

**Engendering Gender Statistics:
An Analysis of Gender Differentiated
Statistics in India**

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Preface

The first World Conference on Women held in Mexico in 1975 earmarked the beginning of a pertinent issue related to the lives of men and women. In labour market, the separation of women's work and men's work have existed since long where the organisation of labour market revolves around patriarchal norms underestimating women's work to a large extent. Gender issues in labour statistics gained momentum in the Third World Conference on Women 1985 in Nairobi where the attention shifted from statistics on women to gender statistics. The Beijing Platform for Action 1995 also reiterated the fact that women contribute to development not only through remunerated work but also through a great deal of unremunerated work. One of the major functions of labour force statistics is to net all the workers in the workforce statistics comprehensively. However, this concept does not get translated into reality due to various methodological problems since the size of the work force in India particularly the women workers is underestimated. Moreover, women workers engulfed in double burden of work lack social mobility due to the constraining patriarchal socio-cultural norms of our society. This largely unpaid labour of women has not received much attention by our planners and policy makers.

Against this backdrop, there is a growing pressure on countries for the development of gender statistics for proper assessment of socio-economic and cultural lives of both men and women. Therefore, the incorporation of gender issues in labour would improve the description of the labour market and provide a solid basis for promoting equality between women and men. Such an endeavour would enable designing of effective policies for development and empowerment of women. It is in this context, the present research was designed to address the gender issues in labour statistics in India. The study provides a conceptual understanding about gender and the importance of gender in statistics. A sincere effort is also made in the present study to unmask the various obstacles deeply embedded in the social structure and how they are instrumental in

ignoring various aspects of women's role and their participation in social, economic and political life of society. However, a comparative analysis of select countries was also undertaken to understand changes in women's employment patterns across countries amidst differential institutional settings. The study also highlighted the importance of time use surveys and important issues like reconciliation of work and family life were dealt with carefully.

On the whole, the study is an important contribution to the area of gender statistics thereby an important addition to a wide array of academic debates on incorporation of gender issues in labour statistics. This study would not only provide information to users, market analysts and policy makers but also facilitate evaluation of data from a gender perspective. The researchers owe a lot to Dr. Ratna Sudarshan, ISST, Dr. Preet Rustagi, Institute of Human Development and Dr. Neetha N., Centre for Women and Development Studies for their valuable comments and suggestions.

I hope that this work will be a contribution to the burgeoning literature on women's studies and will be appreciated by a wider audience including researchers, social scientists, policy makers, academicians and students who might contribute to the expansion in this field.



(V.P Yajurvedi)
Director General

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CHAPTER I

Conceptualising Gender Statistics

Gender inequality is one of the most persistent and pervasive global problem and challenges of 21st century. The Millennium Declaration and the 2005 World Summit recognized the centrality of gender equality and women's empowerment to the elimination of poverty and hunger, and the achievement of truly sustainable development. There is no denying the fact that economic empowerment of women has been instrumental in encouraging women to move out of the web of poverty. But the global financial and economic crisis has highlighted the need for greater gender equality in the labour market to counter vulnerability to economic shocks and to support recovery and poverty reduction. Women continue to disproportionately face a range of multiple challenges relating to access to employment, choice of work, working conditions, employment security, wage parity, discrimination, and balancing the competing burdens of work and family responsibilities. Labour market gender gaps are more pronounced in developing countries, and often exacerbated by gendered patterns in occupational segregation, with the majority of women's work typically concentrated in a narrow range of sectors, many of which are vulnerable and insecure. Therefore, investing in women's full economic potential is critical to increasing productivity and economic growth, and supporting the move towards a more balanced and sustainable development. Moreover, securing decent work is crucial for women, making it possible for them to build more promising futures for themselves, their families and their communities.

1.1 GENDER EQUALITY

Gender issues have become prominent to all discourses and policy arena in the last few decades. It is also an undeniable fact that sometimes, interest in examining the differences and similarities between women and men is aimed at understanding the nature and causes of gender inequality. However, the concept of gender inequality is a complex one and many policies are designed to reduce gender inequality. Gender differences in the context of women are reflected in various social, economic, cultural, political, psychological and health dimensions. Feminist interventions have also contributed significantly to probe into

the larger debate on gender inequality. As a consequence of feminism the importance has been steadily growing and gaining intellectual legitimacy (Rehman and Rao, 2004).

The inter-connection between gender policies and wider social issues is recognized prominently in the United Nations Platform for Action (UN 1995) Para 41 “ The advancement of women and the achievement of equality between women and men are a matter of human rights and a condition for social justice and should not be seen in isolation as a women’s issue. They are the only way to build a sustainable, just and developed society. Empowerment of women and equality between women and men are prerequisites for achieving political, social, economic, cultural and environmental security among all peoples”.

Gender equality is defined as “the socially constructed expectation for male and female behaviour that is found in every human society”. Studies explicitly concerned with gender systems and their impact on demographic change are relatively new. (Mason, 1997). The politics of gender and feminist research have outlined the deprivations and unequal entitlements in the lives of women. One of the critical concerns of gender studies is the issue of women’s agency and autonomy. Moreover gender differentials are not same among all places since the culture and political economy of countries differ significantly.

Gender *equality*, equality between men and women, entails the concept that all human beings, both men and women, are free to develop their personal abilities and make choices without the limitations set by stereotypes, rigid gender roles and prejudices. Gender equality means that the different behaviour, aspirations and needs of women and men are considered, valued and favoured equally. It does not mean that women and men have to become the same, but that their rights, responsibilities and opportunities will not depend on whether they are born male or female. Gender *equity* means fairness of treatment for women and men, according to their respective needs. This may include equal treatment or treatment that is different but which is considered equivalent in terms of rights, benefits, obligations and opportunities. (ABC of Women Worker’s Rights and Gender Equality, ILO, Geneva, 2000)

Gender inequalities in the Indian context, are due to outcome of household level optimization that assigns lower economic worth to females

than to males. Women lack authority over household decisions. Women's status within the family will change, as they are increasingly perceived as economically productive, particularly when a large proportion of women in the village work.

In order to ensure sustainable development, it has become imperative to recognize the importance of the two sexes (male and female) as complementary biological entities and moreover, to respect full equity and equality of each of the two genders, i.e., of the social roles that men and women assume in their lives. These roles, it must be emphasized, are socio-political and cultural constructs which have evolved through history, and vary from one society to another. The fact that the roles attributed to men and women are not static and eternally valid but, on the contrary, that these roles change, have changed and are prone to further change, is essential in explaining why the term *gender* is now in the forefront on the debate, and why it is not interchangeable with the term *sex* but is, in fact, complementary to it. While the sex of a being is a given, the gender roles in each society are, in the ultimate analysis, a consequence of political choice. How men and women are perceived and treated in a society is one of the cornerstones of any political system, and one of its most revealing facets. (UNESCO, 2000)

However, the "gender and development" (GAD) paradigm, proposed in the process leading to the Beijing Conference, is perceived as an evolution from the hitherto dominant "women in Development" (WID) approach. As explained in the 1995 Commonwealth Plan of Action, *"the WID Approach focused on how women could be better integrated into the existing 'men/male made world' and corresponding development initiatives. Targeting women's productive work to the exclusion of their reproductive work, this approach was characterised by income-generating projects for women which failed to address the systemic causes of gender inequality"*.

In this context it becomes imperative to thoroughly probe into the issue of subsequent undercounting of women's work and thereby incorporating it into official statistics. These official statistics should guarantee standards and methodologies taking into account the dynamics of societies and also understanding of social phenomena which are not possible to understand through traditional techniques. Since men and women have different roles in society and have unequal access to resources there would be differential impacts of social policies on them. Therefore it becomes necessary to

incorporate gender statistics into the official statistical system of India. It would not only allow comparisons by sex but also assure that the contribution of both men and women are properly evaluated. This is a new approach in the field of statistics has a fundamental basis for policy makers' action and help promoting the elimination of stereotypes and provide accurate picture about men and women's social situation thereby helping in formulation of appropriate policies.

1.2 GENDER STATISTICS: MEANING

Gender statistics is a field of statistics which cuts across the traditional fields to identify, produce and disseminate statistics that reflect the realities of the lives of women and men and policy issues relating to gender equality (United Nations 2010). The construction of gender statistics is a process involving society as a whole. It provides a brief overview of the kind of statistics normally included in National Accounts Systems.

The most important concern in gender statistics is the need to define specific gender related situations. Conventional statistics compiling information about people's various attributes may answer many such questions. Usually they are grouped under the term 'social, demographic and associated statistics' and refer to subject areas such as population, health, education, science and technology, culture, social security, justice, personal data and criminal records. Also included in the category of social statistics are matters related to economic performance such as labour, employment, salaries and incomes.¹ Disaggregation by sex is not often applied during the compilation processing and publishing of statistics. However modifying these statistics is always possible. Additional efforts may be needed to process or publish gender-differentiated results. Although it may mean higher costs, it is possible to change statistical guidelines so as to take gender into account (Galvez, 2003). But this does not mean that traditional statistics have no role to play. In fact, the statisticians are aware of the broad possibilities offered by any sex-disaggregated data. Many argue that gender is already incorporated in statistics and it is not necessary for calculating separate statistics. But it is a fact that men and women have different roles in society, different access to and control over resources and different skills and interests. Unless these differences are

¹ Classification of statistical subject areas according to the International Statistics Guide, UN, New York, 1984

reflected in official statistics, statisticians will not fulfill adequately their mandate. (United Nations, 2010)

The important challenge before policy makers dealing with gender statistics is to convince statisticians, and also the potential users about the importance of this field of work. Though traditional statistics are a good point of departure, yet production of gender statistics involves other actors. There are however, some limitations in conventional statistics even if it is possible to disaggregate them by sex, for example the definition of 'work' in case of statistics produced by various sources are different therefore many of the activities are excluded from the domain of work. Moreover the bifurcation of population into men and women is usually cross-cut with other social groups. The nature and implications of these divisions are important to consider while producing gender statistics. There are significant differences between women and men depending upon age, education, and other important categories. Therefore, it is important to be careful about generalizations about women or men that might be misleading because of this diversity. In fact it becomes imperative to gather and present data disaggregated not only by sex but also by other social dimensions in order to assess the different social situations.

Gender statistics are the basis for analysis to assess differences in the situations of women and men and would also enable one to understand the socio-economic conditions and the changes associated with it. In this way, gender statistics raise consciousness and provide the impetus for public debate and change. Gender statistics are also required for research to support the development and testing of explanations and theories to understand how gender operates in society. All of these uses form the basis for developing policies to foster gender equality. Furthermore, gender statistics are needed to monitor and evaluate effectiveness and efficiency of policy developments. (UNECE, 2010)

In this context it can be argued that gender statistics have a vital role to play and the importance of gender statistics in the statistical process cannot be ignored. These statistics would contribute effectively to the policies, research questions and public debate and also lead to gender equality and advancement of women. Moreover, gender statistics have also an important role in improving the entire statistical system. It is important to have a dialogue between producers and users of gender statistics. For example, gender specialists bring their own demands for data and in doing

so identify deficiencies in data currently available to them. They push for improvements in the concepts, methods, topics and data series to reflect better the activities and contributions made by women as well as by men. While responding to the data users, it is important that statistician's take into account stereotypes and social and cultural factors that might produce gender bias. The result of such efforts is often simply better information on women and men, but improvements in measuring the realities of economic and social life. (UNECE, 2010)

1.3 GENDER STATISTICS IN INDIA: THE NEED

The issues of gender discrimination and deprivation have received considerable importance in recent years is well reflected in United Nations Development Programmes (UNDP) gender related attributes of developments like Gender Development Index (GDI) as development indicators. According to the latest United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) report, India's position in the world on the parameter of Gender development index (GDI) which was 108 out of 143 countries in 2000 has not improved much and in 2007/8 the India's rank in GDI was 113 out of 157 countries². This clearly shows that there is no significant improvement in the situation.

Any developmental efforts to be sustainable should pursue policies which would be helpful in eradication of such discrimination and deprivation based on gender as inherent gender inequalities within the family would fail to produce proper development of the society and hence of the country as a whole. The National Commission for Women, set up in 1990 is considered as the apex body to ensure Women rights as well as their empowerment and to create an enabling environment for achieving gender equality and the advancement of women, taking into account, interalia, the fields of education, health and work. Such measures, though quite useful to indicate level of gender disparity in terms of education, health, political, economic and social security, are basically based on national aggregates or averages and hence are macro-variables. (Tisdell and Gopal, 2005). So inspite of various plans, legislations, programmes and declarations for gender equality a lot more needs to be done taking into consideration the nature of Indian society.

² This was reflected in UNDP's Human Development Report 2007/2008 focusing on Gender related development index

Gender discrimination pervades Indian society and gender bias is evident everywhere. In this context there is a necessity to look at the hidden aspects of social construction of gender and develop a wider perspective of social reality. The present work aims to analyse the role of gender statistics in exposing the widespread gender diversity in India. In the present study an attempt was made to find out the various possibilities of gender representation in statistical data. It is indeed a matter of great surprise that gender is not adequately represented in statistics owing to the nature of Indian society. Therefore an effort was made in the present study to unmask the various obstacles deeply embedded in the social structure and how they are instrumental in ignoring various aspects of women's role and their participation in social, economic and political life of society.

The first World Conference on Women held in Mexico discussed the gender statistics for the first time in 1975. After that few discussions were held concerned with this issue. Progress was clear during the 1985 Nairobi world conference. The statistical division calculated 39 key indicators on the condition of women for 172 countries. The general approach has changed from "women and development" to "gender and development", shifting emphasis from women in isolation to women in relation to men and their relationship. In statistics, this is highlighted by the shift from "statistics on women" to "gender statistics" (UN, 2010).

The importance of gender in statistics for gender policies and mainstream planning is realized and certain pertinent questions arise in this regard. Firstly, whether the surveys conducted by the Census, National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO) and Central Statistical Organisation (CSO) and the definitions used in the data collection actually consider the differences between men and women? Secondly, whether the methodologies used by Census, NSSO and CSO in data collection consider gender and cultural factor stereotypes which can be instrumental in altering a gender point of view? In this regard, some strategic areas can be outlined namely, the development of surveys on the use of time for the evaluation of unpaid work and identify the key areas in terms of employment (formal and informal), and also analyzing their representation in statistics.

For years in national official statistics some social phenomena, extremely relevant in a woman's life, have never been analyzed. For

years, invisibility of woman has been expressed in different ways; lack of statistical information on the condition of women and, above all, on women as subjects, inadequate use of existing data (for example, in tables separated by sex, women are often calculated by difference), lack of an approach highlighting the gender differences from the planning phase of surveys.

It is agreed upon by most sources that there are three primary requirements of gender statistics³:

1. All statistics on individuals should be collected, collated and presented disaggregated by sex.
2. All variables and characteristics should be analysed and presented with sex a primary and overall classification
3. Specific efforts should be made to identify gender issues and to ensure that data addressing these are collected and made available.

1.4 GENDER STATISTICS: GENDER ISSUES IN LABOUR STATISTICS

There is no denying the fact that various efforts have been undertaken to ameliorate the poor working conditions of women so that there is effective participation in the labour market. There is an evidence of far-reaching developments in the world of work and women have also entered the labour market in astounding numbers. In this context it becomes imperative to explore the developments that have occurred as employment of women approaches that of men, and now there is a significant amount of data disaggregated by sex that can be drawn upon. Many scholars are ignorant about the crucial importance of statistics and its contribution to allocation of resources, policy formulation and legislation. Phenomena and people that are not counted or measured are quite easily ignored. Data on individual and group characteristics are pre-conditions for supportive policies. When plans for national censuses are set, there sometimes is a debate on labels and categories-precisely because of their importance in the

³ For example, see Joann Vanek, 13 Gender Statistics, Chapter 13 Course on Gender Statistics for Social Policy, 1999, UNSD; Linda Murgatroyd, "Developing gender statistics in the UK", *Radical Statistics*, No. 074, 2000; Statistics Sweden, "Work to Improve Gender Statistics in Sweden", Working Paper 16, Conference of European Statisticians, Statistical Commission for Economic Commission of Europe, October 2000;

subsequent formulation of national policy .With regard to women and work it is found that they are frequently undercounted-despite decades of effort on the part of those who are concerned about the distortion that results. Adriana Mata Greenwood explains “that to serve users, labour statistics need to reflect reality as closely as possible”. However since statistical categories reflect what are perceived o be the ‘core’ employment and unemployment situations, in which men dominate and women are often found in “other “work situations, the neglect of women’s work is pernicious. As she points out, the “systematic under-reporting and misrepresentation of women’s contribution to the economy....perpetuate a vicious circle of inequality between men and women” (Greenwood, 1999).

The process of producing labour statistics inevitably simplifies reality, highlighting certain aspects and ignoring others, depending on the priorities and objectives involved and the data collection methods available. But women are often to be found in these other work situations, which may go unnoticed or be inadequately described in labour statistics (United Nations, 1991). Labour statistics, in fact describe the numbers, structure, characteristics and contributions of the participants in the labour market and how these change over time. Conventionally they cover many topics concerning the size and structure of the labour force and the characteristics of workers and employers. From an economic perspective, these statistics are necessary for analyzing, evaluating and monitoring the way the economy is performing and the effectiveness of current and longer term economic policies. From a social perspective, they are also necessary for designing policies and programmes for job creation, training and retraining schemes, and for assisting vulnerable groups, including the young, the old, women etc. in finding and securing employment to serve users, labour statistics need to describe reality as closely as possible. This means that they should comprehensively cover all persons who actually participate in the labour market, and should describe their various work situations in equal detail and depth. (Greenwood, 1999)

The production of statistics requires great amount of circumspection to codify the reality into categories in order to highlight the most part

of it. In order to do so it becomes imperative to analyze carefully the available methods of data collection and the objectives and impact of data collection process as a whole. In this context, the validity of labour statistics would be enhanced by better understanding about the roles of women and how they behave in labour market situations. Since much of the work in case of women go unnoticed there is a need to provide more complete information to users of the statistics, such as market analysts and policy makers which is important because men and women often do very different types of work and labour market changes tend to affect them differently. For the systematic under-reporting and misrepresentation of women's contribution to the economy help maintain a distorted perception of the nature of a country's economy and its human resources, and thus perpetuate a vicious circle of inequality between men and women, and inappropriate policies and programmes. So, it is important to establish the characteristics labour statistics need to acquire before they can fully reflect the similarities and differences in the respective situations of men and women in the labour market. (Greenwood, 1999)

It is generally accepted that inequality between men and women stems from attitudes, prejudices and assumptions concerning the different roles assigned to men and women in society (Overholt et al., 1984). Such roles (mostly household) are transmitted through the process of socialization as a result of which they combine economic activities with household (non economic) activities and are therefore more active than men in non-market activities and are considered as economically inactive. Another area of gender differentiation is the allocation of resources and benefits among the members of a household. It has been observed, for example, that woman who is self-employed have more limited access to production resources than men, which lowers their income (Dixon-Muller and Anker, 1990). Furthermore, women do not necessarily have control over their use of resources available to them, nor do they necessarily reap the full benefits accruing from their efforts. Women's and men's gender roles also determine their different needs and constraints. For example, degree to which women actually participate and contribute to the production process is highly dependent on their marital status, on whether they have small children, and on whether they have to care for their persons in their households. Men's participation in and contribution to the production

process are also affected by these factors, but not in a constraining way. (Greenwood, 1999)

As gender issues come to the forefront, there is a need for policy makers, researchers and advocates to argue about inclusion of gender perspective in the statistical production process. Such an effort would not only lead to the development of policies on gender equality but also would contribute to change and reform the statistical systems so that they produce more relevant information.

