A STUDY OF UNEMPLOYMENT AMONG FEMALE GRADUATES IN PUNE CITY

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Foreword

This study of unemployment among female graduates is a preliminary step towards a wider study of the extent of human resource development through the higher education of women in Maharashtra. Whether higher education by itself matches the development perspective of the State and the nation is a basic point to be considered for studying the human resource development problems from the present and future angles. It is then that the question of the nature and extent of participation of the youth, both men and women, in higher education can be investigated as one of the aspects of the development process in which economic productivity is considered paramount.

A major dimension of the economic productivity of education is its relationship with science and technology. In the collegiate and other higher education as well as professional training programmes available at present this dimension is extremely weak. This is a major handicap created by the system of liberal education adopted and granted a 'brahminical' social status in our country. It has all along ignored the economic purpose of education, particularly in providing higher education. It is also bound by mechanical external examinations which assess memorization more than organized original thinking which is essential for economic production. It merely helps acquire degrees which confer on the recipient social status of the traditional type. Since this process is generally affordable for the middle classes, young men, and particularly young women, take recourse to it. The task of economic productivity is taken to be the responsibility of the artisan social class. It is, therefore, difficult to align the current system of higher education, and particularly higher education of women, with productivity.

Apart from the general scenario of our intentionally non-productive higher education system, the two roles of women as housewives and producers restrict their employment choice. Motherhood is considered as the bounden duty of women. Keeping the husband and in-laws satisfied is another expected duty. The third duty is to maintain the continuity of caste- culture and family traditions. In the midst of all these expectations, it is difficult to view higher-educated women as major producers in the organized sector. That seems to be the overall situation as reflected in this initial study which is to be treated as precursor to a wider investigation which seems necessary in the context of changes in education and society called for in this new era dominated by science, technology and transformational signals in human culture worldwide.

Pune,
1st January, 2003

Chitra Naik
Chairperson, BoT, IIE

Preface

Pune city is one of the leading centres of higher education in the country. It can boast of educational facilities in every discipline/branch of knowledge. The city has always encouraged girls' education, with the result that female education especially at the higher level has developed strong roots here. Its higher education system attracts female students not only from all parts of India, but also from abroad. However, providing good education alone does not ensure employability and economic independence for the female graduates. There are various aspects of the problem of unemployment among the female graduates in Pune city. It was against this background that IIE readily accepted the Planning Commission's suggestion to conduct a Study of Unemployment Among Female Graduates in Pune City.

The study has been conducted with the help of a devoted team of young female graduates, who really worked hard to complete the field-work within the prescribed time-limits.

My colleagues, Prof. S.B.Gogate and Dr. Ambika Jain, helped me wholeheartedly in this difficult but interesting project. Some of the leading employers of female workers willingly provided valuable feedback. I am highly grateful to them all.

Hopefully, the findings of this study will be useful to the Planning Commission in improving employment opportunities for the female graduates in urban areas.

Pune
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Education is the most important instrument for human resource development. Education of women, therefore, occupies top priority amongst various measures taken to improve the status of women in India. It is considered to be the most effective weapon for implementing social change. In recent years, the focus of planning has shifted from equipping women for their traditional roles as house-wives and mothers to recognising their worth as producers, making a major contribution to family and national income.

Education has normally been viewed as an agency helping economic production; it is also said to provide instructions in suitable skills. Thus, one of the aims of higher education is to develop efficiency in production. A great deal of ambivalence however exists as regards women's education which has increased since women have begun to seek employment. Since the constitution has declared men and women as equals, the grounds of women's education cannot be different from men's education. Education for both should have vocational or occupational bias.

The Planning Commission, Government of India, assigned to the Indian Institute of Education, Pune on December 31, 2001 a research study on "Unemployment among Female Graduates in Pune City." An attempt has been made to examine the socio-economic characteristics, incidence and causes of unemployment, opinions of the female graduates on effects of unemployment and employers' views on female employment.

Retrospect

Women in Higher Education -- National Scenario

The present system of higher education started in the Nineteenth Century under British India. In the year 1857, there were 23 colleges of general education, 3 medical colleges and 1 Civil Engineering School. Colonial rulers used education as a device to build perfect and exploitative machinery to deny to the Indian an identity of his own and to insulate local people from the rising world industrial culture. As an end product of the 'Civilising' mission of British rule, the higher education per lakh population in 1947-48 was just 30. Women accounted for only 1.24 per cent of the total in 1916-17 and even in 1947-48, their percentage share in the total was less than 10, to be precise it was 9.35.

As a result of the investments made in the successive Five Year Plans for various developmental projects under higher education in the post-independence period, there has been a phenomenal growth in institutions and enrolment. Inspite of the rapid expansion of the

formal educational system, a vast majority of Indian women has remained outside the reach of education. The share of women in the total of 70,78,214 in 1997-98 was 34.6 per cent. The highest concentration of women was in the Arts Faculty including Humanities (54.4 per cent). The proportion of women students was as low as 3.4 per cent in Education, 2.0 per cent in Law, and 2.1 per cent in Engineering and Technology. This inspite of the fact that the number of Women's Colleges has recorded a substantial increase (1260 colleges), recording a little more than 60 per cent growth.

In 1999-2000, the percentage of persons in the labour force (i.e. 15 years and above) at the national level was 61.8 per cent with 83.5 percent males and 38.5 per cent females. In the urban areas, the figures were 51.1 per cent for total persons, 78.6 per cent for males and 20.9 per cent for females.

Women in Higher Education -- State Scenario

The lead in the establishment of the modern colleges of Arts and Science was taken up by the government of the erstwhile Bombay Presidency which established the first institutions of this type in Bombay. The oldest college in the State is the Elphinstone College, Bombay, established in the early years of the nineteenth century and which began with the object of spreading knowledge of Western Science and Literature among the people. It was affiliated to the University of Bombay in 1860. The missionaries followed in the footsteps of the Government and established two colleges of Arts and Science in Bombay, viz, the Wilson College which was affiliated to the University in 1861 and the St.Xavier's College which was affiliated in 1869. In 1941, the Sophia College for women was established in Bombay city and in 1947 another women's college was established at Ahmednagar. The bulk of the colleges of Arts and Science i.e., 44 out of 55 were then conducted by private enterprise.

The present State of Maharashtra came into existence by an Act of Parliament on 1 May 1960. According to the 2001 census, the sex ratio in the state was very low being 922 females per 1000 males. The literacy rates in 2001 were General: 77.27, Male: 86.27 and Female: 67.51. Today, Maharashtra has 8 Non-agricultural Universities, 4 Agricultural Universities and 8 Deemed Universities besides a large number of post-graduate research institutions. The female enrollment to the total enrollment in higher education in Maharashtra for 1997-98 was 37.0 per cent. Out of the labour force of 64.8 per cent in Maharashtra for 1999-2000, the percentage of females in the labour force was 46.3 as compared to that of males 82.1.

Area of Study

The present study of unemployment among the female graduates is limited to the municipal area of Pune city alone. In 1998-99 there were 81 colleges in Pune city providing higher education in varied disciplines of liberal and professional education. The total exceeded 53,930 at the graduation level. The three-fold categorisation of female workers, viz, first, those constituting the upper strata of society; second, a heterogeneous group consisting of blue collared workers in industries and white collared workers in various service sectors, and, third, generally uneducated or less educated females, indicates that educated women labour consist of different socio-economic groups working under different conditions in the same area. The labour market which the women workers face is a segmented market.

Methodology

For the study, a sample of 600 female graduates who had passed out from the University of Pune and the SNDT, Pune, in the years 1997-98, 1998-99, 1999-2000 were selected. As a first stage of sampling, 10 colleges from Pune city were selected by discipline-wise stratification and then the lists of female graduates of the referred years were collected from the records of the selected colleges. The colleges were from liberal education, technical education and professional education. The sample of 600 female graduates from the discipline-wise lists of 1997-98, 1998-99, 1999-2000 was drawn proportional to the size of discipline-wise number of graduates. Further, 25 employers were identified for seeking opinions and views on female employment out of whom 19 employers gave response.

Summary of Findings

Data was collected through canvassing three schedules FGS-1 (Interview Schedule for Female Graduates), FGS-2 (Questionnaire for the Female Graduates) and FGS-3 (Interview Schedule for Employers of Female Graduates). A summary of the analysis is given below.

Socio-Economic Profile

1. Respondents were largely in the age-group 23-24 years for all the disciplines.

2. Respondents largely belonged to the Hindu religion, with predominance of the upper castes.

3. Out of the 600 sampled graduates, only 279 were found to be employed while 321 were unemployed. Among the employed / self-employed, those belonging to the Other Backward Committees (OBC) category had a slight edge over those belonging to the Upper Castes and Scheduled Castes. This could be so because the girls from these communities have no inhibitions in taking up semi-skilled jobs or work in 'traditional activities'. There were no Scheduled Tribe female graduates.

4. While trying to study the rural-urban differentials, it was found from the data that most of the graduate girls have been urbanised, having stayed in Pune city for more than 10 years.

5. Selection of the stream in higher education was often not a "matter of choice" of the girls. Income, education and employment are interrelated variables. Higher income families send girls for Engineering (as revealed in the study), whereas lower income families opt for Arts, Science and Commerce education. Besides, in families where there are more than 4 children, preference is always given to the education of the male child with the girls forced to opt for liberal education even if their choice interest was different. Those who undertake professional education have a better chance in getting employed.

6. Family income is greatly conditioned by the educational attainments of the head of the family and the type of education girls get depends on the same.

7. In respect of students belonging to the weaker sections, it is not always the academically weak students who drop out at graduate level, but the economically poor ones too have to suffer. Only 21 percent among weaker sections pursued their graduate level education in Arts, Science or Commerce fields, while only a significant few could pursue the engineering degree. Graduate females from the weaker sections find employment in semi-skilled jobs or are self-employed performing multifarious activities without any principal occupation. They have no inhibitions in accepting traditional jobs.

The Employed and Unemployed : Facts and Opinions

1. The chief motivating factor behind taking up a job was earning income. This was the case for all the disciplines but more so among the Engineering graduates.

2. As regards the attitudes of family members towards their girls' employment, a large percentage (76.8 per cent) stated that their family's attitudes were positive and encouraging. Family members wanted that their daughters should become independent and self-reliant. Some stated that family members expected them to simultaneously undertake more household responsibilities i.e., dual responsibilities (13 per cent).

3. Majority of the employed female graduates did 'day' duties, and only a very small percentage works on 'shift' duties. Except for the technically educated (engineering graduates), a large per cent did clerical jobs or secretarial and computing jobs.

4. Most of the employed female graduates opined that they were not being paid on par with their male colleagues. They felt they had to be paid more than what they were being paid in view of their skills and abilities and that employers should not merely go by qualifications. In particular, those who were basically qualified but who did technical work due to having developed the skills through additional training courses, felt they were underpaid.

5. The unemployment period, on an average, ranged from one two years. However, for the Arts graduates the waiting period could be anywhere between two to five years. Due to the prevalent system campus interviews, Engineering graduates have a much lesser waiting period, some getting employed immediately after graduation. Among the reasons for being unemployed, the highest weightage was given to 'jobs being not available' (39.6 per cent). It is inevitable that the type of education must be related to the job market, so that employment does not elude the large mass of female graduates passing out each year.

