and cannot be stopped at political borders. Women and men in industrialized countries are not isolated from poverty in developing

65. UNDP (United Nations Development Programme) (1994). 1994 Human Development Report. New York: Oxford University Press, p. 34.

countries as seen by migration patterns and diseases that do not respect borders. As well, people in developing countries are also at risk from industrial pollution from northern factories that moves around the globe.

- ***It recognizes the importance of non-state actors.*** The international campaign against landmines is often cited as an effective initiative spearheaded by non-governmental organizations. "Civil society organizations are seeking greater opportunity and greater responsibility in promoting human security. In many cases, non-governmental organizations have proven to be extremely effective partners in advocating the security of people."⁶⁶
- ***It requires that those responsible for violations of human rights and humanitarian law are held accountable.*** The creation of the International Criminal Court as well as the International Criminal Tribunals for the former Yugoslavia and Rwanda are seen as important advances in the pursuit of a human security agenda.
- ***It highlights the complexity of security issues reinforcing the need for multi-faceted responses.*** Among the different uses of human security, there is agreement that it is a multi-faceted concept that requires coordination and collaboration among a wide range of actors. One response given prominence is an increased reliance on 'soft power' or persuasion rather total focus on military might and hardware ("powerful ideas rather than powerful weapons").⁶⁷

Gender violence involves an enormous amount of human suffering and injustice, and encompasses every country and all types and classes of people. Far from characterizing regrettable but isolated incidents in the personal domain, violence or at least potential violence conditions every woman's life and dominates the lives of millions of women, impeding both their personal development and the contribution they can make to the lives of those around them... Gender-related violence is a complex and far reaching issue but one that lies at the heart of current debates about sustainable development, good governance and quality of life.⁶⁸

66. DFAIT 1999: Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade (DFAIT), Canada (1999). *Human Security: Safety for People in a Changing World*. Ottawa, p. 9.

67. Hay, Robin Jeffrey (1999). "Present at the Creation? Human Security and Canadian Foreign Policy in the Twenty-first Century," in Fen Oster Hampson, Michael Hart and Martin Rudner (eds.) *A Big League Player? Canada Among Nations*. Toronto: Oxford University Press.

68. El-Bushra, Judy and Eugenia Piza-Lopez (1993). "Gender-related violence: its scope and relevance" *Focus on Gender* Vol. 1, No. 2: 1-9.

The 1993 *UN Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women* defines violence against women as "any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or private life." (Art. 1) Thus violence against women encompasses:

- Violence in the family (including battering, sexual abuse of female children, dowry-related violence, and female genital mutilation).
- Violence within the general community (including rape, sexual harassment, and trafficking in women).
- Violence perpetuated by the state.
- Violation of the human rights of women in situations of armed conflict.
- Violations of reproductive rights (including forced sterilisation and female infanticide).⁶⁹

There is great concern over gender-based violence in times of conflict not only because it happens, but also because until now it has rarely been recognized. The most horrific crimes against women not only go unpunished; they are not always recognized as violations of fundamental human rights.⁷⁰

3.4 HUMAN SECURITY, PATRIARCHY AND STATUS OF INDIAN WOMEN

Women face threats that go well beyond situations of personally experienced infractions on their physical, emotional and material well-being. Human security entails an understanding that threats to women's physical, emotional and material well-being are threats to society as a whole, as well as to women everywhere. It is therefore in the interests of us all to address such threats in a concerted and systematic way to reduce, eliminate and ultimately prevent their recurrence. Consequently, addressing issues of women's human security involves considerations beyond solidarity or social justice, and encompasses an understanding of shared interest.⁷¹

69. *UN Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women*, 1993

70. Brunet, A. and Rousseau, S. (1998), "Acknowledging Violations, Struggling against Impunity: Women's Rights, Human Rights," In Sajor, I.L. (ed.), *Common Grounds: Violence Against Women in War and Armed Conflict Situations*, Asian Center for Women's Human Rights, Quezon City.

71. United Nations (1999), *Framework for further actions and initiatives that might be considered during the special session of the General Assembly entitled "Women 2000: gender equality, development and peace for the twenty-first century"*, Commission on the Status of women

Women's status is affected by relations in the family, class status, and the ideology of the social group to which they belong. It is inherited through historical institutions and culture. The social relations of gender as well as class relations are part of a historical inheritance. Among the ideologies underlying our inheritance is, that of patriarchy. This is a term in which inequality and hierarchy are implicit and is a concept and institution which is discussed in sociological and feminist literature in a variety of ways. Literally 'power of the father' and indicating male supremacy, it is understood variously as 'a symbolic male principle' governing social and gender relations, an institutional structure of male domination, or an ideology based on the power of men. Zillah Eisenstein (1979) suggests that patriarchy provides the sexual hierarchical ordering of society for political control. It is a feature of a large number of societies predating capitalism; a separate phenomenon and independent dynamic observed in connection with social relations between men and women as well as the Organisation and control of production (Rowbotham 1981). Thus it is a useful analytical tool with which to investigate both class and gender relations.

Patriarchy as an ideology is deeply embedded in several societies, cultures, and institutions as well as in the minds of men and women. From experience and a variety of studies we are able to conclude that women over whom such power and authority is exercised are socialised suitably to 'fit in'. Prejudices coloured by patriarchy are inherent in many traditions. Where tradition rules, institutions, cultures, social mechanisms, norms, and practices tend to become resistant to change and hinder women's development. According to standard sociological theory, patriarchy is the result of sociological constructions that are passed down from generation to generation.⁷² These constructions are most pronounced in societies with traditional cultures and less economic development.⁷³ Even in modern, developed societies, however, gender messages conveyed by family, mass media, and other institutions largely favor males having a dominant status.⁷⁴

Patriarchy automatically privileges men over women such that women have little or no claims to material, sexual and intellectual resources of the society. That is, in a patriarchal society women have to struggle to be educated, to have property or to make choices regarding marriage and other aspects of life. For men, these resources are a matter of right and can make choices that affect their lives. The patriarchal system provides self-definitions and norms for women. These social norms restrict the social roles of women as mothers and wives. The patriarchal system also amply

acting as the preparatory committee for the special session of the General Assembly. E/CN.6/1999/PC/2.

72. Sanderson, S.K. (2001), *The Evolution of Human Sociality*, Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, Lanham, Maryland, p. 198.

73. Macionis, J.J. (2000), *Sociology: A Global Introduction*, Prentice Hall, New Jersey, p. 347.

74. Henslin, J.M. (2001), *Essentials of Sociology*, Taylor & Francis, London, pp. 65-67.

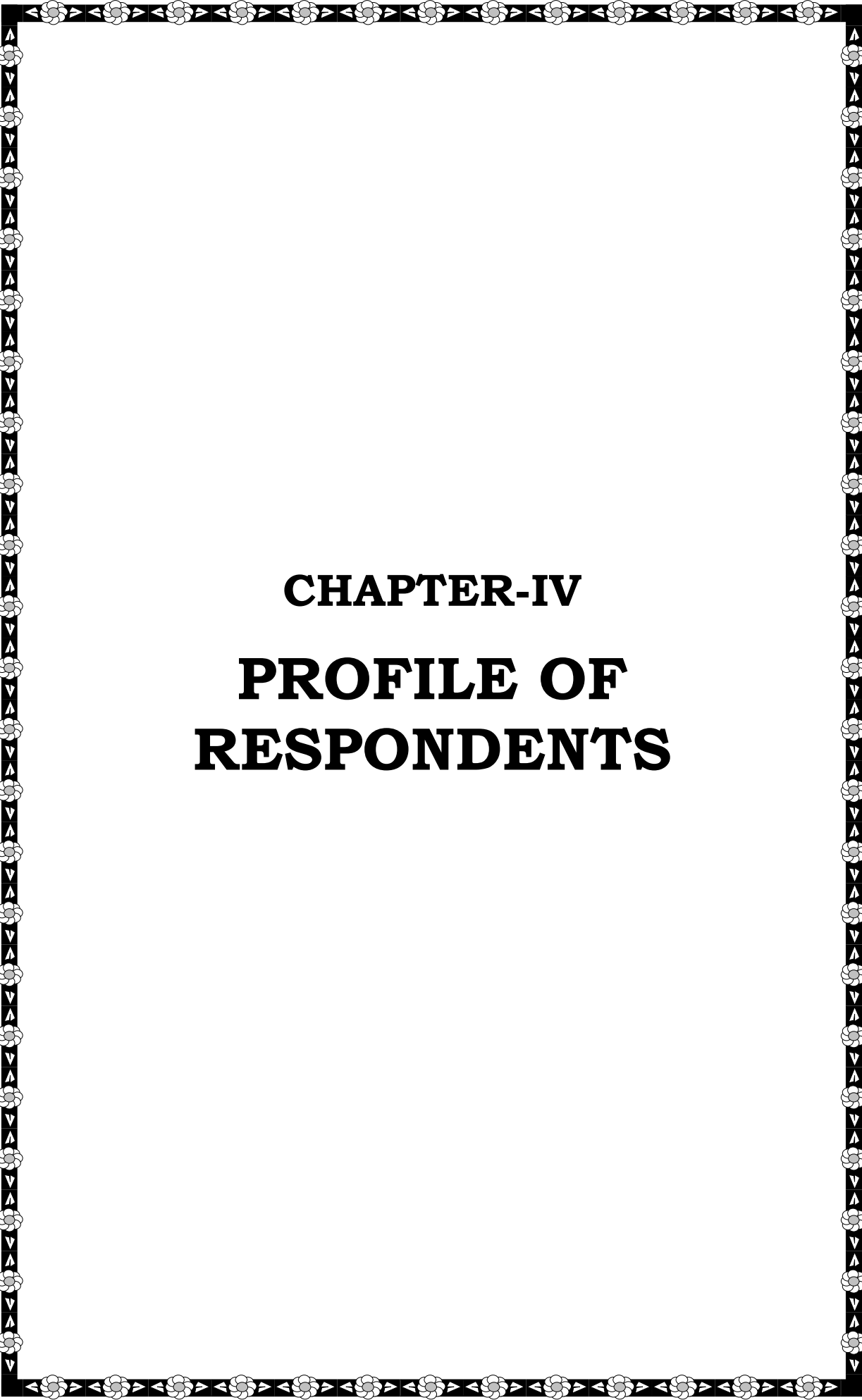
rewards all those women who learn to passively their defined roles. Both wifeness and motherhood become glorified in the patriarchal system. These roles are granted social sanctions and at the same time are also eulogized in local folk lore, in literature, and religion so that women do actively engage themselves in playing their social roles and thus themselves contributes and perpetuates the patriarchal social order.⁷⁵

Patriarchy has become an all encompassing aspect of our societies, modulating individual identity, family, religion, state and economy. In fact there is no aspect of life that escapes the effects of patriarchy. It even limits possibilities for exploring feminine ways of being. Women's cooperation in the patriarchal system was secured by various means – ideology, economic dependency on males, class privileges, veneration bestowed upon confirming and use of force when required. In the Indian context, the ideology of 'Stridharma' and 'Pativrata' as the highest expression of womanhood and chastity as a means of salvation, were indoctrinated in women from childhood itself. 'The 'Pativrata' concept was the master stroke of Hindu-Aryan genius and is one of the most successful ideological construct by any patriarchal system, anywhere in the world.'⁷⁶

Indian culture discriminates, oppresses and suppresses women from conception till death. The list of offences are long and well known – prenatal sex determination, female foeticide, killing or abandonment of female infants after birth, under-nourishment, deprivation of education and marriage before the age of 18, as a child; dowry, dowry killing, domestication, deprived individual identity, denial of employment opportunities, under-employment, lower wages, widowhood, divested inheritance - as an adult and finally abandonment when old and feeble. The laws and statutes to punish all these offences do exist, but the attainment of justice is never an easy task, as the processes are undermined at all levels, not least by women themselves as they had become complicit in the larger structure in which their own subjugation was established.

75. Bhasin, Kamala (1993), *What is Patriarchy*, Kali for Women, New Delhi.

76. Chakravarti, Uma (1993), *Conceptualizing Brahminical patriarchy in Early India*, Centre for Contemporary Studies, Nehru Memorial Museum and Library, New Delhi.



CHAPTER-IV

PROFILE OF

RESPONDENTS

CHAPTER-IV

PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS

Before carrying any sociological study on some social group, it is very important to know about personal profile of its individuals as it effects on their behaviour as well as personality to the great extent.¹ Karl Mannheim (1954)² rightly said that one's thought, speech and views can not be evaluated by his facial expression but he can only be evaluated by his social environment encircled around him. In a social study, it is important to get information about values, thoughts, thinking, behaviours and motives of respondents. The analysis could only be possible if you have idea about respondent's personal, familial and socio-economic background first e.g. their age, sex, religion, caste, education, occupation, income and familial status. All these factors affect the behaviour and thoughts of an individual. Therefore, it's necessary to know one's social, economic and personal profile before studying about their view on a particular subject.

In the present study, social background of selected adult women respondents of Lucknow district is studied through self-constructed, semi-structured, pre-tested interview schedule. In that various social characteristics like: age, religion, caste, educational status, monthly income, occupation, marital status and family background have been studied during survey.

4.1 PERSONAL PROFILE

Age- Age is an important factor which effect biological and social position of a person. It is a scale to measure the mental and physical development of person. It affects the intelligence, aptitude, views, thoughts and personality of a person. It is considered as a main factor in deciding the social status and limitation of roles of a person in the society. In any research, answers given by respondents are clearly indicating the influence of his/her age. Aptitudes and values of a child change when he/she reaches to young age and totally defers in old age. In that way, we can say that our values and thoughts change with change in age. Likewise, behaviour of a person

1. Parsons, T. (1951), *The Social System*, The Free Press of Glenco, New York.
2. Mannheim, Karl (1954), *Ideology and Utopia*, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, p. 238.

is also changing with change in age, because person continuously getting the new experiences.³

Age plays a major role in determining the Capacity of doing a work, views and thoughts of a person, so, it is very important to consider the age factor of the respondents in any social study. Considering the above fact the researcher had asked the question to respondents about their age and analysed the collected information after tabulating them as follows:

Table No. - 4.1
Distribution of Respondents as per Their Age Group

Age Group (In years)	Rural Area		Urban Area		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
18-25	29	14.72	24	12.50	53	13.62
26-33	43	21.83	48	25.00	91	23.39
34-41	36	18.27	38	19.79	74	19.02
42-49	33	16.75	31	16.15	64	16.45
50-57	31	15.74	28	14.58	59	15.17
58-65	25	12.69	23	11.98	48	12.34
Total	197	100.00	192	100.00	389	100.00

Table 4.1 represents the area wise distribution of respondents as per their age group. It shows that maximum (23.39%) respondents belong to age group of 26-33 yrs. After that, 19.02% respondents belong to age group of 34-41 yrs., 16.45% respondents belong to age group of 42-49 yrs., 15.17% respondents belong to age group of 50-57 yrs., 13.62% respondents belong to age group of 18-25 yrs., and 12.34% respondents belong to age group of 58-65 yrs.

This table also shows that out of total respondents from **rural area**, maximum (21.83%) respondents belong to age group of 26-33 years. After that, 18.27% rural respondents belong to age group of 34-41 years, 16.75% respondents belong to age group of 42-49 years, 15.74% respondents belong to age group of 50-57 years, 14.72% respondents belong to age group of 18-25 years, and 12.69% respondents belong to age group of 58-65 years.

3. Talwar, V. (1970), Working Women in Rajasthan : A Sociological Study, Ph.D. Thesis, Deptt. of Socail Science, University of Jodhpur, p. 14.

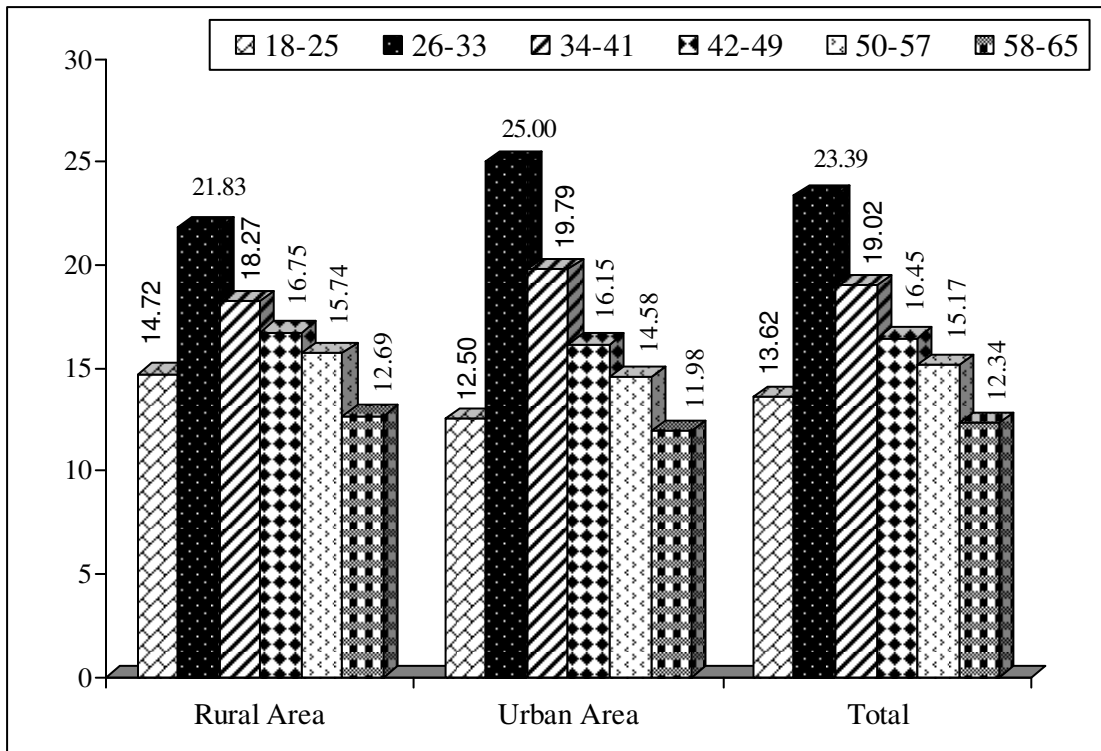


Fig. 4.1: Distribution of Respondents as per Their Age Group

Analysis of agewise distribution of **urban** respondents shows that maximum (25.00%) respondents belong to age group of 26-33 years. After that, 19.79% urban respondents belong to age group of 34-41 years, 16.15% respondents belong to age group of 42-49 years, 14.58% respondents belong to age group of 50-57 years, 12.50% respondents belong to age group of 18-25 years, and 11.98% respondents belong to age group of 58-65 years.

Religion- Religion has been a subject of study and reflection for a very long time. Religion exists in all known societies, although religious beliefs and practices vary from culture to culture. Characteristics that all religions seem to share are:

- set of symbols, invoking feelings of reverence or awe;
- rituals or ceremonies;
- a community of believers.

Religion is a set of beliefs adhered to by the members of a community, involving symbols regarded with a sense of awe or wonder, together with ritual practices in which members of the community engage. Religions do not universally involve a belief in supernatural entities. Although distinctions between religion and

magic are difficult to draw, it is often held that magic is primarily practised by individuals rather than being the focus of community ritual (Giddens, 1997:584).

The rituals associated with religion are very diverse. Ritual acts may include praying, chanting, singing, eating certain kinds of food (or refraining from doing so), fasting on certain days, and so on. Since ritual acts are oriented towards religious symbols, they are usually seen as quite distinct from the habits and procedures of ordinary life.

Lighting a candle or *diya* to honour the divine differs completely in its significance from doing so simply to light a room. Religious rituals are often carried out by an individual in his/her personal everyday life. But all religions also involve ceremonials practised collectively by believers. Regular ceremonials normally occur in special places i.e. churches, mosques, temples, shrines. Religion has had a very close relationship with power and politics. For instance periodically in history there have been religious movements for social change, like various anti-caste movements or movements against gender discrimination. Religion is not just a matter of the private belief of an individual but it also has a public character. And it is that public character of religion, which has an important bearing on other institutions of society. Religion cannot be studied as a separate entity. Social forces always and invariably influence religious institutions. Political debates, economic situations and gender norms will always influence religious behaviour. Conversely, religious norms influence and sometimes even determine social understanding.

Every society has religious beliefs, rites and organisations. Religion very often affects our understanding of the everyday life. The way in which we relate to each other is very often influenced by our religious beliefs. Religions are also related to politics, and to economic activities like production, distribution and consumption. Religion can unite human being together, but also sow hatred among them. Religion may produce differing impacts in different places. At one end of the globe, it serves to justify oppression and unequal distribution of resources. The same religion, you may find, serves as a reason to resist and struggle against oppression, at the other end of the globe. If religious beliefs are the same, then how do we explain why people react differently in different parts of the world? All religions teach love and universal brotherhood. Even then, why do people 'fight' amongst themselves and 'die' in the name of religion? It is precisely these sets of question, and the like which sociologists

study. In a book on Religion, Society and the Individual, Yinger (1957:xi) wrote that religion is a social phenomenon, because it is "woven into the fabric of social life".

Indian society is a multi-religion country. It has mainly four religions i.e. Hindu, Muslim, Sikh and Christian. Apart from these, Jain, Bouddh and Persian etc. are the other religions, which are present in Indian society. They all are having their own religious rites and ways.

Distribution of respondents as per their Religion is as follows:

Table No. - 4.2

Distribution of Respondents as per Their Religion

Religion	Rural Area		Urban Area		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Hindu	143	72.59	122	63.54	265	68.12
Muslim	49	24.87	59	30.73	108	27.76
Sikh/Christian	2	1.02	7	3.65	9	2.31
Boudhh/Jain	3	1.52	4	2.08	7	1.80
Total	197	100.00	192	100.00	389	100.00

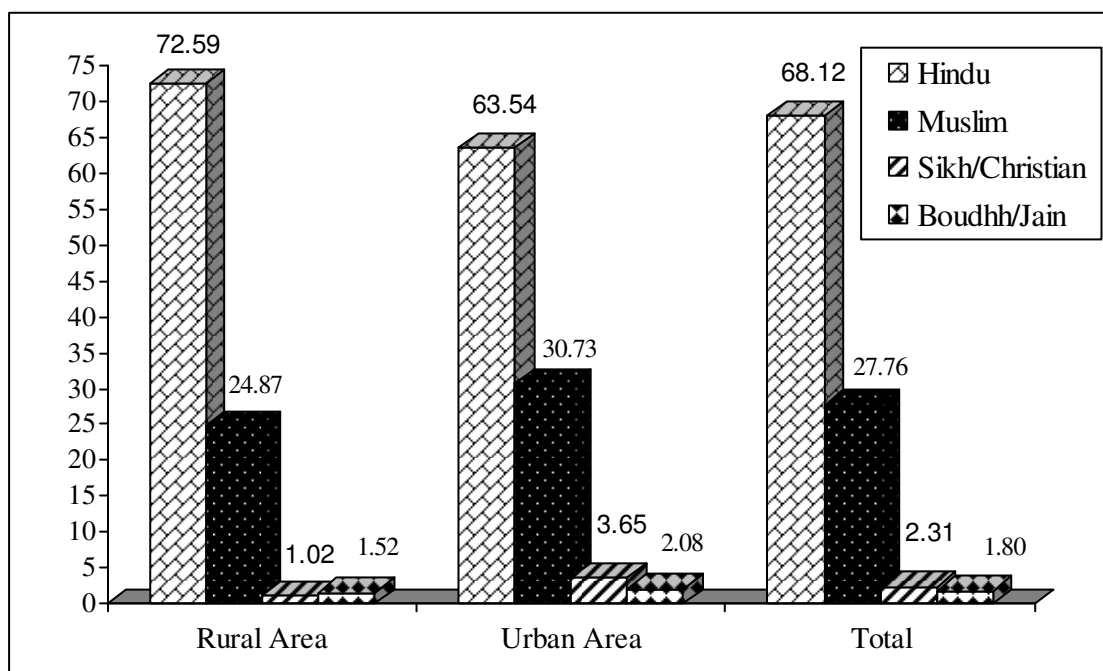


Fig. 4.2: Distribution of Respondents as per Their Religion

Table 4.2 represents the area wise distribution of respondents as per their religion. It shows that maximum (68.12%) respondents are Hindu. After that, 27.76% respondents are Muslim, 2.31% respondents belong to Sikh/Christian religion and 1.80% respondents belong to Bouddh/Jain religion.

This table also shows that out of total respondents from **rural** area, maximum (72.59%) respondents are Hindu. It also reveals that 24.87% respondents belong to Muslim religion, 1.52% respondents belong to Bouddh/Jain religion and 1.02% respondents belong to Sikh/Christian religion.

Analysis of religion wise distribution of **urban** respondents shows that maximum (63.54%) respondents are Hindu. It also reveals that 30.73% respondents belong to Muslim religion, 3.65% respondents belong to Sikh/Christian religion and 2.08% respondents belong to Bouddh/Jain religion.

Caste- The caste system is a distinct Indian social institution that legitimises and enforces practices of discrimination against people born into particular castes. Although it is an institution characteristic of Hindu society, caste has spread to the major non-Hindu communities of the Indian sub-continent. This is especially true of Muslims, Christians and Sikhs.

The English word '*caste*' is actually a borrowing from the Portuguese *casta*, meaning pure breed. The word refers to a broad institutional arrangement that in Indian languages (beginning with the ancient Sanskrit) is referred to by two distinct terms, *varna* and *jati*. *Varna*, literally 'colour', is the name given to a four-fold division of society into *brahmana*, *kshatriya*, *vaishya* and *shudra*, though this excludes a significant section of the population composed of the 'outcastes', foreigners, slaves, conquered peoples and others, sometimes referred to as the *pancham* as or fifth category. *Jati* is a generic term referring to species or kinds of anything, ranging from inanimate objects to plants, animals and human beings. *Jati* is the word most commonly used to refer to the institution of caste in Indian languages, though it is interesting to note that, increasingly, Indian language speakers are beginning to use the English word 'caste'.

Caste is a system of social division and stratification, influenced by Hinduism on the Indian subcontinent, in which an individual's social position is fixed at birth (Bilton et al., 1996:655)

Historically, the caste system classified people by their occupation and status. Every caste was associated with an occupation, which meant that persons born into a particular caste were also 'born into' the occupation associated with their caste, they had no choice. Moreover, and perhaps more importantly, each caste also had a specific place in the hierarchy of social status, so that, roughly speaking, not only were occupational categories ranked by social status, but there could be a further

ranking within each broad occupational category. In strict scriptural terms, social and economic status was supposed to be sharply separated.

Opinions also differ on the exact age of the caste system .It is generally agreed, though, that the four *Varna* classification is roughly three thousand years old. However, the 'caste system' stood for different things in different time periods, so that it is misleading to think of the same system continuing for three thousand years. In its earliest phase, in the late Vedic period roughly between 900-500 BC, the caste system was really a Varna system and consisted of only four major divisions. These divisions were not very elaborate or very rigid, and they were not determined by birth. Movement across the categories seems to have been not only possible but quite common. It is only in the post-Vedic period that caste became the rigid institution that is familiar to us from well known definitions.

The most commonly cited defining features of caste are the following:

1. **Caste is determined by birth**– a child is "born into" the caste of its parents. Caste is never a matter of choice. One can never change one's caste, leave it, or choose not to join it, although there are instances where a person may be expelled from their caste.
2. **Membership in a caste involves strict rules about marriage.** Caste groups are "endogamous", i.e. marriage is restricted to members of the group.
3. Caste membership also involves rules about food and food-sharing. What kinds of food may or may not be eaten is prescribed and who one may share food with is also specified.
4. **Caste involves a system** consisting of many castes arranged in a hierarchy of rank and status. In theory, every person has a caste, and every caste has a specified place in the hierarchy of all castes. While the hierarchical position of many castes, particularly in the middle ranks, may vary from region to region, there is always a hierarchy.
5. **Castes also involve sub-divisions within themselves**, i.e., castes almost always have sub-castes and sometimes sub-castes may also have sub-sub-castes. This is referred to as a segmental organisation.
6. **Castes were traditionally linked to occupations.** A person born into a caste could only practice the occupation associated with that caste, so that occupations were hereditary, i.e. passed on from generation to generation. On the other hand, a particular occupation could only be pursued by the caste associated with it, members of other castes could not enter the occupation.

Theoretically, the caste system can be understood as the combination of two sets of principles, one based on difference and separation and the other on holism and hierarchy. Each caste is supposed to be different from, and is therefore strictly separated from, every other caste. Many of the scriptural rules of caste are thus designed to prevent the mixing of castes; rules ranging from marriage, food sharing and social interaction to occupation. On the other hand, these different and separated castes do not have an individual existence; they can only exist in relation to a larger whole, the totality of society consisting of all castes. Further, this societal whole or system is a hierarchical rather than egalitarian system. Each individual caste occupies not just a distinct place, but also an ordered rank; a particular position in a ladder-like arrangement going from highest to lowest.

Castes are not only unequal to each other in ritual terms; they are also supposed to be complementary and non-competing groups. In other words, each caste has its own place in the system which cannot be taken by any other caste. Since caste is also linked with occupation, the system functions as the social division of labour, except that, in principle, it allows no mobility.

Not surprisingly, it was in the cultural and domestic spheres that caste has proved strongest. Endogamy, or the practice of marrying within the caste, remained largely unaffected by modernisation and change. Even today, most marriages take place within caste boundaries, although there are more inter caste marriages. While some boundaries may have become more flexible or porous, the borders between groups of castes of similar socio-economic status are still heavily patrolled.

For study purpose social status of respondents is classified in three Caste-groups: Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, Other Backward Caste and General

1. The '*Schedules*' listing the castes and tribes recognised as deserving of special treatment because of the massive discrimination practiced against them were drawn up in 1935, by the British Indian government. In present study, SC/STs are considered as all castes/tribes defined in sec. 341 of Indian constitution and published under Constitution (Scheduled caste/tribes) order 1950 (Amended 2008).
2. There were a large group of castes that were of low status and were also subjected to varying levels of discrimination short of untouchability. These were the service and artisanal castes who occupied the lower rungs of the caste hierarchy. The Constitution of India recognises the possibility that there may be groups other than the Scheduled Tribes and Scheduled Castes who suffer

from social disadvantages. These groups, which need not be based on caste alone, but generally are identified by caste, were described as the 'socially and educationally backward classes'. This is the constitutional basis of the popular term 'Other Backward Classes' (OBCs), which is in common, use today. The 93rd Amendment is for introducing reservation for the Other Backward Classes in institutions of higher education.

3. Castes, which are not included in Schedule Caste/Schedule Tribes and Other Backward Caste are known as General caste. Earlier, they were also known as Upper Caste.

Considering the above fact Researcher had asked the question to respondents about their caste and analysed the collected information after tabulating them as follows:

Table No. - 4.3

Distribution of Respondents as per Their Caste

Caste	Rural Area		Urban Area		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
General	85	43.15	97	50.52	182	46.79
OBC	69	35.03	61	31.77	130	33.42
SC/ST	43	21.83	34	17.71	77	19.79
Total	197	100.00	192	100.00	389	100.00

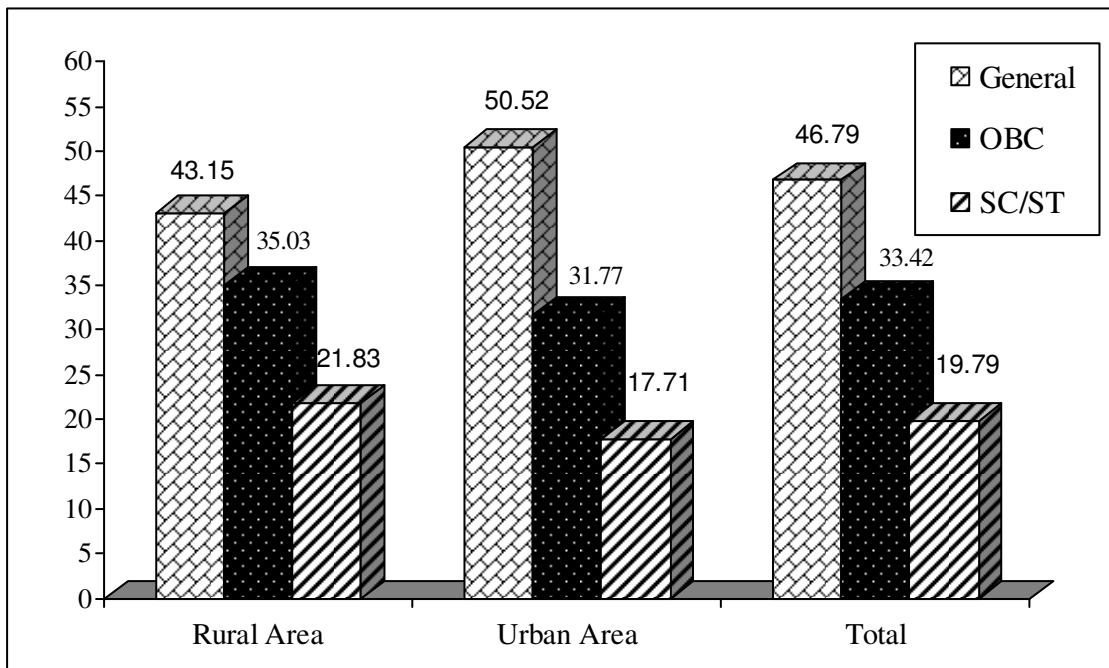


Fig. 4.3: Distribution of Respondents as per Their Caste

Table 4.3 represents the area wise distribution of respondents as per their caste. It shows that maximum (46.79%) respondents belong to general caste, whereas 33.42% respondents belong to other backward caste and 19.79% respondents belong to SC/ST caste.

Table 4.3 also shows that out of total respondents from rural area, 43.15% respondents belong to general caste, whereas 35.03% respondents belong to other backward caste and 21.83% respondents belong to SC/ST caste.

Analysis of social category wise distribution of urban respondents shows that maximum (50.52%) respondents belong to general caste, whereas 31.77% respondents belong to other backward caste and 17.71% respondents belong to SC/ST caste.

Education- Education is a lifelong process, involving both formal and informal institutions of learning. Here we are however confining ourselves only to school education. We are all aware how important getting admission into a school is. We also know, for many of us, school is a step towards higher education and finally employment. For some of us it may mean acquiring some necessary social skills. What is common in all cases is that there is a felt need for education.

Education is the transmission of knowledge from one generation to another by means of direct instruction. Although educational processes exist in all societies, it is only in the modern period that mass education takes the form of schooling, that is, instructions in specialized educational environments in which individuals spend several years of their lives (Giddens, 1997:582).

Sociology understands this need as a process of transmission/ communication of group heritage, common to all societies. There is a qualitative distinction between simple societies and complex, modern societies. In the case of the former there was no need for formal schooling. Children learnt customs and the broader way of life by participating in activities with their adults. In complex societies, we saw there is an increasing economic division of labour, separation of work from home, need for specialised learning and skill attainment, rise of state systems, nations and complex set of symbols and ideas. How do you get educated informally in such a context? How

would parents or other adults informally communicate all that has to be known to the next generation? Education in such a social context has to be formal and explicit.

No society can survive without a 'common base-a certain number of ideas, sentiments and practices which education must inculcate in all children indiscriminately, to whatever social category they belong' (Durkheim 1956: 69). Education should prepare the child for a special occupation, and enable the child to internalise the core values of society.

For the functionalists, education maintains and renews the social structure, transmits and develops culture. The educational system is an important mechanism for the selection and allocation of the individuals in their future roles in the society. It is also regarded as the ground for proving one's ability and hence selective agency for different status according to their abilities.

For the sociologists who perceive society as unequally differentiated education functions as a main stratifying agent. And at the same time the inequality of educational opportunity is also a product of social stratification. In other words we go to different kinds of schools depending on our socio-economic background. And because we go to some kind of schools, we acquire different kind of privileges and finally opportunities.

Considering the above fact Researcher had asked the question to respondents about their Educational status and analysed the collected information after tabulating them as follows:

Table No. - 4.4

Distribution of Respondents as per Their Educational Status

Education	Rural Area		Urban Area		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
No Basic Edu.	43	21.83	11	5.73	54	13.88
Primary	29	14.72	19	9.90	48	12.34
Jr. High School	24	12.18	26	13.54	50	12.85
High School	47	23.86	36	18.75	83	21.34
Intermediate	37	18.78	44	22.92	81	20.82
Graduate	11	5.58	31	16.15	42	10.80
Post Graduate	6	3.05	19	9.90	25	6.43
Professional	0	0.00	6	3.13	6	1.54
Total	197	100.00	192	100.00	389	100.00

Table 4.4 represents the distribution of respondents as per their educational status. It reveals that maximum (21.34%) respondents are having education upto high school level, whereas 20.82% respondents are intermediate, 12.85% respondents are Junior High School, 12.34% of respondents are primary, 10.80% of respondents are Graduate and 6.43% respondents are Post graduate. Apart from these, 1.54% respondents are holding professional degree and a significant portion (13.88%) of respondents are not having any basic education.

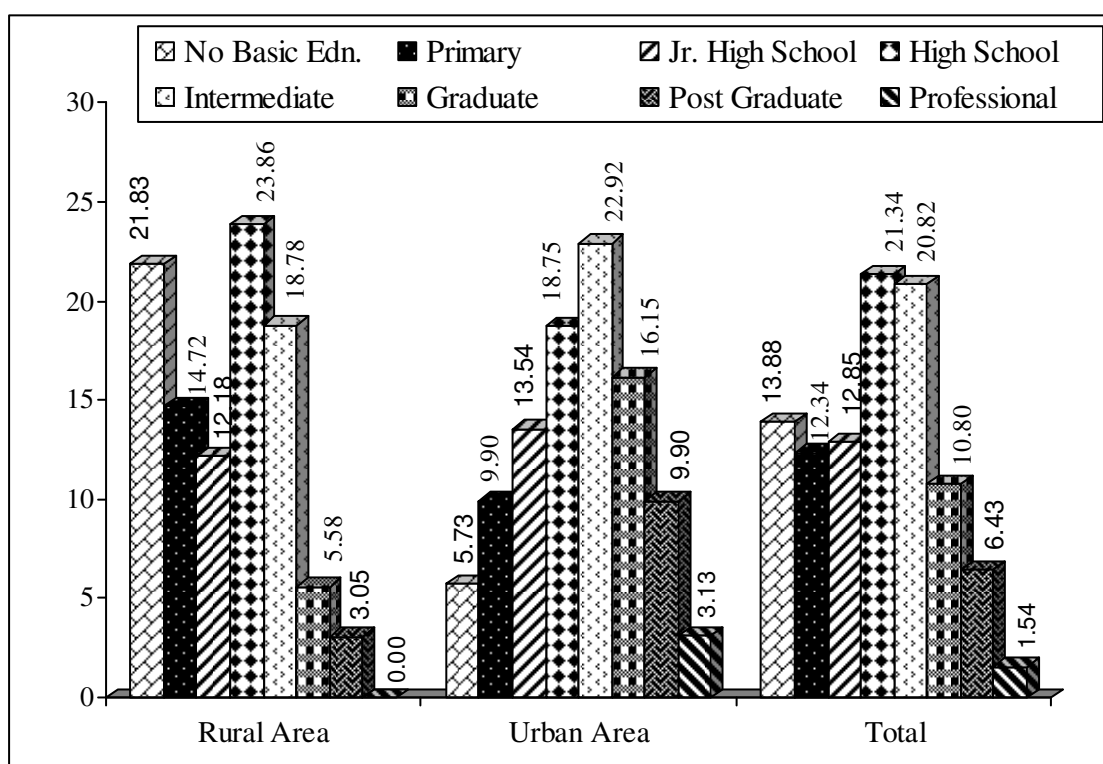


Fig. 4.4: Distribution of Respondents as per Their Educational Status

This table also shows that out of total respondents from rural area, 23.86% respondents are having education up to high school level, whereas 18.78% respondents are intermediate, 14.72% of respondents are primary, 12.18% respondents are Junior High School, 5.58% of respondents are Graduate and 3.05% respondents are Post graduate. Apart from these, more than One-fifth (21.83%) of respondents are not having any basic education and none of the respondent is having professional degree.

Analysis of educational status wise distribution of urban respondents shows that maximum (22.92%) respondents are having education up to intermediate level, whereas 18.75% respondents are educated up to high school, 16.15% of respondents are Graduate, 13.54% respondents are Junior High School, 9.90% of respondents are primary, and 9.90% respondents are Post graduate. Apart from these, 3.03% respondents are holding professional degree and a 5.73% of respondents are not having any basic education.

Table No. - 4.5

Distribution of Respondents as per Their Marital Status

Marital Status	Rural Area		Urban Area		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Unmarried	14	7.11	20	10.42	34	8.74
Married	172	87.31	161	83.85	333	85.60
Widow	5	2.54	4	2.08	9	2.31
Divorcee	2	1.02	5	2.60	7	1.80
Separated	4	2.03	2	1.04	6	1.54
Total	197	100.00	192	100.00	389	100.00

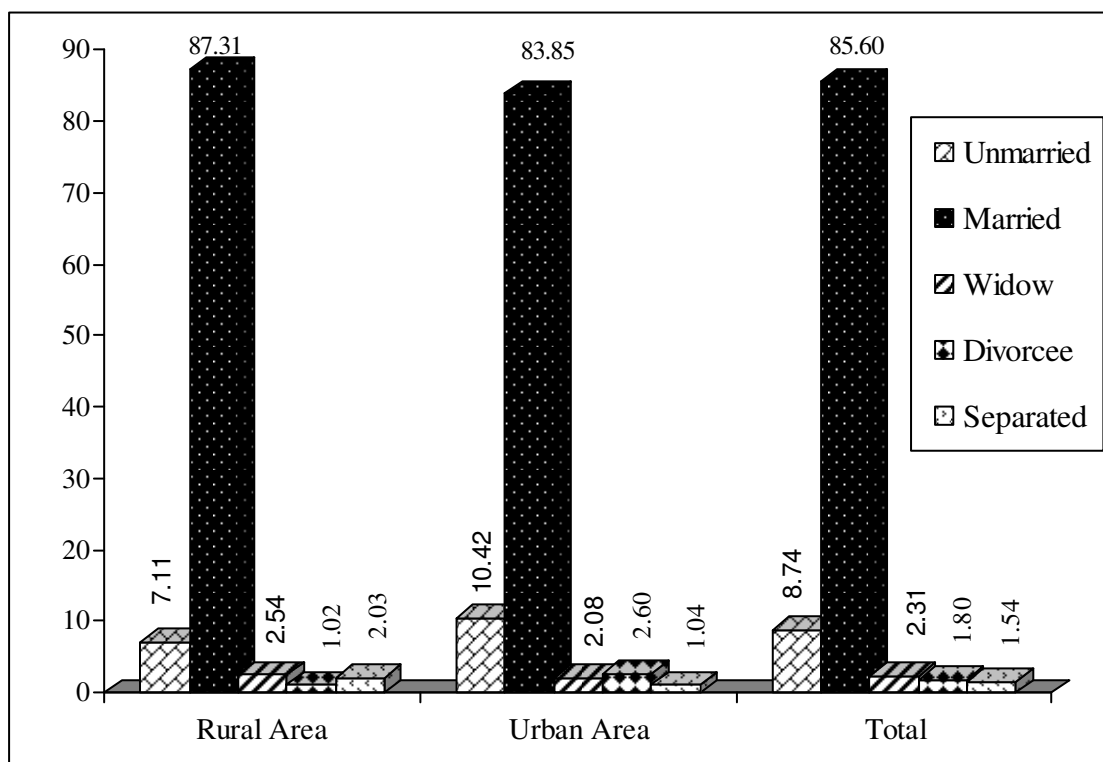


Fig. 4.5: Distribution of Respondents as per Their Marital Status

Table 4.5 represents the distribution of respondents as per their marital status. It reveals that maximum (85.60%) respondents are married, whereas 8.74% respondents are unmarried. Apart from these, 2.31% of respondents are widow, 1.80% of respondents are divorcee and 1.54% of respondents are living in separation.

This table also shows that out of total respondents from rural area, maximum (87.31%) respondents are married and 7.11% respondents are unmarried. Apart from these, 2.54% of respondents are widow, 1.02% of respondents are divorcee and 2.03% of respondents are living in separation.

Analysis of marital status wise distribution of urban respondents shows that maximum (83.85%) respondents are married and 10.42% respondents are unmarried. Apart from these, 2.60% of respondents are divorcee, 2.08% of respondents are widows and 1.04% of respondents are living in separation.

Occupation and Monthly Income

It is an accepted view that women are far more exposed to poverty than men are. Women own only a negligible proportion of property in the World. It is customary for men to have access to the family's money; women have to ask them for money when they need some. Similarly, women often have access to the family bank-account only through the husband, since typically he is the account-holder.⁴

Despite overall advances in women's economic status in many countries, many women continue to face discrimination in formal and informal sectors of the economy, as well as economic exploitation within the family. Women's lack of economic empowerment, also reflected in lack of access to and control over economic resources in the form of land, personal property, wages and credit, can place them at increased risk of violence. In addition, restrictions on women's control over economic resources, such as household income, can constitute a form of violence against women in the family. While economic independence does not shield women from violence, access to economic resources can enhance women's capacity to make meaningful choices, including escaping violent situations and accessing mechanisms for protection and redress.

4. HCWG (2006), *Do you know What patriarchal violence is?*, Stop-Male Violence Project, Habeas Corpus Working Group, Budapest, Hungary.

Distribution of respondents as per their occupation and monthly income is presented as follows:

Table No. - 4.6
Distribution of Respondents as per Their Occupation

Occupation	Rural Area		Urban Area		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
House wife	133	67.51	127	66.15	260	66.84
Labour	36	18.27	11	5.73	47	12.08
Home Business	18	9.14	14	7.29	32	8.23
Govt. Service	6	3.05	11	5.73	17	4.37
Private Service	4	2.03	29	15.10	33	8.48
Total	197	100.00	192	100.00	389	100.00

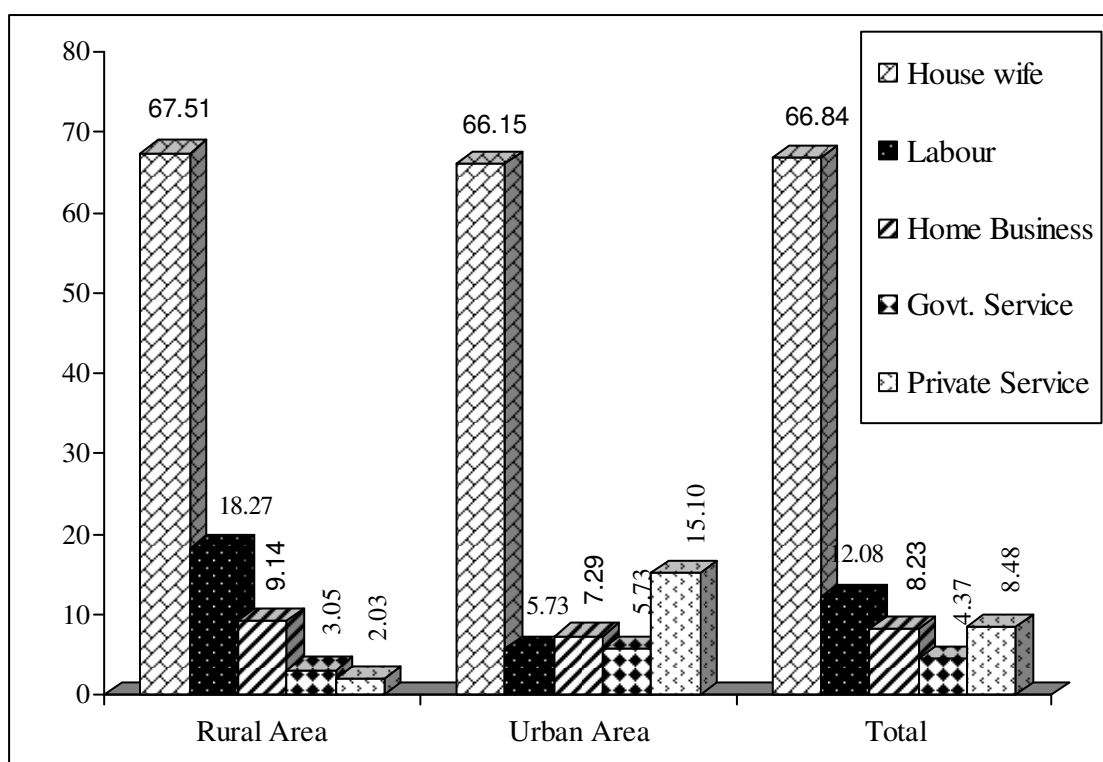


Fig. 4.6: Distribution of Respondents as per Their Occupation

Table 4.6 represents the distribution of respondents as per their occupation. This table indicates that maximum (66.84%) respondents are housewife. Apart from these, 12.08% of respondents are labourer, 8.48% of respondents are in private service, 4.37% of respondents are in government service and 8.23% of respondents are earning from home business.

This table also shows that out of total respondents from rural area, maximum (67.51%) respondents are housewife. Apart from these, 18.27% of respondents are labourer, 9.14% of respondents are earning from home business, 3.05% of respondents are in government service and 2.03% of respondents are in private service.

Analysis of occupation wise distribution of urban respondents shows that 66.15% respondents are housewife. Apart from these, 15.10% of respondents are in private service, 7.29% of respondents are earning from home business, 5.73% of respondents are labourer and 5.73% of respondents are in government service.

Table No. - 4.7

Distribution of Respondents as per Their Monthly Income

Monthly Income in Rs.	Rural Area		Urban Area		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
No Income	133	67.51	127	66.15	260	66.84
Up to 3000	39	19.80	5	2.60	44	11.31
3001 to 5000	11	5.58	14	7.29	25	6.43
5001 to 10000	7	3.55	17	8.85	24	6.17
10001 to 25000	4	2.03	21	10.94	25	6.43
25001 to 40000	2	1.02	5	2.60	7	1.80
Above 40000	1	0.51	3	1.56	4	1.03
Total	197	100.00	192	100.00	389	100.00

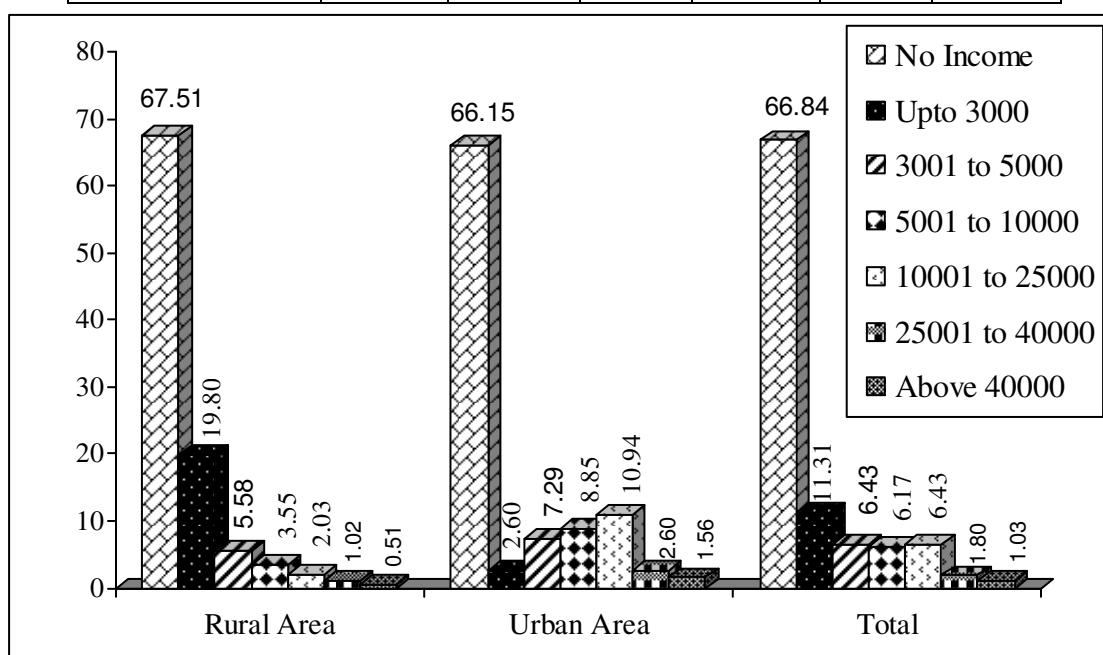


Fig. 4.7: Distribution of Respondents as per Their Monthly Income

Table 4.7 represents the distribution of respondents as per their monthly income. This table indicates that maximum (66.84%) respondents are not having any regular monthly income. Apart from these, 11.31% of respondents are having monthly income up to Rs. 3000, 6.43% of respondents are having monthly income between Rs. 3001 to 5000, 6.43% of respondents are having monthly income between Rs. 10001 to 20000, 6.17% of respondents are having monthly income between Rs. 5001 to 10000, 1.80% of respondents are having monthly income between Rs. 25001 to 40000, and 1.03% of respondents are having monthly income above Rs. 40000.

This table also shows that out of total respondents from rural area, maximum (67.51%) respondents are not having any regular monthly income. Apart from these, 19.80% of respondents are having monthly income up to Rs. 3000, 5.58% of respondents are having monthly income between Rs. 3001 to 5000, 3.55% of respondents are having monthly income between Rs. 5001 to 10000, 2.03% of respondents are having monthly income between Rs. 10001 to 20000, 1.02% of respondents are having monthly income between Rs. 25001 to 40000, and 0.51% of respondents are having monthly income above Rs. 40000.

Analysis of monthly income wise distribution of urban respondents shows that 66.15% respondents are not having any regular monthly income and 2.60% of respondents are having monthly income up to Rs. 3000. Apart from these, 10.94% of respondents are having monthly income between Rs. 10001 to 20000, 8.85% of respondents are having monthly income between Rs. 5001 to 10000, 7.29% of respondents are having monthly income between Rs. 3001 to 5000, 2.60% of respondents are having monthly income between Rs. 25001 to 40000, and 1.56% of respondents are having monthly income above Rs. 40000.

4.2 FAMILY PROFILE

The Family- The family was a necessary precondition for human evolution, for without it human existence would not have been possible. The human infant is born helpless. It has a potential for physical and mental development. But it requires years

to achieve its maturity. In the case of animals, their young ones are able to take care of themselves shortly after birth. But for human beings the long period of pregnancy and the prolonged helplessness in infancy and childhood, needs a long association of parents. This has resulted in the formation of a family.

The family, being the basic unit of society, has a vital and organic link with society. It is from the family that the citizens come and it is within the family that they find the first school of social virtues. The family is the bridge between the child and society. In the family, the child learns mutual respect, concern for others, generous service, deep solidarity, personal responsibility etc. These are the basic steps of social life. The family is thus the most effective means of humanizing and personalizing society. The family is the custodian and transmitter of values.

The Evolution of the Family- The family as a group of parents and offspring's existed even before the appearance of man upon this planet. Family like association is seen among birds and higher mammals. The chimpanzee is a highly social creature which lives in family groups. The family life of apes and human beings can be compared. There is a selection of a mate, interaction between male and female, levels of control among father, mother and children and a child is taken care of primarily by mother.

The Definition of Family- We have seen that the structure and function of the family varies from place to place. So it is difficult to give a definition of the term 'family'. However, the definition of the family must include that which is common to the great variety of human groups to which the term 'family' has been applied. There are certain characteristics that are common to the human family in all times and in all places that differentiate the family from other social groups.

According to Ernest W Burgess and Harvey J. Lock, these characteristics are:

- 1) The family is composed of persons united by the ties of marriage, blood or adoption. The bond between husband and wife is that of marriage, and the relationship between parents and children is generally that of blood and sometimes that of adoption.
- 2) The members of the family typically live together under one roof and constitute a single household. Sometimes, as in the past, the household is large

consisting of three or four or even five generations. Today the household is small, consisting of the husband and wife with or without one or two children.

- 3) The family is a unity of interacting and intercommunicating persons. They play the roles of husband and wife, father and mother, son and daughter, brother and sister. These roles are defined by the community.
- 4) The family maintains a common culture derived mainly from the general culture. Usually this culture is the outcome of the merging of the two cultures of the husband and wife.

Family is a group of individuals related to one another by blood ties, marriage or adoption, who form an economic unit, the adult members of which are responsible for the upbringing of children. All known societies involve some form of family system, although the nature of family relationships is widely variable. While in modern societies the main family form is the nuclear family, a variety of extended family relationships are also often found.⁵

On the basis of the above characteristics the family may be defined "as a group of persons united by the ties of marriage, blood or adoption, constituting a single household; interacting and communicating with each other in their respective social roles as husband and wife, mother and father, son and daughter, brother and sister and creating and maintaining a common culture".

A family is a community of people living together in an environment which is a centre of healing, a place where one can live, where one can admit one's frustrations, stupidities and anger to people who do not retaliate. It is in the school of everyday family life, with all masks dropped and hypocrisies exposed, that man, woman and child acquire the potential to know what it is to be truly human, and fully human people have tried alternative arrangements for a family. But none of them are as efficient as a family. Children thrive best when they have a father and mother to love and protect them in a home. The parents also need the life long commitment in which love is proved.

The three chief historical stages in the evolution of the family are:

- i) The large patriarchal family characteristic of ancient society;
- ii) The small patriarchal family which had its origin in the medieval period; and

5. Giddens, Anthony (1997), *Sociology*, Polity Press, London, p. 582

iii) The modern democratic or nuclear family which is the product of the industrial revolution and the economic and social changes that followed.

The small patriarchal family was the second stage in the evolution of the family structure. It consisted of husband and wife and children and one or two grandparents and one or two unmarried brothers and sisters of the husband and wife. This type of family was mostly seen in urban areas where the members used to work in industries. Here also the senior male member had the supreme authority over the whole family.

The democratic or nuclear family consists of only the husband and wife and the children. This type of family system is more prevalent in modern society. Here the husband and wife share more responsibility and are freer. They can take their own decisions. Children can also join in the decision making consistent with the advancement in age.

In India we find three types of family structures which are almost identical with the historical family patterns. They are:

- 1) The large joint family;
- 2) The nuclear family; and
- 3) The stem or extended family

Joint Family- The large joint family is almost like the large patriarchal family where three or four generations of parents and off springs live together. This is mostly seen in rural areas. These families are mostly agricultural families.

The joint family assures shelter for the aged and sick, social security for the unemployed and support for the young couple. Children grow up in an atmosphere of security and affection. The newly married couple get training in family life and child care. The sons get the training from their father, uncle and grandfathers. The daughters get it from their mothers, aunts and grandmothers.

In a joint family, the wisdom and experience of the elders are shared. The joint family has its own codes of behaviour and its own values which are transmitted from one generation to the other generation. On the whole, we can say that the joint family provides an umbrella of support which covers financial loss, social security and even provides informal counselling. In the joint family the supreme authority is vested in the senior male member. So the whole life of the family goes according to his

efficiency and attitudes. The junior members may not take up any responsibility and initiative. There, is no freedom for the individuals, especially women. The head of the family may not be able to adjust to the social changes that are taking place outside the family. There will be a perpetuation of old customs and values.

Nuclear Family- In a nuclear family, the husband and wife live with their children. This is mostly seen in urban areas. Both the husband and wife may be earning members in such families.

The husband and wife have the full freedom to act according to their own ideas. There is more financial security and individual freedom. This type of families can easily adapt to social changes. There is more responsibility and initiative for all the members. There is nobody to help and guide the members, especially when some conflict arises. The practical wisdom and emotional security offered by the joint family is lacking in a nuclear family. There is nobody to look after the children. Children miss the protection and affection of grand parents. Working mothers are forced to leave the children either with the servants or in a day care centre.

The Stem or Extended Family- This is midway between the joint family and the nuclear family. The husband, wife and children live with one of their grand parents.

This type of family has all the advantages of the joint family and the nuclear family, provided the grandparents do not dominate. Children' are looked after properly. Grandparents also may not feel the loneliness and will be happy with their children and grandchildren. Parents can give all the security and guidance to their son and daughter, who are newly married. If the parents who live with their son/daughter are too dominating, the young couple may loose their freedom and individuality. There are chances of problems with in-laws. For growth in marriage, it is desirable that the couple live on their own.

Each system of family has its own advantages and disadvantages. But if the members are cooperative and have concern for each other, the disadvantages can be reduced to the minimum. The newly married couple who start their family life should have the freedom and initiative of a nuclear family and the emotional security and practical wisdom of a joint family. They should have the feeling of the 'home' where one has full relaxation and recreation and can live without masks.

Functions of the Family- The family is the basic unit of society. Today's family faces lot of problems due to the social changes. In spite of the problems in the family, it continues to exist because it meets the needs of children, adults and society at large.

The family:

- provides for the reproduction of the race;
- passes on the cultural heritage of the group;
- provides physical security, protection and the material opportunities for living and growth;
- meets the deep emotional needs of both children and adults and provides for their social, emotional, intellectual and spiritual development;
- develops in its members socially desirable character traits and acceptable moral standards;
- develops an orderly system of living among its members with provision for eating, sleeping, school, work, etc., and
- develops sound relationships among members of the family and between them and their neighbours.

The family thus meets the basic physiological and psychological needs of its members.

Considering the above facts Researcher had gathered the information regarding family background of respondents and analysed as follows:

Table No. - 4.8
Distribution of Respondents as per Nature of Their Family

Nature of Family	Rural Area		Urban Area		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Nuclear	101	51.27	124	64.58	225	57.84
Joint	96	48.73	68	35.42	164	42.16
TOTAL	197	100.00	192	100.00	389	100.00

Table 4.8 represents the distribution of respondents as per nature of their family. It shows that 57.84% respondents belong to nuclear family, whereas 42.16% respondents belong to joint family.

This table also indicates that out of total respondents from rural area, 51.27% respondents belong to nuclear family, whereas 48.73% respondents belong to joint family.

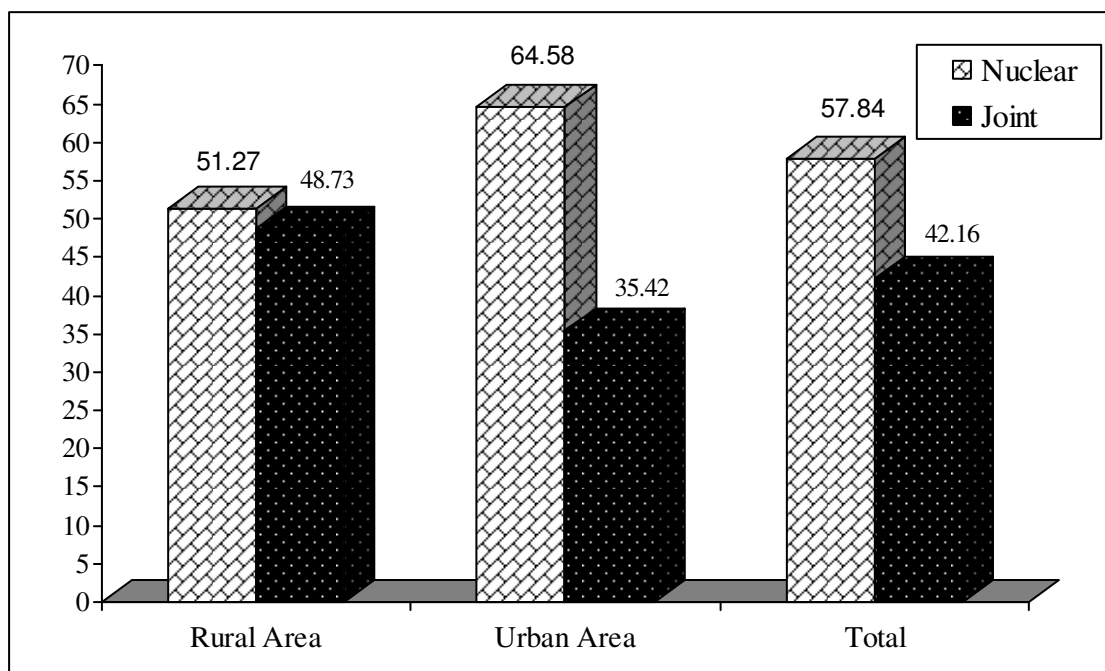


Fig. 4.8: Distribution of Respondents as per Nature of Their Family

Analysis of distribution of urban respondents as per nature of their family shows that 64.58% respondents belong to nuclear family, whereas 35.42% respondents belong to joint family.

Total number of members in family :- Number of members in a family mostly depends upon the nature of family, as nuclear family consists of only the husband-wife and the their children whereas joint family consists of three or four generations of parents and off springs live together which results a large number of its members.

Table No. - 4.9

Gender wise Distribution of Family Members of Respondents

Gender	Rural Area		Urban Area		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Male	629	51.43	517	51.91	1146	51.64
Female	594	48.57	479	48.09	1073	48.36
TOTAL	1223	100.00	996	100.00	2219	100.00
Sex Ratio	944		927		936	

Table 4.9 represents the gender wise distribution of family members of respondents. This table reveals that distribution of family members as per their gender is approximately same in rural as well as urban area. But number of female members with comparison to male is more in rural area, as sex ratio at rural area (944) is more than the urban area (927).

Table No. - 4.10

Distribution of Respondents as per Number of Members in Their Family

Number of Members	Rural Area		Urban Area		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
2-3	10	5.08	44	22.92	54	13.88
4-5	60	30.46	67	34.90	127	32.65
6-7	79	40.10	59	30.73	138	35.48
8-9	39	19.80	17	8.85	56	14.40
10-11	9	4.57	5	2.60	14	3.60
TOTAL	197	100.00	192	100.00	389	100.00

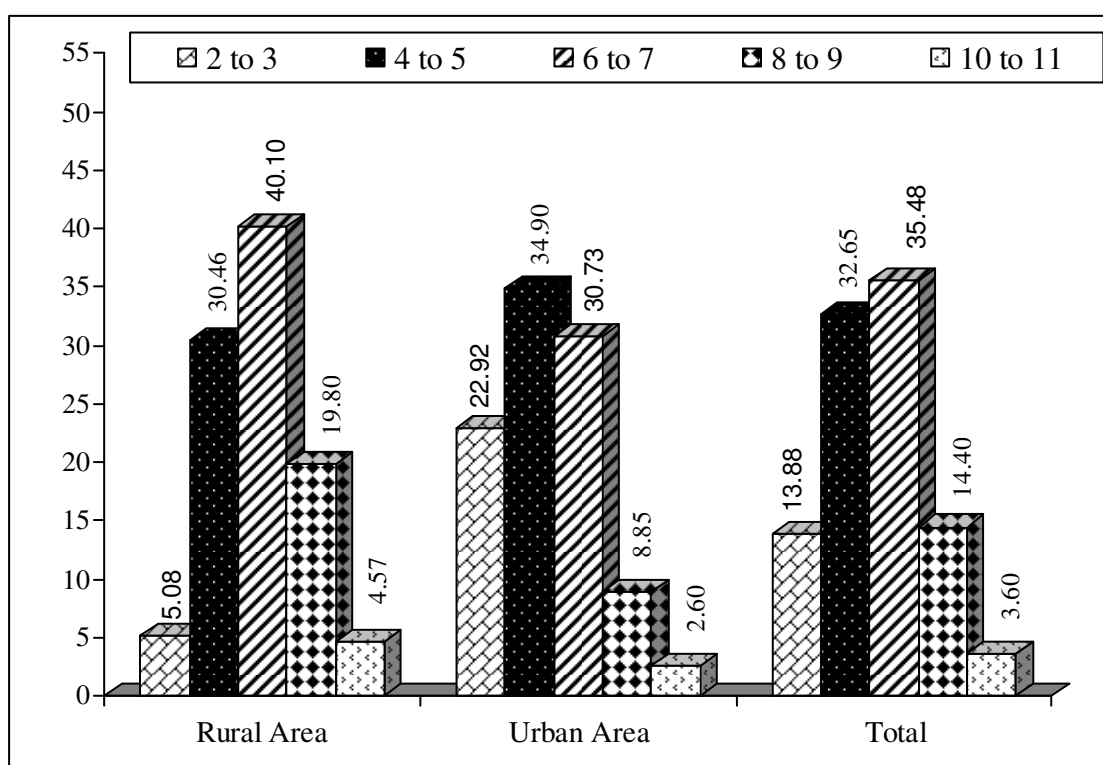


Fig. 4.9: Distribution of Respondents as per Number of Members in Their Family

Table 4.10 represents the distribution of respondents as per number of members in their family. It shows that 35.48% respondents belong to family having 6 to 7 members, whereas families of 32.65% respondents are having 4 to 5 members, 14.40% of respondents are having 8 to 9 members, 13.88% of respondents are having

2 to 3 members and 3.60% of respondents are having 10 to 11 members in their family.

This table also indicates that out of total respondents from rural area, 40.10% of respondents belong to family having 6 to 7 members, whereas families of 30.46% respondents are having 4 to 5 members, 19.80% of respondents are having 8 to 9 members, 4.57% of respondents are having 10 to 11 members and 5.08% of respondents are having 2 to 3 members in their family.

Analysis of distribution of urban respondents as per number of members in their family shows that 34.90% respondents belong to family having 4 to 5 members, whereas families of 30.73% respondents are having 6 to 7 members, 22.92% of respondents are having 2 to 3 members, 8.85% of respondents are having 8 to 9 members and 2.60% of respondents are having 10 to 11 members in their family.

Table No. - 4.11

Distribution of Respondents as per Number of Dependent Members in Their Family

Number of Dependent Members	Rural Area		Urban Area		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1-2	25	12.69	61	31.77	86	22.11
3-4	87	44.16	97	50.52	184	47.30
5-6	71	36.04	27	14.06	98	25.19
7-8	14	7.11	7	3.65	21	5.40
TOTAL	197	100.00	192	100.00	389	100.00

Table 4.11 represents the distribution of respondents as per number of dependent members in their family. It shows that 47.30% respondents are having 3 to 4 dependent members in their family, whereas families of 25.19% respondents are having 5 to 6 dependent members, 22.11% of respondents are having 1 to 2 dependent members and 5.40% of respondents are having 7 to 8 dependent members in their family.

This table also indicates that out of total respondents from rural area, 44.16% respondents are having 3 to 4 dependent members in their family, whereas families of 36.04% of respondents are having 5 to 6 dependent members, 12.69% of respondents are having 1 to 2 dependent members and 7.11% of respondents are having 7 to 8 dependent members in their family.

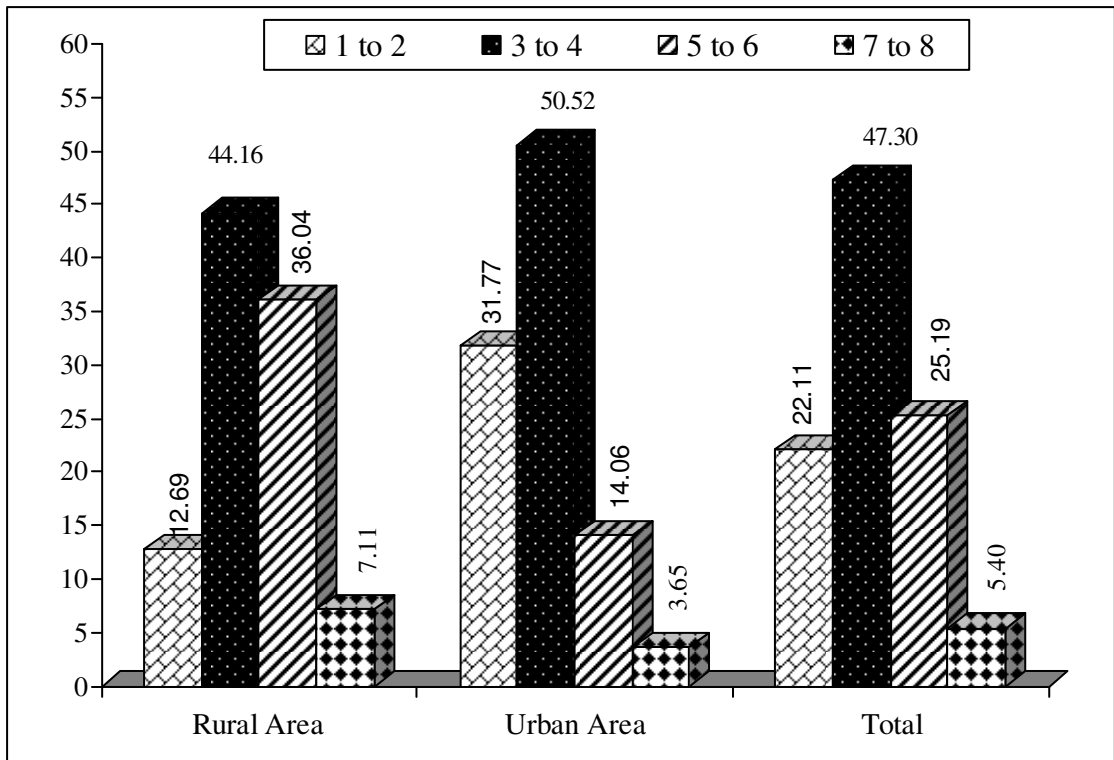


Fig. 4.10: Distribution of Respondents as per Number of Dependent Members in Their Family

Analysis of distribution of urban respondents as per number of dependent members in their family shows that 50.52% respondents are having 3 to 4 dependent members in their family, whereas families of 31.77% respondents are having 1 to 2 dependent members, 14.06% of respondents are having 5 to 6 dependent members and 3.65% of respondents are having 7 to 8 dependent members in their family.

Table No. - 4.12

Distribution of Respondents as per Number of Earning Members in Their Family

Number of Earning Members	Rural Area		Urban Area		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1	46	23.35	79	41.15	125	32.13
2	112	56.85	63	32.81	175	44.99
3	39	19.80	50	26.04	89	22.88
TOTAL	197	100.00	192	100.00	389	100.00

Table 4.12 represents the distribution of respondents as per number of earning members in their family. It shows that 44.99% respondents are having two earning members in their family, whereas families of 32.13% respondents are having single

earning members and 22.88% of respondents are having three earning members in their family.

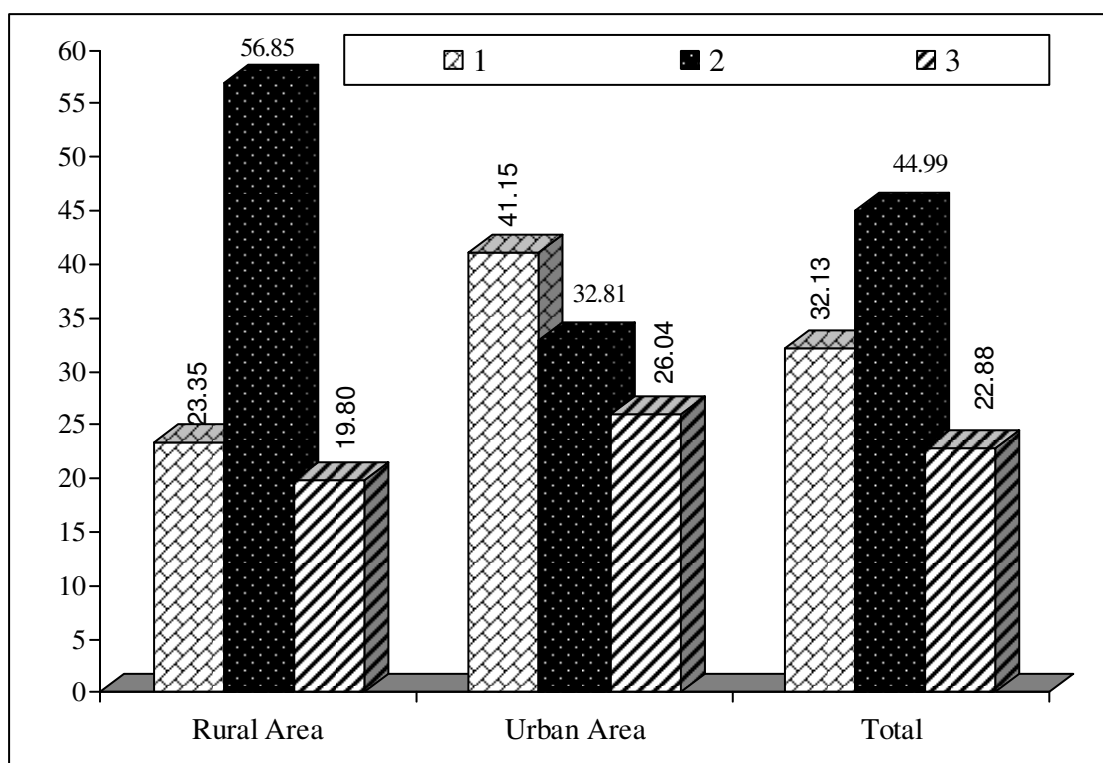


Fig. 4.11 : Distribution of Respondents as per Number of Earning Members in Their Family

This table also indicates that out of total respondents from rural area, 56.85% respondents are having two earning members in their family, whereas families of 23.35% respondents are having single earning members and 19.80% of respondents are having three earning members in their family.

