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**CHANGING SOCIO ECONOMIC STATUS AND  
ROLE OF URBAN WORKING WOMEN  
[WITH REFERENCE TO SELECTED TOWNS  
OF JUNAGADH DISTRICT]**

TO BE PRESENTED  
TO  
**THE SAURASHTRA UNIVERSITY – RAJKOT**

FOR THE DEGREE  
OF  
**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**  
IN ECONOMICS  
IN THE FACULTY OF ARTS

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RAJKOT

**March - 2004**

**STATEMENT NO. – 1**

*C e r t i f i c a t e*

I here by declare that the research work undertaken by me on the title  
**“Changing Socio Economic Status and Role of Urban Working Women  
[With Reference to Selected Towns of Junagadh District]”** is based on  
the primary data and that and it is my own work. I have not submitted such  
work previously to this University or other University for any other degree  
or diploma.

Place: Rajkot

Date: 25-3-2004.

Name and Signature of Researcher

**STATEMENT NO. – 2**

*C e r t i f i c a t e*

This is to certify that the research work undertaken by **PARMAR KOKILABEN M.** on “**Changing Socio Economic Status and Role of Urban Working Women [With Reference to Selected Towns of Junagadh District]**” is her own work. To the best of my knowledge she has not submitted such work previously to this or any other University for any other degree or diploma.

Place : Rajkot

Date : 25-3-2004

Name and Signature of Guide

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# **Chapter – 1**

## **INTRODUCTION TO THE SUBJECT**

Women as Mother have been the great obsession of the Indian People. Every Mother is goddess. Every Goddess is a Mother. India is new 'Bharatmata' Mother, Mother goddess and Motherland are entitled to the highest homage. Women occupied an exalted position in society at the dawn of civilization during the Vedic Age. The average women led a happy and contented life by her parents, loved by her husband and revered by her children. In social and religious gathering they acquired a prominent position. Many of them were distinguished poets and authors of canonical literature. There had not been seclusion of women and they move freely in society. At that time women had an absolute equality with Men.

The position of women was fairly satisfactory at the dawn of civilization during the Vedic Age. The society as whole, showed proper concern and respect for women, allowing them considerable freedom in the different activities of Social and Political life. Women in the Vedic period could be initiated studies and were entitled to offers Sacrifices to gods. At that time son was not necessary for the purpose. The birth of a daughter was welcome event.

In the Vedic time girls utilized for imparting education to learn Vedic hymns in the Period before marriage. Many women poets were reported to have been composing hymns. We come across the names of women scholars such as Sulbha, Maitreyii, Yadava, Prathitegi, Gargi, Vachaknovi who had made contributions to the advance of education. The tradition of women scholars is showed in Puranas. The Bhagavata refers to two daughters of Dakshayana as experts in theology and philosophy.



Chandragupta during Gupta period was ruling his kingdom jointly with his queen. Names and effigies of both the king and queen were struck on the coins. The queen of Masaga was directing the attack against Alexander the great. When her husband was killed in the battle. In Rajput history there were several instances of queen running the administration and defending their kingdoms.

Women form one half of the population and have always played a specific and crucial role. Unfortunately women have not been treated equal with men. Raja Ram Mohan Roy started socio-religious reformation movement as a protest against the barbaric custom, against women like Sati - pratha. Iswarchandra Vidyasagar along with Ranade, Phule, Vishnu Shashtri, Dayanand Saraswati and others advocated the cause of widow remarriage.

Women in ancient India occupied a dignified place. They participated in the out door life as circumstance and situation demanded and there were hardly any prescribed positions exclusively for Men.

After independence several laws were passed to improve the social economical and political condition of women. The constitution prohibits discrimination on ground of sex. There are also provisions of protective discrimination in Favor of women with a view to providing them facilities or to take special care of women problems. More and more women are coming out for higher education and employment. Women have gained noticeable importance at parliamentary administrative and professional levels. After Independence Indian Women acquired their legal status. More and more women are joining and taking industries, medicines, teaching, administrative services, Business management legal professional and other Previously male dominated professions.

The women throughout in the world are considered the second sex, the Inferior sex. The problems of status of women involve equality between Men and Women. Changing status involves the sharing of power on equal footing with Men in decision-making and its implementation at formal and informal sector.

The women's question today is no longer an issue confined to the position of women within the family or their rights to equality with Men in different aspects of social life. It is a part of the total far broader question regarding the direction of change of that process.

Since seventies a new awareness has been developing among educated women. Indian women are developing a new sensitivity and consciousness, which will no longer tolerate the suffocating, familial, institutional, political and cultural norms, which place them in a humiliating. This concept may not be able to express itself in a clearly intellectual logical form but as a powerful force in the innermost development of society. Women half of the population of the world's known as better half. But better half are great sufferers in Men dominated society under Men made laws. Improvement in status of women will affect on political economic and social aspects of the society.

While women represent half the global population and one third of the labour force, they receive only one tenth of the global income and less than one percent of world property. Women are responsible for two third's of all working hours.

Nehru was of the opinion of equal status of women and appreciated women's contribution in national building task. In his own words, "we should like to displace the picture so deeply impressed upon the social

imagination of Man standing forward to conquer new worlds, women following, wearily behind with a baby in her arms. The picture which we now envisage is that of Man and Women comrades of the road going forward together the child joyously shared by both, power and responsibility, equally by men and women.

The improvement in the status of women depends on changing perception of the role of women. Men and the educators should give a major contribution both in raising consciousness and in providing girls and boy's skills to effect the changes in perception.

It is socio-economic issue. Women development is a human right issue. They should assert themselves and make use of their right besides the question of how to make women conscious about their rights. A whole gamut of socio cultural constraint is very costly for them, because of their personalities and cultural identities. The economics of daily living, especially in a poverty-ridden country is a most powerful constraint, which has made women accept dependency and the overload ship of the institution of the family.

Now women have expanded the role of housewife into a dominant, matured feminine role. In our country these social changes have affected the urban educated population in general and the women of middle class in particular. Contributions of social evolution are urbanization, education and employment have given hers with new avenues to express and assert themselves. Now like their rural sisters, who have since long been working for a living in the fields along with their Men, the middle class Indian urban women have come out of the four walls of their homes in search of economic gain as well as fulfillment of their personal hopes and desires.

Today by and large it is admissible even for married women to take up gainful employment. By coming out of their homes in the gainful employment, women have broken the traditional notion that working outside is derogatory to them or that only under gross economic necessity they can work outside homes. By doing so married women have assumed novel responsibilities of an employee. New role of a wage earner has been added to their old role of mother and wife. The working mother is liable to experience role conflict being subjected to the double demands of home and work.

Tradition still makes housework less acceptable for man than wage earning is for a female. The wage-earning wife cannot be performed properly because of double responsibilities, which overload her burden. The workingwomen is experiencing more and more role conflict in the modern situation. The present investigation has made an attempt and also to explore those sources which are responsible for producing role conflict in working women.

The process of modernization has affected the role expectations of family members the working characteristic of Indian housewives. In recent years is natural outcome of the process of modernization, which has drastically changed the status of the Indian women. The higher education of women exposure to western ideas through mass-media and granting by the constitution of equal opportunities of employment have led to their coming out of the four walls of their homes, to find the fulfillment of personal desires. As a consequence their values have become more egalitarian on nature and they no longer wish to be decorative piece.

It was found by several investigations that these women who strongly accept either the modern or traditional roles have relatively less role conflict than those who fall on between two.

In this study socio-economic condition of workingwomen is concerned. Therefore it is important to know the characteristics of working women.

### **CHARACTERISTICS OF WORKING WOMEN**

**Education:** A highly educated women more likely to get a white-collar job than a less educated women. The opportunities of an educated women securing well-paid job are also brighter.

It is true in particular for the upper strata of the lower class and for the middle strata of the entire society on which education has been taken up as a mark of social respectability and also an instrument of economic gain.

**Age:** Second important is age of working women. It is very much related to her employment. As it found that entry of married women into labour force is relatively a recent phenomenon and hence one would expect more women from the younger age group to be in the labour force.

In one study made by Rande (1970) it was found that 77.36% of labour force was up to 29 years of age group women. Next was the group whose age ranged from 34 years to 45 years.

**Marital Status:** Age and marital status are highly interrelated attributes. The older a women the more likely that she will be married. The mother generally seeks employment when her youngest child enters a school. In the present time a women generally completes her family life by the age of 26. At 35 she finds her youngest child entering a school. This new

trend of small family and earlier completion of parity has pushed up the participation rates of married women in the gainful employment.

**Nuclear and small family:** Indian joint family system is changing and today there is constant change towards a nuclear kind of family system, which is said to be better fit to the urban way of living. This type of family creates favorable conditions for women to enter into the labour force.

Another characteristic trend of the modern time is that the size of the family in general has been reduced from an estimated number of eight to two. Today workingwomen have fewer children.

**Changed attitudes and Value:** The attitudes and values of the Indian women especially those who are educated have changed very much. The ideas, attitudes and values are very much different from housewives. The workingwomen lay emphasis upon personal fulfillment and hold belief in equalitarian family ideology and egalitarian values.

**Dual career:** Household work and job is the modern trend of working women and they are at present managing both the fronts quite efficiently. Many social researchers have supported this.

**Motivation behind Employment:** There is lots of belief that economic needs are the strong reasons behind large workforce of the women. The different studies have pointed out that women who served as subject were working mainly owing to income reasons to add husband or family income. The women who worked for personal gain are less.

Though different studies have also pointed that to earn money was not goal behind the employment of women. The other important factor is socio psychological. The result of the socio-psychological motives were to have independent status of their own to satisfy their intellectual needs of achievement to get recognition and fame to get happiness and satisfaction

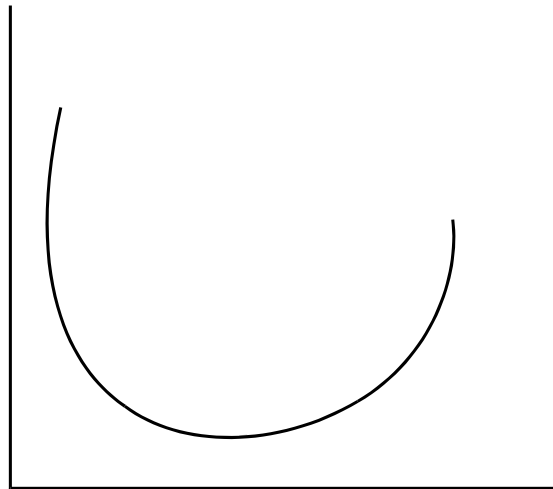
and to get emotional satisfaction to emphasize self expression, personal development to received.

### **1.1 WOMEN IN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY: GLOBAL SCENARIO**

Over the last decades the participation of women in the labour market in paid work has increased in most parts of the world. Women's global economic activity rate in the age group 20-54 increase from 54 percent in 1950 to 67 percent in 1996 and is expected to reach almost 70 percent by the year 2010.

Cross-country and longitudinal empirical evidence suggests that the gender composition of the labour force displays a systematic change through long term economic development. During the initial stages of capitalist development women's labour force participation rate declines and at a more advanced stage of development it increases again.

Labour force participation of women is U. shaped pattern.



#### **Several factors responsible for this U shaped pattern**

These long term changes interact with women's responsibility as reproducers and producer, resulting in what is called the feminization U development.

In contrast Men's labour force participation rate has been observed to fall slowly with economic development.

Besides the level of economic development, industrialization and demographic factors, cultural and ideological factors play a role in determining the degree of feminization of the labour force.

According to Bina Agrawal (2000) gender ideology as embedded in social perceptions and social norms is one of the critical neglected dimensions of gender inequality.

These ideological factors are visualized in every sphere, including property rights, employment of intra household allocation. They account for the differences observed in the participation of women in the labour force in countries with similar levels of development. And they play a role, in particular in determination the labour force participation rate of women. "The male breadwinner' ideologies, stronger in particular cultural. May lower women's participation in the labour force. And male bread winner ideologies may continue even when they no longer accurately reflect the conditions of economic life. So, the increased feminisation of paid work is a global reality.

Dynamics of changes in female labour force participation rates underlying the U shape curve. The following three types of force have been responsible.

**Demographic Changes:** The demographic changes observed that rise in life expectancy, falling fertility rates and decrease in the size of family, greater mobility of people and the growing number of two - earner and single parent families, have resulted in an increasing proportion of women in paid work.



A higher portion of the work force than before is confronted with the competing demands of work and family responsibilities. Problems of balancing family demands and paid work are closely related to the kind of work people do and to the different phases of the life cycle of women and men. This puts constraints on the type of work women undertake and restricts the supply of female labour.

### **Changes in Production Process**

The economic crises of the 1970 and 1980 as well as globalization have led policy makers to question the functioning of the labour market and re-examine the ways and means of absorbing labour supply, Adapting to technological change, adjusting to changes in product and service markets and external competition and smoothing the consequences of economic cycles. This search for an increased capacity of adaptation and flexibility promoted two responses.

The first response, at the macro level, was found through a drive towards deregulation with a view to eliminating protective regulations and labour market institutions. Considered as rigidities and distortions impeding the smooth functioning of the labour market.

The second response was found through the reorganization of the production process and the restructuring of employment relationships at the enterprise level. The demand for labour has also defined new terms and conditions of participation in the labour market.

Globalization has pushed firm to review their strategies in search of lower costs and profit maximization. Industrial restructuring has taken various directions. The relocation of labour intensive industries from developed towards developing countries, the reorganization of the

production process, together with a shift of production, from the formal to the informal sector, and investments in new technology. The actual path or path mix followed varies with the branch of industry, the size of firms, the level of development and the regulatory framework of a country.

### **Aspiration of Women**

The stronger participation of women in paid work is not only effected by demographic and economic factors. There have also been some changes in women's perceptions and aspirations with regard to their role in society and priorities in life.

Particularly in the industrialized countries, worldwide women have attained higher educational levels and the issues related to gender equality and women's rights have gained recognition.

Gender is now firmly in place on the international agenda and has become part of most national political agenda.

As a result of these forces changes have occurred in both the supply of and demand for female labour and overall labour markets, have evolved towards grater flexibility, increasing in formalization and higher fragmentation.

### **Expansion of Services**

Increasing weight of services in National Economies. Service activities contributed 55 percent of global GDP in 1980 and 62.1 percent in 1998, while the share of employment rose from 24.5 percent in 1990-92. In some OECD countries they now account for more than 70 percent of employment.

**Table – 1.1**  
**Women in Economic Activity in World**

	<b>GDP</b>		<b>Employment</b>	
	<b>1980</b>	<b>1998</b>	<b>1990</b>	<b>1992</b>
World	55.0	62.1	34.0	
All developing countries		52.5	27.0	
Least developed	43.1		18.0	
Sub Saharan Africa	51.6		25.0	
Latin Africa and Caribbean	50.0	63.6		
South Asia (including India)		44.0		
East Asia (including china)		63.0		
OECD		64.6		
USA		72.0	70.7	73.1
India	45.9		17.3	
China	32.9		13.0	19.0

Ref : 1) UNDP, Human Development Reports 1990, 1995, 2000.

2) World Bank (2000) world development Indicators

The factors accounting to the expansion of the services are following.

### **Long-term structural forces**

The difference in the income elasticity of demand for agricultural products, manufactures and services, income elasticity of demand for services and manufactures tend to be higher than for agriculture. A number of services like Health, education entertainment has a status of superior goods.

The difference in productivity growth rate, The tendency for labour productivity to improve more slowly in the service activities than in industry is usually held to explain the historically relatively fast growth of employment in these areas and is the basis of the forecast that relative employment growth will continue in future. This is put forward as the main factor for the contraction of manufacturing employment in industrial

countries, hence, the inevitable, 'dis-industrialization' of the advanced countries.

The size of the public sector especially in industrialized countries where governments spend approximately 50 percent of their budgets administering income transfer programmes for the population.

The structural compositions of services sectors as well as the dynamics of growth of individual service industries differ from country to country.

### **Growing interrelation between manufacturing and services**

Manufactures and services are becoming more interrelated for two main reasons: one of Increased building of services second is the increase in competition. There is a global trend towards an increasing differentiation of products and volatility of markets with product differentiation the service component of manufactured goods increases. As the number of the products on the market, demands more design, more marketing, more advertising.

Thus, the frontier between manufactures and services is getting blurred and both sectors rely increasingly on each other.

### **Increase in Trade in service**

The internationalism of services is reflected in the growth of trade and foreign direct investment flows. Both have been driven by innovations in information and communications technology that allowed increasing specialization and product differentiation.

## **Specialization and product differentiation**

The value of goods and services traded internationally has increased relative to the value of goods and services sold on domestic market. Trade in services is the fastest growing component of world trade.

## **Nature and characteristics of Service Sector**

Two main characteristics of the service sector are its heterogeneity and the disparity in the growth of different service activities. It is therefore necessary to break the service sector down into more homogeneous components. Several distinctions have been made between 'old' service activities and 'new' service activities between producer, consumer, and government services.

Services divided into four categories producer services, distributive services, personal services and social services.

**Table – 1.2**

**Service Employment by sub sector as a percentage of total Employment**

<b>Service Categories</b>	<b>1984</b>	<b>1998</b>
Producer Services	8.8	14.6
Personal services	8.7	8.1
Distributive	20.9	21.6
Social	24.7	27.6
Total	63	71.8

The figures are the average of the seven countries : France, Japan, Germany, Netherlands, Sweden, U.K., U.S.A. Elfring 1988 and 1998 OECD 2000.

**Producer service**

There are intermediates inputs to further production activities that sold to other firms. Although households are also important consumers in some cases. They typically have high information content and often reflect a "contracting out" of support. Services that could be provided in house. They include four sub sectors. Business and professional services, financial services, insurance services, real estate services.

International trade in strategic business services is increasing and countries developing a comparative advantage will be able to expand high-wage employment. This has been the fastest growing category of services.

**Distributive Services**

This moves commodities information and people. Some of these services are meant for final consumption, but most of them are ancillary to

final consumption of production. They include retail trade, wholesale trade, transport services and communications.

In OECD countries communications and transportation is, characterized by large capital-intensive employers, who offer relatively good employment conditions. Retail trade is a large generator of low paid and unstable jobs especially for women.

### **Personal Services**

These are provided for final consumption in households and are characterized by direct contact between the consumer and the service provider- Hotels, bars and restaurants, recreation, amusement and cultural services, domestic services and other personal services.

There are also crucial source of employment opportunities for low skilled workers and women substitutability between market purchases and self-service by households means that labour demand is very sensitive to labour costs.

### **Social and collective Services**

These are provided for final consumption for households and are distinctive for their non-market character in most OECD countries. Collective consumption, decisions and public financing are common as is production by government, non-profit organizations and subsidized private organization. They include government activities and administration, health, services, educational services and other social services. Many jobs require professional training or university degree like education and health services. While other externalize low-skilled dependent care from the household. All major employers employ women both high and low skilled, their

employment share being strongly influenced by the scale of the welfare state.

Growth in service sector is not homogeneous. There is no general pattern of growth of service sector across the European economies, there are group of declining stagnant and growing service. The overall impact of service sector dynamics on the economy depends on the relative weight of national service sector. In all countries business or producer oriented services seem to be the fastest growing services.

In countries like the United States, Canada, Australia growth in services has been high while in countries like Japan and Korea, here the business environment has been less favorable to the entry of newcomers and to risk taking it has been relatively slower.

### **Employment in service sector**

Service employment has been influenced by two opposite trends. One is New service activities and a generally increasing demand for producer oriented services has led to employment creation and second is rationalisation process have led to labour - saving processes. But the overall trend is positive and the share of services in global employment has increased steadily since the 1960.

A crucial feature of the employment scenario is the declining share of manufacturing employment and an increasing share of services in total employment. Services account for virtually all employment growth in OECD countries since the 1970. Hence, the label of 'post industrial societies', or of dis industrialization is applied to advanced capitalist societies. In the European union the number of persons employ in services increased by around 19 million between 1980 and 1996.



**In Industrialized Countries the long-term concentration in the service sector has a strong gender dimension. In Europe, through the 1980 job loss has been concentrated in male dominated occupations while women have benefited from the concentration of employment creation in the service sector. Overall 55 percent of male and 80 percent of female employment is in services. By the end of 1990, service employment was almost three quarter of all jobs in several OECD countries.**

While the increasing numerical dominance of service jobs is a universal trend, its implications for employment opportunities and labour market policies are not straightforward because of several reasons.

One is the great diversity of service employment. Second is international differences in the composition of service employment appears to persist, even at similar income levels, due to numerous factors such as difference in the participation rate of married women in paid employment, the size of the welfare state, regulatory policies and trade specialisation. The employment of women as it often enables them to better reconcile work and family.

Third is international differences are also apparent in the extent to which specific workforce groups are concentrated in particular service activities.

Therefore jobs in the service economy are very diverse and the job mix is likely differing substantially across countries.

### **Gender dimension of Employment in service sector**

In developed countries the expansion of services has accounted for the steady increasing for women into the labour force. But some OECD

countries are now suffering from a "service gap" - in particular a deficit of computer and information specialists and have taken affirmative action to attract certain categories of professional from abroad particularly from developing countries.

**The service sector is also a source of employment for many women in developing countries, but its relative importance and women's representation within services vary among regions. In all countries health and education sector rely heavily on female labour, but for the other parts of the sector the situation is variable.**

In developing countries changes in employment opportunities for women in the service sector are linked to globalization. New employ created in the service sector spreads across both low and high skilled work. This has two-fold impacts on women's employment opportunities, all centers has expanded fast.

Higher skill business services such as software design, computer programming and financial services like banking and insurance are also being relocated to developing countries and employ a relatively high proportion of women even at a higher grade.

The rapid expansion of Trade and Foreign investment flows has also had an impact on the circulation of people. Nearly as many Women and Men migrate across international borders. This increases has been driven by a growing demands for a few activities such as domestic service, tourism, and entertainment and to a lesser extent, nursing and teaching.

There is an international demand for professional and highly - skilled workers. The resultant brain drain is a net loss for the country of origin and in order to prevent it some countries have banned the emigration of some specific professions.

In the last, majority of countries relatively more women are employed in service than men. Gender segregations within the service sector is quite extensive. Personal and social services are primarily female dominated activities, while producer and distributive services are male dominated. The qualifications of the work force vary significantly across sub-sectors but overall the shift towards services increases the economic premium on formal education. Producer and social services employ better-educated workers.

### **Sex segregation of Occupations**

Occupational segregation by sex is a worldwide phenomenon. Women are employed in a narrower range of occupation than Men. The largest female dominated occupations tend to be concentrated in services. Generally, Female occupations possibilities compared to "Male" occupation.

Despite the small range of female dominated occupations in the world there are important regional differences.

In the professional and technical occupational categories Women are largely confined to two professions, nurses and teachers, which are an extension of the traditional caregiver activities of women in the domestic sphere. Women are under-represented in administrative and managerial occupations but are dominant in clerical and secretarial jobs. Except in China, India, Pakistan, Haiti, Nigeria and Ghana.

In terms of gender concentration, sales occupations display considerable variations across regions. Women are under represented in OECD, Latin America and African countries and are under represented in North Africa and the Middle East. The picture in Asia is more mixed; they are under represented in India and Pakistan.

Women are over represented in personal service occupations in all regions personal services are a major source of employment for women as they include traditional women's occupations such as maids, ayahs, launderers, hairdressers and housekeepers. Among OECD countries the North American sub-region has the lowest level of occupational segregation by sex. Occupational segregation by sex is not related to socio-economic development. The difference between is primarily explained in terms of social, cultural and historical factors.

In the past two decades occupational segregation by sex has fallen in some parts of the world. This is due to the increased integration of Men and Women. Within occupation rather than a shift in the occupational structure of employment. It seems that the expansion of established female dominated occupations was insufficient to absorb all of the new female labour force participants and thus many women entered less traditional occupations.

The entry of women into the non-agricultural labour force has tend to reduce occupational segregation by sex in several small developing countries. Significantly Asia stands out as occupational segregation by sex has increased in China and Hong-Kong while it remained unchanged in Japan. Overall, one observes a marked convergence around the world. Segregation by sex has tended to fall in countries where it was relatively low. Thus, it can be concluded that the female dominated occupations are very consistent with gender stereotypes about women's role in society and teacher type of work, for which they are believed to be especially "suited" occupational segregation is largely determined by education and training. The low percentage of women who enroll in technical and information technology subject is a constraint on future prospects.

The expansion of services is a significant and irreversible phenomenon in all parts of the world. The structural composition of the service sector as well as the dynamics of growth of individual service industries differ from country to country.

The service sector has led to the creation of both low skilled and high skilled jobs. The quality of employment in services is extremely varied in terms of job security, job stability, level of remuneration, condition of work and career prospects.

Women have been able to take advantage of new employment opportunities offered in the service sector. However, the current tendency points to an increasing polarization of Income both among Women. Between Men and Women working in the service sector.

At the bottom of the ladder and in some service sub-sectors currents patterns of labour market discrimination are being perpetuated. The changing technology make it possible to rationalize and de-skill some jobs, making them suitable for low, paid flexible female workers.

Since new services give a premium to formal education and training educated urban women have benefited from the expansion of services. Though the educational level of women has been steadily rising, they continue to be under represented in science and technical subjects and ICT based jobs, which need constant updating.

## **1.2 WOMEN IN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY: NATIONAL SCENARIO**

The issue of women's unequal access to economic resources was one of the rallying points the global women's movements, organized struggles

and determined advocacy by women's groups insured that this issue came up at the third international conference on women at Nairobi in 1985. However, efforts to pressurize governments to make unambiguous and specific commitments on the issue of providing adequate resources for advancement of women were far less successful. Generous resolutions made at each UN conference remained unfulfilled and forgotten until the next such occasion when "lack of resources" was trotted out as an acceptable excuse for inaction. The regularity of this experience led to a demand at Beijing in 1995 for the UN to take non-negotiable stand on the issue. Paragraph 345 of the Beijing platform for Action responds to this concern.

Financial and human resources have generally been insufficient for the advancement of women. This has contributed to the slow progress to date in implementing the Nairobi Conference, looking strategies for the advancement of women. Full and effective implementation of the platform for action, including the relevant commitments made at previous United Nations Summits and conferences will require a political commitment to make available human and financial resources for the empowerment of women. "This will require the integration of a gender perspective in budgetary decisions on policies and programmes, as well as the adequate financing of specific programmes for securing equality between women and men."

Five years later, reporting on the progress of implementation of the Beijing platform of Action. The government of India earned the appreciation of the committee on the status of women for making specific resource commitments in critical areas. Where many other countries were speaking in vague generalities consider the issue of allocation of national resources for

women's empowerment. The government of India made some strong statements:

"Additional resources for expanding and strengthening existing institutions and mechanisms for women's development and empowerment will be provided, the budgets for the department of women and child development will be enhanced funds will be earmarked in the budget of ministries departments for implementing women's development programmes in different sector like education, health, welfare, rural development, urban development, agriculture, industry science and technology. A synergic modality of resources mobilization will ensure flow of funds and related services. Services from Banking / financial institutions, corporate bodies and community organizations, at the grass root levels." [Summery of National action plans and strategies for implementation of the Beijing platform for Action, 2000]

In March 2000 the finance minister has announced in his budget speech that the year 2001 would be observed as women's Empowerment year and announced the setting up of a Task force to the chalk out specific programmes to be taken up during the year. To quote the website of the department of women and child development, "the announcements has been made in the context of an urgent need for improving the access of women of women to national resource and for ensuring their rightful place in the mainstream of economic development. In the economic survey 1999-2000 a document where women's issues have so far had only a minimum presence a more one-page listing of "women development schemes" - included an entire section on gender inequality. This section began with a reminder of the commitment made in the Ninth plan document of allocating 30 percent of development resources for women's development schemes through

women's component plans. This section also contained a strong plea for investing in women's equality on the grounds that this made good economic sense and spoke of "social rate of return on investment in women." Being greater than the corresponding rate for Men. Investments in public goods and services had differential impacts on women and Men.

These trends together appeared to signal the presentation of a women friendly budget, with a substantial increase in allocations to women specific schemes.

Indications that women's expectations might be belied came in the budget speech where women's issues found only a brief mention:

The year 2001 was being observed as women's empowerment year. The deputy chairman of the planning commission is heading a Task force to review the programmes for women. Meanwhile it was proposed to strengthen the Rashtriya Mahila Kosh for providing micro credit to poor asset less women through NGOs, launch and integrated scheme for women's empowerment in 650 blocks through women's Self help groups, and start a new scheme for women in difficult circumstances like widows of Vrindavan Kashi and other places, destitute women and other disadvantaged women group.

In looking through a gender lens at the budget demands of various ministries it can be able to identified 35 schemes that can be classified, as women specific, of these 23 are located in the department of women and child development.