6. Unemployed female youth largely depend on their parents / guardians / husband for fulfilling their monetary needs and living requirements. A majority of the

unemployed graduates felt their family had high expectations of them especially with a view to becoming self-reliant having pursued higher education.

7. The respondents also felt that there should be no difference between the type of jobs performed by males or females. However, the most common occupation pursued by all categories of females except the engineering, was teaching or clerical jobs.

8. Due to non-fulfillment of their expectations in getting employment or suitable employment, the respondents felt frustrated and disappointed. Some felt incomplete and incapable, while others had a sense of loneliness. The psychological effects due to unemployment had a depressing element on the educated female youth. Some respondents even felt they were being neglected by their family members, while some even reported that they faced problems in getting married, with a majority of boys or their families seeking working girls as brides.

Employers' views in relation to women workers

The employers were asked to provide any information which has been described under management views in relation to women workers. Diverse views have been expressed, some even contradictory. But these views reflect the relationship between the management and the women workers.

The women workers in various organisations are doing a variety of jobs: some of them are even handling the machines. Most of the employers felt that women could work on machines provided they are given the necessary training and skill. Modern machines do not need heavy manual handling. One whole unit of production in an engineering industry is managed by women workers. The management in one unit said that they would not employ women on the shop floor due to the problems of labour trouble from male workers.

Almost all the managers expressed the view that women workers are as efficient, if not more, as the male workers. Various reasons were given for this view point. Women are more sincere as they are not interested in union activities. There are relatively less problems of absenteeism except for maternity leave. The women in general are not liquor addicts so the work does not suffer. Women are good at certain jobs, which may be delicate, repetitive, routine or monotonous and their efficiency is higher in these types of work. They have patience and are good at precision-type of jobs. Women workers are not aggressive, and are more responsible in their behaviour. So the problems of discipline are minimised. They are eager to work and learn. They are happy with even small bonus or gift and do not aspire for more. Women do not have any diversions at the place of work so they can work sincerely. They do not change the jobs often. These views support the employment of women especially in industries, at times even in preference to the male workers.

In spite of these tributes paid to the women workers, there are only a few lady supervisors appointed by the management. The women continue to be workers at lower rungs throughout their tenure or work. One employer said that it is difficult for a lady supervisor to supervise the work of male workers. Even for the female workers, male supervisors are considered to be more effective than the female supervisors.

Some Managers feel that they cannot easily approach the women workers and prefer to work with males. Other employers stated that it is difficult to employ women as they have to be given maternity leave benefits, creche facilities etc. They cannot be called for the night shift; employers have to take care of women if they are harassed or are in some difficulty. They have domestic responsibilities. They often take leave for religious festivals and social functions. After marriage, absenteeism increases for the women workers, as they have to take care of the family. So some employers prefer to employ single or unmarried women workers. Career motivation is low for the women workers. They may leave the job after marriage. They are not work-oriented or career ambitious. It is difficult to reason with women and scolding them will immediately result into shedding of tears. So some employers find it difficult to manage women workers. Yet majority of the managers were satisfied with their work.

There is a considered view that women are best suited for only certain types of jobs, such as food preparations, tailoring, typing, clerical, from desk duties, operating telephones, etc. The management does not believe that women should get educated but when it comes to working, the general view was that the women's first duty was to the home and the children. They should work only when necessary or if some one is available at home to take care of the children. The management, though appreciative of women's work and efficiency, stated that they cannot be promoted to the top level due to the domestic constraints. A few enlightened entrepreneurs, however expressed faith in the equality of sexes and were ready to accept women workers in all types of jobs and positions.

Educated Women Power and Employment

The contribution of women to social produce continues to be undervalued or to receive no valuation at all. The type of training or education she receives does not provide full scope for the development of her potential abilities. This limits her chances of finding lucrative employment. Social taboos and psychological conditioning continue to hamper her participation in activities outside the home, and so prevent her from making the best use of existing abilities. All these aspects indicate that a more subtle, yet a considerable disadvantage continues to be at work.

If we consider that educated men who are not employed, manifest a waste of national potential, then unemployment among educated women becomes an equally valid reflection of the same. Out of the 321 (53.5 per cent) unemployed in this study's sample of 600 graduate females, 35.7 per cent graduates were those not trying for a job. If occupied in productive employment outside the home, these graduate women would be contributing as much as what employed women with similar qualifications are doing.

Why are these women voluntarily unemployed? Two important factors suggest themselves. Firstly, the type of educational qualifications that women hold limits their chances for lucrative employment. Second, and perhaps the more important of the two, is the attitude of the women themselves and those of their parental and marital families towards jobs which may tax their energies and cut short their leisure, once they are assured of steady family income from other sources. All the same, the respondents stated that women should work even after marriage and having children to look after.

Type of Educational Qualifications

In this study, the highest percentage of employment is seen in the technically educated i.e. engineering, which is an employment oriented course. However, only girls from higher socio- economic strata enter this field. On the other hand, the highest percentage of unemployment among the female graduates is found in the field which the majority of women opt for, namely, Arts and Humanities. Almost equally high is the percentage of unemployment of female graduates in Science and Commerce the next most popular streams among women students. Obviously, these are not the qualifications most in demand. Relatively better is employment in teaching and for Home Science graduates. This aspect is also reflected in the monetary returns from such education. Average emoluments per month for women are the lowest in the liberal education (Arts, Science, Commerce), the highest paid are those who qualify in engineering.

Why do these women take up subjects where their chances of employment, particularly lucrative employment, are so low? The answer is simple - because employment is not the chief consideration in a girl's education. Besides, where income is low, or family size large, preference is given to providing better education to the male child. Liberal education is also relatively less taxing especially for girls from lower socio-economic strata whose knowledge of English is very limited and who can study with vernacular media (Marathi, in Pune) of instruction.

Attitudes:

The second important factor leading to large unemployment among women is attitudes.

Most parents send their daughters for college education primarily for considerations of marriage, rather than for their intellectual growth or for providing them qualifications for jobs. Girls are conditioned from childhood both by parents and by the society to accept her prime role as that of a wife, mother and house-keeper, this being 'nature-given' and unchangeable. This conditioning largely bears on the nature of choice of subjects at college level. Most often, a girl selects courses which serve the interest of the man she marries than for the development of her own personality. Where the woman breaks out of this form of thought, either because of a non-traditional family background or through the force of her own personality and takes up professionally oriented courses, a second hurdle has to be crossed: the attitude of the husband and his family towards a worried woman being employed. This factor is of primary importance in our cultural environment where marriage is universal and an enlightened husband and marital family, a rarity. In their responses too, the sampled female graduates stated what supports our every day experience, that, very often, the husband or the in-laws strongly disapprove of the woman taking up a job, even when she has put in long years of work required to become, an engineer / or medical doctor of other professional export. The respondents further elaborated that social stigma against separation and divorce

is so strong that very few women would have the courage to take a stand for the sake of their professional lives.

In those cases where the husband allows his wife to work, they stated, it is often because it supplements the family income rather than for her personal advancement. The woman is also expected to bear the burden of house-work all by herself. Husbands like their wives to take up jobs but dislike their traditional responsibility being neglected which results from their preoccupation with out-of-home vocation, they observed. In a nuclear household in urban areas, the physical burden on the women employed outside the home becomes extremely heavy, if there is no full-time house-maid to help. The 'double burden' syndrome often leads to voluntary unemployment among the female graduates including some professionally qualified women.

For those graduate women who decide to work, finding a job proves to be much more difficult than for the man. Only in the field of engineering, women have a shorter waiting period, some getting employed immediately after graduation. Otherwise, the long waiting spells of an employment results into heavy opportunity costs which is an economic loss. The average economic loss per month was found to be highest among the Science graduates, followed by the Arts and the Commerce graduates. Women become more willing to compromise about the job they take up or might be forced to compromise du to family or other considerations which limit their geographical mobility and consequently their range of choice. This **'job compromise'** affects the emoluments the women settle for.

Having obtained a job, the women face some discrimination in emoluments paid to them. These differences in comparison to men's emoluments cannot be attributed to the kind of education they take. This is especially so in the private sector where there is greater scope that employers have for giving rein to their prejudices in promotions of women workers to positions with better pay. Often, the employer considers that the woman is less efficient and less capable than a man holding a position of responsibility. This skepticism may be because the woman has additional responsibility of the home. Promotions in all likelihood are more impersonal in the public sector.

The problem of better utilizing the intellectual acumen and skills of the educated females is the problem of first recognizing that in fact such potential exists and then making available to them choices at least equable to men. This calls for a reorientation of the traditional role relationship, as it is viewed not only by men but also by women, a reorientation of attitudes which will enable the women to move away from physical dependence and intellectual conformism.

The nature of educational qualifications that women hold, their voluntary reluctance to look for jobs away from home, the discrimination they face in the employment market because of their sex–in short the attitudes of the woman's family (parental and marital), employers and above all women themselves, all prove to be limitations in the advancement of their opportunities and status.

Social Efficiency of Graduate Education

It must be conceded that the universities and large expanse of colleges of higher education have kept moving the wheels of socio-economic life in the city of Pune, and that they have provided most of the skilled manpower needed by the economy, research institutions and civil service. That the universities have responded favourably, to the irrational demands of parents and students and to the equally irrational targets of professional manpower needs fixed by the planners in the last twenty-five years is obvious from the surpluses with which the employment market is glutted today. It is, only the top 25 to 30 per cent of the university and college graduates, mostly the first class degree holders, male and female, who may be able to aspire to enter the professions and institutions which require academic competence and professional skills of a high order.

As few axioms regarding education, productivity and human resource development which are common for both male and female students may be stated as:

a) As a result of education and training given in institutions of higher learning, a student should be able to add to the sum total of production and in fact add more than what he / she would have done without that education and training: the difference between the two may be called productivity ascribable to education.

b) The average annual contribution that a student makes to production as a result of his / her education and training must exceed the average annual expenditure on his / her education and training.

c) There should be a positive correlation between the level of training and the level of earnings; the higher the training the higher should be the earnings.

d) In general, the professional, technical and vocational education in courses involving high 'per capita' investment should enable a student to earn more than he / she would if he / she had received his / her education for an equal number of years in a non-professional academic institution.

e) Productivity will be higher if the educational system is geared to self-earnings or earnings from self-employment, rather than to wages or fixed salaries.

f) Any investment in education that causes or aggravates unemployment, is wasteful.

Chapter-1

Theoretical Framework of the Study

Introduction

The Constitution of India guarantees equality of opportunities in matters relating to employment, and directs the Centre and State Governments to secure equal rights for an adequate means of livelihood, equal pay for equal work and just human conditions of work for all the people of India irrespective of sex, caste, creed or religion. It also makes special provision for women to help them improve their status in society. Despite concerted efforts at improving the status of women, Indian women still lag behind in many spheres. The status of women in large segments of Indian society could not be raised except by opening up opportunities of independent employment for them. Women graduates leaving colleges / universities need somehow to imbibe that work, even if it must be undertaken for necessity, is not only a means to earning a livelihood, but more so for acquiring an identity.

