

## A CASE STUDY ON THE WORKING CONDITIONS OF WOMEN WORKERS



KUMARI RANI

*M.Phil., Roll No. 150147, Session: 2015-16*

*Department of Economics, B.R.A. Bihar University, Muzaffarpur, India*

*vijaykumaranand@gmail.com*

### ABSTRACT

The situation of women and the policies that aim to improve their employment and standard of living need to be viewed in the overarching context of the deteriorating conditions of rural workers, in particular the conditions of landless and near-landless rural households. This is because the conditions of these workers and households are directly related to the conditions of women. Emerging monetarist state policies are leading to the breakdown entailment of social services, the food and agriculture crisis, especially in Africa, and the increased concentration of the poor in the informal sector, which is characterized by incomes that are erratic and unpredictable. All of these factors are having a dramatic impact on the situation in rural areas of developing countries. Low salaries, high unemployment, and deplorable living circumstances are all too often occurrences in the lives of people of both sexes.

**keywords:** Women, Working, Conditions

### INTRODUCTION

The situation of women and the policies that aim to improve their employment and standard of living need to be viewed in the overarching context of the deteriorating conditions of rural workers, in particular the conditions of landless and near-landless rural households. This is because the conditions of these workers and households are directly related to the conditions of women. Emerging monetarist state policies are leading to the breakdown entailment of social services, the food and agriculture crisis, especially in Africa, and the increased concentration

of the poor in the informal sector, which is characterised by incomes that are erratic and unpredictable. All of these factors are having a dramatic impact on the situation in rural areas of developing countries. Low salaries, high unemployment, and deplorable living circumstances are all too often occurrences in the lives of people of both sexes. At the same time, in most of these countries, women experience the harshest repercussions of poverty and exploitation. This is because women suffer from a triple oppression, based on sex, class, and race. Consequently, they carry the brunt of the negative effects of poverty and exploitation. According to an article that was published in an Indian feminist magazine called "Manushi," "the traditions built into male-dominated society force women to think that virtue lies in self-sacrifice," which can "lead to the slow starvation of the woman when the family is living at a bare subsistence level," Traditional patterns of family life are becoming more difficult to maintain as a consequence of the decline in living conditions that have occurred in rural communities. The stresses of extreme poverty often lead to the breakdown of the household as a unit. This results in the male members of the family being forced to migrate in search of paid employment, while the female members of the family stay behind to head the households, which are comprised primarily of elderly people and children (1). If the male members of the family have left the country in search of cash employment (without necessarily sending back remittances), or if the male members of the family have lost their jobs as a result of the adoption of capital-intensive farming techniques, women are increasingly being forced by economic circumstances to seek wage employment outside the home and for to undertake home-based income-generating activities. This can be the case either because the male members of the family have left the country in search of cash employment (without necessarily sending back remittances) or because the male members of the family have lost their jobs as a result of the adoption of capital-intensive farming techniques. In many regions, not just fana artisanal rural crafts but also non-fana rural crafts have deteriorated as a result of competition from factory-made items, which has also had an effect on male and female employment. In women's attempts to provide for the well-being of their families, persistent emotional anguish may be a potent motivator, even to the point of prompting them to go against the cultural grain and seek employment outside the house. Low salaries and exploitative working conditions are the result of the broad availability of a large pool of female labour, which has been reinforced by women from impoverished craft classes. The low salaries earned by women have, in certain situations, led landowners to decide against mechanising work that is traditionally carried out by women. According to reports, agriculture is growing more reliant on low-paid female labour in many regions of the globe. Rural women face a number of obstacles in the workplace, including limited access to land and other

resources; a lack of control over their own labour and the fruits of their labour; and a lack of mobility as a result of social and cultural restrictions as well as the responsibility that rural women bear for the survival and subsistence of their families. Among other things, these obstacles include: limited access to land and related resources; lack of control over their own labour and the fruits of their labour; and lack of control over their own labour and the fruits of their labour. While it is true that a significant number of men also experience the first two barriers, it is widely acknowledged that women's employment opportunities are more limited than those of males due to cultural and other barriers that restrict their mobility and choice of job (2).

