



Work Participation Differentials in Punjab Economy

KEYWORDS

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Introduction

History points out that Punjab – because of its prosperity and strategic location in

North West India attracted many outside invaders and served almost like Gateway of India. The people of this state suffered many wars and invasions – which indirectly influenced its culture also. A natural fall out of war related disgrace through females of the community as also the demand of male workers in agrarian society, the culture of the state adopted both female infanticide and male preference. Subsequently other social vices like exorbitant dowry, gender based violence etc. all contributed in dwindling of female population of the state. In spite of its economic prosperity the state is earning a bad name for its increasing disproportionate masculine composition of population. The declining child sex ratio, in particular, is an eye opener for the Administrators, Implementers, Researchers and Development Practitioners of the State in particular and country in general.

In Punjab, high levels of development did not translate into progress of women. Society remained feudal and women's development abysmal, resulting in a low gender development index. The state, with one of the highest per capita incomes in the country at Rs 18,862, has a much lower sex ratio as compared with less 'developed' Bihar which has a per capita income of only Rs 5531, but a sex ratio of 921. More invisible participation in economic activities, very little representation in the political decision-making bodies, and cumulated. The debate on economic contribution of women to their households and thereby to the society is never ending. The sensitivities of the society and the people, both men and women, have been sharpened in the last two decades since the declaration of 1975 as the International Year for women by United Nations followed by the International decade for women. At the end of two decades, while women may not have attained 'equality' in the full sense of the term in all spheres of Economic, Social and Political activities, the need to empower them and understand their perspective in economic and social development has been realized. At least women have started understanding this.

The increasing participation of women in the work force, the multiple roles of many women as mothers, homemakers and paid workers and misunderstanding of nature of unemployment among women, suggests the usefulness of describing trends and relationships in labour force participation as a background for assessing the employment, occupational structure and the impact of economic growth. For policy purpose also it is very essential to identify the major occupational groups wherein the Women workers are predominantly engaged so that short term and long

term decision can be taken on the sector on which more investment efforts and training for necessary scales among women workers could be concentrated for employment expansion. It is also of fundamental importance to investigate whether and to what extent women workers are primarily concentrated in drudge work of low pay and status, and whether there has been some improvement in their work status during the period of study.

Women work Participation in India-

Women work participation rate in the country as a whole has been significantly lower than that of men..Increase in work participation rate is more in rural than urban areas. Following table reveals that the total work participation has shown an increasing trend from 1981 onwards. It was 23.1 per cent in 1981, improved to 27.2 per cent in 1991 and further improved to 31.0 percent in 2001 and fall in 2011 i.e. 30.0.

Year	Category	Males in per cent	Women in per cent
1981	Total	52.6	19.7
	Rural	53.8	23.1
	Urban	49.1	8.3
1991	Total	51.6	22.7
	Rural	52.5	27.2
	Urban	49.0	9.7
2001	Total	51.9	25.7
	Rural	52.4	31.0
	Urban	50.9	11.6
2011	Total	53.3	25.5
	Rural	53.0	30.0
	Urban	53.8	15.4

This paper is organized as follows: section two provides an overview of description of the methodology and data used in the analysis in section three. The empirical analyses including Granger causality tests are conducted in section four.

2. Review of Literature

Seth (2001) examined women development in India. She observed that after years of development efforts, women share in employment has remained low. Most of the women are mainly marginal workers and are concentrated in rural areas and in the private sector. Similarly, the social situation of women is not good. Women infant mortality rates are even now higher than the males. Their development in nutrition, health and education is less from the boys. Social development is the base to increase the status of women and giving her more share of the development efforts. Women have to realize their strength and they should make efforts to increase their economic and political empowerment.

