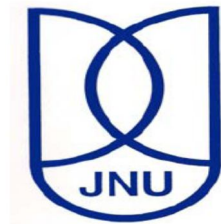


# **HIGHER EDUCATION AND WORKFORCE PARTICIPATION AMONG WOMEN IN DELHI**

*Thesis submitted to Jawaharlal Nehru University in partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for the award of the degree of*

**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

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20<sup>th</sup> JULY 2017

DECLARATION


I, PRIYANKA TIWARI, hereby declare that the thesis entitled “**HIGHER EDUCATION AND WORKFORCE PARTICIPATION AMONG WOMEN IN DELHI**” submitted by me to the School of Social Sciences, Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi for the award of the degree of **DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY** is my bonafide work and that it has not been submitted so far in part or in full, for my degree or diploma of this university or any other university.


  
Priyanka Tiwari

CERTIFICATE

It is hereby recommended that the thesis may be placed before the examiners for evaluation.

1

  
Prof. Dipendra Nath Das  
Supervisor

  
Prof. B.S. Butola  
Chairperson 20.7.17

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## **ACRONYMS**

WFP- workforce participation

PC- Planned colonies

UAC- unauthorized colonies

UV- Urban village

NGO-Non-government organization

WLB- work life balance

SC- Scheduled caste

ST – Scheduled Tribe

OBC – Other backward class

PNDT- Prenatal Determination Test

UNDP- United Nations Developmental Program

ILO – International Labour Organization

GEM – Gender Empower Measure

DESA – Department of economic and social affair

UNESCO- United Nation educational, scientific and cultural organization

UNFPA- United nation population fund

JSI- John show International

GDP – Gross Domestic Product

NSS – National Sample Survey

GER- Gross enrolment ratio

GNCTD - Government of national capital of India

ESCAP - Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific

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(Priyanka Tiwari)

# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

*“Women, who are one of the basic constituents of society, should be given the same status accorded to men in education, business, home life, production and consumption; gender equality should be achieved. Achieving all these in favour of women will lead to an effective means of bringing up future generations and use of the sources in national economy, and thus have direct and indirect effects which will lead to increase in productivity, more fair distribution of income in the world”. E. Torun*

### 1.1 BACKGROUND

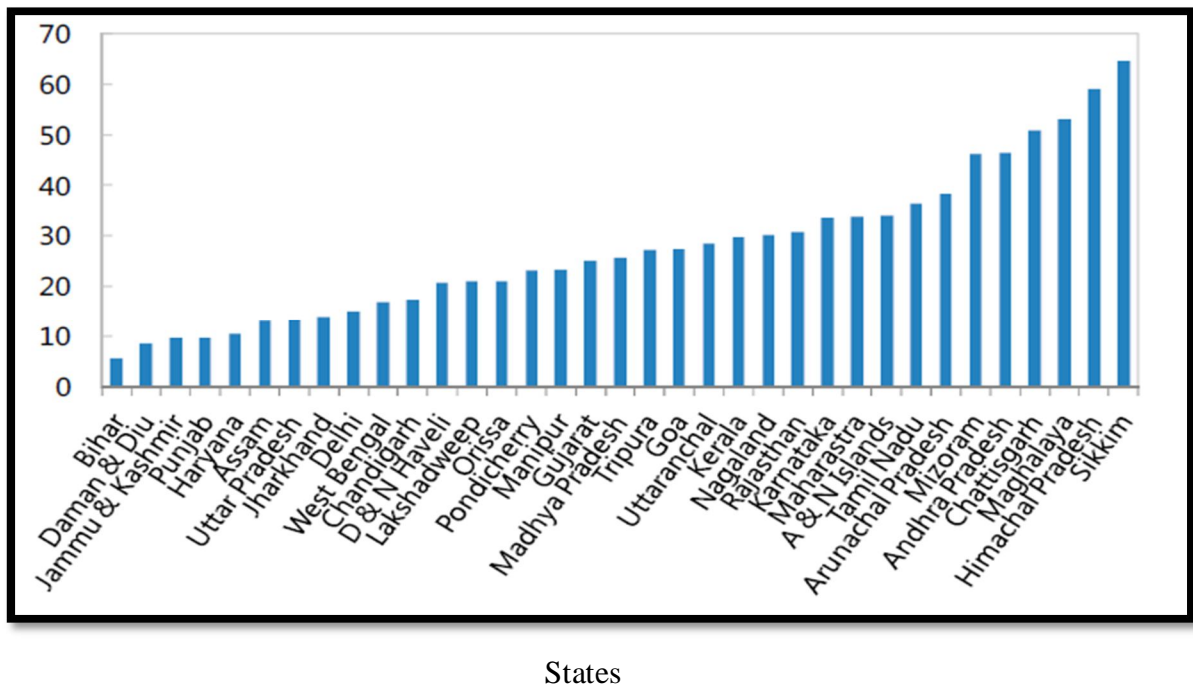
The first impression that comes for woman in Indian society is performing reproductive roles, discharging responsibility towards the family, helping in upbringing of the child and thus indirect role in society (Hutton, 1983). In the era of globalization, the concept of gender equality has emerged at a rapid rate all over the world especially in developing regions. With this, a huge transformation is seen in the outlook of society towards the woman, from performing traditional family responsibility to discharging efficiently as an active participant in the work force. One of the most important reasons that attributes to the upward trend of woman entering into work force is impartment of higher education amongst girl/women. The entry of woman in the labour market after getting higher education is construed as positive signals. It finally leads to gender equality in workforce and sharing the financial load with other members of the family. It has been reported that with financial load being shared by female members of family, the economic status of family rise positively. In this way, it may be stated that the issues pertaining to gender equality, and all the means to achieve this, so that more woman from the families joins active work force should be the focus of any family. Focusing on the sordid state it has also been seen that despite getting higher education and possessing requisite qualification women are not getting into job market and if at all, not at par with male counterparts. In this context, Delhi being the capital of India and having inter mix of population from

every corners of this country, is an ideal setting for studying the scenario of the women entering into the labor market. It is important to note that even after getting higher education, various factors at different levels, from individual to society, are dragging any woman entering into labor market. Contrary to popular speculation, the ratio of participation of woman in labor market is less compared to other metropolitan cities of India. The 2030 sustainable development agenda is to deal with constant gender inequalities, which exist, at work.

Figure 1.1 shows female labour force participation in various states of India. Bihar, Jammu and Kashmir, Punjab, Haryana have lowest female labour force participation. Delhi although being the national capital and having lots of avenue for employment generation, still it lies near to other backward states of India like Bihar, Assam, Jharkhand in female work force participation rates. Sikkim, HP, Chhattisgarh have highest female labour force participation. However, what kind of work participation exists in these states needs further elucidation.

Fig 1.1

**Female Labor Force Participation Rates in India  
(2011-12)**



Source: Census of India, 2011



(Verma, 1998) argued that four significant factors that can be attributed for low women work participation. These are as follows:

- i) Buffer factor,
- ii) Segregation factor,
- iii) Substitution factor, and
- iv) Income factor.

The buffer hypothesis assumes an appreciable percentage of women as an ad-hoc workforce who is needed only at the time of labor crunch situation and once the demand settle down, they are expelled. Therefore, in a way they act as a buffer stock of labour who finds their utility only for ephemeral period.

As per job segregation hypothesis, few occupations are assumed mainly to be feminist in character and thus these sectors are women dominated. (e.g. Receptionist, Air hostess)

According to substitution hypothesis, as the recession intensifies the search is for cost-saving technique of means of production, which enables to induce substitution towards cheaper form of labor primarily women as they are considered cheap form of labour, because women can be given less salary for the same job performed by male counterparts in organization. This discrimination in salary exists today also although after enactment of the equal remuneration act of 1976.

Lastly, according to income hypothesis women enters into the labor market to raise their individual and family earnings due to lack of sufficient income sources or to enhance their socio-economic status.

Various factors act as deterrent or hindrances for any educated woman who wants to enter into labor market after completion of their studies. International labor organization (ILO) economists Steven (Kapsos and Andrea Silberman, 2014) are of the opinion after their analysis that there are primarily four significant reasons attributed as retarding force in female participation in labor market.

- i) Growing female enrolment in higher education seems to have a receding effect. This manifest in keeping women out of labour market at entry level.
- ii) Household withdrawing women from the workforce (labour market) with rise in family income. This is very important factor.
- iii) congregation of women in those areas of economy where there is a little prospect of job growth or job segregation according to gender, (glass ceiling effect)
- iv) Problem with data

Women are living in a huge paradox situation which are as follows, they contribute around 50 percent to the world's population, 33 percent of the labour force, performing about 70 per cent of all working hours of the work, and garnering 10 percent of world's income, while possessing even less than 1 per cent of shares in world's property. Due to these odd statistical facts, mentioned above the relevance of women-based study is important. Though women constitute half of India's population and our Indian constitution envisages via articles 14, 15, 16 etc. equality in terms of opportunity and prohibition of discrimination based on gender, still they are subjected to discrimination, deprivation and prejudices regarding education and workforce participation. The inherent contradiction that exists between traditional mindset and what our constitution envisages puts status of women in a critically vulnerable position in the society. Unfortunately, Indian women suffer discriminations and prejudices at all the stages right from the foetus in mother's womb, which manifests in the form of the declining child sex ratio in various states. This continues even at later stages and events of life. Government through various policy measures and initiatives has tried to address these issues. Acts such as **PNDT** has made female feticide a criminal offence. **Beti Bachao Beti padhao, Ladali sukanya yojana** etc. are trying to address the issues of low female literacy. Nutritional deprivation, reduced access to health care services, and very little or no say in matters of decision making of the family other important issues related to women. Studies have shown that women's contribution in family, society and nation have always been undervalued and overlooked and not considered at par with men and this can be attributed to lack of education and low workforce participation eventually leading to unawareness. They are at large been the unsung characters of any family.

The history especially the Indian national movement has been a witness and corroborates the fact that equal participation of men and women were being able to rout mighty British rule from India. However, the debates on women's status is very old and persists, the studies allude to the fact that through enhancing education and participation in labor market the questions pertaining to socioeconomic status of women in society can be addressed up to certain extent. There exists an inter-relationship and interdependence between education, work force participation, and empowerment. Education plays a fundamental role in improving physical and psychological well being of women and thus enhances her ability to work and contributing to the economy. However, the very fact that women were living within the closed surrounding of their families and family members and household work, prevented them from acquiring higher education especially in backward states where infrastructure is not very conducive. This was also the reason why women could not participate freely in labor market as per their wish and compelled to concentrate on the traditional women's household work. Education is a significant correlate of economic growth as it leads to transformation from agrarian economy to an industrialized economy and from there to tertiary or service sector and finally to quaternary sector of economy. Investment in education is largely considered as one of the most important means to achieve stable economic growth via creation of human capital resource. In context of India where more than 60% of population comprised of youth, generation of human capital resource will ultimately pay rich dividend provided .it be equitable in terms of gender, caste, religion etc.

Investment in girl's education is expected to have an affirmative impact on crude participation rate since it up thrust the earning aspirations among individuals, and enable to overcome or at least resist the restrictive barriers of traditional customary in restraining the participation of women in productive economy.

Female workforce participation is a driving factor of socio-economic development as it supplements income and therefore leads to reduction in poverty. Female participation in labor market is also vital for awareness and understanding the reproductive and productive roles of the educated woman population

Dissimilar job opportunities, low wages for women as compared to men's, subject to sexual harassment at work places acts as hindrances for women participating in labor market. At several occasions these incidents goes unreported fearing risks of losing job, back clash from society, humiliation etc. ultimately leads to withdrawal from active workforce participation. The Supreme Court of India taking the suo-motto of various cases recognized the need for law while laying down the Vishakha guidelines against sexual harassment at work place. Women employed in the unorganized sector, single women are economically more vulnerable, and many of them are unaware of the law. The recent media reports of sexual harassment at various places is also a reason behind women's less participation in the labor market as the belief which persists in the society is that man earn his livelihood whereas women does so to supplement the family income.

Women's participation in the work force is considered the encouraging signal of empowerment of women enabling them with the power to resist and overcome discrimination at work place (Sanhita, 2013). Work participation is generally prominent amongst illiterates further it follows a downward trend, dips at the lowest level at secondary/higher secondary educational level, and again seem to rise for graduates and above (Chakraborty, 2009). Higher female work force participation can boost growth by mitigating the impact of a shrinking workforce (Elborgh, 2013).

It has been seen where female's workforce participation was at higher scale, women seems to have greater mobility, better communication with spouses and control over their household's resources compared with the women residing in villages where women's work force participation was minimal (Sundaram, 2008). Women work leads to multigenerational impact, it leads to large multiplier effect on the household, and it improves the bargaining power of women (Economic survey, GOI, 2016-17).

There is interplay of various complex factors determining the employment of women and sometimes it becomes very difficult to examine them. It varies both at individual level and at aggregate level. At the individual level, it greatly depends upon women's decision to work which is further plagued by various complexities like the job availability, and their education level and requisite skills which make them applicable for the job they are looking for. At the aggregate level, Female Work force Participation rate

is greatly determined by factors that are largely influenced by economical, social and demographic circumstances.

Neoclassical economist subscribes education as one of the key determinants of women entering into the labor market. The higher the educational level, greater is their chance of participation in productive economy. However, there exist many factors besides education which determine women's entering into labor market, (e.g. household income). Demographic factors like age, family size and household responsibilities have considerable impact on women entering labor market (Ahmad, 2002). Approximately fifty percent of the population constituted by females, the study dealing with the women's participation in work force is important in determining the level of development. As they are deprived of education, they do not get suitable job in the market. At the workplace, their occupational choices are limited and they have very less option left before them compared to male counterpart, sometimes they are less paid for the same job compared to men.

According to Labor Bureau report, 1974-75, (Verma, 1998), there are four factors, which determine female employment in economy. These are as follows:

- i) Inadequate income of male breadwinner to suffice the needs of family.
- ii) Fall in family's income due to accident.
- iii) Death of bread winner or head of household
- iv) Desire of women for achieving economic self-dependence and higher standards of living

Therefore, this trend in higher education and work participation needs proper evaluation. It gives me immense happiness to study the behavior of other females in this context, know their preferences amongst the available choices in the job market after attainment of higher education, as I can relate myself with them, who are pursuing higher education, and wish to enter job market.

## 1.2 SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY

There has been much established link by economists between increase in the educational level and the work force participation in the country, and thus leading to higher economic growth Gross domestic product (GDP). Sociologists have also argued for relationship between levels of education and upward social mobility in the society. This means that, with the increasing levels of education, their chances of getting jobs as per their choice in the market increases which manifest in better standard of living and hence upward social mobility is a resultant factor. Historians have documented an established link between early rises in literacy and economic take off nations. Although education does not directly influence the national income of the country, Studies made by economists looked into the problem of "returns" of education. Evidence indicate that a substantial proportion of the rate of growth of the economy that a country experiences can be attributed to increase in the educational levels of the work force. The importance of the current study lies in the fact that it particularly focuses attention on the educational levels of the women workers, which though constitute the major part of our society, but in labour market, their number is not so appreciable compared to total population. The educational levels are taken in context of different sectors of economy, which is determining parameters to identify socio-economic status of women. Thus, it is an attempt, aimed at explaining the nature and extent of women participation in economic activity in terms of educational levels of female workers, and finally its various outcomes.

## 1.3 STATEMENT OF PROBLEM CAN BE SUMMARISED AS:

- i. Market demand efficient and skilled person for any kind of job. That efficiency comes is lacking for women due to inadequate trainings and expertise hence they account to lesser numbers.
- ii. Heterogeneous society in terms of religions, castes and ethnicity exhibits variations in education and work force participation
- iii. **“ILO’s Global Employment Trends 2013 report”**, have reported that India’s work force participation rate for women has declined from 37 per cent in 2004-05 to 26 per cent in 2009-10. Out of available data of 131 countries of female

workforce participation, India ranks 11<sup>th</sup> from the bottom; though the country's economic growth is very rapid. It needs further examination of the cause and effect.

- iv. Though women constitute half of India's population, their literacy rate of workforce participation is not in convergence with their numbers.
- v. Dissimilar job opportunities or lesser prevalence of job in the market, low wages for women as compared to men's, for the same job done by both, in addition they are subject to sexual harassment are some of the causes for low female workforce participation.
- vi. Man earns his livelihood whereas women do so to supplement the family income. This perception of the society should change and consider women as integral part of workforce then only it will lead to overall development and economic growth of the country.
- vii. Status of women in country is good indicator which reflects how civilized the society is. Thus, higher women's work participation is important factor to boost growth and leads to mitigate the impact of a shrinking workforce.
- viii. At the workplace, their occupational choices are limited and they have very less option left to them compared to male counterpart, sometimes they are less paid for the same job that is done by men.
- ix. Occupational segregation is also considered an important impediment in the fact that there is decline in employment opportunities for women, and holding them back, women are grouped in certain industries and occupations
- x. Failure to allow women to access the labour market is an under-utilization/sub optimal utilization of significant percent of human resources from productive activities and thus economic growth.
- xi. The literacy rate of Delhi is 86.2%. The literacy rate stands at 86.3% in urban areas while 81.9% in rural areas. 90.9% among males and 80.8% among females. But only one of ten women is employed and engaged in an economically productive activity, against five of ten men in Delhi, according to the primary abstract 2011.

xii. The overall WPR stands at 33.3%, rural WPR stands at 31.91% while that of urban area is 33.3%. Number of working women stands at 10.58% while that of men is 52.99%. of the total working population 94.99% are classified as main workers and 5.01% classified as marginal workers. Workers have been classified as cultivators 0.6%, agricultural labourers 0.71%, household industry 3.25% and others as 95.44%.

xiii. As per the data available from the 2009-10 National Sample Survey Organization (NSSO), merely 8% of women having the age above 15 in Delhi are constituting work force, compared to the country average of almost 26%, which comprises less than half of country's average.

xiv. Women constitute 50% of population, their literacy rate is 66% but they constitute in work force participation as 26%, which is less than half of number of male workers.

Female work force participation is of much vital role for achieving growth with equity and efficiency; it improves both the economic position of women apart from the overall efficiency and develops economical potentials of the country. Women's participation in job market is a positive signal of reducing discrimination and step towards empowerment of women.

#### **1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS:**

1. What is the most popular stream of education among women in higher education?
2. What kinds of jobs do women enter into or participate after attaining their higher education?
3. What are the preferences among women for the choices of jobs available in job market?
4. What is the linkage between higher education and work participation? Does there exist linkage between expected job and current job?



5. What is the mechanism behind women participation or non participation in job market? Such as is there convergence between their education and participation, non-convergence between their education and participation, non-participation though highly educated.
6. What role does socio, economic, cultural, demographic factors play in educated women's participation in job market?

### **1.5 OBJECTIVES:**

1. To study the status of Higher education and workforce participation among women.
2. To investigate the linkage between Higher Education and workforce participation among women according to their background characteristics.
3. To assess the outcome of linkage between education and employment.
4. To suggest policy suggestions for development of women and their empowerment.

### **OBJECTIVE 1:**

1. To study the status of Higher education among women in Delhi.
  - 1.1 What is the level of education and streams of education among women?  
Indicators taken would be:
    - 1.1.1 levels of education (higher education-graduate/ post graduate)
    - 1.1.2 streams of education (technical/ professional and non-technical-arts, commerce, science)
2. To examine the status of women's workforce following indicators would taken
  - 2.1 What is the nature and types of work participation?
  - 2.2 How does it vary between different socio-religious group?

## **OBJECTIVE 2:**

To investigate the linkage between higher education and workforce participation among women.

- What is the socio-demographic and economic aspects of women workforce?:
  - ✓ **DEMOGRAPHIC**
    - ❖ Women's age
    - ❖ Marital status
    - ❖ Number of children's below 5years of age and total number of children.
    - ❖ Household size and structure (nuclear or joint family system)
    - ❖ women's migration and reason of migration
  - ✓ **ECONOMIC**
    - ❖ Number of other family members who works.
    - ❖ Household income
    - ❖ Land ownership and house ownership
  - ✓ **SOCIAL**
    - ❖ Women's level of education
    - ❖ Education of father,mother and husband
    - ❖ women belonging to different social and religious groups
- discrimination at workplace and reason for it (working hour etc)
- Time taken to commute to their work places

## **OBJECTIVE 3:**

To assess the status of women through their decision making power as outcome of linkage between education and employment.

- ❖ What is the linkage between higher education and work participation among women?
- ❖ What is the outcome of the linkage?

## **INDICATORS**

- **Physical Mobility**
- **Locational awareness**
- **Intend to secure future**
- **Economic security**
- **Political Jurisprudence**

## **OBJECTIVE 4:**

- To suggest policy suggestions for development of women and their empowerment.
- ❖ What is the policy measure suggested?

## **1.6. DATABASES**

- Census of India
- National sample survey (NSS)
- data.gov.in
- Primary data from field work

## **1.7 SAMPLING METHOD AND FIELD SURVEY METHODOLOGIES**

### **INTRODUCTION**

An investigative enquiry into the working and non-working women at different locations of Delhi is not an easy task because identifying and approaching such females as per research objectives and the eligibility criteria in different types of locations is very onerous task. It was a tough job to select the location from Delhi based on geographical parameters and at different income levels of housing so that the diversity of women in work participation after completing their higher education brings us close to the true picture of female participation in Delhi. Therefore, to fulfill my objectives I have used the

questionnaire method to observe the linkage between higher education and work participation among women in Delhi. The questionnaire is made very exhaustively to cover and aspects of the characteristics of higher education and work participation among women. Working and non-working women both constitute my studies.

*The questionnaire method and case history are two important research instruments used for the survey of the women workers and non-workers in this work. The interview techniques involves both (Open-ended questions) and (close ended questions) catering the demand of the scholar to fulfill her objectives.*

### **1.7.1 LIMITATION OF THE SCHOLAR**

Generally the area specific survey example slums is easy because the scholar knows where he/she has to go to collect data but the main shortcoming of my topic is that my topic is not based on some special feature like slums where individual can go and collect data. I had to cover entire Delhi and women at different strata, so that biasness is avoided in collection of data. The other difficulty, which I had to face while collection of data was about the incident, which took place in campus on 9th of February 2016, made me very vulnerable outside campus after which some of the students involved in incidents were slapped with sedition charges.

### **1.7.2 QUESTIONNAIRE IN DETAILS**

The first thing which questionnaire comprises is the household slip, which deals with general information of name, caste, religion then house type characteristics following household detail, women's parental education and occupation. Then migration of working and non-working women and the head of household is discussed, which is followed by details of consumption pattern and leisure activities, characteristics of their higher education and employment status, their health and their empowerment levels.

### 1.7.3 FOCUS OF THE RESEARCH

The core aim of the research is to understand the stream of education women are taking, and nature of job women choose after completion of their higher education, their preferences when it comes to selection of job in labour market, to also understand does there exist any linkage between higher education and work participation.

The entire analysis is based on data collected through the fieldwork as well as from secondary sources. The National Sample Survey (NSS) defines the workers on the basis of economic activity.

### 1.7.4 SELECTION OF SAMPLING LOCATIONS

Delhi has been chosen as study area due to heterogeneous stock of population belonging to various regions, religion, language, caste and other diversity, representing whole of India.

**TABLE 1.1**  
**NATURE OF SETTLEMENT**

NATURE OF SETTLEMENT	ESTIMATED POPULATION IN 2000(IN LAKH)	TOTAL ESTIMATED POPULATION %
JJ CLUSTER	20.72	14.80
SLUM DESIGNATED COLONIES	26.64	19.10
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	7.40	5.30
RESETTLEMENT COLONIES	17.76	12.70
RURAL VILLAGES	7.40	5.30
REGULARISED-UNAUTHORISED	17.76	12.70

COLONIES		
URBAN VILLAGES	8.88	6.40
PLANNED COLONIES	33.08	23.70

SOURCE- Statistical abstract, 2012

I have clubbed eight types of settlement into three types, which shares equivalent characteristics. So I have taken three types of settlement into consideration, where I have done survey.

1. PLANNED COLONY

2. UNAUTHORISED COLONIES

3. URBAN VILLAGE

TOTAL SAMPLING

WORKING WOMEN-360

NON WORKING WOMEN-240

Taking geographical parity for sampling north, south, north, and east zone of Delhi has been taken for sampling.

The criteria of choosing areas have also been subjective in nature. They were selected in such a manner to provide a proper representation of regional variation and related socio-economic background.

**TABLE 1.2****SELECTION OF SAMPLING REGION**

	<b>PLANNED COLONIES</b>	<b>UNAUTHORISED COLONIES</b>	<b>URBAN VILLAGES</b>
ROHINI(NORTH)	ASHOK VIHAR(30,20)	SANT NAGAR BURARI(30,20)	RAZAPUR (30,20)
MUNIRKA (SOUTH)	MUNIRKA DDA (30,20)	INDRA PARK (30,20)	MUNIRKA VILLAGE (30,20)
DWARKA (WEST)	SECTOR 9/10 (30,20)	MAHAVIR ENCLAVE(30,20)	PALAM VILLAGE (30,20)
MAYURVIHAR(EA ST)	PHASE1 (30,20)	GANESH NAGAR (30,20)	KONDLI (30,20)

In every category, 30 working women and 20 non-working women have been taken for primary analysis.

**1.7.5 PILOT STUDY**

I conducted the pilot survey prior to field work in the areas I was supposed to do the fieldwork in the year 2015 February. The pilot study also aided in the development of the research instrument. This study, which was built upon the qualitative/quantitative data obtained from a series discussions conducted on the subject of creating sustainable careers for women. The data and information were collected from 25 women professionals for the pilot study.

### **1.7.6 SAMPLING METHOD**

Our sample will consists of women in age group 25-35 who have qualification of graduated and/or post graduated. 25 as lower limit is taken because persons belonging to this age and above is considered to complete their higher education and enter into job market of their choice so usually women of this age and above who wants to enter labour market enters after completion of their education and upper limit is taken 35 because by this age they are totally rooted in their job and whether there is linkage between their level of education and work participation is also well known. For instance, sometimes the job carried out by them is not direct outcome of their education but it relates to the suitability with family's aspirations, wishes, and permission. For instance women holding B.Tech degree teaches in school because of strict rule in corporate jobs, time constraint and they have to look after their families. Secondly, the comparison between old entrant and new entrant will also be known based on the type of job and their training process.

### **1.8 RESEARCH METHODOLOGIES**

To achieve the basic objective of present study following statistical techniques have been used. These are:

1. Cross tabulation for establishing some of the relationship between education level of women and workforce participation with certain qualitative variables like caste, education level of head of household, husband etc.
2. Logistic Regression analysis for evaluating the impact of higher education and other socio-demographic variables on work force participation.
3. Composite Index for measuring the level of empowerment.
4. Apart from these techniques, percentages and ratios will also be used for showing the distribution of population according to their age, caste, and marital status, educational and occupational level and for measuring the levels of education of women.



## **1.9 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK:**

Women education plays a significant role in determining/inclusion of women's participation in the job market. In addition, women's age, marital status, women having total number of children and children in age 0-5, household size and structure, migration of women, economic conditions of household such as number of working hands in family and their earning, household income, land ownership, also determine their educational level and their participation in labor market. For example, women who hails from rich families are having lesser participation in the work market than those who belong to relatively poor families. It appears that the most important reason affecting the work force participation (WFP) decision is permission from the other family members or their assent in participation of her work besides factors like level of their education, number of other workers in the family, household income, household size and the women's age.

Household size and joint family system stimulates the women to be the part of active work force participation. Thus, the women living in large and joint families are more likely to engage in Work participation compared to those living in relatively small and nuclear families as they can share their responsibilities of their child or other household chores with other family members, but at the same time in joint family system women are not encouraged to work as elders consider it to be not prestigious to send their daughter or daughter in-law for work outside home. In nuclear family also both the cases can be seen as they can participate in the labour market or they are not prone to participate in the labor market.

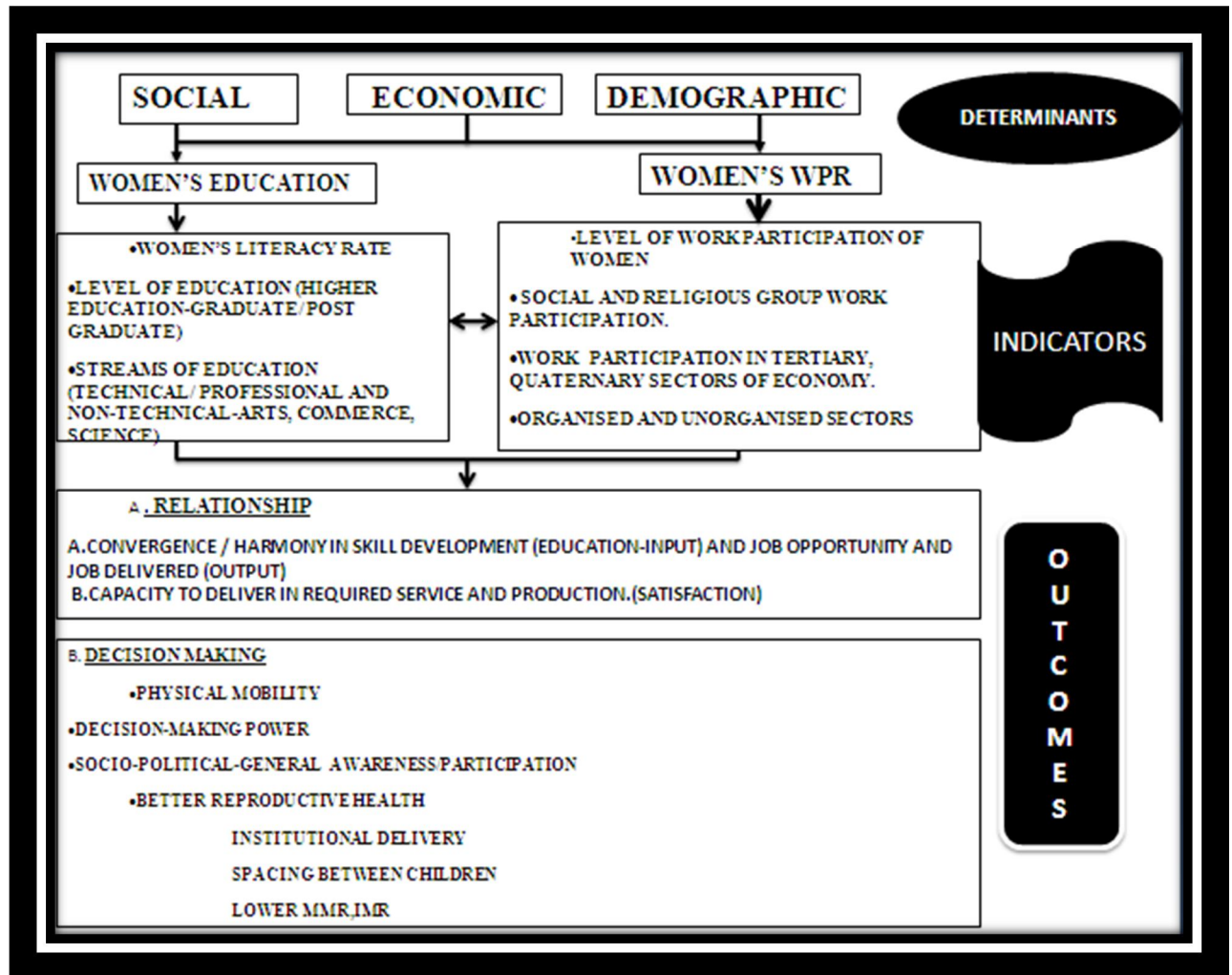
Educated men encourage their wives to participate in the labor market. Education seems to play an important role in the moulding the perception and thus can change the attitude of husbands making them encourage towards Female Work participation.

The education of father has a positive influence on Female Work participation showing that daughters of educated fathers are more likely to get good education and encourages her to participate in the work market. The women from wealthy families are less likely to participate in the work force. Similarly, land ownership and home ownership also affect the Female Work participation decision to a greater extent. Women

in rural areas are less likely to participate in formal sector jobs like teaching and health. This is so because in rural areas there is a wide disconnect between education and formal employment opportunities for women.

FIGURE 1.2

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE THESIS



SOURCE- SELF

## **1.10 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK (CONCEPTUALIZING COLEMAN AND BOURDIEU ON SOCIAL AND HUMAN CAPITAL)**

### **COLEMAN**

Coleman propounded that social capital i.e. education as an important tool for the development of cognition, rationale and thus leading to social development of the child. The three main types of capitals discussed are human capital, physical and social capital.

Human capital is defined as the skills, which he or she acquires over time through knowledge, education, experience etc. thus human capital determines the values of human being in the society.

Physical capital, refers to the inputs which are required for the process of production. Example of physical production is machinery, building, etc. they are known as factor of production. They facilitate production.

Social capital refers to the networks of relationships, which bounds together people living in particular society, making that society to function efficiently.

### **BOURDIEU**

Bourdieu discusses the concept of cultural capital, in which people uses cultural knowledge to cement their place in the hierarchy of services. He talks about social inequality. Here I have tried to link with my study how women are striving hard for social equality. He talks about the fact that elite jobs goes in hand of men and only men thus pointing towards exclusion. Here my study is based on the fact also known as glass ceiling device.

Here social capital is tool of elite deployed to ensure that the wrong kind of people don't enter the circle. (Bourdieu 1986, 1992). His version of social capital explains the various ways in which those at the top of ladders try to hold onto their position through a range of subtle techniques which cumulative form an iron grip.

## **1.11 CHAPTERIZATION SCHEME**

The chapters of the following thesis are as follows

Chapter 1 Introduction

Chapter 2 Literature review

Chapter 3 Status of higher education of women

Chapter 4 Status of work participation of women

Chapter 5 Socio-economic-demographic characteristics of working and non-working women

Chapter 6 Economic characteristics of working and non-working women and their determinants

Chapter 7 Assessment of status of women in Delhi and impact on women participation in job market after Nirbhaya case

Chapter 8 Summary and Conclusions

## **1.12 SUMMARY**

This chapter deals with the introduction to the topic of higher education and work participation among women in Delhi. This chapter brings the details of Significance of study, statement of problem, objectives, Research questions, sampling method, conceptual framework, theoretical framework.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

The present chapter discusses the available literature, theoretical background and various concepts pertaining to women education, work and her empowerment and persisting relations between all these. The studies on the relevant theme have been broadly grouped into different sections, which are as follows.

#### **2.1 STATE OF WOMEN'S EDUCATION**

#### **2.2 LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN**

#### **2.3 EDUCATION AND WORKFORCE**

#### **2.4 APPROACHES TO WORK**

#### **2.5 APPROACHES TO EMPOWERMENT**

#### **2.6 EDUCATION AND WOMEN EMPOWERMENT**

#### **2.1 STATE OF WOMEN'S EDUCATION.**

The education of women in India has been neglected earlier and still the ignorance for the women's education exists in society. Although the overall percentage of literacy among women has increased according to decennial census, there exist disparity between boy's and girl's education and it still remains a major concern before the policy makers, and government.

(Acker & Sandra, 1984) had observed that during the preceding ten to fifteen years there had been marked improvement in access of females to education throughout the world. But gradually the condition deteriorated and now in many educational systems women are underrepresented, deprived of higher education and girls still possess less secondary and primary education than boys. Individual or family decision on girls or women's education is responsible for this situation.

(Desai & Krishnaraj, 2001) explained that by the middle of the nineteenth century the newly emergent middle class start generating interested in the education of girls. Huge numbers of girls were enrolled in the primary level of education but very few went to the secondary level. Poverty, engagement in the household work and early marriage of girls are responsible factors affecting girl's education and hence leading to lower percentage of girls in school.

The problems of women education at the primary, secondary, or higher educational levels, girls are far behind the boys due to discrimination towards girls and preference given to the boys. He stressed on the problems of women's education in rural India and how rural India is more deprived of basic education. (Mali, 1989)

(Guha, 1991) tried explaining the socio-economic determinants affecting female literacy. In India, female literacy is lower than male literacy due to many prevailing socio-economic factors. Boys have much higher chance of getting education than girls as they are more preferred by their parents for imparting education. Occupational structure of the family, per capita income, number of working members, age at marriage, etc. are determinants of women education.

(Suguna,2011) emphasized that government and civil society has started playing major role in education of women and its role in overall development of the country, the growth of women's education in rural area has remained very slow which also emphasize that still large number of women in India are illiterate, weak, backward, and exploited. Education of women is the most powerful tool of change of position in society.

(Victoria,1998) in women's education in India argued that illiterate women shows the tendency of high levels of fertility and mortality with addition to poor nutritional status, their potential of earning is also quite low, and has little or no autonomy within the household. A woman's lack of education also has a negative impact on their health status and well-being of their children. The increase in percentage of uneducated youth turns the demographic dividend into demographic liability.

(Rani, 2010) has emphasized upon the factors, which are responsible for low female literacy rate in India. Prominent factors include Gender based inequality, social discrimination and economic exploitation, occupation of girl child in domestic chores, low enrolment of girls in schools, low retention rate and high dropout rate, deprived of access to information and alienated from decision making processes, absence of female teachers in schools, schools established at distant etc.

(G.Sandhya, 2010) has highlighted upon some of the significant ways in which the literacy campaigns have contributed to the promotion of female literacy and women's empowerment. This can be summarized as follows: heightened social awareness among women, increased social enrolment rate of girls, increased self confidence and personality development, promoted gender equity and women's empowerment, improved the status of women in the family, educational equity- gender gap in literacy levels have gradually reduced, encouraged women to take up entrepreneurship, increased household savings and access to credit, provided awareness about health and hygiene.

(Suguna, 2011) discussed about role of education in women empowerment as it helps them to responds to the challenges and confronting their traditional role and shaping their own niche. The growth of women education in rural areas is very slow which indicates that still large women folks of our country are illiterate, weak exploited and backward. Education brings a reduction in inequalities and functions as a means of improving their status within the family.

## **2.2 LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN**

(Hafeez, 2002) identifies various socio-economic and demographic factors, which influences the decision of married women about participation of her in the labor market. There is significant effect of education level of husband and wife, women's age, household structure, size, household income and asset ownership and urban/rural residence on female labour force participation, among all education of women is the most significant factor determining female's labour force participation.

(Sanhita, 2013) laid emphasis on female labor force participation as an important tool for achieving growth with equity. It not only improves the economic position of women but also improves the overall efficiency and develops potential of the country. Women's participation in the labor force is the signal of declining discrimination and increasing empowerment of women. Low labor participation in turn affects adversely the future human capital formation, female labor productivity, individual health, participation in the decision making and also overall economic growth.

(Chakraborty, 2009) highlighted that the relationship between women's education and labor force participation is neither simple nor direct. In India, women are present in large numbers among the laboring poor those who are employed according to official definition but living below poverty line or are mostly illiterate or have low level of education. Work participation is generally high for non-literates and then it begins to fall and reaches the lowest level at secondary/higher secondary level. It again rises for graduates and above.

(Elborgh, 2013), emphasized upon the fact that women make around half of the world's population but their contribution to measured economic activity, growth and well being is far below its potential, with serious macroeconomic consequences. Labour market have remained deeply divided along gender lines, female labor force participation has remained lower than male participation, women account for mostly unpaid work and when women are employed in paid work, they are over represented in the informal sector and among the poor. Higher female labour force participation can boost growth by mitigating the impact of a shrinking workforce. Implementing policies that remove labour market distortions and create level playing field for all will give the opportunity to develop their potential and to participate in economic life more visibly.

(Sundaram, 2008) compared two villages in south India and put forwarded that village where women's labour force participation was at higher scale, women were more likely to have greater mobility, spousal communication and better control over their household's resources compared with the villages where women's labour force participation was low. One more significant fact was emphasized that if mothers are more apt than fathers to bargain for their daughter's schooling then mother's increasing



bargaining power through economic empowerment might lead to more schooling of their daughters.

(Geeta Gandhi Kingdon, 2000) finds out that women suffer high levels of wage discrimination in the Indian urban labor market but the role of education in this discrimination is minimal. It is documented fact that women acquire less education than men and this is much clearer from the literacy rate as well as the low enrolment rate of women which highlights their current position. With addition to this fact women's labor force participation and earnings are both considerably lower than men's in India. It is not well known that relationship between women's education and labor force participation is linear or whether there are certain threshold levels of education above which women are more likely to be in labor market. Such understanding is important in education and labor market policy making. However it has been emphasized that there is no consistent positive relation between education of females and their probability of labor force participation. Somehow U-shaped relationship has been emerged between education and labor force participation. One more relationship has been emerged that if educated women have higher work aspiration than uneducated women, they may choose lower fertility than uneducated women. Women's income is spent on child goods so that labor market work may have particular benefits for child quality.

### **2.3 EDUCATION AND WORKFORCE**

(Boserup, 1978) concluded that women's status declines with decline in their productivity roles during the transition from rural to urban industrial economy based on labour participation because theirs (i) family obligations as house wives, mother make them less mobile than their male counterparts, ii) occupational choice is more narrowly limited by customs for women, iii) Educational and training for women are less as compared to men counterparts and iv) Even without, these handicaps they face discrimination in recruitment processes. The paradox of women employment-is that while illiteracy drives many out of employment, education does not necessarily lead to their employment.

(Sinha, 1965) proposed a u-shaped pattern of Female participation. In course of economic development a decline occurs in the participation during the earlier stages of

industrialization and later on increase with increase in relative size of services sector and growth of white collar occupation. Through due to advance mechanization, employment takes a male-bias.

The census data shows that tendency to participate in labour force varies with the variations in demographic factors. Ridley proposed a 'U' - shaped curve for female participation in relation to Demographic transition, which runs parallel to economic transition. She argued that in a pre-industrial society, high mortality among children forced the women to be occupied with her reproductive role and thus could not become part of labour force.

Women's work participation was not much affected as economic activities were carried at home, which enabled women to combine her reproductive role with work. Modernization and development led to shifting of work from home to factory. Men folk easily transferred to factory whereas women folk found it difficult to adjust as their reproductive role interfered with their productive role in the market. Improvement in socio-economic conditions accompanying reduction in infant and child mortality reduced the need for more number of children and making it possible for women to join labor force market. Advanced countries went through this stage after World War II while the third World countries are going through the second stage because of the fact that child-care is still not institutionalized and hence child is being taken care by mothers.

## **SOCIO-CULTURAL FACTORS AND ROLE OF WOMEN**

The changing socio-cultural conditions have a greater influence on the participation rates of the women workers in the society. Isolation of the variables affecting women participation rates directly or indirectly is difficult but certain factors of special relevance can be easily pointed out. Some of these are -Family structure, Caste, Religion, Literacy and levels of education.

### **(A) WOMEN WORK AND FAMILY STRUCTURE**

Assuming women's primary responsibility at home and immediate as family sociologists advocated that female participation in non-domestic work depend upon the

compromise between family and economic system. Further women's participation depends not only on existing socio-economic conditions but on the existing social institution particularly the family system. A study by (Madras School of Social Works, 1970) concluded that joint family system is conducive to female working outside as it provides at least some of the women free from the responsibilities of house hold and child-care and hence women can participate in labour market.

Considering adjustment between family responsibilities and economic status, (Callever, 1962) and (Langloi's, 1962) arrive at the following pattern of women work participation;

(i) Pattern of typical highly industrialized countries where good images and desire for higher standard of living is carried out, along with the permitting notion women's place in home, puts an upper limit on female participation in economic activity. Women remain active economically in job market either through postponement of their marriage or by working until married couples start having children;

(ii) A Latin American pattern is characterized by low non domestic participation rate by females;

(iii) A Carribean pattern with high females participation rates, weak and unstable family system with high illegitimacy rates, give rise to the need for many women to be self-sufficient in their country;

(iv) An early marriage and female seclusion pattern typical of Muslim countries of Middle East. The women participation rates are quite low due to various reasons like early marriage, child bearing and rearing etc. exclusive demotion to husband and children and prohibition of public activity. Their patterns are encountered in the diversified regional economy of India along with two exclusive patterns namely (i) scheduled caste Indian pattern (ii) poor class Hindus pattern, women participation in these patterns is quite high due to lack of labor on women's economic activity and stronger economic needs prevailing.

## **(B) RELIGION**

Religion plays an important role in deciding women's rights and obligations in society and especially in India which is place where people from different religions and sects conglomerates. Christian females are expected to have highest participation rates contrary to Muslims, with lowest participation rate. (Madras school of social works, 1970) Former study concludes that Christian place fewer restrictions on women's activity. Consequently higher education and training improves the chance of Christian women's employment at higher degree. Hate argues that Christians don't have a joint family system which necessitates women's work for supporting themselves. Low participation rates of Muslim women are attributed to conservatism, and narrow mindedness in both the above mentioned studies.

(Dube, 1936) on social pattern of Andhra Pradesh lists four main social groups; 1) Purdha system following non-working women 2) Local cultivator females restricted from outside work 3) lower caste women assisting family farming, who work outside in trying times and 4) low caste poorest women workers as regular wage earners. Presence of last two groups, enhance female participation rates in economic terms.

Empirical studies of (Tripathi, 1971), Burdhan, 1979) and other conclude that scheduled caste tribe women participate in economic activities more than the women of other castes. A Study of (Mehta, 1970), (Gore, 1968) and (Ross, 1961) clearly indicates that upper caste females (even older ones) do not get their husband's approval to work outside and hence are restricted to their families. Srinivasan points out that with modernisation and Sanskratisation these non-static patterns may change. Sanskratisation of any caste leads to the immediate withdrawal of women from work as it is not considered prestigious among high class to which they imitate and result in decline of women's participation rates. The culture of a particular region called acculturation also affects work participation of women as (Raju, 1961) explains. Women class does not operate in cultural vacuum and their behavioral norms were very much conditioned by regional framework where they reside.

## **(C) LITERACY LEVELS OF EDUCATION AND WOMEN WORK PARTICIPATION RATES**

Today, after over four decades of economic and social planning, India finds itself on cross roads. On the one hand, it has the third largest score of skilled technical hands at core surrounded by a periphery constituted by illiterates' population and on the other hand it is faced with an increasing cadre of educated unemployed against increasing enrollment at various level of education. Up to a certain extent degree, literacy in India alludes to have patriarchal connotations. However, literacy is considered as an eventual factor influencing the women decision to join the labour force. Normally, with decrease in literacy, female participation is also expected, to increase. Quite paradoxically, in developing countries, an increase in literacy is accompanied by a decline in female participation rates. Because with increased literacy, women' s expectation about jobs increase and they prefer not to work in the industrial sector and household industries as earlier and hence withdrawing from labour market. Simultaneously, they lack required education and training for jobs sought, consequently the total participation rates decline. This view is supported by empirical works of (Nath, 1970) and (Singh, 1978) based on Indian census data for 1961 and 1971 respectively. In most of the developed nations it is observed that with an increase in levels of educations, female participation also increases. But in most of the developing nations a non-linear relation exists.

### **2.4 APPROACHES DETERMINING WOMEN WORK PARTICIPATION**

There are many approaches of various subjects which examine the determinants of female workforce participation in different ways. Important among these are the neo-classical approach, institutional approach, radical approach, biological approach and anthropological approach.

#### **NEO-CLASSICAL APPROACH**

The neo-classical explanation for the increasing number of women preferring paid employment rests heavily on the impact of income and prices on the behavior of women. For example, a cross-section study showed that women's labor force participation and husband's income were inversely related while a time series study

showed the opposite. This contradiction had to be resolved and so attempts were made to study the factors behind the choice made by women between market work, leisure and home work. Finally, the contradiction is supposed to have been resolved by showing that they 'prefer more leisure', that is the substitution effect is greater than the negative income effect (Rene, 1975; Boserup, 1970).

The neo-classicals further opine that even the question why the family exists at all is explained in terms of marginal utility and marginal productivity. According to Becker "women hire men as bread winners because men earn more than women in the market and men hire women to bear/rear the children as women have superior skills for the task." In this way the existing division of labour between sexes is justified as being consistent with the principle of maximization. The neo-classical do not consider the lower earnings of women to be due to social justice but attribute it to small investment in human capital voluntarily made by women which in turn leads to their lower productivity. This happens because

- (a) Women are not in the market during child bearing and rearing.
- (b) They chose jobs, which provide lower opportunity for on-the-job training.
- (c) They avoid jobs, which require rigorous trainings. The difference in unemployment rates between men and women is attributed to the movement of women in and out of the labour force (Kakwani, 1981). Thus the neo-classical explanations seem to see the role of women as that of adjustment to the market forces like supply and demand. They do not pass any value judgment about the position of women.

## **INSTITUTIONAL APPROACH**

In recent years academic activities have been carried out to develop methodologies leading to better understanding of the reality of women's oppression and exploitation. This involves integration of patriarchy into theory and theoretical models. These efforts are focused on adoption of an interdisciplinary approach. This approach, while necessary and crucial, has tended to isolate women's studies as a new social science rather than integrating it into existing disciplines. A new field of

study disassociated it from other areas of study. Consequently, gender segregation has taken place. This trend is disturbing as it has led to general acceptance of women's studies as a separate paper to be offered to only those students who are interested rather than being incorporated into all existing courses to which students are exposed.

People of poor households do not act properly in terms of maximizing their own utility either as consumers or as producers; rather they attempt to maximize the survival of the households as a unit. Neo-classical rationality is more concerned with under developed yet, overpopulated countries where the poor find it rational to have more children to add more hands to the family income than what they consume. This reality is directly opposed to the dominant macro-economic theories of fertility which equate children to 'consumer durables' and more recently to 'house hold produced goods' (Schults, 1981). These economists assume that households like firms, behave 'rationally' and they maximize utility in the context of scarcity. They can choose to either consume commodities or produce children subject to usual constraints of income, prices, tastes and time. Thus, the quantity and quality of children, like other goods, are a function of time and resources allocated to their production and maintenance.