India is the second largest populated country in the world. As per the 2001 census, the female population of India was 495 million as against 117 million at the beginning of 1901. Between 1901 and 2001, the female population has increased by 367 million. The male population for 2001 was 531 million. As per the 2001 census, there were 933 women per 1000 males. In 1999-2000, the percentage of persons (15 years and above) in the labour force at the national level was 61.8 per cent as against 66.5 per cent in 1983. For males, it was 83.5 per cent as against 87.1 per cent and for the females it was 38.5 per cent as against 44.4 per cent respectively. In rural areas, persons in the labour force was 66.2 per cent with 85.4 per cent for males and 45.6 per cent for females. In the urban areas the figures were 51.1 per cent for total persons, 78.6 per cent for males and 20.9 per cent for females. The growth in employment from 1993-94 to 1999-2000 was 1.6 per cent overall with 1.9 per cent for males and 0.9 percent for females. (National Human Development Report 2001). The female labour to a large extent is unremunerated as the same is covered within the household or family enterprise. An ILO study has estimated that the value of unpaid house-hold work constituted 25.39 per cent of the total gross national product in the developing countries (I.L.O., A report, 1999).

Education is one of the most important factors which determines the status of a person. The level of education plays an important role in determining one's suitability for a job. The literacy amongst women has gone up from 0.69% in 1901 to 54.16% in 2001. During the same period, that is in the last 100 years, the literacy rate for males has gone up from 9.83 to 75.85%. If we further analyse the literacy rate by level of education, it is observed that the percentage of girls enrolment to the total enrolment at the High / Higher Secondary Stages (classes IX to XII) was 33.01 per cent in 1991-92 as against 13.33 per cent

in 1950-51. In higher education the enrolment of women was 40,000 in 1950-51 (14 women per 100 men) as against 1510 thousand in 1991-92 (49 women per 100 men). The enrolment of women has shown significant growth. However, according to the 1993-94 NSSO Survey, only 12.2 females graduates and above were in the labour force India against 14.5 males for the same in the urban areas.

Under the New Education Policy, 1986, a lot of emphasis is being laid on vocationalisation of subjects. Vocational subjects are being introduced at the +2 level to check the growing enrollment in general education and preparing students to take up jobs or set up their own self-employment units. The modern way of life and high cost of living especially in the urban areas has encouraged the women to go for jobs. The significant growth of women registrants with the Employment Exchanges in the country (from 23.50 lakh in December 1980 to 54.61 lakh in December 1988) is an indication of the women's interest in salaried jobs. As a matter of fact one of the most striking features of the employment market in India during the past few decades has been the increasing number of women seeking employment in all walks of life. The age-old social customs, prejudices, taboos and barriers discouraging women from taking up paid employment and also discouraging of women in employment by the employers are getting diluted though a bit slowly. Today, more and more women are taking up executive, managerial and professional jobs. Some of them have risen to top positions of administration in the public as well as private sector. Yet, there is no denying the fact that many remain outside employment.

Context

Employment is the main bridge between economic growth and the opportunities of human development. The most fundamental of all economic opportunities, employment or work provides people with incomes that enable them to establish command over a range of goods and services needed to ensure a decent standard of living. People value their work for many reasons beyond income. Work allows them to make a productive contribution to society and to exercise their skills and creativity. It brings strong recognition that fosters self respect and dignity. It also gives them opportunities to participate in collective effort and to interact socially. All the same unemployment is high and growing and the needs and problems of the educated unemployed women represent an important area concerning women's life considerations which needs to be viewed with totality of approach and application.

There are three interrelated aspects to the issue of totality of approach and application to unemployed educated female youth in general. The first aspect goes beyond gender exploitation in general and highlights the fact that a section of the population which comprises women, the unemployed ones, face a double burden of gender and economic deprivation. The second aspect relates to identifying various impeding factors which prevent the female youth from contributing to the economic and growth oriented development processes, and the third aspect calls for concerted efforts directed against the adverse effects of various governmental and quasi-governmental programmes implemented through the delivery of inputs, particularly employment of educated female youth. Given this perspective, the fact that hardly needs elaboration is the way in which inputs have so far been delivered which has marginalised the unemployed women and even affected their capacity to benefit from the

available package of socio-economic programmes as an equal partner in the process of national development.

Unemployed Educated Female Youth – The Double Burden Segment

The post-independence Indian era has seen the slow but steady and planned growth in terms of socio-economic dimensions of programme planning and implementation, drawn at various levels of its economy—national, state and regional. Unfortunately, during all these years of the planning and implementation process, the strategies and programmes designed for providing employment on planned basis had largely overlooked the question of gender and equity. Until recently, when employment generation was a fundamental objective in various five year plans, the job seekers stepping at the doors of various Employment Exchanges of the country were viewed as a single category of beneficiary in terms of placement for employment in governmental, quasi-governmental and private organisations. Among the job-seekers, only the male population was the larger beneficiary in the economy in which the question relating to gender equity was considered insignificant to the process. The needs of women seeking jobs and whose number went on swelling in view of the increasing volume of educational turn outs every year among them more or less were ignored, although the negative impact of development process on this group was felt deeper in view of its poor economic condition due to unemployment. But as the consciousness grows, the need of generating the whole process of social change in favor of such women began to be viewed in an entirely different context and new perspective.

To this consciousness that the category of unemployed educated women always toil under the double burden of gender and economic deprivation was added the fact that although such women have access to basic needs such as food, shelter and education, their income independence remains primarily invisible permitting little social recognition. Alongside, their implicit and invisible character in the economic share, the unemployed educated female youth faces an atmosphere of violence both within and outside the family. The phenomenon of economic deprivation due to unemployment among them tends to define their social and cultural edifice, putting further restrictions on mobility of these women youth.

Encouragingly enough, the concept of double burden is emerging and becoming clearer due to the growth of organised articulation of women's problems by social organisations and the support that they have been able to muster the press and some other sections of the media and the academic communities. There has been rapid growth in women's organisations to protest against discrimination in employment and economic status and demanding better attention from the government in women's developmental needs. Yet, there are still a number of unsolved questions that exist within the women's movement towards their economic emancipation which need to be resolved before clear-cut answers can be found. Thus, for a better understanding, more research is necessary into the socio-economic and psychological circumstances of unemployed educated female youth. For example, female youth are often found to be more vague and confused about their motivations, abilities and their occupational interests. They are often found to be lacking in the required skills for coping with the new role expected of them. Some of the problems among the educated female youth reflect uniqueness in terms of their role, conflicts and

patterns of career interest. How women youth will work out the major adjustments and responsibilities required by their roles in their family coupled with complexities of combining with their vocational pursuits? How would women youth respond to the question on impact of their pursuit of employment career on division of general household responsibilities and decision making? These are some of the critical areas of interest to social scientists of the day. Such critical symbols not only epitomise the commonality of interest on issues of equity between men and women, but also reinforce the notion that adjustment between domestic responsibilities and employment career pursuits can be put aside while the struggle to bring economic self-reliance and independence to the door of unemployed female youth continues.

Concept of Women as the Weaker Section

Efforts to diagnose and suggest solutions for the problems of women as weaker sections of the society have been made by several committees and study groups appointed in the wake of launching all out programmes for enhancement of the status of women in India. The terms of reference of these committees and groups, however, were limited to women mostly belonging to rural areas and the general problems of urban women including that of unemployed educated women youth could not get the required attention of these committees and groups. The concept, as may be stated, should have been comprehensive enough to include all pertinent social groups, including the unemployed educated women approximating to the social reality of women as a weaker section of the society.

In identifying and determining the status of women as the weaker section, certain political, social and economic criteria may be used. The political rubric includes political participation and leadership which embraces the attitudinal and behavioral dimensions both in form and context. The social rubric consists of both achieved and desirable status which could be analysed by variables such as literacy, education, occupation and development orientation. The economic rubric includes income generated from permanent sources such as land holding, employment, voluntary or self-employment, etc. It may be worth mentioning that due consideration of the needs and problems of the unemployed educated women youth on the basis of the above three stated criteria needs to be given while measuring the status of women as the weaker sections of society. This would help in providing an objective and scientific assessment of the degree of backwardness of an important sub-group (unemployed educated) within the women population of the country.

Significance of Employment Among Women

The educational level of women is significant because it improves the chances of employment, and the number of employed women in a country's total labour force has direct bearing on both the GNP (Gross National Product) and the disposable income of the individual family.

Disposable income especially in the hands of women, influences food purchase and therefore the nutritional status of the families. The fact that this additional income derived from the paid employment of women provides a logical incentive to restrict the size of the family. It is a debatable issue whether reduction in family size is a pre-condition for female employment or female employment is a pre-condition for reduced family size. It is nevertheless a fact that they are associated phenomena, whether the relationship is caused or

not. Prof. David McClelland of Harvard University has pointed out, “it is impossible to name a single country in which an economy has developed rapidly over a long period without women having been to some extent liberated from the traditional domestic tasks, having been permitted to play an important role in society, particularly in the labour market.”

Unemployment to an educated young woman renders her potential for productivity a waste, devoids her of opportunities to become a complete human being and perpetuates in her children these characteristics which are conducive to healthy growth and development. Potentialities of an educated female youth becomes more than the focus of an emotional crusade for human rights. This fact must be acknowledged as a pre-requisite to national development and given high priority in planning and implementation of growth targets and objectives.

Chapter-2

Review of Literature

In this chapter, an attempt has been made to briefly present a review of literature available on the issues and problems surrounding unemployment and employment–related questions, educational as well as occupational career goals and aspirations, gender discrimination in work and employment, etc., with a view to briefly indicating what has been done on the aspects concerning the theme of the present study.

The National Council of Women's Education of India set up a sub-committee in 1962 to consider the question of part-time employment and training of women. Before any policy could be indicated it was considered essential that a survey should be conducted to ascertain the attitude of women them selves to part-time employment. A Planning Committee including representatives of the Planning Commission, Institute of Applied Manpower Research, and the Delhi School of Social Work was set up to plan the survey. On the recommendations of the Planning Committee, it was decided to under take a survey on a pilot basis at selected places through suitable agencies like the Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Bombay and the Delhi School of Social Work, New Delhi, in the areas where these institutions are located.

A study conducted by Dr. Baljit Singh (head of the Department of Economics) in the year 1955 titled "A report on Unemployment in the city of Lucknow" focussed upon the incidence of unemployment, the unemployed men and women, the cases of unemployment and the time–spells of unemployment. The sample of the study included a total of 20,666 families. The study pointed out that the unemployed:earner ratio existed roughly at 1 to 10, that is for every ten earners there was one unemployed. The incidence of absolute unemployment as reported in the study came to be at 10.36% of earner and 0.25% per family. On an average there was one unemployed person in every four families in the city. Applying these ratios to the Lucknow city population as a whole, the study concluded that there were less than 22,660 absolutely unemployed person in the city towards the beginning of the year in 1954 and therefore absolute unemployment affected more than 22,000 families. According to this survey, nearly one-fifth of the unemployed persons were women while unemployed men comprised a little more than four-fifths of the total. Their agewise break up revealed an interesting contrast, viz, the proportion of unemployed women declines with advancement in age so that in the last age group of 40 years and above their proportion is no more than 9% as compared to 22% in the younger age-groups. Of the total unemployed men, nearly 46% were above the age of 25 years and as many as 30% were of 31 years and more. The proportion of women of these age-groups among the unemployed fell to 30% and 20% respectively.