While overall allocations for these 35 schemes have increased from Rs. 2,691.68 crore in 2000-2001, to Rs. 3,186.94 crore in 2001-2002, an increase of 18.4 percent, this was a consequence of a substantial increase in allocations to schemes within the department of women and child



development, the traditional home of women's programmes. The allocations for this department increased by 25 percent from Rs. 1349.5 crore to Rs. 1685.9 crore on the other hand, the total allocations to the 14 women specific schemes located in other ministries and departments had increased by only 11.8 percent.

Within the department of women and child development, we may identify three types of schemes.

One is a scheme for women's empowerment through financial and technical support. These included the Indira Mahila Yojana (IMY), Mahila Sameridhhi Yojana (MSY), Rashtriya Mahila Kosh (RMK) and Swashakti. Second is socio-economic programmes for special categories of women.

And third is scheme for Children's welfare.

### **Scheme for economic empowerment**

Despite the emphasis in the Economic survey on the necessity for increased allocations to IMY, RMK, MSY and Swashakti have either been reduced or have increased only marginally. Allocations to RMK and Mahila Samridhhi Yojana have gone down by 67 percent and 47 percent respectively. While an increase in funding IMY is more 8 percent. According to the Economic survey apart from expanding its support to women's self help groups through loans to NGOs, RMK will also be providing credit services to self help groups formed under the Indira Mahila Yojana.

The integrated scheme for women's empowerment is 650 blocks through women's self help groups, announced by the finance minister is presumably the Swashakti scheme, an experiment that succeeded in Tamilnadu, and is now being extended to Six states. However central funding to the Swashakti scheme has not been increased and continues at Rs.

15 crores. In tune with recent trends, the states concerned will presumably be negotiating directly with financial Institutions like IDA and IFAD to find funds for this programme.

One set of schemes that has experienced a substantial increase in funding is programmes for support to women entrepreneurs. Funds earmarked for technical support programmes have gone up by 38 percent. The allocation for the scheme of setting up training - cum production centers has also gone up by 38 percent. The combined allocation for these two programmes, which was Rs. 26 crore in 2000-01, has now gone up to Rs. 36 crores.

#### **Scheme for Women in special circumstances:-**

The budget allocation for socio-economic programmes is a token Rs. 1 crore. This budget head will hopefully be augmented through re-appropriation and supplementary grants to finance the scheme for "widows of Vrindavan, Kashi and other places, destitute women and other disadvantaged women groups. Which was announced in the budget speech.

There are some encouraging signs of recognition of the needs and problems of working women. Funds allocated to hostels for workingwomen have been increased by 28 percent, and funding to day-care centers for their children has been enhanced by 19 percent.

The combined allocation for these two programmes to Rs. 30.95 Crore in the 2001-02.

#### **Scheme for children welfare:**

The Balika samridhi Yojana a scheme that comes in for special mention in the economic survey was launched with great fanfare in 1997.

The scheme aims to improve the status of girl children by providing scholarships to girls from below poverty line families.

The budget documents shows an increase of 27 percent in funding to child welfare programme.

### **Scheme in the Education Sector:**

1. Mahila Samakhya, the much lauded programme of women's education for empowerment. Allocation for this programme, Rs. 11 crores.
2. The scheme of assistance bearing hostel facilities for girl students of secondary and higher secondary schools. Allocation to this scheme Rs. 4.3 crore.
3. Allocation of funds to the scheme of girls' hostels implemented by the ministry of social justice and empowerment, from 8.4 crore to Rs. 19 crore.

### **Schemes in the health sector:**

Funding to the reproductive and child health project of ministry of health and family welfare has been increased by 19 percent and stands at 1,126.95 crore. Funding to the post-partum programmes has also been increased by 18 percent and a new scheme of maternal benefits has been launched with an allocation of Rs. 72 crore.

### **Non - Targeted Schemes:**

Some schemes, even though not overtly women specific have overwhelming benefits for women. Drinking water has been cited in the economic survey. By cutting down on the tome, women have to spend in accessing basic survival resources and reducing women's drudgery,

investment in assuring supplies of drinking water, fuel and fodder. At the village level are of direct benefit to women. Similarly, schemes for poverty alleviation, particularly those that include components to be implemented by women's collectives or self help groups, can benefit women both directly, through providing work opportunities, or indirectly through the development of infrastructure and assets of benefit to women.

### **Steps for empowerment:**

The economic empowerment of women through access to micro credit programmes has become increasingly popular. These micro-credit programmes are really empowering women.

### **Women education:**

The enactment of compulsory primary education, laws, affirmative action in hiring female teachers and locating schools, quantitative and qualitative improvement of technical and vocational education, accessible and cost effective facilities for distance education and access to non-traditional professional education for women through affirmative action and financial incentive scheme.

### **Health of girls and women:**

Quantitative and qualitative improvement in access to health services in rural areas, time bound targets to reduce infant and maternal mortality rates, an enactment of a law against feticides, and family planning services at central and state level.

### **Gender and Governance:**

The lowest rate of women's participation in governance is found. In the backdrop of the 73<sup>rd</sup> and 74<sup>th</sup> constitutional amendments in India, one third of the seats in Panchayats are reserved for women.

33 percent of seat reservation for women in all legislative, judiciary and executive bodies and an enactment of law to reserve a minimum quota for women in party decision making bodies.

### **Education amongst working women in India:**

Women of the upper and middle strata were traditionally denied access to education along with all Indian women. Over the years, however, this situation is undergoing a gradual change. The change has come about as a result of several factors.

The wave of social reform that swept the country during the last few decades of British rule, the policy of the government to promote equality for all and industrialization.

However, the impact of these factors has neither been uniform nor positive for all categories of women. Industrialization and technology development have adversely affected the opportunities for women of the lower strata in the urban areas and of peasant women in the rural areas.

Nevertheless, they have created conditions for the enlargement of goals for women of the upper and middle strata and introduced them to education and jobs. Their enrolment in higher education has raised considerably, the rate of growth being sometimes higher than that for Men.

### **1.3 WOMEN IN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY : REGIONAL SCENARIO**

Gujarat is considered to be one of the progressive states of India. It is true that in respect of G. D. P. and industrialization the state is one of the leading states of India. There are substantial changes being found in the development pattern of the state. Economic changes in general and education development in particular have influenced the social sector development. Various observation being made at different levels also confirm to the view that there has been significant changes in respect of gender bias in Gujarat State. These general observations however do not reflect the same in various indicators.

Gujarat State can be divided into four of the major sections they are southern plain belt, central Gujarat, Northern Gujarat and Saurashtra and Kutch. These sub-regions have their own characteristics. These characteristics are directly related with socio-economic living pattern of the sub-region. One finds highly industrialize thickly populated belt of South Gujarat. Where in general the rate of development is found very high. However, there prevail a large group of tribal community where some special efforts are put to strengthen these people, tribal women have there own working pattern which still keeps them at a little distances from the near by people. Urbanization in this area is bit faster than the average pattern. It is because of changing pattern that women have also come up in different areas to stand by their counterpart.

Central Gujarat belt is again popular for developed villages locating it is the origin of the than white revolution. Here we find women equally participating in development process. Women themselves are conducting the milk co-operative society. Their direct and active participation brought forth influential changes in their perspectives towards life. Input like health,

childcare, family planning, education are actively cared for by the women. Themselves a part from their typical social consideration, they have been applying economic rational in their decisions women in this area found to be much more progressive to that of others.

North Gujarat is one of the backward areas of the State. Banaskantha district is particularly having one lowest female literacy rate of the State. Here, one finds unevenness in the development process within the region. The district like Sabarkantha and Mahesana is little bit coming up. However, in Sabarkantha district too we find a segment of tribal community moving very slowly to the path of progress. Regional economy in general has not improved much in relation to the South and Central part of Gujarat. Centrally they are developing fast but this has not yielded much impact especially on the life style of women.

Saurashtra and Kutch is generally known as remote area of the State. Its progress is far from the satisfaction. There has been significant improvement in the sex ratio and female literacy. Rural women are gradually getting themselves educated they also play important role towards their contribution to household income, both by working as rural female labourer in agriculture and or getting themselves employed in service sector. Especially as primary teacher, nurse and other. Their economic positioning is however not so sound. Agrarian economy of this region has largely restricted women's role in integrated development process. One noticeable however is found in respect of gender participation in natural resource management particularly ground water management.

Following table provides the recent trends in respect of women's role of education in State of Gujarat.

**Table – 1.3**  
**Status of Women Education in Gujarat**

	<b>1996</b>	<b>1997</b>	<b>1998</b>	<b>1999</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>2001</b>
Total Primary Schools	33119	33221	34531	34833	35995	39514
of which girls schools	1834 (5.53)	1834 (5.52)	1838 (5.32)	1840 (5.28)	2109 (5.85)	2179 (5.54)
Total Primary Students	730400 0	734100 0	745800 0	763400 0	813400 0	834400 0
of which girls students	308200 0 (42.19)	310200 0 (42.25)	317300 0 (42.54)	300000 (43.22)	355500 0 (43.70)	364700 0 (43.70)
Total primary teacher	80600 (45.96)	80101 (46.19)	80255 (47.17)	83069 (47.98)	83218 (47.98)	87848 (49.20)
Secandary total no of schools	5713	5767	5909	6011	6177	6341
of which girls schools	394 (6.89)	395 (6.85)	439 (7.43)	417 (6.93)	429 (6.95)	490 (7.73)
total no. of student	192500 0	192400 0	199700 0	204300 0	214900 0	219400 0
total no. of girls student	777000 (40.36)	795000 (41.32)	230000 (11.52)	836000 (49.92)	883000 (41.08)	899000 (40.97)
Total no. of women teacher	15218 (23.68)	15165 (23.63)	15662 (24.18)	15893 (24.36)	15966 (24.51)	15566 (24.27)
Higher education institute	436	444	452	475	485	556
only women institute	62 (14.22)	64 (14.41)	66 (14.60)	69 (14.52)	68 (14.02)	69 (12.41)
Total student	410000	373000	385000	393000	410000	419000
Total no. of girls student	180000 (43.90)	171000 (45.84)	178000 (46.23)	181000 (46.05)	177000 (43.17)	189000 (45.10)
Total no. of teachers	10643	10890	10903	10758	10352	11041
Women teacher	NA	2755 (25.29)	2852 (26.15)	2842 (26.41)	2550 (24.63)	3077 (27.86)

Source: Various reports of Socio Economic review of Gujarat State, Publication of Directorate Bureau of Economics and Statistics, Gandhinagar.



## Women employment in Gujarat

Employment is the crucial sector through which one can ascertain the changing status of the economy and role of women in the economy. Following table provides us an indication of the relative change in women's employment as against the total employment in Gujarat.

**Table - 1.4**  
**Status of Women Employment in Gujarat**

	<b>Year</b>	<b>Public Sector</b>	<b>Private Sector</b>	<b>Total</b>
Total employment	1980	739000	573000	1310000
female employment		95000 (12.89%)	44000 (4.68%)	139000 (10.60%)
	1985			
Total employment		855000	640000	1495000
Female employment		117000 (13.68%)	56000 (8.75%)	173000 (11.57%)
	1990			
Total employment		959000	962000	1651000
Female employment		141000 (14.70%)	65000 (9.39%)	126000 (12.48%)
	1995			
Total employment		968000	722000	1690000
Female employment		149000 (15.39%)	71000 (9.83%)	220000 (13.02%)
	1996			
Total employment		958000	756000	1714000
Female employment		146000 (15.24%)	73000 (9.65%)	218000 (12.28%)

	1997			
Total employment		953000	818000	1771000
Female employment		145000 (15.21%)	73000 (8.92%)	2180000 (12.30%)
	1998			
Total employment		944000	818000	1762000
Female employment		146000 (15.46%)	71000 (8.67%)	212000 (12.29%)
	1999			
Total employment		932000	795000	1727000
Female employment		141000 (15.15%)	71000 (8.94%)	212000 (12.29%)
	2000			
Total employment		934000	762000	1696000
Female employment		137000 (14.67%)	69000 (9.06%)	206000 (12.15%)

Source: Various reports of Socio Economic review of Gujarat State, Publication of Directorate Bureau of Economics and Statistics, Gandhinagar.

The above table indicates that there has been considerable rise in the aggregate employment in State. It was 1310000 in 1980. Which increased to 1651000 in the year 1991 and in the 2000 it were 1696000, as against these rise in the aggregate employment female employment has not increase to the mark. The rise is 386000 in aggregate employment against which female employment has increased only 67000 in percentage there is 10.54% rise reported in the last twenty years.

The break up from 1995 to 2000 indicates that there is down sizing in the employment in public sector in general which has correspondence effected the female employment too in respect of private sector. There was

increasing from the year 1995 to 1997 which again slumped after 1998. This has also resulted into fall in women employment in private sector. Thus the aggregate scenario in general and women employment in particular indicating down fall which in itself is a matter of concern as long as the women in Gujarat is concern.

### **Death of Young women in Gujarat**

Very large number of young women dies unnatural death in Gujarat.

Figure pertaining to the last ten years are in the following table.

**Table – 1.5**

#### **Death of Young women in Gujarat**

<b>Year</b>	<b>1989</b>	<b>1990</b>	<b>1991</b>	<b>1992</b>	<b>1993</b>	<b>1994</b>	<b>1995</b>	<b>1996</b>	<b>1997</b>	<b>1998</b>
No. of death per year	4254	3986	3862	4016	4512	4838	5112	5164	5525	6349
Average death of per day	11.65	10.92	10.58	11.0	12.38	13.25	14.0	14.25	15.14	17.39

Source: Gujarat vision 2010 publication of Social infrastructure development board, Govt. of Gujarat, Gandhinagar.

A study in respect of criminal Justice system in Gujarat revealed that 55% of death is of women in the age group of 10 to 38 years of age. Of these 57.3% of death are closed by mischief in kitchen and 17.6% by poisoning of all women against whom offensive have committed and were registered 79.3% were Hindus. Among the Hindus 45% are OBC 27% are S.C. and 28% are upper caste women.

In respect of the cities of Gujarat it is found that cities like Ahmedabad, Bhavnagar, Rajkot, Surat and Vadodara seem to have larger share in criminal incidence the women who constitute the labor force in the cities of Gujarat. Seem to succumb to the dual strain of poverty. This demand a separate study in respect of the investigation and juridical action to be followed by the government and hence the status of women in Gujarat.

### **Political participation:**

Gender participation in the political economy of development plays influential role. These demands on the part of women maturity in depth thinking effective implementing scheme etc. 73rd and 74th amendment in the Indian constitution empowers the women with 33% of seats reserved for them. However, very few women actually participate in democratic process. As per the election commission report total numbers of women voter in the 12th parliament election 29.6% as against 7.4% female participation in India. Gujarat has the ratio of 7.7% in the local level government female participation in national level is 33.7% against which the state average was 33.4%

### **Status and role of working women - social aspect**

The role consists of "the expectations that persons hold in common toward any person who falls in a particular category by virtue of his position in the social system." (Secord & Backman, 1964)

It is a "behavioral that is Characteristic and expected of a person or persons who occupy a position in the group. (Jones & Gerard, 1967).

It is "an internally consistent series of conditioned responses by one member of a serial situation which represents the stimulus pattern for a

similarly internally consistent series of conditioned responses of the other in that situation.

Role is a "pattern sequence of learned actions or deeds performed by a person in an interaction situation.

" A person's role is a pattern or type of social behavior which seems situational appropriate to him in terms of the demands and expectations of those in his group."

International covenant in economic, social and cultural rights [1966] provides right to all people to pursue their economic, social and cultural development. It prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex, among others. It provides for equal rights of men and women, to enjoyment of all economic, social and cultural right set forth in it. Declaration on the elimination of discrimination against women expresses concern over continued existence of considerable, discrimination against women, which is incompatible with human dignity and welfare of the society. It recognizes the great contribution made by women in all walks of life and feel convinced that for the full and complete development of the country, the welfare of the world and peace, maximum participation of women as well as men is required. (V. K. Bansal, 1966).

Harm K kemp (1186) considers the use of resource allocation model more fruitful in understanding the status of women than referring to enter an economic or cultural explanation of the phenomenon.

Since the time of Manu, law has always accorded special protection to the women. This is because of their physical structure, social status and conditions of the Hindu society. Most of the Hindu women are illiterate and ignorant of their legal rights and duties, economically dependent on men, socially backward politically uninformed.

The special attention given to the needs and problems of women as one of the "weaker section" of Indian society and the recognition of political equality was undoubtedly, a radical departure from the norms prevailing in traditional India. The committee on the status of women and identified the dilemma of Indian women in following words - " Traditional Indian had seen a women only as a member of the family or group as daughters wives and mother and not as an individual with an identity or rights of her own.

### **Status of women - Vedic Age**

During Vedic Age the position of women was satisfactory. The custom of sati was unknown the widow could, if she liked remarry which allowed the widow to have conjugal relations with her husband's younger brother or some other near relation.

The cross - examination of Yajnavalkya by Gargi shows her high standard of philosophical discourse.

Besides of studying Vedas many of them specialized in purymimansa which discussed the diverse problems connected with Vedic sacrifices, leelavathi assisted her father Bhaskaracharya, who was an eminent mathematician khana a women was great astronomer of her time.

In ruling families girls received military and administrative training. Purdah was not in vogue in the Vedic period.

Manu Samriti averred that women are a subservient, dependent being and her rightful place is under the guardianship, of her father husband and son. Her lot has not really changed even after centuries. She has been made to fit the image created by others.

The Indian families the sex roles have traditionally been clearly defined psychological and sociological studies have revealed that women

have almost always been relegated to lower position. By tradition the women is a housewife, takes care of children and husband, cleans, washes, sweeps, cooks and forever serve others first.

The subject of Hindu women has been a subject of controversy. The ancient Indian attitude to women was in fact ambivalent. She was at once goddess and a slave, a saint and a strumpet.

The census of India 2001 recorded the most adverse sex ratio of 933 female to 1000 males in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. There had been a secular decline in the sex ratio since 1901.

<b>Census Data on sex ratio</b>	
<b>Year</b>	<b>Women (per 1000 males)</b>
1901	972
1911	964
1921	955
1931	950
1941	945
1951	946
1961	941
1971	930
1981	934
1991	927
2001	933

**Source: Census Report - 2001, govt. of India paper No.1.**

We are now becoming modern High technology is available not only in metropolitan cities but also in rural areas. Experts determine the sex of the fetus. Parents decide to abort the female foetus. It is a costly procedure no

doubt. But any discounted cash flow statement would show that the current cost of getting rid of a female fetus is lower than the cost of allowing her to be born and grow up to be an adult person. Commenting on the low female ratio of 1991 Krishanji states. "As reliable data accumulated and demographers took closer interest, it became increasingly clear that high female deficits in early childhood were primarily responsible. In deed, this has now been identified as a manifestation of an increasing gender bias, it is suggested that the well-established preference for male pregnancy combined with an emerging preference for small families will result in a loss of girls either before or after birth." Easily accessible procedures for sex determination during pregnancy promote female feticide a female baby born under these conditions has reduced chances of survival. Thus the unborn female baby shares with the born female infant high risks of elimination as technology reinforces traditional biases.

The girl child's life in India is a "candle in the wind," it flickers for a moment to be extinguished forever.

This is the enigma of the missing women about which Amartya Sen wrote in the British medical journal in 1992 His latest estimate is that in china and India the number of missing reason is that neglect of female health and nutrition especially but not exclusively during childhood female children are neglected in terms of health care, hospitalization and even feeding. (A. Sen, 1999)

Human Development Report 1999 shows India's gender related development Index (GDI) as 0.525 with rank of 112, we may feel comfortable compared to Pakistan rank 116, Bhutan 119 and Bangladesh 123, but compared to Sri Lanka 76 and china 79, we are far below. Over the



years GDI in India is inching forward. In 1997 its rank was 118, undoubtedly there has been some progress, though not very significant.

Through Indian history has evidence that rights as freedom enjoyed by women, change in inverse proportion to the status of their families and especially men in their families in the social hierarchy. A path breaking work done by a young scholar from the IAS Satish Agnihotri has shown with data drawn from the censuses that the only section of India's multiple people who neither destroy their baby daughters before or after birth, nor allow them to die in infancy through neglect and lack of nourishment are adivasis whom we all regard as backward and less civilized members of our polity.

### **Gandhian perspective**

Mahatma Gandhi was a great crusader for the emancipation of women in India. He wrote, "I am uncompromising in the matter of women's rights. In my opinion she should labour under no legal difficulty not suffered by men. Women can no longer be treated as dolls or slaves without the social body remaining in a condition of social paralysis. That is why I take every occasion to protect in no uncertain terms that so long as women in India remain ever so little suppressed or do not have the same rights as men. India will not make real progress.

Mahatmaji was not only a visionary a dreamer a person of high ethical values, but also a great mobilize of masses for the goal of winning freedom. As a leader of masses he clearly saw that his popular movements would not succeed unless women got involved of there free will in large numbers cutting across classes and castes, breaking as under the age old shackles of customs and religious practices which confined them to their homes and

families women could take decision to join the mass movement only if they had autonomy which meant smashing the fetters that put them in a position of subordination and made them play an inferior role Mahatamaji asserted "so long as women in India do not take equal part with men in the affairs of the world and in religious and political matters we shall not see India's star rising.

### **Constitutional Perspective**

The founding fathers of our constitution did a magnificent job in ensuring gender justice in the supreme law of the country. The constitution the fundamental rights guarantee women's equality under law. The directive principles of state policy provides for affirmative action for securing adequate means of livelihood for married women, equal pay for equal work, raising the level of nutrition, maternity relief and conditions of work ensuring decent standard of life and full enjoyment of leisure many of these provision were incorporated in the convention on elimination of all forms of discrimination against women so far so good. Formally, under the constitution and many supporting laws the position of women in India compare quite favorably with many countries with high GDI.

### **The reality**

The Indian polity got a jolt with the publication of the report of the committee on the status of women in India in the seventies. The committee clearly pointed out that the Indian state had failed in its constitutional obligation of not discriminating on ground of gender. Taking the declining sex ratio as a composite indicator of the worsening condition of the majority of women, the committee showed that this process which begun earlier had

accelerated during planned development. Higher investment on education, health, and opening of opportunities for public employment had benefited a small minority, so, to be in a class divided society, majority and minority of women.

Minority suffered evil social practices like dowry, continued inequality in personal laws, non-enforcement of protective laws for women like labour laws, or criminal laws.

The debate in parliament on the committee's report gave a wide mandate to government "to remove all disabilities that Indian women continue to suffer from". But in the turmoil of the internal emergency declared shortly thereafter this issue was temporarily forgotten.

Looking back into the history it appears rather odd that in spite of the directive principles of state policy up to the fifth plan there was no effort to see women neither as human or productive entities nor in terms of their roles in productive activities.

As a result of the persistent advocacy and lobbying by women's groups and the international pressure due to the international Decade of women the sixth plan made a significant and welcome departure from past practices, for the first time the sixth plan introduced a separate chapter on women. There was an attempt at a holistic planning approach to women, it stressed economic independence giving of joint titles to husband and wife in all asset transfers, including of land, house sites and other economic units, a public policy package that include ownership rights and enforcement of wage laws. In the 1985 the central government under Rajiv Gandhi took a positive stance to wards women. The department of rural development announced 30 per cent quota for women in all anti-poverty programmes for the rural areas and a special programme called development of women and children. In

rural area's was introduced providing for collective action by rural women. A new department for women and child development was created out of the division for women's development of the ministry of social welfare. But even with a sympathetic prime minister 'Rajiv Ghandhi' heading the government the attempt by the department to introduce a "special component" approach for women was shot down by the cabinet.

Rajiv Gandhi's huge majority in parliament the seventh plan continued the approach of the sixth plan and spoke about the rights and privileges of women and the need to inculcate an awareness of their own potential for development of women in different ministries were informed of the productive role of women and were directed to eschew the "Social welfare model."

### **Impact of liberalization**

The early nineties witnessed the liberalization privatization and globalization, which washed away and diluted the interventionist mechanism of the state for the underprivileged and marginalized groups. So with the eighth plan the policy regarding women took a U-turn and women were neatly put into the welfare slot.

However a move initiated by Rajiv Gahdhi, to bring about a responsive system of governance at the district level and below ultimately took shape in the form of the 73<sup>rd</sup> and 74<sup>rd</sup> amendments to the constitution with not less than one-third reservation of seats for women among elected membership and functionaries of the panchayat system. with compatible state enactments the system came into effect from April 1994. With the usual derision, sneering and ridicule, Patriarchy in India waited with bated breath for the reservation system to founder, firstly, by the non availability

of adequate women candidates and secondly by incompetence, inability and ignorance of even if elected. But their expectation of impending doom was belied not only by more 34 percent representation of women among the elected panchayat members but also by the inherent competence, the positive responsive to basic social issues and the reduction of corruption wherever women are exercising power.

A comprehensive survey undertaken of women's development studies, New Delhi, covering three 'backward' states of Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Uttarpradesh found, "These new women in panchayats have reported increase in self confidence, change in lifestyle, awareness about critical need of education and increased concern for village development. There are positive changes, which they have seen in their own attitudes and consequent impact on the family in shifts in various social practices.

'The amendment has begun a process of legitimacy to women's new not-traditional role in panchayats which helps the supporting husbands to share responsibilities without the fear of ridicule and makes others to, at least, reconsider and think about women's new public roles". The economic activity of the women more exactly, the fact of her actual economic independence plays a decisive role in the outbreak of open conflict.

In the lower income groups women are "earning members" of the family, they share the bread winner role allotted to the men some cases the women is even the chief earner in the family they share the instrumental role of the men, they now demand also a share in their rights, they expect relief in the domestic work, co-operation of the husband, and some expect to be served when they come back from work. They want to be honored respected and treated as equal partners like the men.

In the upper middle class the factor of economic independence of the women does not have the same weight as in the lower middle class, because in spite of sometimes extraordinarily high salaries of the women. The income of the wife is not necessary for securing the material existence of the family, is generally lower than that of the husband, and is considered just an addition to the family income.

Women have today a means in their hands to free themselves from the claim of superiority of the husband's family. It is therefore understandable that parents, especially mother attach great importance to their daughters being economically independent. They know that they can only in this way protect themselves from the repression of the in-laws the claim of the women to an individual social status and control over her income and the rejection of the husband's control over her extra-family relations. The economic independence is only the instrument through which emphasis is laid on these deviating demands.

### **1.5 Status and role of working women - Economic Aspects**

Recent years have brought forth great change in the life of women all over the world, influencing their attitudes, values inspirations, ways of feeling and acting for effective participation in all walks of life. Now women have expanded the role of housewife into a dominant, nature feminine role.

The story of Indian women is unique, as Indian society is trying to combine an ancient civilization with the progress of modern times. Status of women in society denotes her position with others in terms of right and obligations. In discussion on women's status in any society, the general convention has been to assess their roles in relation to men. "Two other dimensions have also been introduced to facilitate such assessment, the

extent of actual control enjoyed by women over their own lives and the extent to which they have access to decision making process and are effective in positions of power and authority."

In our country, these social changes affected the urban educated population in general and the women. Urbanization, education and employment, which are the contributions of social evolution, have provided them with new avenues to express and assert themselves.

The decades of the 1980s and the 1990 student have been characterized by a variety of resources on the government of India and state government, especially from groups within for affirmative action in favor of women as well as incorporating gender issues in policy planning. One of the primary objectives of the Ninth five year plan (1997-2002) is to create an enabling environment where women can freely exercise their rights both within and outside home as equal partners along with men. The ninth plan document further states that this will be realized through early finalization and adoption of the "National Policy for empowerment of women."

### **Education of women**

The absence of education amongst women was largely responsible for their low status in society. William Adam, who made enquires in Bengal on the problem of education in his second report (1835), observed that it was a common superstition that women taught to read and write became widows soon after their marriage, secondary, people believed that intrigues were facilitated by imparting knowledge of letters to women.

Some elementary education was imparted to girls in a few rich families but there were no public schools. Long before the government took up the cause of women's education, missionaries were already at work. The

progress in the work was rather slow because female teachers from suitable social position were not available. They were not expected to earn their livelihood after being educated and so their education was considered useless. "Lastly, the textbooks were prepared to meet the needs of boys and those books were often not suitable for girls."

The Gujrati Hindi stri mandal was started by Jamnabai Sakki and Kalavatiben Motiwala in 1903 with the help of B.N.Motiwala, a well known lawyer and social reformer. This organization took great interest in spreading education amongst the Gujarati women.

In fact the education of women mainly remained in the hands of missionaries. By this time people also started taking interest in female education.

Women have a dual role to play in the society. As individuals they contribute to the socio-economic development of the society. Participating in the national economic activities. To realize the potential, monetary contribution of women to their families, and to the society as well, education of women is very essential. Secondary, as a mother, she occupies an important position in the family. It is rightly said that if you educate a man it is educating an individual, on the other hand, if you educate a woman it is educating the whole family. In this light, one can argue that investment in the education of women is a better investment in human capital than investment in the education of men.

