

# **Organized Informalisation and Nature of Work status of women in India and West Bengal**

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**ABSTRACT:** The shrinking of the organized sector has been accompanied by the expansion of the informal sector. In principle, the large amalgam of men and women who eke out a living unprotected by a regular salary, and job security, constitute the informal sector. This includes, then the large and amorphous category called the self – employed daily wage labors, as also those who are salaried employee, but do not have job security, wage and other benefits. That means the labor market in India and our state is severely flexible. More casualisation of jobs occurred and leads to higher degree of flexibility in the labor market. Whether this trend of casualisation of workforce can be signified in rural and urban areas and/ or for male or female workers or not that is the main thrust of this paper.

**KEYWORDS:** Female work participation rate, informal labor market, casualisation of workforce.

**Introduction:** The world of informal labor and the process of informalisation raise several issues in the context of globalization. The problems of informal sector workers go beyond low wages to insecurity of jobs, long and unregulated hours of work, absence of accident and other insurance and so on.

The ILO's definition of the informal sector in the early seventies was descriptive. It specified that a set of characteristics to distinguish informal enterprises such as small scale of operation family ownership, reliance on indigenous resources, labor intensive and adaptive technology, skills acquired outside the formal system and operation in unregulated and competitive markets.

The growth of employment in the organized sector in India has been falling steadily between 1973 and 1994. This is true for almost all industry groups which imply that the growing labor force cannot be fully absorbed within the shrinking organized sector. Open unemployment rates in India have not increased over the period; the labor force was absorbed in agriculture and in the unorganized informal segments of the non-agricultural sectors.

Growing flexibility of labor markets in most countries implied increased the demand for unskilled labor. In effect, while the total employment grew rapidly, quality of employment deteriorated. The process was expected to harm all workers in the urban economy in

general but vulnerable groups like the poor and the socially discriminated, amongst them in particular. Women form the biggest 'minority' among the socially discriminated section of the population in India (Banerjee, Nirmala, 1999). Liberalization was predicted that women's participation in the labor market would increase. This increase could partly be due to a genuine increase in the demand for cheaper female labor but was not likely to be caused by economic distress resulting from loss of employment of male members in their households (Deshpande, Sudha, 1993). Most women, if employed outside their homes, are happened to be low paid, casual wage employment. Impoverishment would force many women to accept home – based work that permits them to combine the role of an earner with that of a home—maker. Some would accept low paid contract jobs—in the manufacturing sector at home others would turn to home—based self –employment and later directly to the needs of consumers. A considerable section would offer themselves for part-time work as domestic or sell vegetables and the like or start petty trade or ever rack-picking. The sole aim of most these women would be to earn some income, however meager it may be and contribute something to the family kitty. This was most likely to be true of poor women who were overcrowded in menial occupations in the informal sector.

The quality of employment in the informal sector would gradually be replaced by temporary, casual, contract, part-time and women workers (Ghosh Jayati, 2003). Thus such expansion of informal sector caused real wages to fall along with increasing inequality, gender discrimination which ultimately resulted the incidence dualism in this sector.

#### Objective:

This study primarily highlighted the vast unorganized sector in India and West Bengal. Subsequently attempts have been made to analyse the trend in labor market in this sector particularly in the post reform period. The nature, incidence and status of female participation during the period under study are tried on the basis of gender-wise participation analysis. The objective of this analysis is therefore to understand mainly the trend and consequences of female-work participation in the informal sector in India and West Bengal, which plays an important role in the economy of any third world country like ours.

#### Employment structure of unorganized sector:

Table (1): Women employment in organized public and private sectors by state/Union territory (u.t.). (Figures are in millions)

State/ u.t.	Public Sector										Private Sector							
	'71	'81	'91	'96	'97	'98	'99	'00	'01	'71	'81	'91	'96	'97	'98	'99	'00	'01
West Bengal	49.5	82.5	114.2	116.2	111.2	112.0	117.5	115.5	119.8	144.6	143.5	132.0	102.4	127.6	131.5	133.8	135.6	133.7
All -India	860.8	1498.6	2346.8	2634.5	2727.6	2762.7	2829.1	2857.0	2859.2	1062.8	1294.2	1434.2	1791.9	1909.4	2010.9	2101.8	2065.8	2090.1

Source: Women and men in India, 2000: CSO, Ministry of Statistics and programme implication, Govt. of India, New Delhi.