### **FEMALE WORKERS IN THE RUMI SECTOR**

Although statistics on the percentage of women either among the total agricultural labour force or under each category of worker are not easily accessible for all countries, there is evidence from case studies that in many countries, women constitute an important component of the agricultural workforce and are the primary providers of food. This is the case even though statistics on this topic are not readily available. The disparity between official statistics and the reality of the situation can be illustrated by the example of Egypt. The 1960 census counted women as only 4% of the total agricultural labour force in Egypt; however, a detailed rural record survey indicated that approximately 25% of the non-domestic productive work in farm households was done by women. This exemplifies the contrast between official statistics and the reality of the situation (1). It should come as no surprise that official figures substantially underestimate the contribution that women make to the economy. Studies conducted in a number of other nations provide similar evidence to support the assertion that rural women play a significant role in agricultural and food production. This involvement can take place either in the fields or within the confines of the compound, depending on the level of women's isolation. Their contribution to agricultural operations is significant not only in terms of food crops, but also in terms of nonfood commercial crops that are labor-intensive and do not necessarily require the use of mechanical implements. This is the case regardless of whether the crops are grown for food or for commercial purposes. An international inter-agency mission on rural women's participation in development in the Syrian Arab Republic, for example, found that women have major responsibilities, particularly for planting, sowing, harvesting, threshing, hoeing, ploughing, and the grading and sorting of produce. Young girls in particular did almost all of the work during the peak agricultural seasons. It was discovered that the burden of women has increased even more as a direct result of the protracted absence of adult

males, many of whom have left rural regions in pursuit of jobs in cities or in other countries (2). Aside from the significant role that women play in the economy of subsistence, they also play paid jobs in the agricultural sector, for which they are often reimbursed in kind but sometimes also get monetary payment. A rise in the number of people without access to land has led to an increase in the incidence of women seeking employment outside the context of the family farm. Because an increasing number of rural families are finding themselves without any ownership or use rights in land, the demand for cash income within the family is growing. As a result, both men and women are being compelled to contract themselves out as seasonal and temporary labourers. The average income for a woman is between 40 and 60 percent of what a man makes, and they are often assigned more labor-intensive jobs, such as weeding, transplanting, and harvesting. In addition to working as seasonal and casual labourers in agriculture in general, women also work on plantations, either as members of the family of a plantation worker or as labourers in their own right. This is in addition to the fact that women work in agriculture in general as seasonal and casual labourers. Contracts are often negotiated with the male head of the family on plantations in countries such as India, Malaysia, and Sri Lanka. The male head of the family is usually obliged to contribute the labour of his wife and children as part of the terms of the contract. According to the findings of a recent research on the working conditions of plantations in Malaysia, women make up at least half of the workforce on rubber plantations (1). They are mostly engaged in the activities of tapping and weeding, with the assistance of their children. The amount of money they make, which is included in as a "family" income, varies according on the state of the weather (rubber tapping is impossible on rainy days, which are frequent during monsoons). Women's employment, which is frequently of a casual nature, is being adversely affected by the declining international demand for rubber and the trend that has resulted from this, which is the conversion of rubber estates into oil-palm holdings, where the labour requirements are much lower. This has a negative impact on the employment opportunities available to women. As a result of a decrease in overall demand for labour, it has been stated that female plantation workers all over the globe are dealing with major job challenges as a direct consequence of this trend. Plantations are increasingly able to sustain or even increase their productivity as a result of technological breakthroughs in field operations. These developments are allowing plantations to do so with fewer permanent staff. A portion of the labour in the field involves being semi-skilled, which necessitates receiving instruction in the operation of machinery, which is often exclusively given to men. On some of the plantations, it seems that positions are classified according to a

person's gender, with women being allocated to tasks that pay less and have harsher working conditions than other jobs. On the coffee fields of Sao Paulo, for instance, women are said to be given preference for the occupations that require the greatest physical labour and are compensated on a piecework basis. Again, this trend can be seen in Brazil, where women are increasingly being hired exclusively for temporary or part-time jobs.