Education is one of the main factors, which can help women to attain higher status, economic independence, understanding about their social and legal rights etc. It also plays a significant role in changing the social order and bringing about attitudinal changes.



The first census that was enumerated after the independence in 1951 revealed that there were 5.4 percent girls at the primary level and 0.5 percent girls at the middle level in schools.

The first five-year plan underlined the need to have special measures for women's education. "Women must," the plan emphasized, "have the same opportunity as men for taking all kinds of work and they get equal facilities so that their entry into Profession and public services is in no way prejudiced." The plan also envisaged vocational training at the secondary and university level to enable women to take up vocations is necessary.

In India the voluntary agencies along with the government have been involved in women's issues and the 6<sup>th</sup> five year plan for the first time included a chapter on women's development.

The government started a department of women and children development and the technology policy statement of 1983 and national education policy of 1986 emphasized on relevant women's issues.

In India only one-third of girls aged 6-11 are enrolled in schools.

It was at this backdrop that the United Nations had declared the decade of '76 to 85' the decade for women and the last of the three major conferences of the Decade

The overall assessment of the education of girls is that it is now being generally realized that education for girls is essential even through a hostile attitude towards higher education for girls continues.

### **Women in higher education in India**

The focus on education during the present century has been because of its instrumentality in promoting values for a democratic polity and society along with inculcation of skills to meet the occupational demands of

industrializing societies. However, functions of education have not been so simplistically viewed given the variety of ideological and political orientations and intellectual interpretations. Education, for example, has been identified as tool for social mobility and equality and as only hope for teacher downtrodden on the one hand and as an instrument for reproducing social stratification and for maintain the hegemony of the dominant classes and the elite, on the other while the former is premised on the assumption that education promotes equality.

Feminists, too are divided along ideological lines although there is consensus that education is paramount for promoting equality between women and men and that lack of focus on women in educational policies and programmes has led to educational backwardness among girls and women in large parts of the world.

As we move towards the next century the debate on social and human development has also begun to highlight the instrumentality of education especially of female literacy and primary education. It has sought to establish macro level interconnections between education and indicators of development such as basic education, health, and income. It is being argued that equality among human beings across and within societies can be achieved by providing opportunities for better health, education and living standards, especially to girls and women. Thus, education and gender equality are at the center stage of contemporary discourse on development and education. Higher education is highlighted for social and occupational mobility for elite formation and for intellectual and personal development.

## **Educational policy and women in higher education**

The education of girls and women lagged far behind that of the boys. Concentrated efforts were made after independence to advance the education of girls and women. In the first decade after independence the enrolment of girls almost doubled itself. Special programmes for expanding and improving the education of girls were launched in the Third plan period. These special programmes included measures such as the appointment of school mothers, grants of scholarships and stipends special prizes and free education to certain categories of girls.

In secondary schools provision was made for girls' hostels and better transport.

The education policy today has to face two challenges, says Vina Mazumadar, to prepare people for the future, the world of the 21st century and complete the unfinished tasks, drawing on the lessons of the four decades since independence, while education is the second highest sector of budgeted expenditure after defense.

The first two five year plans referred to the problems of women's education and sought to link higher professional education and occupations. The report of the committee on the education of women 1959, made extensive recommendations which led to a more focused thrust in the subsequent plans. But disparities in the education of Men and Women continued.

The National Policy of education 1986 took an even broader view in underscoring the role of education in empowering women in order to overcome inequalities and disparities. The National perspective plan 1988-2000 reiterates this point of view.

Economic liberalization and the market demand on women's access to higher education because one sees a perceptible change in the choices of women at least in the metropolitan cities where they are flocking to the new professional courses such as management, fashion designing, computers, human resources management etc.

Secondary and higher education happens to be the most important channel of vertical mobility for weaker section in India. Our achievements in the progress of higher secondary education are also quite significant.

The government at the center as well as the government at the state level pay relatively more attention to universalization of elementary education and qualitative improvement and physical expansion of higher education. It is more prestigious to have more universities and other institutes for higher learning.

It is in higher education where we find tremendous growth of enrolments. According to latest statistics the enrolment of women in 1996-97 was 2,303,161 out of 6,755,455 total enrolment in higher education while the proportion of women had enrolled for undergraduate 1,69,267 for graduate courses and 19,894 for Research programmes such as M.Phil. and Ph.D.

### **Women and work**

Women have always participated in economic activity of the society ever since men put his foot on this land. It is however a different matter that her work has been hidden behind a thick veil in the Men-oriented Society.

The Status of Women is closely connected with the economic position which in turn depends upon their access to productive resources of the country and the opportunities for participation in economic activities.

Women in India have been participation in economic activities for centuries. But since she has been, mainly involved in activities related to family occupation.

There are certain agriculture related jobs, which are done by women like transplanting, cutting and harvesting. Even in the household industry she is do the job of preparing the material. This is all in addition to six or seven hours job that she does in the house cooking, washing, cleaning, bearing children etc. Since she does not get any cash money or wages. She is enlisted as dependent. She performs the essential jobs, it may also be that without her contribution the household expenditure is difficult to meet, yet she is neither considered economically productive nor the bread winner.

It is generally assumed that differences in educational and occupational attainment between man and women are major sources of gender gap in earnings. An important development in the last few decades in the developed and in many developing countries has been the rapid increase in the female education and labor force participation. However there are evidences of the fact that over a period of time women's earnings have risen relative to men's in almost all countries.

Examining the Census of India reports it is clearly found that the distribution of male and female workers in respect of the specialization and earnings of male and female in that regard forms important component of the research study. All these variations can be illustrated through the tables as under.

**Table – 1.6**  
**Employment by Field of Specialization of Males and Females in India,**  
**1961 – 81**

	1961		1971		1981	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Specific and Technical Fields: Agriculture and Science	44.6	58.7	48.8 (21.0)	60.4 (18.9)	46.9 (19.3)	60.2 (16.9)
Engineering and Technology	37.9	4.2	37.3 (16.0)	5.6 (1.7)	40.0 (16.4)	7.2 (2.0)
Allopathic Medicine	12.0	28.2	7.8 (3.3)	21.1 (6.6)	7.4 (3.1)	19.5 (5.5)
Nursing	0.1	4.1	0.1 (0.03)	6.1 (1.9)	0.1 (0.03)	8.6 (2.4)
Veterinary Science	1.9	0.2	1.7 (0.7)	0.3 (0.1)	1.5 (0.6)	0.2 (0.1)
Other	0.7	0.1	1.6 (0.7)	2.4 (0.7)	0.4 (0.2)	0.7 (0.2)
All Scientific and Technical Fields	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Social Science and Others Arts/ Humanities	-	-	83.7 (47.7)	98.0 (67.3)	77.0 (45.4)	93.6 (67.3)
Commerce	-	-	16.3 (9.3)	2.0 (1.3)	23.0 (13.5)	6.4 (4.6)
All Social Science and Others	-	-	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
All Fields	-	-	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source:

- (a) 1961 census monograph no. 10 Scientific and Personnel tables, Table VI
- (b) Census of India, a. Series Part VII (i), Degree Holders and Technical Personnel, Table G-IV
- (c) CSIR (1985, 1989), Table TW-05.

**Table - 1.7****Employment by Field of Specialization and Level of Education of  
Males and Females in India, 1961-81**

	1961		1971		1981	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Scientific and Technical Fields						
Postgraduate and above	9.3	10.9	-	-	16.9	23.5
Undergraduate Degree	60.7	72.1	-	-	54.9	63.0
Diploma	28.2	15.7	-	-	19.1	10.5
Certificate	1.0	0.3	-	-	0.7	0.6
All levels	100.0	100.0	-	-	100.0	100.0
All Fields:						
Ph.D.	-	-	0.5	0.5	1.2	1.2
Postgraduate Degree	-	-	11.1	13.5	20.8	26.3
Undergraduate Degree	-	-	33.0	33.8	68.4	68.4
Diploma	-	-	50.4	50.3	9.3	4.0
Certificate	-	-	5.0	1.9	0.3	0.2
All levels	-	-	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source:

- (a) 1961 census monograph no. 10 Scientific and Personnel tables, Table VI
- (b) Census of India, a. Series Part VII (i), Degree Holders and Technical Personnel, Table G-III
- (c) CSIR (1985, 1989), Table TW-05.

**Table - 1.8**  
**Employment by Field of Specialization and Sector of Employment of**  
**Males and Females in India, 1961-81**

	1961		1971		1981	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Scientific and Technical Fields						
Public	67.1	56.7	66.3	61.1	69.7	65.7
Private	23.2	32.0	24.1	29.8	17.6	24.7
Self Employed	9.7	11.3	9.6	9.1	12.7	9.6
All Sectors	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
All Fields:						
Public	-	-	64.8	58.0	69.6	58.7
Private	-	-	24.3	36.6	28.6	40.1
Self Employed	-	-	10.9	5.4	1.7	1.2
All Sectors	-	-	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source:

- (a) 1961 census monograph no. 10 Scientific and Personnel tables, Table VI
- (b) Census of India, a. Series Part VII (i), Degree Holders and Technical Personnel, Table G-III
- (c) CSIR (1985, 1989), Table TW-05.



**Table - 1.9**  
**Earnings and Occupational Distribution of Males and Females in**  
**India, 1981**

	Earnings			Occupational	Distribution
	Males	Females	Ratio	Males	Females
Occupational (Nature of Work)					
Employed	843	725	0.86	24.9	47.6
Teaching and Research	1213	840	0.69	10.9	2.7
Design/ Production/ Maintenance	907	728	0.80	0.2	0.2
Consultancy and Professional Practice	1551	1101	0.71	4.1	1.0
Sales, Marketing and Management	913	773	0.85	25.2	22.4
Administration	905	741	0.82	3.5	1.5
Accounts	1221	1057	0.87	3.0	0.2
Construction	1041	873	0.84	5.7	6.8
Others	1093	868	0.79	86.7	92.2
All Employed	1241	1016	0.82	13.3	7.8
Self Employed	1097	870	0.79	100.0	100.0

Source : Computed from CSIR (1985, 1989), Table 5.

All these tables show the distribution of male and female workers by their labour market characteristic namely education, sector of employment and occupation. It is found from the first of the table that among workers with post secondary education in 1971, only 43% of males 31% of females belonged to scientific technical fields. A majority of them i.e. 57% of males and 69% of females had only general education. This proportion in general education increased in 1981 to 59% for males and 72% for females. The increase in general education is seem to be primarily due to more man and

women entering into commerce field. It is also found that over a period of time females also out strip males in science field.

In the next table there is distribution of male and female workers by level of education. There are more women post graduates degree holders in all fields among workers compared to men and the difference between men and women in post graduate level has also improved over time. The proportion is less stable and difference is not of large magnitude in the other levels. On one hand an increase in the number of women having higher education is welcoming one but it also reflects differential hiring standards.

The third examines the intensity of women at work in relation to the different sectors the sectoral break up of men women workers indicates that the percentage of women relative to men is more in the private sector and these percentage has also improved over time from 36.6% in 1971 to 40.1% in 1981 in the case of all educational fields. A majority of women workers are still in the public sector though the percentage of female worker in the public sector is below that of male workers.

A point to note is that the data on earnings ratios indicate that the gender gap in earnings is higher in the private sector compared to the public sector and the gap has been increasing over time in the private relative to public sector in the scientific and technical field. Coming at the table of the occupational distribution of male and female workers which differs to the year 1981 overall women's earnings are lower compared to men's earnings though the difference is smaller among the self employed persons. Among the employed persons the largest difference is among design and production workers followed by sales and consultancy. The earnings of women are closer to men's earnings in teaching and research followed by administration, construction and accounts. The smaller gender gap in

earnings in teaching and research and administration is probably the result of a decreased need for skill and strength compared to education in his jobs.

South Asian women remain significantly invisible in national accounts. The chapter on "Women and the economy" highlighted that although certain degree of statistical invisibility of women in economy is a global phenomenon in South Asia it is particularly pervasive due to historical tradition and cultural reasons. It is surprising to note that through the report unveiled the issue of statistical invisibility of women's work in national accounts, it did not mention the attempt of United Nations Statistical division in extending the production boundary of system of National Accounts. 1993 to include the activities of the unpaid work of women in care economy into national accounting system as satellite accounts. This extended production boundary of SNA 1993 would provide a better understanding of women's contribution to the economy. Indeed it is a debatable issue whether to value the unpaid labour of women in the economy. The genesis of the debate lies in the fact that a significant part of women's contribution to the economy remain unrecognized in quantitative terms, because of the restricted definition of economic activity in national income accounting only market oriented activities are considered. Thus for the purpose of economic valuation, much of the care economy, household and community work, activities that is not marketed and hence has no market value remains outside national income. At the same time this exclusion principle is justified on the basic of the inadequate pricing systems for valuing these services. The report maintained a distance from the valuation of unpaid labour of women in care economy noting that, "there is no way of adequately describing the value of care and no way of ascribing an economic value to it." It is interesting to recall in this context the famous

economist pigou's comment that if a housemaid employed by a bachelor were to marry him, national income would fall, since her previously paid work would now to be performed unpaid.

Economic independence is imperative to ensure equality among women and men. Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru rightly said, "The habit of looking upon marriage as a profession almost and as the sole economic refuge for women can have any freedom. Freedom depend on economic conditions even more than political ones and if a women is not economically free and self - earning, she will have to depend on her husband or someone else, dependents are never free.

The literacy rates among women are low, there are also fewer women at the decision making level. There is qualitative improvement in the sense that there is diversity of occupation and women are now found as doctors, nurses, teachers, administrators, bankers, entrepreneurs, in fact there is hardly a profession where women are not now working.

Her work however important is taken as of secondary importance. Her first duty even today is considered to be the home and the children. In fact in her case, more often than not it is the family decision, where the employment of women is concerned, whether she should work, what kind of jobs she should have are all matters where her decision is not final.

The government has taken up various steps to improve the conditions of women and upgrading the skills through training programmes. The government has already launched a drive to encourage women to join senior government positions, the IAS and allied services in the coming few year other key decisions taken were to appoint women, at least one, on every public appointment board in the country and to guarantee that women were

given equal opportunities in administration economic, technology, industry and other field.

A glance at women's affairs today would reveal that the largest and the most ambitious exercise since 1974 status of women committee report is the national commission on self-employed women.

The sixth five-year plan devoted attention to employment of women. In January 1982, a new 20 - point programme was launched to devote special attention to the development of specific sectors of economy and specific section of society. Almost all the items of these programmes are capable of directly or indirectly promoting employment for women and several of them pay special attention to human resource development among women.

The seventh five-year plan suggested that women be treated as a separate target group in the implementation of policies by different government departments. The Government of India then introduced centrally sponsored funded schemes for them besides training schemes.

Public debate on the question of equality between the Men and Women, usually tends to center round the questions of education and employment for women. Expert on women's studies as well as women themselves have often been proved to take the view that the question of their education and employment is fundamental to their enjoyment of equality and status underlying much of this clamor. Better employment opportunities for educated women are the assumption that employment gives women earning capacity, which in turn enhances their social status.

Studies on Indian women generally assume that better education and employment opportunities are fundamental to any improvement in the status of women.

Rural women have always laboured hard and have been an integral part of the household economy, handling the more tedious laborious jobs. Similarly, urban women of lower strata too have had to work to supplement the family income. However, their status has always been low. Furthermore, there is a possibility that opportunities for work, earning capacity, may be influenced by their social position rather than influence their status.

Industrialization and technology development have adversely affected the opportunities for women of the lower strata in the urban areas and of peasant women in the rural areas. Nevertheless they have created conditions for women of the upper and middle strata and introduced them to education and jobs.

The increasing enrolment of female population in educational institution at all levels, increasing number of female job seekers on the live registers of employment exchanges. Steadily rising rate of women employment in public and private sectors, growing rate of female participation in voluntary associations and organizations, promoting women and child welfare and social service activities etc. these are all the positive changes taking place in Indian society in rather slow and steady process.

The growing female participation in socio-economic and political decision-making certainly contributes to the path of socio-economic progress.

The economic development gives birth to a great number of work opportunities in the field of Banking, education, social welfare activities, administrative, machinery, insurance, marketing, advertising, telecommunications, radio, television and broadcasting and other territory activities, heavy industries, large, medium and small industrial ventures. The educated trained and skilled women can take advantage of lucrative job

opportunities offered by modernization and industrialization. Therefore in brief it is sufficient to say that a rapidly growing economy offers highly lucrative, more sophisticated and technical employment opportunities.

The dawn of industrialization and urbanization forced the wife and children of the working class to take up jobs in industries and tertiary sectors on the urban areas, to just supplement their bread winner's income. However, the vital development in this connection is the increasing rate of entry of middle class educated young girls and married women to active labour force.

The increasing rate of female labour participation from middle class and upper classes of these societies is a recent development.

### **Trends in women's employment**

A perusal of the statistics suggests several broad trends in the employment of women in white colour occupations. One of the most noticeable trends in women's employment is that they tend to cluster in few occupations; like teaching, nursing, clerical and related jobs.

There are some basic qualities which nature has given to women. The most important quality in them is selfless service. Nurses in hospitals are always women.

Women are clustered either in low status occupation or in the lowest prestigious profession. This clustering tendency has increased over the years. So that a larger proportion of employed women today are found in teaching and clerical jobs.

Most of the women teachers are concentrated in school teaching. According to the figures complied by the committee on the status of women, 71 percent of women teachers were primary school teachers and 21 percent

were in secondary schools. Very few are teaching in colleges and fewer still in the university.

Since independence participation of women in science and technology education has increased rapidly.

However, in the technical education field, especially in the technician education level there has been a phenomenal rise in women's participation. The felt need for separate institutions for women at sub professional with multi disciplinary courses had led to the establishment of women's polytechnics offering a variety of courses to women.

National education policy gives special stress on technical education for opportunities to all levels and provide residential facilities, the plan is to use both formal and non-formal programmes for meeting special requirements for women.

It would be interesting to analyze the fact, that increasing women are earning university degrees, receiving professional training and entering the work-force specially in the field of science technology.

The Manpower Division of CSIR has done countrywide surveys of employed personnel based on the census data in 1961, 1971, and 1981. The survey has shown that 0 of women is on the rise among ST personnel and 1/10 of scientific and technical personnel in the country engaged in some sort of job are women. When the nature of job was analyzed it was found that 17.36 of employed male and 43.18 of employed female were engaged in teaching. Only 4 of employed women join the manufacturing industry compared to 20 of Men. The preferred fields for women have come out as teaching, medical field, finance and insurance organization.



A Recent NISTAbs study on Indian women scientists have revealed, that an emerging trend of comparative increased of younger women scientists in total ST stock, but low proportion of women above 50 years.

The mode of operation of the scientific research community makes is different for women to carry on in an equal footing with there, malc counterpart in ST oriented jobs.

### **Women in engineering**

In the engineering profession as far as women engineers are concerned, obtaining employment in itself is a big hurdle, especially for women aeronautical, civil and chemical engineers, the electrical and allied engineers being slightly better off. Few women engineers reach the top, and only handful of them has become successful entrepreneurs or consultants.

### **Women in entrepreneur**

Through the importance of promoting and developing first generation entrepreneurship is increasing gradually in India. As it is motivation for self-employment in general is lacking in India and mainly due to social reasons women are more difficult to be motivated then men. For variety of reasons, suitable training programmes to prepare women for self-employment are few.

**Women entrepreneurs, some how the Indian society has not been able to go beyond the 3 Ps, Papad, Prinkle and Powder Masala making. Where as need today is far 3 Es electronics, engineering and energy related activities. However, since the beginning of the 80 efforts have started to develop women entrepreneurs, leading them towards non-traditional manufacturing ventures.**

However, the nationalized banks have visualized their important role in strengthening women entrepreneurship activity and some have active women entrepreneur wing. Technical consultancy organizations of many state are already involved in women EDP's through in many cases these are mostly for urban women.

As far as EDP for women is concerned the State of Meghalaya appears to single out, since women happen to be bread-winners in this they outnumber Men in population, rate of literacy is also higher in women and women are more active in business field.

Since 1983 the number of women who are joining the dedicated band of scientists has been steadily increasing and some have also received applaud from international institutions.

In the country's capital itself there are several women working on important projects, which have been noticed by international agencies and many of these being founded by the government.

As in every field of social life the male bias is firmly entrenched in the legal profession and the judiciary in India. We have very few women judges in our country. No women have yet graced the benches of more than half the high court or the supreme court of India.

After independence women in all walks of life have made a lot of progress. A number of women have joined the all India service, namely IFS, IAS, IPS, IRS etc.

In the police services, restricted to Men only, women have joined from the rank of the IPS to constabulary in the state police and Para-military forces, central Reserve police force, and central industrial securing force.

With coming of modernization industrialization many changes have been brought about in family. This resulted in the change in outlook

regarding women and her usefulness at home and outside. Many parents have started educating their daughters. Thus, preparing them to be economically independent in case of crisis. In many instances the women were gainfully employed in various institutions. In many homes the brothers and sisters were given an equal opportunity to study.

There is a decline in the representation of women in certain occupations rather than in almost all occupations. The report of the committee on the status of women focused on this alarming trend for instance the representation of women even in the so-called female dominated professions such as teaching and nursing.

An ILO report mentions that while formal discrimination is tending to disappear, informal policies and practices continue to persist. It seems that the increase in the general level of education has not led to greater employment among women.

Access to education and employment reflects only formal equality or parity and is a very superficial index of women's status.

However, statistics relating to the declining trends of women in various occupations indicate that women are not achieving even this formal equality. Micro studies may highlight the importance attached to education and employment of women as indicators of change in their status. There is a need to de-link earning capacity from economic independence, particularly in our country where peasant women and women power strata, in the urban areas have always been earning but do not enjoy economic independence and the related high status.

## **Role of working women**

A majority of women take up jobs to develop some outside interest and the job can coordinate well with their home responsibility. However the husband notes the change immediately, although the nuclear family with husband and wife working is being propagated as the significant familial model now a day.

The emerging trend of educated married women's taking up employment is liable to affect her entire personality and her marital and family relationship. Now she has two roles to perform, one of a housewife and second of a wage earner. Both these roles make demands on her time and energy and she is quite often torn between the conflicting pulls of the dual role."

A greater proportion of female working population have been the neglected working class of our labour community. They constitute the poorest section of our labor. Economically very uncertain and least improved, and of course, more socially discriminate population of the society.

In India during the last decade the studies available on women in the professions are still few and far between.

It is argued that the problem of discrimination, which is supposedly linked to women low professional commitment and low occupational status, has to be studied from an entirely different perspective. Moreover discrimination is rooted in socialization and determines the outlook and role perceptions of men as well as women. Women will fail to perceive discrimination even if it is practiced against them so long as they are constrained by their socialization likewise, Men will continue to view discrimination as natural and fair.

Studies on Indian workingwomen assume that their problems are universal and that solution to those problems will also be universal.

Women actually feel that they are quite satisfied with their placement and position in their jobs. As more studies on this then multiply and confirm the findings of earlier ones may turn out to be particularly discouraging to those women who are seriously concerned about women's position and plight, both in the sphere of employment and otherwise. These finding may be greatly harmful to the women's cause and may be used by those who do not want to see a change in women's traditional role and position. These findings are likely to be used as evidence that these are in fact no discrimination against women since they do not perceive it. women's self image may, therefore become a hindrance to change.

Most of them are reluctant to describe themselves in carrier terms and continue to look upon themselves primarily as housewife and for mother this is one of the reasons why they are unwilling to take additional responsibilities. Which required investment of tome and energy beyond the time limits defined by their jobs.

Moreover, a women's carrier path is considerably different from that of her husband, since it is affected by her husband's carrier considerations. While a men's carrier follows a steady curve falling towards retirement, a women may drop out or slow down during child bearing and rearing she may also have to give up jobs because the husband moves away to a different job.

Of course workingwomen are not a monolith. They can be broadly divided into two groups on the basis of their socio-economic status and their occupations. Further, women in these two groups join work under different compulsions and are not motivated by different reasons.

Their career involvement and professional commitment therefore differ along occupations, and their motivations. For instance, those who are in low status and low pay jobs, such as clerks, nurses and school teachers, are more likely to be working because of financial necessity and are also less likely to view their work as a job and not as a career, on the other hand, women doctors, scientists, engineers and university teachers are more likely to be working for personal fulfillment and may also be more involved in their careers. In fact no difference is found in the professional commitment of women and men scientists and engineers. Another important variable among which workingwomen ought to be differentiated for purposes of analyzing their professional commitment is marriage. In fact, an unmarried working woman is more likely to be closer to men in terms of her career involvement and career path, although her motivations may not be very different from those of married workingwomen in the same occupation group.

The second observation commonly made about working and professional women is that face acute role conflict while trying to combine the two roles, namely that of a workingwoman, on the one hand and that of a housekeeper on the other.

Low professional commitment and discrimination flow from role perceptions one self images imbibed through the process of socialization. Girls in urban India are brought up to perceive themselves in the role of housekeepers, housewife and mothers. On the other hand boys are brought up as the breadwinners and status-givers. These roles are more internalized by the boys and the girls as much as by the kin group, the family, the employers and the teachers.

Today's young men and women particularly in our metropolitan cities are beginning to take lifetime work by women for granted. This may be due to the rising cost of living or to higher expectations in standards of living. Whatever the reason, quite a sizeable number of girls now join work, not as a temporary arrangement but to continue work.

While more women are entering the labour market and are expecting to stay till retirement, their occupational status continues to be low.

Combined with this are slow economic growth and rapid population growth limits the capacity of the organized sector. Which has absorbed a large majority of educated Indian women to expand.

The UN statistics on women indicate work force is involved in unpaid family work only few of them work as employed or employers. An overall representation of women in the labour force still remains low. It reflects a higher capacity of the population. Globalisation and liberalization and privatization have adverse effect on women employment. They are losing employment due to technological changes, substitution of women labour and deskilling of women's work.

**Table - 1.10**

**Employment of women in organized public and private sector**

Year	Public Sector		Private Sector		Total	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1971	98.70	8.60	56.80	10.80	155.50	19.30
1981	139.80	14.90	61.00	12.90	200.50	27.93
1991	167.10	23.40	62.40	14.30	229.50	37.81
1997	168.66	27.28	67.77	19.09	236.08	46.37
1999	166.04	52.11	66.80	20.18	232.84	48.29
2000	164.57	28.57	65.80	20.66	230.37	49.23

Source: UN Development report.

## **Issues and Problems**

Workingwomen form a major chunk of society. Their presence, aspirations and problems cannot be ignored. It is imperative that they are looked upon as individuals engaged in gainful employment. They should be given the due respect and status in society.

Though development, policies and performances have created a positive impact in women position in the society. They are facing many problems and difficulties at home and working place some major issues and problems indicate women status, which are as follows.

Women are powerless, they have no choice regarding their job, they don't have a principle occupation, women worker perform dual role in society relating to production and reproduction so that they are overburdened, their contribution to the family economy and national economy remains largely invisible and under valued, female worker do not have right to spend money themselves, working for a longer time in unhygienic conditions affecting working women's health, women have a low nutrition status. Women have a low level of participation in decision making. The existing communication channels are not adequate and do not reach to poor women, lack of integrated approach in macro policies, in tackling women issues, unchecked exploitation of women in houses, at working places and public places.

Policies and programmes and seminars can not change the women status. There is a greater need for attitudinal change in the society to wards working women. It should recognize their creativity and entrepreneurship not as passive and defenseless poor women, which is not looked for even 55 years of independence.



In India as per the 9<sup>th</sup> plan 320 million people are living below the poverty line, of them 70% are women. In this era of globalization, power and wealth are being concentrated in the hands of multinationals and individuals.

The report by who and voluntary health Association of India says that the process of globalization has impacted the poor badly especially women, in terms of increase in trafficking of women and prostitution, greater spread of female feticide and female infanticides, dowry demand, harassment and dowry death. The structural adjustment programmes (SAP) adopted by the government to boost the process of economic development does not improve the self-employment opportunities for women but rather aggravates their problems.

The shifting of production of food crops to cash crops has negatively affected the women's employment. Agriculture has now become export-oriented and women in most rural societies do not have the control over the resources, the exploitation of natural resources like scarcity of water and ruination of forests etc. This has adversely affected women, whose responsibility is to bring drinking water to their house and to fetch firewood for cooking.

According to world human development Index, "100 million live in absolute poverty, 600 million illiterate and 2/3<sup>rd</sup> of the world's population are women." Increasing gap between men and women control of productive assets, employment, incomes, education and training, hours of work habitation, health and social welfare, infrastructure and neglect of girl child all these result in newer forms of oppression. The development of technology in fields of agriculture and industry brought out radical changes and or country is among the top 20 countries, which use technology and

ranks 63<sup>rd</sup> on technology achievement Index. As a result of privatization and due to lack of awareness of technical skills women are thrown out of industries. Women are largely excluded from technological developments affecting most commodities. Thus, a large number has been deprived of their traditional sources of income.

