
Research Paper



**WOMEN PARTICIPATION IN THE PROCESS OF ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN INDIA
WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO UP**

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ABSTRACT:

Traditionally in all societies both men and women participate in market work through the tasks carried out. But the extent of participation has not been the same. With the passage of time however the conditions of work have changed owing to a variety of reasons. The perceptions of what constitutes "work" have also varied among people. The term "work" has also acquires new meaning; consequent upon changes in the nature of work participation of women in economic activity all over the world.

KEYWORDS: *Paleogeomorphic. geomorphologically frazzle zone . anthropogeomorphological process. comfortable climate. geomorphic base.*

INTRODUCTION:

Many outsiders may wonder why they should pay any special attention to the work and lives of poor rural women, rather than just the poor in general. There are two basic answers (1) Successful development cannot be pursued without their participation. Condemning them to low productivity menial jobs underutilizes human resources and thus retards the process of growth (2) Concern for human rights and the dignity of individuals demands great improvements in their conditions of work, their access to productive resources and their participation in decision-making at all levels. In other words, substantial growth in production depends partly on women and progress towards more just societies must include greater equality for women. Any acceptable definition of development should include both material improvement and greater equity (Martha.F. Loutfi, 1980).

In some parts of the world the rapid growth of the service sector has opened up a wide range of employment opportunities to women. Improved education and training levels have raised productivity and earnings. Yet in general women have less education and training than men. The average earnings are lower; occupations with a high proportion of women offer lower average earnings. This creates inequities between men and women as individuals. In virtually all societies women work longer hours than men for smaller rewards and great many women accept and even defend systems that ensure their dependence and even exploitation. The third-world rural women in the lower classes and castes are the most disadvantaged in this respect. Their work is the hardest and yet least rewarded. Hence an attempt is made here

to analyse the economic development of gender in India with special reference to Uttar Pradesh. This paper is about the examining the women involvement in the process of economic development in india particularly with reference to the state of Uttar Pradesh after globalization.

In India women constitute half of the country's population accounting for 496 million in absolute number as per 2001 census. There can be no development unless their needs and interest are fully taken into account. In predominantly agrarian economy like India, marked by labour surplus and low levels of income, the bulk of women workers are employed in agriculture. Women play a significant and crucial role in agricultural development and allied fields including in the main crop production, livestock production, horticulture, post-harvest operations, agro/social forestry, fisheries etc. But yet they remained as "invisible workers" in the market.

Hence an attempt is made here to analyse the economic development of gender in India with special reference to Uttar Pradesh. This paper is about the examining the women involvement in the process of economic development in india particularly with reference to the state of Uttar Pradesh after globalization. As the study is purely based on secondary sources, some minor statistical tools and techniques are used for calculation. Moreover the statements of the study are supported by necessary data of case studies and micro level studies.

Studies on women in agriculture conducted in India point to the fact that women contributed for more to agricultural production than has generally been acknowledged. Recognition of their crucial role in agriculture should not obscure the fact that farm women continue to be concerned with their primary functions as wives, mothers and home-makers. The patriarchal system of family life, which has been in vogue since time immemorial, has relegated women to the background.

After independence, as women development is directly related to national development, a large number of programmes have been initiated for women development in India. These programmes lay emphasis on providing equal opportunities to women by removing gender basis, empowering women and creating self-reliance. It stresses adoption of a holistic approach to women development, to enable them to overcome their problems based on their involvement and participation in the process of development. The National Perspective Plan on Women (1988) was drawn up for streamlining womens' issues and policies and programmes and giving women at least one-third share in the decision-making bodies from panchayats to parliament. At the same time, the paradigms for social development have been swiftly changing with greater attention to gender issues at global and national levels. The committees on the Status of Women in India (1974) found that majority of women were very far from enjoying rights and opportunities guaranteed to them by the constitution. Also the society could not frame norms and institutions to enable women to fulfill their dual roles. The committee further observed that a large number of women are subject to exploitation of various kinds with no protection from the society or state.