Analysis of distribution of urban respondents as per number of earning members in their family shows that 41.15% respondents are having single earning members in their family, whereas families of 32.81% respondents are having two earning members and 26.04% of respondents are having three earning members in their family.

Occupation of Family- Division of work for every person is done according to his/her working ability and knowledge on that work, like- Doctor, Advocate, Engineer, Carpenter, Mechanic etc everyone is well capable of doing his job with perfection. An untrained person earns less than a well trained person. Occupation is the primary activity of a person by which he earn the money to make is life comfort. It

determines the economical status of man. Technical training is most important factor to decide one's income or salary. One's income decides his economical and social status, life style, eating behaviour and educational status of his children.

Table No. - 4.13
Distribution of Respondents as per Main Occupation of Their Family

Main Occupation	Rural Area		Urban Area		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Agriculture	101	51.27	2	1.04	103	26.48
Labour	43	21.83	21	10.94	64	16.45
Traditional Business	23	11.68	19	9.90	42	10.80
Organised Business	7	3.55	23	11.98	30	7.71
Govt. Service (Gen.)	11	5.58	38	19.79	49	12.60
Govt. Service (Exe.)	4	2.03	14	7.29	18	4.63
Private Service (Gen)	5	2.54	55	28.65	60	15.42
Private Service (Exe.)	1	0.51	11	5.73	12	3.08
Professional	2	1.02	9	4.69	11	2.83
Total	197	100.00	192	100.00	389	100.00

Table 4.13 represents the distribution of respondents as per main occupation of their occupation. This table indicates that main occupation of the families of 26.48% respondents is agriculture, whereas main occupation of the families of 16.45% respondents is daily wage labour. Apart from these, main occupation of the families of 15.42% respondents is low level private service, main occupation of the families of 12.60% respondents is low level govt. service and main occupation of the families of 10.80% respondents is traditional/small business, while family occupation of rest of the respondents includes organised business (7.71%), higher govt (4.63%) and private (3.08%) service, and professional work (2.83%).

This table also shows that out of total respondents from rural area, main occupation of the families of 51.27% respondents is agriculture, main occupation of the families of 21.83% respondents is daily wage labour and main occupation of the families of 11.68% respondents is traditional/small business. Main occupation of the families of rest of the respondents includes low level govt. service (2.03%), organised business (3.35%), low level private service (2.54%), higher govt (4.63%) and private (0.51%) service, and professional work (1.02%).

Analysis of occupation wise distribution of urban respondents shows that main occupation of the families of 28.65% respondents is Private Service (Gen), 19.79% respondents is Govt. Service (Gen.), 11.98% respondents is Organised Business, 10.94% respondents is labour and main occupation of 9.90% of respondent is traditional/small business. Main occupation of the families of rest of the respondents includes Govt. Service (Exe.) (7.29%), Pvt. Service (Exe.) (5.73%), professional work (4.69%) and agriculture (1.04%).

Income of Family- Income of the family is total income earned by all family members. Income of the family decides economic and social status of its members and their life style, eating behaviour and educational status of children in the family. Importance of income increases in case of joint family, especially when there are many more members. If one of the member is earning more and other are earning much lesser to them, the status of each member remain same as the as status of family.

Table No. - 4.14

Distribution of Respondents as per Monthly Income of Their Family

Monthly Income in Rs.	Rural Area		Urban Area		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Up to 3000	11	5.58	1	0.52	12	3.08
3000 to 6000	43	21.83	4	2.08	47	12.08
6001 to 10000	79	40.10	29	15.10	108	27.76
10001 to 20000	54	27.41	66	34.38	120	30.85
20001 to 40000	6	3.05	64	33.33	70	17.99
40001 to 60000	3	1.52	19	9.90	22	5.66
Above 60000	1	0.51	9	4.69	10	2.57
Total	197	100.00	192	100.00	389	100.00

Table 4.14 represents the distribution of respondents as per monthly income of their family. This table indicates that monthly income of 30.85% respondents is between Rs. 10001 to 20000 and monthly income of family of 27.76% of respondents is Rs. 6000 to 10000. Apart from these, monthly income of family of 17.99% of respondents is Rs. 20001 to 40000, family of 12.08% of respondents are having monthly income between Rs. 3000 to 6000 and family of 5.66% of respondents are

having monthly income between Rs. 40001 to 60000. Monthly income of family of 3.08% of respondents is up to Rs. 3000 and 2.57% of respondents is above Rs. 60000.

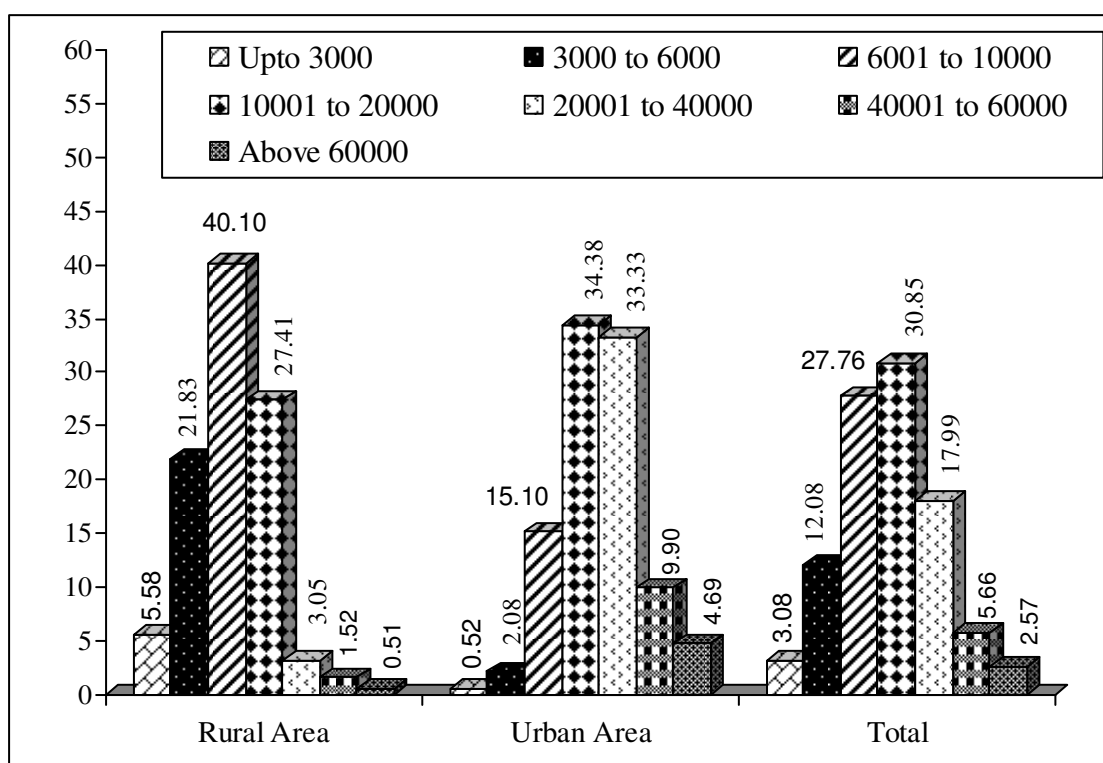


Fig. 4.12 : Distribution of Respondents as per Their Monthly Income

This table also shows that out of total respondents from rural area, monthly income of 40.10% respondents is between Rs. 6001 to 10000, where as monthly income of 27.41% of respondents is Rs. 10000 to 20000 and monthly income of family of 21.83% of respondents is Rs. 3000 to 6000. Apart from these, monthly income of family of 3.05% of respondents is Rs. 20001 to 40000 and family of 1.52% of respondents are having monthly income between Rs. 40001 to 60000. Monthly income of family of 5.58% of respondents is up to Rs. 3000 and 0.51% of respondents is above Rs. 60000.

Analysis of distribution of urban respondents as per monthly income of their family shows that monthly income of 34.38% respondents is between Rs. 10001 to 20000, 33.33% of respondents is Rs. 20001 to 40000 and monthly income of family of 15.10% of respondents is Rs. 6001 to 10000. Apart from these, monthly income of family of 9.90% of respondents is Rs. 40001 to 60000 and family of 2.08% of

respondents are having monthly income between Rs. 3000 to 6000. Monthly income of family of 0.52% of respondents is up to Rs. 3000 and 4.69% of respondents is above Rs. 60000.

Living Standard of Family- Living standard can be divided into two types i.e. High living standard and Low living standard.

Low living standard results many problems in life of family members like-

- Loss in working capability,
- Growth in illiteracy,
- Insufficient health facilities,
- Unbalanced and inadequate food, good and healthy entertainment and
- Growth of slums due to uncontrolled growth of population etc.

Clean and well equipped house having all necessary facilities like study room, bedrooms, latrine, bathroom, kitchen, Electricity, Pure drinking water, good entertainment's equipments etc are essential for a healthy living.

Considering the above facts Researcher had asked various questions to respondents about their present stay, ownership of house, facilities available at home etc. and analysed the collected information after tabulating them as follows:

Table No. - 4.15

Distribution of Respondents as per Their House

Status of House	Rural Area		Urban Area		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Pucca	89	45.18	177	92.19	266	68.38
Mixed	75	38.07	9	4.69	84	21.59
Kuchcha	27	13.71	4	2.08	31	7.97
Hut	6	3.05	2	1.04	8	2.06
TOTAL	197	100.00	192	100.00	389	100.00

Table 4.15 represents the distribution of respondents as per their house. It shows that 68.38% respondents are staying in pucca house, whereas 21.59% respondents are staying in mixed house, 7.97% of respondents are staying in kuchcha house and 2.06% of respondents are staying in huts made of grass, plastic etc..

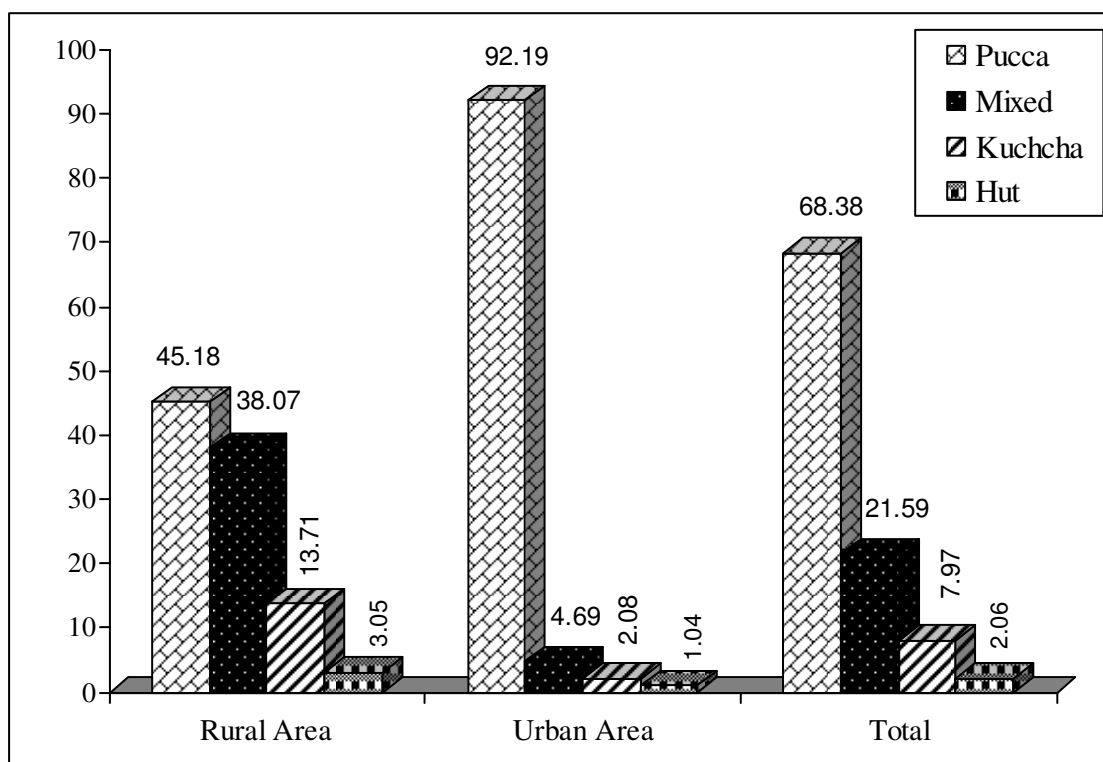


Fig. 4.13 : Distribution of Respondents as per Their House

This table also indicates that out of total respondents from rural area, 45.18% respondents are staying in pucca house, whereas 38.07% respondents are staying in mixed house, 13.71% of respondents are staying in kuchcha house and 3.05% of respondents are staying in huts made of grass, plastic etc.

Analysis of distribution of urban respondents as per their house shows that 92.19% respondents are staying in pucca house, whereas 4.69% respondents are staying in mixed house, 2.08% of respondents are staying in kuchcha house and 1.04% of respondents are staying in huts made of mud, grass, plastic etc.

Table No. - 4.16

Distribution of Respondents as per Their Living Condition

Living Condition	Rural Area		Urban Area		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Good	47	23.86	85	44.27	132	33.93
Satisfactory	72	36.55	73	38.02	145	37.28
Unsatisfactory	78	39.59	34	17.71	112	28.79
TOTAL	197	100.00	192	100.00	389	100.00

Table 4.16 represents the distribution of respondents as per their living condition. It shows that 37.28% respondents are staying in satisfactory living condition, whereas 33.93% respondents are staying in good living condition, and 28.79% of respondents are staying in unsatisfactory living condition.

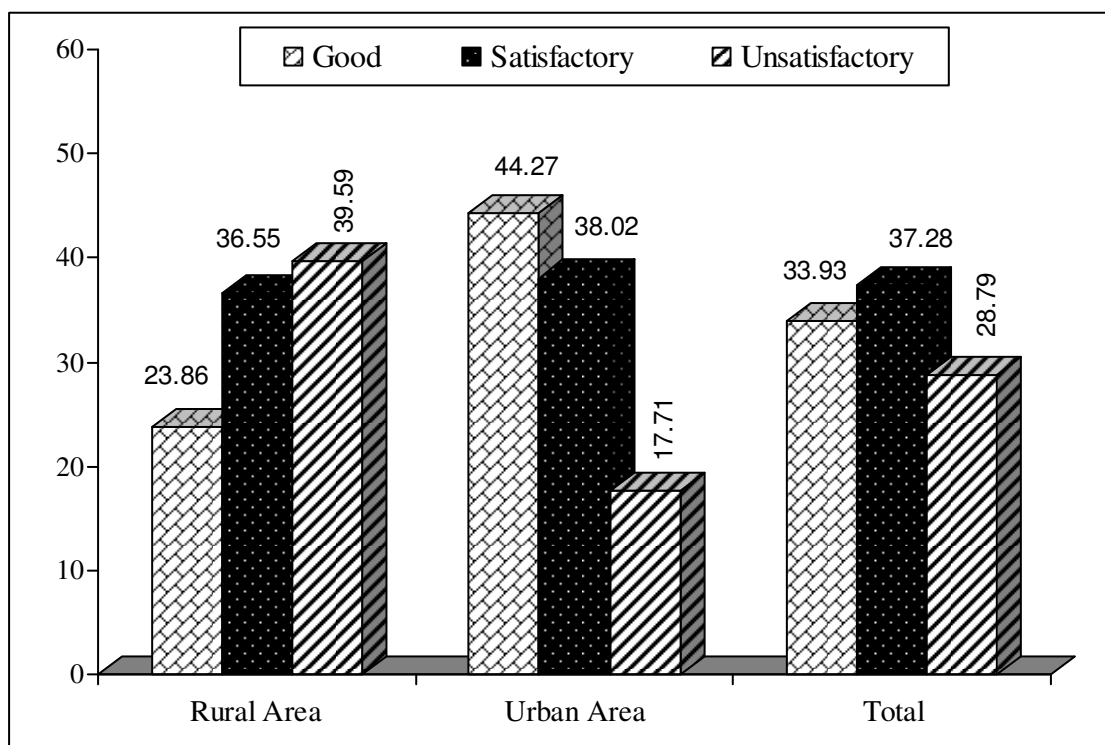


Fig. 4.14: Distribution of Respondents as per Their Living Condition

This table also indicates that out of total respondents from rural area, 39.59% respondents are staying in unsatisfactory living condition, whereas 36.55% respondents are staying in satisfactory living condition, and 23.86% of respondents are staying in good living condition.

Analysis of distribution of urban respondents as per their house shows that 44.27% respondents are staying in good living condition, whereas 38.02% respondents are staying in satisfactory living condition, and 17.71% of respondents are staying in unsatisfactory living condition.

STATUS OF WOMEN IN FAMILY

To assess the position of women in family, 13 questions related to various aspects of gender equality in family, i.e. status of participation and role in decision making process in family and other socio-economic issues, status, participation and

role in family/social functions, freedom to select occupation, movement, expend self-earned money, status of gender equality in food, lodging, education health and other socio-economic issues, had been included in interview schedule. Each question was assigned with mark ranging from 1 to 5 depending on response given by respondent as per status of equality varying from very low to very high. Marks were calculated as per response given by respondent for each question and accordingly respondents were categories in to three groups (i.e. Low, Medium and High) as per total marks obtained. Details are as follows:

	Minimum	Maximum
Marks allocated	13	65
Marks obtained	14	62
Classification as per position of women in family		
	Minimum	Maximum
Low	14	30
Medium	31	46
High	47	62

Table No. - 4.17

Distribution of Respondents as per Their Views on Status of Gender Equality in Family/Society

Status of Gender Equality	No. of Respondents	Percentage	Average Marks
Below Sat.	137	35.22	22.46
Satisfactory	149	38.30	38.83
Highly Sat.	103	26.48	54.92
TOTAL	389	100.00	37.33

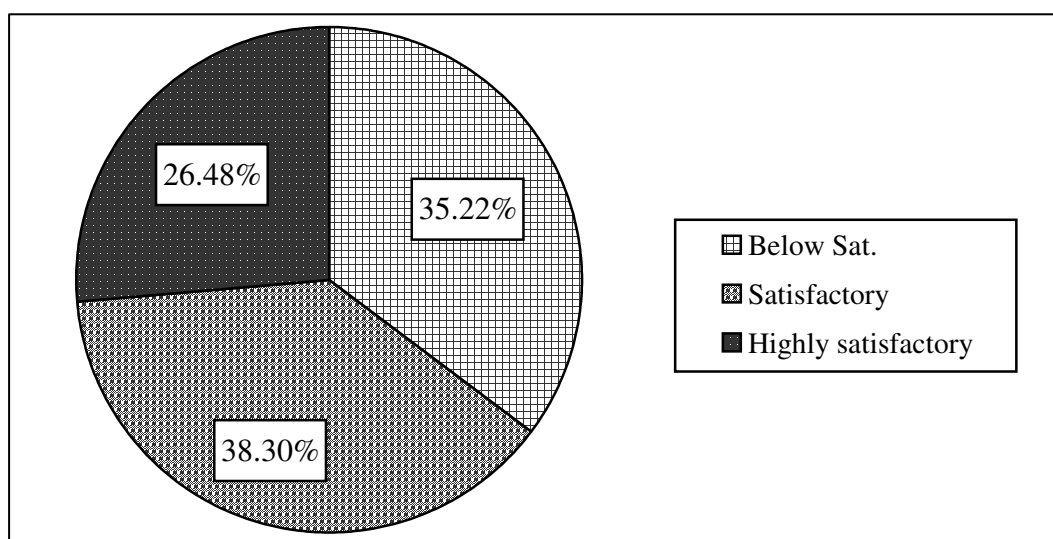


Fig. 4.15 : Distribution of Respondents as per Their Views on Status of Women in Family/Society

Table 4.17 represents the distribution of respondents as per their views on status of women in family/society. It reveals that maximum (38.30%) of respondents opined that level of gender equality in their family/society is satisfactory, whereas 35.22% of respondents have assessed it as below satisfaction and 26.48% of respondents have viewed the level of gender equality in their family/society as highly satisfactory.

This table also indicates that average mark for level of gender equality in family/society is 37.33, which comes in satisfactory level of gender equality.

Table No. - 4.18

Area wise Distribution of Respondents as per Their Views on Status of Women in Family/Society

Status of Women	Rural Area		Urban Area		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.
Below Sat.	76	38.58	61	31.77	137
Satisfactory	81	41.12	68	35.42	149
Highly Sat.	40	20.30	63	32.81	103
TOTAL	197	100.00	192	100.00	389

Average marks for status of woman in family/society

Rural 35.78

Urban 38.91

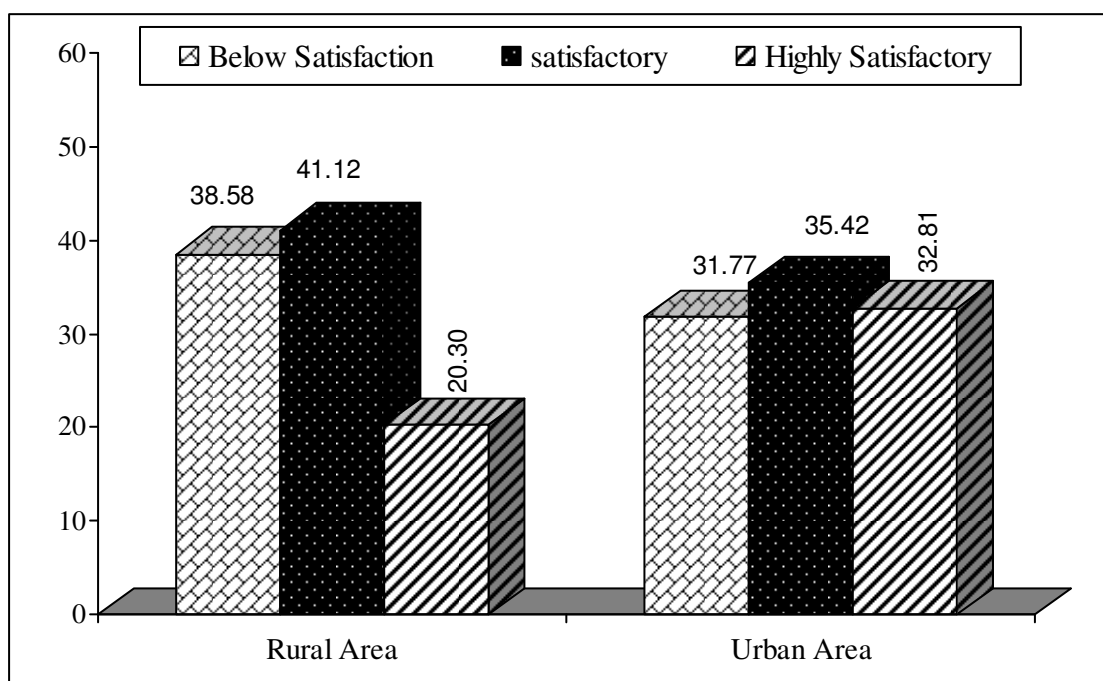


Fig. 4.16 : Area wise Distribution of Respondents as per Their Views on Status of Women in Family/Society

Table 4.18 represents area wise distribution of respondents as per their views on status of women in family/society. This table shows that out of total respondents from rural area, 41.12% of respondents opined that level of gender equality in their family/society is satisfactory, whereas 38.38% of respondents have assessed it as below satisfaction and 20.30% of rural respondents have viewed the level of gender equality in their family/society as highly satisfactory.

This table also indicates that out of total respondents from urban area, 35.42% of respondents opined that level of gender equality in their family/society is satisfactory, whereas 32.81% of respondents have assessed it as highly satisfactory and 31.77% of urban respondents have viewed the level of gender equality in their family/society as below satisfaction.

Table 4.18 also indicates that status of women in urban families/society is higher than rural area as average marks of urban respondents (38.91) is more (3.13) than rural respondents (35.78). To ascertain the significance of this difference, t-test is used.

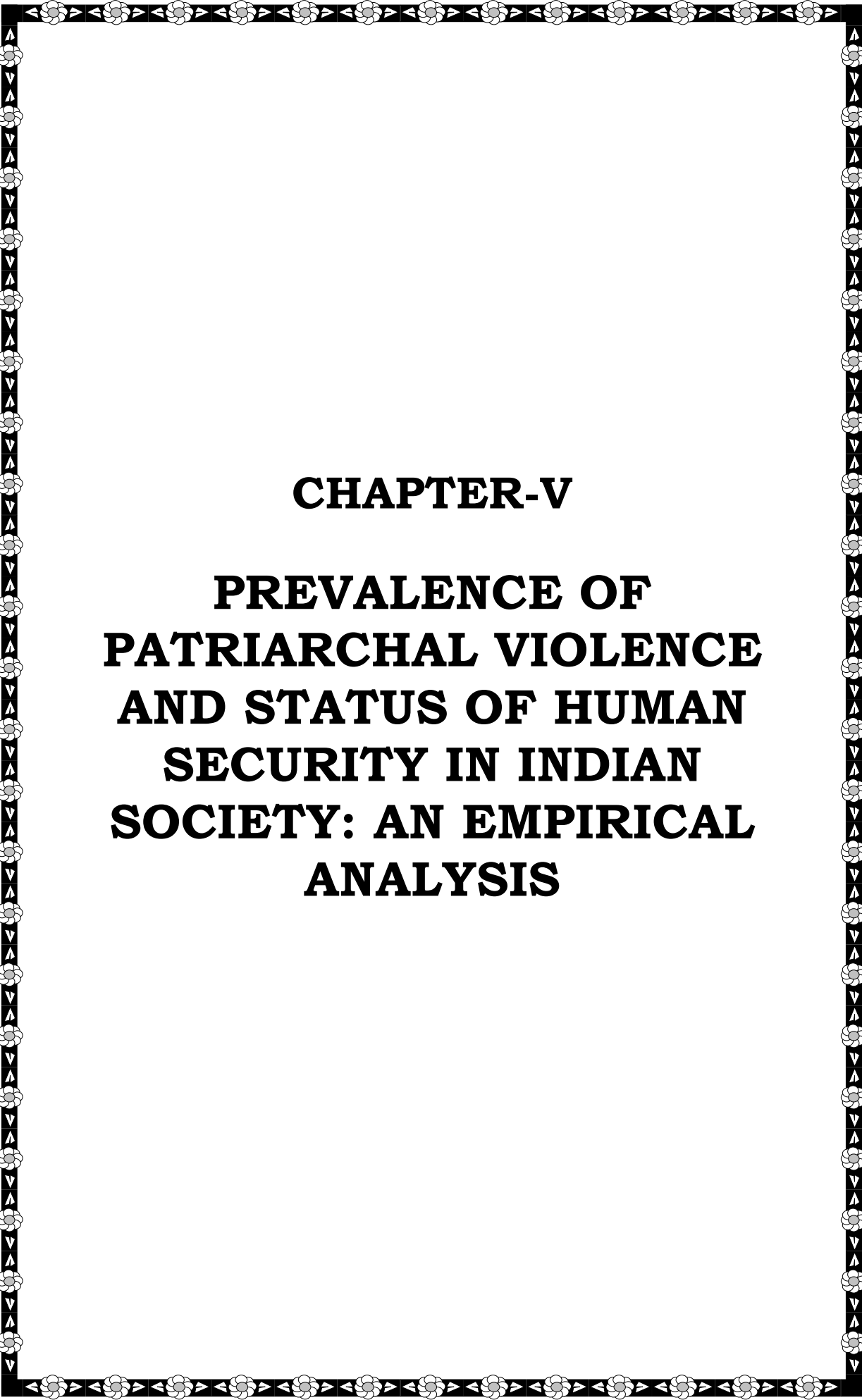
Table No. - 4.18(i)

Significance of Difference in Mean Score of Status of Women in Family/Society As Viewed by Rural and Urban Respondents

Area	Frequency	Mean	SD	Diff. in Mean	Sd Error	T-value
Rural	197	35.782	9.451	3.127	0.924	**3.385
Urban	192	38.909	8.765			

* Significant at $P = 0.05$, ** Significant at $P = 0.01$

Table 4.18(i) shows that obtained t-value for difference in mean score of status of women in family/society as viewed by rural and urban respondents is 3.385, which is more than table value at $df = 387$ and $p=0.01$ (2.611). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference in mean score of status of women in family/society as viewed by rural and urban respondents. It also indicates that status of women in family/society of urban area is higher than rural area.**



CHAPTER-V

**PREVALENCE OF
PATRIARCHAL VIOLENCE
AND STATUS OF HUMAN
SECURITY IN INDIAN
SOCIETY: AN EMPIRICAL
ANALYSIS**

CHAPTER-V

DIFFERENT DIMENSIONS OF HUMAN SECURITY AND PATRIARCHAL VIOLENCE

5.1 INTRODUCTION

With very few exceptions, violence against women is pervasive across all cultures and communities. Schuler (1992) reasoned as 'Societies organized around gendered, hierarchical power relations give legitimacy to violence against women. Understanding the phenomenon of gender violence requires an analysis of the patterns of violence directed toward women and the underlying mechanisms that permit the emergence and perpetuation of these patterns.'¹

The well-documented determinants of violence against girls and women can be found in gender norms and gender relations. Whether at individual, community, or societal levels, there are relationships between how gender is organised and violence against women. One key factor here is men's gender-role attitudes and beliefs. Men's agreement with sexist, patriarchal, or sexually hostile attitudes is an important predictor of their use of violence against women. Men who do not hold patriarchal and hostile gender norms are less likely than other men to use violence against an intimate partner.²

Culture is often used to excuse and/or condone gender violence, e.g., "people in my culture behave this way and believe women should be treated this way, so it is alright for me to do so." When "culture" is used by communities to explain and justify violence against women, these claims are mostly based on frozen, male-defined ideas of culture.³

Many cultures hold that a man has the right to control his wife's behaviour and those women who challenge that right, even by asking for household money or by

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1. Schuler, M. (1992), *Violence Against Women : An International Perspective*, In Schuler, M. (Ed.), *Freedom From Violence : Women's Strategies from Around the World*, UNIFEM, New York, pp. 10-11.
 2. Flood, M. (2007), *Why Violence Against Women and Girls Happens, and How to Prevent it*, *Redress*, August, pp. 13-19.
 3. DVAP (2005), *Domestic Violence Awareness : Action for Social Change*, the Domestic Violence Awareness Project, National Resource Center on Domestic Violence, Harrisburg, PA.

expressing the needs of the children, may be punished. Many studies find that violence is frequently viewed as physical chastisement, the husband's right to "correct" an erring (sinful) wife.⁴ As one husband said in a focus group discussion in Tamil Nadu, India, "If it is a great mistake, then the husband is justified in beating his wife. Why not? A cow will not be obedient without beatings."⁵

Worldwide, studies identify a consistent list of events that are said to "trigger" violence.⁶ These include: not obeying the husband, talking back, not having food ready on time, failing to care adequately for the children or home, questioning him about money or girlfriends, going somewhere without his permission, refusing him sex, or expressing suspicions of infidelity. All of these represent transgressions of dominant gender norms in many societies.

Despite the obstacles, many women eventually do leave violent partners, even if after many years. Studies suggest a consistent set of factors that propel a woman to leave an abusive relationship: The violence gets more severe and triggers a realization that her partner is not going to change, or the violence begins to take a toll on the children. Women also cite emotional and logistical support from family or friends as pivotal in their decision to leave.⁷

A range of studies (e.g. Heise et.al.,1999; Harway and O'Neil, 1999⁸; Jewkes, 2002⁹; WHO, 2005¹⁰) identify risk factors at the levels of the individual, family, community, society and State. These have been summarized in one public health model and include:

- a. ***At the level of the individual:*** youth; a history of abuse as a child; witnessing marital violence in the home; the frequent use of alcohol and drugs; low

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4. Heise, L., Ellsberg, M., Gottemoeller, M. (1999), *Ending Violence Against Women*, Population Information Program, Report Series L, No. 11, School of Public Health, John's Hopkins University, Baltimore.
 5. Jejeebhoy, S.J. (1998), Wife-beating in Rural India : A husband's Right? *Economic and Political Weekly*, Vol. 23, No. 15, pp. 855-862.
 6. Heise, L. (1998), Violence Against Women : An Integrated, Ecological Framework, *Violence Against Women*, Vol. 4, No. 3, pp. 262-290.
 7. Heise, L., Ellsberg, M., Gottemoeller, M. (1999), *Ending Violence Against Women*, Population Information Program, Report Series L, No. 11, School of Public Health, John's Hopkins University, Baltimore.
 8. Harway, M. and O'Neil, J., (1999), *What Causes Men's Violence Against Women*, Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks.
 9. Jewkes, R. (2002), "Intimate Partner Violence : Causes and Prevention", *Lancet*, vol. 359, pp. 1423-1429.
 10. WHO (2005), *Multi-Country Study on Women's Health and Domestic Violence Against Women: Initial Results on Prevalence, Health Outcomes and Women's Responses*, World Health Organisation, Geneva.

educational or economic status; and membership in marginalized and excluded communities. These factors are associated with both the perpetrators and victims/survivors of violence.

- b. *At the level of the couple and family:* male control of wealth and decision-making authority within the family; a history of marital conflict; and significant interpersonal disparities in economic, educational or employment status.
- c. *At the level of the community:* women's isolation and lack of social support; community attitudes that tolerate and legitimize male violence; and high levels of social and economic disempowerment, including poverty.
- d. *At the level of society:* gender roles that entrench male dominance and female subordination; and tolerance of violence as a means of conflict resolution.
- e. *At the level of the State:* inadequate laws and policies for the prevention and punishment of violence; and limited awareness and sensitivity on the part of law enforcement officials, courts and social service providers.

Women are an essential part of labour source in the rural economics. It is vital for women to take up additional work in the farms and fields to supplement the household income. Women's ability to participate in their daily activities highly depends on their personal security as well as the security of their land and property.¹¹

5.2 PREVALENCE, NATURE AND INTENSITY OF PATRIARCHAL VIOLENCE

Patriarchy is about the social relations of power between men and women and informs our work in deep ways. It is a system for maintaining class and/or gender privilege and the status quo of power. It relies both on crude mechanisms like oppression and subtle ones like the law. Patriarchy is an enforcer of traditional gender and class relations, and the most significant contributor to sexism and misogyny. Patriarchy exists in almost all cultures; the degree and rigidity with which it permeates gender relations varies.¹²

11. Ganeshpanchan (2005), Domestic and Gender-based Violence Among Refugees and Internally Displaced Women, available at <http://www.humiliationstudies.org>. Accessed on Sep. 17, 2014.

12. DVAP (2005), *Domestic Violence Awareness : Action for Social Change*, the Domestic Violence Awareness Project, National Resource Center on Domestic Violence, Harrisburg, PA.

Patriarchy is shaped by the interaction of a wide range of factors, including histories of colonialism and post-colonial domination, nation-building initiatives, armed conflict, displacement and migration. Its expressions are also influenced by economic status, race, ethnicity, class, age, sexual orientation, disability, nationality, religion and culture. Analysis of the gender-based inequalities that give rise to violence must therefore take into account the specific factors that disempower women in a particular setting.¹³ Such contextualized analyses of women's experiences of violence reveal that women exercise agency and varying degrees of control over their lives even within the constraints of multiple forms of subordination.¹⁴

Men's expression of masculinity is also closely linked to controlling women in their family and ensuring that women fulfil expected roles. Women who do not fulfil required roles or who challenge men's actions threaten men's masculinity, often resulting in a violent reaction.¹⁵ Many studies indicate that violence against women in general, and domestic violence in particular, is intricately linked to real or perceived fulfilment of masculinities.¹⁶ It appears that men are more likely to use violence against women if they are unable to fulfil a hegemonic masculinity.

Many surveys on violence carried out in different countries clearly indicate that the primary victims of patriarchal violence are women. The reason of the invisibility of this violence cannot simply be attributed to the fact that it usually takes place in the home. Rather it is related to its widespread social acceptance. The tacit acceptance of these social norms serves as the basis for the other forms of patriarchal violence, as well. Social control over knowledge, women's reproduction, positions and financial goods as it manifests in all the forms of patriarchal violence intertwines all spheres of life. It frightens those it is directed against and impedes the development of solidarity amongst them.¹⁷

13. Mohanty, C.T. (1988), "Under Western Eyes : Feminist Scholarship and Colonial Discourse", *Feminist Review*, vol. 30, Autumn, pp. 65-88.

14. Chege, J. (2005), "Interventions Linking Gender Relations and Violence with Reproductive Health and HIV : Rationale, Effectiveness and Gaps", *Gender, Culture and Rights, Agenda Special Focus*, vol. 115, pp. 114-123.

15. Fuller, N. (2001), "She Made Me Go Out of My Mind: Marital violence from the Male Point of View", *Developments*, Vol. 44, No. 3, pp. 25-29.

16. Moore, H. (1994), "The Problem of Explaining Violence in the Social Sciences.", in Penelope Harvey and Peter Gow (eds.), *Sex and Violence: Issues in Representation and Experience*, Routledge, London, pp. 139-155.

17. HCWG (2006), *Do you know What patriarchal violence is?*, Stop-Male Violence Project, Habeas Corpus Working Group, Budapest, Hungary.

Gender violence has been conceptualized as a layered phenomenon that includes structural conditions of the gender hierarchies that result in negating or reducing life chances, such as denial of birth to the female foetus or cultural neglect of the girl child; perception of harm or injury in the acting out of gender inequalities (threat of rape, imposing of codes of conduct) and acts of gender abuse such wife beating, honour revenge etc.¹⁸

The causes of violence against women have been investigated from diverse perspectives, including feminism, criminology, development, human rights, public health and sociology. Various explanations have emerged from these empirical and theoretical inquiries. While they differ in the emphasis given to individual and societal factors in explaining violence against women, all have concluded that no single cause adequately accounts for violence against women.¹⁹ Such violence arises from the convergence of specific factors within the broad context of power inequalities at the individual, group, national and global levels.²⁰

To assess the prevalence, nature and intensity of patriarchal violence, 11 questions had been included in interview schedule. These questions were related to prevalence, nature, intensity, persons involved and factors responsible for violence and each question was assigned with mark ranging from 1 to 5 depending on response given by respondent as per status of patriarchal violence varying from very low to very high. Marks were calculated as per response given by respondent for each question and accordingly respondents were categories in to three groups (i.e. Low, Medium and High) as per total marks obtained. Following are the details:

	Minimum	Maximum
Marks allocated	11	55
Marks obtained	14	52
Classification as per status of patriarchal violence		
	Minimum	Maximum
Low	14	26
Medium	27	39
High	40	52

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18. Galtung, J. (1975), *Peace : Research, Education, Action : Essays in Peace Research, vol. I.* Christian Ejlers, Copenhagen, p. 114.
 19. Harway, M. and O'Neil, J. (1999), *What Causes Men's Violence Against Women*, Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks.
 20. WHO (2005), *Multi-Country Study on Women's Health and Domestic Violence Against Women : Initial Results on Prevalence, Health Outcomes and Women's Responses*, World Health Organisation, Geneva.

Table No. - 5.1

Distribution of Respondents as per Status of Patriarchal Violence

Prevalence of Patriarchal Violence	No. of Respondents	Percentage	Average Marks
Low	98	25.19	22.46
Medium	138	35.48	33.83
High	153	39.33	46.92
TOTAL	389	100.00	35.27

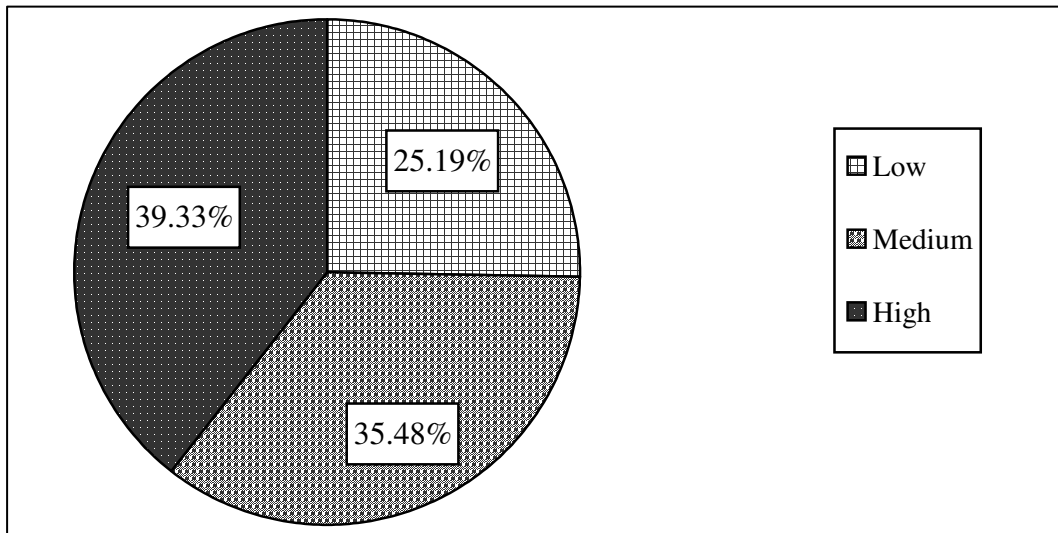


Fig. 5.1 : Distribution of Respondents as per Status of Patriarchal Violence

Table 5.1 represents the distribution of respondents as per status of patriarchal violence. It reveals that maximum (39.33%) of respondents feel high level of patriarchal violence in their family/society, whereas 35.48% of respondents have opined it as medium and 25.19% of respondents have viewed the prevalence of patriarchal violence in their family/society as low.

This table also indicates that average mark for prevalence and intensity of patriarchal violence in family/society is 35.27, which comes in upper-medium level of prevalence and intensity.

5.3 STATUS OF HUMAN SECURITY

The concept of human security was a clear deviation from classical notions of security that imply military power based on state actors to a more inclusive and multifaceted notion of security based on the individual, which is expressed in the UNDP report as : "For too long, security has been equated with threats to a country's borders. For too long, nations have sought arms to protect their security. For most

people today, a feeling of insecurity arises more from worries about daily life than from the dread of a cataclysmic world event. Job security, income security, health security, environmental security, security from crime, these are the emerging concerns of human security all over the world."²¹

Paris (2004) points out that the meaning of human security made by the 1994 statement was unclear and broad; however it does offer a single definition of the human development concept.²² Macfarlane (2004) points out that the core of human security is a shift in the referent of the concept of security from the state to the individual, especially vulnerable groups such as women and children.²³ In this sense, 'state sovereignty and the primacy of the state are justified only to the extent that the state's claim to protect the people within its boundaries is credible, since the only irreducible locus of sovereignty is the individual human being'. Buzan (2004) argues that human security redirects 'security thinking and policy around the individual as the referent object.'²⁴ As a normative ideal, human security has infiltrated the highest levels of Western, supranational security policy and praxis, with sometimes contradictory effects.²⁵ It has been unevenly mainstreamed into security thinking and policy since the 1990's, while research and research programmes devoted to it have proliferated, prompting claims of a 'paradigm shift'.²⁶

Human security speaks to the concerns of feminist security scholars in a number of ways, not least by privileging human life, dignity and safety over securing territorial borders, ostensibly challenging the reification of the sovereign state, emphasising interrelationships between multiple threats and acknowledging structural violence. As well as attracting interest, however, it has met with critique from both feminist and other critical theorists. Feminists problematise its simultaneously individualising and universalising tendencies and its treatment of gender and violence

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21. U.N.D.P. (1994), *Human Development Report : New Dimensions of Human Security*. United Nations Development Programme, UNO, New York, p. 3.
 22. Paris, R. (2004), Still An Inscrutable Concept, *Security Dialogue*, Vol. 35, p. 371.
 23. Macfarlane, S.N. (2004), A Useful Concept That Risks Losing Its Political Salience, *Security Dialogue*, Vol. 35, pp. 367-68.
 24. Buzan, B. (2004), A Reductionist, Idealistic Notion That Adds Little Analytical Value. *Security Dialogue*, Vol. 35, pp. 369-70.
 25. Marhia, Natasha and Chloe Davies (2013), 'A 'Force for Good'? British National Security and Human Security in An Age of Counter-Terrorism', in Mary Martin, Mary Kaldor and Narcís Serra (eds.), *National, European and Human Security: From Co-existence to Convergence*, Routledge, New York.
 26. Tadjbakhsh, S. and A. Chenoy (2007), *Human Security: Concepts and Implications*, Routledge, New York, pp. 19-21.

against women²⁷, while other critical commentators posit human security as a 'new orthodoxy'²⁸ that has been emptied of any radical or transformative promise it may have held.²⁹

The rise of human security occurred in parallel with the increasing articulation of transnational feminist discourses on violence against women and their acquisition of an ambivalently hegemonic status, in particular with the achievement of supranational policy instruments such as the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women (DEVAW) adopted by the United Nations (UN) General Assembly in 1993. Such discourses have framed violence against women as global human rights and, albeit in limited terms, a security issue: hence the passage of UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security in 2000, and the recognition of rape as a crime against humanity. However, cross-pollination between these two fields of concern, human security and transnational feminist discourses of violence against women, has remained limited.

Whether it is economic security, food security, health security, personal or political security, women and young girls are affected in a very specific way due to their physical, emotional and material differences and due to the important social, economic, and political inequalities existing between women and men.³⁰

5.3.1 STATUS OF HUMAN SECURITY

To assess the over all status of human security, total marks obtained for all 122 questions related to seven different elements of human security, included in interview schedule and assigned with mark ranging from 1 to 5 depending on response given by respondent as per status of human security varying from very low to very high, were calculated as per response given by respondent for each question and accordingly respondents were categories in to three groups (i.e. Poor, Average and Good). Details are as follows:

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27. Bunch, C. (2004), 'A Feminist Human Rights Lens', *Peace Review: A Journal of Social Justice*, Vol. 16, No. 1, pp. 29-35.
 28. Christie, R. (2010), 'Critical Voices and Human Security : To Endure, To Engage or To Critique?', *Security Dialogue*, Vol. 41, No. 2, Apr., pp. 169-190.
 29. Chandler, D. (2008), 'Human Security : The Dog That Didn't Bark', *Security Dialogue*, Vol. 39, No. 4, Aug., pp. 427-438.
 30. Kristoffersson, U. (2000), *HIV/AIDS as a Human Security Issue: A Gender Perspective*, Expert Group Meeting on the HIV/AIDS Pandemic and its Gender Implications, 13-17 November, Windhoek, Namibia, p. 2.

	Minimum	Maximum
Marks allocated	122	598
Marks obtained	169	572
Classification as per status of Personal Security		
	Minimum	Maximum
Poor	169	305
Average	306	442
Good	443	579

Table No. - 5.2

Distribution of Respondents as per Status of Human Security

Status of Human Security	No. of Respondents	Percentage	Average Marks
Poor	158	40.62	255.56
Average	132	33.93	355.54
Good	99	25.45	488.88
TOTAL	389	100.00	348.86

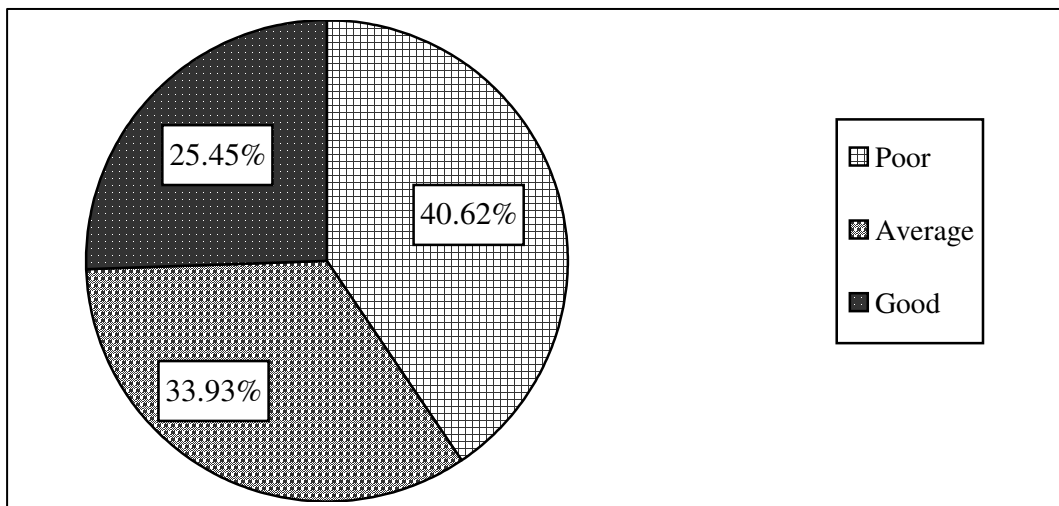


Fig. 5.2 : Distribution of Respondents as per Status of Personal Security

Table 5.2 represents the distribution of respondents as per their views on status of human security. It reveals that maximum (40.62%) of respondents viewed the status of existing human security as poor, whereas 33.93% of respondents have opined it as average and 25.45% of respondents have viewed the status of human security as good.

This table also indicates that average mark for existence and affectivity of human security as viewed by respondent is 348.86, which comes in lower-medium level of human security.

5.3.2 STATUS OF PERSONAL SECURITY

Personal security includes Fear of violence, Prevention of accidents, Level of crime, Security from illegal drugs, Efficiency of institutions, Prevention of harassment and gender violence, Prevention of domestic violence and child abuse, Access to public information,

Attentions to personal security such as to protect human lives from threats of various kinds of violence by states and other groups are given by feminist perspectives. Ann Tickner (1999) said that feminist perspectives on security start with the individual or community, rather than the state or the international system. According to her, many universal explanations contain hidden gender biases because they mainly depart from men experiences.³¹ In this situation, feminist perspectives are required to give attention to women deprived position and their insecurity and to uncover how gender hierarchies, which have been strengthened by local cultures and religious traditions, have worsened women's insecurities.

To assess the impact and efficiency of government policies, legal provisions & laws and administration as well as also to measure the level of satisfaction from it, 16 questions related to prevalence and fear from occurrence of violence, tension between religious & social groups, satisfaction from present social-law & order situation, working of police, administration and judicial functionaries had been included in interview schedule and each question was assigned with mark ranging from 1 to 5 depending on response given by respondent as per status of personal security varying from very low to very high. Marks were calculated as per response given by respondent for each question and accordingly respondents were categories in to three groups (i.e. Poor, Average and Good) as per total marks obtained. Details are as follows:

	Minimum	Maximum
Marks allocated	16	80
Marks obtained	18	77
Classification as per status of Personal Security		
	Minimum	Maximum
Poor	18	37
Average	38	57
Good	58	77

31. Tickner, J. Ann (1999), "Feminist Perspectives on Security in a Global Economy," in Caroline Thomas and Peter Wilin (eds.), *Globalization, Human Security, and the African Experience*, Lynne Rienner Publishers, Boulder, CO., p. 42.

Table No. - 5.3

Distribution of Respondents as per Status of Personal Security

Status of Personal Security	No. of Respondents	Percentage	Average Marks
Poor	159	40.87	27.98
Average	136	34.96	48.17
Good	94	24.16	67.86
TOTAL	389	100.00	44.68

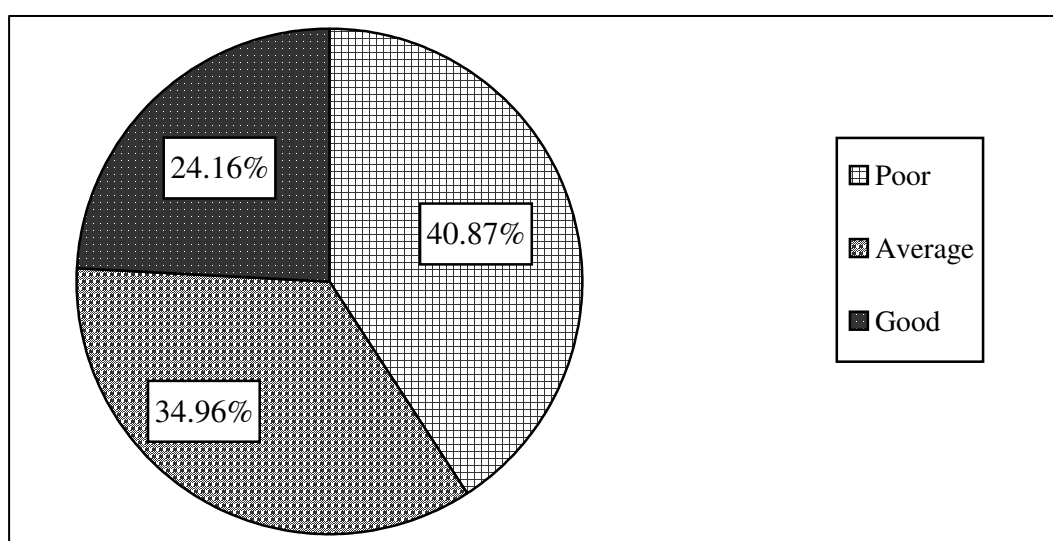


Fig. 5.3: Distribution of Respondents as per Status of Personal Security

Table 5.3 represents the distribution of respondents as per their views on status of personal security. It reveals that maximum (40.87%) of respondents viewed the status of existing personal security as poor, whereas 34.96% of respondents have opined it as average and 24.16% of respondents have viewed the status of personal security as good.

This table also indicates that average mark for existence and affectivity of personal security as viewed by respondent is 44.68, which comes in lower-medium level of personal security.

5.3.3 STATUS OF FOOD SECURITY

Food Security includes Availability and supply of food, Access to basic food, Quality of nutrition, Share of household budget for food, Access to food during Natural/man-made disasters, etc.

The concept and definition of food security have changed since the first introduction of the concept in the early 1940s. In the 1970s, the definition of food security was developed from the perspective of food-supply to ensure that all people everywhere have enough food to eat. The importance of consumption and access has been put forward through the concept of entitlement.³² Sen (1981) highlighted that food related problems are influenced not only by food production and agricultural activities, but also by the structure and processes governing entire economies and societies. Following his view, food insecurity has been caused not only by scarcity but also by institutional failures that led to suboptimal food distribution. Therefore, multi-sectoral planning was introduced to tackle food insecurity. Within this global strategy, one can distinguish between strategies of growth-mediated security and strategies of support-led security.³³

Food security exists when all people at all times have physical and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life.³⁴ This definition has widely established the four pillars of food security: availability, accessibility, utilization and stability.

To assess the status of food security, 12 questions pertaining to availability and supply of food, Access to basic food, Quality of nutrition, Share of household budget for food, access to food during Natural/man-made disasters, discrimination in distribution etc had been included in interview schedule and each question was assigned with mark ranging from 1 to 5 depending on response given by respondent as per status of food security varying from very low to very high. Marks were calculated as per response given by respondent for each question and accordingly respondents were categorized into three groups (i.e. Poor, Average and Good) as per total marks obtained. Details are as follows:

	Minimum	Maximum
Marks allocated	12	60
Marks obtained	16	57

Classification as per status of Food Security		
	Minimum	Maximum
Poor	16	29
Average	30	43
Good	44	57

32. Sen, A. (1981), *Poverty and Famine : An Essay on Entitlement and Deprivation*, Oxford University Press, New York.

33. von-Braun, J., Bouis, H., Kumar, S., and Pandya-Lorch, R. (1992), *Improving Food Security of The Poor : Concept, Policy, and Programs*, International Food Policy Research Institute, Washington, D.C.

34. FAO (2000), *The State of Food Insecurity in the World*, FAO, Rome.

Table No. - 5.4
Distribution of Respondents as per Status of Food Security

Status of Food Security	No. of Respondents	Percentage	Average Marks
Poor	124	31.88	22.94
Average	149	38.30	37.27
Good	116	29.82	51.87
TOTAL	389	100.00	37.06

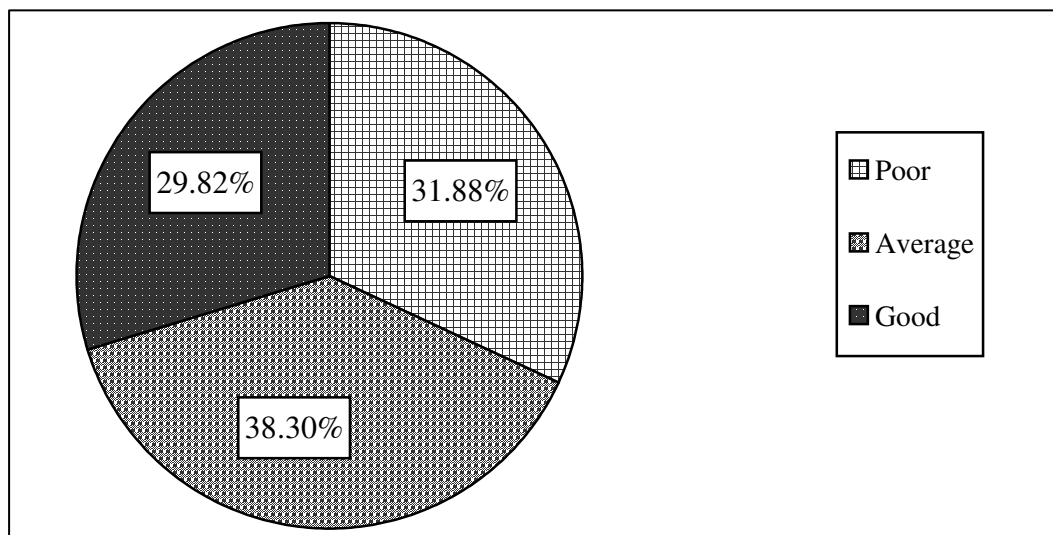


Fig. 5.4 : Distribution of Respondents as per Status of Food Security

Table 5.4 represents the distribution of respondents as per their views on status of food security. It reveals that maximum (38.30%) of respondents viewed the status of existing food security as average, whereas 31.88% of respondents have opined it as poor and 29.82% of respondents have viewed the status of food security as good.

This table also indicates that average mark for efficiency of food security as viewed by respondent is 37.06, which comes in medium level of food security.

5.3.4 STATUS OF COMMUNITY SECURITY

Community security includes Fear of conflicts, Conservation of traditional/ethnic cultures, languages and values, Abolishment of ethnic discrimination, Protection of indigenous people

Basch (2004) argued that security must be defined 'as freeing individuals and groups from the social, physical, economic and political constraints that prevent them

from carrying out what they would freely choose to do.³⁵ In defining security, definition of man about security is different from women's definition because women's need and socialization are also different from men's experiences.

It is women who play active roles in society that need to be supported. Their own analysis of cultural and religious traditions must be highlighted. In this process, women must gain rights to religious educations and to participate in decision making processes so that they have equal rights and position as man to interpret religious text and to have a say in society. Their whole efforts can be seen as parts of goals and tactics which can 'interrupt the cycle of exploitative, top-down, ineffective, and cynical claims to represent, organize, and protect women'.³⁶

To assess the status of community security, 09 questions pertaining to fear of conflicts, conservation of traditional/ethnic cultures, ethnic discrimination, gender discrimination in society, social activeness, respect and decision-making power in society, etc. had been included in interview schedule and each question was assigned with mark ranging from 1 to 5 depending on response given by respondent as per status of community security varying from very low to very high. Marks were calculated as per response given by respondent for each question and accordingly respondents were categories in to three groups (i.e. Poor, Average and Good) as per total marks obtained. Details are as follows:

	Minimum	Maximum
Marks allocated	09	45
Marks obtained	11	43

Classification as per status of Community Security

	Minimum	Maximum
Poor	11	21
Average	22	32
Good	33	43

Table No. - 5.5

Distribution of Respondents as per Status of Community Security

Status of Community Security	No. of Respondents	Percentage	Average Marks
Poor	142	36.50	16.52
Average	146	37.53	27.43
Good	101	25.96	38.28
TOTAL	389	100.00	26.26

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35. Basch, L. (2004), 'Human Security, Globalization, and Feminist Visions', *Peace Review*, Vol. 16, No. 1, pp. 5–12.
36. Kitch, S.L. and Mills, M.A. (2004), 'Appropriating Women's Agendas', *Peace Review*, Vol. 16, No. 1, March, pp. 65–73.

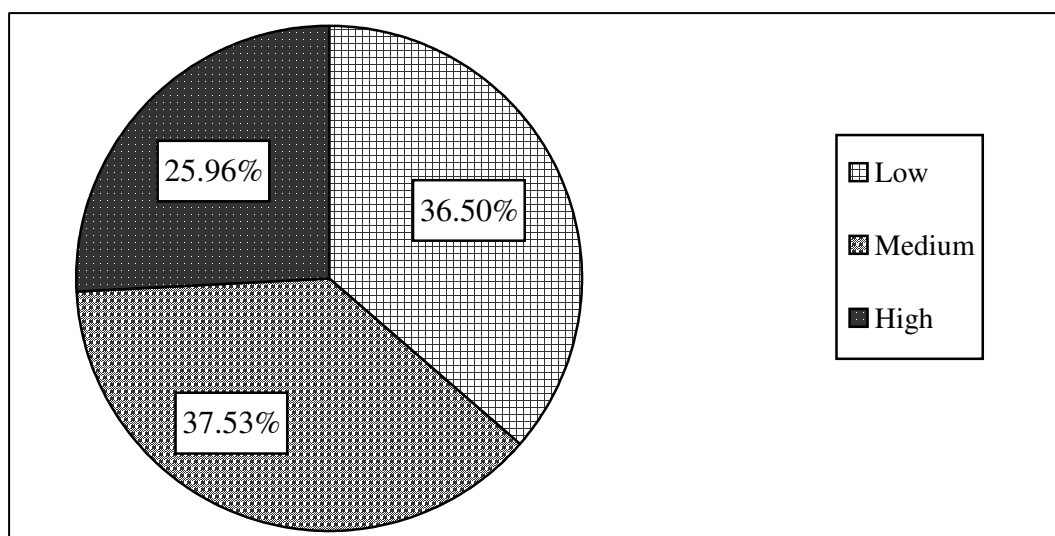


Fig. 5.5 : Distribution of Respondents as per Status of Community Security

Table 5.5 represents the distribution of respondents as per their views on status of community security. It reveals that 37.53% of respondents viewed the status of prevailing community security as average, whereas 36.50% of respondents have opined it as poor and 25.96% of respondents have viewed the status of prevailing community security as good.

This table also indicates that average mark for prevailing condition of community security as viewed by respondent is 26.26, which comes in medium level.

5.3.6 STATUS OF HEALTH SECURITY

Health Security includes access to safe water, living in safe environment, access to housing/shelter from natural elements, accessibility to healthcare systems, safe and affordable family planning, quality of medical care, prevention of diseases, health trends, basic awareness and knowledge on healthy lifestyles, etc.

Many socio-cultural factors such as age, gender, ethnicity, caste, socialization, cultural background, education, socio-economic condition, cultural beliefs, physical and mental condition, personal aspirations, religious affiliation, social network, etc., play an important role in shaping an individual's conceptualization of health. According to Freund et al (2003) members raised in different cultural settings learn their group's beliefs and practices about health, illness and healing, including medical beliefs and practices.³⁷ Sussman (2004) point out that Medical beliefs and practices are integral parts of the cultural heritage of patients. They frequently reflect deep-

37. Freund, PE., Mcguire, MB., & Podhurst, LS. (2003) *Health, Illness and The Social Body: A Critical Sociology*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

seated moral and social values, worldviews, and religious beliefs that transcend specific beliefs about human anatomy, physiology, and pathology.³⁸

Numerous studies (Saunders 1954³⁹; Zola 1966⁴⁰; Mechanic, 1968⁴¹; Mull & Mull 1988⁴²; Winkelman, 2009⁴³) have provided evidence of how cultural values and beliefs influence an individual's subjective definition of the illness, its symptoms and meaning. Culture-bound syndromes, thus, may seem exotic to biomedical practitioner. However, from the analysis of ethnographic data it was found that experiences of culture bound syndromes are psychologically and physically real. Each culture-bound syndrome is a unique disorder which is meaningful to individuals from particular cultures. In general, most illnesses are considered as normal illness in the initial stages, however, if they persist for a long time, then such illnesses are categorized as unnatural, and are attributed to supernatural agents.⁴⁴

At the social world level, illnesses are most commonly attributed to acts of witchcraft, sorcery and evil eye. Evil eye, sorcery or witchcraft as an etiological agent of illness is timeless and universal phenomena, found in all societies, and at all levels of society in the world.⁴⁵ It is believed that some people with supernatural powers cast evil eye deliberately or unwittingly on someone to cause harm, misfortune, ill health and death, because they are jealous of others. The evil eye is the conscious or unconscious product of human envy.⁴⁶ Children and pregnant women are believed to be particularly vulnerable to the effects of the evil eye. Witchcraft can be defined as the intentional or unintentional act of a person possessing evil powers that causes

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38. Sussman, LK. (2004), 'The Role of Culture in Definitions, Interpretations and Management of Illness' in Gielen, U., Fish, Jefferson M & Draguns, Juris G (eds.), *Handbook of Culture, Therapy and Healing*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers, p. 53.
 39. Saunders, L (1954), *Cultural Differences and Medical Care*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
 40. Zola, IK. (1966), Culture and Symptoms – An Analysis of Patients Presenting Complaints. *American Sociological Review*, 31 (5): 615-630.
 41. Mechanic, D. (1968), *Medical Sociology*. New York: The Free Press.
 42. Mull, JD., & Mull, DS. (1988), Mothers' Concepts of Childhood Diarrhea in Rural Pakistan. What ORT Program Planners Should Know. *Social Science & Medicine*, 27(1): 53-67.
 43. Winkelman, M. (2009), *Culture and Health: Applying Medical Anthropology*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
 44. Patel, V. (1995), Explanatory Models of Mental Illness in Sub-Saharan Africa. *Social Science & Medicine*, 40 (9):1291-1298.
 45. Buonanno, M. (1984), Becoming White: Notes on An Italian-American Explanation of Evil Eye. *New York Folklore*, X (1-2): 39-53.
 46. George, E. (2004), 'Greeks' in Ember, CR & Ember, M (eds.), *Encyclopedia of Medical Anthropology: Health and Illness in the World's Cultures*, Volume II. New York: Kluwer Academic/ Plenum Publishers, p. 684.

illness in a targeted person.⁴⁷ In several societies, serious and life-threatening illnesses, sudden death, certain types of mental diseases and treatments that do not respond to conventional treatments are perceived to be caused by witchcraft or sorcery.⁴⁸

Despite Western influence and the tremendous growth in medical knowledge and technology, traditional ideas of health, illness, and healing are still thrive and remarkably stable. Decision to consult a doctor is a complex process, and does not depend entirely on severity of symptoms and stoicism. Non-physiological factors play an indispensable role in influencing an individual's desire to seek professional medical advice.⁴⁹ The health care-seeking "process is a decision-making process engaged in by lay individuals."⁵⁰ The actual process of seeking health care usually involves multiple steps, which are influenced by a host of complex psychosocial and cultural factors such as lay notions of etiology, diagnosis and perceived severity, previous self-help attempts, prior experience with illness, practitioner accessibility; the micro-economics of health care seeking, the reputation of particular practitioners for curing specific illnesses, cultural preferences, and cultural notions of and expectations from therapy, gender, age, level of education.⁵¹

Many practices, tradition and beliefs, especially in patriarchal societies, do not favour women's health, rather some of cultural beliefs prevent their accessibility to professional health care system, even putting them in unhealthy and hazardous situations. Existing literature on health-seeking behavior suggest that the choice of treatment appears to be influenced by many factors, including the perceptions of disease seriousness, the perceived underlying cause of the disease, accessibility to health care services;⁵² the recognition of disease symptoms;⁵³ religious beliefs⁵⁴ and

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47. Dobkin, M., & Rios, De. (1976), 'The Relationship Between Witchcraft Beliefs and Psychosomatic Illness' in Westermeyer, Joseph (eds.), *Anthropology and Mental Health*. The Hague: Mouton Publishers.
 48. Mutambirwa, J. (1989), Health Problems in Rural Communities, Zimbabwe. *Social Science & Medicine* 29 (8): 927-932.
 49. Zola, IK (1973), Pathways to Doctor – From Person to Patient. *Social Science & Medicine*, 7: 677-684.
 50. Sussman, LK. (2004), 'The Role of Culture in Definitions, Interpretations and Management of Illness' in Gielen, U., Fish, Jefferson M & Draguns, Juris G (eds.), *Handbook of Culture, Therapy and Healing*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers, p. 40.
 51. Shaik, BT., & Hatcher, J. (2005), Health Seeking Behavior and Health Service Utilization in Pakistan: Challenging The Policy Makers. *Journal of Public Health*, 27(1): 49-54.
 52. Reeler, A.V. (2000), Anthropological Perspectives on Injections: A Review. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization* 78(1): 135-143.
 53. Colson, AC. (1971), The Differential Use of Medical Services in Developing Countries. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 12(3): 226-237.

cost, distance, quality of health care;⁵⁵ the availability of a provider within the community, and attitudes towards the health care providers.⁵⁶

Violence against women and girls is often perceived as an individual problem and as isolated incidents. However, a glance at empirical evidence presents an alarming picture. The World Bank estimates that violence against women is as serious a cause of death and incapacity among women of reproductive age as cancer and is a greater cause of ill health than traffic accidents and malaria put together.⁵⁷

To assess the status of health security, 24 questions pertaining to status of women health, access to safe water, living in a safe environment, access to housing/shelter from natural elements, accessibility to healthcare systems (physical and economic), accessibility to safe and affordable family planning, quality of medical care, prevention of diseases, health trends, basic awareness and knowledge on healthy lifestyles, etc. had been included in interview schedule and each question was assigned with mark ranging from 1 to 5 depending on response given by respondent as per status of health security varying from very low to very high. Marks were calculated as per response given by respondent for each question and accordingly respondents were categorized into three groups (i.e. Poor, Average and Good) as per total marks obtained. Details are as follows:

	Minimum	Maximum
Marks allocated	24	120
Marks obtained	28	111

Classification as per status of Health Security

	Minimum	Maximum
Poor	28	55
Average	56	83
Good	84	111

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54. Beckerleg, S. (1994), Medical Pluralism and Islam in Swahili Communities in Kenya, *Medical Anthropology Quarterly*, 12(4): 490-502.
55. Airey, T. (1992), The Impact of Road Construction on the Spatial Characteristics of Hospital Utilization in the Meru District of Kenya, *Social Science & Medicine*, 34(10): 1135-1146.
56. McCombie, SC. (1996), Treatment Seeking for Malaria: A Review of Recent Research. *Social Science & Medicine*, 43(6): 933-945.
57. World Bank (1993), *World Development Report*, World Bank, Washington, D.C.

Table No. - 5.6

Distribution of Respondents as per Status of Health Security

Status of Health Security	No. of Respondents	Percentage	Average Marks
Poor	112	28.79	42.35
Average	158	40.62	70.47
Good	119	30.59	98.16
TOTAL	389	100.00	70.84

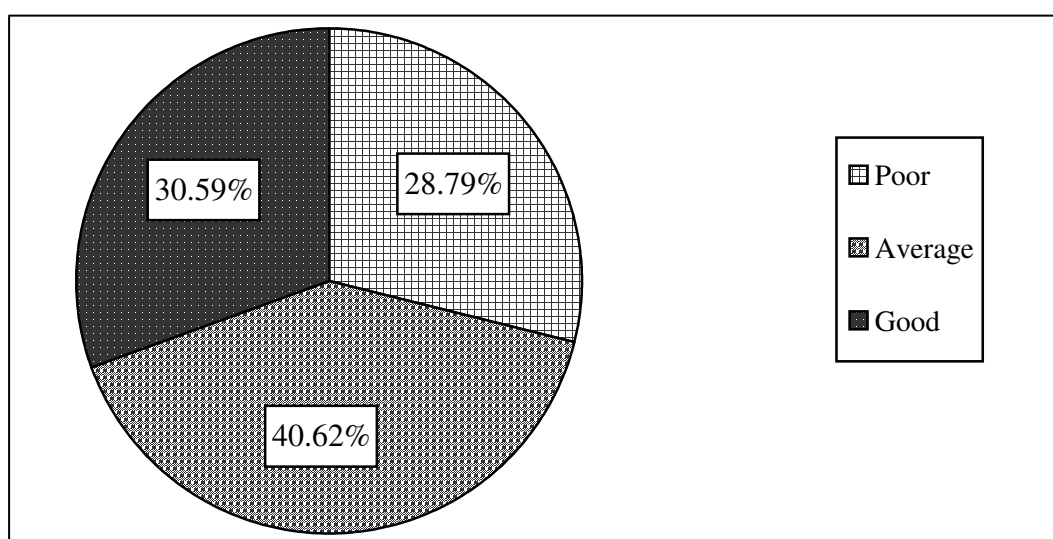


Fig. 5.6 : Distribution of Respondents as per Status of Health Security

Table 5.6 represents the distribution of respondents as per their views on status of health security. It reveals that 40.62% of respondents viewed the status of prevailing health security as average, whereas 30.59% of respondents have assessed it as good and 28.79% of respondents have viewed the status of prevailing health security as poor.

This table also indicates that average mark for prevailing condition of health security as viewed by respondent is 70.84, which comes in medium level.

5.3.6 STATUS OF ECONOMIC SECURITY

Economic security includes access to socio-economic safety nets, reliability and sufficiency of incomes, standard of living, and employment. Share of employed/unemployed, risk of joblessness, protection against unemployment etc.

Women who do not have access to market and real economic opportunities are at greater risk of experiencing gender-based violence.⁵⁸

To assess the status of economic security, 25 questions pertaining to economic status of women and family, access to economic safety nets, freedom of choice in selecting occupation, reliability of incomes, sufficiency of incomes, standard of living, employment. share of employed/unemployed, risk of joblessness, protection against unemployment, etc had been included in interview schedule and most of questions were assigned with mark ranging from 1 to 5 depending (except Q.No. 21, 22, 23, 24 & 25, which had different number of alternatives, i.e. 4,4,3,3, and 4 respectively) on response given by respondent as per status of economic security varying from very low to very high. Marks were calculated as per response given by respondent for each question and accordingly respondents were categories in to three groups (i.e. Poor, Average and Good) as per total marks obtained. Details are as follows:

	Minimum	Maximum
Marks allocated	25	118
Marks obtained	29	112
Classification as per status of Economic Security		
	Minimum	Maximum
Poor	29	56
Average	57	84
Good	85	112

Table No. - 5.7

Distribution of Respondents as per Status of Economic Security

Status of Economic Security	No. of Respondents	Percentage	Average Marks
Poor	159	40.87	43.37
Average	137	35.22	71.19
Good	93	23.91	98.78
TOTAL	389	100.00	66.41

Table 5.7 represents the distribution of respondents as per their views on status of economic security. It reveals that 40.87% of respondents viewed the status of

58. Women Refuge Commission (2009), Building Livelihoods: A field Manual for Practitioners in Humanitarian Settings, available http://www.womensrefugecommission.org/docs/livelihoods_manual.pdf. Accessed on Sep 24, 2015.

prevailing economic security as poor, whereas 35.22% of respondents have assessed it as average and 23.91% of respondents have viewed the status of prevailing economic security as good.