Raikhy and Mehra (2003) analysed work participation rates, work status and occupational structure of women in 17 states of the country. They observed that Women work participation rate in most of states has been higher in rural areas and the disparities in Women work participation rate have also been higher in rural areas. The policy of liberalization and opening up new type of employment opportunities has lead to only marginal increase in Women employment in non-agricultural occupations. On the other hand there is an increase in casualisation of Women labour. This study stresses the need for deliberate efforts to create Women specific employment opportunities.

Meyer (2005) examined the effects of economic globalization on occupational sex segregation and occupational inequality. A theory of global economic restructuring and its impact on the quality of women's work suggested that national integration into the world economy significantly expanded opportunities for women in the workplace but did not remove barriers to women's advancement or ameliorate the predominance of low-paying, menial jobs held by women. Two measures of gender occupational differentiation were employed as dependent variables in cross-sectional OLS regression analyses of fifty-six countries using data from 1970–1990. Results indicated that global economic forces reduced occupational sex segregation and inequality.

However, these effects were determined by a country's world system position and region. The analyses illustrated that global economic restructuring was a gendered process that transforms and built upon existing gender inequalities. Therefore, the inclusion of global structural characteristics into comparative research on occupational sex differentiation is essential.

Awasthi (2009) studied rural non-farm employment in Uttar Pradesh, he examined that work structure in state is highly gender biased in rural areas as women overwhelmingly work in agricultural related occupation while their main counterparts work in non-farm occupations. Such a low share of Women employment in non-agricultural sector shows a complete dichotomy and segmentation of labour market due to number of socio-economic factors that slow down Women to participate in labour market outside cultivation despite the fact that their literacy levels have to improve over the years. He observed that in the state educational attainment has been a highly facilitating factor for occupational shift towards non farm activities, more so in the case of males. Gender, caste, size and infrastructure seem to have been playing an important role in determining the growth of rural non-farm sector.

Bhatia and Dhindsa (2009) examined that the work participation scenario is changing in case of women workers due to changing living standards and growth of consumerism. More and more women are joining the work force and opt for either jobs or self employment. Women are working because of gross economic necessity, to raise standard of living, to make use of their qualification, to pass their idle time or to earn their livelihood. This article took into consideration three aspects of working women: their social characteristics, working characteristics and how work affects their livelihood and decision making power. Authors found that position of women in society is the true index of its cultural and spiritual attainments. With the beginning of 20th century the women's movement in India had rapidly spread to every corner making definite efforts in the fields of education and health. Education can be used for

empowering women. Now the literacy rate has also increased among women and the participation of women in economic activities, particularly outside the home has also increased. Women can become role model to their children but she can do so only if she has her own place and identity in the family and society.

2. Methodology

Secondary data has been used to analyse work participation rates. Data was taken from Census of India 1981, 1991, 2001 and 2011. Central tendency, tables and graphs has been used to analyse and interpret the participation rates.

Our approach follows Granger (1969) who proposed a time-series data based approach in order to determine causality between economic variables. A question that frequently arises in time series analysis is whether or not one economic variable can help forecast another economic variable. In the Granger-sense therefore, a time series x is a cause of y if it is useful in forecasting y . More precisely, variable X is said to Granger-cause another variable, Y , if the current value of $Y (y_t)$ is conditional on the past values of $X (x_{t-1}, x_{t-2}, \dots, x_0)$ and thus the history of X is likely to help predict Y (Konya, 2004). This refers to causality for one period ahead and is generalized by Dufour and Renault (1998) to causality h periods ahead, and to causality up to horizon h , where h is a positive integer that can be infinite. They show that in a bivariate system no causality for one period ahead implies no-causality at, or up to, any horizon. The advantage of a bivariate system over a trivariate system, (X, Y, Z) is that in the latter case causality between X and Y can arise via the auxiliary variable which needs to be captured using an appropriate methodology. In the trivariate system, X might cause Z one period ahead, which in turn might cause Y at a subsequent period. This indirect, two-period ahead causality might exist even if there is no direct, one-period ahead causality between X and Y . However, if there is no causality between X and Y for two periods ahead then there is no causality between them at, or up to, longer horizons either. This difference between bivariate and trivariate systems implies that they require different strategies to test for causality at horizons beyond one period (Konya, 2004).