In India programmes connected with women development received impetus with the report of the committee on the status of women in 1974, which focused on direct specific action for women to enable them to overcome their problems based on their involvement and participation in the process of development. In 1976, the GOI prepared a National Plan of Action for Women, which along with the guidelines of United Nation's World Plan of Action for Women emphasizes on employment, education and health for women. The National Perspective Plan on Women 1988, was drawn up for streamlining womens' issues in policies and programmes and giving women at least one third share in the decision-making bodies from panchayats to parliament. At the same time, the paradigms for social development have been swiftly changing with greater attention to gender

issues at global and national levels. The GOI has continuously been formulating strategies and initiating processes to bring women into the main stream.

The women population in India is characterized by low literacy rate (54.16%), low work participation rate of 25.68% and low level of development participation during 2001 census. Besides the committee on the status of women in India (1974) found that the majority of women were very far from enjoying rights and opportunities guaranteed to them by the constitution. Also society could not frame norms or institutions to enable women to fulfill their dual roles. The committee further observed that a large number of women are subject to exploitation of various kinds with no protection from the society or the state.

On similar lines, the National Commission on Self-Employed Women and Women in the Formal Sector (1988) observed that women suffered from lack of opportunity to work, low and discriminatory wages and exploitative conditions resulting in casualisation, lack of social security, occupational health hazards in accessibility to new technologies, skills and knowledge. Further more than 90% of the women in rural areas and 69% in urban areas were found having no technical skills. For those who worked, the average wage earnings per day were Rs. 21.34 for men and Rs.15.18 for women Agricultural Labour households during 1993-94. Women continued to be "treated as a source of cheap and secondary labour that can be hired and fired to suit the requirements of the employer". (Desai and Patel, 1985).

WOMEN POPULATION

It is necessary to bring out this point about sex ratio because this is a feature unique to India. In spite of more than a century and half of attempts to mitigate the evils affecting women, the sex-ratio has been registering a continuous fall throughout the 10 census operations from 1901 to 1991, in India, except the decennium 1971-1981 when it seems to have registered an increase of 3 per thousand. Intriguingly, it has again taken a dip of 7 females per 1000 males from 1981 to 1991. The ratio is 933 for 1000 during 2001 census. The difference between the growth of male and female population has brought about a decline in the sex ratio-the number of females per 1000 males. According to the census of India 2001, the sex ratio stands at 933 for the country as a whole. This is a welcome improvement from the 1991 census, which had recorded 927 females for every 1000 males.

It may right now be a far-fetched correlation with the liberalization process of the 80s but this assumption cannot be ruled out. Growing impoverishment of the masses, marginalisation of womens' work conditions, increasing reports of infanticide and feticide, the total neglect of the girl child in nutrition and health care are factors which attest the above assumption. This process despite the much-trumpeted SAARC Decade of the Girl Child has compounded the deeply entrenched gender injustice. (Uma Shanker Jha & Premlatha P, 1998).

WOMEN WORK PARTICIPATION

On the eve of the International Womens' Decade 1975-85 a committee was set up in India to enquire into the status of women (GOI, 1974). In the wake of this, several studies were undertaken, one fact, which came to light, was that the Female Work Participation Rate (FWPR) has been falling in India since 1901. This is found to be true even after leaving room for definitional changes in various population census (Seal.K.C. 1981). It is further reinforced by census data, which showed that the FWPR has declined since 1901 to 1971 by 33.73% to 11.86%. But on the whole, there is a rising gap of the work participation rate (WPR) of women during the three-census year of 1971, 1981

and 1991. There was a big slump from 1961-71 (from 28% to 14.22%). Since then, the growth of population and growth of economy during the last two decades seem to have contributed to the rise of WPR during the decade (1981-91) from 19.67% to 22.73%. (Various census reports)

OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION

The most important and the largest sector that employed women workers in India is the unorganized sector that employed 94% of the Indian women workers in 1991. This sector includes agricultural labourers, workers in traditional village and cottage industries, migrants to the cities in domestic service, day labourers, street vendors etc. In 1991 about 80% of the women workers were in agricultural sector the latest decade witnessed decline in it by less than 1% whereas in secondary and tertiary sector there were only 8.07% and 10.84% respectively. From this analysis it is clear that industrialization and planned economic development have not been able to absorb women in secondary and tertiary sectors up to the desired levels. It is also suggested that industrialization has not been labour - intensive and shift from agriculture to non-agricultural sectors remains a distant dream especially for women.