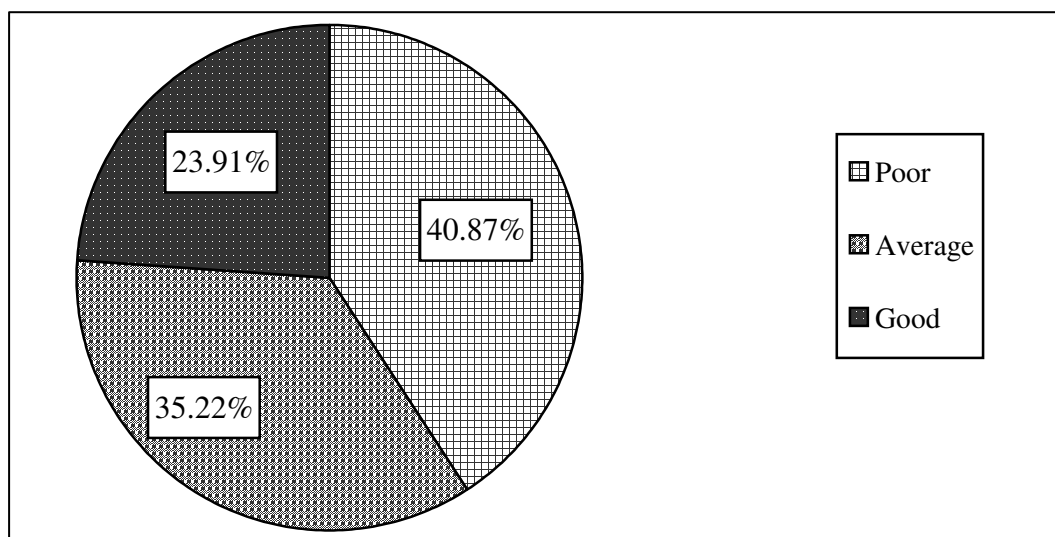


Fig. 5.7 : Distribution of Respondents as per Status of Economic Security

This table also indicates that average mark for prevailing condition of economic security as viewed by respondent is 66.41, which comes in lower-medium status of economic security.

5.3.7 STATUS OF POLITICAL SECURITY

Political security includes Level of democratization, Protection against state repression (freedom of press, speech, voting etc.), Respect of basic human rights and freedom, Democratic expectations, Abolishment of political detention, imprisonment, systematic torture, ill treatment, disappearance etc.

Women's symbolic and actual lives throughout history have been shaped by state purposes. Whereas men have driven political and economic engines, thereby acquiring identities as active agents, women have remained the clients or even wards of their governments, those acted upon for the alleged common good. Without a commitment to empower women to shape national policy both at home and abroad, to guarantee education and health care for all, and to listen as women speak for

themselves, such rhetoric only contributes to women's historical role as shuttlecocks in men's political badminton games.⁵⁹

Hoogensen and Stuvoy (2006) argued that by putting feminist approach as integral part of human security's concern, the visible relations of dominance and non-dominance on the basis of race, ethnicity and class, often disregarded by the dominant paradigms can be traced.⁶⁰ Feminist perspectives enrich human security approaches by uncovering 'fundamental power relations' and inequalities created deeply by gender discourses which put women in weaker position than men. MacKay (2004) listed some problems that women should uncover such as the weakness of women in decision-making authority within political and economic systems, the inability to participate in elections and public life, the phenomenon of religious-based oppression. These, according to her, are sources of structural violence experienced by women.⁶¹

Democracy does not automatically guarantee women's security. Democracy taking place within a patriarchal structure has created direct and indirect violence against women. Sometimes, democratic processes produce some regulations that endanger women life and aspiration. It is argued that by having more representatives in political institutions such as political parties, parliaments and executives, women can get involved in decision making process and at least will be able to reduce possibilities of violence and to create a safer condition for them to do their activities. Although the number of women holding the important political positions has not improved significantly, recently women have been able to voice their concerns on some regulations discriminating their position. In particular, the campaign gets new significance when some women's security issues are in coincidence with human security issues. Human security problems such as violence towards women at home, at workplace and public places, get more attention because of campaigns promoted by women activists.

To assess the status of political security, 16 questions pertaining to the status of freedom of speech, voting, choice political thoughts, democratic expectations, participation in political activities, present political situation, opportunity for women, needs of protection from political exploitation, etc had been included in interview

59. Kitch, S.L. and Mills, M.A. (2004), 'Appropriating Women's Agendas', *Peace Review*, Vol. 16, No. 1, March, pp. 66–67.

60. Hoogensen, G. and Stuvoy, K. (2006), 'Gender, Resistance and Human Security', *Security Dialogue*, Vol. 37, No. 2, p. 216.

61. McKay, S. (2004), 'Women, Human Security, and Peace-building : A Feminist Analysis', *Conflict and Human Security: A Search for New Approaches of Peace-building*, IPSHU English Research Report Series No.19, p. 161.

schedule and most of questions were assigned with mark ranging from 1 to 5 depending (except Q.No. 15 & 16, which had different number of alternatives, i.e. 2 and 3 respectively) on response given by respondent as per status of political security varying from very low to very high. Marks were calculated as per response given by respondent for each question and accordingly respondents were categories in to three groups (i.e. Poor, Average and Good) as per total marks obtained. Details are as follows:

	Minimum	Maximum
Marks allocated	16	75
Marks obtained	19	72

Classification as per status of Political Security		
	Minimum	Maximum
Poor	29	56
Average	57	84
Good	85	112

Table No. - 5.8

Distribution of Respondents as per Status of Political Security

Status of Political Security	No. of Respondents	Percentage	Average Marks
Poor	149	38.30	27.92
Average	144	37.02	46.12
Good	96	24.68	64.37
TOTAL	389	100.00	43.65

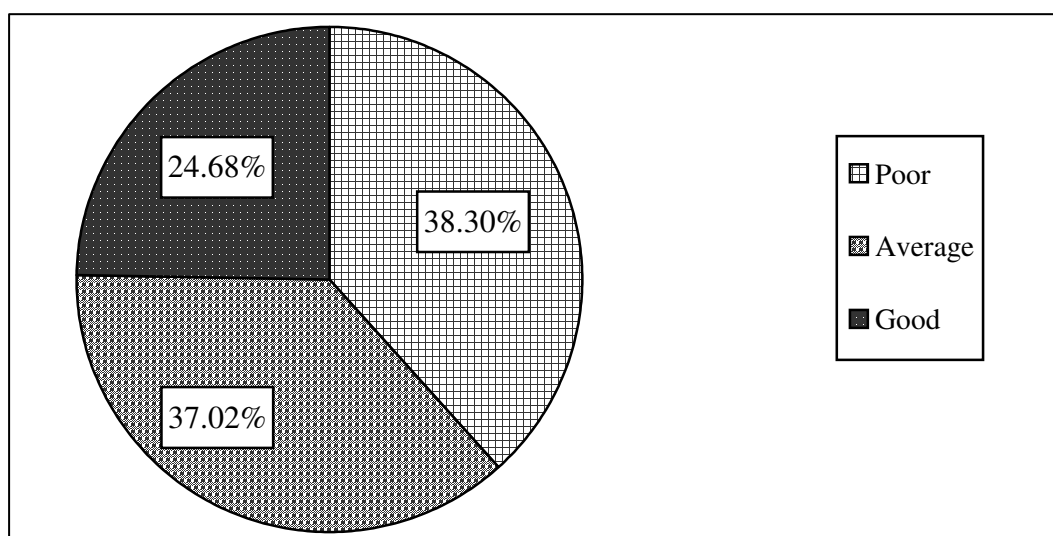


Fig. 5.8 : Distribution of Respondents as per Status of Political Security

Table 5.8 represents the distribution of respondents as per their views on status of political security. It reveals that 38.30% of respondents viewed the status of prevailing political security as poor, whereas 37.02% of respondents have assessed it as average and 24.68% of respondents have viewed the status of prevailing political security as good.

This table also indicates that average mark for prevailing condition of political security as viewed by respondent is 43.65, which comes in lower-medium status of political security.

5.3.8 STATUS OF ENVIRONMENTAL SECURITY

Environmental security includes Assessment on pollution of water, air, Prevention of deforestation Land conservation and desertification, Concern on environmental problems, Ability to solve environmental problems, Protection from toxic and hazardous wastes, Prevention of traffic accidents and related impacts, Natural hazard mitigation (droughts, floods, cyclones or earthquakes) etc.

To assess the status of Environmental security, 20 questions related to assessment of air, water and environment pollution, prevention of deforestation, land conservation and desertification, concern on environmental problems, ability to solve environmental problems, protection from toxic and hazardous wastes, prevention of traffic accidents and related impacts, natural hazard mitigation (droughts, floods, cyclones or earthquakes) etc had been included in interview schedule and each question was assigned with mark ranging from 1 to 5 depending on response given by respondent as per status of Environmental security varying from very low to very high. Marks were calculated as per response given by respondent for each question and accordingly respondents were categories in to three groups (i.e. Poor, Average and Good) as per total marks obtained. Details are as follows:

	Minimum	Maximum
Marks allocated	20	100
Marks obtained	25	96

Classification as per status of Environmental Security

	Minimum	Maximum
Poor	25	48
Average	49	72
Good	73	96

Table No. - 5.9

Distribution of Respondents as per Status of Environmental Security

Status of Environmental Security	No. of Respondents	Percentage	Average Marks
Poor	151	38.82	36.91
Average	139	35.73	61.18
Good	99	25.45	85.48
TOTAL	389	100.00	57.94

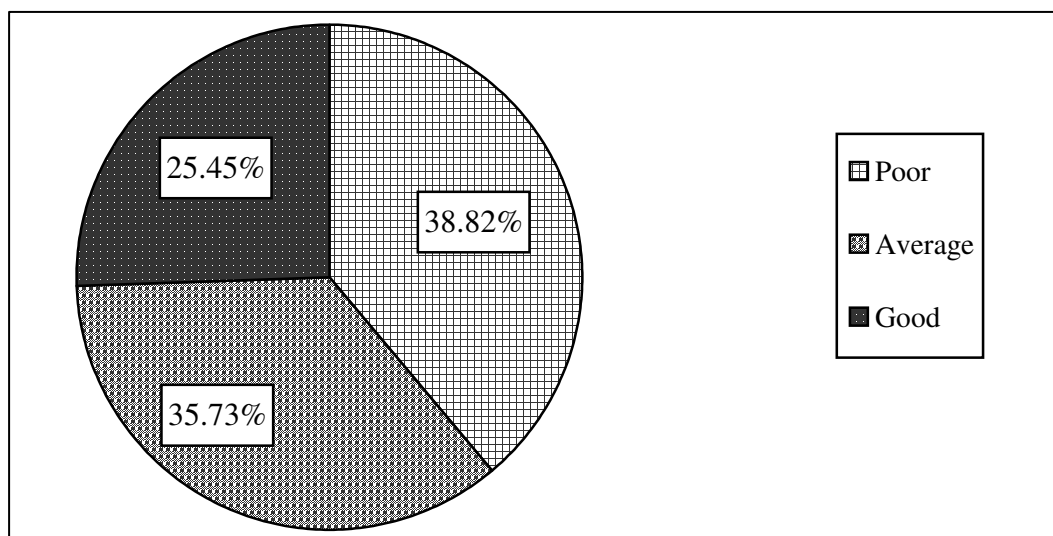


Fig. 5.9
Distribution of Respondents as per Status of Environmental Security

Table 5.9 represents the distribution of respondents as per their views on status of Environmental security. It reveals that 38.82% of respondents viewed the status of prevailing Environmental security as poor, whereas 35.73% of respondents have assessed it as average and 25.45% of respondents have viewed the status of prevailing Environmental security as good.

This table also indicates that average mark for prevailing condition of Environmental security as viewed by respondent is 57.94, which comes in lower-medium status of Environmental security.

5.4 RELATIONSHIP OF SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF RESPONDENTS WITH DIFFERENT DIMENSIONS OF HUMAN SECURITY AND PATRIARCHAL VIOLENCE

Strong relationship between patriarchal violence and socio-economic status of women has been noticed by many scholars. It is also found out that there is significant difference in various socio-economic groups as per the status of existing human security measures, which are necessary to prevent patriarchal violence through direct or indirect ways. Present study tries to investigate difference in nature and intensity of patriarchal violence and status of existing human security measures between various socio-economic groups. For this Chi-square test is used to find out significant of difference in nature and intensity of patriarchal violence and selected areas of human security between different socio-economic groups, and t-test is used to find out significant of difference in means of nature and intensity of patriarchal violence and selected areas of human security between two socio-economic groups.

5.4.1 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SOCIO-ECONOMIC BACKGROUND OF RESPONDENTS AND PREVALENCE OF PATRIARCHAL VIOLENCE

Many Researchers (Riggs et al., 2000⁶²; Schumacher et al., 2001⁶³; Riger and Staggs, 2004⁶⁴; Stith et al., 2004⁶⁵) have reported that rates of reported violence were higher in areas of economic and social disadvantage, and there were moderate associations between male partners' perpetration of physical aggression and their socioeconomic status.

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62. Riggs, D.S., M.B. Caulfield, & AB. Street (2000), Risk for Domestic Violence : Factors Associated with Perpetration and Victimization, *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, Vol. 56, No. 10, pp. 1289-1316.
 63. Schumacher, J., S. Feldbau-Kohn, A.M.S. Slep, and R.E. Heyman (2001), Risk Factors for Maleto-Female Partner Physical Abuse, *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, Vo. 6, No. 2/3, pp. 281-352.
 64. Riger, S. and S. Staggs (2004), Welfare Reform, Domestic Violence, and Employment : What Do We Know and What Do We Need to Know? *Violence Against Women*, Vol. 10, No. 9, pp. 961-990.
 65. Stith, S.M., D.B. Smith, C.E. Penn, D.B. Ward, and D. Tritt. (2004), Intimate Partner Physical Abuse Perpetration and Victimization Risk Factors : A Meta-analytic Review, *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, Vol. 10, No. 1, pp. 65-98.

A range of socio-cultural factors such as beliefs, norms, values, taboos, community, expectations and rules, law and policies, economic and physical resources, technological and ethical factors influence an individual's attitudes towards Gender based violence. Cross-cultural studies indicate that at societal level, the discrimination against women is traceable to male authority and decision making in the home, rigid gender roles, definition of masculinity that are linked to dominance or male honour, economic inequality between men and women, and the use of physical force for conflict resolution.⁶⁶

In present study, significance of difference in nature and intensity of patriarchal violence, if any, between various socio-economic groups (e.g. Geographical background, position of women in family, age, caste, educational status, nature of occupation & economic Status of respondent, nature of family, nature of occupation & Economic Status of family) has been investigated by using Chi-square test and t-test.

(a) Relationship between Geographical background of Respondents and Level of Patriarchal Violence

Table No. 5.10(i)

Geographical Areas wise Distribution of Respondents as per level of Patriarchal Violence Viewed by Them

Status of Patriarchal Violence	Rural		Urban		Total	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Low	42	21.32	56	29.17	98	25.19
Medium	65	32.99	73	38.02	138	35.48
High	90	45.69	63	32.81	153	39.33
TOTAL	197	100.00	192	100.00	389	100.00

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their geographical area

Rural	37.04
Urban	34.39

Table 5.10(i) presents geographical area wise distribution of respondents as per level of Patriarchal violence viewed by them. This table reveals that 39.33% of respondents feel high level of patriarchal violence in their family/society, whereas

66. Ezeh, A.C., Gage, A.J. (1998), The Cultural and Economic Context of Domestic Violence in Uganda, Paper Presented at the Annual Meeting of the Population Association of America, Chicago, Illinois, on April 4, 1998.

35.48% of respondents have opined it as medium and 25.19% of respondents have viewed the prevalence of patriarchal violence in their family/society as low.

This table also indicates that:

1. Out of total respondents from rural area, 45.69% of respondents feel high level of patriarchal violence in their family/society, whereas 32.99% of respondents have opined it as medium and 21.32% of respondents have viewed the prevalence of patriarchal violence in their family/society as low.

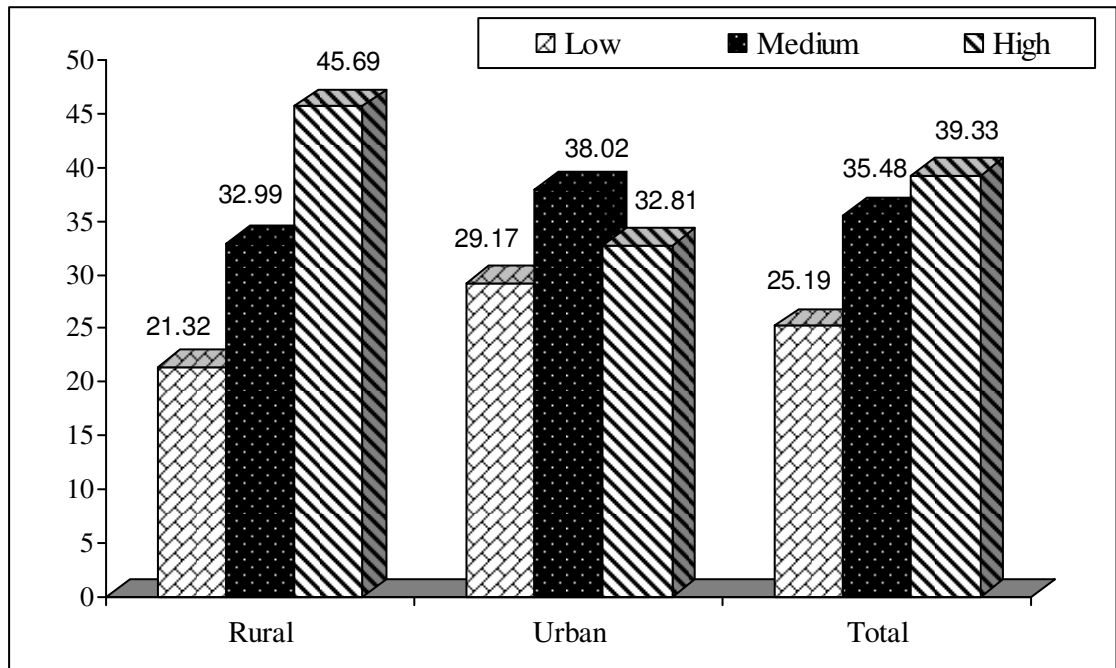


Fig. 5.10: Geographical Areas wise Distribution of Respondents as per level of Patriarchal Violence Viewed by Them

2. Out of total respondents from urban area, 38.02% of respondents feel medium level of patriarchal violence in their family/society, whereas 32.81% of respondents have opined it as high and 29.17% of respondents have viewed the prevalence of patriarchal violence in their family/society as low.

Table 5.0(i) also reveals that there is geographical area wise difference in level of patriarchal violence viewed by respondents, as average marks of respondents belong to rural area (37.04) is more (2.65) than respondents of urban area (34.39). To ascertain the significance of this difference, t-test is used.

Table No. - 5.10(ii)

Significance of Difference in Mean Score of Patriarchal Violence among Rural and Urban Respondents

Area	Frequency	Mean	SD	Diff. in Mean	Sd Error	T-value
Rural	197	37.045	10.74	2.654	1.016	**2.611
Urban	192	34.391	9.27			

* Significant at $P = 0.05$, ** Significant at $P = 0.01$

Table 5.10(ii) shows that obtained t-value for difference in mean score of patriarchal violence among rural and urban respondents is 2.611, which is equal to table value at $df = 387$ and $p=0.01$ (2.611). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference in mean score of patriarchal violence among rural and urban respondents**. It also indicates that level of patriarchal violence in rural area is more than urban area.

(b) Relationship between Position of women in family/society and Level of Patriarchal Violence

Table 5.11(i) shows the distribution of respondents as per level of patriarchal violence viewed by them w.r.t. position of women in family/society. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents belong to opinion of below satisfaction level of women's position, 45.26% of respondents have expressed high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 37.23% of respondents have expressed medium level of patriarchal violence and 17.52% of respondents have expressed low level of patriarchal violence.

Table No. - 5.11 (i)

Distribution of Respondents as per level of Patriarchal Violence Viewed by Them w.r.t. Position of Women in Family/Society

Level of Patriarchal violence	No. of Respondent as per views on women's position						
	Below Sat.		Satisfactory		Highly Sat.		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.
Low	24	17.52	35	23.49	39	37.86	98
Medium	51	37.23	54	36.24	33	32.04	138
High	62	45.26	60	40.27	31	30.10	153
Total	137	100.00	149	100.00	103	100.00	389

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their views on women's position

Below Satisfaction 37.46

Satisfactory 36.07

Highly Satisfactory 32.96

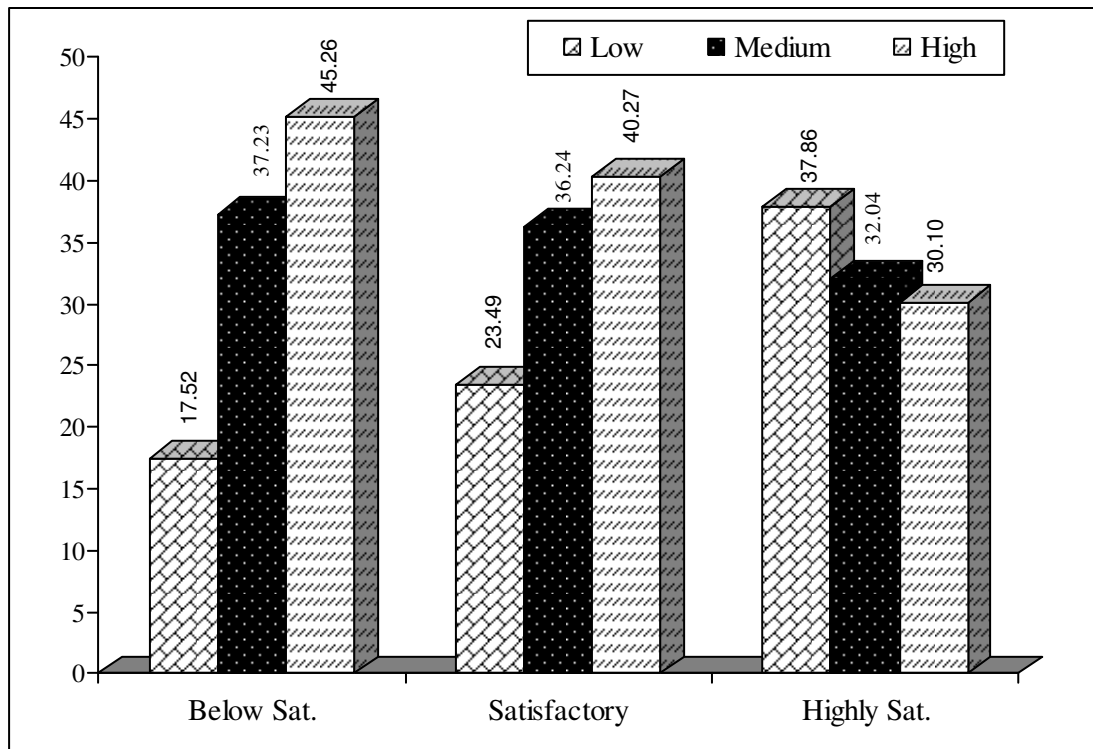


Fig.5.11 : Distribution of Respondents as per level of Patriarchal Violence Viewed by Them w.r.t. Position of Women in Family/Society

2. Out of total respondents belong to opinion of satisfactory level of women's position, 40.27% of respondents have expressed high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 36.24% of respondents have expressed medium level and 23.49% of respondents have expressed low level of patriarchal violence.
3. Out of total respondents belong to opinion of highly satisfactory level of women's position, 37.86% of respondents have expressed low level of patriarchal violence, whereas 32.04% of respondents have expressed medium level and 30.10% of respondents have expressed high level of patriarchal violence.

Table 5.11(i) also reveals that there is a difference in level of patriarchal violence as expressed by respondents as per different opinion group of women's status, as average marks obtained by respondents belonging to below satisfaction opinion-group (37.46) is more (4.50) than respondents of highly satisfactory opinion-group (32.96). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.11(ii)

Significance of Difference in Level of Patriarchal Violence Viewed by Respondents of Different Opinion-groups of Women's Position in Family/Society

Opinion -Group	Low		Medium		High		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Below Sat.	24	34.51	51	48.60	62	53.88	137
Satisfactory	35	37.54	54	52.86	60	58.60	149
Highly Sat.	39	25.95	33	36.54	31	40.51	103
Total	98	98	138	138	153	153	389

$$x^2 = 13.914$$

$$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.01

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.01 = 13.277$

Table 5.11(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different opinion-groups of women's position in family/society, w.r.t. level of patriarchal violence viewed by them is 13.914, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.01 significance level (13.277). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference in level of patriarchal violence viewed by respondents of different opinion-groups of women's position in family/society**. It also reveals that prevalence of patriarchal violence is highly and negatively correlated with status of women in family/society.

(c) Relationship between Age of Respondents and Level of Patriarchal Violence

In present study, age of respondents vary from 18 years to 65 years. To find out relationship between age and level of patriarchal violence, respondents are categorised into three age group, namely young, middle-aged and elderly aged.

Census 2011 considered 15 to 29 years age group as youth (Young).⁶⁷ Youth policy (2014) also considered 15-29 years of age group as youth.⁶⁸ Petry (2002)⁶⁹ categorized adults by age into three groups namely young (18-35 years), middle-aged adults (ages 36-55 years), and older adults (aged older than 55 years). Nolen-

67. Census of India (2011), Registrar General & Commissioner of Census, Ministry of Home, Government of India, New Delhi.

68. National Youth Policy (2014), Ministry of Youth Programm & Games, Government of India, New Delhi.

69. Petry, N.M. (2002), A Comparison of Young, Middle-Aged, and Older Adult Treatment-Seeking Pathological Gamblers, *Gerontologist*, Vol. 42, No. 1, Feb., pp. 92-99.

Hoeksema and Ahrens (2002)⁷⁰ categorised adults into three age groups: 25- to 35-year-olds (referred to as young adults), 35- to 55-year-olds (referred to as middle-aged adults), and older than 55 (referred to as older adults), whereas Klohnen and John (1998)⁷¹ and Diehl, Elnick, Bourbeau, & Labouvie-Vief, (1998)⁷² referred middle-aged adults for persons in age-group of 40-60 years. Based on these studies, age limit for three age-groups in present study is decided as:

Young 18-29 years
 Middle-aged 30-49 years
 Elderly-aged above 49 years

Table No. - 5.12

Distribution of Respondents as per Their Age-group		
Age-group	No. of Respondents	Percentage
Young	124	31.88
Middle-aged	158	40.62
elderly-aged	107	27.51
TOTAL	389	100.00

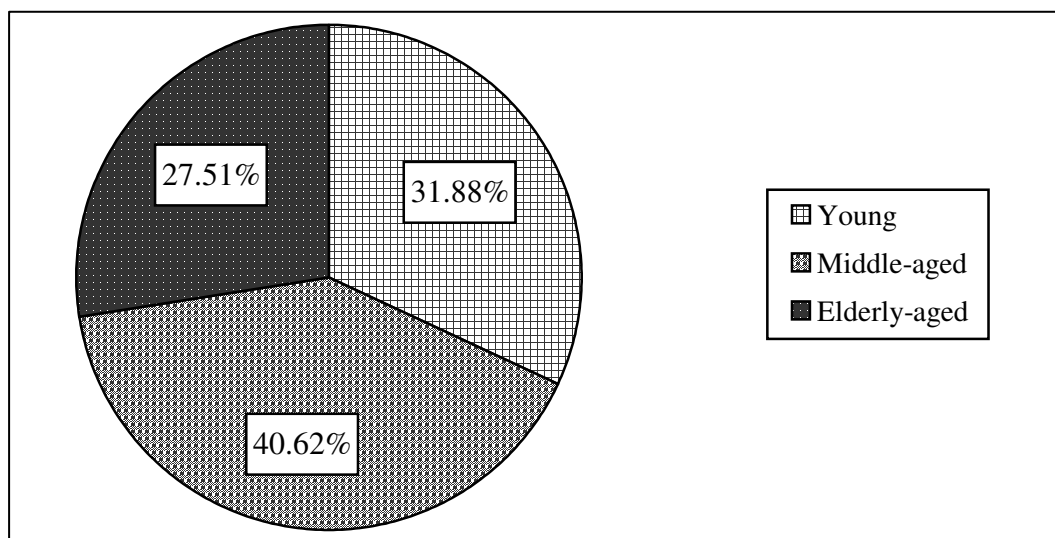


Fig. 5.12 : Distribution of Respondents as per Their Age-group

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70. Nolen-Hoeksema, S. and Ahrens, C. (2002), Age Differences and Similarities in the Correlates of Depressive Symptoms, *Psychology and Aging*, Vol. 17, No. 1, pp. 116 –124
71. Klohnen, E. C., & John, O. P. (1998), Working models of attachment: A theory-based prototype approach, In J. A. Simpson & W. S. Rholes (Eds.), *Attachment theory and close relationships*, Guilford Press, New York, pp. 115–140.
72. Diehl, M., Elnick, A. B., Bourbeau, L. S., & Labouvie-Vief, G. (1998), Adult attachment styles: Their relations to family context and personality, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 74, pp. 1656–1669.

Table 5.12 represents the distribution of respondents as per their age-group. It reveals that 40.62% of respondents are in middle-aged group, whereas 31.88% of respondents are in young age-group and 27.51% of respondents are in elderly-aged group.

Table No. - 5.13 (i)

Age-group wise Distribution of Respondents as per level of Patriarchal Violence Viewed by Them

Level of Patriarchal violence	No. of Respondent as per their age group						
	Young		Middle-aged		Elderly-aged		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.
Low	28	22.58	39	24.68	31	28.97	98
Medium	41	33.06	58	36.71	39	36.45	138
High	55	44.35	61	38.61	37	34.58	153
Total	124	100.00	158	100.00	107	100.00	389

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their Age-group

Young	36.72
Middle-aged	35.70
Elderly aged	34.65

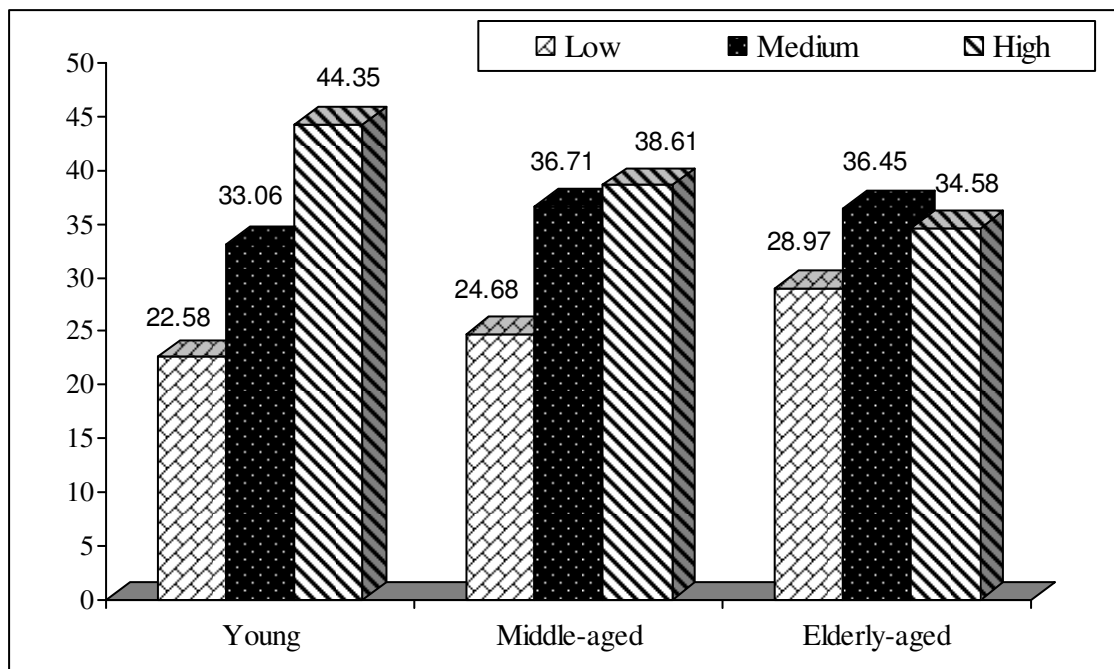


Fig. 5.13 : Age-group Wise Distribution of Respondents as per level of Patriarchal Violence Viewed by Them

Table 5.13(i) shows the age-wise distribution of respondents as per level of patriarchal violence viewed by them. This table reveals that :

1. Out of total respondents belong to young age group, 44.35% of respondents have expressed high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 33.06% of respondents have expressed medium level of patriarchal violence and 22.58% of respondents have expressed low level of patriarchal violence.
2. Out of total respondents belong to middle-aged group, 38.61% of respondents have expressed high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 36.71% of respondents have expressed medium level and 24.68% of respondents have expressed low level of patriarchal violence.
3. Out of total respondents belong to elderly-aged group, 36.45% of respondents have expressed medium level of patriarchal violence, whereas 34.58% of respondents have expressed high level and 28.97% of respondents have expressed low level of patriarchal violence.

Table 5.13(i) also reveals that there is a age-group wise difference in level of patriarchal violence as expressed by respondents, as average marks obtained by respondents belong to young age-group (36.72) is more (2.07) than respondents of elderly aged-group (34.65). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.13(ii)

Significance of Difference in Level of Patriarchal Violence Viewed by Respondents of Different Age Group

Age -Group	Low		Medium		High		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Young	28	31.24	41	43.99	55	48.77	124
Middle Aged	39	39.80	58	56.05	61	62.14	158
Elderly Aged	31	26.96	39	37.96	37	42.08	107
Total	98	98	138	138	153	153	389

$$x^2 = 2.689$$

$$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.05

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.05 = 9.488$

Table 5.13(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different age-groups of respondents, w.r.t. level of patriarchal violence viewed by them is 2.689, which is less than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.05 significance level

(9.488). So, it can be said that there is **no significant difference in level of patriarchal violence viewed by respondents of different age group.**

(d) Relationship between Caste of Respondents and Level of Patriarchal Violence

Table No. - 5.14 (i)

Caste-wise Distribution of Respondents as per level of Patriarchal Violence Viewed by Them

Level of Patriarchal violence	No. of Respondent as per their Caste						Total No.
	General		OBC		SC		
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Low	39	21.43	29	22.31	30	38.96	98
Medium	63	34.62	49	37.69	26	33.77	138
High	80	43.96	52	40.00	21	27.27	153
Total	182	100.00	130	100.00	77	100.00	389

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their caste

General	36.80
OBC	36.18
SC	32.46

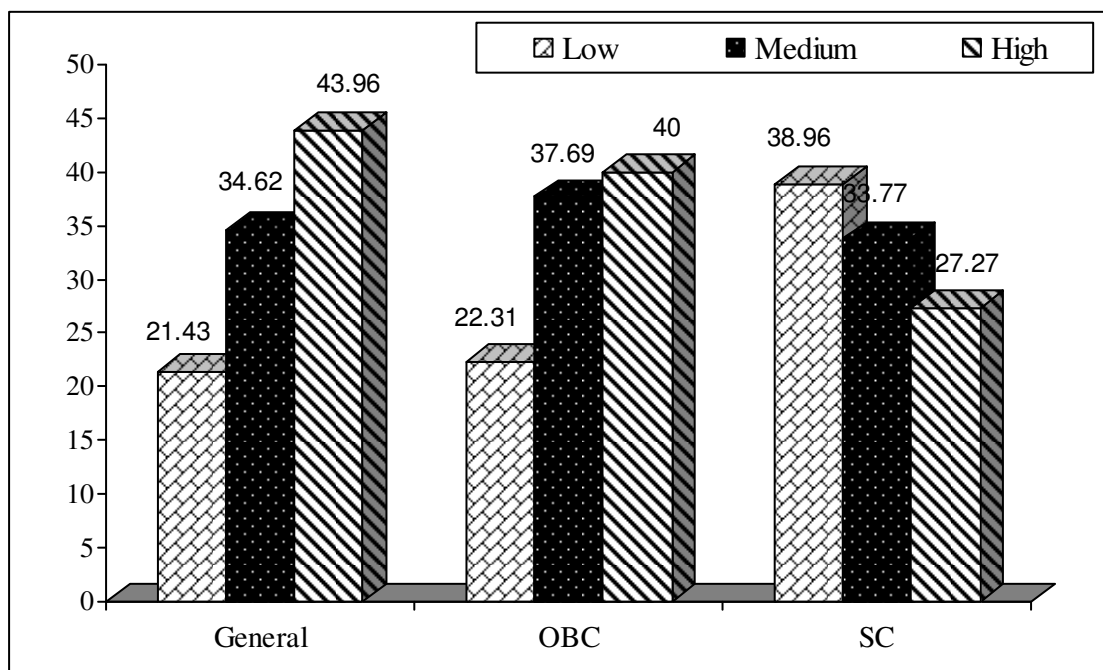


Fig. 5.14 : Caste-Wise Distribution of Respondents as per level of Patriarchal Violence Viewed by Them

Table 5.14(i) shows the caste-wise distribution of respondents as per level of patriarchal violence viewed by them. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents belong to general caste, 43.96% of respondents have expressed high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 34.62% of respondents have expressed medium level and 21.43% of respondents have expressed low level of patriarchal violence.
2. Out of total respondents belong to OBC, 40.00% of respondents have expressed high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 37.69% of respondents have expressed medium level and 22.31% of respondents have expressed low level of patriarchal violence.
3. Out of total respondents belong to SC, 38.96% of respondents have expressed low level of patriarchal violence, whereas 33.77% of respondents have expressed medium level and 27.27% of respondents have expressed high level of patriarchal violence.

Table 5.14(i) also reveals that there is a caste-wise difference in level of patriarchal violence as expressed by respondents, as average marks obtained by respondents belong to general caste (36.80) is more (4.34) than respondents of Scheduled caste (32.46). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.14(ii)

Significance of Difference in Level of Patriarchal Violence Viewed by Respondents of Different Caste

Caste	Low		Medium		High		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
General	39	45.85	63	64.57	80	71.58	182
OBC	29	32.75	49	46.12	52	51.13	130
SC	30	19.40	26	27.32	21	30.29	77
Total	98	98	138	138	153	153	389

$$x^2 = 11.380$$

$$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.05

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.05 = 9.488$

Table 5.14(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different social caste of respondents, w.r.t. level of patriarchal violence is 11.380, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.05 significance level (9.488). So, it can be said that there is **significant difference in level of patriarchal violence viewed by respondents of different caste.**

(e) Relationship between Educational status of Respondents and Level of Patriarchal Violence

In present study respondents are educated up to various education levels, ranging from no basic education up to PG or professional course and were grouped as per their highest education degree. To compare the level of patriarchal violence felt by respondents, these respondents are regrouped in three groups as per norms given bellow:

Lower Level Up to Jr. High School
 Medium Level High School & Intermediate
 Higher Level UG, PG & Professional degree

Table No. - 5.15

Distribution of Respondents as per Their Educational Status

Educational Status	No. of Respondents	Percentage
Lower level	152	39.07
Medium level	164	42.16
Higher level	73	18.77
TOTAL	389	100.00

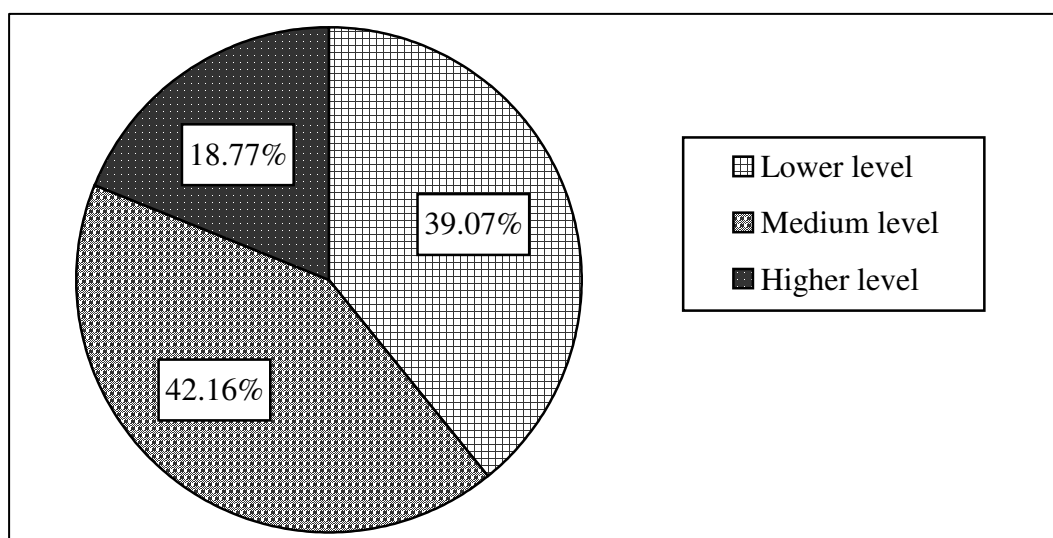


Fig. 5.15 : Distribution of Respondents as per Their Educational Status

Table 5.15 represents the distribution of respondents as per their Educational Status. It reveals that 42.16% of respondents are having education up to medium level, whereas 39.07% of respondents are having education up to lower level and 18.77% of respondents are educated up to higher level.

Table No. - 5.16 (i)

Educational Status wise Distribution of Respondents as per level of Patriarchal Violence Viewed by Them

Level of Patriarchal violence	No. of Respondent as per their Educational Status						
	Lower level		Medium level		Higher level		Total No.
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Low	31	20.39	38	23.17	29	39.73	98
Medium	52	34.21	62	37.80	24	32.88	138
High	69	45.39	64	39.02	20	27.40	153
Total	152	100.00	164	100.00	73	100.00	389

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their educational status

Lower level 37.12

Medium level 35.94

Higher level 32.38

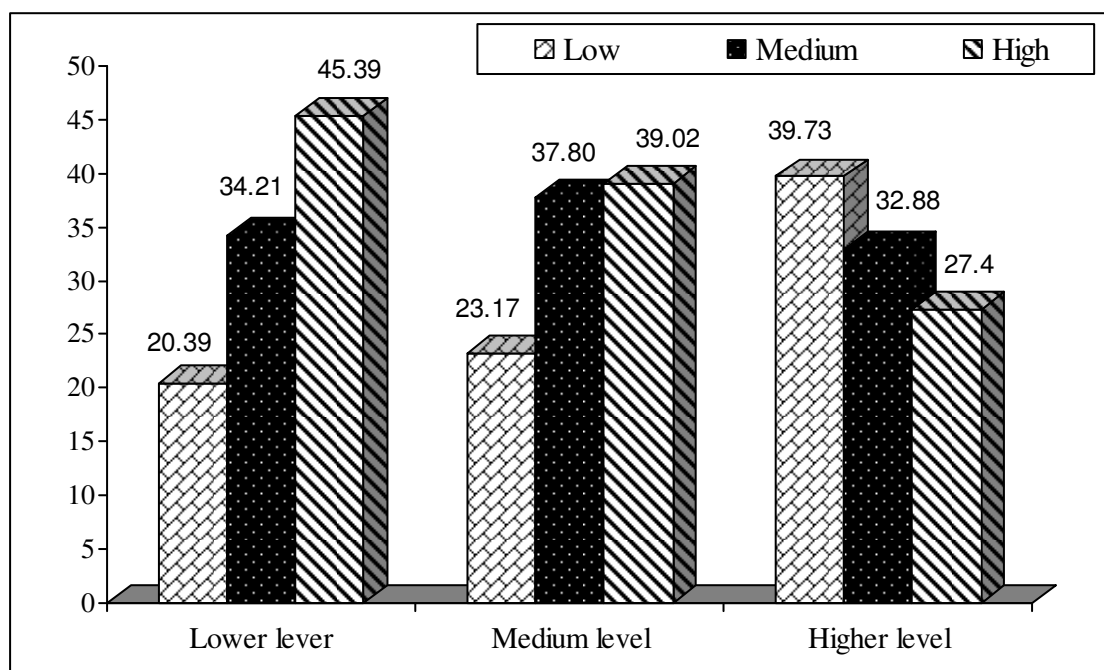


Fig. 5.16 : Educational Status Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. level of Patriarchal Violence expressed by Them

Table 5.16(i) shows the educational status wise distribution of respondents as per level of patriarchal violence viewed by them. This table reveals that :

1. Out of total respondents having lower level of educational status, 45.39% of respondents have expressed high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 34.21% of respondents have expressed medium level and 20.39% of respondents have expressed low level of patriarchal violence.

2. Out of total respondents having medium level of education, 39.02% of respondents have expressed high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 37.80% of respondents have expressed medium level and 23.17% of respondents have expressed low level of patriarchal violence.
3. Out of total respondents having higher level of education, 39.73% of respondents have expressed low level of patriarchal violence, whereas 32.88% of respondents have expressed medium level and 27.40% of respondents have expressed high level of patriarchal violence.

Table 5.16(i) also reveals that there is a educational status wise difference in level of patriarchal violence as expressed by respondents, as average marks obtained by respondents having lower level of education (37.12) is more (4.74) than respondents having higher level of education (32.38). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.16(ii)

Significance of Difference in Level of Patriarchal Violence Viewed by Respondents of Different Educational Status

Educational Status	Low		Medium		High		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Lower level	31	38.29	52	53.92	69	59.78	152
Medium level	38	41.32	62	58.18	64	64.50	164
Higher level	29	18.39	24	25.90	20	28.71	73
Total	98	98	138	138	153	153	389

$$x^2 = 12.302$$

$$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.05

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.05 = 9.488$

Table 5.16(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different educational status of respondents, w.r.t. level of patriarchal violence is 12.302, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.05 significance level (9.488). So, it can be said that there is **significant difference in level of patriarchal violence viewed by respondents of different educational status.**

(f) Relationship between Economic Status of Respondents and Level of Patriarchal Violence

The large-scale inequities and upheavals associated with globalization exacerbate the conditions that generate violence against women by amplifying disparities of wealth and social privilege and impoverishing rural economies. They can also expose women to violence in the form of exploitative working conditions in inadequately regulated industries. At the same time, industrialization and economic migration offer women waged work outside the traditional boundaries of gender roles within their communities. The destabilization of traditional gender roles coexists with new permutations of gender subordination, however, and women are employed primarily in sex-segregated and low-wage industries.⁷³

According to both national and international surveys, women's chances of finding employment are much worse than those of men. Stereotypes about women (they are lazy, sentimental, tend to gossip instead of work) systematically violate their fundamental rights to find employment. Women are often forced to choose between work and having children, which violates their reproductive rights as well. Women receive less salary for the same work as men, and their number is in reverse proportion to the prestige of a given profession.⁷⁴

To find out difference in patriarchal violence between different economic status of respondents, economic status of respondents is classified into two groups namely earning class as independent and non earning class as dependent. The distribution of respondents as per their reclassified economic status is as follows:

Table No. - 5.17

Distribution of Respondents as per Their Economic Category

Economic Category	No. of Respondents	Percentage
Dependent	260	66.84
Independent	129	33.16
TOTAL	389	100.00

73. UNO (2004), *World Survey on the Role of Women in Development: Women and International Migration*, United Nations Publication, Sales No. E.04.IV.4., UNO, New York.

74. HCWG (2006), *Do you know What patriarchal violence is?*, Stop-Male Violence Project, Habeas Corpus Working Group, Budapest, Hungary.

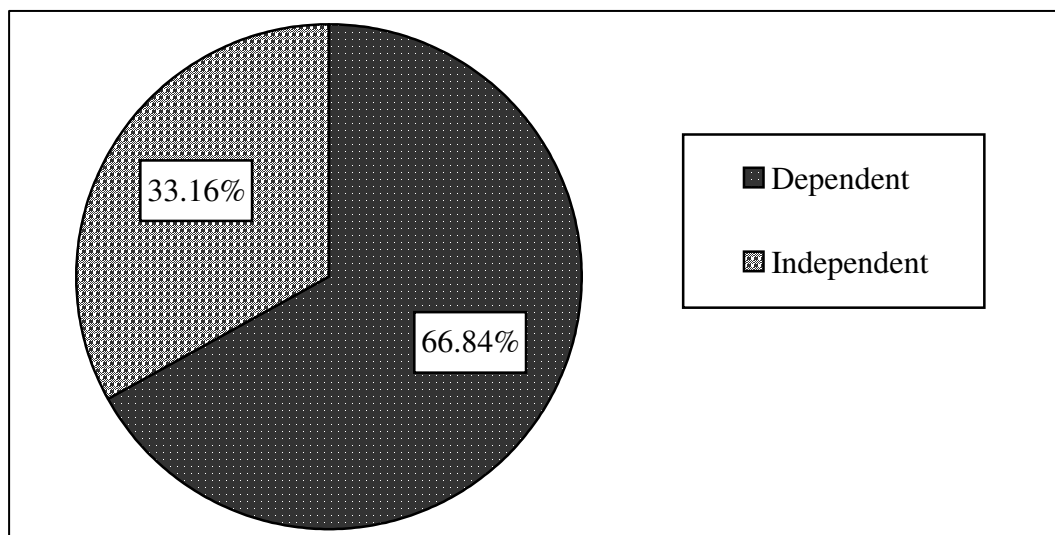


Fig. 5.17 : Distribution of Respondents as per Their Economic Category

Table 5.17 represents the distribution of respondents as per their economic category. It reveals that 66.84% of respondents are in dependent economic category as they are not recognised as earning member, whereas 33.16% of respondents are in independent economic category as they are earning member of family.

Table No. 5.18(i)

Economic Category wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. level of Patriarchal Violence Viewed by Them

Status of Patriarchal Violence	Dependent		Independent		Total	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Low	52	20.00	46	35.66	98	25.19
Medium	95	36.54	43	33.33	138	35.48
High	113	43.46	40	31.01	153	39.33
TOTAL	260	100.00	129	100.00	389	100.00

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their economic category

Dependent	36.92
Independent	33.36

Table 5.18(i) presents economic category wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. level of Patriarchal violence viewed by them. This table indicates that:

1. Out of total respondents from dependent economic category, 43.46% of respondents feel high level of patriarchal violence in their family/society, whereas 36.54% of respondents have opined it as medium and 20.00% of respondents have viewed the prevalence of patriarchal violence in their family/society as low.

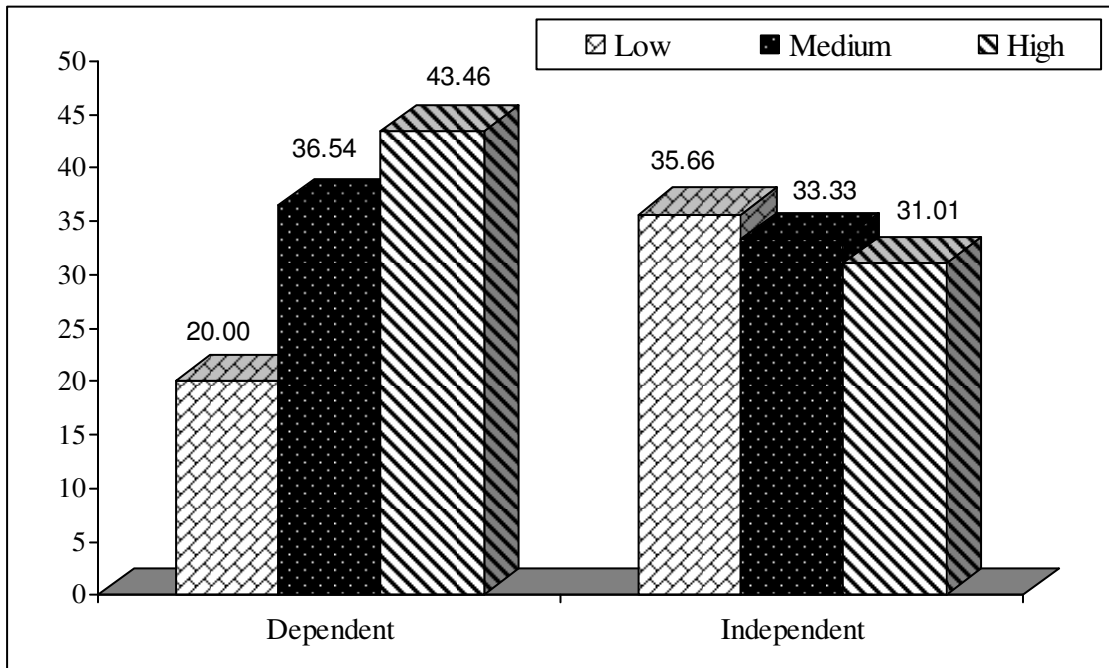


Fig. 5.18: Economic Category wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. level of Patriarchal Violence Viewed by Them

- Out of total respondents from independent economic category, 35.66% of respondents feel low level of patriarchal violence in their family/society, whereas 33.33% of respondents have opined it as medium and 31.01% of respondents have viewed the prevalence of patriarchal violence in their family/society as high.

Table 5.18(i) also reveals that there is economic category wise difference in level of patriarchal violence viewed by respondents, as average marks of respondents belong to dependent economic category (36.92) is more (3.55) than respondents of independent economic category (33.37). To ascertain the significance of this difference, t-test is used.

Table No. - 5.18(ii)

Significance of Difference in Mean Score of Patriarchal Violence among Dependent and Independent Economic categories of Respondents

Economic Category	Frequency	Mean	SD	Diff. in Mean	Sd Error	T-value
Dependent	260	36.916	10.83	3.560	1.119	**3.183
Independent	129	33.356	10.16			

* Significant at $P = 0.05$, ** Significant at $P = 0.01$

Table 5.18(ii) shows that obtained t-value for difference in mean score of patriarchal violence among dependent and independent respondents is 3.183, which is more than table value at $df = 387$ and $p=0.01$ (2.611). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference in mean score of patriarchal violence among economically dependent and independent respondents**. It also indicates that level of patriarchal violence in economically dependent respondents is more than economically independent respondents.

(g) Relationship between Nature of occupation of Respondents' family and Level of Patriarchal Violence

To find out co-relation/difference between household occupation and prevalence of patriarchal violence in family, respondents are categorised into three categories namely Traditional, Moderate and Modern occupational category. The grouping of occupations for this categorisation is as follows:

Traditional	Agriculture, Labour, Traditional occupation at home
Moderate	Small shops, traditional business, and low level services
Modern	Organised business, Professional and higher level services

Table No. - 5.19

Distribution of Respondents as per Their Household Occupation

Household Occupation	No. of Respondents	Percentage
Traditional	171	43.96
Moderate	124	31.88
Modern	94	24.16
TOTAL	389	100.00

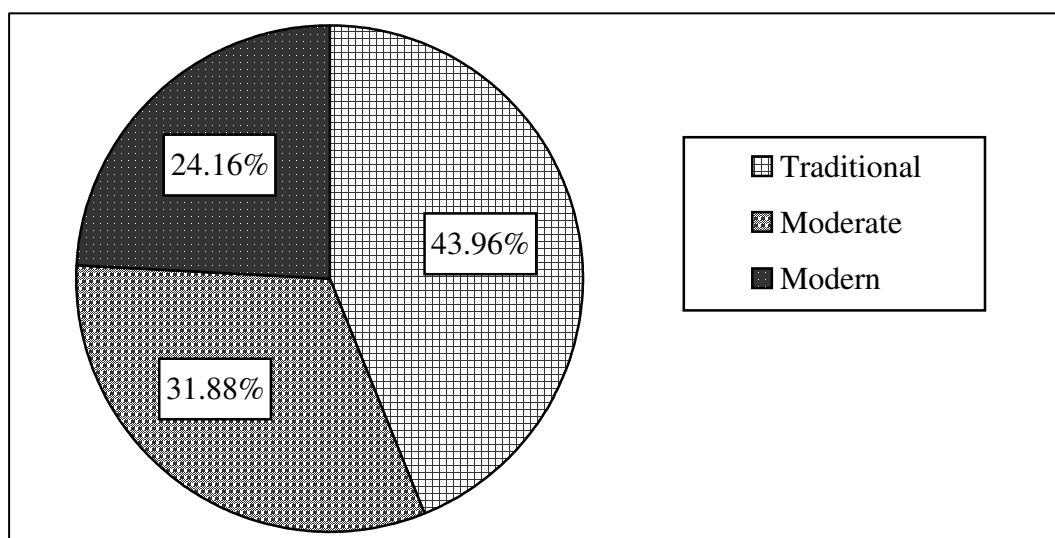


Fig. 5.19 : Distribution of Respondents as per Their Household Occupation

Table 5.19 represents the distribution of respondents as per their household occupation. It reveals that 43.96% of respondents belong to families having traditional household occupation, whereas 31.88% of respondents belong to families adopted moderate occupation and 24.16% of respondents belong to families of modern occupations.

Table No. - 5.20 (i)

Household Occupation wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. level of Patriarchal Violence Viewed by Them

Level of Patriarchal violence	No. of Respondent as per their household occupation						
	Traditional		Moderate		Modern		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Low	33	19.30	29	23.39	36	38.30	98
Medium	61	35.67	45	36.29	32	34.04	138
High	77	45.03	50	40.32	26	27.66	153
Total	171	100.00	124	100.00	94	100.00	389

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their household occupation

Traditional 37.21

Moderate 36.09

Modern 32.59

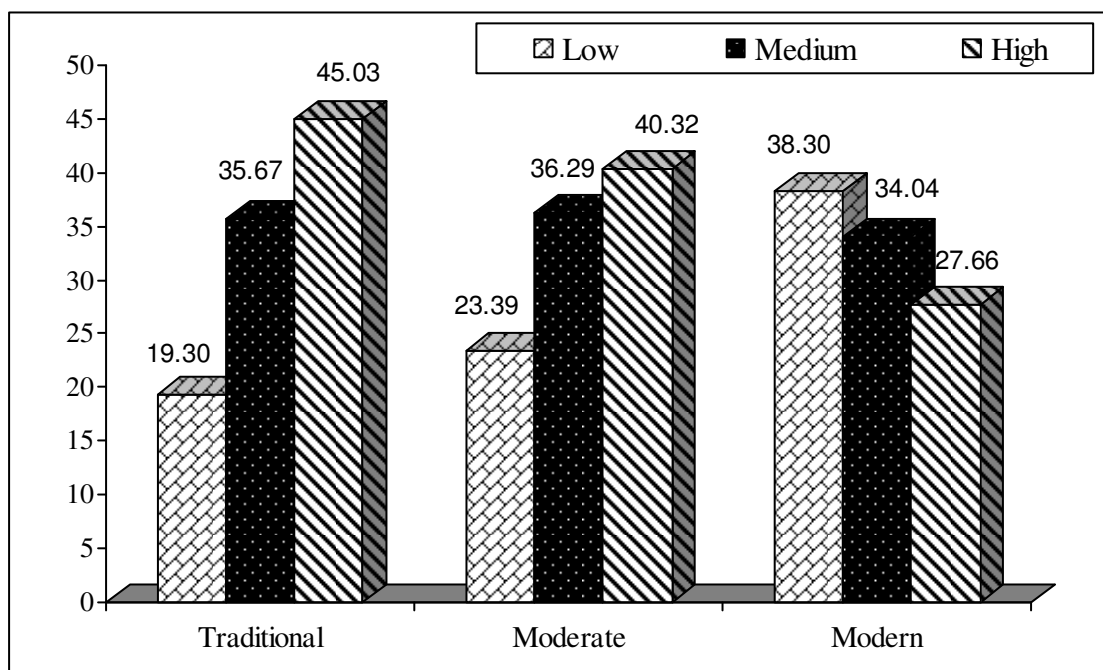


Fig. 5.20 : Household Occupation Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. level of Patriarchal Violence expressed by Them

Table 5.20(i) shows the household occupation wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. level of patriarchal violence viewed by them. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents of traditional household occupation, 45.03% of respondents have expressed high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 35.67% of respondents have expressed medium level and 19.30% of respondents have expressed low level of patriarchal violence.
2. Out of total respondents of moderate household occupation, 40.32% of respondents have expressed high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 36.29% of respondents have expressed medium level and 23.39% of respondents have expressed low level of patriarchal violence.
3. Out of total respondents of modern household occupation, 38.30% of respondents have expressed low level of patriarchal violence, whereas 34.04% of respondents have expressed medium level and 27.66% of respondents have expressed high level of patriarchal violence.

Table 5.20(i) also reveals that there is a difference in level of patriarchal violence between respondents of different household occupation, as average marks obtained by respondents of traditional household occupation (37.21) is more (4.62) than respondents of modern household occupation (32.59). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.20(ii)
Significance of Difference in Level of Patriarchal Violence Viewed by
Respondents of Different Household Occupational Categories

Category of Household Occ.	Low		Medium		High		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Traditional	33	43.08	61	60.66	77	67.26	171
Moderate	29	31.24	45	43.99	50	48.77	124
Modern	36	23.68	32	33.35	26	36.97	94
Total	98	98	138	138	153	153	389

$$\chi^2 = 13.705$$

$$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.01

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.01 = 13.277$

Table 5.20(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different household occupational categories of respondents, w.r.t. level of patriarchal violence

is 13.705, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.01 significance level (13.277). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference in level of patriarchal violence viewed by respondents of different household occupational categories.**

(h) Relationship between Economic Status of Respondents' family and Level of Patriarchal Violence

To find out co-relation between household income and housing satisfaction, respondents are categorised into three group's namely middle, upper-middle and upper income group. The range of monthly income for these categorisation is as follows :

Low income group	below Rs. 10,000
Middle income group	from Rs. 40,000 to Rs. 60,000
High income group	Above Rs. 60,000

Table No. - 5.21

Distribution of Respondents as per Economic Status of Their Family

Economic Category of Household	No. of Respondents	Percentage
Low Income Group	150	38.56
Middle Income Group	132	33.93
High Income Group	107	27.51
TOTAL	389	100.00

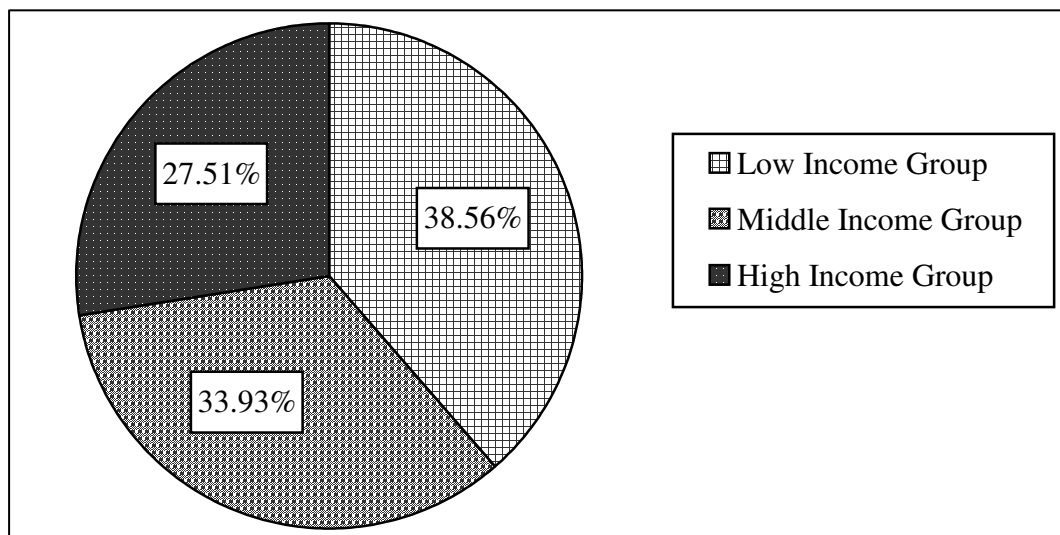


Fig. 5.21 : Distribution of Respondents as per Economic Status of Their Family

Table 5.21 represents the distribution of respondents as per economic category of their family. It reveals that 38.56% of respondents belong to the families of low

income group, whereas 33.93% of respondents belong to the families of middle income group and 27.51% of respondents belong to the families of high income group.

Table No. - 5.22 (i)

Household Income Group wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. level of Patriarchal Violence Viewed by Them

Level of Patriarchal violence	No. of Respondent as per their Household Income Group						
	Low Income		Middle Income		High Income		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.
Low	31	20.67	28	21.21	39	36.45	98
Medium	51	34.00	51	38.64	36	33.64	138
High	68	45.33	53	40.15	32	29.91	153
Total	150	100.00	132	100.00	107	100.00	389

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their family's income group

Low income group 37.08
 Middle income group 36.33
 High income group 33.11

Table 5.22(i) shows the household income group wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. level of patriarchal violence viewed by them. This table reveals that:

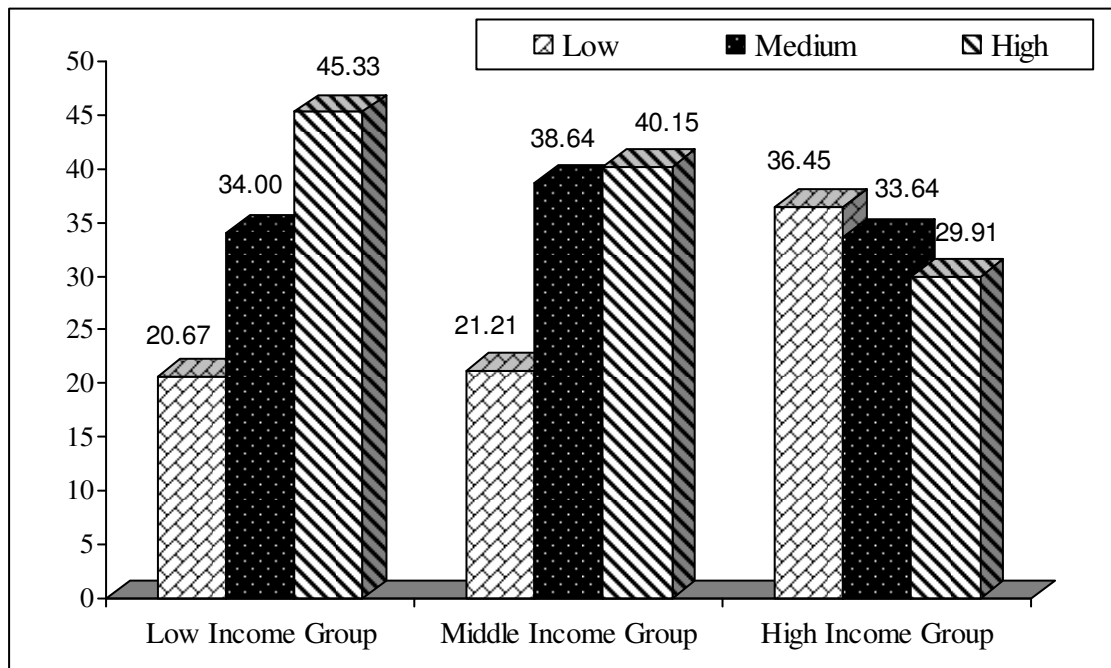


Fig. 5.22 : Household Income Group Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. level of Patriarchal Violence expressed by Them

1. Out of total respondents of families in low income group, 45.33% of respondents have expressed high level of patriarchal violence, whereas

34.00% of respondents have expressed medium level and 21.67% of respondents have expressed low level of patriarchal violence.

2. Out of total respondents of families in middle income group, 40.15% of respondents have expressed high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 38.64% of respondents have expressed medium level and 21.21% of respondents have expressed low level of patriarchal violence.
3. Out of total respondents of families in high income group, 36.45% of respondents have expressed low level of patriarchal violence, whereas 33.64% of respondents have expressed medium level and 29.91% of respondents have expressed high level of patriarchal violence.

Table 5.22(i) also reveals that there is a difference in level of patriarchal violence as expressed by respondents of different household income group, as average marks obtained by respondents of low income group families (37.08) is more (3.97) than respondents of high income group families (33.11). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.22(ii)

Significance of Difference in Level of Patriarchal Violence Viewed by Respondents of Different Household Income Group

Household Income Group	Low		Medium		High		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Low income group	31	37.79	51	53.21	68	59.00	150
Middle income group	28	33.25	51	46.83	53	51.92	132
High income group	39	26.96	36	37.96	32	42.08	107
Total	98	98	138	138	153	153	389

$x^2 = 11.809$

$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.05

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.05 = 9.488$

Table 5.22(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different household income group of respondents, w.r.t. level of patriarchal violence is 11.809, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.05 significance level (9.488). So, it can be said that there is **significant difference in level of patriarchal violence viewed by respondents of different household income group**.

5.4.2 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SOCIO-ECONOMIC BACKGROUND OF RESPONDENTS AND DIFFERENT DIMENSIONS OF HUMAN SECURITY

The culture of patriarchy manifests in every community and institution in this country, and all men (some more than others) benefit from this power arrangement, this cloak of privilege, whether or not they themselves use it to gain unfair advantage. Personal attitudes are shaped by various environments, family, community, religious and educational institutions, social circles, workplace, political situations, etc. When we belong to a dominant culture, community or group, it is easier to accept or reject differences in others. In part, this is because the very ability to accept or reject groups of people that do not belong to our culture or community is linked to the privilege that comes from being part of the dominant group. Subsequently, most people simply exercise this privilege (viewed as a prerogative) without looking at the consequences of misusing it or even anticipating these consequences.⁷⁵

5.4.2.1 Relation between Socio-economic Background of Respondents and Status of Human Security

(a) Geographical background and Status of Human Security

Table No. 5.23(i)
Areas wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Human Security

Status	Rural		Urban		Total	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Poor	85	43.15	73	38.02	158	40.62
Average	71	36.04	61	31.77	132	33.93
Good	41	20.81	58	30.21	99	25.45
TOTAL	197	100.00	192	100.00	389	100.00

Average marks for Human security w.r.t. geographical area

Rural	341.506
Urban	356.418

Table 5.23(i) presents geographical area wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of Human security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents from rural area, 43.15% of respondents feel that status of Human security available to them is poor, whereas 36.04% of respondents opined it as average and 20.81% of respondents viewed the status of Human security available to them as good.

75. DVAP (2005), *Domestic Violence Awareness : Action for Social Change*, the Domestic Violence Awareness Project, National Resource Center on Domestic Violence, Harrisburg, PA.

2. Out of total respondents from urban area, 38.02% of respondents feel that status of Human security available to them is poor, whereas 31.77% of respondents opined it as average and 30.21% of respondents viewed the status of Human security available to them as good.

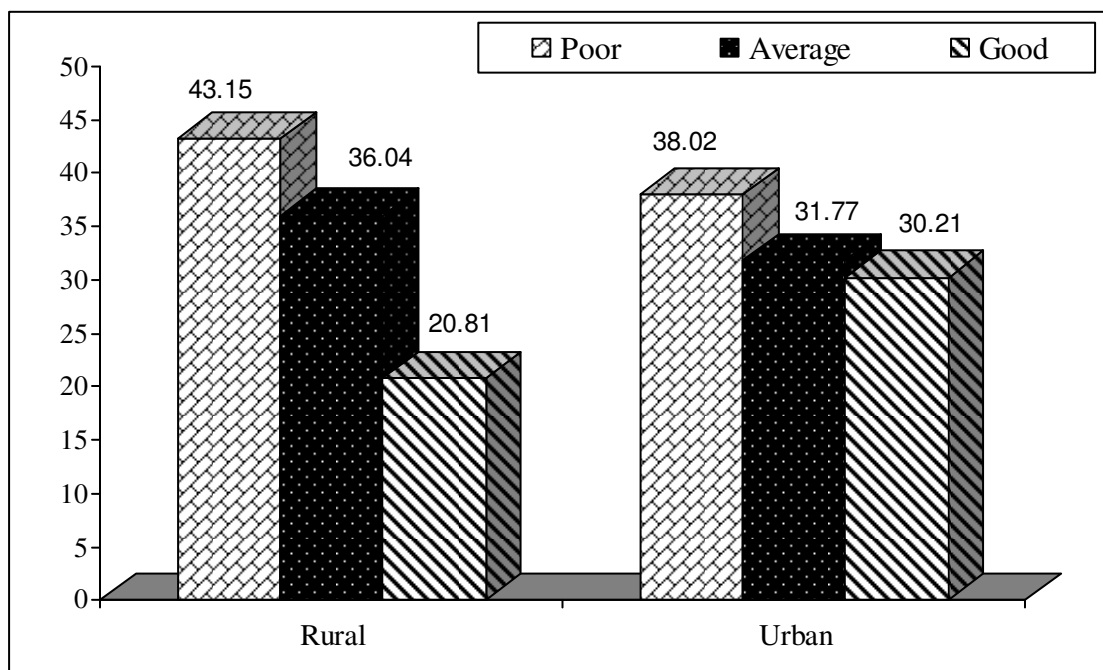


Fig. 5.23: Geographical Areas wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Human Security

Table 5.23(i) also indicates that there is difference between rural and urban respondents w.r.t. status of Human security, as average marks of rural respondents (341.506) is less (14.912) than urban respondents (356.418). To ascertain the significance of this difference, t-test is used.

Table No. - 5.23(ii)
Significance of Difference in Mean Score of Human Security Among Rural and Urban Respondents

Area	Frequency	Mean	SD	Diff. in Mean	Sd Error	T-value
Rural	197	341.506	37.173	14.912	3.900	**3.023
Urban	192	356.418	39.674			

* Significant at $P = 0.05$, ** Significant at $P = 0.01$

Table 5.23(ii) shows that obtained t-value for difference in mean score of status of Human security among rural and urban respondents is 3.023, which is more than table value at $df = 387$ and $p=0.01$ (2.611). So, it can be said that there is **highly**

significant difference in mean score of status of Human security among rural and urban respondents. It also indicates that level of Human security in rural area is less than urban area.

(b) Position of women in family/society and Status of Human Security

Table No. - 5.24 (i)
Distribution of Respondents as per Status of Human Security w.r.t. Position of Women in Family/Society

Status of Human Security	No. of Respondent as per views on women's position						
	Below Sat.		Satisfactory		Highly Sat.		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Poor	64	46.72	65	43.62	29	28.16	158
Average	45	32.85	53	35.57	34	33.01	132
Good	28	20.44	31	20.81	40	38.83	99
Total	137	100.00	149	100.00	103	100.00	389

Average marks for Human security as per respondents' view on women's position

Below Satisfaction 336.09

Satisfactory 339.67

Highly Satisfactory 399.88

Table 5.24(i) shows the distribution of respondents as per status of Human security w.r.t. position of women in family/society. This table reveals that:

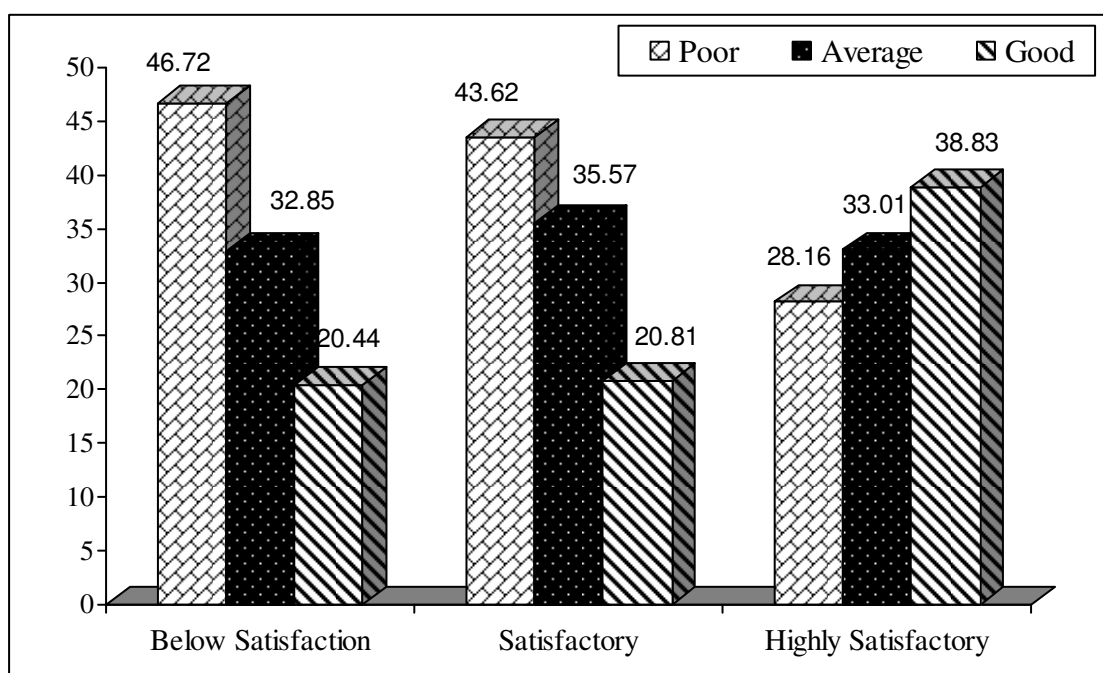


Fig. 5.24 : Distribution of Respondents as per Status of Human Security w.r.t. Position of Women in Family/Society

1. Out of total respondents belong to opinion-group of below satisfaction level of women's position, 46.72% of respondents felt that status of Human security

available to them is poor, whereas 32.85% of respondents felt average status of Human security and 20.44% of respondents felt that status of Human security available to them is good.