One of the most important findings of the present survey was that women should work if it was necessitated by economic conditions of the family. The economic factors as the main

consideration for women being in employment demonstrated by the Bombay and Delhi Surveys is not a special feature of Indian conditions. In Britain, the Social Science Department of the London School of Economics published in 1960 a short advance report, "Women, Wife and Worker". On the basis of its survey of employment position of women at Messrs. Peck Freon Limited–a biscuit manufacturing company was predominantly staffed by women workers. The report concluded "From what the women themselves said, there was no doubt that they worked mainly for financial reasons". As most of the husbands were in regular employment, it was not for the sheer necessities of life that more money was required. For most women the aim was a higher standard of living for their families. What they meant by a higher standard varied, but much of their earnings went to refurnishing or redecorating their homes, a more varied diet the durable consumers goods and the pocket money and toys for the children. The family holiday, often previously confined to hop-hiking expeditions, became a major new pleasure. Another major finding was that among the (educated) working women, there were more women in teaching than in any other profession.

Contrary to popular belief that women's interests in employment are transitional or temporary, the indications from the Bombay and Delhi surveys are that, most of the respondents were interested in their jobs or linked to work, as far as their circumstances permitted, because the working conditions were generally good. The second important reason for the job linking was that it was a source of income. A few respondents had a liking for the job, because it helped to increase their knowledge or because it helped them in getting good social contacts or even because employment helped them to be busy. An important reason which perhaps the unmarried among them were shy to disclose was better marriage prospects.

An attempt by Lorraine D. Eyde (1962) to predict the work motivation of college women fielded a Work Value Scale which had a wider application than originally anticipated. Eyde's Scale has a hierarchy of six work values, which are identifiable psychological needs: (1) dominance recognition (2) economic (3) independence (4) interesting activity (5) mastery-achievement and (6) social. The research was able to demonstrate that the overall work motivation of college seniors was not significantly different from that of alumnae of 5 years.

John C. Flangan (1964), director of project 'Talent', concluded that, "Far from being excellent the education given to our nation's girls is not even adequate to prepare them for effectiveness in appropriate occupations, as responsible citizens or as parents". The result of Flanagan's study indicates that "girls on entering high-school do about as well as, or slightly better than, boys on such tests as arithmetic reasoning, abstract reasoning, reading, comprehension and creativity."

Educators are increasingly accepting an important role in the social and economic system of the country. As a result, society is making increasing demands upon the schools to provide the necessary skilled manpower for the future. Coleman (1965) has stated that "the school is an institution designed by the adult society to transmit its values and skills to children". The effectiveness of this transmission has been questioned for the population as a whole, but for girls in particular.

The book titled 'The Cause of Graduate Unemployment In India' by Mark Blaug, Richard Layard and Maureen Woodhal has addressed towards the problems of educated

unemployed in India. The study was undertaken as part of a joint project on manpower and educational planning in India by the 'Higher Education Research Unit' at the London School of Economics and the 'New Delhi Planning Unit' of the India Statistical Institute. Analysing the data in different ten chapters, the study presented measures of dealing with the problem of educated unemployment. The authors have come out with their concluding remarks on the theme, such as 'Causes of Educated Unemployment', the falling quality of education and controlling the supply of educated people. Commenting upon the diagnosis of educated unemployment in India the study remarks: The Causes of Educated Unemployment in India run deep in the functioning of the Indian Labour Market, the hiring prices of the government, the institution of joint family, and the personal values of education in Indians.

The article entitled 'Vocation Interest Pattern of Students Leaving High-School' by V.S. Shanthamani and A. Hafeez, published in the Indian Journal of Social Work vol. 30, no. 4 January, 1970, attempted to find out the occupational interest pattern of high-school leaving students. In this study, the interest-test constructed for the purpose consisted of 101 occupations based on students vocational interest bank. The students were instructed to tick against each job, if they were aware of that job and then to denote their preferences. The study concluded that there was a strong tendency on the part of the students to prefer engineering and other technical jobs. Majority of the students were found to be unaware of the training facilities and occupational information at the time of their leaving the school, the study observed. But the women who work in India, fall more on necessity than choice in this respect. Thus, the job activities, child care and the emotional commitment to the extended family relations become part of the number of responsibilities required of such Indian women. Some researches conducted abroad have examined how women who work actually cope with child care along with their other responsibilities (Thompson and Findlayson, 1963; Yadkin and Holme, 1963).

For married women who work, the public sphere of job and the private sphere of home and family are seldom maintained as separate and distinct as they can be for many men. Obviously, both men and women have responsibilities on each of these spheres. But whereas men can usually divided up their time and their commitment, devoting the hours of ten to five (10.00 am to 5.00 pm.) each week day to their work and evenings and weekends to their families, for women these areas of responsibilities and the exceptions from them cannot be so readily compartmental designed by as such. This has resulted in much discussions about women's dual roles (Klein, 1965, Ronda and Moss, 1976; Barker and Allen, 1976; Mackie and Pattulle, 1971) and about the problems of combining the dual responsibilities (Yeandle, 1984, Ronda and Moss, 1976; Harper and Richmonds, 1979; Sharpe, 1984). These difficulties become particularly acute when there are children in the family, where in addition to maintaining the home the woman is responsible for care, safe keeping and emotional stability of the children born out of the marital union.

The study "Employment of Educated Married Women in India," by Vinita Srivastava, 1978, attempts to examine why some married women belonging to the privileged class enter in gainful employment and choose to act as secondary bread winners of the family.

A study entitled 'Working Women and Families', edited by Karen Wolk Fenistein (1979) speaks of problems revolving around women's employment–problems which are due to inability or unwillingness of major social institutions to respond to the changes in women's

work roles. Providing information for womens studies at the college level, the study presents a vivid account of the nature of discriminatory practices in employment structure at the national level.

A study entitled 'Dual-Career Couples' edited by Fran Pepitone-Rockwell (1980) emphasised that the traditional family model no longer meets the needs of couples in the 1980s. In order to fully assess the complexities of the dual career family, the twenty-four contributors discussed the historical development of the dual-career couple, marriage and family issues, and career concerns. Their extensive analysis of the advantages and disadvantages of this life style highlight the search for equity in marriage, family and career.

A study entitled 'At home and At Work' authored by Michael Geerken and Walker R. Gove (1983) gives an interesting data set and pose and answer some important questions concerning the relationship between a wife's labour force participation and the allocation of household labour. The most important contributions of the work are (1) the implicit recognition and documentation of the fact that choice of allocation of labour for the wife–in the market or in the home–is not primarily a response to societal role expectation to the sex-role ideology of husbands and wives, but to economic circumstances, many of which are beyond the family control; and (2) that when we examine the time allocation of household labour, we are mainly focusing on the distributions of tasks between the wife, children and other labourers; since the husband's contribution to this major set of family tasks remains constant and very low.

The study 'Social Profile of Working Women' by Usha Talwar, 1984 attempts to elicit the opinions of working women about some aspects of their life, their attitude towards work and related matters and also to assess the attitude of their family members, relatives and neigbours to their employment in terms of the perception of the working women themselves.

The study entitled 'Employment Problems of University Graduates' by C. Parvathamma, Professor of Sociology, Mysore University (1984) represents a monograph on the problem of unemployment among University Graduates. The study is based on a sample of 2530 students from Mysore University, Karnataka University, Bangalore University and Agricultural Science. The findings of the study has been quite revealing. As regards the causes of unemployment the study broadly reveals that the causes of unemployment can be broadly categorized into external and internal. The external causes are effectively outside the individual, and they cannot be controlled by their efforts. While internal causes often pertain to and emanate from the individual over which a person can always have certain amount of control. These categories are relevant and applicable to both the educated and uneducated but unemployed. The study also points to certain welcome and encouraging trends in the right direction to tide over the situation. Notably among these are: a good percentage of students are willing to make arrangements for self-employment; also they are willing to undertake manual jobs if necessary; majority of professional students and a good proportion of non-professional students are prepared to seek jobs outside the country; while 50% of the non-professional students do not mind being unemployed and finally, majority are willing to serve in defence forces. It is clear from the study that students feel that employment brings them prestige and status and without it they are evaluated unfavourably by their families and by the society in general and provide incentive to students' unrest in particular.

A study on 'Impact of Industrialisation on Work Participation of Women Workers in Pune City' by C.K. Dolaya, 1986 reveals that women are a great potential source of the labour supply in an economy which can be utilised for economic growth. Therefore, their work participation in any economy needs to be maximised. The increase in women's labour force participation is part of a qualitative transformation in consumption patterns of the family and is required for economic growth. Industrialisation and consequent urbanisation of a region do open up the opportunities for employment to labour.

A study entitled 'Women's Career Development' edited by Barbara A. Gutek, and Laurie Larood, (1986) made inquiries into the goals, preferences and aspirations of college students with respect to the kinds of jobs they hoped, expected, or intended to get after graduation. Women represented an anomaly in the model since they were assumed to select marriage and motherhood as their career. In a little over a decade, this model has become completely outdated, making careers, and women's careers in particular, a research area of increasing importance. The old assumption, the old model, and the old research have given way to newer and revealing inquiries on the subject. The study presents a rich profile of women's careers across a broad survey of professions. Well-executed and original research focuses on what motivates successful women to achieve, how they feel about their jobs, and why their career paths often differ from men's. It lays an excellent in-road for a theory of career development that can encompass women's life experiences.

A study entitled Invisible Hands : Women In Home Based Production' edited by Andrea Menefree Singh and Anita Kelles Viitanen (1987) shows that home-based work lay an important role both in a family's and a nation's economy. This is true not just in developing countries but, increasingly, in developed countries as well. However, this productive activity which is largely the preserve of women tends to remain invisible in economic statistics and ignored by legislators and planners further, since they are isolated in their homes, these women workers are extremely vulnerable to exploitation. In this work, collection of original articles examine women's home based production in diverse cultural, occupational and national settings. By focussing on home based work, this publication highlights the interlinkages between individual households and the wider structures and processing of society, calling on attention from activators, planners and scholars alike as well as to all those interested in the problem of women and development.

A study of 'Women Employees and Rural Development' by Anuradha Bhoite,1987, explores the problems of women employees who were involved in Community Development programme meant for the upliftment of rural masses. These problems cannot be viewed in isolation as they have arisen from various social factors, in particular the prevailing socio-economic situation in rural areas, the constraints of the social structure and the bureaucratic framework in which they have to work.

Social Scientists have documented the serious consequences of unemployment for individuals, family and community including increased rates of physical and mental discard and family violence. Research by Robins and Belle on the mental health of women has suggested that low-income working women became impoverished. Robins found that although men and women have equal rates of mental health problems they (both men and women) tend to manifest their problems in different ways. In such situations whereas men tend to abuse alcohol and drugs and engage in anti-social behaviour, women are prone to

falling victims of severe depression and anxiety. The key risk factors for women included poverty and financially drained circumstances, inadequate child care and involuntary job of low and poor status. (Robins, etc. al. Lifetime prevalence of specific Psychiatric Disorders in three sites in Unemployment Among Low Income Women : An Exploratory study by Rebeecca Donovan Nina Jaffee, Viola M. Perie, in Social Work, July-Aug. 1987, Vol. 32. No. 4, P. 302).