Almost exclusively women handle about 60% of the agricultural operations like sowing of seeds, transplantation of saplings, storage of grain etc., while in other jobs they share the work with men. A look at the occupational distribution of women in Indian agriculture in 1991 shows that the total female workers of 43.56% are agricultural labourers and 34.55% of total female workers are cultivators. The male number of agricultural labourers is increased by 31.48%, but that of females by 36.15% since 1981. Women cultivators on other hand declined from 18.36 million in 1951 to 9.26 million in 1971, where as they have increased to 33.2 million in 1991. However, it increased at a much faster rate of 45.23% from 14.8% millions in 1981 to 21.5 millions in 1991. Whereas, the male cultivators have increased in the country by 11.67% from 76.7 millions to 85.6 millions in 1991. But as compared to 1961 the percentage of female cultivators has declined while the percentage of agricultural labour increased in 1991.

WOMEN WORK FORCE

From the occupational distribution it is clear that there is a declining trend in economically active women, characterized by its changing composition. A comparison of macro-level data from various census brings out the following (a) Increasing dependence of women for employment in agriculture. (b) decline in women cultivators and increase in women agricultural labourers (c) decline in the proportion of women workers in the manufacturing sector.

The two major categories of women employment in the primary sector are cultivators and agricultural labourers. There has been sharp decline in the proportion of female population reporting as cultivators and a rise in the category of agricultural labourers in past thirty years. Women agricultural labourers have increased much faster than the population growth. It is possible that large number of women with marginal and smallholdings have joined the ranks of agricultural labourers. In the absence of employment opportunities in livestock related activities women fall back on the farm sector for employment.

DOMESTICATION OF WOMENS' WORK

The issue of womens' employment is directly linked with the role of women in the family and the disproportionately high burden of domestic responsibility, which acts as a barrier to entry into the labour market. Intensity of involvement in domestic work by women depends as much on

the ideology of patriarchy as on socio-economic factors. Childbearing and rearing lead to periods of absence from the labour market, which combined with other social resources, led to lack of skill formation. Constraints on mobility reduce their bargaining strength in terms of choice of work and wages. However, it is to be seen that domestic work in agriculture-based subsistence economy goes beyond the work involved in the household. Women are not working as wage labour or cannot be termed as self-employed are included in the category of non-work in the census. The NSS data gives a more detailed activity lists of such women and categories them as domestic workers. The activities that women perform along with domestic work are the maintenance of kitchen garden, and poultry, free collection of food, fish and firewood, processing of own and acquired produce bringing water from outside the village, sewing, tailoring and tutoring one's own children. The NSS data give a break up of women engaged in domestic work alone (category –92) and those engaged in domestic work along with other work (category-93).

Variation in the “usual activity” status and current weekly activity status of women categorized as domestic workers validate the fact that women keep moving in and out of the labour market depending on the availability of jobs. Regional difference in the proportion of domestic workers does not show a direct relationship with agricultural growth. Bihar and Orissa with a low agricultural growth and high proportion of population below the poverty line have 50% and 42% of women as domestic workers respectively. These states have least variance between the two measurements of domestic workers due to availability of seasonal employment. Punjab and Haryana with high agricultural growth have 44% and 46% “usual status” domestic women workers respectively. The two categories of domestic work as given in the NSS data are very different for Bihar and Orissa as compared to Punjab and Haryana. With the shifts in income levels women in these states who may seen to withdraw from visible economic activity, perform a large number of other productive activities which get termed as domestic work and are not considered “gainful”. The nature of domestic activities differs with the socio-economic status of women. Activities like kitchen, garden and poultry, sewing and tailoring, tutoring of own children and other such activities are performed in large number by women from non-SC/ST sections. However, the other range of activities like free collection of fish, fire-wood etc., husking and grinding of own and acquired produce, bringing water from outside household premises or outside the village are undertaken in large proportion by women from Scheduled Castes and Tribes. (Shakti Kak, 1994).

EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT

In rural India, women are still predominantly self-employed/family helpers. The proportion of casual employees has been increasing. It is argued that over the decades, women have increasingly joined the ranks of casual labour. Many women workers categorized as self-employed in the “principal” and “subsidiary status” work as casual labour in the “principal status”. Women have not been able to get a significant share of regular employment as compared to male workers. In most of the states, women from poorer sections work as casual labour both in agricultural and non-agricultural activities.

A continuing decline in the self-employed category and a reverse tendency in that of casual labour is a pointer to the changing agrarian structure, where rural proletarianisation is becoming a common feature. Although, historically the decline in artisanal activities have been responsible for the changing nature of female work force, in the recent decades the process of development itself has unleashed forces that have marginalized a large number of occupations. Large numbers of self-employed workers are in two occupational categories that of cultivators and the household industry

and these occupational categories are being increasingly transformed into wage labour category. This change is occurring for male labour force as well but the change is much faster for women workers. This has also been noted in terms of a shift in the sectoral distribution of national income away from mixed income towards wage income from the mid-sixties (Duvvury, 1989-b).

The existing female employment is prevalent more often in low paying unskilled and semi-skilled jobs (Duvvury, 1989). Decline in opportunities of employment in the "self-employed" category and unavailability of jobs in the organized sector leaves women with no option but to enter the labour market as casual workers. The degree of casualisation is found to be more in the case of rural females as compared to rural males in all the rounds of N.S.S. The ratio of female casual labour to male casual labour shows a continuous decline over time since 1972-73 (1.43%) to 1993-94 (1.14%). The ratio of casual labour to regular employees is much more in the case of rural females (13.8) as compared to rural males (4.1) in 1993-94, suggested that rural females suffer greater insecurity of employment as compared to rural males. (Parthasarathy & Nirmala, 1997).

The post green Revolution period is marked by a rise in usual status unemployment from 1.2% in 1972-73 to 2.8% in 1987-88 for rural males but the rural females shows a decline in the rate of unemployment for the same period. The 1990-91 data shows a further decline in unemployment rate for females. Even the current daily approach gives similar results for rural areas. The level of unemployment is however much higher for females in most of the rounds as compared to males. As a consequence the ratio of female unemployment to male unemployment under all types i.e., usual status, current weekly status and current daily status shows a rise. Moreover, unemployment in rural India takes the form of underemployment, which cannot be measured adequately by the time criterion. Unemployment trends should be judged in the context of Poverty Alleviation Programme, mainly IRDP & JRY (Parthasarathy & Nirmala, 1997).

UNDEREMPLOYMENT

The problem of underemployment or underutilization of labour time is a prevalent problem in rural areas and also directly affects women. Underemployment can be measured by cross classifying the NSS concepts of employment based on "usual activity status" and "current activity status". Work participation rates based on current day activity status vary from those of the usually employed women who are not employed on "current status" basis withdraw from the labour force and do not report themselves as currently unemployed (Sarvekshana 1990, p.127). On the basis of "usual principal activity status" 25.4% of the rural women constituted the labour force in 1987-88 but this proportion declines to 22.3% on the basis of "daily current activity status. This could be due to the seasonal nature of agricultural work where women get work as and when available while men opt for relatively stable employment.

REAL WAGE EARNINGS

Many studies have shown that from the mid-seventies to the mid-eighties, the real wage rates in agriculture tended to rise slowly and steadily (Unni, 1988, Jose 1988, Bhalla 1993, Vaidyanathan, 1994). The prime mover of this rise in agricultural wage rate has been found to be the diversification of the workforce into the non-agricultural sector, rather than growing labour productivity (Bhalla, 1993, Mukherjee, 1996). During the 1990s however it was observed that the trend of rising agrarian wages is not being sustained (Mukherjee 1996, Parthasarathy, 1996).

The real wage earnings in agricultural and non-agricultural activities among workers in rural labour households during 1964-65 to 1993-94 shows a rise, though it dip slightly in 1974-75 and

1983. It appears that the tendency of real wage rates to rise, observed in the mid-eighties is not sustained either in agricultural or non-agricultural sectors. While real wage rates in agriculture have tended to stagnate, those in non-agriculture have tended to decline in the nineties.