2. Out of total respondents belong to opinion-group of satisfactory level of women's position, 43.62% of respondents expressed poor status of Human security, whereas 35.57% of respondents expressed average status and 20.81% of respondents expressed that status of Human security available to them is good.
3. Out of total respondents belong to opinion-group of highly satisfactory level of women's position, 38.83% of respondents felt that status of Human security available them is good, whereas 33.01% of respondents expressed average status and 28.16% of respondents expressed that status of Human security available to them is poor.

Table 5.24(i) also reveals that there is a difference in status of Human security w.r.t. different opinion group of women's position in family/society, as average marks obtained by respondents of below satisfaction opinion-group (336.09) is less (63.79) than respondents of highly satisfactory opinion-group (399.88). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.24(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Human Security for Different Opinion-groups of Women's Position in Family/Society

Opinion-Group	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Below Sat.	64	55.65	45	46.49	28	34.87	137
Satisfactory	65	60.52	53	50.56	31	37.92	149
Highly Sat.	29	41.84	34	34.95	40	26.21	103
Total	158	158	132	132	99	99	389

$\chi^2 = 15.581$

$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.01

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.01 = 13.277$

Table 5.24(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different opinion-groups of women's position in family/society, w.r.t. status of Human security is 15.581, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.01 significance level (13.277). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference between different opinion-groups of women's position in family/society w.r.t. status of**

Human security. It also reveals that status of Human security is highly and positively correlated with status of women in family/society.

(c) **Age-group of Respondents and Status of Human Security**

Table No. - 5.25 (i)

Age-group wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Human Security

Status of Human Security	No. of Respondent as per their age group						
	Young		Middle-aged		Elderly-aged		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.
Poor	53	42.74	66	41.77	39	36.45	158
Average	41	33.06	56	35.44	35	32.71	132
Good	30	24.19	36	22.78	33	30.84	99
Total	124	100.00	158	100.00	107	100.00	389

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their Age-group

Young	342.07
Middle-aged	346.16
Elderly aged	360.22

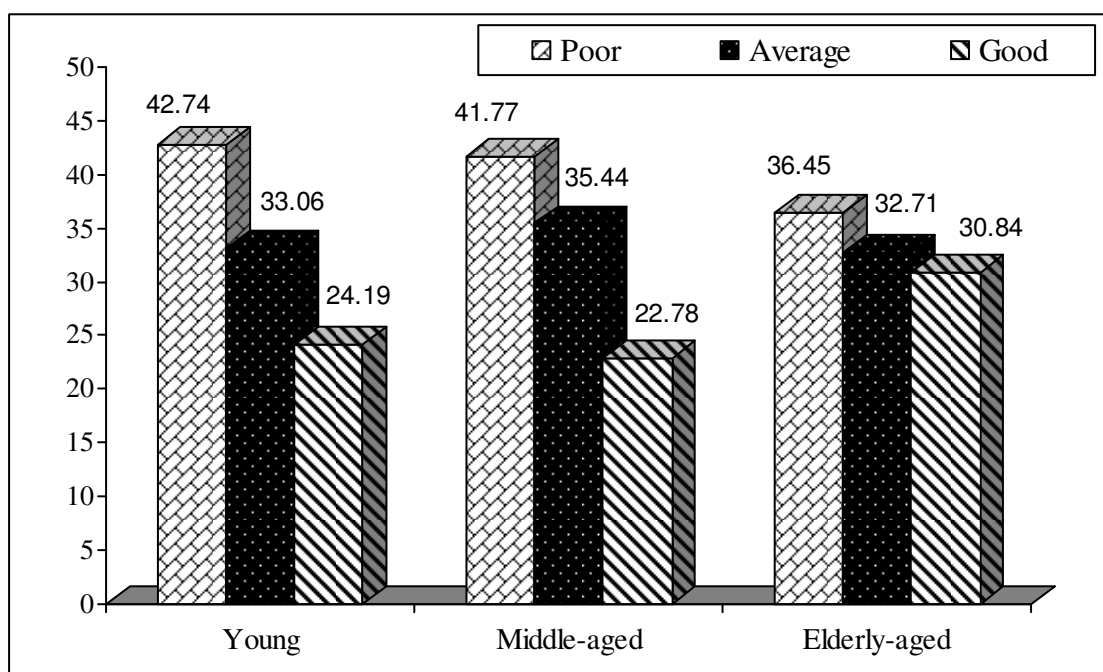


Fig. 5.25 : Age-group Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Human Security

Table 5.25(i) shows the age-wise distribution of respondents as per status of Human security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents belong to young age group, 42.74% of respondents felt that status of Human security available to them is poor, whereas 33.06%

of respondents feel that status of Human security available them is average and 24.19% of respondents have assessed it as good.

2. Out of total respondents belong to middle-aged group, 41.77% of respondents felt that status of Human security available to them is poor, whereas 35.44% of respondents assessed it average and 22.78% of respondents have assessed the status of Human security available to them as good.
3. Out of total respondents belong to elderly-aged group, 36.45% of respondents felt that status of Human security is poor, whereas 32.71% of respondents have assessed it as average and 30.84% of respondents have assessed the status of Human security available to them as good.

Table 5.25(i) also reveals that there is a age-group wise difference in status of Human security as expressed by respondents, as average marks obtained by respondents belong to young age-group (342.07) is less (17.15) than respondents of elderly aged-group (360.22). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.25(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Human Security between Different Age Group

Age -Group	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Young	53	50.37	41	42.08	30	31.56	124
Middle Aged	66	64.17	56	53.61	36	40.21	158
Elderly Aged	39	43.46	35	36.31	33	27.23	107
Total	158	158	132	132	99	99	389

$x^2 = 2.568$

$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.05

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.05 = 9.488$

Table 5.25(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different age-groups of respondents, w.r.t. status of Human security is 2.568, which is less than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.05 significance level (9.488). So, it can be said that there is **no significant difference between respondents of different age group w.r.t. status of Human security viewed by them.**

(d) Caste and Status of Human Security

Table No. - 5.26 (i)
Caste-wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Human Security

Status of Human Security	No. of Respondent as per their Caste						Total No.
	General		OBC		SC		
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Poor	81	44.51	54	41.54	23	29.87	158
Average	64	35.16	44	33.85	24	31.17	132
Good	37	20.33	32	24.62	30	38.96	99
Total	182	100.00	130	100.00	77	100.00	389

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their caste

General 338.15

OBC 346.83

SC 377.63

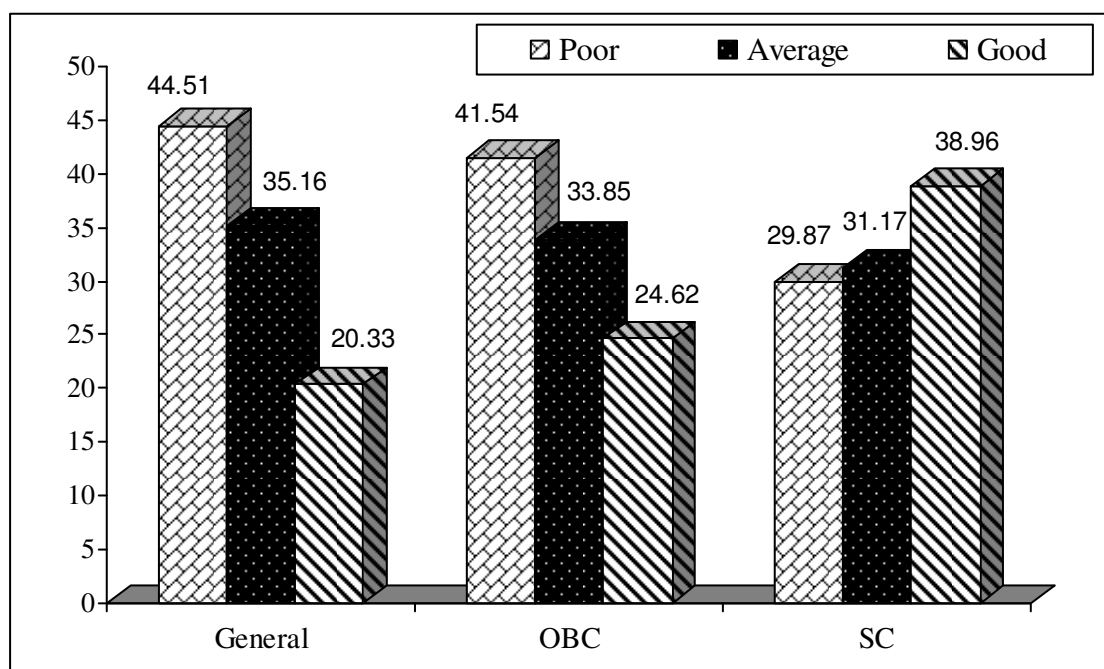


Fig. 5.26 : Social Caste-Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Human Security

Table 5.26(i) shows the caste-wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of Human security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents belong to general caste, 44.51% of respondents assessed status of Human security available to them as poor, whereas 35.16% of respondents have expressed it as average and 20.33% of respondents assessed status of Human security as good.
2. Out of total respondents belong to OBC, 41.54% of respondents expressed poor status of Human security; whereas 33.85% of respondents have assessed

status of Human security as average and 24.62% of respondents have assessed it as good.

3. Out of total respondents belong to SC, 38.96% of respondents felt that status of Human security available to them is good, whereas 31.17% of respondents assessed it as average and 29.87% of respondents viewed it as poor.

Table 5.26(i) also reveals that there is difference in status of Human security between respondents of different caste, as average marks obtained by respondents belong to general caste (338.15) is less (39.48) than respondents of Scheduled caste (377.63). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.26(ii)
Significance of Difference in Status of Human Security between Different Caste

Caste	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
General	81	73.92	64	61.76	37	46.32	182
OBC	54	52.80	44	44.11	32	33.08	130
SC	23	31.28	24	26.13	30	19.60	77
Total	158	158	132	132	99	99	389

$$x^2 = 10.583$$

$$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.05

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.05 = 9.488$

Table 5.26(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different caste of respondents, w.r.t. status of Human security is 10.583, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.05 significance level (9.488). So, it can be said that there is a **significant difference in status of Human security between different castes.**

(e) **Educational status of Respondents and Status of Human Security**

Table No. - 5.27 (i)

Educational Status wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Human Security

Status of Human Security	No. of Respondent as per their Educational Status						
	Lower level		Medium level		Higher level		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Poor	71	46.71	66	40.24	21	28.77	158
Average	49	32.24	60	36.59	23	31.51	132
Good	32	21.05	38	23.17	29	39.73	99
Total	152	100.00	164	100.00	73	100.00	389

Average marks of Human security as per their educational status

Lower level	336.91
Medium level	346.20
Higher level	379.75

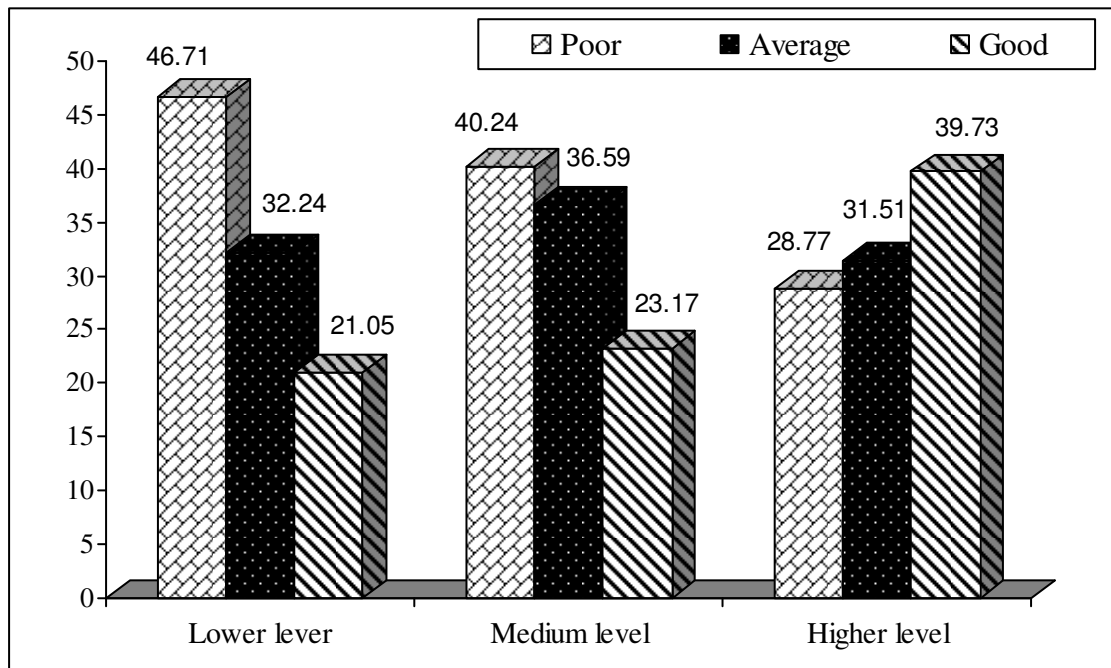


Fig. 5.27 : Educational Status Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Human Security

Table 5.27(i) shows the educational status wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of Human security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents having lower level of educational status, 46.71% of respondents assessed status of Human security available to them as poor, whereas 32.24% of respondents have expressed it as average and 21.05% of respondents assessed status of Human security as good.
2. Out of total respondents having medium level of education, 40.85% of respondents assessed status of Human security available to them as poor, whereas 36.59% of respondents have expressed it as average and 23.17% of respondents assessed status of Human security as good.
3. Out of total respondents having higher level of education, 39.73% of respondents assessed status of Human security available to them as good, whereas 31.51% of respondents have expressed it as average and 28.77% of respondents assessed status of Human security as poor.

Table 5.27(i) also reveals that there is difference in status of Human security between respondents of different educational status, as average marks obtained by respondents having lower level of education (336.91) is less (42.84) than respondents

having higher level of education (379.75). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.27(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Human Security between Different Educational Status

Educational Status	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Lower level	71	61.74	49	51.58	32	38.68	152
Medium level	66	66.61	60	55.65	38	41.74	164
Higher level	21	29.65	23	24.77	29	18.58	73
Total	158	158	132	132	99	99	389

$x^2 = 11.850$

$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.05

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.05 = 9.488$

Table 5.27(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different educational status of respondents, w.r.t. status of Human security is 11.850, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.05 significance level (9.488). So, it can be said that there is **a significant difference in status of Human security between different educational status of respondents.**

(f) Economic Status and Status of Human Security

Table No. 5.28(i)

Economic Category wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Human Security

Status of Human Security	Dependent		Independent		Total	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Poor	109	41.92	49	37.98	158	40.62
Average	90	34.62	42	32.56	132	33.93
Good	61	23.46	38	29.46	99	25.45
TOTAL	260	100.00	129	100.00	389	100.00

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their economic category

Dependent 344.909

Independent 356.842

Table 5.28(i) presents economic category wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of Human security. This table indicates that:

1. Out of total respondents from dependent economic category, 41.92% of respondents assessed status of Human security available to them as poor,

whereas 34.62% of respondents have expressed it as average and 23.46% of respondents assessed status of Human security as good.

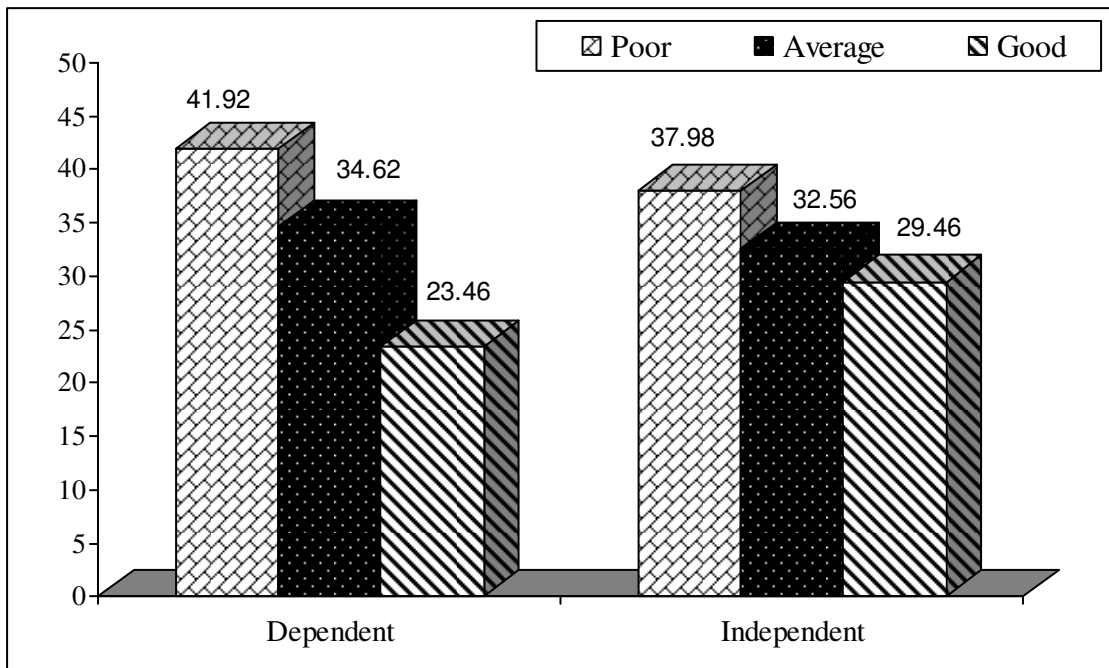


Fig. 5.28: Economic Category wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Human Security

- Out of total respondents from independent economic category, 37.98% of respondents assessed status of Human security available to them as poor, whereas 32.56% of respondents have expressed it as average and 29.46% of respondents assessed status of Human security as good.

Table 5.28(i) also reveals that there is economic category wise difference in status of Human security viewed by respondents, as average marks of respondents belong to dependent economic category (344.909) is less (11.933) than respondents of independent economic category (356.842). To ascertain the significance of this difference, t-test is used.

Table No. - 5.28(ii)

Significance of Difference in Mean Score for Status of Human Security between Dependent and Independent Economic categories of Respondents

Economic Category	Frequency	Mean	SD	Diff. in Mean	Sd Error	T-value
Dependent	260	344.909	32.742	11.933	3.887	**3.070
Independent	129	356.842	37.643			

* Significant at $P = 0.05$, ** Significant at $P = 0.01$

Table 5.28(ii) shows that obtained t-value for difference in mean score for status of Human security among dependent and independent respondents is 3.070, which is more than table value at $df = 387$ and $p=0.01$ (2.611). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference in mean score for status of Human security between economically dependent and independent respondents**. It also indicates that status of Human security in economically dependent respondents is less than independent respondents.

(g) **Nature of household occupation and Status of Human Security**

Table No. - 5.29 (i)

Household Occupation wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Human Security

Status of Human Security	No. of Respondent as per their household occupation						
	Traditional		Moderate		Modern		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.
Poor	77	45.03	53	42.74	28	29.79	158
Average	60	35.09	42	33.87	30	31.91	132
Good	34	19.88	29	23.39	36	38.30	99
Total	171	100.00	124	100.00	94	100.00	389

Average marks for Human security of respondent's w.r.t. household occupation

Traditional	337.03
Moderate	343.99
Modern	376.83

Table 5.29(i) shows the household occupation wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of Human security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents of traditional household occupation, 45.03% of respondents assessed status of Human security available to them as poor, whereas 35.09% of respondents have expressed it as average and 19.88% of respondents assessed status of Human security as good.
2. Out of total respondents of moderate household occupation, 42.74% of respondents assessed status of Human security available to them as poor, whereas 33.87% of respondents have expressed it as average and 23.39% of respondents assessed status of Human security as good.

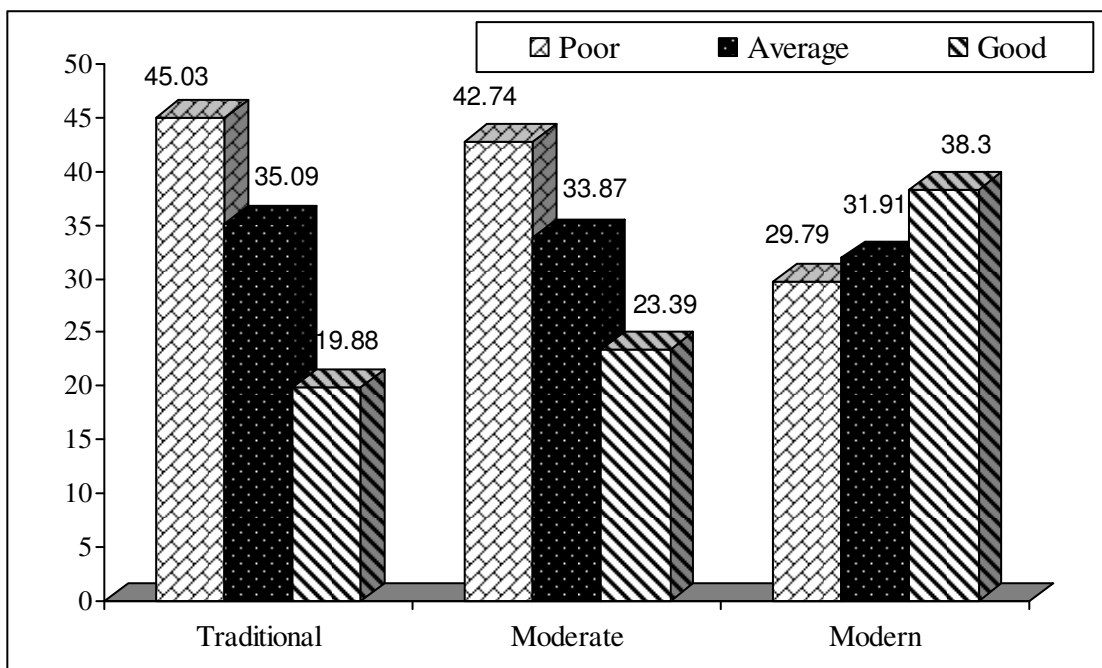


Fig. 5.29 : Household Occupation Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Human Security

3. Out of total respondents of modern household occupation, 38.30% of respondents assessed status of Human security available to them as good, whereas 31.91% of respondents have expressed it as average and 29.79% of respondents assessed status of Human security as poor.

Table 5.29(i) also reveals that there is a difference in status of Human security between respondents of different household occupation, as average marks obtained by respondents of traditional household occupation (337.03) is less (39.80) than respondents of modern household occupation (376.83). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.29(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Human Security between Different Household Occupational Categories

Category of Household Occ.	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Traditional	77	69.46	60	58.03	34	43.52	171
Moderate	53	50.37	42	42.08	29	31.56	124
Modern	28	38.18	30	31.90	36	23.92	94
Total	158	158	132	132	99	99	389

$$x^2 = 12.238$$

$$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.05

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.05 = 9.488$

Table 5.29(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different household occupational categories of respondents, w.r.t. status of Human security is 12.238, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.05 significance level (9.488). So, it can be said that there is a **significant difference in status of Human security between different household occupational categories.**

(h) Household Economic Status and Status of Human Security

Table No. - 5.30 (i)

Household Income Group wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Human Security

Status of Human Security	No. of Respondent as per their Household Income Group						
	Low Income		Middle Income		High Income		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.
Poor	70	46.67	59	44.70	29	27.10	158
Average	51	34.00	44	33.33	37	34.58	132
Good	29	19.33	29	21.97	41	38.32	99
Total	150	100.00	132	100.00	107	100.00	389

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their family's income group

Low income group 334.66

Middle income group 340.15

High income group 379.54

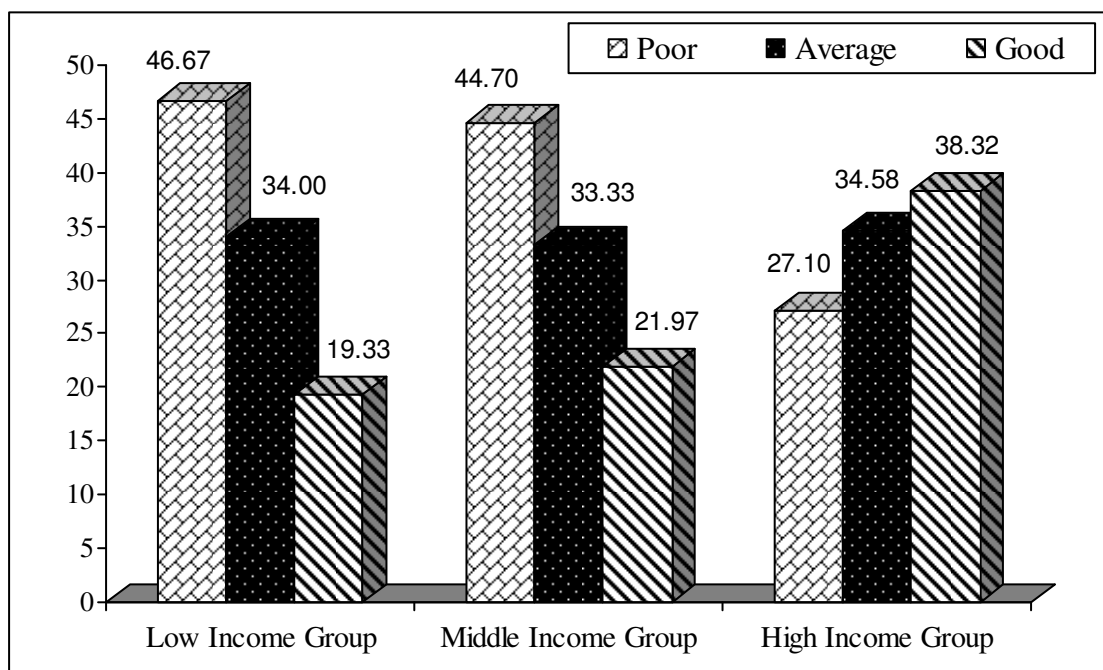


Fig. 5.30 : Household Income Group Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Human Security

Table 5.30(i) shows the household income group wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of Human security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents of families in low income group, 46.67% of respondents assessed status of Human security available to them as poor, whereas 34.00% of respondents have expressed it as average and 19.33% of respondents assessed status of Human security as good.
2. Out of total respondents of families in middle income group, 44.70% of respondents assessed status of Human security available to them as poor, whereas 33.33% of respondents have expressed it as average and 21.97% of respondents assessed status of Human security as good.
3. Out of total respondents of families in high income group, 38.32% of respondents assessed status of Human security available to them as good, whereas 34.58% of respondents have expressed it as average and 27.10% of respondents assessed status of Human security as poor.

Table 5.30(i) also reveals that there is a difference in status of Human security for the respondents of different household income group, as average marks obtained by respondents of low income group families (334.66) is less (44.88) than respondents of high income group families (379.54). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.30(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Human Security between Different Household Income Group

Household Income Group	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Low income group	70	60.93	51	50.90	29	38.17	150
Middle income group	59	53.61	44	44.79	29	33.59	132
High income group	29	43.46	37	36.31	41	27.23	107
Total	158	158	132	132	99	99	389

$$x^2 = 16.526$$

$$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.01

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.01 = 13.277$

Table 5.30(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different household income group of respondents, w.r.t. status of Human security is 16.526, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.01 significance level

(13.277). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference in status of Human security for the respondents of different household income group.**

5.4.2.2 Relation between Socio-economic Dimensions of Respondents and Status of Personal Security

(a) Geographical background and Status of Personal Security

Table No. 5.31(i)
Areas wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Personal Security

Status	Rural		Urban		Total	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Poor	87	44.16	72	37.50	159	40.87
Average	73	37.06	63	32.81	136	34.96
Good	37	18.78	57	29.69	94	24.16
TOTAL	197	100.00	192	100.00	389	100.00

Average marks for personal security w.r.t. geographical area

Rural 42.95

Urban 46.44

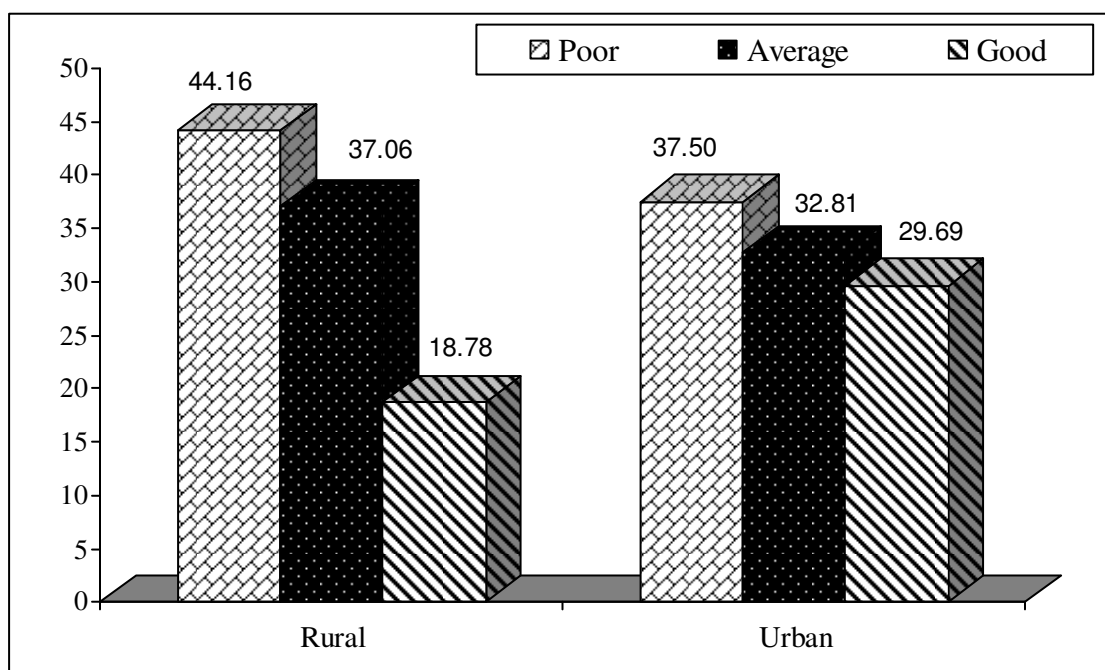


Fig. 5.31: Geographical Areas wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Personal Security

Table 5.31(i) presents geographical area wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of personal security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents from rural area, 44.16% of respondents feel that status of personal security available to them is poor, whereas 37.06% of respondents opined it as average and 18.78% of respondents viewed the status of personal security available to them as good.

2. Out of total respondents from urban area, 37.50% of respondents feel that status of personal security available to them is poor, whereas 32.81% of respondents opined it as average and 29.69% of respondents viewed the status of personal security available to them as good.

Table 5.31(i) also indicates that there is difference between rural and urban respondents w.r.t. status of personal security, as average marks of rural respondents (42.95) is less (3.49) than urban respondents (46.44). To ascertain the significance of this difference, t-test is used.

Table No. - 5.31(ii)
Significance of Difference in Mean Score of Personal Security among Rural and Urban Respondents

Area	Frequency	Mean	SD	Diff. in Mean	Sd Error	T-value
Rural	197	42.952	12.173	3.492	1.209	**2.888
Urban	192	46.444	11.674			

* Significant at $P = 0.05$, ** Significant at $P = 0.01$

Table 5.31(ii) shows that obtained t-value for difference in mean score of status of personal security among rural and urban respondents is 2.888, which is more than table value at $df = 387$ and $p=0.01$ (2.611). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference in mean score of status of personal security among rural and urban respondents**. It also indicates that level of personal security in rural area is less than urban area.

(b) Position of women in family/society and Status of Personal Security

Table No. - 5.32 (i)
Distribution of Respondents as per Status of Personal Security w.r.t. Position of Women in Family/Society

Status of Personal Security	No. of Respondent as per views on women's position						
	Below Sat.		Satisfactory		Highly Sat.		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.
Poor	64	46.72	66	44.30	29	28.16	159
Average	47	34.31	53	35.57	36	34.95	136
Good	26	18.98	30	20.13	38	36.89	94
Total	137	100.00	149	100.00	103	100.00	389

Average marks for personal security as per respondents' view on women's position

Below Satisfaction	42.47
Satisfactory	43.19
Highly Satisfactory	50.39

Table 5.32(i) shows the distribution of respondents as per status of personal security w.r.t. position of women in family/society. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents belong to opinion-group of below satisfaction level of women's position, 46.72% of respondents felt that status of personal security available to them is poor, whereas 34.31% of respondents felt average status of personal security and 18.98% of respondents felt that status of personal security available to them is good.

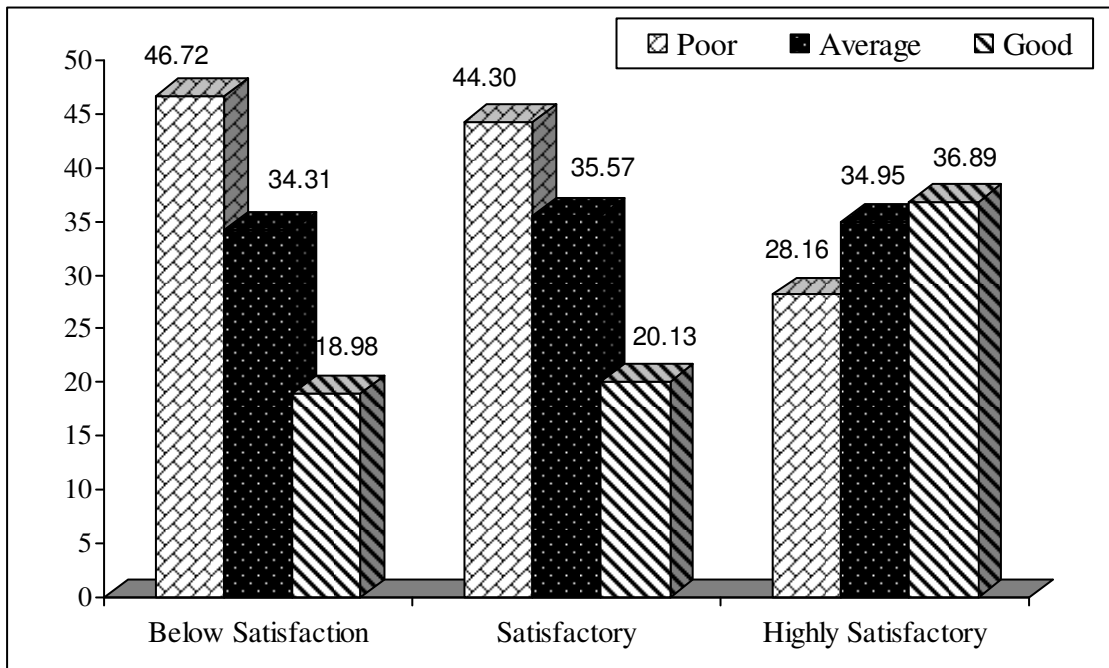


Fig. 5.32 : Distribution of Respondents as per Status of Personal Security w.r.t. Position of Women in Family/Society

2. Out of total respondents belong to opinion-group of satisfactory level of women's position, 44.30% of respondents expressed poor status of personal security, whereas 35.57% of respondents expressed average status and 20.13% of respondents expressed that status of personal security available to them is good.
3. Out of total respondents belong to opinion-group of highly satisfactory level of women's position, 36.89% of respondents felt that status of personal security available them is good, whereas 34.95% of respondents expressed average status and 28.16% of respondents expressed that status of personal security available to them is poor.

Table 5.32(i) also reveals that there is a difference in status of personal security w.r.t. different opinion group of women's position in family/society, as

average marks obtained by respondents of below satisfaction opinion-group (42.47) is less (8.22) than respondents of highly satisfactory opinion-group (50.69). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.32(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Personal Security for Different Opinion-groups of Women's Position in Family/Society

Opinion-Group	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Below Sat.	64	56.00	47	47.90	26	33.11	137
Satisfactory	66	60.90	53	52.09	30	36.01	149
Highly Sat.	29	42.10	36	36.01	38	24.89	103
Total	159	159	136	136	94	94	389

$$x^2 = 15.112$$

$$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.01

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.01 = 13.277$

Table 5.32(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different opinion-groups of women's position in family/society, w.r.t. status of personal security is 15.112, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.01 significance level (13.277). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference between different opinion-groups of women's position in family/society w.r.t. status of personal security**. It also reveals that status of personal security is highly and positively correlated with status of women in family/society.

(c) Age-group of Respondents and Status of Personal Security

Table No. - 5.33 (i)

Age-group wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Personal Security

Status of Personal Security	No. of Respondent as per their age group						
	Young		Middle-aged		Elderly-aged		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Poor	54	43.55	66	41.77	39	36.45	159
Average	45	36.29	56	35.44	35	32.71	136
Good	25	20.16	36	22.78	33	30.84	94
Total	124	100.00	158	100.00	107	100.00	389

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their Age-group

Young 43.35

Middle-aged 44.22

Elderly aged 45.98

Table 5.33(i) shows the age-wise distribution of respondents as per status of personal security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents belong to young age group, 43.55% of respondents felt that status of personal security available to them is poor, whereas 36.29% of respondents feel that status of personal security available them is average and 20.16% of respondents have assessed it as good.

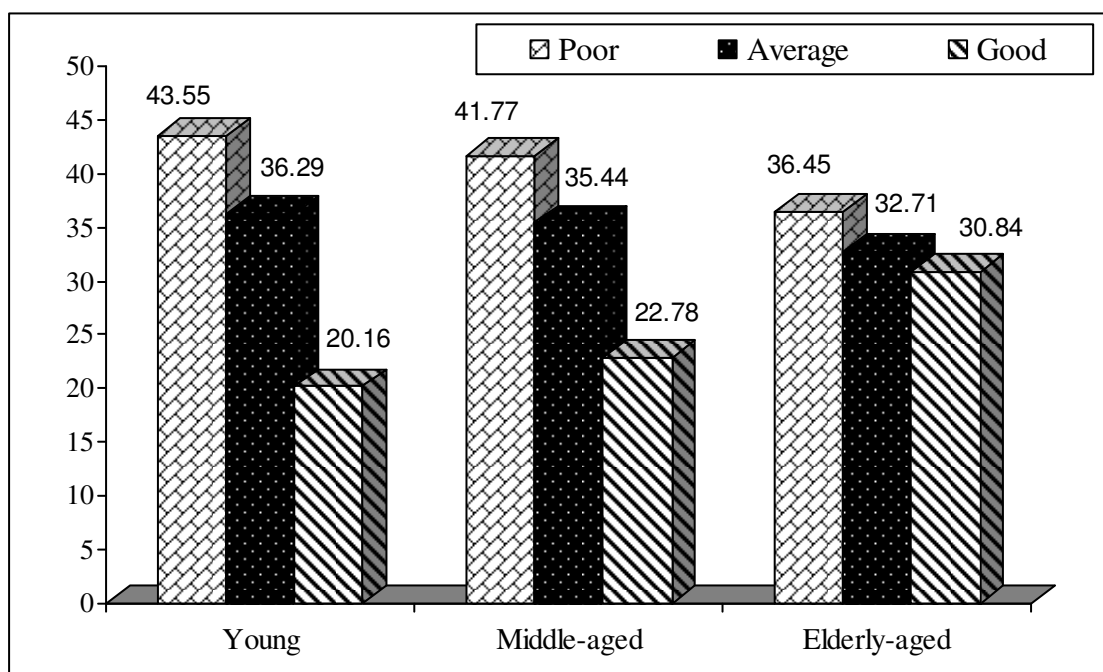


Fig. 5.33 : Age-group Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Personal Security

2. Out of total respondents belong to middle-aged group, 41.77% of respondents felt that status of personal security available to them is poor, whereas 35.44% of respondents assessed it average and 22.78% of respondents have assessed the status of personal security available to them as good.
3. Out of total respondents belong to elderly-aged group, 36.45% of respondents felt that status of personal security is poor, whereas 32.71% of respondents have assessed it as average and 30.84% of respondents have assessed the status of personal security available to them as good.

Table 5.33(i) also reveals that there is a age-group wise difference in status of personal security as expressed by respondents, as average marks obtained by respondents belong to young age-group (43.35) is less (2.63) than respondents of elderly aged-group (45.98). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.33(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Personal Security between Different Age Group

Age -Group	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Young	54	50.68	45	43.35	25	29.96	124
Middle Aged	66	64.58	56	55.24	36	38.18	158
Elderly Aged	39	43.74	35	37.41	33	25.86	107
Total	159	159	136	136	94	94	389

$x^2 = 3.910$

$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.05

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.05 = 9.488$

Table 5.33(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different age-groups of respondents, w.r.t. status of personal security is 3.910, which is less than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.05 significance level (9.488). So, it can be said that there is **no significant difference between respondents of different age group w.r.t. status of personal security viewed by them.**

(d) Caste and Status of Personal Security

Table No. - 5.34 (i)

Caste wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Personal Security

Status of Personal Security	No. of Respondent as per their Caste						Total
	General		OBC		SC		
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Poor	81	44.51	54	41.54	24	31.17	159
Average	64	35.16	47	36.15	25	32.47	136
Good	37	20.33	29	22.31	28	36.36	94
Total	182	100.00	130	100.00	77	100.00	389

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their caste

General 43.19

OBC 44.18

SC 50.91

Table 5.34(i) shows the Caste-wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of personal security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents belong to general caste, 44.51% of respondents assessed status of personal security available to them as poor, whereas 35.16% of respondents have expressed it as average and 20.33% of respondents assessed status of personal security as good.
2. Out of total respondents belong to OBC, 41.54% of respondents expressed poor status of personal security; whereas 36.15% of respondents have assessed

status of personal security as average and 22.31% of respondents have assessed it as good.

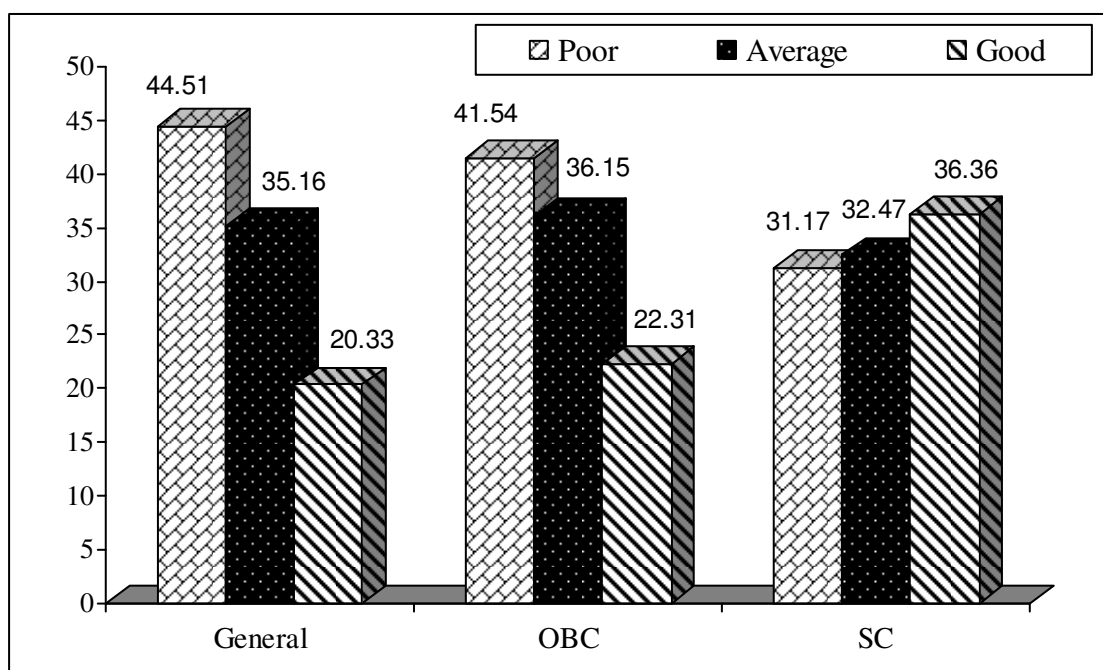


Fig. 5.34 : Caste-Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Personal Security

- Out of total respondents belong to SC, 36.36% of respondents felt that status of personal security available to them is good, whereas 32.47% of respondents assessed it as average and 31.17% of respondents viewed it as poor.

Table 5.34(i) also reveals that there is difference in status of personal security between respondents of different caste, as average marks obtained by respondents belong to general caste (43.19) is less (7.72) than respondents of Scheduled caste (50.91). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.34(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Personal Security between Different Caste

Caste	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
General	81	74.39	64	63.63	37	43.98	182
OBC	54	53.14	47	45.45	29	31.41	130
SC	24	31.47	25	26.92	28	18.61	77
Total	159	159	136	136	94	94	389

$$x^2 = 8.603$$

$$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.05

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.05 = 9.488$

Table 5.34(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different caste of respondents, w.r.t. status of personal security is 8.603, which is less than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.05 significance level (9.488). So, it can be said that there is **no significant difference in status of personal security between different castes.**

(e) **Educational status of Respondents and Status of Personal Security**

Table No. - 5.35 (i)

Educational Status wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Personal Security

Status of Personal Security	No. of Respondent as per their Educational Status						
	Lower level		Medium level		Higher level		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Poor	71	46.71	67	40.85	21	28.77	159
Average	51	33.55	62	37.80	23	31.51	136
Good	30	19.74	35	21.34	29	39.73	94
Total	152	100.00	164	100.00	73	100.00	389

Average marks of personal security as per their educational status

Lower level	42.63
Medium level	44.12
Higher level	54.14

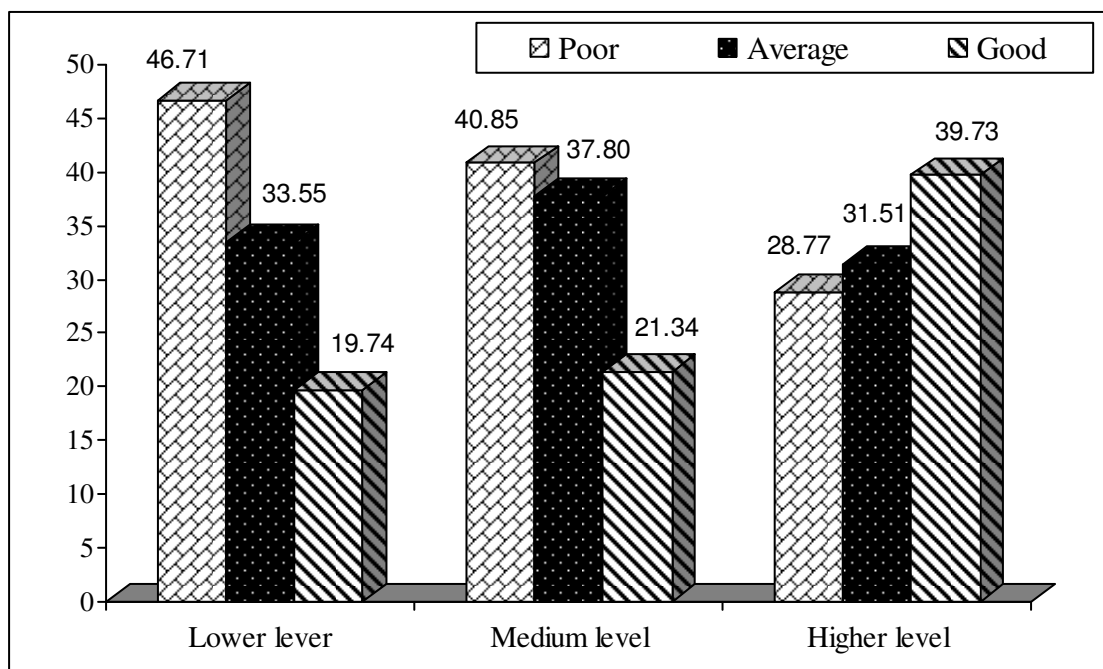


Fig. 5.35 : Educational Status Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Personal Security

Table 5.35(i) shows the educational status wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of personal security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents having lower level of educational status, 46.71% of respondents assessed status of personal security available to them as poor, whereas 33.55% of respondents have expressed it as average and 19.74% of respondents assessed status of personal security as good.
2. Out of total respondents having medium level of education, 40.85% of respondents assessed status of personal security available to them as poor, whereas 37.80% of respondents have expressed it as average and 21.34% of respondents assessed status of personal security as good.
3. Out of total respondents having higher level of education, 39.73% of respondents assessed status of personal security available to them as good, whereas 31.51% of respondents have expressed it as average and 28.77% of respondents assessed status of personal security as poor.

Table 5.35(i) also reveals that there is difference in status of personal security between respondents of different educational status, as average marks obtained by respondents having lower level of education (42.63) is less (11.51) than respondents having higher level of education (54.14). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.35(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Personal Security between Different Educational Status

Educational Status	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Lower level	71	62.13	51	53.14	30	36.73	152
Medium level	67	67.03	62	57.34	35	39.63	164
Higher level	21	29.84	23	25.52	29	17.64	73
Total	159	159	136	136	94	94	389

$$\chi^2 = 13.689$$

$$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.01

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.01 = 13.277$

Table 5.35(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different educational status of respondents, w.r.t. status of personal security is 13.689, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.01 significance level (13.277). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference in status of personal security between different educational status of respondents.**

(f) Economic Status and Status of Personal Security

Table No. 5.36(i)
Economic Category wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Personal Security

Status of Personal Security	Dependent		Independent		Total	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Poor	114	43.85	45	34.88	159	40.87
Average	93	35.77	43	33.33	136	34.96
Good	53	20.38	41	31.78	94	24.16
TOTAL	260	100.00	129	100.00	389	100.00

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their economic category

Dependent 43.331

Independent 47.385

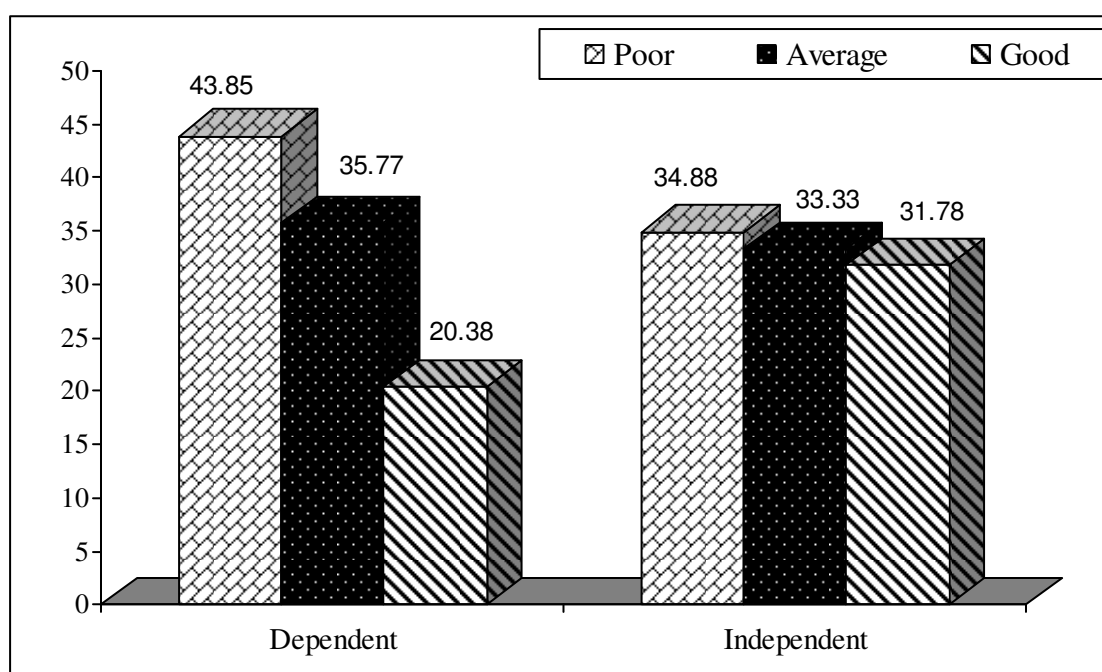


Fig. 5.36: Economic Category wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Personal Security

Table 5.36(i) presents economic category wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of personal security. This table indicates that:

1. Out of total respondents from dependent economic category, 43.85% of respondents assessed status of personal security available to them as poor, whereas 35.77% of respondents have expressed it as average and 20.38% of respondents assessed status of personal security as good.
2. Out of total respondents from independent economic category, 34.88% of respondents assessed status of personal security available to them as poor,

whereas 33.33% of respondents have expressed it as average and 31.78% of respondents assessed status of personal security as good.

Table 5.36(i) also reveals that there is economic category wise difference in status of personal security viewed by respondents, as average marks of respondents belong to dependent economic category (43.331) is less (4.054) than respondents of independent economic category (47.385). To ascertain the significance of this difference, t-test is used.

Table No. - 5.36(ii)

Significance of Difference in Mean Score for Status of Personal Security Between Dependent and Independent Economic categories of Respondents

Economic Category	Frequency	Mean	SD	Diff. in Mean	Sd Error	T-value
Dependent	260	43.331	12.742	4.054	1.294	**3.132
Independent	129	47.385	11.643			

* Significant at $P = 0.05$, ** Significant at $P = 0.01$

Table 5.36(ii) shows that obtained t-value for difference in mean score for status of personal security among dependent and independent respondents is 3.132, which is more than table value at $df = 387$ and $p=0.01$ (2.611). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference in mean score for status of personal security between economically dependent and independent respondents**. It also indicates that status of personal security in economically dependent respondents is less than independent respondents.

(g) Nature of household occupation and Status of Personal Security

Table No. - 5.37 (i)

Household Occupation wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Personal Security

Status of Personal Security	No. of Respondent as per their household occupation						
	Traditional		Moderate		Modern		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Poor	77	45.03	53	42.74	29	30.85	159
Average	61	35.67	44	35.48	31	32.98	136
Good	33	19.30	27	21.77	34	36.17	94
Total	171	100.00	124	100.00	94	100.00	389

Average marks for personal security of respondent's w.r.t. household occupation

Traditional	42.88
Moderate	43.83
Modern	50.60

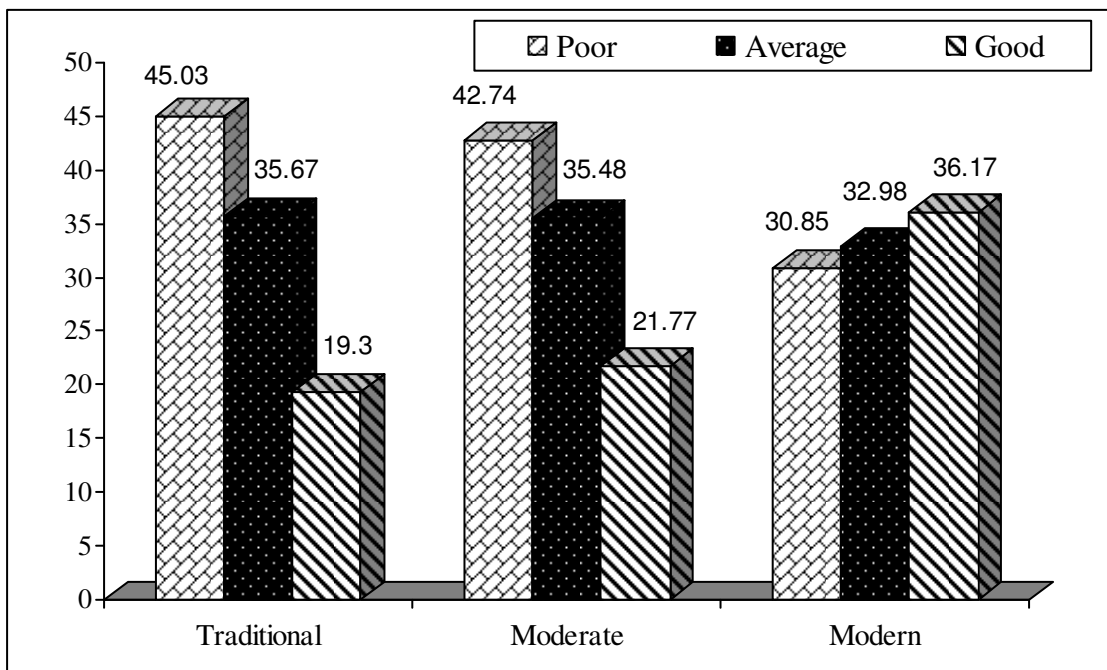


Fig. 5.37 : Household Occupation Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Personal Security

Table 5.37(i) shows the household occupation wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of personal security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents of traditional household occupation, 45.03% of respondents assessed status of personal security available to them as poor, whereas 35.67% of respondents have expressed it as average and 19.30% of respondents assessed status of personal security as good.
2. Out of total respondents of moderate household occupation, 42.74% of respondents assessed status of personal security available to them as poor, whereas 35.48% of respondents have expressed it as average and 21.77% of respondents assessed status of personal security as good.
3. Out of total respondents of modern household occupation, 36.17% of respondents assessed status of personal security available to them as good, whereas 32.98% of respondents have expressed it as average and 30.85% of respondents assessed status of personal security as poor.

Table 5.37(i) also reveals that there is a difference in status of personal security between respondents of different household occupation, as average marks obtained by respondents of traditional household occupation (42.88) is less (7.72)

than respondents of modern household occupation (50.60). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.37(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Personal Security between Different Household Occupational Categories

Category of Household Occ.	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Traditional	77	69.89	61	59.78	33	41.32	171
Moderate	53	50.68	44	43.35	27	29.96	124
Modern	29	38.42	31	32.86	34	22.71	94
Total	159	159	136	136	94	94	389

$$x^2 = 10.854$$

$$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.05

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.05 = 9.488$

Table 5.37(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different household occupational categories of respondents, w.r.t. status of personal security is 10.854, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.05 significance level (9.488). So, it can be said that there is **significant difference in status of personal security between different household occupational categories.**

(h) Household Economic Status and Status of Personal Security

Table No. - 5.38 (i)

Household Income Group wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Personal Security

Status of Personal Security	No. of Respondent as per their Household Income Group						
	Low Income		Middle Income		High Income		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Poor	70	46.67	59	44.70	30	28.04	159
Average	53	35.33	46	34.85	37	34.58	136
Good	27	18.00	27	20.45	40	37.38	94
Total	150	100.00	132	100.00	107	100.00	389

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their family's income group

Low income group 42.29

Middle income group 43.17

High income group 51.22

Table 5.38(i) shows the household income group wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of personal security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents of families in low income group, 46.67% of respondents assessed status of personal security available to them as poor, whereas 35.33% of respondents have expressed it as average and 18.00% of respondents assessed status of personal security as good.
2. Out of total respondents of families in middle income group, 44.70% of respondents assessed status of personal security available to them as poor, whereas 34.85% of respondents have expressed it as average and 20.45% of respondents assessed status of personal security as good.

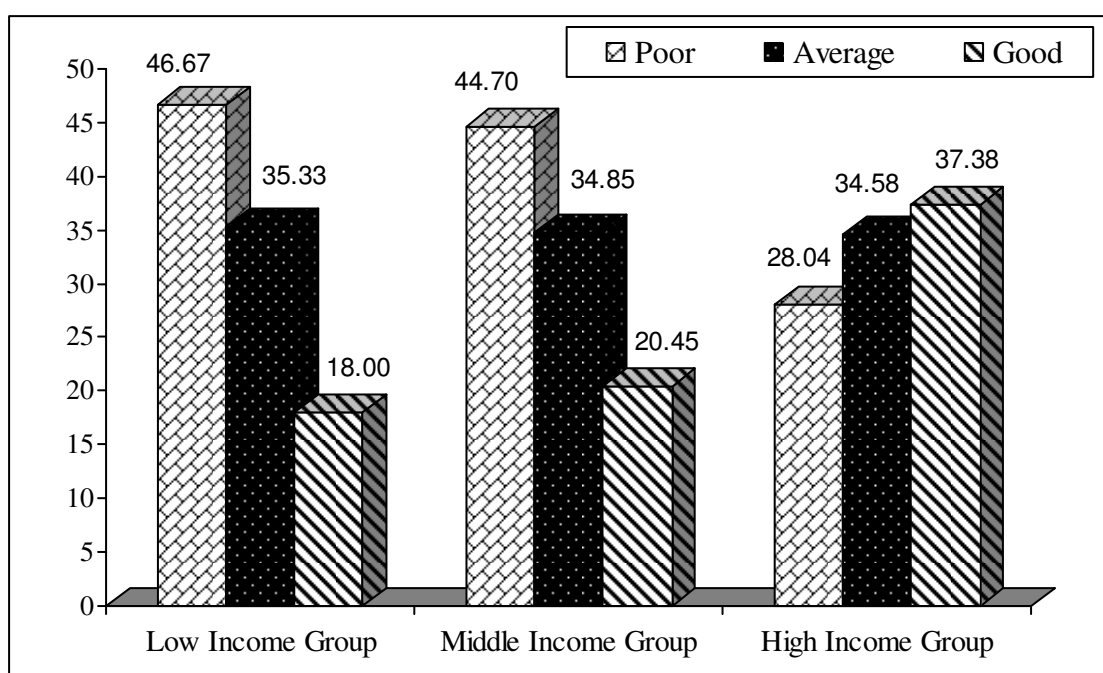


Fig. 5.38 : Household Income Group Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Personal Security

3. Out of total respondents of families in high income group, 37.38% of respondents assessed status of personal security available to them as good, whereas 34.58% of respondents have expressed it as average and 28.04% of respondents assessed status of personal security as poor.

Table 5.38(i) also reveals that there is a difference in status of personal security for the respondents of different household income group, as average marks obtained by respondents of low income group families (42.29) is less (8.93) than respondents of high income group families (51.22). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.38(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Personal Security between Different Household Income Group

Household Income Group	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Low income group	70	61.31	53	52.44	27	36.25	150
Middle income group	59	53.95	46	46.15	27	31.90	132
High income group	30	43.74	37	37.41	40	25.86	107
Total	159	159	136	136	94	94	389

$x^2 = 16.876$

$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.01

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.01 = 13.277$

Table 5.38(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different household income group of respondents, w.r.t. status of personal security is 16.876, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.01 significance level (13.277). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference in status of personal security for the respondents of different household income group.**

5.4.2.3 Relation between Socio-economic Dimensions of Respondents and Status of Food Security

(a) Geographical background and Status of Food Security

Table No. 5.39(i)

Areas wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Food Security

Status	Rural		Urban		Total	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Poor	68	34.52	56	29.17	124	31.88
Average	77	39.09	72	37.50	149	38.30
Good	52	26.40	64	33.33	116	29.82
TOTAL	197	100.00	192	100.00	389	100.00

Average marks for food security w.r.t. geographical area

Rural 36.18

Urban 37.96

Table 5.39(i) presents geographical area wise distribution of respondents w.r.t. status of food security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents from rural area, 39.09% of respondents feel that status of food security available to them is average, whereas 34.52% of respondents opined it as poor and 26.40% of respondents viewed the status of food security available to them as good.

2. Out of total respondents from urban area, 37.50% of respondents feel that status of food security available to them is average, whereas 33.33% of respondents opined it as good and 29.17% of respondents viewed the status of food security available to them as poor.

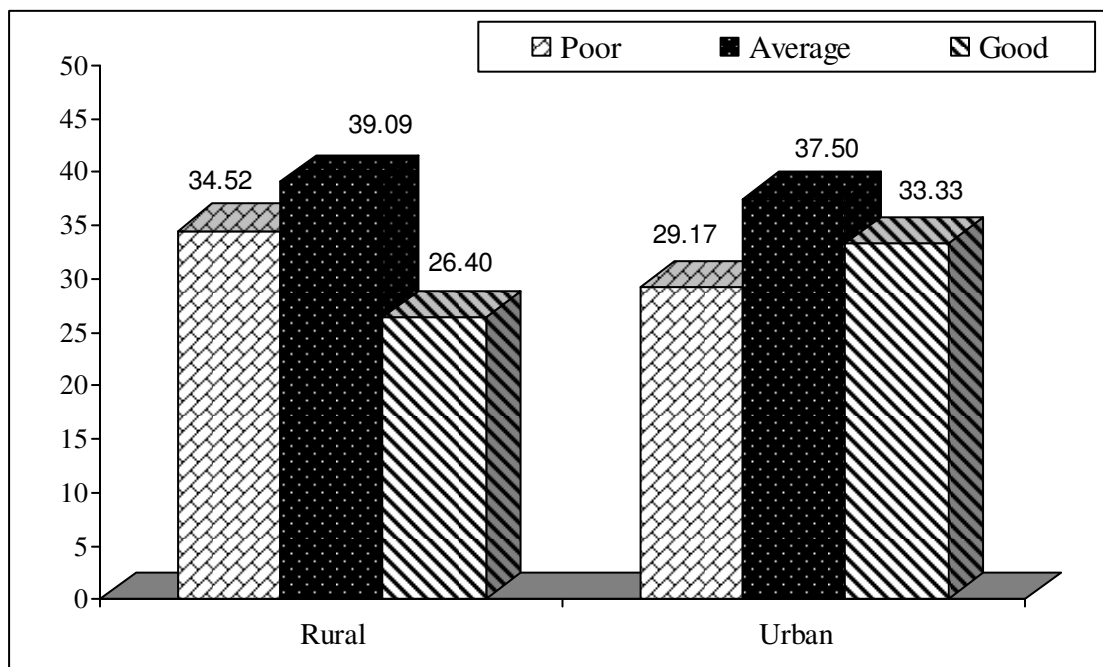


Fig. 5.39: Areas wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Food Security

Table 5.39(i) also indicates that there is difference between rural and urban respondents w.r.t. status of food security, as average marks of rural respondents (36.18) is less (1.78) than urban respondents (37.96). To ascertain the significance of this difference, t-test is used.

**Table No. - 5.39(ii)
Significance of Difference in Mean Score of Food Security among Rural and Urban Respondents**

Area	Frequency	Mean	SD	Diff. in Mean	Sd Error	T-value
Rural	197	36.177	11.284	1.780	1.113	1.598
Urban	192	37.957	10.674			

* Significant at $P = 0.05$, ** Significant at $P = 0.01$

Table 5.39(ii) shows that obtained t-value for difference in mean score of status of food security among rural and urban respondents is 1.598, which is less than table value at $df = 387$ and $p=0.05$ (1.977). So, it can be said that there is **no significant difference in status of food security among rural and urban**

respondents. It also indicates that level of food security in rural area is less than urban area.

(b) Position of women in family/society and Status of Food Security

Table No. - 5.40 (i)
Distribution of Respondents as per Status of Food Security w.r.t. Position of Women in Family/Society

Status of Food Security	No. of Respondent as per views on women's position						Total
	Below Sat.		Satisfactory		Highly Sat.		
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Poor	56	40.88	41	27.52	27	26.21	124
Average	54	39.42	59	39.60	36	34.95	149
Good	27	19.71	49	32.89	40	38.83	116
Total	137	100.00	149	100.00	103	100.00	389

Average marks for food security as per respondents' view on women's position

Below Satisfaction	34.29
Satisfactory	38.13
Highly Satisfactory	39.18

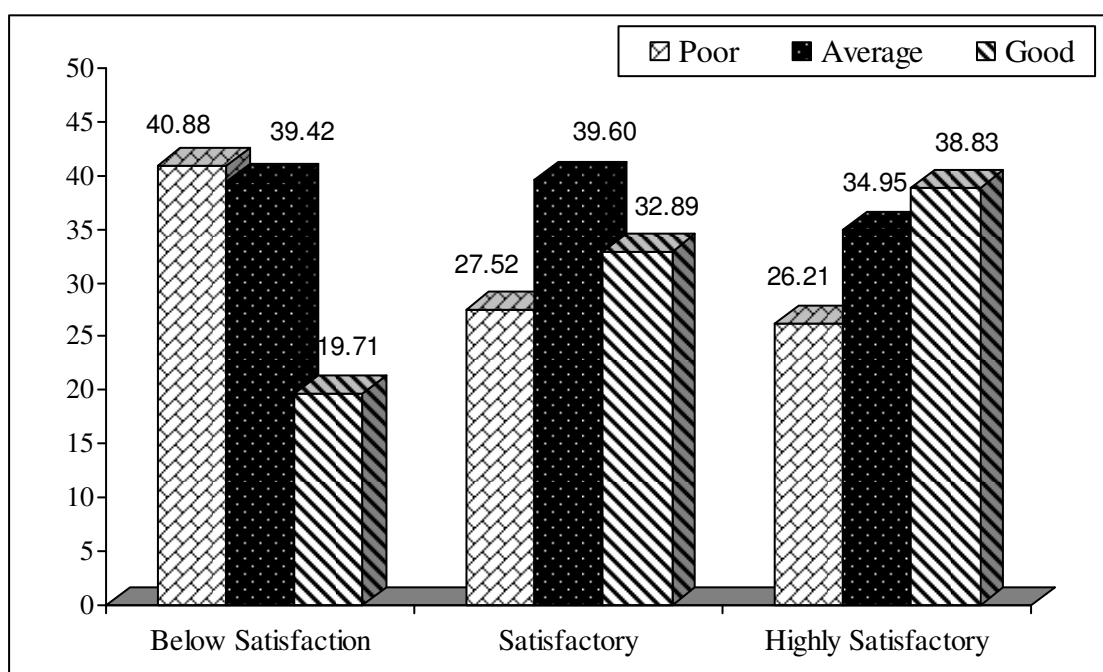


Fig. 5.40 : Distribution of Respondents as per Status of Food Security w.r.t. Position of Women in Family/Society

Table 5.40(i) shows the distribution of respondents as per status of food security w.r.t. position of women in family/society. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents belong to opinion-group of below satisfaction level of women's position, 40.88% of respondents felt that status of food security

available to them is poor, whereas 39.42% of respondents felt average status of food security and 19.71% of respondents felt that status of food security available to them is good.

2. Out of total respondents belong to opinion-group of satisfactory level of women's position, 39.60% of respondents expressed poor status of food security, whereas 32.89% of respondents expressed average status and 27.52% of respondents expressed that status of food security available to them is good.
3. Out of total respondents belong to opinion-group of highly satisfactory level of women's position, 38.83% of respondents felt that status of food security available them is good, whereas 34.95% of respondents expressed average status and 26.21% of respondents expressed that status of food security available to them is poor.

Table 5.40(i) also reveals that there is a difference in status of food security w.r.t. different opinion group of women's position in family/society, as average marks obtained by respondents of below satisfaction opinion-group (34.29) is less (4.89) than respondents of highly satisfactory opinion-group (39.18). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.40(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Food Security for Different Opinion-groups of Women's Position in Family/Society

Opinion -Group	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Below Sat.	56	43.67	54	52.48	27	40.85	137
Satisfactory	41	47.50	59	57.07	49	44.43	149
Highly Sat.	27	32.83	36	39.45	40	30.71	103
Total	124	124	149	149	116	116	389

$$\chi^2 = 13.791$$

$$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.01

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.01 = 13.277$

Table 5.40(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different opinion-groups of women's position in family/society, w.r.t. status of food security is 13.791, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.01 significance level (13.277). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference between different opinion-groups of women's position in family/society w.r.t. status of**

food security. It also reveals that status of food security is highly and positively correlated with status of women in family/society.

(c) **Age-group of Respondents and Status of Food Security**

Table No. - 5.41 (i)

Age-group wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Food Security

Status of Food Security	No. of Respondent as per their age group						
	Young		Middle-aged		Elderly-aged		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.
Poor	31	25.00	49	31.01	44	41.12	124
Average	45	36.29	67	42.41	37	34.58	149
Good	48	38.71	42	26.58	26	24.30	116
Total	124	100.00	158	100.00	107	100.00	389

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their Age-group

Young	39.34
Middle-aged	36.71
Elderly aged	34.92

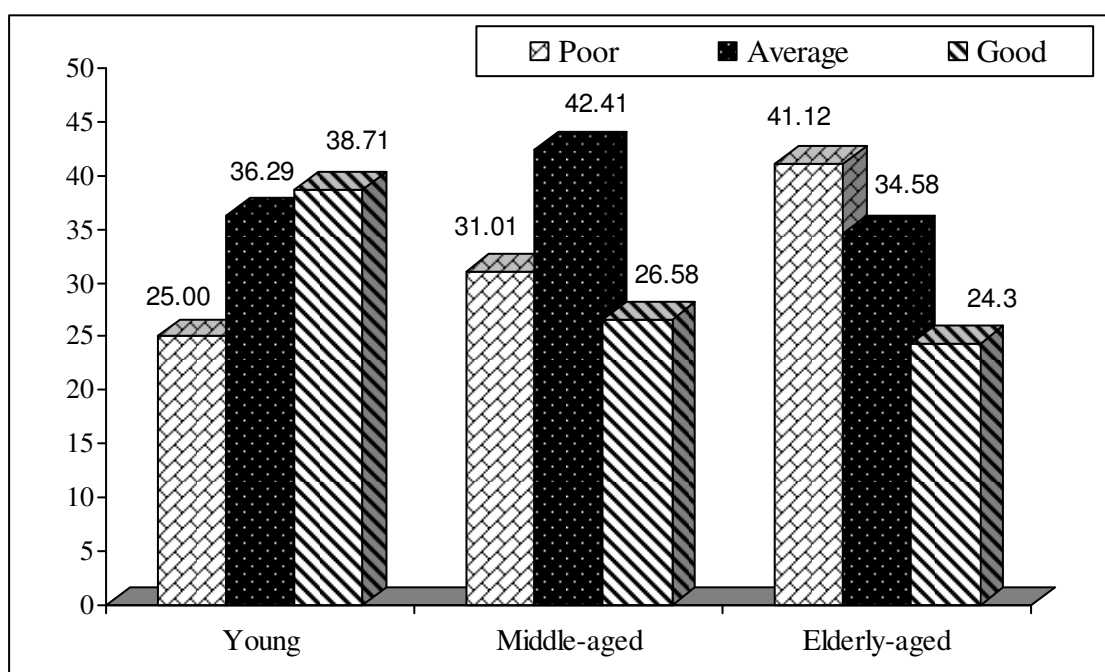


Fig. 5.41 : Age-group Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Food Security

Table 5.41(i) shows the age-wise distribution of respondents as per status of food security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents belong to young age group, 38.71% of respondents felt that status of food security available to them is good, whereas 36.29% of

respondents feel that status of food security available them is average and 25.00% of respondents have assessed it as poor.

2. Out of total respondents belong to middle-aged group, 42.41% of respondents felt that status of food security available to them is average, whereas 31.01% of respondents assessed it poor and 26.58% of respondents have assessed the status of food security available to them as good.
3. Out of total respondents belong to elderly-aged group, 41.12% of respondents felt that status of food security is poor, whereas 34.58% of respondents have assessed it as average and 24.30% of respondents have assessed the status of food security available to them as good.

Table 5.41(i) also reveals that there is a age-group wise difference in status of food security as expressed by respondents, as average marks obtained by respondents belong to young age-group (39.34) is more (4.42) than respondents of elderly aged-group (34.92). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.41(ii)
Significance of Difference in Status of Food Security between Different Age Group

Age -Group	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Young	31	39.53	45	47.50	48	36.98	124
Middle Aged	49	50.37	67	60.52	42	47.12	158
Elderly Aged	44	34.11	37	40.98	26	31.91	107
Total	124	124	149	149	116	116	389

$x^2 = 10.893$

$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.05

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.05 = 9.488$

Table 5.41 (ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different age-groups of respondents, w.r.t. status of food security is 10.893, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.05 significance level (9.488). So, it can be said that there is **significant difference between respondents of different age group w.r.t. status of food security viewed by them.**

(d) Caste and Status of Food Security

Table No. - 5.42 (i)
Caste-wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Food Security

Status of Food Security	No. of Respondent as per their Caste						Total No.
	General		OBC		SC		
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Poor	46	25.27	44	33.85	34	44.16	124
Average	71	39.01	54	41.54	24	31.17	149
Good	65	35.71	32	24.62	19	24.68	116
Total	182	100.00	130	100.00	77	100.00	389

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their caste

General 38.86

OBC 36.01

SC 34.55

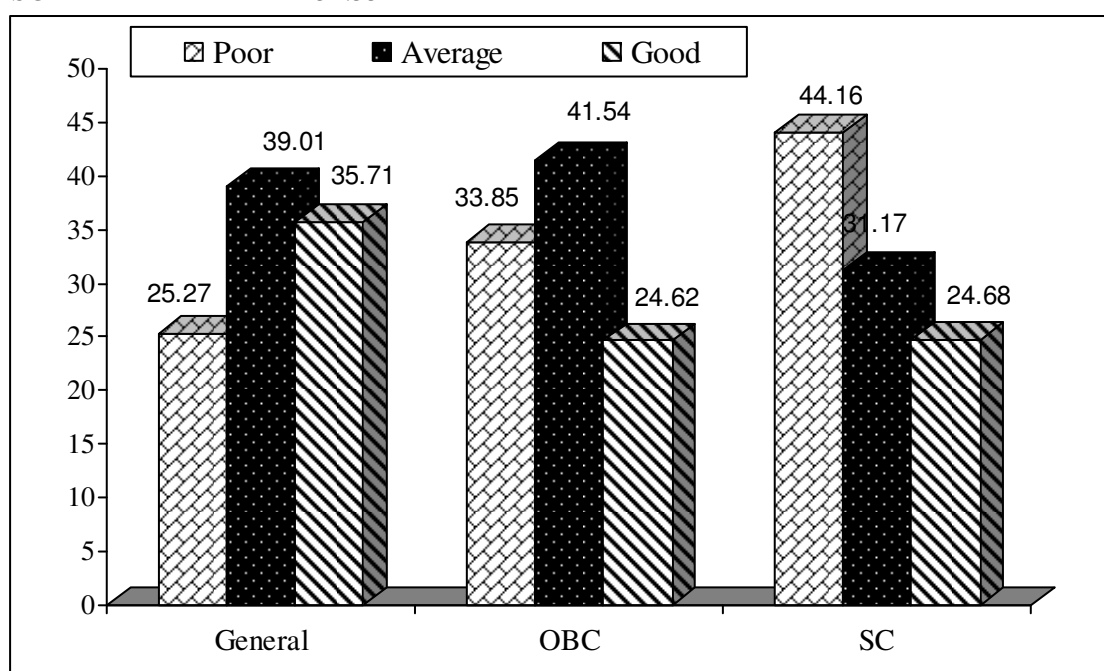


Fig. 5.42 : Caste-Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Food Security

Table 5.42(i) shows the caste-wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of food security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents belong to general caste, 39.01% of respondents assessed status of food security available to them as average, whereas 35.71% of respondents have expressed it as good and 25.27% of respondents assessed status of food security as poor.
2. Out of total respondents belong to OBC, 41.54% of respondents expressed average status of food security; whereas 33.85% of respondents have assessed status of food security as poor and 24.62% of respondents have assessed it as good.