In some neo-classical models children are included as 'public goods' where their welfare and consumption are incorporated in the parents' utility functions. This model, apart from treating children as objects, intensifies women's earnings for children as commitment or a responsibility or even a constraint. "Rotten Kid Theorem" assumes male as the head of the household. According to this theorem head of a family reaps rich dividends. If 'he' provides generously for everyone, even the most selfish beneficiary 'rotten kid' in the family will be motivated to maximize family income and consumption and thereby would internalize all effects of 'his' actions on other beneficiaries. Ultimately, there will be no free riders in the family. Another issue central to mainstream economic theory is the unit of analysis taken. Firm is generally taken in the context of working of the market. This does not hold true for a capitalist semi feudal country with large segments of both economic activity and people in the non market sector. However, even where the household has been taken as unit of

analysis the underlying assumption is that it is homogeneous unit. In fact, it is precisely at this level that system of production and reproduction interact tightly particularly in agrarian societies where small-scale household production dominates. The exclusion of the concept of family from economic theory has important implications for price theory, utility maximization, consumption theory, etc. Since many of the commodities produced at home are substituted for purchased goods what is maximized therefore is a common Utility function in which the household and not the individual is the unit of inquiry. This utility function is generally equated with the household head's utility function.

Further, allocation of work and power relations within the family work outside the price mechanism. Family members do not share commodities and work through market transactions within the household. An alternative model has also been suggested. The unit of analysis being the household, it is family which operates on the basis of 'co-operative conflicts (Sen, 1983). The bargaining problem is one of finding a particular co-operative solution yielding a particular distribution of benefits sensitive to various parameters, including the respective powers of the members of the family. Whether one sees the family as an unit of co-operative 'conflict' or of 'non-antagonistic' contradiction there is no denying of the importance of carrying out analysis at both inter-household and intra-household levels particularly in underdeveloped subsistence economies where a significant proportion of goods and services are produced in the informal household sector where women are the main workers. This logically brings us to one of the most glaring lacunae in economic theory. Work in economics is generally equated with market work or paid, i.e. labour power which has an exchange value without getting into the entire debate on the definition of 'work'. Neo-classical concept of 'market work', 'market time' are not fully applicable either in subsistence economies or in relation to gender based division and majority of women work in the non marked sector. They are classified as non-workers, non producers and hence invisible which leads to underestimation of labour forces as well as the underestimation of their economic contribution. It is necessary to point out the relationship between change in the definition of work in an agrarian society and women's activity rates (Anker, Khan and Gupta, 1988). The activity rate for women



was 13 percent when workers were defined as 'paid labour force' (i.e. persons engaged in wage/salary employment); when the definition used was 'market oriented labour force' (i.e. persons in paid labour force plus those engaged in family farm or enterprise that sells some or all of its goods and services) the rate increased to 32 percent. The ILO labour force definition includes persons engaged in national income statistics. According to UN recommendation (i.e. production of primary goods plus processing of primary goods by producers of these goods plus production of other goods partly sold and partly consumed) the activity rate for women became 38 percent. The fourth definition includes all the above categories of work plus those persons who perform an activity than contribute to meeting the family's basic needs for goods and services that are generally purchased in industrialized countries. The activity rate here was 9 percent. Now it is evident that the definition of work and other conceptual and methodological biases in data systems must be modified. Further, it is necessary to analyze to what extent house-work functions as a wage subsidy for the market sector. The relationship between patriarchy and development thus assumes significance particularly in relation to the power relationship between men and women within the family. The family is a unit in which production and redistribution of income occur on the basis of material aspects of gender relation and division of labor resulting in conflict and change. The central instrument for maintenance of patriarchy is occupational segregation which reinforces the traditional division of labor. This leads to lower wages for women which maintain their economic dependence on men. Simultaneously, the domestic division of labor reinforces occupational segregation by weakening women's status in the labor market (Sinha, 1980). In under-developed economies the primary production unit is the household where non commodity characteristics are retained along with commodity production. It is necessary to incorporate both in theory and analysis the material basis of house work which is an economic function integral to the systems (Krishnaji, 1980). Non-market activities have remained out of the scope of non classical economics. This has been since the rise to dominance of supply and demand theories. This resorts to methods, which restrict the incorporation of the wide variety of conditions under which changes in methods of production, output consumption and distribution take place. They hardly provide a basis

for building up an interrelated analysis of a real economy (Bharadwaj, 1988) Gender as other aspects of social relation finds little place in neoclassical economics. In recent times, some economists have begun incorporating women activities in the market and family maintenance work. Primarily economists in backward agrarian economies have dealt with non-market activities. Higher entry of women in the market is associated with growing availability of women's work. This is to show that women have no preference. Market decides what jobs they would do. However, the dichotomy between home and market work of women should not be carried too far since home is conditioned by the market. While the neo-classical maintains that in spite of the segmentation of labor market women get a wage equal to their marginal product, the institutionalisms attribute the lower wage of women to labor market segmentation and sex typing of jobs. Division of labor by sex has always been there. At certain stages of economic development, the rewards of specialization are equitably distributed between the sexes. It has been found that even in the advanced stage of capitalism, the differences between men and women cannot be explained merely by the differences in their productivity due to age, schooling or experience. Institutional economics maintain that sex inequality takes the form of job discrimination and not wage discrimination, i.e. sex discrimination manifests in not unequal pay for equal work but rather an unequal job assignment. They also point out that sex typing of jobs is also the cause of higher unemployment of women. The main point that emerges from the institutional standpoint is that the role of women is confined to certain sectors of the economy. It is the market, which imposes such a role so that they can be paid lower wages.

### **RADICAL APPROACH**

This approach can be traced back to Engle's' historical explanation of the dialectical relationship between the development of the means of production, food, theories of property, the state of evolution of monogamy and the subjection of women. This school emphasized the development of means of production through the periods of savagery, barbarism and civilization. At first private property was unknown. In the pastoral stage, when surplus of wealth in terms of cattle, milk and meat was available, the need for private property emerged. It is at this stage that there was a shift from the

mother's right to the father's right namely to patriarchal society. Thus as wealth increased, it gave the man a more important status in the family than woman. The overthrow of the mother's right was the world's historic defeat of the female sex. Man seized the reins in the house also, while women were degraded as mere instruments for breeding children. Hence, the radical approach views women's labour force participation in a historical perspective. Although they also say that women's labour force participation outside the household was very much related to the family's budget requirements, yet they place greater emphasis on change in nature of the family. For example, during the last century, working daughters contributed to family's income. However, gradually overtime, single working girls started keeping their wages for themselves, thus new individual ones replaced the old familiar values. Due to gradual transformation of family, especially after the second world war, the number of married women offering themselves for paid jobs went up. This brings us to the radical approach which focuses on material and political benefits which capitalists derive from family. They consider that family survived because it served the interests of the capitalists and show that sex inequality in the market is based on sex inequality at home. For the radicals the overthrow of capitalism is a pre-condition for liberation of women. More important, nevertheless, is the overthrow of patriarchal family structure. The economic independence and the so-called liberation of women in the advanced industrialized countries is seen by the radicals as an illusion. Although for many women the transformation of the family into industry centered patriarchal capitalism appears to be a liberation, yet it is not so because capitalist exploitation cannot be called liberation. Under patriarchal capitalism women's oppression does not end, it only takes another form. This is evident in the advanced countries. In United States it is believed that there are more than 3 million such family units headed by a divorced or separated mother looking after the children. The labour market segmentation during the transition from competition to monopoly capitalism arises in response to the needs of capitalists to divide and rule over working class. Even trade unions sometimes pressurize women to stay at home in order to restrict the supply of labour or occupationally segregate them. Hence, class struggle and trade unions sometimes go against the interests of women.

## **BIOLOGICAL APPROACH**

Proponents of biological view state that there are some fundamental biological differences which not only distinguish women from men but are also responsible for their secondary status and role in the society. In primitive times many vital and life sustaining functions such as food gathering, hunting, preservation of meat and other foodstuffs, cleaning and sewing, child bearing and child rearing necessitated division of labor. The way out was allocation of duties and functions keeping in view biological, structural and other physical differences between males and females. This approach followed the basic logic that women, because of their child bearing function and lesser mobility, stayed closer to home and assumed domestic roles. Males, because of their greater muscular strength assumed the arduous roles such as hunting and farming and seized power in the society over which they have maintained their control till the present time. Society continues to believe that men should have roles outside their homes where they interact with other people while women should work inside (the home), closer to kitchen because of their child bearing and rearing functions. The male's role has come to be regarded with value and more power because the only way to achieve political power and authority is the assumption of public roles and interaction with other people. This also explains why the isolated house bound female role has been underestimated. Thus, according to this view, the division of labor in simple societies is based upon biological differences. Due to the child bearing and child rearing functions, women are forced to be sedentary. During pregnancy, a woman is dependent on man for fulfillment of her requirements, since during this interval she cannot move freely whereas man is always free; he does not have such interruptions. In other words, the division of labor in primitive societies was based upon biological factors. Freed from biological imperative the young males could roam out for hunting. Women foraged too, but constrained by the necessities of carrying and nursing babies, stayed closer to home. During this stage, the division of labor into public and private domain became universal. The males, due to their contacts with other bands, became knowledgeable about a larger geographical area, the female due to child bearing role stayed home having less contacts with the outside world.

## **2.5 APPROACHES TO EMPOWERMENT**

The present study would try to evaluate impact of education and workforce participation on empowerment of women. Such study essentially requires quantitative measurement of levels of education and levels of empowerment of individuals. It has been found that measuring levels of education is not very difficult and various methods are suggested by different scholars. However the concept of empowerment is quite complex and also new and defining it is difficult task. Not much work has been done in this direction. Measurement of level of empowerment, therefore, poses various problems and hence requires more research. Before measuring any phenomenon in existence it is necessary to define it and conceptualize it in operational form. So that its measurement becomes possible.

The word 'empowerment' is about power, authority. It is widely used in life but seldom defined. In participating in politics whether through electoral politics, public life or nongovernmental organizations and movements women are empowering themselves. It may be further said that women are gaining or taking control over their lives, participating in decision making within the house hold, and society.

According to (Karl, 1995) empowerment is defined as a process in which awareness is built about women's situation, their discrimination, and their rights, which exists. It is capacity building and skill development which leads overall development and hence to greater participation. It is the decision making power and control and bringing about equality between men and women.

In the opinion of (Batliwala, 1991) the word empowerment itself consist of word 'power' which is control over resources whether it is economic or human or intellectual. The control over resources ultimately helps women in decision making power. It is a process of gaining control. "Empowerment can be defined by gaining control over resources and freedom of choice". Empowerment is the changing of situation of marginalized women, especially poor women in patriarchal society. Women should improve their ability to control resources and make decisions. It is women's access to new kind of knowledge and information whether it is general, social or political which is

making them more empowered. It is their consciousness about themselves and their rights which is now improving the status of women.

According to (Karl, 1995) Empowerment is not an end product, it is a process which comes through women development. There are five levels of equality for empowerment. Welfare of basic needs and services is the first level. The second level involves equality of access to resources, such as educational opportunities. The third level is conscientious behaviour where women take the action to close the gender gaps. Participation in decision making is the fourth level where women also takes part in decision making along with men and control is the ultimate level of equality and empowerment. They are able to take decisions on their lives and lives of their children.

In the opinion of (Kanhere, 1989) recent women studies are emphasizing about the notion of granting women with power which enables them the equality and opportunity with par to men by trying to remove their disadvantages and shortcomings through their lacuna such as illiteracy, which deprive them from autonomy, Women's autonomy is synonymous to women's empowerment. It is the power of making decisions over their own lives and activities which empowers women.

(Karl, 1995) reviewed and emphasized that a study entitled Empowerment of women in South Asia identifies and analyze empowerment through economic interventions by increasing women's economic status through work force participation which would be the result of education which is imparted to them i.e. their literacy level, provision of basic needs, services and finally their decision and say about fertility control in their household.

According to (Batliwala, 1997) empowerment increases as well as enhances women's power both in both the spheres of private and public affairs of their life. It is a transformation and transition from traditional relation among gender to more equality among gender where both men and women work together at work places enjoying all the benefits without any discrimination. The changes are observed in food distribution, health care, access to education, credit, employment, public policies and programmes, women's legal rights and their participation in making decision both in private and public affairs.

Carr, Chen, (Jhabvala, 1996) have observed that in a study on empowerment of women in rural Bangladesh, by (Schuler and Hashemi, 1993) whose focus was on women's empowerment. They concluded from their study that there are six specific components which determine female empowerment in Bangladesh; sense of self and vision of a future; mobility and visibility; economic security; status and decision making power within the household; ability to interact effectively in the public sphere; and participation in non-family groups. Empowerment cannot be defined. It's a very wider and vague concept. Here we are attempting to measure it in a limited and restrictive manner. Empowerment of women can be observed through their physical mobility, socio-political and general awareness, decision making power regarding their lives and the lives of their children, and also importantly through their working status. Empowerment also emphasizes about participation. So empowerment can be assessed through women's participation in public life, their workforce participation and their participation in political affairs. Empowerment is the process of acquiring and gaining power within their household and in society and community as a whole. Those who possess power are in a position to make decision which empower them and save them from being discriminated with par to other being in the society. Empowerment leads to control over their own lives. Acquiring higher education and Participation in economic activities by women outside the house is essentially leads towards empowerment of women, the other criteria's which impact women empowerment are postponing marriage age, practicing family planning methods for smaller family size where women decision plays an important role, her physical mobility outside her household, which would be directed by herself and not influenced by her other family members. Political participation by women also plays a very vital role in granting women empowerment. It is a movement by women which empower them through direct or indirect involvement in electoral system by making policies and programmes for women welfare. It is a movement by raising voice against social injustice in which if women's participate it makes a vital influence.

(Karl, 1995) stated that in the past it was qualitative aspects of participation, irrespective of the quality of their participation or their involvement in decision-making process. But today there is enormous change, and more of qualitative aspect of women's participation is taken into consideration, their decision-making power is getting more

important in society as a whole and households as a part. Though there exists a vital relationship between quantitative and qualitative aspect, because sometimes more participation of people may make difference despite of their qualitative participation. The participation means women should have regular and continuous access to decision-making and power or autonomy. Participation can take place in many ways - economic, social or political. The **UNDP** Human Development Report identifies four types of participation; household participation, economic participation, social and cultural participation, political participation. Women's household participation comprise of their responsibilities and caring for families, control over household management, decision-making on important household issues like birth control. Economic participation considers their income-earning activities i.e. work force participation outside house, women participate in the social life through community, association, religious groups and a wide range of groups and organizations which try to explain and describe their social and cultural participation. Women's political participation includes voting, holding public office and collective action in associations and organizations. Access to political opportunities and participation in political decision making are important components of capability and autonomy of women. These are incorporated in the Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) in Human Development Report. In India there are two landmark amendments to our constitution, namely, the 73rd and 74th amendments of 1992 which provide for local self government through the elected institutions of Panchayat and Municipal bodies, respectively. These constitute a step forward towards integration of women in the public space. There is also provision of reservation of women's in these institutions which further enhance their autonomy. With better political awareness and mobilization among women which is growing daily, and enhancement of equality in power sharing is helping them to protect their rights. They are now more awakened and know what is their right and duty which is helping them to make better policies concerning women. Political participation is not only restricted to contesting elections or casting vote but also to participate and mobilize in a movement or to raise the voice against the violence and crime against women.



In the opinion of (Batliwala, 1997) "By ensuring women's direct access to formal political power and to resources for development, women's social position will be automatically transformed and enhanced. By gaining status in society and decision making power in the community, their position within the household will also change for the better position".

(Joseph, 1992) said "Women should be empowered as economically viable and politically independent. Equal rights and equal participation can transform their condition". Change comes in women's self image from subordination and subjugation to self confidence and equality. Women's knowledge and awareness of their own situation, their health and reproductive rights, and social, economic and political awareness increase dramatically. Positive change comes into the women. They leave their age old traditions and superstitions and enable to fight against the social evils like early marriage dowry, wife beating etc.

According to (Carr, Chen, Jhavbala, 1997) "Promoting women's empowerment in their economic lives is the best base for achieving overall empowerment". Women can be employed, holding the purse in the family, controlling the purchasing power. The conditions for women empowerment especially education, better health and nutrition and more economic and political participation can become favourable when their duration of work and quantity of work are reduced. Household is the main domain where women participate most. Within the household they care of the children and look after their husband and other family members.

In the opinion of (Devi, 1982) "Decision making is very important measurement of empowerment which is an activity process involves three stages: awareness of the situation, evaluation of the alternatives and taking the final decision". Empowerment of woman comes through her power of making decisions regarding her own health and family size, education of Children. Modern family planning makes it easier for women to limit their fertility which helps in improving their health status and of their children. But sometimes it is found due to the inferior status of women, they cannot practice family planning method and rather depend on the permission of their husbands and in-laws and cannot control of the family size. One of the important indicators of women empowerment is degree of freedom they enjoy. The freedom is in terms of making

decisions regarding household matters or their freedom in working outside or acquiring education further more. The degree of freedom, women enjoy through her physical mobility outside home. It empowers a woman when she is capable of going outside and meets her friends or relatives. But wives and daughters- in- law need to take permission from their husbands or in-laws before going out which can restrict their mobility, social interaction with neighbors, friends, relatives or attending social and cultural functions. In social life women are members of family and in community. In political field women can be voters, contestants or active participants in electoral process. An empowerment approach to development can mean their participation in the policy making and planning processes. The participation is also through collective action in associations and organizations. The process of women empowerment will continue to go forward by increased number of women participating in their communities, in politics, public life and decision making in private as well as public domain.

## **2.6 EDUCATION AND WOMEN EMPOWERMENT**

A report by the (Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA), 1975) measured the status of women, the importance of family planning for women and its impact on their roles in society. Here the women's right to education is also discussed. Postponement of motherhood can be enabling women to exercise their right to an equal education with men.

According to (Siddiqui, 1987) the attitude of women towards family planning is influenced by education. Women, at least with some level of education favour the family planning practice. Education enhances her power to make family planning decisions. They like to have small family size. The positive association between education and the adoption of family planning as a greater realization of the need to adopt a reasonable attitude towards family size. Closely associated with the adoption of family planning measure is the acceptance of a small family norm as an ideal. Education enhances women's health awareness, awareness about the location of health centers or hospitals and family planning services.

(Devi, 1982) explained that women's employment contribute her to a better status in family and in society. Employment of all types contributed in several ways to women's

power in society. (Sivakumar's, 1982) study is held on education, social inequality and social change in Karnataka. According to him education is an important instrument of social transformation. Education could contribute to economic betterment, which improves the social status of the people. The literature reveals that increase in the spread of education - especially middle school and beyond; among the women of the various castes is indication of later marriage or free movement of girls. There is a trend found among women going into certain 'respectable' white collar jobs. Those jobs were vested with considerable degree of authority and power, conferred prestige on her.

(Chiplunkar, 1987) stated the fertility rate can be decreased while the education of women will be increased. Education will be used as an agent of basic change in the status of women and envisages the interventionist role on the part of the National Educational System in the empowerment of women.

(Kanhere, 1987) found that with Sanskritization, involvement of women particularly young women in decision-making decrease. The chief housewife, wife or the mother of the head of the family are intimately associated in family decisions. Young newly married wife or daughter-in-law in a joint family are not involved directly in important family decisions. Earning activity, education, age of women are important elements for participating in decision-making.

(Jena, 1993) stated that generally education and employment of women go a long way in achieving of equality in social and economic fields and improve their status. Education, occupation and income are certain structural factors in the status of women which have brought about a change in their cognitive structure. Job opportunities, economic hardship and social situation have encouraged women to take up employment outside family. Apart from economic necessities there are other reasons related to women's employment are desire for economic independence, utilization of her individual talent, supplementing the family income, utilizing time and energy and equality in status. The higher education of women increases their entry into occupational world also it increases their political awareness.

(Sarma, 1991) explained the education, employment and status of women in India. The status of women in a society is measured in terms of educational level, income, employment as well as roles played by them in family and society. Education

affects employment opportunities and the decision making role of women is influenced by education and employment. Overall women status improves by education. Education and knowledge gives women the power to reason and help to fight against social injustice. Educated women have highly favorable attitude towards politics and considers education as an essential for economic status.

In an article by UNESCO it is revealed that education has a positive effect on women's domestic lives as well as lives outside home. Families, especially the children, benefit from having a mother with formal schooling as they understand them well. The survival, health and school performance of children have been shown to be directly linked with mother's educational attainment. According to the report there are five areas of benefit: the economy, size of family, family welfare, the education of children and women's autonomy. So education being central theme should be given much of priority. Education empowers women to exercise their rights and responsibilities as citizens of their society, and enables them to make more informed choices.

(Batliwala, 1993) tried to measure the term empowerment as power over resources and decision-making. She tried to explain what the empowerment of women implies in social, economic and political terms. Education is central to process of women's empowerment. Education as a dynamic process of learning helps women to gain meaningful information, knowledge and skills. Which further leads to growth of women's strength, which she begins to assert, their rights to control resources and participate equally in decision making within the family, community or village or society from micro to macro level.

(Bambawale, 1994) has emphasized that literacy level of Indian women is low which affects her status and position in family and society. Urbanization, education and employment of women bring changes in attitudes and belief of women in terms of equality, independence and individuality. For an independent assessment of any situation, if it is marriage, family matters etc. a woman should be capable of making her own decision which is only possible through education when her opinion is taken into consideration.

(Pagnis and Verghese, 1994) observed that National system of education would play a positive interventionist role in the empowerment of women. There has been

enormous growth in enrolment in higher education but women's participation in the economy did not keep pace with it. Today a sizeable proportion of women is opting full-time work and for an identity of their own in both government and private sector. In this context parental education especially education level of father is important in overall approach, their attitudes and socialization. As father's education leads to educating their daughter compared to the fathers who are not educated.

In the state of World Population (UNFPA, 1995) the concept of empowerment has been discussed as the power to make decision within the family. Empowerment begins with winning equality, autonomy and respect for women within the household. According to (Karl, 1995) women's participation in public life is very important which comes from her empowerment. This leads to their increasingly active participation in their communities and playing a leading role in movement and organizations. Gradually leading to equal participation at all level of decision-making. Thus leading to changes in unequal balance of decision-making power and control in man- woman relationship within the household and in community, which leads to women empowerment.

According to (Chaudhary, 1995) women's education is very vital and necessary in a challenging and changing society. A section of women have obtained different types of education but another section is in full darkness as they are uneducated. Through different policies and programmes and through institutional efforts women's education have been spread over years and has been enhanced. It is one of the most important inputs for women's overall development. It has lead to vital effect on family size of the individual and extent of contraceptive use, which can be very much attributed to their education. As the level of education increases among women the degree of their participation in economic processes also increases. Women's awareness and political participation also enhances. If women have to be empowered it is necessary that education should be popularized among them and their level of education should be increased.

(Athreya and Chunkath, 1996) in their study on literacy and empowerment stated the mass literacy programme in India and Tamil Nadu in particular has lead to findings of relationship between literacy and empowerment. A total literacy campaign has been undertaken in Pudukkottai from June 1991 to August 1992. The Pudukkottai campaign

experience has been described as the way of empowerment of women who has been critically reviewed through organizing women's committees, training them in leadership roles and enhancing their mobility, which can be described as outcome of empowerment when they are educated.

**TABLE 2.1**  
**JSI Domains of Empowerment**

<b>Domain</b>	<b>Expressions</b>
<i>Sense of Self &amp; vision of a future</i>	Assertiveness, plans for the future, future-oriented actions, relative freedom from threat of physical violence, awareness of own problems and options, actions indicating sense of security
<i>Mobility &amp; visibility</i>	Activities outside of the home, relative freedom from harassment in public spaces, interaction with men
<i>Economic Security</i>	Property ownership, new skills and knowledge and increased income, engaged in new/non-traditional types of work
<i>Status &amp; decision-making power within the household</i>	Self-confidence, controlling spending money, enhanced status in the family, has/controls/spends money, participation in/makes decisions on allocation of resources, not dominated by others
<i>Ability to interact effectively in the public sphere</i>	Awareness of legal status and services available, ability to get access to social services, political awareness, participation in credit program, provider of service in community.
<i>Participation on nonfamily Groups</i>	Identified as a person outside of the family, forum for creating sense of solidarity with other women, self-expression and articulation of problems, participating in a group with autonomous structure.

Source: *John Snow International*

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **HIGHER EDUCATION STATUS OF WOMEN**

#### **3.1 BACKGROUND/ INTRODUCTION OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN INDIA**

In India, the Higher Education institutions were there since 5<sup>th</sup> century BC. Taxila, Nalanda were the earliest recorded institutions of higher education in India. Nalanda University appears to be the oldest University system institution in the World. Higher education constitutes education beyond the level of secondary education that is above intermediate or class 12th. India comprises huge system of higher education, which ranks third in the world, just next to United States of America and China. UGC University grant commission is the regulatory body that governs at tertiary level i.e. higher education and it helps in executing standards, norms of higher education, and helps in coordination of center and state.

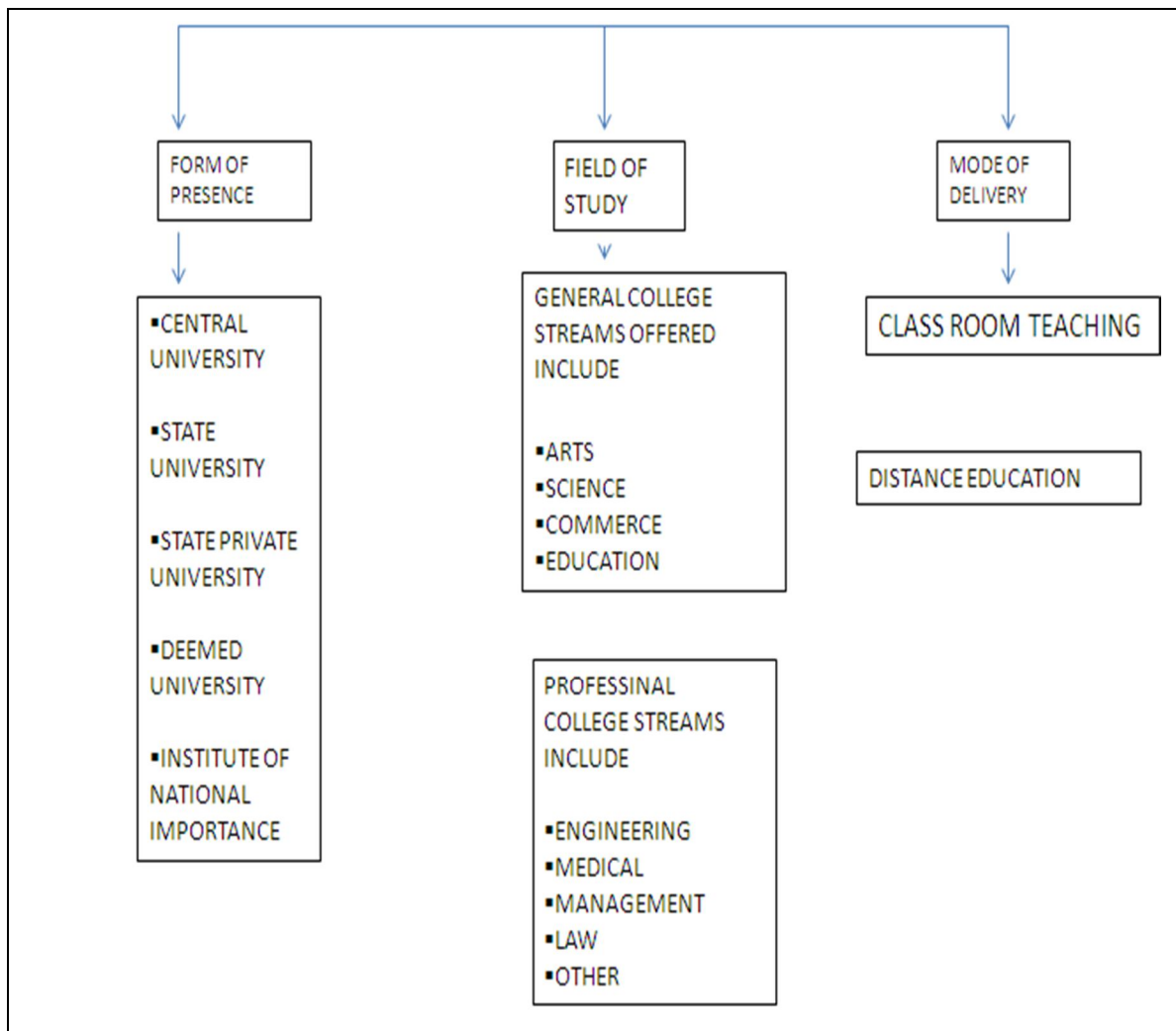
Our nation consists of a higher education system, which renders educational facility and training in various intellectual accomplishments like humanities, arts, sciences, engineering, natural and social sciences, education, agriculture, communication, culture etc. The framework of institutions constitute several universities established by the act of Parliament, which is known as central universities; established by state legislature is called state universities. Universities, which have been inclined the status of university with power or authority to award their own degrees to the students via central government) are called deemed universities. Then there exist institutions of national importance, these institutions are awarded that prestigious status from the Parliament. E.g. IITs, IIITs, IIMs, NITs, NITTRs, Universities, Board of technical education, Statutory Councils of India, Research Councils of India.

There also exist colleges or institutions, which are established by the state legislature act and the colleges, have been affiliated to the state University, these colleges are both government-aided and unaided in nature.

As on 2<sup>nd</sup> December 2016, India has 51 central universities followed by 358 state universities, 123 deemed universities, 252 private universities, 5 institutions which were established under the State Act, and 92 Institutes which hold the status of national importance. Other institutions in the list include 33,000 colleges referred as government /private degree colleges. This also includes 1800 colleges exclusively for women functioning under the guidelines of UGC. Fig 3.1 shows the system of higher education in India. Its form, field of study and mode of delivery.

**FIG. 3.1**

**INDIAN HIGHER EDUCATION SYSTEM**



Source UGC MHRD report, 2012



**TABLE 3.1**

**GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN DELHI, INDIA**

**(2012-13)**

	Delhi	India
GER Male	37.9	22.3
GER Female	39.2	19.8
GER Total	38.5	21.1

All India Survey of Higher Education AISHE 2012-13

GER of women is higher than men in Delhi for higher education, being 39.2 for women and 37.9. Whereas for India it is 22.3 for men and 19.8 for women, which indicates more women are acquiring higher education.

**3.2 GROWTH AND NUMBER OF COLLEGES**

**3.2.1 GROWTH OF DIFFERENT TYPES OF INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION OVER THE YEARS.**

**TABLE 3.2**

**UNIVERSITY LEVEL INSTITUTIONS IN INDIA**

TYPE	2002	2006	2007	2009	2010	2011	2016
Central Universities	18	20	25	40	41	43	45
State Universities	178	217	231	234	257	285	353
Institutions deemed to be universities	52	102	102	128	130	129	123
Institutions of national importance (by state	5	5	5	5	5	5	5

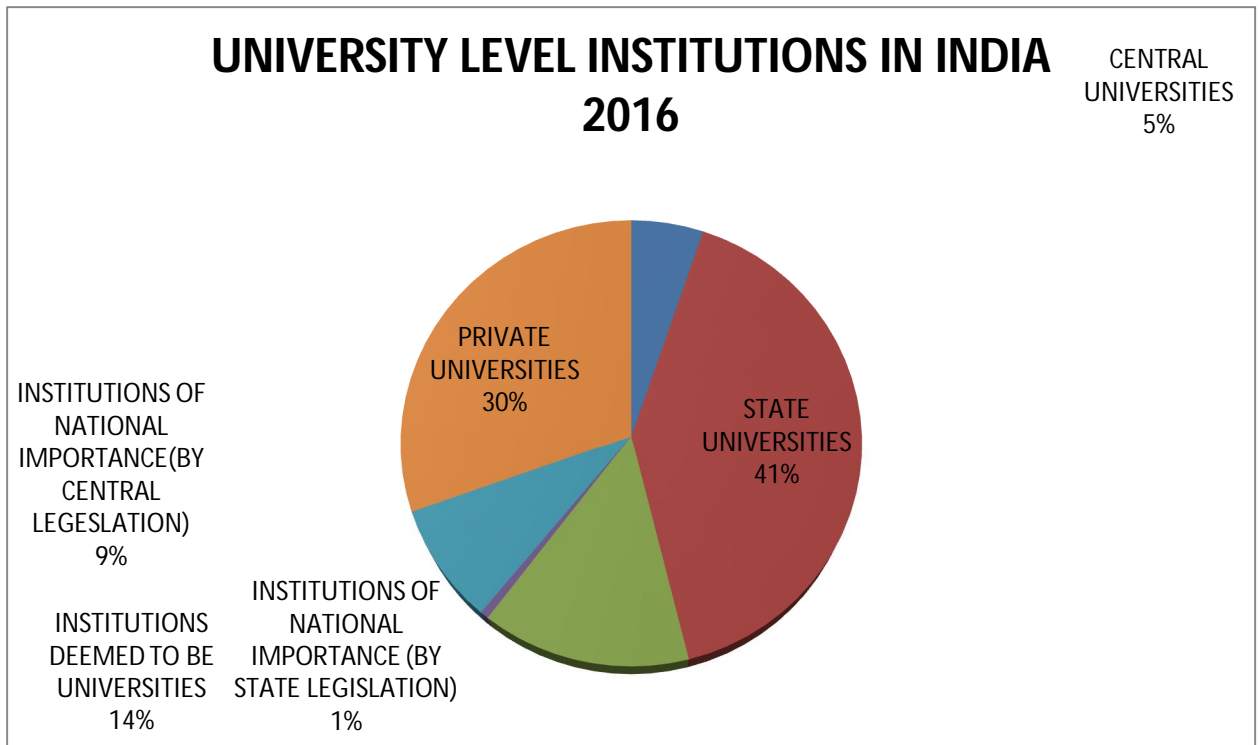
legislation)							
Institutions of national importance(legislative action of centre)	12	13	33	39	39	39	74
Private universities	-	10	21	21	61	110	263
TOTAL	265	367	367	467	533	567	863

Source- data.gov.in (Accessed date: 15.5.15)

Table 3.2 shows that there has been tremendous growth of various types of institutions over the years. However, the focus here is on state universities and private universities, which is growing at very rapid rate compared to others. Education being in the concurrent list both union as well as state can make laws regarding education. Therefore, there has been tremendous increase in state universities and many private universities are cropping up in India. It's good that more and more institutions are growing up but private vs. public it could be seen that private universities are very costly fees wise and it cannot be afforded by common man. Elite class can only access it. Too little has been explored on boom in private sector where most of the expansion is taking place and about the student loan, which students are availing those who are enrolled in professional degrees. (Bhusan, 2010)

**FIG. 3.2**

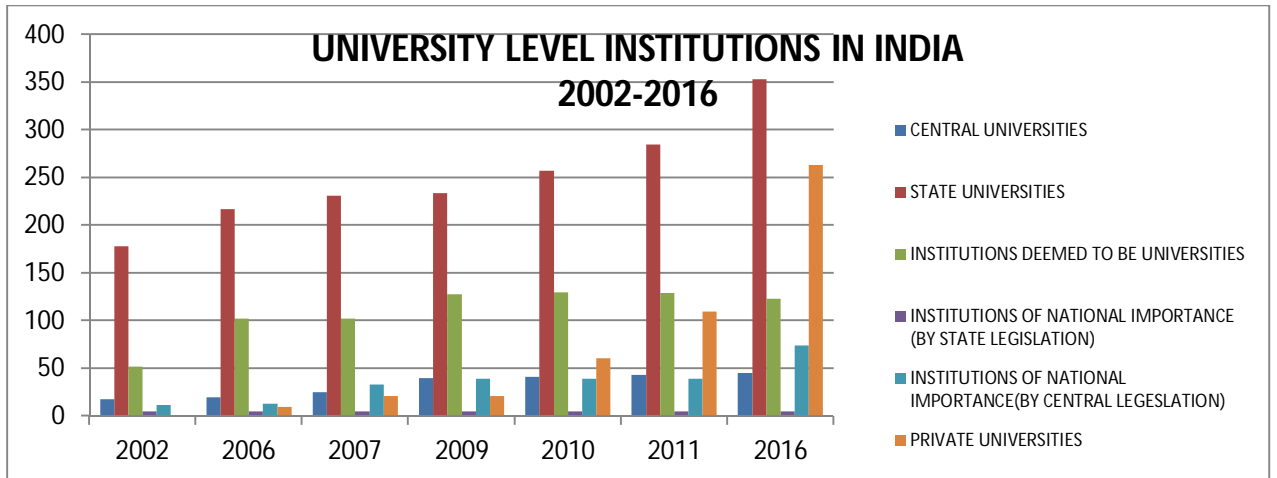
**UNIVERSITY LEVEL INSTITUTIONS IN INDIA (2016)**



Source- data.gov.in (Accessed date: 15.5.15)

**FIGURE 3.3**

**UNIVERSITY LEVEL INSTITUTIONS IN INDIA (2002-16)**

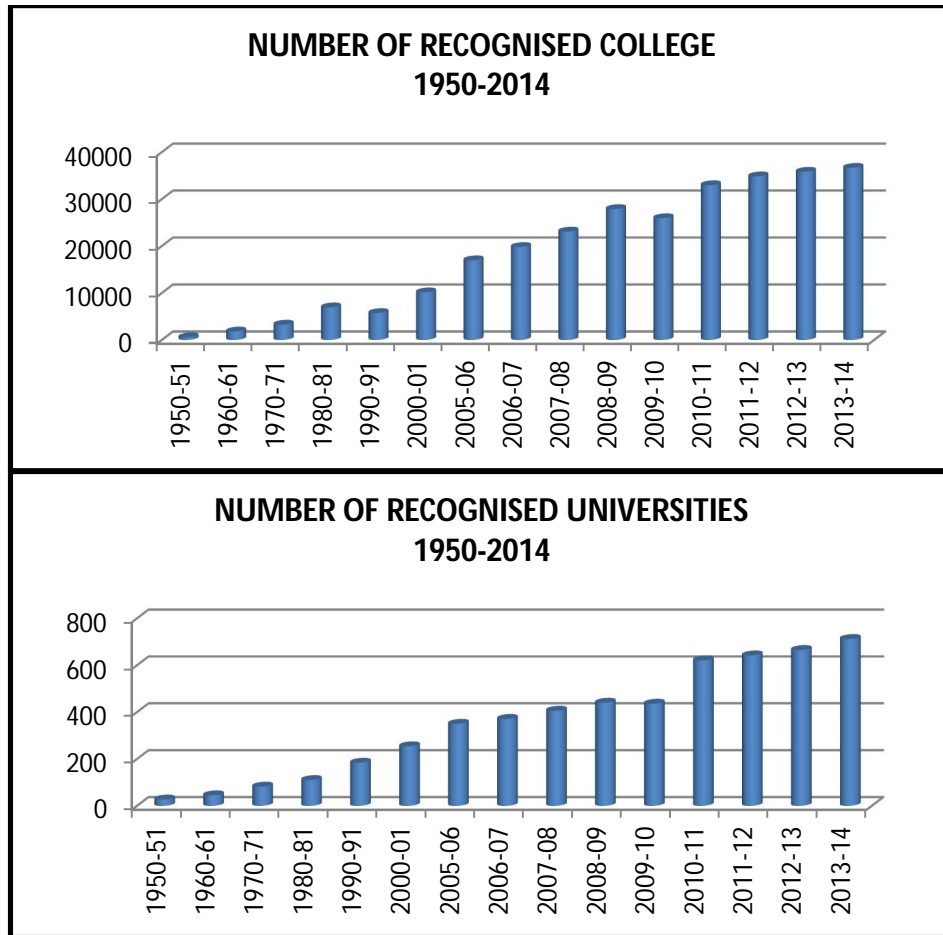


Source- data.gov.in (Accessed date: 15.5.15)

Table 3.2 shows Higher education as a sector has seen enormous increase in colleges and universities since independence. Private universities boomed in recent years especially after 2011. It is next to state universities in 2016, after which comes deemed universities, in the next sequence comes institutions of national importance and lastly the central universities. The trend was different earlier, When we put glance to university level institutions in India, we see that state universities are more in number followed by institutions deemed to be universities. Private universities have been constantly increasing over the years. While institutions of national importance (by state legislation) have not shown any increase over the time and has been same throughout the year, that is lowest compare to other type of institutions. It is illustrated by fig 3.2

**FIG. 3.4**

**GROWTH OF NUMBER OF RECOGNISED EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS**



Source- data.gov.in (Accessed date: 15.5.15)

The above bar graph shows growth of number of recognized colleges and universities have increased over the years with government initiatives and demand of higher education. However, Indian higher education system suffers vigorously through some challenges like

1. Access
2. Equity
3. Equality

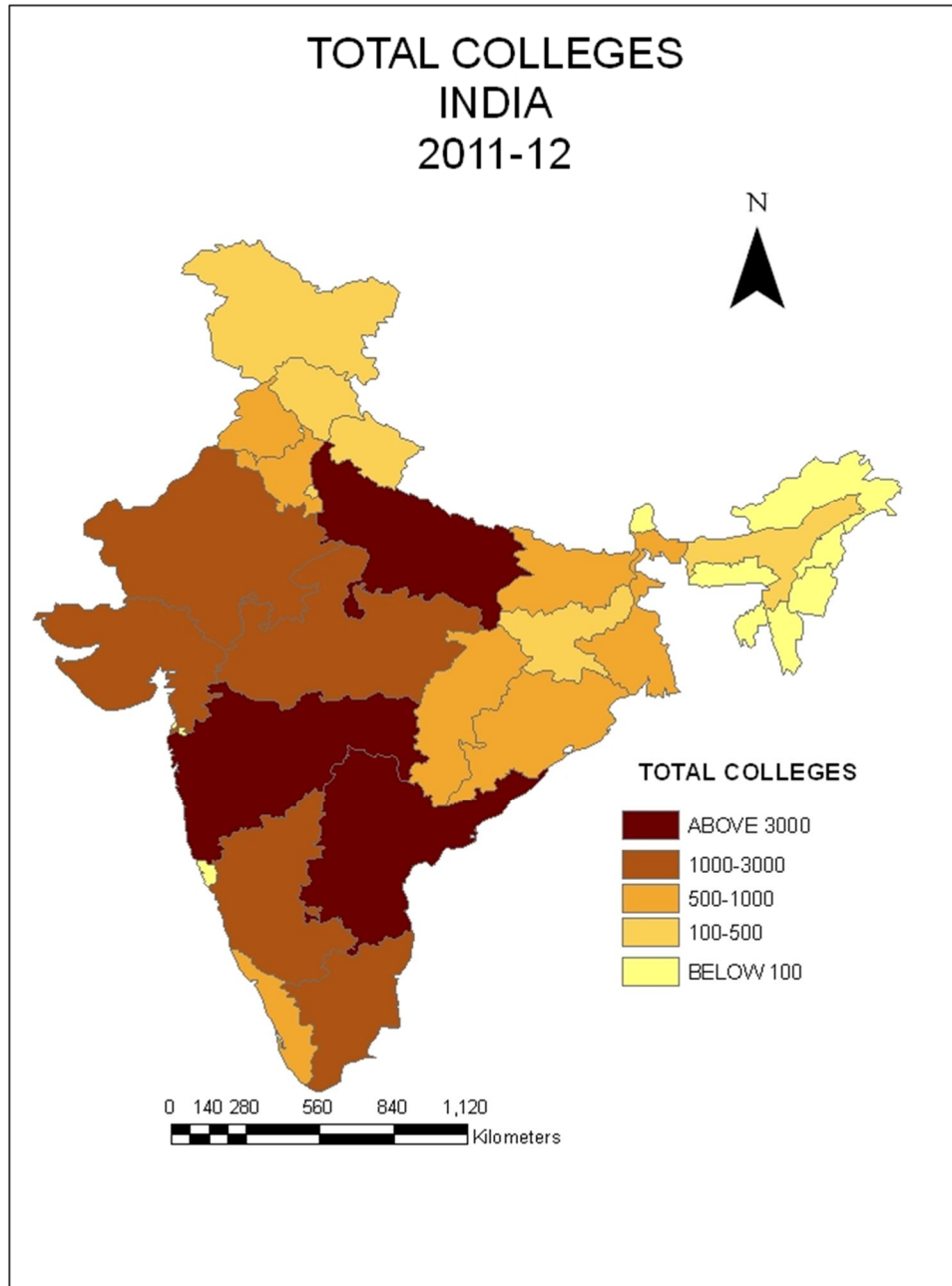
**Access:** Many students still cannot access the higher education institutions, as they are remotely located and are far away from the institutions providing higher education.

**Equity:** the disparity which exists in GER are many in number in various contexts like there is GER disparity in context of regions i.e. rural, urban, according to gender, also in context of states, communities, social group and etc.

**Quality:** The quality of higher education also varies according to many aspects like

1. Deficient physical infrastructure
2. Faculty shortage

**FIG. 3.5**  
**STATEWISE DISTRIBUTION OF NUMBER OF COLLEGES**



Source- data.gov.in (Accessed date: 15.5.15)

Colleges are established in all the corners of the state to provide higher education to the students in different streams like law, engineering, arts, medical, commerce, journalism etc.

Total number of colleges above 3000 is in states of Uttar Pradesh, Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh, followed by Rajasthan, Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh, Karnataka, and Tamil Nadu where number of colleges range from 1000 to 3000, next range of colleges from 500-1000 range is in Chhattisgarh, Orissa, west Bengal, Bihar, Punjab and Haryana. The next range comes for the states of Jharkhand, Uttarakhand, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu and Kashmir and Assam between 100 and 500, and lowest numbers of colleges are in Northeastern states below 100. Cities with highest number of colleges are Bangalore with 924 colleges followed by Jaipur with 544 colleges.

### **3.3 ENROLMENT**

#### **3.3.1 STATE WISE GROSS ENROLEMNT RATIO**

**GER-** Gross Enrolment ratio- it is calculated for 18-23 years of age group. Total enrolment in higher education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage to the eligible official population (18-23 years) in a given year.

**Male GER-** It is highest in Chandigarh above 40. States of Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu. Where GER of boys range between 30 and 40. Karnataka, Gujarat, Rajasthan, HP, and Uttarakhand come in next category followed by UP, MP, Chhattisgarh, Orissa, Bihar, and WB where GER varies between 10 and 40. In last Jharkhand stood where GER is below 10 for boys in higher education sector. West India and South India performs well in terms of GER for boys in higher education. While in east and north, India GER for boys is quite low.

**Female GER-** Female GER is highest in the states of Tamil Nadu, Delhi, Goa, Uttarakhand, where more than 25 is the GER. The next categories of states where GER is between 20 and 25 are most of the south Indian states of Maharashtra, Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh, Kerala and one north Indian state of Himachal Pradesh. The categories which lie



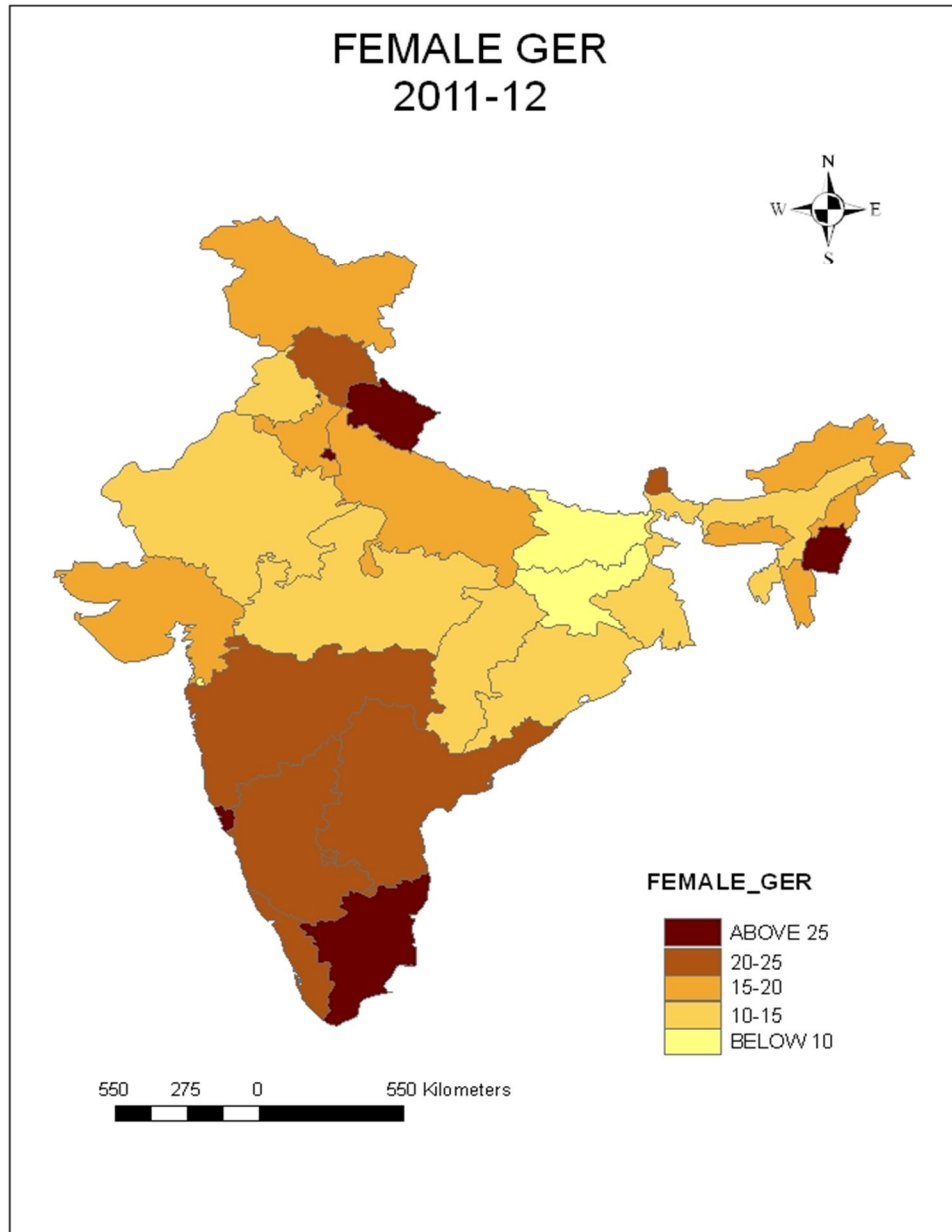
amidst is 15-20 and the states which comes under this category are Gujarat, Haryana, UP, and some states of north east. In category of 10-15 the states of Rajasthan, MP, Chhattisgarh, Orissa, WB comes and in the lowest category Bihar and Jharkhand comes which shows that girls are not encouraged to attain higher education in these states.