TECHNOLOGY AND WOMEN

The nature and extent of employment taken as an indicator of the status of women in a capitalist economy shows that large sections of women population in India have been relegated to marginal and subsistence oriented activities in the rural areas. In egalitarian land distribution and lack of access to non-agricultural sources of income based on self-employment leaves only wage employment open to these women. In the farm sector, the processes of mechanization of agricultural activities sets in tendencies for gender discrimination and class polarization by replacing men for a number of activities performed by women and also by displacing the labour of women from subsistence and marginal households. It is argued that the process of development has relegated women to unpaid, invisible work or paid employment with wages always lower than those of men. (Shaktikak, 1994).

Bhalla, 1989 study provides evidence to indicate that the adoption of the HYV package led to higher use of hired male labour and women are employed when there is absolute shortage of labour and for specific operations like cotton picking. The unpaid family labour days increase for women with the adoption of HYV technology. This pattern is consistent with the twin proposition that (1) women are called upon to do field crop operations as the alternative to hiring in labour, whenever there is no sufficient male labour to satisfy total requirements and (2) on bigger farms more effective use can be made of female labour in particular operations for which they are thought to be specially suited. Very low figures for the smaller farmers imply that there is not enough work to go round in many small farm households. The changing roles from mainly inactive to active depending on the agricultural season indicate that increasingly women are employed as part of the unpaid family labour. Where women do take up wage labour, their wages are barely above subsistence level. Along with the overall below subsistence level women also have to work on wages less than those paid to male workers. Wage rates for casual labour are lower for women for all the agricultural and non-agricultural operations and this differential becomes larger with the mechanized or non-manual operations.

Gender discrimination in wage determination and also in movement of wages is prevalent in all the major states, wages for women agricultural workers have fallen behind men workers over the decades.

POVERTY AND WOMEN

HDR 1994 puts the percentage of people in absolute poverty for the period 1980-90 at 40% (rural 42 and urban 30%). And 75% of these figures related to women. The women headed households; about 30 to 35% are the poorest, very much in line with world trends. According to NSS Report, the percentage population below poverty line in 1999-2000 is 34.42% (33.52% of males and 35.47% of females) of which the rural population BPL is at 36.35%, (35.55% of males and 37.34% of females) and urban population BPL is at 33.52% (27.68% males and 29.83% females)

LITERACY AND WOMEN

Gender-based discrimination in employment occupation and wages is often attributed to discrimination against women in access to education. In the country has a whole 70% of women,

43% of men 7 years and over were illiterate in 1981. A decade later in 1991, the proportion of illiterates in India declined to 61% and 23% respectively for women and men aged 7 years and over.

There is a close connection between education and development. The relevance of women's education and literacy to social, economic, cultural and political development of the individual's family, community and nation is universally acknowledged. As per 1991 census female literacy rate is 39.42% as compared to 63.86% for males. The number of female illiterates at 197 million is more than male illiterates by 70 million even though the female population is less than the male population by 32 million. Significant regional, rural-urban differences and SC/ST differential compound the female male gaps. The most distressing fact is that 90% illiterate rural female belongs to Schedule Caste and Scheduled Tribes. Since, women were denied access to education. Probably, they are forced to accept low paid work and menial occupations.

Uttar Pradesh is the largest state in India in terms of population comprising 16.2 percent of country's population at 16.62 crores in UP in 2001 census. Only 60 percent of the people are literates. Majority of the people are depending on the agricultural sector. One third of the people are living below poverty line. The state reflect many contrast such as fertile lands, very considerable water sources, good rain fall and massive manpower on the one hand and poverty, unemployment , low income, low productivity and low quality of life, small agricultural land holdings. Most of the industries are technically outdated and financially non-viable.