Table (1) shows the percentage distribution of women workers in organized sectors, both public and private sectors separately during the period under consideration. This table illustrates that in West Bengal, the share of women's employment in organized sector is relatively meager in comparison with All- India level. Furthermore, In comparison with the private sector, the public sector in West Bengal gives less percentage share of women's employment generation. This may be the reason that the employment in the public sector is not likely to increase because of unsatisfactory performance and over manning in this sector. This indicates that it is unlikely that the public sector would offer quality employment. Thus, large number of surplus staff may engage themselves as unorganized workers in informal sector in West Bengal. This clearly indicates an organized informalisation trend prevails in West Bengal.

Table (2): Percentage of Household Industry workers to total (main +marginal) Workers

	Percentage of Household Industry workers to total workers					
	1981		1991		2001	
	M	F	M	F	M	F
<u>India</u>						
Rural	2.86	3.77	1.92	2.69	3.01	5.54
Urban	4.23	12.15	2.50	8.13	3.01	12.80
<u>West Bengal</u>						
Rural	3.01	9.35	3.04	11.18	4.15	17.94
Urban	3.25	7.27	2.43	10.39	3.96	16.48

Source: calculated from census reports.

Footnote: M= Male, F= Female

Table (2) reports that there is a significant increase in the percentage of female labors in the household industry during 1981-2001 at all India level and state level both main reason is that the household industry is the only working sphere where females have outnumbered their male counterparts.

Under this circumstance, the state Govt. of West Bengal lays special emphasis on the growth of cottage and small scale industries because of its greater employment potential. In general, the cottage industries are mostly household-based and most of the jobs created by it are female friendly. Hence one can test for the hypothesis that as unorganized sector expands percentage share of women's labor increased. (All the resultant steps may be stated latter together)

#### Female employment in different types of establishment and location

An enterprise is an undertaken engaged in the production and / or distribution of some goods and /or services meant mainly for the purpose of sale, whether fully or partly. An enterprise may be owned and opted by a single household or by several households jointly on a partnership basis, or by an institutional body. There are three types of small

Manufacturing Enterprises viz., Own Account Manufacturing Enterprises (OAME); Non-Directing Manufacturing Establishments (NDME); Directory Manufacturing Establishment (DME). In all these establishments, women workers act not only as full-timers or part-timers basis but also as working owner, hired worker and other type of workers. They perform different types of activities viz., cotton ginning, cleaning; manufacture of food products and beverages; manufacture of tobacco apparel: tanning and dressing of leather; manufacture of luggage, hand-bags, saddler, and footwear; manufacture of paper and paper products, chemicals and chemical products, rubber and rubber products, other non-metallic mineral products, basic metals, etc.

**Table (3):** Percentage of workers to total workers engaged in manufacturing enterprises by nature of employment, sex and by state/Union Territory. (Rural)

		Full time		Part Time	
		M	F	M	F
OAME	West Bengal	42.94	57.06	25.92	74.08
	All India	54.00	46.00	35.58	64.42
NDME	West Bengal	91.11	8.89	69.13	30.87
	All India	18.77	11.23	58.57	41.43
DME	West Bengal	88.62	11.38	50.42	49.58
	All India	74.27	25.73	49.44	50.56

Source: NSSO, 56<sup>th</sup> Round (July 2000-June 2001): Unorganized manufacturing sector in India.

**Table (4):** Percentage of workers to total workers engaged in manufacturing enterprises by nature of employment, sex and by state/ Union Territory. (Urban)

	Full Time		Part Time	
	M	F	M	F

OAME	West Bengal	48.55	51.35	81.56	18.44
	All India	43.15	56.85	76.61	23.39
NDME	West Bengal	3.17	96.83	37.23	62.77
	All India	5.85	94.15	36.41	63.59
DME	West Bengal	6.36	93.64	37.64	62.36
	All India	9.48	90.52	44.36	55.64

Source: Same as Table (3).

