UNIT 1  ISSUES CONCERNING PARTICIPATION

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Structure

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1.1 INTRODUCTION

In this Unit you will read about various issues concerning participation of women in paid work. How much and in what way they contribute to the economy and how women are placed statistically in the gambit of economic development of India. The Unit begins with recapturing of what you have read earlier about Census and NSSO capturing Women’s work, how work as an economic activity is measured and what is women worker’s statistical representation. Thereafter, factors that influence women’s labour participation are discussed followed by women’s participation as workers in organised and unorganised sectors of Indian economy. The Unit ends with a section on women workers in select occupations and profession where they are working in difficult or challenging situations. Let us go through the objectives of reading this unit.

1.2 OBJECTIVES

After reading this Unit, you would be able to:

• Explain women’s work participation with regards to the extent and influencing factors;
1.3 CAPTURING WOMEN’S WORK

Conventionally, women make up one-third of the labour force. When we include women engaged in the collection of fuel and fodder, or in dairy, poultry or kitchen garden production for the family, the female LFPR increases to 51 per cent from 39 per cent (only 13% lesser than the male participation rate of 64%).

Conventional definitions of economic activity would suggest that most Indian women are housewives but as the definitions and methods of measurement become more precise this picture comes into better focus. According to the 1981 Census, only about 20 per cent of women in India were in the labour force; when the broader definitions of work and the more intensive survey methods of the National Sample Survey (NSS) are used, this percentage increases to around 39 per cent. Yet, even this figure is acknowledged to miss a significant portion of women’s gainful economic activity in the subsistence sector.

The Census of India recognises production for own consumption in cultivation as economic activity. The term cultivation in the Census, covers only growing of certain crops such as cereals, millets, sugarcane etc. Growing of plantation crops, vegetables, flowers and other crops are not included under cultivation. Also, growing of such crops exclusively for home consumption is not considered as economic activity in the Census.

Various micro-level studies have captured women’s work and found where women work. A major part of the work is unpaid domestic work and is, therefore, considered as non-labour force activity-particularly domestic work. It is argued that if domestic work is included in the concept of work participation, 55 per cent of the female population above age 5 would get included.

The NSSO has defined ‘work’ or ‘gainful activity’ as the activity pursued for pay, profit or family gain or in other words, the activity which adds value to the ‘rational product’. Normally, it is an activity which results in the production of goods and services for exchange. However, all activities in the agricultural sector in which a part or whole of the agricultural production is used for own consumption and does not go for sale are also considered as gainful. In short, work is defined as any market activity and any non-market activity relating to the agricultural sector. Both the Census and NSSO do not include attending to household chores as work or gainful activity.
The NSSO therefore introduced a new, additional code (code 93) in its occupational classifications for the 32nd round (1977-78). This new code allowed the survey respondent to distinguish between the performance of conventional ‘domestic activities’ and also free collection of goods (vegetables, roots, firewood, fish, cow dung, cattle field etc), maintenance of kitchen gardens, orchards, etc., work in poultry or dairy, sewing, tailoring, weaving, etc., for household use, water collection and tutoring of children.

**Measurement of ‘Work’**

Data on the economic activity of the people collected up to the Census in 1951 was based on ‘income’ and ‘dependency’ concepts. From the 1961 Census onwards, the concept of work measured in terms of time or the labour force concept has been followed. This is in accordance with the recommendations of International Labour Office (ILO) and is generally followed in most of the countries. The classification of population as ‘workers’ and ‘non-workers’ based on the concept of work was introduced in the 1961 Census.

Thus, in the 1971 Census, every person was asked what their ‘main activity’ was i.e. how he or she engaged himself/herself mostly. On the basis of this question, the population was divided into two broad streams of main activity as ‘workers’ and ‘non-workers’. The reference period adopted was one week prior to the date of enumeration in the case of regular work in trade. A person was a main worker if he/she had participated in any such regular work, on any one of the days during this reference period and this had been treated as his/her main activity.

In the case of seasonal workers, a person’s main activity was ascertained with reference to such work in the last one year, even if the person was not economically active in the week prior to the enumeration.

In the 1981 Census, the economic questions were formulated so as to first divide the population into;

a) Workers - those who had worked at any time during the year preceding the Census; and

b) Non-Workers - those who had not worked at all during the year.