The empirical results presented in this paper are based on a pair wise Granger causality test between the variables. There are following sets of bidirectional hypotheses to be tested:

1. Past is not a Granger cause of Future.

Work Participation

In Punjab, women are relatively invisible in workforce statistics. Restrictive definitions of 'work', mostly based on economic concepts of productivity, have reduced women to economic non-entities. This is because women's labour, in most cases does not directly produce marketable goods or services. This gendered notion of work has hugely undermined women's contribution to the economy, resulting in the non recognition of women as important economic entities. Although women work for longer hours and contribute substantially to the family income, quite often they are the major earners as the work performed by them is **non-monetized**; they are not perceived as workers by either the women themselves or by the data collecting agencies and the government itself. This is a resultant of the non-recognition of the multi-dimensional functions which women perform both as productive and reproduc-

tive labour. The causes of low participation rate of women is repeatedly acknowledged in terms of the invisibility of women's work, domestic chores and other tasks which are viewed as part of a cultural/traditional attitude where man is considered as the primary bread-winner.

Table- 1 Work Participation Rate in Punjab and its Districts

State/ District	Districts	Male WPR				Female WPR			
		1981	1991	2001	2011	1981	1991	2001	2011
	PUNJAB	53.76	53.34	54.10	55.15	6.61	6.78	18.70	13.91
1	AMRITSAR	53.97	54.25	53.20	54.49	4.53	6.01	16.30	14.11
2	Bathinda	56.65	56.08	54.90	57.36	10.81	8.02	26.05	22.61
3	Faridkot	55.80	55.51	56.33	56.53	8.81	9.56	23.17	13.82
4	Firozpur	56.06	54.50	53.60	55.65	7.78	7.50	18.50	16.74
5	Gurdaspur	49.68	48.52	51.90	52.58	3.20	7.35	12.70	11.01
6	Hoshiarpur	49.84	49.60	51.00	50.99	6.93	5.53	17.30	11.23
7	Jalandhar	51.21	52.56	54.85	55.09	4.75	5.70	22.65	12.14
8	Kapurthala	52.39	53.73	53.40	55.26	4.34	7.93	14.10	12.50
9	Ludhiana	54.65	54.12	55.90	56.41	5.03	5.38	15.70	14.18
10	Patiala	53.97	51.65	54.60	55.90	4.68	8.13	17.95	11.92
11	Rupnagar	51.88	52.99	53.80	52.91	5.64	5.56	23.80	14.95
12	Sangrur	57.60	55.98	54.90	55.68	8.55	5.68	24.10	10.99

Source- Primary Census Abstract of Punjab; 1981, 1991, 2001 and 2011.

Punjab has the lowest female workforce participation rate in the country. The majority of women are included in the category of non-workers, which is evidence of the invisibility of women's workers. According to census of Punjab in 2011, work participation of males is 55.15 percent and 13.91 of female workers. Highest female work participation is in Bathinda i.e. 22.61 and Sangrur has lowest female work participation i.e. 10.99. Almost in each district female work participation has decreased and gender gap has also increased.

Pair wise Granger Causality Test

Table-8 portrays the findings of granger Causality test. In all cases the probability value given in the table for all the variables and in all the cases has been observed greater than 0.05 thus null hypotheses get accepted in all the cases.