**Total GER-** its highest in Tamil Nadu, Goa, Delhi and Manipur i.e. more than 32, In next category i.e. between 24 and 32 comes Arunachal Pradesh, Puducherry, Andhra Pradesh, Goa, Maharashtra, Haryana, Karnataka, Himachal Pradesh and Sikkim. In next category i.e.16 and 24 comes Nagaland, Punjab, Gujarat, Mizoram, Rajasthan, Kerala, Odisha, Jammu and Kashmir. In the next category i.e. 8 and 16 comes Tripura, Chhattisgarh, Meghalaya, UP, M.P, West Bengal, Assam, Bihar, and in last category i.e. below 8 comes Jharkhand, Dadra and Nagar Haveli, Daman and Diu.



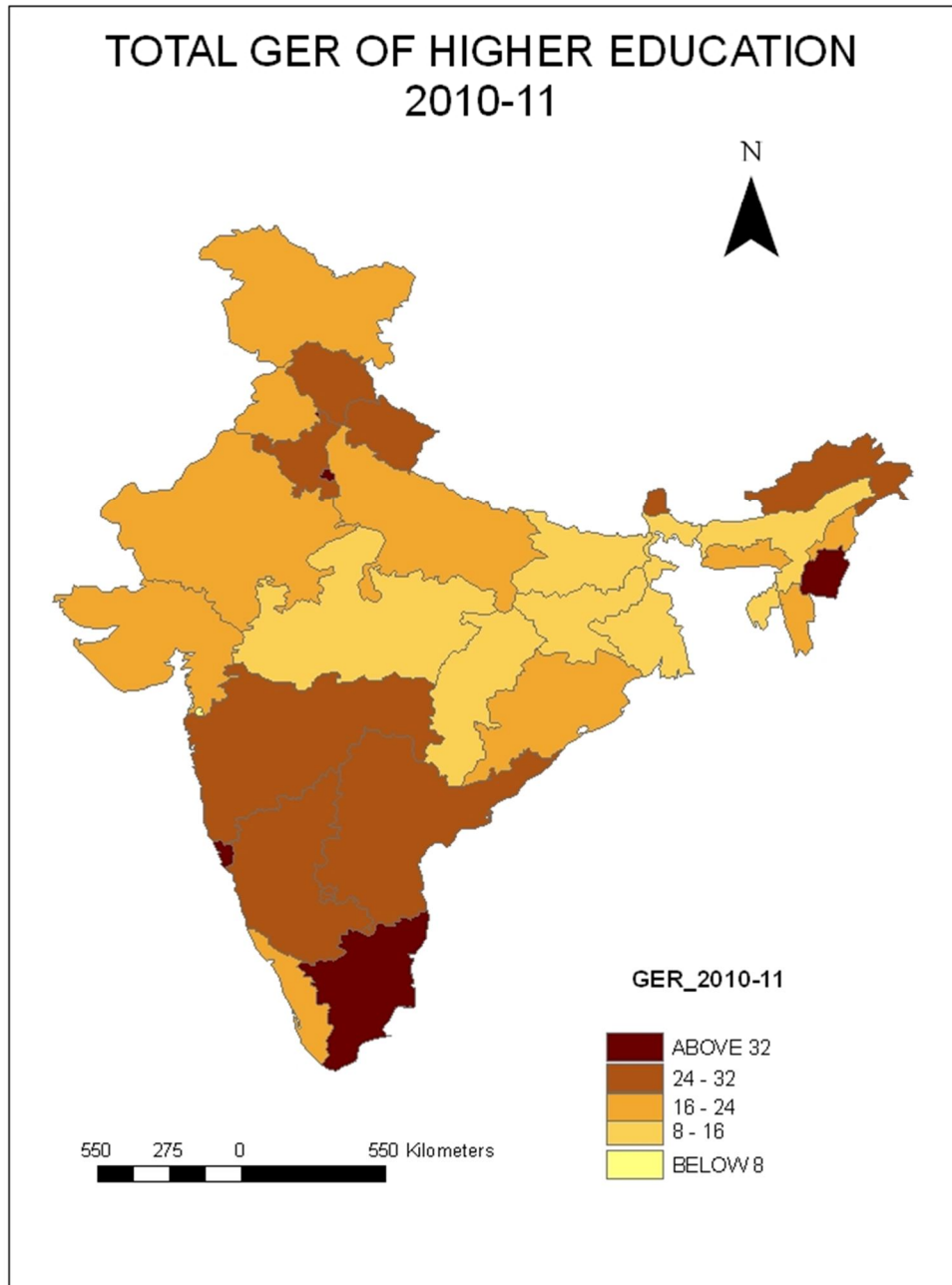
**FIG 3.7**

**STATE WISE DISTRIBUTION OF FEMALE GER IN INDIA**



**FIG 3.8**

**STATE WISE DISTRIBUTION OF TOTAL GER IN INDIA**



Source- data.gov.in (Accessed date: 15.5.15)

**TABLE 3.3**

**GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) FOR ALL CATEGORY STUDENTS**

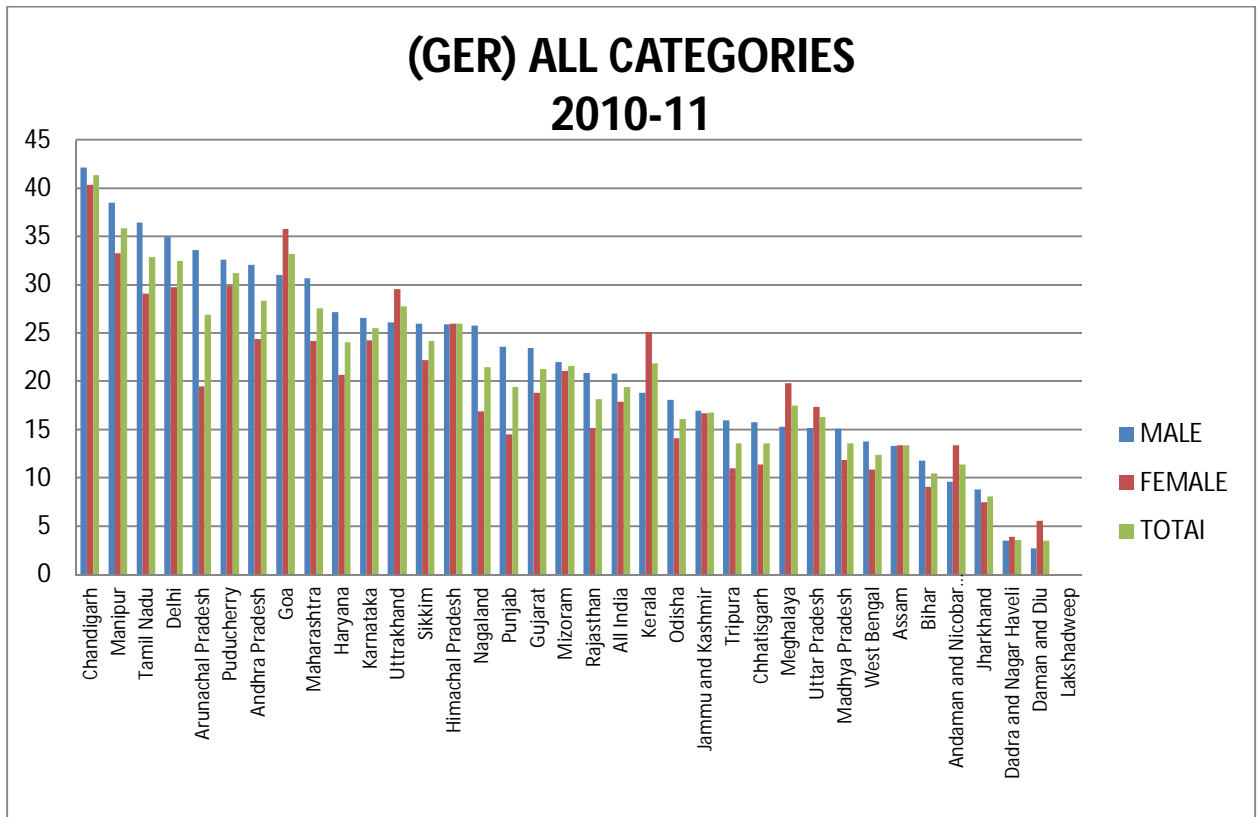
**2010-11**

STATES/UTs	ALL CATEGORIES – MALE	ALL CATEGORIES - FEMALE	ALL CATEGORIES - TOTAL
Andaman and Nicobar Islands	9.6	13.4	11.4
Andhra Pradesh	32.1	24.4	28.4
Arunachal Pradesh	33.6	19.5	26.9
Assam	13.3	13.4	13.4
Bihar	11.8	9.1	10.5
Chandigarh	42.2	40.4	41.4
Chhatisgarh	15.8	11.4	13.6
Dadra and Nagar Haveli	3.5	3.9	3.6
Daman and Diu	2.7	5.6	3.5
Delhi	35	29.8	32.5
Goa	31	35.8	33.2
Gujarat	23.5	18.8	21.3
Haryana	27.2	20.7	24.1
Himachal Pradesh	25.9	26	26
Jammu and Kashmir	17	16.7	16.8
Jharkhand	8.8	7.5	8.1
Karnataka	26.6	24.3	25.5

Kerala	18.8	25.1	21.9
Lakshadweep	0	0	0
Madhya Pradesh	15.1	11.9	13.6
Maharashtra	30.7	24.2	27.6
Manipur	38.5	33.3	35.9
Meghalaya	15.3	19.8	17.5
Mizoram	22	21.1	21.6
Nagaland	25.8	16.9	21.5
Odisha	18.1	14.1	16.1
Puducherry	32.6	29.9	31.2
Punjab	23.6	14.5	19.4
Rajasthan	20.9	15.2	18.2
Sikkim	26	22.2	24.2
Tamil Nadu	36.5	29.1	32.9
Tripura	16	11	13.6
Uttar Pradesh	15.2	17.4	16.3
Uttarakhand	26.1	29.6	27.8
West Bengal	13.8	10.9	12.4
All India	20.8	17.9	19.4

Source- data.gov.in (Accessed date: 15.5.15)

**FIG 3.9**  
**GER FOR ALL STUDENTS (2010-11)**



Source- data.gov.in (Accessed date: 15.5.15)

Though gross enrolment ratio (GER) of higher education shows that it is at good position in Delhi. Delhi being one of the states with highest GER. However, when it comes to work participation among women it is lowest. 19 states have GER more than all India and 16 states have lower than all India average GER. Chandigarh, Manipur, Tamil Nadu and Delhi have highest GER and Jharkhand, Bihar, Assam, and West Bengal have lowest GER.

**3.3.2 STATE WISE GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO OF SCHEDULED CASTE STUDENTS**

**TABLE 3.4**

**GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) FOR SCHEDULED CASTE STUDENTS**

**2010-11**

STATES/UTs	SC – MALE	SC - FEMALE	SC – TOTAL
Andaman and Nicobar Islands	NA	NA	NA
Andhra Pradesh	29.8	21.9	25.9
Arunachal Pradesh	100	66	100
Assam	10.4	12.2	11.2
Bihar	7	4.7	5.9
Chandigarh	12.1	20.8	16
Chhattisgarh	12.2	10.3	11.3
Dadra and Nagar Haveli	2.3	4.4	3.3
Daman and Diu	11.1	23	16.1
Delhi	11.7	8.7	10.2
Goa	26.4	24.1	25.2
Gujarat	19.8	15.6	17.8
Haryana	16.5	11.5	14.2
Himachal Pradesh	13.5	13.9	13.7
Jammu and Kashmir	6.4	6.4	6.4
Jharkhand	5.7	4	4.9
Karnataka	21.2	18.3	19.8
Kerala	10.3	18.1	14.2
Lakshadweep	NA	NA	NA

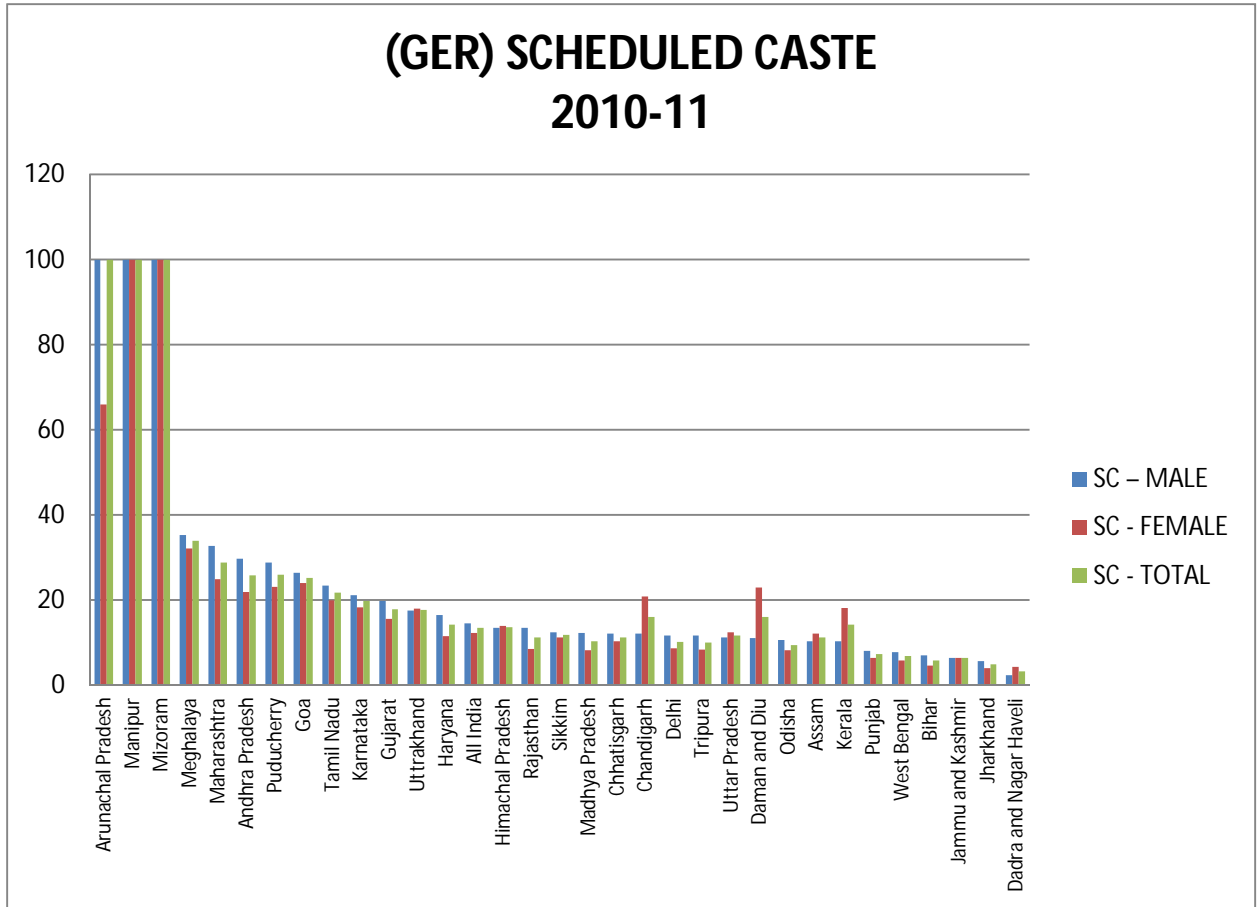


Madhya Pradesh	12.3	8.3	10.4
Maharashtra	32.7	24.9	28.9
Manipur	100	100	100
Meghalaya	35.3	32.1	33.9
Mizoram	100	100	100
Nagaland	NA	NA	NA
Odisha	10.7	8.2	9.5
Puducherry	28.9	23.2	26
Punjab	8.1	6.4	7.3
Rajasthan	13.5	8.5	11.2
Sikkim	12.4	11.3	11.8
Tamil Nadu	23.4	19.9	21.7
Tripura	11.7	8.4	10.1
Uttar Pradesh	11.2	12.4	11.7
Uttrakhand	17.5	18	17.7
West Bengal	7.8	5.8	6.9
All India	14.6	12.3	13.5

Source- data.gov.in (Accessed date: 15.5.15)

**FIG 3.10**

**GER SCHEDULED CASTE (2010-11)**



Source- data.gov.in (Accessed date: 15.5.15)

GER for scheduled caste is highest in Northeastern states. In addition, there is fair equity between male and female in enrolment. Here striking factor to be noticed is though UP, Bihar has a lot of scheduled caste population, in these states there is less GER of scheduled caste. State government should do some striking things by making such policies, which encourages participation of scheduled caste population in these states.

**3.3.3 STATE WISE GROSS ENROLEMT RATIO OF SCHEDULED TRIBE STUDENTS**

**TABLE 3.5**

**GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) FOR SCHEDULED TRIBE STUDENTS**

**2010-11**

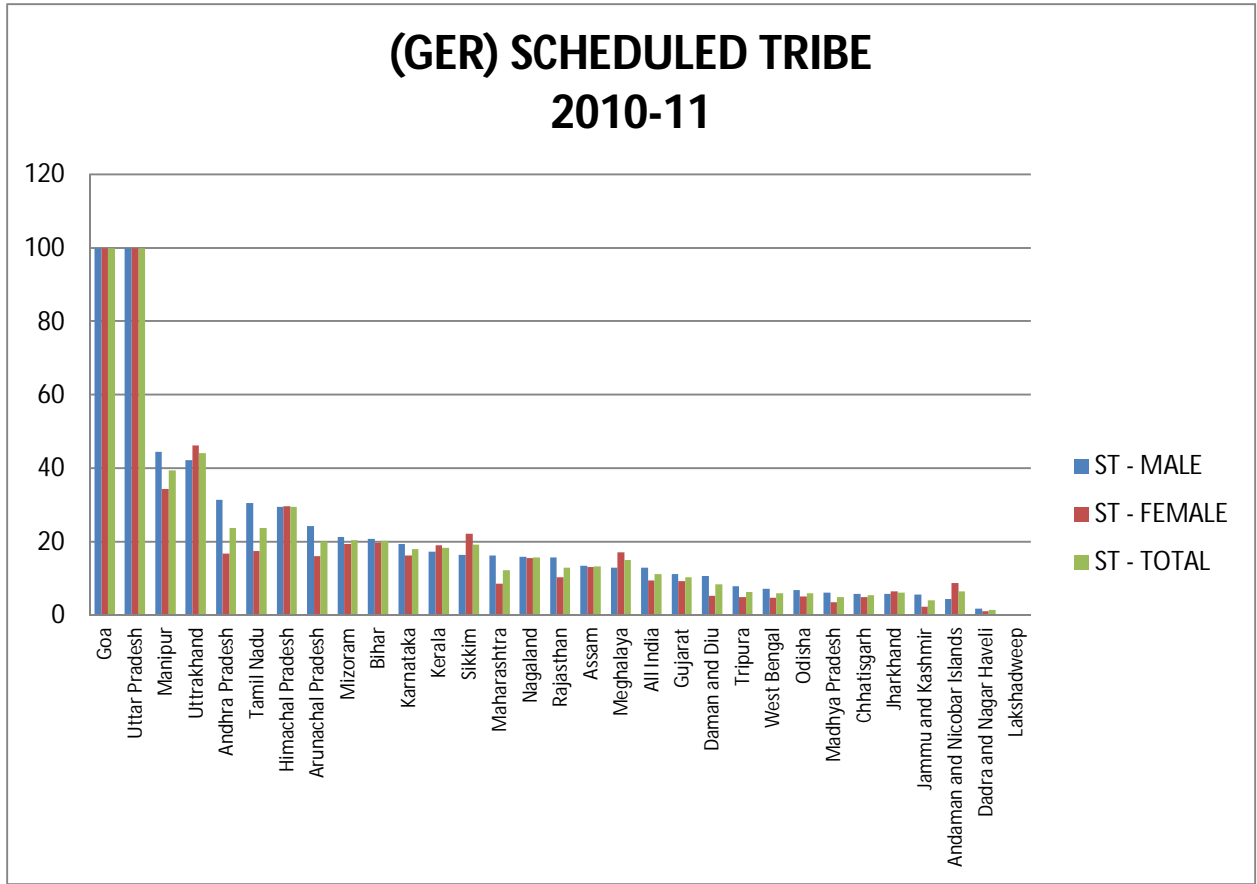
STATES/UTs	ST - MALE	ST - FEMALE	ST - TOTAL
Andaman and Nicobar Islands	4.4	8.8	6.6
Andhra Pradesh	31.5	16.8	23.8
Arunachal Pradesh	24.3	16.1	20.1
Assam	13.5	13.2	13.4
Bihar	20.9	19.7	20.3
Chandigarh	NA	NA	NA
Chhatisgarh	5.9	4.9	5.4
Dadra and Nagar Haveli	1.9	1.1	1.5
Daman and Diu	10.7	5.3	8.4
Delhi	NA	NA	NA
Goa	100	100	100
Gujarat	11.3	9.3	10.3
Haryana	NA	NA	NA
Himachal Pradesh	29.6	29.7	29.6
Jammu and Kashmir	5.6	2.4	4.1
Jharkhand	5.9	6.5	6.2
Karnataka	19.5	16.3	18
Kerala	17.4	19.1	18.3
Lakshadweep	0	0	0
Madhya Pradesh	6.2	3.6	4.9

Maharashtra	16.2	8.7	12.3
Manipur	44.6	34.4	39.5
Meghalaya	12.9	17.2	15.1
Mizoram	21.4	19.5	20.4
Nagaland	15.9	15.6	15.8
Odisha	6.8	5.2	6
Puducherry	NA	NA	NA
Punjab	NA	NA	NA
Rajasthan	15.7	10.3	13
Sikkim	16.4	22.2	19.3
Tamil Nadu	30.6	17.5	23.7
Tripura	7.9	4.9	6.3
Uttar Pradesh	100	100	100
Uttrakhand	42.2	46.3	44.2
West Bengal	7.3	4.8	6
All India	12.9	9.5	11.2

Source- data.gov.in (Accessed date: 15.5.15)

FIG 3.11

GER SCHEDULED TRIBE (2010-11)



Source- data.gov.in (Accessed date: 15.5.15)

The figure above gives us trend of scheduled tribe population GER in various states. It's very sad affair in Odisha, MP, Chhattisgarh, and Jharkhand where there is large number of scheduled tribe population. In these states, government should make some policies especially for scheduled tribe population so that there GER in higher education rises.

### 3.3.4 SOCIAL GROUP WISE GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER)

**TABLE 3.6**

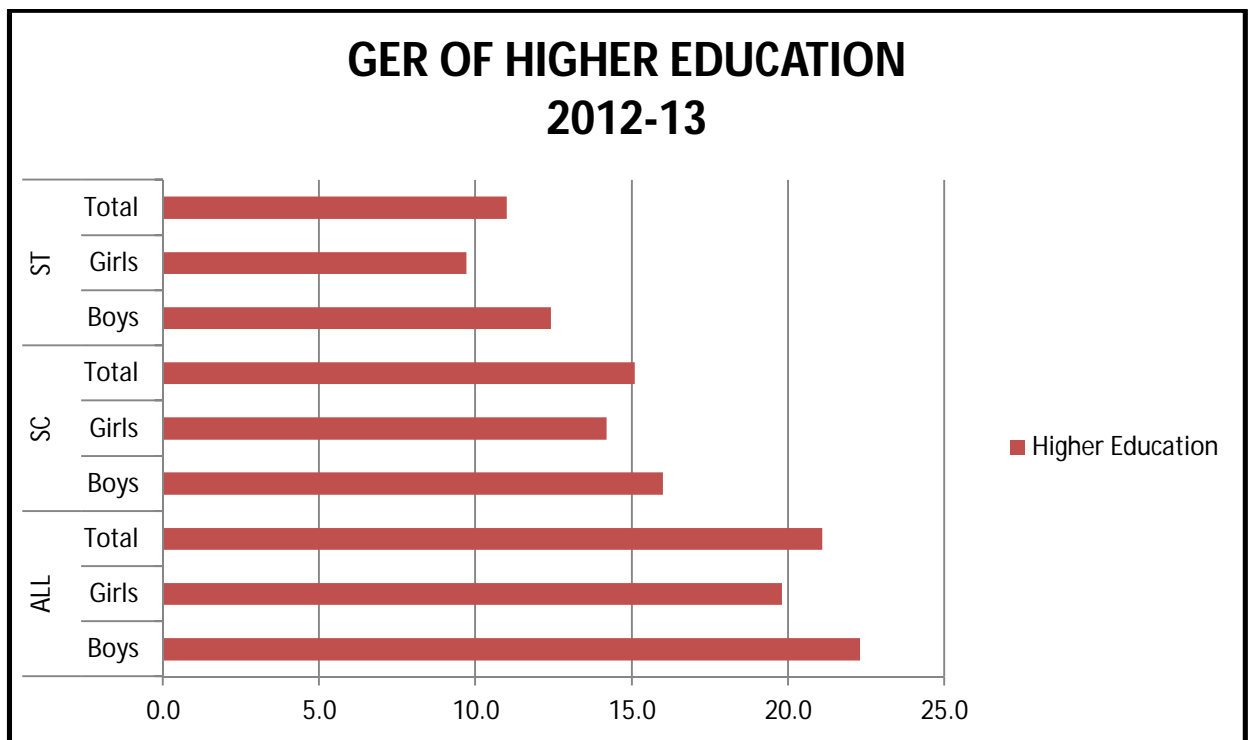
**Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER)**

Level	ALL			SC			ST		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Higher Education	22.3	19.8	21.1	16	14.2	15.1	12.4	9.7	11

AISHE-2012-13

**FIG- 3.3.4**

**GER OF HIGHER EDUCATION 2012-13**



Source- AISHE-2012-13

The figure indicates that GER for all boys and girls in higher education is 22% for boys and 20% for girls. Thus showing equal parity among all boys and girls. But for scheduled caste and scheduled tribe, especially scheduled tribe GER is very low, being 12% for boys and only 10% for girls.

### **3.4 SUMMARY**

This chapter is perhaps about status of higher education and its background, how it evolved with passage of time, highlighting the growth of various institutions over period of time and increase in women enrolment over period. The main aim of this chapter is to see women in higher education and their participation in higher education and how it increased with time. Growths of different types of institution are also studied. Gross enrolment ratio of girls and boys in higher education are also studied. Over the years state universities and private universities are growing at rapid rate.

## CHAPTER 4

### WORK PARTICIPATION STATUS OF WOMEN

#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

There is a great need to boost women in workforce, According to the United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP), there is possibility of increase in 0.3% GDP with 10 per cent increase in women participating in the workforce. (Gadgil, 1938) first cited falling participation of women in employment but proper concern on this issue was accorded only after the independence of the country by Indian government.

Worker population ratio i.e. number of persons employed is 24.8 for females and 54.3 for males in rural sector according to NSS National sample survey (68<sup>th</sup> round) while In Urban sector, for females it was 14.7 and for males it was 54.6 in 2011-12.

Labour force participation among women in most of the developing countries is rising in recent years. In India, also this trend can be witnessed even though the work participation rates are less compared to all other countries. Education is considered an important factor contributing to WPR. Several studies have suggested and identified some of the possible determinants of the slowly increasing female work participation in India. The role of education in enhancing labour force participation has been proved beyond doubt. However, in Delhi, female work participation rate appears to be lower and showing a declining trend despite its achievement in the field of female education.

In recent times there has been tremendous change in occupational structure of employment in the world. The notion being that developed countries have entered in an era of post- industrialization and thus it could be observed that manufacturing as a sector of economy does not attribute to much of economic growth. The GDP attributed by manufacturing sector is much less in number. And service sector is at boom contributing to large segment to the GDP of the country.



In present context of my analysis I would consider service sector of the economy as my primary focus is higher education attainment and later entering job market hence it is assumed that after attainment of higher education women would enter service sector rather than other sector of the economy.

Present study is related to women work participation who have completed their higher education. After completion of higher education women are generally expected to enter service sector. Service sector have been classified by many scholars as.

**(LEE, 1984) HAS CLASSIFIED SIX CATEGORIES OF SERVICES IN TERMS OF EMPLOYMENT GENERATION**

1. Distribution
2. Banking/commerce
3. Government/defense
4. Transport
5. Professions
6. Miscellaneous (comprising domestic service, laundry workers, hawkers, etc)

**(WALKER, 1985) IDENTIFIED FOUR FEATURES OF SERVICE SECTOR IN TERMS OF ECONOMY**

1. As jobs and the workers who do such jobs have acquired more skills and has become more professionalized, hence work has also become more creative, pleasant and independent.
2. Technical, professional, and administrative workers now form a new class that has diluted and displaced capitalist class from the power.
3. Government and activities those are non-profit are also included in service sector.
4. This sector has lower labour productivity than goods production.

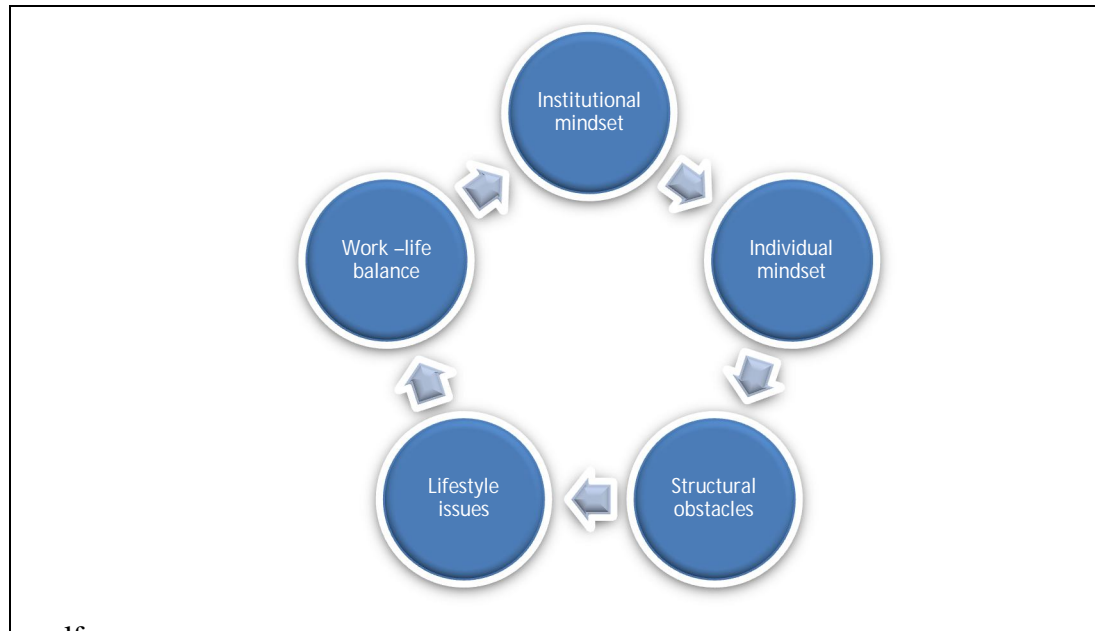
## 4.2 WHAT HOLDS WOMEN BACK (GENDER BARRIER AT WORK)

1. **FAMILY RESPONSIBILITY-** Looking after the near and dear ones let women to choose family over job or prioritize family hence holding them back.
  
2. **DISCRIMINATION-**
  - a. There is 2:1 ratio in favour of men at all levels (Smith, 2002)
  - b. **Glass escalator effect** The fields, which are female, dominated there also women don't get any advantages. Many women generally suffer slow promotion in male dominated careers but this is not true for males in female dominated sectors as they advance quickly.
  - c. **Gender pay gap-** there exist huge gap in salary for same positions
  
3. **GLASS CEILING EFFECT-** The opinion which is prejudiced and it prevails for certain group of people in this case gender (women ) posing hindrances to further develop in their career where top limit they are unable to access, i.e. they can't hold positions at top levels. There exists discriminatory barrier which blocks the advancement of women who already hold good positions at job at middle levels and has fair chances to excel. It is unseen yet a barrier, which is not breakable, what keeps women from climbing the ladder of success regardless of what are their qualifications or achievements.
  
4. **STICKY FLOORS-**This term signifies discriminatory employment pattern that leads to a group of people in this case women do jobs which are at the bottom of job scale, they are also called "pink collar workers" such as secretaries, nurse, dominos waitresses, child care, clerical, administrative assistants.

Although women who come under the category of glass ceilings are highly educated than those who experience the sticky floor. Women in such situations have some similarities, both share similar problem of low mobility and cannot do anything to better their situation.

5. **WORK LIFE BALANCE-** The range of **Work Life Balance initiatives by any enterprise or organization can be classified as :**
1. Leave provisions (such as parental and family leave)
  2. Flexible hours provisions (including job sharing, flexible start and finish times)
  3. Supportive structures and programs (such as child care provision or assistance)
  4. Social policy initiatives.
6. **LABYRINTH-** The glass ceiling metaphor might be misleading (Eagly and Carli, 2007). So the concept of labyrinth came into existence which emphasizes on the range of challenges that are experienced by women throughout their career, making their presence felt in male dominated office setting, managing work and home at the same time.
7. **THE GLASS CLIFF-** It describes the circumstances under which women are delegated leadership roles as executives in corporate world or other big position during crisis period over men, when the chance of failure is highest. Here things to ponder upon are the facts that, women set an example to fail or they are considered to accomplish their task under crisis.

FIG. 4.1  
WHAT HOLDS WOMEN BACK



Source- self

### **Some concepts related to women work in formal sector:**

#### **1. SKILLING/RESKILLING**

It refers to additional skill training which is imparted to the person who has returned after a break to have requirements of the current job.

#### **2. PIPELINE LEAKAGE**

It is referred to continuous loss of female talent due to their career transitions to meet family demands.

#### **3. FLEXI TIME WORK**

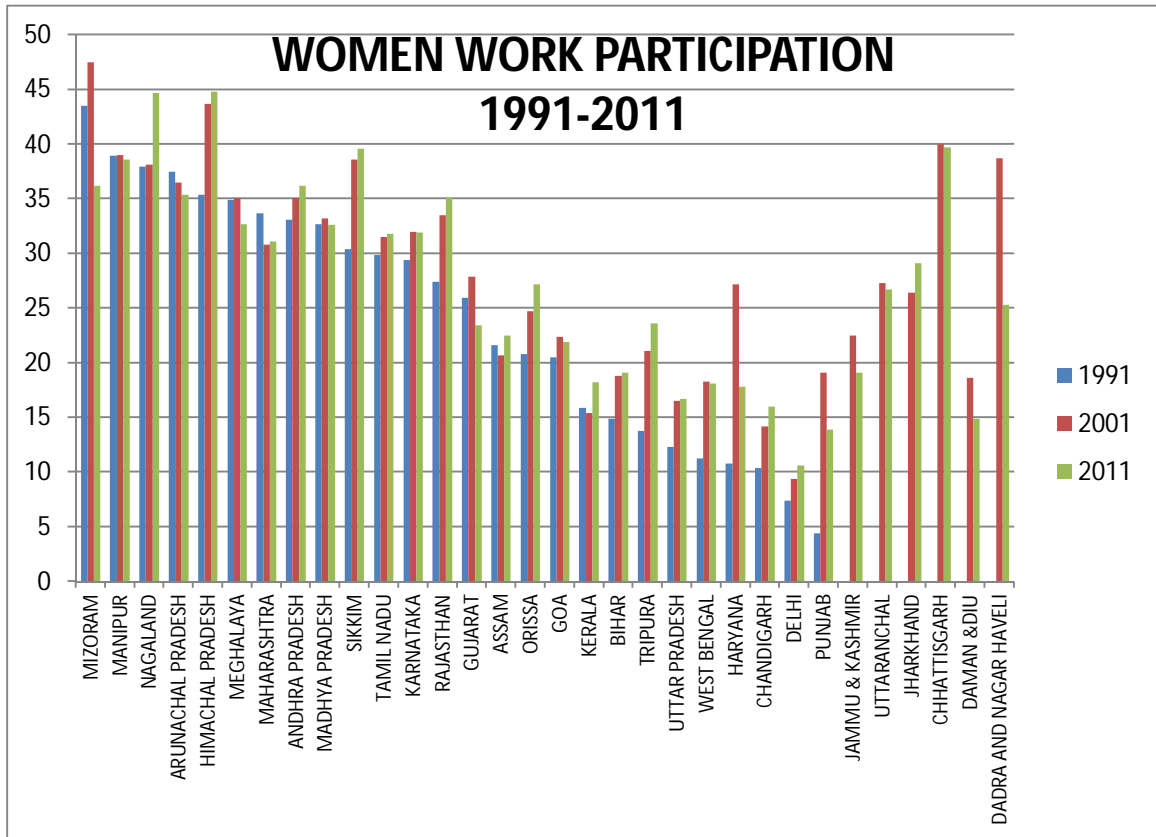
Flexi-time work refers to variable work schedule where women can work with flexibility.

#### 4. SECOND CAREER WOMEN

Second career women refers to those women who are ready to re embark on the career track as the reasons that previously led them to a break cease to exist

FIG. 4.2

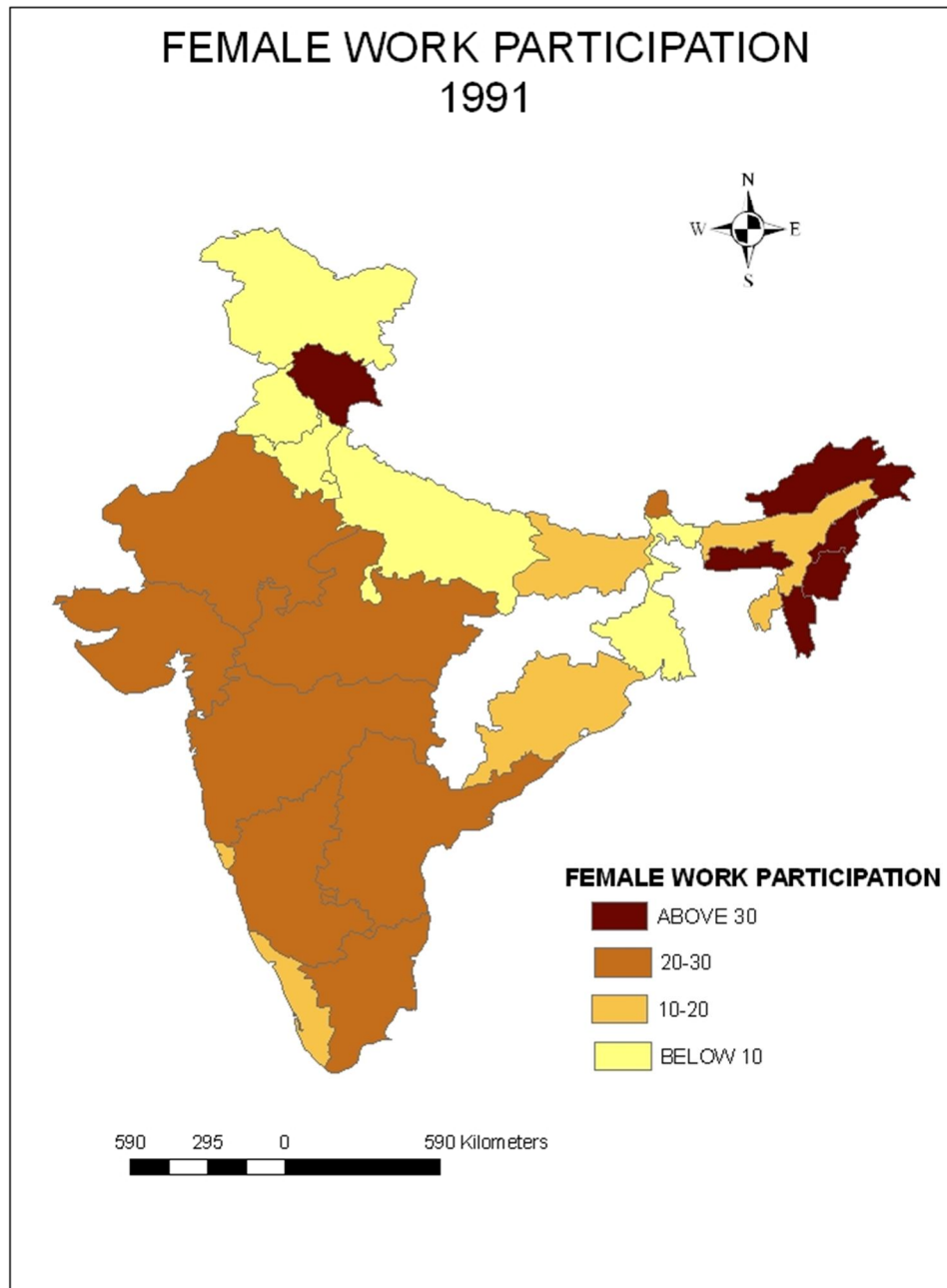
WOMEN WORK PARTICIPATION  
1991-2011



Source- census of India 1991,2001,2011

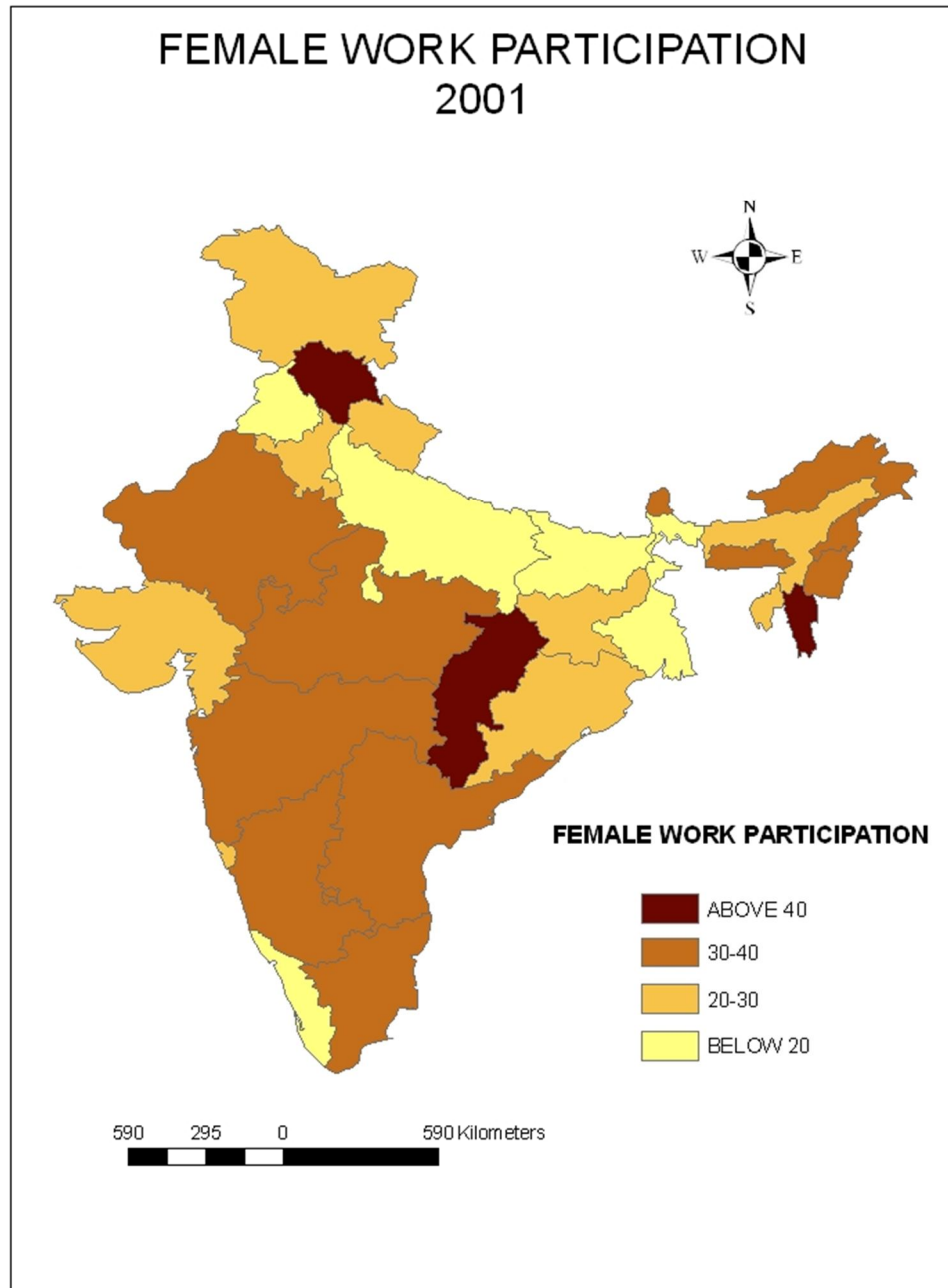
Figure 4.2 shows female work participation trends from 1991-2011. North eastern states have more women work participation, latest being Sikkim where there is highest work participation according to 2011 census. After northeastern states Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh contribute in high female work participation, whereas Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Uttarakhand and Jammu and Kashmir have lowest female work participation.