3. Out of total respondents belong to SC, 44.16% of respondents felt that status of food security available to them is poor, whereas 31.17% of respondents assessed it as average and 24.68% of respondents viewed it as good.

Table 5.42(i) also reveals that there is difference in status of food security between respondents of different caste, as average marks obtained by respondents belong to general caste (38.86) is more (4.31) than respondents of Scheduled caste (34.55). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.42(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Food Security between Different Caste

Caste	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
General	46	58.02	71	69.71	65	54.27	182
OBC	44	41.44	54	49.79	32	38.77	130
SC	34	24.54	24	29.49	19	22.96	77
Total	124	124	149	149	116	116	389

$$x^2 = 11.676$$

$$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.05

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.05 = 9.488$

Table 5.42(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different caste of respondents, w.r.t. status of food security is 11.676, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.05 significance level (9.488). So, it can be said that there is **significant difference in status of food security between different caste**.

(e) Economic Status and Status of Food Security

Table No. 5.43(i)

Economic Category wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Food Security

Status of Food Security	Dependent		Independent		Total	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Poor	88	33.85	36	27.91	124	31.88
Average	99	38.08	50	38.76	149	38.30
Good	73	28.08	43	33.33	116	29.82
TOTAL	260	100.00	129	100.00	389	100.00

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their economic category

Dependent 36.519

Independent 38.138

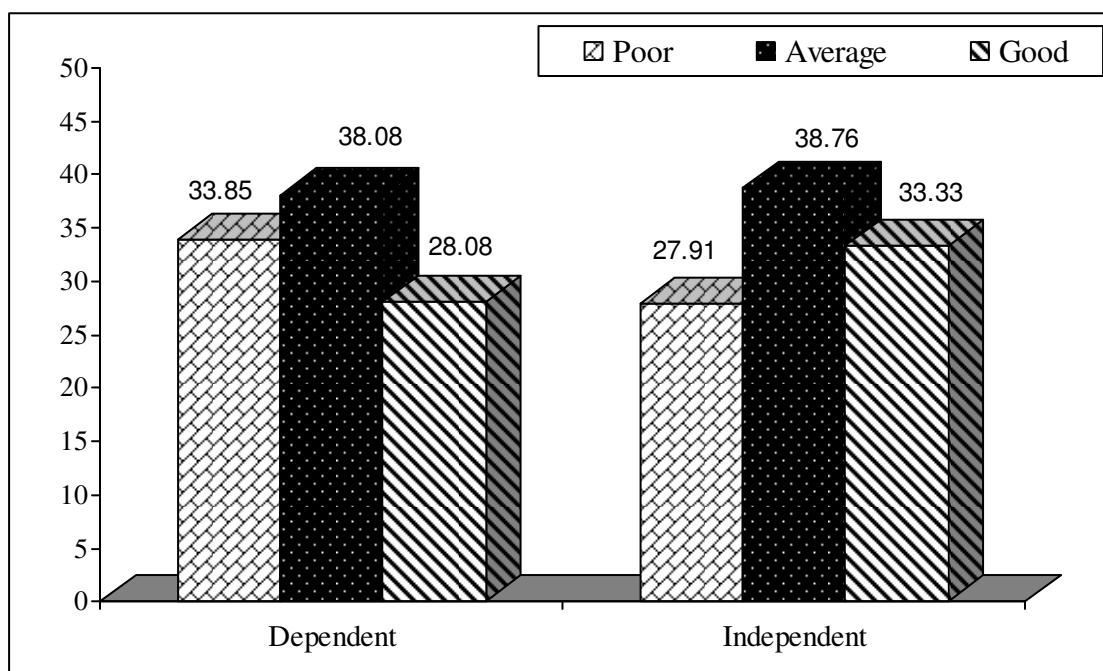


Fig. 5.43: Economic Category wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Food Security

Table 5.43(i) presents economic category wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of food security. This table indicates that:

1. Out of total respondents from dependent economic category, 38.08% of respondents assessed status of food security available to them as average, whereas 33.85% of respondents have expressed it as poor and 28.08% of respondents assessed status of food security as good.
2. Out of total respondents from independent economic category, 38.76% of respondents assessed status of food security available to them as average, whereas 33.33% of respondents have expressed it as good and 27.91% of respondents assessed status of food security as poor.

Table 5.43(i) also reveals that there is economic category wise difference in status of food security viewed by respondents, as average marks of respondents belong to dependent economic category (36.519) is less (1.619) than respondents of independent economic category (38.138). To ascertain the significance of this difference, t-test is used.

Table No. - 5.43(ii)

Significance of Difference in Mean Score for Status of Food Security Between Dependent and Independent Economic categories of Respondents

Economic Category	Frequency	Mean	SD	Diff. in Mean	Sd Error	T-value
Dependent	260	36.519	11.043	1.619	1.153	1.403
Independent	129	38.138	10.542			

* Significant at $P = 0.05$, ** Significant at $P = 0.01$

Table 5.43(ii) shows that obtained t-value for difference in mean score for status of food security among dependent and independent respondents is 1.403, which is less than table value at $df = 387$ and $p=0.05$ (1.977). So, it can be said that there is **no significant difference in mean score for status of food security between economically dependent and independent respondents**. It also indicates that status of food security in economically dependent respondents is less than independent respondents.

5.4.2.4 Relation between Socio-economic Dimensions of Respondents and Status of Community Security

(a) Geographical background and Status of Community Security

Table No. 5.44(i)

Areas wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Community Security

Status	Rural		Urban		Total	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Poor	78	39.59	64	33.33	142	36.50
Average	74	37.56	72	37.50	146	37.53
Good	45	22.84	56	29.17	101	25.96
TOTAL	197	100.00	192	100.00	389	100.00

Average marks for community security w.r.t. geographical area

Rural 42.95

Urban 46.44

Table 5.44(i) presents geographical area wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of community security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents from rural area, 39.59% of respondents feel that status of community security available to them is poor, whereas 37.56% of respondents opined it as average and 22.84% of respondents viewed the status of community security available to them as good.
2. Out of total respondents from urban area, 37.50% of respondents feel that status of community security available to them is average, whereas 33.33% of

respondents opined it as poor and 29.17% of respondents viewed the status of community security available to them as good.

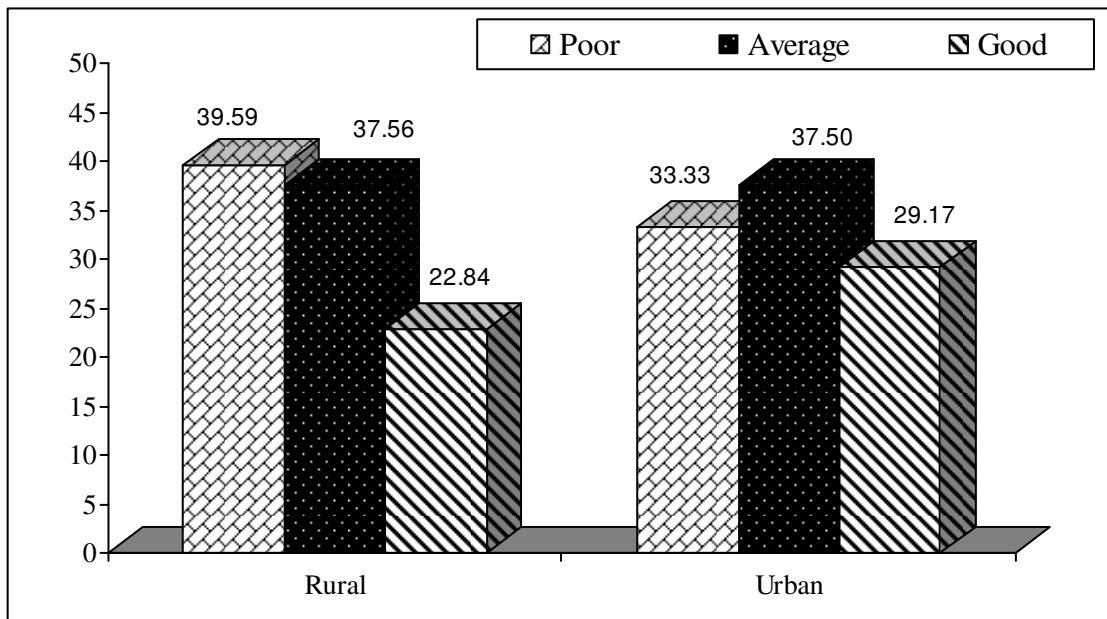


Fig. 5.44: Areas wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Community Security

Table 5.44(i) also indicates that there is difference between rural and urban respondents w.r.t. status of community security, as average marks of rural respondents (42.95) is less (3.49) than urban respondents (46.44). To ascertain the significance of this difference, t-test is used.

Table No. - 5.44(ii)
Significance of Difference in Mean Score of Community Security among Rural and Urban Respondents

Area	Frequency	Mean	SD	Diff. in Mean	Sd Error	T-value
Rural	197	34.931	11.284	1.820	1.113	1.635
Urban	192	36.752	10.674			

* Significant at $P = 0.05$, ** Significant at $P = 0.01$

Table 5.44(ii) shows that obtained t-value for difference in mean score of status of community security among rural and urban respondents is 1.635, which is less than table value at $df = 387$ and $p=0.05$ (1.977). So, it can be said that there is **no significant difference in mean score of status of community security among rural and urban respondents**. It also indicates that level of community security in rural area is less than urban area.

(b) Position of women in family/society and Status of Community Security

Table No. - 5.45 (i)

Distribution of Respondents as per Status of Community Security w.r.t. Position of Women in Family/Society

Status of Community Security	No. of Respondent as per views on women's position						
	Below Sat.		Satisfactory		Highly Sat.		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.
Poor	64	46.72	52	34.90	26	25.24	142
Average	48	35.04	51	34.23	47	45.63	146
Good	25	18.25	46	30.87	30	29.13	101
Total	137	100.00	149	100.00	103	100.00	389

Average marks for community security as per respondents' view on women's position

Below Satisfaction 33.24

Satisfactory 36.78

Highly Satisfactory 37.91

Table 5.45(i) shows the distribution of respondents as per status of community security w.r.t. position of women in family/society. This table reveals that:

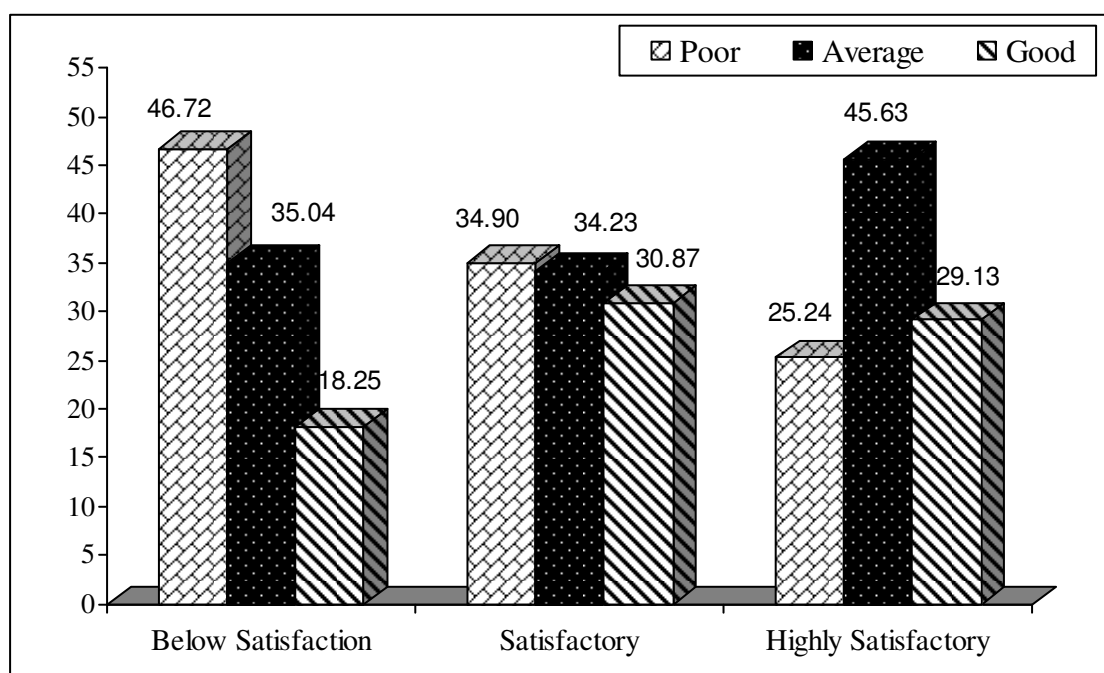


Fig. 5.45 : Distribution of Respondents as per Status of Community Security w.r.t. Position of Women in Family/Society

1. Out of total respondents belong to opinion-group of below satisfaction level of women's position, 46.72% of respondents felt that status of community security available to them is poor, whereas 34.04% of respondents felt average status of community security and 18.25% of respondents felt that status of community security available to them is good.

2. Out of total respondents belong to opinion-group of satisfactory level of women's position, 34.90% of respondents expressed poor status of community security, whereas 34.23% of respondents expressed average status and 30.87% of respondents expressed that status of community security available to them is good.
3. Out of total respondents belong to opinion-group of highly satisfactory level of women's position, 45.63% of respondents felt that status of community security available them is average, whereas 29.13% of respondents expressed good status and 25.24% of respondents expressed that status of community security available to them is poor.

Table 5.45(i) also reveals that there is a difference in status of community security w.r.t. different opinion group of women's position in family/society, as average marks obtained by respondents of below satisfaction opinion-group (33.24) is less (4.67) than respondents of highly satisfactory opinion-group (37.91). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.45(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Community Security for Different Opinion-groups of Women's Position in Family/Society

Opinion -Group	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Below Sat.	64	50.01	48	51.42	25	35.57	137
Satisfactory	52	54.39	51	55.92	46	38.69	149
Highly Sat.	26	37.60	47	38.66	30	26.74	103
Total	142	142	146	146	101	101	389

$$x^2 = 14.978$$

$$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

$$\text{Level of Significance } (p) = 0.01$$

$$\text{Critical value of chi-square at } df = 4 \text{ and } p = 0.01 = 13.277$$

Table 5.45(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different opinion-groups of women's position in family/society, w.r.t. status of community security is 14.978, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.01 significance level (13.277). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference between different opinion-groups of women's position in family/society w.r.t. status of community security**. It also reveals that status of community security is highly and positively correlated with status of women in family/society.

(c) Caste and Status of Community Security

Table No. - 5.46 (i)

Caste-wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Community Security

Status of Community Security	No. of Respondent as per their Caste						Total No.
	General		OBC		SC		
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Poor	56	30.77	49	37.69	37	48.05	142
Average	66	36.26	53	40.77	27	35.06	146
Good	60	32.97	28	21.54	13	16.88	101
Total	182	100.00	130	100.00	77	100.00	389

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their caste

General 37.67

OBC 35.01

SC 32.85

Table 5.46(i) shows the caste-wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of community security. This table reveals that:

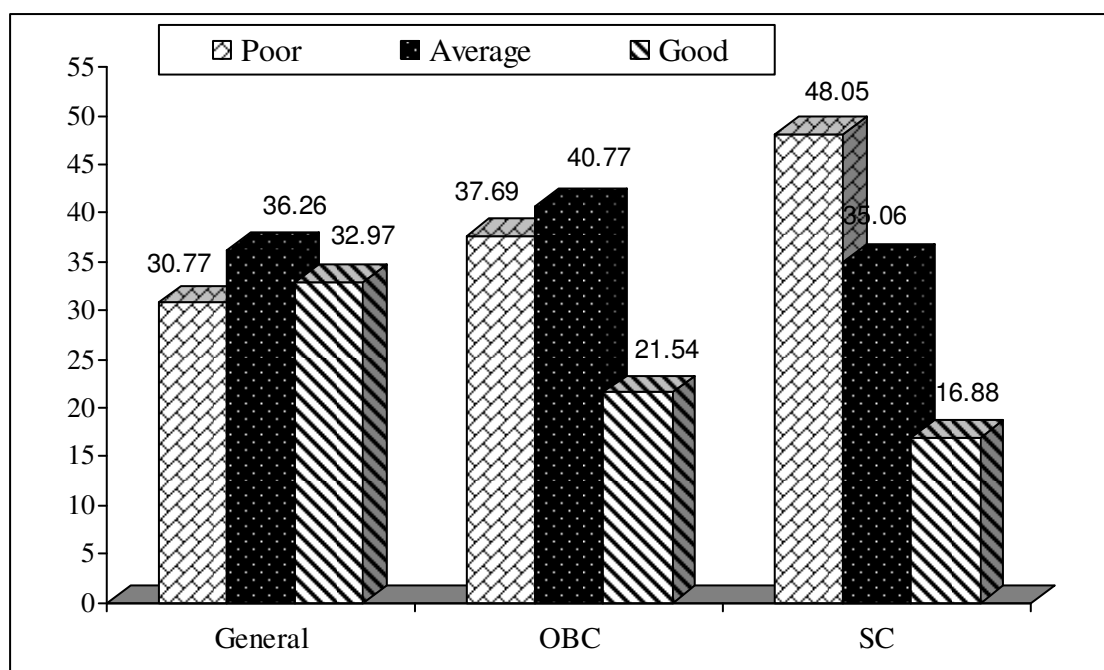


Fig. 5.46 : Caste-Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Community Security

1. Out of total respondents belong to general caste, 36.26% of respondents assessed status of community security available to them as average, whereas 32.97% of respondents have expressed it as good and 30.77% of respondents assessed status of community security as poor.
2. Out of total respondents belong to OBC, 40.77% of respondents expressed average status of community security; whereas 37.69% of respondents have

assessed status of community security as poor and 21.54% of respondents have assessed it as good.

3. Out of total respondents belong to SC, 48.05% of respondents felt that status of community security available to them is poor, whereas 35.06% of respondents assessed it as average and 16.88% of respondents viewed it as good.

Table 5.46(i) also reveals that there is difference in status of community security between respondents of different caste, as average marks obtained by respondents belong to general caste (37.67) is more (4.82) than respondents of Scheduled caste (32.85). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.46(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Community Security between Different Caste

Caste	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
General	56	66.44	66	68.31	60	47.25	182
OBC	49	47.46	53	48.79	28	33.75	130
SC	37	28.11	27	28.90	13	19.99	77
Total	142	142	146	146	101	101	389

$$x^2 = 11.933$$

$$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.05

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.05 = 9.488$

Table 5.46(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different caste of respondents, w.r.t. status of community security is 11.933, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.05 significance level (9.488). So, it can be said that there is **a significant difference in status of community security between different castes.**

(d) Educational status of Respondents and Status of Community Security

Table No. - 5.47 (i)

Educational Status wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Community Security

Status of Community Security	No. of Respondent as per their Educational Status						Total No.
	Lower level		Medium level		Higher level		
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Poor	66	43.42	60	36.59	16	21.92	142
Average	56	36.84	63	38.41	27	36.99	146
Good	30	19.74	41	25.00	30	41.10	101
Total	152	100.00	164	100.00	73	100.00	389

Average marks of community security as per their educational status

Lower level 33.93

Medium level 35.68

Higher level 40.13

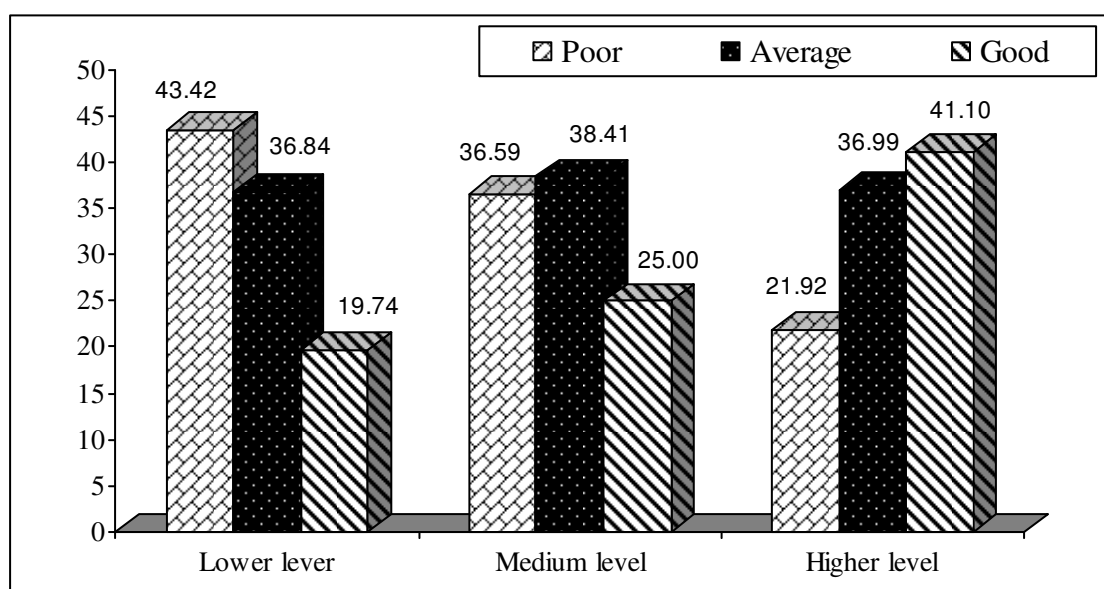


Fig. 5.47 : Educational Status Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Community Security

Table 5.47(i) shows the educational status wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of community security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents having lower level of educational status, 43.42% of respondents assessed status of community security available to them as poor, whereas 36.84% of respondents have expressed it as average and 19.74% of respondents assessed status of community security as good.
2. Out of total respondents having medium level of education, 38.41% of respondents assessed status of community security available to them as average, whereas 36.59% of respondents have expressed it as average and 25.00% of respondents assessed status of community security as good.

3. Out of total respondents having higher level of education, 41.10% of respondents assessed status of community security available to them as good, whereas 36.99% of respondents have expressed it as average and 21.92% of respondents assessed status of community security as poor.

Table 5.47(i) also reveals that there is difference in status of community security between respondents of different educational status, as average marks obtained by respondents having lower level of education (33.93) is less (6.20) than respondents having higher level of education (40.13). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.47(ii)
Significance of Difference in Status of Community Security between Different Educational Status

Educational Status	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Lower level	66	55.49	56	57.05	30	39.47	152
Medium level	60	59.87	63	61.55	41	42.58	164
Higher level	16	26.65	27	27.40	30	18.95	73
Total	142	142	146	146	101	101	389

$\chi^2 = 15.073$, $df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$, Level of Significance (p) = 0.01
Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.01 = 13.277$

Table 5.47(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different educational status of respondents, w.r.t. status of community security is 15.073, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.01 significance level (13.277). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference in status of community security between different educational status of respondents.**

(e) **Household Economic Status and Status of Community Security**

Table No. - 5.48 (i)
Household Income Group wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Community Security

Status of Community Security	No. of Respondent as per their Household Income Group						
	Low Income		Middle Income		High Income		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.
Poor	63	42.00	53	40.15	26	24.30	142
Average	58	38.67	49	37.12	39	36.45	146
Good	29	19.33	30	22.73	42	39.25	101
Total	150	100.00	132	100.00	107	100.00	389

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their family's income group

Low income group 34.07
Middle income group 34.83
High income group 39.52

Table 5.48(i) shows the household income group wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of community security. This table reveals that:

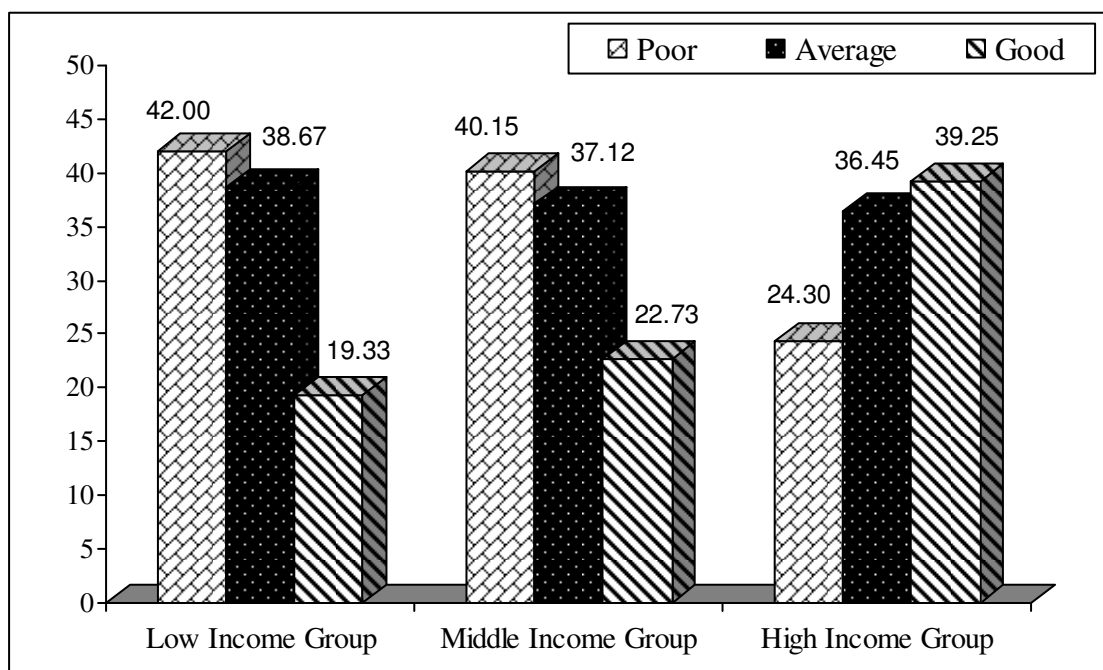


Fig. 5.48 : Household Income Group Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Community Security

1. Out of total respondents of families in low income group, 42.00% of respondents assessed status of community security available to them as poor, whereas 38.67% of respondents have expressed it as average and 19.33% of respondents assessed status of community security as good.
2. Out of total respondents of families in middle income group, 40.15% of respondents assessed status of community security available to them as poor, whereas 37.12% of respondents have expressed it as average and 22.73% of respondents assessed status of community security as good.
3. Out of total respondents of families in high income group, 39.25% of respondents assessed status of community security available to them as good, whereas 36.45% of respondents have expressed it as average and 24.30% of respondents assessed status of community security as poor.

Table 5.48(i) also reveals that there is a difference in status of community security for the respondents of different household income group, as average marks obtained by respondents of low income group families (34.07) is less (5.45) than respondents of high income group families (39.52). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.48(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Community Security between Different Household Income Group

Household Income Group	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Low income group	63	54.76	58	56.30	29	38.95	150
Middle income group	53	48.19	49	49.54	30	34.27	132
High income group	26	39.06	39	40.16	42	27.78	107
Total	142	142	146	146	101	101	389

$x^2 = 16.529$

$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.01

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.01 = 13.277$

Table 5.48(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different household income group of respondents, w.r.t. status of community security is 16.529, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.01 significance level (13.277). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference in status of community security for the respondents of different household income group.**

5.4.2.5 Relation between Socio-economic Dimensions of Respondents and Status of Health Security

(a) Geographical background and Status of Health Security

Table No. 5.49(i)

Areas wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Health Security

Status	Rural		Urban		Total	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Poor	66	33.50	46	23.96	112	28.79
Average	83	42.13	75	39.06	158	40.62
Good	48	24.37	71	36.98	119	30.59
TOTAL	197	100.00	192	100.00	389	100.00

Average marks for health security w.r.t. geographical area

Rural 36.026

Urban 39.236

Table 5.49(i) presents geographical area wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of health security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents from rural area, 42.13% of respondents feel that status of health security available to them is average, whereas 33.50% of respondents opined it as poor and 24.37% of respondents viewed the status of health security available to them as good.

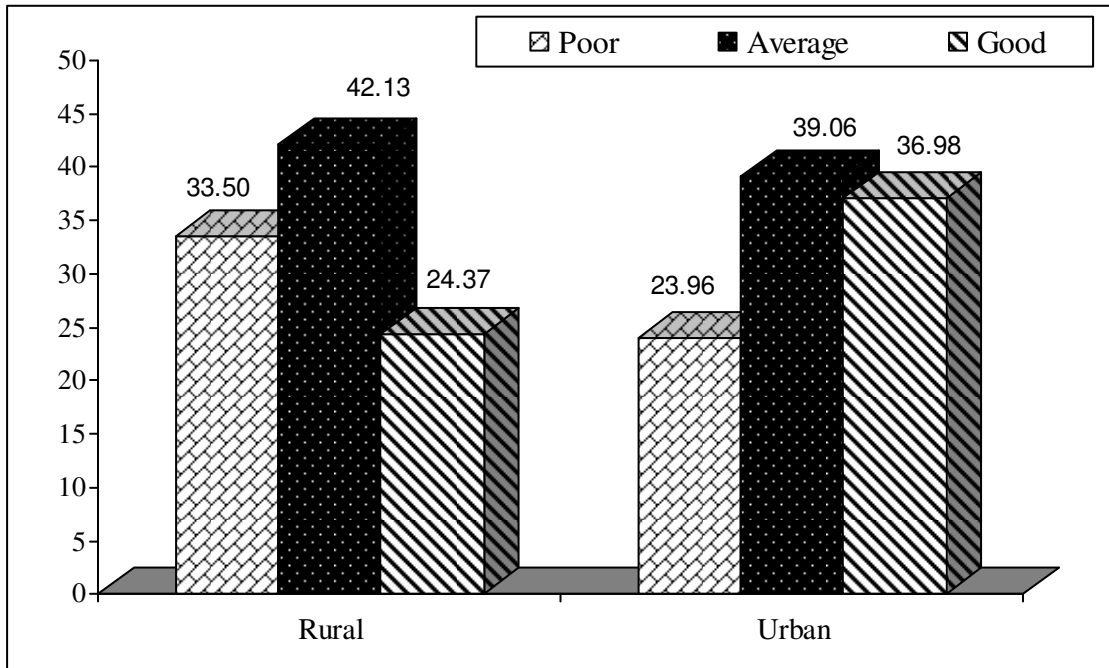


Fig. 5.49: Geographical Areas wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Health Security

- Out of total respondents from urban area, 39.06% of respondents feel that status of health security available to them is average, whereas 36.98% of respondents opined it as good and 23.96% of respondents viewed the status of health security available to them as poor.

Table 5.49(i) also indicates that there is difference between rural and urban respondents w.r.t. status of health security, as average marks of rural respondents (36.026) is less (3.21) than urban respondents (39.236). To ascertain the significance of this difference, t-test is used.

Table No. - 5.49(ii)
Significance of Difference in Mean Score of Health Security Among Rural and Urban Respondents

Area	Frequency	Mean	SD	Diff. in Mean	Sd Error	T-value
Rural	197	36.026	11.147	3.209	1.110	**2.892
Urban	192	39.236	10.741			

* Significant at $P = 0.05$, ** Significant at $P = 0.01$

Table 5.49(ii) shows that obtained t-value for difference in mean score of status of health security among rural and urban respondents is 2.892, which is more than table value at $df = 387$ and $p=0.01$ (2.611). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference in mean score of status of health security among rural and**

urban respondents. It also indicates that level of health security in rural area is less than urban area.

(b) Position of women in family/society and Status of Health Security

Table No. - 5.50 (i)

Distribution of Respondents as per Status of Health Security w.r.t. Position of Women in Family/Society

Status of Health Security	No. of Respondent as per views on women's position						
	Below Sat.		Satisfactory		Highly Sat.		Total No.
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Poor	51	37.23	38	25.50	23	22.33	112
Average	58	42.34	61	40.94	39	37.86	158
Good	28	20.44	50	33.56	41	39.81	119
Total	137	100.00	149	100.00	103	100.00	389

Average marks for health security as per respondents' view on women's position

Below Satisfaction 34.92

Satisfactory 38.51

Highly Satisfactory 39.88

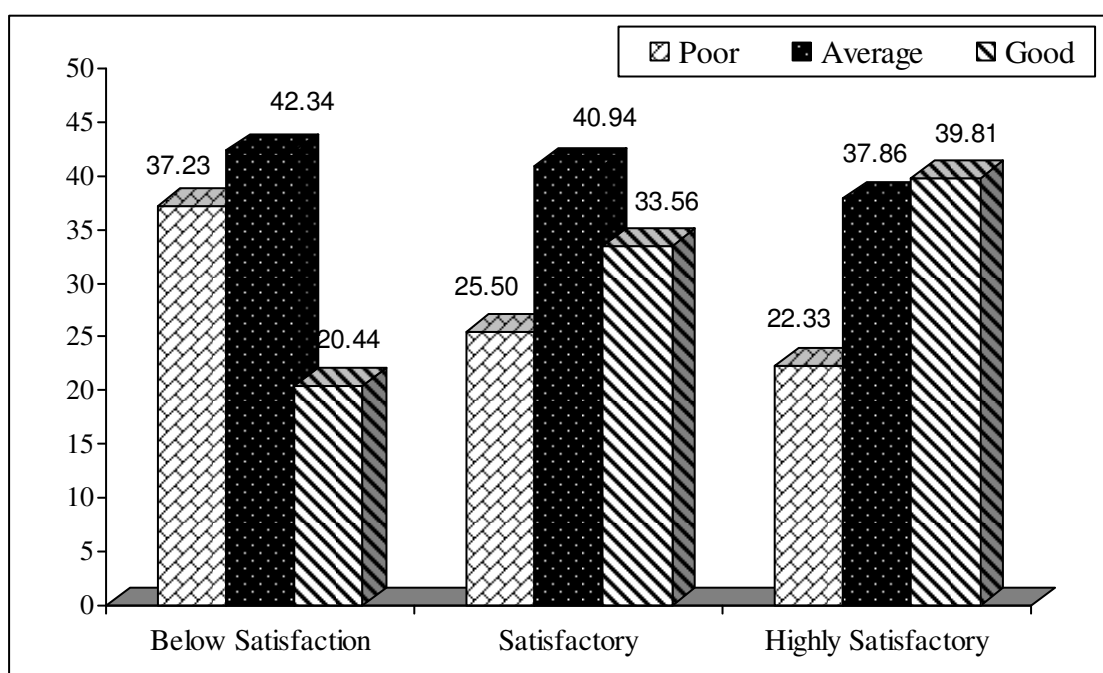


Fig. 5.50 : Distribution of Respondents as per Status of Health Security w.r.t. Position of Women in Family/Society

Table 5.50(i) shows the distribution of respondents as per status of health security w.r.t. position of women in family/society. This table reveals that :

1. Out of total respondents belong to opinion-group of below satisfaction level of women's position, 42.34% of respondents felt that status of health security available to them is average, whereas 37.23% of respondents felt poor status

of health security and 20.44% of respondents felt that status of health security available to them is good.

2. Out of total respondents belong to opinion-group of satisfactory level of women's position, 40.94% of respondents expressed average status of health security, whereas 33.56% of respondents expressed good status and 25.50% of respondents expressed that status of health security available to them is poor.
3. Out of total respondents belong to opinion-group of highly satisfactory level of women's position, 39.81% of respondents felt that status of health security available them is good, whereas 37.86% of respondents expressed average status and 22.33% of respondents expressed that status of health security available to them is poor.

Table 5.50(i) also reveals that there is a difference in status of health security w.r.t. different opinion group of women's position in family/society, as average marks obtained by respondents of below satisfaction opinion-group (34.92) is less (4.96) than respondents of highly satisfactory opinion-group (39.88). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.50(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Health Security for Different Opinion-groups of Women's Position in Family/Society

Opinion -Group	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Below Sat.	51	39.44	58	55.65	28	41.91	137
Satisfactory	38	42.90	61	60.52	50	45.58	149
Highly Sat.	23	29.66	39	41.84	41	31.51	103
Total	112	112	158	158	119	119	389

$\chi^2 = 13.638$

$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.01

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.01 = 13.277$

Table 5.50(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different opinion-groups of women's position in family/society, w.r.t. status of health security is 13.638, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.01 significance level (13.277). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference between different opinion-groups of women's position in family/society w.r.t. status of health security**. It also reveals that status of health security is highly and positively correlated with status of women in family/society.

(c) Age-group of Respondents and Status of Health Security

Table No. - 5.51 (i)

Age-group wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Health Security

Status of Health Security	No. of Respondent as per their age group						
	Young		Middle-aged		Elderly-aged		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Poor	25	20.16	45	28.48	42	39.25	112
Average	48	38.71	69	43.67	41	38.32	158
Good	51	41.13	44	27.85	24	22.43	119
Total	124	100.00	158	100.00	107	100.00	389

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their Age-group

Young 40.39

Middle-aged 37.25

Elderly aged 34.92

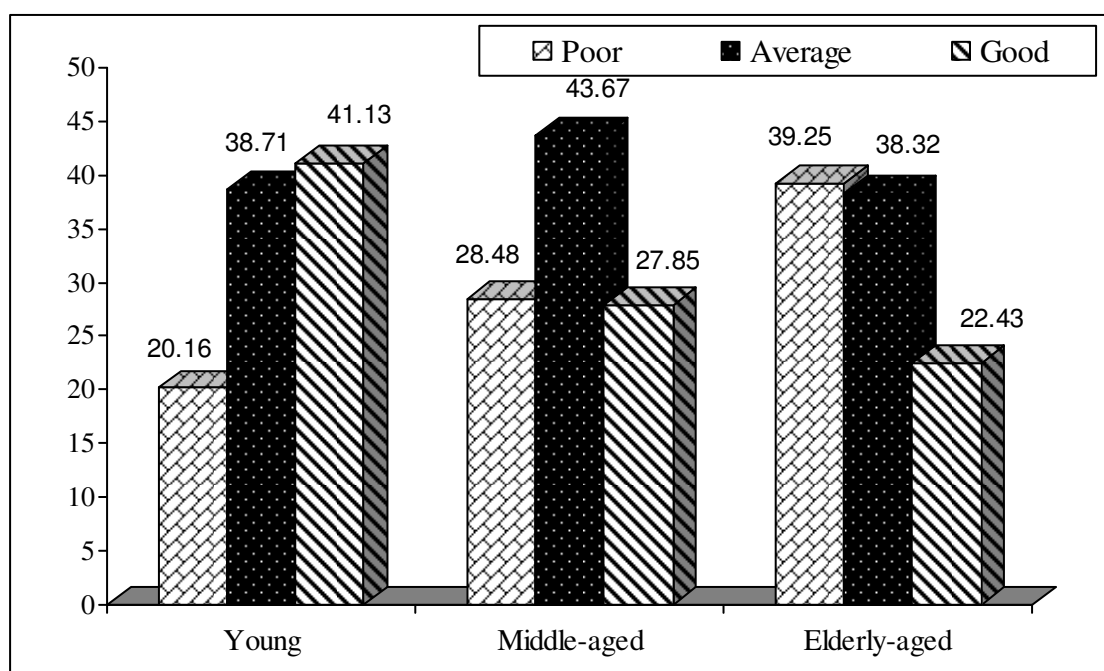


Fig. 5.51 : Age-group Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Health Security

Table 5.51(i) shows the age-wise distribution of respondents as per status of health security. This table reveals that :

1. Out of total respondents belong to young age group, 41.13% of respondents felt that status of health security available to them is good, whereas 38.71% of respondents feel that status of health security available them is average and 20.16% of respondents have assessed it as poor.
2. Out of total respondents belong to middle-aged group, 43.67% of respondents felt that status of health security available to them is average, whereas 28.48%

of respondents assessed it average and 27.85% of respondents have assessed the status of health security available to them as good.

3. Out of total respondents belong to elderly-aged group, 39.25% of respondents felt that status of health security is poor, whereas 38.32% of respondents have assessed it as average and 22.43% of respondents have assessed the status of health security available to them as good.

Table 5.51(i) also reveals that there is a age-group wise difference in status of health security as expressed by respondents, as average marks obtained by respondents belong to young age-group (40.39) is less (5.47) than respondents of elderly aged-group (34.92). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.51(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Health Security between Different Age Group

Age -Group	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Young	25	35.70	48	50.37	51	37.93	124
Middle Aged	45	45.49	69	64.17	44	48.33	158
Elderly Aged	42	30.81	41	43.46	24	32.73	107
Total	112	112	158	158	119	119	389

$$x^2 = 15.112$$

$$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.01

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.01 = 13.277$

Table 5.51(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different age-groups of respondents, w.r.t. status of health security is 15.112, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.01 significance level (13.277). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference between respondents of different age group w.r.t. status of health security viewed by them.**

(d) Caste and Status of Health Security

Table No. - 5.52 (i)
Caste-wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Health Security

Status of Health Security	No. of Respondent as per their Caste						Total No.
	General		OBC		SC		
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Poor	40	21.98	39	30.00	33	42.86	112
Average	75	41.21	56	43.08	27	35.06	158
Good	67	36.81	35	26.92	17	22.08	119
Total	182	100.00	130	100.00	77	100.00	389

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their caste

General 39.50

OBC 36.90

SC 34.35

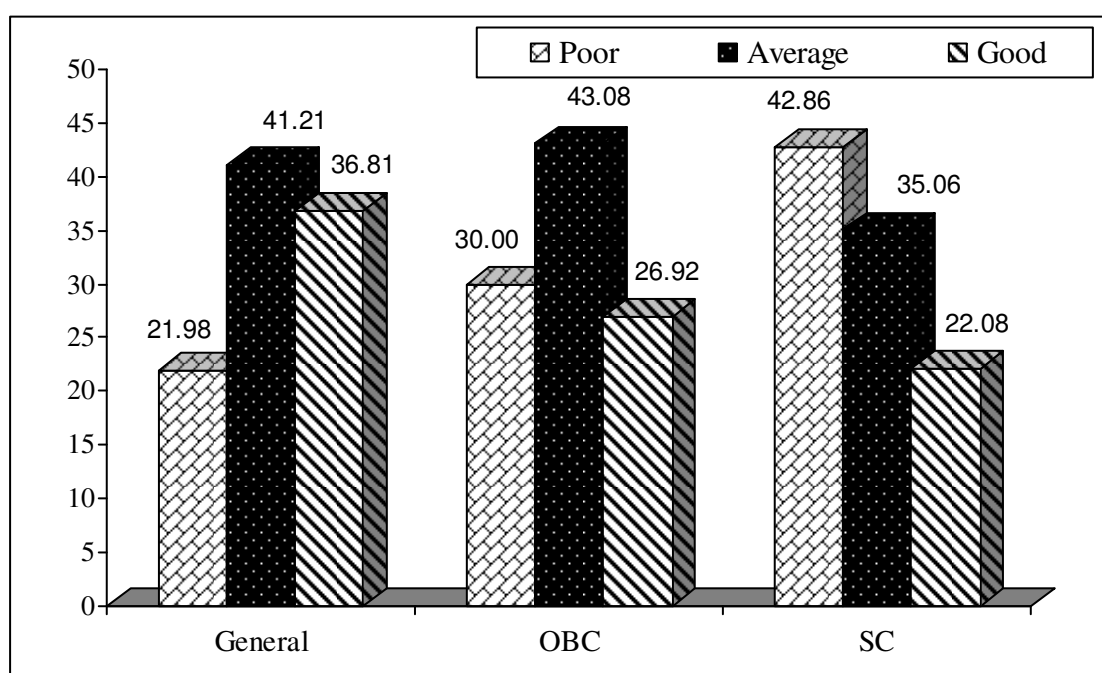


Fig. 5.52 : Caste-Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Health Security

Table 5.52(i) shows the caste-wise distribution of respondents w.r.t. status of health security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents belong to general caste, 41.21% of respondents assessed status of health security available to them as average, whereas 36.81% of respondents have expressed it as good and 21.98% of respondents assessed status of health security as poor.
2. Out of total respondents belong to OBC, 43.08% of respondents expressed average status of health security, whereas 30.00% of respondents have assessed status of health security as poor and 26.92% of respondents have assessed it as good.

3. Out of total respondents belong to SC, 42.86% of respondents felt that status of health security available to them is poor, whereas 35.06% of respondents assessed it as average and 22.08% of respondents viewed it as poor.

Table 5.52(i) also reveals that there is difference in status of health security between respondents of different caste, as average marks obtained by respondents belong to general caste (39.50) is more (5.15) than respondents of Scheduled caste (34.35). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.52(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Health Security between Different Caste

Caste	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
General	40	52.40	75	73.92	67	55.68	182
OBC	39	37.43	56	52.80	35	39.77	130
SC	33	22.17	27	31.28	17	23.56	77
Total	112	112	158	158	119	119	389

$$x^2 = 13.785$$

$$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.01

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.01 = 13.277$

Table 5.52(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different caste of respondents, w.r.t. status of health security is 13.785, which is less than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.01 significance level (13.277). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference in status of health security between different castes.**

(e) Educational status of Respondents and Status of Health Security

Table No. - 5.53 (i)

Educational Status wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Health Security

Status of Health Security	No. of Respondent as per their Educational Status						
	Lower level		Medium level		Higher level		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Poor	54	35.53	43	26.22	15	20.55	112
Average	60	39.47	72	43.90	26	35.62	158
Good	38	25.00	49	29.88	32	43.84	119
Total	152	100.00	164	100.00	73	100.00	389

Average marks of health security as per their educational status

Lower level 35.83

Medium level 37.87

Higher level 40.73

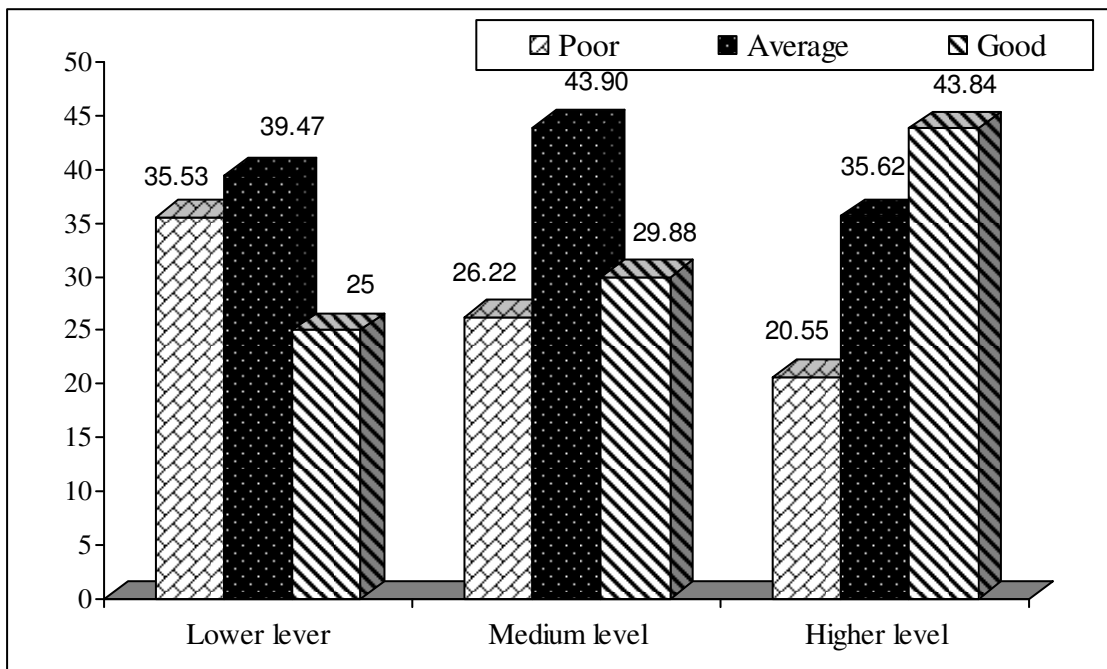


Fig. 5.53 : Educational Status Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Health Security

Table 5.53(i) shows the educational status wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of health security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents having lower level of educational status, 39.47% of respondents assessed status of health security available to them as average, whereas 35.53% of respondents have expressed it as poor and 25.00% of respondents assessed status of health security as good.
2. Out of total respondents having medium level of education, 43.90% of respondents assessed status of health security available to them as average, whereas 29.88% of respondents have expressed it as good and 26.22% of respondents assessed status of health security as poor.
3. Out of total respondents having higher level of education, 43.84% of respondents assessed status of health security available to them as good, whereas 35.62% of respondents have expressed it as average and 20.55% of respondents assessed status of health security as poor.

Table 5.53(i) also reveals that there is difference in status of health security between respondents of different educational status, as average marks obtained by respondents having lower level of education (35.83) is less (4.90) than respondents

having higher level of education (40.73). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.53(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Health Security between Different Educational Status

Educational Status	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Lower level	54	43.76	60	61.74	38	46.50	152
Medium level	43	47.22	72	66.61	49	50.17	164
Higher level	15	21.02	26	29.65	32	22.33	73
Total	112	112	158	158	119	119	389

$\chi^2 = 11.195$

$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.05

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.05 = 9.488$

Table 5.53(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different educational status of respondents, w.r.t. status of health security is 11.195, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.05 significance level (9.488). So, it can be said that there is **a significant difference in status of health security between different educational status of respondents.**

(f) Economic Status and Status of Health Security

Table No. 5.54(i)

Economic Category wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Health Security

Status of Health Security	Dependent		Independent		Total	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Poor	84	32.31	28	21.71	112	28.79
Average	107	41.15	51	39.53	158	40.62
Good	69	26.54	50	38.76	119	30.59
TOTAL	260	100.00	129	100.00	389	100.00

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their economic category

Dependent 36.515

Independent 39.819

Table 5.54(i) presents economic category wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of health security. This table indicates that:

1. Out of total respondents from dependent economic category, 41.15% of respondents assessed status of health security available to them as average,

whereas 32.31% of respondents have expressed it as poor and 26.54% of respondents assessed status of health security as good.

2. Out of total respondents from independent economic category, 39.53% of respondents assessed status of health security available to them as average, whereas 38.76% of respondents have expressed it as good and 21.71% of respondents assessed status of health security as good.

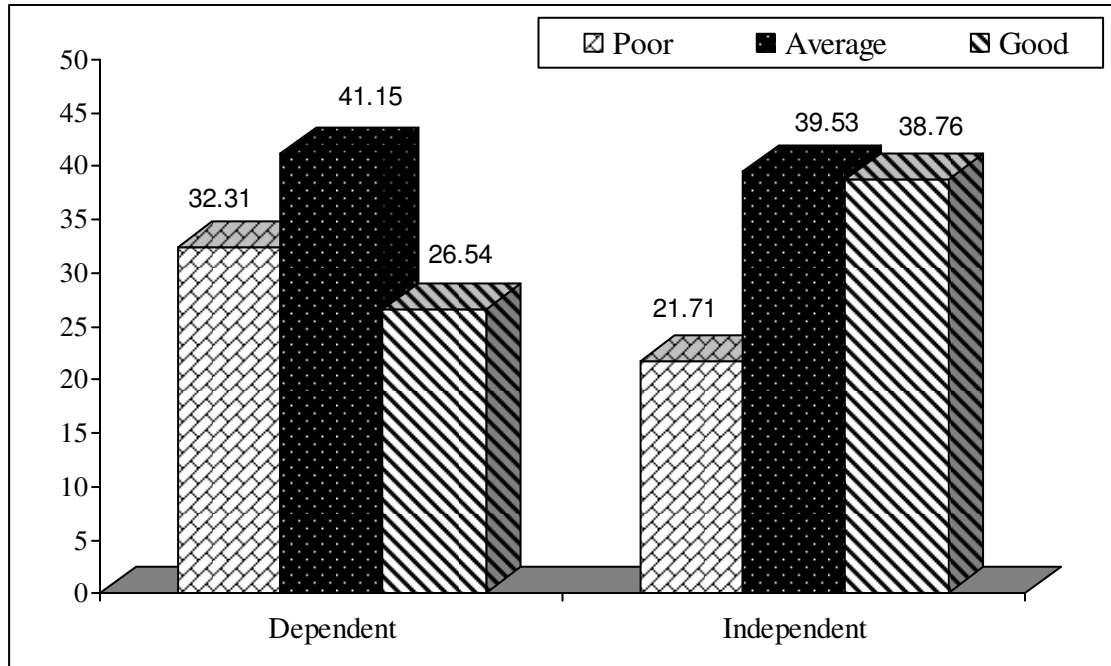


Fig. 5.54: Economic Category wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Health Security

Table 5.54(i) also reveals that there is economic category wise difference in status of health security viewed by respondents, as average marks of respondents belong to dependent economic category (43.331) is less (4.054) than respondents of independent economic category (47.385). To ascertain the significance of this difference, t-test is used.

Table No. - 5.54(ii)

Significance of Difference in Mean Score for Status of Health Security Between Dependent and Independent Economic categories of Respondents

Economic Category	Frequency	Mean	SD	Diff. in Mean	Sd Error	T-value
Dependent	260	36.515	11.493	3.304	1.161	**2.845
Independent	129	39.819	10.412			

* Significant at $P = 0.05$, ** Significant at $P = 0.01$

Table 5.54(ii) shows that obtained t-value for difference in mean score for status of health security among dependent and independent respondents is 2.845, which is more than table value at $df = 387$ and $p=0.01$ (2.611). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference in mean score for status of health security between economically dependent and independent respondents**. It also indicates that status of health security in economically dependent respondents is less than independent respondents.

(g) **Nature of household occupation and Status of Health Security**

Table No. - 5.55 (i)

Household Occupation wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Health Security

Status of Health Security	No. of Respondent as per their household occupation						
	Traditional		Moderate		Modern		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Poor	55	32.16	35	28.23	22	23.40	112
Average	78	45.61	50	40.32	30	31.91	158
Good	38	22.22	39	31.45	42	44.68	119
Total	171	100.00	124	100.00	94	100.00	389

Average marks for health security of respondent's w.r.t. household occupation

Traditional	35.91
Moderate	37.82
Modern	40.44

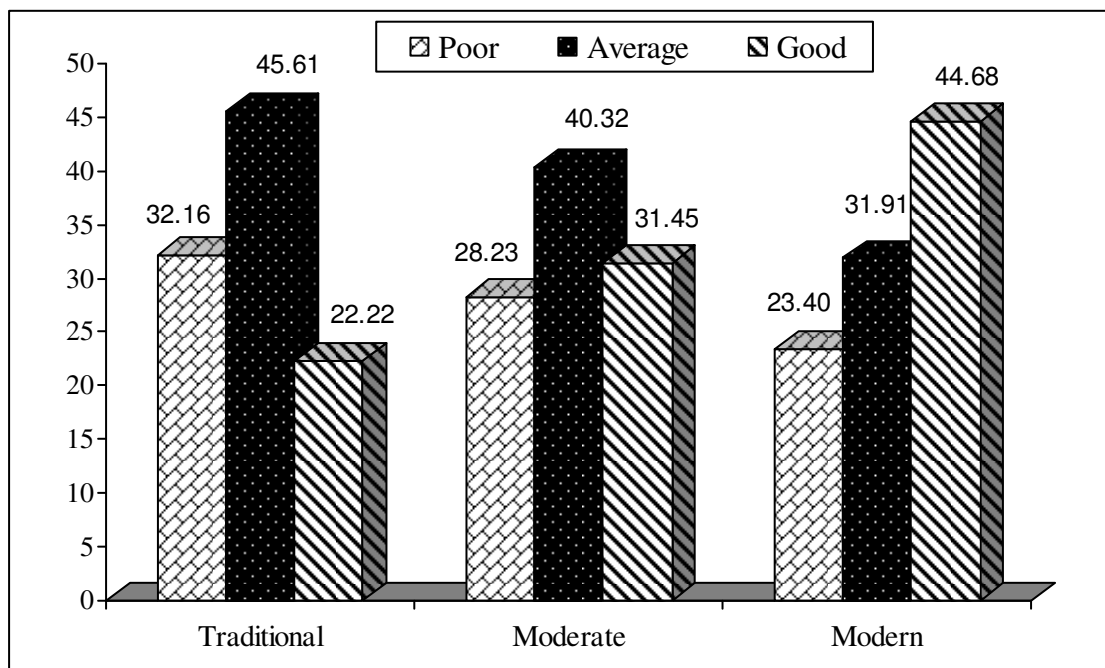


Fig. 5.55 : Household Occupation Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Health Security

Table 5.55(i) shows the household occupation wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of health security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents of traditional household occupation, 45.61% of respondents assessed status of health security available to them as average, whereas 32.16% of respondents have expressed it as poor and 22.22% of respondents assessed status of health security as good.
2. Out of total respondents of moderate household occupation, 40.32% of respondents assessed status of health security available to them as average, whereas 31.45% of respondents have expressed it as good and 28.23% of respondents assessed status of health security as poor.
3. Out of total respondents of modern household occupation, 44.68% of respondents assessed status of health security available to them as good, whereas 31.91% of respondents have expressed it as average and 23.40% of respondents assessed status of health security as poor.

Table 5.55(i) also reveals that there is a difference in status of health security between respondents of different household occupation, as average marks obtained by respondents of traditional household occupation (35.91) is less (4.53) than respondents of modern household occupation (40.44). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.55(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Health Security between Different Household Occupational Categories

Category of Household Occ.	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Traditional	55	49.23	78	69.46	38	52.31	171
Moderate	35	35.70	50	50.37	39	37.93	124
Modern	22	27.06	30	38.18	42	28.76	94
Total	112	112	158	158	119	119	389

$x^2 = 14.488$

$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.01

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.01 = 13.277$

Table 5.55(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different household occupational categories of respondents, w.r.t. status of health security is 14.488, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.01 significance

level (13.277). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference in status of health security between different household occupational categories.**

(h) Household Economic Status and Status of Health Security

Table No. - 5.56 (i)

Household Income Group wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Health Security

Status of Health Security	No. of Respondent as per their Household Income Group						
	Low Income		Middle Income		High Income		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.
Poor	52	34.67	41	31.06	19	17.76	112
Average	62	41.33	54	40.91	42	39.25	158
Good	36	24.00	37	28.03	46	42.99	119
Total	150	100.00	132	100.00	107	100.00	389

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their family's income group

Low income group 35.81
 Middle income group 36.91
 High income group 41.00

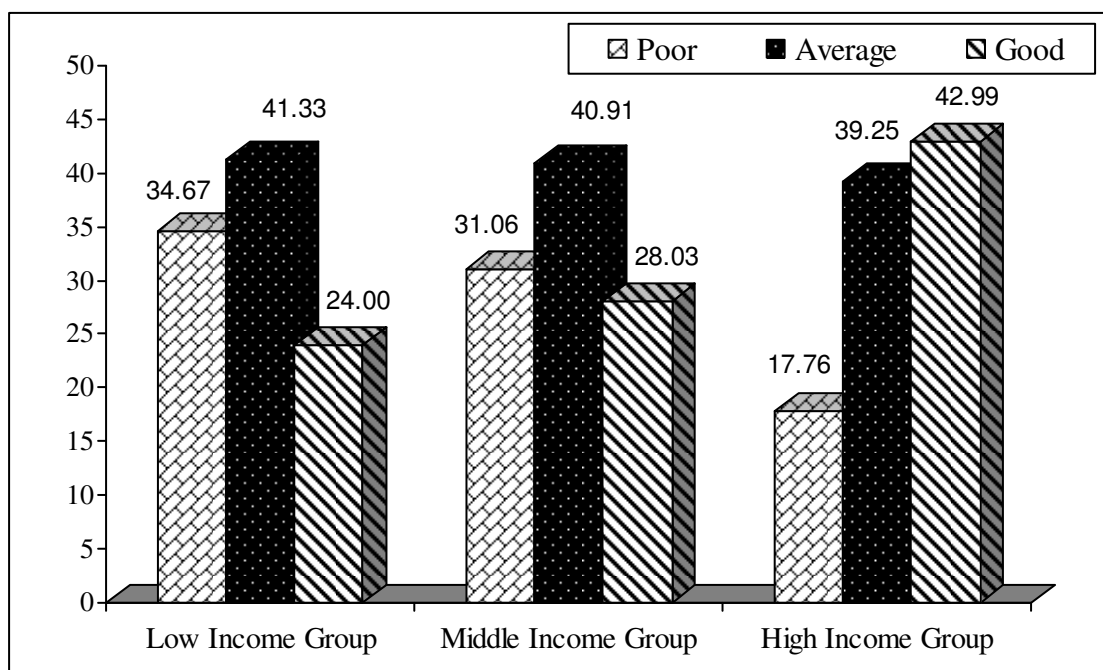


Fig. 5.56 : Household Income Group Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Health Security

Table 5.56(i) shows the household income group wise distribution of respondents w.r.t. status of health security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents of families in low income group, 41.33% of respondents assessed status of health security available to them as average, whereas 34.67% of respondents have expressed it as poor and 24.00% of respondents assessed status of health security as good.
2. Out of total respondents of families in middle income group, 40.91% of respondents assessed status of health security available to them as average, whereas 31.06% of respondents have expressed it as poor and 28.03% of respondents assessed status of health security as good.
3. Out of total respondents of families in high income group, 42.99% of respondents assessed status of health security available to them as good, whereas 39.25% of respondents have expressed it as average and 17.76% of respondents assessed status of health security as poor.

Table 5.56(i) also reveals that there is a difference in status of health security for the respondents of different household income group, as average marks obtained by respondents of low income group families (35.81) is less (5.19) than respondents of high income group families (41.00). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.56(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Health Security between Different Household Income Group

Household Income Group	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Low income group	52	43.19	62	60.93	36	45.89	150
Middle income group	41	38.01	54	53.61	37	40.38	132
High income group	19	30.81	42	43.46	46	32.73	107
Total	112	112	158	158	119	119	389

$$x^2 = 14.421$$

$$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.01

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.01 = 13.277$

Table 5.56(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different household income group of respondents, w.r.t. status of health security is 14.421, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.01 significance level (13.277). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference in status of health security for the respondents of different household income group.**

5.4.2.6 Relation Between Socio-economic Dimensions of Respondents and Status of Economic Security

(a) Geographical background and Status of Economic Security

Table No. 5.57(i)

Areas wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Economic Security

Status	Rural		Urban		Total	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Poor	91	46.19	68	35.42	159	40.87
Average	70	35.53	67	34.90	137	35.22
Good	36	18.27	57	29.69	93	23.91
TOTAL	197	100.00	192	100.00	389	100.00

Average marks for economic security w.r.t. geographical area

Rural 33.319
Urban 36.529

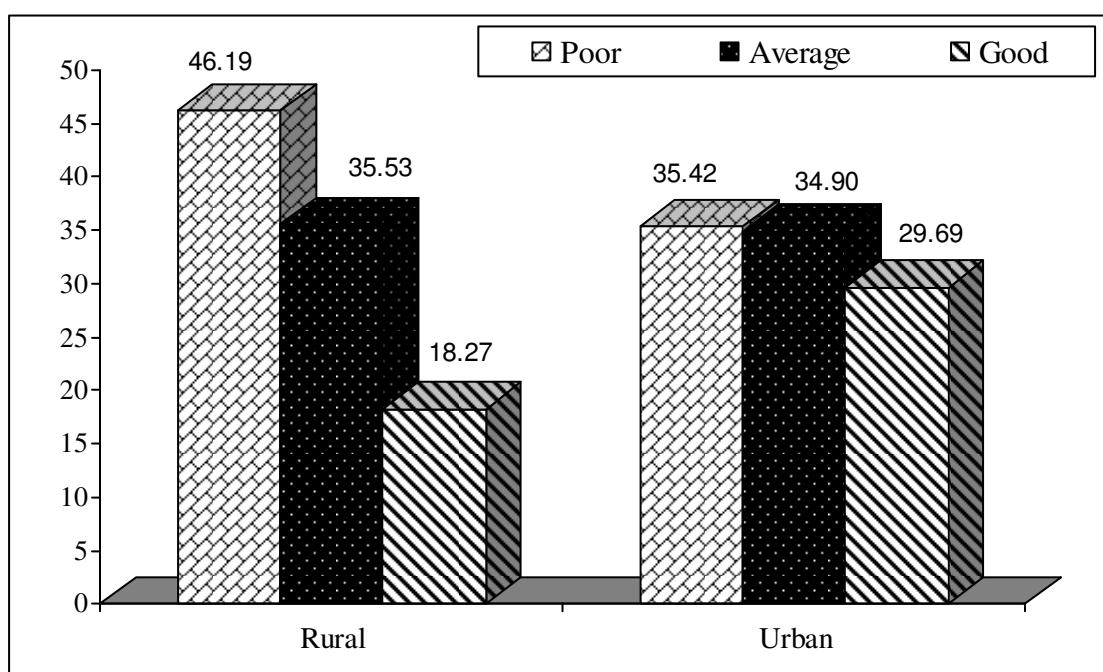


Fig. 5.57: Geographical Areas wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Economic Security

Table 5.57(i) presents geographical area wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of economic security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents from rural area, 46.19% of respondents feel that status of economic security available to them is poor, whereas 35.53% of respondents opined it as average and 18.27% of respondents viewed the status of economic security available to them as good.

2. Out of total respondents from urban area, 35.42% of respondents feel that status of economic security available to them is poor, whereas 34.90% of respondents opined it as average and 29.69% of respondents viewed the status of economic security available to them as good.

Table 5.57(i) also indicates that there is difference between rural and urban respondents w.r.t. status of economic security, as average marks of rural respondents (42.95) is less (3.49) than urban respondents (46.44). To ascertain the significance of this difference, t-test is used.

Table No. - 5.57(ii)
Significance of Difference in Mean Score of Economic Security Among Rural and Urban Respondents

Area	Frequency	Mean	SD	Diff. in Mean	Sd Error	T-value
Rural	197	33.319	11.841	3.211	1.144	**2.806
Urban	192	36.529	10.714			

* Significant at $P = 0.05$, ** Significant at $P = 0.01$

Table 5.57(ii) shows that obtained t-value for difference in mean score of status of economic security among rural and urban respondents is 2.806, which is more than table value at $df = 387$ and $p=0.01$ (2.611). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference in mean score of status of economic security among rural and urban respondents**. It also indicates that level of economic security in rural area is less than urban area.

(b) Position of women in family/society and Status of Economic Security

Table No. - 5.58 (i)
Distribution of Respondents as per Status of Economic Security w.r.t. Position of Women in Family/Society

Status of Economic Security	No. of Respondent as per views on women's position						
	Below Sat.		Satisfactory		Highly Sat.		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.
Poor	67	48.91	59	39.60	33	32.04	159
Average	50	36.50	53	35.57	34	33.01	137
Good	20	14.60	37	24.83	36	34.95	93
Total	137	100.00	149	100.00	103	100.00	389

Average marks for economic security as per respondents' view on women's position

Below Satisfaction	32.39
Satisfactory	35.22
Highly Satisfactory	37.78

Table 5.58(i) shows the distribution of respondents as per status of economic security w.r.t. position of women in family/society. This table reveals that :

1. Out of total respondents belong to opinion-group of below satisfaction level of women's position, 48.91% of respondents felt that status of economic security available to them is poor, whereas 36.50% of respondents felt average status of economic security and 14.60% of respondents felt that status of economic security available to them is good.
2. Out of total respondents belong to opinion-group of satisfactory level of women's position, 39.60% of respondents expressed poor status of economic security, whereas 35.57% of respondents expressed average status and 24.83% of respondents expressed that status of economic security available to them is good.

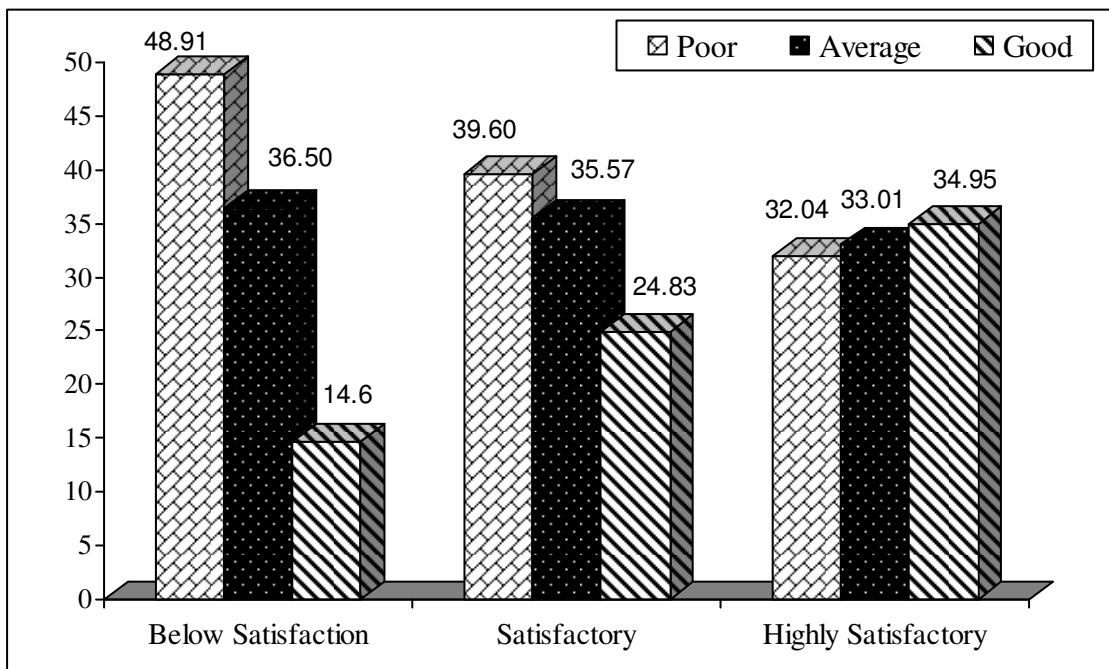


Fig. 5.58 : Distribution of Respondents as per Status of Economic Security w.r.t. Position of Women in Family/Society

3. Out of total respondents belong to opinion-group of highly satisfactory level of women's position, 34.95% of respondents felt that status of economic security available to them is good, whereas 33.01% of respondents expressed average status and 32.04% of respondents expressed that status of economic security available to them is poor.

Table 5.58(i) also reveals that there is a difference in status of economic security w.r.t. different opinion group of women's position in family/society, as average marks obtained by respondents of below satisfaction opinion-group (32.39) is

less (5.39) than respondents of highly satisfactory opinion-group (37.78). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.58(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Economic Security for Different Opinion-groups of Women's Position in Family/Society

Opinion -Group	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Below Sat.	67	56.00	50	48.25	20	32.75	137
Satisfactory	59	60.90	53	52.48	37	35.62	149
Highly Sat.	33	42.10	34	36.28	36	24.62	103
Total	159	159	137	137	93	93	389

$$x^2 = 14.674$$

$$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.01

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.01 = 13.277$

Table 5.58(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different opinion-groups of women's position in family/society, w.r.t. status of economic security is 14.674, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.01 significance level (13.277). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference between different opinion-groups of women's position in family/society w.r.t. status of economic security**. It also reveals that status of economic security is highly and positively correlated with status of women in family/society.

(c) Caste and Status of Economic Security

Table No. - 5.59 (i)

Caste-wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Economic Security

Status of Economic Security	No. of Respondent as per their Caste						
	General		OBC		SC		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Poor	86	47.25	51	39.23	22	28.57	159
Average	62	34.07	49	37.69	26	33.77	137
Good	34	18.68	30	23.08	29	37.66	93
Total	182	100.00	130	100.00	77	100.00	389

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their caste

General 33.23

OBC 35.02

SC 38.67

Table 5.59(i) shows the caste-wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of economic security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents belong to general caste, 47.25% of respondents assessed status of economic security available to them as poor, whereas

34.07% of respondents have expressed it as average and 18.68% of respondents assessed status of economic security as good.

2. Out of total respondents belong to OBC, 39.23% of respondents expressed poor status of economic security, whereas 37.69% of respondents have assessed status of economic security as average and 23.08% of respondents have assessed it as good.

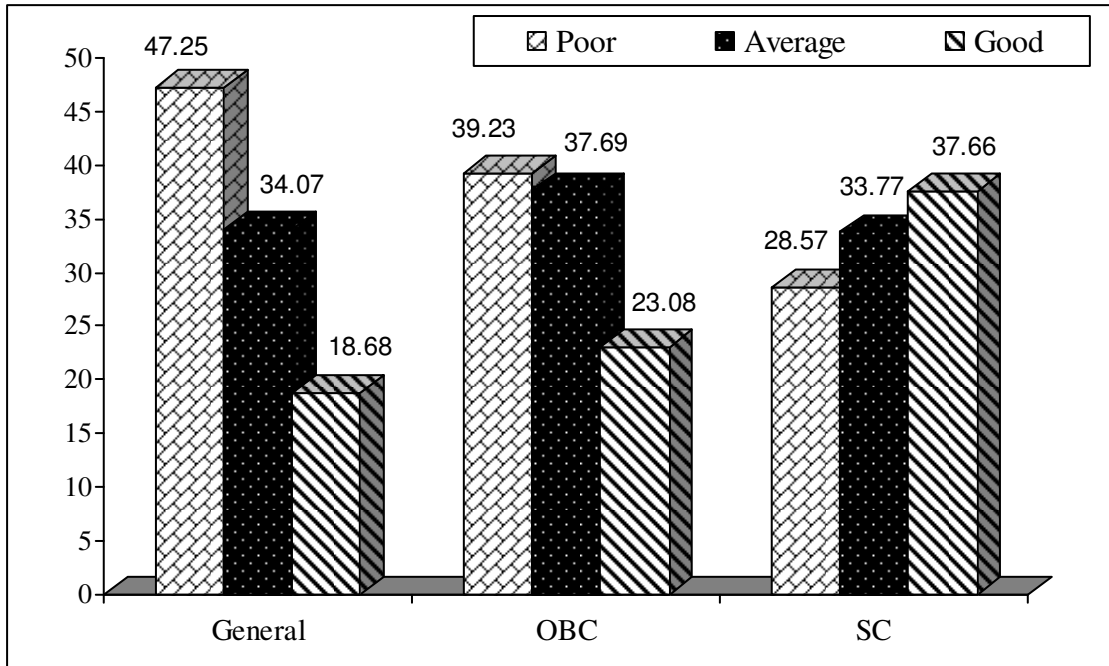


Fig. 5.59 : Caste-Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Economic Security

3. Out of total respondents belong to SC, 37.66% of respondents felt that status of economic security available to them is good, whereas 33.77% of respondents assessed it as average and 28.57% of respondents viewed it as poor.