The study titled 'Unemployment: A Social and Human Service Issue' by Katherine Hooper, Briar, Hans Berglind & Marie D. Hoff (1990) argues that work and employment are universal shapers of individual, family and community functioning. Unemployment and underemployment may be the precipitant of many of the present problems brought to the social workers. Thus, it is argued that the promotion of full and equitable employment must be a cornerstone of national and international policy. Historical and international perspectives on the meaning of work are addressed along with a discussion of the measures of unemployment. The authors call for a future involving socially valued roles and more equitable distribution of resources. The effects of economic marginalisation on individuals, family and community well–being are well–documented, and patterns have been shown to be universal, cross-cutting various societies (International Council on Social Welfare 1986; Warner 1985; Windschuttle 1981). Individual effects include self-recrimination, depression, and sometimes mental hospitalisation as well as suicide (Ferman & Gardus 1979; Gordus & Mcalinden, 1982). Family violence is well-documented outcome of joblessness. Unemployment has been shown to be the best predictor of child abuse. Spouse abuse has also been attributed to joblessness. The family stresses of economic marginalisation are also reflected in increased rates of divorce, separation, runaway behaviour and parent-child conflict (Garbarion 1984; Gil 1970; Ligh 1973).

The study titled 'Population Growth and The Problem of Unemployment' by Prof. S.P. Gupta(1990) represents the first milestone in the direction of framing the programming of growth and welfare which has so far been tragically overshadowed by the growing population pressure in India. The study has come out with an analysis of trend of population growth, the composition of labour force, the level of unemployment and the projection of job opportunities together with the extent of manpower available in the country. Based on both the primary sources and the secondary sources of data the researcher has surveyed two hundred families selected from four districts, two each in Jammu and Kashmir regions, respectively. The study has displayed that the educated unemployment has increased from the level of 0.39 lakh in 1974 to 0.81 lakh in 1979 and 1.83 lakh in 1984 in the selected four districts of that state. This makes a net increase of 369% in 1984 over 1974 level, as viewed by the study. The study further maintains that on the basis of this net increase the educated unemployed is expected to have an annual rate of growth of about 37% between 1974 to 1984. The study concludes that in the light of these facts there is all the more pressing need to take such steps which seek to reduce the unequal gender size of labor force on the one hand and creation of more jobs in the wake of higher level of socio-economic development on the other.

The report of a high level official Committee on Special Employment Programme for the Educated Unemployed, has recommended that the programme should be supported through directed lending. Besides credit, the report said, total support system including training for entrepreneurship development and marketing need to be provided for self-

employment ventures. It also wanted expansion of facilities for training and reorientation of educated manpower with the involvement of industry. In the long run, reorientation of the education system for improving the employability of the educated was necessary. Universities and industries should be made to play a special role towards promoting job–oriented education and training, observed the report. Among the existing special employment programmes, the one most relevant for the educated unemployed was the scheme for self-employment of the educated unemployed youth (SEEUY) started in 1983 by the Industry Ministry. An evaluation showed that the success rate in the self-employment units set up under the scheme had been about 60%. The entrepreneurs would be required to bring in a margin of 10% of the project cost and subsidy is proposed to be reduced from 25% to 15%. Short training is also proposed to be provided to the beneficiaries. The schemes aim at providing self-employment to about 2.5 lakh educated unemployed youth annually, with an expected average subsidy of Rs. 6,000/- and credit of Rs. 30,000 per beneficiary. At this rate the annual credit and subsidy requirement would be Rs. 150 crore and Rs. 750 crore, respectively. The report further says that the Urban Development Ministry has proposed a similar scheme for the educated unemployed youth in urban localities (SEEUY), applicable to towns with a population of above one lakh. The scheme, which is proposed to be implemented through the district urban development agencies, provides for the training to the beneficiaries to enhance their technical skills and also provision of common facilities whenever a group of beneficiaries engage themselves in the same activity. The scheme broadly entails subsidy, entrepreneur contribution and loan from banks of 15%, 10% and 75% of the project cost respectively. It has been estimated that the average project cost per beneficiary would be Rs. 48,000, consisting of Rs. 36,000 as credit component Rs.72,000 as subsidy and Rs. 4,800 as beneficiary contribution. In view of the fact that the salaried jobs in the public or private sector were not expanding fast, self-employment in industry, business and services seemed to be the main answer to the problem of educated unemployment. Since the structural adjustment process, currently on, was likely to lead to certain degree of displacement of workers from the organised as well as the related unorganised sector, the need for such programmes has acquired special urgency. The size of such programmes would obviously depend upon the availability of resources. The report argues that direct priority-lending should continue for self-employment programmes, subsidisation, though at a minimum level, should also continue and interest subsidy as alternative to capital subsidy could also be considered. The report also says that venture capital could be floated by relevant institutions with possible international funding. Part of the national renewal fund could also be used for this purpose. It must, however, be stressed that besides credit, it was necessary to provide total support system for training and entrepreneurship development and marketing. The report suggested that the following areas and activities need to be encouraged for employment for the educated sector; use of solar energy-servicing, repairing, fisheries, sericulture, warehousing and agro–processing, dairy, poultry, education and continuing education, entertainment etc. The report said, educated women should be encouraged and supported to take up manufacture and repair service of electric and electronic gadgets, watch assembling and repair, computer software etc. Short term training programmes and special banking facilities should be provided to them. In the ongoing as well as new programmes for self-employment, a minimum coverage of women should be fixed. The programmes for training women as para-medical workers should be expanded.

The study entitled 'Public Policies for Women in India', edited by Shusheela Kaushik provides a collection of essays based on research and analysis. The volume deals with

different public policies for women's development in relation to education and social support. Schemes like Awareness and Income Generation Programmes, meant to promote the self–image of women, help in building confidence and empowering the women to face and overcome the centuries old prejudices. Some of the questions that have been proved by the study are: to what extent have these schemes been implemented? Though in operation for more than a decade now, have they been able to perform their tasks? Have they reached out to the bulk of the women in distress?

The Informative Gap

In common social parlance, women are included among 'vulnerable' groups and therefore are subjects of special 'care' and attention. The growing body of literature on women has described them as suppressed, oppressed and depressed mass of exploited persons because of their socio-political, socio-economic and socio-psychological characteristics. Viewed in this perspective of educated women irrespective of their level of education may hardly look as reflective of special care and concern, where the development system is supposed to cater to predominantly illiterate and ignorant women, and harping on familiar limitations of shoe–string budgets. Asking for solutions to unemployment problems peculiar to educated women (who form after all only a minority group) might seem a luxurious cry in the wilderness wideness. Yet damages inflicted through neglect at any stage in any individuals life tend to be irreversible. That and the fact of the peculiar problems of unemployment among the educated women youth should call for some serious awakening of conscience among the authorities controlling and implementing Employment Exchange service on the one hand and among the public and professional groups on the other.

The primary stumbling block in addressing oneself to this sub-group among the women youth population is quite clearly lack of sufficient or even necessary reliable data. The fact that a comprehensive study of unemployed educated women youth has never been attempted in itself speaks volumes for their utter-neglect as an area of public policy and action. Published data on unemployed educated persons do offer some comparative statistics on unemployment incidence between sexes, literacy levels, vocational interests, aspirations, causes etc. But even these statistical comparisons do not feature uniformly in all tables. Information regarding the impact of unemployment on socio-economic situations pertaining to the educated women youth on comprehensive basis is totally lacking.

The Perspective

The phenomenon of unemployment is one that must always be a part of any thought or realistic study of educated female's socio-economic life. The study of the state of unemployment among them in general relates to some inherent particularised features of their (female's) changing conditions, changing needs and changing demands. None of the latter phenomena is more important in the life of woman than those barriers that present cleavages, social, psychological and economic in nature.

Chapter-3

An Overview of Higher Education and Women Education in India

Background of Higher Education in India

In our country, the present system of higher education started in the Nineteenth Century under the British India.

From the following periods, we get a graphic picture of our system of higher education:

a) Period of colleges.
b) Period of first University.
c) Establishment of new Universities.
d) Higher Education since Independence.

Period of Colleges

This period comprises from the beginning of the British Rule upto 1857 when the first three Universities were set up at Calcutta, Madras and Bombay. The British rulers established many Government and private colleges till 1857. The more prominent of such colleges were:

Banaras Sanskrit College,
Hindu College,
Calcutta Christian College,
Madras and Agra Colleges.

There were 23 colleges of general education, 3 Medical Colleges, and 1 Civil Engineering School in the year 1857.

Period of First Universities

This period ranges from 1857 to 1917. Accepting the recommendations of Wood's Dispatch of 1855, the Universities of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras were established in 1857 on the model of London University. All the three Universities performed the functions of only conducting examinations. Emulating the examples of these Universities, Punjab and Allahabad Universities were established in 1882 and 1887respectively. There was a rather slow growth in the number of colleges which increased from 27 in 1857 to 68 in 1982, i.e. in 25 years.

However, thereafter the college education seems to have received a great impetus, the number of colleges having gone up to 179 in 1901-02.

University education made a great progress during the reign of Lord Curzon, Viceroy of India. In order to give a fillip to the University education, he appointed the Indian University Commission in 1902 in order to enquire into the conditions and working of the Indian Universities and make necessary suggestions. Two years later, the Indian Universities Act was passed. This Act brought about many important changes in the organisation, jurisdiction, powers and administration, etc. of the Universities. This Act rejected the plea of establishment of more Universities. Consequently, the expansion of the University education was checked for some time. However, it must be admitted that this Act went a long way to improve and reform the conditions and standards of the contemporary Universities and Colleges.

Establishment of New Universities

After the establishment of Allahabad University in 1887, no new University was established for a period of 30 years. However, a number of new colleges were created during this period. In view of the increase in the number of colleges it was felt that the existing five Universities (Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, Punjab and Allahabad) were incapable to cope with the increased work. Hence, it was thought necessary to increase the number of Universities. The Government Resolution of 1913 emphasised the establishment of new Universities. The Calcutta University Commission, 1917 also advised the establishment of new Universities. Consequently the following Universities were established between 1916 and 1947. Mysore (1916), Patna (1917), Banaras Hindu (1917), Osmania (1918), Aligarh Muslim (1920), Dacca (1920), Lucknow (1920), Delhi (1922), Nagpur (1923), Andhra (1926), Agra (1927), Annamalai (1929), Travancore (1937), Utkal (1943), Sagar (1947), and Rajputana (1947).

Colonial rulers used education as a device to build and perfect an exploitative machine to deny to the Indian an identity of his own and to insulate local people from the rising world industrial culture. However, the very instrument used by the British to create a socio-cultural base for recruitment and training of administrative functionaries enabled Indians to become aware of the nature of imperialism. As an end product of the '*Civilising*' mission of British rule, the higher education enrollment per lakh of population in 1947-48 was as follows:

Table-3.1
Enrolment Per Lakh Population

Research	0.14
M.A. / M.Sc	2.31
B.A. / B.Sc.	14.87
Teacher Training	0.88
Engineering and Technology	1.84
Agriculture	1.07
Forestry	0.07
Medicine	2.53
Veterinary	0.23
Law	2.16
Commerce	4.19
Total Higher Education	30.31

It is no doubt true that in absolute terms, enrolment in higher education during the pre-independence period jumped from seven thousand in 1879-80 to more than one lakh in 1947-48 i.e., it increased about sixteen times in a period of about seventy years. The growth rate appears to be high perhaps because of the low base.