FIG. 4.3  
WOMEN WORK PARTICIPATION  
1991



Source- census 1991

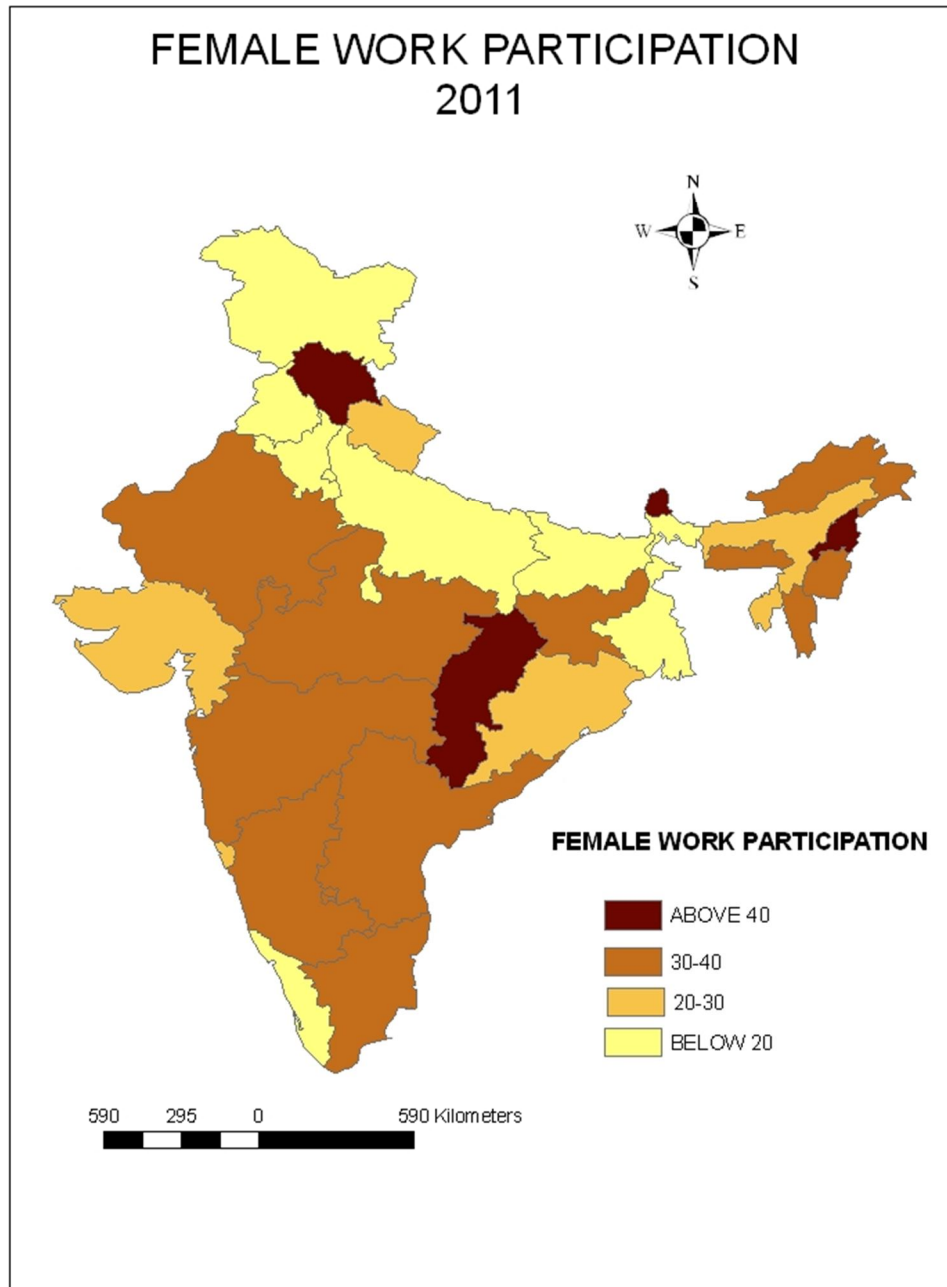
FIG. 4.4  
WOMEN WORK PARTICIPATION  
2001





Source – Census, 2001

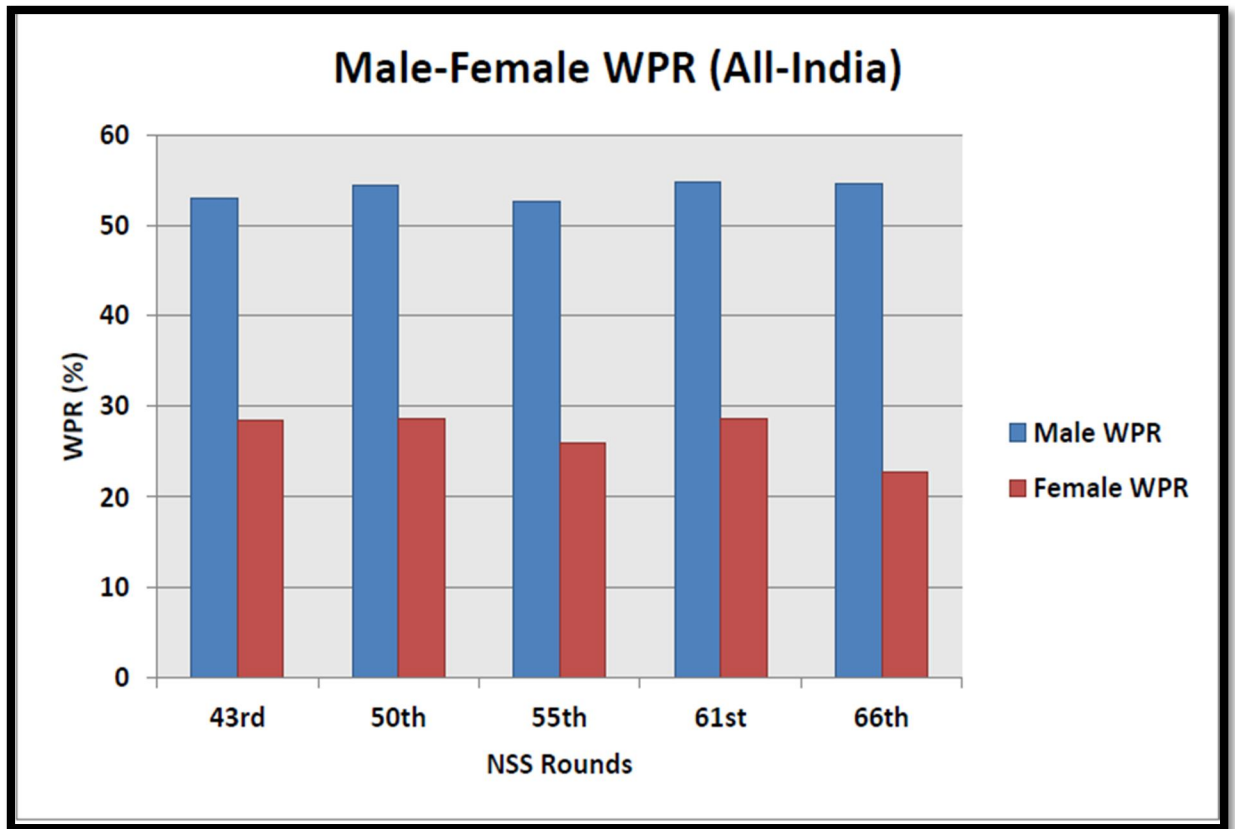
FIG. 4.5  
WOMEN WORK PARTICIPATION  
2011



Source- census, 2011

FIG. 4.6

MALE- FEMALE WORK PARTICIPATION ACCORDING TO NSS

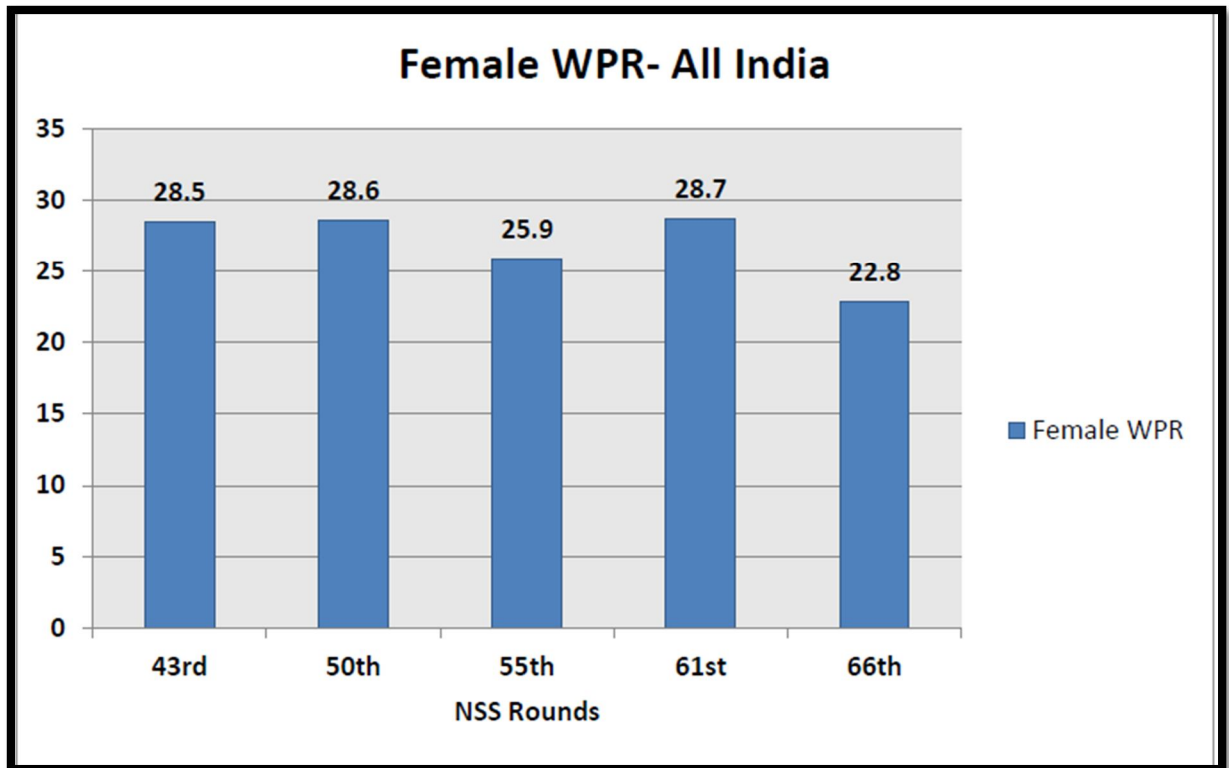


Source-NSS rounds (43,50,55,61,66)

The figure 4.6 shows that in India, women participation rates in employment are almost half as compared to men. Fig 4.6 indicates that at all-India level, work participation rate of male varies in the range of 50-55% from 43rd round (1987-88) to 66th NSS round (2009-10). Consequent rates for women ranges between 22-29%. There has not been noticed a systematic trend for male-female work participation rate over the period of (1987-88 to 2009-10). Overall, if we see the trend, male Work participation rate has increased slightly and female Work participation rate has witnessed a marginal decline over the period.

FIG. 4.7

ALL INDIA WOMEN WORK PARTICIPATION(NSS)

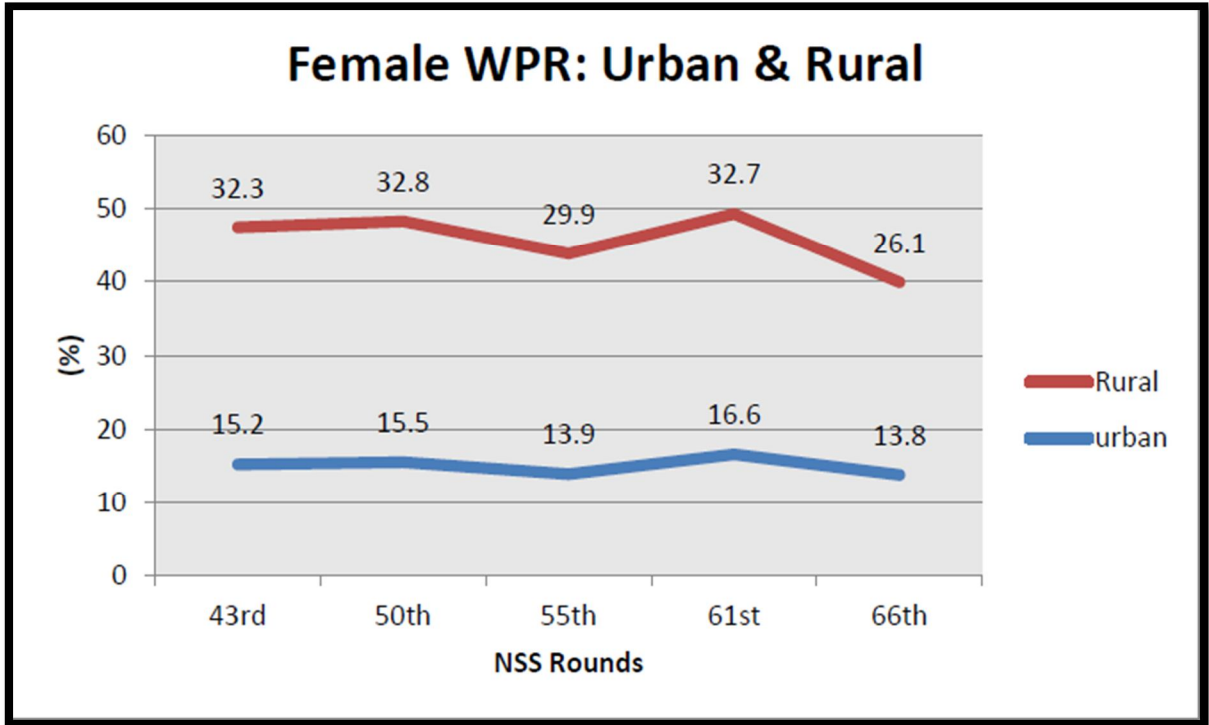


Source-NSS rounds (43,50,55,61,66)

Figure 4.7 shows female Work participation rate at the national level for different NSS rounds. Female Work participation rate is noticed to decline from 28.5% to 22.8% in the span of 43<sup>rd</sup> NSS round and 66<sup>th</sup> NSS round. The 61<sup>st</sup> round in the year (2004-05) indicates marginal increase in female Work participation rate when compared to the earlier NSS rounds. Many scholars have put forth the argument that the important reason for this increase could be globalization.(Chandrashekhara and Ghosh, 2007; Srivastava & Srivastava, 2009). However, the examination of the point is necessary that was there increase in both the sectors, rural and urban. Nevertheless the decline is serious concern.

FIG. 4.8

## RURAL-URBAN WOMEN WORK PARTICIPATION

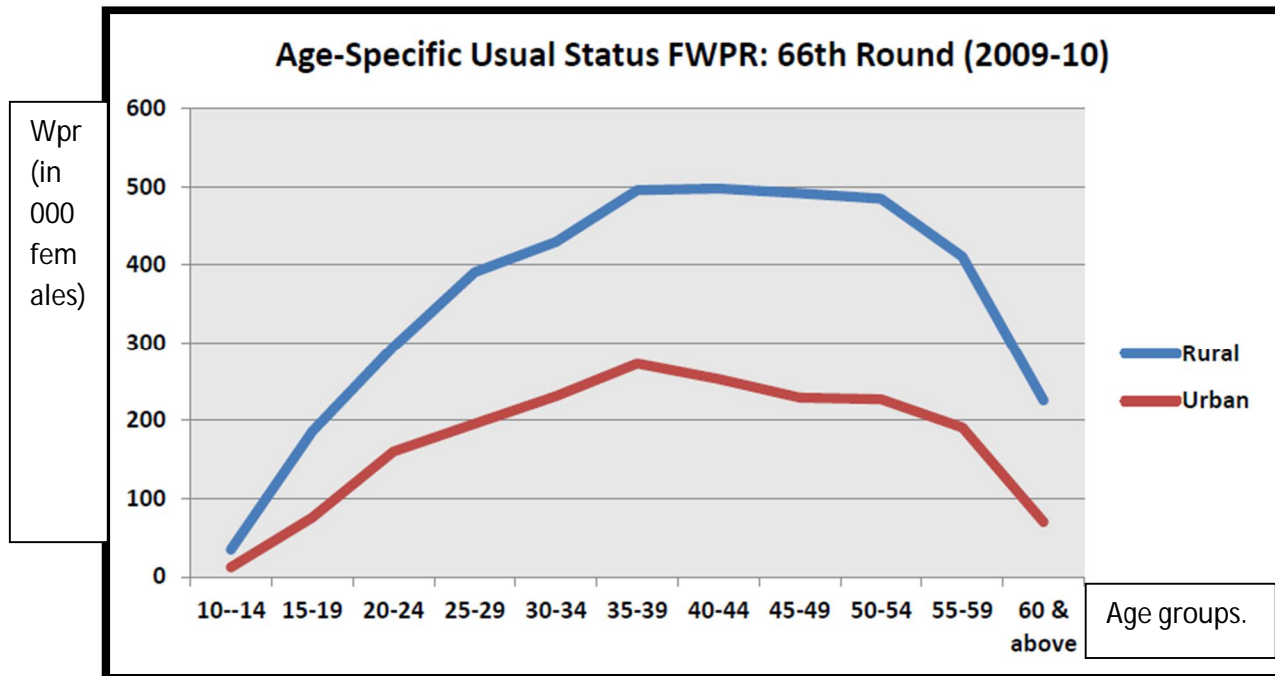


Source-NSS rounds (43,50,55,61,66)

Figure 4.8 shows Work participation rate of urban and rural women for the time period 1987-88 to 2009-10. It is clear from the figure that work participation rates of rural women are much more than those of urban working women. There is a broad gap in women employment in rural and urban sectors (26% work participation in the rural and 14% in the urban sectors, according to 66th round). There has been a decline in employment in both rural and urban areas in the 66th round as compared to the previous 61st round. This decline is sharper for urban women as compared to rural women. One of the reasons for this phenomenon could be the fact global recession of 2008 would have had a more adverse effect on urban employment vis-à-vis rural employment.

FIG. 4.9

## AGE- SPECIFIC WOMEN WORK PARTICIPATION

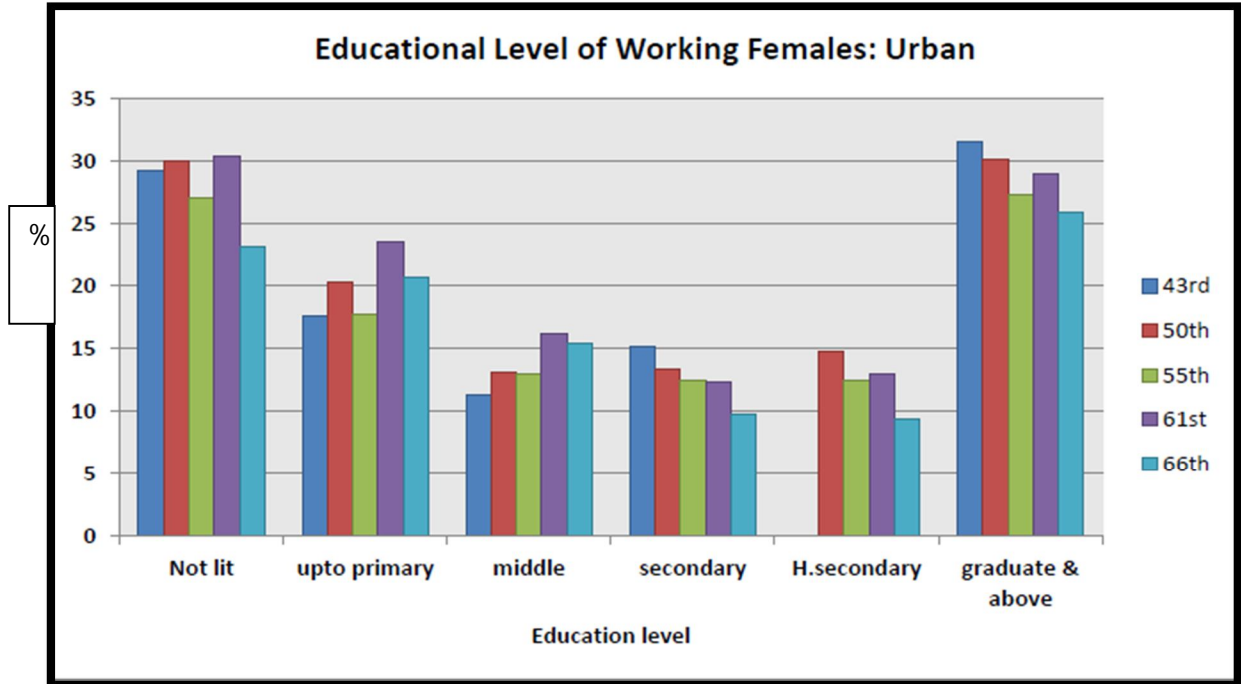


Source-NSS rounds (43,50,55,61,66)

Fig 4.9 shows the age-specific female worker population ratio, which is the no. of females usually, employed in a particular age-group per 1000 females in that age-group. The peak age group for both rural and urban women is between 35-39 years. Broadly, age-specific female workforce participation rate follows a similar pattern for both rural and urban women.

FIG. 4.10

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF WORKING WOMEN



Source-NSS rounds (43,50,55,61,66)

Fig 4.10 shows the educational levels of working urban women. The education level is divided into 6 categories: 'not literate', 'literate and up to primary', 'middle', 'secondary', 'higher secondary', and 'graduate and above'. Is it true that an increase in education pushes females into employment? In urban areas, WPR is higher for illiterate females than for females with higher levels of education (except graduates). For the 66th round (2009-10), 23% of illiterate urban women are employed but this declines to only 15% and 9% for women who have middle and higher secondary education. However, such a pattern does not hold true for men i.e. higher levels of education are associated with higher participation rates (Srivastava & Srivastava, 2009). What are the reasons for the differences in the observed pattern? There are complex social and economic factors at work, which could be held responsible for this pattern. WPR of urban females with secondary, higher secondary and graduate and above level of education has declined from 43rd round to the 66th round. In case of urban females with graduate and above level of education, the WPR declined from 32 % in the 43rd round to 29 % in the 61st round and then to 27% in the 66th round. This indicates that urban women finding employment are

less educated and probably finding work in low-paying unskilled jobs, which do not require much education.

#### **4.11 Summary**

This chapter gives the details of women and work characteristics, the reasons why women do not perform well, and the factors that hold them back from participating in job market. From NSS various rounds the analysis has been provided for age specific work participation, educational level of working women, difference in rural-urban work participation of women. Male female difference in work participation.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **SOCIO-ECONOMIC, DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF WORKING, NON-WORKING WOMEN IN DELHI**



## **INTRODUCTION**

This section of the thesis deals with primary analysis of the field survey. The field work for the following topic “Higher education and work participation among women in Delhi” was conducted by myself for 600 household in planned colony, unauthorized colony and urban village of north, south, east, west parts of Delhi. The time taken to do the survey was approximately 3 months.

## **PLANNED COLONIES**

Planned colonies are also known as “approved” colonies. These settlements take place on land, which is labeled as “development area” in the Master Plan of Delhi. Colonies fully comply with planning norms and, are fully serviced with infrastructure like water pipelines and sewerage systems at the time of construction. The houses of the colonies constructed by the Delhi Development Authority (DDA) are the best example of this type of settlement.

## **UNAUTHORISED COLONIES**

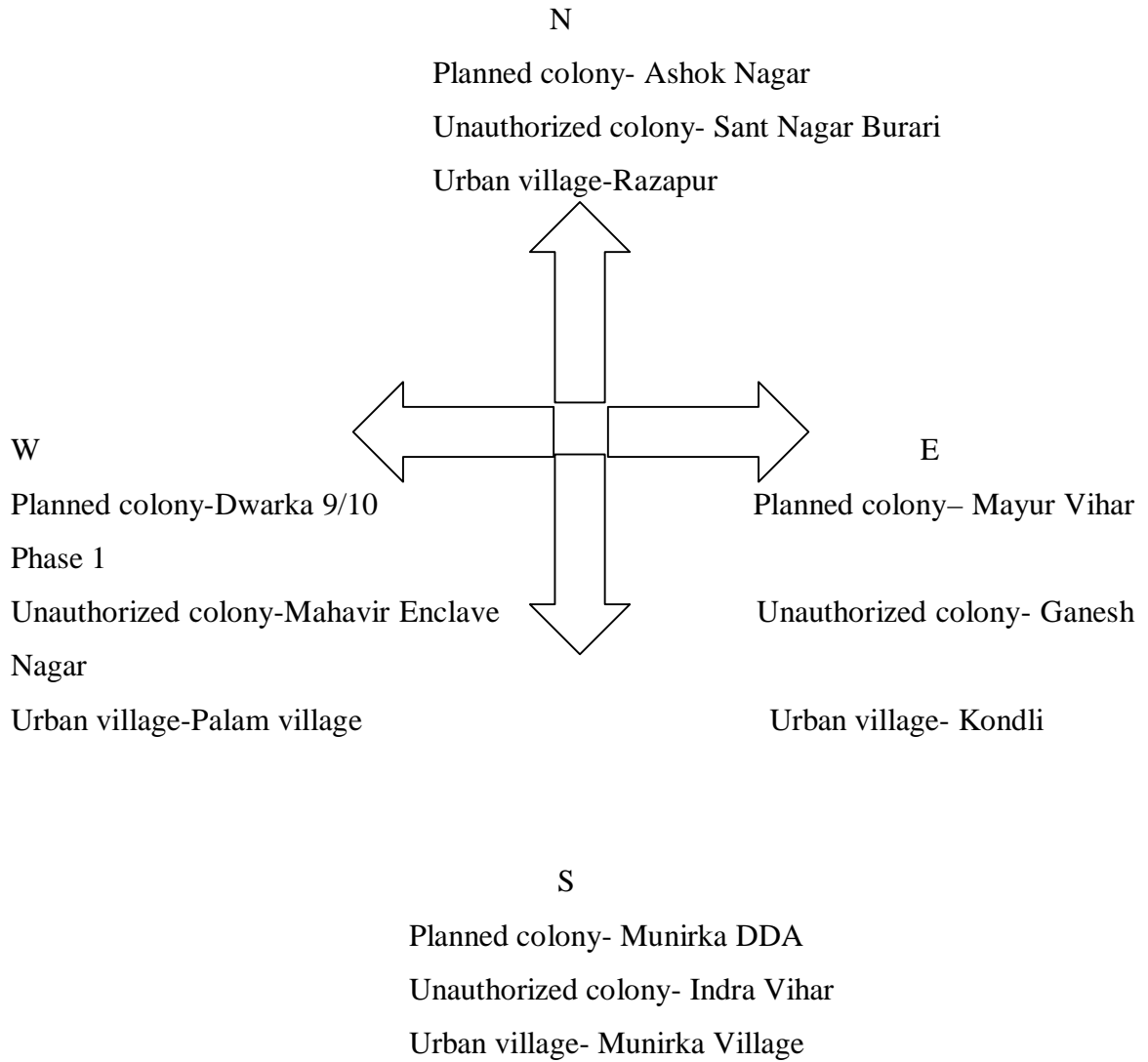
Unauthorised colonies are built in breaching of zoning regulations of the city, it is developed either in violation of criteria’s mentioned by Delhi’s Master Plans or they are built on subdivided agricultural land which is illegal. Literature suggests that these areas are illegally divided into plots. And due to general power of attorney which buyers of the plots have these areas may be characterized semi-legal. Recently government has introduced framework of policy to regularize the colonies. According to the Government of national capital of India (GNCTD) it was estimated that in 2013, 4 million people were residing in as many as 1639 unauthorized colonies.

## **URBAN VILLAGES**

Rural villages also referred as urbanized villages, are rural villages, which has shifted into urban ambit. Once a village has been included in the ‘urban’ area of Delhi, its

land may be further notified under Section 22(1) of the Delhi Development Act, through which it is placed at the disposal of the DDA for development.

FIGURE 5.1  
LOCATION OF STUDY SITE



## 5.1 GENERAL INFORMATION OF WORKING AND NON-WORKING WOMEN

**TABLE 5.1 (RELIGION)**

	N	Percent
HINDU	364	60.7
MUSLIM	87	14.5
SIKH	124	20.7
CHRISTIAN	19	3.2
OTHERS	6	1.0
Total	600	100.0

Source- Primary survey 2015-16

This section consists of primary analysis of information given by various household regarding their religion, social group, type of family etc. This section comprises working women and non working women in different areas of Delhi like planned colonies, unauthorized colonies, and urban villages. The table shown below would reflect upon the religion of working and non-working population according to the sample collected through questionnaire for 600 respondents in which 320 are working and 240 are non-working.

It can be interpreted from the table 5.1A that Hindus incorporate more as working women among the sample survey followed by Sikhs, Muslims and Christians in planned colonies, where as in unauthorized colonies Hindus are more followed by Muslims, then Sikhs and then Christians and others. When we see the trend in urban villages, the trend is similar to planned colonies where Hindus are followed by Sikhs, Muslims, Christians and others among the surveyed women.

Whereas in non-working category depicting table 5.1B indicates that Hindus are more in number followed by Sikhs, Muslims, Christians and then others for all three types of localities i.e. planned colonies, unauthorized colonies and urban villages.

Sacchar committee came up with recommendations that Muslim women are relatively economically and educationally more backward and their conditions are more deplorable compared to other women in various religious group. They are bound to obey

the diktats prescribed by the family on various issues, which have major influences on their life. But When I did my field work and I came up interviewing Muslim women I found that Muslim women in Delhi are participating in job.

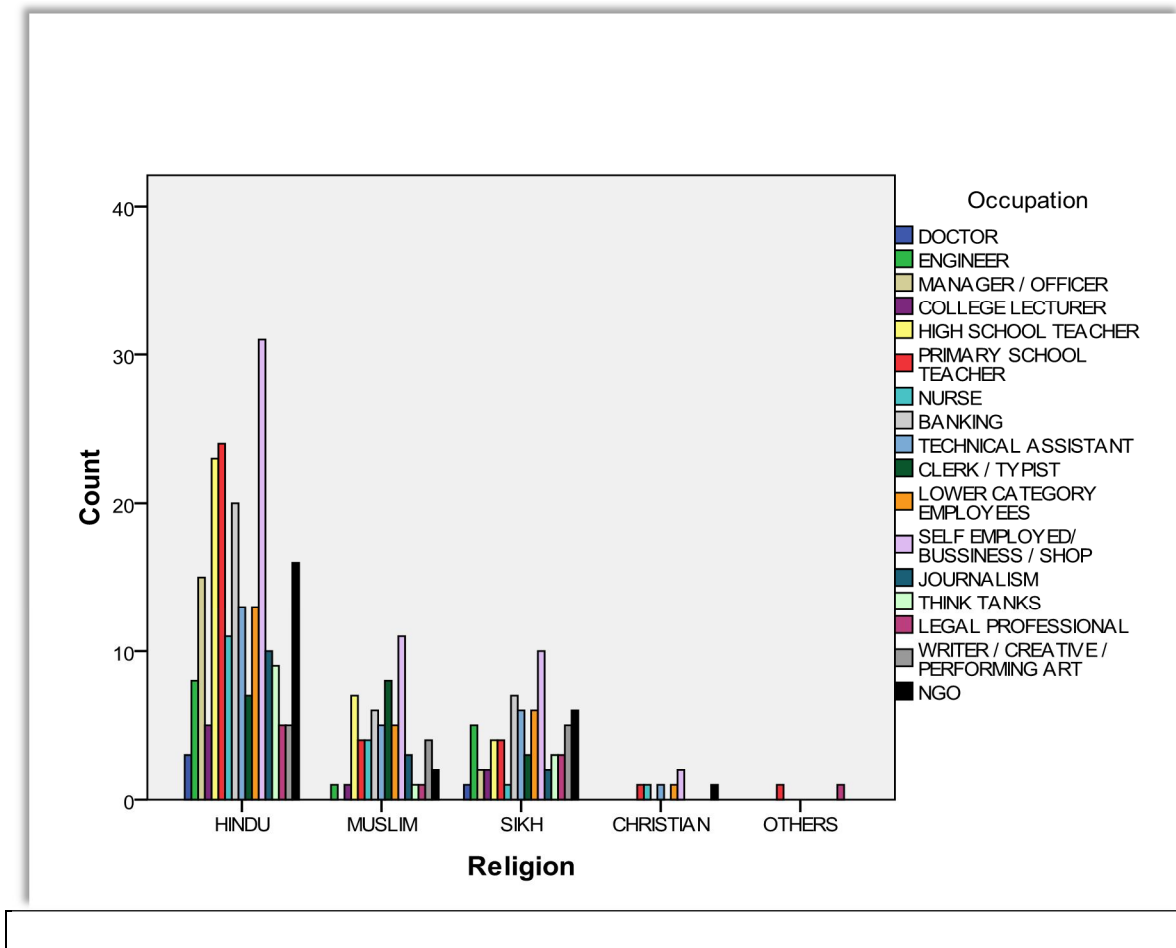
The young Muslim women identified poverty as the main cause of the low rate of literacy among Muslim women. Early marriages of the girls disrupt their studies, as they are not able to carry on their education after marriage. Conservative thinking of parents has been counted as another major factor by the respondents. Girls themselves are said to be not very keen or enthusiastic about education since many of the families do not have educated members in them. From their accounts it was revealed that where mothers were educated they would want their daughters to surpass them in education and encouraged them for education which leads to work participation.

**TABLE 5.1A**  
**RELIGION OF WORKING WOMEN**  
**DELHI**

	Religion					Total
	HINDU	MUSLIM	SIKH	CHRISTIAN	OTHERS	
PLANNED COLONIES	79 65.8%	11 9.2%	30 25.0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	60 50.0%	37 30.8%	16 13.3%	5 4.2%	2 1.7%	120 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	79 65.8%	15 12.5%	24 20.0%	2 1.7%	0 .0%	120 100.0%
	218 60.6%	63 17.5%	70 19.4%	7 1.9%	2 .6%	360 100.0%

Source- Primary survey 2015-16

**FIG 5.2**  
**RELIGION WISE OCCUPATION AMONG WORKING WOMEN**



Source- Primary survey 2015-16

Many varieties of jobs are carried on by women religion wise. Among Hindus the prevalent jobs are that of family business, or self employed, free lancing followed by primary teachers, high school teachers, banking. Significant women work in banking sector also, and NGO. Among Muslim they are self-employed followed by clerk/typist, teachers. Among Sikhs again self-employed is high followed by NGO, lower category jobs etc.

**TABLE 5.1B**  
**RELIGION OF NON-WORKING WOMEN**  
**DELHI**

	Religion					Total
	HINDU	MUSLIM	SIKH	CHRISTIAN	OTHERS	
PLANNED	52 65.0%	7 8.8%	14 17.5%	5 6.3%	2 2.5%	80 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED	46 57.5%	10 12.5%	19 23.8%	3 3.8%	2 2.5%	80 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	48 60.0%	7 8.8%	21 26.3%	4 5.0%	0 .0%	80 100.0%
	146 60.8%	24 10.0%	54 22.5%	12 5.0%	4 1.7%	240 100.0%

Source- Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 5.2 (SOCIAL GROUP)**

	N	Percent
GENERAL	208	34.7
OBC	259	43.2
SC	112	18.7
ST	21	3.5
Total	600	100.0

Source- Primary survey 2015-16

Other Backward Class (OBC's) women surpass all the population of working women among the surveyed women according to social group. OBC's women are followed by general caste women. In the case of SC/ST women, they are less in number compared to general and OBC among the surveyed women. Most of them were in lower categories of service sector employment due to their less skills and training. Their household members were also found to be less educated in spite of the reservation

provision provided to these communities and the wide spread educational facilities prevalent.

Among working and non women in planned colonies more general population was found, followed by other backward class (OBC's), SC's and ST. whereas in unauthorized colonies and in urban villages more other backward class women was found followed by general, scheduled caste, scheduled tribe. More significantly, the largest proportion of OBC's women was found in urban villages.

Among non working women OBC's women were found to be doubled than general women.

**TABLE 5.2A**

**SOCIAL GROUP OF WORKING WOMEN  
DELHI**

	Social group				Total
	GENERAL	OBC	SC	ST	
PLANNED COLONIES	55 45.8%	39 32.5%	23 19.2%	3 2.5%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	38 31.7%	46 38.3%	26 21.7%	10 8.3%	120 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	37 30.8%	64 53.3%	17 14.2%	2 1.7%	120 100.0%
	130 36.1%	149 41.4%	66 18.3%	15 4.2%	360 100.0%

Source- Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 5.2B****SOCIAL GROUP OF NON-WORKING WOMEN  
DELHI**

	Social group				Total
	GENERAL	OBC	SC	ST	
PLANNED	31 38.8%	28 35.0%	16 20.0%	5 6.3%	80 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED	26 32.5%	37 46.3%	16 20.0%	1 1.3%	80 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	21 26.3%	45 56.3%	14 17.5%	0 .0%	80 100.0%
	78 32.5%	110 45.8%	46 19.2%	6 2.5%	240 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 5.3 (TYPE OF FAMILY)**

	N	Percent
NUCLEAR	292	48.7
JOINT	230	38.3
EXTENDED	78	13.0
Total	600	100.0

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

Small families can move easily to find economic avenues as well as migrate from one place to other. Thus, people prefer to live in small families. The primary reason seems to be availability of more space for the members of the family. Thus, nuclear families have these advantages.



- a. **Children grow up as more responsible:** they learn solving their problem, also gets work delegated to them by their parents making them very accountable and learning living skills at very early age.
- b. **Children get inclined towards extra-curricular activities:** children are more likely to produce good results in school and they spend time in extra-curricular activities. In nuclear families, both parents go out for work so children have more extracurricular activities, and turn out more independent. They do better academically and socially making them confident.
- c. **Financial stability:** Nuclear families are much more financially sound than joint families as the focus is on very few members of the family and thus can provide better opportunities to their children.

Between 2001 and 2011, the growth of economy of India was 7.4% a year (average), which has led more prosperity, more jobs and increase in migration from rural to urban areas. The theory, which could be related to this, is demographic shift, which would lead to the creation of more nuclear families, rather than joint family household, which are more common in rural areas. However, census of India shows that has not been happened. Form the year 2001-11 nuclear families as percentage of all types of families have declined slightly from 70.34% to 70.11%.

Madras school of social work found that system of joint families is favorable to working women as other family members are available to take care of children and other responsibilities of household.

In table 5.3A Working women in planned colonies live as nuclear families in 73% household followed by 27% in joint families. In unauthorized colonies 56% household lives as nuclear followed by 32% as joint and 13% as extended. In urban village 47% live as joint families followed by 28% as extended and 26% as nuclear household. Working women prefer staying in nuclear families as there is less interference of other family members in her life, and she can stay as she wants.

In table 5.3B When we see the trend among non-working women in Delhi, in planned colonies 70% women lives in nuclear families followed by 23% in joint family and 8% in extended families. In unauthorized families, 51% lives in joint families followed by 33% in nuclear families, and 13% as extended families. In urban villages, 56% lives in joint families followed by 30% in nuclear families and 14% in extended families. In many of the joint families it was inquired that their in-laws doesn't allow them to work. Though Joint family for married working women can act as career enabler as their tasks are shared and their kids are looked after.

**TABLE 5.3A**  
**TYPE OF FAMILY OF WORKING WOMEN**  
**DELHI**

	Type of family			Total
	NUCLEAR	JOINT	EXTENDED	
PLANNED COLONIES	88 73.3%	32 26.7%	0 .0%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	67 55.8%	38 31.7%	15 12.5%	120 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	31 25.8%	56 46.7%	33 27.5%	120 100.0%
	186 51.7%	126 35.0%	48 13.3%	360 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 5.3B**  
**TYPE OF FAMILY OF NON-WORKING WOMEN**  
**DELHI**

	Type of family			Total
	NUCLEAR	JOINT	EXTENDED	
PLANNED	56 70.0%	18 22.5%	6 7.5%	80 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED	26 32.5%	41 51.3%	13 16.3%	80 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	24 30.0%	45 56.3%	11 13.8%	80 100.0%
	106 44.2%	104 43.3%	30 12.5%	240 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**HOUSEHOLD CHARACTERISTICS**

**TABLE 5.4 (Number of storey)**

	N	Percent
ONE	45	7.5
TWO	112	18.7
THREE	169	28.2
FOUR	160	26.7
FIVE	85	14.2
SIX	24	4.0
EIGHT	5	.8

	N	Percent
ONE	45	7.5
TWO	112	18.7
THREE	169	28.2
FOUR	160	26.7
FIVE	85	14.2
SIX	24	4.0
EIGHT	5	.8
Total	600	100.0

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

Table 5.4A highlights number of storey in locality of working women, in Planned Colony maximum number of storey was two, followed by five, three one and six. In unauthorized colonies maximum number was three followed by four, one, two, five and six. Whereas in urban villages four was maximum followed by three, two, one and five.

Table 5.4B suggests that in planned colonies three storeys was maximum followed by four, two and one. In unauthorized colonies four storeys was maximum followed by five, three and two. In urban villages four storey houses was maximum followed by three, two and five.

**TABLE 5.4A**  
**NUMBER OF STOREY IN LOCALITY OF WORKING WOMEN**

**DELHI**

	Number of storey							Total
	ONE	TWO	THREE	FOUR	FIVE	SIX	ABOVE 6	
PLANNED COLONIES	12	35	24	8	25	11	5	120
	10.0%	29.2%	20.0%	6.7%	20.8%	9.2%	4.2%	100.0%

UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	14 11.7%	13 10.8%	44 36.7%	30 25.0%	12 10.0%	7 5.8%	0 .0%	120 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	16 13.3%	23 19.2%	31 25.8%	37 30.8%	13 10.8%	0 .0%	0 .0%	120 100.0%
	42 11.7%	71 19.7%	99 27.5%	75 20.8%	50 13.9%	18 5.0%	5 1.4%	360 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 5.4B**  
**NUMBER OF STOREY IN LOCALITY OF NON-WORKING WOMEN**  
**DELHI**

	Number of storey						Total
	ONE	TWO	THREE	FOUR	FIVE	SIX	
PLANNED	2 2.5%	20 25.0%	34 42.5%	20 25.0%	4 5.0%	0 .0%	80 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED	0 .0%	6 7.5%	14 17.5%	40 50.0%	17 21.3%	3 3.8%	80 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	1 1.3%	15 18.8%	22 27.5%	25 31.3%	14 17.5%	3 3.8%	80 100.0%
	3 1.3%	41 17.1%	70 29.2%	85 35.4%	35 14.6%	6 2.5%	240 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 5.5 (OWNERSHIP OF HOUSE)**

	N	Percent
OWN	307	51.2
TENANT	271	45.2
OTHERS	22	3.7
Total	600	100.0

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

Table 5.5A depicts ownership of houses in different categories of settlement for working women in planned colonies we see that in planned colonies 68% women have own houses followed by 32% who are tenant. In unauthorized colonies 33% own followed by 67%, houses are tenant. In urban village 51%, women live in their own houses followed by 49% who live as tenant. In the planned colonies where it is expected that the standard of life is better has high proportion of women who stay in their own houses.

Table 5.5B depicts areas of non-working residents in planned colonies 69% women live in their own houses followed in 31% as tenants. In unauthorized colonies 49% live as tenant followed by 33% living in their own house and 19% responded that they were neither living in their own houses nor they were tenants, that indicated that their house ownership was not known. They were either someone's relative or illegally staying in those areas. In urban villages 56% women lived in their own houses followed by 35% women as tenants and 9% women living in categories of others where they live in friend's, relative house.

**TABLE 5.5A**  
**OWNERSHIP OF HOUSE ACCORDING TO WORKING WOMEN**  
**DELHI**

	Ownership of house		Total
	OWN	TENANT	
PLANNED COLONIES	80 66.7%	40 33.3%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	40 33.3%	80 66.7%	120 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	61 50.8%	59 49.2%	120 100.0%
	181 50.3%	179 49.7%	360 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 5.5B**  
**OWNERSHIP OF HOUSE ACCORDING TO NON-WORKING WOMEN**  
**DELHI**

	Ownership of house			Total
	OWN	TENANT	OTHERS	
PLANNED	55 68.8%	25 31.3%	0 .0%	80 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED	26 32.5%	39 48.8%	15 18.8%	80 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	45 56.3%	28 35.0%	7 8.8%	80 100.0%
	126	92	22	240

	Ownership of house			Total
	OWN	TENANT	OTHERS	
PLANNED	55 68.8%	25 31.3%	0 .0%	80 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED	26 32.5%	39 48.8%	15 18.8%	80 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	45 56.3%	28 35.0%	7 8.8%	80 100.0%
	126 52.5%	92 38.3%	22 9.2%	240 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 5.6 (STRUCTURE OF HOUSE)**

	N	Percent
PUCCA	561	93.5
SEMI-PUCCA	15	2.5
MIXED	24	4.0
Total	600	100.0

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

Table 5.6A shows Structure of house of working women, it is mostly pucca in all the localities of Delhi as we have done the survey majorly in urban areas of Delhi. In planned colonies all the houses are pucca houses as they are located in posh areas with all the amenities whereas in unauthorized colonies 89% are pucca in nature followed by 6% semi-pucca and 4% mixed type of settlement. In urban villages 90% women responded that they lived in pucca houses followed by 7% who said there was mixed type and 3% women said their house was semi pucca.



Table 5.6B shows Structure of houses in areas according to non-working women in Delhi are pucca in all the planned colonies of different areas, and in unauthorized colonies of Delhi. In urban villages 83% are pucca, 5% mixed and 1% semi-pucca.

**TABLE 5.6A**  
**STRUCTURE OF HOUSE ACCORDING TO WORKING WOMEN**  
**DELHI**

	Structure of house			Total
	PUCCA	SEMI-PUCCA	MIXED	
PLANNED COLONIES	120	0	0	120
	100.0%	.0%	.0%	100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	107	8	5	120
	89.2%	6.7%	4.2%	100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	108	4	8	120
	90.0%	3.3%	6.7%	100.0%
	335	12	13	360
	93.1%	3.3%	3.6%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 5.6B**  
**STRUCTURE OF HOUSE ACCORDING TO NON-WORKING WOMEN**  
**DELHI**

	Structure of house			Total
	PUCCA	SEMI PUCCA	MIXED	
PLANNED	80	0	0	80
	100.0%	.0%	.0%	100.0%

UNAUTHORISED	80	0	0	80
	100.0%	.0%	.0%	100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	66	3	11	80
	82.5%	3.8%	13.8%	100.0%
	226	3	11	240
	94.1%	1.3%	4.6%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

## HOUSEHOLD DETAIL

### 5.7 AGE

Though female literacy and enrolment rates in education is constantly rising, Today India lower levels of women work participation compare to many sub-Saharan African countries and also middle eastern countries. India ranks on the list of gender inequality index as 127<sup>th</sup> and on global gender gap index as 108<sup>th</sup> number. The gender gap in workforce for women in age group 15 and 59 is only 32 percent in rural areas compared to 83 percent for men and 21 percent in urban areas compared to 81 percent for men.

TABLE 5.7A  
AGE OF WORKING WOMEN  
DELHI

	Age			Total
	25-28	28-32	32-35	
PLANNED COLONIES	12	46	62	120
	10.0%	38.3%	51.7%	100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	32	68	20	120
	26.7%	56.7%	16.7%	100.0%

URBAN VILLAGE	26 21.7%	64 53.3%	30 25.0%	120 100.0%
	70 19.4%	178 49.4%	112 31.1%	360 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

Table 5.7A shows that Present Age of working women in planned colonies shows that around 52% women are more than 32 and less than 35. 38% women are between 28 and 32 and 10% women are in age group of 25-28, in planned colonies I encountered more women with more experiences, older compared to urban villages and unauthorized colonies. They had wider experiences about their work and they are working since long. In unauthorized colonies 57% women are in age group of 28 and 32, followed by 27% women who are in age group 25 and 28. And 17 % women in age group 32 and 35. In urban village 53% women are in age group 28 and 32, 25% between 32 and 35 and 22% women in age group 25 and 28.

Table 5.7B shows that Among non-working women in Delhi in planned colonies 50% women are in age group of 32-35 followed by 39% in age group 28 and 32 and 11% in age group of 25-28.

In unauthorized colonies 46% women are in age group of 28-32, 33 % women in age group 25-28, and 21% women in age group 32-35.

In urban village 54% women are in age group 25-28, followed by 44% women in 28-32 age group, and 3 % women in age group 32-35.

TABLE 5.7B  
AGE OF NON-WORKING WOMEN  
DELHI

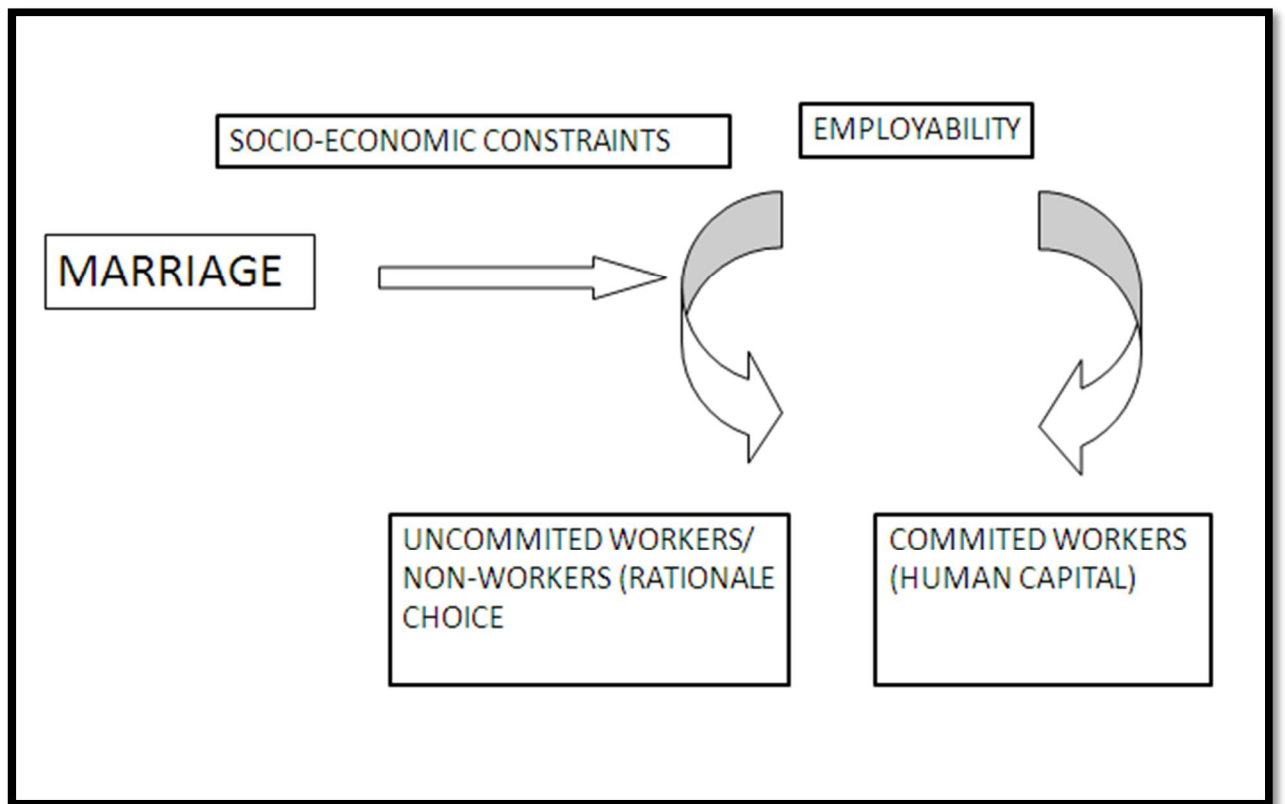
	Age			Total
	25-28	28-32	32-35	
PLANNED	9	31	40	80

	11.3%	38.8%	50.0%	100.0%
UNAUTHORISED	26	37	17	80
	32.5%	46.3%	21.3%	100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	43	35	2	80
	53.8%	43.8%	2.5%	100.0%
	78	103	59	240
	32.5%	42.9%	24.6%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**FIGURE 5.3**

**SCHEMATIC DIAGRAM OF RELATION BETWEEN MARRIAGE AND WORK**



Source-self

## 5.8 AGE AT MARRIAGE

Table 5.8A shows that when we observe the age at marriage in planned colonies 38% women got married in the age group 25 and 30 and 7% women got married above 30 years and 55% women are not married.

In unauthorized colonies 41% women are married below 25 years age and 13% women, got married in age group 25 and 30 and 47% women are unmarried in this area.

In urban village age at marriage is less than 25 for 43% women, 8% women got married when they were in age group of 25 and 30 and 49% women were unmarried.

Table 5.8B shows that For non-working women 24% women got married in age group 25 and 30, 11% women when they were less than 25 year of age and 5% women above 30. And 60% women in planned colonies were unmarried.

In unauthorized colonies 53% women got married when they were less than 25 year of age, 13% women in age group of 25 and 30, 1% women above 30 and 34% women are not married in unauthorized colonies.

In urban villages 53% women got married at age below 25, 11% women in age group 25 and 30 36% women are unmarried in the region.

TABLE 5.8A

### AGE AT MARRIAGE OF WORKING WOMEN

#### DELHI

	Age at marriage				Total
	<25	25-30	>30	UNMARRIED	
PLANNED COLONIES	0	46	8	66	120
	.0%	38.3%	6.7%	55.0%	100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	49	15	0	56	120
	40.8%	12.5%	.0%	46.7%	100.0%

URBAN VILLAGE	51	10	0	59	120
	42.5%	8.3%	.0%	49.2%	100.0%
	100	71	8	181	360
	27.8%	19.7%	2.2%	50.3%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 5.8B**  
**AGE AT MARRIAGE OF NON-WORKING WOMEN**  
**DELHI**

	Age at Marriage				Total
	<25	25-30	>30	NOT MARRIED	
PLANNED	9	19	4	48	80
	11.3%	23.8%	5.0%	60.0%	100.0%
UNAUTHORISED	42	10	1	27	80
	52.5%	12.5%	1.3%	33.8%	100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	42	9	0	29	80
	52.5%	11.3%	.0%	36.3%	100.0%
	93	38	5	104	240
	38.8%	15.8%	2.1%	43.3%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

## 5.9 CHILDREN BELOW 5 YEARS

Women remains active economically either through postponement of their marriage or by working until married couples starts having children. Working women has to work far more than their husband or non working women when it comes to taking care of the children and their daily activities. Though in some cases women do have responded that their husband share equal responsibilities and in some cases they had to

call their parents or in-laws to take care of their children as it was very difficult to manage alone both home and workplace.

In households where the father works full time and the mother works part time or not at all, the distribution of labor when it comes to childcare and housekeeping is less balanced. These moms take on more of the responsibility for parenting tasks and household chores than those who work full time.

It is difficult for women to balance the responsibilities of their job and families at the same time.

As we speculate at most recent cohorts of young women, by the time they will reach their mid-30's their earnings compared to men starts to decline. Motherhood is one of important factor that leads to interruptions in their career paths. When they have young children, their participation in the labor force is likely to decline.