Table 5.59(i) also reveals that there is difference in status of economic security between respondents of different caste, as average marks obtained by respondents belong to general caste (33.23) is more (5.44) than respondents of Scheduled caste (38.67). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.59(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Economic Security between Different Caste

Caste	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
General	86	74.39	62	64.10	34	43.51	182
OBC	51	53.14	49	45.78	30	31.08	130
SC	22	31.47	26	27.12	29	18.41	77
Total	159	159	137	137	93	93	389

$x^2 = 13.342$

$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.01

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.01 = 13.277$

Table 5.59(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different caste of respondents, w.r.t. status of economic security is 13.342, which is less than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.01 significance level (13.277). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference in status of economic security between different castes.**

(d) Educational status of Respondents and Status of Economic Security

Table No. - 5.60 (i)

Educational Status wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Economic Security

Status of Economic Security	No. of Respondent as per their Educational Status						
	Lower level		Medium level		Higher level		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Poor	71	46.71	67	40.85	21	28.77	159
Average	52	34.21	62	37.80	23	31.51	137
Good	29	19.08	35	21.34	29	39.73	93
Total	152	100.00	164	100.00	73	100.00	389

Average marks of economic security as per their educational status

Lower level 33.36

Medium level 34.53

Higher level 38.95

Table 5.60(i) shows the educational status wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of economic security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents having lower level of educational status, 46.71% of respondents assessed status of economic security available to them as poor, whereas 34.21% of respondents have expressed it as average and 19.08% of respondents assessed status of economic security as good.

2. Out of total respondents having medium level of education, 40.85% of respondents assessed status of economic security available to them as poor, whereas 37.80% of respondents have expressed it as average and 21.34% of respondents assessed status of economic security as good.

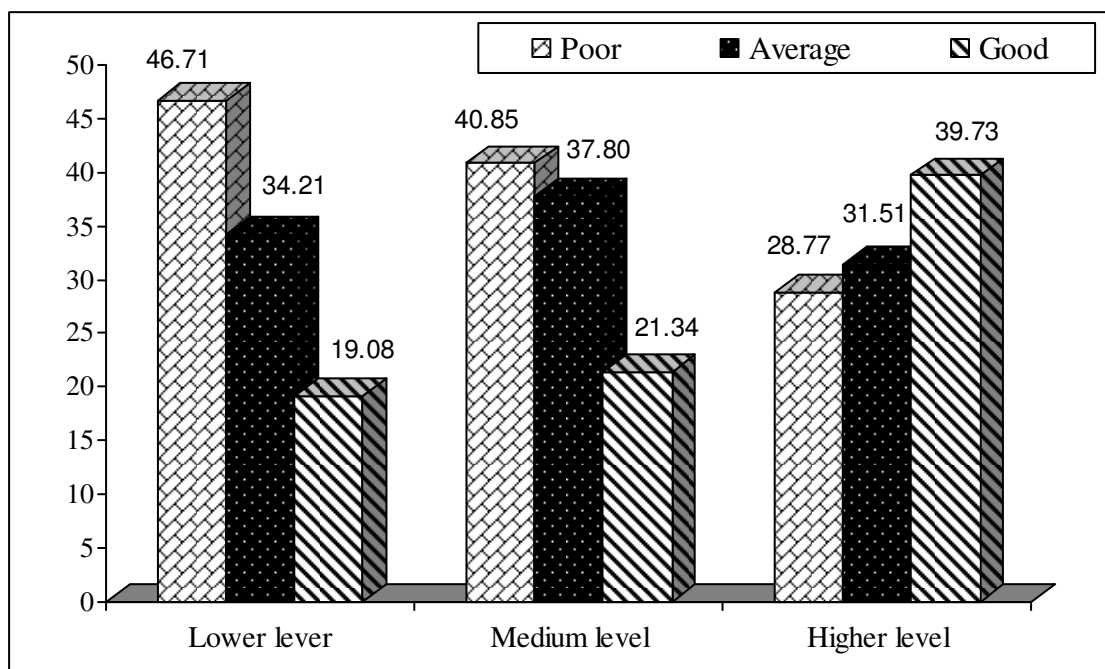


Fig. 5.60 : Educational Status Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Economic Security

3. Out of total respondents having higher level of education, 39.73% of respondents assessed status of economic security available to them as good, whereas 31.51% of respondents have expressed it as average and 28.77% of respondents assessed status of economic security as poor.

Table 5.60(i) also reveals that there is difference in status of economic security between respondents of different educational status, as average marks obtained by respondents having lower level of education (33.36) is less (5.59) than respondents having higher level of education (38.95). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.60(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Economic Security between Different Educational Status

Educational Status	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Lower level	71	62.13	52	53.53	29	36.34	152
Medium level	67	67.03	62	57.76	35	39.21	164
Higher level	21	29.84	23	25.71	29	17.45	73
Total	159	159	137	137	93	93	389

$$x^2 = 14.152$$

$$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.01

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.01 = 13.277$

Table 5.60(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different educational status of respondents, w.r.t. status of economic security is 14.152, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.01 significance level (13.277). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference in status of economic security between different educational status of respondents.**

(e) **Economic Status and Status of Economic Security**

Table No. 5.61(i)

Economic Category wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Economic Security

Status of Economic Security	Dependent		Independent		Total	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Poor	118	45.38	41	31.78	159	40.87
Average	94	36.15	43	33.33	137	35.22
Good	48	18.46	45	34.88	93	23.91
TOTAL	260	100.00	129	100.00	389	100.00

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their economic category

Dependent 33.462

Independent 37.809

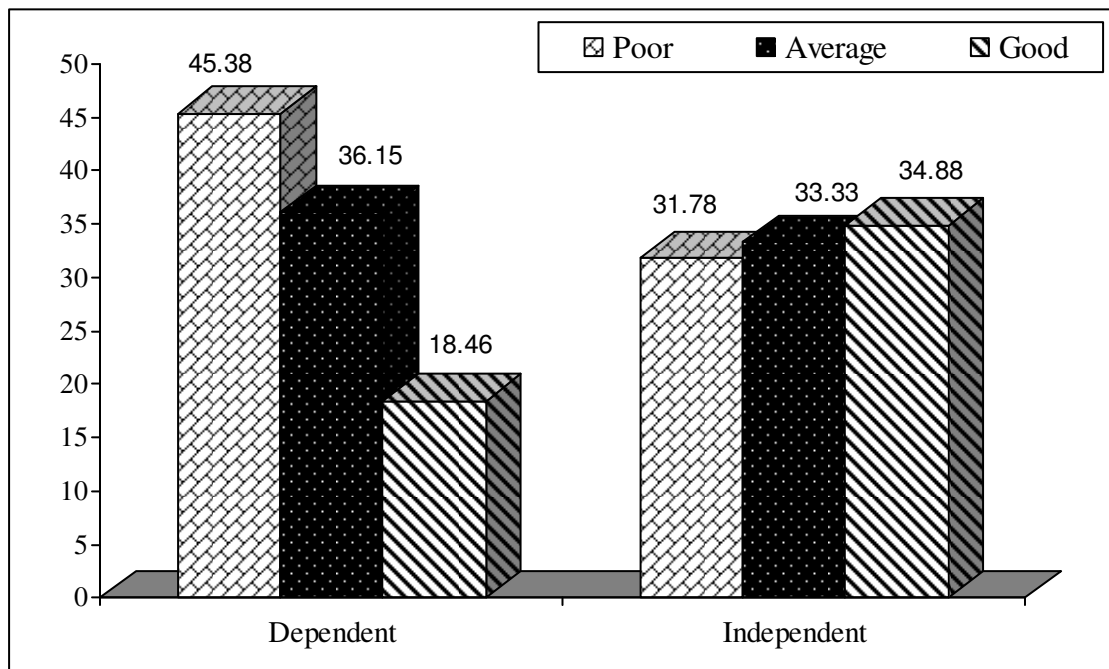


Fig. 5.61: Economic Category wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Economic Security

Table 5.61(i) presents economic category wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of economic security. This table indicates that:

1. Out of total respondents from dependent economic category, 45.85% of respondents assessed status of economic security available to them as poor, whereas 36.15% of respondents have expressed it as average and 18.46% of respondents assessed status of economic security as good.
2. Out of total respondents from independent economic category, 34.88% of respondents assessed status of economic security available to them as good, whereas 33.33% of respondents have expressed it as average and 31.78% of respondents assessed status of economic security as poor.

Table 5.61(i) also reveals that there is economic category wise difference in status of economic security viewed by respondents, as average marks of respondents belong to dependent economic category (43.331) is less (4.054) than respondents of independent economic category (47.385). To ascertain the significance of this difference, t-test is used.

Table No. - 5.61(ii)

Significance of Difference in Mean Score for Status of Economic Security Between Dependent and Independent Economic categories of Respondents

Economic Category	Frequency	Mean	SD	Diff. in Mean	Sd Error	T-value
Dependent	260	33.462	11.964	4.347	1.195	***3.637
Independent	129	37.809	10.641			

* Significant at $P = 0.05$, ** Significant at $P = 0.01$, *** Significant at $P = 0.001$

Table 5.61(ii) shows that obtained t-value for difference in mean score for status of economic security among dependent and independent respondents is 3.637, which is more than table value at $df = 387$ and $p=0.001$ (3.360). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference in mean score for status of economic security between economically dependent and independent respondents**. It also indicates that status of economic security in economically dependent respondents is less than independent respondents.

(f) Nature of household occupation and Status of Economic Security

Table No. - 5.62 (i)

Household Occupation wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Economic Security

Status of Economic Security	No. of Respondent as per their household occupation						
	Traditional		Moderate		Modern		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.
Poor	78	45.61	54	43.55	27	28.72	159
Average	63	36.84	41	33.06	33	35.11	137
Good	30	17.54	29	23.39	34	36.17	93
Total	171	100.00	124	100.00	94	100.00	389

Average marks for economic security of respondents w.r.t. household occupation

Traditional 33.29

Moderate 34.44

Modern 38.43

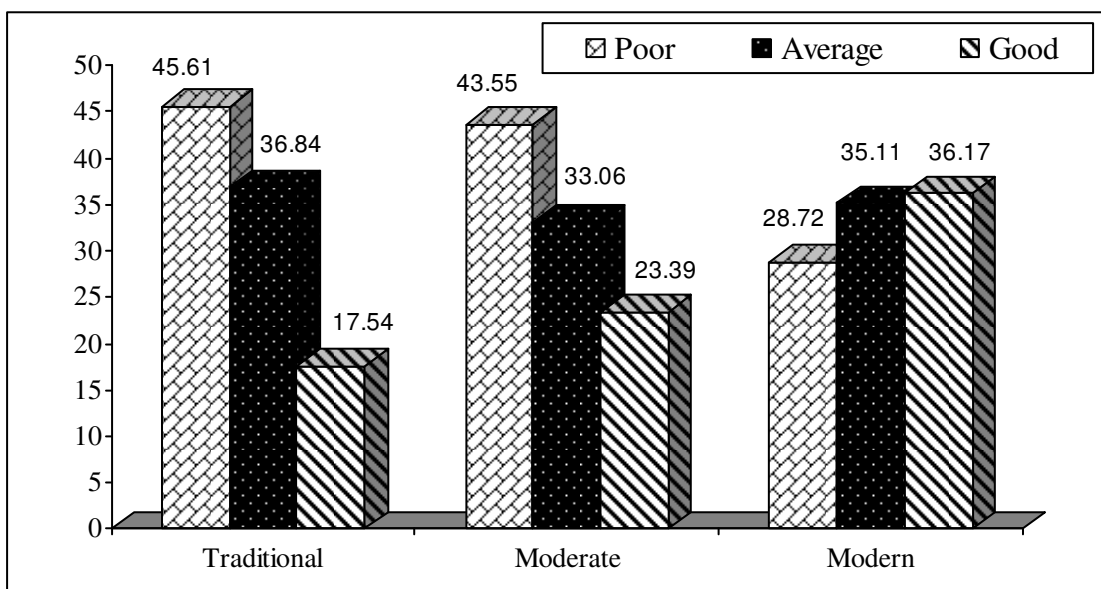


Fig. 5.62 : Household Occupation Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Economic Security

Table 5.62(i) shows the household occupation wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of economic security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents of traditional household occupation, 45.61% of respondents assessed status of economic security available to them as poor, whereas 36.84% of respondents have expressed it as average and 17.54% of respondents assessed status of economic security as good.
2. Out of total respondents of moderate household occupation, 43.55% of respondents assessed status of economic security available to them as poor, whereas 33.06% of respondents have expressed it as average and 23.39% of respondents assessed status of economic security as good.

3. Out of total respondents of modern household occupation, 36.17% of respondents assessed status of economic security available to them as good, whereas 35.11% of respondents have expressed it as average and 28.72% of respondents assessed status of economic security as poor.

Table 5.62(i) also reveals that there is a difference in status of economic security between respondents of different household occupation, as average marks obtained by respondents of traditional household occupation (33.29) is less (4.14) than respondents of modern household occupation (38.43). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.62(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Economic Security between Different Household Occupational Categories

Category of Household Occ.	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Traditional	78	69.89	63	60.22	30	40.88	171
Moderate	54	50.68	41	43.67	29	29.65	124
Modern	27	38.42	33	33.11	34	22.47	94
Total	159	159	137	137	93	93	389

$$x^2 = 13.667$$

$$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.01

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.01 = 13.667$

Table 5.62(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different household occupational categories of respondents, w.r.t. status of economic security is 13.667, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.01 significance level (13.277). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference in status of economic security between different household occupational categories.**

(g) Household Economic Status and Status of Economic Security

Table No. - 5.63 (i)

Household Income Group wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Economic Security

Status of Economic Security	No. of Respondent as per their Household Income Group						
	Low Income		Middle Income		High Income		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Poor	67	44.67	59	44.70	33	30.84	159
Average	53	35.33	46	34.85	38	35.51	137
Good	30	20.00	27	20.45	36	33.64	93
Total	150	100.00	132	100.00	107	100.00	389

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their family's income group

Low income group	33.79
Middle income group	33.85
High income group	37.76

Table 5.63(i) shows the household income group wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of economic security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents of families in low income group, 44.67% of respondents assessed status of economic security available to them as poor, whereas 35.33% of respondents have expressed it as average and 20.00% of respondents assessed status of economic security as good.
2. Out of total respondents of families in middle income group, 44.70% of respondents assessed status of economic security available to them as poor, whereas 34.85% of respondents have expressed it as average and 20.45% of respondents assessed status of economic security as good.
3. Out of total respondents of families in high income group, 35.51% of respondents assessed status of economic security available to them as average, whereas 33.64% of respondents have expressed it as good and 30.84% of respondents assessed status of economic security as poor.

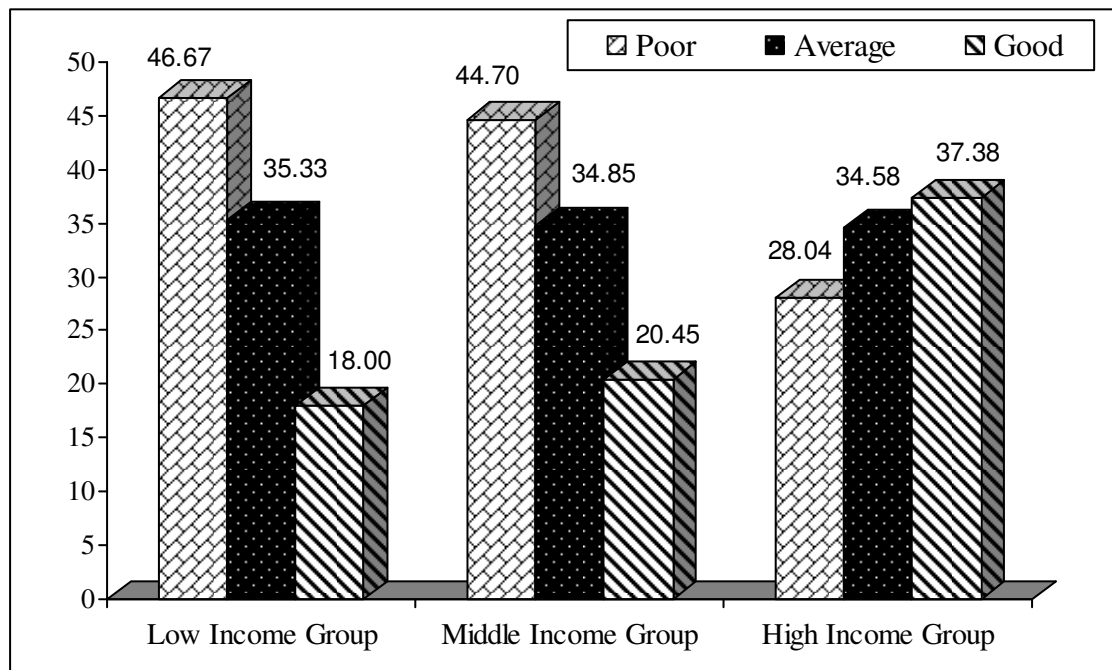


Fig. 5.63 : Household Income Group Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Economic Security

Table 5.63(i) also reveals that there is a difference in status of economic security for the respondents of different household income group, as average marks

obtained by respondents of low income group families (33.79) is less (3.97) than respondents of high income group families (37.76). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.63(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Economic Security between Different Household Income Group

Household Income Group	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Low income group	67	61.31	53	52.83	30	35.86	150
Middle income group	59	53.95	46	46.49	27	31.56	132
High income group	33	43.74	38	37.68	36	25.58	107
Total	159	159	137	137	93	93	389

$$x^2 = 9.516$$

$$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.05

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.05 = 9.488$

Table 5.63(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different household income group of respondents, w.r.t. status of economic security is 9.516, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.05 significance level (9.488). So, it can be said that there is **a significant difference in status of economic security for the respondents of different household income group.**

5.4.2.7 Relation between Socio-economic Dimensions of Respondents and Status of Political Security

(a) Geographical background and Status of Political Security

Table No. 5.64(i)

Areas wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Political Security

Status	Rural		Urban		Total	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Poor	70	35.53	79	41.15	149	38.30
Average	68	34.52	76	39.58	144	37.02
Good	59	29.95	37	19.27	96	24.68
TOTAL	197	100.00	192	100.00	389	100.00

Average marks for political security w.r.t. geographical area

Rural 36.551

Urban 34.187

Table 5.64(i) presents geographical area wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of political security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents from rural area, 35.53% of respondents feel that status of political security available to them is poor, whereas 34.52% of respondents opined it as average and 29.95% of respondents viewed the status of political security available to them as good.

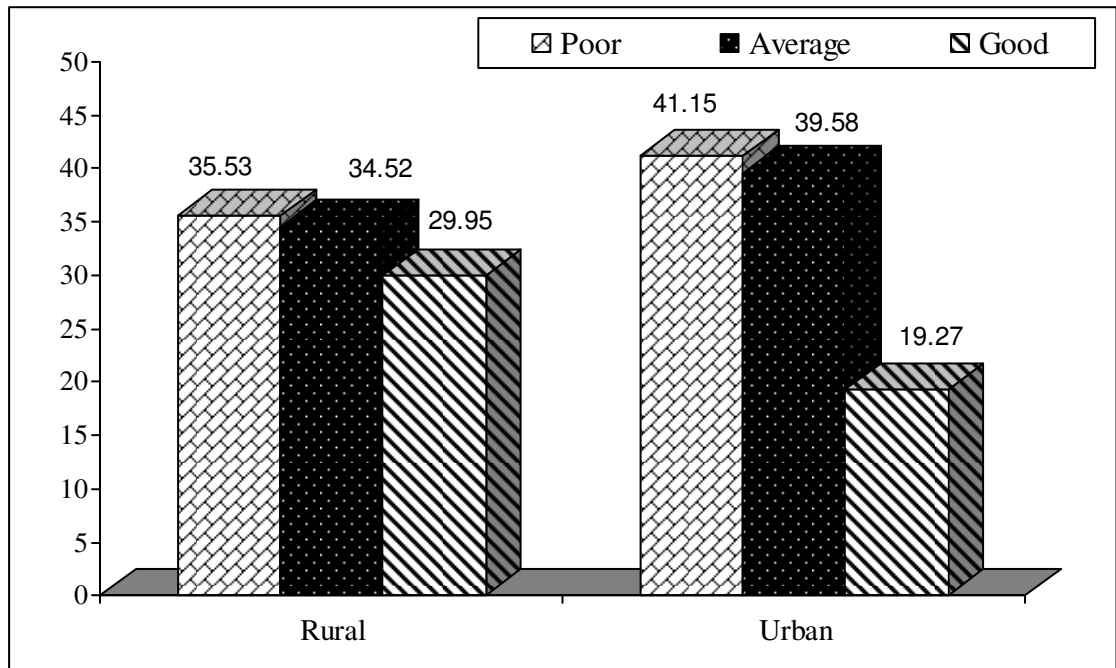


Fig. 5.64: Geographical Areas wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Political Security

2. Out of total respondents from urban area, 41.15% of respondents feel that status of political security available to them is poor, whereas 39.58% of respondents opined it as average and 19.27% of respondents viewed the status of political security available to them as good.

Table 5.64(i) also indicates that there is difference between rural and urban respondents w.r.t. status of political security, as average marks of rural respondents (36.551) is more (2.363) than urban respondents (34.187). To ascertain the significance of this difference, t-test is used.

Table No. - 5.64(ii)
Significance of Difference in Mean Score of Political Security among Rural and Urban Respondents

Area	Frequency	Mean	SD	Diff. in Mean	Sd Error	T-value
Rural	197	36.551	11.862	2.363	1.149	*2.056
Urban	192	34.187	10.795			

* Significant at $P = 0.05$, ** Significant at $P = 0.01$

Table 5.64(ii) shows that obtained t-value for difference in mean score of status of political security among rural and urban respondents is 2.056, which is more than table value at $df = 387$ and $p=0.05$ (1.977). So, it can be said that there is a **significant difference in mean score of status of political security among rural and urban respondents**. It also indicates that level of political security in rural area is less than urban area.

(b) Age-group of Respondents and Status of Political Security

Table No. - 5.65 (i)

Age-group wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Political Security

Status of Political Security	No. of Respondent as per their age group						Total No.
	Young		Middle-aged		Elderly-aged		
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Poor	44	35.48	56	35.44	49	45.79	149
Average	41	33.06	66	41.77	37	34.58	144
Good	39	31.45	36	22.78	21	19.63	96
Total	124	100.00	158	100.00	107	100.00	389

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their Age-group

Young	36.78
Middle-aged	35.52
Elderly aged	33.57

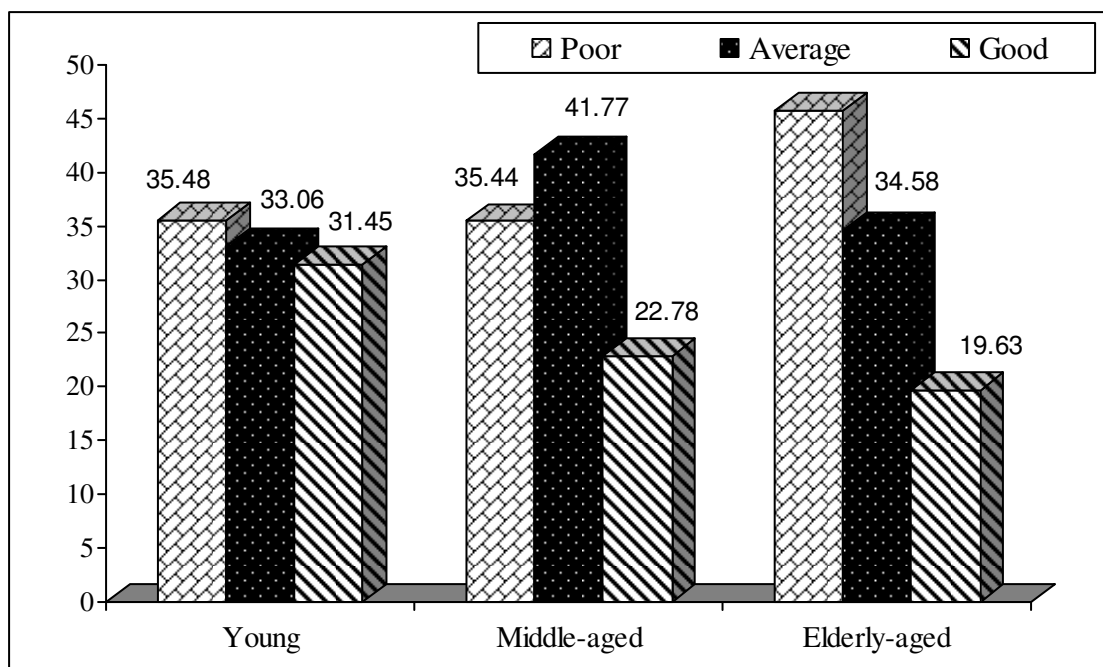


Fig. 5.65 : Age-group Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Political Security

Table 5.65(i) shows the age-wise distribution of respondents as per status of political security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents belong to young age group, 35.48% of respondents felt that status of political security available to them is poor, whereas 33.06% of respondents feel that status of political security available them is average and 31.45% of respondents have assessed it as good.
2. Out of total respondents belong to middle-aged group, 41.77% of respondents felt that status of political security available to them is average, whereas 35.44% of respondents assessed it poor and 22.78% of respondents have assessed the status of political security available to them as good.
3. Out of total respondents belong to elderly-aged group, 45.79% of respondents felt that status of political security is poor, whereas 34.58% of respondents have assessed it as average and 19.63% of respondents have assessed the status of political security available to them as good.

Table 5.65(i) also reveals that there is a age-group wise difference in status of political security as expressed by respondents, as average marks obtained by respondents belong to young age-group (36.78) is more (3.21) than respondents of elderly aged-group (33.57). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.65(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Political Security between Different Age Group

Age -Group	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Young	44	47.50	41	45.90	39	30.60	124
Middle Aged	56	60.52	66	58.49	36	38.99	158
Elderly Aged	49	40.98	37	39.61	21	26.41	107
Total	149	149	144	144	96	96	389

$$x^2 = 7.464$$

$$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.05

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.05 = 9.488$

Table 5.65(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different age-groups of respondents, w.r.t. status of political security is 7.464, which is less than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.05 significance level (9.488). So, it can be said that there is **no significant difference between respondents of different age group w.r.t. status of political security viewed by them.**

(c) Caste and Status of Political Security

Table No. - 5.66 (i)

Caste-wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Political Security

Status of Political Security	No. of Respondent as per their Caste						Total No.
	General		OBC		SC		
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Poor	75	41.21	53	40.77	21	27.27	149
Average	71	39.01	48	36.92	25	32.47	144
Good	36	19.78	29	22.31	31	40.26	96
Total	182	100.00	130	100.00	77	100.00	389

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their caste

General 34.25

OBC 34.68

SC 39.24

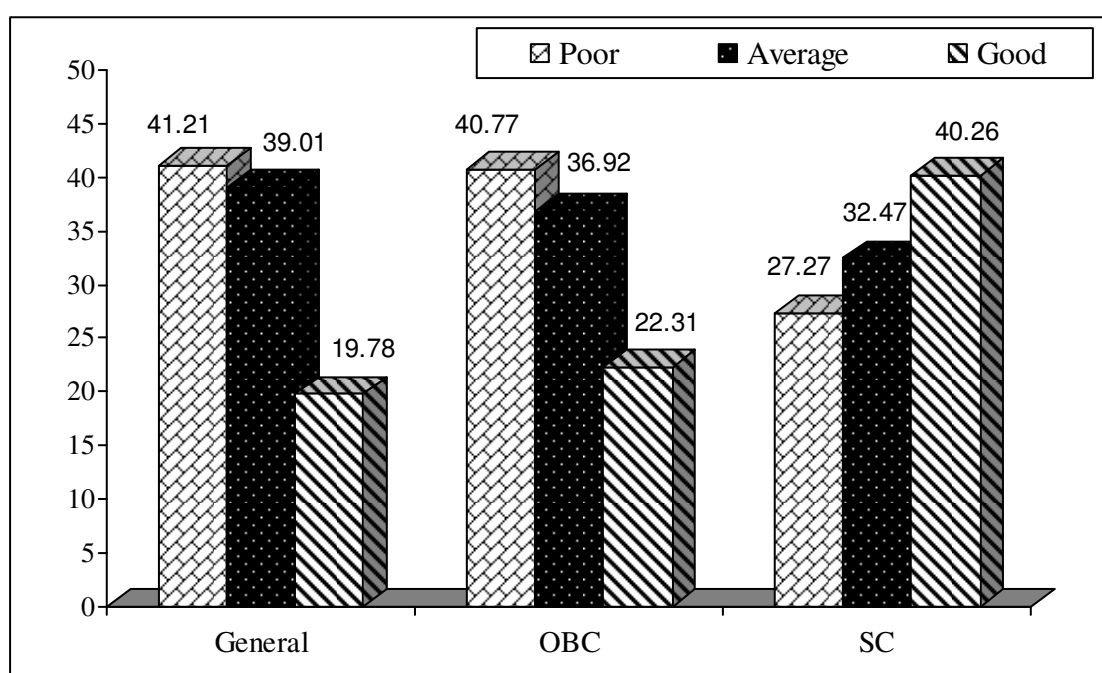


Fig. 5.66 : Caste-Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Political Security

Table 5.66(i) shows the caste-wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of political security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents belong to general caste, 41.21% of respondents assessed status of political security available to them as poor, whereas 39.01% of respondents have expressed it as average and 19.78% of respondents assessed status of political security as good.
2. Out of total respondents belong to OBC, 40.77% of respondents expressed poor status of political security; whereas 36.92% of respondents have assessed status of political security as average and 22.31% of respondents have assessed it as good.

3. Out of total respondents belong to SC, 40.26% of respondents felt that status of political security available to them is good, whereas 32.47% of respondents assessed it as average and 27.27% of respondents viewed it as poor.

Table 5.66(i) also reveals that there is difference in status of political security between respondents of different caste, as average marks obtained by respondents belong to general caste (34.25) is less (4.99) than respondents of Scheduled caste (39.24). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.66(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Political Security between Different Caste

Caste	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
General	75	69.71	71	67.37	36	44.92	182
OBC	53	49.79	48	48.12	29	32.08	130
SC	21	29.49	25	28.50	31	19.00	77
Total	149	149	144	144	96	96	389

$$x^2 = 13.320$$

$$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.01

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.01 = 13.277$

Table 5.66(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different caste of respondents, w.r.t. status of political security is 13.320, which is less than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.01 significance level (13.277). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference in status of political security between different castes.**

(d) Educational status of Respondents and Status of Political Security

Table No. - 5.67 (i)

Educational Status wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Political Security

Status of Political Security	No. of Respondent as per their Educational Status						
	Lower level		Medium level		Higher level		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Poor	61	40.13	65	39.63	23	31.51	149
Average	58	38.16	62	37.80	24	32.88	144
Good	33	21.71	37	22.56	26	35.62	96
Total	152	100.00	164	100.00	73	100.00	389

Average marks of political security as per their educational status

Lower level 34.69

Medium level 34.88

Higher level 37.96

Table 5.67(i) shows the educational status wise distribution of respondents w.r.t. status of political security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents having lower level of educational status, 40.13% of respondents assessed status of political security available to them as poor, whereas 38.16% of respondents have expressed it as average and 21.71% of respondents assessed status of political security as good.
2. Out of total respondents having medium level of education, 39.63% of respondents assessed status of political security available to them as poor, whereas 37.80% of respondents have expressed it as average and 22.56% of respondents assessed status of political security as good.

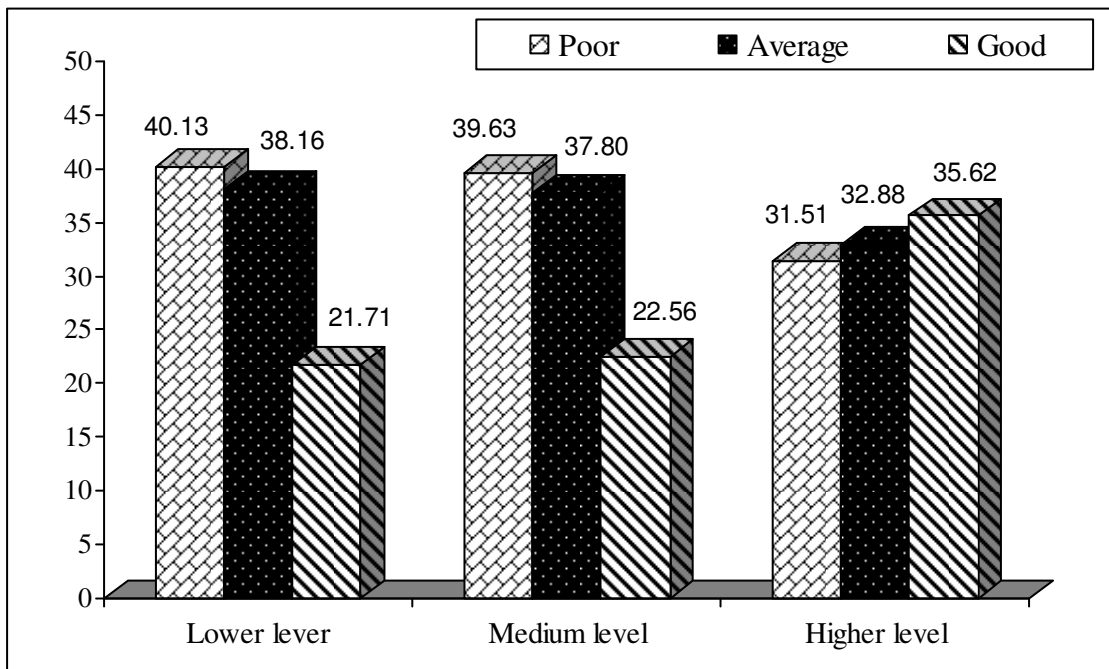


Fig. 5.67 : Educational Status Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Political Security

3. Out of total respondents having higher level of education, 35.62% of respondents assessed status of political security available to them as good, whereas 32.88% of respondents have expressed it as average and 31.51% of respondents assessed status of political security as poor.

Table 5.67(i) also reveals that there is difference in status of political security between respondents of different educational status, as average marks obtained by respondents having lower level of education (34.69) is less (3.27) than respondents having higher level of education (37.96). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.67(ii)
Significance of Difference in Status of Political Security between Different Educational Status

Educational Status	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Lower level	61	58.22	58	56.27	33	37.51	152
Medium level	65	62.82	62	60.71	37	40.47	164
Higher level	23	27.96	24	27.02	26	18.02	73
Total	149	149	144	144	96	96	389

$\chi^2 = 5.887$

$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.05

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.05 = 9.488$

Table 5.67(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different educational status of respondents, w.r.t. status of political security is 5.887, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.05 significance level (9.488). So, it can be said that there is **no significant difference in status of political security between different educational status of respondents.**

(e) **Economic Status and Status of Political Security**

Table No. 5.68(i)

Economic Category wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Political Security

Status of Political Security	Dependent		Independent		Total	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Poor	106	40.77	43	33.33	149	38.30
Average	92	35.38	52	40.31	144	37.02
Good	62	23.85	34	26.36	96	24.68
TOTAL	260	100.00	129	100.00	389	100.00

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their economic category

Dependent 34.909

Independent 36.341

Table 5.68(i) presents economic category wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of political security. This table indicates that:

1. Out of total respondents from dependent economic category, 40.77% of respondents assessed status of political security available to them as poor, whereas 35.38% of respondents have expressed it as average and 23.85% of respondents assessed status of political security as good.

2. Out of total respondents from independent economic category, 40.31% of respondents assessed status of political security available to them as average, whereas 33.33% of respondents have expressed it as poor and 26.36% of respondents assessed status of political security as good.

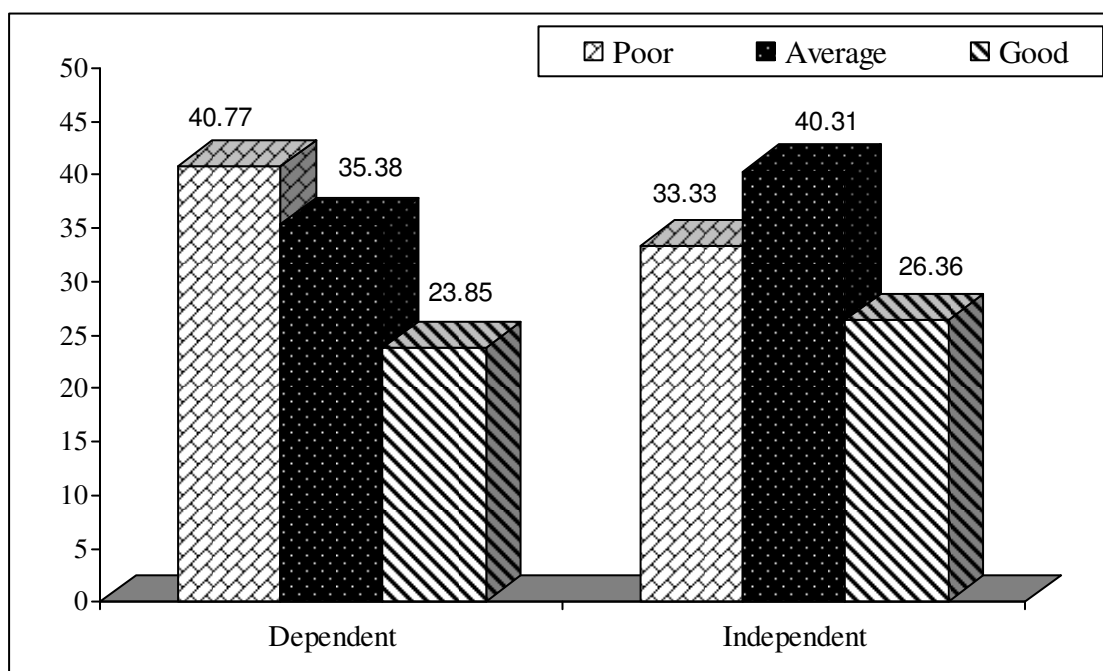


Fig. 5.68: Economic Category wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Political Security

Table 5.68(i) also reveals that there is economic category wise difference in status of political security viewed by respondents, as average marks of respondents belong to dependent economic category (34.909) is less (1.432) than respondents of independent economic category (36.341). To ascertain the significance of this difference, t-test is used.

Table No. - 5.68(ii)

Significance of Difference in Mean Score for Status of Political Security between Dependent and Independent Economic categories of Respondents

Economic Category	Frequency	Mean	SD	Diff. in Mean	Sd Error	T-value
Dependent	260	34.909	10.472	1.432	1.057	1.355
Independent	129	36.341	9.467			

* Significant at $P = 0.05$, ** Significant at $P = 0.01$

Table 5.68(ii) shows that obtained t-value for difference in mean score for status of political security among dependent and independent respondents is 1.355, which is less than table value at $df = 387$ and $p=0.05$ (1.977). So, it can be said that there is **no significant difference in mean score for status of political security between economically dependent and independent respondents**. It also indicates that status of political security in economically dependent respondents is less than independent respondents.

(f) **Nature of household occupation and Status of Political Security**

Table No. - 5.69 (i)

Household Occupation wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Political Security

Status of Political Security	No. of Respondent as per their household occupation						
	Traditional		Moderate		Modern		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Poor	58	33.92	52	41.94	39	41.49	149
Average	62	36.26	44	35.48	38	40.43	144
Good	51	29.82	28	22.58	17	18.09	96
Total	171	100.00	124	100.00	94	100.00	389

Average marks for political security of respondent's w.r.t. household occupation

Traditional 36.76

Moderate 34.56

Modern 33.97

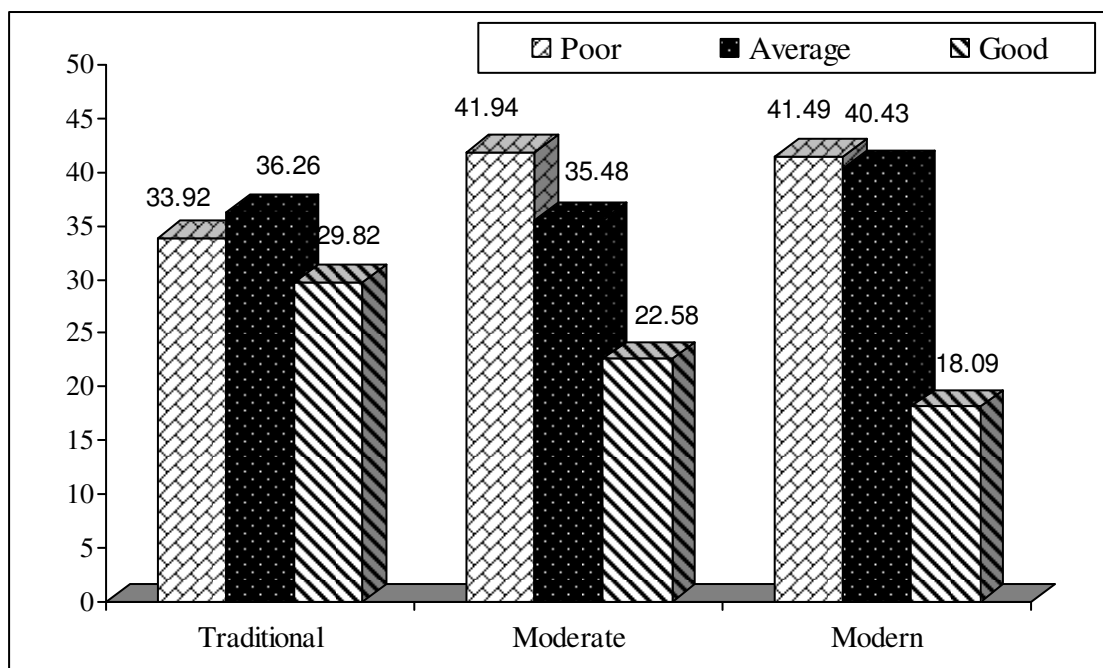


Fig. 5.69 : Household Occupation Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Political Security

Table 5.69(i) shows the household occupation wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of political security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents of traditional household occupation, 36.26% of respondents assessed status of political security available to them as average, whereas 33.92% of respondents have expressed it as poor and 29.82% of respondents assessed status of political security as good.
2. Out of total respondents of moderate household occupation, 41.94% of respondents assessed status of political security available to them as poor, whereas 35.48% of respondents have expressed it as average and 22.58% of respondents assessed status of political security as good.
3. Out of total respondents of modern household occupation, 41.49% of respondents assessed status of political security available to them as poor, whereas 40.43% of respondents have expressed it as average and 18.09% of respondents assessed status of political security as good.

Table 5.69(i) also reveals that there is a difference in status of political security between respondents of different household occupation, as average marks obtained by respondents of traditional household occupation (36.76) is more (2.79) than respondents of modern household occupation (33.97). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.69(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Political Security between Different Household Occupational Categories

Category of Household Occ.	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Traditional	58	65.50	62	63.30	51	42.20	171
Moderate	52	47.50	44	45.90	28	30.60	124
Modern	39	36.01	38	34.80	17	23.20	94
Total	149	149	144	144	96	96	389

$$x^2 = 5.647$$

$$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.05

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.05 = 9.488$

Table 5.69(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different household occupational categories of respondents, w.r.t. status of political security is 5.647, which is less than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.05 significance level (9.488). So, it can be said that there is **no significant difference in status of political security between different household occupational categories.**

(g) Household Economic Status and Status of Political Security

Table No. - 5.70 (i)

Household Income Group wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Political Security

Status of Political Security	No. of Respondent as per their Household Income Group						
	Low Income		Middle Income		High Income		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.
Poor	54	36.00	57	43.18	38	35.51	149
Average	53	35.33	49	37.12	42	39.25	144
Good	43	28.67	26	19.70	27	25.23	96
Total	150	100.00	132	100.00	107	100.00	389

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their family's income group

Low income group 36.30

Middle income group 33.96

High income group 35.86

Table 5.70(i) shows the household income group wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of political security. This table reveals that:

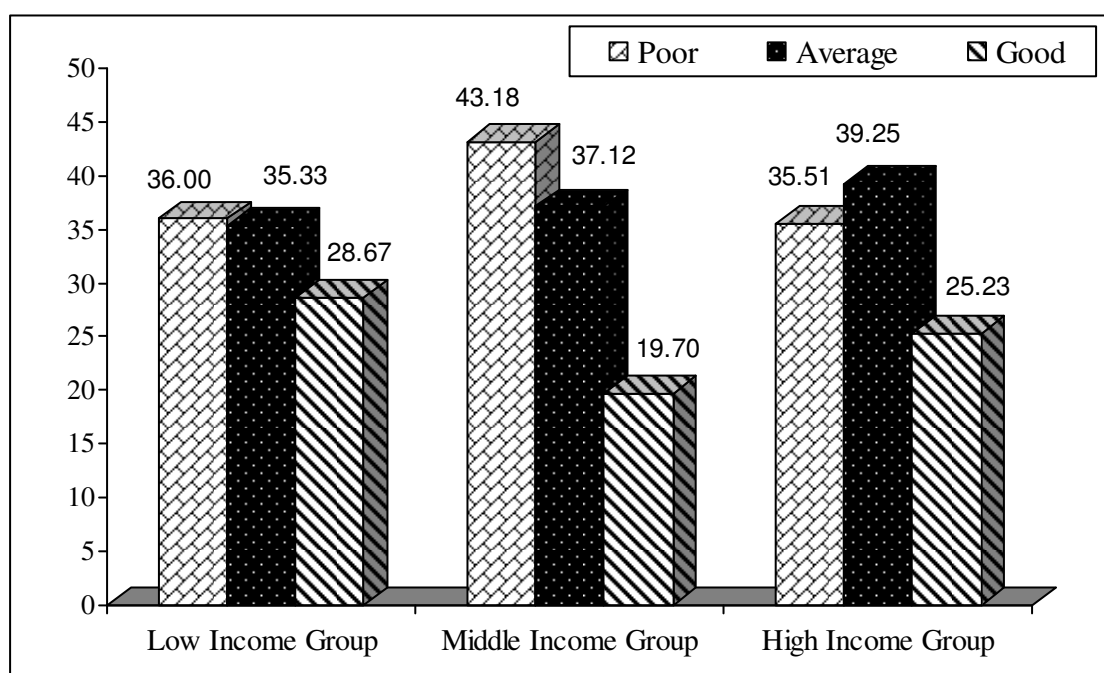


Fig. 5.70 : Household Income Group Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Political Security

1. Out of total respondents of families in low income group, 36.00% of respondents assessed status of political security available to them as poor, whereas 35.33% of respondents have expressed it as average and 28.67% of respondents assessed status of political security as good.

2. Out of total respondents of families in middle income group, 43.18% of respondents assessed status of political security available to them as poor, whereas 37.12% of respondents have expressed it as average and 19.70% of respondents assessed status of political security as good.
3. Out of total respondents of families in high income group, 39.25% of respondents assessed status of political security available to them as average, whereas 35.51% of respondents have expressed it as poor and 25.23% of respondents assessed status of political security as poor.

Table 5.70(i) also reveals that there is a difference in status of political security for the respondents of different household income group, as average marks obtained by respondents of low income group families (36.30) is more (2.34) than respondents of middle income group families (33.96). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.70(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Political Security between Different Household Income Group

Household Income Group	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Low income group	54	57.46	53	55.53	43	37.02	150
Middle income group	57	50.56	49	48.86	26	32.58	132
High income group	38	40.98	42	39.61	27	26.41	107
Total	149	149	144	144	96	96	389

$$x^2 = 3.812$$

$$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.05

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.05 = 9.488$

Table 5.70(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different household income group of respondents, w.r.t. status of political security is 3.812, which is less than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.05 significance level (9.488). So, it can be said that there is **no significant difference in status of political security for the respondents of different household income group.**

5.4.2.8 Relation between Socio-economic Dimensions of Respondents and Status of Environment Security

(a) Geographical background and Status of Environment Security

Table No. 5.71(i)

Areas wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Environment Security

Status	Rural		Urban		Total	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Poor	72	36.55	79	41.15	151	38.82
Average	69	35.03	70	36.46	139	35.73
Good	56	28.43	43	22.40	99	25.45
TOTAL	197	100.00	192	100.00	389	100.00

Average marks for environment security w.r.t. geographical area

Rural	36.183
Urban	34.644

Table 5.71(i) presents geographical area wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of environment security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents from rural area, 36.55% of respondents feel that status of environment security available to them is poor, whereas 35.03% of respondents opined it as average and 28.43% of respondents viewed the status of environment security available to them as good.

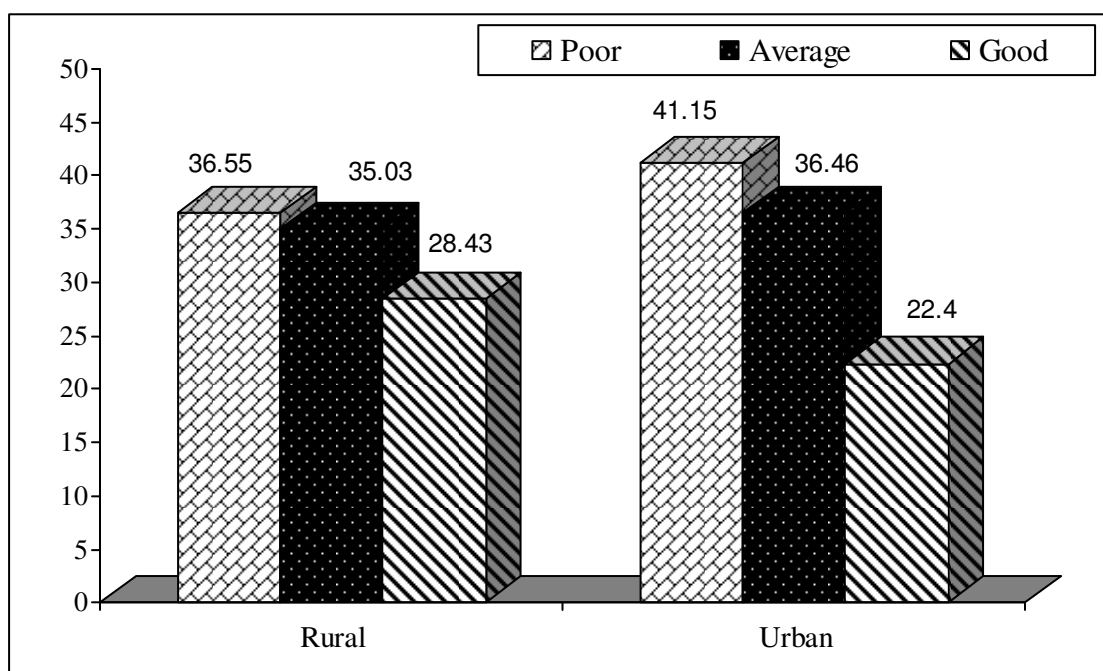


Fig. 5.71: Geographical Areas wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Environment Security

2. Out of total respondents from urban area, 41.15% of respondents feel that status of environment security available to them is poor, whereas 36.46% of respondents opined it as average and 22.40% of respondents viewed the status of environment security available to them as good.

Table 5.71(i) also indicates that there is difference between rural and urban respondents w.r.t. status of environment security, as average marks of rural respondents (36.183) is less (3.49) than urban respondents (34.644). To ascertain the significance of this difference, t-test is used.

Table No. - 5.71(ii)
Significance of Difference in Mean Score of Environment Security among Rural and Urban Respondents

Area	Frequency	Mean	SD	Diff. in Mean	Sd Error	T-value
Rural	197	36.183	11.816	1.539	1.114	1.345
Urban	192	34.644	10.735			

* Significant at $P = 0.05$, ** Significant at $P = 0.01$

Table 5.71(ii) shows that obtained t-value for difference in mean score of status of environment security among rural and urban respondents is 1.345, which is less than table value at $df = 387$ and $p=0.05$ (1.977). So, it can be said that there is **no significant difference in mean score of status of environment security among rural and urban respondents**. It also indicates that level of environment security in rural area is less than urban area.

(b) Age-group of Respondents and Status of Environment Security

Table No. - 5.72 (i)
Age-group wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Environment Security

Status of Environment Security	No. of Respondent as per their age group						
	Young		Middle-aged		Elderly-aged		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Poor	44	35.48	61	38.61	46	42.99	151
Average	41	33.06	59	37.34	39	36.45	139
Good	39	31.45	38	24.05	22	20.56	99
Total	124	100.00	158	100.00	107	100.00	389

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their Age-group

Young 36.78

Middle-aged	35.25
Elderly aged	34.11

Table 5.72(i) shows the age-wise distribution of respondents as per status of environment security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents belong to young age group, 35.48% of respondents felt that status of environment security available to them is poor, whereas 33.06% of respondents feel that status of environment security available them is average and 31.45% of respondents have assessed it as good.
2. Out of total respondents belong to middle-aged group, 38.61% of respondents felt that status of environment security available to them is poor, whereas 37.34% of respondents assessed it average and 24.05% of respondents have assessed the status of environment security available to them as good.

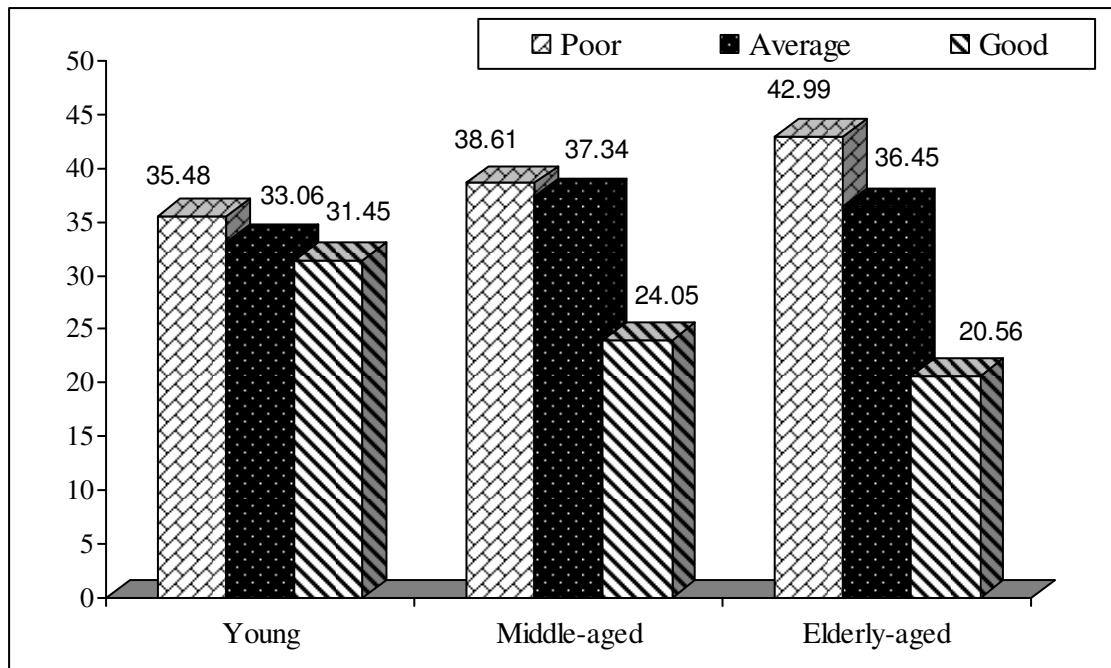


Fig. 5.72 : Age-group Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Environment Security

3. Out of total respondents belong to elderly-aged group, 42.99% of respondents felt that status of environment security is poor, whereas 36.45% of respondents have assessed it as average and 20.56% of respondents have assessed the status of environment security available to them as good.

Table 5.72(i) also reveals that there is a age-group wise difference in status of environment security as expressed by respondents, as average marks obtained by respondents belong to young age-group (36.78) is more (2.67) than respondents of

elderly aged-group (34.11). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.72(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Environment Security between Different Age Group

Age -Group	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Young	44	48.13	41	44.31	39	31.56	124
Middle Aged	61	61.33	59	56.46	38	40.21	158
Elderly Aged	46	41.53	39	38.23	22	27.23	107
Total	151	151	139	139	99	99	389

$x^2 = 4.095$

$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.05

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.05 = 9.488$

Table 5.72(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different age-groups of respondents, w.r.t. status of environment security is 4.095, which is less than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.05 significance level (9.488). So, it can be said that there is **no significant difference between respondents of different age group w.r.t. status of environment security viewed by them.**

(c) Caste and Status of Environment Security

Table No. - 5.73 (i)

Caste-wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Environment Security

Status of Environment Security	No. of Respondent as per their Caste						
	General		OBC		SC		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Poor	58	31.87	54	41.54	39	50.65	151
Average	68	37.36	47	36.15	24	31.17	139
Good	56	30.77	29	22.31	14	18.18	99
Total	182	100.00	130	100.00	77	100.00	389

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their caste

General 37.20

OBC 34.57

SC 32.67

Table 5.73(i) shows the social caste-wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of environment security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents belong to general caste, 37.36% of respondents assessed status of environment security available to them as average, whereas 31.87% of respondents have expressed it as poor and 30.77% of respondents assessed status of environment security as good.

2. Out of total respondents belong to OBC, 41.54% of respondents expressed poor status of environment security; whereas 36.15% of respondents have assessed status of environment security as average and 22.31% of respondents have assessed it as good.

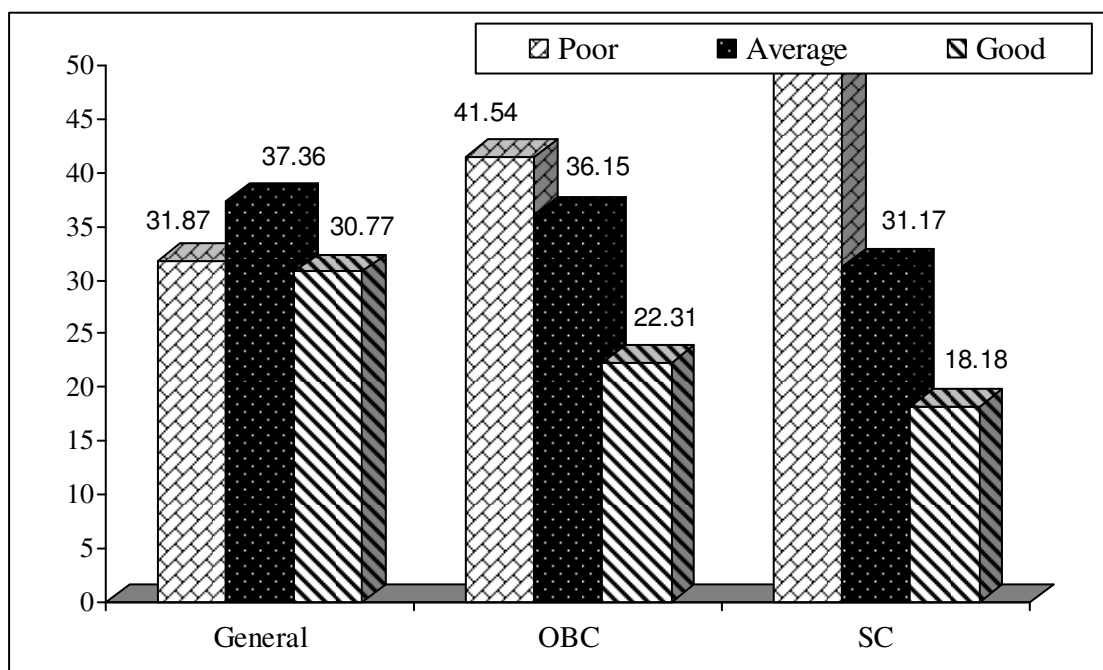


Fig. 5.73 : Caste-Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Environment Security

3. Out of total respondents belong to SC, 50.65% of respondents felt that status of environment security available to them is poor, whereas 31.17% of respondents assessed it as average and 18.18% of respondents viewed it as good.

Table 5.73(i) also reveals that there is difference in status of environment security between respondents of different caste, as average marks obtained by respondents belong to general caste (37.20) is more (4.53) than respondents of Scheduled caste (32.67). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.73(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Environment Security between Different Caste

Caste	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
General	58	70.65	68	65.03	56	46.32	182
OBC	54	50.46	47	46.45	29	33.08	130
SC	39	29.89	24	27.51	14	19.60	77
Total	151	151	139	139	99	99	389

$x^2 = 10.006$

$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.05

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.05 = 9.488$

Table 5.73(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different caste of respondents, w.r.t. status of environment security is 10.006, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.05 significance level (9.488). So, it can be said that there is **a significant difference in status of environment security between different caste.**

(d) Educational status of Respondents and Status of Environment Security

Table No. - 5.74 (i)

Educational Status wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Environment Security

Status of Environment Security	No. of Respondent as per their Educational Status						
	Lower level		Medium level		Higher level		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Poor	69	45.39	61	37.20	21	28.77	151
Average	52	34.21	63	38.41	24	32.88	139
Good	31	20.39	40	24.39	28	38.36	99
Total	152	100.00	164	100.00	73	100.00	389

Average marks of environment security as per their educational status

Lower level 33.74

Medium level 35.50

Higher level 38.75

Table 5.74(i) shows the educational status wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of environment security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents having lower level of educational status, 45.39% of respondents assessed status of environment security available to them as poor, whereas 34.21% of respondents have expressed it as average and 20.39% of respondents assessed status of environment security as good.

2. Out of total respondents having medium level of education, 38.41% of respondents assessed status of environment security available to them as poor, whereas 37.20% of respondents have expressed it as average and 24.39% of respondents assessed status of environment security as good.

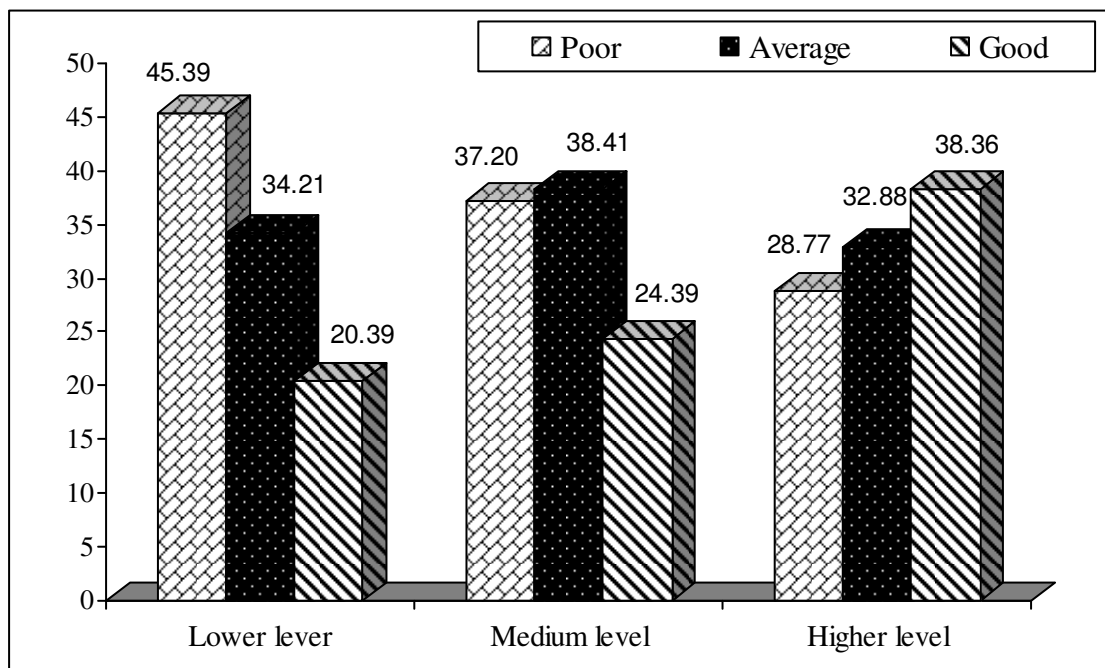


Fig. 5.74 : Educational Status Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Environment Security

3. Out of total respondents having higher level of education, 38.36% of respondents assessed status of environment security available to them as good, whereas 32.88% of respondents have expressed it as average and 28.77% of respondents assessed status of environment security as poor.

Table 5.74(i) also reveals that there is difference in status of environment security between respondents of different educational status, as average marks obtained by respondents having lower level of education (33.74) is less (5.01) than respondents having higher level of education (38.75). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.74(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Environment Security between Different Educational Status

Educational Status	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Lower level	69	59.00	52	54.31	31	38.68	152
Medium level	61	63.66	63	58.60	40	41.74	164
Higher level	21	28.34	24	26.08	28	18.58	73
Total	151	151	139	139	99	99	389

$x^2 = 10.677$

$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.05

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.05 = 10.677$

Table 5.74(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different educational status of respondents, w.r.t. status of environment security is 10.677, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.05 significance level (9.488). So, it can be said that there is **a significant difference in status of environment security between different educational status of respondents.**

(e) Nature of household occupation and Status of Environment Security

Table No. - 5.75 (i)

Household Occupation wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Environment Security

Status of Environment Security	No. of Respondent as per their household occupation						
	Traditional		Moderate		Modern		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Poor	74	43.27	49	39.52	28	29.79	151
Average	64	37.43	44	35.48	31	32.98	139
Good	33	19.30	31	25.00	35	37.23	99
Total	171	100.00	124	100.00	94	100.00	389

Average marks for environment security of respondent's w.r.t. household occupation

Traditional	33.89
Moderate	35.26
Modern	38.44

Table 5.75(i) shows the household occupation wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of environment security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents of traditional household occupation, 43.27% of respondents assessed status of environment security available to them as poor,

whereas 37.43% of respondents have expressed it as average and 19.30% of respondents assessed status of environment security as good.

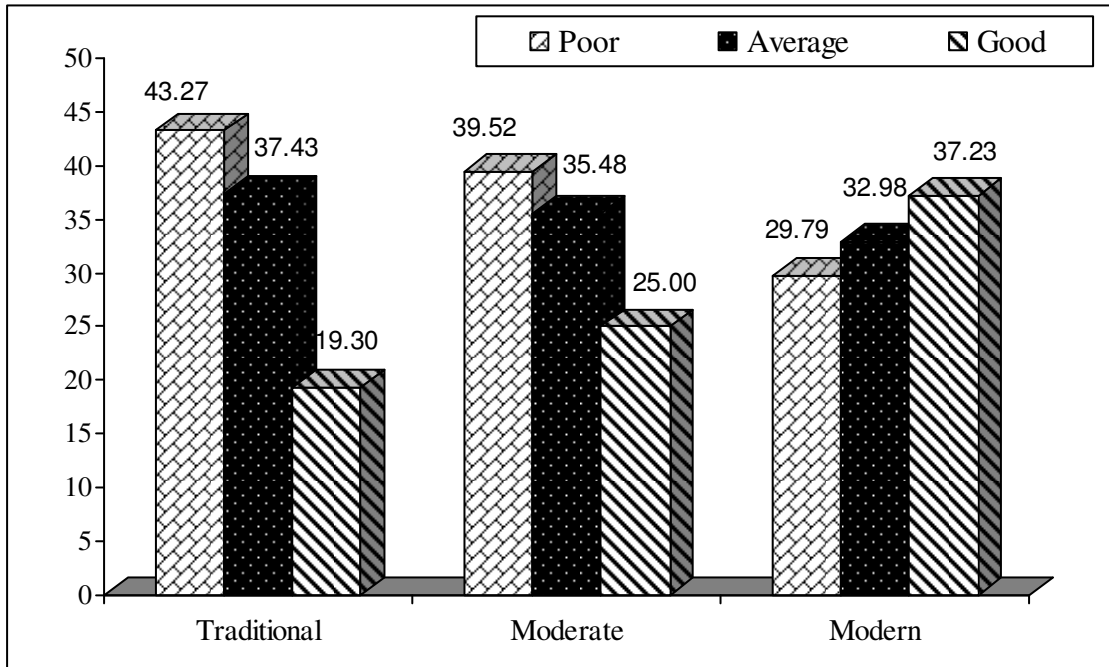


Fig. 5.75 : Household Occupation Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Environment Security

2. Out of total respondents of moderate household occupation, 39.52% of respondents assessed status of environment security available to them as poor, whereas 35.48% of respondents have expressed it as average and 25.00% of respondents assessed status of environment security as good.
3. Out of total respondents of modern household occupation, 37.23% of respondents assessed status of environment security available to them as good, whereas 32.98% of respondents have expressed it as average and 29.79% of respondents assessed status of environment security as poor.

Table 5.75(i) also reveals that there is a difference in status of environment security between respondents of different household occupation, as average marks obtained by respondents of traditional household occupation (33.89) is less (4.55) than respondents of modern household occupation (38.44). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.75(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Environment Security between Different Household Occupational Categories

Category of Household Occ.	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Traditional	74	66.38	64	61.10	33	43.52	171
Moderate	49	48.13	44	44.31	31	31.56	124
Modern	28	36.49	31	33.59	35	23.92	94
Total	151	151	139	139	99	99	389

$x^2 = 10.886$

$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.05

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.05 = 9.488$

Table 5.75(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different household occupational categories of respondents, w.r.t. status of environment security is 10.886, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.05 significance level (9.488). So, it can be said that there is **significant difference in status of environment security between different household occupational categories.**

(f) Household Economic Status and Status of Environment Security

Table No. - 5.76 (i)

Household Income Group wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Environment Security

Status of Environment Security	No. of Respondent as per their Household Income Group						
	Low Income		Middle Income		High Income		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Poor	66	44.00	56	42.42	29	27.10	151
Average	56	37.33	45	34.09	38	35.51	139
Good	28	18.67	31	23.48	40	37.38	99
Total	150	100.00	132	100.00	107	100.00	389

Average marks obtained by respondents as per their family's income group

Low income group	33.69
Middle income group	34.62
High income group	38.84

Table 5.76(i) shows the household income group wise distribution of respondent's w.r.t. status of environment security. This table reveals that:

1. Out of total respondents of families in low income group, 44.00% of respondents assessed status of environment security available to them as poor,

whereas 37.33% of respondents have expressed it as average and 18.67% of respondents assessed status of environment security as good.

2. Out of total respondents of families in middle income group, 42.42% of respondents assessed status of environment security available to them as poor, whereas 34.09% of respondents have expressed it as average and 23.48% of respondents assessed status of environment security as good.

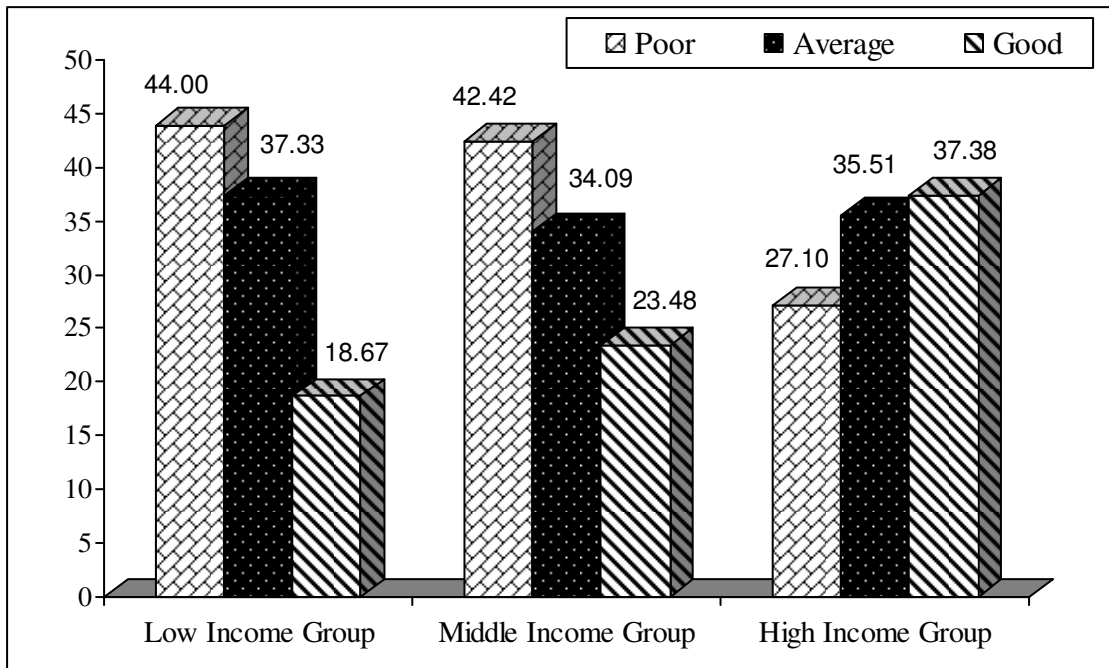


Fig. 5.76 : Household Income Group Wise Distribution of Respondents w.r.t. Status of Environment Security

3. Out of total respondents of families in high income group, 37.38% of respondents assessed status of environment security available to them as good, whereas 35.51% of respondents have expressed it as average and 27.10% of respondents assessed status of environment security as poor.

Table 5.76(i) also reveals that there is a difference in status of environment security for the respondents of different household income group, as average marks obtained by respondents of low income group families (33.69) is less (5.15) than respondents of high income group families (38.84). To ascertain the significance of this difference, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 5.76(ii)

Significance of Difference in Status of Environment Security between Different Household Income Group

Household Income Group	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Low income group	66	58.23	56	53.60	28	38.17	150
Middle income group	56	51.24	45	47.17	31	33.59	132
High income group	29	41.53	38	38.23	40	27.23	107
Total	151	151	139	139	99	99	389

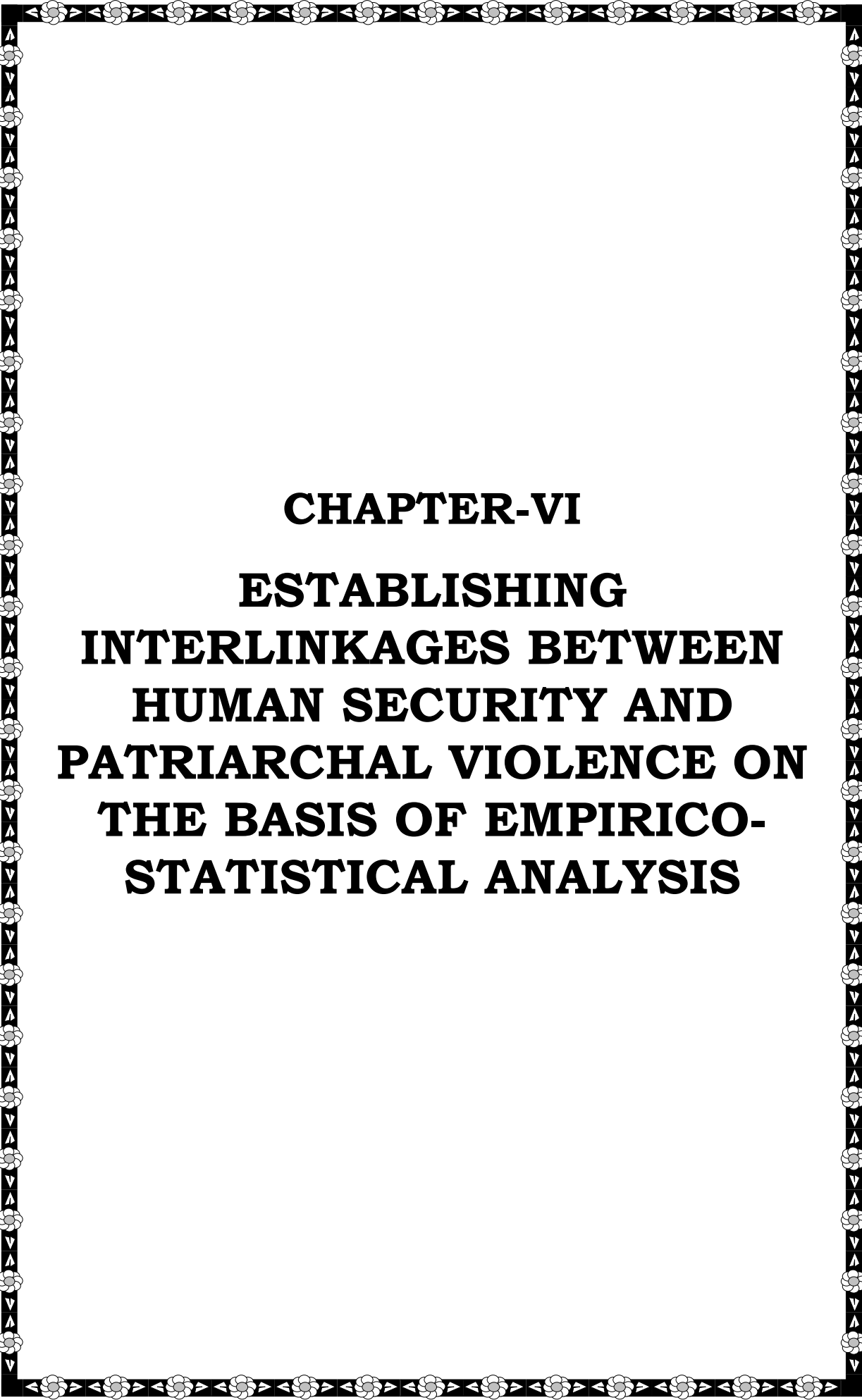
$\chi^2 = 14.371$

$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.01

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.01 = 13.277$

Table 5.76(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for different household income group of respondents, w.r.t. status of environment security is 14.371, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.01 significance level (13.277). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant difference in status of environment security for the respondents of different household income group.**



CHAPTER-VI

**ESTABLISHING
INTERLINKAGES BETWEEN
HUMAN SECURITY AND
PATRIARCHAL VIOLENCE ON
THE BASIS OF EMPIRICO-
STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

CHAPTER-VI

ESTABLISHING INTERLINKAGES BETWEEN HUMAN SECURITY AND PATRIARCHAL VIOLENCE ON THE BASIS OF EMPIRICO- STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Human security describes a condition of existence in which basic material needs are met, and in which human dignity, including meaningful participation in the life of the community, can be realized. Such human security is indivisible; it cannot be pursued by or for one group at the expense of another.¹

Advocating the broad focus, several academics (Axworthy, 2001²; Hampson, et al. 2002³; Bajpai, 2003⁴; Alkire, 2004⁵; Thakur, 2004⁶) proposed that poverty, health and environmental problems be included in the definition. The Commission of Human Security shares this approach. Owen (2004) defined Human Security as "the protection of the vital core of all human lives from critical and pervasive environmental, economic, food, and health, personal and political threats". This definition is very close to the UNDP definition of human security that proposed 'safety from chronic threats such as hunger, disease and repression', along with 'protection from sudden and hurtful disruption in the patterns of daily life.'⁷

Sen (2002)⁸ explains that the concept of human security ought to include the following 'distinct elements':

- a clear focus on individual human lives,

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1. Thomas, C. (2001), Global Governance, Development and Human Security : Exploring the Links. *The World Quarterly*, Vol. 22, No. 2, pp. 159-79.
 2. Axworthy, L. (2001), "Human Security and Global Governance : Putting People First", *Global Governance*, Vol. 7, No. 1, pp. 19-23.
 3. Hampson, F.O., J. Daudelin, J.B. Hay, T. Martin, and H. Reid (2002), *Madness in the Multitude: Human Security and World Disorder*, Oxford University Press, Ottawa.
 4. Bajpai, K. (2003), 'The Idea of Human Security' *International Studies*, Vol. 40, No. 3, pp. 195-228.
 5. Alkire, S. (2004), A vital core that must be treated with the same gravitas as traditional security threats. *Security Dialogue*, Vol. 35, pp. 359-60.
 6. Thakur, R. (2004), A Political Worldview, *Security Dialogue*, Vol. 35, pp. 347-48.
 7. U.N.D.P. (1994), *Human Development Report : New Dimensions of Human Security*. United Nations Development Programme, UNO, New York, p. 23.
 8. Sen, A. (2002), *Basic Education and Human Security*. Background paper for 'Basic Education and Human Security' workshop, jointly organized by the Commission on Human Security, UNICEF, the Pratichi (India) Trust, and Harvard University, 2-4 January, Kolkata.