### **SOCIETAL PERSPECTIVE ON WOMEN**

When compared to males, women are more likely to do dangerous physical labour in lower socioeconomic levels of society. According to Vijaya Raj (2016), more than half of the labour in India's agricultural sector is carried out by women. Men are still often seen as the "bread winners" in society. The psychological training that women are less capable than males is something that is handed down from one generation to the next.

Another effect of being socially conditioned is that males, whether in their roles as fathers, brothers, or husbands, see women primarily as the socioeconomic gift that they bring to their households. The worth of a woman is evaluated less in terms of her value as a person who has rights and dignity and more in terms of the usefulness she provides to a man.

The connection of rural roads is essential to rural development, as well as to the reduction of poverty in a sustainable manner and to inclusive growth. Increased connection facilitates access to economic opportunities and social services, which in turn influences the amount of work done in non-agricultural and agricultural sectors. It causes an increase in the number of development possibilities and real incomes available in rural areas, which helps lift people living in such areas out of poverty and disadvantage. The government of India is aware of how important it is to link rural areas to the rest of the country and has developed a detailed strategy to do so. On the basis of the policies that were formed, the objectives that were set, and the finances that were provided under multiple five-year plans, a long-term plan for the development of roads was developed. The Rural Road Development Plan: Vision 2025 was developed by the Ministry of Rural Development (MORD) with the intention of serving as a blueprint for the development and construction of high-quality road infrastructure by state governments. Following this, a think tank known as the National Rural Road Development Committee was established with the purpose of calculating the total length of roads that need to be built, as well as the detailed specifications for their construction, the amount of money that will be required, and the implementation mechanism that will be used. The Pradhan Mantri

Gram Sadak Yojana (PMGSY) is a specialised rural road development programme that was conceived of and introduced as a national flagship programme on December 25, 2000.<sup>1</sup> The National Rural Infrastructure Development Agency (NRIDA) was in charge of coordinating the PMGSY programme under the aegis of the Ministry of Rural Development (MORD), which is the government at the apex, and the State Rural Road Development Authority or agencies at the state level. <sup>2</sup> The goal of the programme is to provide all-weather road connection to qualified disconnected habitations in rural regions with populations of at least 500 people in plain areas, 250 people or more in hill states, desert areas, and tribal territories, so that these communities may participate in the programme. <sup>3</sup> MORD devised a criteria in order to maximise the beneficial effects of the programme. According to this criterion, priority is given to habitations that have a greater population, and gradually, over the course of time, programme advantages are extended to encompass habitations with a smaller population.

Agriculture is at the heart of the economy of the nations that make up the Middle East and North Africa (MENA), and women play crucial roles in almost every aspect of the manufacturing process. Relationships between the sexes are essential to comprehending the structure of agricultural labour both inside the home and outside, the administration of resources such as land, finances, labour, and equipment, and the method by which choices are arrived at. If there is not a genuine concerted effort made by committed government and development agencies to work towards gender equality and women's empowerment, then the potential for sustainable development and the reduction of poverty through social and economic growth will not be reached. These goals cannot be accomplished. This article seeks to answer the question, "How can we secure the empowerment of women and gender equality in the rural labour force via appropriate and equitable agricultural employment?" The answer to this question will be presented in the next section. To put it another way, how may the involvement of women in agricultural production and processing contribute more effectively to the goals of reducing poverty and fostering economic growth? Women in MENA work in agriculture, in their families' businesses, and in wage labour, but they lack influence over the majority of the region's resources and other possibilities. As a result, their contribution to the expansion of agriculture as well as to wider economic and social growth is restricted. It would be to each country's advantage to work towards the empowerment of women and to reduce the gender inequalities if they wanted to see reductions in poverty and advances in economic growth. Food security is one of the most essential goals in these nations, particularly given the high pace of population increase and the youthful nature of these populations, who rely mostly

on agriculture. This is one of the reasons why these countries are home to so many young people. On the other hand, the regional national governments still have a poor awareness of the gender disparities that currently exist.