TABLE 5.9A

CHILDREN BELOW 5 YEARS OF WORKING WOMEN (DELHI)

	Children below 5 years			Total
	ONE	TWO	NO	
PLANNED COLONIES	33 27.5%	5 4.2%	82 68.3%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	50 41.7%	13 10.8%	57 47.5%	120 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	49 40.8%	5 4.2%	66 55.0%	120 100.0%
	132 36.7%	23 6.4%	205 56.9%	360 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

TABLE 59B

CHILDREN BELOW 5 YEARS OF NON-WORKING WOMEN (DELHI)

	Children below 5	Total
--	------------------	-------

	ONE	TWO	NO	
PLANNED	27	5	48	80
	33.8%	6.3%	60.0%	100.0%
UNAUTHORISED	42	7	31	80
	52.5%	8.8%	38.8%	100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	44	3	33	80
	55.0%	3.8%	41.3%	100.0%
	113	15	112	240
	47.1%	6.3%	46.7%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

## 5.10 TOTAL CHILDREN

(Eagly and Carli, 2007) indicated that raising children while doing job is very hard to be maintained. In fact competing with demands among work and responsibilities in family is increasing due to demographic and workplace changes ( Abendroth and Dulk 2011).

Discrimination in pre and post maternity conditions and significant lack of flexible hours creates multiple barriers to workforce participation for women, as they are still considered primarily responsible for house care (Baird et al 2012.)

Government economic data suggests that young women start their initial job at equality of men in terms of wages. However, they strive hard to keep the parity as they start their family.

Women are twice more likely to work part-time than men and they are very much likely to take off from their current employment. The reason attributed is for care for children and other family member (Cohen 2012).

Although women's share has increased has increased in well paid jobs like lawyers, managers, the research conducted shows that women are more concentrated in women-dominated lesser paid jobs (Youngjoo, 2013).



TABLE 5.10A  
TOTAL CHILDREN OF WORKING WOMEN (DELHI)

	Total children					Total
	ONE	TWO	THREE	4	NO	
PLANNED COLONIES	30 25.0%	18 15.0%	1 .8%	0 .0%	71 59.2%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	7 5.8%	27 22.5%	29 24.2%	1 .8%	56 46.7%	120 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	11 9.2%	29 24.2%	15 12.5%	0 .0%	65 54.2%	120 100.0%
	48 13.3%	74 20.6%	45 12.5%	1 .3%	192 53.3%	360 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

TABLE 5.10B  
TOTAL CHILDREN OF NON-WORKING WOMEN (DELHI)

	Total children				Total
	ONE	TWO	THREE	NO	
PLANNED	9 11.3%	20 25.0%	3 3.8%	48 60.0%	80 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED	3 3.8%	36 45.0%	14 17.5%	27 33.8%	80 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	0 .0%	39 48.8%	12 15.0%	29 36.3%	80 100.0%
	12 5.0%	95 39.6%	29 12.1%	104 43.3%	240 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

## 5.11 INCOME OF HOUSEHOLD

Income of household is an important factor in determining women work. While working women said their contribution in family income is acknowledged in all 3 types of settlement and also supplement in family's expenditure. Very few access their own account, the lowest access being in unauthorized colonies and highest in planned colonies. Less than 40% women access their account or withdraw money from their own account. Non-working women in Planned Colonies did not work as their Household income was very high.

**TABLE 5.11A**  
**ANNUAL INCOME OF HOUSEHOLD (WORKING)**

	Income of household			Total
	< 5 lakh	5-10 lakh	> 10 lakh	
PLANNED COLONIES	0 .0%	104 86.7%	16 13.3%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	63 52.5%	57 47.5%	0 .0%	120 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	91 75.8%	29 24.2%	0 .0%	120 100.0%
	154 42.8%	190 52.8%	16 4.4%	360 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 5.11B**  
**ANNUAL INCOME OF HOUSEHOLD (NON-WORKING)**

	Income of household			Total
	< 5 LAKH	5-10 LAKH	> 10 LAKH	
PLANNED	2	42	36	80

	2.5%	52.5%	45.0%	100.0%
UNAUTHORISED	66	14	0	80
	82.5%	17.5%	.0%	100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	61	19	0	80
	76.3%	23.8%	.0%	100.0%
	129	75	36	240
	53.8%	31.3%	15.0%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

### 5.12 PARENT'S EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

Mother's education is significant predictor in women's participation. Women who's Mother with intermediate and graduate level of education are more likely to do work than women's mother with less educational level. Though father's education is very important indicator to determine women's educational level. Educated parents know the value of education and thus encourage their children to study.

**TABLE 5.12A**  
**MOTHER'S EDUCATIONAL LEVEL (WORKING)**

	Mother's educational level				Total
	MATRICULATE	INTERMEDIATE	GRADUATION	POST GRADUATION	
PLANNED COLONIES	0 .0%	17 14.2%	95 79.2%	8 6.7%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	6 5.0%	51 42.5%	59 49.2%	4 3.3%	120 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	1 .8%	46 38.3%	67 55.8%	6 5.0%	120 100.0%
	7	114	221	18	360

**TABLE 5.12A**  
**MOTHER'S EDUCATIONAL LEVEL (WORKING)**

	Mother's educational level				Total
	MATRICULATE	INTERMEDIATE	GRADUATION	POST GRADUATION	
PLANNED COLONIES	0 .0%	17 14.2%	95 79.2%	8 6.7%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	6 5.0%	51 42.5%	59 49.2%	4 3.3%	120 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	1 .8%	46 38.3%	67 55.8%	6 5.0%	120 100.0%
	7 1.9%	114 31.7%	221 61.4%	18 5.0%	360 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 5.12B**  
**MOTHER'S EDUCATIONAL LEVEL (NON-WORKING)**

	Mother's educational level			Total
	MATRICULATE	INTERMEDIATE	GRADUATE	
PLANNED	0 .0%	28 35.0%	52 65.0%	80 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED	40 50.0%	40 50.0%	0 .0%	80 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	0 .0%	40 50.0%	40 50.0%	80 100.0%
	40 16.7%	108 45.0%	92 38.3%	240 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 5.13A**  
**FATHER'S EDUCATIONAL LEVEL (WORKING)**

	Father's educational level			Total
	GRADUATION	POST GRADUATION	ABOVE	
PLANNED COLONIES	45 37.5%	51 42.5%	24 20.0%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	62 51.7%	51 42.5%	7 5.8%	120 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	57 47.5%	53 44.2%	10 8.3%	120 100.0%
	164 45.6%	155 43.1%	41 11.4%	360 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 5.13B**  
**FATHER'S EDUCATIONAL LEVEL (NON-WORKING)**

	Father's educational level			Total
	INTERMEDIATE	GRADUATE	POST GRADUATE	
PLANNED	0 .0%	36 45.0%	44 55.0%	80 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED	12 15.0%	56 70.0%	12 15.0%	80 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	36 45.0%	44 55.0%	0 .0%	80 100.0%
	48 20.0%	136 56.7%	56 23.3%	240 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

## 5.14 MIGRATION

It has been articulated that migrants those who come to urban areas especially national capital they have also many expectation from the city and they want to make their standard of living better, they want better avenues, more security and many other reasons which allures them to the national capital region. They also bring with them overlay of urban or rural traditions, values from the states from which they have come, and have also established different ways of doing things, thus migrants position in the new urban context that is the area they have migrated to involves responses to the old traditions, culture, conflict and tensions with new urban context.

Migrants women are more from Unauthorized colonies followed by Urban Villages and then in Planned Colonies. More than 50% women are migrants in all three types of settlement i.e. planned colonies, Unauthorized colonies and urban villages. UP, Punjab, West Bengal ,Haryana are main states from where migration took place in Planned Colonies. Bihar, UP, Punjab, Haryana for primary states from where migration took place in unauthorized colonies. Haryana, UP are important states from where migration took place in Urban Villages. Marriage is main cause of migration for all three types of settlement. In Planned Colonies, the primary reason attributed for migration is Marriage followed by moved with Household. In Unauthorized Colonies, the primary cause was Marriage followed by better avenues and better Standard of living. In Urban Villages the most significant reason was Marriage followed by better job prospect for migration.

**TABLE 5.14A**  
WHETHER MIGRATED WORKING WOMEN

	Migrated		Total
	YES	NO	
PLANNED COLONIES	68	52	120
	56.7%	43.3%	100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	76	44	120
	63.3%	36.7%	100.0%

URBAN VILLAGE	71	49	120
	59.2%	40.8%	100.0%
	215	145	360
	59.7%	40.3%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 5.14B**  
MIGRATED NON-WORKING WOMEN

DELHI

	Migrated		Total
	YES	NO	
PLANNED	42	38	80
	52.5%	47.5%	100.0%
UNAUTHORISED	48	32	80
	60.0%	40.0%	100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	43	37	80
	53.8%	46.3%	100.0%
	133	107	240
	55.4%	44.6%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 5.15A**  
STATES OF MIGRATION WORKING WOMEN  
DELHI

	States										Total
	UP	BIHAR	WB	PUNJAB	HARYANA	ORISSA	HP	MP	JAMMU AND KASHMIR	NOT MIGRATE D	
PLANNED COLONIES	17 14.2%	8 6.7%	10 8.3%	16 13.3%	8 6.7%	0 .0%	6 5.0%	2 1.7%	1 .8%	52 43.3%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	15 12.5%	19 15.8%	10 8.3%	15 12.5%	13 10.8%	0 .0%	0 .0%	3 2.5%	0 .0%	45 37.5%	120 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	10 8.3%	0 .0%	7 5.8%	15 12.5%	37 30.8%	3 2.5%	1 .8%	0 .0%	0 .0%	47 39.2%	120 100.0%
	42 11.7%	27 7.5%	27 7.5%	46 12.8%	58 16.1%	3 .8%	7 1.9%	5 1.4%	1 .3%	144 40.0%	360 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 5.15B**  
STATES OF MIGRATION NON-WORKING WOMEN  
DELHI

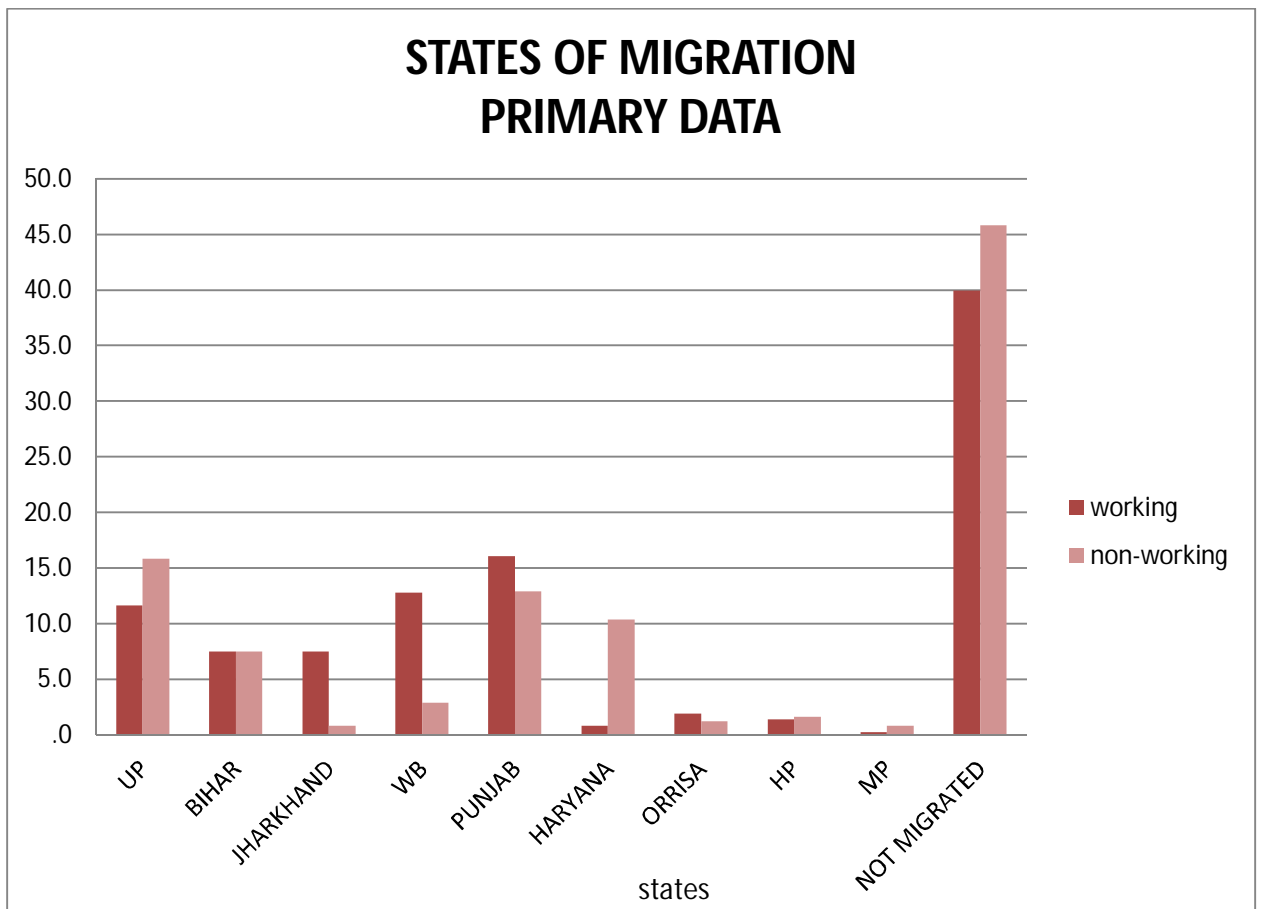
	State										Total
	UP	BIHAR	JHARKH AND WB	PUNJ AB	HARYA NA	ORRIS A	HP	MP	NOT MIGRATE D		
PLANNED	11 13.8%	3 3.8%	1 1.3%	1 1.3%	18 22.5%	6 7.5%	0 .0%	1 1.3%	1 1.3%	38 47.5%	80 100.0%



UNAUTHORISED	13 16.3%	8 10.0%	1 1.3%	6 7.5%	5 6.3%	8 10.0%	2 2.5%	1 1.3%	1 1.3%	35 43.8%	80 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	14 17.5%	7 8.8%	0 .0%	0 .0%	8 10.0%	11 13.8%	1 1.3%	2 2.5%	0 .0%	37 46.3%	80 100.0%
	38 15.8%	18 7.5%	2 .8%	7 2.9%	31 12.9%	25 10.4%	3 1.3%	4 1.7%	2 .8%	110 45.8%	240 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

FIGURE 5.4  
STATES OF MIGRATION



Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 5.16A**  
**REASON OF MIGRATION WORKING WOMEN**  
**DELHI**

	Reason for migration							Total
	EDUCATION	MARRIAGE	WORK	MOVED WITH HOUSEHOLD	SECURITY	BETTER AVENUES/STANDARD OF LIVING	NOT MIGRATED	
PLANNED COLONIES	2 1.7%	32 26.7%	4 3.3%	21 17.5%	2 1.7%	7 5.8%	52 43.3%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	0 .0%	47 39.2%	0 .0%	11 9.2%	1 .8%	16 13.3%	45 37.5%	120 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	0 .0%	45 37.5%	0 .0%	17 14.2%	0 .0%	11 9.2%	47 39.2%	120 100.0%
	2 .6%	124 34.4%	4 1.1%	49 13.6%	3 .8%	34 9.4%	144 40.0%	360 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 5.16B**  
**REASON OF MIGRATION NON-WORKING WOMEN**  
**DELHI**

	Reason for migration						Total
	MARRIAGE	WORK	MOVED WITH HOUSEHOLD	SECURITY	BETTER AVENUES/STD. OF LIVING	NOT MIGRATED	

PLANNED	22	0	0	4	16	38	80
	27.5%	.0%	.0%	5.0%	20.0%	47.5%	100.0%
UNAUTHORISED	24	2	6	2	11	35	80
	30.0%	2.5%	7.5%	2.5%	13.8%	43.8%	100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	22	0	8	1	12	37	80
	27.5%	.0%	10.0%	1.3%	15.0%	46.3%	100.0%
	68	2	14	7	39	110	240
	28.3%	.8%	5.8%	2.9%	16.3%	45.8%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

### 5.17. HIGHER EDUCATION OF WORKING AND NON-WORKING WOMEN

Higher education imparts skills in women for participation in labour market. In fact, education is the preliminary step which enhances person's caliber to perform in any field of their choice, Strategies that helps in enhancement of socio-economic equity in higher education embodies to advance fairness by changing composition of students enrolled in higher education, with appropriate model in which all strata of students are present i.e. ideal model of social representation. The second strategy highlights on access and completion of underrepresented groups.

Equitable tertiary systems ensures that education at tertiary level is not outcome of any discrimination based on socioeconomic status, ethnic origin, gender, immigrant status, place of residence, age or disability.

#### 5.17 INTERMEDIATE BOARD

Table 5.19A shows In planned colonies 77% women had CBSE as their 12<sup>th</sup> board followed by 23% ICSE. In unauthorized colonies 52% women had CBSE followed by 48% state board and in urban village 70% had state board followed by 29% CBSE board.

Table 5.19B shows non working women's board in 12<sup>th</sup> standard, 45% had CBSE as stream followed by 35% state board and 20% as ICSE. In unauthorized colony 70% had

state board followed by 28% as CBSE and 3% as ICSE, And in urban villages 69% had state board followed by 31% CBSE.

**TABLE 5.17A**  
**TWELVETH BOARD OF WORKING WOMEN**  
**DELHI**

	12TH_board			Total
	STATE BOARD	CBSE	ICSE	
PLANNED COLONIES	0 .0%	92 76.7%	28 23.3%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	58 48.3%	62 51.7%	0 .0%	120 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	84 70.0%	35 29.2%	1 .8%	120 100.0%
	142 39.4%	189 52.5%	29 8.1%	360 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 5.17B**  
**TWELVETH BOARD OF NON-WORKING WOMEN**  
**DELHI**

	12th board			Total
	STATE BOARD	CBSE	ICSE	
PLANNED	28 35.0%	36 45.0%	16 20.0%	80 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED	56 70.0%	22 27.5%	2 2.5%	80 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	55 68.8%	25 31.3%	0 .0%	80 100.0%
	139	83	18	240

**TWELVETH BOARD OF NON-WORKING WOMEN  
DELHI**

	12th board			Total
	STATE BOARD	CBSE	ICSE	
PLANNED	28 35.0%	36 45.0%	16 20.0%	80 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED	56 70.0%	22 27.5%	2 2.5%	80 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	55 68.8%	25 31.3%	0 .0%	80 100.0%
	139 57.9%	83 34.6%	18 7.5%	240 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**5.18 INTERMEDIATE STREAM**

Table 5.18 A shows that In planned colonies 44% women took science followed by 28% women who took commerce and 27% women took arts. In unauthorized colonies 53% took arts followed by 35% commerce and 13% science. In urban villages 55% took arts followed by 39% commerce and 6% science.

Table 5.18 B For non working women in planned colonies 44% women took commerce followed by 36% arts and 20% science. For unauthorized colonies 70% took arts followed by 30% commerce, no one had science form the interviewed ladies. In urban villages, 71% had arts and 29% had commerce

**TABLE 5.18 A  
INTERMEDIATE STREAM OF WORKING WOMEN  
DELHI**

	12TH stream			Total
	ARTS	COMMERCE	SCIENCE	
PLANNED COLONIES	33 27.5%	34 28.3%	53 44.2%	120 100.0%

UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	63 52.5%	42 35.0%	15 12.5%	120 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	66 55.0%	47 39.2%	7 5.8%	120 100.0%
	162 45.0%	123 34.2%	75 20.8%	360 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 5.18B**  
**INTERMEDIATE STREAM OF NON-WORKING WOMEN**  
**DELHI**

	12th stream			Total
	ARTS	COMMERCE	SCIENCE	
PLANNED	29 36.3%	35 43.8%	16 20.0%	80 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED	56 70.0%	24 30.0%	0 .0%	80 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	57 71.3%	23 28.8%	0 .0%	80 100.0%
	142 59.2%	82 34.2%	16 6.7%	240 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

### 5.19 GRADUATION STREAM

Table 5.19 A and B highlights the graduation stream of working and non-working women. For working women 43% women had science followed by 37% women who had done professional or technical degrees. 17% women had arts and 3% women had commerce in planned colonies. In unauthorized colonies 40% women had arts, followed by 20% women who had science, 23% women had commerce and 17% women who did professional or technical degrees. In urban villages 44% women had arts followed by

28% women who had commerce, 15% women had science and 13% did professional or technical courses.

Whereas for non-working women in planned colonies 33% women had commerce followed by 30% arts and commerce respectively, for unauthorized colonies 70% arts followed by 30% commerce, and for urban villages 71% arts followed by 29% commerce.

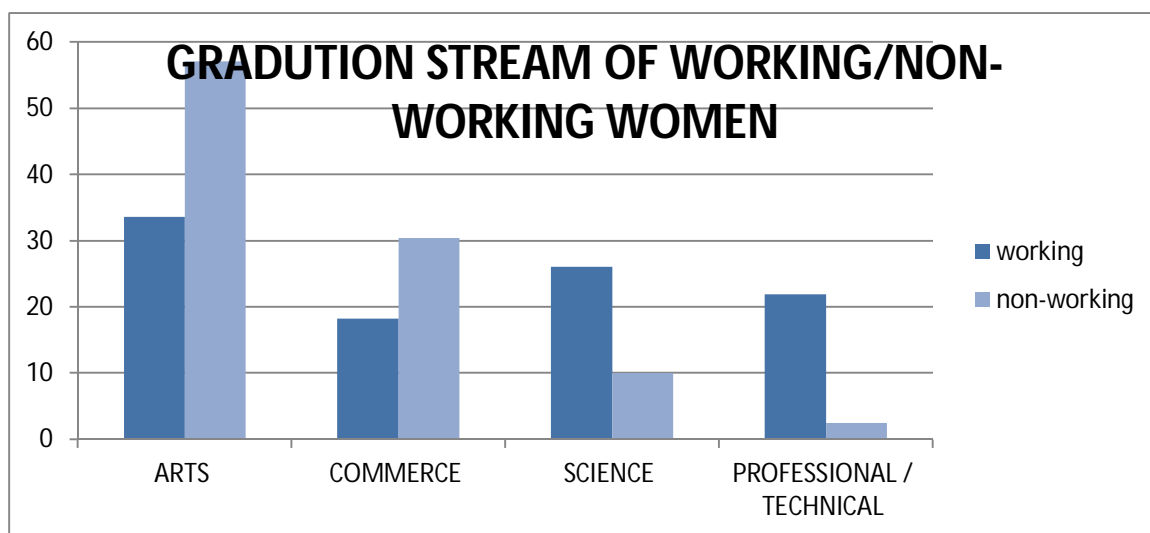
Among working women in Planned Colonies most of the women had science as their stream, followed by professional/technical, In Unauthorized colonies women had arts followed by commerce and same trends follows for Urban Villages. Among non-working women in planned colonies commerce followed by science, arts, In Unauthorized colonies arts followed by commerce and in Urban Villages again the same trend follows.

**TABLE 5.19  
GRADUATION STREAM OF WORKING AND NON-WOMEN IN DELHI**

	WORKING		NON-WORKING	
	N	Percent	N	Percent
ARTS	121	33.6	137	57.1
COMMERCE	66	18.3	73	30.4
SCIENCE	94	26.1	24	10.0
PROFESSIONAL / TECHNICAL	79	21.9	6	2.5
Total	360	100.0	240	100.0

**FIGURE 5.5**

**GRADUATION STREAM OF WORKING AND NON-WORKING WOMEN IN DELHI**



**TABLE 5.19 A**  
**GRADUATION STREAM OF WORKING WOMEN**  
**DELHI**

	Graduation stream				Total
	ARTS	COMMERCE	SCIENCE	PROFESSIONAL / TECHNICAL	
PLANNED COLONIES	20 16.7%	4 3.3%	52 43.3%	44 36.7%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	48 40.0%	28 23.3%	24 20.0%	20 16.7%	120 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	53 44.2%	34 28.3%	18 15.0%	15 12.5%	120 100.0%
	121 33.6%	66 18.3%	94 26.1%	79 21.9%	360 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16



**TABLE 5.19B**  
**GRADUATION STREAM OF NON-WORKING WOMEN**  
**DELHI**

	Graduation stream				Total
	ARTS	COMMERCE	SCIENCE	PROFESSIONAL/ TECHNICAL	
PLANNED	24 30.0%	26 32.5%	24 30.0%	6 7.5%	80 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED	56 70.0%	24 30.0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	80 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	57 71.3%	23 28.8%	0 .0%	0 .0%	80 100.0%
	137 57.1%	73 30.4%	24 10.0%	6 2.5%	240 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

### 5.20 LEVEL OF EDUCATION

Among working women in Planned Colonies the level of education is post graduates followed by graduates and above. In Unauthorized colonies and Urban Villages more graduates followed by postgraduates. Among non-working women more than 90% women in all three settlements responded that their level of education was until graduation.

**TABLE 5.20  
LEVEL OF EDUCATION**

	WORKING		NON-WORKING	
	N	Percent	N	Percent
GRADUATE	187	51.9	232	96.7
POST GRADUATE	158	43.9	8	3.3
ABOVE	15	4.2		
Total	360	100	240	100

**TABLE 5.20A  
LEVEL OF EDUCATION OF WORKING WOMEN  
DELHI**

	Level of education			Total
	GRADUATE	POST GRADUATE	ABOVE	
PLANNED COLONIES	39	66	15	120
	32.5%	55.0%	12.5%	100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	67	53	0	120
	55.8%	44.2%	.0%	100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	81	39	0	120
	67.5%	32.5%	.0%	100.0%
	187	158	15	360
	51.9%	43.9%	4.2%	100.0%

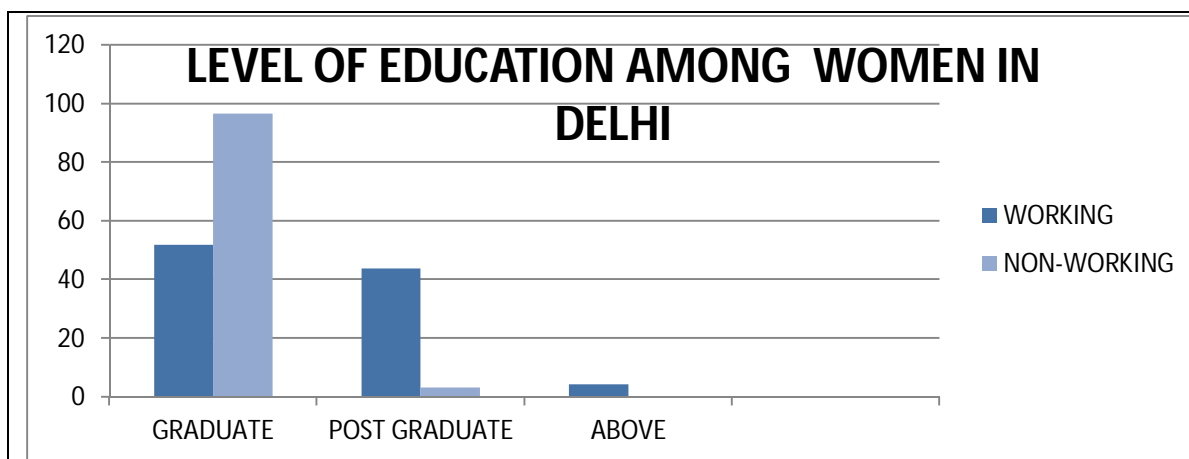
Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 5.20A**  
**LEVEL OF EDUCATION OF NON-WORKING WOMEN**  
**DELHI**

	Level of education		Total
	GRADUATE	POST GRADUATE	
PLANNED	75 93.8%	5 6.3%	80 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED	77 96.3%	3 3.8%	80 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	80 100.0%	0 .0%	80 100.0%
	232 96.7%	8 3.3%	240 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**FIGURE 5.6**



## 5.22 REASON FOR CHOOSING STREAMS

### WORKING

In planned colonies 53% women chose their stream because of interest, followed by job oriented and market demand constituting 23% respectively. In Unauthorized colonies Lack of financial support constitute 32%, interest-28%, less marks at intermediate level constitute 20%. In urban villages Lack of financial support, constitute 35%, followed by less marks with 28%, and 25% with interest.

### NON-WORKING

For non-working in planned colonies Interest with 45%, less marks with 30, and market demand with 25%. For Unauthorized colonies less marks constitutes 40%, lack of financial support 33%. For Urban Village, it is same as unauthorized colonies.

**TABLE 5.22B**  
**REASON FOR CHOOSING STREAMS (WORKING WOMEN)**  
**DELHI**

	Reason for choosing						Total
	INTEREST	JOB ORIENTED	MARKET DEMAND IN CURRENT AND FUTURE SCENARIO	PRESSURE FROM PARENTS/LI NEAGE	LESS MARKS SO DID'NT GET THE WANTED COURSE	LACK OF FINANCIAL SUPPORT	
PLANNED COLONIES	64 53.3%	28 23.3%	28 23.3%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	34 28.3%	20 16.7%	4 3.3%	0 .0%	24 20.0%	38 31.7%	120 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	30 25.0%	5 4.2%	1 .8%	9 7.5%	33 27.5%	42 35.0%	120 100.0%

	128	53	33	9	57	80	360
	35.6%	14.7%	9.2%	2.5%	15.8%	22.2%	100.0%

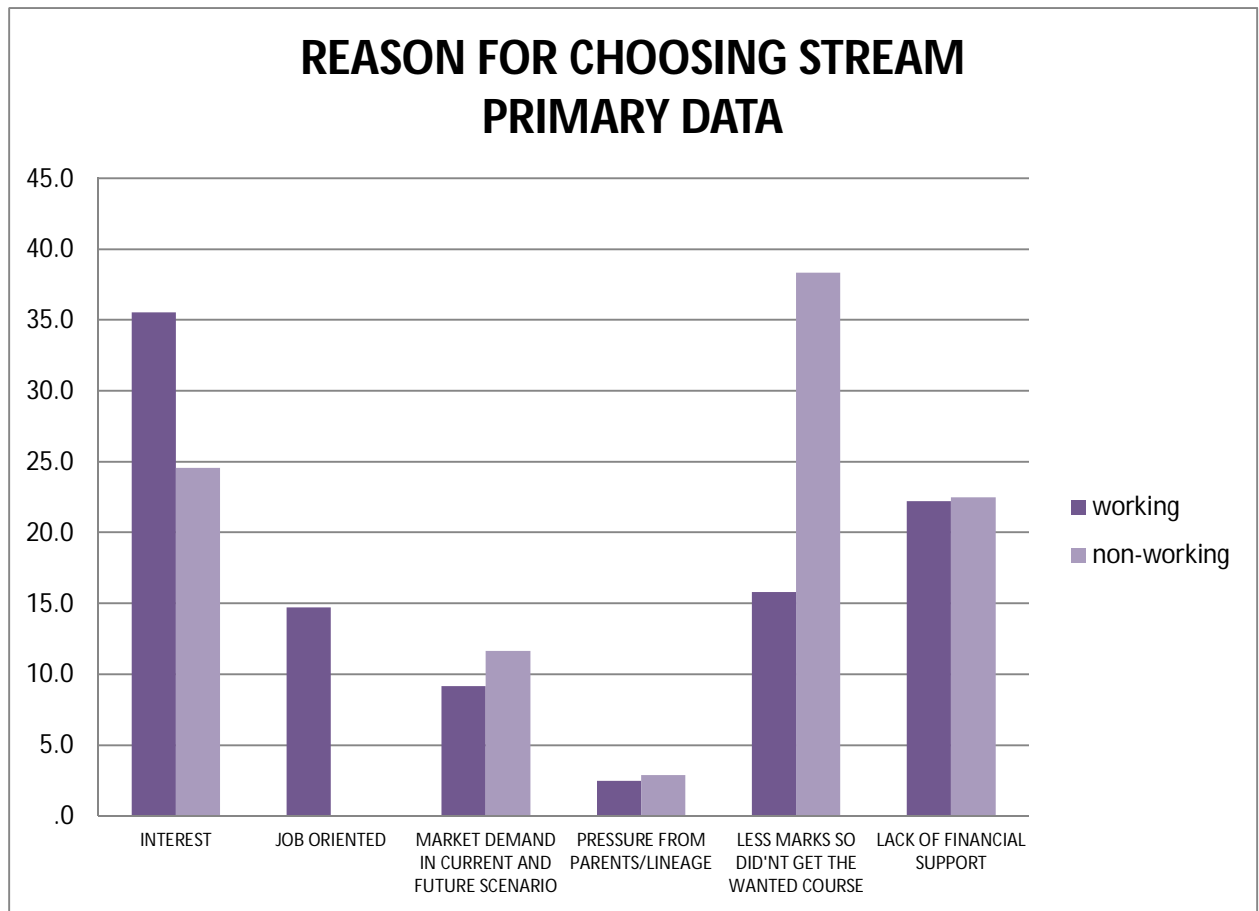
Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 5.22A**  
**REASON FOR CHOOSING STREAMS (NON-WORKING WOMEN)**  
**DELHI**

	Reason for choosing the stream					Total
	INTEREST	MARKET DEMAND IN CURRENT AND FUTURE SCENARIO	PRESSURE FROM PARENTS/ LINEAGE	LESS MARKS SO DID'NT GET THE WANTED COURSE	LACK OF FINANCIAL SUPPORT	
PLANNED	36 45.0%	20 25.0%	0 .0%	24 30.0%	0 .0%	80 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED	11 13.8%	4 5.0%	7 8.8%	32 40.0%	26 32.5%	80 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	12 15.0%	4 5.0%	0 .0%	36 45.0%	28 35.0%	80 100.0%
	59 24.6%	28 11.7%	7 2.9%	92 38.3%	54 22.5%	240 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**FIGURE 5.7**



Source - Primary survey 2015-16

### **5.23 HEALTH**

What is common among working and nonworking or non employed is that they both are prone to face numerous challenges on issue of health. Stresses and hassles every day. These stresses can come through many aspects. For example, women who are married are responsible and take care of performing domestic chores, childcare and elderly care, and housekeeping regardless of their employment status (Caplan, 1985; Sanchez & Hall, 1999; Spain & Bianchi, 1996). Particularly, employed women may face difficulties attempting to fulfill the demands of both home and work. At the same time, non-

employed women may feel tired and irritated with the household chores, childcare, and care giving to older family members (Borland, 1982; Brody, 1990).

Women were found either suffering from acute diseases or chronic diseases. Acute diseases are those, which last for short period of time, and do not cause bad effect on women e.g. cough, cold, typhoid, cholera. Chronic disease is those, which last for long time, even as much as life time. They have drastic long-term effect on health. E.g. Diabetes, arthritis etc.

Most prevalent diseases among working women are back pain, spondalasis, and diseases that are caused from pollution. Most of the women in all types of settlement majorly suffered from pollution. They said either they had some sort of breathing problem, or irritation in eye, skin problem etc. so we can conclude saying that working women who are much more exposed to pollution in Delhi suffer from such type of diseases.

#### **5.24 TYPE OF DISEASES**

Table 5.24A shows diseases prevalent among working or employed women. In planned colonies 61%, women do not suffer from any disease while 25% women suffer from acute diseases. And 14% suffer from chronic disease. In unauthorized colonies, 33% does not suffer from any diseases. No reporting regarding health problem. 34% suffer from chronic diseases and 33% suffer from acute diseases. In urban villages 38% suffer from no diseases, 37% suffer from acute diseases and 24% suffer from chronic diseases.

Table 5.24B shows diseases prevalent among non-working population. In planned colonies 50% women reported that they did not suffered from any diseases, while 35% reported that they suffered from acute diseases and 15% reported that they were suffering from chronic diseases. In unauthorized colonies 50% reported that they did not had any diseases while 25% reported that they suffered from chronic and acute diseases. In urban villages 60% reported that they did not suffered from any diseases, while 30% reported

that they suffered from acute diseases followed by 10% who said that they suffered from chronic diseases.

More number of non-working women reported that they did not suffered from any disease compared to working women. This may be due to less exposure of pollution by non-working as they are mostly residing in the house for most of the time. Whereas working women had to commute and they are more exposed to dust and pollution and other pollutants.

In fact more of working women reported that they were suffering from chronic diseases or long term diseases in last one month. 14% in Planned colonies, 34% in unauthorized colonies and 24% in urban villages. The nature of chronic disease most common in working women are spondalasis, obesity, back pain, asthma, bronchitis, Arthritis.

**TABLE 5.24A**  
**TYPE OF DISEASE PREVALENT AMONG WORKING**  
**WOMEN IN LAST ONE MONTH**  
**DELHI**

	Type of disease			Total
	ACUTE	CHRONIC	NO	
PLANNED COLONIES	30 25.0%	17 14.2%	73 60.8%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	40 33.3%	41 34.2%	39 32.5%	120 100.0%



URBAN VILLAGE	45 37.5%	29 24.2%	46 38.3%	120 100.0%
	115 31.9%	87 24.2%	158 43.9%	360 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 5.24B**  
**TYPE OF DISEASE PREVALENT AMONG NON-WORKING WOMEN**  
**IN LAST ONE MONTH**  
**DELHI**

	Type of disease			Total
	ACUTE	CHRONIC	NO	
PLANNED	28 35.0%	12 15.0%	40 50.0%	80 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED	20 25.0%	20 25.0%	40 50.0%	80 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	24 30.0%	8 10.0%	48 60.0%	80 100.0%
	72 30.0%	40 16.7%	128 53.3%	240 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

### 5.25 TREATMENT TYPE

Table 5.25A shows treatment type among working women whenever they are ill, in planned colonies 72% women go for private hospitals as they responded that they don't trust the government hospital and 28% responded that they went to public hospitals. In unauthorized colony 67% women said, they go to public hospitals followed by 33% women who reported that they go to private dispensaries. In urban village 84% women

reported that they went to public hospitals followed by 16% who reported that they went to private hospitals.

Table 5.25B gives a glance of women who are not employed and the treatment type they go for when they are not well. In planned colonies women reported that 60% underwent private dispensaries followed by 40% who prefer going to public dispensaries. In unauthorized colonies 60% women responded that they went to public dispensaries followed by 40% women who went to private dispensaries. In urban villages 90% women who were surveyed went to public dispensaries, followed by 10% who went to private dispensaries.

**TABLE 5.25A**  
**TREATMENT TYPE AMONG WORKING WOMEN**  
**DELHI**

	Treatment type		Total
	PUBLIC	PRIVATE	
PLANNED COLONIES	34 28.3%	86 71.7%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	80 66.7%	40 33.3%	120 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	101 84.2%	19 15.8%	120 100.0%
	215 59.7%	145 40.3%	360 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 5.25B**

**TREATMENT TYPE AMONG NON-WORKING WOMEN  
DELHI**

	Treatment type		Total
	PUBLIC	PRIVATE	
PLANNED	32 40.0%	48 60.0%	80 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED	60 75.0%	20 25.0%	80 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	72 90.0%	8 10.0%	80 100.0%
	164 68.3%	76 31.7%	240 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

Table 5.26A shows performance of duties by other member of house when women are not well. This table highlights for the working women. In planned colonies 30% women said that their maid do all the household work, even if they are not suffering from any diseases. 28% responded that they got their husband support in performance of household chores when they were not well. 26% responded that other family member helped them a lot in household work when they were not well. And 16% responded that they had to do their own work when they were not well as they didn't get anyone's help when they are not well.

In unauthorized colonies 52% women responded that didn't get anyone's help when they were ill. They had to perform all the household duties themselves. 25% responded that their husband helped them for some household chores when they were not well. 22% responded that other family member helped them in household chores when they were not well. And 2% responded that maid helped them in household chores.

In urban villages 48% women responded that they did the household work themselves as they didn't got help from any other source. 32% women responded that they got help from their husband, 18% women reported that they got help from other

family member and 3% responded that maid helped them in their illness for all the household chores.

Table 5.26 B shows assistance to non working women when they are not well. In planned colony 45% women responded that their maid does all the work when they are not well, 35% women responded that their husband helped or assisted their work when they were not well.15% said they other family member helped in performing household chores when they are not doing well. And 16% responded that no one helped when they were not well.

In unauthorized colonies 48% responded that they did not get help from anyone and thus had to work alone in spite of not being healthy because it was their responsibilities. 26% women said that they got help from other family members, 25% said that their husband took care of work in house and 1% women said that their maid helped them out. In urban villages 41% women said that no one shared responsibilities of work, 20% said their husband helped in some of their household chores, 14% women said that other family member helped them and 5% said that their maid helped them in the household chores.

**TABLE 5.26 A**  
**PERFORMANCE OF ASSIGNED DUTY AMONG WORKING WOMEN**  
**DELHI**

	Who perform your assign duty				Total
	HUSBAND	OTHER FAMILY MEMBER	MAID	NO ONE	
PLANNED COLONIES	34	31	36	19	120

	28.3%	25.8%	30.0%	15.8%	100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	30	26	2	62	120
	25.0%	21.7%	1.7%	51.7%	100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	38	21	4	57	120
	31.7%	17.5%	3.3%	47.5%	100.0%
	102	78	42	138	360
	28.3%	21.7%	11.7%	38.3%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 5.26 B**  
**PERFORMANCE OF ASSIGNED DUTY AMONG NON-WORKING**  
**WOMEN**  
**DELHI**

	Who perform your assign duty				Total
	HUSBAND	OTHER FAMILY MEMBER	MAID	NO ONE	
PLANNED	28	12	36	4	80
	35.0%	15.0%	45.0%	5.0%	100.0%
UNAUTHORISED	20	21	1	38	80
	25.0%	26.3%	1.3%	47.5%	100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	32	11	4	33	80
	40.0%	13.8%	5.0%	41.3%	100.0%
	80	44	41	75	240
	33.3%	18.3%	17.1%	31.3%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

Women those who are working and married are found to be low on anxiety and experience higher life satisfaction in comparison to the non employed married women. Working women perceive their life as secure and challenging. They are usually comfortable with their life situations. Whereas non-employed women are less satisfied with their lives and their anxiety level is also high compared to working women.

## **SUMMARY**

This chapter deals with socio-economic and demographic characteristics of working and non-working women. The chapter has been discussed with following heading as general information under which religion, social group; type of family has been discussed. Under Household characteristics number of storey, ownership of house, structure of house, has been discussed, then in next section Household detail have been discussed, where age of working women, marital status, age at marriage, children below five years, total number of children's, income of household, mother's educational level, father's educational level, has been discussed. In next section migration details have been discussed, where information's regarding whether they have migrated or not, sectors of migration, states of migration, reason of migration have been discussed. In later section their characteristics of higher education and their health characteristics have been discussed.

## CHAPTER 6

### ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF WORKING AND NON-WORKING WOMEN AND THEIR DETERMINANTS

*“While parents in both rural and urban India are increasingly willing to invest in educating their daughters, the idea of women working outside the home is still culturally hard to digest.”*

#### ECONOMIC SETTING

Women’s participation in the formal sector of economy leads to increase of gender equality and women’s empowerment. Historically, participation in the formal sector of economy is considered most important way to women’s empowerment and has increased gender equality.

Increase in women’s formal employment helps in contribution to achievement of (MDGs) Millennium development goals. Their access to formal employment contributes to the other achievements of MDG’s 3, 2 and 1 (Kabeer, 2010). Increasing access to salaried employment in formal sector by women contributes directly to the achievement of third MDGs (promotion of gender equality and empowerment of women), progress of women can be measured by this indicator (share of women in salary employment in the non-agricultural sector). It also contributes to the achievement of MDG 1 though indirectly (eradicating extreme poverty and hunger), by increasing the capacity of various households to educate their children and incentives to them to educate girls in particular, it also addresses second MDG (achieve universal primary education) through the target of 2A which ensures that by 2015 children would be able to complete the full course of primary education without any discrimination of gender. And target 3A which would eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education.

Across the process of economic development, women’s labour force participation is U-shaped when incomes are very low and certain types of agriculture dominates in the region then largely women are in the labour force. There are sometimes paid labourers and more often there are unpaid workers on family farms and also in household business.

As income rise in the societies due to market expansion and due to introduction of new technologies, women labour force participation starts declining. Women retreat into their home from work, although their hours of work may not differ. However, as female education improves and they acquire education they again start working in the market. Thus they move back to paid labour force category. These explanations make women fit into U-shaped curve.

The discrimination that exists at various levels in hiring, job conditions, income and workplace for women, a brief idea of its types and economic consequences have been illustrated in the table below.

TABLE 6.0  
GENDER AND DISCRIMINATION IN LABOUR MARKET; TYPES,  
ECONOMIC CONSEQUENCES.

	Types	Economic consequences
Hiring Process	Denial in participation in job	Leading to unemployment and lesser income of household
Employment	Denial of some kind of job	Under employment
Income	Less income compared to male counterparts.	Loss of income
Workplace conditions	Differential treatment	Lesser equal rights, gender inequality.

Source – Thorat, 2003



## **WORK RELATED CHARACTERISTICS OF WORKING WOMEN IN DELHI:**

### **6.1 Occupation**

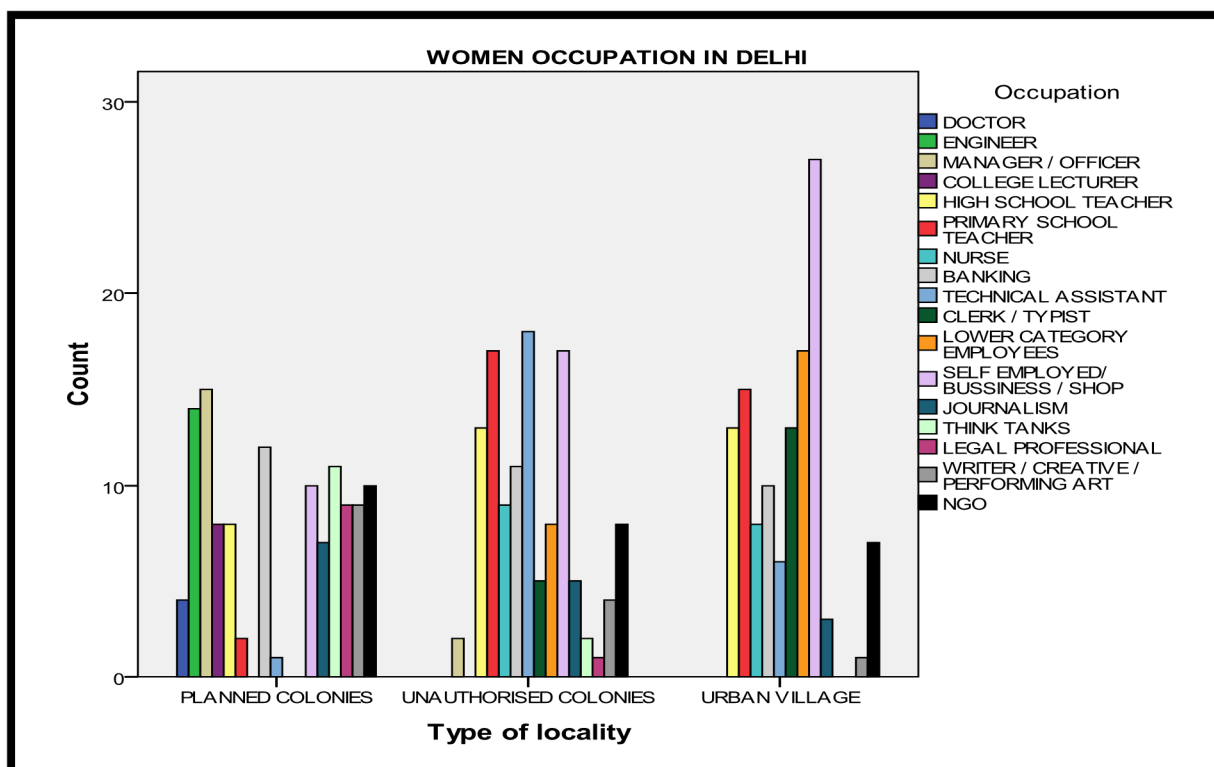
In the labour market system that exists in India the concept of under-employment and unemployment are questionable in character, one half of the Indian workforce is self-employed in nature and they operate outside the per view of employee-employer relationship, and also work without income (World Bank 2013). Variations in women work participation can also viewed in distress conditions where when the household income declines reserved labour force are sent to work outside, to supplement them. (Srivastava and Shrivastava 2010, Mazumdar and Neetha 2011). I encountered some women who are doing menial job due to such circumstances.

Delhi constitutes diversity cosmopolitan population engaged in varied sectors of economy. This chapter would deal with various determinants and dimensions of women work in tertiary sector after completion of their higher education. The work participation rate of women is very less compared to other states, and major metropolitan cities of India. Since married women have more engagement as they have to go out for work to earn livelihood and also take care of family members inside the household, the issues which are related to women work participation makes it really very complex compared to men who only have to deal with work, with very less responsibilities of household.

In planned colonies, most prevalent works are managers/officers, followed by engineers, banking, think tanks, NGO's etc. Thus, we see the work participation among women in planned colonies is more sophisticated in nature, and they do not go for any menial job. The jobs are highly paid in nature. In Unauthorized colonies, most prevalent work is technical assistants, primary school teachers, self-employed and high school teachers, and in urban villages, the most prevalent occupation is self employed/business, followed by lower category jobs like in customer care services etc, and next is primary school teachers and clerks/typists.