**Table No. - 1.11****Statewise classification of Female Workers engaged in different sectors**

State/UT	Classifications of workers (females in '000)					%Share in total workers			
	Total Workers	Cultivators	Agl. labourers	H. hold inds.	Other inds.	Cultivators	Agl lab.	H. hold inds.	Other inds.
Andhra Pradesh	13139	2616	7387	903	2233	19.91	56.22	6.87	17.00
Arunachal Pradesh	189	145	8	2	34	76.72	4.23	1.06	17.99
Assam	2672	1080	440	211	941	40.42	16.47	7.90	35.22
Bihar	7483	1677	4729	447	629	22.41	63.20	5.97	8.41
Chhatisgarh	4143	1835	1838	82	388	44.29	44.36	1.98	9.37
Delhi*	569	10	4	26	529	1.76	0.70	4.57	92.97
Goa	146	25	20	5	96	17.12	13.70	3.42	65.75
Gujrat	6498	1808	2583	159	1947	27.82	39.75	2.45	29.96
Haryana	2664	1173	564	82	846	44.03	21.17	3.08	31.76
Himachal Pradesh	1306	1125	38	18	125	86.14	2.91	1.38	9.57
Jammu & Kashmir	1047	576	53	111	307	55.01	5.06	10.60	29.32
Jharkhand	3445	1478	1370	191	406	42.90	39.77	5.54	11.79
Karnataka	8249	2026	3613	547	2062	24.56	43.80	6.63	25.00
Madhya Pradesh	9554	4123	3895	509	1027	43.15	40.77	5.33	10.75
Maharashtra	15128	5244	6362	506	3017	34.66	42.05	3.34	19.94
Manipur	475	215	68	78	114	45.26	14.32	16.42	24.00
Meghalaya	399	207	83	10	99	51.88	20.80	2.51	24.81
Mizoram	205	125	14	3	63	60.98	6.83	1.46	30.73
Nagaland	362	273	16	11	62	75.41	4.42	3.04	17.13
Orissa	4454	867	2420	379	788	19.47	54.33	8.51	17.69
Punjab	2118	276	379	149	1314	13.03	17.89	7.03	62.04
Rajasthan	9071	6080	1491	250	1250	67.03	16.44	2.76	13.78
Sikkim	97	61	8	1	27	62.89	8.25	1.03	27.84
Tamil Nadu	9658	1809	4388	839	2622	18.73	45.43	8.69	27.15
Tripura	327	90	114	21	102	27.52	34.86	6.42	31.19
Uttar Pradesh	12800	4392	5276	1068	2064	34.31	41.22	8.34	16.13
West Bengal	7003	941	2269	1258	2535	13.44	32.40	17.96	36.20
Chandigarh	53	1	0	1	51	1.89	0.00	1.89	96.23

Daman & Diu	12	2	1	1	8	16.67	8.33	8.33	66.67
Dadra & N. Haveli	38	21	9	1	7	55.26	23.68	2.63	18.42
Lakshadweep	2	0	0	0	2	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Pondicherry	8	1	30	3	49	1.20	36.14	3.61	59.04
Andaman & Nicobar	27	6	1	3	17	22.22	3.70	11.11	62.96

Source: "The Economic Times", June 17, 2002.

## 1.6 Demographic Profiles in Gujarat. An overview of basic census Report - 2001.

It is very necessary to have a look at the basic census report in view of considering the prevailing status of women both in rural and urban areas. The report reveals some basic facts. Gujarat stands at 10<sup>th</sup> rank among the states of India, in respect of population and ranks 21<sup>st</sup> in population density. Population of Gujarat has become almost three times after independence during 1951 to 2001. Total number of population is 48,38,7270. Sex ratio is found 921 per 1000 males, Gujarat ranks 22<sup>nd</sup> in sex ratio among the states of India, while it is 15<sup>th</sup> in literacy among the states of India. The highest population is found in Ahmedabad 58,08,378 and lowest in the Dangs 18,67,12. Percentage wise highest population growth is reported in surat (47.04), while it is lowest it is Amreli (6.45) literacy ratio is found highest in Ahmedabad (79.89%), while it is lowest in Dohad (45.65%), sex ratio is found highest in Amreli and Dangs (986), while it is lowest in surat (835).

Making rural, urban composition in rural Gujarat total male population is 155,06,000 while rural female population is 14,65,3000. In others words in rural Gujarat female population per thousand male is 945. As against this scenario is quite different in urban Gujrat. In urban Gujrat male population is 85,24,545 it means that in urban Gujarat sex ratio is 879,

it means that within Gujarat state sex ratio in urban Gujarat is considerable lower to than that of rural Gujarat.

There are no authentic evidences is available explain larger gap in the life expectancy ratio between male and female.

If the state is looked from the region perspective sex ratio in central Gujarat is 935, and North Gujarat is 938, in South Gujarat is 950 and in Saurashtra it is highest with 960. In urban Gujarat the regional classification for sex ratio indicates that in central Gujarat it is 896, in North Gujarat it is 901, in South Gujarat it is 797 and in Saurashtra 917. Again it reveals the fact that Saurashtra is leading all other region in sex ratio.

Looking to the district wise classification in urban Gujarat Surat is at the bottom with 766, Valsad 828, Ahmedabad 886, Gandhinagar 887, and it is 896 in Bhavnagar. In the rural Gujarat Anand is a bottom with 908, Ahmedabad 917, Kheda 922, Gandhinagar 924 and Bharuch 925.

Making the occupational classification it is found that in rural Gujarat the working force per 1000 male is 48, but from which male workforce is 19, divided in regions it is further found that North Gujarat of the 47% workforce, male workforce is 27% and female workforce is 20%, in central Gujarat 49% is the rural workforce from which 29% are male, 20 is female. Work force in Saurashtra the rural male work force is 28% and rural female work-force is 17%. Thus the latest census report of 2001 indicates that in saurashtra female rural work-force is considerable lowering to than that of rural male work-force. In Saurashtra region the total number of male work-force is 56%, while in case of female only 34% of total rural female population is found to have working. This in aware reveals the facts that in Saurashtra region, there is ample scope for work. There is also need to increase female workers in Saurashtra.

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## Chapter – 2

### 2.1 The Problem

Global economy is changing very fast. Developing countries also have found changes. India is not an exception to this fast each and every country tries to have close watch over economic progress. In spite of successive efforts by the various governments there has been some lapses in the economic policy which amount to different economic distortions. International institutes are there to help these countries to come out from the economic disaster. These institutes do propose some terms and conditions for providing the help to less developed countries are asked to bring structural changes. It is known as structural adjustment reform measures. It is strange to find that these international institutions providing for liberations of the economy have how ever not drown much attention towards gender perspectives.

When countries resort to structural adjustment, it influences market price. Market price affects directly economically poor class of which women constitute sizeable part of this poor class. Rising process compels average women to support her husband or father to make both ends meet. These are besides her regulate burden of motherhood functions and other domestic functions.

Economic changes have significantly affected to the women though for want of intensives studies in this regard authentic details are not available how ever a survey report of 1990 conducted in south America, stated that 15% of women had left the children wandering in the streets because of worsening situation, they had declined to undertake such responsibility more tragic cases was found in Sahel and Ghana of Africa,

where women play major role in growing food crops, cotton and coco and yet no women labourer was paid for her labour. Similar experiences are found in the countries like, Senegal, Tanzania and Kenya. Though India is stated to be in the better position in this respect the situation is not fun bright in certain states like orissa, Bihar, Arunachal Where women labourer are in more pathetic situation. International Journalist has found female child prostitution prevailing in certain areas.

In 1990 "women alternative economic summit on beyond the debt crisis structural transformation" was held at New York two basic issues were raised at this summit.

(1) In whose favor resource control is transferred? Is it in the favour of women operator, co-operatives or some other big Institutions?

(2) What is an improvement in known paid labors like standards?

Very important issue was discussed as these summit regarding women's status and role in respect of structural changes to take place. Most of the experts have subscribed to the view that structural changes have in general deteriorated the physical, social and economic health of women. Social scientists have importantly noted that human being has an intrinsic value and it would be proper to evaluate every thing in terms of the total population they gain very little and loose much more, even the structural adjustment policy has also not recognized these fact as policy design.

In India we have adopted policy changes from 1990-91 as part of the new economic policy we have been introducing reforms as per the guidelines of the world bank and the IMF. The economy is liberalized and privatized to the maximum extent, this has affected to the Indian economy. It is because of the policy changes that both rural and urban women have to struggle very hard to sustain economically and socially, women are found to

have doubled their expenditure in the recent times, though subsidization and public distribution system has helped to version the situation. Some more critical steps are required in this direction working women apparently are considered in better position, their issues are not settled yet and their experience are also far from satisfaction. In practice in many cases sexual discrimination is found how ever it is least considered. Physically, women have seemed to improve their status. Practically not much is the result. In many areas of activities their role is not considered in the main streams of the development.

In realization of the above facts being the educated women employee I shown inclination to inquire into the subject in accordance with practices observed and to analyze the situation.

## **2.2 Objective**

The researcher is inclined to study the problem in consideration of the following objectives:

- (1) to examine the change in the status of working women.
- (2) to investigate the changing role of working women.
- (3) to observe the domestic and social position of working women in relation to the working male.

## **2.3 Research Methodology**

Being a lecturer in economics at well-established college in Junagadh city and my primary observations in mind as M.Phil. student I determined to investigate into the problem on extensive base therefore this research is based on both primary and secondary data.

The primary sources of data collection of the workingwomen of two major city of Junagadh district Junagadh, Veraval and the third is Porbandar, now the district place. Some hundred sampling size of working women from three cities namely Junagadh, Veraval and Porbandar are interviewed through the pre tested questionnaire supplied to them in view of considering change in the nature of work, working condition, behavioral approach towards them, the work burden and domestic responsibilities. I had tried to incorporate workingwomen from different types of work, like teachers, nurses, retail workers etc. Thus three hundred workingwomen are interring viewed. Apart from it some leading women workers have also been interviewed in this regard.

Besides the primary source it was very much necessary to collect basic details pertaining to social and economic role of women in the economy. For which statistical data were collected through the reports of bureau of economic and statistics census 2001, district economic report and other government report.

From amongst 100 women to be interviewed to each center were classified into organized and unorganized sector employees. In view of knowing socio-economic background of the respondents they were further selected from the different category that of teacher, nurse, banker, governor employee encouraged labors and small interpreters. Thus the sample size in aggraded of three hundred women from different economic groups. Revealing the employment status and role differently. This sample size thus helped to arrive at relatively substantial inferences, which could be of help to provide some suggestive guideline.

## **2.4 Hypothesis**

As part of my on going study I wanted to derive some conclusions for which some hypothesis are framed as under:

(1) Female work participation rate in urban areas is increasing faster than that of male. (2) Urban educated women are rarely found in un-organized sector.

(3) Urban workingwomen find themselves more comfortable with their status and role both at work and home.

(4) Social hierarchy like caste also plays important role in changing the status and role of women.

## **2.5 Limitation**

I have made an honest and sincere effort to inquire into the status and role of urban workingwomen. However, the study is not free from certain limitation.

1. This research is based on primary data, which may not be providing objective details.
2. It is the study of only three small cities representing relatively a corner district of the state, which obviously would be confined to certain practical limitations. Broad analysis may bring out more concrete picture.
3. The study does not include rural women sector, which would have provided a sound base of comparison.

## **Chapter - 3**

### **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

While studying the problem I came across plenty of literature both comprising of theoretical perceptions and imperial observations. Studies abroad and in the country pertaining to the general category of women and specialized professional category of women have been undertaken time to time. Summary of some of the known reviews and researches is presented below.

(1) Acharya, (1996)

Acharya has observed that the women is traditionally viewed as a housewife with her principal functions restricted to reproduction and Home-making when she marries she becomes part of her husband family and migrates she may have contact with her parents, but she will not contribute to their own income any longer and cannot manage the property, she inherits. A propertied family prefer son to daughter to keep the wealth within the family.

(2) Anna Lindbergh, (2001)

Anna Lindbergh has studied in depth the life of the women at work in the cashew - industry of Kerala. In her study she has highlighted the condition of work, the culture of the workplace, the consciousness of women worked and the social limitations on the emancipator potential of their new identity as industrial workers. The study brings out of the historical details of the gendering of the work with women gradually being confined to being



shelters, peelers, graders and packers. The study also reflects the fact that the caste of the recruiting agent plays a major role in determining. The workers recruit the particular caste.

(3) Anne-Jardian and Margert Heemeing.

The pioneering study, "The managerial women by Anne-Jardian and margert Heemeing assert that," The issue for women is not whether the world is fair. This is teacher way the world is, if you wished to be part of it, live with it.

(4) Aparna Basu,

Aparna Basu's essays provide comprehensive and chronological information on women's education in post independence India. She examines the various governmental policies on education; special programmes and argues that we still have a long way to go.

(5) Ashish Bose,

Ashish Bose pin pointedly questions the relevance of celebrations and orientation programme in context of the empowerment of women.

(6) Backer G.

Backer argued that when men and women spend the same amount of time on market jobs the women would be offered lower wages than men. Women had more of housekeeping and less on market jobs. This accounts for their lower earnings. It is because of this factor that women generally seek less demanding jobs when the wages are lower.

(7) Behram, (1988),

Behram explains the relationships between gender and resource allocation by way of two models.

Models of intra-familial resources Allocation, one is Altruistic or unitary model and other is bargaining or collective model.

In the unitary model effective altruist allocates resources among family member where as in the collective models allocation of resources depends on the bargaining strength of the individual.

It is found that better endowed child obtains a higher return from a given investment of resources parents respond by allocating more resource to the child providing higher return. In other words if a male has better job prospects than a female the family will allocate more resources to the male child. The result of fewer resources being allocating to the female child than her requirement may likely to lead to lower relative probability of survival. In some studies some imperial support for the unitary models for rural India the female employment has positive effect on the relative survival probability of female children.

(8) Bhatt B. R. and Bhatt Sunita

The conclusion is that analysis women have over work (About 15 to 17 hours) The status of women in India has undergone considerable change, but the problems continued to remain unchanged. The education to girl in nutrition health and reproduction, undoubtedly make them better wives and mothers, but why not this to be imparted to boys to make them good husbands and fathers, In order to improve the conditions of working women?

(9) Bhatt Ela.

Ela Bhatt discusses the SEWA experience - concerning the empowerment of poor women through economic freedom, Political decision - making and collective bargaining as equals. She also documents the changing response of instructors to women's co-operatives.

(10) Chaudhary, Zafrullah, (1996)

Chaudhary, Zafrullah has narrated the change, which has taken place in Bangladesh with regard to the status of young girls of villages.

(11) Clowled Cathleen (1994)

Clowled Cathleen observes that households in an aggrieve environment based on sustain farming will subscribe to the view that decision making should be male dominated and in wealthy household decision-making would be joint process where in she would also participate.

(12) Devnathan, Govind Kelkar

A study made in Thailand revealed the fact that the impact of the crisis on women's wage is more severe than on men's average wage. The investigation had also shown that women's income from home had fallen drastically.

(13) Diwan Ritu, (1999).

Mr. Diwan throws light on inequality in gender employment. He is of the view that women in India are the part of the reserve army of labour, regarded as replaceable and disposable.

He also express the view that while women are pushed out of job by technology, many go to the unorganized to earn money. Although no. of workers inward the underground economy is unclear it is seen that the majority of them are women.

(14) Elgquistsaltzman (1992)

In a study of men's women's carriers in Sweden, notes the difference in their career path she calls the men's career as "straight roads" and women's careers as "winding paths". Thus the shape of career paths of men and women is likely to remain different unless a radical change takes place in their respective roles and social placement.

(15) Engel (1884)

Engel argued that women liberation to be secured only by the advent of socialism and by their coming forward to take-up employment outside their houses.

(16) Gill Rajesh

A research survey conducted of two villages situated on the periphery of one village is Mallanpur, near by Chandigad service city and one is gill, near by Ludhiana are industrial city. Status of women in two cities were examined in respect of educational status, gainful employment in the formal sector, Average number of children and educational aspirations for the daughters type of household and appropriation of educational institutions.

The findings suggest that cities may differ in respect of the impact they exercise on the peripheral situation especially the women. It is found that women in the periphery of service city have a better status indicated by a higher level of female literacy, low rate of fertility, incidence of higher percentage of nuclear households and higher educational aspirations than their counter parts in peripheral settlement of an industrial city however economic necessities compel women to opt for lower and non-professional jobs where as women among the higher educational facilities happen to go in for professional work and higher prestige occupations. Thus the status of women as well as the attitude of others towards them tends to be greatly influenced by the peculiarities in the urban impact.

(17) Gilmen C. (1898)

Gilmen had also stressed the need for women to participate in employment outside their homes, as the only source for their emancipation.

(18) Hadded and Kanber (1990)

Hadded and Kanber quotes that the antipoverty approaches through employment and income generation can not be expected to improve necessarily the position of women.

(19) Harriss (1990)

Harriss is of the opinion that in India preference for males are built in characteristic religious and inheritance customs.

(20) Hartman (1976)

Hartman has found that women have more advantage in household management. They could gain less from economic activities this might reduces their bargaining power in family decision - making.

(21) Henslin James M. (2001)

Henslin James comments that social repression also lead to poverty among Indian women. How a women lives her life depends very much on in which caste she is born into. He notes that although the Indian Government formally abolished the caste system by law. It is still a part of the social fabric in India because of its traditional mooring.

(22) Heyr (1992)

Heyr states that women have become agent in the display and transfer of wealth.

(23) Jackson.

Jackson states that poverty and employment policies are not only tools for talking gender issues because the subordinate of women is not caused by poverty.

(24) Jeenukan

Mary chen found that only 13 percent of the daughters of land owning Fathers inherited any land and even fewer effectively controlled any (quoted in Agrawal - 1998) (Agrawal Bina 1994): A field of one's own gender and land Rights in South Asia - Cambridge University press.

(25) J. Jeyrajan Padminiswaminathan

These author's have attempted to may the diffused manner in which wage earning women workers experience oppression which is the out come of the interplay of both patriarchal structures and capitalist relations of production.

(26) Jyotikiran (1994)

She concludes that any difference of analytical significance between men's and women's work cannot be understood unless a critical analysis of the patterns and also confirms the view that due to characteristic activity pattern of the women in which an important characteristic is combining of several economic activities with house hold work, it is not feasible to measure women's participation in economic activities in terms of single indicator as done in the case of a man. She also observes that women's own perception about their work made a great deal of difference to their identification when the household was characterized by a low land and asset base or produced less marketable surplus or when women's activities were confined to the intermediate stages of production. Women in general did not perceive themselves as workers even if they work for major part of the year.

(27) Kanakelathe Mukund.

Kanakelathe Mukund reviewing women's property Rights in South India remarks that very large number of studies have established that the division of resources and access to healthcare, education and other services within a family are strongly biased in favor of men and disadvantage to women and the girl child she also concludes from several observations that women themselves accept unequal property rights for girls because of the girls will go away when they get married.

(28) Kapdia.

Kapdia in her study points out that the women's from the dalit community were able to negotiate higher wages but women from non-dalit communities could not negotiate for better wages. She finds the gender relations in which the labourer from upper class are seen as wives and mother, where as the dalit women are recognized as workers and equal providers for the house hold.

(29) Keiko Higuchi,

Keiko Higuchi critique on social problems of Japan expressed that "when equal employment opportunity law for men and women was enacted. In 1986, the government should have also a declaration for equal housework sharing between men and women. She is of the opinion that working wives should become lazier. They should not try to be perfect wife and mother. It is important that they educate their husband at early stage of marriage.

It is found that emergence of third sex is a cost and consequence of the vertical mobility of the corporate women. According to survey of labour ministry of Japan 59.3 percent of women were single, 36 of the married women had no children. Most of the carrier women do not get the children, when they were building their carrier. Many had to give up marriage or plan their lives to continue their carrier in corporation.

Regarding the changing lifestyle of the workingwomen in USA the recent tendency among professional women to marry other professional and to contribute working after they have children has made for a new lifestyle.



(30) Krishnaraj (2001)

Mister Kirshnaraj argues that the absence of gender invisibleness women problems, distorts analysis derives conclusions that are invalid and finally insufficiently credible theoretical attorots.

(31) Mahajan Chandra Mohan.

Women of today are surely more conscious, alert and active about their duties, rights and freedom and educational attainment is assisting the process. They are no more servants to their masters within the four walls of houses. On the other hand, they have started taking active part in almost spheres of life. Above all, they have started organizing themselves to fight their cases, which is a healthy sign of their progress. However the major reason for women's subordinate status is the fact that they are not only economically exploited but also socio culturally oppressed subordinations of women in all walks of life manifests itself the marginalisation of women in the economy on the other hand what we need today is socio-economic development of the country with women. For this the potentialities and capabilities of women have to be fully happed. The need of the hour is thus to create conditions for women to be self-reliant and self-confident.

(33) Markcian Feminist

Markcian Feminist argue that in wealthier house-holds women bargaining power may be independent of the resource they control, but dependence on the cultural and social situation in which they live.

(34) Mazumdar Vina and Indu Agni

Hotri, locate women's struggles in the global context and trace the Indian women's movement from independence, emphasizing its clear articulation and evaluation through last three decades of the contemporary women's movement. They provide an overview of the urgent issues confronting the women's movement today.

(35) Meena Gopal

Meena Gopal in her study undertaken exclusively of women workers in beedi Industry at Tirunelveli district of Tamilnadu remarks that women on account of their gender have an isolated position in the industry despite their large number.

(35) Millie Nihira

Millie Nihira expresses her concern as part of her study for the worsened quality of employment especially for women. Her conclusion after conducting a macro level study is that gender subordination is built into the system. Employment generation does not necessarily translate into a better deal for labour, especially women.

(36) Mill J.S. (1869)

J.S. Mill was the first to make strong plea for equality between sexes in the matter of employment. He argued for women's entry to all function and occupation. He even viewed that the disabilities, which women suffered were only due to the desire of men to keep women as subordinate in domestic life.

(37) Mincer J. and Polachek, (1974)

Mincer and Polachek have developed the human capital explanation. According to this approach it is assumed that women prefer only certain stereotypical occupations. These do not require much of investment in acquiring special skills. Therefore, it is obvious that they received lower wages.

(38) Monci Williams, (1983)

Monci Williams has found that in U.S.A. the managerial women now in the top-executive jobs are the first sizable group to compete head to head with men.

(39) Mrinal Pande

Mrinal Pande traces the history of the entry of women into the electronic media since the introduction of television in 1959. She examines the increasing importance of women both as target audience and as actors in the media industry itself.

(40) Mukul Mukherjee

Mukul Mukherjee evaluates the "Journey towards economic emancipation of women." by studying available data on women and work in independent India. She analyses the undervaluing of women's work and elucidates the major issues in the contemporary context. Viz, state policies, changing technology and the new economic policy, concluding by outlining an agenda for action.

(41) Nabaneeta Dev Sen

Nabaneeta Dev Sen provides compelling analysis of the "Sita Myth" and its preponderance among Indian women. Through the analysis of songs with Sita's life in four languages: Bengali, Marathi, Telugu and Maithili, she illustrates the similarities in themes and ideas. For most Indian women, Sita's loneliness, pain and suffering they can identify with and relate to Sita are there alter ego-the girl next door whose lack of control over her own life and destiny parallel their own. Since they are unable to protest on their own behalf, they raise their voices in song to underscore the trials and tribulations of Sita.

(42) Naila Kabeer (2001)

Naila Kabeer in her research study demonstrates convincingly choices women make in the contrasting situation are quite explicable. Her emphasis on the agency of women themselves, and the degree to which the circumstance as well as their own outlook act either to enhance their power to choose or constrain them provides valuable insight into the way in which this women actually make decisions.

She has tried to explain the difference observed amongst women garment workers in Dhaka and women garment workers in London. She has tried to examine the impact of values and cultures on the imparity functioning at the work. She has also derived the conclusion that globalization is found to be responsible for creation of garment factories in Bangladesh catering to export markets having the effect of undermining patriarchal and increase women power to control their own life.

(43) Nillesen and Gelfert

Nillesen and Gelfert rightly remark that by demonstrating a commitment to the creation of the job opportunities for female that required an investment in human capital. India will be in a position to exploit these economically under utilized the resource. India's East Asian neighbor has been far more effective in using their female labour force, where they have contributed to economic growth and prosperity.

(44) Poloma and Garland, (1971)

They highlighted that there may be many reasons for the low occupational status of women in India, but at least with two such characteristics have been frequently noted. One it is assumed that women lack or have a lower professional commitment than men. Most studies on workingwomen in other countries show that working women are not willing to devote the necessary time and energy to their carrier. They do not want to drive single - minded to top jobs. This is true of even highly educated professional women such as doctors, university professors and attorneys.

(45) Rajuladevi (1983)

Rajuladevi quotes Lipton that for any given level of human capital women received lower returns.

(46) Rana R.K. (1999)

R.K. Rana chose to analyze the contribution of the genders in the sphere of production in economics taking India as a special example. In a time series data of 21 observations from year 1960-61 to the year 1980-81. It was concluded that male is significantly greater than that of a female in

other-wards female are found less efficient in all major sector of economy. The evaluation of Hudson institute on workforce trends is quite significant and revealing evidence postulate the need on the corporation to formulate policy for the managerial development which the emphasis for the development of managerial women.

(47) Renana Jhabvala and Shalini Sinha

Renana Jhabvala and Shalini Sinha remarks in a micro study that women workers continue to be at the receiving end of policies, often getting victimized in the process they have no say in the formulation of the policies as they have no voice in economic affairs.

(48) River and Turner (1987)

River and Turner had analyzed the unemployment rate in women occupations. It has been theorized that ratio of female to male unemployment fall during economic contraction and increasing during expansions.

(49) Rosenzweig and Schultz (1982)

Rosenzweig and Schultz observes that female employment has a positive effect on the relative survival probability of female children.

(50) Sen A.K. (1999)

A.K. Sen argues that what determines bargaining power is not solely contribution, but rather the perceived contribution. Some Marxian Feminists

go further an argue that in wealthier households women's bargaining power may be independent of the resources they control, but depends on the cultural and societal situation in which they live with an increases in the wealth certain family may act more altruistically or alternatively may attempted to apply strict religious cultural prejudices.

(51) Sethi R.M. :-

R.M. Sethi observed in their study that the major source of power lies in the control of family income therefore all these areas where investment and expenditure of income are involved are jealously guarded and controlled by the men in the household in spite of the fact that women in these household are engaged in both "productive" and "reproductive" work. The men in the household or among all land size groups take the decision to priorities individually.

(51) Shobhita Rajgopal and Kanchan Mathur

Shobhita Rajgopal and Kanchan Mathur described the sound logic for the programme of women's development being implemented in Rajasthan. The trees is expected both needs and interests of women.

(52) Sinha Puspa (1987)

Sinha Puspa in her study refers to the fact that the working housewives in general are suffering from the role conflict more than unemployed housewives. A comparison between the two groups on the four subscales of role conflict clearly shows that the workingwomen perceive

more conflicting role expectation. This is found due to absence of proper care of the family as well as of the job resulting into more grievances against them. They are also suffering from more intra-individual conflict and their husband's attitude towards their job is often unfavorable. In the context of overall personal adjustment, workingwomen are found to be poorer adjusted persons than the non-working housewives.

(53) Sorenson (1989)

Sorenson established that women in female dominated jobs earn (6-15) percent less than women in other occupation.

(54) Sushma Sapru

As against an increase in the female population – an increase in female workforce is much lower. There is little quantitative rise in the participation of women in the total labour force however much diversity from the quality point of view is observed during planning period.

According to Altaker's women played a more active economic role and participated in rituals and girls in a higher society were allowed to undergo the Upanayan rite."

(55) Talib Rokial (1998)

The study observes that the visibility of laid off men and the invisibility of laid off women has resulted in gender differentiated public responses.

(57) Tapti Guha Thakurta



Tapti Guha Thakurta in an innovative and timely essay address questions on women in the creative arts - as women and as artists. She points out that the attention given to women artists in India is part of a broader trend of prestige and glamour that has come to surround "Modern India art." She traces the shifts in the position of women vis-à-vis art from object to subject status. However, in conclusion she reminds the reader that the celebration of a few visible women artist still leaves us with the task of documenting the history of those women in the margins who are still to be recognized as artists.

(58) T.K.Sundari Ravindran

T.K.Sundari Ravindran in her reviewed article on female autonomy in Tamilnadu has tried to examine the extent of female autonomy. Tamil women enjoy in their personal lives and within their households and gender power dynamics between married concepts.

(59) Visaria Leela

Visaria Leela discusses the lopsided sex relations in India by examining empirical data over time as also regional differentials.

(60) VHAI (WHO 2000)

The document highlights some of the recent trends of globalization and new world order, which is affecting lives of millions of women and children adverse. The root of which lie in socio-economic in equalities, environmental degradation.