## **LITERATURE REVIEW**

Jaskaran Singh (2019) It is necessary for the growth of an economy for there to be a significant amount of engagement from women in the socio-economic, political, and cultural structures that make up the society. It is a fact that the economies that switched their surplus labour from the agricultural sector to the industrial and service sector growth were the ones that had utilised the expansion of the agricultural sector as a foundation for their development route towards the expansion of the industrial sector. When it comes to the employment of rural women, Punjab tells a different narrative. Following the green revolution, the state saw significant increases in agricultural production. However, this success in agriculture did not help in terms of female engagement in economic activities, and even the amazing expansion that the agricultural sector had up to the 1980s brought about a steep fall in the number of women who worked on farms. In the nineties, when major economic reforms were introduced in the economy of India, a major sectoral shift was noticed in employment, which brought about a rapid shrinkage in the number of agricultural workers in the state. As a result of this shift, the number of agricultural workers in the state decreased. The data from the Census of 2011 provide a bleak picture of the state of gender equality in terms of employment participation in Punjab. The state of Punjab made little progress towards its goal of providing women with equal job opportunities. The high mechanisation of agriculture combined with the slow expansion of non-agricultural industries has made it more difficult for women to find work in the workforce. To protect the socioeconomic interests of women in the state, the time has come to develop a plan for the development of jobs that takes into account gender differences.

Radhika Kapur (2019) In rural areas, the status of women is not acknowledged to the same extent as it is in urban areas. In certain places, they are subjected to unequal treatment when compared to their male counterparts in terms of employment opportunities. They are denied of some rights and opportunities, and in exchange, they are expected to give their whole attention and effort to the execution of their obligations inside the home. There are now initiatives, organisations, and plans in place that promote the idea that women and men should be treated on an equal footing in today's society. Their birth must to be honoured, and they must be

provided with equal rights and opportunities, in particular with respect to the attainment of education and work. There has been a shift in the attitudes and points of view held by people living in rural areas, and as a result, they now provide equal status to girls and women. The socioeconomic status of rural women, the participation of women in the labour force, the factors that impose detrimental effects upon the status of women, and the measures that can be taken to improve the status of rural women are the primary areas that have been taken into consideration in this research chapter.

Sunita Reddy (2016) The rise of the building sector has been helped along by persistent urbanisation in Delhi, as it has been in the majority of other metropolitan cities. As people move to the city in quest of better economic opportunities, the majority of unskilled and semi-skilled workers find their way into this business. However, migration from rural areas to urban centres in quest of improved working and living situations is like chasing a mirage. Despite the fact that living in locations of destination like Delhi is sometimes difficult, pitiful, and awful, migration persists. This is because the place of origin is far more deplorable, since even basic existence is not guaranteed there. This is captured in the current article via the experiences of 500 migrant women workers who were involved in construction work in nine different districts of Delhi. They moved within the last 40 years, the most of them coming from the neighbouring states of Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Bihar, Orissa, and West Bengal. About eighty percent of them are members of the Scheduled Caste and work as landless farm workers. They left their homes because it was impossible for them to survive there, and so they came to Delhi with hopes, goals, and aspirations. This article also discusses the significance of facilitating the development of workers' skills and the role of social protection by making it easier for construction workers to register with the state and receive the benefits provided by laws such as the "Building and Other Construction Workers Act, 1996" and the "Building and Other Construction Workers' Welfare CESS Act, 1996." Both of these pieces of legislation were passed in 1996. There is a substantial amount of money available for the wellbeing of employees; but, since there is not sufficient clear strategy, dedication, or sensitivity to utilise this resource for the welfare of workers, it remains underused. Slums are home to the vast majority of migratory women labourers. Their existence in Delhi is just as difficult as it was in their home country, with the exception of the fact that they have managed to accumulate a few possessions; many of the ladies have to work very hard in order to make ends meet.