**FIG 6.1A**

**WOMEN OCCUPATION IN DELHI**



**TABLE 6.1A**  
**VARIOUS OCCUPATION OF WORKING WOMEN**

	Frequency	Percent
DOCTOR	4	1.1
ENGINEER	14	3.9
MANAGER / OFFICER	17	4.7
COLLEGE LECTURER	8	2.2
HIGH SCHOOL TEACHER	34	9.4
PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHER	34	9.4

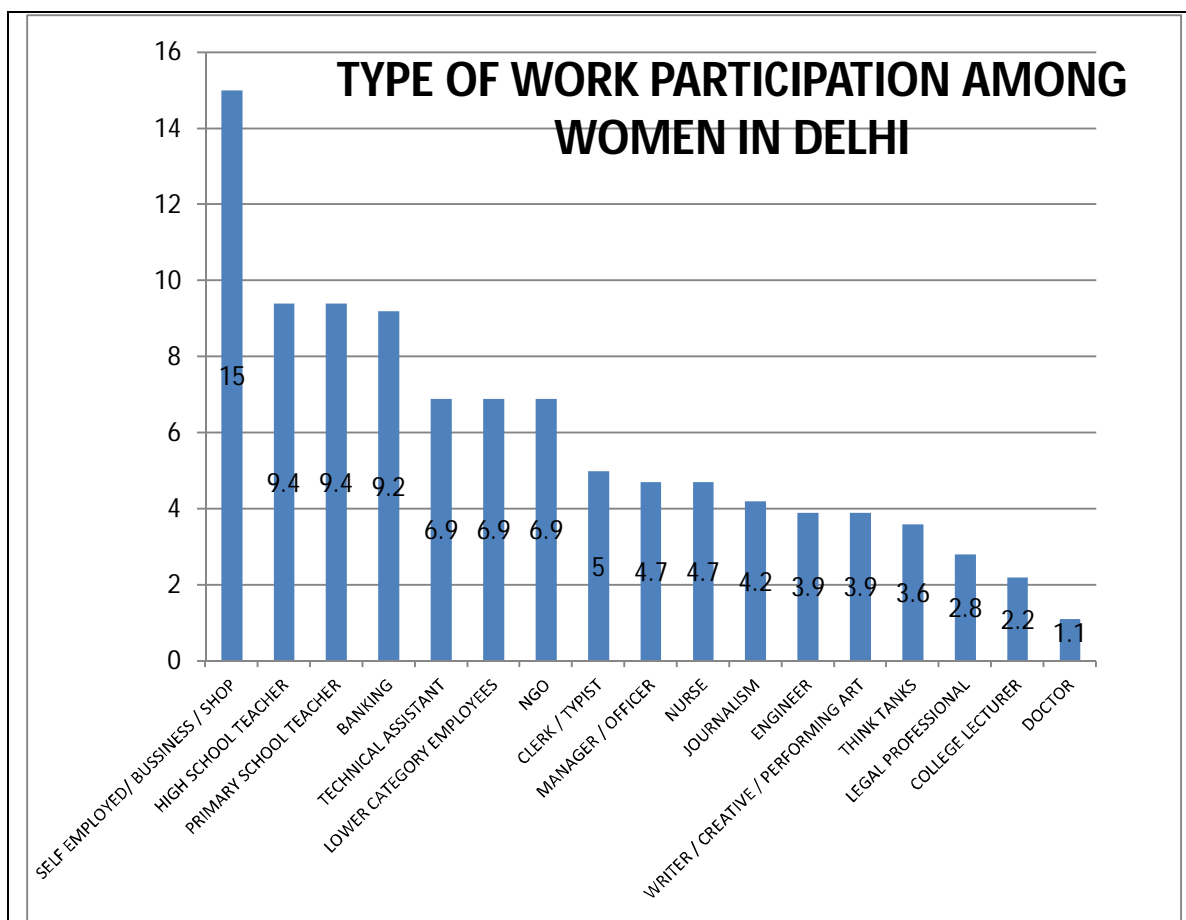
NURSE	17	4.7
BANKING	33	9.2
TECHNICAL ASSISTANT	25	6.9
CLERK / TYPIST	18	5.0
LOWER CATEGORY EMPLOYEES	25	6.9
SELF EMPLOYED/ BUSSINESS / SHOP	54	15.0
JOURNALISM	15	4.2
THINK TANKS	13	3.6
LEGAL PROFESSIONAL	10	2.8
WRITER / CREATIVE / PERFORMING ART	14	3.9
NGO	25	6.9
Total	360	100.0

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

Figure 6.1B shows the type of work participated by women in Delhi in all three types of settlement, so the range is wide from planned colonies to unauthorized colonies to urban villages. 15% women are self-employed in nature majorly from urban villages and unauthorized colonies. Self-employed women have diversity of work in which they are participating e.g. Boutique, catering, restaurant manager, painter painting and selling beautiful painting canvas. 9% women are in teaching at high school, primary school level, and also in banking sector. In fact, many women responded while surveying that most preferred job among women is teaching because in this profession work and family is managed very well. Again banking is also preferred as a job by women, among banking the career taken by women are probationary officer, clerk, etc. other work done by surveyed women are technical assistant, lower category work like call centers, BPO's. these works are very risky and the salary is also not very good, but some women are doing these kind of work because they are not getting good job may be because of less skill which are usually imparted to professional degree students. Women are also

working in NGO's. There are many NGO's working on various issues, like women emancipation, environment, women trafficking, child labour. Then comes clerks, typists, managers/officers, nurses, journalism, engineer, creative/performing art, think tanks, legal professional working in court and as legal advisor, college lecturer, and doctors.

FIGURE 6.1B  
TYPE OF WORK PARTICIPATION AMONG WOMEN IN DELHI



Source - Primary survey 2015-16

## 6.2 Convergence

Table 6.2 shows the convergence between education and work in Delhi. The following table suggests that are women doing job that is related to their studies or that follows their studies or it is different from their studies or attainment of degrees. And the difference which is seen is due to what factors. Is it because of family pressure or they can't manage family and work at the same time or some other reason. In planned colonies, we see there is more convergence compare to unauthorized and urban villages and 76% women said that the work they are doing follows their studies, though 24% women said there was no convergence between education and work. In unauthorized colonies 41% women responded that there was convergence whereas 59% women's work was not linked with their studies and they were sacrificing good job at the sake of their families and settling for average work. In urban villages only 31%, women had convergence between education and work compared to 69% women who didn't had convergence.

Convergence between education and work suggests that women doing work is related to their studies or streams. There may be no convergence due to family pressure or priority given by women to their family over job. 76% women in planned colonies abided by the fact that there was convergence, followed by 41% women in Unauthorized Colonies, and 31% women in urban villages.

**TABLE 6.2A**

### **CONVERGENCE BETWEEN EDUCATION AND WORK**

	Convergence between education and work		Total
	YES	NO	
PLANNED COLONIES	91 75.8%	29 24.2%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	49 40.8%	71 59.2%	120 100.0%

URBAN VILLAGE	37 30.8%	83 69.2%	120 100.0%
	177 49.2%	183 50.8%	360 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

Table 6.2 B shows that if there is no convergence between education and work then the reasons for no convergence are highlighted in the next table. The main reason in Unauthorized Colonies (53%) and Urban Village (70%) are family pressure, which led them to choose the career different from what then are specialized in. Family did not let them to pursue their dream jobs mostly because people living in Urban Village are very traditional and conservative in nature. Whereas in Planned Colonies 38% women responded that due to their own wish to handle family and work there is no convergence between education and work.

**TABLE 6.2 B**  
**REASON FOR NO CONVERGENCE BETWEEN EDUCATION AND WORK**

	Reason for no convergence			Total
	Family pressure	Own wish	Other reason	
PLANNED COLONIES	9 31%	11 38%	9 31%	29 100%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	37 53%	28 39%	6 8%	71 100%
URBAN VILLAGE	58 70%	20 24%	5 6%	83 100%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 6.2C**  
**RESULTS OF BINARY LOGISTIC REGRESSION EXPLAINING**  
**CONVERGENCE BETWEEN WOMEN EDUCATIONAL LEVEL AND WORK**

		<b>N</b>	<b>Sig.</b>	<b>Exp(B)</b>
Religious group	Hindu®	218	.066	
	Muslim	63	.233	1.459
	Sikh and others	79	.097	.613
Social group	General®	130	.492	
	OBC	149	.409	1.251
	SC,ST	81	.255	1.421
Type of family	Nuclear®	186	.120	
	Joint	126	.799	1.067
	Extended	48	<b>.043</b>	2.267*
Marital status	Married®	179		
	Unmarried	181	<b>.045</b>	1.294*
Income of household	<5 lakh®	154		
	>5 lakh	206	<b>.003</b>	.481**
Husband's Educational level	Graduate®	43	.031	
	Post graduate and above	136	<b>.031</b>	.398*
Father's educational level	Graduate®	164	.104	
	Post graduation	155	<b>.033</b>	1.589*
	Above	41	.611	.821
Mother's educational level	up to intermediate®	121		
	grad and above	239	<b>.011</b>	2.526*
Children below 5 years	one®	132	.884	
	Two	23	.629	.783
	No	205	.957	1.026

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**Note:** \*\*\*P<0.01; \*\*P<0.05.

**Note:** Dependent variable- convergence between education and work, 1-YES, 2- NO

(®) indicates reference category

As shown in Table 6.2C, the analysis has been done using binary logistic regression. The important variables which has impact on convergence between education and work are type of family, marital status, income of household, husband's educational level, father's educational level and mother's educational level. Women with extended family are more likely to have convergence between education and work compare to nuclear and joint family. The probable reason may be because women living in extended family has no work load on her shoulder's the work are decided between other family member too, that is why she is more likely to do job which follow her education.

Secondly, unmarried women are more likely to have convergence between education and work compared to married women because unmarried women are more independent and have more tendencies to work freely without any responsibilities compared to married women. Income of the household also determines whether there is convergence between education and work. Family who has high income may have women who do not have convergence between education and work, because they might just work for fun or luxury or rather time pass. Therefore, there might be no convergence between education and work.

If husband's educational level is post graduate then there is probability of no convergence between education and work as he might be earning good enough and wife is just earning money without thinking to support family.

### **6.3 ENTERPRISE TYPE (PUBLIC/PVT/PPP)**

Enterprise types illustrate various operating systems. Public sector enterprises retain stronger bureaucratic and monopoly features despite there is increase in level of market force. But at the same time there is job security, working hour is not tedious compared to private firms and employers are eligible of getting social security benefits.

Managers in private enterprises are more competent and do possess certain autonomy in making strategic business decisions but we hardly see women at this position (glass ceiling effect). Private enterprises do take more risks in pursuit of getting



profit but employers are prone to do late shift jobs, with more working hours, and do not enjoy social security benefits.

(Cook and Saini, 2010) observed that Indian firms, which are locally built, tend to lag behind the multinational companies (MNC's) in their work culture, policies, diversities and practices.

As we can see in planned colonies both public and private company women employee have equal share. Whereas in unauthorized and urban villages private company women employee is more in number compared to public sector employee, the reason can be attributed is that in planned colonies women have higher avenues as their education is from premier institutes and hence they are more eligible educationally and vocally and also are more skilled, and that can be seen in the type of job they are doing which are high profile in nature where as in unauthorized colonies and in urban villages the nature of job is not that great in nature. Though some also work In public sector wit good job profile.

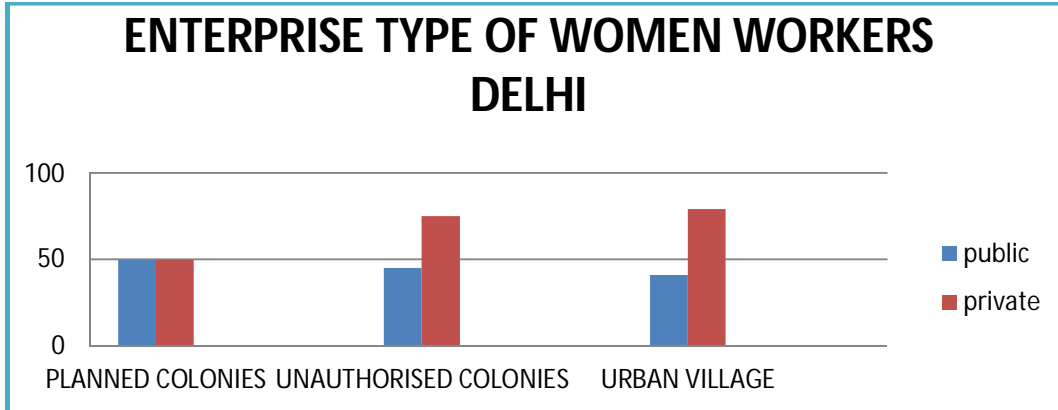
**TABLE 6.3**  
**ENTERPRISE TYPE**

	Enterprise type		Total
	PUBLIC	PRIVATE	
PLANNED COLONIES	60	60	120
	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	45	75	120
	37.5%	62.5%	100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	41	79	120
	34.2%	65.8%	100.0%
	146	214	360
	40.6%	59.4%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**FIGURE 6.3**

**ENTERPRISE TYPE**



**6.4 NUMBER OF WORKERS IN ENTERPRISE**

In planned colonies 55% women responded that in their enterprise less than 20 women were there followed by 36% women who responded that there were 20-40 workers in their enterprise. 6% women didn't know how many workers were there in the enterprise.

In unauthorized colonies 39%, women said that there were less than 20 workers in their enterprise, followed by 31% who told that there were 20-40 workers in the enterprise they were working, 12% told that 40-60 workers were there in the enterprise. And 18% didn't know.

In urban villages 66%, women said that there were < 20 workers in their enterprise, followed by 21% women who said that their enterprise had 20-40 employers. In addition, 13% said that they did not know.

**TABLE 6.4A**  
**NUMBER OF WORKERS IN THE ENTERPRISE**

	N	Percent
< 20	192	53.3
20 – 40	105	29.2
40 – 60	14	3.9
60 – 80	2	.6
80 – 100	1	.3
> 100	1	.3
NOT KNOWN	45	12.5
Total	360	100.0

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 6.4B**  
**NUMBER OF WORKERS IN THE ENTERPRISE IN DIFFERENT SETTLEMENT**

	Number of workers in enterprise							Total
	< 20	20 - 40	40 - 60	60 - 80	80 – 100	> 100	NOT KNOWN	
PLANNED COLONIES	66 55.0%	43 35.8%	0 .0%	2 1.7%	1 .8%	1 .8%	7 5.8%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	47 39.2%	37 30.8%	14 11.7%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	22 18.3%	120 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	79 65.8%	25 20.8%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	16 13.3%	120 100.0%

	192	105	14	2	1	1	45	360
	53.3%	29.2%	3.9%	.6%	.3%	.3%	12.5%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

## 6.5 GRIEVANCE REDRESSAL BODY

The act of Sexual Harassment of Women at Workplace (Prevention, Prohibition and Redressal) Act, 2013 is an initiative to protect women against sexual harassment at their work place. According to a FICCI-EY November 2015 report, 36% of Indian companies and 25% among MNCs are not compliant with the Sexual Harassment Act, 2013. The government has threatened to take stern action against employers who fail to comply with this law.

(Jones, 2006) observed that one of the most important barriers to women's professional outcomes or job participation is sexual harassment. It affects economic empowerment, gender stereotypes and job segregation at work place. This could be the reason for women not to work outside home. When laws are made and they protect women against sexual harassment and other sorts of discrimination in workplace, women may be more encouraged to work without any fear. Thus inclined towards active participation in workplace.

In planned colonies 55% women said there was no grievance redressal body at their workplace followed by 45% women who said there was grievance redressal body at their workplace. In unauthorized colonies 94% women said that there was no grievance redressal body followed by 6% women who said there was grievance redressal body. In urban villages 99% responded that there was no grievance redressal body followed by 1% who said that there was grievance redressal body at their workplace.

Due to less number of grievance redressal body reported by women in Unauthorized colonies (6%), and Urban Villages (15), may be one reason that although enters into job market but leave after some time. (3% of non working women in Unauthorized colonies reported of leaving the job due to lack of grievance redressal body

**TABLE 6.5  
GRIEVANCE REDRESSAL BODY IN WORKING PLACE**

	Grievance redressal body		Total
	YES	NO	
PLANNED COLONIES	54 45.0%	66 55.0%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	7 5.8%	113 94.2%	120 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	1 .8%	119 99.2%	120 100.0%
	62 17.2%	298 82.8%	360 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

### 6.6 INCOME OF WOMEN WORKER

Income is considered an important driving force for women to do job. In planned colonies 58% women responded that their annual income was between 3-5 lakhs followed by 33% women whose annual income was more than 5 lakhs and 8% women whose annual income was less than 3 lakhs. In unauthorized colonies and urban villages 90% women had salary less than 3 lakhs.

TABLE 6.6A  
ANNUAL INCOME OF WORKING WOMEN

	Frequency	Percent
< 3 lakh	223	61.9
3-5 lakh	96	26.7
> 5 lakh	41	11.4
Total	360	100.0

Primary survey 2015-16

TABLE 6.6B  
ANNUAL INCOME OF WORKING WOMEN IN DIFFERENT TYPES OF  
SETTLEMENT

	Income of women			Total
	< 3 lakh	3-5 lakh	> 5 lakh	
PLANNED COLONIES	10	70	40	120
	8.3%	58.3%	33.3%	100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	108	11	1	120
	90.0%	9.2%	.8%	100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	105	15	0	120
	87.5%	12.5%	.0%	100.0%
	223	96	41	360
	61.9%	26.7%	11.4%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

TABLE 6.6C  
ANNUAL INCOME OF WORKING WOMEN ACCORDING TO QUALIFICATION

	Income of women				Total
	< 3 lakh	3-5 lakh	> 5 lakh	NOT APPLICABLE	
GRADUATE	136 32.5%	34 8.1%	17 4.1%	232 55.4%	419 100.0%
POST GRADUATE	86 51.8%	54 32.5%	18 10.8%	8 4.8%	166 100.0%
ABOVE	1 6.7%	8 53.3%	6 40.0%	0 .0%	15 100.0%
	223 37.2%	96 16.0%	41 6.8%	240 40.0%	600 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

It could be clearly seen from the above table that as level of education is increasing so in income of women increasing. Among graduates 32.5% women earn less than 3 lakh followed by 8% women who earn 3-5 lakhs and 4% women earn more than 5 lakhs. For postgraduates 52% women earn less than 3 lakhs followed by 33% women who earn 3-5 lakhs and 11% women earn more than 5 lakhs. Women who have attained education above postgraduate degrees, 53% women earn in between 3 to 5 lakh and 40% women earn more than 5 lakh. So we see that trend which can be seen from the sample is that as women acquire more qualification their income tend to increase

## 6.7 WORKING HOUR

Flexible working hour is important criteria to let women prosper in her career as she can look after the family as well. In planned colonies 73% women work for 5-8 hours followed by 23% women who work more than 8 hours. And 4% women who work for less than 5 hours. In unauthorized colonies 78% women work for 5 to 8

hours and 23% women work for more than 8 hours. In urban villages 74% women work for 5-8 hours followed by 25% women who work more than 8 hours.

TABLE 6.7A  
WORKING HOURS OF WORKING WOMEN

	Frequency	Percent
< 5 HOUR	5	1.4
5 - 8 HOUR	266	73.9
> 8 HOUR	89	24.7
Total	360	100.0

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

TABLE 6.7B  
WORKING HOURS OF WORKING WOMEN

	Working hour			Total
	< 5 HOUR	5 - 8 HOUR	> 8 HOUR	
PLANNED COLONIES	5 4.2%	87 72.5%	28 23.3%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	0 .0%	93 77.5%	27 22.5%	120 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	0 .0%	86 71.7%	34 28.3%	120 100.0%
	5 1.4%	266 73.9%	89 24.7%	360 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16



TABLE 6.7C  
ACTIVITIES ENGAGED

	Household chores/reproductive work/unpaid work	Working hour	Commutation	Personal grooming/self/gym/walk/their own time	Entertainment/hobbies	Rest
Working women	5	7	2	2	1	7
Non-working women	10-12	-	-	2	2-3	7

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

For working women average working hour is 7 hours and for commutation they take 2 hours, i.e. from home to workplace and vice versa. For household chores and reproductive unpaid work they have 5 hours to give. For personal grooming i.e. time for themselves where they look after themselves and their belonging. For non-working women they have ample time for household chores/reproductive and unpaid work.

Next section would deal with the organization facilities and barriers, which women face in work place. Organizational facilities help women to participate with more efficiency and give the optimum output to the organization where she participates. Whereas organizational barriers leads to hurdles and obstacle in her output to the organization. The organizational facilities and barriers can be clubbed as:

**ORGANISATIONAL FACILITIES**

- Maternity leave
- Encouragement/Co-operation from Colleague
- Creche facility
- Training Program

**ORGANISATIONAL BARRIERS**

- No promotion/Disrimination
- Difference in salary between male and female
- Additional work load without compensation
- Lack of job security

## **6.8.ORGANIZATIONAL FACILITES OR CAREER ENABLERS**

Organizational facilities or the career strength indicators are the indicators to manage the performance and helps women to do their best in the organization, without facing any hassle and hence there is good relationship between the employer and the organization. It also helps in managing various aspects of the career. Each career strength indicator has impact of each other and they deliver positive impact on women career. (Corwin, 2003)

A career enabler or organizational facilities are those that provides support to women employee in the workplace and also it contributes to her professional development (Saundarya Rajesh and Karthik Ekambaram, 2012)

### **6.8.1 MATERNITY LEAVE**

Economic theory suggests that maternity leave provisions increase the number of women in the workforce so it is very good initiative to make women work in the labour market, both at the time of pregnancy and after giving birth to the child. **Government of India (GOI)** has now introduced 26 weeks of maternity leave compared to earlier 12 weeks of maternity leave and it is considered great step towards boosting of women participation in workforce. It would be beneficial to 18 lakh women who are working in formal sector of economy. In world, only 2-3 countries are ahead of India in providing Maternity leave more than India. A driving force that encourages women in labour market is leave provision, which is being extended in all countries over the world (Abendrth and Dulk, 2011).

In planned colonies 91% women claim maternity leave followed by 9% women who do not claim maternity leave. In unauthorized colonies 96% women are benefitted by maternity leave followed by 4% women who are not benefitted by maternity leave. In urban villages 90%, women are privileged by maternity leave followed by 10% who are not benefitted.

**TABLE 6.8.1**

**MATERNITY LEAVE**

	Maternity leave		Total
	YES	NO	
PLANNED COLONIES	109	11	120
	90.8%	9.2%	100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	115	5	120
	95.8%	4.2%	100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	108	12	120
	90.0%	10.0%	100.0%
	332	28	360
	92.2%	7.8%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**6.8.2 ENCOURAGEMENT/ COOPERATION FROM INSTITUTION.**

Cooperation and encouragement in the workplace can make a big difference between success and failure of many work projects. In a workplace where there is good cooperation, an individual gets engaged in open communication and are free to express their ideas. Cooperation is not an easy thing to be achieved in the workplace, but it is worth to make an effort because it results to an operation, which is harmonious and productive in nature. Encouragement and cooperation leads to:

- Increased Productivity
- Improved Job Satisfaction
- Reduction in Misunderstandings

But the things got to be known from respondents are very different. In planned colonies 76% women said that they didn't experienced any cooperation from the organization followed by 24% women who told that their colleagues were very cooperative, in unauthorized colonies 99% women responded that they didn't experienced any cooperation followed by 1% women who said there was cooperation and

encouragement in their organization. In urban villages 100% women responded that there was no cooperation in the organization where they were working.

**TABLE 6.8.2**  
**ENCOURAGEMENT/ COOPERATION FROM INSTITUTION**

	Encouragement/ cooperation from institution		Total
	YES	NO	
PLANNED COLONIES	29 24.2%	91 75.8%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	1 .8%	119 99.2%	120 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	0 .0%	120 100.0%	120 100.0%
	30 8.3%	330 91.7%	360 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

### **6.8.3 CRÈCHE FACILITY/ CHILD CARE FACILITY**

Availability of childcare institutions increases women labour participation in the market (Del Bola, 2002). Childcare provision have strong effect on women's employability, it is more than direct economic incentives (Haan and Wrohlich, 2011) (Gomick and Hegewisch, 2010) noted that child care systems or provisions helps increasing number of women in labourforce, at the same time it also improves the human capital development of the coming generation.

(Gomick and Hegewisch, 2010) asserted that women who does work provides double benefit for children's, more education and better quality of life.

Thus, childcare institutions are strongly related with women participation in workplace.

It can be observed that only 11% women in planned colonies responded that in their workplace crèche facility is available followed by 89% women who said no such facility is available. In unauthorized colonies not a single women responded that there was crèche facility in their workplace. Where as in urban villages 10% women said that there was crèche facility in their workplaces.

TABLE 6.8.3  
CRECHE FACILITY

	Creche facility		Total
	YES	NO	
PLANNED COLONIES	13 10.8%	107 89.2%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	0 .0%	120 100.0%	120 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	12 10.0%	108 90.0%	120 100.0%
	25 6.9%	335 93.1%	360 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

#### 6.8.4 TRAINING PROGRAMME

Training programme is important step towards more and more skill development and perfection towards the work, it helps in enhancement of learning and thus more and more output from the individual but training programme does not take place in the organization. In planned colonies 35% women responded that frequently training programme was organized in their working place while 65% women said there was no training programme in their workplace. In unauthorized colonies only 5% women said that there was training programme while 95% women said there were no training

programme. In urban villages 6% women responded that there was training programme in their workplace followed by 93% women who told there were no training programme.

**TABLE 6.8.4  
TRAINING PROGRAMME**

	Training programme		Total
	YES	NO	
PLANNED COLONIES	42 35.0%	78 65.0%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	6 5.0%	114 95.0%	120 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	9 7.5%	111 92.5%	120 100.0%
	57 15.8%	303 84.2%	360 100.0%

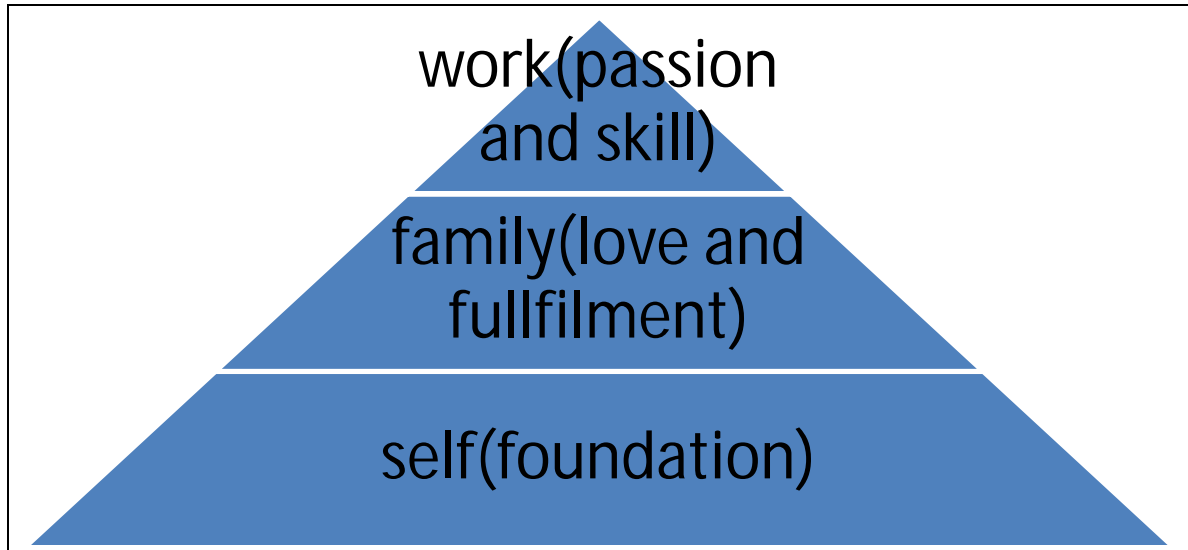
Source - Primary survey 2015-16

## **6.9 ORGANIZER BARRIERS**

Career breaks can be negotiated, with proficient structural support systems both at home and at workplace. E.g. if a member of family is always present at home, she can take care of the small kid in the family which helps working women to work more efficiently in the work place without taking career break. This in turn leads to the encouragement of joint family system. Similarly elder care can also be handed over in the hands of reliable people. Lack of growth opportunities, crimes against women, unsafe work environments, also act as structural barriers to women careers, and act as deterrent to her career journey.

A model of barriers, both social and structural, faced by women in the field of information technology is presented in a detailed study (Ahuja, 2002)

FIG. 6.4  
WORK LIFE BALANCE RELATIONSHIP



Source-self

### 6.9.1 NO PROMOTION/ DISCRIMINATION

(Kawaguchi, 2007) asserted that discrimination in the workforce do exist, which usually discourages women to continue a job and they leave in between. (Abe, 2009) observed that the impact of non-discrimination laws if they are followed in the workplace is widely helpful for highly educated women working in formal economy. Although women can exist from the job market if she wishes after marriage or child rearing/ bearing regardless of the legislation.

TABLE 6.9.1  
NO PROMOTION/GENDER BIASNESS

	No promotion/ gender biasness		Total
	YES	NO	
PLANNED	69	51	120

COLONIES	57.5%	42.5%	100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	48	72	120
	40.0%	60.0%	100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	51	69	120
	42.5%	57.5%	100.0%
	168	192	360
	46.7%	53.3%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

### 6.9.2 DIFFERENCE IN SALARY BETWEEN MALE AND FEMALE

A traditional wage equation of (Becker-Mincer, 2006) has three variables of human capital: education, work experience and the square of experience. For men and women these traditional wage equation works, but for women with children the expected average child bearing and rearing period leads to her withdrawal from the labour market for minimum 2 years, if suppose women had 3 children then she would have 6 years of less experience than the male counterpart who has attained the same age. Thus, less experience translating into low income for women who are of same age of his male colleague. Though she has same educational qualifications and have also entered the labour market at the same time. When I conducted the survey, I did asked the working women the perceptual question whether they experience difference in salary in their and male counterparts. Though this question is based on perception but it important to know whether there exists any discrimination in the organization where they work. In all categories of settlement almost half population responded that there exist discrimination in salary between male and female.

**TABLE 6.9.2  
DIFFERENCE IN SALARY BETWEEN MALE AND FEMALE**

	Difference in salary between male and female	Total
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	YES	NO	
PLANNED COLONIES	63 52.5%	57 47.5%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	64 53.3%	56 46.7%	120 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	56 46.7%	64 53.3%	120 100.0%
	183 50.8%	177 49.2%	360 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

### 6.9.3 ADDITIONAL WORK LOAD WITHOUT COMPENSATION

Again, this is the perceptual question, usually women working in private sector complained that they are overburdened with work from either their immediate superiors or the boss and they are not given extra perks or bonus for their work. It is mostly seen in private sector as well as in some of the government enterprise. Some women did said that the work which they were assigned when they started working in the organization, gradually kept on increasing without increasing in salary or without giving perks.

TABLE 6.9.3  
ADDITIONAL WORK LOAD WITHOUT COMPENSATION

	Additional work load without compensation		Total
	YES	NO	
PLANNED COLONIES	65 54.2%	55 45.8%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED	69	51	120

COLONIES	57.5%	42.5%	100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	65	55	120
	54.2%	45.8%	100.0%
	199	161	360
	55.3%	44.7%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

#### 6.9.4 LACK OF JOB SECURITY

Lack of job security is hard reality in today's job scenario. They are usually hired for a contract basis, sometimes their tenure is renewed, and other times they are fired. Especially if the employee is incompetent like pregnancy or getting married. These are some of the reasons why women are delaying child birth which again has repercussion and which again is different topic to discuss upon. Some women have even hidden the fact that they are married just because they don't want to get fired. Women living in unauthorized colonies have responded in large number (67%) that they live in threat of losing their job.

TABLE 6.9.4  
LACK OF JOB SECURITY

	Lack of job security		Total
	YES	NO	
PLANNED COLONIES	39	81	120
	32.5%	67.5%	100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	80	40	120
	66.7%	33.3%	100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	67	53	120
	55.8%	44.2%	100.0%
	186	174	360
	51.7%	48.3%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

## **6.10 COMMUTATION RELATED ISSUES**

Ubiquitous traffic snarl is leading to the increase in time taken to commute to work day by day. This act as another structural barricade for women that makes her rethinks about her career options.

The working urban woman in Delhi are deal with many problems in day to day life like doing all their day to day work or household chores then getting to work, dealing with many odds in commuting and facing many problems in workplace. They are so well equipped in life of avoiding stress, threat while commuting and diseases because they have to perform multitask, and their role in family as well as workplace is too much.

In Delhi, distance between home and place of work is too much, the problem is aggravated by living in polluted air and transport problems create sufficient tension for them and diseases such as asthma, bronchitis and many others . Dealing with everyday events and experiences at work and home make them very prompt in decision making at regular basis.

### **6.10.1 DISTANCE BETWEEN HOME AND WORKPLACE**

Distance plays an important factor in determining work of women. But still Delhi being National capital region and bunch of avenues being found in NCR, in the context of Delhi generally it had been seen that the workplace is situated quite a significant distance in terms of number of hours on an average a general employee had to span in commuting from his/her residences. This may be one of the reasons attributed for less participation of the women in workforce. Apart from this the frequent cases of eve teasing and harassment while commuting to workplace also aggravates the problems of women and act as a deterrent for women being an active part of workforce and delivering the results with full efficiency. In planned colonies maximum women i.e. 52% women commuted the range of 10-20 km of distance followed by 45% women who covers less than 10 km distance and 3% women covers more than 20 km distance. In unauthorized colonies 52% women commute 10-20 km distance followed by 48% women who covers less than 10km

and in urban villages 53 % women covers distance between 10-20 km followed by 37% women who covers less than 10 km and 11% women who covers more than 20 km.

**TABLE 6.10.1  
DISTANCE BETWEEN HOME AND WORKPLACE**

	Distance between home and workplace			Total
	< 10 KM	10 - 20 KM	> 20 KM	
PLANNED COLONIES	54 45.0%	62 51.7%	4 3.3%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	58 48.3%	62 51.7%	0 .0%	120 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	44 36.7%	63 52.5%	13 10.8%	120 100.0%
	156 43.3%	187 51.9%	17 4.7%	360 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

### 6.10.2 MODE OF TRANSPORT USED

In planned colonies 32% women use official cab, followed by 30% women who use metro as mode of transport, 29% women use private vehicles, 8% women use bus and 2 % women use auto. In unauthorized colonies 64% women use metro as mode of transport followed by 29% who use bus, 6% women use official cab. And in urban village 50% women use bus as mode of transport followed by 28% who use metro and 21% women use auto

**TABLE 6.10.2 A  
MODE OF TRANSPORT USED**

	N	Percent
PRIVATE VEHICLE	36	10.0

BUS	104	28.9
METRO	147	40.8
OFFICIAL CAB	45	12.5
AUTO	28	7.8
Total	360	100.0

Source -

**TABLE 6.10.2 B**  
**MODE OF TRANSPORT USED**

	Mode of transport used					Total
	PRIVATE VEHICLE	BUS	METRO	OFFICIAL CAB	AUTO	
PLANNED COLONIES	35 29.2%	9 7.5%	36 30.0%	38 31.7%	2 1.7%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	0 .0%	35 29.2%	77 64.2%	7 5.8%	1 .8%	120 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	1 .8%	60 50.0%	34 28.3%	0 .0%	25 20.8%	120 100.0%
	36 10.0%	104 28.9%	147 40.8%	45 12.5%	28 7.8%	360 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

### 6.10.3 TIME TAKEN TO COMMUTE

Many working women complained that much time was spent on commutation, that is the reason why some women even responded that they preferred staying in place near to workplace though the place was not located in desired location just to avoid commutation. In planned colonies 48% women reported that they spent in between 1-2 hour in commuting followed by 7% who said that they spent less than 1 hour in commutation.

In unauthorized colonies 68% women said that they spent between 1-2 hour in commutation followed by 19% who said they spent more than 2 hour in

commutation. In urban villages 74%, women spent 1-2 hour in commutation followed by 16% who spent more than 2 hours in commutation.

**TABLE 6.10.3 A**  
**TIME TAKEN TO COMMUTE**

	N	Percent
< 1 HOUR	84	23.3
1 - 2 HOUR	228	63.3
> 2 HOUR	48	13.3
Total	360	100.0

**TABLE 6.10.3 B**  
**TIME TAKEN TO COMMUTE**

	Time taken to commute			Total
	< 1 HOUR	1 - 2 HOUR	> 2 HOUR	
PLANNED COLONIES	56	58	6	120
	46.7%	48.3%	5.0%	100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	16	81	23	120
	13.3%	67.5%	19.2%	100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	12	89	19	120
	10.0%	74.2%	15.8%	100.0%
	84	228	48	360
	23.3%	63.3%	13.3%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

#### **6.10.4 MONTHLY EXPENDITURE ON COMMUTATION**

In planned colonies 65% women said that more than 2000 RS were spent on commutation followed by 34% who said that between 1000-2000 RS were spent on commutation. In unauthorized colonies, 51% women responded that they spent more than 2000 RS on commutation followed by 33% who said in between 1000-2000. In

urban villages 72%, women spent less than 1000 on commutation, followed by 28% in between 1000-2000.

**TABLE 6.10.4 A**  
**MONTHLY EXPENDITURE ON COMMUTATION**

	N	Percent
< 1000	107	29.7
1000 – 2000	114	31.7
> 2000	139	38.6
Total	360	100.0

**TABLE 6.10.4 B**  
**MONTHLY EXPENDITURE ON COMMUTATION**

	Monthly expenditure on commutation			Total
	< 1000	1000 - 2000	> 2000	
PLANNED COLONIES	1	41	78	120
	.8%	34.2%	65.0%	100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	20	39	61	120
	16.7%	32.5%	50.8%	100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	86	34	0	120
	71.7%	28.3%	.0%	100.0%
	107	114	139	360
	29.7%	31.7%	38.6%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

## 6.11 SELECTION PROCESS

### 6.11.1 MECHANISM THROUGH WHICH INFORMED ABOUT THE JOB

Mechanism through which they were informed about the job in planned colonies were that 51% women got to know from online sources followed by 23% from offline sources and 22% from friend and relatives. In unauthorized colonies 47% came to know though online sources, 37% from offline sources and 12% from colleagues. Whereas in urban villages 53% got information from off line sources and 32% from online sources.

**TABLE 6.11.1A**  
**MECHANISMS OF INFORMATION**

	N	Percent
OFFLINE EMPLOYMENT NEWS	136	37.8
ONLINE, NAUKRI.COM OTHERS	155	43.1
FRIENDS, RELATIVES, COLLEAGUES	38	10.6
CAMPUS HIRES	31	8.6
Total	360	100.0

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 6.11.1 B**  
**MECHANISM THROUGH WHICH INFORMED ABOUT THE JOB**

	Mechanism through which informed about the job(Preferred sourcing channel)				Total
	OFFLINE EMPLOYMENT NEWS	ONLINE, NAUKRI.COM OTHERS	FRIENDS, RELATIVES, COLLEAGUES	CAMPUS HIRES	



PLANNED COLONIES	28 23.3%	61 50.8%	26 21.7%	5 4.2%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	44 36.7%	56 46.7%	6 5.0%	14 11.7%	120 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	64 53.3%	38 31.7%	6 5.0%	12 10.0%	120 100.0%
	136 37.8%	155 43.1%	38 10.6%	31 8.6%	360 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

## 6.12 MODE OF SELECTION

The common written exams which are held enables women to enter job market at equal basis of their male counterpart. Recruitment exam process is innovative process and practice that has made possible fair recruitment of CHANDA KOCHAR (CEO of ICICI bank). She was the only female delegate in Kyoto Japan amongst 76 global banking executives to participate at the 2009 IMF conference.

The mode of selection of working women in different types of settlement suggests that in planned colonies 53% women have been selected through competitive exams and 48% women have been selected through direct recruitment. Whereas in unauthorized colonies 86% women were selected through competitive exams and 14% women from direct recruitment. In urban villages 75% women were selected from competitive examination and 25% women through direct mode of recruitment.

**TABLE 6.12 A**

### MODE OF SELECTION

	N	Percent
--	---	---------

DIRECT RECRUITMENT	104	28.9
COMPETITION	256	71.1
Total	360	100.0

Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 6.12 B  
MODE OF SELECTION**

	Mode of selection		Total
	DIRECT RECRUITMENT	COMPETITION	
PLANNED COLONIES	57 47.5%	63 52.5%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	17 14.2%	103 85.8%	120 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	30 25.0%	90 75.0%	120 100.0%
	104 28.9%	256 71.1%	360 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

## **6.13 CONTENTMENT**

### **6.13.1 DO YOU PREFER SWITCHING**

Contentment is very important factor in knowing that is women happy where she is working or she wants to change or switch the work. In planned colonies 48% women wants to switch their work as they are not happy with the organization or she is facing some or the other organization barrier. In fact some of them even said that they will leave the job if they will not get better job in other organization, and 53% women are happy in

their organization. In unauthorized colonies 33% women wants to switch over their job compared to 68% women who are happy in their job. In urban villages 40% women are not happy in their organization and wants to switch compared to 60% women who are satisfied with their work.

**TABLE 6.13.1  
DO YOU PREFER SWITCHING**

	Do you prefer switching		Total
	YES	NO	
PLANNED COLONIES	57 47.5%	63 52.5%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	39 32.5%	81 67.5%	120 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	48 40.0%	72 60.0%	120 100.0%
	144 40.0%	216 60.0%	360 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

### **6.13.2 REGISTERED WITH ANY PLACEMENT AGENCY**

Many women who are not satisfied with their work and want to switch over their job are registered in placement agency. In planned colonies 46% women are registered in some or the other placement agencies. in unauthorized colonies 33% women are registered in some or the other agencies and in urban villages 40% women are registered in placement agencies.

**TABLE 6.13.2**  
**REGISTERED WITH ANY PLACEMENT AGENCY**

	Registered with any placement agency		Total
	YES	NO	
PLANNED COLONIES	55 45.8%	65 54.2%	120 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	39 32.5%	81 67.5%	120 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	48 40.0%	72 60.0%	120 100.0%
	142 39.4%	218 60.6%	360 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

#### **6.14 NON-WORKERS**

Women who are not employed in India mainly depend on their parents in early stages of life before getting married and later on they depend on their husband for income, social status, social contacts, and even for personal (Somjee, 1989). On the other hand, women who are employed tend to have more prestige and independent identity because of their work positions. (Zipp & Plutzer, 2000). Particularly, those women who are employed in professions that have higher social status and recognition, such as doctors, engineer, professors, or any white collar job which is only possible when you are well educated enjoy even better status in the Indian society as well as in their families than non employed women (Dey & Bhavsar, 2002; Malhotra & Nair, 2005)

Non-working women were taken as a control for study and the reason was to interview them to find out what is the reason behind their not working though they are highly educated. 240 women were interviewed across Delhi from planned, unauthorized and urban villages residing in north, south, east, west part of Delhi.

The important reason for not working though attaining higher education are majorly classified as marriage, responsibilities, small kid, don't want to work, don't possess the skill to work, do not fulfill the eligibility criteria for work, family doesn't want them to work.

Form the main reason for not working mentioned above, marriage seems major reason for not working as they are relocated. Marriage acts as a structural constraint when it comes to women employability in India. Women are supposed to be less benefitted through their educational attainment in terms of work or employability because of their choices and constraints to the work compared to men.

(Hakim, 1995) observed that women's disadvantaged position after attainment of higher education in the labour market is not only the result of structural or institutions but because of their varying choices.

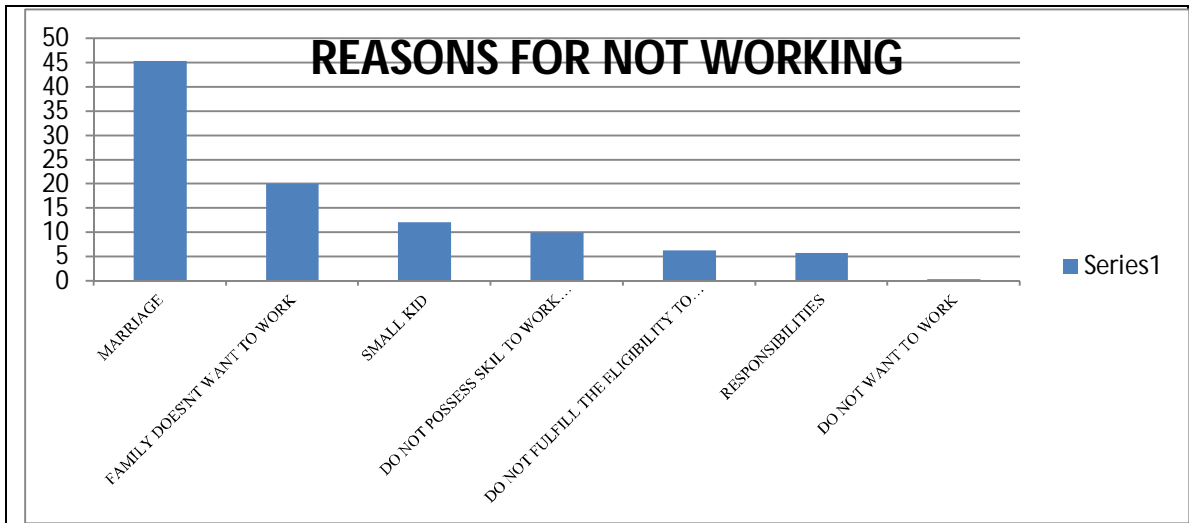
(Mazumdar, 2008) suggested that occupational segregation which are observed in the labour market is largely determined by constraints arising from post-marital childbearing and rearing.

**TABLE 6.14A**

**REASON FOR NOT WORKING (DELHI)**

	N	Percent
MARRIAGE	109	45.4
RESPONSIBILITIES	14	5.8
SMALL KID	29	12.1
DO NOT WANT TO WORK	1	.4
DO NOT POSSESS SKILL TO WORK LIKE, LANGUAGE BARRIER	24	10.0
DO NOT FULFILL THE ELIGIBILITY TO WORK	15	6.3
FAMILY DOES'NT WANT TO WORK	48	20.0
Total	240	100.0

**FIG. 6.5**  
**REASON FOR NOT WORKING**  
**DELHI**



**TABLE 6.14B**

**REASON FOR NOT WORKING**

**DELHI**

	Reason for not doing the job							Total
	MARRIAGE	RESPONSIBILITIES	SMALL KID	DO NOT WANT TO WORK	DO NOT POSSESS SKILL TO WORK LIKE, LANGUAGE BARRIER (individual)	DO NOT FULFILL THE ELIGIBILITY TO WORK (set by company)	FAMILY DOESNT WANT TO WORK	
PLANNED	28 35.0%	5 6.3%	4 5.0%	1 1.3%	12 15.0%	10 12.5%	20 25.0%	80 100.0%
UNAUTHORISED	42 52.5%	4 5.0%	12 15.0%	0 .0%	7 8.8%	1 1.3%	14 17.5%	80 100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	39 48.8%	5 6.3%	13 16.3%	0 .0%	5 6.3%	4 5.0%	14 17.5%	80 100.0%
	109 45.4%	14 5.8%	29 12.1%	1 .4%	24 10.0%	15 6.3%	48 20.0%	240 100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

In planned colonies marriage is the reason for 35% women to not work, followed by family does not want them to work constituting 25%, the other main reason is they does not possess skill for work like language barrier, or other sorts of lacuna constituting 15% and do not fulfill eligibility of work 13%. Responsibilities constitute 6%, small kid constitute 5%, do not want to work 1%.

In unauthorized colony marriage is the main cause for not working constituting 53%, followed by family doesn't want them to work 18%, the next big reason is small kid constituting 15%, do not possess skill to work constitute 9%, responsibilities constitute 5%, do not fulfill eligibility to work constitute 1%.

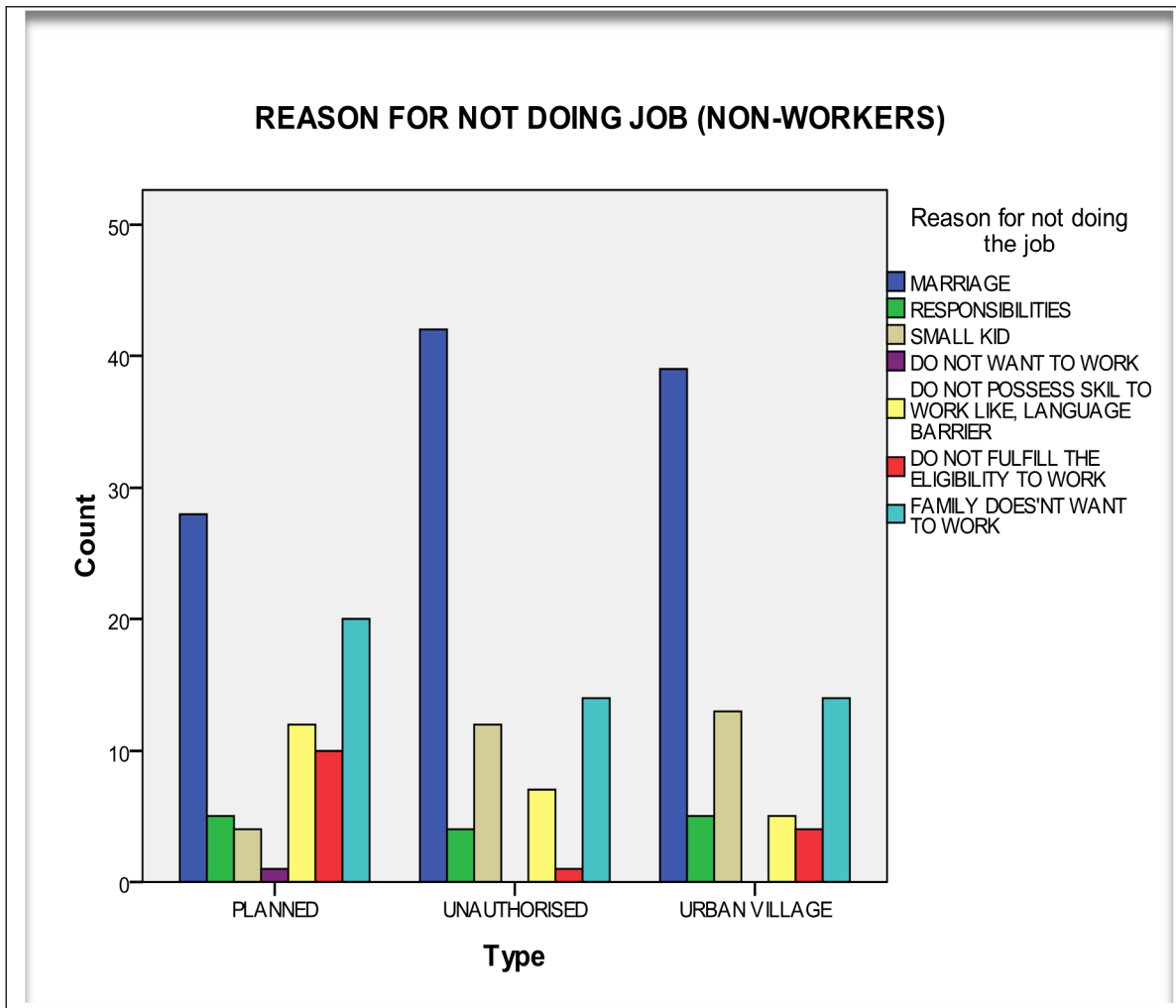
In urban villages again marriage constitute important factor for not working, constituting 49% followed by family doesn't want them to work accounting to 18%, the other reasons are small kid which is accounting to 16%, responsibilities and does not possess skill to work are 6 % and to not possess eligibility to work is 5%

(Gore and Ross, 1968) clearly indicates that upper caste females (even older ones) do not get their husband's approval to work outside.