Tables (3) and (4) show the incidence of woman as full time and part time employment in rural and urban sectors taken separately in West Bengal and also for all-India level. In all enterprises, in rural sector and in OAME of urban sector, the concentration of women part-time employees is far greater than their male counterpart in rural sector. This is true both for West Bengal and also for national level. The reason is that women's concentration in informal and a typical job is by no means a matter of choice. It is, to a large extent, due to lack of alternatives (full –time, regular jobs) and also due to the lack of accessible and affordable social infrastructure that would enable them to look for such alternatives as part – time employees. In urban areas opposite sign occurs. Similarly, childcare for less than five still covers only a small proportion of the children in that age group, and the hours covered often do not correspond to working hours. Mothers of young children are then forced out of the labor market, with non –participation rates reaching a large extent (Banerjee Nirmala, 1999).

In all respect both in West Bengal and all –India level, the proportion of female unpaid workers or the family labor is the highest in the OAMEs followed by NDMEs. This could be due to the fact that the OAME being the family enterprise, no remuneration is paid separately to the family labors engaged in such enterprises. Other characteristics of this enterprise are low earnings and low productivity levels enterprise. Hence one hypothesis is formed in the sense that as women are largely represented among a typical employment; we also assume that the higher level of female participation in the labor market the higher will be the prevalence of part-time and temporary work. In regard to the other two enterprises viz. for NDME and DME, the concentration of female full-timers is severely low comparison with their male counterparts. This is due to the presence of hired workers in these enterprises. The employers are reluctant to employ female labor because women are less skilled and their productivity levels are also very low. For this reason, employers substitute women for getting skilled male counterparts. This is depicted in table (5).

**Table (5):** Percentage of hired workers in total workers engaged in manufacturing enterprises by nature of employment, sex and by state/ Union Territory.

State/ u.t.	Hired Workers											
	OAME				NDME				DME			
	RURAL		URBAN		RURAL		URBAN		RURAL		URBAN	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
West <u>Bengal</u>	78.40	21.59	98.88	1.12	91.21	8.78	93.15		71.41	28.59	83.88	16.11
All - <u>India</u>	65.83	34.17	83.94	16.05	88.82	11.18	94.21		71.23	28.76	86.59	13.40

Source: Same as Table (3).

But the concentration of women part-timers is better than the full –timers in West Bengal and all-India level. In rural sector in West Bengal, the concentration of women workers is higher than their male counterpart in NDME and DME establishments respectively. In all-India level, though the concentration of female part – timers in NDME is less than their male counterpart but for DME, their concentration is more or less stable in comparison with their male counterpart. In urban sector, in West Bengal and in national level, the concentrations of female part-timers are lower than male part-timers. Most of these cases, we see that in NDME and DME establishments, female concentration is discriminated and not equally equipped in comparison with male workers. But what would be the case, the concentration of female part-timers in these enterprises is higher than full –timers. This is true both for West Bengal and all –India level. This is due to the fact that part –time employment generally involves a lost advantage for employers, as part – timers often receive a lower level of remuneration than full –time colleagues. Moreover, part –timers work harder and have a lower rate of absenteeism. They have no special security contributions. If part-time employment is also flexi time employment, the advantages for

female employers can be synthesized into numerical and wage flexibility a part –time ‘mobile female labor’ permits the smooth adjustment of the volume of work to fluctuations in productivity (numerical flexibility)(Mitra A, 1998). In addition, companies avoid the need for overtime for female labor (wage flexibility). Our hypothesis goes in the other direction. We assume that in periods of recession, part –time work can be a cheap way for employer to deal with fluctuating and uncontrollable demand for products and service.

#### F. Nature of Work Status

The employment status of a worker shows the capacity in which he/she works. NSSO classifies workers into employment statuses; self employment, regular wage/salaried workers and casual workers by UPS and UPSS, are classified by their employment statuses. Now we introduce some definitions into this study e.g.

- (a) Employer is a self-employed worker operating his/her own enterprise with at least one hired worker on a more or less regular basis. He/she may or may not use unpaid family helpers. Also, he or she may work at home or outside the home. In view of the special status, the latter are clubbed together under own label.
- (b) Own amount worker is a self-employed worker who works independently and does not engage any hired worker on a regular basis for operating the enterprise. He/she may or may not engage unpaid family helpers.
- (c) Home- based are defined as those own account workers and unpaid family helpers who pursue economic activities within their home i.e., their place of work is their homes. It may be noted that we have extended employment working at home from this category.