Having classified the population into these broad groups, an attempt was made to sub-divide those who had worked anytime into two groups.

a) ‘Main workers’ i.e. those who were engaged in economic activity for the major part of the year i.e. for a period of six months (183 days) or more and

b) ‘Marginal workers’ i.e. those who had worked for some time but not for the major part during the last year.
An attempt was also made to find out whether those who were non-workers or those who were marginal workers were seeking or available for work.

While formulating the economic questions in the 1991 Census, it was decided to adopt the same long reference period of ‘one year’ for both seasonal and regular activities besides continuing the concepts and definitions used in the 1981 Census. Further, it was also adopted to incorporate the words ‘including unpaid work on farm or in family enterprises’ to the main question relating to the work, with a view to capture the unpaid contribution by women and children in their family farms and family enterprises.

According to Resolution No. 1 of the 13th International Conference of Labour Statisticians, 1982, the ‘economically active population comprises persons of either sex, who furnish the supply of labour for the production of economic goods and services as defined by the United Nations’.

According to this definition, economic activities can be market activities or non-market activities. Market activities are those in which one produces goods or services for pay or for profit. The non-market economic activities are:

- Production of primary commodities for own consumption.
- Processing of primary commodities for own consumption.
- Own account production of fixed assets.

The NSSO has defined ‘work’ or ‘gainful activity’ as the activity pursued for pay, profit or family gain or in other words, the activity which adds value to the ‘national product’.

The NSSO has adopted three different approaches to measure employment and unemployment. The three approaches are:

- ‘usual status’ approach, with a reference period of 365 days preceding the date of survey;
- ‘current weekly status’ approach, with a reference period of seven days preceding the date of survey;
- ‘current daily status’ approach, with each day of the seven days preceding date of survey as the reference period.

Strictly speaking, this approach attempts classification of person-days and not persons.

Of the above approaches, the measurement of employment and unemployment based on the ‘usual status approach’ is the one that can be broadly compared with the Census classification. The ‘usual status approach’ has a reference period of one year. In this approach, the activity on which a person spent relatively longer time of the preceding 365 days,
prior to the date of survey, is considered as the principal status of the person. Accordingly, a person’s principal ‘usual status’ is considered as working or employed, if he or she was engaged during the reference period of 365 days, in any one or more of the work activities. A person is considered as ‘seeking or available for work’ or ‘unemployed’, if he or she was not working but was either seeking or was available for work for a relatively longer period of the specified reference period. A person is considered as ‘not in labour force’, if he or she was engaged for a relatively longer period in any one of the non-gainful activities.

Now, attempt the following exercise to assess your understanding from the previous sections.

In the following section you will read about aspects influence women’s work participation in India.

1.4 WOMEN’S WORK PARTICIPATION STATUS

According to the indicators of development compiled by the World Bank (1994), there were only 25 females in the labour force for every 100 males (age 15-65) as against a ratio of 38 females for 100 males in developed countries. Due to the high rate and the large proportion children below the age of 6 years (about 18 percent), only 57.8 percent of the Indian population falls within the economically active age group of 15-59 years. The actual of labour force is only 56.5 per cent of the economically active population. While 78 per cent of the males in the economically active group are in the labour force, only 33.3 per cent of the females are reckoned to be in the labour force.

Women constitute a significant proportion of the Indian labour market. The labour force of any market refers to that portion of the population which is ready to work irrespective of whether they get job or not. In the same way the labour force participation rate (LFPR) represents the number of population per hundred that supplies their labour services (Rustogi, 2004).

Table 1.1: Labour Force Participation Rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NSS Rounds</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Urban</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987-88</td>
<td>54.9</td>
<td>33.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993-94</td>
<td>56.1</td>
<td>33.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999-2000</td>
<td>54.0</td>
<td>30.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Participation

The above table reveals that information about the LFPR that is given in the ‘usual status’ term which includes principal and subsidiary status of LFR that is persons who worked for sometime with regularity and also those who had either sought work or were available for work for sometime during the reference period. The table shows that the LFPR for males was higher than for females, in both rural and urban areas, for the period from 1987-88 to 1999-2000. But, from 1993-94 to 1999-2000, there was a decline in LFPR in all categories. However, the decline in the LFPR for females was greater than for males during the same period. The LFPR for urban males has been nearly stagnant during the period 1993-94 to 1999-2000. But, as far as the case of LFPR for urban females is concerned, there has been a sharp decline during the study period. From information revealed by the above Table, two important inferences can be drawn.