- an appreciation of the role of society and of social arrangements in making human lives more secure in a constructive way;
- a reasoned concentration on the downside risks of human lives, rather than on the overall expansion of effective freedom in general;
- a chosen focus, again, on the 'downside' in emphasizing the more elementary human rights.

Violence against women is the most pervasive yet under recognized human rights violation in the world. It is also a profound health problem that saps women's energy, compromises their physical and mental health, and erodes their self-esteem. In addition to causing injury, violence increases women's long-term risk of a number of other health problems, including chronic pain, physical disability, drug and alcohol abuse, and depression.⁹ Women with a history of physical or sexual abuse are also at increased risk for unintended pregnancy, sexually transmitted infections, and miscarriages.¹⁰ Despite the high costs of violence against women, social institutions in almost every society in the world legitimize, obscure, and deny abuse.¹¹

For over three decades, women's advocacy groups around the world have been working to draw more attention to the physical, psychological, and sexual abuse of women and to stimulate action. They have provided abused women with shelter, lobbied for legal reforms, and challenged the widespread attitudes and beliefs that support violence against women.¹²

Women are more likely to be physically assaulted or murdered by someone they know, often a family member or intimate partner.¹³ They are also at greater risk of being sexually assaulted or exploited, either in childhood, adolescence, or as adults. Women are vulnerable to different types of violence at different moments in their lives.

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9. WHO (2002), *World Report on Violence and Health*, World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland.
 10. Campbell, J., Garcia-Moreno, C., Sharps, P. (2004), Abuse During Pregnancy in Industrialized and Developing Countries. *Violence against Women*, Vol. 10, No. 7, pp. 770-789.
 11. Campbell, J.C. (2002), Health Consequences of Intimate Partner Violence, *Lancet*, Vol. 359, No. 9314, pp. 1331-36.
 12. Heise, L., Ellsberg, M., Gottemoeller, M. (1999), *Ending Violence Against Women*, Population Information Program, Report Series L, No. 11, School of Public Health, John's Hopkins University, Baltimore.
 13. Heise, L., Ellsberg, M., Gottemoeller, M. (1999), *Ending Violence Against Women*, Population Information Program, Report Series L, No. 11, School of Public Health, John's Hopkins University, Baltimore.

One frequently used model for understanding intimate partner abuse and sexual abuse of girls is the "family violence" framework, which has been developed primarily from the fields of sociology and psychology.¹⁴ "Family violence" refers to all forms of abuse within the family regardless of the age or sex of the victim or the perpetrator.¹⁵ Although women are frequently victimized by a spouse, parent, or other family member, the concept of "family violence" does not encompass the many types of violence to which women are exposed outside the home, such as sexual assault and harassment in the workplace. Moreover, feminist researchers find the assumption of gender neutrality in the term "family violence" problematic because it fails to highlight that violence in the family is mostly perpetrated by men against women and children.

There is increasing international consensus that the abuse of women and girls, regardless of where it occurs, should be considered as "gender-based violence," as it largely stems from women's subordinate status in society with regard to men. Even when the abuse of women by male partners is conceptualized as gender based violence, the terms used to describe this type of violence are not consistent. In many parts of the world, the term "domestic violence" refers to the abuse of women by current or former male intimate partners.¹⁶ However, in some regions, including Latin America, "domestic violence" refers to any violence that takes place in the home, including violence against children and the elderly.¹⁷ The term "battered women" is widely used in the United States and Europe to describe women who experience a pattern of systematic domination and physical assault by their male partners. The terms "spouse abuse," "sexualized violence," "intimate partner violence" and "wife abuse" or "wife assault" is generally used interchangeably, although each term has weaknesses. "Spouse abuse" and "intimate partner violence" do not make explicit that

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14. Denzin, N.K. (1984), Toward a Phenomenology of Domestic Family Violence, *American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. 90, pp. 483-513.
 15. Straus, M.A., and Gelles, R.J. (1986), Societal Change and Change in Family Violence from 1975 to 1985 as Revealed by Two National Surveys, *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, Vol. 48, pp. 465-480.
 16. Fischbach, R.L., and Herbert, B. (1997), Domestic Violence and Mental Health : Correlates and Conundrums Within and Across Cultures, *Social Science and Medicine*, Vol. 45, No. 8, pp. 1161-1176.
 17. Kornblit, A.L. (1994), Domestic Violence : An Emerging Health Issue. *Social Science and Medicine*, Vol. 39, pp. 1181-1188.

the victims are generally women, whereas "wife abuse" and "wife assault" can be read to exclude common-law unions and dating violence.¹⁸

Many Studies (Walker, et al., 1993¹⁹; Golding, 1996²⁰; Golding, 1996²¹; Campbell, et al., 2002²²) consistently link such disorders with a history of physical or sexual abuse. Women who have been abused also tend to experience poorer physical functioning, more physical symptoms, and more days in bed than do women who have not been abused. For many women, the psychological consequences of abuse are even more serious than its physical effects. The experience of abuse often erodes women's self-esteem and puts them at greater risk of a variety of mental health problems, including depression, anxiety, phobias, and post-traumatic stress disorder, and alcohol and drug abuse.²³

Many researchers (Heise, 1998²⁴; Jewkes, 2002²⁵; Jewkes, Levin, and Penn-Kekana, 2002²⁶; Koenig et al., 2003²⁷; Koenig et al., 2004²⁸) have used "ecological framework" to understand the interplay of personal, situational, and socio-cultural factors that combine to cause abuse. In the ecological framework, violence against women results from the interaction of factors at different levels of the social environment.

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18. Johnson, J, and Sacco, V. (1995), Researching Violence Against Women: Statistics Canada's National Survey, *Canadian Journal of Criminology*, Vol. 37, pp. 281-304.
 19. Walker, E.A., Katon, W.J., Roy-Byrne, P.P., Jemelka, R.P., Russo, J. (1993), Histories of Sexual Victimization in Patients with Irritable Bowel Syndrome or Inflammatory Bowel Disease, *American Journal of Psychiatry*, Vol. 150, No. 10, pp. 1502-1506.
 20. Golding, J. (1996), Sexual Assault History and Women's Reproductive and Sexual Health, *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, Vol. 20, pp. 101-121.
 21. Golding, J.M. (1996), Sexual Assault History and Limitations in Physical Functioning in Two General Population Samples, *Research in Nursing and Health*, Vol. 19, No. 1, pp. 33-44.
 22. Campbell, J., Jones, A.S., Dienemann, J., et al. (2002), Intimate Partner Violence and Physical Health Consequences, *Archives of Internal Medicine*, Vol. 162, No. 10, pp. 1157-1163.
 23. Heise, L., Ellsberg, M., Gottemoeller, M. (1999), *Ending Violence Against Women*, Population Information Program, Report Series L, No. 11, School of Public Health, John's Hopkins University, Baltimore.
 24. Heise, L. (1998), Violence Against Women : An Integrated, Ecological Framework, *Violence Against Women*, Vol. 4, No. 3, pp. 262-290.
 25. Jewkes, R. (2002), Intimate Partner Violence : Causes and Prevention, *Lancet*, Vol. 359, No. 9315, pp. 1423-1429.
 26. Jewkes, R., Levin, J., Penn-Kekana, L. (2002), Risk Factors for Domestic Violence: Findings From a South African Cross-Sectional Study, *Social Science and Medicine*, Vol. 55, No. 9, pp. 1603-1617.
 27. Koenig, M., Lutalo, T., Zhao, F., et al. (2003), Domestic Violence in Rural Uganda: Evidence From a Community-Based Study. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, Vol. 81, pp. 53-60.
 28. Koenig, M.A., Lutalo, T., Zhao, F., et al. (2004), Coercive Sex in Rural Uganda: Prevalence and Associated Risk Factors. *Social Science and Medicine*, Vol. 58, pp. 787-798.

The ecological framework combines individual level risk factors with family, community, and society level factors identified through cross cultural studies, and helps explain why some societies and some individuals are more violent than others, and why women, especially wives, are so much more likely to be the victims of violence within the family. Other factors combine to protect some women. For example, women who have authority and power outside the family tend to experience lower levels of abuse in intimate partnerships. Likewise, when family members and friends intervene promptly, they appear to reduce the likelihood of domestic violence. In contrast, wives are more frequently abused in cultures where family affairs are considered "private" and outside public scrutiny.

It is broadly theorised that increased gender equality will lead to decreased violence against women.²⁹ Achieving gender equality is a key goal in the prevention of violence against women by those aiming to reduce gendered violence.³⁰ Attitudes about the legitimacy of violence against women are an important indicator of widespread societal acceptance or otherwise of violence against women.³¹ In addition, community judgements about violence against women are influenced by more general attitudes to gender and sexuality. These attitudes vary within different cultural contexts and suggest that socio-cultural factors may be more important than gender alone in influencing attitudes to violence against women. These attitudes reflect gender norms and social beliefs about male and female roles and positions in society.³² Gender equality mean that the work of men and women is more equally valued, family responsibilities more shared, political and social power less divided and men having less power over women.³³

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29. Pease, B. (2008), *Engaging Men in Men's Violence Prevention: Exploring The Tensions, Dilemmas and Possibilities*, Issues Paper 17, Australian Domestic and Family Violence Clearinghouse, Sydney, Australia.
 30. Fanslow, J., Robinson, E., Crengle, S., & Perese, L. (2010), Juxtaposing Beliefs and Reality: Prevalence Rates of Intimate Partner Violence and Attitudes to Violence and Gender Roles Reported by New Zealand Women, *Violence Against Women*, Vol. 16, No. 7, p. 8128–31.
 31. WHO (2010), *Preventing Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Against Women, Taking Action and Generating Evidence*, World Health Organization, Geneva and School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, London.
 32. Nayak, M., Byrne, C., Martin, M., & Abraham, A. (2003), Attitudes Towards Violence Against Women: A Cross-Nation Study, *Sex Roles*, Vol. 49, No. 7/8, pp. 3333–42.
 33. Whaley, R., Messner, S., & Veysey, B. (2011), The Relationship Between Gender Equality and Rates of Inter and Intra Sexual Lethal Violence: An Exploration of Functional Form, *Justice Quarterly*, 7327–7354.

Ridgeway (2014)³⁴ makes the observation that despite changes in structural inequality in society, which have improved women's socio-economic and public sphere status or absolute status, their position as inferior in terms of social status has remained constant.

The interface between security and violence against women is a particularly fruitful site for analysis in relation to human security, since this is where security confronts the violence's and lived insecurities, which have been shown by extensive feminist research, to be deeply normalised and embedded in the everyday. Although some scholars (e.g. Shepherd, 2006³⁵; Colak and Pearce, 2009³⁶; Seckinelgin et al., 2010³⁷; Wibben, 2011³⁸) of gender and human security have called for closer attention to, 'understand the gendered context of people's everyday lives', Criminalisation, and therefore policing, is a key mechanism through which democratic states have taken up the call to fulfil their obligations to address violence against women³⁹, although feminist theorists and activists are conscious of the limitations of this approach. A further reason for focusing on the policing of violence against women is the link that has been made between policing and human security. Kaldor (2008) proposes that, 'human security is what citizen's experience in a law governed society', therefore, it is 'useful to think about human security in terms of law enforcement'.⁴⁰ Kaldor (2007) is writing primarily about human security as a principle which should inform international military and humanitarian interventions in conflict, complex emergencies and fragile or failing states. Hence she suggests that intervening military powers should 'act in support of law enforcement, like a police force'.⁴¹ However, the premise that human security is what we take for granted in fully functioning, liberal

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34. Ridgeway, C. (2014), Why Status Matters for Inequality, *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 79, No. 1, pp. 11–16.
 35. Shepherd, L.J. (2006), 'Veiled References : Constructions of Gender in the Bush Administration Discourse on the Attacks on Afghanistan', *International Feminist Journal of Politics*, Vol. 8, No. 1, pp. 19-41.
 36. Colak, A.A., and J. Pearce (2009), "'Security from Below' in Contexts of Chronic Violence", *IDS Bulletin*, Vol. 40, No. 2, March, pp. 11-19.
 37. Seckinelgin, H., J. Bigirumwami and J. Morris (2010), 'Securitization of HIV/AIDS in Context : Gendered Vulnerability in Burundi', *Security Dialogue*, Vol. 41, pp. 515-535.
 38. Wibben, A.T.R. (2011), *Feminist Security Studies : A Narrative Approach*, Routledge, New York, p. 87.
 39. Adelman, M., E. Erez and N. Shaloub-Kevorkian (2003), 'Policing Violence Against Minority Women in Multicultural Societies : "Community" and the Politics of Exclusion', *Police and Society*, Vol. 7, pp. 105-133.
 40. Kaldor, M. (2008), 'Responsible Intervention', *Survival*, Vol. 50, No. 4, Aug-Sep., pp. 191-200.
 41. Kaldor, M. (2007), *Human Security : Reflections on Globalization and Intervention*, Polity, Cambridge, p. 192.

democratic states, as ensured in part by and through policing as enforcement of the rule of law, is evident in these claims. Kaldor (2011) explicitly equates 'a human security approach' with what we normally think of as, 'internal security as the domain of law and policing'.⁴² The proposition that this is necessarily what the police actually do, however, cannot be assumed and needs interrogating. Whether the law can be assumed to be a neutral instrument that guarantees human security across the many axes of power and difference that shape people's experiences of insecurity is also open to question.

Kannabiran (2005) argues that there is a public discourse of moral disapproval about violence against women in India, but that its application is highly selective. She shows how violence against women is embedded in the normal, the everyday, the routine, and that this is reflected in the impunity perpetrators regularly enjoy irrespective of the legal safeguards in place.⁴³ Indian feminist analyses of violence against women highlight inter-sectionalist, structural violence and the complicity of the state. Vindhya (2005) points out that much of this scholarship has 'focused on the ineffectiveness of the criminal justice system in providing justice and safety to the affected women'.⁴⁴ Gangoli (2007) argues that this is because the various arms of the Indian state, from the legislature to the criminal justice system, have persistently shown themselves to be 'anti women'.⁴⁵

Although feminist activism in India has sought to hold the state to account for its complicity in the perpetuation of gender-based violence against women, the irony is that this has all taken place within the context of constitutional conditions which, prima facie, do not look hostile to women. Article 14 of the Indian constitution guarantees equality under the law for men and women, Article 15 provides for equal access to public spaces, Article 16 promises equal opportunities in matters of public employment and Article 39 provides for equal pay for equal work.⁴⁶ Article 15 states that, 'Nothing in this article shall prevent the state from making any special provision

42. Kaldor, M. (2011), 'Human Security', *Society and Economy*, Vol. 33, No. 3, 441-448.

43. Kannabiran, K. (2005), *The Violence of Normal Times : Essays on Women's Lived Realities*, Kali for Women, New Delhi, pp. 2-3.

44. Vindhya, U. (2005), 'Battered Conjuality: The Psychology of Domestic Violence', in Kalpana Kannabiran (Ed.), *The Violence of Normal Times : Essays on Women's Lived Realities*, Kali for Women, New Delhi, pp. 210-11.

45. Gangoli, G. (2007), *Indian Feminisms : Law, Patriarchies and Violence in India*, Ashgate, Aldershot, p. 123.

46. Gangoli, G. (2007), *Indian Feminisms : Law, Patriarchies and Violence in India*, Ashgate, Aldershot, p. 2.

for women and children.' But, Nussbaum (2002)⁴⁷ observed that 'India's constitution is in some ways very attuned to issues of sex equality', and moreover that it expresses a commitment to 'securing substantive equality for previously subordinated groups', including through differential treatment that is sensitive to the history of subordination and unequal power relations.

It is well established thought that existence of effective human security measures do assist to prevent patriarchal violence through direct or indirect ways. Present study tries to investigate nature and intensity of linkages, if any, between patriarchal violence and status of existing human security measures. For this Chi-square test, Karl Pearson correlation coefficient, correlation matrix and multiple regression tools are used.

6.2 ASSOCIATION BETWEEN HUMAN SECURITY AND PATRIARCHAL VIOLENCE

To investigate the association between nature of patriarchal violence and selected dimensions of human security, chi-square test is carried for the distribution of respondents as per level of patriarchal violence w.r.t. status of selected dimension of human security.

Table No. - 6.1 (i)

Distribution of Respondents as per Level of Patriarchal Violence w.r.t. Status of Personal Security

Status of Patriarchal Violence	No. of Respondent as per status of Personal Security						
	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.
Low	30	18.87	30	22.06	38	40.43	98
Medium	54	33.96	51	37.50	33	35.11	138
High	75	47.17	55	40.44	23	24.47	153
Total	159	100.00	136	100.00	94	100.00	389

Table 6.1(i) shows the distribution of respondent as per level of patriarchal violence w.r.t. status of personal security. This table indicates that:

1. Out of total respondents having poor status of personal security, 47.17% of respondents have faced high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 33.96% of

47. Nussbaum, Martha C. (2002) 'Sex, Laws and Inequality : What India can Teach the United States', Daedalus, Vol. 131, No. 1, Winter, pp. 95-106.

respondents have faced medium level and 18.87% of respondents have faced low level of patriarchal violence.

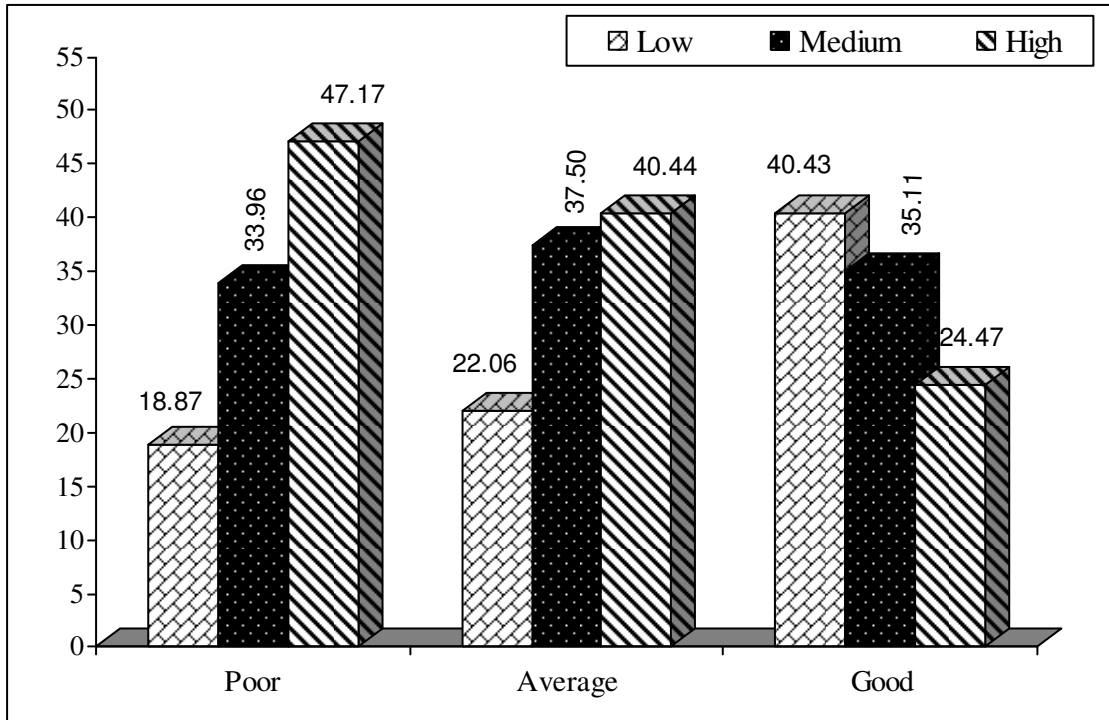


Fig. 6.1: Distribution of Respondents as per Level of Patriarchal Violence w.r.t. Status of Personal Security

2. Out of total respondents viewed average status of personal security, 40.44% of respondents have faced high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 37.50% of respondents have faced medium level and 22.06% of respondents have faced low level of patriarchal violence.
3. Out of total respondents opined good status of personal security, 40.43% of respondents have faced low level of patriarchal violence, whereas 35.11% of respondents have faced medium level and 24.47% of respondents have faced high level of patriarchal violence.

Table 6.1(i) also reveals that there is an association between status of personal security and patriarchal violence as high level of patriarchal violence is found more (47.17%) in respondents having poor status of personal security, whereas low level of patriarchal violence is found more (40.43%) in respondents having good status of personal security. To ascertain the significance of this association, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 6.1(ii)

Significance of Association between Patriarchal Violence and Status of Personal Security

Status of Personal Security	Distribution of Respondents as per level of Patriarchal Violence						Total
	Low		Medium		High		
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Poor	30	40.06	54	56.41	75	62.54	159
Average	30	34.26	51	48.25	55	53.49	136
Good	38	23.68	33	33.35	23	36.97	94
Total	98	98	138	138	153	153	389

$\chi^2 = 19.782$

$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.001

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.001 = 18.467$

Table 6.1(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for distribution of respondents as per level of patriarchal violence, w.r.t. status of personal security is 19.782, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.001 significance level (18.467). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant association between distribution of respondents as per level of patriarchal violence w.r.t. status of personal security.**

To find out the degree of association, coefficient of correlation is calculated by using Karl Pearson's Correlation methods. The details of coefficient of correlation for level of Patriarchal violence and status of personal security are as follows:

Table No. - 6.2

Correlation between Level of Patriarchal Violence and Status of Personal Security

Function	Level of Patriarchal Violence	Status of Personal Security
Frequency	389	389
Sum	13917	16186
Average	35.78	41.61
Sum of Sqr. of Dev.	44841.55	88150.61
Coefficient of Dev.	-52419.99	
Coefficient of Correlation	***-0.8839	

Note : * = Significant at $p=0.05$; ** Significant at $p=0.01$; *** Significant at $p=0.001$

Table 6.2 presents Correlation between level of patriarchal violence and status of personal security. This table indicates that level of patriarchal violence is highly

and negatively correlated to status of personal security as coefficient of correlation between them is (-) 0.8839 which is highly significant at $df= 387$ and $p=0.001$.

Table No. - 6.3 (i)

Distribution of Respondents as per Level of Patriarchal Violence w.r.t. Status of Food Security

Status of Patriarchal Violence	No. of Respondent as per status of Food Security						
	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Low	24	19.35	32	21.48	42	36.21	98
Medium	43	34.68	56	37.58	39	33.62	138
High	57	45.97	61	40.94	35	30.17	153
Total	124	100.00	149	100.00	116	100.00	389

Table 6.3(i) shows the distribution of respondent as per level of patriarchal violence w.r.t. status of food security. This table indicates that:

1. Out of total respondents having poor status of food security, 45.97% of respondents have faced high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 34.68% of respondents have faced medium level and 19.35% of respondents have faced low level of patriarchal violence.

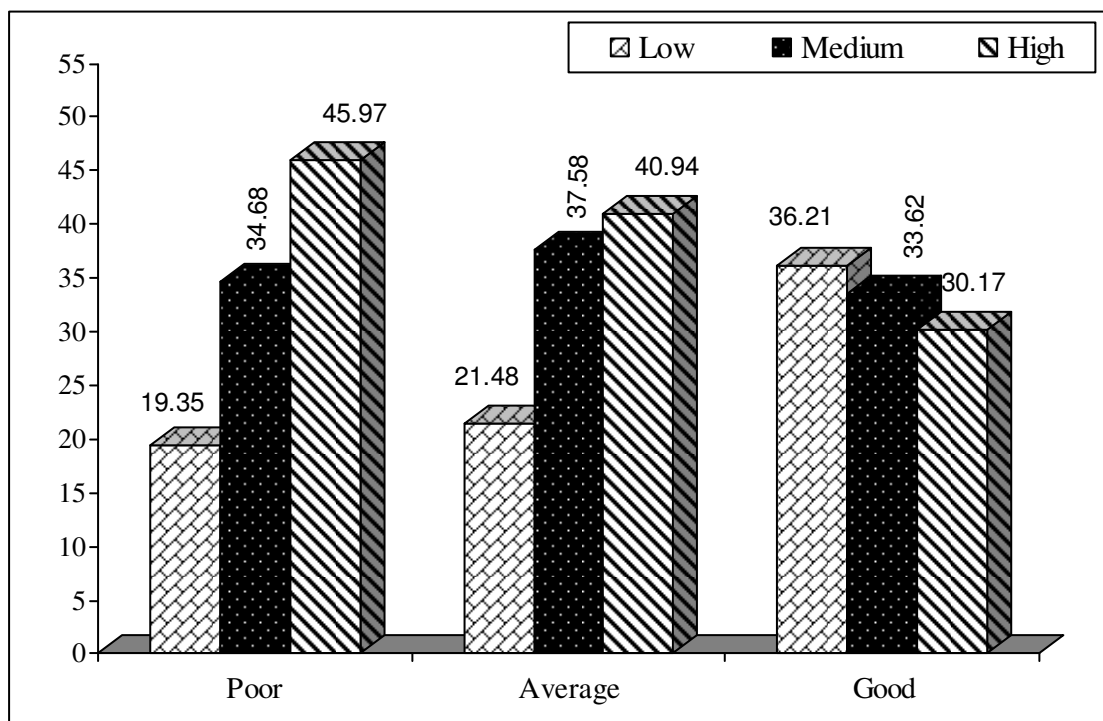


Fig. 6.2 : Distribution of Respondents as per Level of Patriarchal Violence w.r.t. Status of Food Security

2. Out of total respondents viewed average status of food security, 40.94% of respondents have faced high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 37.58% of respondents have faced medium level and 21.48% of respondents have faced low level of patriarchal violence.
3. Out of total respondents opined good status of food security, 36.21% of respondents have faced low level of patriarchal violence, whereas 33.62% of respondents have faced medium level and 30.17% of respondents have faced high level of patriarchal violence.

Table 6.3(i) also reveals that there is an association between status of food security and patriarchal violence as high level of patriarchal violence is found more (45.97%) in respondents having poor status of food security, whereas low level of patriarchal violence is found more (36.21%) in respondents having good status of food security. To ascertain the significance of this association, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 6.3(ii)

Significance of Association between Patriarchal Violence and Status of Food Security

Status of Food Security	Distribution of Respondents as per level of Patriarchal Violence						Total
	Low		Medium		High		
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Poor	24	31.24	43	43.99	57	48.77	124
Average	32	37.54	56	52.86	61	58.60	149
Good	42	29.22	39	41.15	35	45.62	116
Total	98	98	138	138	153	153	389

$$x^2 = 12.362$$

$$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.05

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.05 = 9.488$

Table 6.3(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for distribution of respondents as per level of patriarchal violence, w.r.t. status of food security is 12.362, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.05 significance level (9.488). So, it can be said that there is **a significant association between distribution of respondents as per level of patriarchal violence w.r.t. status of food security.**

To find out the degree of association, coefficient of correlation is calculated by using Karl Pearson's Correlation methods. The details of coefficient of correlation for level of Patriarchal violence and status of food security are as follows:

Table No. - 6.4

Correlation between Level of Patriarchal Violence and Status of Food Security

Function	Level of Patriarchal Violence	Status of Food Security
Frequency	389	389
Sum	13917	14412
Average	35.78	37.05
Sum of Sqr. of Dev.	44841.55	54666.07
Coefficient of Dev.	-42419.75	
Coefficient of Correlation	***-0.7572	

Note : * = Significant at p=0.05; ** Significant at p=0.01; *** Significant at p=0.001

Table 6.4 presents Correlation between level of patriarchal violence and status of food security. This table indicates that level of patriarchal violence is highly and negatively correlated to status of food security as coefficient of correlation between them is (-) 0.7572 which is highly significant at df= 387 and p=0.001.

Table No. - 6.5 (i)

Distribution of Respondents as per Level of Patriarchal Violence w.r.t. Status of Community Security

Status of Patriarchal Violence	No. of Respondent as per status of Community Security						
	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.
Low	26	18.31	32	21.92	40	39.60	98
Medium	49	34.51	54	36.99	35	34.65	138
High	67	47.18	60	41.10	26	25.74	153
Total	142	100.00	146	100.00	101	100.00	389

Table 6.5(i) shows the distribution of respondent as per level of patriarchal violence w.r.t. status of Community security. This table indicates that:

1. Out of total respondents having poor status of Community security, 47.18% of respondents have faced high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 34.51% of respondents have faced medium level and 18.31% of respondents have faced low level of patriarchal violence.
2. Out of total respondents viewed average status of Community security, 41.10% of respondents have faced high level of patriarchal violence, whereas

36.99% of respondents have faced medium level and 21.92% of respondents have faced low level of patriarchal violence.

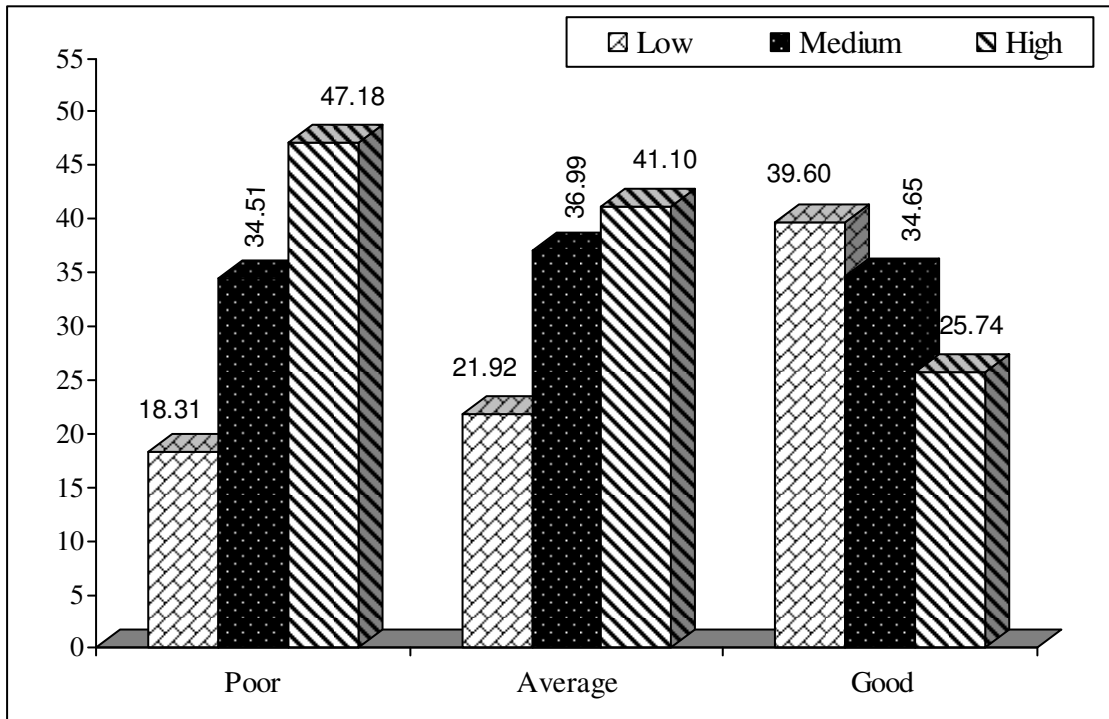


Fig. 6.3 : Distribution of Respondents as per Level of Patriarchal Violence w.r.t. Status of Community Security

- Out of total respondents opined good status of Community security, 39.60% of respondents have faced low level of patriarchal violence, whereas 34.65% of respondents have faced medium level and 25.74% of respondents have faced high level of patriarchal violence.

Table 6.5(i) also reveals that there is an association between status of Community security and patriarchal violence as high level of patriarchal violence is found more (47.18%) in respondents having poor status of Community security, whereas low level of patriarchal violence is found more (39.60%) in respondents having good status of Community security. To ascertain the significance of this association, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 6.5(ii)

Significance of Association between Patriarchal Violence and Status of Community Security

Status of Community Security	Distribution of Respondents as per level of Patriarchal Violence						Total
	Low		Medium		High		
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Poor	26	35.77	49	50.38	67	55.85	142
Average	32	36.78	54	51.79	60	57.42	146
Good	40	25.44	35	35.83	26	39.72	101
Total	98	98	138	138	153	153	389

$x^2 = 18.852$

$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.001

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.001 = 18.467$

Table 6.5(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for distribution of respondents as per level of patriarchal violence, w.r.t. status of Community security is 18.852, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.001 significance level (18.467). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant association between distribution of respondents as per level of patriarchal violence w.r.t. status of Community security.**

To find out the degree of association, coefficient of correlation is calculated by using Karl Pearson's Correlation methods. The details of coefficient of correlation for level of Patriarchal violence and status of Community security are as follows:

Table No. - 6.6

Correlation between Level of Patriarchal Violence and Status of Community Security

Function	Level of Patriarchal Violence	Status of Community Security
Frequency	389	389
Sum	13917	9728
Average	35.78	25.01
Sum of Sqr. of Dev.	44841.55	37246.98
Coefficient of Dev.	-33482.33	
Coefficient of Correlation	***0.8192	

Note : * = Significant at $p=0.05$; ** Significant at $p=0.01$; *** Significant at $p=0.001$

Table 6.6 presents Correlation between level of patriarchal violence and status of Community security. This table indicates that level of patriarchal violence is highly

and negatively correlated to status of Community security as coefficient of correlation between them is (-) 0.8192 which is highly significant at $df= 387$ and $p=0.001$.

Table No. - 6.7 (i)

Distribution of Respondents as per Level of Patriarchal Violence w.r.t. Status of Health Security

Status of Patriarchal Violence	No. of Respondent as per status of Health Security						
	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Low	23	20.18	33	20.89	42	35.90	98
Medium	40	35.09	59	37.34	39	33.33	138
High	51	44.74	66	41.77	36	30.77	153
Total	114	100.00	158	100.00	117	100.00	389

Table 6.7(i) shows the distribution of respondent as per level of patriarchal violence w.r.t. status of Health security. This table indicates that:

1. Out of total respondents having poor status of Health security, 44.74% of respondents have faced high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 35.09% of respondents have faced medium level and 20.18% of respondents have faced low level of patriarchal violence.

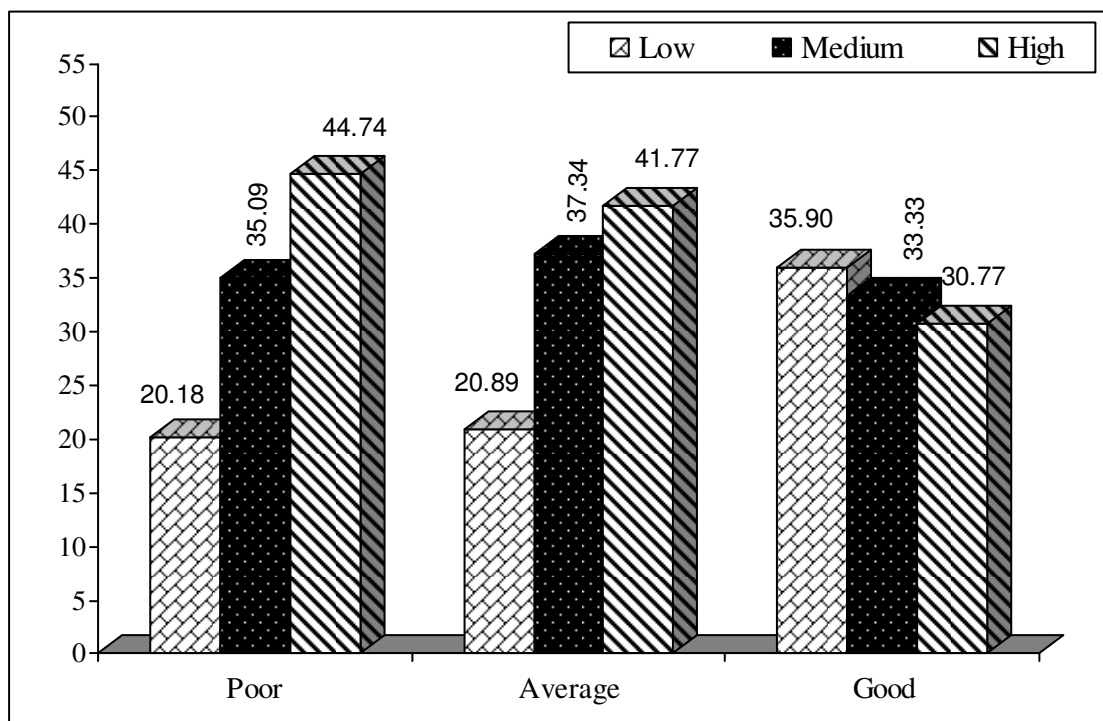


Fig. 6.4 : Distribution of Respondents as per Level of Patriarchal Violence w.r.t. Status of Health Security

2. Out of total respondents viewed average status of Health security, 41.77% of respondents have faced high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 37.34% of respondents have faced medium level and 20.89% of respondents have faced low level of patriarchal violence.
3. Out of total respondents opined good status of Health security, 35.90% of respondents have faced low level of patriarchal violence, whereas 33.33% of respondents have faced medium level and 30.77% of respondents have faced high level of patriarchal violence.

Table 6.7(i) also reveals that there is an association between status of Health security and patriarchal violence as high level of patriarchal violence is found more (44.74%) in respondents having poor status of Health security, whereas low level of patriarchal violence is found more (35.90%) in respondents having good status of Health security. To ascertain the significance of this association, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 6.7(ii)

Significance of Association between Patriarchal Violence and Status of Health Security

Status of Health Security	Distribution of Respondents as per level of Patriarchal Violence						Total
	Low		Medium		High		
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Poor	23	28.72	40	40.44	51	44.84	114
Average	33	39.80	59	56.05	66	62.14	158
Good	42	29.48	39	41.51	36	46.02	117
Total	98	98	138	138	153	153	389

$$x^2 = 11.202$$

$$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.05

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.05 = 9.488$

Table 6.7(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for distribution of respondents as per level of patriarchal violence, w.r.t. status of Health security is 11.202, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.05 significance level (9.488). So, it can be said that there is a **significant association between distribution of respondents as per level of patriarchal violence w.r.t. status of Health security.**

To find out the degree of association, coefficient of correlation is calculated by using Karl Pearson's Correlation methods. The details of coefficient of correlation for level of Patriarchal violence and status of Health security are as follows:

Table No. - 6.8

Correlation between Level of Patriarchal Violence and Status of Health Security

Function	Level of Patriarchal Violence	Status of Health Security
Frequency	389	389
Sum	13917	21524
Average	35.78	55.33
Sum of Sqr. of Dev.	44841.55	211386.22
Coefficient of Dev.	-68108.15	
Coefficient of Correlation	**-0.6499	

Note: * = Significant at p=0.05; ** Significant at p=0.01; *** Significant at p=0.001

Table 6.8 presents Correlation between level of patriarchal violence and status of Health security. This table indicates that level of patriarchal violence is highly and negatively correlated to status of Health security as coefficient of correlation between them is (-) 0.6499 which is highly significant at df= 387 and p=0.01.

Table No. - 6.9 (i)

Distribution of Respondents as per Level of Patriarchal Violence w.r.t. Status of Economic Security

Status of Patriarchal Violence	No. of Respondent as per status of Economic Security						
	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.
Low	32	20.13	31	22.63	35	37.63	98
Medium	54	33.96	51	37.23	33	35.48	138
High	73	45.91	55	40.15	25	26.88	153
Total	159	100.00	137	100.00	93	100.00	389

Table 6.9(i) shows the distribution of respondent as per level of patriarchal violence w.r.t. status of Economic security. This table indicates that:

1. Out of total respondents having poor status of Economic security, 45.91% of respondents have faced high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 33.96% of respondents have faced medium level and 20.13% of respondents have faced low level of patriarchal violence.
2. Out of total respondents viewed average status of Economic security, 40.15% of respondents have faced high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 37.23%

of respondents have faced medium level and 22.63% of respondents have faced low level of patriarchal violence.

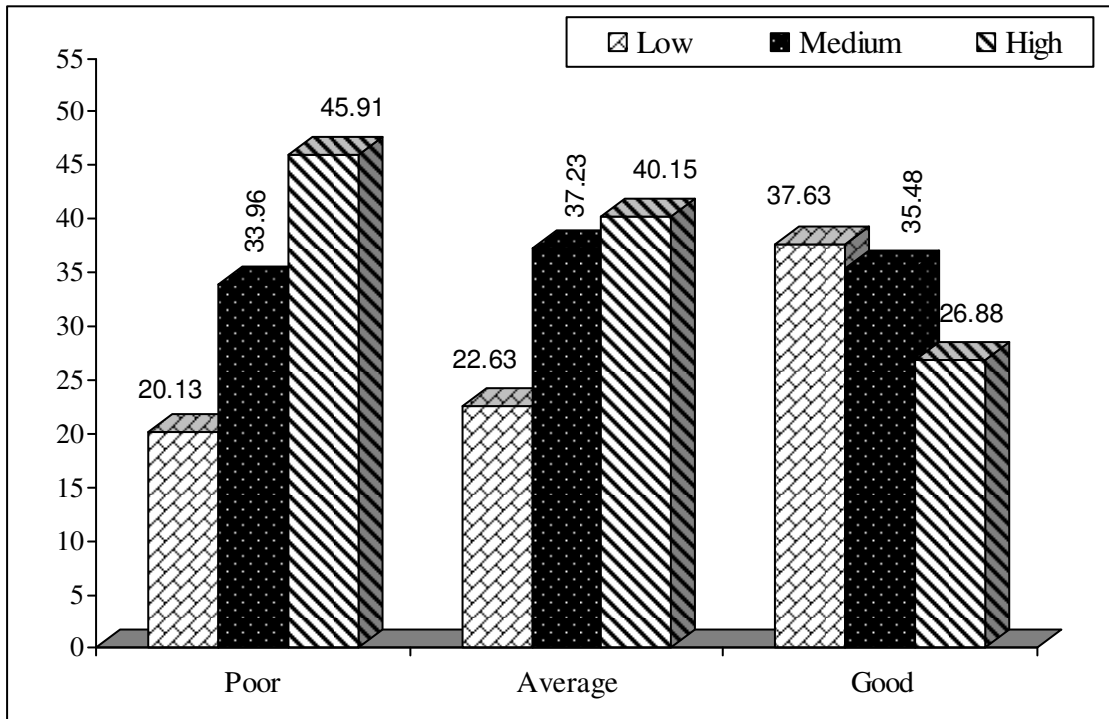


Fig. 6.5 : Distribution of Respondents as per Level of Patriarchal Violence w.r.t. Status of Economic Security

- Out of total respondents opined good status of Economic security, 37.63% of respondents have faced low level of patriarchal violence, whereas 35.48% of respondents have faced medium level and 26.88% of respondents have faced high level of patriarchal violence.

Table 6.9(i) also reveals that there is an association between status of Economic security and patriarchal violence as high level of patriarchal violence is found more (45.91%) in respondents having poor status of Economic security, whereas low level of patriarchal violence is found more (37.63%) in respondents having good status of Economic security. To ascertain the significance of this association, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 6.9(ii)

Significance of Association between Patriarchal Violence and Status of Economic Security

Status of Economic Security	Distribution of Respondents as per level of Patriarchal Violence						Total
	Low		Medium		High		
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Poor	32	40.06	54	56.41	73	62.54	159
Average	31	34.51	51	48.60	55	53.88	137
Good	35	23.43	33	32.99	25	36.58	93
Total	98	98	138	138	153	153	389

$x^2 = 13.352$

$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.01

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.01 = 13.277$

Table 6.9(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for distribution of respondents as per level of patriarchal violence, w.r.t. status of Economic security is 13.352, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.01 significance level (13.277). So, it can be said that there is **highly significant association between distribution of respondents as per level of patriarchal violence w.r.t. status of Economic security.**

To find out the degree of association, coefficient of correlation is calculated by using Karl Pearson's Correlation methods. The details of coefficient of correlation for level of Patriarchal violence and status of Economic security are as follows:

Table No. - 6.10

Correlation between Level of Patriarchal Violence and Status of Economic Security

Function	Level of Patriarchal Violence	Status of Economic Security
Frequency	389	389
Sum	13917	23834
Average	35.78	61.27
Sum of Sqr. of Dev.	44841.55	209770.66
Coefficient of Dev.	-58139.52	
Coefficient of Correlation	***-0.7991	

Note: * = Significant at $p=0.05$; ** Significant at $p=0.01$; *** Significant at $p=0.001$

Table 6.10 presents Correlation between level of patriarchal violence and status of Economic security. This table indicates that level of patriarchal violence is

highly and negatively correlated to status of Economic security as coefficient of correlation between them is (-) 0.7991 which is highly significant at $df= 387$ and $p=0.001$.

Table No. - 6.11 (i)

Distribution of Respondents as per Level of Patriarchal Violence w.r.t. Status of Political Security

Status of Patriarchal Violence	No. of Respondent as per status of Political Security						
	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.
Low	31	20.81	32	22.22	35	36.46	98
Medium	54	36.24	51	35.42	33	34.38	138
High	64	42.95	61	42.36	28	29.17	153
Total	149	100.00	144	100.00	96	100.00	389

Table 6.11(i) shows the distribution of respondent as per level of patriarchal violence w.r.t. status of Political security. This table indicates that:

1. Out of total respondents having poor status of Political security, 42.95% of respondents have faced high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 36.24% of respondents have faced medium level and 20.81% of respondents have faced low level of patriarchal violence.

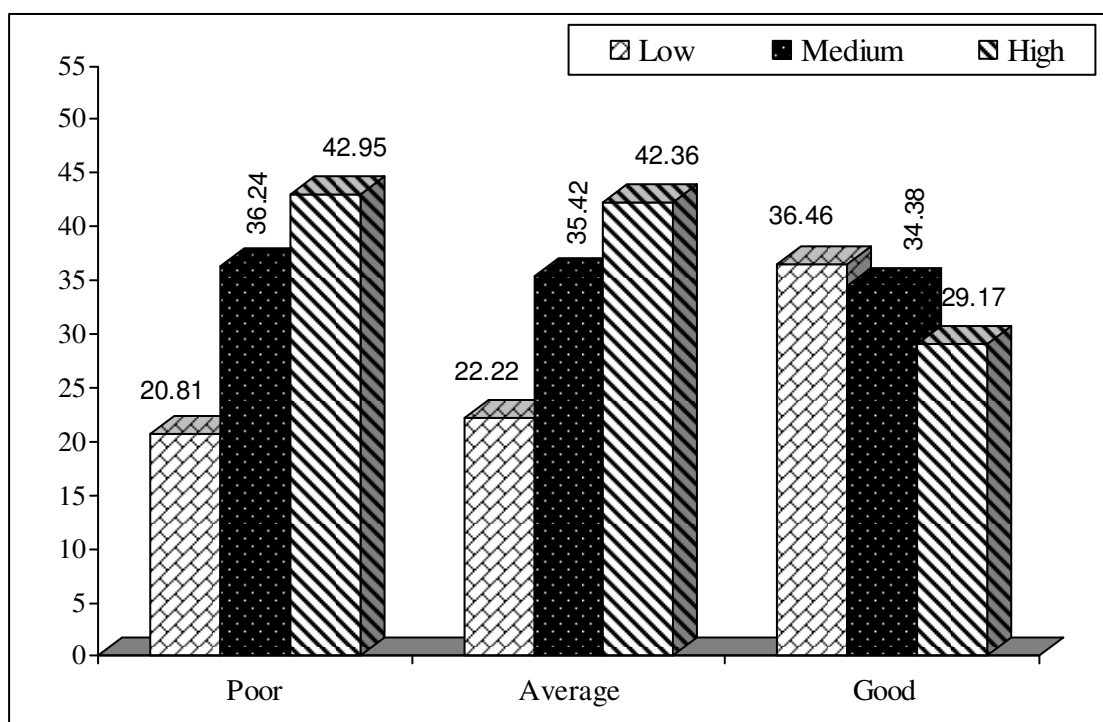


Fig. 6.6 : Distribution of Respondents as per Level of Patriarchal Violence w.r.t. Status of Political Security

2. Out of total respondents viewed average status of Political security, 42.36% of respondents have faced high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 35.42% of respondents have faced medium level and 22.22% of respondents have faced low level of patriarchal violence.
3. Out of total respondents opined good status of Political security, 36.46% of respondents have faced low level of patriarchal violence, whereas 34.38% of respondents have faced medium level and 29.17% of respondents have faced high level of patriarchal violence.

Table 6.11(i) also reveals that there is an association between status of Political security and patriarchal violence as high level of patriarchal violence is found more (42.95%) in respondents having poor status of Political security, whereas low level of patriarchal violence is found more (36.46%) in respondents having good status of Political security. To ascertain the significance of this association, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 6.11(ii)

Significance of Association between Patriarchal Violence and Status of Political Security

Status of Political Security	Distribution of Respondents as per level of Patriarchal Violence						Total
	Low		Medium		High		
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Poor	31	37.54	54	52.86	64	58.60	149
Average	32	36.28	51	51.08	61	56.64	144
Good	35	24.19	33	34.06	28	37.76	96
Total	98	98	138	138	153	153	389

$$x^2 = 9.891$$

$$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.05

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.05 = 9.488$

Table 6.11(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for distribution of respondents as per level of patriarchal violence, w.r.t. status of Political security is 9.891, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.05 significance level (9.488). So, it can be said that there is a **significant association between distribution of respondents as per level of patriarchal violence w.r.t. status of Political security.**

To find out the degree of association, coefficient of correlation is calculated by using Karl Pearson's Correlation methods. The details of coefficient of correlation for level of Patriarchal violence and status of Political security are as follows:

Table No. - 6.12
Correlation between Level of Patriarchal Violence and Status of Political Security

Function	Level of Patriarchal Violence	Status of Political Security
Frequency	389	389
Sum	13917	16506
Average	35.78	42.43
Sum of Sqr. of Dev.	44841.55	92037
Coefficient of Dev.	-22096.43	
Coefficient of Correlation	*-0.3439	

Note: * = Significant at p=0.05; ** Significant at p=0.01; *** Significant at p=0.001

Table 6.12 presents Correlation between level of patriarchal violence and status of Political security. This table indicates that level of patriarchal violence is significantly and negatively correlated to status of Political security as coefficient of correlation between them is (-) 0.3439 which is highly significant at df= 387 and p=0.05.

Table No. - 6.13 (i)

Distribution of Respondents as per Level of Patriarchal Violence w.r.t. Status of Environmental Security

Status of Patriarchal Violence	No. of Respondent as per status of Environmental Security						
	Poor		Average		Good		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Low	33	21.85	31	22.30	34	34.34	98
Medium	54	35.76	51	36.69	33	33.33	138
High	64	42.38	57	41.01	32	32.32	153
Total	151	100.00	139	100.00	99	100.00	389

Table 6.13(i) shows the distribution of respondent as per level of patriarchal violence w.r.t. status of Environmental security. This table indicates that:

1. Out of total respondents having poor status of Environmental security, 42.38% of respondents have faced high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 35.76% of respondents have faced medium level and 21.85% of respondents have faced low level of patriarchal violence.

2. Out of total respondents viewed average status of Environmental security, 41.01% of respondents have faced high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 36.69% of respondents have faced medium level and 22.30% of respondents have faced low level of patriarchal violence.

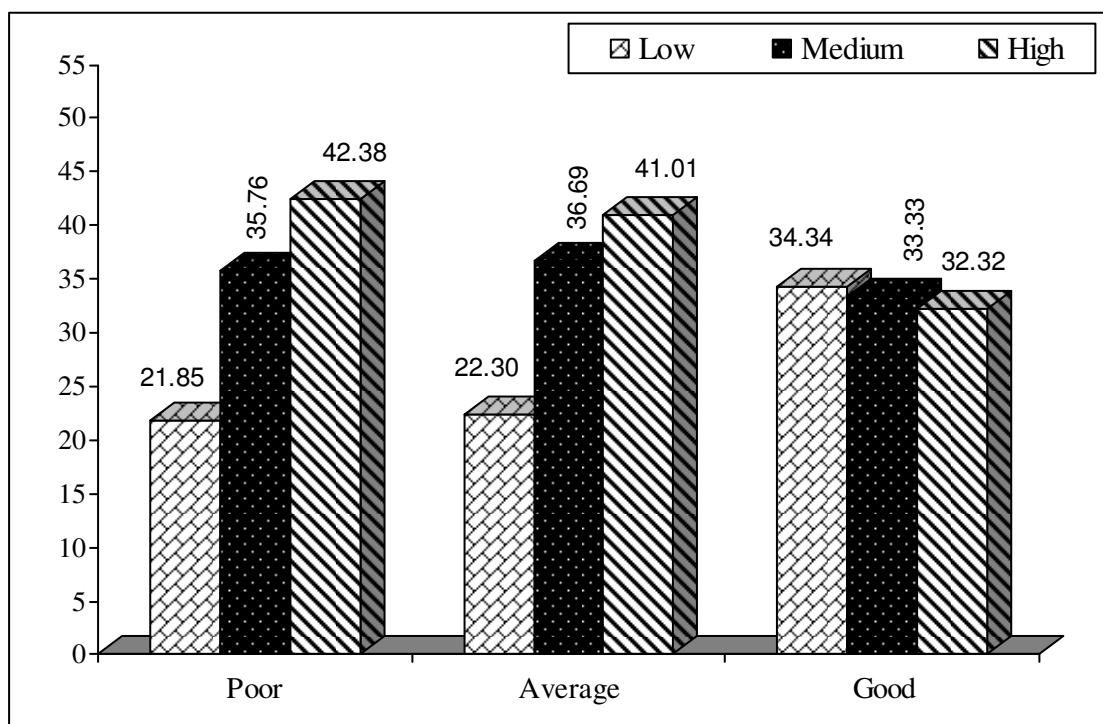


Fig. 6.7 : Distribution of Respondents as per Level of Patriarchal Violence w.r.t. Status of Environmental Security

3. Out of total respondents opined good status of Environmental security, 34.34% of respondents have faced low level of patriarchal violence, whereas 33.33% of respondents have faced medium level and 32.32% of respondents have faced high level of patriarchal violence.

Table 6.13(i) also reveals that there is an association between status of Environmental security and patriarchal violence as high level of patriarchal violence is found more (42.38%) in respondents having poor status of Environmental security, whereas low level of patriarchal violence is found more (34.34%) in respondents having good status of Environmental security. To ascertain the significance of this association, chi-square test is used.

Table No. - 6.13(ii)

Significance of Association between Patriarchal Violence and Status of Environmental Security

Status of Environmental Security	Distribution of Respondents as per level of Patriarchal Violence						Total
	Low		Medium		High		
	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	f(o)	f(e)	
Poor	33	38.04	54	53.57	64	59.39	151
Average	31	35.02	51	49.31	57	54.67	139
Good	34	24.94	33	35.12	32	38.94	99
Total	98	98	138	138	153	153	389

$x^2 = 6.302$

$df = (3-1) \times (3-1) = 2 \times 2 = 4$

Level of Significance (p) = 0.05

Critical value of chi-square at $df = 4$ and $p = 0.05 = 9.488$

Table 6.13(ii) reveals that calculated value of chi-square for distribution of respondents as per level of patriarchal violence, w.r.t. status of Environmental security is 6.302, which is more than critical Chi-square value at $df = 4$ and 0.05 significance level (9.488). So, it can be said that there is **no significant association between distribution of respondents as per level of patriarchal violence w.r.t. status of Environmental security.**

To find out the degree of association, coefficient of correlation is calculated by using Karl Pearson's Correlation methods. The details of coefficient of correlation for level of Patriarchal violence and status of Environmental security are as follows:

Table No. - 6.14

Correlation between Level of Patriarchal Violence and Status of Environmental Security

Function	Level of Patriarchal Violence	Status of Environmental Security
Frequency	389	389
Sum	13917	22180
Average	35.78	57.02
Sum of Sqr. of Dev.	44841.55	148648.88
Coefficient of Dev.	-24104.43	
Coefficient of Correlation	*-0.2952	

Note: * = Significant at $p=0.05$; ** Significant at $p=0.01$; *** Significant at $p=0.001$

Table 6.14 presents Correlation between level of patriarchal violence and status of Environmental security. This table indicates that level of patriarchal violence

is significantly and negatively correlated to status of Environmental security as coefficient of correlation between them is (-) 0.2952 which is highly significant at $df=387$ and $p=0.05$.

Table 6.15

Correlation Matrix for Level of Patriarchal Violence and Different Areas of Human Security

Areas of Human Security	Patriarchal Violence	Personal Security	Food Security	Comm. Security	Health Security	Economic Security	Political Security
Personal	***-0.884	1					
Food	***-0.757	***0.706	1				
Community	***-0.819	**0.677	**0.692	1			
Health	** -0.650	***0.807	**0.669	**0.607	1		
Economic	***-0.799	***0.716	**0.584	*0.499	***0.814	1	
Political	*-0.344	0.280	*0.356	*0.384	**0.638	**0.528	1
Environment	-0.295	0.215	*0.308	*0.306	**0.582	**0.551	***0.869

Note : * significant at $p=0.05$; ** significant at $p=0.01$; *** significant at $p=0.001$

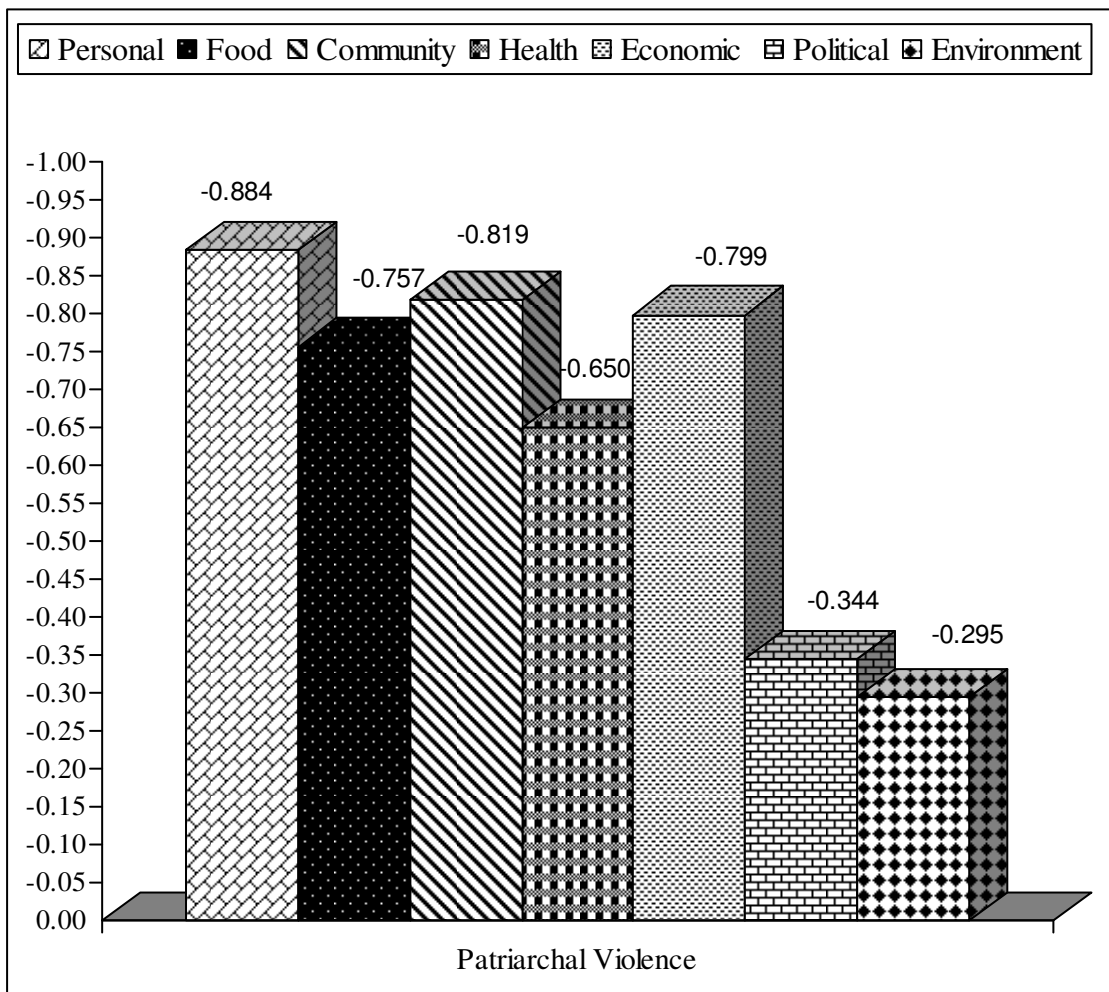


Fig. 6.8 :
Correlation Matrix for Patriarchal Violence and Different Areas of Human Security

Table 6.15 presents the Correlation coefficient and inter-correlation between selected areas of human security and patriarchal violence. This table shows that Personal Security ($r=0.341$), Community Security ($r=0.819$), Economic Security ($r=0.799$) and Food Security ($r=0.757$) are highly and negatively correlated to patriarchal violence, where as Health Security ($r=0.650$) is medium correlated and Political Security ($r=0.344$) is significantly correlated to patriarchal violence. It can also be noticed from this table that most of the selected dimensions of Human Security are also significantly inter-correlated to each other.

Table 6.16
Multiple Regression Statistics for Patriarchal Violence and Selected Areas of Human Security

Multiple R	0.943913
R Square	0.890972
Adjusted R Square	0.888969
Standard Error	3.582176
Observations	389

Table 6.16 presents the conformity of Correlation and inter-correlation between selected areas of human security and patriarchal violence. This table shows that correlation between patriarchal violence and selected dimensions of human security are highly confirmative, as values of Multiple R (0.94391), R Square (0.89097) and Adjusted R Square (0.88897) are very close to 01.

6.3 INTERLINKAGES BETWEEN HUMAN SECURITY AND PATRIARCHAL VIOLENCE

It was conceptualized in present study that patriarchal violence exist in study area, but it differs in nature and intensity with variance in geographical area (Urban and Rural), existing social structure of social group, family as well as socio-economic profile of individuals and reach of human security measures. The nature and intensity of patriarchal violence (fY) is the sum of function ($\square\Delta SE$) of various socio-economic factors (Age, Region and caste, Educational status, Occupation & Economic Status of self and family, status of rituals and norms, geographical area) and sum of function ($\square\Delta HS$) of reach to human security Measures (07 selected areas: Economic security,

Food Security, Environmental security, Health Security, Personal security, Community security, & Political security). The impact of these variables is presented as follows:

$$\Delta Y \propto \square \Delta SE + \square \Delta HS \quad (1)$$

Where

$$\square \Delta SE = \alpha_1 A + \alpha_2 Re + \alpha_3 C + \alpha_4 Edn + \alpha_5 Occ + \alpha_6 In + \alpha_7 Nos + \alpha_8 Geo + \alpha \quad (2)$$

$$\square \Delta HS = \beta_1 ES + \beta_2 FS + \beta_3 EvnS + \beta_4 HS + \beta_5 PS + \beta_6 CS + \beta_7 PolS + \beta \quad (3)$$

A Regression Equation is developed for prediction of positive impact of selected Human Security measures on Patriarchal violence, based on significant variables has been given as follows:

$$\Delta Y = \beta_1 ES + \beta_2 FS + \beta_3 EvnS + \beta_4 HS + \beta_5 PS + \beta_6 CS + \beta_7 PolS + \beta \quad (4)$$

Where :

ΔY = Positive Impact on Patriarchal Violence

$\square \Delta HS$ = Total impact of Human Security variables

α_1 to α_8 = Co-efficient of Socio-economic variable

β_1 to β_8 = Co-efficient of Human Security variable

α & β = Regression Co-efficient

SE variables : A=Age, Re=Religion, C=Caste, Edn= Educational status of self and family, Occ=Occupation of Self and Family, In=Income of Self and Family, Nors=Socio-cultural Norms, Geo=Geographical Area

HS variables : ES=Economic Security, FS=Food Security, EvnS=Environment Security, HS=Health Security, PS=Personal Security, CS=Community Security, PolS=Political Security.

Priorities of various element of Human Security are determined by the value of its Regression co-efficient.

Table 6.17

Multiple Regression Statistics for Patriarchal Violence and Selected Areas of Human Security

	Coefficients	t-Stat	P-value
Intercept	29.766	83.906	0.000
Personal Security	-0.559	-12.206	0.000
Food Security	-0.431	-15.722	0.000
Comm. Security	-0.526	-11.353	0.000
Health Security	0.372	3.422	0.001
Economic Security	0.517	2.531	0.012
Political Security	0.218	0.827	0.409
Environment Security	-0.071	-3.482	0.001

Putting the Value in Equation (4) :

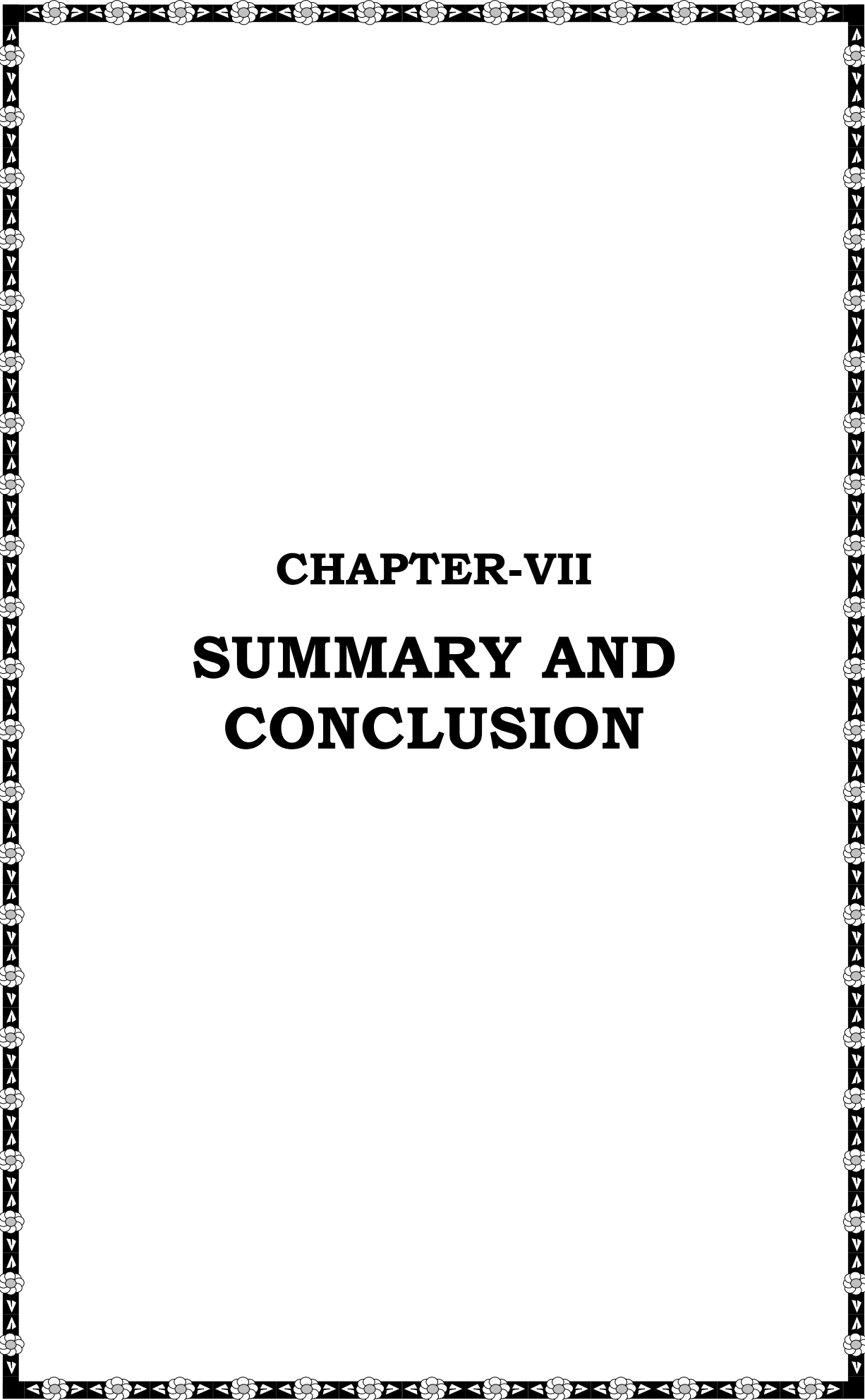
$$\Delta Y = \beta_1 ES + \beta_2 FS + \beta_3 EvnS + \beta_4 HS + \beta_5 PS + \beta_6 CS + \beta_7 PolS + \beta$$

Positive Impact on Patriarchal Violence (ΔY)

$$= 29.766 + 0.559 \text{ PS} + 0.526 \text{ CS} + 0.517 \text{ ES} + 0.431 \text{ FS} + 0.372 \text{ HS} + 0.218 \text{ PolS} + 0.071 \text{ EvnS}$$

It indicates that:

Personal Security (01) has highest interlinkage with patriarchal violence, followed by Community Security (02), Economic Security (03), Food Security (04), Health Security (05) and Political Security (06). Environmental Security has very less interlinkages with patriarchal violence.



CHAPTER-VII
SUMMARY AND
CONCLUSION

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6.1 INTRODUCTION

Human security is related to the protection of the individual's personal safety and freedom from direct and indirect threats of violence. It also refers to the quality of life of the people of a society. Human security describes a condition of existence in which basic material needs are met, and in which human dignity, including meaningful participation in the life of the community, can be realized. Such human security is indivisible; it cannot be pursued by or for one group at the expense of another.

It is broadly theorised that increased gender equality will lead to decreased violence against women. Achieving gender equality is a key goal in the prevention of violence against women by those aiming to reduce gendered violence. Attitudes about the legitimacy of violence against women are an important indicator of widespread societal acceptance or otherwise of violence against women. In addition, community judgements about violence against women are influenced by more general attitudes to gender and sexuality. These attitudes vary within different cultural contexts and suggest that socio-cultural factors may be more important than gender alone in influencing attitudes to violence against women. These attitudes reflect gender norms and social beliefs about male and female roles and positions in society.

Gender based violence is recognized as a major public health concern and a violation of human rights. It is supported and reinforced by gender norms and values that put women in subordinate position than men. This cuts across all social classes, religion and education levels. The specific cultural context plays an important role in defining the mechanisms through which gender inequality and other factors affect patriarchal violence. Many of the factors identified are closely related to norms and values around gender and social equity. While at the level of family, male dominance and male control of wealth appear important, at macro social level, it is notions of male entitlement/ownership of women, masculinity linked to aggression and dominance, rigid gender roles, and acceptance of interpersonal violence as a means of resolving conflict.

In many societies violence is considered 'normal' and a prerogative of men. The socialization of boys and girls often reflects related cultural norms and values. Cultural violence embedded in the patriarchal structures of Indian society has many harmful consequences for women and it lowers their performance levels due to increased subordination and subjugation to the established patriarchal order. In spite of constitutional and legal safeguards, the women in India continue to suffer, due to lack of awareness of their rights, illiteracy and oppressive practices and customs. It is realized that the long run supremacy of male over female in all respect in the patriarchal society in India is highly responsible for arresting the empowerment of women.

While feminism argues that it is patriarchy and male dominance which is mainly responsible for the subordinate position of women in society, sociological perspective explains the powerlessness of women through process of socialization, which ultimately leads to patriarchal violence and the inability of women to defend them. Patriarchal violence exists within a social environment, which legitimates the use of power and control against women. However, both these perspectives look at the women as an object which is always influenced by external circumstances and react to them in a described manner but these perspectives neglect her ability to analyse her situations and her perception of self-dealing with abusive circumstances. Thus the present study analysed how gender power structure affects patriarchal violence and human security. It also tried to examine the interlinkages between different components of human security and patriarchal violence.

The main purpose of the present study was to study the interlikage between Human Security and Patriarchal Violence. The following were the basic objectives of this study:

1. To analyse the concepts of human security and patriarchal violence.
2. To examine the interlinkages between various dimensions of human security and patriarchal violence from sociological perspective.
3. To prioritise the relevance of the different dimensions of human security with patriarchal violence.
4. To explore the nature of relationship between different aspects of human security and patriarchal violence.
5. To find out the policy implications of human security for removal of patriarchal violence.

The hypotheses of the present study were:

1. There is close interlinkages between human security and patriarchal violence.
2. Personal and economic securities have strong negative association with patriarchal violence.
3. Political security and food securities have medium association with patriarchal violence.
4. Environment and health security have weak negative association with patriarchal violence.
5. There is relationship between human security and severity of patriarchal violence.
6. Strengthening of human security for women leads to eradication of violence against them.

It was conceptualized in present study that patriarchal violence exist in study area, but it differs in nature and intensity with variance in geographical area (Urban and Rural), existing social structure of social group, family as well as socio-economic profile of individuals and reach of human security measures. The nature and intensity of patriarchal violence (fY) is the sum of function ($\square\Delta SE$) of various socio-economic factors/parameters (age, region and caste, educational status, occupation & economic status of self and family, status of rituals and norms, geographical area) and sum of function ($\square\Delta HS$) of reach to human security measures (07 selected areas: Economic security, Food Security, Environmental security, Health Security, Personal security, Community security, & Political security).

To analyse the prevalence of patriarchal violence, status of human security measures and correlation between prevalence of patriarchal violence and selected areas of human security, and difference with various socio-cultural categories of individuals, measurement of selected variables of human security and severity/nature of patriarchal violence has been planned by collecting data from selected respondents through semi-structured interview schedule constructed with the help of various scales, questionnaire and inventories made by scholars.