1.5 OBJECTIVES

Against this backdrop, the following main objectives of the present work were formulated:

1. To develop a conceptual understanding about gender and the importance of gender in statistics
2. Explore the various concepts in gender statistics related to labour
3. Identify the key areas in terms of employment (formal and informal) and analyzing their representation in statistics.
4. To make comparative analysis of selected countries and explore the representation of gender in statistics.
5. To identify the reasons for invisibility of gender in statistics with special reference to value added statistics in gender and its relevance in policy making.

1.6 METHODOLOGY

The study was based on secondary data collected from several governmental sources like periodicals, official records, published governmental sources. Conceptual and theoretical understanding was developed from the extensive review of literature. For the present study Census, NSSO (National Sample Survey organization), NFHS (National Family Health Survey), NCEUS (National Commission for Enterprises in the Unorganised Sector) and Central Statistical Organisations (Time use survey) data were studied and interpreted subsequently. In order to compare the gender gaps existing in India, an index of dissimilarity was used to examine the male-female differentials over the years. Comparative analysis of select countries (Sweden, and some South Asian countries namely Bangladesh) were undertaken in order to capture the

data adequately and locate the various loopholes in the representation of data on gender in India. For the cross country comparison data was collected from various international sources like, ISTAT, Statistics Sweden, EUROSTAT, Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics, Population Census Commission, Bangladesh, ILO, UN women etc.

1.7 RELEVANCE OF THE STUDY

The present study becomes relevant in terms of providing an in-depth analysis of various statistical data and locates the important gender concerns in the data. Moreover, if these distinctions are 'visible', they would enable the users to understand and analyze the position of women in comparison to their male counterparts in various spheres of life. Gender statistics are needed to provide an evidence base for research and policy development. Gender statistics are required in all contexts for many different and important uses for awareness-raising, advocacy and stimulating public debate on gender equality; to facilitate the elimination of stereotypes by providing facts on the roles and contributions of women; for support to gender mainstreaming by providing the data required for analyses which form the basis of gender-sensitive policies and legislation and "evidence-based" planning processes and resource allocations; as well as for monitoring the implementation of the Platform for Action through the establishment of benchmarks and indicators. In addition, gender statistics have an important role in improving the whole statistical system, pushing it to describe more accurately and fully the activities and characteristics of the whole population, which is made of women and men. The study would become a basis for analysis to assess differences in the situations of women and men and explored whether their conditions were changing or not. In this way, it would raise consciousness and provide the impetus for public debate and change. It would also enable the statisticians to take into account stereotypes and social and cultural factors that might produce gender bias. The result of such efforts is often not simply better information on women and men, but improvements in measuring the realities of economic and social life. Endeavoring to reflect these as fully as possible, the differences between men and women will improve the quality of statistics. This study would not only provide information to users, market analysts and policy makers but would also enable to evaluate the data from a gender perspective. Such

an effort, of evaluation of data from a gender perspective with regard to the data's strengths and shortcomings by producers and users of the data will therefore provide indications of how and where improvements to the data are needed and possible.

1.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study had undertaken a very vast area of research i.e engendering the national statistical systems. The area of gender statistics is quite vast and includes many important indicators like employment, education, health, polity, violence etc which requires serious attention from a policy perspective. But due to the constraint of time (six months), the study could only emphasize on women's employment aspect and could not reflect on other important indicators. Moreover, the cross country analysis undertaken for the present study could compare only two countries (Sweden and Bangladesh) with India and subsequent generalizations were drawn on the basis of the comparison. Though many countries around the globe have developed gender statistics quite efficiently, the study could not compare these countries due to paucity of time. Such an endeavour would have definitely provided a broader picture about the development of gender statistics throughout the globe.

CHAPTER II

Gender Statistics and Labour

Men and women perform different and complementary roles and responsibilities in society, which lead to gender disparities in the enjoyment of benefits from social and economic development. It specifies the importance of empowerment of women to reduce gender inequalities in the society through policy makers and planners. Importance of gender statistics needs to be addressed by socio economic research and analysis to ensure the formulation and successful implementation of development policies that respond to actual conditions. Lack of adequate data on true gender disparities in socio economic sphere gave rise to inappropriate policies and it can be resolved by a careful and planned approach to statistical production. One of the major functions of labour force statistics is to net all the workers in the workforce statistics comprehensively. However, this concept does not get translated into reality due to various methodological problems since the size of the work force in India particularly the women workers is underestimated. Investing in women's economic potential is critical for the growth of a balanced economy especially for tackling demographic transition which India is going to experience in the near future. In this chapter we explore how each of the census categories⁴ constitutes and constructs gender in the Indian Census. It also highlights on the changing trends of gender in labour market and also gender issues in the statistical measurement methodologies.

2.1 DEMOGRAPHIC IMBALANCE: GENDER PERSPECTIVE

As per 2011 census, the total female population (all ages) is 58.6 crores which constitute 48.5 % of the country's total population. Female population of the country rose marginally from 48.3% of the total population in 2001 to 48.5% of the total population in 2011, an increase of 90.7 million. Sex Ratio (number of females per 1000 males) is a great source to find the equality of males and females in a society at a given period of time. From 1901 to 1991,

⁴ Some of the important categories employed in the census are- males and females, workers and non workers, rural and urban, etc. These categorizations in census and consequently their counting are not gender neutral, but reflect and constitute the social process of gender construction.

the sex ratio has declined from 972 to 927. This is largely attributed to the son preference and discrimination against the girl child leading to lower female literacy, female foeticide, higher fertility and higher mortality levels for females (National Population Policy, 2000). According to Census of India 2001 and 2011, Indian sex ratio has shown some improvement in the last 20 years. It has gone up from 927 in 1991 census to 933 in 2001 and 940 in 2011 census of India. There has been some improvement in the Sex Ratio. A continuous decline in sex-ratio of India before 1991 has been causing tremendous concern amongst demographers, policy makers and planners.

A better measure of relative female well-being – or of relative female survival disadvantage – is the sex ratio in the age group of 0 to 6, known as the child sex ratio. The 2011 census figures for child sex ratio are disturbing. The child sex ratio in India has been falling rapidly for several decades now. It declined from 976 in 1961 to 927 by 2001. It has further fallen to 914 in 2011. This reveals a gender-unequal nature of the development processes in India. A ratio favorable to boys and adverse to girls coincides with the introduction of modern prenatal sex-determination methods⁵. A fast change can be observed in the composition of the women for age-group 0-14 during 2005-2008 where percentage of women declined from 33% in 2005 to 31.9 % in 2007 while percentage of men increased from 31.8 % in 2005 to 32.5% in 2007. Percentage of old aged women has always been higher up to year 2000 compared to men in the same age group. In year 2008, there were 7.2% women in age-group 60 and above and men were 6.9 % which again captures the population distribution pattern of year 2000 or before. Marital stock of women and men can highlight the prevailing gender norms in the society. Year 2007 has seen 43.9% women and 53.5 % male who are never married. Moreover, 8.2 % females in all ages were widowed, divorced or separated (Women and men in India 2010).

2.2 WOMEN'S WORK IN CENSUS AND NSSO

There are two major sources of data, such as economic tables of decennial Censuses and quinquennial rounds of the National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO), that provide estimates on women's

⁵ The best account of changing sex ratios in India is found in Bhat (2002)

workforce participation in India. Census provides a wider canvas to look into the process of gender construction that is socially and politico-economically constituted (Bhagat, 2005). The beginning of the information on economic activity was collected from the 1872 census and subsequently in the censuses of 1872 and 1881 only one question relating to 'occupation' was asked from the individuals and the persons were classified according to the various occupations. They determine who is counted as part of the labour force of the country. The concept of subsistence was introduced in 1891 and the information on principal and subsidiary occupation or means of subsistence of actual workers was recorded from 1901 to 1921 including rentiers and pensioners who were in receipt of income without doing work. The 1951 Census ascertained the two economic characteristics of every individual, economic status and his means of livelihood.

The concept of 'work' based on economic activity of population was introduced for the first time in 1961 census. In this classification, women were mostly categorized as dependents. Women are generally engaged in homemaking, bearing and rearing of children and also in the production of goods and services generally consumed at the household level as valuable work. Nevertheless, her economic status is that of non-earning dependents if she does not also secure an income' (Srivastava, 1972). In 1971 Census considerable departure was made in respect of the economic questions. The main activity of a person was ascertained according as he spent his time basically as a worker producing goods and services or as a non-worker. For regular work in Industry, Trade or Services the reference period was the week prior to the enumeration and for seasonal work such as agriculture for the last one year. This therefore excluded activities performed by women, for consumption within the family. Masculine and feminine work is clearly defined and it is very central to the process of gender construction in a society. The 1991 census defined work as participation in any economically productive activity. Such participation was physical or mental in nature.

The importance of definition of work in the gender construction is a debatable issue. As work involves not only actual work but also effective supervision and direction of work so it includes unpaid

domestic work. Women are generally engaged in homemaking, bearing, and rearing of children and also in the production of goods and services generally consumed at the household level (Bhagat, 2005). However, a census instruction says: 'A man or woman may be producing or making something only for the domestic consumption of the households and not for sale. Such person is not a worker even though from his or her point of view the activity is productive' (Census of India). Hence women's work at home is not recognized unless it produces something for sale. Even though it is applicable to both men and women, exclusion of women being the part of workforce is the reality in all aspects. Therefore the masculine bias in the categorization of work is very much clear in the census- by considering the unpaid domestic duties.

Both in Indian Census and National Sample Survey Organization the definition of urban area is taking into account three points⁶ of which a place could be declared urban if it satisfies that 75 per cent of its male workers engaged in non-agricultural sector. By doing so, the census turns out to be an important instrument of gender construction by exclusion of women workers from the rural-urban categorization makes the urban definition masculinised by not acknowledging the female contribution. In labour market, the separation of women's work and men's work are existing in many distinguishable respects. When labour statistics make this distinction visible the end users can understand the position of women in terms of men in all spheres of life. In the case of NSSO survey if a person is engaged in any economically active population he/she is considered as a worker. Hence NSSO statistics are able to capture worker in a much better way as it includes household women activities like live stock, fodder collection, food grain processing etc. This can be shown in the table below (Table 2.1) as NSSO offers relatively higher Female Work Participation Rates than does the Census. The higher Female Work Participation Rates of NSSO are in consonance with, and partly an outcome of, its broader definitions.

⁶ Three points are: 1). A minimum population of 5,000. 2). At least 75% of the male working population was non-agricultural 3. A density of population of at least 400 sq. Km. (i.e. 1000 per sq. Mile)

Table 2.1
Female Workforce Participation Rates in India, 1971-2005

Census		NSSO	
Year	%	Year	%
1971	13.9	1972-73	28.2
1981	19.8	1983	21.6
1991	22.3	1993-94	28.6
2001	25.7	2004-05	28.7

Source: Various Census & NSSO Reports

2.3 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WOMEN'S EDUCATION AND WORK FORCE PARTICIPATION

Education has played a major role in bringing about most of the changes in the status of women in India. Education continues to yield high returns to individual. The female literacy rate has increased tremendously over the last three decades. While in 1971 only 22 per cent of Indian women were literate, by 2011 the figure stood at 65 per cent. The growth rate for female literacy in the last decade has been 5% higher than the growth rate for male literacy resulting in a decline in the absolute numbers of illiterate women – from 268 million in 2001 to 252 million in 2011. Gender differentials in education, however, continue to be high at 16.68 per cent in the total population as shown in the table 2.2. Literacy rates for male and female shows increasing trends over the years from 1951 to 2011 along with it the gap between them were also simultaneously increasing till 1981 and since then it has started declining but the progress has not been as much as was expected.

Table 2.2
Gender Gap in literacy rate (1951 to 2001) (Figures in per cent)

Census Year	Persons	Males	Females	Gender gap in literacy rate
1951	18.33	27.16	8.86	18.30
1961	28.30	40.40	15.35	25.05
1971	34.45	45.96	21.97	23.99
1981	43.57	56.38	26.76	26.62
1991	52.21	64.13	39.29	24.84
2001	65.58	75.85	54.16	21.69
2011	74.05	82.14	65.46	16.68

Source: Census of India

In 1999, there was a network of more than 1.1 million educational institutions, from primary through pre university level, with more than 5.4 million teachers and a student enrollment of 186 million (Ministry of Human Resource Development, 2005). Still, the national literacy rate 2011 Census had reached only 74 percent – 82 percent for males and 65 percent for females – a gender gap of 16.68 percentage points. The number of girls per 100 boys enrolled in different levels of school education is on the rise over the years, but the gap still continues well over 10 percent in primary education, more than 20 percent at middle level and secondary classes. Even when the school enrolment reduces considerably from primary to secondary level and above, both for boys and girls, the reduction is more for girls. The difference in the male and female primary enrolment has reduced to a great extent (115% for males and 108% for female in 2006-07) over the years but still there is a huge gap in the male and female literacy levels (Women and men in India 2010). This can be attributed to a number of factors – lack of access to schools, lack of toilets and drinking water, parents feeling insecure about sending girl children to school, poor quality of education in government schools, and high fees charged by the private ones. Also with increasing feminization of agriculture, the pressure of looking after younger siblings, collecting cooking fuel, water and maintaining the household, all fall upon the girl child, putting a stop to her education and development (GOI, 2008).

On the contrary, today more and more women are enrolling for higher education even though the percentage for women in higher education to the total women population is very less, as per the Ministry of Human Resource Development, the enrolment figures in higher education are 4.6 million females compared to 7.1 million males. The relative enrolment of women in higher education has increased by 10 per cent between 1991 and 2001 as compared to a mere 2 per cent in the previous decade as shown in Table 2.3. This is reflective of the steep change in the educational level of the Indian women.

Table 2.3
Enrolment of Women in Higher Education

Year	1950-51	1960-61	1970-71	1980-81	1990-91	2000-01	2007-08
Absolute Women	43245	17007	42981	74866	143806	330938	4004625
% of Women in Total Enrolment	11%	16%	22%	27%	29%	39%	43%

Source: Selected Education Statistics 2007-08, Ministry of Human Resource and Development, 2008

As per Census 2001, the work participation rate for females is 25.7 % whereas that of males is 51.9 %. Even though there is huge gap between male and female it can be observed that the proportion of women in the workforce has been increasing very slowly for the past few decades. In 1981 work participation rate for women was 19.67 per cent which increased upto 22.3 per cent in 1991 and 26.68 per cent in 2001; however increase was distinct in the category of marginal workers. In the 15-59 age group 80.7 % male population was economically active against 40 % females during 2001 Census. Despite increasing trends, the gaps in female workers are noted in certain districts at the 2001 census. As many as 36 districts reported less than 10 % female work participation rate⁷.

In the context of Indian women it is difficult to apply the theoretical contexts like high human capital skill and educational attainment as the usual variables which contribute to more efficient labour market participation. Although the strength of the relationship between education and employment varies across countries, approaching insignificant in some cases (e.g. for Brazil see Lam and Dureya, 1999), Indian data shows a discouraging relationship between women's education and labour force participation. Unrecognized household work and low pay in recognized work coupled with social and structural constraints in the society result in a low female work participation rate. Female workforce participation rate in India was 28% (2004) as compared to other developing nations like Sri Lanka (30%), Bangladesh (37%), and South Africa (38%) (Gender Statistics, World Bank 2004). The NSSO employment data for 2009-10 (Table 2.4) shows a three percentage point decline in the total labour force participation rate and a six percentage point drop for women since 2004-05. This implies that fewer people, especially women, want to work, threatening to raise the dependency ratio, which undermines India's demographic advantage. Thus, as a whole, there is absolute reduction in the number of women workers in both rural and urban India by 21 million in total. Hence the increase in the enrollment of women in higher education and decline in the labour force participation of women is a paradox in the current scenario.