- Female LFPR has always been less than that of male for urban as well as rural areas and shows a declining trend, and
- Rural female labour force has participated more actively in the labour market than the urban female labour force.

1.5 LABOUR FORCE AND WORK FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES

Here, we will further analyse the situation with respect to urban and rural women’s LFPR.

Female Participation: The trend of rural female participation, which has been discussed by Himanshu (2011) and Abraham (2013), saw a drastic fall after an increase in 2004-05. Urban female participation, which also increased in 2004-05, fell in 2009-10 and then increased marginally in 2011-12, but to a level lower than that in 2004-05. In general, female participation in the labour force has been low and is falling. This decline in participation of females in the labour force, especially in rural areas, has been dubbed, ‘de-ferminisation’ (Abraham, 2013).

Reduced female participation is also reflected in an absolute decrease in the number of rural female workers (see Annexure at the end of the unit). In the case of urban female workers, the average yearly growth between 2004-05 and 2011-12 was higher than that recorded between 2004-05 and 2009-10 (mainly due to a higher growth in number of female workers between 2009-10 and 2011-12).

However, the growth was still less level than recorded between 1999—2000 and 2004-05.

Rural female workers engaged in agriculture as a proportion of total workers has declined since 1999-2000, but the fall was more drastic between 2004-
05 and 2009-10, and continued upto 2011-12 (See table 2 Annexured at the end of the unit). Further, no significant increase in the proportion of female workers was seen in either secondary sector or tertiary sector employment in rural areas. This is in keeping with the trend of fewer women in work, especially in rural India. Urban female workers in the secondary and tertiary sectors have grown as a proportion of total workers in the last decade or so, but this increase is meager relative to the number of women leaving the labour force in rural areas. (Table 3 annexured at at the end of the Unit). The rural female self-employed category fell marginally from about 11% in 1999-2000 to 9% in 2011-12 (except in 2004-05 when it was 12%). The proportion of rural women engaged on causal wages declined all through this period (Table 4). This was once again in keeping with the general fall in female participation in work. In urban areas, however, there was a marginal rise in the proportion of female regular wage employees.

Box No. 1

As per Census 2011, the workforce participation rate for females at the national level stands at 25.51% compared with 53.26% for males. In the rural sector, females have a workforce participation rate of 30.02% compared with 53.03% for males. In the urban sector, it is 15.44% for females and 53.76% for males.

As per National sample Survey (68th Round), the worker population ratio for females in rural sector was 24.8% for males. Among the States/UTs, worker population ratio for females in the rural sector was the highest in Himachal Pradesh at 52.4% and in the urban sector, it was the highest in Sikkim at 27.3%

Disaggregated figures for casual wage work show that the proportion of rural males went up marginally between 1999-2000 and 2009-10 and then declined in 2011-12 to a level lower than that in 1990-2000 (See table 4 at end of this unit)

The proportion of rural male workers engaged in primary sector activities dropped in the last decade, with a noticeable shift between 1999-2000 and 2004-05 (Table 2 annexed at the end of this unit). During the same time, there was an increase in rural males (as a proportion of the total worker population) engaged in secondary sector activities, which has continued to rise. The proportion of rural males working in the tertiary sector also increased , but this shift has been more gradual than that from agriculture to the secondary sector.
1.6 FACTORS DETERMINING WOMEN’S LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

The magnitude of female participation primarily depends upon:

- The status which the women enjoy in society.
- The extent to which their mobility is allowed.
- The economic exigencies necessitating their participation.
- The availability of suitable jobs.
- The desire on the part of women to avail themselves of these opportunities.