The development of the Indian educational system not only had serious inadequacies in terms of the size of enrolment but also in terms of its spatial pattern and content. Instead of preparing scientists, technologists and agronomists, the Indian higher education was, by and large, engaged in producing graduated *'flunkeys'*– office functionaries and clerks, so that the colonial domination of the country could be perpetuated. For example, it may be observed from table-3.2 below that about two-thirds of enrolment in 1947-48 and as much as 80 per cent in 1916-17 was concentrated in general and liberal education:

Table-3.2
Facultywise Enrolment in Higher Education : 1916-17 and 1947-48

	1916-17		**1947-48**	
Stream	Enrolment	% of Total Enrolment	Enrolment*	% of Total Enrolment
General (Arts, Sci. & Com.)	46,900	80.00	75,272	70.98
Law	5,426	9.25	7,576	7.14
Medicine	2,481	4.23	8,850	8.35
Engineering	1,139	2.25	6,437	6.07
Teaching	716	1.22	3,087	2.91
Agriculture	445	0.76	3,759	3.54
Veterinary	461	0.79	806	0.76
Forestry	161	0.27	256	0.24
Total	58,639	100.00	1,06,043	100.00

Note: ** Excluding the enrolments in Intermediate Classes.*

The need for engineering colleges arose to meet the demand of construction and maintenance of public buildings, railways, ports and roads. In the case of engineering colleges, the enrolment in the civil engineering branch was more as compared to mechanical or electrical engineering. The first engineering college in the country was located at Roorkee and it specialised in producing civil engineers. The only school of mining at Dhanbad used to admit only ten students a year. Thus we find that a large chunk of enrolment was geared to production of office functionaries and could hardly be described as development oriented education.

Inequities in Education – Women Education

In addition to the different facets of the educational profile briefly sketched above, the incidence of inequities in colonial higher education was of higher order. These inequities were of several types : scheduled castes-non-scheduled castes, scheduled tribe-non scheduled tribe and male-female. The nature of these disparities have been illustrated in the case of female enrolment in higher education (table-3.3). Women accounted for only 1.24 per cent of the total enrolment in 1916-17. The enrolment of women in higher education continued to be very low over the years. This is evident from the fact that even in 1947-48 their percentage share in the total enrolment was less than ten.

Table-3.3
Facultywise Share of Women Enrolment in Higher Education in Colonial India

Faculty	1916-17	1947-48
General (Arts, Sci.)	1.47	12.02
Law	-	0.73
Medicine	1.21	18.25
Engineering	-	0.16
Teaching	6.48	28.22
Agriculture	-	0.25
Veterinary	-	-
Commerce	-	0.51
Forestry	-	-
Total	1.24	9.35

The enrolment of girls in different faculties is given in tables 3.4, 3.5 and 3.5

Table-3.4
Enrolment of Girls in Professional Colleges

Year	Total	Girls	% of girls to total
1881-82	-	-	-
1886-87	2,411	27	1.12
1891-92	3,292	31	0.94
1896-97	4,363	43	0.99
1901-02	5,358	87	1.62
1906-07	6,250	113	1.81
1911-12	6,636	90	1.36
1916-17	11,504	180	1.56
1921-22	13,662	266	1.95
1926-27	17,951	345	1.92
1931-32	18,483	579	3.13
1936-37	21,226	955	4.50
1941-42	27,025	1,625	6.01
1946-47	44,437	2,903	6.53

Table-3.5
Enrolment of Girls and Boys in Arts and Science Colleges

Year	Total	Boys	% Boys	Girls	% Girls
1881-82	7,205	7,199	99.91	6	0.08
1886-87	8,127	8,119	99.90	8	0.09
1891-92	12,985	12,940	99.65	45	0.35
1896-97	14,420	14,333	99.40	87	0.60
1901-02	17,651	17,544	99.39	177	1.00
1906-07	18,918	18,758	99.15	160	0.85
1911-12	29,648	29,369	99.06	279	0.94
1916-17	47,293	47,135	99.67	842	1.78
1921-22	45,933	44,670	97.25	1,263	2.75
1926-27	71,968	70,035	97.31	1,933	2.69
1931-32	81,010	79,644	98.31	2,966	3.66
1936-37	97,554	91,513	93.81	6,041	6.19
1941-42	1,32,129	1,20,451	91.16	11,778	8.91
1946-47	2,12,306	1,89,002	89.02	23,304	10.98

Table-3.6
Enrolment of Girls in Normal Teacher Training Schools

	No. of Normal Schools			Enrolment in Normal Schools		
Year	Total	Girls	% Girls	Total	Girls	% Girls
1881-82	108	15	13.89	3,973	515	12.96
1886-87	135	27	20.00	4,949	616	12.45
1891-92	153	37	24.18	5,206	793	15.23
1896-97	186	45	24.19	5,725	1,113	19.44
1901-02	179	46	25.70	5,702	1,292	22.66
1906-07	377	63	16.71	9,180	2,278	24.81
1911-12	575	85	14.78	12,873	1,508	11.71
1916-17	801	111	13.86	18,631	2,651	14.23
1921-22	1,072	146	13.62	26,931	4,157	15.44
1926-27	695	166	23.88	25,274	4,664	18.45
1931-32	634	209	32.97	28,768	6,945	24.14
1936-37	563	217	38.54	27,314	7,397	26.72
1941-42	615	239	38.86	31,700	9,265	29.73
1946-47	649	206	31.74	38,873	10,835	27.87

Higher Education Since Independence:

Soon after attainment of independence, the need for a qualified and technically skilled manpower was recognised, and it was expected that the system of Indian education would be geared to meet the requirements of a developing country. The total enrolment started picking up in the wake of independence. As a result of the investments made in the successive Five Year Plans for various developmental projects under higher education, there has been a phenomenal growth in institutions and enrolment. This is given in table-3.7

Table-3.7
Growth in Institutions and Enrolment 1951-2001

Year	Universities	Colleges	Enrolment
1950-51	27	695	3,96,745
1960-61	45	1,542	1,034,934
1970-71	105	3,694	2,112,404
1974-75	111	4,170	2,366,541
1980-81	123	4,722	2,752,437
1982-83	133	5,012	3,136,986
1985-86	149	5,723	3,570,897
1991-92	207	9,278	52,65,886
1995-96	214	9,703	64,25,624
2000	221	10,555	7,078,000
2001	227	11,089	7,418,000
2002	259	11,089	7,418,000

Note: 1) Figures for 2000, 2001, 2002 have been taken from India 2000, India 2001 and India 2002, Reference Annual published by Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, Government of India.

2) As growth must be minimal the figures for colleges and Enrolment for 2001, 2002 shows no increase

Of the 259 Universities in the country in 2002, there are 16 Central Universities and the remaining are functioning under State Acts. There are 49 institutions declared as deemed-to-be universities under the University Grants Commission Act, 1956. There are 11,089 colleges, enrolment of students is 74.18 lakhs while the number of teachers is 3.42 lakhs. Among the 11,089 colleges are those which provide education in professional disciplines such as engineering, agriculture, medicine, architecture, law, etc. About 76 per cent are privately managed colleges. Excepting about a dozen autonomous colleges, the rest are affiliated to the universities for academic and degree awarding purposes. While there has been almost a twenty fold increase in higher education enrollment in the last 50 years, it must also be remembered that not more than 7% of the relevant age-group of the youth (boys and girls) have access to higher education.

While the institutional and enrolment growth since 1950-51 has been fantastic, pattern of distribution of student enrolment has also changed over the years. A more stupendous

demonstration of the strength of this infrastructure has been witnessed in the fields of agriculture, science and technology, energy and space. About 1,50,000 qualified scientific and technical personnel are produced every year.

Table-3.8
Facultywise Enrolment of Graduates and Post-Graduates
(Percentages to total enrolment)

Faculty	1960-61	1965-66	1970-71	1975-76	1980-81	1991-92	1997-98
Arts	44.9	40.90	44.30	44.50	40.60	40.4	40.4
Science	30.0	32.80	31.70	19.20	19.40	19.6	19.6
Commerce	10.20	9.60	11.50	17.10	20.20	21.9	21.9
Eng. Tech	3.60	4.90	3.00	3.90	4.70	4.9	4.9
Medicine	2.70	4.10	3.30	4.30	4.00	3.4	3.4
Education	1.50	1.90	1.80	3.10	2.60	2.3	2.3
Agriculture	1.30	2.90	1.40	1.20	1.50	1.1	1.1
Law	2.30	2.20	2.30	5.80	6.30	5.3	5.3
Vet. Science	0.50	0.40	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.3	0.3
Others	3.00	0.50	0.40	0.40	0.60	0.8	0.8
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Note: In the above table, Enrolment in Intermediate classes affiliated to the Board of High School and Intermediate Education, U.P. is included up to the year 1972-73. From 1973-74 onward it is excluded.

Student Enrolment in the Universities Facultywise 1991-92 to 1995-96 and 1997-98 is given at the end of the Chapter-3

Source: Annual Reports of UGC.

The distribution of the faculty-wise enrolment is a manifestation of the skills acquired by the perspective work force and has great bearing not only on the efficiency levels of the work force but also on its ability to perform various specialised and general functions in an economy. The changing technological base of an economy would thus get reflected in the faculty-wise composition of enrolment. It is in this vein that we have examined the data on faculty-wise enrolments.

A preliminary investigation into faculty-wise distribution of enrolment reveals that from time to time there have been changes in the classification of some subjects from one faculty to another. Further the enrolment for intermediate classes was considered as part of higher education as well as that of secondary education depending upon the type of institution to which attached. To build a time series on faculty-wise enrolments is, therefore, quite difficult. Table 3.8 above presents the faculty-wise distribution of enrolment from the year 1960-61 to 1997-98. A similar information for 1947-48 has already been resented in table-

3.2. A comparison of these two tables shows the direction in which the expansion in higher education since independence has taken place. It is quite evident that during the fifties, the relative expansion has been more in non-professional as compared to professional courses. Consequently, the percentge share of enrolment in Medicine decreased from 8.35 in 1947-48 to only 2.70 in 1960-61 and that of Engineering fell from 6.07 to 3.60 during the same period.

The position with respect to faculty-wise distribution of enrolments after 1960-61 has also undergone significant changes. During the sixties, the share of Science subjects rose upto 1965-66 (32.80 per cent) and has started showing a declining or stable trends consistently since then and was 19.6 in 1997-98.

Another important aspect of faculty-wise enrolment is that the share of Commerce faculty to total enrolment has picked up after 1965-66 when its share was only 9.60 per cent of the total enrolment. In 1997-98, this figure reached 21.9 per cent. It appears there has been a gradual shift in enrolment from the Arts to the Commerce faculty. The share of enrolment in Law faculty to total enrolment has also shown an increasing trend consistently. These shifts do not show any quantitative improvement. They only indicate that attention was focussed on the development of consumer and service sectors.

The faculty-wise enrolment reflects many significant changes in the composition of enrolment. The net result of these changes has been an increase of Arts and Commerce at the cost of Science. It is clear from the above analysis that even after 48 years of planned development, the distortions introduced into the system during the colonial times have continued to persist. The share of Engineering and Medicine to the total enrolments is now less than what it used to be in 1947-48. This is a matter of serious concern for policy-makers. One of the reasons for the present state of affairs could be that education has been considered only as a passport to white-collar jobs in the public and private sectors of the economy. Consequently, the emphasis was on getting a degree by taking soft subjects. The tendency has continued to persist inspite of efforts to bring about technological self-reliance in the economy.

Women in Higher Education after Independence

The attainment of independence and the constitutional guarantee of sex equality introduced new dimensions in the educational sphere for women who were expected to play multiple roles in the polity, economy and the society. In view of this, sustained efforts to extend education among women have been made since independence. Inspite of such a perspective and rapid expansion of the formal educational system, the vast majority of the Indian women have remained outside the reach of education. Given the constitutional guarantee and in the context of overall increase in the infrastructural facilities let us reflect on the situation with respect to female education. The share of women enrolment in the total enrolment is shown in table-3.9. The share of women in higher education has increased from 21.5 percent in 1966-67 to about 34.6 percent in 1997-98.