⁷ Census of India 2011, Gender Sensitization, Drop-in-Article on Census - No.3

Table 2.4:
Gender-wise Break-up of Labour Force and Work Force in million

Labour Force						
Year	Rural		Urban		Total	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1999-00	201.98	106.75	78.87	19.25	280.85	126.00
2004-05	222.91	126.49	94.24	26.50	317.15	152.99
2009-10	236.09	106.41	103.13	24.25	339.22	130.66
Work Force						
1999-00	198.61	105.69	75.38	18.20	273.99	123.89
2004-05	219.30	124.21	90.77	24.72	310.06	148.93
2009-10	232.27	104.80	100.17	22.92	332.44	127.72

Source: Rangarajan, Padma Iyer, Seema (2011)

From the table 2.5, it is clear that despite a slight increase in women employment till 2004-05, the average earning for rural women has declined between 1999-2000 and 2004-05. This decline is more pronounced among poorer women, that is, illiterate women and women who have dropped out of primary, secondary, or higher secondary. The average wage for men has, on the other hand, shown an increase across all categories, leading to a widening of the wage disparity ratio (ratio of female wage/male wage) from 0.89 in 1999-2000 to 0.59 in 2004-05 for rural and 0.83 in 1999-2000 and 0.75 in 2004-05 in urban areas, for all categories (11th Five year plan, 2007-12)

Table 2.5:
Average Wage / Salary Earnings (Rs. Per day) Received by Regular Wage /Salaried Employees of Age 15-59 years for different Educational Level

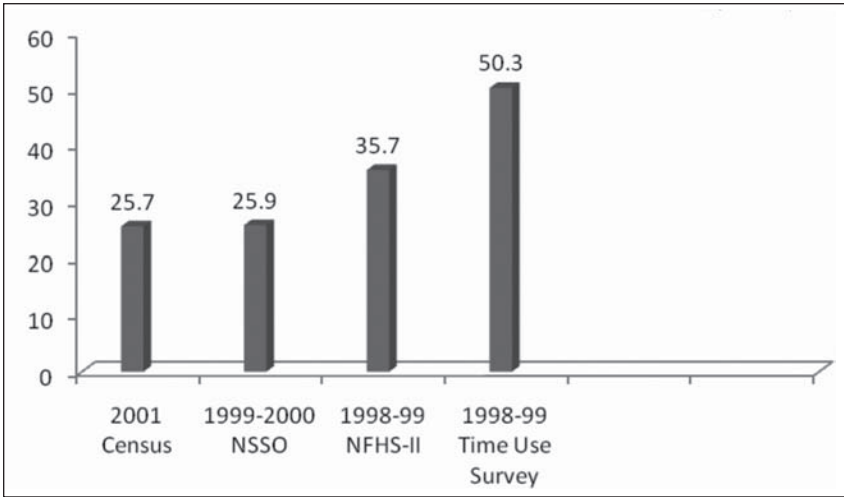
Category	Rural Males		Rural Females		Urban Males		Urban Females	
	1999-2000	2004-05	1999-2000	2004-05	1999-2000	2004-05	1999-2000	2004-05
No literate	71.2	72.5	40.3	35.7	87.6	98.8	51.8	48.7
Literate up to primary	91.6	98.6	161.5	97.8	105.1	111.4	64.4	64.8
Secondary/ Higher Secondary	148.2	158.0	126.1	100.2	168.2	182.6	145.7	150.4
Diploma/ Certificate	-	214.4	-	200.4	-	274.9	-	237.0
Graduation & Others	220.9	270.0	159.9	172.7	281.6	366.8	234.7	269.2
All	127.3	144.9	113.3	85.5	169.7	203.3	140.3	153.2

Source: NSSO 55th and 61st Round

2.4 INVISIBILITY OF WOMEN’S WORK

The relative invisibility of much of women’s work has been the focus of a substantial amount of discussion. This can be proved through the estimation of female work participation rate by various surveys conducted in India. The following figure (2.6) shows the under estimation of women’s work though various surveys conducted in India other than the Census and NSSO. The Time Use Survey conducted in six Indian states in 1998-99 depicts the Female Work Participation Rate as high as 50 percent, which is almost double the workforce participation rate of Census (2001) and NSSO (1999-2000). Similarly NFHS II statistics on Female Work Participation Rate is almost ten percentage points higher than the Census and NSSO figures of 26 percent.

Graph 2.1
Female Workforce Participation Rates in India: Varying Estimates



Source: Census 2001, NSSO, NFHS II, CSO

This makes the consideration of work participation by women a more complex matter than is often recognized. Moreover, it shows an evidence of female productive/ reproductive work which is not recognized and quantified by statistics. Besides the inadequate definition and inaccuracies of data collection also leads to underestimation. Hence there is need to solve the problems while differentiating the economic work of women from their domestic work by redefining the term ‘work’.

2.5 GENDER ISSUES IN MEASUREMENT METHODOLOGIES

Gender empowerment measurement and Gender Development Index are the measurement methodologies used for the calculations and measurements of gender related variables for examining the gender gaps. The Human Development Report (1995) states empowerment as one of the components of the Human Development paradigm and it introduces two new indices, the Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) and the Gender-related Development Index (GDI). The HDR states that while the GDI focuses on the expansion of capabilities, the GEM is concerned with the use of those capabilities to take advantage of the opportunities of life.

Gender Empowerment Measurement and Gender-related Development Index

This index, developed by the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) quantitatively measures the empowerment of women on a country-by-country basis. The Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) focuses on women's opportunities rather than their capabilities. The Human Development Report (1995) states empowerment as one of the four essential components of the human development paradigm, the others being productivity, equity, and sustainability. The GEM captures gender inequality in the following key areas:

- Political participation and decision-making power, as measured by women's and men's percentage share of parliamentary seats.
- Economic participation and decision-making power, as measured by two indicators-women's and men's percentage share of positions as legislators, senior officials and managers and women's and men's percentage share of professional and technical positions.
- Power over economic resources, as measured by women's and men's estimated earned income (PPP US\$).

The GEM is a composite indicator which looks at women's representation in parliaments, women's share of positions classified as managerial and professional, women's participation in the active labour force, and their share of national income. It aims to examine whether women and men are able to actively participate in economic and political life and take part in decision making. The greater the gender disparity, the lower the GEM.

The Gender-related Development Index (GDI) is an indication of the standard of living in a country, developed by the United Nations (UN).

It is one of the five indicators used by the United Nations Development Programme in its Annual Human Development Report. It aims to show the inequalities between men and women in the following areas: long and healthy life, knowledge, and a decent standard of living.

UNDP in its various Human Development Reports since 1990 have placed India at a very low level of development regarding the position of women in terms of various indicators such as adult literacy, gross enrolment, share of seats in parliament and the professional and technical positions held by them (as shown in Table 2.7). India has been placed in the 113th rank with a GDI value of 0.600 as against a rank of 89 with GDI value of 0.753 in case of a small neighbouring country like Sri Lanka (UNDP, 2007-08). The rank of India has also gone down from 99 in 1995 to 113 in 2007-08 and has been fluctuating from year to year.

Table 2.6
Gender related Development Index and Gender Empowerment Measure

Indicators	1990		1995		2000		2005		2007-08	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
Life Expectancy	NA	NA	60.4	60.3	63.3	62.5	65.0	61.8	65.3	62.3
Adult Literacy	29	57	35.2	63.7	43.5	67.1	47.8	73.4	47.8	73.4
Gross Enrolment	NA	NA	45.8	63.8	46.0	61.0	56.0	64.0	60.0	68.0
Seats Share in Parliament	NA	NA	7.3	92.7	8.9	91.1	9.3	90.7	9.8	90.2
Share of Professional & Technical Persons	NA	NA	20.5	79.5	20.5	79.5	NA	NA	NA	NA
Gender related Development Index	NA		0.401 (R-99)		0.545 (R-108)		0.586 (R-98)		0.600 (R-113)	
Gender Empowerment Measure	NA		0.226 (R-101)		NA		NA		NA	

Source: United Nations Development Programme, 2007-08

Concerns and Issues

Gender Empowerment Measure attempts to capture women's participation in higher political office (political empowerment), employment in high offices (economic empowerment), and macro-economic participation. It is a matter of great concern that both GDI and HDI indices have not been able to capture the relevant social and cultural factors which are instrumental in the assessment of gender empowerment among the women in India. In fact the UN is unable to compute the GEM for the all India level in many States due to want of appropriate data (HDR, 1995). Though data are not provided for GEM indicator after 1995,

GDI values reveals that women are consistently lagging behind. In India GEM methodology undertaken by the 'Ministry of Woman and Child Development', used the final list of indicators which was constrained by availability of data for India and for most States and Union Territories. Apart from GDI and GEM, HDI was also calculated for 1996 and 2006 based on the same dimensions and indicators identified for GDI. The Dimensions and Indicators identified for computing HDI, GDI and GEM are given below (Government of India, 2009).

Human Development Index and Gender Development Index

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

HDI and GDI Dimension 2: 'Knowledge'. Indicators Include: i) 7+ Literacy Rate and ii) Mean Years of Education for 15+ age group

HDI and GDI Dimension 3: 'A Decent Standard of Living'. Indicators Include: i) Female/Male Estimated Earned Income share per capita per annum.

Gender Empowerment Measure

GEM Dimension 1: 'Political Participation and Decision-making Power'

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

GEM Dimension 2: 'Economic Participation and Decision-making Power'

Indicators: i) % Share of officials in service in Indian Administrative Service, Indian Police Service and Indian Police Service and Indian Forest Service; and ii) % Share of enrolment in medical and engineering colleges

GEM Dimension 3: 'Power over Economic Resources'

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

Using goal posts and weights, the dimension indices are calculated. In case of GDI and GEM, while calculating dimension indices, the penalty for gender inequality, i.e., the value of epsilon is taken as 2, which is moderate penalty. The methodology of calculation adopted is the same as followed by UNDP.

In the critical lens, it can be seen that the above variable capture empowerment at the top level officials in a country apart from looking into the bottom up empowerment that really foster the overall empowerment of the large population. As a developing country like India the top national level officials among the women can be only a handful countable in single digits. Under such circumstances gender empowerment measurement underestimate the true level of empowerment at the state and district level. The adaptation and recasting of the India GEM methodology could not eliminate deficiencies in spite of efforts to rationalize the variables and data inputs in computation of GEM (GOI, 2009). There are many criticisms for the Gender Empowerment Measure and Gender Development Index. For example, Beteta (2006) argues that the UNDP concept does not account non-economic dimensions of decision-making and appear to measure empowerment only of the better-offs. Another critique argues that while normally the GDI & GEM are being used to highlight gender discrimination, but these measures do not reflect discrimination per se (Schuler, 2006), rather the GDI measures only the objective gender inequality when compared with the HDI.

2.6 GENDER BUDGETING

“Gender Budgeting” is now recognized as a tool for empowering women. The term Gender Budgeting has been defined as a dissection of the Government budget to establish its gender-differential impacts and to translate gender commitments into budgetary commitments (Gender budgeting, 2008). Thus Gender Budgeting looks at the Government budget from a gender perspective to assess how it addresses the needs of women in the areas like health, education, employment, etc. Gender Budgeting does not seek to create a separate budget but seeks affirmative action to address specific needs of women.

Gender Budgeting can be very effective in reducing gender discrimination and addressing socio –economic discrimination against women because (Gender budgeting, 2008):

- Many policy commitments can only be achieved if sufficient funds are allocated for their implementation
- Women's and men's needs, concerns and priorities differ due to their different roles in society
- The way a government raises and spends money can have a negative impact on women

Issues in Gender Budgeting

Gender analysis of public expenditure is difficult due to the non availability of gender disaggregated data at the state and district level. This is one of the major constraints faced before 1998 with regard to gender budgeting. As we mentioned earlier, The Department of Women and Child Development, Government of India in 1998 took the initiative of generating such data across the country and series of consultations was held with States to develop Gender Development Index and Gender Empowerment Index. Still, the concerns and issues explained in the above paragraph exist in the collection of data and the indices that is taken for the calculation. Hence, the gender disaggregated data at the bottom up level to capture the real situation both through quantitative and qualitative method for the data analysis can put forth in gender sensitivity. Accordingly, it would be easier to allocate budgetary plans in certain areas which really needs for further development in gender perspective.

Even though gender had been a prominent cross-cutting priority in recent Census, data related to female count, marital status, female headed households, female disability and female work-participation has continued to suffer from undercount or under-reporting. The 2001 census enumerated several villages/ districts that had reported very few women, very low female literacy and no female worker (The Hindu, 2011). Lack of reliable statistics on the size, distribution, and economic contribution of the informal sector has been a major constraint (NCEUS, 2008, p-64). Since major share of women are in the informal economy the importance of statistical base for assessing the problems and prospects of women workers is essential in providing a realistic understanding of the significance of Indian economy. Unequal access to resources and opportunities is the major obstacle to women's economic liberation and opportunity to break free from the poverty trap.

CHAPTER III

Identifying the Key Areas in Gender Statistics in Labour

The present chapter attempts to explore the status of gender differentials in different indicators and also attempts to identify key areas in labour in terms of employment, in formal and informal sector and their representation in statistics. The chapter also focuses on an important dimension of labour statistics i.e unpaid labour. It analyses the importance of unpaid work in labour statistics in providing a comprehensive picture about women's work in particular. The time use surveys conducted in some countries and its role in capturing effectively women's work are also highlighted in the chapter.

3.1 STATUS OF GENDER-DIFFERENTIALS IN DIFFERENT INDICATORS

In order to compare the gender gaps that exist in India it would be appropriate to look in to the different indicators of education, health and employment data over some years. For measuring health, education and employment, variables like literacy rate, life expectancy rate, workforce participation rate and labour force participation rate are used for the tabulation. An index of dissimilarity (Mukhopadhyay and Majumdar, 2007) is used to examine the male-female differentials over the years.

$$\text{Index of Dissimilarity} = \frac{1}{n} \sum |R_x - 1|$$

Where, R = Male / Female ratio (year wise)

n = total number of observation

The minimum value of the index of dissimilarity is assumed to be zero indicating no male female differences. The value above zero indicates the degree of male female differences either in favour of male or female as the case may be. The index of dissimilarity is important to highlight the existing gender gaps that prevail in India that would enable the end users to correlate it with other indicators in future research.

3.1.1 Literacy Rate

Literacy rate / education is an important indicator of development and status. It provides access to information necessary for decent living and it is an instrument by which the skills and productive capacities are developed and endowed. Gender differentials in literacy rate over the years are examined. The male female ratios of the literacy levels are decreasing over the years but still the gap is significantly much high. The index of dissimilarity is more prominent in figure (0.81). The gender gap in literacy highlights low status of women in Indian society and tradition.

Table 3.1
Literacy rate in India: 1961-2011

Year	Males	Female	Male female ratio
1961	40.4	15.35	2.63
1971	45.96	21.97	2.09
1981	56.38	29.76	1.89
1991	64.13	39.29	1.63
2001	75.26	53.67	1.40
2011	82.14	65.46	1.25
Index of Dissimilarity			0.81

Source: Census of India 1961-2011

Notes

1. Literacy rates for 1951, 1961 and 1971 Censuses relate to population aged five years and above. The rates for the 1981, 1991, 2001 and 2011 Census relate to the population aged seven years and above.
2. The 1981 Literacy rates exclude Assam where the 1981 Census could not be conducted. The 1991 Census Literacy rates exclude Jammu & Kashmir.

3.1.2 Life Expectancy at Birth

Life expectancy at birth is a measure of overall quality of life and also be thought of as indicating the potential return on investment in human capital. In recent years the expectation of life expectancy at birth is higher among females than males. It is not because women are healthier than men but perhaps due to greater restraint of women in daily lives at higher ages (Mukhopadhyay and Majumdar, 2007). The table below (3.2) shows that the index of dissimilarity is low (0.01) over the years.

Table 3.2
Life Expectancy at Birth in India

Year	Males	Female	Male female ratio
1976-1980	52.5	52.1	1.00
1981-1985	55.4	55.7	0.99
1987-1991	58.1	58.6	0.99
1994-1998	60.6	62.2	0.97
1998-2002	61.6	63.3	0.97
2002-2006	62.6	64.2	0.97
Index of Dissimilarity			0.01

Notes:

1. Based on SRS. Relates to the period 1991-95
2. SRS based Abridged Life Tables 1992 -96 to 1995-99

Source: SRS based Abridge Life Tables 1999-2003 & 1998-2002,2001-05 & 2002-06

3.1.3. Work Force Participation Rate

The number of persons employed per thousand persons is referred to as the workforce participation rate (WFPR). Even though the work force participation rate of women has increased slightly, the gender gap is much wider in urban areas in comparison with rural areas. Hence the index of dissimilarity is more in urban (0.72) as compared to rural area (0.44).

Table 3.3
Work Force Participation Rate by Sex

Year	Rural			Urban		
	Female	Male		Female	Male	
1993-94	32.8	55.3	0.59	15.5	52.1	0.29
1999-00	29.9	53.1	0.56	13.9	51.8	0.26
2004-05	32.7	54.6	0.59	16.6	54.9	0.30
2005-06	31.0	54.9	0.56	14.3	54.0	0.26
2007-08	28.9	54.8	0.52	13.8	55.4	0.24
2009-10	26.1	54.7	0.47	13.8	54.3	0.25
Index of dissimilarity			0.44	Index of dissimilarity		0.72

Source: National Sample survey Organisation various reports

3.1.4 Labour Force Participation Rate

Labour force refers to the population which supplies the labour and, therefore, includes both the employed and unemployed. The usual status (both principal and subsidiary status taken together) concept is considered

here for measuring the labour force participation. In case of dissimilarity index, it is also more in urban (0.72) as compared to rural (0.44) area.

Table 3.4
Labour Force Participation Rate by Sex

Year	Rural			Urban		
	Female	Male		Female	Male	
1993-94	33.1	56.1	0.59	16.5	54.3	0.30
1999-00	30.2	54.0	0.55	14.7	54.2	0.27
2004-05	33.3	55.3	0.60	17.8	57.0	0.31
2005-06	31.4	56.1	0.55	15.2	56.6	0.26
2007-08	29.2	55.9	0.52	14.6	57.6	0.25
2009-10	26.5	55.6	0.47	14.6	55.9	0.26
Index of dissimilarity			0.44	Index of dissimilarity		0.72

Source: NSSO various reports

Among these calculations it can be drawn that except in life expectancy at birth, in all the other variables the dissimilarity is more and also it favours to male as compared to female. Gender discrimination is strong in labour force and can be seen in many ways: many women with comparable skills and experience are confronted with a gender wage gap and lag behind men in income and career mobility in the formal sector. Equal pay for women and men for equal work or work of equal value, has not yet been fully realized. Gender discrimination in hiring and promotion and related to pregnancy, including through pregnancy testing, and sexual harassment in the workplace persist. (United Nations, 2000b). Hence dissimilarity index clearly demonstrates the differentials across gender in terms of various indicators. It is also important to know that this index would serve the purpose of highlighting the relevant statistics that needs to be generated in order to explain such variations, for example, the work force participation rate is lower as there is not enough statistics on extended SNA (System of National Accounts) and also it leads to the relevance of time use survey to capture women work force participation.

3.2 ECONOMIC PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN

Economic participation of women in terms of size and structure of labour force and informal and formal employment is important not only for analyzing the present status of women but also an important step towards finding out existing gender gaps.

Interchangeably using three terms of women's participation in economic activities, namely female participation in labour market, labour force and workforce, are indeed related but denotes different dimensions. While labour force includes all types of employment status, labour market participation excludes unpaid family workers who do not enter the market (Elson 1999, p. 614). Similarly, labour force consists of both employed and unemployed, whereas workforce captures only those who are employed. Gender inequality in labour markets is significant in terms of the sex distribution between formal and informal employment and also within the informal economy. With respect to equal pay, moreover, on average women are paid less than men for the same work or for work of equal value. The broader characteristic of informal sector in India consisting of units engaged in the production of goods and services with the primary objectives of generating employment to the persons concerned. Labour relations are based mostly on casual employment and household members. In India, official statistics or the National Account Statistics used the terms 'organized' and 'unorganized' instead of formal and informal sector. The organised sector comprises of enterprises for which the statistics are available regularly from the budget documents or reports, annual reports in the case of Public Sector and through Annual Survey of Industries in case of registered manufacturing. The unorganised sector refers to those enterprises whose activities or collection of data is not regulated under any legal provision and / or which do not maintain any regular accounts (Indian Informal sector surveys). Non-availability of regular information has been the main criteria for treating the sector as unorganized (Sharma and Chitkara, 2006).