Employment status is defined in their different ways, viz. , self-employed regular salaried employee and casual labor. Self-employed workers are defined as those who work on or operate on their own farm or non-farm enterprises or are engaged independently in a profession/trade on own account or partnership. The essential of self-employed is that they have autonomy (i.e., what, how, where and when to produce) and economic independence. Regular employees are defined as those who work on others’ farm and non-farm enterprises, either of paid regular wages or salaries. Regular workers are not bound by daily or periodic ‘renewal’ of work contracts. Their salaries or wages can be price-rated, time-rated and the work can be full-time or part-time. Casual workers are defined as those who work on others’ farm and non-farm enterprise and are paid wages that are daily or periodic in nature. Casual workers include those who appear to be long-term workers of an employer but are bound by daily or periodic renewal of the work contracts.

Table (6): Percentage distribution of employed persons by status of employment (principle and subsidiary status) in West Bengal and India (Rural)

Self –employed		Regular earner		Casual labor		Ratio of casual to regular Worker	
R.M. (1)	R.F. (2)	R.M. (3)	R.F. (4)	R.M. (5)	R.F. (6)	R.M. (7)	R.F. (8)

Period	West Bengal							
	1987-'88	54.20	62.30	9.50	6.10	36.30	31.60	3.82
1993-'94	54.70	59.00	10.30	7.30	35.00	33.70	3.39	4.61
1999-'00	49.20	62.40	7.50	5.10	43.30	32.50	6.18	6.37
2004-'05	53.40	61.00	6.30	4.80	39.30	30.70	6.23	6.39
2009-'10	45.20	50.90	8.30	8.90	46.40	40.30	5.59	4.53
	India							
	R.M. (1)	R.F. (2)	R.M. (3)	R.F. (4)	R.M. (5)	R.F. (6)	R.M. (7)	R.F. (8)
1987-'88	58.60	60.80	10.00	3.70	31.40	35.50	3.14	9.57
1993-'94	57.70	58.60	8.50	2.70	33.80	38.70	3.98	14.33
1999-'00	55.00	57.30	8.80	3.10	36.20	39.60	4.11	12.77
2004-'05	58.10	63.70	7.96	2.25	32.90	32.60	4.13	14.49
2009-'10	53.50	55.70	8.50	4.40	38.00	39.90	4.47	9.06

Source: NSSO-43<sup>rd</sup>, 50th, 55th, 61st, 66th rounds.

Footnote: Column (7) = (5)/(3); Column (8) = (6)/(4); RM = Rural males and RF = Rural females

Table (6) shows the percentage of self employed workers both for male as well as for female in rural sector increased over time upto 61<sup>st</sup> round survey but it gradually decreased during 2009-2010(66<sup>th</sup> round) survey. This is true both for all India level and as well as state level. upto 2004-2005, this is because in rural sector the most pre dominant category has been that of the self employed workers. This is probably because cultivation has been one of the pre dominant activities to which a good proportion of rural workers, both male and female are attached. But after 2004-2005, the percentage share of self employed workers both for male and female decreased during 2009-2010. This may be the reason that cultivation is a agricultural activities and the agricultural activities are monsoon oriented and thus workers do not get job throughout the year and they used to fit themselves as casual workers in different occupations in rural areas (P.S. Raikhy and Anjali Mehra,2003).

This table also computes the "casualisation index" (ratio of casual workers to regular workers) and shows a high degree of casualisation in rural sector. This is true both for rural male and female in all India level and rural West Bengal also. This is due to the increase in the share of casual workers in comparison with regular workers. This reflects the immiserisation since the incidence poverty among casual workers is very high; indeed the phenomenon of casualisation is evident in case of male workers. For rural women also this process is noticeable .But the degree of casualisation is decreased marginally in 2009-2010 period except rural male workers in all-India level when the degree of casualisation is increased .As the fall in degree of casualisation is very marginal so it is not explained elaborately because it may increase in near future.