Box No. 2

Factors Determining Women’s LFPR

i) Level of economic development
ii) Style of development
iii) Available infrastructure
iv) Government policy concerning employment of women
v) Laws relating to employment of women
vi) Type of work available
vii) The structure of the family
viii) Cultural traditions concerning men’s dominance over women
ix) Cultural traditions concerning women’s economic role and responsibilities
x) Fertility level and cultural traditions influencing child bearing behavior
xi) Availability of child care facilities
xii) Cultural expectations as to the need for and nature of housework
xiii) Women’s property rights.
xiv) Women’s educational level
xv) Women’s age at marriage and opportunities to gain work experience prior to marriage.
xvi) Migration behaviour
xvii) Women’s access to technology
The factors that affect labour force rates among women are complex and least understood. We have seen in the earlier section that the labour force rate among women has declined more than that among males, and the decline has come about mainly in secondary and tertiary sectors where economic activities have increasingly shifted from home to factory. It seems that women’s participation in economic activity is facilitated by the availability of agricultural and household industry work, where they can combine work activities with household chores, working mostly as unpaid family labourers. Hence, in determining the future course of labour force participation rates among females, the possibility that agriculture and household industry will continue to remain important economic activities for the next half a century or so, will have to be borne in mind.

Take up the following exercise to assess your learning before reading ahead.

**Check Your Progress:**

1) **Define Work Participation and Labour Force Participation.**

2) **List the factors determining women’s labour force participation.**
In the ensuing section, we will continue our discussion on women’s participation in workforce.

**Economic Status and Female Work Participation Rate**

Presently, women produce 50 per cent of the world’s food supply, account for 60 per cent working force and contribute up to 30 per cent of official labour force. However, as per UN estimates, they receive only 10 per cent of the world’s income and own less than one percentage of world’s property.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category of Workers</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main Workers*</td>
<td>1991</td>
<td>34.12</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1981</td>
<td>(33.4)</td>
<td>(51.6)</td>
<td>(14.00)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marginal Workers**</td>
<td>1991</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1981</td>
<td>(3.3)</td>
<td>(1.3)</td>
<td>(5.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Workers***</td>
<td>1991</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>22.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1981</td>
<td>(36.7)</td>
<td>(52.6)</td>
<td>(19.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


* Main workers refer to the persons engaged in economically productive activity for more than half the year (183 days).

** Marginal workers refer to the persons engaged in economically productive work for less than 183 days.

*** Non-workers are those who did not work at all during the year.

From the above (Table 2.2), it may be observed that the percentage of main male workers was more than three times higher than that of females. However, a comparison of 1991 and 2001 Censuses reveal that there has been an increase of 2.07 per cent of female main workers signifying increased work participation of women in economic activities. In case of marginal workers the female participation rate was nearly 6 times higher than the male workers as per 2001 Census.

As per Census 2011, 41.1% of female main and marginal workers are agricultural labourers, 24.0% are cultivators, 5.7% are household industry workers and 29.2% are engaged in other works.

## 1.7 WOMEN IN ORGANISED SECTOR EMPLOYMENT

Of the total employment of women, the organised sector employment forms only 6 percent. Though less in percentage they represent the most powerful section of the female labour force as beneficiaries of the statutory provisions made by the State in order to protect and safeguard their interests. Protective labour laws are applicable in this sector with regard to women’s work, wages and conditions of work. They are also entitled to improve their skills,
The women in this sector have better conditions of work and wages compared to the women in the un-organised sector. The following table shows employment of women in public and private sectors followed by total employment of men and women in organised sector.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>167.1</td>
<td>168.8</td>
<td>164.57</td>
<td>162.79</td>
<td>150.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>23.47</td>
<td>25.65</td>
<td>28.57</td>
<td>28.59</td>
<td>29.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>190.57</td>
<td>194.45</td>
<td>193.14</td>
<td>191.38</td>
<td>180.87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Private Sector</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>62.42</td>
<td>64.31</td>
<td>65.8</td>
<td>65.62</td>
<td>63.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>14.34</td>
<td>16.28</td>
<td>20.66</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>20.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>76.76</td>
<td>80.59</td>
<td>86.46</td>
<td>86.52</td>
<td>84.52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employment in organised sector</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>229.52</td>
<td>232.21</td>
<td>230.37</td>
<td>228.4</td>
<td>214.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>37.81</td>
<td>42.24</td>
<td>49.23</td>
<td>49.49</td>
<td>50.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>267.33</td>
<td>275.25</td>
<td>279.60</td>
<td>277.89</td>
<td>264.58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Ministry of Labour and Employment, Director General of Employment and Trading

In 1991, women’s WPR in the public sector was only 16.71 per cent. After two decades it went up to 162.79 per cent. In the private sector, women’s participation increased from 16.34 per cent to 20.09 per cent during the same period. The total employment of women in the public and private sectors has shown a rising trend from 37.81 per cent to 49.49 per cent between 1991-2001.