(61) Wandana Sonetkar

She highlights the fact that social barriers are more rigid and social inequalities even more starkly in relation to race in the developed world. There exists the struggle for the assertion of women's rights. Educated upper caste women are granted freedom to work and move in society with relative ease.

(62) E.P.W. May 25, 2002 (2037 Pg.)

Several studies have highlighted the fact that in general because of liberalization and globalization there is a decline in poverty and an increase in general well-being. This observation is however strongly challenged. It is said that in reality the poverty is increased and employment opportunities and access to social services have been reduced. The effect of liberalization on employment and income of women workers can be explained as under, there is present employment without generation of new employment.

Greater changes have occurred on account of new technology and skills.

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## Chapter – 4

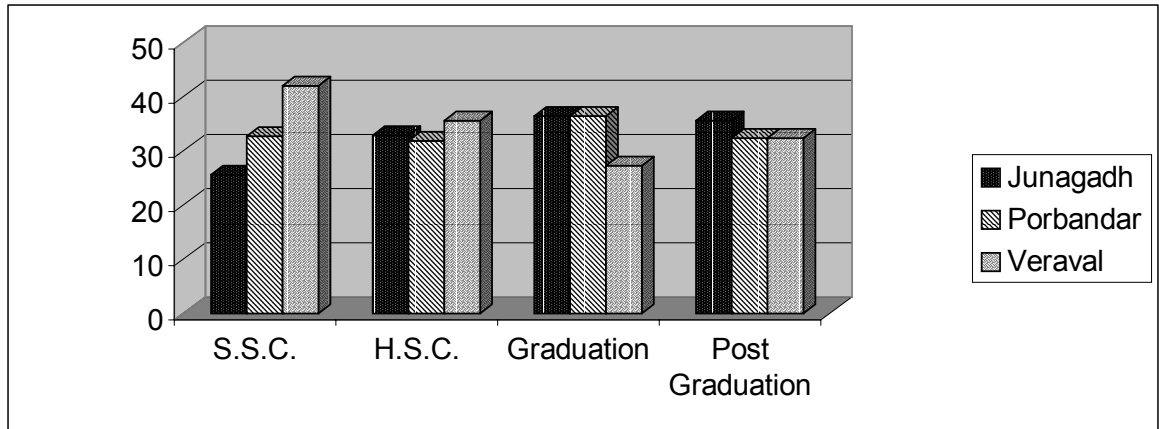
### EMPIRICAL OBSERVATIONS - ANALYSIS

#### 4.1 Analysis of the Survey

This chapter largely follows the tables and the analysis that of the tables. These tables are based on the information collected and compiled through the questioners received from the respondents. Having received three hundred questioners in aggregate, where converted into the tables and these tables are presented here. Analysis to each table follows under the table.

**Table - 4.1**  
**Respondents' classification in respect of educational qualification**  
**(Absolute Numbers and percentage to the category total)**

<b>Name of City</b>	<b>Total Respondents</b>	<b>S.S.C.</b>	<b>H.S.C.</b>	<b>Graduation</b>	<b>Post Graduation</b>
Junagadh	100	11(25.58)	35(32.71)	32(36.36)	22(35.48)
Porbandar	100	14(32.55)	34(31.77)	32(36.36)	20(32.25)
Veraval	100	18(41.86)	38(35.51)	24(27.27)	20(32.25)
Aggregate	300	43(14.33)	107(35.66)	88(29.33)	62(20.67)



This first table provides necessary information regarding educational qualification of the respondents. Against each of the city absolute numbers and the percentage to the total number of the respondents of the said category is indicated and the aggregate follows the percentage to the aggregate total. Following inferences can be derived from the table.

- (1) In Junagadh city of the 100 hundred respondents maximum number of respondents are found HSC as the qualification, followed by graduates, post graduates and SSC.
- (2) In Porbandar city maximum number of respondent are found HSC, followed by graduates, post graduates and SSC.
- (3) In Veraval city maximum number of respondents are found HSC, followed by graduates, postgraduates and SSC.
- (4) This leads to maximum in aggregate of HSC followed by graduates, postgraduates and SSC.
- (5) Category wise from amongst HSC working women maximum are found in Veraval both in absolute numbers and the percentage. While Junagadh stands next to Veraval in respect of working women with HSC degree. Graduate workingwomen are found in



equal numbers in Junagadh and Porbandar city. While it is less than the two cities in Veraval. There is no much difference is found in the number of postgraduates working women in all the three cities.

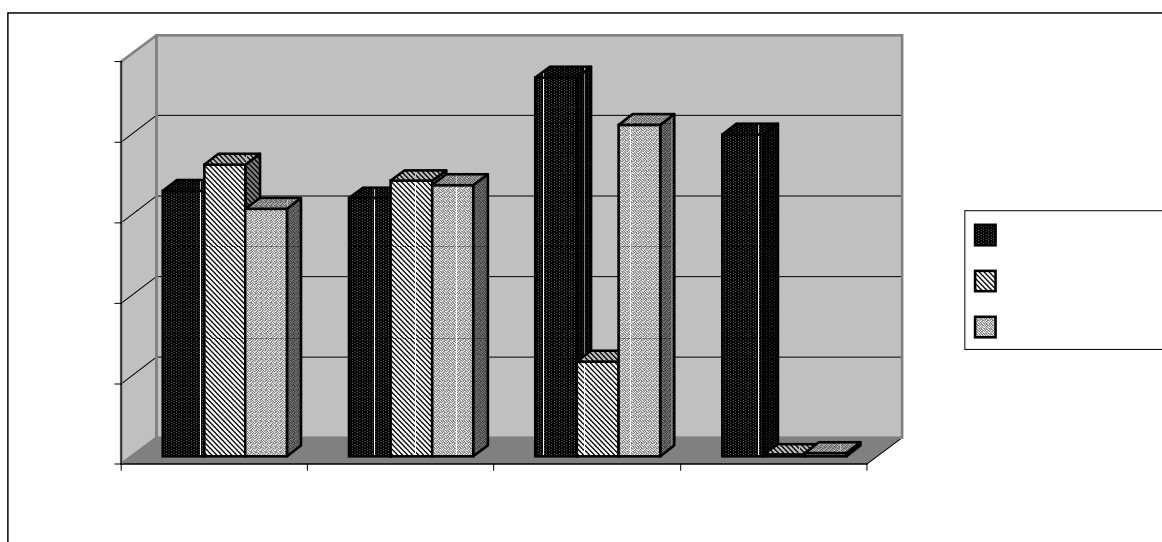
- (6) From the categorization to aggregate workingwomen are divided equally into the number of percentages i.e. 50% are non graduates and 50% are graduates and post graduates.

**Table - 4.2**

**Respondents' classification in respect of their marital status**

**(Absolute numbers and percentage to category total)**

City	Total Resp.	Unmarried	Married	Widow	Divorcee
Junagadh	100	30(32.96)	60(32.08)	8(47.05)	2(40%)
Porbandar	100	33(36.26)	64(34.22)	2(11.78)	1(20%)
Veraval	100	28(30.76)	63(33.68)	7(41.17)	2(40%)
Aggregate	300	91(30.33)	187(62.33)	17(5.66)	5(1.67)



This table referees to the marital status of working of the three cities. From each of the city the data reveals the following facts.

- (1) Of the hundred respondents married women are found in maximum numbers and in percentage in Porbandar 64(34.22) followed by Veraval 63 (33.68) and Junagadh 60 (32.08). In all 187 working women (62.33) are found married.

- (2) 91 (30.33) working women of the total respondents are found un married from which maximum un married women are found in Porbandar 33 (36.26) percentage followed by Junagadh 30 (32.96) and Veraval 28 (30.76).
- (3) Very few – only 5 working women are found divorcee and only 17 are found widow. From amongst the Widow working women maximum number is found in Junagadh city followed by Veraval and Porbandar.

**Table - 4.3**

**Respondents' Classification in respect of family members living with them**

(Absolute Numbers and percentage to category total)

<b>City</b>	<b>Total Respondents</b>	<b>2 Members</b>	<b>4 Members</b>	<b>More then 4</b>
Junagadh	100	22(30.13)	62(32.80)	16(42.10)
Porbandar	100	25(34.26)	63(33.34)	12(31.57)
Veraval	100	26(35.61)	64(33.86)	10(26.31)
Aggregate	300	73(24.33)	189(63.00)	38(12.66)

This table indicates the total number of family members leaving with the workingwomen in each of the surveyed city. It refers to the percentages to the category total. It mainly leads to the following conclusions.

- (1) In all the three cities the workingwomen are found to be leaving with 4 members in maximum percentages and absolute numbers. In aggregate 189 working women (63%) are found to have 4

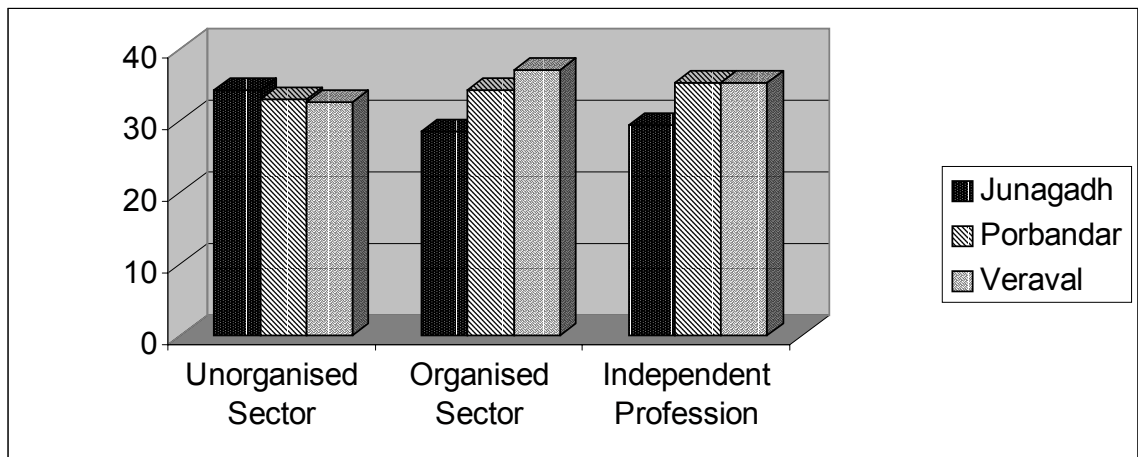
members leaving with them. 73 working women are found to be leaving with 2 members (24.33%) and 38 working women are having more than 4 members along with them i.e. 12.66%.

- (2) City wise classification does not indicate much differentiation in the second category i.e. working women leaving 4 members are found maximum in all the three cities with Veraval leading with 64, Porbandar 63 and Junagadh 62. The same is the trend found in case of working women leaving 2 members.
- (3) It is only in case of the third category where in we find that in Junagadh city highest workingwomen are found leaving with more than 4 members. While that number found lowest in Veraval. Thus in general workingwomen are found to be living in aggregate with normal size of the family.

**Table - 4.4**

**Respondents' Classification in respect of nature of job  
(Absolute numbers and percentage to category total)**

<b>City</b>	<b>Total Respondents</b>	<b>Unorganized Sector</b>	<b>Organized Sector</b>	<b>Independent Profession</b>
Junagadh	100	85(34.27)	10(28.57)	5(29.41)
Porbandar	100	82(33.06)	12(34.28)	6(35.29)
Veraval	100	81(32.66)	13(37.14)	6(35.29)
Aggregate	300	248(82.66)	35(11.66)	17(5.67)

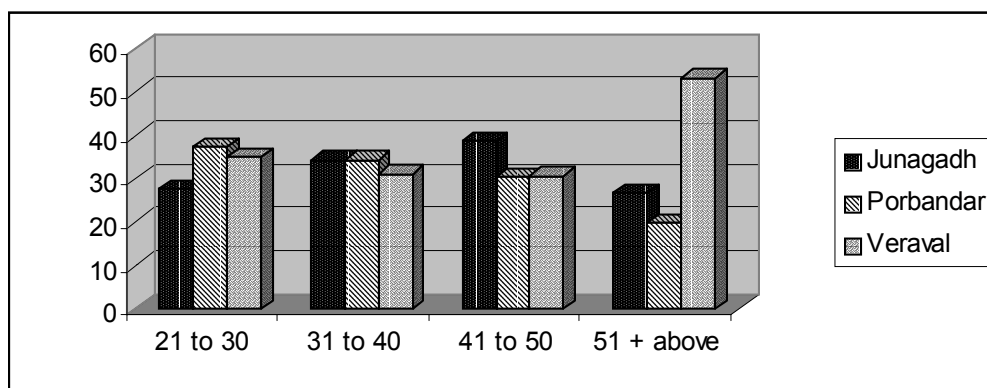


**Table - 4.5**

**Respondents' Classification in respect of age group**

(Absolute numbers and Percentage to category total)

City	Total Resp.	21 to 30	31 to 40	41 to 50	51 + above
Junagadh	100	26(27.65)	32(34.40)	38(38.77)	4(26.66)
Porbandar	100	35(37.23)	32(34.40)	30(30.61)	3(20.00)
Veraval	100	33(35.10)	29(31.18)	30(30.62)	8(53.35)
Aggregate	300	94(31.33)	93(31.00)	98(32.66)	15(5.00)



This table identifies the following picture. It states that of the aggregate 300 workingwomen maximum number of workingwomen are found in the age group of 41 to 50 years (32.66%) and minimum number of working women are found above 51 i.e. 15 (5%). However age group classification does not indicate much difference in between the age group of 21 to 30 – 94 (31.33, in the group of 31-40 – 93 (31.00) percentage.

City wise picture in respect of age group also in general indicates the same trend. However in Porbandar and Veraval maximum number of workingwomen of the respondents are found in the age group of 21-30 with 35 (37.23%) and 33 (35.10%) respectively. In the age group of 31-40, equal

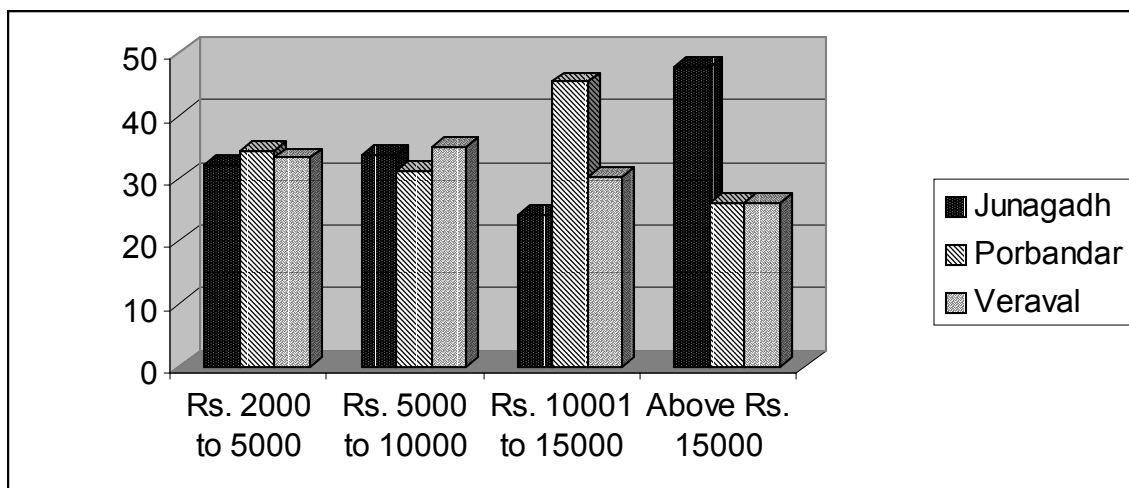
numbers of respondents are found in Porbandar and Junagadh 32 (34.40%) and in the age group of 41-50 years the number is found equal in Porbandar and Veraval 30 (30.61%). From amongst 300 hundred total respondents highest number of working women is found in Junagadh in the age group of 41-50 years – 38 (38.79%) and that it is found minimum in the age group of 51 and above in Porbandar with only 3 (20%).

**Table - 4.6**

**Respondents' Classification in respect of their own monthly income**

(Absolute numbers and Percentage category Total)

<b>City</b>	<b>Total Respondents</b>	<b>Rs. 2000 to 5000</b>	<b>Rs. 5000 to 10000</b>	<b>Rs. 10001 to 15000</b>	<b>Above Rs. 15000</b>
Junagadh	100	28(32.18)	53(33.75)	8(24.24)	11(47.82)
Porbandar	100	30(34.48)	49(31.21)	15(45.45)	06(26.08)
Veraval	100	29(33.33)	55(35.03)	10(30.30)	06(26.08)
Aggregate	300	87(29.00)	157(52.33)	33(11.00)	23(7.66)



This table provides us the detail in respect of workingwomen's own monthly income. In this table the number of working women are divided into 4 categories minimum is the category of income with Rs. 2000 – 5000 and maximum in the category of Rs. 15000 and above. Looking to the table the following facts can be presented as under.



- (1) In respect of the category city wise picture states that in Junagadh out of 100 workingwomen surveyed 53 are earning the income in between Rs. 5000 to 10000. 28 are earning between Rs. 2000 – 5000, 11 are earning more than Rs. 15000 and 8 are getting more than Rs. 10000 less than 15000.
- (2) In respect of Porbandar city 49 working women are found to have earning in between Rs. 5 to 10 thousand, 30 women are having their income between 2000 to 5000, 15 working women earn more than 10000 but less than 15000 while 6 women earn more than 15000. In Veraval city the trend is the same as that is found in Porbandar, Maximum number of working women are found with earning Rs. 5000 to 10000 – 55 followed by 29 working women in the category of Rs. 2000 to 5000 income, 10 earning more than 10000 but less than 15000 and 6 women earning more than 15000.
- (3) In aggregate therefore it is clear that 157 (52.33%) of the total working women are found to have their earning within Rs. 5000 to 10000. 87 (29%) working women are earning less than 5000 but more Rs. 2000. 33 of the surveyed working women (11%) are found in the third category of Rs. 10000 to 15000. And 23 (7.66%) have their earning more than 15000 Rs.
- (4) From aggregate 3000 working women in Veraval highest number of working women 55 (35.03%) are found earning between Rs. 5000 to 10000 and minimum that is 6 working women both in Porbandar and Veraval are found in the category of earning more than Rs. 15000. This does not indicate much difference in respect of the earning of the working women between the cities it is only

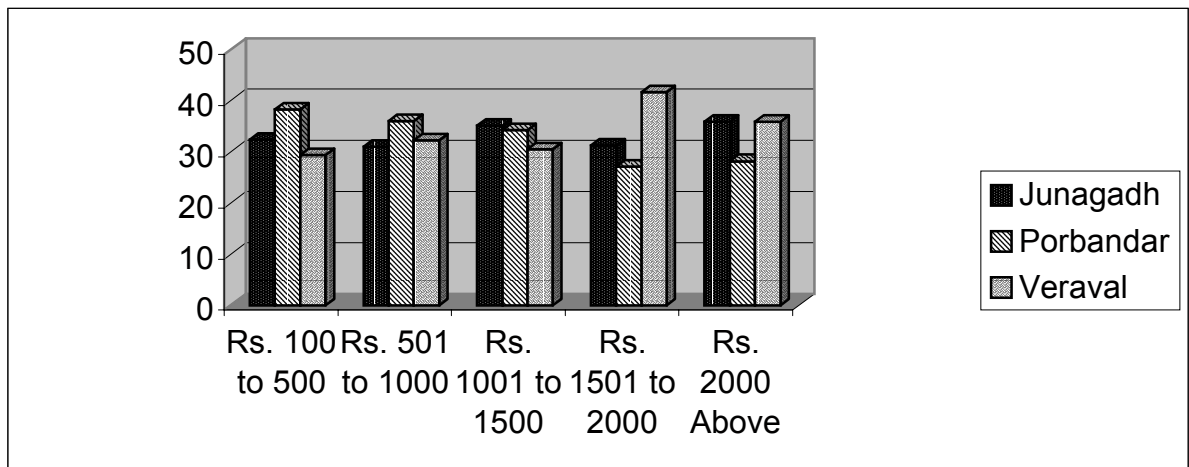
in case of the highest earning that there is sizeable difference in between Junagadh and Verval , Porbandar. Such difference is also found much higher in the category of Rs. 10000 to 15000 between Junagadh and Porbandar. Otherwise in general there is not much difference being found between the cities.

**Table - 4.7**

**Respondent's Classification in respect of their own monthly expenditure**

(Absolute numbers and Percentage to category Total)

City	Total Resp.	Rs. 100 to 500	Rs. 501 to 1000	Rs. 1001 to 1500	Rs. 1501 to 2000	Rs. 2000 Above
Junagadh	100	11(32.35)	22(30.98)	38(35.18)	15(31.25)	14(35.89)
Porbandar	100	13(38.23)	26(36.01)	37(34.25)	13(27.08)	11(28.20)
Veraval	100	10(29.41)	23(32.29)	33(30.55)	20(41.66)	14(35.89)
Aggregat	300	34(11.33)	71(23.66)	108(36.00)	48(16.00)	39(13.00)



This table is indicator of the monthly expenditure of the working women her self. It is again segregated into five of the group's minimum own

monthly expenditure with Rs. 100 to 500 and maximum Rs. 2000 and above. The broad conclusions are found as under.

- (1) Coming at the aggregate it is found that of the total 300 working women 108 (36%) spend more than Rs. 1000 but less than Rs. 1500 per month for their own. Minimum number of working women (34 – 11.33%) does spend within the limit Rs. 500 per month. 71 working women (23.66%) spend more than Rs. 5000 but less than Rs. 1000. 48 of the surveyed working women that is 16% are found to have their spending between 1500 to 2000. 39 working women (13%) spend more Rs. 2000 for their own.
- (2) Looking at the city wise analysis it reflects that there is no major change in Junagadh city to the general aggregate trend. It follows the same pattern of expenditure. In absolute numbers the trend is similar in case of Porbandar and Veraval city too. However From the percentage to the aggregate point view it can be said that minimum percentage of aggregate working women to the aggregate of minimum spending category is found in Veraval can (29.41) while in Porbandar these minimum percentage is found in the third category that is spending between 15000 to 20000 (27.08) and in Junagadh minimum percentage is found in the second category – spending between Rs. 500 to 1000.
- (3) From amongst all categories minimum number of working women are found in the first category from Veraval city 10 (29.41) and maximum number of working women are found in Junagadh city 38 (35.18%). However from the percentage perspective it is

revealed that highest number of percentage is found in Veraval 41.66% in the fourth category of spending between 1500 to 2000.

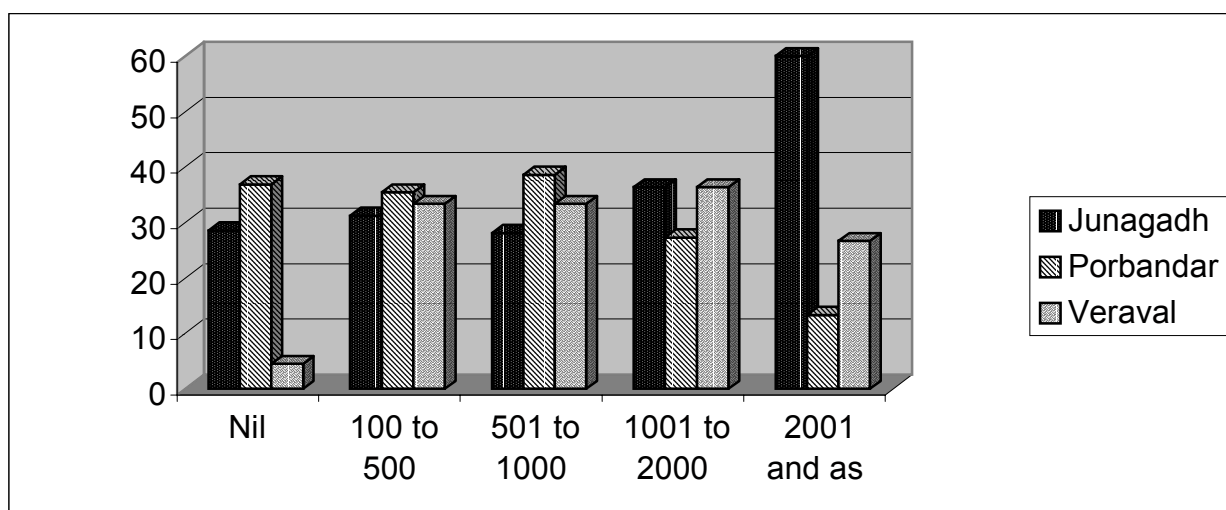
- (4) There does exist major gap in the classification both in absolute numbers and in percentage between the cities these gap is found maximum in the fourth category of working women spending Rs. 1500 to 2000 in between Porbandar and Veraval (27.08) and 41.66 respectively.
- (5) This percentage gap is found minimum in the category of working women spending 1000 to 1500 of only 0.93 between Porbandar and Junagadh.

**Table - 4.8**

**Respondents' Classification in respect of their own monthly savings**

(Absolute numbers and Percentage to category Total)

City	Total Respondents	Nil	100 to 500	501 to 1000	1001 to 2000	2001 and as
Junagadh	100	24(28.57)	30(31.25)	16(28.07)	12(36.36)	18(60.00)
Porbandar	100	31(36.90)	34(35.41)	22(38.59)	09(27.27)	04(13.33)
Veraval	100	29(34.52)	32(33.33)	19(33.33)	12(36.36)	08(26.66)
Aggregat	300	84(28.00)	96(32.00)	57(19.00)	33(11.00)	30(10.00)



This table refers to the classification of the respondents in respect of their own monthly savings. Percentage number in bracket cities is the percentage to the category aggregate and percentage in bracket in each of the category is the percentage to the total respondents. It provides the following picture.

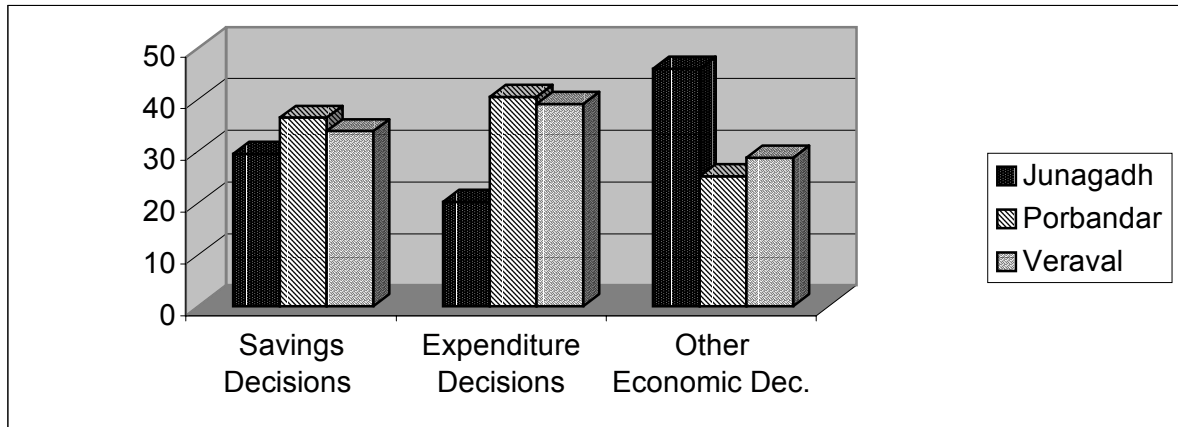
- (1) Of the 100 working women in each of the city in absolute numbers it is found maximum in the category of savings between Rs. 100 to

500 per month in all the three cities. There is also not much gap in the absolute number in this category.

- (2) Minimum absolute number of workingwomen from amongst the respondents is found in the category of savings with more than Rs. 2000 per month.
- (3) From the aggregate perspective to each of the category the trend is the same as that is reflected in case in each of the city.
- (4) In percentage numbers maximum percentage of the respondents from the last category of maximum saving are found in Junagadh 18 (60%) and minimum is also found in same category in Porbandar 4 (13.33%).
- (5) Category wise percentage gap between the cities if examined indicates that there is highest gap in the savings category of Rs. 2000 and above between Junagadh and Porbandar city while minimum gap i.e. 0 % gap equal number of percentage is found in the category of Savings between Rs. 1000 to 2000 between the cities of Junagadh and Veraval.

**Table - 4.9**  
**Respondents' Classification in respect of their own role in economic decisions**  
**(Absolute numbers and Percentage to category Total)**

City	Total Respondent	Savings Decisions	Expenditure Decisions	Other Economic Dec.
Junagadh	100	34(29.56)	15(20.27)	51(45.94)
Porbandar	100	42(36.52)	30(40.54)	28(25.22)
Veraval	100	39(33.91)	29(39.18)	32(28.82)
Aggregate	300	115(38.33)	74(24.66)	111(37.00)



This table leads to the workingwomen's status in respect of economic decisions at home. The decisions are classified broadly into the three categories namely decisions about savings, about spending and other economic decisions. This table provides the following highlights.