Sanskritization of higher caste leads to immediate effect of withdrawal of working women from work as they don't consider it prestigious for women of high class to do job, hence there is decline in women work participation. Educated women or women with higher education are also not expected to menial job. They do such kind of job which suits their qualification or rather not to work hence this also leads to decline in women work participation.



**FIGURE 6.6**



Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 6.14.1**

**REGISTERED WITH ANY PLACEMENT AGENCY**

**DELHI**

	Registered with any placement agency		Total
	YES	NO	

PLANNED	20	60	80
	25.0%	75.0%	100.0%
UNAUTHORISED	21	59	80
	26.3%	73.8%	100.0%
URBAN VILLAGE	22	58	80
	27.5%	72.5%	100.0%
	63	177	240
	26.3%	73.8%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

In planned colony, 75% of women whom I have interviewed have not registered in any placement agency followed by 25% women who have registered themselves in any placement agency. In unauthorized colony 73%, women have not registered in any placement agency followed by 26% who have registered in any placement agency. In urban villages, again 73% have not registered themselves in any placement agency followed by 27% registered in any placement agency.

**TABLE 6.15**

**RESULTS OF BINARY LOGISTIC REGRESSION EXPLAINING MOST IMPORTANT SOCIAL VARIABLES FOR WORK PARTICIPATION OF UNMARRIED WOMEN**

		N	Sig.	Exp(B)
Type of family	Nuclear®	160	0.381	
	Joint	94	0.242	0.664
	Extended	31	0.293	0.539
Social group	General®	104	0.208	
	Other backward class	128	0.93	1.032
	Scheduled caste and tribe	53	0.097	2.146
Religious group	Hindu®	176	0.915	
	Muslim	38	0.718	1.214
	Sikh and others	71	0.892	0.952
Income of household	< 5 lakh®	86	0.000	
	5-10 lakh	157	<b>0.000**</b>	0.11
	> 10 lakh	42	<b>0.000**</b>	0.013
Mother's educational level	up to intermediate®	110		
	Graduate and above	175	<b>0.000**</b>	5.568
Father's educational level	up to graduate®	150		
	postgraduate and above	135	<b>0.000**</b>	3.094

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**Note:** \*\*\*P<0.01; \*\*P<0.05.

**Note:** Dependent variable- working women. (1- working women, 0- non-working women)

(®) indicates reference category

As shown in Table 6.15, the most important social variables explaining work participation of unmarried women are income of the household, mother's educational

level and father's educational level. All these independent variables made a unique statistically, significant contribution to the model. Income of the household holds a significant value of 0.000 for both income groups more than 5 lakhs and more than 10 lakhs. If women living in household has income more than 5 lakhs and 10 lakhs, then women are less likely to do work. Because the household has much money to suffice the needs of family. Similarly, mother and father's educational level also plays an important role in unmarried women's work participation. If mother's educational level is graduate and above then women are 5 times more likely to work compared to mother's educational level up to intermediate level. And father's educational level also predicts the significance. If father's educational level is postgraduate and above then women are 3 times more likely to work compared to father's education which is up to graduate.

**TABLE 6.16**

**RESULTS OF BINARY LOGISTIC REGRESSION EXPLAINING MOST IMPORTANT EDUCATIONAL VARIABLES FOR WORK PARTICIPATION OF UNMARRIED WOMEN**

		N	Sig.	Exp(B)
12TH stream	Arts®	133	0.289	
	Commerce	86	0.174	0.421
	Science	40	0.789	1.224
Marks_graduation	<55%	113	0.001	
	55-60%	121	0.263	1.545
	>60%	25	<b>0.003</b>	0.091**
GRAD stream	Arts®	116	0.001	
	Commerce	52	0.226	2.409
	Science	49	<b>0.004</b>	6.621**
	Professional / Technical	42	<b>0.000</b>	47.162**
Help in studies	Parents®	62	0.217	
	Sibbling	61	<b>0.058</b>	3.198*
	Tutor	49	0.277	2.12

	No one	87	0.664	1.261
Level of education	Graduate®	178		
	Post graduate and above	81	<b>0.000</b>	34.86**
12,GRD,PG tuition	Yes®	104		
	No	155	0.15	2.106
Distance from home to workplace	<5®	54	0.165	
	5 to 10 km	64	0.472	1.326
	>15	58	0.126	0.274
Mode of Transport from home to workplace	Public transport®	105	0.064	
	2 wheeler	59	0.94	1.039
	Metro	42	0.484	1.635
	own wheeler	37	0.009	6.172

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**Note:** \*\*\*P<0.01; \*\*P<0.05.

**Note:** Dependent variable- working women.(code 1- working, code 0- non working)

(®) indicates reference category

As shown in Table 6.16, the most important educational variables explaining work participation of unmarried women are, graduation stream, marks obtained in graduation, help in studies when they were getting education, level of education. Women with graduation as science stream and professional degrees are more likely to work compared to art stream. Women with science stream in graduation are 6 times more likely to work compared to arts stream and women with professional degrees are 47 times more likely to work compared to arts stream. Women with level of education as postgraduate and above are more likely to work compared to women who are graduate. Women with postgraduate degrees are 34 times more likely to work compared to women with graduate degrees, because women with postgraduates degrees have more wider scope in labour market and more avenues are opened for them. Similarly, if women have got more than 60% their chance of doing work is more than women with less marks.

**TABLE 6.17**

**RESULTS OF BINARY LOGISTIC REGRESSION EXPLAINING MOST IMPORTANT SOCIAL VARIABLES FOR WORK PARTICIPATION OF MARRIED WOMEN**

		N	Sig.	Exp(B)
Income of household	< 5 lakh®	86	0.000	
	5-10 lakh	134	<b>0.000</b>	0.131**
	> 10 lakh	40	<b>0.000</b>	0.01**
Social group	general®	81	0.196	
	Other backward class	114	0.087	0.501
	Scheduled caste and tribe	65	0.173	0.54
Religious group	Hindu®	150	0.118	
	Muslim	44	0.147	1.916
	Sikh and others	66	0.285	0.642
Type of family	Nuclear®	105	0.344	
	Joint	110	0.503	0.782
	Extended	45	0.331	1.606
Father's educational level	up to graduation®	29		
	Post graduate and above	231	0.997	3.44E+09
Children below 5	one®	228		
	more than 1	32	0.401	0.651
Mother's educational level	up to intermediate®	139		
	graduate and above	121	<b>0.027</b>	2.147*
Total children	one®	41		
	more than one	219	0.137	0.468

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**Note:** \*\*\*P<0.01; \*\*P<0.05.

**Note:** Dependent variable- working women.(code 1-working, code 0 –non working)

(®) indicates reference category

As shown in Table 6.17, the most important variables explaining work participation of married women are income of the household and mother’s educational level. All these independent variables play an important role in determining women participation in job market. If Income of the household is more than five lakhs or more than five lakhs, then women are less likely to work compared to household with less income. Because sometimes income imply an important role in determining whether women should work or not. Similarly, mother’s educational level also plays an important role in married women’s work participation, because a girl learns from her mother. If mother is independent throughout her life then that helps a girl to also pursue job and be independent like her mother. If mother’s educational level is graduate and above then women are 2 times more likely to work compared to mother’s educational level which up to intermediate level.

**TABLE 6.18**

**RESULTS OF BINARY LOGISTIC REGRESSION EXPLAINING MOST IMPORTANT EDUCATIONAL VARIABLES FOR WORK PARTICIPATION OF UNMARRIED WOMEN**

		N	Sig.	Exp(B)
12th stream	Arts®	152	0.962	
	Commerce	103	0.842	1.129
	Science	38	0.887	0.842
Graduation_marks	<55%	148	0.035	
	55-60%	118	0.178	1.853
	>60%	27	<b>0.003</b>	2.082**
Graduation stream	Arts®	132	0.065	
	Commerce	80	0.344	1.834

	Science	48	<b>0.005</b>	18.32**
	Professional / Technical	33	<b>0.004</b>	32.192**
Help in studies	Parents®	75	0.065	
	Sibling	49	0.077	6.6
	Tutor	62	<b>0.004</b>	14.523**
	No one	107	0.046	6.324
Level of education	Graduate®	213		
	Post graduate and above	80	<b>0.000</b>	13.221**
12,GRD,PG tuition	Yes®	88		
	No	205	0.614	0.719
Distance from home to workplace	<5®	82	0.005	
	5 to 10 km	109	0.13	2.054
	>15	64	<b>0.005</b>	0.027**
Mode of transport used from home to workplace	Public mode of transport®	106	0.003	
	2 wheeler	44	0.242	0.526
	metro	36	0.118	5.682
	own vehicle	38	<b>0.001</b>	57.674**

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**Note:** \*\*\*P<0.01; \*\*P<0.05

**Note:** Dependent variable- working women (code 1- working, code 0- non-working)

(®) indicates reference category

As shown in Table 6.28, the most important educational variables explaining work participation of married women are graduation stream, marks in graduation, help in studies when they were getting education, level of education, distance from home to workplace, mode of transportation used from home to work place. Women with graduation as science stream (18 times more likely) and professional degrees are 32 times more likely to work compared to art stream. Women with level of education postgraduate and above are 13 times more likely to work compared to women who are graduate. Women who commutes for more distance that is if distance between home and workplace



are more than 15 km then women are less likely to work, because their much time is gone on commutation. Women who have private vehicle and has not to depend on public mode of transportation are 57 times more likely to work compared to women who travel in public mode of transport.

## **6.19 SUMMARY**

The analysis of the following chapter focuses on the details of characteristic of occupation carried out by women, type of work they are indulged in; either there is convergence between education and work. The type of enterprise they are working in that is it is either public or private, Number of worker working in enterprise, Does the organization have grievance redressal body. Working hour of the working women, how long they work for the organization. Income of the working women. Then in later section of this chapter attempt has been made to discuss the organizational facilities or career enablers and organizational barrier which working women face in day to day life. The organizational facilities let them to work promptly in their work places and optimize their output whereas organizational barriers are the hindrances, which act as loopholes in their work. As we advance forward the attempt has been made to look into commutation related issues of women, their mode of selection and their contentment with their work. Finally, the section deals with the non working women who are graduates or graduates and above. And an attempt has been made to know the reasons behind their non- working nature.

The different type of work carried by women varies according to the areas they live in, i.e. planned colonies, unauthorized colonies and urban villages. In planned colonies, mostly women are managers, engineers, banking, think tanks, NGO etc. In unauthorized colonies technical assistants, primary school teacher, and in urban villages women are more into self employed business where in some places their family members are also part of their business.

The regression analysis indicates that there are common factors which impact women work participation for both married and unmarried women. The regression analysis for married and unmarried women were done in two different models because of

their varied family composition and responsibility and background characteristics. Income of household is an important factor to determine women participation in labour market. If the household has family annual income of 5 lakhs and more than women are less likely to work compared to low family income household. Other factors are women's father and mother educational level, if their parents are highly educated they would encourage their daughter to study more and finally getting desired job. Graduation stream, level of studies, distance between home and workplace and mode of transportation used to commute from home to workplace is also an important factor which determine women work.

## CHAPTER 7

### ASSESSMENT OF STATUS OF WOMEN IN DELHI

“A women is a full circle, within her is the power to create, nurture and transform” Diane Mariechild

#### 7.1 INTRODUCTION

To assess the outcome of linkage between women’s education and work is difficult task. Here we have tried to see the parameters mentioned in the Source: *John Show International researchers*, which have given six parameters to measure the outcome of the linkage or to see the status of working as well as non-working women. It is important to understand the status in this scenario because the well-being of working as well as non-working women.

Status of women is good or bad is determined by many factors, like social-Religion, caste, economic – household or personal income, land ownership, house ownership etc, Demographic – number of people staying in the house, total number of children etc. Our aim is to understand variations in the status because of all these factors and is there a difference in status of women if they are working or not working.

The status of women is said to be improved when she has ability to make choices. Here one thing is needed to be mentioned that women may have ability to make choices but the thing to ponder upon is that is she allowed making choices or not. Whereas if she is denied the ability of making choices her status is said to be hampered.

Employability of women is considered one of the most important determinants, which affect status of women in any society. She is regarded or given respect if she holds good position in any organization or enterprises. Women’s participation in job market helps in reduction of gender inequality, making women empower, and thus letting her to maximizing the capacity of exerting choices, and ability of decision making in her life. (Desai and Jain, 1994; Kabeer, 2012; Mammen and Paxson, 2000). Women empowerment means her development socially, economically, and emotionally.

**TABLE 7.0**

**JSI SIX DOMAINS OF EMPOWERMENT**

<b>Domain</b>	<b>Expressions</b>
<i>Mobility &amp; visibility</i>	Activities outside of the home, relative freedom from harassment in public spaces, interaction with men
<i>Economic Security</i>	Property ownership, new skills and knowledge and increased income, engaged in new/non-traditional types of work
<i>Status &amp; decision making power within the household</i>	Self-confidence, controlling spending money, enhanced status in the family, has/controls/spends money, participation in/makes decisions on allocation of resources, not dominated by others
<i>Ability to interact effectively in the public sphere</i>	Awareness of legal status and services available, ability to get access to social services, political awareness, participation in credit program, provider of service in community.
<i>Participation on nonfamily Groups</i>	Identified as a person outside of the family, forum for creating sense of solidarity with other women, self-expression and articulation of problems, participating in a group with autonomous structure.

Source: *John Show International researchers*

It was not possible to extract data from JSI index so individual effort has been made up to measure some of the variables, which assert status of women. On the basis of some literatures following broad groups are taken to assess the status of working and non-working women

**Mobility and visibility**

**Locational awareness**

**Economic security**

**Political jurisprudence**

## 7.2 PHYSICAL MOBILITY

Physical mobility, which takes into consideration movement outside house, measures the degree of freedom to move outside freely. Men or women go outside the house for various types of work, like purchasing things, which is necessary to household; they also go outside to meet their relatives, friends. Generally, there is no restriction to men's movement while women's movement is restricted outside home. Sometimes they are not allowed, other time they are allowed but some other family members have to escort them. These restrictions are reasons for cutting women freedom of movement. Thus lowering their power in gender relation.

Table 7.1A shows determinants of mobility and assertiveness among working women, women who go for household related work are 69% in planned colonies, 61% in urban villages and 58% women in unauthorized colonies. Women who go out for activities other than household related work are 89% in unauthorized colonies 87% in urban villages and 82% in planned colonies. Significant number of women go outside for activities other than household in nature.

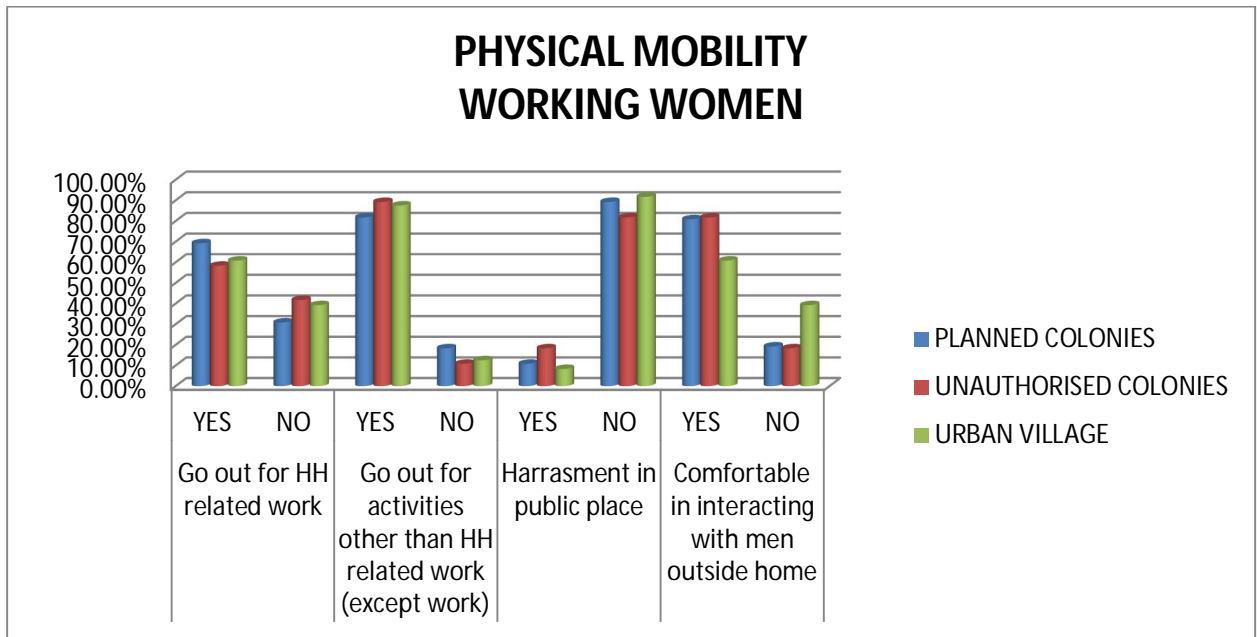
When we talk about harassment in public places. Highest number was reported in unauthorized colonies 18%, followed by planned colonies 11% and urban villages 8%. When we see number of women who are comfortable in interacting with men outside home, more than 80% women are comfortable in interacting in planned colonies and unauthorized colonies but only 60% women are comfortable in interacting with women outside home in urban villages.

**TABLE 7.1A****DETERMINANTS OF MOBILITY AND ASSERTIVENESS AMONG WORKING WOMEN**

		PLANNED COLONIES	UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	URBAN VILLAGE	TOTAL
Go out for HH related work	YES	83	70	73	226
		69.2%	58.3%	60.8%	62.8%
	NO	37	50	47	134
		30.8%	41.7%	39.2%	37.2%
	TOTAL	120	120	120	360
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Go out for activities other than HH related work (except work)	YES	98	107	105	310
		81.7%	89.2%	87.5%	86.1%
	NO	22	13	15	50
		18.3%	10.8%	12.5%	13.9%
	TOTAL	120	120	120	360
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Harrasment in public place	YES	13	22	10	45
		10.8%	18.3%	8.3%	12.5%
	NO	107	98	110	315
		89.2%	81.7%	91.7%	87.5%
	TOTAL	120	120	120	360
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Comfortable in interacting with men outside home	YES	97	98	73	268
		80.8%	81.7%	60.8%	74.4%
	NO	23	22	47	92
		19.2%	18.3%	39.2%	25.6%
	TOTAL	120	120	120	360
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**FIGURE 7.1A**  
**PHYSICAL MOBILITY AND ASSERTIVENESS**



Source - Primary survey 2015-16

Table 7.1B shows among non working women, their characteristics of mobility and assertiveness. Women who go for household related work are 79% in unauthorized colonies, 78% in planned colonies, and 74% in urban villages. Women who go out for activities other than household related work are 15% in planned colonies and 10% in unauthorized colonies and 6% in urban villages,

When we talk about harassment in public places, Highest number was reported in planned colonies 10%, followed by in urban villages 4% and no women reported in unauthorized colonies, may be because they were ashamed of reporting as their counterparts among working women there are significant number of women who reported harassment, or maybe they are very less mobile that's why they didn't encountered any harassment. When we see number of women, who are comfortable in interacting with men outside home, 33% women reported yes in unauthorized colonies, 23% in urban villages and 15% in planned colonies.

**TABLE 7.1B**

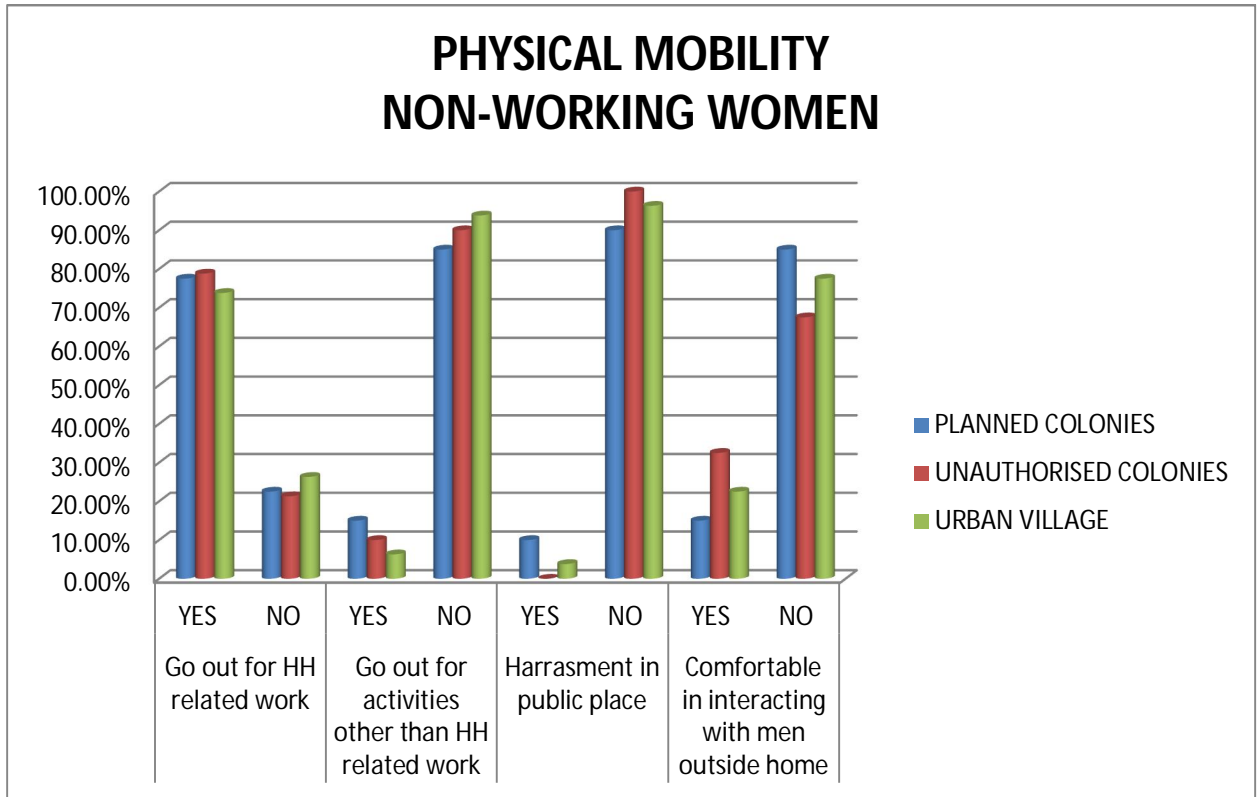
**DETERMINANTS OF MOBILITY AND ASSERTIVENESS AMONG NON-WORKING WOMEN**

		PLANNED COLONIES	UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	URBAN VILLAGE	TOTAL
Go out for HH related work	YES	62	63	59	184
		77.5%	78.8%	73.8%	76.7%
	NO	18	17	21	56
		22.5%	21.3%	26.3%	23.3%
	TOTAL	80	80	80	240
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Go out for activities other than HH related work	YES	12	8	5	25
		15.0%	10.0%	6.3%	10.4%
	NO	68	72	75	215
		85.0%	90.0%	93.8%	89.6%
	TOTAL	80	80	80	240
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Harrasment in public place	YES	8	0	3	11
		10.0%	.0%	3.8%	4.6%
	NO	72	80	77	229
		90.0%	100.0%	96.3%	95.4%
	TOTAL	80	80	80	240
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Comfortable in interacting with men outside home	YES	12	26	18	56
		15.0%	32.5%	22.5%	23.3%
	NO	68	54	62	184
		85.0%	67.5%	77.5%	76.7%
	TOTAL	80	80	80	240
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16



**FIGURE 7.1B**  
**PHYSICAL MOBILITY AND ASSERTIVENESS**



Source - Primary survey 2015-16

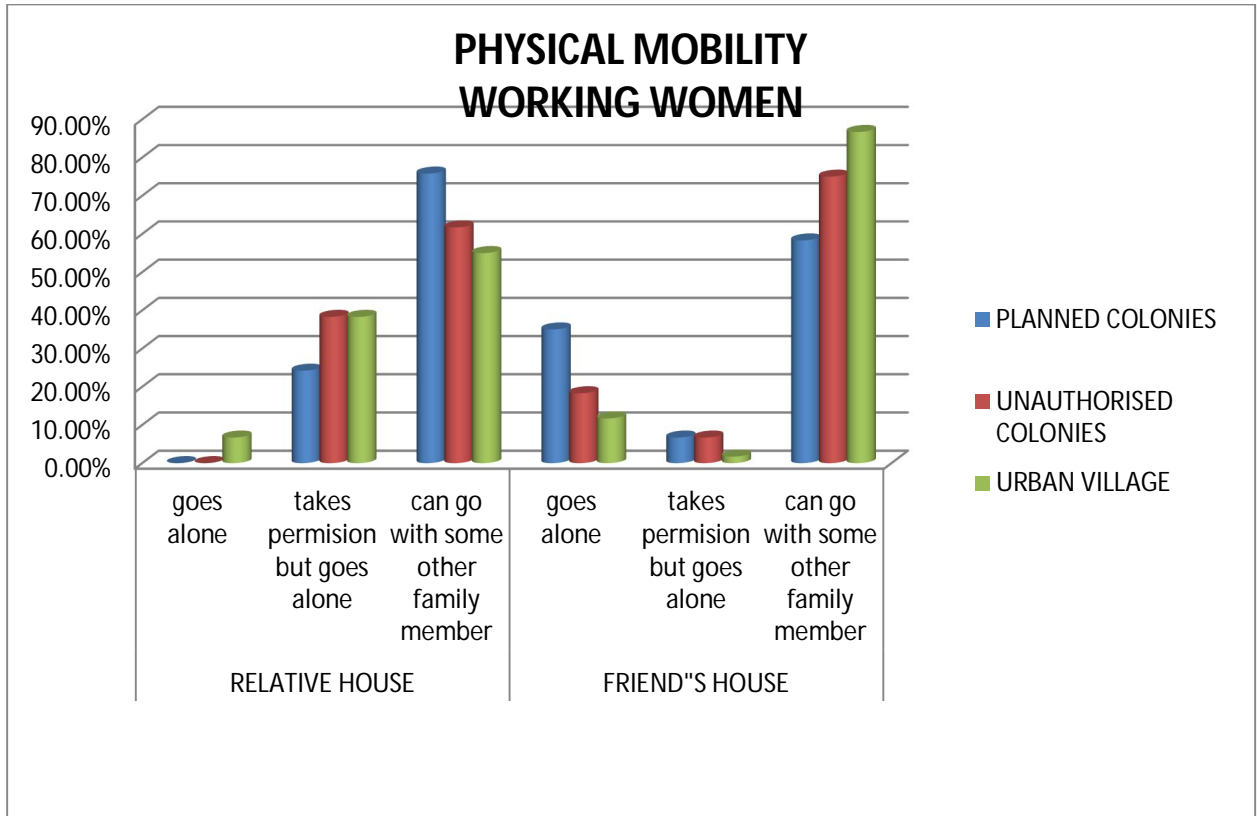
Table 7.2 A shows working women mobility in relative's place and friend's place, in relative's place, maximum number of women can go with some other family member in all three types of settlement followed by takes permission but goes alone in all three types of settlement and finally goes alone category has 7% women in urban village category. Whereas for friend's house gin significant number of women fall in category of can go with some other family member

**TABLE 7.2 A****DETERMINANTS OF MOBILITY AND ASSERTIVENESS AMONG WORKING WOMEN**

		PLANNED COLONIES	UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	URBAN VILLAGE	TOTAL
RELATIVE HOUSE	goes alone	0	0	8	8
		.0%	.0%	6.7%	2.2%
	takes permission but goes alone	29	46	46	121
		24.2%	38.3%	38.3%	33.6%
	can go with some other family member	91	74	66	231
		75.8%	61.7%	55.0%	64.2%
	TOTAL	120	120	120	360
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
FRIEND'S HOUSE	goes alone	42	22	14	78
		35.0%	18.3%	11.7%	21.7%
	takes permission but goes alone	8	8	2	18
		6.7%	6.7%	1.7%	5.0%
	can go with some other family member	70	90	104	264
		58.3%	75.0%	86.7%	73.3%
	TOTAL	120	120	120	360
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**FIGURE 7.2A**  
**PHYSICAL MOBILITY AND ASSERTIVENESS**



Source - Primary survey 2015-16

Table 7.2 B shows working women mobility in relative's place and friend's place, in relative's place, maximum number of women can go with some other family member in all three types of settlement followed by takes permission but goes alone in all three types of settlement and finally goes alone category has no respondents. Whereas for friend's house significant number of women fall in category of can go with some other family member followed by takes permission but goes alone. No one responded that they go alone.

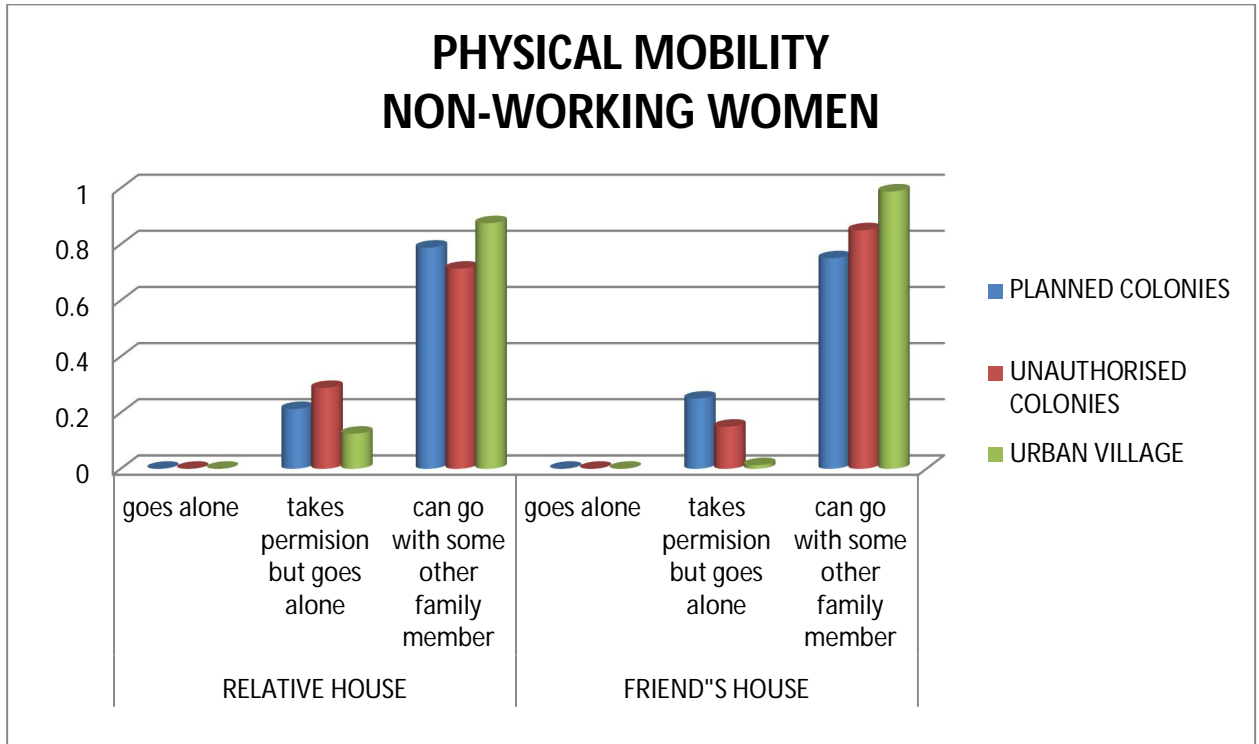
**TABLE 7.2B**

**DETERMINANTS OF MOBILITY AND ASSERTIVENESS AMONG NON-WORKING WOMEN**

		PLANNED COLONIES	UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	URBAN VILLAGE	TOTAL
RELATIVE HOUSE	goes alone	0	0	0	0
		0	0	0	0
	takes permission but goes alone	17	23	10	50
		21.3%	28.8%	12.5%	20.8%
	can go with some other family member	63	57	70	190
		78.8%	71.3%	87.5%	79.2%
	TOTAL	80	80	80	240
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
FRIEND'S HOUSE	goes alone	0	0	0	0
		0	0	0	0
	takes permission but goes alone	20	12	1	33
		25.0%	15.0%	1.3%	13.8%
	can go with some other family member	60	68	79	207
		75.0%	85.0%	98.8%	86.3%
	TOTAL	80	80	80	240
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**FIGURE 7.2B**  
**PHYSICAL MOBILITY AND ASSERTIVENESS**



Source - Primary survey 2015-16

### 7.3 LOCATIONAL AWARENES

Locational awareness among women can be seen that mostly women are aware about their locations and the various places that are located around them. However, compared to non-working women working women are more exposed and hence they are more aware of the places such as hospitals, banks, municipalities more than the non-working women, which can be easily seen in the table 7.3A and 7.3B.

**TABLE 7.3A**

**LOCATIONAL AWARENESS OF WORKING WOMEN**

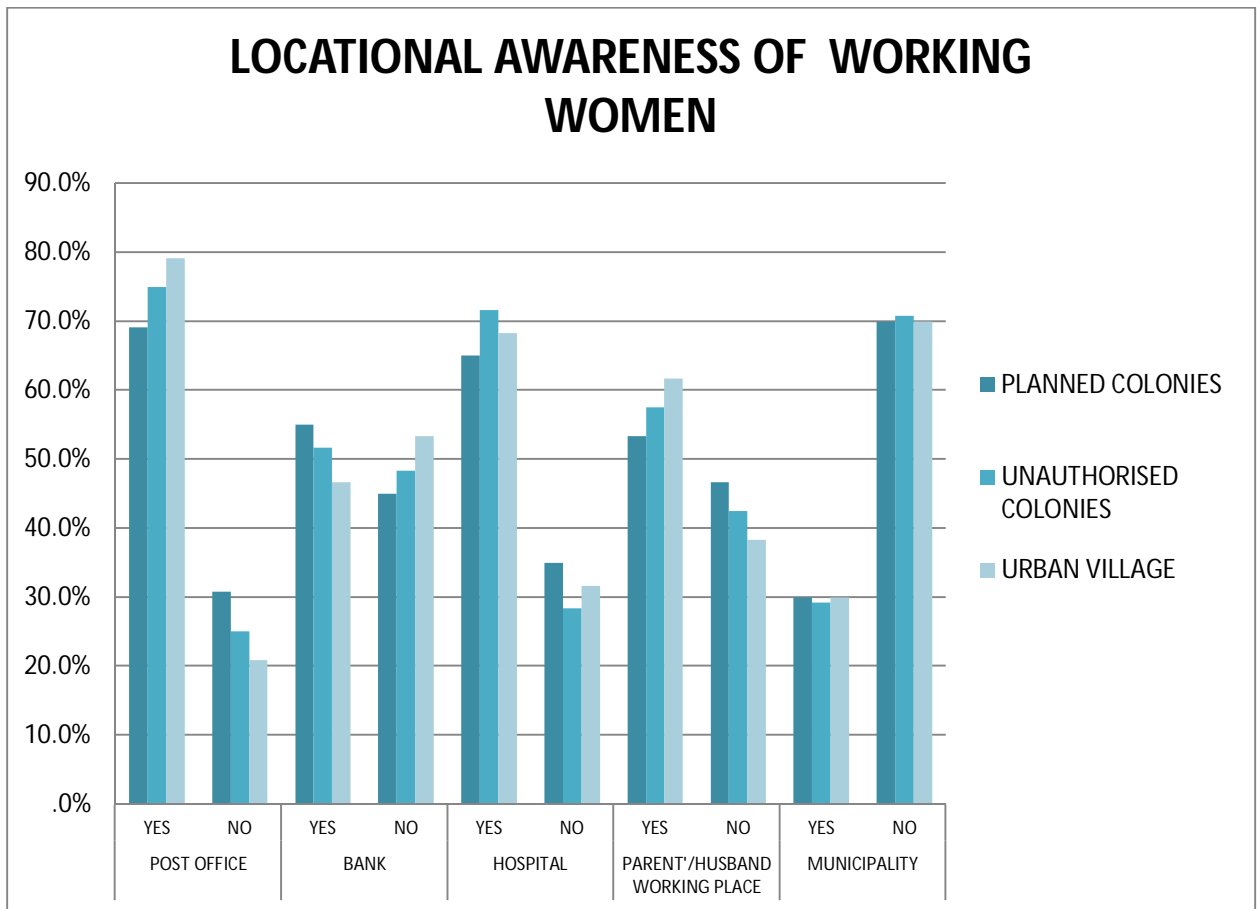
		Type of locality			Total
		PLANNED COLONIES	UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	URBAN VILLAGE	
Post office	YES	83	90	95	268
		69.2%	75.0%	79.2%	74.4%
	NO	37	30	25	92
		30.8%	25.0%	20.8%	25.6%
Total		120	120	120	360
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Bank	YES	66	62	56	184
		55.0%	51.7%	46.7%	51.1%
	NO	54	58	64	176
		45.0%	48.3%	53.3%	48.9%
Total		120	120	120	360
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Hospital	YES	78	86	82	246
		65.0%	71.7%	68.3%	68.3%
	NO	42	34	38	114
		35.0%	28.3%	31.7%	31.7%
Total		120	120	120	360
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Parent/husband working place	YES	64	69	74	207
		53.3%	57.5%	61.7%	57.5%
	NO	56	51	46	153
		46.7%	42.5%	38.3%	42.5%
Total		120	120	120	360
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Municipality	YES	36	35	36	107

	30.0%	29.2%	30.0%	29.7%
NO	84	85	84	253
	70.0%	70.8%	70.0%	70.3%
Total	120	120	120	360
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**FIGURE 7.3A**

**LOCATIONAL AWARENESS OF WORKING WOMEN**



Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 7.3B**

**LOCATIONAL AWARENESS OF NON-WORKING WOMEN**

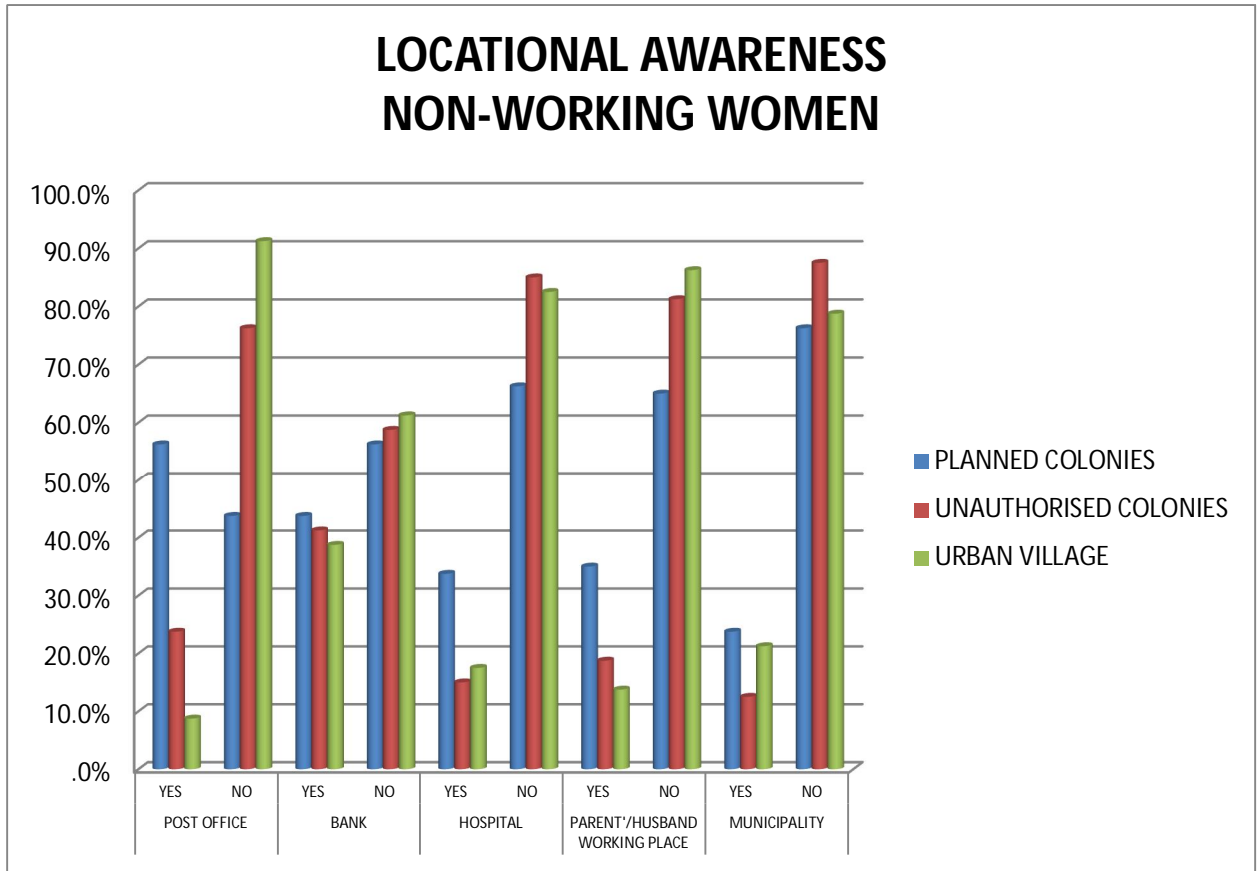
		Type			Total
		PLANNED	UNAUTHORISED	URBAN VILLAGE	
Post office	YES	45	19	7	71
		56.3%	23.8%	8.8%	29.6%
	NO	35	61	73	169
		43.8%	76.3%	91.3%	70.4%
Total		80	80	80	240
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Bank	YES	35	33	31	99
		43.8%	41.3%	38.8%	41.3%
	NO	45	47	49	141
		56.3%	58.8%	61.3%	58.8%
Total		80	80	80	240
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Hospital	YES	27	12	14	53
		33.8%	15.0%	17.5%	22.1%
	NO	53	68	66	187
		66.3%	85.0%	82.5%	77.9%
Total		80	80	80	240
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Parent/ husband working place	YES	28	15	11	54
		35.0%	18.8%	13.8%	22.5%
	NO	52	65	69	186
		65.0%	81.3%	86.3%	77.5%
Total		80	80	80	240
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Municipality	YES	19	10	17	46
		23.8%	12.5%	21.3%	19.2%
	NO	61	70	63	194
		76.3%	87.5%	78.8%	80.8%
Total		80	80	80	240
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16



**FIGURE 7.3B**

**LOCATIONAL AWARENESS OF NON-WORKING WOMEN**



Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**7.4 ECONOMIC SECURITY**

In planned colonies working women intend to secure their future by saving (57%), followed by buying gold 30% and buying insurances 12%. In unauthorised colonies 67% women intend to secure, their future by saving followed 33% women to would buy gold whereas in urban villages 69%, women would secure their future by saving and rest would buy gold.

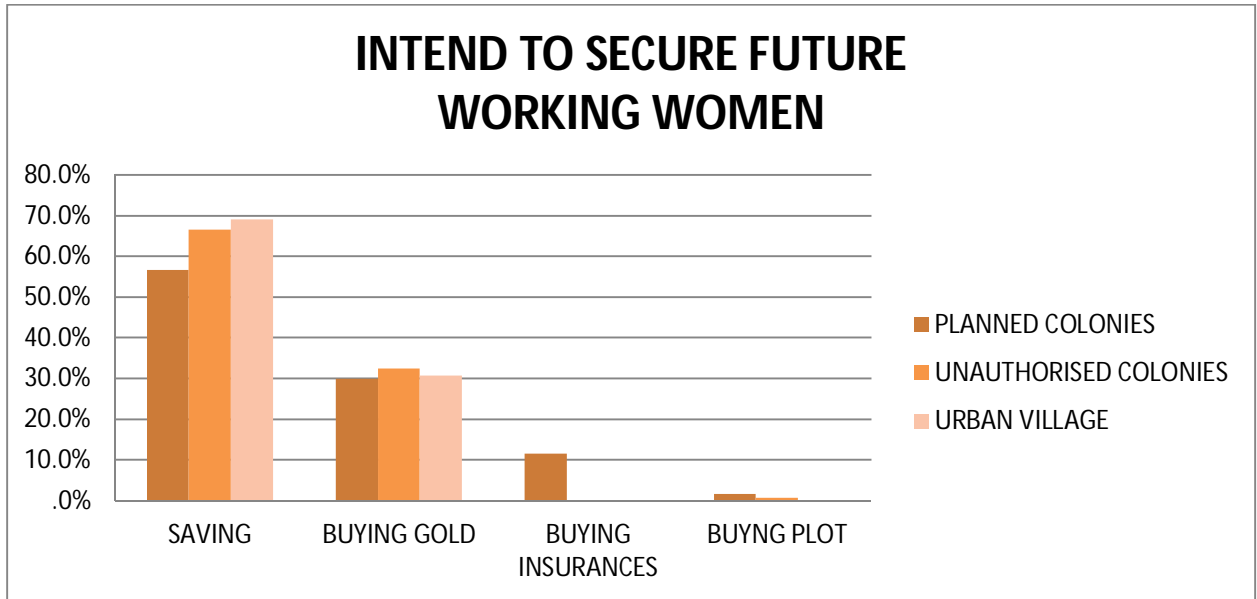
Whereas for non-working women most of the women responded that, they do not decide how to secure their future, as they do not earn. Their husband or other family members take this decision.