The National Commission for Enterprises in the Unorganized Sector (NCEUS) is of the view that the absence of reliable and timely statistical data on informal economy of the country has been a major constraint on the formulation of various development strategies in general and particularly those relating to employment generation and ensuring minimum quality of employment. The Commission also points out that definitional differences in the term 'informal sector' and 'informal employment' is varying in different surveys depending on the specific requirements of each organisation. The National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO) has been classifying

all the manufacturing units not covered under the Annual Survey of Industries as unorganised sector for the purpose of various surveys. In the case of services, the enterprises neither run by the Government nor included in the public sector are considered as unorganised. In the compilation of National Accounts, the term unorganised sector is used differently and consisted of residual enterprises which are not included in the organised sector. The organised sector in specific segments of the economy is, however, defined differently on the basis of availability of production statistics on a regular basis. The Directorate General of Employment and Training (DGET) has been classifying all the establishments employing ten workers and above into 'organised sector' though the provisions of the Employment Exchanges (Compulsory Notification of Vacancies) Act, 1959 are applicable only to establishments employing 25 or more persons in the private sector (NCEUS,2008). Hence, the definition of unorganized/informal sector taken into account definition of informal employment and estimated its size and distribution in the Indian economy. The Commission, therefore, proposes the following definition for the informal sector in India:

“The informal sector consists of all unincorporated private enterprises owned by individuals or households engaged in the sale and production of goods and services operated on a proprietary or partnership basis and with less than ten total workers”(NCEUS,2008)

Data on informal workers is available from two NSSO rounds: 1999–2000 and 2004–05. The term 'informal sector' was used for the first time in the 55th round (1999–2000). The latest data available are from the 61st round 2004–05 of the National Sample Survey. These indicate that the number of informal workers was more than 422 million in 2004–05, up from 361.7 million 1999–2000, or an increase of 61 million in five years. Thus it has been widely recognized that informal employment is a sizeable and growing feature of the Indian economy. The table 3.6 regarding the percentage distribution of workers by area and sex explains in the case of informal sector 78 percent workers were in rural areas as against 55 percent in urban formal sector workers.

Table 3.5
Percentage Distribution of Workers by Area and Sex, 2004-05 (Percent)

Sector	Sex	Informal Sector	Formal Sector	Total
Rural	Male	50.11	33.83	47.88
	Female	29.68	10.90	27.11
	Persons	79.79	44.74	74.99
Urban	Male	15.69	45.48	19.76
	Female	4.53	9.78	5.25
	Persons	20.21	55.26	25.01
Total	Male	65.79	79.32	67.64
	Female	34.21	20.68	32.36
	Persons	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source: NSSO, 61st round 2004-05

As per NSSO 61 Round Survey on Employment-Unemployment, considering the informal sector workers by age, 51 per cent of the informal sector workers were in the prime age group of 20 to 39 and among these 65.5 per cent were males and the remaining 34.5 per cent were females. The gender disparity in this context is a most crucial point yet to discuss, since youth population is bulging in the near future. Overall, the above table shows that there are more informal workers in rural areas than in urban areas. In addition to that it can be pointed out that among the rural informal workers women are more than men, a fact that has been noted by analysts explaining the greater vulnerability of women in the workforce.

In recent surveys 2004-05 and 2009-10 gender-wise analysis reveals that the number of females in the self-employed category declined by about 23 million of which only 2 million picked up jobs in the other two categories – 1.7 million in casual labour and 0.2 million in regular wage and salaried (Rangarajan et al, 2011). The withdrawals were largely by the rural women (21 million) and the reason of these withdrawals presupposes either to study or devote themselves to domestic duties. This is one of the main limitations of our data sources that the withdrawals details were not collected through the survey. There has to be a provision to analyse the reason as it is very important information when we look at a growth process which is fair and equitable. Along with it, according to the census projections by 2015, almost half the percentage of the population will be in youth category and this demographic change potentially have important implications on the labour market opportunities as large exclusion of women workers from the employment may face one of the biggest challenge in the near future. Tapping the potential of young people and increasing

the working class population is not an easy affair to be directed towards this end. Hence, there is need to modify the data collection questionnaires which is used for the major surveys and also consider those indicators on which data presently do not exist.

3.3 UNPAID WORK: AN INTRODUCTION

The concept of unpaid work has attracted the attention of many feminist scholars in the past and even in the contemporary period there is growing recognition to unmask the statistical invisibility of unpaid work. Feminists in Europe and North America were concerned with the payment of housework under capitalism which challenged both liberal and Marxist economics. In fact, with the growth of feminist movement, new manifestations of patriarchal structures and ideologies were discovered. It was the analysis of the role of housework that provided the first theoretical understanding of political economy of capitalist patriarchy. This movement started around 1980. It became clear that women's unpaid caring and nurturing work in the household was subsidizing not only the male wage gap but also capital accumulation. (Mies, 1998)

In the past many decades, research findings pointed out that ameliorating gender disparities in paid and unpaid work, a goal in its own right, is a contributing factor to promoting gender equality and also pro-poor growth, social cohesion, and improvements in overall human development. However, there is no denying the fact that women are still overrepresented among the underpaid and unprotected workers around the world. The recognition of unpaid work can be considered an important initiative towards rising female labour force participation. It can be argued that people allocate their time to activities like no work, paid work and unpaid work. Leaving aside sleep time, the concept of 'no work' is commonly understood as consisting of free time spent on personal care and leisure activities. No work is important because (i) rest and leisure are necessary for physical and mental health of human beings; and (2) a part of it (namely, reading, studying, skill training, self-development activities and so on) contributes to improving human capabilities. Paid work on the other hand refers to time contracted out that receives remuneration. Work arrangements and the extent to which paid work is performed under decent conditions show extreme variations, with notable adverse effects on workers that have received considerable attention by academic researchers, government and non government organizations and trade

unions. On the contrary, unpaid work has received less attention. It includes all non remunerated work activities.

Unpaid work is interlinked with the location individuals occupy in paid work through many channels: it (a) shapes the ability, duration, and types of paid work that can be undertaken and therefore limits access to existing and potential collective action processes and social security; (b) does not offer monetary remuneration, which reduces the exercise of "voice" over decision making and ability to accumulate savings and assets; (c) as in many societies, it is regarded a woman's "natural" work, performed in the "private" sphere of the family and therefore it essentializes this work and strips it of its socio-economic dimensions and contributions; and (d) assigns paid social reproduction (care) workers to jobs that are presumed to be unskilled, with low pay, slender options for promotion, and scant social protection. (Antonopoulos, 2009)

There is no denying the fact that unpaid work has received less attention among academic researchers and scholars, government people and trade unions. Generally, unpaid work includes all non remunerated work activities. The allocation of unpaid work depends upon many factors; these include age, social class, presence of children and type of household structure, to name a few. Accordingly, the amount of time devoted to unpaid tasks is overall smaller for the very young, those that can purchase substitutes in the market, those with few or no children and non-single heads of households. (Antonopoulos and Hiraway, 2010)

However, the real economy fluctuates between production economy and the economy associated with care, reproduction and human welfare. The development of an economy not only affects the people who are contributing to the tasks and the amount of time spent by them, but also allocation of time among different types of unpaid activities. To quote Diane Elson 'we have two economies: the economy in which people earn wages in order to produce things to be sold on the market or financed through taxation. This is the economy based on goods, which everyone considers "the economy". On the other hand, we have the hidden economy, the invisible one, the one devoted to care' (1995).

Unpaid work has not been sufficiently accounted primarily because of absence of time-use data, lack of standard concepts and methods for the collection of time-use data, reluctance to use existing data, non-recognition of the integration of the paid and unpaid work. Nevertheless, the trends

of developing countries show that there is a tendency among people to spend more time on unpaid subsistence work. For example work for self-consumption, care work, household work, which largely remains unpaid.

3.3.1 Conceptual Overview of Unpaid Work

Unpaid labour is usually considered as non-productive work and also at times it is considered as performing production work not destined for the market. Such an aspect leads to serious conceptual problems which needs clarification. There has been invisibility non-accountability and non-remuneration of household work. Invisibility relates to patriarchal ideology having managed to include and legitimize under female roles everything connected with the care of family and its social reproduction. Non-accountability refers to the assumption that whatever does not directly produce wealth cannot be recorded as an economic progress. Thus accountancy system are geared towards traditional economic units, their purpose being to record the production of goods and services tradable on national and international markets. And finally non-remuneration refers to the abundance of manual labour available to perform domestic work for free and its almost infinite elasticity to adjust to the changes taking place in the macro-economic environment. (Campillo, 2003)

At this juncture a question arises whether unpaid work is economic or non-economic work. Mostly, labour statistics capture only one part of work life of women and men. A large part of non-remunerated productive activities in the household or in the community is included as productive in the General Production Boundary of the System of National Accounts but is not included in the SNA production boundary due to measurement as well as conceptual limitations.

However such work has great relevance for both household and communities and overall production of the economy and is collectively referred to as *unpaid work*. The United Nations System of National Accounts of 1993 (UN, SNA), provides the conceptual framework that sets the international statistical standard for the measurement and classification of economic activities.

The production boundary of System of National Accounts (SNA) defines the range of activities to be recorded in the production accounts. For the households, SNA defines the types of production, whether intended for own final consumption or not, for inclusion in the production boundary.

SNA 1993 excludes production of all personal and domestic services from own final consumption within households except for paid domestic services and owner occupied housing on the ground that production of such services is a self-contained activity with limited repercussion on the rest of the economy. SNA 1993 convention indicates that the former (unpaid economic work) activities be measured and included in annual estimates of Gross Domestic Product (GDP). These pertain to: (a) production of fixed assets for household use, such as building a house; (b) subsistence production work, such as crop cultivation, animal husbandry, forestry, and fishery for own use; (c) collection of basic necessities, like water and fuel wood from common or private lands; (d) collection of raw materials for income generating activities like crafts and other manufacturing; and (e) activities such as unpaid family work for crop production that *reaches the market*, as well as animal grazing, agro-processing, and food processing for sale. Accordingly, unpaid economic work consists of activities in procuring inputs and producing for own use, as well as for the market. In practice, data collection gaps make measurement and inclusion of many of the above mentioned activities in National Income and Product Accounts very difficult (Antonopoulos, 2009). However, in case of India very little data is available on these aspects and it is necessitated that such data can be best collected through Time-Use Survey.

3.3.2 Analysis of Unpaid Work: Time Use Survey

The best tool for collecting information on unpaid work is Time Use Survey. Historically, time use statistics was first produced in the early years of the twentieth century in social surveys reporting on the living conditions of working class families. Later on in 1920s, Time Use Surveys were carried out in some centrally planned economies, as well as in some industrialized countries (the United kingdom and the United States). The first comprehensive multinational comparative time use research project occurred in 1960s. It consists of data collected in twelve European countries, with the main objective being to understand the use of free time by people on hobbies, recreation, mass media and child care (Antonopoulos and Hiraway 2010).

However, the issue of unpaid domestic work gained prominence in 1970s as an outcome of feminist interventions to measure the 'invisible' unpaid care work of women to estimate women's contribution to human welfare. TUS is often used as a tool to reflect the discrepancies between

Gujarat	SNA	14.23	26.68	20.68	4.18	24.89	15.15	10.48	25.97	18.60
	Extended SNA	22.35	1.93	11.74	24.74	1.84	12.61	23.26	1.90	12.07
	Non-SNA	63.40	71.39	67.55	71.11	73.27	72.61	66.29	72.10	69.31
	Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Tamil Nadu	SNA	11.33	23.54	17.42	4.98	25.11	15.75	10.16	23.88	17.08
	Extended SNA	21.00	2.58	11.80	22.39	2.98	12.01	21.25	2.66	11.85
	Non-SNA	67.66	73.87	70.79	72.65	71.91	72.27	68.57	73.48	71.05
	Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Orissa	SNA	13.96	25.01	19.51	6.56	25.76	16.13	11.29	25.32	18.26
	Extended SNA	17.57	2.09	9.84	19.10	1.61	10.38	18.13	1.90	10.04
	Non-SNA	68.45	72.88	70.66	74.34	72.58	73.49	70.60	72.78	71.70
	Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Meghalaya	SNA	17.33	28.74	22.89	8.58	21.08	14.42	15.68	27.35	21.36
	Extended SNA	20.57	4.18	12.58	20.47	4.74	13.09	20.55	4.26	12.67
	Non-SNA	62.09	67.08	64.51	70.98	74.17	72.48	63.78	68.32	65.98
	Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Combined states	SNA	13.41	25.18	19.48	5.45	24.44	15.34	11.14	24.98	18.30
	Extended SNA	20.21	2.23	10.95	21.69	2.05	11.46	20.61	2.17	11.13
	Non-SNA	66.37	72.61	69.58	72.88	73.49	73.23	68.20	72.87	70.61
	Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source: Report of the Time Use Survey, conducted by the Central Statistical Organisation during 1998-99, in the six selected states of

Haryana, Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Tamil Nadu and Meghalaya

Note: Total may not tally due to rounding.

1. Figure is for undivided state

a. Figures give weekly average time spent by an average individual, taking into consideration all the persons and not just those who have participated in that activity

Note: Table from CSO, men & women, table

Time Use Statistics (1998-99)

Classification of Activities

The activities are classified in the following way:

System of National Accounts Activities (SNA)

I Primary Production Activities

- 11 Crop arming, kitchen gardening, etc.
- 12 Animal husbandry
- 13 Fishing, Forestry, Horticulture, Gardening
- 14 Collection of fruit, water, plants etc., storing and hunting.
- 15 Processing & Storage
- 16 Mining, quarrying, digging, cutting, etc.

II. Secondary Activities

- 21 Construction Activities
- 22 Manufacturing Activities

III Trade, Business and Services

- 31 Trade and Business
- 32 Services

Extended SNA Activities

- IV Household Maintenance, Management and Shopping for Own Household
- V Care for children, the sick, elderly and disabled for own household
- VI Community Services and Help to other Households

Non-SNA Activities

- VII Learning
- VIII Social and Cultural Activities, Mass Media, etc.
- IX. Personal Care and Self-Maintenance

The above table clearly shows that the times spent by males in SNA activities are quite high as compared to females in both rural and urban areas. The difference is more glaring in urban areas. With respect to Extended SNA activities the trend reverses. The amount of time spent by females in Extended SNA activities are more than eight times as compared to males in both rural and urban areas. If the Extended SNA activities (presently not included in the computation of the National Income) are taken into account the women contribution will go up substantially. Data indicates gender discrimination in leisure and personal care activity (such activities are categorized as Non-SNA). Average time spent on Non-SNA activity by females are about seven hours less in rural areas than that of males. No difference in urban areas between males and females. The present Indian experience is required to be reinforced and established by conducting such surveys in various countries

for identifying the exhaustive list of activities and recording of time spent on such activities for estimation of their contribution for national accounts.

There is no denying the fact that the entire employment scenario of Indian women is based on gender based inequalities. Women, more than men are concentrated in informal work, in agriculture and in casual manual work. Self employment is on the rise and accounted for 61 percent of female employment in 2004-2005 (largely consisting of unpaid family labour) (Patriwala and Neetha, 2010). Moreover time use surveys are not conducted frequently or once in four years so as to capture the activities of women accurately. In fact, countries like India have not been completely successful in recording unpaid work through labour force surveys or household surveys. This is due to the fact that there is difficulty in making a distinction between household work and informal work. Moreover, the socio-cultural structure of India and the patriarchal set up have institutionalized certain activities as part of culture and tradition and therefore women fail to report such activities in the category of work. Time use surveys which collect comprehensive data on how people spend their total time on different activities are likely to help in overcoming these problems if the surveys are designed well and the data are analyzed systematically using a good classification of activities (Hiraway and Charmes, 2006)

Table 3.7
Additional Activities Undertaken by Women (Age 15 - 59 years) usually engaged in Domestic Duties, Principal St.at.us (Percentage) 2004-05

Additional Activities	Rural	Urban	Total (SC and ST)
Per cent Engaged In Domestic Duties	53.3	65.0	56.8(49.1)
Kitchen Garden, Orchards, etc	16.1	3.3	12.1(14.0)
Household Poultry, Dairy, etc	34.0	4.1	24.8(28.2)
Cow Dung Preparation for Household Fuel	47.4	5.9	34.6(42.7)
Tutoring for Free	7.5	13.8	9.5(6.1)
Bring Water from Outside Household Premises	45.4	20.5	37.7(53.4)
<i>For Household Use/ Consumption</i>			
Free Collection of Fish, Fruit, Veg, etc	16.4	1.2	11.7(20.8)
Free Collection of Firewood, etc	40.4	6.0	29.7(47.2)
Sewing, etc	30.2	27.3	29.3(28.2)
Husking Paddy	14.6	3.2	11.1(14.0)
Grinding Food Grains	15.5	7.5	13.0(15.1)
Preparation of Gur	3.9	1.7	3.2(3.5)
Preservation of Meat, Fish	5.3	3.0	4.6(5.4)
Making Baskets, Mats	7.0	2.6	5.7(6.5)

Note: figures in brackets correspond to share of SC/ST women

Source: NSS 61st Round 2004-2005, Employment-Unemployment Survey NCEUS, 2007

The above table clearly shows that women from the lower social strata were more likely to engage in economic activities and in addition in free collection of goods perhaps due to lower economic status of their households. However, one should also note that inclusion of these extended SNA per se is not going to give a higher income to the women. What it means is the absence of recognition of the kind of work, which although not in the realm of monetization, is important to the sustenance of the family as well as the economy. Recognition of the women's contribution to extended SNA could, and should, lead to greater appreciation of public policies for the welfare of women. (NCEUS, 2007)

The above table from NCEUS 2007 is on additional activities undertaken by women in the age group 15-59 years usually engaged in domestic responsibilities. However though considerable efforts are undertaken by NSSO in conducting such a survey on household responsibilities yet a lot more needs to be done. For example The NSSO 61st round data do not allow us to distinguish home workers from the self-employed, hence for major part of the analysis they are clubbed with the self-employed workers. (Table 3.9 below) The time use survey also does not provide a comprehensive picture of the country as a whole since it is based on a survey only in four states in India. Some other problems which arise in data collection are with regard to definitional problems like defining the concept of 'work'. Sometimes the respondents are biased in providing information due to certain cultural stereotypes associated with the notion of work. Certain kinds of work like cleaning, washing, tidying, pet-care, cooking etc are not reported by the survey respondents specifically comprising of women. Sometimes the socio-cultural background of the surveyors prohibits them to report certain activities as work. Such problems arise in the field when the interviewer ignores many important questions related to women's work considering it as not relevant for reporting. Therefore, time use surveys are considered an effective mechanism to capture the work life of women since it is based on the time spent on various activities. Time use surveys are particularly essential in a flexible labour market scenario of many industrialized nations. This is because labour markets under increasing flexibilization have a variety of production organizations with a wide range of work-time arrangements that cannot be captured through conventional surveys. Since women predominate as flexible labour (namely as part-time, home based, casual and temporary workers), time use surveys are extremely relevant to understand gender differences in the labour market status of workers. (Antonopoulos and Hiraway, 2010)

Table: 3.8
Number and Percentage of Unorganised Non-agricultural Female Workers 1999-00 and 2004-05

Category of Employment	Number (Million)			Percentage		
	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
1999 - 2000						
Wage Employment	2.6	4.0	6.6	21.7	37.3	29.1
Self-employment: Independent	6.3	4.9	11.2	52.9	45.9	49.6
Home Workers	3.0	1.8	4.8	25.4	16.8	21.3
Total	11.9	10.6	22.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
2004 - 2005						
Wage Employment	3.7	5.2	8.9	23.5	38.0	30.2
Self-employment	12.1	8.5	20.6	76.5	62.0	69.8
Total	15.8	13.7	29.5	100.0	100.0	100.0

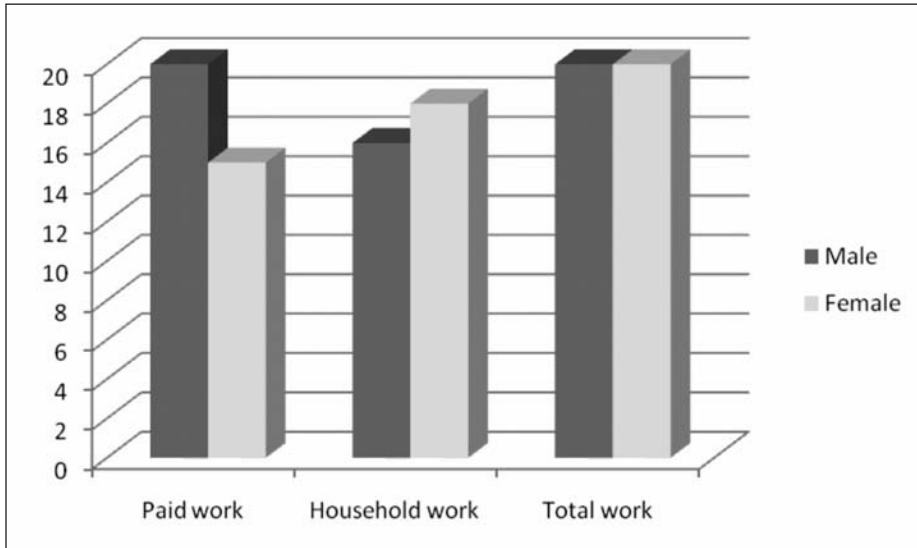
Source: NSS 61st Round and 55th Round 2004 - 2005 and 1999-2000, Employment-Unemployment Survey.