Though, the percentage of poor was decreased from 57 percent in 1974 to 32 percent in 2001. But the poor people in absolute numbers remains almost same at 5.36 crores in 1974 and 5.30 crores 2000. The main reason of poverty is inadequate employment opportunities. Unemployment rate has increased from 3.7 percent in 1973 to 4.48 percent in 2001. The percentage of self – employed workers felt from 77 percent in 1994 to 69 percent in 2001 and that of regularly employed from 12 percent to 10 percent. This has increased the casual labour from 10 percent to 20 percent during the period. The unemployed and under employment is rather grim. It needs to be talked. The employment guarantee program may be a relief.

The male and female employment rate is much skewed. Nearly 39.6 percent of total male are main workers, only 6 percent are female workers according to 2001 census reports. But female workers have out placed male workers in the case of casual labour. The proportion of main workers to total population is more & less same in rural (23.8%), and urban area (23.5%) but it is declining. The phenomenon of marginal employment is largely to be seen in rural area apparently because of steady fragmentation of land holdings, landlessness, and mechanizations of agriculture and lack of employment opportunities in rural areas.

During the decade 1991-2001, the percentage of total worker as proportion of total population has slightly increased. But composition of workforce indicates decline in the percentage of male workers, while percentage of female workers has increased. In 1991 male worker constituted only 0.31 and female worker at 5 percent of the population.

In table 9, deployment of workers indicates that female workers are dominating the agriculture and household industry. Female cultivators are 36.8 percent where as male cultivators are 52 percent in rural area. Nearly, 44 percent of female labor force is working in agriculture where as male workers are only 24 percent. The Same Trend is continued in urban area also.

Table-8 explains the literacy rate and enrolment. Though, there has been sharp and substantial growth in literacy rate, it is still marked by acute disparities between male and female. Female literacy rate is very low at 43 percent where as male literacy rate at 70 percent. The

enrolment rate of male and female in school is very noticeable. The very low enrollment rate has been registered by the girls.

CONCLUSION

However, it is clear that over the last five decades, female labour force is being dominated by casual wage labour at a much faster rate than of male labour force. Women keep getting in and out of the labour market due to seasonal nature of employment in the agricultural sector. Women seem to act as the reserve army of labour to be employed at peak times on low wages. Wage differentials in male and female workers persist and have become sharper during the recent decades. The rate of increase in agricultural wages for male agricultural workers has been higher compared to women workers.

Theories make a valuable contribution in explaining occupational segregation by sex, for the Indian labour market. However, it is necessary to modify these approaches according to the labour market situation here as they tend to simplify the reality while using standardized occupational classifications. First, casualisation of employment has increased all over the world (Saasken, 1997) and has been a prominent form of hiring in a developing country like India. Therefore, to be able to capture the complexity of gender inequalities in the labour market, the concept has to be diversified, with inclusion of the status of employment in the measurement. Second the structure of the labour market reflects power relations, which cannot be captured by economic theories also. What can be concluded from the theories described here, is that the labour market per se is engendered, having incorporated discrimination within institutions and structures as well as at the individual levels. Till date class effect play a significant role for educational attainment as well as for occupational mobility. These are processes, which at all levels lead to control of womens’ access to quality employment and their labour market performance.

**TABLE-1
SEX RATIO in India**

Census year	Sex Ratio Females per 1000 males
1901	972
1911	964
1921	955
1931	950
1941	945
1951	946
1961	941
1971	930
1981	934
1991	922
2001	933

*Source: Census of India, 2001,
Paper-1 Provisional Population census.*

TABLE – 2

WORK PARTICIPATION IN INDIA – 1971-2001

Year	Total Rural Urban	Persons	Males	Females
1971	Total	34.17	52.75	14.22
	Rural	35.33	53.78	15.92
	Urban	29.61	48.88	7.18
1981	Total	36.70	52.62	19.67
	Rural	38.79	53.22	23.06
	Urban	29.99	49.06	8.31
1991	Total	37.68	51.56	22.73
	Rural	40.24	52.50	27.20
	Urban	30.44	48.95	9.74
2001	Total	39.26	51.93	25.68
	Rural	41.97	52.36	30.98
	Urban	32.23	50.85	11.55

Source: Census of India, 1991, P.11 and Census of India 2001.

Note: (1) 1981 Census excludes Assam and 1991 Census excludes Jammu and Kashmir.

- (2) The 1971 Census figures include workers and non-workers with secondary Work. The 1981 and 1991 census includes main workers and marginal workers.