Table (7): Percentage distribution of employed person by status of employment (principal and subsidiary status) in west Bengal and India(Urban)

Period	Self – employed		Regular earner		Casual labor		Ratio of casual to regular Worker	
	U.M.(1)	U.F.(2)	U.M.(3)	U.F.(4)	U.M.(5)	U.F.(6)	U.M.(7)	U.F.(8)
	West Bengal							



1987-'88	36.90	44.80	50.50	42.40	12.60	12.80	0.25	0.30
1993-'94	37.40	36.40	47.50	44.10	15.00	19.50	0.31	0.44
1999-'00	43.10	43.60	39.90	40.10	17.00	16.30	0.42	0.41
2004-'05	44.70	52.40	37.30	36.70	17.90	10.90	0.48	0.29
2009-'10	47.30	51.60	37.10	36.20	15.60	12.10	0.42	0.33
India								
	U.M.(1)	U.F.(2)	U.M.(3)	U.F.(4)	U.M.(5)	U.F.(6)	U.M.(7)	U.F.(8)
1987-'88	41.70	47.10	43.70	27.50	14.60	25.40	0.33	0.92
1993-'94	41.70	34.80	42.20	29.20	16.10	26.00	0.38	0.89
1999-'00	41.50	45.30	41.70	33.30	16.80	21.40	0.40	0.64
2004-'05	44.80	47.70	40.60	35.60	14.60	16.70	0.36	0.46
2009-'10	41.10	41.10	41.90	39.30	17.00	19.60	0.41	0.49

Note: Same as before.

Source: Same as table (6).

Table (7) shows the same thing in urban sector. Here we see the opposite trend in case of all India level and West Bengal. The share of regular/ salaried workers is higher in comparison with the casual workers and that is why the degree of casualisation is very marginal. It can be argued that this current system of subcontracting of work in the urban economy is such that the female worker are just no longer reported in the self employed category. They are getting work at whatever the wage rate or working condition, particularly on a more regular basis. This reflects a process of organized informalisation of women employment through the emergence of a sub contracting system. This is because as per the NSS definition regular workers include those engaged on a regular contractual basis even within the informal sector at low wages such as domestic servants, helpers in petty trades etc.

Table (8): Percentage distribution of incremental/additional workers (US – PS + SS) by modes of employment.

		Period: 1983 to 1993-'94				Period: 1993-'94 to 1999-'00			
		Increase in total workers in million	Percentage share in incremental workers by			Increase in total workers in million	Percentage share in incremental workers by		
			Regular worker	Self – employed	Casual labors		Regular worker	Self – employed	Casual labors
Rural Male	West Bengal	3.64	6.80	70.26	22.94	7.39	-48.52	-60.84	209.36
	India	30.89	-0.74	43.32	57.42	108.66	13.98	8.35	77.67
Rural Female	West Bengal	0.69	18.85	49.76	31.39	-2.18	-51.91	9.94	-58.03
	India	14.42	2.07	37.71	60.23	9.48	47.29	-86.33	139.04
Urban Male	West Bengal	1.27	36.76	43.40	19.84	8.04	-15.66	84.23	31.43
	India	18.13	37.59	43.78	18.64	108.02	39.91	40.30	19.79
Urban female	West Bengal	0.40	39.94	39.24	20.82	-0.98	-93.63	52.75	-59.12
	India	5.12	34.62	45.80	19.58	9.93	118.24	36.63	-54.87

Source: computed on the basis of the available data from the NSSO reports of 50<sup>th</sup> and 55<sup>th</sup>,<sup>t</sup> survey rounds.

Table (8) shows the percentage distribution of incremental/additional workers by modes of employment. We can compare the percentage share in incremental workers by modes of employment in pre and post reform periods. We consider 1983 to 1993-'94 as pre reform period and 1993-'94 to 1999 -2000 as post reform period. As far as the self-employed workers are concerned, we see a declining trend in the percentage share of all workers, both male and female in the all-India level study. But after comparison of pre and post reforms era, the share of male and female self-employed workers in rural area show a declining trend and for male and female workers in urban areas, it shows an upward trend in West Bengal. One may argue that many entrepreneurs are offering jobs not on regular basis but on contract. The women workers are, thus, being obliged to carry the jobs to their households (female friendly) and deliver the product as per stipulated conditions a part of the increase in the self employment may be linked to the government policy of providing self employment rather than wage employment under its various anti poverty program.

As far as the casual labor is concerned, the percentage share of both male and female workers in all-India level show an increasing trend except for urban female labors. Thus, the degree of casualisation increases in the all-India level. But in West Bengal, the percentage share of casual labor for male counterpart increases, both for rural and urban areas. So, degree of casualisation increases for male workers but in case of female counterparts, it shows a declining trend both for rural and urban areas.