Note - In 2004-05 the 61st Round data do not allow us to distinguish home workers from the self-employed, hence for major part of the analysis they are clubbed with the self-employed workers.

Therefore, time use surveys are a tool which can provide comprehensive information about human activities and human life in general. All activities including SNA, Non SNA and extended SNA contribute to the well being of all human beings and national policies have an impact on all categories of activities. But a partial approach is always followed in collecting data only on marketized and fully reported activities. Such policies can only provide a partial picture of the economy and society and undermine the interests of women who are predominantly engaged in unpaid activities.

However, in this context it becomes important to have a demarcation between paid work and housework (care). But in India much has not been done with regard to differentiating between these two kinds of work. Though time use surveys are the best means to arrive at any kind of difference, but they have not been conducted effectively throughout India. Apart from this, the existing cultural stereotyping of women's work has played a significant role in the invisibility of many aspects of women's work from labour statistics.

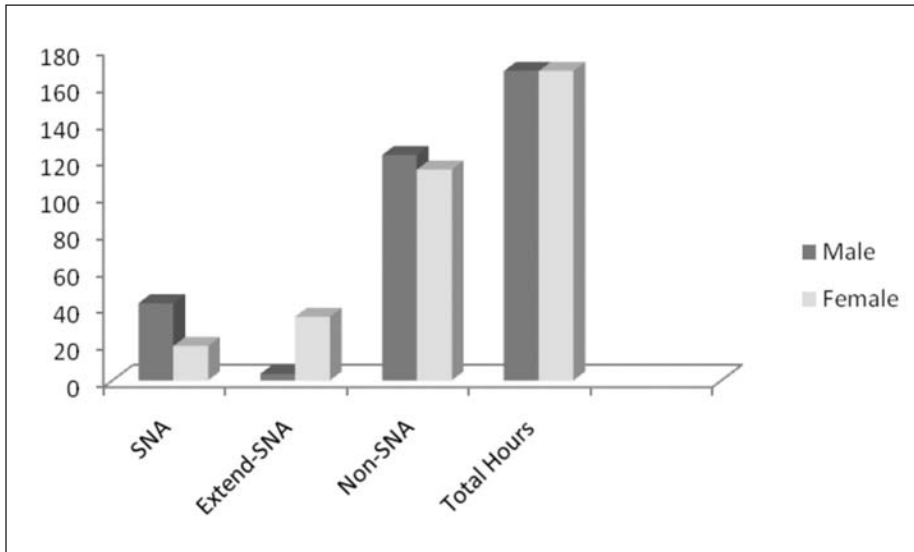
Figure 3.1 Paid work vs Household work, 2006



Source: The 3rd OECD World Forum on “Statistics, Knowledge and Policy” Busan, Korea – 27–30 October 2009 ABS

The above diagram is an example from Australia’s time use survey showing a clear cut demarcation between paid work and unpaid work. Such surveys were conducted in the year 1992, 1997 and 2006 and the next is supposed to be conducted in 2013. The diagram clearly shows that by calculating paid and unpaid work through time use the total work between males and females is same. However, in India such a survey has not been conducted so far. The surveys conducted by NSSO, CSO etc have always shown a discrepancy between unpaid and paid work of both men and women. The diagram below shows time spent on household work by sex and age.

Figure 3.2 Weekly Average Time (hours) Spent on SNA, Extended SNA and Non SNA Activities by Gender (Combined for Six States) in India



Above graph (3.11) shows that in 168 hours in a week male spend 42 hours on SNA activities, 3.6 hours on Extend-SNA and 122.4 hours in Non SNA activities in contrast female spend only 18.7 hours on SNA, 34.6 hours on Extend-SNA and 11.4 hours on Non SNA activities. This table also presents wide gap in Extend-SNA and SNA activities between male and female in India.

3.4 RECONCILIATION OF WORK AND FAMILY LIFE

The reconciliation of work and family life is an important aspect of employment policies which have an important role in capturing women's roles effectively. In fact, work life balance policies normally focus on the need to reconcile the demands of paid employment with family and life, particularly childcare. Work life balance is often visualized as women's issue which can be resolved by providing women with flexible hours of work. Indeed, it has been suggested that there is a gendering of work-life balance such that for men, it involves being able to fulfill their provider responsibilities through engaging in paid work while for women, it involves facilitating the reconciliation of paid work with domestic and caring commitments (Drew and Emerek, 1998:94). This gendering is reflected in

the predominance of women in 'atypical, flexible or non-standard forms of employment, such as part-time working, and men's predominance in full-time, standard forms (Dex and McCulloch,1995).

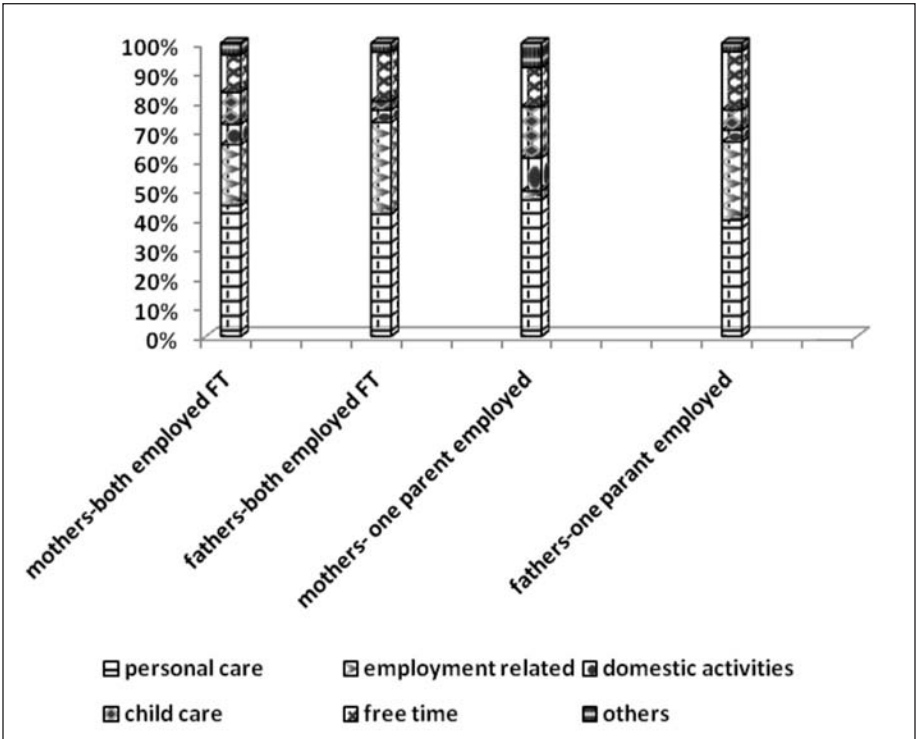
However, the reconciling work and family life would mean adopting family-friendly policies including care services increase the availability of care services for children and facilitate the return of women and men to the paid work force and enhance labour market participation. It may also refer to the relationship between different activities and the time devoted to them, relating not only to work and family but including social life, personal development and civic participation or activities which may fulfill the need to relax or exercise (European Foundation for the improvement of Living and Working Conditions, 2006)

In this context, it becomes imperative to emphasize on work and family life balance since it would help in overcoming all forms of discrimination and promoting sustainable growth. Such an aspect is important to foster human development and decent work which are crucial to reducing poverty, improving women's autonomy, strengthening democracy and achieving Millennium Development Goals. In the past, productive and reproductive work was organized according to rigid gender roles that have become inappropriate in today's world. As a result, the interplay between work and family - both central to people's lives - has also changed, radically. This has raised an important question of how work is organized today.

Changes in the organisation of labour and production have increased the tension between work and family life. Demographic changes like population changes have also contributed to the agonies of women in terms of population ages and new demands on care. The growing integration of global markets in trade, rise of information society, opening up of new opportunities have led to increased competition. Hours of work have also changed. The routine organization of the working day, with its predictable start and finish times, has given way to new kinds of shifts, split shifts, flexi-time and new ways of organizing days off (Diaz,2004).Such changes make the workers tired leaving them with less hours of rest. It also leaves them with fewer hours for their family, social and personal life which in turn increases the tensions between paid work and family responsibilities. Some interesting examples can be cited from Australian Time Use surveys which have analysed the financial consequences of sole motherhood. The Australian experience shows that the time sole mothers spend with their

children differs in either quality or quantity from that of mothers, and/or fathers, in couple families. The related issue of whether sole mothers suffer more time pressure or time constraint than partnered mothers can also be addressed through such surveys.

Figure 3.3 Couple Families



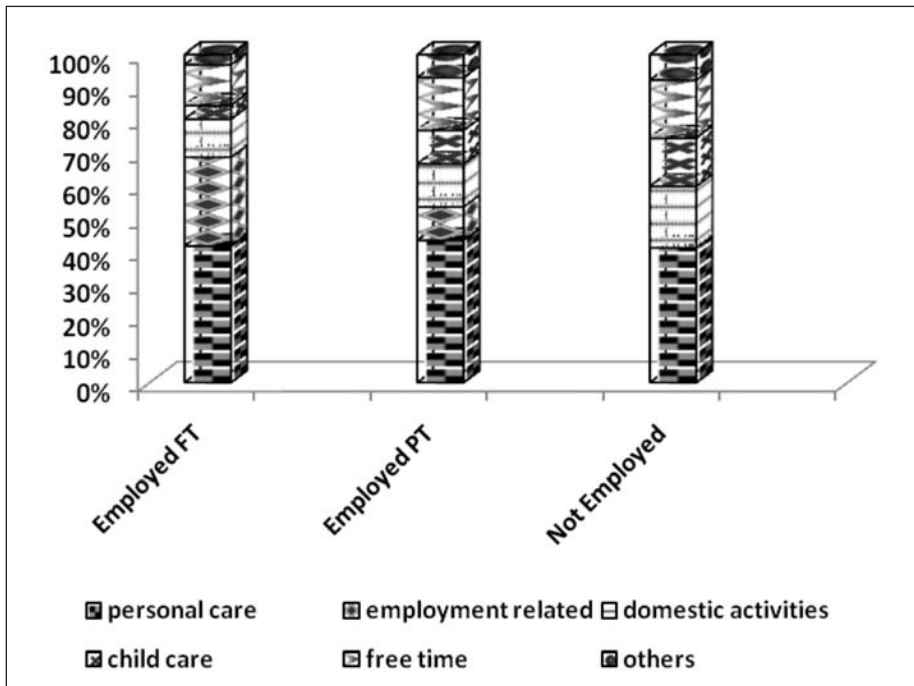
Source: The 3rd OECD World Forum on “Statistics, Knowledge and Policy” Busan, Korea – 27–30 October 2009

The above figure 3.12 is a reflection of Australian Time use survey presented in the 3rd OECD World Forum on Statistics, Knowledge and Policy. The figure clearly shows that couple parents employed full time (Mothers both employed full time) have less time for child care in comparison to mothers who are not employed (Fathers-one parent employed). Even in case of women who are employed, domestic activities are more in comparison to males. The above figure shows that domestic activities and child care have always been greater in case of women than men. Therefore women are more engaged in unpaid activities. So the

Australian Time Use has quite effectively captured the gender dimensions in women’s work.

In India, the labour force surveys are confined to provide data on economic status, employment characteristics including part time work together with demographic characteristics and household composition. Such aspects actually reflect on one of the components of the balance between work and family life which alone is insufficient. Therefore, time use surveys are a major source of data to uncover women and men’s actual participation in the labour force.

Figure 3.4 Lone Parents



Source: The 3rd OECD World Forum on “Statistics, Knowledge and Policy“ Busan, Korea – 27–30 October 2009

Time use investigation offers a way of researching this important but obscured aspect of the lives of sole mothers and their children. At issue are questions as to the amount and nature of parental attention the children of single mothers receive, and how burdened single mothers are by time pressure and time commitment to work and to children. Sole mothers do no more unpaid work net of childcare than partnered mothers. Sole mothers are faced, even more acutely than are mothers in couple headed

families, with the competing demands of market and home production. The difficulty of meeting both these important aspects of parental responsibility is reflected in the Australian policy approach to sole mothers, which shows some ambivalence as to whether to prioritize maternal care or financial independence (Gray et al. 2002; McHugh and Millar 1997)

3.5 VALUE ADDED OF STATISTICS: INDIAN CONTEXT

There is no denying the fact that a woman engages in multiple livelihood activities to fulfill her productive and reproductive role yet the reproductive role of women is less visible and less recognized by society. This double burden of work was first reflected in time use statistics of Central Statistical Organisation of Government of India which was conducted through a pilot study in six States of India in 1998. The following table (Table 3.14)

Table 3.9
State wise weekly average time spent (in hours) on some household activities

Activities	Haryana		Madhya Pradesh		Gujarat		Orissa		Tamil Nadu		Meghalaya		Combined states	
	female	male	female	male	female	male	female	male	female	male	female	male	female	male
Cooking	11.37	0.36	14.24	0.62	13.85	0.38	19.28	0.86	14.74	0.38	13.74	1.26	14.93	0.52
Cleaning household	4.37	0.12	4.44	0.28	5.06	0.16	3.72	0.15	4.80	0.26	3.26	0.35	4.55	0.21
Cleaning utensils	4.68	0.10	3.71	0.13	4.28	0.10	2.45	0.10	2.62	0.06	3.90	0.32	3.39	0.10
Washing and mending clothes	4.02	0.09	2.12	0.28	4.03	0.11	1.05	0.13	2.81	0.21	3.10	0.37	2.71	0.18
Shopping	0.34	0.39	0.31	0.64	1.56	0.45	0.23	1.03	0.50	0.48	0.44	0.40	0.64	0.59
Pet care	0.02	0.01	0.10	0.08	0.02	-	0.04	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.05	0.02	0.04	0.03
Care of children	3.91	0.18	3.23	0.26	3.25	0.33	3.92	0.53	2.36	0.29	4.44	0.47	3.16	0.32
Teaching own children	0.18	0.08	0.10	0.14	0.33	0.17	0.18	0.27	0.18	0.11	0.29	0.35	0.19	0.16
Accompanying children to places	0.06	0.03	0.21	0.23	0.04	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.09	0.05	0.23	0.05	0.09	0.08
Care of sick and elderly	0.11	0.06	0.12	0.02	0.16	0.04	0.54	0.10	0.08	0.01	0.19	0.03	0.19	0.04
Supervising children	0.89	0.12	0.96	0.25	1.13	0.51	0.54	0.24	0.45	0.16	1.79	0.98	0.78	0.28
Care of guests	0.04	0.04	0.01	0.01	0.11	0.04		0.04	0.02	0.02	0.24	0.15	0.04	0.03
Community Work	-	-	-	-	0.01	-	-	0.01	0.01	-	-	-	-	-

Source: Report of the Time Use Survey, conducted by the Central Statistical Organization during 1998-99, in the six selected states of Haryana, Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Tamil Nadu and Meghalaya
 Note : The entry - in a cell indicates that no corresponding observation was found in the sample
 a. Figures give weekly average time spent by an average individual, taking into consideration all the persons and not just those who have participated in that activity.

Table: 3.10 Percentage of Women (Age 15 - 59 years) in Domestic Duties Willing to Accept Work at Home by Sector 2004 - 2005

Nature of Work	Rural	Urban	Total
Per cent Engaged In Domestic Duties	53.3	65.0	56.8
Willing to Accept Work At Home	35.7	29.4	33.7
Animal Husbandry	44.6	11.8	35.8
Food Processing	3.0	7.5	4.2
Spinning, Weaving, Tailoring	34.6	50.3	38.8
Manufacture. of Wood, Leather	1.8	1.7	1.7
Others	16.0	28.7	19.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Per cent Having Skill/ Experience for above Work	56.1	58.0	56.6

Source: NSS 61st Round 2004-2005, Employment-Unemployment Survey

Among women in the prime age group, 15- 59 years, 53 per cent in rural and 65 per cent in urban areas, were engaged in domestic duties by principal status in 2004-05 (Table 3.10). In contrast, only 0.4 per cent of the men were primarily engaged in domestic work. These women undertook a number of activities that helped their household to save incomes, if not to directly earn it. Fetching water and free collection of firewood, including preparation of cow-dung cakes, were the predominant activities in rural areas. In urban areas, these were fetching water, sewing and tailoring and tutoring children free of cost. Many of these activities are included in the count of extended SNA activities as discussed above. If all these were to be included as economic activities the participation rates of women would be considerably higher than what has been currently estimated (NCEUS, 2007).