- (1) From the aggregate 300 respondents 115 women (38.33%) have expressed their active role more savings decisions. 111 i.e. 37% suggest their dominance in other economic decisions while only 74 states their own active role in the decision for spending (24.66%).
- (2) City wise analysis suggest that in case of savings decisions working women of Porbandar have their maximum say – 42 (36.52%). In expenditure also 30 of the total 100 of Porbandar city and from the 74 of the aggregate expenditure category are found in Porbandar while that number is found highest in other economic decisions 51 (45.94%) in Junagadh city.
- (3) In expenditure decisions too Junagadh has minimum working women having the say with only 15 (20.27).
- (4) The percentage gap in respect of the category economic status between the cities, it is found maximum in the category of other economic decisions between Junagadh and Porbandar (45.94) and 25.22 and it is found minimum in the category of expenditure decisions between Porbandar and Veraval 40.54% and 39.18% respectively.



**Table - 4.10**

**Respondents' Classification in respect of Ownership of Property**

(Absolute Numbers and Percentage to category Total)

<b>City</b>	<b>Total Respondent</b>	<b>Rental Home</b>	<b>Own Home</b>
Junagadh	100	21(29.16)	79(34.64)
Porbandar	100	25(34.72)	75(32.89)
Veraval	100	26(36.11)	79(32.45)
Aggregate	300	72(24.00)	228(76)

This is the table which classifies the total respondents into the two categories, having own residential property or rental home. It is revealed from the table that of the aggregate 300 respondents 76 percentage (228) do have their own home while 24% (72) do leave in rental home. This picture is found with maximum gap between the cities in respect of rental home. It is revealed from the table that maximum number of working women of the aggregate 300 that is 79 of Junagadh leave in their own home and minimum also are found from Junagadh in rental home. However the table does not indicate much gap between the cities in respect of percentage number of respondents having their own property and leaving in rental home.

**Table - 4.11**  
**Respondents' Classification in respect of nature of ownership**  
**of property**

(Absolute numbers and Percentage to category Total)

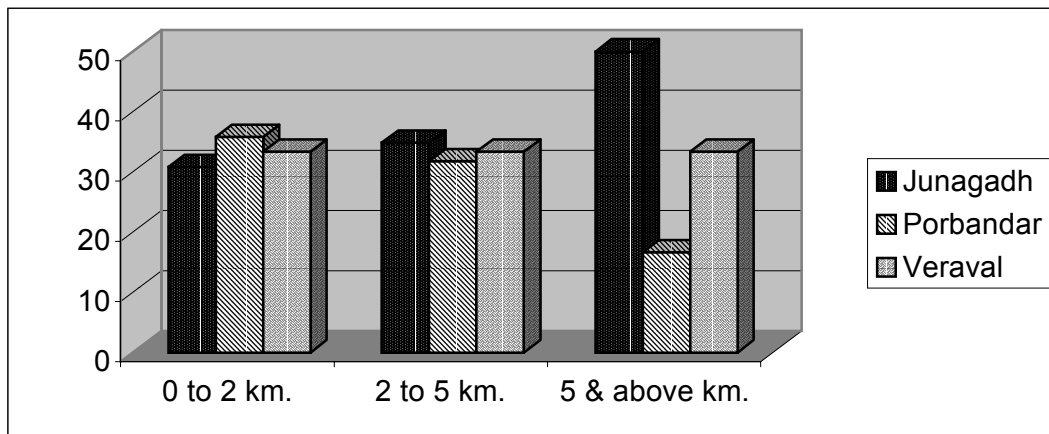
<b>City</b>	<b>Total Respondent</b>	<b>Loan able Fund</b>	<b>Own Capital</b>
Junagadh	79	48(35.03)	31(34.06)
Porbandar	75	47(34.31)	28(30.76)
Veraval	74	42(30.65)	32(35.16)
Aggregate	228	137(60.08)	91(39.91)

This table is suggesting the further classification of the total number of workingwomen having their own property. It is found from the table that of the 228 working women having their own home 137 working women (60.08%) do have the property on Loan able funds while the remaining 91 (39.91%) do have property from their own capital. This number again if divided from the city perspective, percentage wise it is found highest from Junagadh in lona able fund category and that it is found highest from Veraval in the category of own capital. Minimum percentage number of working women having property from own capital are found in Porbandar 30.76 and in case of lona able fund it found in Veraval 30.65%.

**Table - 4.12**  
**Respondents' Classification in respect of distance from Home**  
**to workplace**

(Absolute numbers and Percentage to category Total)

City	Total Respond.	0 to 2 km.	2 to 5 km.	5 & above km.
Junagadh	100	49(30.81)	45(34.88)	06(50.00)
Porbandar	100	57(35.84)	41(31.78)	02(16.66)
Veraval	100	53(33.33)	43(33.33)	04(33.33)
Aggregate	300	159(53)	129(43)	12(04)



This table is important one as it refers to the physical hazards to be born by the women in respect of reaching at the job place from their home. The table reveals the following picture.

- (1) In aggregate of the 300 respondents 159 respondents have to go within the distance of 2 kms. From their home and 12 (4%) have to move for about more than 5 kms. from their home.
- (2) If examined this trend city wise it indicates the same trend. However in absolute numbers workingwomen from Porbandar are

found to be maximum in numbers with having distance less than 2 kms. And only 2 of the 100 women have to move more than 5 kms of distance.

- (3) There is not much percentage gap between the different cities in respect of their distance from home to workplace. However it is found maximum between Porbandar and Junagadh in case of number of women having to more than 5 kms.
- (4) This gap is found minimum in the category of 225 kms. distance between Veraval and Porbandar.

**Table - 4.13**

**Respondents' Classification in respect of mode of conveyance**

(Absolute numbers and Percentage to category Total)

<b>City</b>	<b>Total Respondent</b>	<b>By Foot</b>	<b>Own Vehicle</b>	<b>Pub. Trans.</b>	<b>Office Trans.</b>
Junagadh	100	37(25.69)	47(37.60)	16(51.61)	
Porbandar	100	54(37.50)	38(30.40)	08(25.80)	
Veraval	100	53(36.80)	40(32.00)	07(22.58)	
Aggregate	300	144(48.00)	125(41.66)	31(10.33)	

This table provides the data on the mode of conveyance used by the workingwomen in the three cities following picture is found from the table.

- (1) In aggregate of the total 300 respondents 48 percent of them do go at the working place by foot. They do not use any other mode of conveyance. 41.66% of the working women make use of their own

vehicles and only 10.33% of the respondents are using public transport.

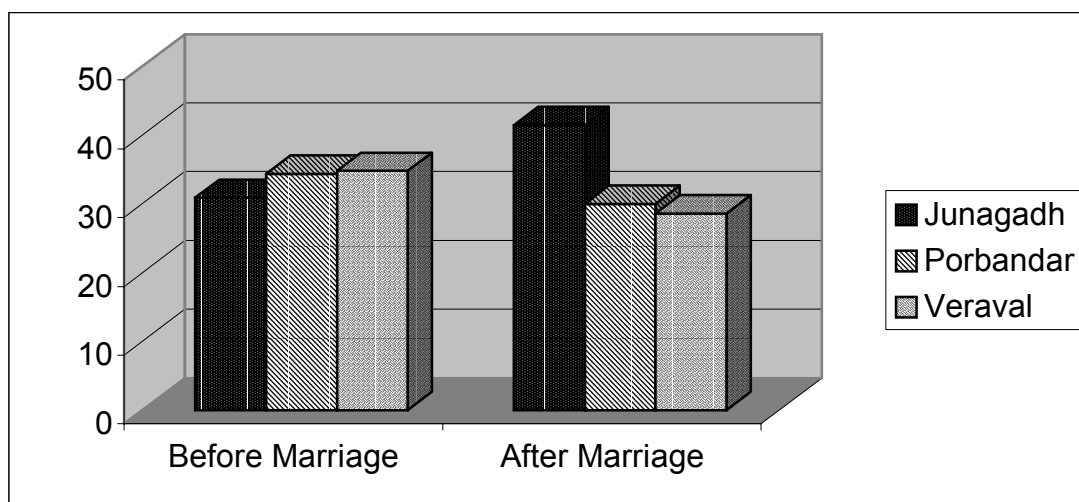
- (2) In respect different cities it is found that in Junagadh district from the total 100 respondents maximum number i.e. 47 use their own vehicle, 37 go by foot and only 16 use public transport. In Porbandar city 54 working women go at the working place by foot while 38 use own vehicle and eight make use of public transport. From Veraval of the total 100 respondents 53 go by foot, 40 use the own Vehicle and 7 use public transport.
- (3) Working women going by foot are found in maximum number in Porbandar and minimum in Junagadh. While respondents using their own Vehicles are found maximum in Junagadh followed by Veraval and Porbandar. In case of public transport the trend is found similar like that of the own vehicles. From the percentage point of view the gap between the cities is found maximum in case of public transport users between Veraval and Junagadh.

**Table - 4.14**

**Respondents' Classification in terms of beginning of employment**

(Absolute Numbers and Percentage to category Total)

City	Total Respondent	Before Marriage	After Marriage
Junagadh	100	71(30.86)	29(41.42)
Porbandar	100	79(34.34)	21(30.00)
Veraval	100	80(34.78)	20(28.57)
Aggregate	300	230(76.66)	70(23.33)



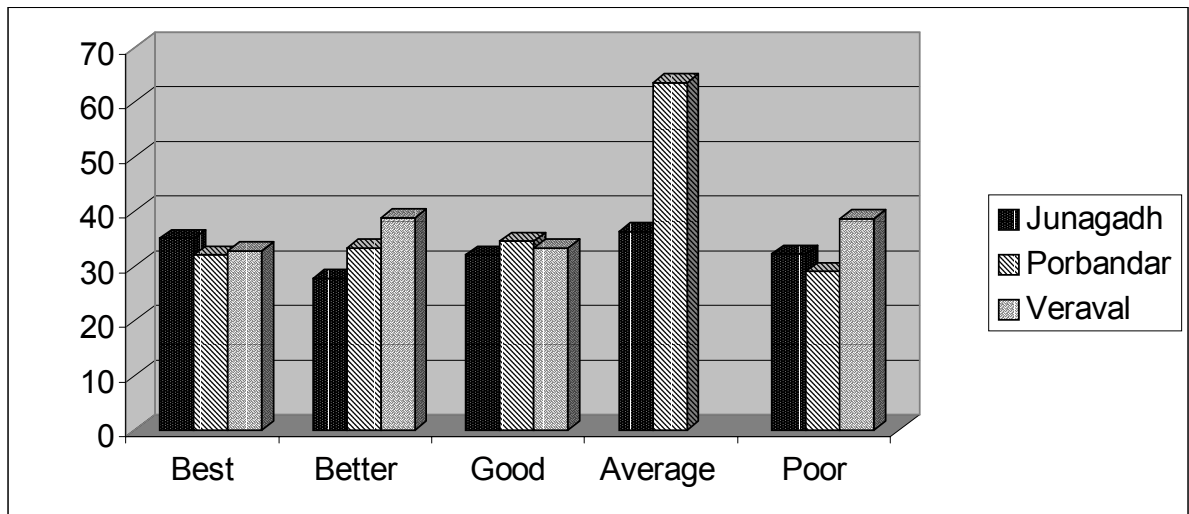
This table indicates beginning of the employment of the respondents it is found from the table that from the aggregate 300 respondents 230 (76.66%) have joint the service before their marriage while only 70 (23.33%) have joint after the marriage.

City wise analysis indicates that in Veraval 80 women have joint the service before their marriage and in Junagadh 71 working women have joint the service before the marriage from the percentage point of view maximum number of percentage of working women having joined the service after

marriage are found in Junagadh (41.42%) and i.e. found minimum in Veraval 28.57%.

**Table - 4.15**  
**Respondents' Classification in respect of chances of Promotion in**  
**Employment**

City	Total Resp.	Best	Better	Good	Average	Poor
Junagadh	100	46(35.11)	5(27.77)	25(32.05)	4(36.36)	20(32.25)
Porbandar	100	42(32.06)	6(33.33)	27(34.61)	07(63.63)	18(29.03)
Veraval	100	43(32.82)	7(38.88)	26(33.33)		24(38.70)
Aggregat	300	131(06.00)	18(06.00)	78(26.00)	11(03.66)	62(20.66)



This table refers to the chances of promotion to the workingwomen of the three cities being interviewed. They were asked about the scope for the

promotion answer to which is classified into five categories following is the major conclusion available from the table.

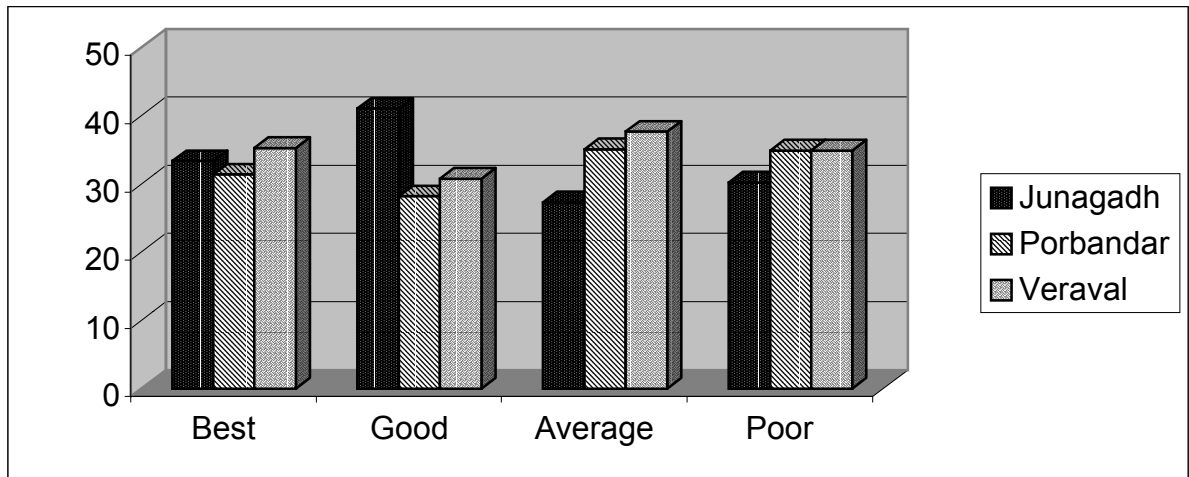
- (1) Of the aggregate 300 respondents 131 (43.66%) have indicated best scope for the promotion. While 62 (20.66) have clearly denied for any scope for promotion. 78 (26%) feel good scope for promotion.
- (2) Examined in respect of each city it is found that from no. point of view 46 of the hundred working women of Junagadh find best scope for promotion. The percentage to the category total comes about 35.11 while 24 working women from Veraval do not find any scope for promotion the percentage no. of which tends to be 38 to the aggregate of the category.
- (3) The respondents at large have expressed best or scope for promotion in comparison with better or average scope for promotion.
- (4) Those who expressed the best scope for the promotion come from organized sector and particularly from Banking, Health and Education sector respectively.



**Table 4.16**

**Respondents' Classification in terms of family response**

<b>City</b>	<b>Total Respondents</b>	<b>Best</b>	<b>Good</b>	<b>Average</b>	<b>Poor</b>
Junagadh	100	34(33.33)	32(41.02)	21(27.27)	13(30.23)
Porbandar	100	36(31.37)	22(28.20)	27(35.06)	15(34.88)
Veraval	100	32(35.29)	24(30.76)	29(37.66)	15(34.88)
Aggregate	300	102(34.00)	78(26.00)	77(25.66)	43(14.33)



This is the table, which highlights the aggregate response of the family members towards the workingwomen at home. The respondents were asked to specify the nature of response in any of the four categories indicated above. It provides the following picture.

- (1) Of the 300 aggregate respondents 102 (34%) – maximum in numbers have expressed the opinion regarding best family response towards them at home.

- (2) 78 i.e. 26% received good family response at home. 77 (25.66) find average family response at home and only 43 (14.33%) have found poor response at home.
- (3) Analyzing the trends in respect of the each of the city again it is revealed that highest number of working women with best family response are found in Porbandar both in absolute and percentage to the category total.
- (4) Working women with good response are found highest in Junagadh 32 (42.01%). 29 (37.66%) of working women from Veraval feel average response at home. The number indicating poor response at home is found equal and maximum in Porbandar and Veraval 15 (34.88%).

**Table - 4.17**  
**Respondents' Classification in terms of working environment at**  
**workplace**

<b>City</b>	<b>Total Respondent</b>	<b>Comfortable</b>	<b>Uncomfortable</b>
Junagadh	100	89(34.90)	11(24.44)
Porbandar	100	82(32.15)	18(40.00)
Veraval	100	84(32.94)	16(35.55)
Aggregate	300	255(85.00)	45(15.00)

This table indicates the nature of working environment enjoyed by the respondents at their respective working place. The picture is found very positive with 85% of the respondents indicating comfortable environment and only 15% have mentioned un comfortable environment at working place. In respect of percentage to the category total it is found maximum in Junagadh in case of comfortable environment 34.90 while it is found maximum in Porbandar 40% in case of un comfortable environment.

**Table - 4.18**

**Respondents' Classification in terms of desirous for change in Jobs**

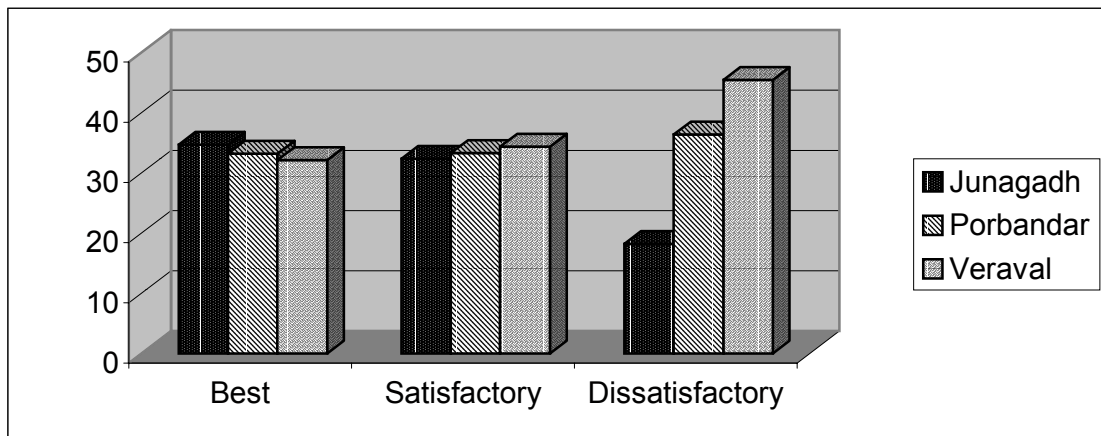
<b>City</b>	<b>Total Respondent</b>	<b>Yes</b>	<b>No</b>
Junagadh	100	11(26.19)	89(34.49)
Porbandar	100	18(42.85)	82(31.78)
Veraval	100	13(30.95)	87(33.72)
Aggregate	300	42(14)	256(86)

The respondents were asked about their desire for change in the job. It reveals the following trends only 14% i.e. 42 of the total working women have expressed their desire for change in the job. While 258 i.e. 86% are desirous of any change in the job. From the percentage point of view to the category total those desirous of change are found maximum in Porbandar (42.85%) and that minimum in Veraval with 13.95% of their. In case of Junagadh the number not desirous of change in the Job are found maximum 89 (34.49%).

**Table - 4.19**

**Respondents' Classification in terms of Colleague's Aptitude Towards Respondents**

City	Total Respond.	Best	Satisfactory	Dissatisfactory
Junagadh	100	66(34.73)	32(32.32)	2(18.18)
Porbandar	100	63(33.15)	33(33.33)	4(36.36)
Veraval	100	61(32.10)	34(34.33)	5(45.45)
Aggregate	300	190(63.33)	99(33.00)	11(03.66)



This table identifies the trends in respect of colleague's aptitude towards the respondents. It is found from the table that of the total respondents 63.33 percentage find the best attitude of their colleagues. 33% are satisfied, while only 3.66 percentage of the respondents are not satisfied with the colleagues aptitudes. The trend examined in case of the each of the city reveals the fact that 66 (34.73%) of the respondents from Junagadh feel best attitudes of the colleagues satisfactory attitudes of colleagues is found

maximum from Veraval. 34.33% and dissatisfactory attitude is also found from Veraval in maximum number 45.45%.

**Table - 4.20**  
**Respondents' Classification in terms of higher authority's behavior**  
**towards respondents**

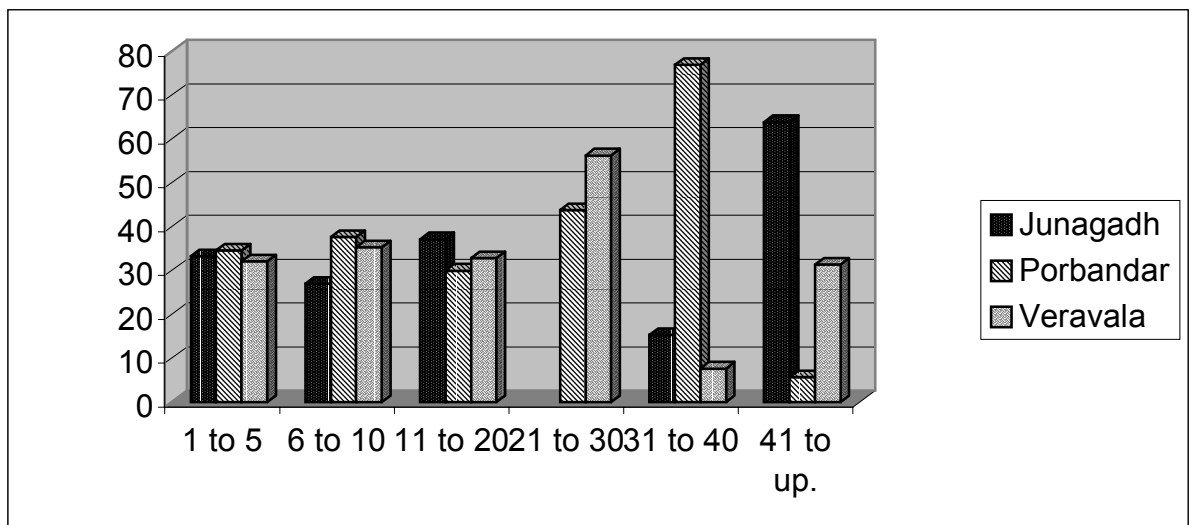
<b>City</b>	<b>Total Respond.</b>	<b>Best</b>	<b>Satisfactory</b>	<b>Dissatisfactory</b>
Junagadh	100	61(33.70)	35(31.81)	4(44.44)
Porbandar	100	63(34.80)	35(31.81)	2(22.22)
Veraval	100	57(31.49)	40(36.36)	3(33.33)
Aggregate	300	181(60.33)	110(36.66)	9(03.00)

It is the table which reflects the respondents feelings of their higher authority towards them. It refers to the fact that working women from Porbandar are found maximum both in numbers and percentage feeling best of the attitude of the higher authority towards them. That number is found minimum in Veraval. Those who felt their boss' behavior satisfactory are maximum in number and percentage in Veraval. While highest number of percentage and absolute numbers from Junagadh expressed their authorities behavior dissatisfactory. In aggregate 60.33% of the workingwomen have found best approach of the higher authority. While 9 have found dissatisfactory approach of the authority.

**Table - 4.21**

**Number of other female employees to the size of Total employees**

City	Total Resp.	1 to 5	6 to 10	11 to 20	21 to 30	31 to 40	41 to up.
Junagadh	100	27 (33.33)	23 (27.05)	26 (37.14)		2 (15.38)	22 (63.85)
Porbandar	100	28 (34.56)	32 (37.64)	21 (30.00)	07 (43.75)	10 (76.92)	02 (05.71)
Veravala	100	26 (32.09)	30 (35.29)	23 (32.85)	09 (56.25)	1 (7.69)	11 (31.42)
Aggregate	300	81 (27.00)	85 (28.33)	70 (23.33)	16 (05.33)	13 (04.33)	35 (11.66)



This table provides us with the data regarding the other female employees working with the respondents at their work place. No. of other

female employees is divided in to six of the categories the table reveals the following facts.

- (1) Out of total 300 respondents maximum number of respondents, 85 (28.33%) have reported the number of female employees working with them between 6 to 10. 81 (27%) reported that other female employees working with them are within 5. 70 (23.33%) have reported the number of other female employees working with them is between 11 to 20. 35 respondents have more than 41 female employees working with them.
- (2) Analyzing the city trend it is found that in Junagadh city out of 100 respondents 27 respondents have other female employees between 1 to 5. This amounts to 33.33% to the category total. 26 respondents have female employees between 11 to 20, which amounts to 37.14% to the category total. 23 respondents are found to be working with other female employees in the category of 6 to 10. 22 respondents (63.85%) are working at the place where the number of other female employees is beyond 41.
- (3) In Porbandar city the classified list reveals that in the second category of 6 to 10 female employees 32 respondents are working. It is 37.64% to the category total. 28 respondents are found to be working were the other female employees are numbering 1 to 5. It is 34.56% to the category total. 21 respondents from this city have reported that 11 to 20 female employees are working with them. Seven respondents are working at the place were the other female employees is between 21 to 30. 10 respondents (76.92%) are working with other 31 to 40 female employees and only 2



respondents are working at the place were the size of other female employees is beyond 40.

- (4) Coming to Veraval it is found that 30 of the total respondents, 35.29% to the category total are working at the place were the number of other female employees is between 6 to 10.
- (5) 26 respondents (32.09%) have reported the number of other female employees between 1 to 5. 23 respondents i.e. 32.85% to the category total are working with other 11 to 20 female employees. 11 respondents have at their workplace the other female employees more than 40 in strength.
- (6) The analysis reveals the fact that at the town place also number of female employees to the size of total employees is sizeable in respect of the changing trends. It is reported that out of 300 respondents 236 respondents are working where in aggregate the size of other female employees is between 1 to 20. As per their report the number of female employees at their working place tends to be approximately 48 to 52% to the total size of employees.

**Table - 4.22**

**Respondents' Classification in terms of their motive for employment**

<b>City</b>	<b>Total Respondents</b>	<b>Utilization of Education</b>	<b>Helping the Family</b>	<b>Hobby</b>	<b>Inevitable</b>
Junagadh	100	27(35.06)	65(33.33)	7(38.88)	1(10.00)
Porbandar	100	28(36.36)	64(32.82)	5(27.77)	3(30.00)
Veraval	100	22(28.57)	66(33.84)	6(33.33)	6(60.00)
Aggregate	300	77(25.66)	195(65.00)	18(6.00)	10(3.33)

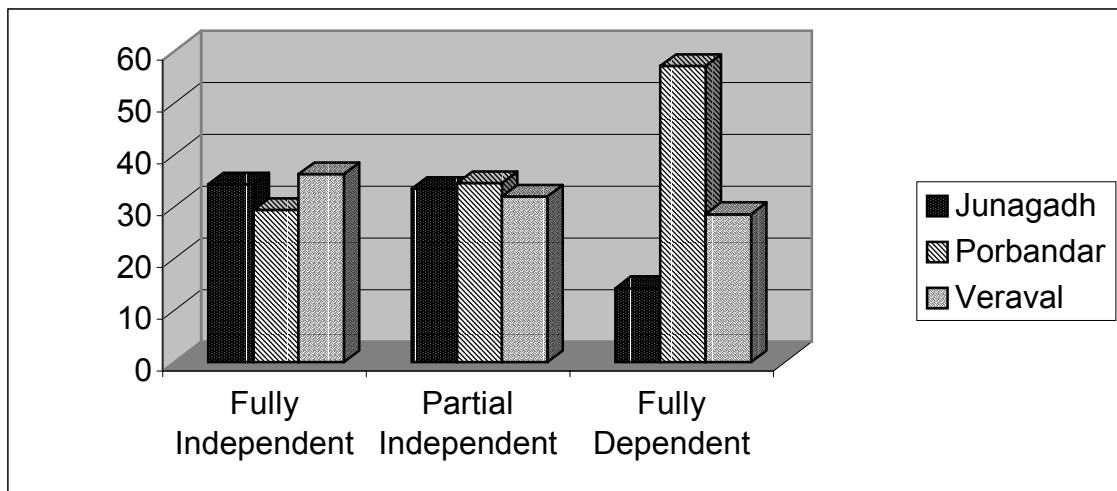
This table is providing important information. It is regarding the purpose for employment. According to the table it is reflected that from aggregate 300 respondents 195 (65%) are found to be working to help the family. 77 of them (25.66%) are working with a idea to utilize the educational achievement. 18 (6%) are working as hobby and only 10 (3.33) of them are working for compulsion.

The district wise analysis identifies the fact that the trend pertaining to the motive is largely similar in all the three cities. There is no much percentage gap being found between the cities in respect of the motive for employment. It is only in case of Veraval city where maximum number of female employees to the category total – 6 is working for inevitable circumstances. It is there for correct to state that the tendency for employment amongst women is not due to luxury or hobby but it is mainly because of the sense of duty for which they accept the job.