Table-3.9
Women Enrolment 1966-67 to 1997-98

(in 000s)

Year	Total Enrolment	Women Enrolment	% of the total
1966-67	1190.7	255.5	21.5
1967-68	1370.3	300.8	21.9
1968-69	1566.1	347.0	22.1
1969-70	1792.8	394.6	22.0
1970-71	1953.7	431.5	22.0
1971-72	2065.0	468.7	22.7
1972-73	2168.1	495.0	22.8
1973-74	2227.0	520.8	23.4
1976-77	2431.6	627.3	25.8
1979-80	2648.6	689.0	26.6
1980-81	2752.4	748.5	27.2
1981-82	2952.0	816.7	27.7
1995-96	6425.6	2191.1	34.1
1997-98	7078.2	2445.7	34.6

Sources: 1) Third All India Survey on Higher Education, UGC, New Delhi, 1977.

2) ***UGC Annual Reports***.

The faculty-wise distribution of women enrolment upto 1981-82 is shown in table-3.10. It may be observed from the table that the share of women in Arts subjects has been quite large. Nearly two-thirds of their enrolment is in Arts and Commerce faculties. The share of Arts has been ranging from 55 to nearly 65 per cent. The professional courses continue to have very low female participation.

Table-3.10
Facultywise Distribution of Women Enrolment (1971-72 to 1981-82)

Year	Arts	Science	Commerce	Engineering	Medicine
1971-72	64.66	21.60	2.23	0.20	4.25
1973-74	65.52	19.44	3.09	0.20	4.09
1974—75	65.64	10.20	4.00	0.24	3.80
1975-76	65.98	18.77	4.62	0.34	3.23
1979-80	57.75	20.33	9.88	0.64	3.54
1980-81	56.15	20.55	11.84	0.66	3.60
1981-82	55.71	20.28	12.85	0.72	3.65

During the seventies, there has been a gradual shift from Arts faculty to Commerce faculty. The share of Commerce faculty has increased from about 2 per cent in 1971-72 to about 13 per cent in 1981-82. There has been a corresponding decrease in the share of enrolment in the Arts faculty. The enrolment of women in Medicine and Engineering

courses continues to be very low. The share of women in medicine instead of increasing has rather shown signs of decline.

The data of faculty-wise enrolment of women in 1995-96 and 1997-98 is given below in table-3.11.

Table-3.11
Facultywise Women's Enrolment 1995-96 and 1997-98

Faculty	Enrolment 1995-96	Enrolment 1997-98
Arts	11,91,774	13,30,475
Commerce	3,09,830	4,69,580
Science	4,40,354	3,32,619
Education	85,699	83,155
Law	39,551	48,915
Engineering and Technology	26,368	51,360
Others (Including Medicine, Agriculture, Vet-Science, Music/Fine Arts, Social Work, Physical Education, etc.	97,562	12,96,623
Total	21,91,138	24,45,727

While there are women students in all faculties, the pattern of their distribution across faculties differs from the pattern that obtains for all students in the system. Except in the faculty of Science, where the proportion is almost the same both for all students and women students, there are four notable differences in the enrolment pattern of the two categories of students:

a) The percentage of women students is almost double the percentage share of all students enrolled in the faculty of Education.
b) The percentage of women students is, however, markedly lower as compared to the percentage of all students in the faculties of law and Engineering and Technological.

c) The highest concentration of women students is in the Faculty of Arts, which also includes Humanities. As against 40.4 per cent of all students, 55 per cent of women students are enrolled in various courses in Arts and Humanities.
d) In the Faculty of Commerce, as against nearly 22 per cent of all students, only a little over 14 per cent of women students are enrolled for Commerce courses.

The number of women's colleges has recorded a substantial increase during the period 1986-87 to 1997-98 as shown in table-3.12

Table-3.12
Number of Women's Colleges During 1986-87 to 1997-98

Year	No. of Women's Colleges
1986-87	780
1987-88	786
1988-89	824
1989-90	851
1990-91	874
1991-92	950
1992-93	994
1993-94	1033
1994-95	1107
1995-96	1146
1996-97	1195
1997-98	1260

*** Provisional**

Table 3.14 gives the percentage of women enrolment to total enrolment in the different classes from 1986-87 to 1990-91.

Table-3.13
Percentage of Women Enrolment to Total Enrolment in Classes of Higher Education (1986-87 to 1990-91)

Class	1986-87	1987-88	1988-89	1989-90	1990-91
1. Ph.D / D.Sc. /M.Phil.	33.18	33.14	33.26	32.82	26.17
2. M.A	37.56	37.97	37.00	37.95	37.91
3. M.Sc.	33.25	32.51	33.28	33.39	33.86
4. M. Com.	14.68	15.52	18.43	18.30	18.92
5. B.A / B.A. Hons.	38.99	39.54	39.18	33.48	40.10
6. B.Sc. B.Sc. Hons.	30.93	30.99	31.87	36.51	37.12
7. B.Com / B.Com Hons.	21.97	22.37	22.45	23.74	24.12
8. B.E. / B.R. /Eng/ B.Arch	12.49	7.9	7.98	8.27	10.89
9. B.ED / B.T.	43.45	49.28	44.42	43.77	44.20
10. M.B.B.S	32.15	32.59	32.72	34.17	54.25
11. Teacher Trg. Schools	49.41	48.70	48.58	47.18	49.23
12. Polytechnic Institutes	17.16	14.86	11.22	11.66	11.55
13. Technical, Industrial Arts & Crafts Schools	24.21	(NA)	22.98	21.16	21.24

The above table indicates that in 1990-91 a high percentage of girls had joined the Medicine, B.Ed. / B.T. courses and teacher training courses followed by B.A / B.Sc., courses of study.

Table-3.14
Student Enrolment in the Universities Facultiwise
1991-92 To 1995-96

Faculty	1991-92		1992-93		1993-94		1994-95		1995-96	
	Enrolment	% of total	Enrolment	% of total	Enrolment	% of total	Enrolment	% of total	Enrolment	% of total
Arts lincluding oriental learning	21,29,418	40.4	22,38,626	40.4	23,52,970	40.4	24,73,027	40.4	25,92,925	40.4
Science	10,33,614	19.6	10,86,353	19.6	11,41,680	19.6	11,99,830	19.6	12,60,200	19.6
Commerce	11,54,804	21.9	12,13,688	21.9	12,75,478	21.9	13,40,560	21.9	14,10,119	21.9
Education	1,21,115	2.3	1,27,304	2.3	1,33,797	2.3	1,40,620	2.3	1,47,720	2.3
Engineering/ Technology	2,58,028	4.9	2,71,213	4.9	2,85,045	4.9	2,99,583	4.9	3,15,720	4.9
Medicine	1,79,040	3.4	1,88,189	3.4	1,97,786	3.4	2,07,874	3.4	2,19,918	3.4
Agriculture	55,292	1.1	58,120	1.1	61,091	1.1	64,200	1.1	67,990	1.1
Veterinary	13,356	0.3	13,840	0.3	14,550	0.3	15,285	0.3	16,201	0.3
Science										
Law	2,79,092	5.3	2,93,353	5.3	3,08,314	5.3	3,24,038	5.3	3,42,440	5.3
Others	42,127	0.8	44,280	0.8	46,538	0.8	48,912	0.8	52,401	0.8
Total	52,65,886	100	55,34,966	100	58,17,249	100	61,13,929	100	64,25,624	100

Table-3.15
Students Enrolment In The Universities : Facultywise
1997-98

Faculty	Enrolment	Percent to total
Arts including oriental learning	28,59,599	40.4
Science	13,87,330	19.6
Commerce	15,50,129	21.9
Education	1,62,798	2.3
Engineering/Technology	3,46,833	4.9
Medicine	2,40,659	3.4
Agriculture	77,860	1.1
Veterinary Science	21,235	0.3
Law	3,75,145	5.3
Others (including Music/Fine Arts etc.)	56,626	0.8
Total	70,78,214	100.0

Chapter-4

Higher Education and Education of Women in Maharashtra and Pune City

Higher Education prior to the formation of Maharashtra State

The lead in the establishment of the modern colleges of arts and science was taken up by the Government which established the first institutions of this type in the Bombay State. The oldest college in the State is the Elphinstone College, Bombay, established in the early years of the nineteenth century and which began with the object of spreading knowledge of Western Science and literature among the people of India. This was later on affiliated to the University of Bombay in 1860. The Hindu College, Poona, which was established in 1821 for the study of Sanskrit literature, was also developed later on as a Modern College of Arts and Science and became the Deccan college, Poona (affiliated to the University of Bombay in 1860). This was closed in 1934 on the grounds of economy, but in 1939, it was revived as a post-graduate and research institute and its management was entrusted to a trust. A college for the Gujarati area of the Bombay Presidency under the British rule, was established at Ahmedabad and affiliated to the University of Bombay in 1879, and a college for the Kannada area was established at Dharwar and affiliated to the University of Bombay in 1917. The Institute of Science, formerly known as the Royal Institute of Science was established in Bombay and affiliated to the University in 1926. The Ismail Yusuf College at Andheri was established with the object of catering to the special needs of Muslim students and affiliated to the University in 1930. With the exception of this institution, the policy of the then Government of Bombay was to establish one arts and science college in Bombay city and one in each of the three linguistic regions of the state viz. Maharashtra, Gujarat and Karnataka. These five institutions, therefore, were the only arts and science colleges conducted by the Government in the state proper until 1949. In that year, however, the merger of the Indian states added two more institutions to this list, viz. the M.N. College at Visnagar and the Rajaram College at Kolhapur. Thus the Government conducted only seven colleges of Arts and Science in the State.

The missionaries followed in the footsteps of the Government and established two colleges of Arts and Science in Bombay, viz. the Wilson College which was affiliated to the University in 1861 and the St. Xavier's college which was affiliated in 1869. For a long time, these two colleges were the only institutions conducted by missionaries in this field. But in 1941, the Sophia College for Women was established in Bombay city and in 1947, another college was established at Ahmednagar. Missionaries thus conducted only four colleges of Arts and Science in the State till 1955.

The bulk of the colleges of Arts and Science i.e. 44 out of 55 were then conducted by private enterprise. It must be remembered, however, that there was no college under Indian management till 1880 and that private Indian enterprise in the field of collegiate education was very slow to develop. The main difficulties that hindered its progress were a) inadequate financial resources which made it difficult to provide the heavy non-recurring expenditure required for the establishment of a college; b) lack of qualified personnel; c) the departmental view that the first rate colleges can only be conducted under European principals; d)

uncertain and inadequate character of grant-in-aid from the State; and e) departmental competition in the sense that the only places where colleges could have been successfully established i.e. cities like Bombay, Poona, Ahmedabad or Kolhapur were already provided with Government institutions so that private enterprise had to establish a college either in a big city where a severe competition from an older Government college had to be faced, or in a smaller town where it would have been very difficult to attract a sufficient number of students.

The Fergusson College, Poona, conducted by the Deccan Education Society was the first private college to be established in this State under a purely Indian management. Even as early as in 1892, Sir Raymond West, the Vice-Chancellor of the Bombay University spoke of it as "the most completely developed and perhaps the only fully developed college under purely native management in India".