A total of 20.5% women were employed in the organised sector in 2011 with 18.1% working in the public sector and 24.3% in the private sector.

As per Census 2011, manufacturing sector occupies the first place for women employment in the organised sector with 9.7 lakh employees. The second and third place are held by ‘community, social and private services’ (8.5 lakh women employees) and ‘agriculture, forestry, fishing and hunting’ (4.3 lakh women employees).

In the case of illiterate women, organised sector can offer only low paid jobs with long hours of work, bad working conditions, occupational hazards and job insecurity. However, educated, talented and skilled women have promising careers and high paid jobs with growing private sector organizations employing a large number of women employees.
In public sector domain, expansion of the network of the Indian railways, telecommunication, energy sector, banking, tourism etc., have absorbed a high percentage of women employees. Women find themselves comfortable in the work-environment these organisations.

Let us review the situation in unorganised sector of the economy.

### 1.8 WOMEN IN UNORGANISED SECTOR EMPLOYMENT

A high proportion of working women in India are employed in the unorganised sector mainly in agriculture, livestock, forestry, etc. Working women are seen in agricultural activities like land preparation, seed grading, sowing, dibbling, planting, irrigating, threshing, winnowing, storing crops, feeding cattle, looking after milch animal and poultry etc. The nature of work in agriculture which the women labourers perform exposes them to particular health hazards. In various states, rice transplanting is done primarily by women labourers. This increases their susceptibility to a number of ailments such as intestinal and parasitic infections, arthritis, rheumatic joints, leech bites etc.

It is further observed that work participation in the unorganised sector has been increasing. Immobility is the greatest impediment of women labour that keeps them confined to low paying, irregular and local avenues of employment in unorganised sector. Ignorance, tradition bound attitudes, lack of skill, seasonal nature of employment, heavy physical work of difficult types, lack of job security, long hours of work, lack of minimum facilities at the work place, ill-treatment and bondage are some of the features of the employment of women in unorganised sector. In the tribal districts of Orissa, because of deforestation, increased pressure on land, lack of irrigation and recurring drought conditions, tribal women have been migrating outside their villages, district and state for periods ranging from two to six months for working in construction projects, brick-kilns and tea-estates.

### 1.9 PARTICIPATION IN DIFFERENT OCCUPATIONS

In this section we will review the participation of women in different sectors.

- **Cultivation of Cash Crops:** The role of women in cultivation of many cash crops is well known around the world. Let us take the case of Saffron. In Indian, it is labour intensive and involvement of women in all stages is greater, although, Indian traditional agricultural methods use renewable energy, pollution free method and has greater sustainability.
Similarly, involvement of women in other cash crops in India is greater as mechanisation is not wide-spread. This is true in the case of tea plantations in Assam, West Bengal and Nilgiri and spices in Kerala and Karnataka. For greater sustainability and eco-friendly growth it is essential that women be involved at every stage.

In India as well as in Third World countries, various grasses are woven into mats. In Tamil Nadu in India Kora grass is used for mat making exclusively by women. Similar tradition is also found in various other places like Balasore, Cuttack and Phulbani in Orissa, Midnapur in West Bengal and so on. Mats and ropes are produced out of coir exclusively by women.

- **Agricultural occupations:** Agricultural research has given little attention to solving the problems of female farmers and, in the design of new technologies, often disregards important questions of women’s influence on decision making and labour allocation. High technology has also ignored the role of women.

- **Textiles:** Textile production, if done in decentralized sector, can be an economic programme for women. It is only modernization, capitalization and accumulation of wealth with few that created problems for us for which we are gradually eliminating our sustainability in textile production.

Sundarban Khadi and Village Industrial Society, a voluntary organisation run by women has its own speciality. These enthusiastic women adopted batik printing, block printing, silk screen printing and fabric printing and improved the quality so much that their fabrics became popular in the global market. The organisation is run by 950 women and profit is ploughed back for benefit of its members as well as the society.