**Table - 4.23**

**Respondents' Classification in terms of dependence for consumption of their own income**

City	Total Respond.	Fully Independent	Partial Independent	Fully Dependent
Junagadh	100	35(34.31)	64(33.50)	1(14.28)
Porbandar	100	30(29.41)	66(34.55)	4(57.14)
Veraval	100	37(36.27)	61(31.93)	2(28.57)
Aggregate	300	102(34.00)	191(63.66)	7(2.33)

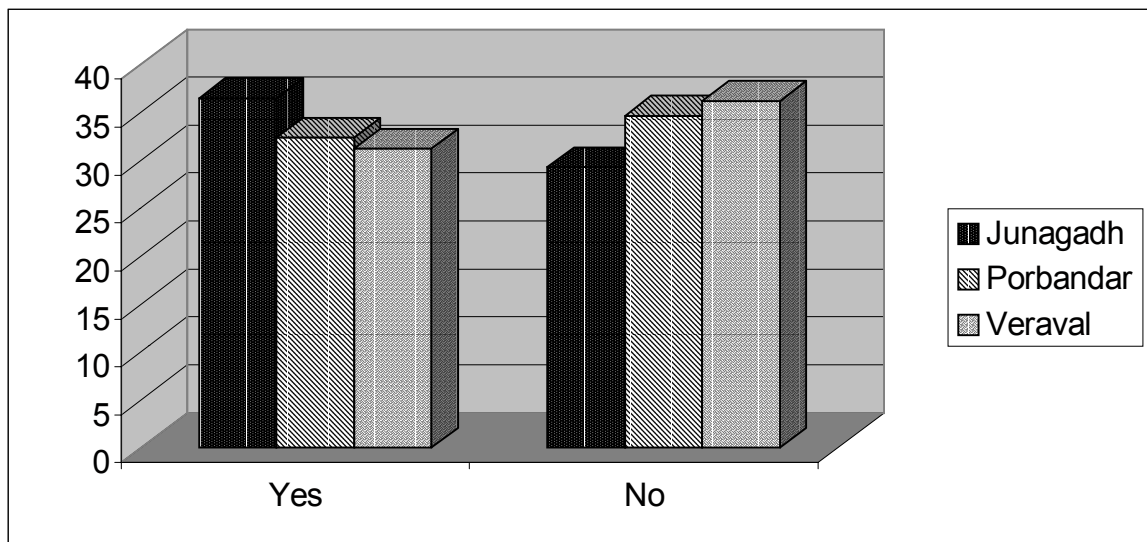


The female employees were asked about their dependence for consumption of their own income. In response to this, 191 of the aggregate respondents (63.63%) have opined that they enjoy partial independence to consume own income. 102 of the total respondents (34%) are fully independent for consumption of their own income. Only 7 (2.33%) are reported to be fully dependent in respect of consumption of their own income.

This classification in respect of the each of the city expresses large the same trend in all the three cities very negligible number of female employees are reported to have absolute dependence for consumption of the income. During the visit it was also found that partial independence in respect of consumption decision is more of implied in nature and less it was explicit. In respect of full independent also more was implied in nature and largely there was assumed consensus from the counter part in respect of consumption of the own income.

**Table - 4.24**  
**Respondents' Classification in terms of responsibility for**  
**Domestic Account**

City	Total Respondent	Yes	No
Junagadh	100	62(36.47)	38(29.23)
Porbandar	100	55(32.35)	45(34.61)
Veraval	100	53(31.17)	47(36.15)
Aggregate	300	170(56.66)	130(43.33)



The workingwomen were asked about their responsibility for maintaining the domestic account. Generally it is assumed that women are more assigned with household responsibilities excluding maintaining the account. The table however reflects that out of 300 respondents 170 (56.66%) do have the responsibilities to maintain the domestic accounts. While 130 (43.33%) of the total respondents do not have any responsibility of maintaining accounts. From amongst the three cities the number of

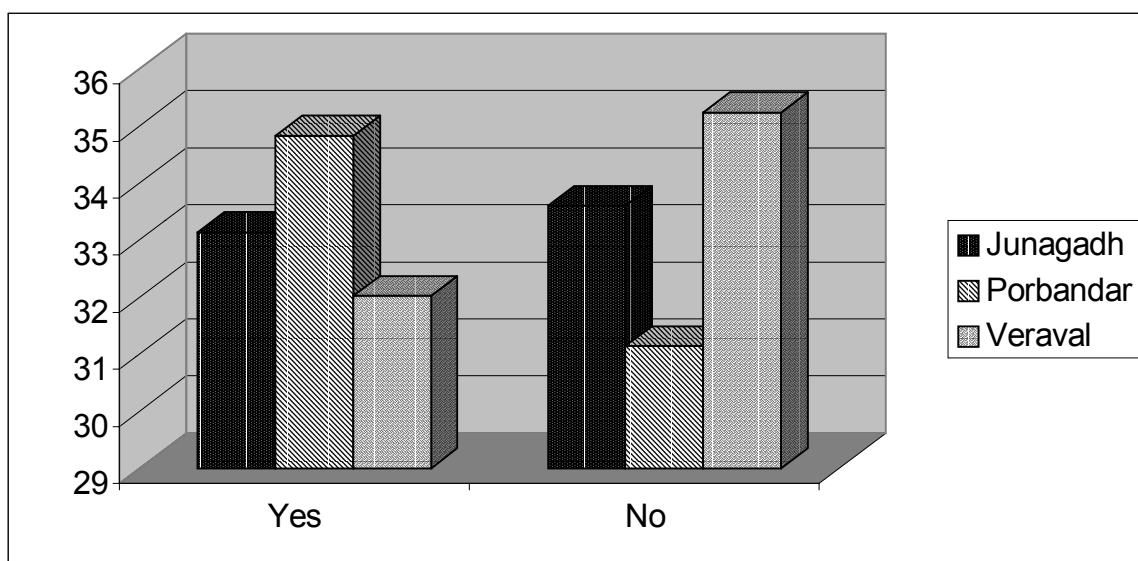
workingwomen having the responsibility of domestic account are found maximum in numbers 62 in Junagadh city while in Veraval 47 of the working women fall in the category of no responsibility for domestic accounts.

**Table - 4.25**

**Respondents' Classification in terms of responsibility for Kids**

**Education**

City	Total Respondent	Yes	No
Junagadh	100	59(33.14)	41(33.60)
Porbandar	100	62(34.83)	38(31.14)
Veraval	100	57(32.02)	43(35.24)
Aggregate	300	178(59.33)	122(40.66)



In a patriarchic society it is generally found that the responsibility for kids education is also left with mother. A question was asked in this regard to the workingwomen. The answer found to this question is more in positive numbers and less in negative numbers. Out of 300 working women interviewed 178 (59.33) have said that it is their responsibility to see kids get education properly. While 122 (40.66) have opined that it is not their

responsibility. However many of those also agreed to the fact that on account of occupational and other house hold responsibilities they are not currently able to pay desired time for their kids education. Many of them have implicitly felt that tuition from out side is to them the only viable alternative as long as the purpose of kids education is concern. In all three cities the percentage gap between the cities in respect of the particular answer is not found much.

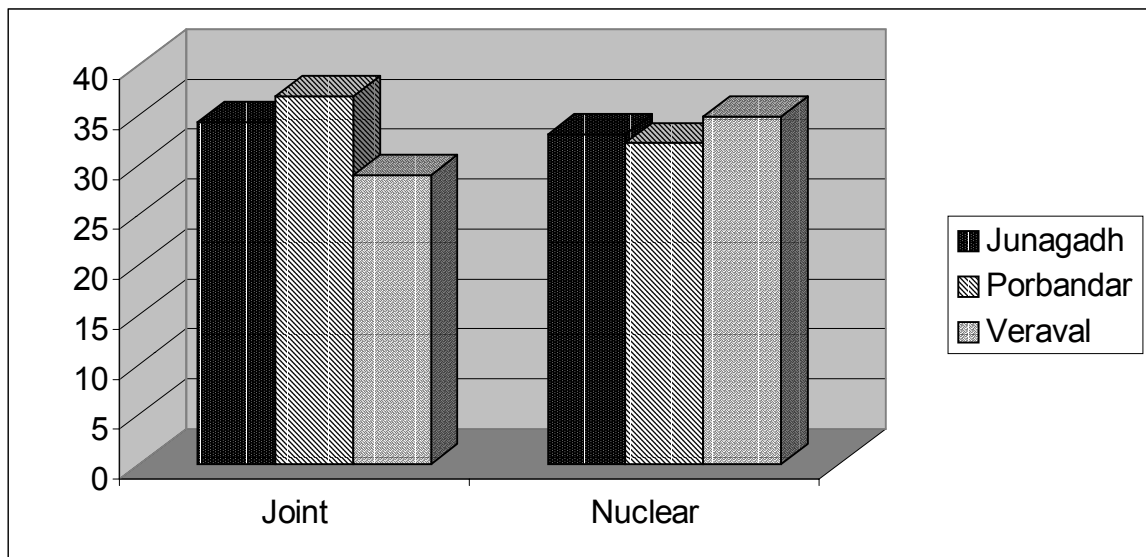


**Table - 4.26**

**Respondents' Classification in terms of Types of family**

(In absolute numbers and Percentage to category Total)

City	Total Respondent	Joint	Nuclear
Junagadh	100	26(34.21)	74(33.03)
Porbandar	100	28(36.84)	72(32.14)
Veraval	100	22(28.94)	78(34.82)
Aggregate	300	76(25.33)	224(74.66)



A pointed question was asked to the working women regarding the type of family in which they are used to live. In response to this following picture was found.

- (1) In Junagadh city out of 100 working women 74 (33.03%) to the category total are living in nuclear family. This number tends to be

72 (32.14%) to the category total in Porbandar and in Veraval it is 78 (34.82%) to the category total.

- (2) It means that majority of working women are found to be living independent nucleus life. They are not much over burdened in respect of the size of the family. It is because that as per their report they are able to adjust with the working conditions.

**Table - 4.27**

**Respondents' Classification in term of Sexbias within family**

<b>City</b>	<b>Total Respond.</b>	<b>Little bias</b>	<b>More bias</b>	<b>No bias</b>
Junagadh	100	9(50.00)	3(33.33)	88(32.23)
Porbandar	100	5(27.77)	2(22.22)	93(34.06)
Veraval	100	4(22.22)	4(44.44)	92(33.69)
Aggregate	300	18(06.00)	9(03.00)	273(91.00)

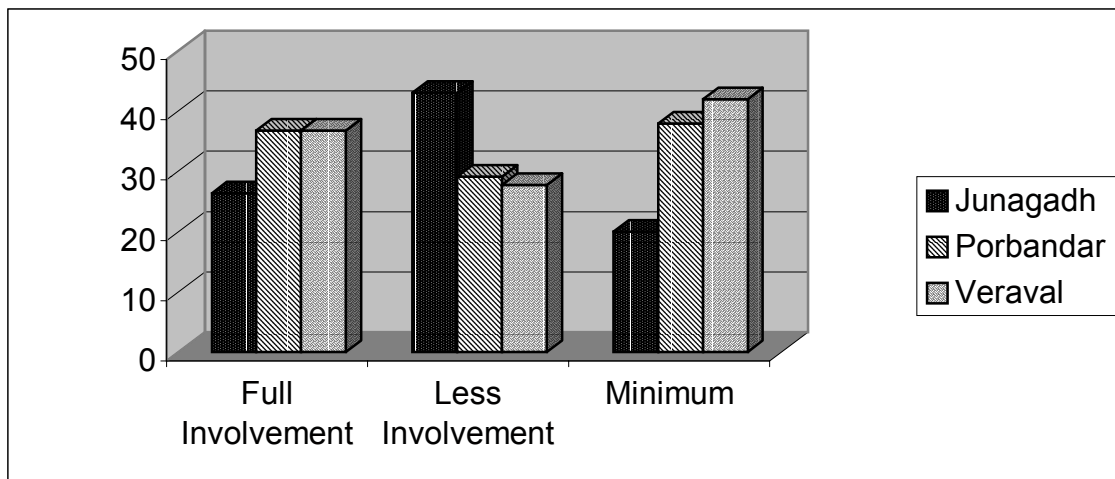
The workingwomen were asked as sensitive question. It was regarding the sex bias if at all prevailing within the family. The answer classified into 3 categories with little bias, more bias and no bias. The table provides the following picture.

- (1) Out of 300 working women 273 (91%) do feel any kind of sex bias at their home respectively. 18 (06%) feel little bias at home and 9 (03%) have felt more bias at home. This trend if examined in respect of each of the city does not indicate much difference between the cities. The 27 workingwomen feeling some bias also largely feel bias more in economic in nature.

**Table - 4.28**

**Respondents' Classification in terms of degree of involvement in  
Social activities**

<b>City</b>	<b>Total Respondent</b>	<b>Full Involvement</b>	<b>Less Involvement</b>	<b>Minimum</b>
Junagadh	100	28(26.41)	62(43.05)	10(20.00)
Porbandar	100	39(36.79)	42(29.16)	19(38.00)
Veraval	100	39(36.79)	40(27.77)	21(42.00)
Aggregate	300	106(35.33)	144(48.00)	50(16.66)



Generally it is argued that the educated and urban women have more scope for more social activities and their interest in it. In a simple question regarding the degree of involvement in social activities when asked to the working women it was found that out of aggregate 300 working women 106 women (35.33%) are found to fully involved in social activities 144 (48.0%) are found to be less involved in social activities and 50 (16.60%) are found to have minimum involvement in social activities.

Women having full involvement in social activities are found maximum in equal numbers in city like Porbandar and Veraval 39(36.79%). While women having less involvement in social activities are found maximum in numbers in Junagadh 62(43.05%) to the category total and that it is found minimum i.e. 21(42%) in Veraval. However it was also found that the changing life style, outward approach to the life, the status ascribed to the social activities have led the women to get them selves more involved in social activities. Some of them even coming from lower middle class admitted that involvement in social activity though it is time and money consuming to the extent it is inevitable also.

**Table - 4.29**

**Respondents' Classification in terms of their affiliation to social cultural organization**

City	Total Respondents	No One	Executive Membershi p	Head	Ordinary Membershi p
Junagadh	100	45(26.31)	11(50.00)	03(50.00)	41(40.59)
Porbandar	100	62(36.25)	07(31.81)	02(33.33)	29(28.71)
Veraval	100	64(37.42)	04(18.18)	01(16.66)	31(30.69)
Aggregate	300	171(57.00)	22(07.33)	06(02.00)	101(33.66)

More particular question was asked regarding direct affiliation to any social or cultural organization. The respondents have replied in the following manner.

- (1) Out of 300 total respondents 171 (57%) have denied about their affiliation to any social cultural organization. 101 (33.66%) have

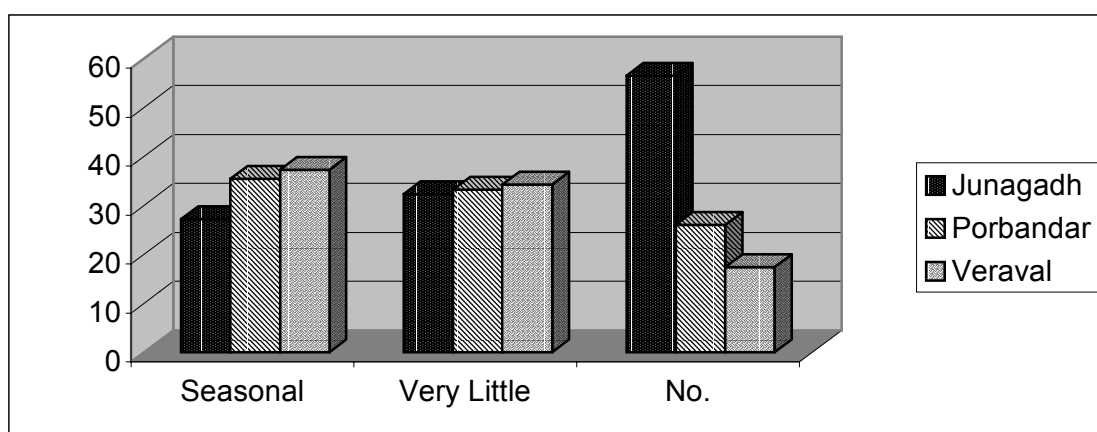
accepted ordinary membership with the particular social or cultural organization. 22 of the total respondents 7.33% are found having executive membership to the organization and only 6 (02%) are reported to be head of such organization.

- (2) This trend further examined in respect of the city states that in Junagadh city 45 of the respondents 26.31 to the category total are no were members. 41 (40.59%) to the category total are ordinary members while 11 (50%) to the category total are executive members and 3 (50%) of the category total are head of the organizations.
- (3) Coming to Porbandar city, the number of workingwomen having no affinity to any organization are 62 (36.25%) to the category total 29 are only ordinary members (28.71%) 7 (31.81%) are reported to be executives and only 2 (33.33) are heads of the organizations.
- (4) In case of Veraval respondents having no kind of members are maximum in numbers 64 (37.42%) to the category total and 31 of them are ordinary members only 1 is having leadership of the organization.
- (5) Thus it is revealed that in general owing to occupational and domestic liabilities women to the extent possible try to avoid of getting direct organizational involvement.

**Table - 4.30**

**Respondents' Classification in terms of devoting time for other than basic domestic activity**

City	Total Respond.	Seasonal	Very Little	No.
Junagadh	100	43(27.21)	31(32.29)	26(56.52)
Porbandar	100	56(35.44)	32(33.33)	12(26.08)
Veraval	100	59(37.34)	33(34.37)	08(17.39)
Aggregate	300	158(52.66)	96(32.00)	46(15.33)



The workingwomen were asked about the time they are devoting to any other than basic domestic activity. 3 options were given to them in form of seasonal activities, very little activities and no activities. As reflected in the table it can be said that there is still traditional mentality prevailing in the working women. As 158 (52.66%) of the total respondents have opined for devoting the time for seasonal activities apart from basic domestic activity. This seasonal activity includes preparing of pickles, papads, crunches, chips etc. 96 of the total respondents (32%) do spare very little time for other than

basic domestic activity. 46 of the total respondents absolutely remained away from doing any activity other than basic domestic.

This trend when examined in respect of the cities reveal that from amongst 3 cities the working women of Veraval are found to be maximum in numbers devoting time for seasonal activities 59 (37.34%) to the category total.56 (35.44%) are found from Porbandar and 43 (27.21%) are found from Junagadh. There is no much gap is found in respect of the numbers of working women spending very little time for other activities.

**Table - 4.31**  
**Respondents' Classification in terms of their dependence for social Decisions**

<b>City</b>	<b>Total Respondent</b>	<b>Full Independence</b>	<b>Partial</b>	<b>Full Dependence</b>
Junagadh	100	31(38.27)	57(35.40)	12(20.68)
Porbandar	100	24(29.62)	54(33.54)	22(37.93)
Veraval	100	26(32.09)	50(31.05)	24(41.37)
Aggregate	300	81(27.00)	161(53.66)	58(19.33)

Urban working women were asked about their hold in respect of the social decisions. It is evidently found from the table that of the total respondents 81 (27%) are found to be fully independent in respect of taking social decisions. 161 (53.66%) share the decision autonomy with the counter part and 58 (19.33%) are still found to be absolutely dependent in respect of social decisions.

This analysis in respect of each of the city indicates that in Junagadh city maximum number of working women from amongst 3 cities are fully independent they are 31 (38.27%). This number is found 26 (32.09%) in Veraval and and 24 (29.62%) in Porbandar.

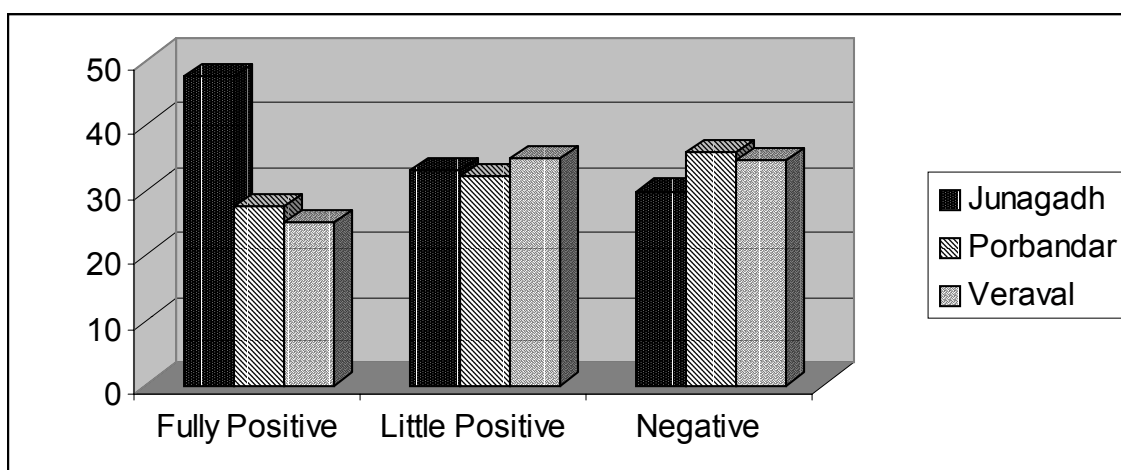
The number of workingwomen sharing decision autonomy are also found maximum in Junagadh city 57 (35.40%) followed by Porbandar 54 (33.54%) and 50 in Veraval (31.05%). Maximum number of women from amongst the 3 cities is found fully dependent in Veraval 24 (41.37%) followed by Porbandar 22 (37.93%) and 12 in Junagadh (20.68%).



**Table -4.32**

**Respondents' classification in respect of approach of counterpart  
at domestic work**

City	Total Respond.	Fully Positive	Little Positive	Negative
Junagadh	60	19(47.50)	10(33.03)	44(29.72)
Porbandar	64	11(27.50)	12(32.14)	53(35.81)
Veraval	63	10(25.00)	14(34.82)	39(34.45)
Aggregate	187	40	36	111



In response to the question pertaining to the approach of the counterpart at the domestic work, the workingwomen answered in the following manner.

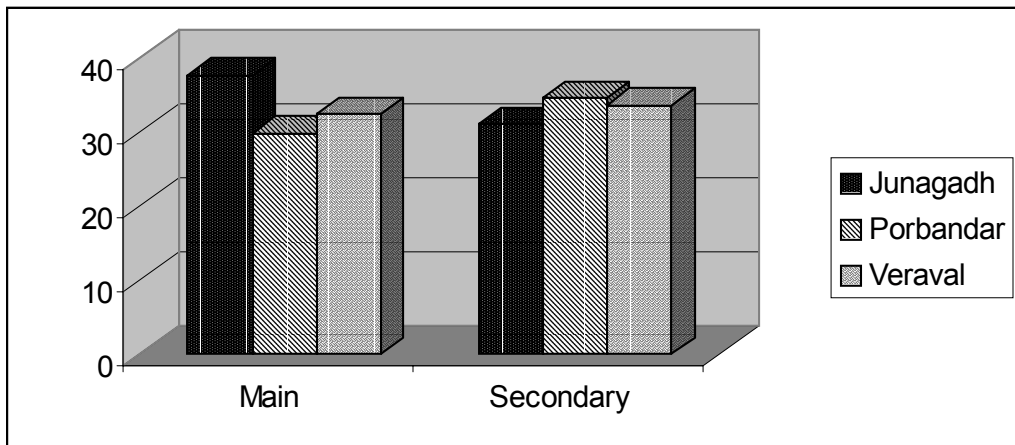
- (1) As per the table, out of the total married 187 working women 111 (59.35%) do feel negative response of the counter part at the domestic work. 36 of the aggregate respondents (19.25%) feel little positive response of the counter part at domestic work and 40 (21.39%) receive fully positive response at domestic work to the

trend examined in respect of the different cities reveal that of the 21.39% of working women having full positive response are 47.50% from Junagadh, 27.50% from Porbandar and 25% from Veraval. In little positive response from 36 of the working women 14 (38.88%) are from Veraval, 12 (33.33%) are from Porbandar and from Junagadh they are 10 (27.77%). Those who reported absolute negative response were 111 from amongst which maximum from Porbandar 53 (47.74%) followed by Junagadh 44 (39.63%) and 39 (35.13%) are from Veraval. Thus it is clear that even so called 21<sup>st</sup> century one does not find major behavioral change in the patristic family system where male are still least co-operative to the female at domestic work.

**Table - 4.33**

**Respondents' Classification in terms of status as earning member**

<b>City</b>	<b>Total Respondent</b>	<b>Main</b>	<b>Secondary</b>
Junagadh	100	29(37.66)	71(31.13)
Porbandar	100	23(29.87)	77(34.52)
Veraval	100	25(32.46)	75(33.63)
Aggregate	300	77(25.66)	223(74.33)

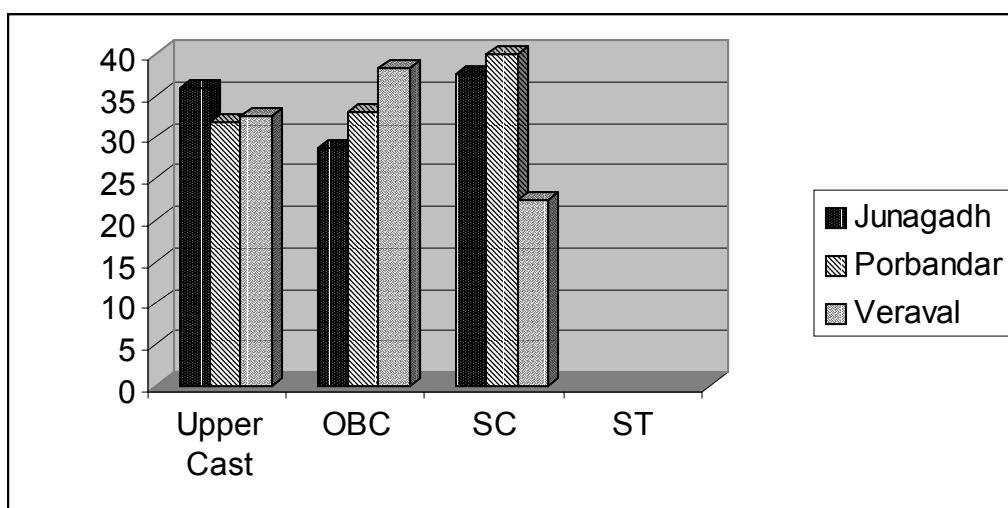


This table identifies the economic status of working women in respect of earning member. It is found that of the aggregate 300 working women 223 (74.33%) are having secondary role as earning member while 77 (25.66%) have main role as earning member. Coming to the cities it is found that in Junagadh the place of secondary to main is 71:29 in Porbandar 77:23 and that in Veraval it is 75:25.

**Table - 4.34**

**Respondents' Classification in terms of Castes**

<b>City</b>	<b>Total Respo.</b>	<b>Upper Cast</b>	<b>OBC</b>	<b>SC</b>
Junagadh	100	53(35.81)	32(28.57)	15(37.50)
Porbandar	100	47(31.75)	37(33.03)	16(40.00)
Veraval	100	48(32.43)	43(38.39)	09(22.50)
Aggregate	300	148(49.33)	112(37.33)	40(13.33)



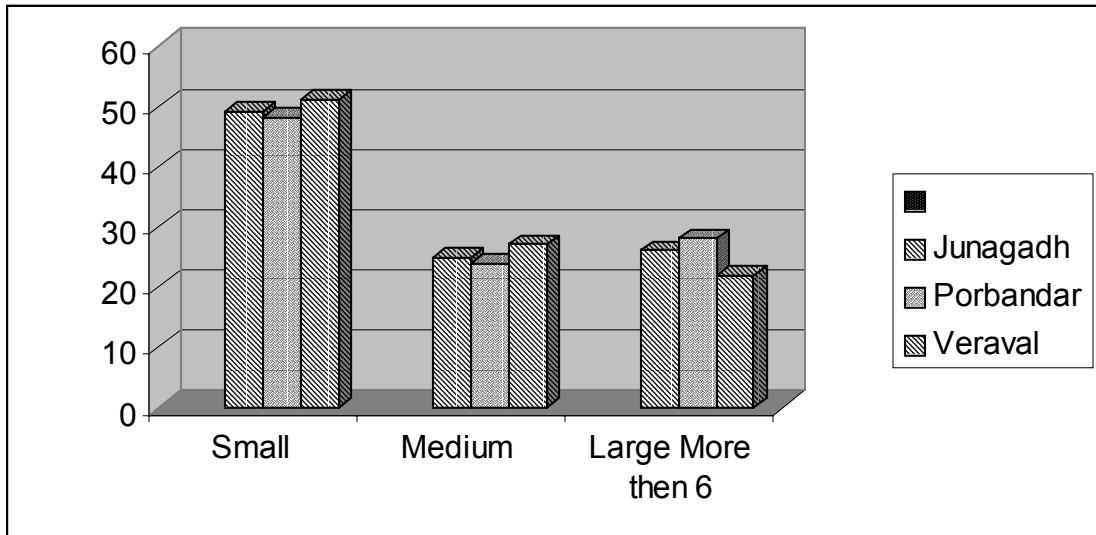
This table provides the respondents classification in respect of the caste. It is found from the table that of the aggregate 300, 148 (49.33%) are from upper social cast, 112 (37.33%) are from other backward class and 40 (13.33%) is from scheduled cast. This table when examined in respect of the individual city it is found that from amongst 148 upper cast working women maximum are found in Junagadh 53 (35.81%), 48 in Veraval (32.43%) and 47 in Porbandar 31.75%. In the category of OBC working women from 112 43(38.39%)are found in Veraval followed by 37 (33.03%) in Porbandar and

32 (28.57%) are found in Junagadh. While in case of schedule cast working women from the total 40, 16 (40.0%) are found in Porbandar, 15 (37.50%) in Junagadh and 9 (22.50%) is found in Veraval. No Scheduled Tribe Women is found from the respondents amongst the 3 cities. In general this table is in conformity with the on going reservation policy of the government.