In spite of the stress from the double burden of work, the economic condition forces many women to be available for additional work. More than one third of these women engaged in domestic duties for the major part of the year by principal status reported that they would engage in productive activities if such work was available within the confines of their homes. It is significant to note that a quarter of those willing to work at home were also willing to work full-time. This is a clear indication that the two dimensions of women’s work participation, highlighted earlier, viz. social norms and the exigencies arising out of the double burden of work, restrict her mobility and hence the choice of the place of work. (NCEUS,2007)

The onset of liberalization, marketization and the rise of network society has led to more participation of women in the labour market. In this context, it becomes imperative to redesign and reformulate the policies which aim at reconciliation of work and family life. For such an endeavour detailed statistics are needed on participation in and characteristics of employment and unpaid care work and the time devoted to these and other activities. It is also important to find out the willingness of women to participate in labour force and if they are unable to do so then what may be the reasons? For example, sufficient child care services for children and other dependents may be instrumental in promoting reconciliation. Furthermore, information on different strategies used to balance work, family life, free time and personal satisfaction or perceived quality of life connected to these may provide a more complete and multi-faceted picture of the issue. (UNECE, 2010)

Many countries have been successful in projecting data on the basis of time use surveys. For example Italy, Canada, Australia, European Commission are among some countries who have prepared ad-hoc modules on reconciliation of work and family life in the individual questionnaire. Time that is connected with work, such as time spent on commuting between work and home when no productive activity for the job is performed, which is excluded from estimates of working time, is more accurately represented through the diaries used in Time Use Surveys rather through Labour Force Survey Questionnaires. This can and should be taken into account from the perspective of a balanced life.⁸ However, the complete picture on work and family life is still lacking in most of the countries due to various reasons like the differential political economy of countries and different methodologies followed to conduct time use surveys.

However, in India since most of the population is engaged in informal sector it becomes imperative to redesign time use surveys to capture effectively the working lives of women. Moreover, the surveys should be formulated in such a manner that it takes into account the cultural impediments across regions which institutionalize the invisibility of women's work.

⁸ M.C.Romano, reconciliation of Work and Family: the additional value of Time use data.

CHAPTER IV

Gender Issues in Statistics: A Cross Country Comparison

Gender statistics are different across countries depending upon the social and domestic lives of men and women. If in developed countries major concerns relate to issues such as reconciliation of work and family responsibilities and balanced representation of women and men in powerful positions, in developing countries issues are more related to basic social services, work participation, and stereotyped roles that women are expected to fulfill. To understand changes in women's employment patterns country specific institutional structures and changes therein are likely to be crucial as institutional structures may encourage or discourage labour force participation and specific patterns of employment. In this context, the present chapter explores gender issues in statistics from a cross country perspective. Few selected countries namely Sweden and Bangladesh are taken for comparison with India. Since Sweden has been a country with effective gender statistics and better work and family policies for gender mainstreaming, it has a relatively better position in the gender gap scenario. On the other hand, Bangladesh, as South Asian counterpart has made subsequent progress in exploring gender differentiated statistics. Therefore, these two countries have been undertaken in this study to provide a comparative picture of gender issues in statistics.

4.1 GENDER STATISTICS: INTERNATIONAL CONTEXT

The origin of gender statistics dates back to the First World Conference on Women in Mexico in 1975 which recognized the importance of producing statistics on women. The Conference was an important breakthrough to uncover the various data gaps and discrepancies in data collection method related to women's work. Followed by two other UN Conferences on women were held: Copenhagen (1980) and Nairobi (1985). In fact after the Third Conference held at Nairobi lot of initiatives were taken such as conducting training programmes in order to strengthen the co-operation between policy makers and data producers. Later on the attention shifted from 'women in development' to 'gender and development'. Subsequently, in statistics the attention shifted from 'statistics on women' to "*statistics on women and men*" and to the *mainstreaming of gender issues* into the overall statistical system.

Statistics Sweden was one of the first statistical offices in the world to designate specific staff to work on gender statistics, starting in 1983. In the international context, various efforts were undertaken by relevant agencies to develop guidelines and recommendations for the production of statistics with special reference to women and men's differential roles in society. The Fourth World Conference in Beijing was held in 1995. By this time many national statistical offices and international agencies had prepared user-friendly publications on statistics on women and men that were using the new approach of "gender statistics". In fact, they had also shown considerable efforts to improve data collection and adapt their concepts, definitions, and methods to international standards. In response to the Beijing Platform of Action many international agencies like the United Nation Statistics Division drafted an International Classification of Activities for Time-Use, Eurostat developed an activity classification to measure paid and unpaid work and some countries adopted their own national classification. Subsequently various countries implemented an increasing number of time-use surveys.

International and National Work on gender statistics gained momentum with Beijing Conference, and over the last few years, many countries' statistical offices have created gender statistics units and developed specific programmes for the mainstreaming of gender issues into the overall production of official data. Examples of work done in countries show that national statisticians have developed a good understanding of those gender issues that need to be addressed and have begun to produce adequate statistical outputs. The increased availability and dissemination of statistical output has in turn generated more demand by users for data and for more refined statistics and indicators to inform and monitor gender-related policies (UNECE 2012).

4.2 THE SCOPE OF COUNTRY COMPARISON

Country comparison becomes essential in order to understand the international scenario of labour statistics on women. Such a comparison would enhance the understanding about various data gaps existing in different countries and the role of gender statistics in exploring those data gaps. Some countries like Sweden have made remarkable progress in improving their statistical system by providing gender-sensitive data. In fact, cross country understanding would not only explore the data gaps but would help in understanding a particular country's regional

situation in an effective manner. It would also help in locating the regional imbalances due to various socio-economic and cultural constraints and thereby developing effective measures and policies to improve one's own regional situation.

4.3 A CROSS-COUNTRY PERSPECTIVE

In the present chapter few selected countries like Sweden and Bangladesh were taken to make a cross-country comparison. Since Sweden is considered as a model country, a lot of references have been taken from Sweden. It is indeed a fact that, each country differs geographically, socially and culturally from other countries. Moreover, the political economy and socio-cultural context of every country is different. But Sweden is one of the countries which have made remarkable progress in capturing effectively the labour statistics on women. Sweden is an interesting and much-studied country because of its position at the forefront of changing social policy and the corresponding radical change in its socio-economic variables over a short period of time (Jacobsen, 1994). In order to draw a South Asian comparison, Bangladesh was selected for its considerable progress in the field of gender statistics.

Table 4.1 The Global Gender Gap index ranking comparison 2006-2010

Country	2010 rank	2009rank	2008 rank	2007 rank	2006rank
Iceland	1	1	4	4	4
Norway	2	3	1	2	2
Finland	3	2	2	3	3
Sweden	4	4	3	1	1
New Zealand	5	5	5	5	7
Switzerland	10	13	14	40	26
United king- dom	15	15	13	11	9
Sri Lanka	16	16	12	15	13
United States	19	31	27	31	23
Australia	23	20	21	17	15
Italy	74	72	67	84	77
Bangladesh	82	93	90	100	91
India	112	114	113	114	98
Nepal	115	110	120	125	111
Pakistan	132	132	127	126	112

Source: Global Gender Gap Report 2010

The above table (table 4.1) shows the Global Gender Gap ranking of various countries. It clearly reflects that Sweden is also among the high ranking (rank 4) countries in gender gap in 2010. All other developed countries had a comparatively better position than the South Asian countries. Though the South Asian countries like Nepal, Pakistan etc had a lower position in terms of gender gap index; Bangladesh had a relatively better position (82) than India and other South Asian countries.

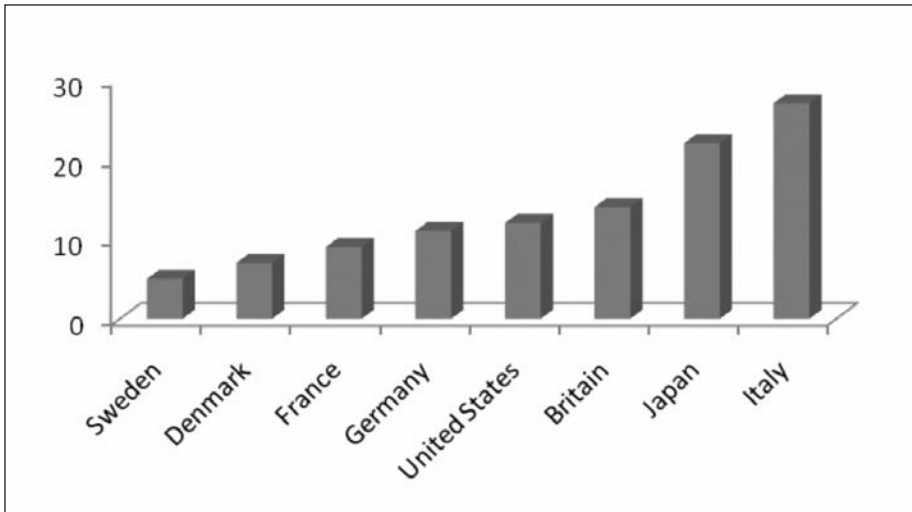
4.3.1 Sweden

Gender equality within development co-operation is a part of Sweden's Policy for Global Development. In fact, gender equality is one of Swedish's governments three thematic priorities; democracy and human rights, climate and the environment and gender equality. By the end of the 1960s, the economy was still expanding, and the great need for labour was predicted to continue. It was argued that the best ways to supply labour was to make it easier for women to be gainfully employed and those equal opportunities between men and women was to be accomplished. Several social reforms were introduced in the 1970s. The breakthrough of the two-earner system in Sweden was supported by a number of social reforms with direct influence on individuals' choices concerning employment and household labour (Björnberg, 2002).

However, the model of full employment in Sweden has differed from other nations since the 1970s in that full employment applies to both women and men, as women's labour force participation is just as important and just as needed in the Swedish system. By the early-1990s, women constituted 48 per cent of the Swedish labour force (Olsen, 2002), the highest percentage anywhere in the world. In 1994 Gender Statistics was made a part of Sweden's official statistics. In July 2008 women's labour force participation rate was 81.3 per cent, and women's unemployment rate was 5.6 per cent (Statistics Sweden, 2008). The increase in women's labour force participation in Sweden is a clear indication of the role of gender statistics in disseminating gender sensitive data on women's work.

In the present work, two important statistical sources regarding Sweden were referred to namely; Eurostat (European Commission) and Statistics Sweden (Official Statistics of Sweden). The following figure (Figure 4.2) from Eurostat shows the difference between male and female employment rates in most of the developed countries of the world in 2008. The figure clearly reveals that Sweden is the country reflecting the minimum gender gap in male and female employment rates.

Figure 4.1
Difference between Male & Female Employment rates, 2008 (in Percentage)



Source: Eurostat 2008

The Swedish welfare state began developing policies that encouraged women to balance both family and paid employment. Policies such as childcare and parental leave have meant that the majority of Swedish women are employed in the labour market and remain there throughout their lives, with only minor interruptions after the birth of a child. The majority of women not in the labour force are pursuing educational studies, are on long term sickness benefits, live abroad, or are completing military service; only 2 per cent of women not in the labour force count housework as their main activity (Statistics Sweden, 2004). This is one of the reason for minimum gap in male and female employment rates as compared to other countries.

Moreover, women are concentrated in - with jobs in education, health care and social work employing 50 per cent of women, and only 14 per cent of men (Statistics Sweden, 2004). This has meant that more women began participating in the paid labour force in Sweden than in any other nations (Sundström & Stafford, 1992). So far as Sweden is concerned, the level of education is considered an important factor in determining whether mothers work full-time or part-time. The higher the education level, the more likely it is that the mother works full-time. On the contrary, the Indian context provides a completely different picture with regard

to education level and participation of women in the paid workforce. As already mentioned in the previous chapter (chapter II), there is a discouraging relationship between women's education and labour force participation in India.

In contemporary Sweden, the activity rate of women does not differ much from that of men. A significant pattern of female employment in Sweden has been part-time employment. In statistics, part-time employment is divided into short and long part-time, where short is defined as being 1-19 hours a week and long is defined as being 20-34 hours a week (Statistics Sweden 2004). The time use surveys conducted in Sweden have effectively captured the kind of work done by men and women and the time they have allotted to particular kinds of work. Parents most commonly work full-time, that is, more than 35 hours a week. Very few work short part-time. Part-time work is more common among mothers than among fathers, especially mothers in nuclear families. Fathers tend to work the same amount of hours regardless of their children's ages, while mothers tend to work less hours when the children are under the age of seven (Björnberg and Dahlgren 2003). The number of mothers working full-time has increased over the years. Such a trend reflected in the labour statistics of Sweden provides enough evidence of their effective reconciliation of work and family life due to gender sensitive welfare policies for family. The use of more and more gender statistics or gender sensitive data on women has immensely contributed in devising gender sensitive family policies for the people of Sweden. On the contrary, in the Indian context the relevance of part-time work is invisible due to dearth of time use surveys at regular intervals. Therefore, the collection of time use data would be a useful tool for collection of statistics on labour. Such an effort would not only enhance the understanding of data but would also help in formulation of effective work and family policies.

4.3.2 Bangladesh

There is no denying the fact that Women's employment in South Asian countries is comparatively lower in comparison to any other part of the world. Among the South Asian countries Bangladesh has shown considerable progress in terms of female employment, particularly secondary school education and fertility rates have shown an impressive performance. Unlike other parts of South Asia urban-rural differences in employment rates in Bangladesh are very small and also unlike other countries, urban women tend to be employed more than their rural

counterparts. Female labour force almost doubled in size between 1996-2003 to 10 million, while male labour force grew just by 17 percent. Female labour force grew at an astounding rate of 14 percent over 1996-2000, which then slowed down a bit but then still remained high at 7 percent during the 2000-2003 period. The LFPR (labour force participation) increased sharply for females in urban and rural areas, and in both the areas the increase was more pronounced in the 1996-2000 period than the 2000-2003 period. Almost four million female workers entered the labour force during 1996-2002 due to the increase in female LFPR alone. In the meanwhile the male LFPR remained virtually unchanged over 1996-2003. The gender gaps in labour force participation, education and earnings have been noticeably reduced in Bangladesh in recent decades. (Mohammad A. Hossain, Clement A. Tisdell (2005)

Sectoral Composition of Employment by Gender

The defining feature of employment in Bangladesh has been low participation of women in agriculture in comparison to other South Asian counterparts. The table below (4.3) provides a clear picture of the sectoral composition of women in various sectors in terms of employment. It also provides a comparative picture of other South Asian countries like India, Nepal and Pakistan.

Table 4.2
Sectoral Composition of Employment by Gender (2003)

Sector	Bangladesh		India		Nepal		Pakistan	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Agriculture/Fisheries	49.8	58.7	53.1	74.8	67.1	85.2	36.0	64.2
Mining	0.2	0.0	0.7	0.3	0.1	0.0	0.01	0.01
Manufacturing	7.6	17.3	11.5	10.1	7.7	3.9	14.0	14.6
Utility	0.3	0.1	0.4	0.0	0.5	0.0	1.0	<0.01
Construction	4.2	1.0	5.7	1.7	6.2	1.1	7.5	0.3
Trade, Hotel, & Restaurant	18.6	2.5	13.1	4.3	7.3	3.7	17.3	1.9
Transport, Storage, & Communications	8.7	0.3	5.2	0.4	2.7	0.1	7.3	0.4
Finance & Business	0.6	0.2	1.6	0.5	0.9	0.2	1.1	<0.01
Community, Social, & Personal Services (a)	9.9	20.1	8.7	7.9	7.5	5.6	15.7	18.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Note: (a) Includes domestic occupations such as domestic household work, etc.

Source: BBS (LFS) for Bangladesh. For other countries World Bank, 2004

The above table (4.2) shows that 58.7 percent of females are engaged in agriculture in Bangladesh, while 74.8 percent females are engaged in agriculture in India. Since land-holding size and agricultural productivity in Bangladesh have been historically low, thus leading to low demand for labour in agriculture (except work on own farms). Bangladesh has a higher proportion of workers in the manufacturing sector; it mainly has a thriving community and social services sector that employs almost one-fifth of women workers. As far as community social and personal services (domestic occupations such as domestic household work etc) are concerned Bangladesh captured 20.1 percentage female participation as against 7.9 percentage in India. This shows that the statistics reflected in India is not inclusive enough to report women's community welfare and social services. This under reporting and invisibility of women's work has been a perennial feature of the labour force surveys in India which has been discussed in the previous chapters. The increase in women's workforce participation rate in Bangladesh in comparison to other South Asian countries perhaps may be due to the result of better reporting by women who are probed by better trained field investigators.

With regard to education, like Sweden, Bangladesh has also witnessed a positive relationship between labour force participation and education. On the contrary, India has shown a discouraging relationship between labour force participation and education. This fact was reiterated again and again in the previous sections (chapter II).

4.4 LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION: A COMPARISON

Labour force participation in various countries in the following table (4.3) shows that there is an insignificant gap between males and females in different countries. Sweden is one of the countries which show 69 percent of males and 61 percent of females in labour force. It is apparent that the male-female gap is comparatively lower in comparison to other countries. In fact, the introduction of gender statistics into the official statistical system of Sweden has improved the production of labour statistics thereby capturing more gender sensitive data on labour.

Table 4.3
Labour participation rate, female and male (% of population ages 15+)

Country	2006		2007		2008		2009	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Bangladesh	84	58	83	58	83	58	83	59
Pakistan	85	21	84	21	84	21	85	22
Sri Lanka	76	37	76	35	75	35	75	34
India	82	33	81	33	81	33	81	33
Nepal	81	62	80	63	80	63	80	63
Sweden	69	60	69	61	70	61	69	61
Singapore	77	54	77	53	76	54	76	54
United Kingdom	70	55	70	55	70	55	70	55
United States	73	59	73	59	72	59	72	58
Japan	73	48	73	49	73	49	72	48
China	80	68	80	68	80	68	80	67

Source: World Bank official website (<http://data.worldbank.org>)

With regard to Bangladesh, the labour force participation rate shows 83 percent males and 59 percent females engaged in labour force. While India showed a huge male female gap (81 percent males and 33 percent females) in terms of labour force participation. It can be argued that gender differentials are quite prominent in the statistical system of India leading to massive under reporting of gender sensitive data.