**TABLE 7.4A**  
**ECONOMIC SECURITY OF WORKING WOMEN**

		Type of locality			Total
		PLANNED COLONIES	UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	URBAN VILLAGE	
Intend to secure future economically	SAVING	68	80	83	231
		56.7%	66.7%	69.2%	64.2%
	BUYING GOLD	36	39	37	112
		30.0%	32.5%	30.8%	31.1%
	BUYING INSURANCES	14	0	0	14
		11.7%	.0%	.0%	3.9%
BUYING PLOT	2	1	0	3	
	1.7%	.8%	.0%	.8%	
Total		120	120	120	360
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**FIGURE 7.4A**  
**ECONOMIC SECURITY OF WORKING WOMEN**



Source - Primary survey 2015-16

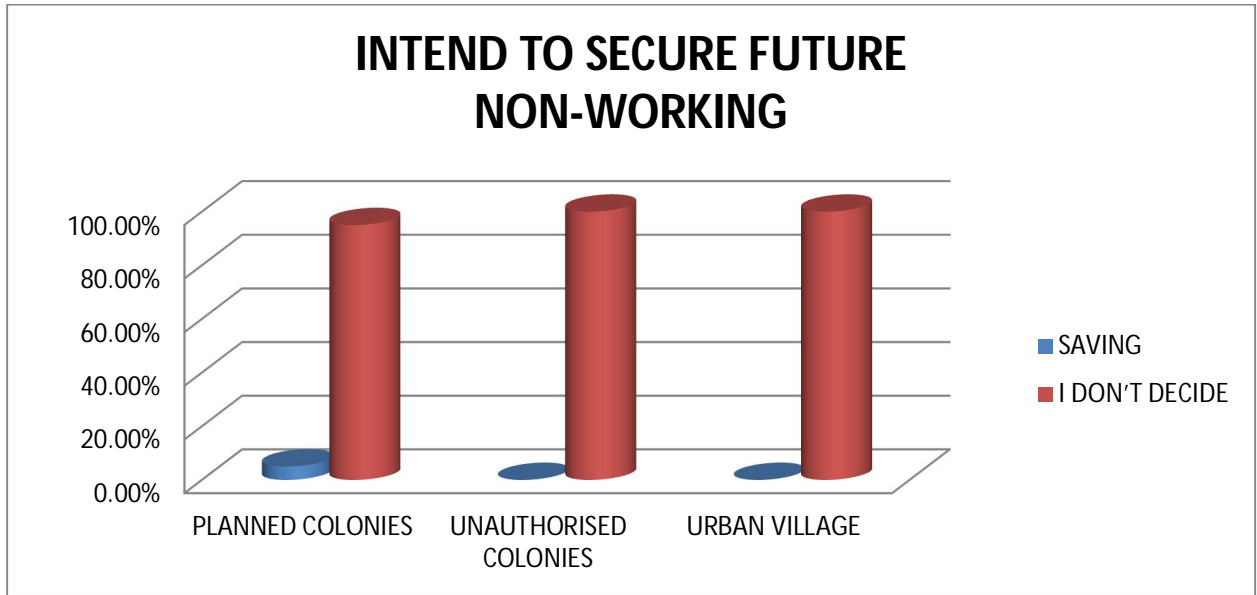
**TABLE 7.4B**  
**INTEND TO SECURE FUTURE NON-WORKING WOMEN**

	Type			Total
	PLANNED	UNAUTHORISED	URBAN VILLAGE	
SAVING	4	0	0	4
	5.0%	.0%	.0%	1.7%
I DONT DECIDE	76	80	80	236
	95.0%	100.0%	100.0%	98.3%
	80	80	80	240
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**FIGURE 7.4B**

**INTEND TO SECURE FUTURE NON-WORKING WOMEN**



Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**POSSESSION OF BANK ACCOUNT AND ACCESSIBILITY**

100% women possess bank account among working women but few access their existing account. 58% women access in planned colonies followed by 33% in urban villages and 25% in unauthorized colonies. Highest being in planned colonies

**TABLE 7.5A**

**POSSESSION AND ACCESSIBILITY OF BANK ACCOUNT**

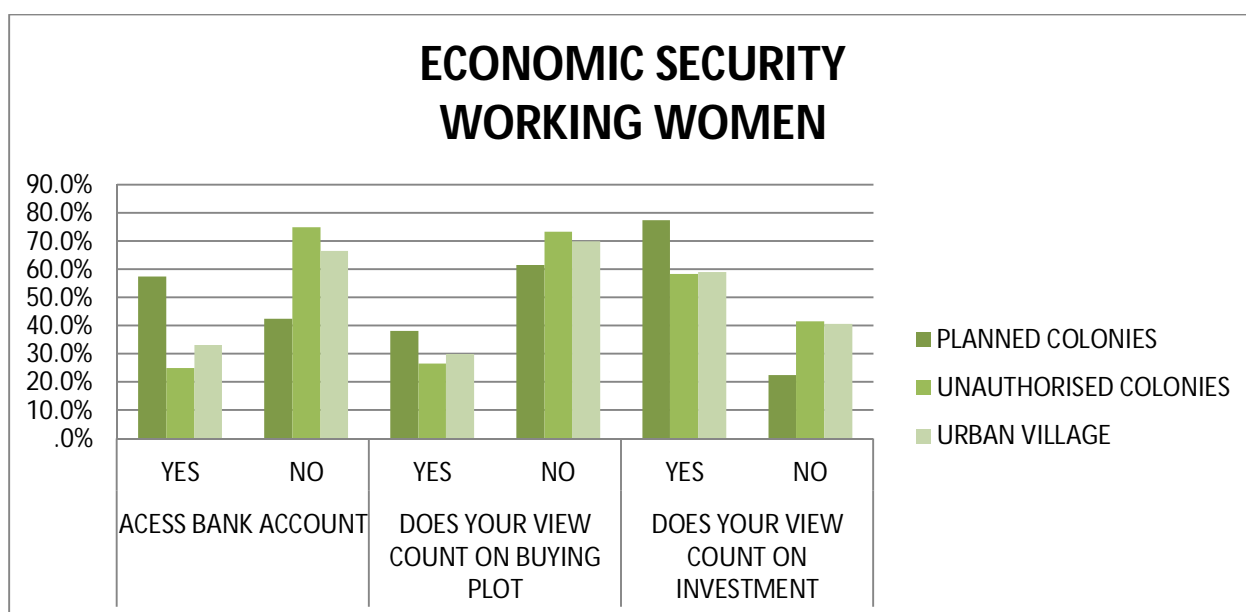
		Type of locality			Total
		PLANNED COLONIES	UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	URBAN VILLAGE	
Possess bank account	YES	120	120	120	360
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Total		120	120	120	360
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Access bank	YES	69	30	40	139
		57.5%	25.0%	33.3%	38.6%

account	NO	51	90	80	221
		42.5%	75.0%	66.7%	61.4%
Total		120	120	120	360
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**FIGURE 7.5A**

**POSSESSION AND ACCESSIBILITY OF BANK ACCOUNT**



Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**TABLE 7.5B**

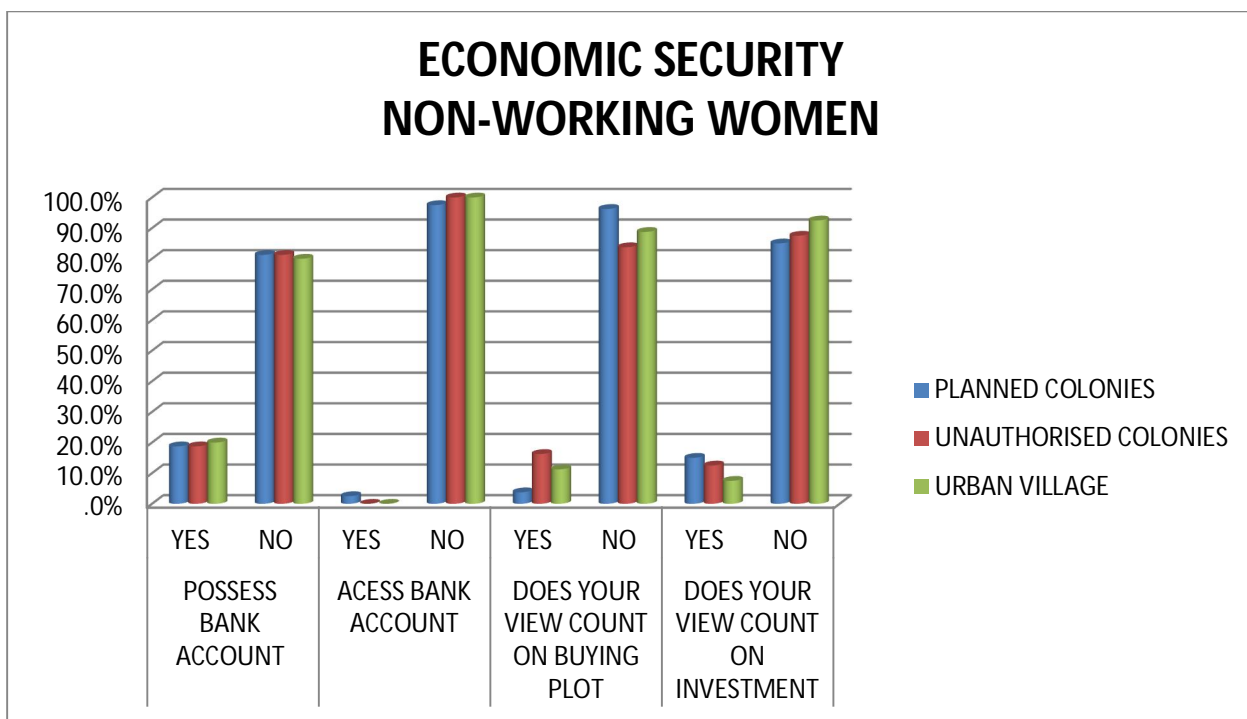
**POSSESSION AND ACCESSIBILITY OF BANK ACCOUNT**

		Type			Total
		PLANNED	UNAUTHORISED	URBAN VILLAGE	
Possess bank account	YES	15	15	16	46
		18.8%	18.8%	20.0%	19.2%
	NO	65	65	64	194

		81.3%	81.3%	80.0%	80.8%
Total		80	80	80	240
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Access bank account	YES	2	0	0	2
		2.5%	.0%	.0%	.8%
	NO	78	80	80	238
		97.5%	100.0%	100.0%	99.2%
Total		80	80	80	240
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Does your Views taken on buying plot	YES	3	13	9	25
		3.8%	16.3%	11.3%	10.4%
	NO	77	67	71	215
		96.3%	83.8%	88.8%	89.6%
Total		80	80	80	240
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Does your view taken on investment	YES	12	10	6	28
		15.0%	12.5%	7.5%	11.7%
	NO	68	70	74	212
		85.0%	87.5%	92.5%	88.3%
Total		80	80	80	240
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**FIGURE 7.5B**  
**POSSESSION AND ACCESSIBILITY OF BANK ACCOUNT**



Source - Primary survey 2015-16

## 7.5 POLITICAL JURISPRUDENCE

Table 7.6 A shows Political jurisprudence is their political right, which they exercise as an Indian citizen, among working women 88% women have casted their vote once or many times in planned colonies, which is highest among all types of settlement, followed by 68% in urban villages and 56% in unauthorised colonies. 80% women in planned colonies decide by themselves whom to vote followed by 10% women whose family member's decide. In unauthorised colonies 6%, women decide by themselves followed by 10% women whose family member decides.

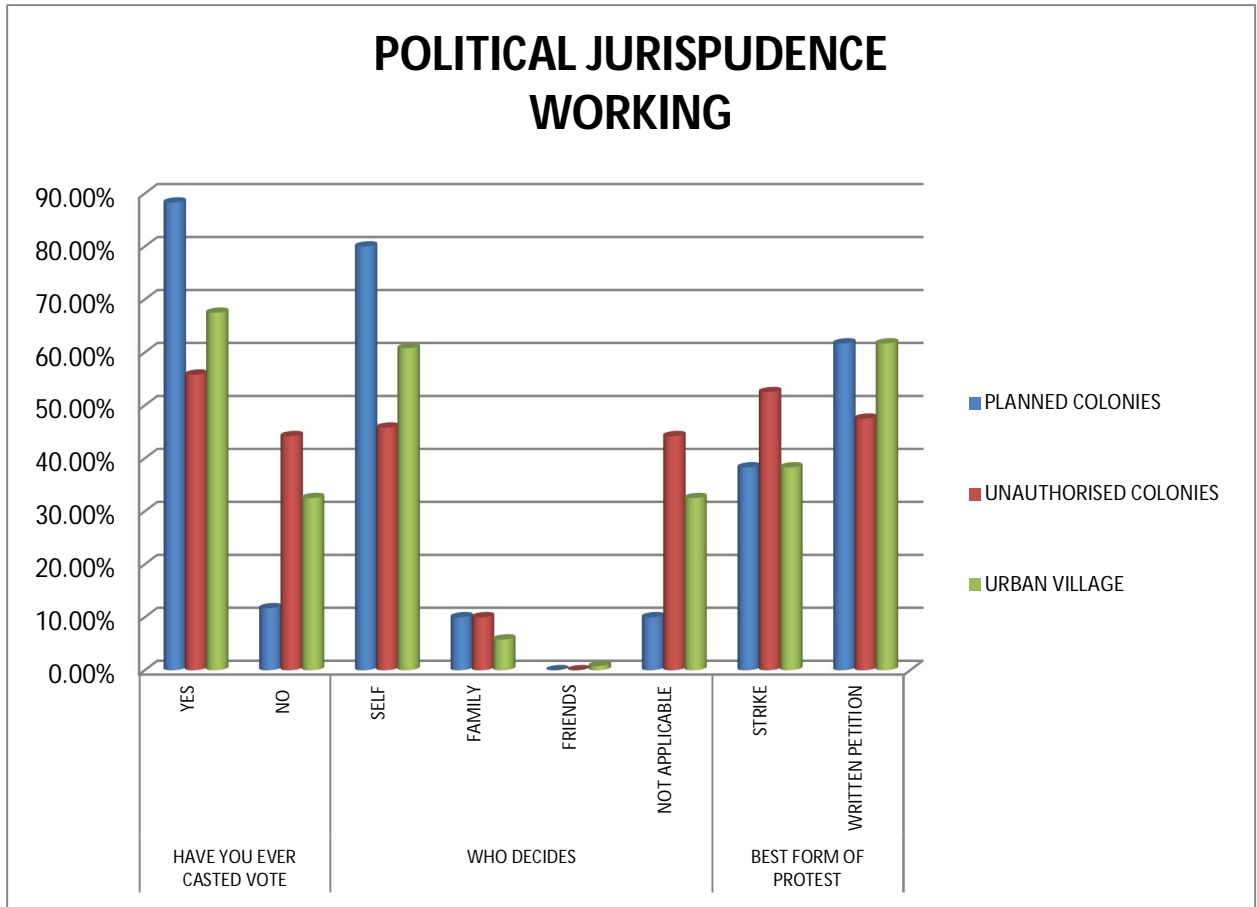
**TABLE 7.6 A**  
**POLITICAL JURISPRUDENCE AMONG WORKING WOMEN**

		Type of locality			Total
		PLANNED COLONIES	UNAUTHORISED COLONIES	URBAN VILLAGE	
Have you ever casted vote	YES	106	67	81	254
		88.30%	55.80%	67.50%	70.60%
	NO	14	53	39	106
		11.70%	44.20%	32.50%	29.40%
		120	120	120	360
		100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%
Who decides	SELF	96	55	73	224
		80.00%	45.80%	60.80%	62.20%
	FAMILY MEMBERS	12	12	7	31
		10.00%	10.00%	5.80%	8.60%
	FRIENDS	0	0	1	1
		0.00%	0.00%	0.80%	0.30%
	NOT APLICABLE	12	53	39	104
		10.00%	44.20%	32.50%	28.90%
Total		120	120	120	360
		100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%
Best form of protest	STRIKE	46	63	46	155
		38.30%	52.50%	38.30%	43.10%
	WRITTEN PETITION	74	57	74	205
		61.70%	47.50%	61.70%	56.90%
Total		120	120	120	360
		100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16



**FIGURE 7.6 A**  
**POLITICAL JURISPRUDENCE**



Source - Primary survey 2015-16

Table 7.6 B shows political jurisprudence among non-working women 69% women casted vote at least once in a lifetime followed by 59% in urban villages and 5% in unauthorized colonies. In planned colonies 63% responded that they themselves decide whom to vote, followed by 19% who told that their family member decided. In unauthorized colonies 44% women decided by themselves, followed by 25% whose casting of vote was decided by their family members. And in urban villages 30% women decided by themselves and 30% responded that their family member decided so. (Boserup, Su and Toulmin 2007, the world bank 2012), International development

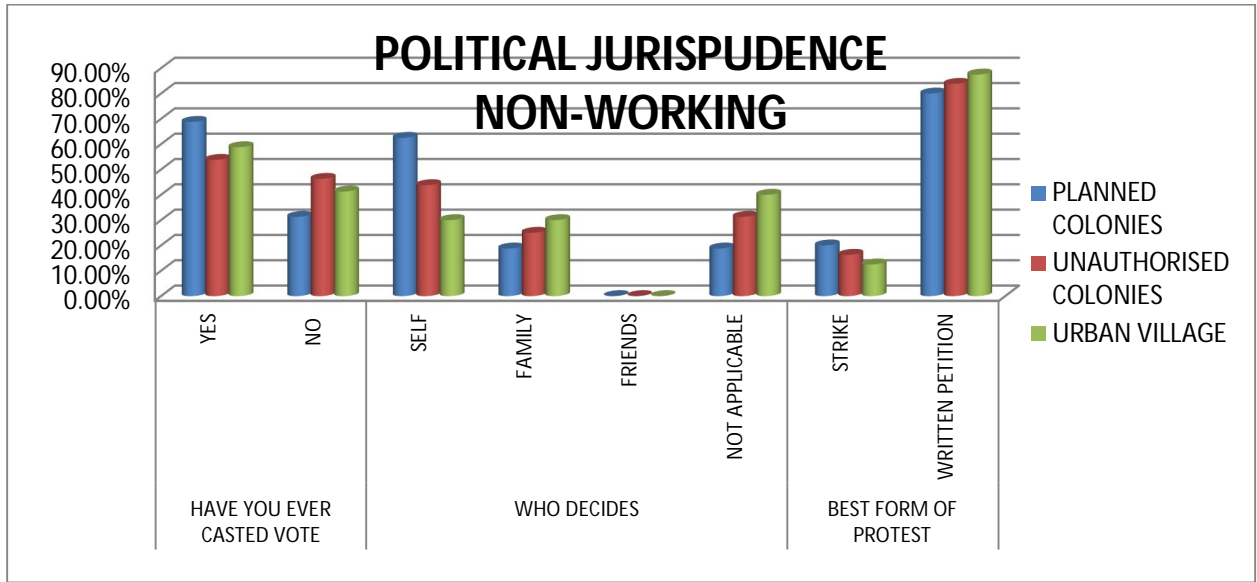
organization have focused on role of women's political empowerment and economic participation in nation building and economic development.

**TABLE 7.6 B**  
**POLITICAL JURISPRUDENCE AMONG NON-WORKING**

		Type			Total
		PLANNED	UNAUTHORISED	URBAN VILLAGE	
Have you ever casted vote	YES	55	43	47	145
		68.80%	53.80%	58.80%	60.40%
	NO	25	37	33	95
		31.30%	46.30%	41.30%	39.60%
Total		80	80	80	240
		100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%
Who decides	SELF	50	35	24	109
		62.50%	43.80%	30.00%	45.40%
	FAMILY MEMBER	15	20	24	59
		18.80%	25.00%	30.00%	24.60%
	NOT APPLICABLE	15	25	32	72
		18.80%	31.30%	40.00%	30.00%
Total		80	80	80	240
		100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%
Best form of protest	STRIKE	16	13	10	39
		20.00%	16.30%	12.50%	16.30%
	WRITTEN PETITION	64	67	70	201
		80.00%	83.80%	87.50%	83.80%
Total		80	80	80	240
		100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%

Source - Primary survey 2015-16

**FIGURE 7.6 B**  
**POLITICAL JURISPRUDENCE**



Source - Primary survey 2015-16

## 7.6 CASE STUDIES AND NIRBHAYA CASE AND ITS IMPACT ON WOMEN WORK PARTICIPATION

Case studies of working and non-working women living in Delhi in succeeding section is in context to day today life, their experiences, and nature of life they live due to various reasons.

### First case study

Anita Yadav, 26 years is working women from Ganesh Nagar. In their locality lack of streetlight and fuse of bulb of existing street light, many eve-teasing cases took place in last couple of month, because of lesser streetlights women feel unsafe to come out of their home, and thus do not feel safe on streets. They have registered complain but their grievances was not addressed.

### Second case study

Lalita kumara, 28 working in a firm. She was born and brought up in UP. She completed her graduation after which she got married and shifted to Delhi. She joint a firm few months after her marriage where initially her work environment was conducive. But in due course of time she started facing hardships at her work place. Her boss used to make her work till late night and tried to molest her, due to which despite of being really ambitious she had to quit her job. She had cooperating husband who asked her to file the complaint against her boss. But she was scared of her image and reputation as her in-laws stays with her and she decided to quit the job.

### Third case study

Sheena Rizwaan, 31 years owner of a boutique is a graduate. she got married at an very early age. And does not share very good relation with her husband. But due to her parent's, societal pressure and also she has a small kid, she is staying at her Husband's place, hoping their relation would improve one day. She is very talented in her embroidery work and because of her talent, she has many clients today, and she is totally established and earn good amount to secure her son's future. She also said that if the relationship between the spouse does not improve, she would go for divorce.

### Fourth case study

Ananya Mukherjee age 24 is an intern as RJ in the FM radio. She loves what she does and is looking forward for permanent job in FM radio station. She is engaged to a fellow from Kolkata. But she does not want to get displaced and lose her dream job. She is sure that she would convince her fiancé to pursue her dream job, without displacing.

#### Fifth case study

Rekha was a government school teacher in Punjab. Her husband works in Indian railway (Delhi). They both were working in two different places and would meet in alternate weekends. But recently her husband has undergone heart surgery and he is not allowed to stay alone due to threat of heart attack. So she decided to leave her job and stay with her husband. So presently she is a housewife.

#### Sixth case study

Saumya had done her B.Tech from good college and was working in good firm before marriage, as her parents were supportive. But some-how she had to leave the job as she got married to very conservative family, and she was not allowed to work after marriage. So she is house wife with B.Tech degree.

## 7.7 NIRBHAYA AND ITS IMPACT

16<sup>th</sup> December 2012 is considered one of the scariest nights, which led vital impact on girls everywhere in country and even in world. It shocked the world by the crime, which could be committed, and the nature of heinous, it could be. The fire arisen by that incident was there on Indian street for few months by social activist, students of various institutions, and many others but gradually it was diluted. However, the ever-lasting impact of that heinous crime is there on every girl, until date and I guess it would be there forever. Today also, girl thinks thousand times if she has to be on street until late night due to any reason. Many questions related to Nirbhaya case was asked to the respondents. That night of 16<sup>th</sup> December 2012 had much impact on women and had changed the life of many women in the national capital region.

In fig. 7.7 96% women responded that cases like Nirbhaya affect job participation, while 4% responded that such cases does not. That means majority of them responded that such kind of cases, crimes does affect the job participation among women.

**FIGURE 7.7**

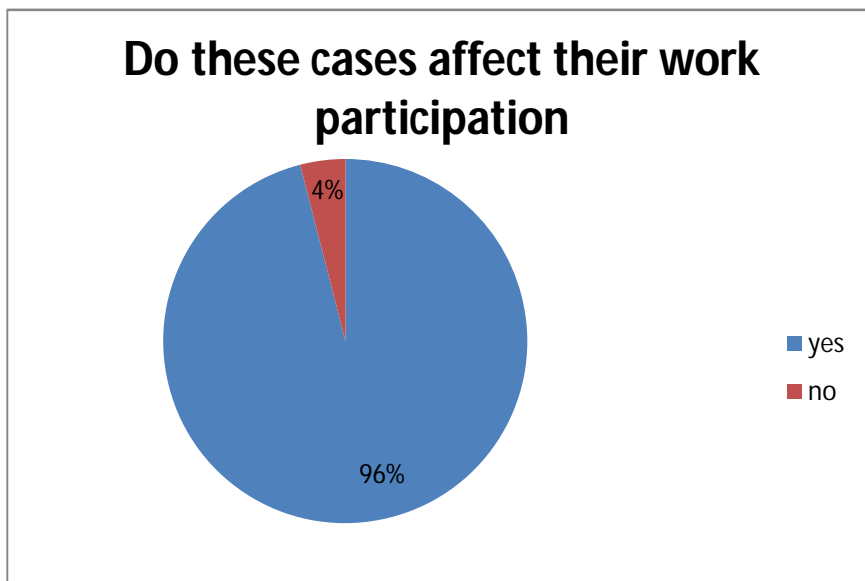


Fig. 7.8 shows what kind of punishment should the culprit get, and 89% women were in favour of capital punishment and 11% women responded that the culprits should be punished with castration.

**FIGURE 7.8**

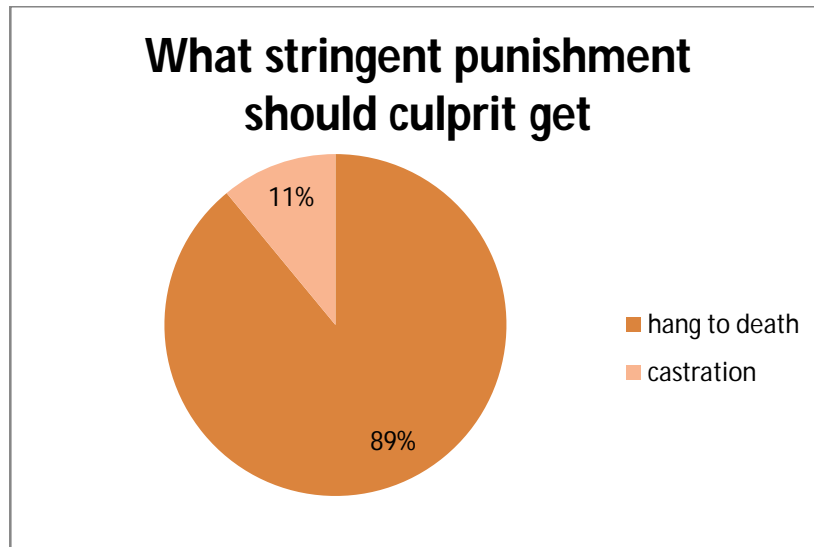


Figure 7.9 shows suggestion to make Delhi a safe place. 41% women responded that cabs and buses, autos should have GPS, 31% women responded that more police should be there for women safety. 15% women said that there should be more street light, and 3% women responded that public should lend help rather than being a spectator.

**FIGURE 7.9**



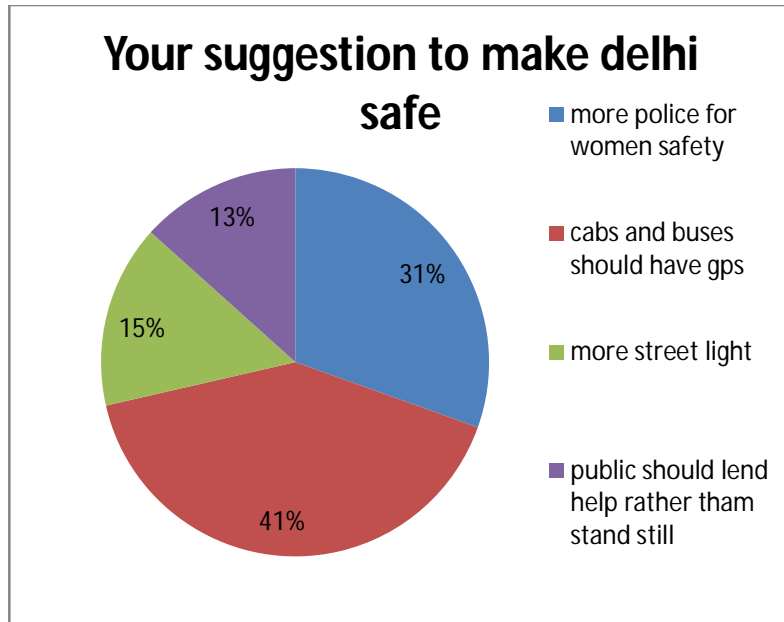
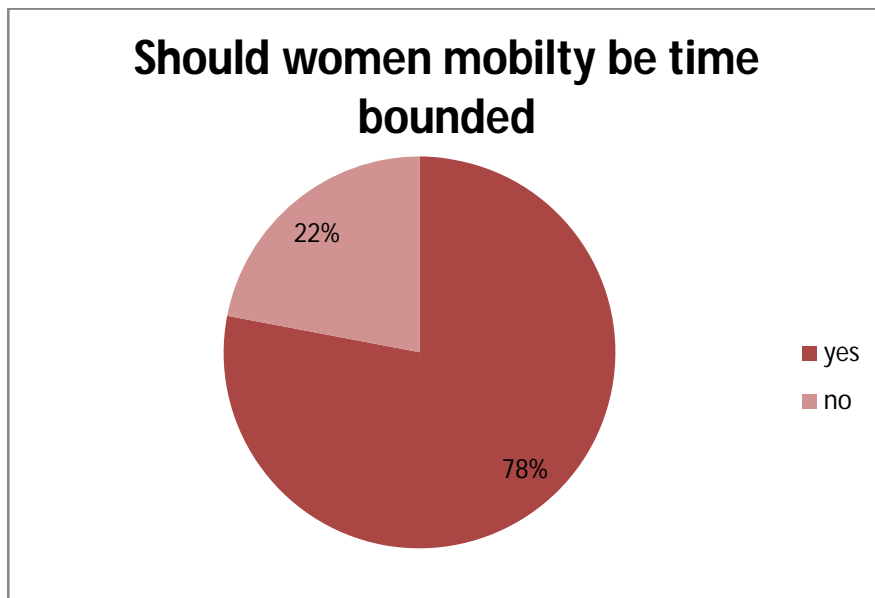


Figure 7.10 shows that should women mobility be time bounded, 78% women said that yes their mobility should be time bounded. Whereas 22% women said that mobility should not be time bounded

**FIGURE 7.10**



## 7.8 SUGGESTION TO MAKE DELHI BETTER PLACE.

<b>Suggestions to the women employees</b>	<b>Suggestions to the organizations</b>
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Time Management</li> <li>2. Drop activities that sap your time or energy</li> <li>3. A little relaxation goes a long way</li> <li>4. Be Honest</li> <li>5. Rethink your errands</li> <li>6. Set your priorities</li> <li>7. Social Networking</li> <li>8. Learn to say no</li> <li>9. Leave work at work</li> <li>10. Manage your time</li> <li>11. Bolster your support system</li> <li>12. Nurture yourself</li> <li>13. Seek help of Counselors</li> <li>14. Don't overbook</li> <li>15. Use technology</li> <li>16. Organize</li> <li>17. Use the facilities available for Work Life Balance (WLB) in organizations</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>2. Offer Flexibility</li> <li>3. Part time working during early stage of Child Care</li> <li>4. Childcare Centers at workplaces</li> <li>5. Women-friendly workplace</li> <li>6. Parental Leave</li> <li>7. Training Programs</li> <li>8. Promote awareness</li> <li>9. Women participation in strategy making</li> <li>10. Availability of accommodations</li> <li>11. Commitment during hiring</li> <li>12. Continuous Process</li> <li>13. Nominating WLB Champions</li> <li>14. Benchmarking against similar organizations</li> <li>15. Communication</li> <li>16. Survey questionnaire</li> <li>17. Role of HR Department</li> <li>18. Avoid as far possible the long hours of work for employees</li> </ol>

<b>Suggestions to the Government</b>
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. White Paper on Work-Life Balance</li> <li>2. Promote a realistic work-life culture amongst employers</li> <li>3. Proposals of how various strategies will be used to deliver improved work-life balance</li> <li>4. Creating and strengthening an accurate and authentic data-base on women workers</li> <li>5. Nomination of a work-life balance inspectors</li> <li>6. Protecting employees from long hours of work</li> </ol>

## **7.9 SUMMARY**

This chapter deals with status of women as an outcome to the relationship which exists between education and work. The comparison has been made between working and non-working women in relation to their mobility and visibility, locational awareness like are working and non-working women aware of banks, hospitals etc around them so that if some emergency arises or even though they don't have to visit they have the awareness about their surroundings, economic security and political jurisprudence. Next section consists of case studies of some individuals who are both working as well as non-working in nature and final section deals with Nirbhaya case and it after effect on women work participation.

## CHAPTER 8

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

#### 8.1 INTRODUCTION

Women's issues related to work are important concern for all the government around the world as women constitute half of the world's population and thus possess 50 percent of productive labour force in the world. In India, too the women labour force participation is low compared to their male counterparts. This thesis has tried to give an insight to the true picture of women and work relation in Delhi, which is the national capital and mini representation of overall diverse nation like India. Delhi being cosmopolitan in nature represents population from all over India. The subject for the study i.e. higher education and work participation among women in Delhi is highly significant area of study in recent times because more and more women are getting education due to the fact that the at different levels right from government's policy making at Macro level to micro level which represents family or household, everyone is becoming conscious about girls education. The different initiatives by central government like beti bachao, beti padhao, even state governments are also making initiatives like Punjab government has recently introduced scheme for all girl child for their free education till PhD degree. Such kind of initiatives is helping under privileged women to get free education until highest level. Thus, when we see higher education among women, it is improving drastically but when we see the work participation among women who are highly educated, it's very low. In fact, parents don't have any issue in educating their girl child but when it comes to participation in labour market their circumstances changes. The factors or reasons for low participation among women are varied at various levels. Present thesis is an attempt to look into the socio-economic and demographic background of educated women who have attained higher education. (Note- higher education in present thesis is considered graduation and above). After looking to their socioeconomic and demographic background, attempt has been made to study working characteristics of employed women, which includes kind of job they are pursuing, their enterprise type, working hours, about grievance redress body, number of workers etc. then later it has been tried to

capture the organizational benefits or career enablers and organizational barriers which they face in day to day life, in next section their commutation details has been seen and the mechanism through which they have got to know about their present job. Non working women and their reasons for non participation in labour market are discussed in succeeding section. Following section deals with the empowerment of working and non working women in terms of relation between education and work for working women and education and non participation in labour market for non-working women.

## **8.2 SUMMARY AND DISUSSION**

### **SOCIOECONOMIC AND DEMOGRAPHIC BACKGROUND OF WORKING AND NON-WORKING WOMEN**

**Religious group-** Hindu constitute highest percentage of working women among the sample survey followed by Sikhs, Muslims and Christians in planned colonies, where as in unauthorized colonies Hindus are followed by Muslims, then Sikhs and then Christians and others. When we see the trend in urban villages, the trend is similar to planned colonies where Hindus are followed by Sikhs, Muslims, Christians and others. Whereas in non-working that Hindus are more in number followed by Sikhs, Muslims, Christians and then others for all three types of localities i.e. planned colonies, unauthorized colonies and urban villages.

**Social group -** Among working and non-working women in planned colonies out of all social groups the dominant percentage belongs to non-reserved category/ general, followed by other backward class (OBC's), SC's and ST. whereas in unauthorized colonies and in urban villages highest percentage were constituted by other backward class women followed by general, scheduled caste, scheduled tribe respectively. More significantly, the largest proportions of OBC's women were found in urban villages. Among non working women OBC's women were found to be almost double than general category women.

**Types of family –** Nuclear family is the preferred choice compared to joint family system among women irrespective of settlement types. Less interference by other members of family and living as per their wish is the reason attributed for the choice.

In contrast to this, the trend of nature of family system among nonworking women seems to depend upon the nature of settlement. When we see the trend among non working women we found out that for planned colonies more women stayed in nuclear families, whereas in unauthorized colonies and urban villages more of joint family system exist. In many of the joint families, the traditional mindset of preceding generations especially in-laws are impeding the entry of women to be a part of productive economy despite possessing higher education.

**Ownership of house** – It is correlated with the standard of living of family staying in the locality. In planned colonies more than 60%, women were living in their own house. Where as in unauthorized colonies and urban villages there were mixed nature of ownership. Among all 51% were owner of the house and 45% were tenant.

**Marital status** - 55% women are unmarried and 45% women are married in planned colonies. In unauthorized colonies 53% women are married followed by 47% women who are not married. In urban villages 51% women are married followed by 49% women who are not married.

**Migration**-More than 50% women are migrants in all three types of settlement i.e. planned colonies, unauthorized colonies and urban villages. UP, Punjab, West Bengal, Haryana are main states from where migration took place in Planned Colonies. Bihar, UP, Punjab, Haryana are four primary states from where migration took place in unauthorized colonies. Haryana, UP are important states from where migration took place in Urban Villages. Marriage is main cause of migration for all types of settlement. In Planned Colonies, the primary reason attributed for migration is Marriage followed by moving with Household. In Unauthorized Colonies the primary cause was Marriage followed by better avenues and better Standard of living. In Urban Villages the most significant reason was Marriage followed by better job prospect for migration.

**Health of women**-Most prevalent diseases among working women are back pain, spondylitis, and diseases that are caused from pollution. Most of the women in all types

of settlement majorly suffered from pollution. They said either they had some sort of breathing problem, or irritation in eye, skin problem etc. so we can conclude saying that working women who are much more exposed to pollution in Delhi suffer from such type of diseases

More number of non-working women reported that they did not suffered from any disease compared to working women. This may be due to less exposure of pollution by non-working as they are mostly residing in the house for most of the time. Whereas working women had to commute and they are more exposed to dust and pollution.

In fact more of working women reported that they were suffering from chronic diseases or long term diseases in last one month. 14% in Planned colonies, 34% in unauthorized colonies and 24% in urban villages. The nature of chronic disease most common in working women is spondalasis, obesity, back pain, asthma, bronchitis, Arthritis. Among working women in planned colonies mostly women went to private hospitals whereas women residing in unauthorized colonies and urban villages went to public hospitals. Performance of duties when working and non-working women are not well is done by other family members, husbands, maids but still around 30% women reported that no one helped them in household chores both working and non working.

### **HIGHER EDUCATION AMONG WORKING, NON-WORKING WOMEN**

Higher education among women in Delhi can be seen as such that in Planned Colonies most of the women had science as their stream at graduate level, followed by pursuing professional/technical courses. In Unauthorized colonies women had arts followed by commerce and same trends follow for Urban Villages. Among non-working women in planned colonies commerce followed by science, arts, In Unauthorized colonies arts followed by commerce and in Urban Villages again the same trend follows.

Among working women arts is the most common stream with 34% followed by science, 26%, professional/ technical degrees 22% and commerce 18%. Whereas 57% had arts for non-working women followed by 30% women who had commerce, 10% women had

science and 3% women had professional/ technical degrees. So it can be seen that among non-working women more than 50% women had arts

## **WORK PARTICIPATION AMONG WORKING WOMEN**

The nature of work participated by women in Delhi in all three types of settlement, has wide range because the survey has been conducted in various regions from planned colonies to unauthorized colonies to urban villages. 15% women are self employed in nature and they hail majorly from urban villages and unauthorized colonies of Delhi. Self-employed women have diversity in the nature of work in which they are participating eg. Boutique, catering, restaurant manager, painter painting and selling beautiful painting canvas. 9% women are in teaching at high school, primary school level, and also in banking sector. In fact, many women responded while surveying that most preferred job among women is teaching because in this profession work and family is very well managed. Again banking is also preferred as a job by women, among banking the career taken by women are probationary officer, clerk, etc. other work done by surveyed women are technical assistant, lower category work like call centers, BPO's. these works are very risky and the salary is also not very good, but some women are doing these kind of work because they are not getting good job may be because of less skill which are usually imparted to professional degree students. Women are also working in NGO's. There are many NGOs working on various aspects related to woman, like women empowerment, job environment, women trafficking, child labour. Then comes clerks, typists, managers/officers, nurses, journalism, engineer, creative/performing art, think tanks, legal professional working in court and as legal advisor, college lecturer, and doctors.

The present study deals with the higher education and work participation among women in Delhi. The study has adopted top-to-bottom approach moving from the macro to micro level. There are many reasons which attributes to low work participation among women. The reasons can be clubbed at various levels

1. Individual level



2. Family level
  3. Organizational level
  4. At the level of settlement
  5. Societal level-crimes against women
1. **Individual level** – The lack of growth prospect in the job and less opportunities limit the prosperous career of women. The lesser chance of growth and few job opportunities lead her to distance herself from her career though she is highly educated. I have also encountered women who are doing menial job just to support their family members. Among individual factors, other reasons, which were reported, were family responsibilities. Language barriers, inadequate skill
  2. **Family level-** In many cases families either does not allow them to go for work, parents or for married women husband or in-laws does not want them to work.
  3. **Organizational level** - There are many organizational barriers at workplace or at organization level, which prevent women to participate in labour market. The most common organizational barriers being lack of grievance redressal body in the organization. Lack of maternity leave, firing of pregnant and lactating women from work, and not taking back in the organization especially plague private enterprises.
  4. **Societal level** – In Delhi NCR where crime against women is reported highest compared to other metro cities of India. This unsafe environment prevents women to enter job market.

**Non-working women-** Marriage accounts to be the major reason for not working. Almost 45% women attributed marriage and family responsibility thereafter to be the reason for not working. Either they have been dislocated from their previous job avenues located in different cities and they are in process of seeking job or they are not allowed to do job after marriage. The next major reason for not working responded by many non-working women was that their

family did not wanted them to work. This was applicable to both married as well as unmarried women.

## **8.3 MAJOR/ FACTS FINDINGS**

### **8.3.1 WOMEN AND HIGHER EDUCATION**

Female GER in higher education is highest in Tamil Nadu, Goa, Uttarakhand, and lowest in Bihar, Jharkhand, and West Bengal. It is lowest for ST girls. Among working women from the fieldwork 2015-15, 52% women are graduate, and 44% women are postgraduate, 4% women are M.Phil and above. Among non-working women 97%, women are graduates and 3% women are postgraduates.

Across religious groups Muslims women constitutes more as graduate women (72%), while Hindu women constitutes more as post graduates 29%. And across social group, OBC's are more as graduates with 75% and Unreserved as more as post graduates with 33%.

Among working women in Planned Colonies most of the women had science as their stream, followed by professional/technical, In Unauthorized colonies women had arts followed by commerce and same trends follows for Urban Villages. Among non-working women, in planned colonies more women had commerce followed by science, arts, In Unauthorized colonies arts followed by commerce and in Urban Villages again the same trend follows.

### 8.3.2 WOMEN AND WORK

Female work participation is highest in Sikkim, HP, Meghalaya, and lowest in Bihar, J&K, and among UT's Delhi according to secondary data. Contrary to popular speculation or imagination, the ratio of participation of working woman in labour market Delhi is less compared to other metropolitan cities of India, though Delhi is national capital, with world-class resources and many avenues which lure other persons to migrate from different states for job.

Working women across social group has 41% OBC's, followed by 36% general, 18% SC's and 4% ST. The strongest driver of working women being in job is their mother's education followed by their husband's education. If both parents are educated then percentage women working was higher compared to when only father was educated. In planned colonies, most prevalent works are of managers/officers, followed by engineers, banking, think tanks members, NGO's etc. Thus, we see the work participation among women in planned colonies is more sophisticated in nature, and they don't go for any menial job. The jobs are highly paid in nature. In Unauthorized colonies, most prevalent work is technical assistants, primary school teachers, self-employed and high school teachers. In urban villages, the most prevalent occupation is self employed/business, followed by lower category jobs like in customer care services etc, and next is primary school teachers and clerks/typists.

Boys prefer to marry well-educated girl as she can contribute in family income or for household with good income, women can manage house well financially, or rising children well. Husband's level of education is either equal or more compared to wives level of education. 76% women in planned colonies abided by the fact that there was convergence, followed by 41% women in Unauthorized Colonies, and 31% women in urban villages. In planned colonies there is parity between public and private enterprise where women are working, whereas in unauthorized colonies and urban villages women are more absorbed in private sectors than government enterprises. The low participation among women in labour market may be due to the fact that there exists high earnings of other

family member, as women's employability may be the result of necessity which exists in the family, where women is observed to on one hand, on the other hand women's employability is driven by high education attainment with the preview of available employment opportunities to the women.

Men and women possessing same kind of degrees from various educational institutions are left on the mercy of public and private enterprise to recruit them based on their caliber. Usually boys are preferred over girls with same educational qualification and degrees.

The woman participation in job market is affected by two most important factors i.e. First arises out of necessity to lend in support to family income and secondly the attainment of higher education is the source of motivation and encouragement to enter into job market. Changing societal outlook of the role of women in society and the availability of job market are some additional factors affecting women participation in job market. In terms of first factor which is arising out of necessity, it has been argued that participation of women during labour crunch situation increases steeply. This is since women worker supposedly fill the gap between supply and demand of labour in job market popularly known as "Added-worker effect" (Abraham, 2009; Attanasio et al., 2005; Bhalotra and Umana-Aponte, 2010).

Higher convergence between education and employment has been seen in case of women residing in planned colonies i.e. up to 76% on the contrary mere 40% of women getting higher education is entering into job markets.

The most important social variables explaining work participation of unmarried women are income of the household, mother's educational level and father's educational level. All these independent variables made a unique statistically, significant contribution to the model. Income of the household holds a significant value for both income groups more than 5 lakhs and more than 10 lakhs. If women living in household has income more than 5 lakhs and 10 lakhs, then women are less likely to do work. Because the household has much money to suffice the needs of family. Similarly, mother and father's educational level also plays an important role in unmarried women's work participation. If mother's

educational level is graduate and above then women are 5 times more likely to work compared to mother's educational level upto intermediate level. And father's educational level also predicts the significance. If father's educational level is post graduate and above then women are 3 times more likely to work compared to father's education which is up to graduate.

The most important educational variables explaining work participation of unmarried women are, graduation stream, marks obtained in graduation, help in studies when they were getting education, level of education. Women with graduation as science subject and professional degrees are more likely to work compared to art stream. Women with science stream in graduation are 6 times more likely to work compared to arts stream and women with professional degrees are 47 times more likely to work compared to arts stream. Women with level of education as postgraduate and above are more likely to work compared to women who are graduate. Women with postgraduate degrees are 34 times more likely to work compared to women with graduate degrees, because women with postgraduate's degrees have more wider scope in labour market and more avenues are opened for them. Similarly, if women have got more than 60% their chance of doing work is more than women with less marks.

The most important variables explaining work participation of married women are income of the household and mother's educational level. All these independent variables play an important role in determining women participation in job market. If Income of the household is more than 5 lakhs or more than 5 lakhs, then women are less likely to work compared to household with less income. Because sometimes income play an important role in determining whether women should work or not. Similarly, mother's educational level also plays an important role in married women's work participation, because a girl learns from her mother. If mother is independent throughout her life then that helps a girl to also pursue job and be independent like her mother. If mother's educational level is graduate and above then women are 2 times more likely to work compared to mother's educational level which up to intermediate level.

The most important educational variables explaining work participation of married women are graduation stream, marks in graduation, help in studies when they were getting education, level of education, distance from home to workplace, mode of transportation used from home to work place. Women with graduation as science stream (18 times more likely) and professional degrees are 32 times more likely to work compared to art stream. Women with level of education postgraduate and above are 13 times more likely to work compared to women who are graduate. Women who commutes for more distance that is if distance between home and workplace are more than 15 km then women are less likely to work, because their much time is gone on commutation. Women who have private vehicle and has not to depend on public mode of transportation are 57 times more likely to work compared to women who travel in public mode of transport.

Maternity bill 2017 extends maternity leave from 12 weeks to 26 week, may bring women those are more educated into workforce. Maternity leave provisions are there in almost all the organizations where women work, more than 90% women responded positive in this regard in all three types of settlements. It is seen that out of all enterprise in which women are working have well established grievance redressal institution that too varies according to the location from where the enterprises operate. 45% of enterprises in which woman are working have grievance redressal body while mere 5% of enterprises in urban villages or unauthorized colonies have properly constituted grievance redressal body. Due to less number of grievance redressal body reported by women in Unauthorized colonies(6%), and Urban Village (15), may be one reason that although women enters into job market but leave after some time. (3% of non working women in Unauthorized colonies and Urban Village.

Delhi being in news for crimes and high rates of rape/ harassment with average 6 cases every day(rape) (NCRB report) is one of the factor influencing female into joining work force.

Household income also seems to play an important role in imparting higher education and influencing women work force participation. As we see in planned colonies due to more household income women are not participating in

job market. Annual income earned by woman is less than 3 lakhs for 62% woman followed by 27% woman in the category of 3-5 lakhs rest earning more than 5 lakhs per annum. Women living in unauthorized colonies have also reported that as the workplace of both husband and wife is nearer to their place of resident, they prefer living in UAC. More than 745 of woman work for the span of 5-8 hours followed by 25% who worked more than 8 hours. More than 50% of woman from the unauthorized colonies and urban village responded in affirmative about lack of job security. The house rent is also an important factor in UAC as it is less compared to other type of settlements, so most migrant women prefer to stay in UAC and UV due to less house rent. More than 50% respondents were in favour of commuting for their workplace upto 20 km. While 43% respondents travelled less than 10 km to reach their work place. Mode of transport while commuting is the public transport, metro being the preferred choice.

### **8.3.3 EMPOWERMENT**

Non- working women are totally dependent on their parents or husbands for money, in many cases working women also can't withdraw money and spend according to their choice. They have to take permission or the amount they require is given by their family members. Very few access their own account, the lowest access being in UAC and highest in PC. Less than 40% women access their account or withdraw. Many non-working women and some of working women cannot wear clothes of their choice. Their parents decide it, or in case, if they are married than their husband decides it.

A unique result is seen to manifest in form of physical mobility of women possessing higher education. Out of all working women respondents it was seen that 63% went for household related works and 86% went for other than household related works. In contrary non-working women went for household related works is 77 % but for other than household related works merely 10% in stark contrast to their working counterparts.

Harassment in public places seems to be more often in localities situated in unauthorized colonies i.e. 18%. Working women residing in urban villages and non-working women overall refrained from responding to this query.

Mostly all working are found to be aware about the localities providing utility services like banks, hospitals while for non-working data is asymmetric, some being aware and some non-aware. For instance about working place of parents and husbands only 22% of women were aware among non-working women.

Overall 75% working women were more comfortable in interaction with men outside home, whereas only 23% were comfortable among non-working.

Among working women almost 100% woman possess bank accounts but access to bank account is only 39% in which least were recorded in unauthorized colonies i.e. 25%. The accessibility was highest in planned colonies i.e. 58%. Non-working woman have a meager figure having bank account to only 19% of respondents.

Political awareness is also highest amongst working woman 70% who casted votes highest being in planned colonies figure rose up to 88%. Most women voted as per their choice constituting a percentage of 62% while 9% women decided as per their family choice of candidates. Out of non-working women 60 % casted vote amongst which 45% decide by themselves and 24% went as per the wish of their family.

#### **8.4 SUGGESTING A WAY FORWARD**

1. The major challenge for the policy makers working in the domain of higher education should be to address the regional imbalances in quality higher education. Imparting quality education in case of backward states is an imperative to check the migration from such states. This may well converge in increase in percentage of women entering in job market especially in terms of psychological reasons i.e. being well versed with the native ambience.



2. The orientation of higher education should be more towards professional courses at least in near future to generate a cadre of well skilled women workforce. This may drastically improve the grim picture of women workforce participation in backward states and lessen the burdens of migrants on capital city.
3. From a long-term perspective, it is necessary to effuse the motivation amongst women at graduate level to pursue for higher education like PhD and even higher degree. The effect may percolate from top-to-bottom strata of society and helps in molding the traditional mindset of society towards girl's education.
4. Regional imbalances should be worked upon concomitantly with imbalance in the religion towards attainment of higher education of girls. Regional and education equality amongst religion should be the focus in order to strengthen secular fabric of India.
5. New education policy being drafted should work upon tuning the system so that a girl can earn while she learn i.e. "Earning while learning" approach if adopted may have a profound effect on the girls education especially girls belonging from socially and financially marginalized sections of the society.
6. Opening skill centers in colleges and imparting vocational training amongst girls may bring more meaningful outcomes from new initiative like Skill India Mission.
7. New education policy should focus more attention towards multidisciplinary studies for reaping the optimum benefits from the education to the society.
8. Success story of Women in Indian society in terms of their contribution towards Economics, History, and Science as well as from other domains should be included in course curriculum at graduation level.
9. Government, NGOs should strive to change the traditional mindset of society towards women from reproductive role to more meaningful role in productive economy.
10. It should be made mandatory to constitute grievance redressal body in all institutions employing women as a workforce. The safety and security of women workforce should not be compromised.

11. Both the education system and economy should adopt a gender neutral approach which if needed have a feminist tilt for the convenience of women work force.
12. Effusing the entrepreneurship amongst women possessing higher education may bring radical changes in economy and society. Policies like “Mudra Yojana” has seen a great participation from women section, working on similar lines policies need to be drafted for motivating young woman entrepreneur.
13. Broadening the horizon of education system by calibrating with market based approach may effuse entrepreneurship spirit and skill in women.
14. Strengthening the transport system especially the Public transport in Delhi from female perspective may ease the burden of commutation for getting education and workforce. Initiatives like running buses wholly reserved for females during peak working hours and recruiting women safety personnel in buses may provide flexibility for choosing mode of transport.
15. It is necessary to strengthen the management board of private company from female perspective by including more women members in decision-making body.
16. Political awareness amongst women may play a big role in drafting policies related to women. It is therefore necessary to have proper representation of women at grassroots level of democracy i.e. at panchayat and municipalities up to the highest level of Loksabha and Rajyasabha. Political awareness may percolate to societal level up to family level.
17. Working hours and Facilities need to be more flexible for women in any enterprises.
18. Initiative like Digital literacy should also focus upon women since it will create new vistas for accessing the information related to job opportunities as well as a medium to empowering the women.
19. Lastly to sum up it must be said whether it is the need of hour or a sheer compulsion, society need to change its perception from considering a girl/women being exception in some roles to being exceptional in almost all roles because in the words of famous luminaries it is a well established fact that “if we educate a girl we ultimately empower a nation”. We only need policies that don’t create obstacles but let the women realize the power from within that will be in actual

sense bring the meaningful outcome of women participation. Remember both facts are equally true “No nation can prosper and realize its full potential if it held’s back its one half of population” and

“THERE IS NO LIMIT TO WHAT WE AS WOMAN CAN ACCOMPLISH”

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