TABLE – 3
Share of Workers to Total Population in India

Year	Female	Male
1901	31.70	61.10
1911	33.73	61.90
1921	32.67	60.50
1931	27.63	58.30
1951	23.30	54.00
1961	27.96	57.10
1971	11.85	53.80
1981	13.99	51.60
1991	16.02	51.00
2001	33.71	66.29

Source: Statistical Profile of Women Labour Ministry of Labour 1990, Col.4, Census of India, population census 2001.

Note: 1981 and 1991 census does not include Assam and Jammu and Kashmir.

TABLE –4
DISTRIBUTION OF RURAL WORKERS BY OCCUPATION 1981 & 1991 in India

Occupation	1981			1991		
	Persons	Males	Females	Percents	Males	Females
I. Main Workers	34.8	52.6	16.1	35.8	51.9	18.8

(a) Cultivators	51.0	55.2	36.9	48.2	51.4	38.6
(b) Agricultural Labourers	30.1	24.0	50.4	32.2	26.4	49.3
(c) Household Industry	3.1	2.9	3.8	2.2	2.0	2.9
(d) Others	15.9	18.0	8.9	17.5	20.3	9.2
II. Marginal workers	4.0	1.2	7.0	4.3	0.7	8.0
III. Total Workers	38.8	53.8	23..1	40.1	52.6	26.8

Source: Final Population Totals Paper 2 of 1992, Census of India.

Table 5
Percentage Distribution of workers by category of employment in UP

S.No	Category	1972-74	1987-88	1993-94	1999-2000
1	Self Employed	76.68	71.80	71.59	69.36
2	Reglr Employed	12.51	9.76	8.78	10.64
3	Casul Employed	10.71	18.44	19.63	20.00
4	Labor force	3.75	3.73	3.46	4.46

Source: Tenth plan document and statistical dairies of UP

Table 6
Category wise Percentage of Main and Marginal Workers in UP

S.No	Particulars	1981		1991		2001	
		Main workers	Margnl workers	Main workers	Margnl workers	Main workers	Margnl workers
1	Rural	29.71	1.75	30.20	2.79	23.81	10.29
2	Urban	26.99	0.31	26.36	0.57	23.47	3.45
3	Males	50.31	0.45	49.42	0.31	39.58	7.68
4	Females	5.39	2.67	6.64	4.68	6.10	10.18
5	Total	29.22	1.49	29.44	2.35	23.74	8.86

Source: Census of India -2001

Table 7
Gender Wise Enrolment Rate in Education in UP

S.No	Year/ Class	Class 1-5		Class 6-8		Class 9-12	
		Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
1	1991-92	78.45	39.34	30.32	10.66	22.36	5.98
2	2000-01	85.37	48.31	32.37	14.35	24.47	8.71
3	2002-03	95.06	60.98	36.41	18.07	27.73	10.97

Source: Tenth plan document and statistical dairies of UP and UP Human development of Index Report 2001

Table: 8
Literacy Rate of Gender in UP

S.No	State/	1991	2001
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	Year	Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female
1	UP	41.60	55.73	25.31	57.36	70.23	42.98
2	India	52.21	64.13	39.29	65.38	75.85	54.16

Source: Tenth plan document and statistical dairies of UP and UP Human development of Index Report 2001

Table: 9
Status of Occupational Distribution in UP in 2001

S.No	Particulars	Total No of workers(000)	Cultivators	Agri Labor	H Hold Industry	Other Service	Total
1	Rural	44865	48.4	29.3	4.5	17.7	100
A	Male	33.66	52.6	24.1	3.7	19.7	100
B	Female	11799	36.8	43.9	6.9	12.4	100
2	Urban	9315	4.8	5.0	9.1	81.1	100
A	Male	8315	4.8	4.5	7.1	83.6	100
B	Female	1000	4.8	9.1	25.6	60.5	100
3	Total	54180	41.0	25.1	5.3	28.6	100
A	Male	41380	43.0	20.1	4.4	32.5	100
B	Female	12800	34.3	41.2	8.3	16.1	100

Source: Census of India -2001

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