4.5 GENDER DIFFERENTIALS: SOME STATISTICAL ASPECTS

Rahman (2005) notes that in South Asian countries, a large proportion of both women and men workers are in informal employment. Women are particularly likely to be found in subsistence or marginal agriculture, which is sometimes excluded from measurements of the informal sector. Where they are engaged in non-agricultural activities, they are more often than men considered to be contributing family workers, if they are considered as 'working' at all. Many countries do not cover rural areas or agriculture in their statistics on the informal sector. Many do not include paid domestic workers employed by households. Both of these exclusions result in an undercount of women, because women predominate in both these areas. The undercount of women results, in turn, in an under-estimate of the scope of the informal sector.

In the Indian context, that around 92 percent of the population is in the informal sector comprising of 34.5 per cent females and 65.79

percent males (NSSO, 2004-05). Moreover, the NSSO has also revealed that more women are engaged in informal sector than men in rural areas in comparison to urban areas. This clearly reveals widespread gender diversity in the informal sector which needs serious attention since the informal sector has been considerably ignored in statistical surveys in India. Though the NSSO has recently tried to capture data on the informal sector a lot more needs to be done.⁹ The informal sector in India is often defined on the basis of enterprise. But many women workers today, in India, work in formal sector enterprises but have informal conditions of work. For example, the workers may not be subject to labour laws and taxation, social protection and employment benefits. Casual workers, in particular, are employed on an informal basis whether they work for formal or informal enterprises. These women are subjected to deplorable conditions of work and even the statistical systems have not been successful in capturing their working lives.

In this context, it becomes imperative to have an overview of the informal sector in India and incorporate data on this sector through effective use of gender statistics. The conceptualization of informal economy by scholars and policy makers has been a debatable issue which needs serious attention particularly in case of India. For example, as already discussed earlier, the informal sector definition in India is enterprise based which has many limitations. In fact, the invisibility of a job based approach with importance to individual jobs has led to a partial understanding of the informal sector. However, it should be noted that informal employment is much larger in scope as it can include both formal and informal sector workers as well as paid domestic and own account workers in households.

Women have always been an invisible workforce in the informal economy of India. The informal sector paradigm at this stage, however, failed to take note of the number of women in this sector, concentrated in home based, piece rate work and petty trading, and the significance of their work in economic survival (Kalpagam 1986). There has been an increasing trend towards informalisation of women's labour. As Unni & Rani (1999) remarked 'informalisation of the labour force takes place broadly in two ways, which cover both informal and formal settings: 1) There is an increasing trend towards subcontracting of work whereby

⁹ For details see NSSO 62 nd Round June 2005-July 2006.

work is pushed out of the factories and formal work establishments into small workshops (sweatshops), the homes and informal situations. This has resulted in an increase in informal work, often in home working. 2) The workers, who remain in the factories or in formal work situations, are governed by looser contracts and obtain fewer social security benefits'. In spite of this the statistical sources in India have not been able to capture informality fully leading to massive under reporting of women's work.

4.6 GENDER STATISTICS IN SURVEYS: A COMPARISON

Gender mainstreaming in the surveys is an important challenge before the statisticians in order to provide a comprehensive questionnaire with gender-sensitive data. In this chapter, cross country perspectives have helped in analyzing various gender dimensions in statistical procedures of respective countries. In this regard, Sweden has made remarkable progress in incorporating gender dimensions in their statistical surveys which has resulted in reducing the gender gaps in labour statistics. An equality unit within Statistics Sweden screens the surveys for their gender sensitivity. This procedure is due to the influence of the Official Statistics Ordinance where there is a paragraph in the section 'availability': Article 14. 'Official Statistics related to individuals should be disaggregated by sex, unless there are special reasons for not doing so'. Moreover, a publication called 'Women and Men' in Sweden which was produced in 1984 and Sweden was the first country to publish such a compact and easily accessible booklet.

On the other hand, the production of gender disaggregated data has been a concern for statisticians and policy makers in Bangladesh. The National Statistical Organisation of Bangladesh i.e the Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics has been conducting national censuses and periodic surveys to generate data to meeting the need of development planning and policy making. Gender disaggregated data are available in the report of these censuses and surveys. But these data are difficult to use by the users of gender statistics as historical trends of data and data of different dimensions are not available in a single volume. Therefore, to meet the users demand for gender statistics the Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics has prepared the Gender Statistics Report in 1999, 2000 and 2008 by accumulating data from different censuses and surveys and administrative reports. The report covers all the aspects of gender statistics which include household population, fertility, morbidity, income-expenditure, poverty, labour force,

migration, disability, population participation etc. Bangladesh has also tried to follow the framework mentioned by the United Nations Statistics Division to compile gender statistics.

After the International Women's Year in 1975, gender statistics has been an important area that have received attention of the planners, policy makers and other professionals in India. The need for reliable statistical information on gender issues, which are required for understanding the role of women in the society, has been felt with increasing urgency. For some areas of interest, like population, mortality, literacy and workforce, gender specific statistics have been in the public domain for quite some time. With the objective of sensitizing the policy makers to gender issues, the Central Statistical Organisation (CSO) took steps to implement an ESCAP(United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and Pacific) project on improvement of Statistics on gender issues during 1994 to 1996. To fulfill this aim two national workshops were organized during 1994-1995. The outcome of these efforts was a publication entitled "Women and Men in India", brought out for the first time by the CSO in 1995. Besides, a National Plan of Action (NPA) was prepared to bridge the identified data gaps relating to gender issues. The CSO undertook the work relating to review of implementation of the NPA for Improvement of Gender Statistics. The social statistics pertaining to gender issues that are included in the publication "Women and Men in India" are health, education, participation of women in economic activity and participation of women in decision making.

4.7 COVERAGE OF SURVEYS: SOME EXAMPLES

The coverage of questions in the surveys is an important indicator for establishment of effective gender statistics. As already discussed earlier, the necessity of time use surveys on a regular basis would enhance the gender sensitivity in data collection. In this regard, the relevance of time use survey has been recognized by Sweden as an important policy endeavour to capture data effectively on women and work. But India has conducted only a single time use survey in 1998-1999 covering only six states. Systematic representation of gender differentials in women's work over various time periods have not been properly addressed due to limited coverage and lack of regularity in conducting the time use surveys. Moreover, for proper gender mainstreaming of the surveys it is important to identify the relevant questions to be added in the questionnaire in

order to make it more gender sensitive. For example in the recent surveys conducted by NSSO and Census, the reasons of the female's withdrawal from the workforce are not evident due to paucity of relevant questions asked in the questionnaires. The following questions have generally asked in some of the surveys:

➤ **Census of India, 2001 & National Sample survey Organization (NSSO):**

While analyzing the survey questions in census of India and NSSO regarding characteristics of workers and non workers the following questions were explored.

Question 16: Did the person work anytime last year? (Includes even part time help or unpaid work on farm, family enterprise or in any other economic activity)(Census 2001)

Question 17: Category of Economic activity of the main or marginal worker (it includes occupation of the person, nature of industry, trade or service, class of worker). (Census 2001)

Questions on usual principal activity particulars of household members include nature of employment, work activity status, reasons for last change etc were asked in NSSO 66th Round 2009-10. As far as Census is concerned there is no question on reason for last change from the job. But NSSO includes some questions on reasons for last change and has given the options like loss of earlier job due to: *retrenchment/lay-off -1, closure of unit -2; for better income/remuneration -3, no job satisfaction -4, lack of work in the enterprise (for self-employed) -5, lack of job security -6, work place too far -7, promotion/ transfer -8, others -9* (NSSO, 66th round 2009-10). Though the above questions are quite comprehensive in analyzing the reasons for non participation in work but a lot more questions could have been incorporated in order to have an understanding of working lives of women. Since, these questions have not been able to capture enough data on women's overall economic participation and their withdrawal from the work force, there is a necessity for reformulation of the questionnaire. In fact, apart from the economic participation of women, the socio-cultural obstacles which are detrimental for women's participation in the labour force is an urgent necessity to address the entire issue on women's effective work participation.

On the contrary, Sweden has captured some questions which would answer the reason for the withdrawal from the work force participation which has led to proper mainstreaming of gender in their surveys. For example the following questions have addressed gender issues effectively in Sweden.

1. What year did you quit your latest job/ that job
2. What was the main reason that you stopped working at your last job/that job?
 - a. *Closure of company*, b. *work was temporary (including seasonal work)*, c. *looking for children or incapacitated adults*, d. *other personal or family reasons*. e. *health reasons*. f. *studies*. g. *dissatisfaction with working conditions*, h. *long distances/bad transport facilities*, i. *wanted to quit*, j. *others*.¹⁰

While comparing the above survey questions of India and Sweden it becomes evident that the Swedish labour force survey has certain questions like questions on caring functions of men and women (*looking for children or incapacitated adults*, d. *other personal or family reasons etc*) and also questions on health issues (*e. health reasons*) which have the potential of capturing the social and cultural lives of women in a particular social context. In this context, Adriana Mata Greenwood has aptly pointed out that the variables like the household activities including children needing care or other adults requiring assistance constrain the time and energy which women and men can devote to their economic work (2002).

Keeping in view the social structure and the patriarchal set up in India, it becomes imperative to unmask the gruesome structures prevalent in patriarchy which act as barriers in women's participation in labour force and undermines their potential. These structural and cultural practices become routinized and institutionalized through everyday activities and remain unquestioned. Women not only become silent victims to these practices but are themselves ignorant about the detrimental effects of such practices on their lives. Such invisibility is reflected in the surveys conducted by Statistical organizations in India. For example, some questions on cultural constraints, institutional barriers, family practices, community practices, more questions on care work with subsequent regional variation can add a fresh impetus to the survey in exploring gender dimensions.

¹⁰ For details see Statistics Sweden, Swedish Labour Force Surveys (LFS) - 2009 First wave questionnaire LFS 2010, 2010-12-15, BV/AKM

However, CSO publication on 'Men and Women in India' has been an important contribution in the area of gender statistics but there is a need for a lot more to be done. Significant efforts have been undertaken by countries like Sweden and Bangladesh to improve the entire statistical system. For example, Statistics Sweden has been an important endeavour for reflection of gender sensitive data. Even the Gender Statistics Reports of the Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics have been compiled in a very comprehensive way for both producers and users of data. On the contrary, the Indian experience has provided a very dismal picture of gender segregated data. Therefore the gender mainstreaming of surveys by drawing examples from country experiences can be an important breakthrough in improving the statistical system of India.

CHAPTER V

Conclusion and Policy Recommendations

Gender sensitive policies and strategies have been perceived as a powerful instrument in removing implicit or explicit barriers blocking women's equal integration. The understanding of women's participation in the labour market is crucial in the context of globalization. The economy's globalization characterized by expansion of transnational corporation, the global expansion of financial capital and a growth in the commercial exchange of goods and services together with the consolidation of regional trade blocks have all been accompanied by social conditions unfavourable for the majority of the poor and for women as a whole. Women continue to disproportionately face a range of multiple challenges relating to access to employment, choice of work, working conditions, employment security, wage parity, discrimination and balancing the competing burdens of work and family responsibilities.

In this context, gender statistics becomes important to substantiate the demand for equal status for women in various aspects of social, economic and political development. In 2003, the 17th International Conference on Labour Statisticians (ICLS) took up the topic of gender statistics and in its conclusions stressed the importance of mainstreaming gender in labour statistics not only to address gender concerns but also to understand labour market functioning more fully (Mata Greenwood, 2003). The ICLS recommended that labour statistics should satisfy the following four requirements:

- a) They will be based on a political will at all levels, in the various data collection and agencies and in all agencies which can provide administrative information.
- b) The data collection procedure for labour statistics will ensure that, as far as possible, all relevant topics for describing gender concerns are regularly included. Such topics may include employment in the informal economy, non-SNA work, employment by detailed occupations and status in employment categories, income from paid work and self employment, statistics on the life course, on lifelong learning and on working time.

- c) The data collection and processing procedures for labour statistics programmes will be designed to ensure that definitions and measurement methods cover and adequately describe all workers and work situations in sufficient detail to allow relevant gender comparisons to be made. Household and establishment-based surveys as well as administrative sources are valuable and, in particular, periodical time-use surveys are crucial.
- d) The resulting statistics will always be presented as part of regular publications in a way that will clearly reveal differences and similarities between men and women in the labour market and the factors that may influence their situations. This can be done by (i) presenting relevant topics in sufficient and relevant detail and by (ii) providing statistics according to relevant descriptive variables, e.g. personal and family circumstances, work environment and institutional setting (ILCS 2003).

There is no denying the fact that women issues have been the concern at many national and international forums which is also reflected in various policies and plans for overall development of women. But, collection of appropriate statistics on gender can bring about a significant breakthrough in the effective implementation of certain developmental programmes. For the development of effective policy measures addressing particularly the peculiar needs of the women in the society, the importance of appropriate statistics need to be emphasized. Time use statistics may prove to be a powerful tool for putting forward various views and arguments with conviction at different fora. (Bhatia, 2009)

Generally, labour statistics have not been successful enough for documenting women's work appropriately in India. The basic hurdle in properly acknowledging women's contribution in the economy and its recognition in policy measures is the lack of proper available information about the kind of work women generally do and how much they actually produce. Women's work in the household, in subsistence agriculture and such activities is generally not considered to be economically productive and either is not accounted for at all or is grossly undervalued, if counted (Bhatia, 2009). Due to a large variety of activities that women do at home and because their work gets caught up with the daily routine in housework, it is immensely difficult to measure women's work accurately (UN 1991). Another difficulty that arises is neither the enumerators who are

conducting the survey nor the female respondents themselves understand that they should be counted as economically active.

In this context, the present study was an endeavour to have a deeper understanding about gender issues in labour statistics. It had also tried to locate the various data gaps in capturing women's work in various statistical data sources. In order to have a relative and better understanding about gender statistics in various countries a cross-country analysis of selected countries (Sweden and Bangladesh) was undertaken for the study. Subsequently, in the study considerable efforts were undertaken to explore the invisibility of gender issues in statistics and also to highlight on some value added statistics and its relevance in policy making. In this regard, the study was divided into five chapters which can be summarized as follows:

- While attempting to provide a conceptual understanding about gender statistics various concepts pertaining to gender were carefully analysed. The concept of gender equality and the recognition of rights, benefits, obligations and opportunities for women were explored. It was revealed that in order to have a sustainable development it was imperative to recognize the importance of both the sexes. Moreover, it was also highlighted that under reporting and misrepresentation of women's contribution to the economy is an important indicator for perpetrating gender inequality in the society.
- It was revealed that the demographic imbalance in gender perspective is an important indicator for locating gender differentials in the society. The imbalance represents the child sex ratio has been falling rapidly for several decades which are unfavourable to female girl child. With regard to the marital stock of women and men, it was found that the 2001 census reflected 33.07 per cent of the elderly in India are without their life partners. This included 14.98 per cent widowers among men in comparison to 50.06 per cent widows among women.
- When the definitional aspects of categorization of 'work' were considered, it was pointed out that the Census definition of 'work' has somehow conceptualized work in a more masculine way. The relative invisibility of women's work has been proved through

various surveys conducted in India due to inadequate definition and inaccuracies of data collection.

- It was also highlighted that gender issues in measurement methodologies like GDI and GEM indices have not been able to capture the relevant social and cultural factors which are instrumental in the assessment of gender empowerment among the women in India. Also these indices capture empowerment at a high level of geographic aggregation and less conducive for disaggregated measures at States, districts and other social and economic criteria. Gender budgetary initiatives would not only identify to allocate more money to women but also aim to identify impact and incidence of public expenditure on women and men to fulfill the overall objectives like equality, efficiency, socio economic and cultural rights and good governance.
- In the present work, for comparing the existing gender gaps in India, an index of dissimilarity was used to examine the male female differentials in terms of literacy rate, life expectancy rate, work force participation rate and labour force participation rate over the years. From the index it was drawn that except in life expectancy at birth, in all the other variables the dissimilarity was more and it also highlighted an inclination towards the males in comparison to females.
- The study focussed on the issue of unpaid work which was largely ignored by many labour statisticians. It was realized that time use surveys served as an important tool for proper accounting of women's work. However, in India the only time use survey that was conducted in the year 1999 revealed that males spent more time on SNA activities in both rural and urban areas but with respect to Extended SNA activities the trend reversed. Since the Extended SNA activities are not included in the computation of National income it again provides a dismal picture about the contribution of women in the economy.
- It was also highlighted that the reconciliation of work and family life policies are important for women's sustenance in the workforce for a longer period of time. From the data on percentage of Women (Age 15 - 59 years) in Domestic Duties Willing to Accept Work at Home by Sector 2004 - 2005, it was revealed that women were

mostly engaged in domestic duties and were willing to continue with it within the confines of their household. They suffered from a double burden of work and the social norms arising out this double burden further restrict their mobility to work at far off places. Such a revelation would not only show the lack of balance between work and family life but would also be instrumental in formulating effective policies regarding reconciliation of work and family life.

- An analysis of cross-country comparison where Sweden and Bangladesh were considered for comparison revealed that a country which had effective gender statistics (Sweden) showed a relatively better position in the Global Gender Gap index. It was also revealed that since a majority of population was engaged in the informal sector in India, the formulation of the definition of 'informal sector' needs serious attention by scholars and policy makers. In fact, the definition is enterprise based in which there is an invisibility of a job based approach with importance to individual jobs. Therefore, it was reiterated that the informal employment definition should have a larger scope incorporating both formal and informal sector workers as well as paid domestic and own account workers in household.
- The comparison of survey questions of the three countries pointed out at the incorporation of some important questions in order to produce more effective gender statistics. Questions like the reasons for the withdrawal of women from the workforce were effectively covered in Statistics Sweden which could provide a clear picture about the social and cultural background of women. Such questions have also resulted in effective formulation of work and family life policies beneficial for women. Therefore, the incorporation of such questions pertaining to women's withdrawal from workforce and questions on cultural constraints and institutional barriers according to specific regions can definitely improve the coverage of questions in surveys conducted in India.

Against this backdrop, it becomes an urgent necessity to have gender mainstreamed statistics in order to monitor, analyze and evaluate the situation of men and women and their inter-relations in the world of work. It is now widely agreed that national labour statistics that are gender mainstreamed are more complete and of higher quality than those that do

not, and this should be of great importance for labour statisticians. Such statistics will be an asset not only to users interested in the analysis of gender issues but to all users of labour statistics, including labour market analysts and policy decision makers. Statistical information on the situation of women and men in all spheres of society is an important tool in promoting equality and in monitoring progress towards full equality. It raises public awareness on the plight and prevailing conditions of women and men. Gender statistics can help eliminate gender-based stereotypes by providing evidence on the actual situation of women and men. Moreover, it provides an unbiased source of information to monitor the actual and real effects of government's policies and programmes on the lives of women and men.