- **Cottage Industry:** If we study the background of our various industries in detail, we notice that a number of industries were originally the exclusive domain of women but were taken away from them by men after mechanisation, automation, etc. In case of many of these industries e.g., food products etc., it is still known to be dependent on women of particular area of inhabitance. When men adopt this process for implementation of industry they go for various non-productive investments like consultancy or technological transfer not involving women. Also, women adopt conventional ways hence waste out of the process is used else where.

The Pickle industry is well established in Uttar Pradesh and in various places in Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu and Maharashtra. Bengal and Bangladesh were known for sweeter pickles like morobba, Kasundi, etc. In these areas it was a home industry and women knew how to
Participation

produce various types of pickles from various vegetables depending
upon seasonal or regional availability. This is one industry that ensures
100 per cent employment for women.

From pulses our women traditionally used to produce various items
popular even today. ‘Papad’ prepared by rolling the dough of powdered
pulses is extremely popular. Technology is simple and known to women.
Sri Mahila Griha Udyog ‘Liijjat Papad’ is a voluntary organisation run by
women. They produce high quality papad with low technology employing
women living below poverty line.

- Science: Even though women have been entering the formal workplace
in record numbers since the middle of the twentieth century, they have
not entered jobs in science at a similar rate. Even in US where women
represent 46 per cent of the U.S. labour force, but they hold only 22
per cent of the jobs in math, science, and engineering. Somewhere
along the way, between the earliest training and entry into the labour
market, gender discrimination occurs. Science jobs are among the
highest paying and high status jobs in the labour market.

Within this section of labour force, women only hold lower status
positions, receive lesser salaries and are more likely to be unemployed
or underemployed compared to their male counterparts. Many of these
differences persist when qualifications of men and women scientists
are taken into account. Despite initiatives on the part of the industry
to recruit and retain women, women scientists are less likely than
male scientists to be employed in the industrial sector of the market.

- Mass Media and Communication: Despite the long and impressive history
of employment in communication in India, it has led to only a few
openings for women. Journalism, particularly newspaper journalism,
has been predominantly a male profession but radio, television and
advertising have provided more scope for educated women. Lately, in
public relations, film documentaries (a form of film journalism) and
marketing and distributive agencies, women have made an entry either
as full-time or part-time professional workers.

Careers in communication are concentrated in the urban centres and
in fact, mainly in the bigger metropolitan centres. Most leading
newspapers have a women’s or children’s page and these are usually
edited and produced by women members of staff. Contributions to the
women’s page are almost exclusively by women.

Radio and television offer better facilities for women professionals. From
inception, women have been recruited to posts of announcers, newsreaders,
feature or documentary producers and even engineers. There are segments
of the daily radio station schedule which are exclusively the domains of
women. Every station has a Women’s and Children’s hour besides programmes designed for specific audiences like rural women and families of workers.

There are a number of women in Radio programming cadres and in the category of casual artists, which includes script-writers, feature-writers, newsreaders and participants in plays and documentaries. In addition, there is some scope for women freelancers who wish to contribute to Radio’s programmes. There are women who have specialised in interviewing and discussion techniques and are popular anchors on private T.V and radio channels.

Television offers the largest and most varied opportunities to educated women. The great majority of newsreaders, announcers, programme producers, comperes and artistes are women.

- **Advertising:** In advertising, women have begun to make some headway. For certain specialised areas of this profession, they are favoured over men. In creative advertising media, for copy-writing and designing, women are indeed preferred. More energetic and dynamic personalities among women have graduated to executive positions. Intelligent and agreeable women and girls are an asset in surveys involving complicated questionnaires. Respondents are known to be more forthcoming and co-operative with women interviewers. Commercial radio, which is being rapidly extended to all parts of the country, also provides opportunities for women employees.

1.10 **LETS US SUM UP**

Women’s participation in market economic activities in India is low compared to other major parts of Asia. There is also a wide regional variation within the country. The inferior position of women in the labour market is not because they are necessarily confined to the production of inferior products or to a localised market. The major handicap in the labour market is the identification of their work with low technology operations. This means, on one hand, the tasks they perform their productivity remains low and on the other hand they remain debarred from efficient responsible roles in the economy. Women perform various kinds of jobs in unorganised sector and in public and private sector also their employability and numbers and increasing.