Cross-sectional descriptive research design is adopted in present study, in which 424 adult women (212 each from rural & urban areas) are selected as respondents, 01 each from randomly selected families from purposively selected rural and urban areas of Lucknow district. On completion of survey, 389 respondents could only be interviewed and rest others were excluded as per inclusion/exclusion criteria.

To investigate the nature and intensity of linkages, if any, between patriarchal violence and status of existing human security measures, data collected from 389 respondents were analysis with the help of various statistical tools e.g. percent, average, t-test, Chi-square test, Karl Pearson correlation coefficient, correlation matrix and multiple regression.

6.2 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

The results obtained from the analysis are as follows:

- Results from analysis of demographic variables reveal that :
 - More than half (58.86%) of respondents belong to age group of 26-33 yrs. (23.39%), 34-41 yrs. (19.02%), or age group of 42-49 yrs. (16.45%) [Table 4.1].
 - Most (95.89%) of respondents belong to Hindu (68.12%) or Muslim (27.76%) religion, but percentage of Hindu respondents in rural area (72.59%) is more than urban area (63.54%) [Table 4.2].
 - Most (80.21%) of respondents belong to general (46.79%) or OBC (33.42%) caste, but percentage of respondents belong to general caste in urban area (50.52%) is more than rural area (43.15%) [Table 4.3].
 - More than one-third (42.16%) of respondents are educated upto high school (21.34) or intermediate (20.82), and a significant portion (13.88%) of respondents are not having any basic education. Percentage of respondents not having any basic education is much more in rural area (21.83%) than urban area (5.73%) [Table 4.4].
 - Most (85.60%) of respondents are married, whereas rest others are unmarried (8.74%), widow (2.31%), divorcee (1.80%) and living in separation (1.54%) [Table 4.5].
 - More than two-third (66.84%) of respondents are housewife, whereas rest others are labourer (12.08%), working in private (8.48%) or government (4.37%) sector or home based business women (8.23%) [Table 4.6].

- Only few (2.83%) respondents are having monthly income more than Rs. 25,000 [Table 4.7].
- More than half (57.84%) of respondents belong to nuclear family. Percentage of respondents belong to nuclear family is more in urban area (64.58%) than rural area (51.27%) [Table 4.8].
- Number of female members with comparison to male is more in rural area, as sex ratio at rural area (944) is more than the urban area (927) [Table 4.9].
- More than two-third (68.13%) of respondents belong to families having 4-5 (32.65%) or 6-7 (35.48%) members [Table 4.10].
- Approximately three-fourth (72.49%) of respondents belong to families having 3 to 4 dependent members (47.30%) or 5-6 dependent members (25.19%) [Table 4.11].
- More than three-fourth (77.12%) of respondents belong to families having 01 independent member (32.13%) or 2 dependent members (44.99%) [Table 4.12].
- More than one-third (42.93%) of respondents belong to families having agriculture (26.48%) or daily wage labour as main occupation (16.45%), but the percentage of respondents belong to families having agriculture or daily wage labour as main occupation is much more in rural area (73.10%) than urban area (11.98%) [Table 4.13].
- More than half (58.61%) of respondents belong to families having monthly income between Rs. 6000 to 10000 (27.76%) or Rs. 10001 to 20000 (30.85%), but the percentage of respondents belong to families having monthly income upto Rs. 10,000 is much more in rural area (67.52%) than urban area (17.70%) [Table 4.14].
- More than two-third (68.38%) of respondents is staying in pucca house, but the percentage of respondents staying in pucca house is much more in urban area (92.19%) than rural area (45.18%) [Table 4.15].

- Approximately three-fourth (71.27%) of respondents are staying in satisfactory (37.93%) or good (33.93%) living condition, but the percentage of respondents staying in unsatisfactory living condition is much more in rural area (39.59%) than urban area (17.71%) [Table 4.16].
 - Approximately two-third (64.78%) of respondents opined that level of gender equality in their family/society is satisfactory (38.30%) or highly satisfactory (26.48%) [Table 4.17].
 - Status of women in urban families/society is higher than rural area as average marks of urban respondents (38.91) is more (3.13) than rural respondents (35.78) [Table 4.18]. There is highly significant difference in mean score of status of women in family/society as viewed by rural and urban respondents (t-value = 3.385) [Table 4.18(i)].
- Results from analysis of data related to prevalence of patriarchal violence and status of existing human security measures reveal that :
- Approximately three-fourth (74.81%) of respondents feels high (39.33%) or medium (35.48%) level of patriarchal violence in their family/society [Table 5.1].
 - Approximately three-fourth (74.55%) of respondents viewed the status of existing status of human security as poor (40.62%) or average (33.93%) [Table 5.2].
 - More than three-fourth (75.83%) of respondents viewed the status of existing personal security as poor (40.87%) or average (34.96%) [Table 5.3].
 - More than two-third (70.18%) of respondents viewed the status of existing food security as poor (31.88%) or average (38.30%) [Table 5.4].
 - Approximately three-fourth (74.03%) of respondents viewed the status of existing community security as poor (36.50%) or average (37.53%) [Table 5.5].
 - More than two-third (69.41%) of respondents viewed the status of existing health security as poor (28.79%) or average (40.62%) [Table 5.6].

- More than three-fourth (76.09%) of respondents viewed the status of existing economic security as poor (40.87%) or average (35.22%) [Table 5.7].
 - More than three-fourth (75.32%) of respondents viewed the status of existing political security as poor (38.30%) or average (37.02%) [Table 5.8].
 - Approximately three-fourth (74.55%) of respondents viewed the status of existing environmental security as poor (38.82%) or average (35.73%) [Table 5.9].
- Results from analysis to investigate significant of difference of in nature and intensity of patriarchal violence and status of existing human security measures between various socio-economic groups reveal that :
- 45.69% of rural and 32.81% of urban respondents feel high level of patriarchal violence in their family/society, whereas 21.32% of rural respondents and 29.17% of urban respondents have viewed the prevalence of patriarchal violence in their family/society as low [Table 5.10(i)].
 - Level of patriarchal violence in rural area is more than urban area and difference in mean score of patriarchal violence among rural and urban respondents is highly significant (t-value = 2.611) [Table 5.10(ii)].
 - 45.26% of respondents belong to opinion of below satisfaction level of women's position and 30.10% of respondents belong to opinion of highly satisfactory level of women's position have expressed high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 17.52% of respondents belong to opinion of below satisfaction level of women's position and 37.86% of respondents belong to opinion of highly satisfactory level of women's position have expressed low level of patriarchal violence [Table 5.11(i)].
 - There is highly significant difference in level of patriarchal violence viewed by respondents of different opinion-groups of women's position in family/society ($\chi^2 = 13.914$) [Table 5.11(ii)].
 - 40.62% of respondents are in middle-aged group, 31.88% are in young age-group and 27.51% of respondents are in elderly-aged group [Table 5.12].

- 44.35% of young respondents and 34.58% of elderly respondents have expressed high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 22.58% of young respondents and 28.97% of elderly respondents have expressed low level of patriarchal violence [Table 5.13(i)].
- There is no significant difference in level of patriarchal violence viewed by respondents of different age group ($\chi^2 = 2.689$) [Table 5.13(ii)].
- 43.96% of general caste respondents and 27.27% of SC respondents have expressed high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 21.43% of general caste respondents and 38.96% of SC respondents have expressed low level of patriarchal violence [Table 5.14(i)].
- There is significant difference in level of patriarchal violence viewed by respondents of different caste ($\chi^2 = 11.380$) [Table 5.14(ii)].
- 42.16% of respondents are having education up to medium level, whereas 39.07% of respondents are having education up to lower level and 18.77% of respondents are educated up to higher level [Table 5.15].
- 45.39% of low educated respondents and 27.40% of highly educated respondents have expressed high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 20.39% of low educated respondents and 39.73% of highly educated respondents have expressed low level of patriarchal violence [Table 5.16(i)].
- There is no significant difference in level of patriarchal violence viewed by respondents of different educational status ($\chi^2 = 12.302$) [Table 5.16(ii)].
- 66.84% of respondents are in dependent economic category and 33.16% of respondents are in independent economic category [Table 5.17].
- 43.46% of economically dependent respondents and 31.01% of independent respondents feel high level prevalence of patriarchal violence in their family/society, whereas 20.00% of economically dependent respondents and 35.66% of economically independent respondents have viewed the prevalence of patriarchal violence in their family/society as low [Table 5.18(i)].

- There is highly significant difference in mean score of patriarchal violence among economically dependent and independent respondents (t-value = 3.183) [Table 5.18(ii)].
- 43.96% of respondents belong to families having traditional household occupation, whereas 31.88% of respondents belong to families adopted moderate occupation and 24.16% of respondents belong to families of modern occupations [Table 5.19].
- 45.03% of respondents of traditional household occupation and 27.66% of respondents of modern household occupation have expressed high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 19.30% of respondents of traditional household occupation and 38.30% of respondents of modern household occupation have expressed low level of patriarchal violence [Table 5.20(i)].
- There is highly significant difference in level of patriarchal violence viewed by respondents of different household occupational categories ($\chi^2 = 13.705$) [Table 5.20(ii)].
- 38.56% of respondents belong to the families of low income group; whereas 33.93% of respondents belong to the families of middle income group and 27.51% of respondents belong to the families of high income group [Table 5.21].
- 45.33% of respondents of LIG families and 29.91% of respondents of HIG families have expressed high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 21.67% of respondents LIG families and 36.45% of respondents of HIG families have expressed low level of patriarchal violence [Table 5.22(i)].
- There is significant difference in level of patriarchal violence viewed by respondents of different household income group ($\chi^2 = 11.809$) [Table 5.22(ii)].
- 43.15% of rural and 38.02% of urban respondents feel that status of human security available to them is poor, whereas 20.81% of rural respondents and

30.21% of urban respondents have viewed the status of human security available to them as good [Table 5.23(i)].

- There is highly significant difference in mean score of status of human security among rural and urban respondents (t-value = 3.023) [Table 5.23(ii)].
- 46.72% of respondents belong to opinion of below satisfaction level of women's position and 28.16% of respondents belong to opinion of highly satisfactory level of women's position felt that status of human security available to them is poor, whereas 20.44% of respondents belong to opinion of below satisfaction level of women's position and 38.83% of respondents belong to opinion of highly satisfactory level of women's position felt that status of human security available to them is good [Table 5.24(i)].
- There is highly significant difference between different opinion-groups of women's position in family/society w.r.t. status of human security ($\chi^2 = 15.581$) [Table 5.24(ii)].
- 42.74% of young respondents and 36.45% of elderly respondents felt that status of human security available to them is poor, whereas 24.19% of young respondents and 30.84% of elderly respondents have assessed it as good [Table 5.25(i)].
- There is no significant difference between respondents of different age group w.r.t. status of human security viewed by them ($\chi^2 = 2.568$) [Table 5.25(ii)].
- 44.51% of general caste respondents and 29.87% of SC respondents assessed status of human security available to them as poor, whereas 20.33% of general caste respondents and 38.96% of SC respondents assessed status of human security as good [Table 5.26(i)].
- There is a significant difference in status of human security between different caste ($\chi^2 = 10.583$) [Table 5.26(ii)].
- 46.71% of low educated respondents and 28.77% of highly educated respondents assessed status of human security available to them as poor, whereas 21.05% of low educated respondents and 39.73% of highly educated

respondents assessed status of human security available to them as good [Table 5.27(i)].

- There is a significant difference in status of human security between different educational status of respondents ($\chi^2 = 11.850$) [Table 5.27(ii)].
- 41.92% of economically dependent respondents and 37.98% of independent respondents assessed status of human security available to them as poor, whereas 23.46% of economically dependent respondents and 29.46% of economically independent respondents assessed status of human security as good [Table 5.28(i)].
- There is highly significant difference in mean score for status of human security between economically dependent and independent respondents (t-value = 3.070) [Table 5.28(ii)].
- 45.03% of respondents of traditional household occupation and 29.79% of respondents of modern household occupation assessed status of human security available to them as poor, whereas 19.88% of respondents of traditional household occupation and 38.30% of respondents of modern household occupation assessed status of human security as good [Table 5.29(i)].
- There is significant difference in status of human security between different household occupational categories ($\chi^2 = 12.238$) [Table 5.29(ii)].
- 46.67% of respondents of LIG families and 27.10% of respondents of HIG families assessed status of human security available to them as poor, whereas 19.33% of respondents LIG families and 38.32% of respondents of HIG families assessed status of human security as good [Table 5.30(i)].
- There is highly significant difference in status of human security for the respondents of different household income group ($\chi^2 = 16.526$) [Table 5.30(ii)].
- 44.16% of rural and 37.50% of urban respondents feel that status of personal security available to them is poor, whereas 18.78% of rural respondents and

29.69% of urban respondents have viewed the status of personal security available to them as good [Table 5.31(i)].

- There is highly significant difference in mean score of status of personal security among rural and urban respondents (t-value = 2.888) [Table 5.31(ii)].
- 46.72% of respondents belong to opinion of below satisfaction level of women's position and 28.16% of respondents belong to opinion of highly satisfactory level of women's position felt that status of personal security available to them is poor, whereas 18.98% of respondents belong to opinion of below satisfaction level of women's position and 36.89% of respondents belong to opinion of highly satisfactory level of women's position felt that status of personal security available to them is good [Table 5.32(i)].
- There is highly significant difference between different opinion-groups of women's position in family/society w.r.t. status of personal security ($\chi^2 = 15.112$) [Table 5.32(ii)].
- 43.55% of young respondents and 36.45% of elderly respondents felt that status of personal security available to them is poor, whereas 20.16% of young respondents and 30.84% of elderly respondents have assessed it as good [Table 5.33(i)].
- There is no significant difference between respondents of different age group w.r.t. status of personal security viewed by them ($\chi^2 = 3.910$) [Table 5.33(ii)].
- 44.51% of general caste respondents and 31.17% of SC respondents assessed status of personal security available to them as poor, whereas 20.33% of general caste respondents and 36.36% of SC respondents assessed status of personal security as good [Table 5.34(i)].
- There is no significant difference in status of personal security between different caste ($\chi^2 = 8.603$) [Table 5.34(ii)].
- 46.71% of low educated respondents and 28.77% of highly educated respondents assessed status of personal security available to them as poor, whereas 19.74% of low educated respondents and 39.73% of highly educated

respondents assessed status of personal security available to them as good [Table 5.35(i)].

- There is highly significant difference in status of personal security between different educational status of respondents ($\chi^2 = 13.689$) [Table 5.35(ii)].
- 43.85% of economically dependent respondents and 31.78% of independent respondents assessed status of personal security available to them as poor, whereas 20.38% of economically dependent respondents and 31.78% of economically independent respondents assessed status of personal security as good [Table 5.36(i)].
- There is highly significant difference in mean score for status of personal security between economically dependent and independent respondents (t-value = 3.132) [Table 5.36(ii)].
- 45.03% of respondents of traditional household occupation and 30.85% of respondents of modern household occupation assessed status of personal security available to them as poor, whereas 19.30% of respondents of traditional household occupation and 36.17% of respondents of modern household occupation assessed status of personal security as good [Table 5.37(i)].
- There is significant difference in status of personal security between different household occupational categories ($\chi^2 = 10.854$) [Table 5.37(ii)].
- 46.67% of respondents of LIG families and 28.04% of respondents of HIG families assessed status of personal security available to them as poor, whereas 18.00% of respondents LIG families and 37.38% of respondents of HIG families assessed status of personal security as good [Table 5.38(i)].
- There is highly significant difference in status of personal security for the respondents of different household income group ($\chi^2 = 16.876$) [Table 5.38(ii)].
- 34.52% of rural and 29.17% of urban respondents feel that status of food security available to them is poor, whereas 26.40% of rural respondents and

33.33% of urban respondents have viewed the status of food security available to them as good [Table 5.39(i)].

- There is no significant difference in mean score of status of food security among rural and urban respondents (t-value = 1.598) [Table 5.39(ii)].
- 40.88% of respondents belong to opinion of below satisfaction level of women's position and 26.21% of respondents belong to opinion of highly satisfactory level of women's position felt that status of food security available to them is poor, whereas 19.71% of respondents belong to opinion of below satisfaction level of women's position and 38.83% of respondents belong to opinion of highly satisfactory level of women's position felt that status of food security available to them is good [Table 5.40(i)].
- There is highly significant difference between different opinion-groups of women's position in family/society w.r.t. status of food security ($\chi^2 = 13.791$) [Table 5.40(ii)].
- 38.71% of young respondents and 24.30% of elderly respondents felt that status of food security available to them is good, whereas 25.00% of young respondents and 41.12% of elderly respondents have assessed it as poor [Table 5.41(i)].
- There is significant difference between respondents of different age group w.r.t. status of food security viewed by them ($\chi^2 = 10.893$) [Table 5.41(ii)].
- 25.27% of general caste respondents and 44.16% of SC respondents assessed status of food security available to them as poor, whereas 35.71% of general caste respondents and 24.68% of SC respondents assessed status of food security as good [Table 5.42(i)].
- There is significant difference in status of food security between different caste ($\chi^2 = 11676$) [Table 5.42(ii)].
- 33.85% of economically dependent respondents and 27.91% of independent respondents assessed status of food security available to them as poor, whereas 28.08% of economically dependent respondents and 33.33% of

economically independent respondents assessed status of food security as good [Table 5.43(i)].

- There is no significant difference in mean score for status of food security between economically dependent and independent respondents (t-value = 1.403) [Table 5.43(ii)].
- 39.59% of rural and 33.33% of urban respondents feel that status of community security available to them is poor, whereas 22.84% of rural respondents and 29.17% of urban respondents have viewed the status of community security available to them as good [Table 5.44(i)].
- There is no significant difference in mean score of status of community security among rural and urban respondents (t-value = 1.635) [Table 5.44(ii)].
- 46.72% of respondents belong to opinion of below satisfaction level of women's position and 25.24% of respondents belong to opinion of highly satisfactory level of women's position felt that status of community security available to them is poor, whereas 18.25% of respondents belong to opinion of below satisfaction level of women's position and 29.13% of respondents belong to opinion of highly satisfactory level of women's position felt that status of community security available to them is good [Table 5.45(i)].
- There is highly significant difference between different opinion-groups of women's position in family/society w.r.t. status of community security ($\chi^2 = 14.978$) [Table 5.45(ii)].
- 30.77% of general caste respondents and 48.05% of SC respondents assessed status of community security available to them as poor, whereas 32.97% of general caste respondents and 16.88% of SC respondents assessed status of community security as good [Table 5.46(i)].
- There is significant difference in status of community security between different caste ($\chi^2 = 11.933$) [Table 5.46(ii)].
- 43.42% of low educated respondents and 21.92% of highly educated respondents assessed status of community security available to them as poor, whereas 19.74% of low educated respondents and 41.10% of highly educated

respondents assessed status of community security available to them as good [Table 5.47(i)].

- There is highly significant difference in status of community security between different educational status of respondents ($\chi^2 = 15.073$) [Table 5.47(ii)].
- 42.00% of respondents of LIG families and 24.30% of respondents of HIG families assessed status of community security available to them as poor, whereas 19.33% of respondents LIG families and 39.25% of respondents of HIG families assessed status of community security as good [Table 5.48(i)].
- There is highly significant difference in status of community security for the respondents of different household income group ($\chi^2 = 16.529$) [Table 5.48(ii)].
- 33.50% of rural and 23.96% of urban respondents feel that status of health security available to them is poor, whereas 24.37% of rural respondents and 36.98% of urban respondents have viewed the status of health security available to them as good [Table 5.49(i)].
- There is highly significant difference in mean score of status of health security among rural and urban respondents (t-value = 2.892) [Table 5.49(ii)].
- 37.23% of respondents belong to opinion of below satisfaction level of women's position and 22.33% of respondents belong to opinion of highly satisfactory level of women's position felt that status of health security available to them is poor, whereas 20.44% of respondents belong to opinion of below satisfaction level of women's position and 39.81% of respondents belong to opinion of highly satisfactory level of women's position felt that status of health security available to them is good [Table 5.50(i)].
- There is highly significant difference between different opinion-groups of women's position in family/society w.r.t. status of health security ($\chi^2 = 13.638$) [Table 5.50(ii)].
- 20.16% of young respondents and 39.25% of elderly respondents felt that status of health security available to them is poor, whereas 41.13% of young

respondents and 22.43% of elderly respondents have assessed it as good [Table 5.51(i)].

- There is highly significant difference between respondents of different age group w.r.t. status of health security viewed by them ($\chi^2 = 15.112$) [Table 5.51(ii)].
- 21.98% of general caste respondents and 42.86% of SC respondents assessed status of health security available to them as poor, whereas 36.81% of general caste respondents and 22.08% of SC respondents assessed status of health security as good [Table 5.52(i)].
- There is highly significant difference in status of health security between different caste ($\chi^2 = 13.785$) [Table 5.52(ii)].
- 35.53% of low educated respondents and 20.55% of highly educated respondents assessed status of health security available to them as poor, whereas 25.00% of low educated respondents and 43.84% of highly educated respondents assessed status of health security available to them as good [Table 5.53(i)].
- There is a significant difference in status of health security between different educational status of respondents ($\chi^2 = 11.195$) [Table 5.53(ii)].
- 32.31% of economically dependent respondents and 21.71% of independent respondents assessed status of health security available to them as poor, whereas 26.54% of economically dependent respondents and 38.76% of economically independent respondents assessed status of health security as good [Table 5.54(i)].
- There is highly significant difference in mean score for status of health security between economically dependent and independent respondents (t-value = 2.845) [Table 5.54(ii)].
- 32.16% of respondents of traditional household occupation and 23.40% of respondents of modern household occupation assessed status of health security available to them as poor, whereas 22.22% of respondents of

traditional household occupation and 44.68% of respondents of modern household occupation assessed status of health security as good [Table 5.55(i)].

- There is highly significant difference in status of health security between different household occupational categories ($\chi^2 = 14.488$) [Table 5.55(ii)].
- 34.67% of respondents of LIG families and 17.76% of respondents of HIG families assessed status of health security available to them as poor, whereas 24.00% of respondents LIG families and 42.99% of respondents of HIG families assessed status of health security as good [Table 5.56(i)].
- There is highly significant difference in status of health security for the respondents of different household income group ($\chi^2 = 14.421$) [Table 5.56(ii)].
- 46.19% of rural and 35.42% of urban respondents feel that status of economic security available to them is poor, whereas 18.27% of rural respondents and 29.69% of urban respondents have viewed the status of economic security available to them as good [Table 5.57(i)].
- There is highly significant difference in mean score of status of economic security among rural and urban respondents (t-value = 2.806) [Table 5.57(ii)].
- 48.91% of respondents belong to opinion of below satisfaction level of women's position and 32.04% of respondents belong to opinion of highly satisfactory level of women's position felt that status of economic security available to them is poor, whereas 14.60% of respondents belong to opinion of below satisfaction level of women's position and 34.95% of respondents belong to opinion of highly satisfactory level of women's position felt that status of economic security available to them is good [Table 5.58(i)].
- There is highly significant difference between different opinion-groups of women's position in family/society w.r.t. status of economic security ($\chi^2 = 14.674$) [Table 5.58(ii)].

- 47.25% of general caste respondents and 28.57% of SC respondents assessed status of economic security available to them as poor, whereas 18.68% of general caste respondents and 28.57% of SC respondents assessed status of economic security as good [Table 5.59(i)].
- There is highly significant difference in status of economic security between different caste ($\chi^2 = 13.342$) [Table 5.59(ii)].
- 46.71% of low educated respondents and 28.77% of highly educated respondents assessed status of economic security available to them as poor, whereas 19.08% of low educated respondents and 39.73% of highly educated respondents assessed status of economic security available to them as good [Table 5.60(i)].
- There is highly significant difference in status of economic security between different educational status of respondents ($\chi^2 = 14.152$) [Table 5.60(ii)].
- 45.85% of economically dependent respondents and 31.78% of independent respondents assessed status of economic security available to them as poor, whereas 18.46% of economically dependent respondents and 34.88% of economically independent respondents assessed status of economic security as good [Table 5.61(i)].
- There is highly significant difference in mean score for status of economic security between economically dependent and independent respondents (t-value = 3.637) [Table 5.61(ii)].
- 45.61% of respondents of traditional household occupation and 28.72% of respondents of modern household occupation assessed status of economic security available to them as poor, whereas 17.54% of respondents of traditional household occupation and 36.17% of respondents of modern household occupation assessed status of economic security as good [Table 5.62(i)].
- There is highly significant difference in status of economic security between different household occupational categories ($\chi^2 = 13.667$) [Table 5.62(ii)].

- 44.67% of respondents of LIG families and 30.84% of respondents of HIG families assessed status of economic security available to them as poor, whereas 20.00% of respondents LIG families and 33.64% of respondents of HIG families assessed status of economic security as good [Table 5.63(i)].
- There is significant difference in status of economic security for the respondents of different household income group ($\chi^2 = 9.516$) [Table 5.63(ii)].
- 35.53% of rural and 41.15% of urban respondents feel that status of political security available to them is poor, whereas 29.95% of rural respondents and 19.27% of urban respondents have viewed the status of political security available to them as good [Table 5.64(i)].
- There is significant difference in mean score of status of political security among rural and urban respondents (t-value = 2.056) [Table 5.64(ii)].
- 35.48% of young respondents and 45.79% of elderly respondents felt that status of political security available to them is poor, whereas 31.45% of young respondents and 19.63% of elderly respondents have assessed it as good [Table 5.65(i)].
- There is no significant difference between respondents of different age group w.r.t. status of political security viewed by them ($\chi^2 = 7.464$) [Table 5.65(ii)].
- 41.21% of general caste respondents and 27.27% of SC respondents assessed status of political security available to them as poor, whereas 19.78% of general caste respondents and 40.26% of SC respondents assessed status of political security as good [Table 5.66(i)].
- There is highly significant difference in status of political security between different caste ($\chi^2 = 13.320$) [Table 5.66(ii)].
- 40.13% of low educated respondents and 31.51% of highly educated respondents assessed status of political security available to them as poor, whereas 21.71% of low educated respondents and 35.62% of highly educated

respondents assessed status of political security available to them as good [Table 5.67(i)].

- There is no significant difference in status of political security between different educational status of respondents ($\chi^2 = 5.887$) [Table 5.67(ii)].
- 40.77% of economically dependent respondents and 33.33% of independent respondents assessed status of political security available to them as poor, whereas 23.85% of economically dependent respondents and 26.36% of economically independent respondents assessed status of political security as good [Table 5.68(i)].
- There is no significant difference in mean score for status of political security between economically dependent and independent respondents (t-value = 1.355) [Table 5.68(ii)].
- 33.92% of respondents of traditional household occupation and 41.49% of respondents of modern household occupation assessed status of political security available to them as poor, whereas 29.82% of respondents of traditional household occupation and 18.09% of respondents of modern household occupation assessed status of political security as good [Table 5.69(i)].
- There is no significant difference in status of political security between different household occupational categories ($\chi^2 = 5.647$) [Table 5.69(ii)].
- 36.00% of respondents of LIG families and 43.18% of respondents of MIG families assessed status of political security available to them as poor, whereas 28.67% of respondents LIG families and 19.70% of respondents of MIG families assessed status of political security as good [Table 5.70(i)].
- There is no significant difference in status of political security for the respondents of different household income group ($\chi^2 = 3.812$) [Table 5.70(ii)].
- 36.55% of rural and 41.15% of urban respondents feel that status of environment security available to them is poor, whereas 28.43% of rural

respondents and 22.40% of urban respondents have viewed the status of environment security available to them as good [Table 5.71(i)].

- There is no significant difference in mean score of status of environment security among rural and urban respondents (t-value = 1.345) [Table 5.71(ii)].
- 35.48% of young respondents and 42.99% of elderly respondents felt that status of environment security available to them is poor, whereas 31.45% of young respondents and 20.56% of elderly respondents have assessed it as good [Table 5.72(i)].
- There is no significant difference between respondents of different age group w.r.t. status of environment security viewed by them ($\chi^2 = 4.095$) [Table 5.72(ii)].
- 31.87% of general caste respondents and 50.65% of SC respondents assessed status of environment security available to them as poor, whereas 30.77% of general caste respondents and 18.18% of SC respondents assessed status of environment security as good [Table 5.73(i)].
- There is significant difference in status of environment security between different caste ($\chi^2 = 10.006$) [Table 5.73(ii)].
- 45.39% of low educated respondents and 28.77% of highly educated respondents assessed status of environment security available to them as poor, whereas 20.39% of low educated respondents and 38.36% of highly educated respondents assessed status of environment security available to them as good [Table 5.74(i)].
- There is significant difference in status of environment security between different educational status of respondents ($\chi^2 = 10.677$) [Table 5.74(ii)].
- 43.27% of respondents of traditional household occupation and 29.79% of respondents of modern household occupation assessed status of environment security available to them as poor, whereas 19.30% of respondents of traditional household occupation and 37.23% of respondents of modern household occupation assessed status of environment security as good [Table 5.75(i)].

- There is significant difference in status of environment security between different household occupational categories ($\chi^2 = 10.886$) [Table 5.75(ii)].
 - 44.00% of respondents of LIG families and 27.10% of respondents of HIG families assessed status of environment security available to them as poor, whereas 18.67% of respondents LIG families and 37.38% of respondents of HIG families assessed status of environment security as good [Table 5.76(i)].
 - There is highly significant difference in status of environment security for the respondents of different household income group ($\chi^2 = 14.371$) [Table 5.76(ii)].
- Results from analysis of data intended to investigate the association between nature of patriarchal violence and selected dimensions of human security are as follows :
- 47.17% of respondents having poor status of personal security and 24.47% of respondents opined good status of personal security have faced high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 18.87% of respondents having poor status of personal security and 40.43% of respondents opined good status of personal security have faced low level of patriarchal violence [Table 6.1(i)].
 - There is highly significant association between distribution of respondents as per level of patriarchal violence w.r.t. status of personal security ($\chi^2 = 19.782$) [Table 6.1(ii)].
 - Level of patriarchal violence is highly and negatively correlated to status of personal security ($r = (-) 0.8839$) [Table 6.2].
 - 45.97% of respondents having poor status of food security and 30.17% of respondents opined good status of food security have faced high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 19.35% of respondents having poor status of food security and 36.21% of respondents opined good status of food security have faced low level of patriarchal violence [Table 6.3(i)].

- There is significant association between distribution of respondents as per level of patriarchal violence w.r.t. status of food security ($\chi^2 = 12.362$) [Table 6.3(ii)].
- Level of patriarchal violence is highly and negatively correlated to status of food security ($r = (-) 0.7572$) [Table 6.4].
- 47.18% of respondents having poor status of Community security and 25.74% of respondents opined good status of Community security have faced high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 18.31% of respondents having poor status of Community security and 39.60% of respondents opined good status of Community security have faced low level of patriarchal violence [Table 6.5(i)].
- There is highly significant association between distribution of respondents as per level of patriarchal violence w.r.t. status of Community security ($\chi^2 = 18.852$) [Table 6.5(ii)].
- Level of patriarchal violence is highly and negatively correlated to status of Community security ($r = (-) 0.8192$) [Table 6.6].
- 44.74% of respondents having poor status of health security and 30.77% of respondents opined good status of health security have faced high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 20.18% of respondents having poor status of health security and 35.90% of respondents opined good status of health security have faced low level of patriarchal violence [Table 6.7(i)].
- There is significant association between distribution of respondents as per level of patriarchal violence w.r.t. status of health security ($\chi^2 = 11.202$) [Table 6.7(ii)].
- Level of patriarchal violence is highly and negatively correlated to status of health security ($r = (-) 0.6499$) [Table 6.8].
- 45.91% of respondents having poor status of economic security and 26.88% of respondents opined good status of economic security have faced high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 20.13% of respondents having poor status of

- economic security and 37.63% of respondents opined good status of economic security have faced low level of patriarchal violence [Table 6.9(i)].
- There is highly significant association between distribution of respondents as per level of patriarchal violence w.r.t. status of economic security ($\chi^2 = 13.352$) [Table 6.9(ii)].
 - Level of patriarchal violence is highly and negatively correlated to status of economic security ($r = (-) 0.7991$) [Table 6.10].
 - 42.95% of respondents having poor status of political security and 29.17% of respondents opined good status of political security have faced high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 20.81% of respondents having poor status of political security and 36.46% of respondents opined good status of political security have faced low level of patriarchal violence [Table 6.11(i)].
 - There is significant association between distribution of respondents as per level of patriarchal violence w.r.t. status of political security ($\chi^2 = 9.891$) [Table 6.11(ii)].
 - Level of patriarchal violence is significantly and negatively correlated to status of political security ($r = (-) 0.3439$) [Table 6.12].
 - 42.38% of respondents having poor status of environmental security and 32.32% of respondents opined good status of environmental security have faced high level of patriarchal violence, whereas 21.85% of respondents having poor status of environmental security and 34.34% of respondents opined good status of environmental security have faced low level of patriarchal violence [Table 6.13(i)].
 - There is no significant association between distribution of respondents as per level of patriarchal violence w.r.t. status of environmental security ($\chi^2 = 6.302$) [Table 6.13(ii)].
 - Level of patriarchal violence is significantly and negatively correlated to status of environmental security ($r = (-) 0.2952$) [Table 6.14].

- Personal Security (r=0.341), Community Security (r=0.819), Economic Security (r=0.799) and Food Security (r=0.757) are highly and negatively correlated to patriarchal violence, where as Health Security (r=0.650) is medium correlated and Political Security (r=0.344) is significantly correlated to patriarchal violence. Most of the selected dimensions of Human Security are also significantly inter-correlated to each other [Table 6.15].
- Correlation between patriarchal violence and selected dimensions of human security are highly confirmative, as values of Multiple R (0.94391), R Square (0.89097) and Adjusted R Square (0.88897) are very close to 01 [Table 6.15].
- Regression model developed for prediction of positive impact of selected Human Security measures on Patriarchal violence indicates that :

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Positive Impact on Patriarchal Violence } (\Delta Y) \\ = 29.766 + 0.559 \text{ PS} + 0.526 \text{ CS} + 0.517 \text{ ES} + 0.431 \text{ FS} + \\ 0.372 \text{ HS} + 0.218 \text{ PolS} + 0.071 \text{ EvnS} \end{aligned}$$

- It shows that Personal Security (PS) has highest interlinkage with patriarchal violence, followed by Community Security (CS), Economic Security (ES), Food Security (FS), Health Security (HS) and Political Security (PolS). Environmental Security (EvnS) has very less interlinkages with patriarchal violence.

6.3 CONCLUSION

The conclusion of the study are as follows:

- High prevalence of patriarchal violence is found in respondents' family/society.
- Highly significant difference in level of patriarchal violence was found between rural and urban respondents, respondents of different opinion-groups of women's position in family/society, economically dependent and independent respondents, and respondents of different household occupational categories. Significant difference in level of patriarchal violence was found between respondents of different caste and respondents of different household income group.

- Prevailing status of human security measures is poor for of its all selected dimensions, i.e. economic security (76.09%), personal security (75.83%), political security (75.32%), environmental security (74.55%), community security (74.03%), food security (70.18%) and health security (69.41%).
- Highly significant difference in status of personal security was found between rural and urban respondents, different opinion-groups of women's position in family/society, respondents of different educational status, economically dependent and independent respondents, and respondents of different household income group, whereas a significant difference in status of personal security was found between different household occupational categories.
- Highly significant difference in status of food security was found between respondents of different opinion-groups of women's position in family/society, whereas significant difference in status of food security was found between respondents of different age group, and respondents of different caste.
- Highly significant difference in status of community security was found between respondents of different opinion-groups of women's position in family/society, respondents of different educational status, and between respondents of different household income group, whereas a significant difference in status of community security was found between respondents of different caste.
- Highly significant difference in status of health security was found between rural and urban respondents, different opinion-groups of women's position in family/society, respondents of different age group, respondents of different caste, economically dependent and independent respondents, respondents of different household occupational categories, and respondents of different household income group, whereas a significant difference in status of health security was found between respondents of different educational status.

- Highly significant difference in status of economic security was found between rural and urban respondents, respondents of different opinion-groups of women's position in family/society, respondents of different caste, respondents of different educational status, economically dependent and independent respondents, and respondents of different household occupational categories, whereas a significant difference in status of economic security was found between respondents of different household income group.
- Highly significant difference in status of political security was found between respondents of different caste, whereas a significant difference in status of political security was found between rural and urban respondents.
- Highly significant difference in status of environment security was found between respondents of different household income group, whereas a significant difference in status of environment security was found between respondents of different caste, respondents of different educational status of respondents, and respondents of different household occupational categories.
- Highly significant association was found between level of patriarchal violence and status of personal security.
- A significant association was found between level of patriarchal violence and status of food security.
- Highly significant association was found between level of patriarchal violence and status of Community security.
- A significant association was found between level of patriarchal violence and status of health security.
- Highly significant association was found between levels of patriarchal violence and. status of economic security.
- There is significant association between distribution of respondents as per level of patriarchal violence and status of political security.

- Personal Security, Community Security, Economic Security and Food Security are found highly and negatively correlated to patriarchal violence, where as Health Security is found medium correlated and Political Security is found significantly correlated to patriarchal violence.
- Personal Security has highest interlinkage with patriarchal violence, followed by Community Security, Economic Security, Food Security, Health Security and Political Security. The least interlinkage was found between Environmental Security and patriarchal violence.

Further, these findings also confirm that hypotheses of study are true. Findings of the study prove that:

- There is close interlinkages between human security and patriarchal violence.
- Personal and economic securities have strong negative association with patriarchal violence.
- Political security and food securities have medium association with patriarchal violence.
- Environment and health security have weak negative association with patriarchal violence.
- There is relationship between human security and severity of patriarchal violence.
- Strengthening of human security for women leads to eradication of violence against them.

6.4 POLICY IMPLICATIONS

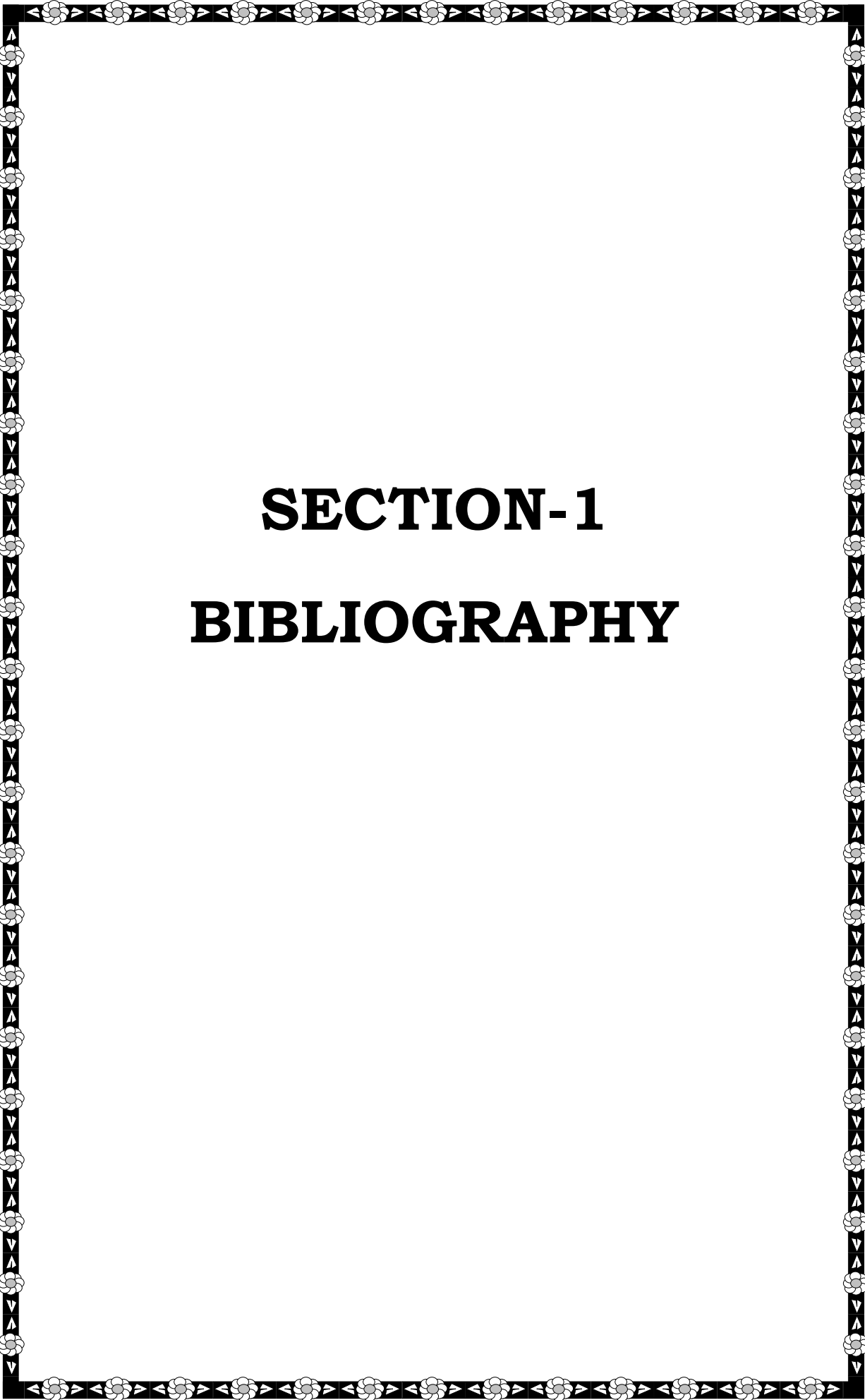
- It is found in the study that Personal Security, Community Security, Economic Security and Food Security are highly correlated to patriarchal violence, where as Health Security is medium correlated and Political Security is significantly correlated to patriarchal violence. It also found that all selected dimensions/indicators of human security are negatively correlated to patriarchal violence. It means, by enhancing human security measures for its

selected dimensions can prevent/arrest occurrence of patriarchal violence. So, policies must be formulated to ensure adequate provisions for human security and its proper implementation and reach upto women in remote areas, as study shows that there is higher level of patriarchal violence exist in rural areas.

- Regression model developed for prediction of positive impact of selected Human Security measures on Patriarchal violence indicates that Personal Security has highest interlinkage with patriarchal violence, followed by Community Security, Economic Security, Food Security, Health Security and Political Security. Environmental Security has very less interlinkages with patriarchal violence. So, to prevent/reduce patriarchal violence more attention should be given to enhance personal security, community security, economic security, food Security, health security and political security and priority for efficient use of limited resources should be made on above results.

6.5 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

- Present study is limited to Lucknow district of Uttar Pradesh only; same study can be conducted in other district or any specific area.
- A comparative study on nature and degree of patriarchal violence, its social causes and role of human security can be conducted.
- Present study used sampling method to select respondents as universe was too large, same study with holistic approach can be conducted in any specific area having small universe.
- Present study is limited to 07 indicators of human security, same study can be conducted selecting more or few others indicators of human security.
- Present study is based on views of adult female only; same study can be conducted by selecting more categories of respondents.



SECTION-1
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BIBLIOGRAPHY

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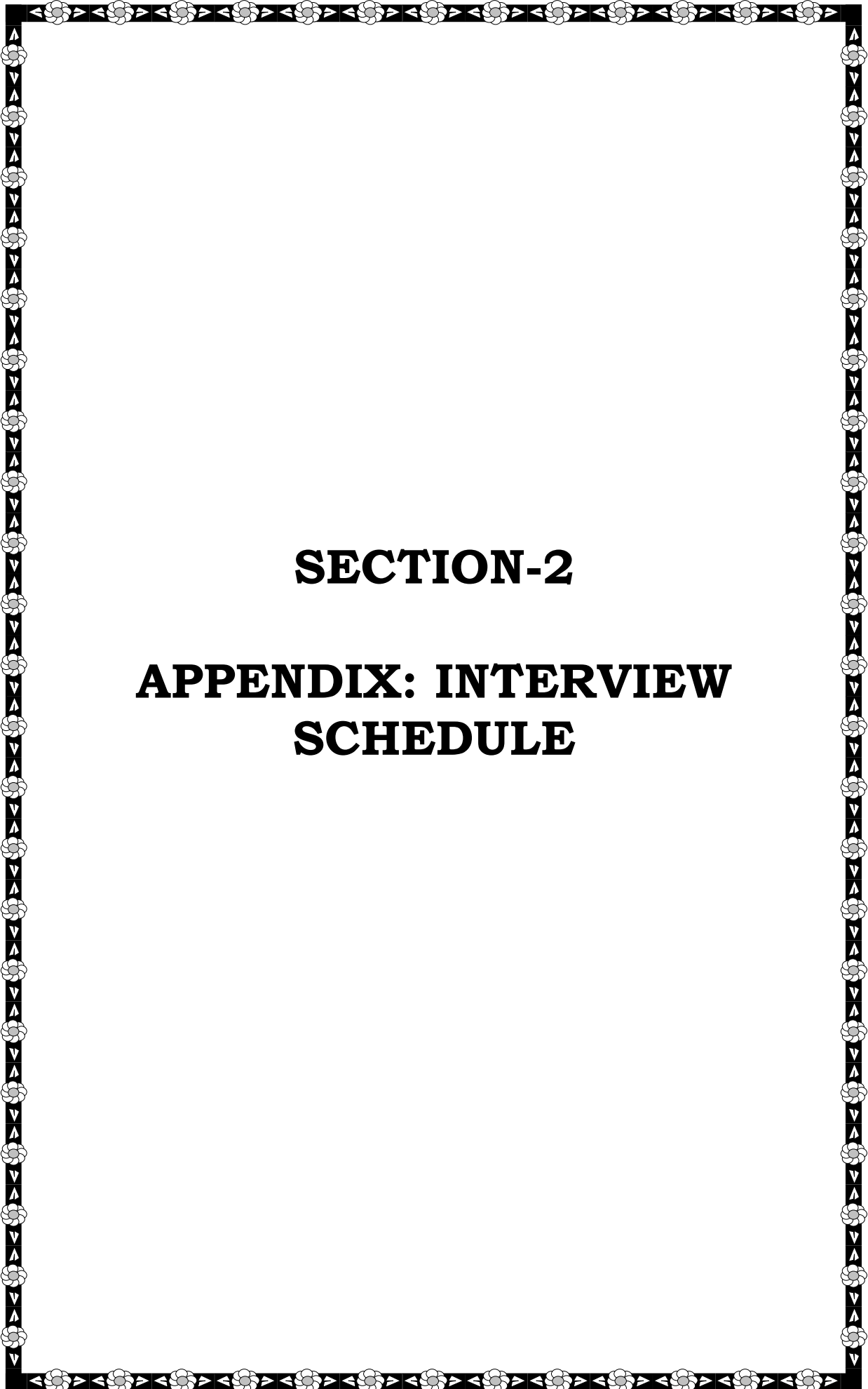
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SECTION-2

**APPENDIX: INTERVIEW
SCHEDULE**

(केवल शैक्षिक कार्य हेतु)
साक्षात्कार अनुसूची



गोपनीय
उत्तरदाता कोड नं०
(.....)

समाजशास्त्र विभाग,

बाबासाहेब भीमराव अम्बेडकर विश्वविद्यालय (केन्द्रीय), लखनऊ

मानव सुरक्षा एवं पितृसत्तात्मक हिंसा : लखनऊ जनपद की एक समाजशास्त्रीय अध्ययन
(Human Security And Patriarchal Violence: A Sociological Study of Lucknow District)

I. उत्तरदाताओं की वैयक्तिक एवं पारिवारिक पृष्ठभूमि :

1. आयु (वर्षों में) —
2. वैवाहिक स्तर* —
3. शैक्षिक स्तर ** —
4. धर्म — हिन्दू/मुस्लिम/सिख/इसाई/बौद्ध/जैन/अन्य (.....)
5. सामाजिक वर्ग — सामान्य वर्ग/अन्य पिछड़ा वर्ग/अनु० जाति/जनजाति
6. व्यवसाय *** —
7. मासिक आय — रु०
8. पारिवारिक पृष्ठभूमि — ग्रामीण/कस्बाई/शहरी
9. वर्तमान निवास — ग्राम/नगर
10. पारिवारिक सदस्यों का विवरण —

क्र.	उत्तरदाता से सम्बन्ध	आयु	लिंग	शैक्षिक स्तर*	वैवाहिक स्तर**	व्यवसाय ***	मासिक आय
1							
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* वैवाहिक स्तर कोड— 1. अविवाहित, 2. विवाहित, 3. विधवा, 4. तलाकशुदा, 5. सम्बन्ध-विच्छेद

** शैक्षिक स्तर कोड— 1. अशिक्षित, 2. साक्षर, 3. प्राइमरी, 4. जू०हाईस्कूल, 5. हाईस्कूल, 6. इंटरमीडिएट, 7. स्नातक, 8. परास्नातक, 9. अन्य (.....)

*** व्यवसाय कोड— 1. कृषि, 2. कृषि से सम्बन्धित व्यवसाय, 3. कृषि मजदूरी, 4. गैर कृषि मजदूरी, 5. हस्तशिल्प/परम्परागत व्यवसाय/जजमानी, 6. छोटी दुकान/व्यवसाय, 7. संगठित व्यवसाय, 8. सरकारी नौकरी प्रथम व द्वितीय श्रेणी, 9. सरकारी नौकरी तृतीय श्रेणी, 10. सरकारी नौकरी चतुर्थ श्रेणी, 11. सरकारी नौकरी चतुर्थ श्रेणी, 12. शिक्षक (प्राइवेट), 13. प्रशासक (प्राइवेट), 14. सुपरवाइजर/क्लर्क (प्राइवेट), 15. चतुर्थ श्रेणी कर्मी (प्राइवेट), 16. प्रोफेशनल, 17. प्रोफेशन अवर्गीकृत, 18. गृहणी, 19. बेरोजगार, 20. लागू नहीं, 21. अध्ययनरत, 22. अन्य (स्पष्ट करें).....

11. मकान का स्वरूप – – पक्का/मिश्रित/कच्चा/झोपड़ी
 12. परिवार में उपलब्ध संसाधनों की स्थिति –
 (i) आवास हेतु उचित स्थान : पर्याप्त/संतोषजनक/असंतोषजनक
 (ii) पढ़ने के समुचित स्थान : पर्याप्त/संतोषजनक/असंतोषजनक
 (iii) यातायात हेतु व्यवस्था : पर्याप्त/संतोषजनक/असंतोषजनक
 (iv) मनोरंजन की व्यवस्था : पर्याप्त/संतोषजनक/असंतोषजनक

II. परिवार में महिलाओं की प्रस्थिति

निम्नलिखित प्रश्नों के उत्तर हेतु कोष्ठक में दिये गये संकेतों का प्रयोग करें—

(1. हमेशा/पूर्णतः, 2. अधिकतर 3. कभी-कभी/आंशिक, 4. बहुत कम, 5. नहीं)

- क्या आपके परिवार में महिलाओं को उचित सम्मान मिलता है? (.....)
- क्या परिवार के महत्वपूर्ण निर्णयों में महिलाओं की राय ली जाती है? (.....)
- क्या पारिवारिक निर्णयों में महिलाओं की राय को महत्व दिया जाता है? (.....)
- क्या आपके परिवार में बालिकाओं की शिक्षा पर विशेष ध्यान दिया जाता है? (.....)
- क्या पारिवारिक कार्यक्रमों में महिलाओं को उचित महत्व मिलता है? (.....)
- क्या परिवार में महिलाओं की बात को गम्भीरता से लिया जाता है ? (.....)
- क्या आपके परिवार में महिलाओं को कहीं भी आने-जाने की स्वतंत्रता है ? (.....)
- क्या परिवार में महिलाओं को पर्दा प्रथा अपनाने के लिए कहा जाता है ? (.....)
- क्या आपके परिवार में लैंगिक आधार पर कार्यों का विभाजन होता है? (.....)
- क्या आपके परिवार में लैंगिक भेदभाव के कारण लड़कियों को शिक्षा के लिए घर से दूर भेजने का विरोध किया जाता है? (.....)
- क्या आपके परिवार में लड़कियों को अस्थाई सदस्य माना जाता है? (.....)
- क्या आपके परिवार में विवाह की न्यूनतम आयु तथा मर्जी से विवाह करने की स्वतंत्रता के बारे में लड़कों एवं लड़कियों के मध्य भेद किया जाता है? (.....)
- क्या आपके परिवार में लड़कियों का घर के कार्यों में पारंगत होना आवश्यक माना जाता है ? (.....)

III. महिलाओं के प्रति हिंसा की स्थिति

(जिन प्रश्नों के सामने उत्तर नहीं दिये गये हैं, उनके लिए निम्नांकित उत्तर कोड का प्रयोग करें— 1. हमेशा/पूर्णतः, 2. अधिकतर 3. कभी-कभी/आंशिक, 4. बहुत कम, 5. नहीं)

- क्या परिवार में महिलाओं को दुर्व्यवहार/हिंसा का सामना करना पड़ता है? (.....)
- महिलाओं को परिवार के किन सदस्यों द्वारा दुर्व्यवहार/हिंसा का सामना करना पड़ सकता/पड़ता है? –पुरुष सदस्य/महिला सदस्य/दोनों
- क्या परिवार में आपको दुर्व्यवहार/हिंसा का सामना करना पड़ता है? (.....)
- आपको परिवार के किन सदस्यों से उत्पीड़न/हिंसा का डर रहता है? –मुखिया/मुखिया समर्थित सदस्य/अन्य (.....)
- आपको अपने परिवार में किस प्रकार की उत्पीड़न या हिंसा या भेदभाव सहना पड़ा/पड़ता है ? –शारीरिक/मौखिक/मानसिक/यौनिक/आर्थिक
- क्या आपको लगता है कि परिवार में आपके साथ लैंगिक भेदभाव किया जाता है ? (.....)
- क्या आपको समाज में उत्पीड़न/हिंसा सहना पड़ा/पड़ता है ? (.....)
- आपको समाज में किन लोगों से उत्पीड़न/हिंसा का डर रहता है? –सहकर्मी/उच्च सामाजिक वर्ग/उच्च आर्थिक वर्ग/अन्य (.....)
- आप निम्नांकित में से किस कारण को आपके प्रति होने वाली हिंसा के लिये उत्तरदायी मानती हैं ?
 (1) पितृसत्तात्मक समाज व्यवस्था
 (2) महिलाओं की पुरुषों पर आश्रितता
 (3) लिंग आधारित विभेद
 (4) सामाजिक व्यवस्था

- (4) अन्य कारण (.....)
10. क्या आप(ने) अपने प्रति हिंसा/उत्पीड़न/विभेद (भेदभाव) का विरोध किया है/करती हैं? (.....)
11. आप अपने प्रति हिंसा/उत्पीड़न/विभेद (भेदभाव) का किस प्रकार करती हैं/करेंगी ? – मौखिक/शारीरिक/पारिवारिक/सामाजिक/ अन्य (.....)

IV. **वैयक्तिक सुरक्षा की स्थिति**

(जिन प्रश्नों के सामने उत्तर नहीं दिये गये हैं, उनके लिए निम्नांकित उत्तर कोड का प्रयोग करें- 1. हमेशा/पूर्णतः, 2. अधिकतर 3. कभी-कभी/आंशिक, 4. बहुत कम, 5. नहीं)

1. क्या आपको लगता है कि सभी महिलाओं को किसी न किसी कारण से परिवार/समाज में हिंसा/उत्पीड़न/लिंगभेद का सामना करना पड़ता है/पड़ सकता है? (.....)
2. क्या आपको घर में अकेले होने पर किसी के द्वारा हिंसा/उत्पीड़ित होने का डर लगता है? (.....)
3. क्या आपको अकेले बाहर जाने पर इस बात का डर रहता है कि कोई आपके साथ हिंसापूर्ण/उत्पीड़नयुक्त व्यवहार कर सकता है? (.....)
4. क्या आपको अपने पास-पड़ोस से डर लगता है? (.....)
5. क्या आपको अपने आसपास का वातावरण तनाव युक्त लगता है? (.....)
6. क्या आपको लगता है कि विभिन्न सामाजिक वर्गों/धार्मिक समूहों के मध्य तनाव है, जो आपके लिए/किसी महिला के लिए खतरा बन सकता है? (.....)
7. क्या आप वर्तमान सामाजिक व्यवस्था से संतुष्ट हैं? (.....)
8. क्या आप वर्तमान कानून व्यवस्था से संतुष्ट हैं? (.....)
9. क्या आप वर्तमान न्याय व्यवस्था से संतुष्ट हैं? (.....)
9. क्या आप पुलिस की कार्य प्रणाली पर विश्वास करती हैं? (.....)
10. क्या आप मानती हैं कि महिलाओं को पितृसत्तात्मक पारिवारिक संरचना के कारण हिंसा/उत्पीड़न/लिंगभेद का सामना करना पड़ता/पड़ सकता है? (.....)
11. क्या आप मानती हैं कि महिलाओं को भेदभावपूर्ण सामाजिक संरचना के कारण हिंसा/उत्पीड़न/लिंगभेद का सामना करना पड़ता/पड़ सकता है? (.....)
12. क्या आप मानती हैं कि महिलाओं को लचर कानून व्यवस्था के कारण हिंसा/उत्पीड़न/लिंगभेद का सामना करना पड़ता/पड़ सकता है? (.....)
13. क्या आप मानती हैं कि महिलाओं को वर्तमान कानूनों में कमियों के कारण हिंसा/उत्पीड़न/लिंगभेद का सामना करना पड़ता/पड़ सकता है? (.....)
14. क्या आपको लगता है कि महिलाओं के प्रति हिंसा से सुरक्षा से संबंधित कानून पर्याप्त/कारगर हैं? (.....)
15. क्या आपको लगता है कार्यपालिका, विधायिका, एवं न्यायपालिका महिलाओं के प्रति हिंसा रोकने में सक्षम है? (.....)
16. क्या आपको लगता है कि 1090 : महिला हेल्पलाइन महिलाओं द्वारा शिकायत दर्ज करने पर त्वरित कार्यवाही करती है ? (.....)

V. **स्वास्थ्य सुरक्षा की स्थिति**

(जिन प्रश्नों के सामने उत्तर नहीं दिये गये हैं, उनके लिए निम्नांकित उत्तर कोड का प्रयोग करें- 1. हमेशा/पूर्णतः, 2. अधिकतर 3. कभी-कभी/आंशिक, 4. बहुत कम, 5. नहीं)

1. क्या आपको लगता है कि परिवार में लैंगिक आधार पर भोजन और स्वास्थ्य सम्बन्धी देखरेख में भेदभाव किया जाता है? (.....)
2. आपके परिवार में खाने-पीने के चीजों की आपूर्ति कैसी है ?
बहुत अच्छी/ अच्छी /औसत/थोड़ा खराब/बहुत खराब

3. क्या आपके परिवार में रोजमर्रा के खाने के वितरण में पुरुष और महिलाओं या लड़के और लड़कियों के मध्य भेदभाव किया जाता है? (.....)
4. क्या आपके परिवार में पौष्टिक खाने (दूध, घी, मांस-मछली, फल आदि) के उपभोग में पुरुष और महिलाओं या लड़के और लड़कियों के मध्य भेदभाव किया जाता है? (.....)
5. क्या आपके परिवार में पहले खाना खिलाने के सम्बन्ध में पुरुष और महिला सदस्यों या लड़के और लड़कियों के मध्य भेदभाव किया जाता है? (.....)
6. क्या आपको अपने परिवार में अपनी इच्छानुसार व स्वादानुसार भोजन मिलता है? (.....)
7. क्या आप अपनी इच्छानुसार किसी भी समय खाना खाती हैं? (.....)
8. क्या आपके भोजन में हरी साग-सब्जियाँ पर्याप्त मात्रा में होती हैं? (.....)
9. क्या आपके परिवार में महिलाओं के खान-पान पर ध्यान दिया जाता है? (.....)
10. क्या आपको लगता है कि आपके परिवार की महिलाओं और बच्चियों के पोषण का स्तर संतोषजनक नहीं है? (.....)
11. क्या आप मानती हैं कि आपके परिवार में लड़को की अपेक्षा लड़कियों के खान-पान पर कम ध्यान दिया जाता है? (.....)
12. क्या सरकारी राशन की दुकान से सस्ते दर पर राशन मिलता है? (.....)

VI. सामाजिक सुरक्षा की स्थिति

(जिन प्रश्नों के सामने उत्तर नहीं दिये गये हैं, उनके लिए निम्नांकित उत्तर कोड का प्रयोग करें- 1. हमेशा/पूर्णतः, 2. अधिकतर 3. कभी-कभी/आंशिक, 4. बहुत कम, 5. नहीं)

1. क्या आपको लगता है कि समाज में महिलाओं के प्रति भेदभावपूर्ण व्यवहार किया जाता है? (.....)
2. क्या आपको लगता है कि महिलाओं को समाज में महिला होने के कारण उत्पीड़ित किया जाता है? (.....)
3. क्या आप सामाजिक कार्यक्रमों में भाग लेती हैं? (.....)
4. क्या आपको सामाजिक कार्यक्रमों में उचित महत्व मिलता है? (.....)
5. क्या आपको अपने समाज से उचित सहयोग प्राप्त होता है ? (.....)
6. क्या अपने समाज में आपकी बात को गम्भीरता से लिया जाता है ? (.....)
7. जरूरत होने पर आपको, अपने रिश्तेदारों से समुचित सहयोग मिलता है? (.....)
8. जरूरत पड़ने पर आपको अपने धर्म के लोगों से समुचित सहयोग मिलता है (.....)
9. जरूरत पड़ने पर आपको महिलाओं से समुचित सहयोग मिलता है (.....)

VII. स्वास्थ्य सुरक्षा की स्थिति

(जिन प्रश्नों के सामने उत्तर नहीं दिये गये हैं, उनके लिए निम्नांकित उत्तर कोड का प्रयोग करें- 1. हमेशा/पूर्णतः, 2. अधिकतर 3. कभी-कभी/आंशिक, 4. बहुत कम, 5. नहीं)

1. आपके परिवार में महिलाओं के स्वास्थ्य की स्थिति कैसी है?
—बहुत अच्छी/अच्छी/संतोषजनक/खराब/बहुत खराब
2. क्या आप मानती हैं कि महिलाओं को छोटी-मोटी स्वास्थ्य समस्याएं अपने आप ही ठीक हो जाती हैं? (.....)
3. क्या आप शारीरिक स्वच्छता को अच्छे स्वास्थ्य के लिए आवश्यक मानती हैं?
4. क्या आप परिवार नियोजन को आवश्यक मानती हैं?
5. क्या आप बीमारियों को ठीक करने के लिए झाड़-फूँक व टोने-टोटकों में विश्वास करती हैं? (.....)
6. क्या आप को लगता है कि किसी भी स्वास्थ्य समस्या, चाहे वह कितनी भी छोटी हो, उसका उचित निदान एवं उपचार होना आवश्यक है? (.....)

- 7.. क्या आप मानती हैं कि महिला स्वास्थ्य की स्थिति में सुधार लाने के लिए सर्वाधिक जिम्मेदारी स्वयं महिलाओं की है? (.....)
8. क्या आप मानती हैं कि महिला स्वास्थ्य की स्थिति में सुधार लाने के लिए सर्वाधिक जिम्मेदारी परिवार के सभी सदस्यों की है? (.....)
9. क्या आप मानती हैं कि महिला स्वास्थ्य की स्थिति में सुधार लाने के लिए सर्वाधिक जिम्मेदारी समुदाय के सभी जिम्मेदार सदस्यों की है? (.....)
10. क्या आप मानती हैं कि महिला स्वास्थ्य की स्थिति में सुधार लाने के लिए सर्वाधिक जिम्मेदारी गैर-सरकारी/सरकारी संस्थाओं की है? (.....)
11. क्या आप महिला स्वास्थ्य की कमजोर स्थिति के लिए अशिक्षा को जिम्मेदार मानती हैं? (.....)
12. क्या आप महिला स्वास्थ्य की कमजोर स्थिति के लिए पारिवारिक वातावरण को जिम्मेदार मानती हैं? (.....)
13. क्या आप महिला स्वास्थ्य की कमजोर स्थिति के लिए परिवार एवं समाज में प्रचलित रीति-रिवाज एवं परम्पराएं को जिम्मेदार मानती हैं? (.....)
14. क्या आप महिला स्वास्थ्य की कमजोर स्थिति के लिए स्वास्थ्य सेवाओं की अनुपलब्धता को जिम्मेदार मानती हैं? (.....)
15. क्या आप मानती हैं कि आशा योजना से महिलाओं की स्वास्थ्य सम्बन्धी समस्याओं का समाधान हुआ है? (.....)
16. क्या आप मानती हैं कि आपके क्षेत्र में स्वास्थ्य सुविधाएं बेहतर हुई हैं? (.....)
17. क्या आप मानती हैं कि आशा योजना से महिलाओं की स्वास्थ्य सम्बन्धी समस्याओं का समाधान हुआ है?— (.....)
18. क्या आप मानती हैं कि 108 व 109 एम्बुलेंस सेवा से महिलाओं की स्वास्थ्य सम्बन्धी समस्याओं का समाधान हुआ है?— (.....)
19. क्या आप बच्चों एवं स्वयं का निर्धारित टीकाकरण करवाना आवश्यक मानती है? (.....)
20. क्या आपको लगता है कि महिला एवं बाल स्वास्थ्य योजनाओं का पात्रतानुसार लाभ मिल रहा है? (.....)
21. क्या आपको लगता है कि स्वास्थ्य केन्द्रों पर बीमारी का यथोचित इलाज होता है? (.....)
22. क्या आपको लगता है कि बीमारी के इलाज में परिवार में महिलाओं और पुरुषों/लड़के और लड़कियों के मध्य भेदभाव किया जाता है? (.....)
23. क्या आपके बीमार होने पर परिवार के सदस्यों द्वारा उपचार की उचित व्यवस्था की जाती है? (.....)
24. क्या आपके बीमार होने पर डॉक्टर से आपका उपचार कराया जाता है? (.....)

VIII. आर्थिक सुरक्षा की स्थिति

(जिन प्रश्नों के सामने उत्तर नहीं दिये गये हैं, उनके लिए निम्नांकित उत्तर कोड का प्रयोग करें— 1. हमेशा/पूर्णतः, 2. अधिकतर 3. कभी-कभी/आंशिक, 4. बहुत कम, 5. नहीं)

1. क्या आप अपनी आर्थिक स्थिति से संतुष्ट हैं? (.....)
2. क्या आपको लगता है कि महिलाओं को आर्थिक रूप से आश्रित रहना पड़ता है? (.....)
3. क्या आपको लगता है कि महिलाओं की कमजोर स्थिति उनकी आर्थिक आश्रितता जिम्मेदार है? (.....)
4. क्या आपको आर्थिक (रूपये-पैसे) जरूरत पड़ने पर परिवार से सहयोग मिलता है? (.....)
5. क्या आपके परिवार में महिलाओं को अपना व्यवसाय चुनने की स्वतंत्रता है? (.....)

7. क्या आपके परिवार में सम्पत्ति पर बेटियों का हक स्वीकार किया जाता है? (.....)
8. क्या आपके परिवार में महिलाओं को स्वअर्जित आय को अपनी इच्छा से खर्च करने की स्वतंत्रता है? (.....)
9. क्या आपको स्वअर्जित आय को अपनी इच्छा से खर्च करने की स्वतंत्रता है? (.....)
10. क्या आप पारिवारिक सम्पत्ति पर बेटियों का हक स्वीकार करती हैं? (.....)
11. क्या आप मानती है कि वर्तमान में रोजगार के अवसरों में वृद्धि हुई है? (.....)
12. क्या आप सेवायोजन हेतु कहीं भी जाने को तैयार हैं? (.....)
13. क्या आप मानती है कि वर्तमान में रोजगार की प्रकृति में बदलाव हुआ है? (.....)
14. क्या आपके परिवार ने आय सृजन के नवाचारी (नये व आधुनिक) तरीके अपनाये हैं? (.....)
15. क्या आपको आय सृजन के कार्यों के लिए घर से बाहर जाने पर बन्दिश लगाई जाती है? (.....).
16. क्या आपको लगता है कि महिलाओं के साथ वेतन या कार्य सम्बन्धी भेदभाव किया जाता है? (.....)
17. क्या आपने अपने रोजगार की प्रकृति में परिवर्तन किया है? (.....)
18. क्या आपको लगता है कि सरकार द्वारा आपकी/महिलाओं की आर्थिक संवृद्धि हेतु उचित उपाय किये जा रहे हैं? (.....)
19. क्या आपको लगता है कि गैर सरकारी संस्थाओं द्वारा आपकी/महिलाओं की आर्थिक संवृद्धि हेतु उचित उपाय किये जा रहे हैं? (.....)
20. क्या आपको लगता है कि वर्तमान आर्थिक परिदृश्य आपकी/महिलाओं की आर्थिक संवृद्धि में सहायक है? (.....)
21. आपकी अपनी आर्थिक जरूरतें पूरी करने के क्या स्रोत हैं (घटते क्रम में अंक प्रदान करें)?
 - (क) स्वयं की आय (.....)
 - (ख) परिवार की आय (.....)
 - (ग) स्वयं एवं परिवार दोनों की (.....)
 - (घ) सरकारी योजनाएं (.....)
22. आप द्वारा अर्जित धन के उपभोग में किसकी भूमिका निर्णायक स्वीकार करेंगी (घटते क्रम में अंक प्रदान करें)?
 - (क) स्वयं की (.....)
 - (ख) पति की (.....)
 - (ग) स्वयं एवं पति दोनों की (.....)
 - (घ) परिवार के मुखिया की (.....)
23. आप स्वयं द्वारा अर्जित धन को किस पर खर्च करना चाहेंगी (घटते क्रम में अंक प्रदान करें)?
 - (क) केवल स्वयं पर (.....)
 - (ख) परिवार के लिए आवश्यक सुविधाओं पर (.....)
 - (ग) परिवार के सदस्यों की जरूरतों पर (.....)
24. क्या आपके पास किसी प्रकार के पारिवारिक धन/भूमि/मकान/फ्लैट का स्वामित्व/कानूनी अधिकार है? -हाँ/नहीं/पता नहीं
25. अगर आपके परिवार में बैंक इत्यादि से ऋण (लोन) लिया गया है तो किसके नाम से है?
 - (क) स्वयं के नाम से
 - (ख) परिवार की किसी महिला के नाम से
 - (ग) परिवार के मुखिया के नाम से
 - (घ) परिवार के मुखिया के अतिरिक्त परिवार की किसी अन्य पुरुष के नाम से

IX. राजनीतिक सुरक्षा की स्थिति

(जिन प्रश्नों के सामने उत्तर नहीं दिये गये हैं, उनके लिए निम्नांकित उत्तर कोड का प्रयोग करें— 1. हमेशा/पूर्णतः, 2. अधिकतर 3. कभी-कभी/आंशिक, 4. बहुत कम, 5. नहीं)

1. क्या आप मानती हैं कि वर्तमान राजनीतिक परिस्थितियाँ महिलाओं को राजनीतिक सुरक्षा प्रदान करने में सहायक है? (.....)
2. क्या आप मानती हैं कि वर्तमान राजनीतिक व्यवस्था सभी को समान अवसर प्रदान कर रही है? (.....)
3. क्या आप मानती हैं कि वर्तमान राजनीतिक व्यवस्था महिलाओं की सहभागिता हेतु समुचित अवसर प्रदान कर रही है? (.....)
4. क्या आप मानती हैं कि वर्तमान राजनीतिक व्यवस्था सभी को सुरक्षा मिल रही है? (.....)
5. क्या आप मानती हैं कि वर्तमान राजनीतिक व्यवस्था सभी को अभिव्यक्ति की स्वतंत्रता (अपनी बात कहने की आजादी) मिल रही है? (.....)
6. क्या आपको लगता है कि स्थानीय निकायों में महिलाओं को आरक्षण प्रदान करने से महिलाओं को राजनीतिक सुरक्षा मिली है? (.....)
7. क्या आपको लगता है कि विधान सभा और लोकसभा में महिलाओं को आरक्षण करने से महिलाओं को समुचित राजनीतिक मिलेगी? (.....)
8. क्या आप मानती हैं कि महिलाओं को राजनीतिक क्षेत्र में कम रुचि होती है? (.....)
9. क्या आप मानती हैं कि राजनीतिक क्षेत्र महिलाओं के लिए कठिन है? (.....)
10. क्या आप राजनीतिक गतिविधियों में सक्रिय रूप से भाग लेती हैं? (.....)
11. क्या आप मतदान प्रक्रिया में भाग लेती हैं? (.....)
12. क्या आप अपनी मर्जी से मत का निर्धारण करती हैं? (.....)
13. क्या आप महिलाओं का राजनीति में भाग लेना उचित मानती हैं? (.....)
14. क्या राजनीतिक क्षेत्र में कार्य करने के लिए महिलाओं को परिवार के सदस्यों द्वारा प्रोत्साहित किया जाता है? (.....)
15. क्या आप ने किसी चुनाव में भाग लिया है? — हाँ/नहीं
16. क्या आप किसी चुनाव में भाग लेंगी? —यदि आवश्यक हुआ/कह नहीं सकती/नहीं

X. पर्यावरण सुरक्षा की स्थिति

(जिन प्रश्नों के सामने उत्तर नहीं दिये गये हैं, उनके लिए निम्नांकित उत्तर कोड का प्रयोग करें— 1. हमेशा/पूर्णतः, 2. अधिकतर 3. कभी-कभी/आंशिक, 4. बहुत कम, 5. नहीं)

1. क्या आप महिलाओं एवं बच्चों के कमजोर स्वास्थ्य की स्थिति के लिए आस-पास का पर्यावरण को जिम्मेदार मानती हैं? (.....)
2. क्या आप अपने पास-पड़ोस की सफाई की स्थिति से संतुष्ट हैं? (.....)
4. क्या आप अपने निवास स्थान में पेयजल की व्यवस्था से संतुष्ट हैं? (.....)
3. क्या आप अपने निवास स्थल में शौचालय की व्यवस्था से संतुष्ट हैं? (.....)
5. क्या आप घरेलू कूड़े की निस्तारण व्यवस्था से संतुष्ट हैं? (.....)
6. क्या आपके घर में खाना बनाने के लिए सुरक्षित ईंधन का प्रयोग किया जाता है? (.....)
7. क्या आपको लगता है कि वातावरण में जहरीली/हानिकारक गैसों की मात्रा बढ़ रही है? (.....)
8. क्या आपको लगता है कि आप-पास एवं नदी-नालों के जल में जहरीली/हानिकारक तत्वों की मात्रा बढ़ रही है? (.....)
9. क्या आप मानती है कि मानवीय क्रियाएं पृथ्वी की जलवायु को प्रभावित कर रही हैं? (.....)
10. क्या आप पॉलीथीन उत्पाद का प्रयोग करती हैं? (.....)

11. क्या आप मानती हैं कि पॉलीथीन उत्पाद जलाने से पर्यावरण प्रदूषण में तीव्र वृद्धि होती है? (.....)
12. क्या आप मानती है कि सूखा, बाढ़, तूफान, चक्रवात आदि घटनाओं की पुनरावृत्ति हो रही है? (.....)
13. क्या आप मानती है कि फसलों का कम उत्पदन, वनों और घासों के उगने में परिवर्तन, आग लगना आदि घटनाओं में वृद्धि हो रही है? (.....)
14. क्या आप मानती है कि प्राकृतिक आपदाओं की घटनाओं में वृद्धि के लिए अनियंत्रित मानव व्यवहार जिम्मेदार है? (.....)
15. क्या आप मानती है कि प्राकृतिक आपदा की स्थिति में सरकार द्वारा उचित सहायता प्रदान की जाती है? (.....)
16. क्या आपको लगता है कि प्राकृतिक आपदाओं से निपटने हेतु सरकारी तैयारी संतोषजनक है? (.....)
17. क्या आपको लगता है कि सड़क दुर्घटनाएं बढ़ रही हैं? (.....)
18. क्या आप सड़क दुर्घटनाओं के लिए लोगों को जिम्मेदार मानती हैं? (.....)
19. क्या आपको लगता है कि वायु प्रदूषण कम करने के लिए सरकार द्वारा उचित उपाय किये जा रहे हैं? (.....)
20. क्या आपको लगता है कि आप-पास एवं नदी-नालों के जल में जहरीली/हानिकारक तत्वों की रोकथाम हेतु सरकार द्वारा उचित उपाय किये जा रहे हैं? (.....)