Policy Implications

Gender statistics and indicators have become prerequisite at all phases of gender analysis in order to mainstream gender in the policy and programme development cycle. This has also raised the need to develop the gender information-gathering system that enables governments to keep abreast with global commitments to achieving gender equality and women empowerment. In addition, a gender information gathering system would facilitate measuring changes and monitoring implementation for policy makers and statisticians. Improving the availability and quality of gender statistics is essential for providing policy makers with reliable data to make informed decisions and design effective measures. These indicators would provide a solid basis needed for the policy makers to formulate development programmes and national policies based on hard facts. Gender statistics have an essential role in the elimination of gender blindness in the formulation of policies and that can address any differences between men and women and should seek to redress this imbalance. The important points that should be included in the policy formulations are: *improving existing methodology and definitions to make them more relevant from the gender perspective, formulating a compendia of gender disaggregated statistics, developing and maintaining dialogue between users and producers of gender statistics to ensure effective use of statistics, expanding the use of existing sources by including the collection of gender-relevant information and establishing necessary coherence with relevant departments which are entrusted with the responsibility of collecting data from a gender sensitive approach.* But, still a lot more needs to be done to further standardize indicators, establish

links between official statistics and policies, and to engender the production and dissemination of statistics particularly in those areas where there is no previous tradition of gendered analysis especially in areas pertaining to women's work in the informal economy in the context of India.

However, the national time use survey conducted in India highlights certain critical issues related to data requirements for policy formulation and programme planning. For example issues like the division of the total labour force in a household into paid and unpaid workers generates a hierarchy that reflects the lower status of women, both in the household and in the labour market. It was also analyzed that capturing statistics related to unpaid work would enable realistic planning for employment and skills training. Therefore, there is a need for time-use survey design and methodology to be integrated into the national data collection system. Since the findings and analysis of the national time-use data have triggered a policy which ensures counting women's work as part of the national data set, such data, policies, programmes and resource allocation will definitely be successful in addressing the well-being and development of Indian women. Moreover, "sensitizing" national data to gender issues is geared towards promoting gender equality.

But, the gap that currently exists between aspects of policy formulation and application is caused by lack of sex-disaggregated data and gender-sensitive indicators. Inadequate use of data available for gender analysis would prevent effective understanding of gender perspectives in various fields. Therefore, policies, programmes and legislations that do not take gender into account would fail to achieve the desired goals. The aim of gender equality policy is to change this gender power structure and to end the systematic subordination of women that has placed them in a generally weaker social, economic and political position in society than that occupied by men. Therefore, the sustenance of women in the labour force requires an affirmative action with regard to improved child-care policies, paternal leave policies, and others.

On the whole, the disaggregation of economic and social statistics by gender to study the magnitude of relative disparities between male and female segments of population is absolutely essential for creating awareness about the magnitude of discrimination and formulation of necessary corrective measures including policies and programmes. Partnerships between users and producers are a second essential strategy

for improving the use of statistics in general, and time use data in particular. The challenge here lies in linking academic research to policy and ensuring that it is communicated to policy makers and, if appropriate, the general public in readily understandable ways. However, it may be suggested that engendering of statistical system is an important national issue and CSO should make efforts to impress upon all the statistical agencies, the need for engendering data collection. The State Governments may be requested to bring out publications on gender issues on the basis of "Women and Men in India" being compiled and published by the CSO. Above all, gender statistics does not mean simply disaggregation of data by sex but it has a wider connotation. The purpose of gender statistics should penetrate deeper into the existing reality of gender relations and to develop an understanding of the causes that lead to existing gender differentiated outcomes. It cannot be ignored that gender relations are product of dynamic social relations which change over time. Therefore, the engendering of the statistical system would mean effective production of statistics that is reflective of the changing socio-economic and cultural environment of a particular society.

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Annexure-I

National Plans and Policies

Perspective on Advancement of Women through Five Year Plans

First Five Year Plan (1951-56)	It was mainly welfare oriented as far as women' issues were concerned.
Second Five Year Plan (1956-61)	Efforts were geared to organize "Mahila Mandal" (women's group) at grass route levels to ensure better implementation of welfare schemes
Third ,Fourth ,Fifth and other Interim Plans(1961-74)	They accorded high priority to women's Education. Measures to improve maternal and child health services, and supplementary feeding for children, nursing and expectant mothers were also introduced.
Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-85)	This is regarded as landmark in women's development. The plan adopted a multidisciplinary approach with a three-pronged thrust on health ,education and employment of women.
Seventh Five Year Plan(1985-90)	Development Programmes for women were continued, with the objective of raising their economic and social status and bring them into the mainstream of national development.
Eighth Five Year Plan(1992-97)	It attempted to ensure that the benefits of development from different sectors did not bypass women. Special programmes were implemented to complement the general development programmes.
Ninth Five Year Plan(1997-2002)	Empowerment of women and socially disadvantaged groups such as Scheduled Castes, scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes and Minorities as agent of socio-economic change and development, A women's component plan at the Central and State levels.
Tenth Five Year Plan(2002-07)	The tenth five year plan was formulated to ensure requisite access of women to information, resources and services, and advance gender equality goals.
Eleventh Five Year Plan(2007-12)	The eleventh five year plan proposes to undertake special measures for gender empowerment and equity. The Ministry of Women and Child Development would make synergistic use of gender budget and gender mainstreaming process.

Source: India, Planning Commission. (2002).Five Year Plans. New Delhi.

Legislations and Laws for Women

The State enacted several women-specific and women-related legislations to protect women against social discrimination, violence and atrocities and also to prevent evils like child marriages, dowry, rape, practice of Sati etc. The recently notified social Prevention of Domestic Violence Act is a landmark law in acting as a deterrent as well as providing legal recourse to the women who are victims of any form of domestic violence. Apart from these, there are a number of laws which may not be gender specific but still have ramifications on women.

Equal Remuneration Act of 1976 provides for equal pay to men and women for equal work.
Hindu Marriage Act of 1955 amended in 1976 provides the right for girls to repudiate a child marriage before attaining maturity whether the marriage has been consummated or not.
The Marriage (Amendment) Act, 2001 amended the Hindu Marriage Act, Special Marriage Act, Parsi Marriage and Divorce Act, the Code of Criminal Procedure providing for speedy disposal of applications for maintenance; the ceiling limit for claiming maintenance has been deleted and a wide discretion has been given to the Magistrate to award appropriate maintenance.
The Immoral Traffic (Prevention) Act of 1956 as amended and renamed in 1986 makes the sexual exploitation of male or female, a cognizable offence. It is being amended to decriminalize the prostitutes and make the laws more stringent against traffickers.
Dowry Prohibition Act of 1961 An amendment brought in 1984 to the made women's subjection to cruelty a cognizable offence. The second amendment brought in 1986 makes the husband or in-laws punishable, if a woman commits suicide within 7 years of her marriage and it has been proved that she has been subjected to cruelty. Also a new criminal offence of 'Dowry Death' has been incorporated in the Indian Penal Code.
Child Marriage Restraint Act of 1976 raises the age for marriage of a girl to 18 years from 15 years and that of a boy to 21 years and makes offences under this Act cognizable.
Medical Termination Pregnancy Act of 1971 legalizes abortion by qualified professional on humanitarian or medical grounds. The maximum punishment may go up to life imprisonment. The Act has further been amended specifying the place and persons authorized to perform abortion and provide for penal actions against the unauthorized persons performing abortions.
Indecent Representation of Women (Prohibition) Act of 1986 and the Commission of Sati (Prevention) Act, 1987 have been enacted to protect the dignity of women and prevent violence against them as well as their exploitation.
The Protection of Women from Domestic Violence Act, 2005 provides for more effective protection of the rights of women guaranteed under the Constitution who are victims of violence of any kind occurring within the family and for matters connected therewith or incidental thereto. It provides for immediate and emerge relief to women in situations of violence of any kind in the home.

Constitution of India

- Equality Before Law for Women (Article 14)
- The State not to discriminate against any citizen on grounds only of religion, race, caste, sex, place of birth or any of them (Article 15 (I))
- The State to make any special provision in favour of women and children (Article 15(3))
- Equality of opportunity for all in matters relating to employment or appointment to any office under the State (Article 16)
- The State to direct its policy towards securing for men and women equally the right to an adequate means of livelihood (Article 39(a)), and equal pay for equal work for both men and women (Article 39(d))
- To promote justice on a basis of equal opportunity and to provide free legal aid by suitable legislation or scheme or in any other way to ensure that opportunities for securing justice are not denied to any citizen by reason of economic or other disabilities (Article 39A)
- The State to make provision for securing just and humane conditions of work and for maternity relief (Article 42)
- The State to promote with special care the educational and economic interest of the weaker sections of the people and to protect them from social injustice and all forms of exploitation (Article 46)
- The State to raise the level of nutrition and the standard of living of its people and the improvement of public health (Article 47)
- To promote harmony and the spirit of common brotherhood amongst all the people of India and to renounce practices derogatory to the dignity of women (Article 51 A(e))
- Not less than one-third (including the number of seats reserved for women belonging to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes) of the total number of seats to be filled by direct election in every panchayat to be reserved for women and such seats to be allotted by rotation to different constituencies in a panchayat (Article 243 D(3))
- Not less than one third of the total number of offices of chairpersons in the panchayats at each level to be reserved for women (Article 243 D (4))

- Not less than one third (including the number of seats reserved for women belonging to the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes) of the total number of seats to be filled by direct election in every municipality to be reserved for women and such seats to be allotted by rotation to different constituencies in a municipality (Article 243 T(3))
- Reservation of offices of chairpersons in municipalities for the scheduled castes, the scheduled tribes and women in such manner as the legislature of a State may by law provide (Article 243 T (4))

Policies and Schemes

The National Policy for the Empowerment of Women with the objective of bringing about advancement, development and empowerment of women in all walks of life has been formulated. Stree Shakti Puraskars to honour and recognize the achievement and contribution of individual women and institutions who have done outstanding work in the social sector have been instituted. Guidelines for operationalisation of District Level Committees on Violence against Women and Helplines for women in distress have been issued. A National level Committee to monitor Supreme Court's Guidelines on prevention of sexual harassment of women at workplace has been set up. A National Resource Centre for Women (NRCW) portal has been set up to inform and empower women, and lodge complaints of women's rights violation on-line. Gender Budget analysis of various Ministries spending was undertaken to assess the utilization of funds for women.

International Policies for Women

- **Universal Declaration of Human Rights -adopted in 1948**

UN 1948 adopted and proclaimed by General Assembly resolution 217 A (III) of 10 December 1948 the General Assembly of the United Nations adopted and proclaimed the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Following this historic act the Assembly called upon all Member countries to publicize the text of the Declaration and "to cause it to be disseminated, displayed, read and expounded principally in schools and other educational institutions, without distinction based on the political status of countries or territories. Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration, without

distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status. Furthermore, no distinction shall be made on the basis of the political, jurisdictional or international status

of the country or territory to which a person belongs, whether it be independent, trust, non-self-governing or under any other limitation. No one shall be subjected to torture or to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment. Everyone has the right to recognition everywhere as a person before the law.

Men and women of full age, without any limitation due to race, nationality or religion, have the right to marry and to found a family. They are entitled to equal rights as to marriage, during marriage and at its dissolution. Marriage shall be entered into only with the free and full consent of the intending spouses. Everyone has the right to take part in the government of his country, directly or through freely chosen representatives. Everyone has the right of equal access to public service in his country. Everyone has the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favourable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment. Everyone, without any discrimination, has the right to equal pay for equal work.

- **International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights - adopted in 1966/entered into force in 1976 ,monitored by the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (CESCR)**

The States Parties to the present Covenant: Considering that, in accordance with the principles proclaimed in the Charter of the United Nations, recognition of the inherent dignity and of the equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family is the foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world, recognizing that these rights derive from the inherent dignity of the human person, recognizing that, in accordance with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the ideal of free human beings enjoying freedom from fear and want can only be achieved if conditions are created whereby everyone may enjoy his economic, social and cultural rights, as well as his civil and political rights, considering the obligation of States under the Charter of the United Nations to promote universal respect for, and observance of, human rights and freedoms, realizing that the individual, having duties to other individuals and to the

community to which he belongs, is under a responsibility to strive for the promotion and observance of the rights recognized in the present covenant.

- **International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination-adopted in 1965 /entered into force in 1969,monitored by the Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination (CERD)**

Considering that the Universal Declaration of Human Rights proclaims that all human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights and that everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set out therein, without distinction of any kind, in particular as to race, colour or national origin, Considering that all human beings are equal before the law and are entitled to equal protection of the law against any discrimination and against any incitement to discrimination, Considering that the United Nations has condemned colonialism and all practices of segregation and discrimination associated therewith, in whatever form and wherever they exist, and that the Declaration on the Granting of Independence to Colonial Countries and Peoples of 14 December 1960 (General Assembly resolution 1514 (XV)) has affirmed and solemnly proclaimed the necessity of bringing them to a speedy and unconditional end,

- Considering that the United Nations Declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination of 20 November 1963 (General Assembly resolution 1904 (XVIII)) solemnly affirms the necessity of speedily eliminating racial discrimination throughout the world in all its forms and manifestations and of securing understanding of and respect for the dignity of the human person, Convinced that any doctrine of superiority based on racial differentiation is scientifically false, morally condemnable, socially unjust and dangerous, and that there is no justification for racial discrimination, in theory or in practice, anywhere, Reaffirming that discrimination between human beings on the grounds of race, colour or ethnic origin is an obstacle to friendly and peaceful relations among nations and is capable of disturbing peace and security among peoples and the harmony of persons living side by side even within one and the same State, Convinced that the existence of racial barriers is repugnant to the ideals of any human society, alarmed by manifestations of racial discrimination still in evidence in some areas of the world and by

governmental policies based on racial superiority or hatred, such as policies of apartheid, segregation or separation, Resolved to adopt all necessary measures for speedily eliminating racial discrimination in all its forms and manifestations, and to prevent and combat racist doctrines and practices in order to promote understanding between races and to build an international community free from all forms of racial segregation and racial discrimination, Bearing in mind the Convention concerning Discrimination in respect of Employment and Occupation adopted by the International Labour Organisation in 1958, and the Convention against Discrimination in Education adopted by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization in 1960, Desiring to implement the principles embodied in the United Nations Declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination and to secure the earliest adoption of practical measures to that end.

- **Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women –adopted in 1979 /entered into force in 1981, monitored by the Committee on CEDAW**

The Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) is an international convention adopted in 1979 by the United Nations General Assembly. Described as an international bill of rights for women, it came into force on 3 September 1981. The United States is the only developed nation that has not ratified the CEDAW. Several countries have ratified the Convention subject to certain declarations, reservations, and objections.

The Convention defines discrimination against women in the following terms: Any distinction, exclusion or restriction made on the basis of sex which has the effect or purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by women, irrespective of their marital status, on a basis of equality of men and women, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field.

It also establishes an agenda of action for putting an end to sex-based discrimination: States must take measures to seek to eliminate prejudices and customs based on the idea of the inferiority or the superiority of one sex or on stereotyped role for men and women.

States ratifying the Convention are required to enshrine gender equality into their domestic legislation, repeal all discriminatory provisions in their laws, and enact new provisions to guard against discrimination against women. However, special protection for maternity is not regarded as gender discrimination (Article 4). Appropriate measures, including legislation, to suppress all forms of trafficking in women and forced prostitution are also not regarded as gender discrimination (Article 6). Equal opportunity in education for female students is required, and coeducation is encouraged. (Article 10). States ratifying the Convention must also establish tribunals and public institutions to guarantee women effective protection against discrimination, and take steps to eliminate all forms of discrimination practiced against women by individuals, organizations, and enterprises (Article 2,(e)).

- **Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment- adopted in 1984/ entered into force in 1987, monitored by Committee Against Torture(CAT)**

The States Parties to this Convention, Considering that, in accordance with the principles proclaimed in the Charter of the United Nations, recognition of the equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family is the foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world, Recognizing that those rights derive from the inherent dignity of the human person, Considering the obligation of States under the Charter, in particular Article 55, to promote universal respect for, and observance of, human rights and fundamental freedoms, Having regard to article 5 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and article 7 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, both of which provide that no one shall be subjected to torture or to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment, Having regard also to the Declaration on the Protection of All Persons from Being Subjected to Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment, adopted by the General Assembly on 9 December 1975, Desiring to make more effective the struggle against torture and other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment throughout the world.

Commitments at UN Conferences

- World Conference on Education for All (1990) Jomtien
- Second UN World Conference on Human Rights (1993) Vienna
- International Conference on Population and Development (1994) Cairo
- World Summit on Social Development (1995) Copenhagen
- Fourth World Conference on Women (1995) Beijing
- Second UN Conference on Human Settlements (1996) Istanbul
- Education for All Dakar Framework (2000) Dakar

UN MDGs on Gender Equality

Eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) have been established in the Millennium Declaration at the General Assembly of the United Nations in the year 2000. These include promoting gender equality and empowerment of women and improving maternal health. Though only these two are explicitly gender specific, gender equality is at the core of achievement of MDGs – from improving health and fighting disease, reducing poverty and mitigating hunger, to expanding education and lowering child mortality, to increasing access to safe water, and to ensuring environmental sustainability.

In 2000 at the United Nations Millennium Summit, the United States joined 189 world governments in the commitment to achieve the MDGs, a set of eight goals aimed at improving the lives of the world's poorest by 2015. The target of MDG 3: Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women is to eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education by 2005 and in all levels of education by 2015. In addition, MDG 3 aims to increase both the share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector and the proportion of seats held by women in national parliament. Women are disproportionately affected by poverty – representing 70 percent of the world's poorest. In many countries, the unequal status of women is integrated into government policy, giving women's needs very little priority. Achieving MDG 3 is crucial to the success of all the other MDGs – solid evidence has shown that progress in gender equality in one goal often contributes simultaneously toward progress on a number of other development goals.

MDG Goal -3 Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women

Target –Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015

Indicators:

- Ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education (UNESCO)
- Ratio of literate women to men,15-24 years old(UNSECO)
- Share of women in wage employment in the non-agriculture sector(ILO)
- Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament(IPU)

Overall seven priorities have been identified as requiring immediate action in order to keep the MDG3 promise:

- Strengthen opportunities for post-primary education for girls while simultaneously meeting communities to universal primary education.
- Guarantee sexual and reproductive health and rights.
- Invest in infrastructure to reduce women’s and girl’s time burden.
- Guarantee women’s and girl’s property and inheritance rights.
- Eliminate gender inequality in employment by decreasing women’s reliance on informal employment, closing gender gaps in earnings and reducing occupational segregation.
- Increase women’s share of seats in national parliaments and local governmental bodies.
- Combat violence against girl’s and women’s.

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