1.11 **GLOSSARY**

**Work**: According to NSSO, Work or gainful activity is the activity pursued for pay, profit or family gain or in other words, the activity which adds value to the ‘national product’.
Participation Workers: Those who had worked any time, at all during the year preceding the Census.

Non-workers: Those who had not worked at all during the year preceding the census.

Main workers: Those who had worked in the same economic activity for the major part of the year i.e. for a period of six months (183 days) or more.

Marginal workers: Those who had worked for some time during the last year but not for the major part.

Labour Force: Labour force of a country consists of everyone of working age who are participating workers, that is, people actively employed or seeking employment.

Labour Force Participation Rate: The ratio between the labour force and the overall size of their cohort (national population of the same range).

Organised Sector: The sector which is registered, follows Government rules and regulations and has employees and employers union is called organised sector.

Unorganized Sector: The sector which is not following the prescribed norms and the modus operandi which is standardised and centralised.

Casual Worker: A worker who is called into work when required by the employer and is only paid for the time spent in performing work.

1.12 UNIT END QUESTIONS

1) Explain the trend of women work force participation in India. Give example to explain your point.

2) Discuss women’s participation in organised and unorganised sector.

3) Describe the role of women in traditional and non-traditional professions.

1.13 REFERENCES


NSSO Rounds.


1.14 SUGGESTED READINGS


Annexure

Table 1: Comparison of Number of Workers (in million, 1999-2000 to 2011-12, UPS)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rural Male</td>
<td>199.53</td>
<td>213.6</td>
<td>226.75</td>
<td>230.97</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>2.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural Female</td>
<td>83.06</td>
<td>91.5</td>
<td>80.92</td>
<td>72.13</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>-2.12</td>
<td>-4.4</td>
<td>-2.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban Male</td>
<td>78.65</td>
<td>90.76</td>
<td>102.54</td>
<td>108.28</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>2.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urbane Female</td>
<td>16.52</td>
<td>20.68</td>
<td>20.97</td>
<td>23.26</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>0.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Workers</td>
<td>377.76</td>
<td>416.54</td>
<td>431.18</td>
<td>434.64</td>
<td>7.76</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>2.59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: National Sample Survey office, employment and unemployment surveys, various rounds; figures calculated according to the method outlined in shaw (2013).
### Table 2: Sector-wise Workers as a Percentage of Total Workers (UPS)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sectors</th>
<th>Survey Years</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>Tertiary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rural Male</td>
<td></td>
<td>37.91</td>
<td>33.15</td>
<td>33.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural Female</td>
<td></td>
<td>18.67</td>
<td>17.33</td>
<td>14.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban Male</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>1.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban Female</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Workers</td>
<td></td>
<td>58.53</td>
<td>52.5</td>
<td>49.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** National Sample Survey Office, Employment and Unemployment Surveys, Various rounds.

### Table 3: Workers in Different Sectors (in million; UPS)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Survey Years</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>Tertiary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rural Male</td>
<td></td>
<td>139.26</td>
<td>141.73</td>
<td>141.88</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rural Female</td>
<td></td>
<td>68.57</td>
<td>74.11</td>
<td>63.69</td>
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<tr>
<td>Urban Male</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.82</td>
<td>5.37</td>
<td>5.90</td>
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<tr>
<td>Urban Female</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>2.47</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total Workers</td>
<td></td>
<td>215.01</td>
<td>224.43</td>
<td>213.94</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** National Sample Survey Office, Employment and Unemployment Surveys, various rounds; figures calculated according to the method outlined in Shaw (2013)
Table 4: Each Category of Employment as a Percentage of Total Workers (UPS)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Employment</th>
<th>Self-employed</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Regular Wage</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Causal Wage</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rural Female</td>
<td>11.18</td>
<td>12.03</td>
<td>9.62</td>
<td>8.95</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>10.22</td>
<td>8.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban Female</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>1.74</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td>2.04</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All Persons</td>
<td>50.17</td>
<td>52.31</td>
<td>49.53</td>
<td>50.42</td>
<td>15.83</td>
<td>16.30</td>
<td>18.04</td>
<td>20.05</td>
<td>34.00</td>
<td>31.38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: National Survey Office, Employment and Unemployment Survey, various rounds