Manisha Raj (2015) Women make up approximately half of India's population, and their contributions to the country's economy, both direct and indirect, are critical to understanding the country's overall health. Since the beginning of time, the vast majority of their contributions to the economy have been ignored, and their few services have been taken for granted. It is high time that we recognise the role that women fraternity plays in the expansion of an economy and take the necessary steps to involve the rural uneducated females in the expansion process simultaneously along with the urban uneducated as well as educated females. It is also high time that we recognise the role that women fraternity plays in the expansion of an economy. In general, it has been seen that females are more active in small-scale business operations as entrepreneurs. However, with the passage of time, a shift has been detected, and they are migrating towards the IT/ITES, apparel/accessories, and food & beverage industries. Additionally, wage employment was typically seen in the agricultural sector, but today the service and industrial sectors are seeing an increase in the number of female employees. The government has developed a number of strategies in an effort to expand the roles that women play and the contributions they make.

### **RESEARCH METHALOGY**

It is essential to have information on the socio-economic profile of the women who work in the unorganised sector as well as their families in order to be able to evaluate their quality of life and define their living standards. In light of this, the current research gathered data on a number of socioeconomic variables, including personal information, family history, religion and caste background, educational levels, and the economic position of women employees, as well as other pertinent information. The socio-economic characteristics of women who work in the unorganised Sector is the topic that will be discussed in depth throughout this chapter. It's possible that doing some research on the socioeconomic backgrounds of the unorganised women employees may lead to some intriguing findings.

**Table 1 Distribution Of Women Workers By Age And Regions**

Age Group	Overall	North					
		East	South	North	East	Central	West
18-25	16.1	21.5	20.9	11.6	13.4	15.8	21.5

26-30	23.2	20.7	25.1	20.9	26.8	22.9	20.7
31-35	21.6	16.7	15.5	31.1	18.9	21.7	16.7
36-40	20.8	24.7	18.4	23.2	24.4	19.8	24.7
41-50	13.4	13.9	12.9	10.3	12.2	14.6	13.9
51-60	3.9	2.4	4.0	2.3	4.3	4.3	2.4
Above 60 years age	1.0	0.0	2.0	1.0	0.0	1.0	0.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

**CASTE OF THE WOMEN WORKERS**

In terms of the distribution of castes among working women, around 38.88% are classified as belonging to an OBC, followed by 29.78% from the General category, 21.72 % from the SC caste, and almost 10% from the ST caste (Table 2). It has been discovered that the proportion of SCs in the North and South is greater than in the other four areas, coming in at 24.20 and 28.30 percent respectively. This is a significant difference from the other four regions. As was to be predicted, the percentage of people who identify as STs is greatest in the North-East area (15.20%), followed by the East (12.10%) and then the West (11.60%).

**Table 2 Distribution Of Women Workers By Marital Status**

<b>Status</b>	<b>Overall</b>	<b>North East</b>	<b>South</b>	<b>North</b>	<b>East</b>	<b>Central</b>	<b>West</b>
<b>Married</b>	76.10	73.00	72.60	65.80	70.40	78.30	81.70
<b>Un-married</b>	20.10	23.10	23.00	30.80	25.25	18.45	15.08
<b>Widowed</b>	1.40	1.10	1.20	1.70	1.40	1.30	1.50

<b>Divorced</b>	1.80	2.50	1.60	1.00	2.50	1.70	1.40
<b>Deserted</b>	0.60	0.30	1.60	0.70	0.45	0.25	0.32
<b>Total</b>	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

There is a correlation between the size of a family and its economic level, as well as the amount of housework that falls on the shoulders of working women. When there are many people living in a household, but only one or two of them are earning a living wage, and the rest of the people in the household are either jobless, elderly, or children, this may put a significant strain on the family's finances. The results of the survey indicate that, on average, there are 5.6 people living in each home, which accounts for 36.70% of all households (Table 3.6). The proportion is quite close to being the same in all of the areas. The percentage of households that include seven people or more ranges from 11.30 percent in the North to the maximum level of 16.21 percent in the West. The percentage of homes that have three to four people living in them is found to be greatest in the north, at 50.70 percent, and lowest in the south, at 42.20 percent. The percentage of households consisting of just one or two people ranges from 2.4 to 5.1 percent throughout the areas. If more children are the source of a big family size, then this points to a lack of knowledge of the need of family planning on the part of working women and the men who are married to them. It is necessary, as a result, not only to educate women and their husbands about the various methods of family planning, but also to encourage them to make use of those methods in order to have smaller families, which is beneficial for the well-being of both the individual household and the nation as a whole.