**Table - 4.35**

**Respondents' Classification in terms of Average Size of Family**

City	Total Respondent	Small 4 Members	Medium 6 Members	Large More than 6
Junagadh	100	49	25	26
Porbandar	100	48	24	28
Veraval	100	51	27	22
Aggregate	300	148	76	76



In this table the respondents are classified in terms of the average size of the family. Those who have maximum 4 members are categorized into the small size within 6 are considered in the medium size and who have more than 6 members are put into the category of large size. Accordingly the table indicates the following picture.

- (1) From the 300 respondents 148 (49.33%) are found to have small size of family while 76 (25.33%) are found in equal numbers in both the category i.e. medium size and large size.
- (2) Coming to the cities from amongst 148 small size families maximum number is found in Veraval 51 (34.45%) followed by Junagadh 49 (33.10%) and Porbandar 48 (32.43%). In medium size from aggregate 76 maximum is found in Veraval 27 (35.52%) followed by Junagadh 25 (32.89%) and 24 in Porbandar (31.58%). In case of large size family it is found that they are maximum in Porbandar 28 (36.84%) followed by Junagadh 26 (34.21%) and 22 in Veraval (28.94%).

**Table - 4.36**

**Respondents' Classification in terms of Size of Family Income**

<b>City</b>	<b>Total Responde nt</b>	<b>Rs. 7000 to Rs. 12000</b>	<b>Rs. 12001 to Rs. 18000</b>	<b>Rs. 18001 to Rs. 25000</b>	<b>Rs. 25000 above</b>
Junagadh	100	22	54	10	14
Porbandar	100	28	49	12	11
Veraval	100	31	55	09	05
Aggregate	300	81	158	31	30

This table provides data in respect of the size of the total family income of the respondents. Monthly income level is classified into 4 categories beginning from 7000 to 12000, 12001 to 180000, 18001 to 25000 and above Rs. 25000. It reveals the following trends.

- (1) In aggregate of the total 300 respondents maximum number of respondents fall in the category of the income level of Rs. 12000 to 18000. They are 158 respondents (52.66%), 81 of the total respondents fall in the category of Rs. 7000 to 10000-income level. Percentage being 27 while 31 respondents (10.33%) have their monthly family income between 18000 and 25000 and 30 (10%) of the respondents have their family income beyond Rs. 25000.
- (2) The city wise analysis suggests that from amongst 158 of the respondents of second category 55 (34.81%) are from Veraval, 54 (34.17%) from Junagadh and 49 (31.01%) are of Porbandar. Those having the monthly income in the range of 7000 to 12000, they are 31 (38.27%) from Veraval, 28 (34.46%) from Porbandar and 22

(27.16%) are from Junagadh city. 12 respondents of Porbandar do have their monthly family income in the range of 18000 to 25000 (38.70%), 10 of Junagadh fall in the same category i.e 37.25% and 9 of Veraval (29.04%) fall in that category.

- (3) Respondents having their monthly family income beyond 25000, are found 14 i.e. 46.66% from Junagadh, 11 i.e. 36.66% from Porbandar and 5 (16.66%) from Veraval. The table therefore leads to the conclusion that there is no sizeable percentage gap between the respondents of the three cities in respect of the level of monthly family income. In general upper middle level income group of the respondents is found minimum in Veraval only 14 to 100 while i.e. 23 in Porbandar and 24 in Junagadh.



**Table - 4.37**

Respondents' Classification in terms of average Size of Family expenditure

<b>City</b>	<b>Total Respondent</b>	<b>Rs. 4000 to Rs. 8000</b>	<b>Rs. 8001 to Rs. 12000</b>	<b>Rs. 12001 to Rs. 16000</b>	<b>Rs. 16001 to Rs. 21000</b>
Junagadh	100	43	13	28	16
Porbandar	100	46	13	29	12
Veraval	100	44	16	30	10
Aggregate	300	133	42	87	38

This table indicates the average size of monthly family expenditure it is again classified into 4 categories. Minimum family expenditure is in the range of 4000 to 8000 the maximum is 61000 and above in between there are 2 groups beginning from 8000 to 12000 and 12001 to 16000. Following inferences can be derived from the table.

- (1) Maximum number of respondents – 133 (44.33%) have indicated monthly family expenditure between 4000 to 8000. 87 respondents i.e. 29% have indicated their family expenditure in the range of 12000 to 16000. While 42 of the total respondents have their monthly expenditure in the range of 8000 to 12000. 38 i.e. 12.66 have their expenditure beyond Rs. 16000.
- (2) Examined in respect of each city it is found maximum in Porbandar in respect of the first category i.e. 46 (34.58%). It is 44 in Veraval i.e. 33.08% while in Junagadh there are 43 (32.33%) of the category total.

- (3) From amongst 42 in the second category maximum number are found from Veraval 16 (38.09%) and the remaining are shared equally amongst the other two cities, 13 each (30.95%).
- (4) In the third category of family expenditure of the aggregate 87, 30 are found from Veraval (34.48%) , 29 are found from Porbandar (33.33%) and 28 (32.18%) are found from Junagadh. In the last category of maximum monthly family expenditure maximum are found in Junagadh city they are 16 of the 38 i.e. 42.10% 12 in Porbandar i.e. 31.57% and 10 in Veraval 26.31%.
- (5) It there fore leads us to conclude that working women of Junagadh in Comparison with the other 2 cities have their monthly spending higher while in relation to the level of Income the spending is comparatively found more amongst the working of Veraval.

**Table - 4.38**

**Respondents' Classification in terms of average Size of Family Saving**

<b>City</b>	<b>Total Respond.</b>	<b>1000 to 2000</b>	<b>2001 to 4000</b>	<b>4001 to 6000</b>
Junagadh	100	59	29	12
Porbandar	100	62	24	14
Veraval	100	64	29	07
Aggregate	300	185	82	33

Workingwomen were asked about the average savings of the family. In response to this query the information received is indicated in the above table. It is found from the table that from amongst 300 respondents 185 respondents (61.66%) do have small savings between 1000 to 2000 per month. While 82 respondents (27.33%) indicated their savings in the range of 2000 to 4000 and 33 (11%) have their savings more than 4000.

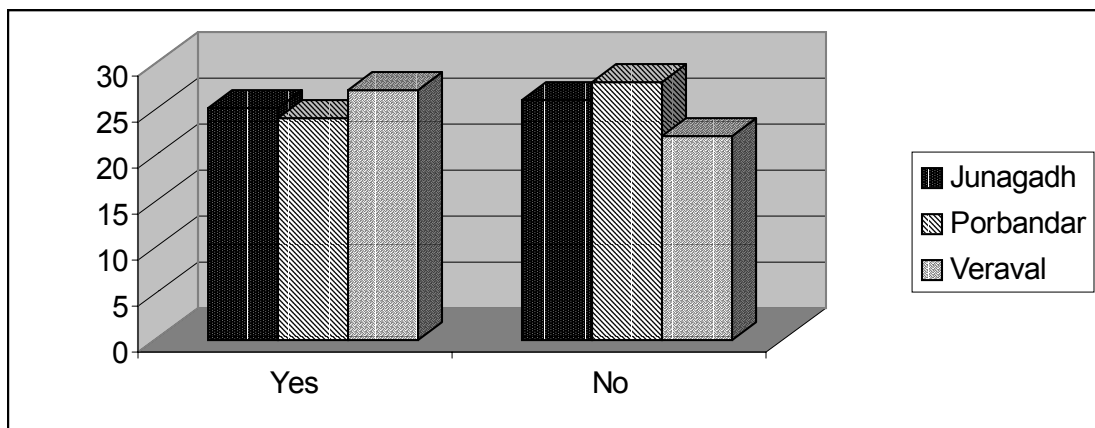
From amongst the total of minimum savings category maximum of respondents are found from Veraval they are 64 (34.59%) followed by Porbandar with 62 (33.51%) and Junagadh had 59 (31.89%) respondents. From amongst 82 respondents of middle size savings, there are 29 respondents both from Junagadh and Veraval with 35.36% and that in Porbandar the number is 24 i.e. 29.26%. Those having the highest monthly savings maximum are found from Porbandar 14 (42.42), 12 from Junagadh (36.36) and 7 from Veraval (21.21%).

It thus reveals the fact that the large size of workingwomen has small savings and very little size of workingwomen have very higher savings.

**Table - 4.39**

**Respondents' Classification in terms of having facility of maidservant at home**

City	Total Respondent	Yes	No
Junagadh	100	61	39
Porbandar	100	50	50
Veraval	100	42	58
Aggregate	300	153	147



The above table reveals the information pertaining to the system of maid servants found at home of working women. It is found from this table that of aggregate 300 working women being surveyed 153 (51%) have the system of maid servant at home for certain domestic works. While 147 i.e. 49% do not have maid servant at home. From amongst having maid servant at home 61 working women at Junagadh (39.86%) leads the cities while in Porbandar it is found at 50 home (32.67%) and in Veraval in only 42 home i.e. 27.45%. Those having no maid servant at home maximum are found in

Veraval 58 (39.48%) followed by Porbandar 50 (34%) and 39 in Junagadh with 26.53%.

It is there for revealed that the system of maidservants is practiced largely in the sophisticated towns more than that in the indigenous towns.

**Table - 4.40**  
**System of maid Servant in Respect of Caste**

City	Total Resp.	Upper Cast	OBC	SC	No maid
Junagadh	100	53/47	32/11	15/3	39
Porbandar	100	47/32	37/08	16/10	50
Veraval	100	48/31	43/09	09/2	58
Aggregate	300	148/110	112/28	40/15	147

This table provides interesting information in respect of the system of maid servants being in practice in relation to the cast of the working of women. Following inferences can be derived from the table. Of the aggregate 148 working women from upper cast 110 have maidservants at their home. In other words of the aggregate upper class working women 74.32% of them have maid servants at home. In case of OBC against the size of 112 working women it is practiced at only 28 home i.e. only 25% of them have this system while in case of SC working women against the size of 40 15 working women 37.50% are found to have main servant at home. It is therefore clear that as long as the domestic work pressure is concerned socially upper class workingwomen are less burdened at home, keeping in

view the system of maid servant. While the other social category working women are relatively having more burden in this regard.

Coming to the individual cities, the system is more in practice in the upper class working women of Junagadh city – 53 (35.81%) followed by Veraval 48 (32.48%) and 47 (31.75%) in Porbandar. In case of OBC working women from amongst the 28 home where the maid servant is working maximum are found in Junagadh city with 11 (39.28%) followed by Veraval with 9 (32.14%) and 8 in Porbandar i.e. 28.57%.

**Table - 4.41**

**Respondents' Classification in terms of Native Place**

<b>City</b>	<b>Total Respondent</b>	<b>Village Native</b>	<b>City Native</b>
Junagadh	100	37	63
Porbandar	100	59	41
Veraval	100	62	38
Aggregate	300	158	142

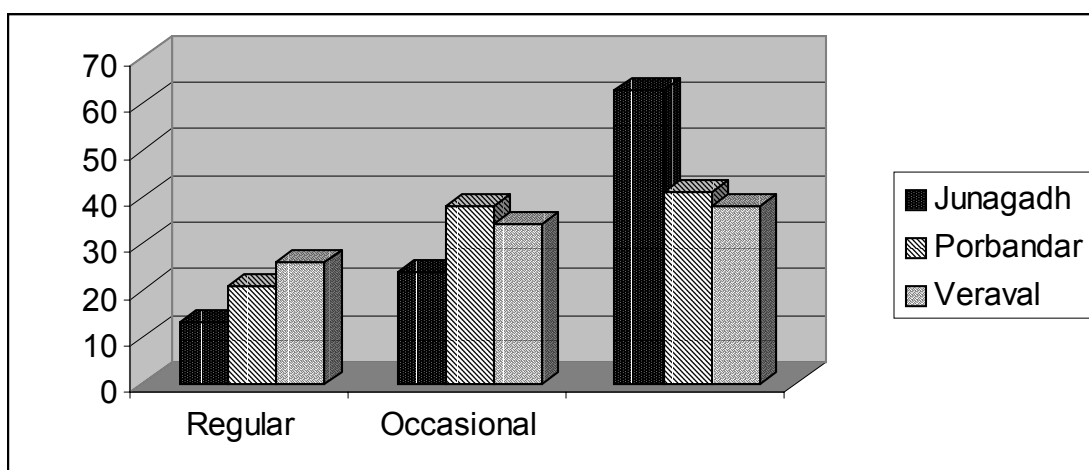
Workingwomen were asked about their native place. These three cities are originally gradually converted cities. Looking to this fact the question was asked about the native place. Following trend is found from the table of the 300 working women surveyed 158 i.e. 52.66% are having their native place at the villages and have also their strong linkages in practice with the native villages. There are 142 i.e. 47.33% of working women have their native place right with cities only. This number examined in respect of the each city independently, it comes to the fact as under.

- (1) From amongst 158 working women having their native place at the village. Maximum are from Veraval i.e. 62 (39.24%) followed by Porbandar 59 (37.34%) and Junagadh 37 (23.41%). Those having their native in cities they are found maximum in Junagadh 63 (44.36%) 41 in Porbandar (28.87%) and Veraval 38 with (26.76%).

**Table - 4.42**

**Respondents' Class function in terms of having Economic Responsibility for Village**

City	Total Respond.	Regular	Occasional	
Junagadh	100	13	24	63
Porbandar	100	21	38	41
Veraval	100	26	34	38
Aggregate	300	62	96	142



An important question was asked to the workingwomen regarding their economic responsibility at their village. It provides the following information from amongst 300 respondents 62 (20.66%) of working women have regular economic responsibility at Village. 96 (32%) have occasional responsibility at village and 142 i.e. 47.33% have very rare responsibility at village. This again classified in respect of individual city it is found that from those having regular economic responsibilities maximum are from Veraval 28 i.e. 45.16% followed by Porbandar with 21 (33.87%) and there



are 13 (20.96%) in Junagadh. Those having occasional responsibilities, from amongst 92 maximum are found from Porbandar they are 38 (39.58%) followed by Veraval 34 with 35.41% and 24 from Junagadh i.e 25. Those having very reir economic responsibilities at village maximum are found from Junagadh 63 (44.36%) followed by Porbandar 41 (28.87%) and 38 (26.76%) in Veraval.

**Table - 4.43**

**Educational status of husbands of married working women**

<b>City</b>	<b>Total Married women</b>	<b>Higher</b>	<b>Equal</b>	<b>Lower</b>
Junagadh	60(32.08)	24(50)	25(26.04)	11(25.58)
Porbandar	64(34.22)	10(20.83)	40(41.66)	14 (32.55)
Veraval	63(33.68)	14(29.16)	31(32.29)	18 (41.86)
Aggregate	187(62.33)	48(25.66)	96(51.33)	43(22.99)

Above table reveals the following facts

(1) From aggregate 1.87 married respondents 48 (25.66) percentage of working women have their husbands education qualification higher than them selves. 96 (51.33%) have their husbands education qualification equal to them while 43 (22.99) of working women have their husbands educational qualification lower to themselves. When segregated in cities it is found that from amongst sixty married workingwomen of Junagadh 25 have equal qualifications, 24 women have their husbands more educated and 11 women have husbands less educated. This classification in respect of other 2 cities reveal the picture otherwise. In both Porbandar and Veraval married working women are found to be in more number having equal qualifications and also they are found in more numbers having lower qualifications. From the amongst the three cities highest number of working women having their husbands less educated is found in Veraval 18 and women having their husband more educated is found in Junagadh is 24. Thus it is found that from amongst the working married women, those having their native place

in villages are found to be in more numbers more qualified than their husbands as against married working women having their native place in cities.

## 4.2 Other field observations

While undertaking field visits at three towns, many a things I observed which can be mentioned separately and not in the manner of tabulation analysis. These observations can be mentioned as under.

- (1) Uncertainty in agriculture at village level has led many families to migrate from rural to urban areas. It is relatively increasing cost of living in the cities which necessitated the female counterparts to accept cities. In all the three cities. I came across reported to be relatively enjoying better physical environments in villages but with continuous decline in villages but with continuous decline in agriculture or productivity that they were forced to leave the villages resulting into the need for job.
- (2) Interestingly it is also found that amongst the fully that amongst the fully young girls it is because of the changing social educational background that they have become aspirants for job. Junagadh itself is such a city where most of the relatively back---social class communities have their own independent residential schools exclusively for girls. It was primarily started with Kadwa Patel now considered to be the most dominant cast in socio-economic and political cast in socio-economic and political setup to have such own institution. Then there was an attempt made by Leuwa Kanbi this cast has also independent Kg to Pg centre exclusively for women.

The third most illustrations is the case of Dr. Subhash Mohila Kanya Chhatralaya it is exclusively for the girls of other backward class. Prominently knowing Baxi Panch Kanya Chhatralaya. The institute is

having Kg to Pg courses in arts. Commerce home science education and physical education.

Societal thinking for education, particularly by different communities brought forth dimensional changes in the living pattern of different community groups. It is because of their dynamic and pro-active approach, which has enabled the young girls from the different communities to come out from the rural traditional setup and has made them aspirant for employment. Even in Porbandar these tendency is observed amongst different social groups. Increasing awareness amongst the rural mass for the better livelihood resulted into functional changes. This has added to the demand for jobs by different groups of women.

Two more things have drawn the attention. It is still understood and expected that women are specialized for working especially in the field of teaching, nursing and to some extent in the organized clerical profession. During the visit and interactions with the different groups it is found that largely due to physical anatomy and social setup that women are expected to prefer these professions. It is also true that relatively less industrialization is found in the surveyed areas, there for the natural choice for the women for employment is bound to get restricted within the prescribed traditional setup.

The social outlook for the women is more or less traditional with regard to their life style. Absolute professional workingwomen is not welcomed in the traditional social model. During informal talks it was found that even today young male are still hesitant to accept absolute professional workingwomen as the life mate. It is this thinking that has also resulted into the restricted entries of the women in the work.

It is also observed that the much-assumed discrimination between the male and female wages is not prevailing much more in the surveyed areas. It is because of the organizational setup where in such discrimination is not possible and also in some unorganized sector the general tendency in urban area is not much of discrimination there fore the common element of wage discrimination found in rural areas particularly agro male laborers and female laborers is not found much in the urban areas.

One peculiar astonishing outcome of the awareness for women's education is found in these areas in respect of some imbalance in the marital status of women. As the survey result expresses the fact that in 23% of aggregate respondents workingwomen are found to have much higher educational qualification in relation to their counter parts. These are the cases where the male member does hold higher qualification and specific occupation and therefore women are supposed to work in organized sector. Such imbalances are otherwise also found common in certain communities where particularly women's education has increased in the last one and half decade.

Thus in general it can be concluded that both economic and social variables have added to the demand for job by women and that it has its strong impact in the life styles of such social groups. Rural urban linkages have also causes and consequential relationship in respect of working women attitude towards home and at the work place.

## **Chapter – 5**

### **FINDINGS, SUGGESTIONS AND CONCLUSIONS**

#### **5.1 Findings**

Having undertaken the primary survey of 3 cities namely Junagadh, Veraval and Porbandar in respect of prevailing and changing status and role of urban workingwomen, primary analysis to that is made in the previous chapter. On the basis of the primary analysis, field observations and interviewing some women workers – followings are my findings.

- (1) It is found clearly that work participation rate of female in urban areas is increasing. Looking to the fact that
  - a. Comparatively more number of women has joined the work in last 15 years.
  - b. Number of graduates and postgraduates in female is increasing necessarily the aspirations for job.
  - c. Conceptual change towards female especially in semi organized and informal sector has resulted into increase in number of workingwomen.
  - d. With uncertainty increasing in the rural farm sector tendency to have shift from rural to urban by towns or urban area is increasing, resulting into the demand for job.

**All these trends observed during the survey work and the response received through the questionnaire lead to conclude that female work participation rate in urban areas is increasing.**

- (2) The traditional mode of thinking amongst women and on going practice in general suggest that there is relatively restricted scope for employment for female in organized sector. However during field visits it is found that apart from specialized reserve category of job like education and health, female are found to be working in semi organized or unorganized sector. They are found to be working as beauticians, sales girl, in these town like cities. Importantly and interestingly women are found to be more aspirant and enthusiastic to have their own small units. In other words they are now on the way of self-employment. Which is most encouraging **and thus the hypothesis that rare women are found to be working in unorganized sector does not hold true from the experience of the field practice.**
- (3) Based on the primary analysis and practical visits three important variables are found positive.
- a. Workingwomen do not have much complaint regarding the colleagues and authority's behavioral approach. **As against number of women having dissatisfaction, the number of satisfied workingwomen is found more optimistic encouraging and in pleasantry mood. It thus clearly indicates that they have very little negative experience at workplace.**
  - b. During the interview many of the working women have subscribed to the view that at home also **there is not only improvement in the general environment but also elders and husband is found to be more cooperative and positive.**



c. Workingwomen are also found satisfied in relation to the general working environment at work place. They have expressed clearly that even in the private sector the immediate boos or the other workers do take care at times of domestic emergencies.

**Therefore it is evidently found that the hypothesis framed that working women in urban areas are more comfortable with regard to their status and role at work and home, is fully admissible correct.**

(4) The general impression that social institution like cast plays important role in changing the status and role of women, was also accepted as hypothesis for the purpose of validity. Based on preliminary results and practical visits it is found true. Though cast is said to have loosing its significance, is not found true in many respects. This can be supported by the following facts.

a. In socially middle class families or relatively lower category insistence for work is found subject to the permission and generally acceptable social cohesive norms at home. Cases are found where women from selected few casts have clearly hold that the man with whom the marriage is to take place – it is little educated or economically weak only than permission for employment is granted. **Though there were not many in numbers, but somewhat sizeable 21 to 25% of the working women also told that a strong attempt was required to convince the in laws to accept the job. Some of them clearly pointed that because of the decision of employment they had to opt for nucleus family.**

It is also proved that working women having their strong domestic linkages with the village natives are expect to priorities village work specially turning during seasons – which either restricts the scope for employment or in other cases result into accept such job where such facilities can be enjoyed.

### **Suggestions**

In view of the importance of the role of women in service sector and its increasing significance, for the improvement of the status of women in developing countries, it is suggested that

Attention is to be paid to the analysis of the functioning, growth and development of the services sector (both public and private) in all developing countries, especially as regards the inter linkages amongst this and all other sector.

- Classification of services and data collection in respect of the same should be made more transparent and accessible.
- The position of women in this sector should be viewed as developmental and integrative of other activities. Which means that the new developmental trends observed in this sector must be closely linked to overall development and the advancement of women.
- Women's hidden economic role in the services should be further studied and analyzed.
- Co-operation among developing countries in this sector could contribute to exchange of experiences, to development of self-reliant schemes and linkages between micro and macro levels of implementation. This may be an avenue for the promotion of new approaches to the development of the services sector.

- Considering the intensity of invisible work which contributes at large to the visible outcome, now it is high time to workout the indicators that of and accordingly to measure the amount of invisible work devoted to by the women while taking stock of the total factor productivity.

Women social workers and some of other activists have remarked that the education policy should be framed in respect of value based education to promote awareness and capabilities amongst women in respect of their roles and responsibilities.

The government should be more vigilant and pro active in this regard. Subsidization alone and or policy of reservation alone does not suffice the purpose in respect of status and role of women. These may serve as important tool to have an appropriate direction but there should be healthy environment under which women feel both liberty and security at work. There is a need impart specialized education and training for improvement of skills. Marketing is the major segment where one finds plenty of opportunities for building the carrier. Our existing social setup and environment however does not permit the women to come at fore in the field of marketing. This demands change in the mindset.

Decision power though rests with women; there must be substantial autonomy to be provided to the women in respect of both social and economic decisions. Acceptance for working women out of compulsion is virtually declining the respect, instead of that equal and natural treatment both at home and work should be availed to promote the role and status. It is the status of working women once elevated, the tendency to adopt patronizing attitude towards women would disappear. With the pace of globalization there is at large level the influx of liberal thoughts arriving in

the cities and towns from metropolitan cities. All these should come in natural course so as to make the family get adjusted with the changes.

There is a need to inculcate understanding amongst elders, especially village elders to leave with the young working couple to provide necessary support and supervision with part time domestic health. Unlike mega cities space is not a problem for joint setup of the family. There fore there is plenty of scope for the elders to have mutual interdependence and affection through supporting and supervising working couple.

Voluntary agencies have enough scope to play supportive role. With the help of elderly citizens the burden of kids education can be minimized to provide psychological assistance both to the kids and to the working mother. Role conflict is still likely to take place, as there is expectation to combine the new role with keeping intact the traditional role. What is most important is restructuring the family setup along with necessary change in the mind set. Let there be no discrimination between male and female as long as the dignity, liberty, fraternity is concerned. Here some positive norms of Western culture may be followed, where both husband and wife considered equally responsible for the maintenance of the family and both enjoy equal professional, liberal environment. True it is that the fundamental concept of women hood should not get changed while she is at work and that she must be respected and regarded as the full active member of the family with prescribed status besides roles.

## *Appendix*

### **CHANGING SOCIO ECONOMIC STATUS AND ROLE OF URBAN WORKING WOMEN [WITH REFERENCE TO SELECTED TOWNS OF JUNAGADH DISTRICT]**

#### **[QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE WORKING WOMEN]**

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#### **Section – 1 [GENERAL]**

1. Full Name :
2. Age :
3. Educational Qualification: S.S.C. / H.S.C./Graduate/Post  
Graduate
4. Residential Address :
5. Marital Status : Married / Unmarried / Widow /  
Divorcee
6. Type of Family : Joint / Nucleolus
7. Type of Job : Organized / Un organized /



### Section – 3 [STATUS AND ROLE]

1. Status as earning member: Male Subsidiary /
2. Nature of property : Owned / Rented  
if Owned : Loanable funds / Own capital
3. Distance of workplace from home:  
0 to 2 kms            2 to 5 kms            5 and above
4. Mode of conveyance :  
By foot      Own vehicle      Public transport      Office  
transport
5. Chances of promotion :  
Best          Better          Good          Average          Poor
6. Nature of response of the family:  
Best          Better          Good          Average          Poor
7. Nature of working environment: Comfortable / Un comfortable
8. Motive for employment :  
Utilization of Education      Helping the family  
Hobby                              In evitable
9. Desirous for change in job : Yes / No.
10. Colleagues aptitude at office :  
Best          Satisfactory          Dis satisfactory
11. Approach of higher authority :  
Best          Satisfactory          Dis satisfactory
12. No. of other female employees working with you:  
1 to 5          6 to 10          11 to 20          21 to 30  
31 to 40          41 to
13. Nature of dependence for consumption of income:

- |     | Fully Independent  | Partial Independent  | Fully Dependent |
|-----|--|----------------------|-----------------|
| 14. | Responsibility for domestic account:                       |                      | Yes / No        |
| 15. | Responsibility for kids education                          |                      | : Yes / No      |
| 16. | Sex bias within family                                     | : Little             | More No         |
| 17. | Involvement in Social activities :                         |                      | Yes / No        |
|     | If Yes   | :                    | Full Less       |
|     | Minimum  |                      |                 |
| 18. | Affiliation to social cultural organization :              |                      |                 |
|     | No One   | Executive Membership |                 |
|     | Head   | Ordinary Membership  |                 |
| 19. | Time to be devoted for other than basic domestic activity: |                      |                 |
|     | Seasonal   | Very Little          | No.             |
| 20. | Dependence for social decision:                            |                      |                 |
|     | Fully Independent  | Partial Independent  | Fully Dependent |
| 21. | Approach of counter part at domestic work:                 |                      |                 |
|     | Fully Positive   | Little Positive      | Negative        |
| 22. | Facility of Maid servant at home :                         |                      | Yes / No        |
| 23. | Economic responsibility for village :                      |                      |                 |
|     | Regular  | occasional           | rate            |