The pre and post reform analysis shows almost a declining trend women's employment pattern in West Bengal. It shows perhaps a declining trend also for national level. It shows only an increasing trend for urban female self-employed workers. In all-India level, the increasing trend prevails in female regular working jobs, both in rural and urban areas and for rural female casual labors. But in other three modes of employment structure it takes a declining trend. The real analysis starts from the following facts. First of all, in most recent years, i.e., mostly from past reform period, casualisation has not been discernible for urban workers; in fact, it has decreased for urban females during the period 1993/'94 -1999/'00. This is plainly so because of the marked improvement in education and training capabilities of urban female job seekers, almost in tandem with urban males; in West Bengal, the feature cadres of the urban female aspirants are likely to be equipped with education training and skill accomplishments nor much different from their accomplishments nor much different from their male counterparts, and would thus be able to compete effectively in the information technology and management-intensive urban labor market.

Our hypothesis of casualisation has received some justification as we see the casualisation for male workforce increased during 1993-'94 and 1999-'00 in West Bengal and at all-India level at the cost of decrease in the self-employment. The regular employment also decreased in West Bengal while at the all-India level this has registered an increasing during the same period. The important aspect is that during the eighties, West Bengal witnessed a decrease in casualisation for female workers, both for rural and urban areas.

There is clear evidence of greater degree of casualisation of rural workers male prevails in India and state level after the introduction of economic reforms. But the pace of casualisation of urban female worker is much slower than that of the rural workers even in the era of economic liberalization. In most recent years casualisation has not been discernible for urban workers; in fact, it has decreased for urban females more in case of west Bengal than all India level during the period under consideration. This is plainly so because of the marked improvement in the educational and training capabilities of urban female job aspirants are likely to be equipped educational , training and skill accomplishments not much different from their male counter parts and would thus be able to compete effectively in the information technology, management-intensive urban labor market. The prospective rural job seekers do not seem to have a bright chance on such job frontiers. Thus for a preponderant majority of rural workers (male+female) coming as they from the landless labor marginal and small cultivating households, self-employment on own or leased – in land and casual wage employment on others forms or in one or the other non- farm activity are the only two choices; regular salaried jobs do not accommodate more than a handful of them nearly to the total exclusion of the female job aspirants it bears some conjecture, therefore, that in terms of quality of employment rural job seekers have undoubtedly a long gap to cover.

#### Conclusion & suggestions:

It is interesting that educated workers usually do not opt to work as casual labor because they do not see any future for themselves. Instead in anticipation of a full time or permanent job they even prefer to wait. In other words, there is a waiting period for educated job seekers and it may vary with the level of education, depending on the nature and availability of the jobs in the economy. It has also been believed in some quarters that if a choice exists, an employer may not recruit educated workers as they claim higher wages and there is also an apprehension of losing these workers may be in high demand elsewhere. It is for all these reasons that a preponderant majority of male rural and urban workers are casual workers. But in case of female, , both the percentage share of female casual workers show a declining trend in rural and urban areas and this is true for rural self-employed female workers in West Bengal. In other direction the regular female workers' share also gone down. Hence, unemployment rate gradually increases for female. So, we urgently say that the globalization process negatively hits the women's labor market participation. This is probably true because the impact of women during periods of liberalization. This issue requires special attention because of the increased demands of women during crisis periods. Women's employment can increase or decrease during the period of structural adjustment depending on several factors. One issue is whether liberalization is leading to 'feminization' of the workforce. The effects are likely to depend on the sectoral distribution of female workers and on the effect of participation rates. Female workers having relatively tenuous attachment to the labor force seem more likely to lose job during periods of labor shedding.

A process of defeminisation can occur as a result of the adoption of techniques that require more 'skilled' labor or greater mechanization. On the other hand trade reforms may lead to

expansion of the export –oriented sector, and since export –oriented industries trend to feminized, the demand for women’s employment may increase. Employers who encounter global competition could favour women workers since women receive lower wages, and substitute women for men. The world Development Report (1995) says the relative position of women has often deteriorated under structural adjustment because women, who are often employed in low wage informal sectors, are more valuable than men. Thus we have the observation that there has been much greater tendency of casualisation of the rural workforce at both the all India level and the state level is further strengthened from our analysis of the distribution of incremental / additional workers by modes of employment.

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