#### **DATA ANALYSIS**

In the unorganised sector, women may be found working in almost every industry imaginable, including agriculture, forestry, fishing, plantation management, construction, retail, bead making, bangle making, ceramics, embroidery, and stitching, to name just a few. The majority of the women either work as day labourers in agriculture, construction, brick manufacturing, or coir production; or they work as independent contractors in handloom weaving, basket weaving, and selling fish or vegetables. Some of the more recent economic endeavours include floriculture, the raising of poultry and animals, the production of garments, the processing of food and fish, etc. In fisheries, both marine and inland, women predominate in the activity of handling and processing fish, accounting for around 70 percent of the workforce. In the brassware business, women make up 50 percent of the overall

labour. There are around 50 lakhs scrap collectors in the nation, according to the most recent estimates. People who are unable to read or write, have no skills, and come from the lowest of the poor are forced into this vocation. Beedi rolling is a significant source of income for many women; nonetheless, the work is low-paying and precarious, and it may have negative effects on one's health. It is estimated that there are 4.5 million women employed in the beedi industry in India, which accounts for 80% of the total workforce. In many primary food processing locations, a significant amount of the work is done by women using traditional methods. This accounts for a major share of the food processing that occurs in the unorganised sector. In addition, the informal or unorganised service sector is growing, which is leading to a significant increase in the number of options available to women. The fields of domestic service, education (including in-home tutoring), childcare, and health services have all seen significant increases in job prospects.

### **AGRICULTURE, DAIRY FARMING AND FORESTRY**

There was once a period when agriculture was the principal source of work for both men and women. This was true in both the United States and other countries. However, over the course of time, the proportion of male workers has decreased because men have left agriculture in search of better opportunities and wages, leaving behind women who have no choice but to work in agriculture if and when they are able to find work. This has left women in a position where they are more likely to be exploited by their employers. The fact that a woman only works for an average of three and a half months out of the calendar year is indicative of the extreme under-employment that exists in the agricultural industry. Due to a lack of access to these technologies as well as the associated skills, women have been badly affected by the advent of capital-intensive technologies. These technological innovations have intensified the discriminatory division of labour in agriculture, in which men take on the mechanical functions such as operating the tractor and spraying insecticides, etc., and women are wholly or partially confined to the more strenuous physical tasks such as weeding, harvesting, and threshing, etc. Generally speaking, men perform the mechanical functions in agriculture, and women perform the more strenuous physical tasks. Specifically, men operate the tractor and spray insecticides.

This kind of strenuous physical labour causes persistent skeletal and muscular difficulties, which are a large part of the health-related concerns that need to be treated as soon as possible. In addition to the insufficient number of available working days, there are a number of other factors that contribute to the inability of women to maintain a consistent work schedule. These factors include "ill health," "lack of support for child care," "health problems of kids and

members of the family," "care of elders," "household duties," and "child birth." (2004) According to Thesia Women who have small children sometimes find it challenging to juggle their professional responsibilities with those of caring for their children, which in turn reduces the number of chances they have to earn money and the number of days they can spend working.

**DISRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY OCCUPATION ACROSS REGIONS:**

The total sample distribution of female employees is shown in Table 3 as well as the distribution of female workers in agriculture and non-agriculture, as well as the classifications of female workers within these two major groupings among regions. In general, the regions in the North and West with the largest percentages of working women are those located in the North and West, followed by the South (18.8%), East (16.2%), and Central (12.3%), and the North-East, which has the lowest proportion of working women, respectively (9.1 per cent) It has been discovered that the percentage of "own account employees" and "casual labour" employed in agriculture is much higher than average, ranging between 18 and 21 percent in the North, East, and West. In the other areas, such as the NorthEast, South, and Central, the percentage ranges anywhere from 10.9 to 16.2 percent. It is stated that the percentage of women who are employers in fields other than agriculture is between 18 and 23 percent in the east, north, and west. In the remaining areas, it ranges from a low of 4.2 percent in the Central to a high of 12.5 percent in the South. The percentage of women working as helpers in HH companies is largest in the West (26.2%), followed by the West (24.5%). The percentage of women working in this capacity is lowest in the North-East, and it ranges between 13 and 16 percent in the North, Central, and East. This group is identified as being the most troubled since they are the employees who get the least amount of compensation in relation to the quantity of labour that they do.