Table-2 Pairwise Granger Causality Tests			
Sample: 1 13			
Lags: 1			
Null Hypothesis:	Obs	F-Statistic	Probability
1981 does not Granger Cause 1991	12	3.15896	0.10923
1981 does not Granger Cause 2001	12	0.06709	0.80145

1981 does not Granger Cause 2011	12	0.1731	0.68711
1991 does not Granger Cause 2001	12	0.01444	0.907
1991 does not Granger Cause 2011	12	0.51305	0.49199
2001 does not Granger Cause 2011	12	0.07492	0.79048

Rural - urban differentials in work participation rate

Following Table show that the inter-district disparities for rural males were lower than for rural females. In the rural areas, more women participated in the low paying menial works. In other words, the participation of women workers is higher in rural areas than the urban areas. The male WPR in urban areas varies from 57.64% in Fatehgarh Sahib to 51.56% in Rupnagar. While male WPR in rural areas varies from 59.57% in Patiala to 50.43% in Hosiarpur. In other words, WPR is high in both urban as well as rural areas. On the contrary, the WPR of women is higher in rural areas (14.34%) as compare to urban (13.18%) areas. Many research studies have shown that women in rural areas are engaged in agricultural activities hence their participation is high in villages. This is validated by the fact that women WPR in rural areas is highest in rural areas than the urban areas and gap between rural and urban work participation is very high.

TABLE-3

Name	URBAN		RURAL		Urban	Rural
	MWPR	FWPR	MWPR	FWPR	Gender gap	Gender gap
PUNJAB	55.51	13.18	54.94	14.34	42.32	40.60
Gurdaspur	54.42	11.80	51.82	10.70	42.63	41.12
Kapurthala	56.01	14.31	54.85	11.57	41.70	43.28
Jalandhar	56.43	14.06	55.15	11.59	42.37	43.56
Hoshiarpur	53.01	13.79	50.43	10.56	39.22	39.87
Shahid Bhagat Singh Nagar	53.61	10.98	54.54	11.50	42.63	43.03
Fatehgarh Sahib	57.64	10.17	56.67	12.02	47.47	44.66
Ludhiana	56.79	12.68	55.85	16.29	44.10	39.56
Moga	56.10	16.01	55.44	13.69	40.09	41.76
Firozpur	54.99	11.04	55.91	18.83	43.95	37.07
Muktsar	55.29	11.04	58.13	16.10	44.25	42.03
Faridkot	55.84	12.18	57.09	12.75	43.67	44.34
Bathinda	55.94	13.13	59.57	20.91	42.81	38.66
Mansa	54.26	14.64	57.04	30.46	39.63	26.58
Patiala	54.45	14.78	55.08	10.77	39.66	44.32
Amritsar	56.61	14.77	54.78	16.50	41.83	38.28
Tarn Taran	52.60	11.05	53.31	12.88	41.55	40.43
Rupnagar	51.56	11.56	52.54	15.25	40.00	37.29

Sahibzada Ajit Singh Nagar	52.80	16.43	54.43	14.59	36.37	39.84
Sangrur	54.42	9.69	55.63	11.25	44.73	44.38
Barnala	55.78	10.88	56.27	11.37	44.90	44.90

Conclusion

The participation of women in Punjab was less as compared to their male counterpart and it varied from one region to another. The major finding of the paper is that the WPR of women is not increasing with the rise in level of education. There was no single district with higher WPR of women than the male. This means, in Indian society, male gives less priority to their women. Participation of women in the rural sector is always larger than the male members of the society. This is because of the low mobility of women from the villages, due to religious and social restriction. On the supply side, reproductive work and domestic roles prove to be significant variables in influencing female labour force participation. If the trend continues for some more time, there will be serious repercussion to the society we left for generations to come. First, it is believed that high level of education and vocational training for women workers is necessary for improving their level of productivity and enabling them to move into non-agricultural sectors. Second, women should be given autonomy and freedom to move, and to join self-help groups, affects their ability to access resources and improve productivity. Third, it is evident that women are regarded as the peripheral producers and marginal recipients of the benefits of government programmes and from development and credit institutions. So, there is a strong need for a gender sensitive agricultural strategy which strengthens the role of women workers in the agriculture. In the short run, it is necessary to recognize the productive work done by the women, reduce the discrimination against them by legislations on equal pay and equal job opportunities and create more jobs specially suited to their skills and needs.

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