**Table 3 Distribution Of Unorganized Woman Workers By Occupation And Region ( Per Cent)**

**A CASE STUDY ON THE WORKING CONDITIONS OF WOMEN WORKERS**

		Agriculture		Non Agriculture			
		Working as own Account worker/ casual labour	Employer	Working as own account worker	Working as helper in H enterprises	Working as regular salaried/wage employee	Working as Casual labour
North	22.1	18.7	23.6	19.3	12.6	36.4	8.6
Central	12.3	12.9	4.2	13.8	15.6	7.4	21.4
East	16.2	21.4	30.4	15.4	14.9	12.1	16.5
West	21.6	19.8	18.3	22.4	24.5	20.8	9.5
South	18.8	16.2	12.5	21.5	26.2	12.0	30.8
North East	9.1	10.9	10.9	7.6	6.1	11.2	13.2
Total	100.0	22.0	1.7	37.1	15.1	23.0	1.0

According to the available data, about 22.0 percent of the women working in the unorganised sector are employed in agricultural labour. The remaining 78% of them are engaged in labour that is not related to agriculture. Within the realm of non-agricultural work, approximately 37.1 percent of women are employed as workers on their own account, followed by 23.0 percent of women who are employed as regular salaried employees, 15.1 percent of women who are employed as helpers in domestic enterprises (without salary or wages), and only 1.7 of them are employed as employers. Because of the consistent nature of their work and the reliability with which they are paid, regular salaried and wage workers are often seen as being in a better financial position than those in the other categories. The percentage of employees fitting this description is greatest in the North (36.4%), followed by the West (20.8%) among all areas. In

the other parts of the country, it ranges from a low of 7.4 percent in the Central area to a high of 12 percent in both the East and the south. Casual employees are also dissatisfied with their jobs, do not get the compensation they are owed, and are a particularly exploited group, particularly women, who continue to be at a disadvantage for being low-end workers with little to no skills that may provide them negotiating strength. The region with the biggest concentration of these employees has been found to be the South (30.8%), followed by the Central region (21.4%), while the other regions have between 8.6% and 16.5 percent. The following analysis will be broken up into two sections for your convenience. The first half of this study discusses employment in relation to a variety of socioeconomic factors, while the second portion discusses income in relation to a variety of socioeconomic factors.

**DISRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY OCCUPATION & INCOME:**

It was discovered that the income of women employees varied depending on the profession, and that overall, around 29 percent receive a meagre income of up to Rs. 2,000/- a month, and that 60 percent make between Rs. 2,001/- and Rs. 5,000/- per month. Only 11.3% of women have a monthly income of between 7000 rupees and 10,000 rupees. Only 2.5 percent of workers bring in more over Rs.10001 a month in income (Table 4). Regarding the monthly revenue received by own account workers or casual workers in agriculture, a pattern that is almost identical to the one seen was found. Also in the non-agricultural sector, women workers earning up to Rs. 2,000/- make up between 24 percent of women who work as employers and 32.2 percent of women who work as regular paid or wage employees. In a same vein, around sixty percent of women from all other categories earn between two thousand and seven thousand rupees per month. The remaining about twenty percent of women have monthly earnings that are more than Rs. 7001–.

**Table 4. Distribution Of Unorganized Woman Workers By Occupation And Monthly Income Group ( Per Cent)**

		Agriculture	Non Agriculture			
		Working as own Acccout		Working as own account worker	Working as helper in	Working as regular

**A CASE STUDY ON THE WORKING CONDITIONS OF WOMEN WORKERS**

Monthly Income Group	Overall	worker/casual labour	Employer		H H enterprises	salaried/wage employee	Working as Casual labour
Upto 2000	29.1	27.2	24.0	29.2	28.1	32.2	25.4
2001 to 3000	28.7	28.0	31.2	28.8	27.6	29.9	28.6
3001 to 5000	22.2	23.6	22.7	22.4	23.1	19.8	23.5
5001 to 7000	11.3	12.2	11.6	10.9	11.8	10.7	13.8
7001 to 10000	6.2	6.5	6.4	6.4	6.7	5.4	6.5
10001 to 15000	1.8	1.9	3.2	1.7	1.9	1.4	1.9
15001 to 20000.	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.4	0.3
20001 & above .	0.3	0.2	0.8	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

**CONCLUSION**

There are a multitude of challenges that women who work in the unorganised sector have to contend with. Women in the workforce confront a number of significant challenges and limitations linked to their jobs, including a lack of continuity, instability, pay discrimination, bad working relationships, and an absence of medical and accident care, amongst other issues. It is common practise to abuse female labourers in both rural and urban settings, and this exploitation may take either a horizontal or vertical form. It is time to confront the problems and have a conversation about the kind of policy reforms and institutional changes that are necessary for the liberation and empowerment of rural women who work in the labour force. The working conditions and living conditions of women who are employed in the unorganised sector are interdependent and cannot be separated. Poor working conditions are the



consequence of inadequate infrastructure and a lack of fundamental services. It is very necessary to make changes and improvements to the working conditions of the women who are employed in the unorganised sector.

## **REFRRENCES**

1. Chaudhary, M. & Gupta, M. (2010). Gender Equality in Indian Hotel Industry –a study of perception of male and female employees. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Systems*, Vol. 3 Issue 1.
2. Lahiri-Dutt, K. Roles and Status of Women in Extractive Industries in India: Making aPlace for a Gender Sensitive Mining Development.
3. Mohapatra, D. (2015). Female Workers in the Unorganised Sector in India. *International Conference on Studies in Humanities and Social Sciences (ICSHSS'15 )* Mohapatra, K.K. (2012). Women Workers in Informal Sector in India: Understanding the Occupational Vulnerability. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, Vol. 2 No. 21.
4. Patel, R. & Pitroda, J. (2016). The Role of Women in Construction Industry: An Indian Perspective. *Indian Journal of Technical Education (IJTE)*.
5. Paul G.D., B, Datta, S. & Murthy R., V. (2011). Working and Living Condition of Women Domestic Workers: Evidences from Mumbai. Adecco TISS Labour Market Research Initiatives (ATLMRI), Discussion Paper 13.
6. Thresia, C.U. (2004). Women Workers in Agriculture: Gender discrimination, workingCondition, and health status.
7. Sakthivel, S., & Joddar, P. (2006). Unorganised Sector Workforce in India: Trends, Patterns and Social Security Coverage. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 41(21), 2107- 2114. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/4418266>
8. Anjaria, J.S. (2006). Street Hawkers and Public Space in Mumbai. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 2140-2146.

9. Arya, S.P. (1988). Social Movement-A Conceptual View. In Srivastava, S.K. & Srivastava, A.L. (Eds), Social Movements for Development (pp. 17-27). Allahabad:Chugh Publications.
10. Bhowmik, S.K. (2010). Street Vendors in the Global Urban Economy, New Delhi: Routledge. Blackett, A.( 2000). Making Domestic Work Visible: The Case for Specific Regulation ILO, Geneva. [http://www.ilo.org/public/english/dialogue/ifpdial/publ/infocus/domestic/4\\_2.htm](http://www.ilo.org/public/english/dialogue/ifpdial/publ/infocus/domestic/4_2.htm) Carr, M., & Chen, Martha A. (2002). Globalisation and the Informal Economy: How Global Trade and Investment Impact on the Working Poor. Boston: WEIGO.
11. Chant, S., & Pedwell, C. (2008). Women, Gender and the Informal Economy: An Assessment of ILO Research and Suggested Ways Forward.
12. Clawson, D. (2003). The Next Upsurge: Labour and the New Social Movements Ithaca: Cornell University Press.