Colleges of Arts and Science began to increase in numbers after 1901 and especially after 1921.

The establishment and maintenance of professional colleges is much costlier than the colleges of Arts and Science. It was not surprising, therefore, that private enterprise was slow to enter this field and that the oldest professional colleges in this field were established and maintained by Government. Even as late as 1921-22, there were seven colleges for professional education in the State, all of them being conducted by the Government. These included the Government Law College, Bombay; the Grant Medical College, Bombay; the College of Engineering, Poona; the College of Agriculture, Poona; the Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics, Bombay; the Secondary Training College, Bombay and the Forest-College for the Training of Rangers, Dharwar. It was only after 1921, that the local bodies and private enterprises began to enter the field of professional education. The Bombay Municipality established the G.S. Medical College, Bombay and affiliated it to the University in 1925. Private Indian enterprise was responsible for the establishment, during this period, of the H.L. College of Commerce at Ahmedabad and for the establishment of non-Government Law Colleges at Poona, Ahmedabad and Karachi. The more progressive Indian States also entered the field during this period and colleges for law and teacher-training were established at Kolhapur and for Commerce and teacher-training at Baroda. The period between 1921 and 1937 is, therefore, marked for a fairly large expansion of professional education at the collegiate level and for the entry of non-Government agencies in the field.

After the assumption of office by the Popular Ministry in 1937, the progress of professional colleges was far more rapid than any other earlier period. The nationalist view had always been that professional education was sadly neglected under the British rule and consequently professional colleges began to receive great emphasis at the hands of the State Government after 1937. The establishment of regional universities in the State helped this trend still further because some of them had since established colleges for professional education.

Table 4.1 shows the growth of collegiate education between 1881-82 and 1954-55. It can be seen that though there was an increase in the number of institutions and pupils, progress was rather slow. Female higher education lagged much behind mainly because

female literacy was very low. The percentage of population under instruction in 1920 was about 4.5 for the Bombay Presidency and for females it was about 1.2.

Table-4.1

Growth of Collegiate Education between 1881-82 and 1954-55

	General Education				Professional Education			
Year	**No. of Colleges**	**No.of Boys**	**No. of Girls**	**Total**	**No. of Colleges**	**No. of Boys**	**No. of Girls**	**Total**
1881-82	6	Not available		475	3	Not available		570
1891-92	6	1,331	1	1,332	4	487	8	495
1901-02	10	1,191	30	1,941	5	1,019	45	1,064
1911-12	11	4,650	76	3,719	4	1,210	29	1,239
1921-22	10	4,650	179	4,829	7	516	79	2,195
1931-32	15	8,528	698	9,226	11	2,962	111	3,073
1941-42	21	12,304	2,727	15,031	16	4,642	298	4,940
1951-52	49	34,244	7,897	42,141	51	15,619	1,059	16,678
1954-55	55	42,691	10,473	53,164	65	23,232	2,045	25,277

Source: *A Review of Education in the Bombay State (1855-1955)*

The 65 colleges for professional education can be classified as follows:

1.	Colleges of Education	:	10
2.	Engineering Colleges	:	8
3.	Medical Colleges	:	15
4.	Veterinary Colleges	:	1
5.	Agriculture Colleges	:	3
6.	Commerce Colleges	:	11
7.	Law Colleges	:	7
8.	Colleges of Applied Arts & Architecture	:	1
9.	Other Professional colleges	:	9

	Total		**65**

Higher Education in Maharashtra State

Maharashtra State: Area, Population, Important Features

The present Maharashtra State came into existence by the Act of Parliament on 1 May, 1960. The State consists of four geo-climatically district regions, viz. Konkan (coastal strip bordering the Arabian Sea), Western Maharashtra, Vidarbha and Marathwada.

Maharashtra is an industrially developed State. Industries are concentrated around Mumbai, Thane, Pune, Nasik, Kolhapur, Nagpur and Aurangabad. The State has more than 100 co-op sugar factories. Sugar-cane, Jowar, Bajra, Cotton and Oil-seeds are the main

agricultural products in addition to fruits such as Alfonso Mangoes, Grapes, Oranges and Bananas. The State is cosmopolitan and multilingual. People belonging to all religions live in the State. Similarly, people from all the other States of the country and belonging to all major language groups in the country live in the State. There are three major tribal belts in the State. They are mainly in Thane, Nasik, Dhule and Chandrapur districts. In 1991, the percentage of SC and ST was 1.09 and 9.27 respectively.

Decadal growth of population of Maharashtra since 1951 was as under:

(In Crores)

1951 : 3.20
1961 : 3.95
1971 : 5.04
1981 : 6.28
1991 : 7.89
2001 : 9.67

In 2001, the sex-ratio was 922 females per 1000 males. The literacy rates in 2001 were General :77.27, Male: 86.27, Female: 67.51. Today, Maharashtra has 8 non-agricultural Universities, 4 Agricultural Universities and 8 Deemed Universities, besides a large number of post-graduate research institutions. Free education is imparted to economically backward students and women from primary upto the first degree examination.

Table-4.2

Summary of Educational Institutions (Higher Education) in Maharashtra 1999-2000

Type of Institution	Number of Institutions	Enrolment (000)	Teachers ('000)
1. Arts, Science and Commerce Colleges	866	806	23
2. B.Ed. + B.P.Ed.	241	29	2
3. Professional Education Institutions	291	98	9
4. Other Institutions of Higher Education	36	35	2

Note: Enrolment and numbers of teachers in thousands.
Institutions controlled under Directorate of Technical Education are not included.

The female enrolment to the total enrolment in higher education in Maharashtra for 1997-98 is given in table 4.3.

Table-4.3
Percentage of Women Enrolment to Total Enrolment in Maharashtra
1997-98

State	Total Enrolment	Women Enrolment	Percentage of Women
Maharashtra	10,87,659	4,02,934	37.0

Source: *Annual Report 1997-98 University Grants Commission, New Delhi.*

Distribution of women in the different courses of Higher Education for Maharashtra for 1990-91 is given in Table-4.4.

Table-4.4
Distribution of Women in Courses for Maharashtra
(1990-1991)

Course	Boys	Girls	Total	% age of girls % total
1. Polytechnic Institutes	39,364	2,551	41,915	6.1
2. Technical, Industrial Arts and Crafts Schools	24,334	87,413	1,11,747	78.2
3. Teacher Training Schools	12,083	11,331	23,414	48.4
4. B.Ed / B.T	8,539	4,077	12,616	32.3
5. M.B.B.S	8,789	5,996	14,785	40.6
6. B.Com /B.Co. Hons.	1,53,096	75,386	2,28,442	33.0
7. B.E / B.Sc. (Engg.) / B. Arch.	50,514	3,515	54,029	6.5
8. B.A. / B.A. Hons.	91,792	64,658	1,56,450	41.3
9. B.Sc. / B.Sc. Hons.	56,098	79,528	1,35,626	58.6
10. M.Sc.	2,298	1,657	3,955	41.9
11. M.Com	17,618	3,493	21,111	16.5
12. M.A.	10,764	5,768	16,232	35.5
13. Ph.D. / D.Sc. / D. Phil.	340	193	533	36.2

Employment of Women in Maharashtra up to 1981 is given in table-4.5

Table-4.5
Employment of Women in Maharashtra

(in 000's)

Year as on 31st March	Employment Total (M+F)	Employment Women only	Proportion of Women Employment in %

1968	2362.6	212.6	9.00
1970	2513.0	225.8	8.99
1973	2803.4	263.9	9.41
1976	2937.7	301.0	10.25
1979	3454.2	464.6	13.45
1981	3802.7	505.5	13.29

Source: *A Study in Extent of Employment and Unemployment among Women in Maharashtra 1982-Unit of Employment-Govt. of Maharashtra, 1982.*

The persons in the labour force in Maharashtra from 1983 to 2000 is given in table 4.6

Table-4.6
Persons in the Labour Force in Maharashtra upto 2000 (percentage)

Year	Male	Female	Persons
1983	86.4	54.2	70.9
1993-94	83.0	53.0	68.5
1999-2000	82.1	46.3	64.8

Source: *National Human Development Report, 2001.*

Higher Education in Pune city

Pune city: Area, Population, Geographical and Historical Background

Pune city is the head-quarters of Pune Division as well as Pune District of Maharashtra. Pune has a Municipal Corporation since 1949. In the year 1990 an industrial area comprising Pimpri and Chinchwad townships was separated and brought under a separate municipal corporation known as Pimpri-Chinchwad Municipal Corporation.

The population in Pune city according to the District Census Handbook of 1991 (not available for 2001) was 1,735,171 with 904158 males and 831013 females. The sex ration for 1991 was 919 females per 1000 males. The general literacy rate was 81.25, that for males it was 87.76 and for females it was 74.15 per cent (excluding children in the 0-6 age-group)

Industrially Pune has developed tremendously since 1960. Kirloskar-Group, Bajaj Auto and BajajTempo, Telco, Greaves Cotton, Garware, Atlas Copco, Alfa Lavel, Bharat Forge and many other industrial units have flourished in and around Pune. Since the World War II Ammunition Factories have also developed in and around Pune. There are many army establishments which surround Pune since long time. In addition to the Head Quarters of the Southern Command, National Defence Academy, College of Military Engineering, Armed Forces Medical College. Army School for Physical Training, Military Intelligence Training School, Institute of Armament Technology, Research and Development Engineering, Armament Research and Development, High Energy Materials Research Laboratory and similar institutions are in an around Pune.

When the British captured Pune in 1818 they realised the strategic importance of Pune city. For some time the British Government was even thinking of making Pune the capital of the country. That is why in the initial period of British power Pune flourished well. Alongwith the British Army came military establishments. That led to the formation of a separate cantonment area, popularly called 'Camp'. During the hundred year period, 1850 to 1950, a large number of Parsis, Muslims, Christians and Anglo-Indians came for settlement in Pune Camp. All these communities have contributed to the development of Pune.

Development of Education in Pune city

No record is available as to the type of education that was imparted prior to 17th century in Pune. But the very fact that Shivaji's handwritten letters are available show that he must have been taught reading and writing. In a book 'Peshvekalin Maharashtra' there is a mention that during the period 1700 to 1820 the 'school' had not come into existence as an institution. Every family looked after the education of its children. Education was mainly of three types, military education, religious education and education for its utility. This was done by the rich by appointing tutors for their children. General population used to send their children to teachers who used to teach such subjects at their residence. The number of such schools was quite large in Pune.

Shri. R.V. Parulekar, in his 'Survey of Indigenous Education in the Province of Bombay' has written that during the period 1820 to 1855 there was a fairly widespread net-work of indigenous schools in all parts of the State of Bombay. The city of Pune had an abundance of such schools. The report states 164 out the 222 schools in the city were devoted to the teaching of Vedas, Shastras and Science, 53 taught Marathi and 5 taught other languages. Similarly there were many Elementary schools. They were mostly private ventures started by teachers in response to local demand and were maintained with the fees in cash or kind given by the parents. They had no special buildings of their own and were held in public buildings like a 'Chavdi' or a temple or in the houses of rich patrons or in the dwellings of the teachers themselves. The schools were open to all who could afford to pay the fees. The schools, however, were restricted to boys only. The teachers were mainly Brahmins, but the other castes were also there. Mr. G.L. Prendergast, a member of the Bombay Governer's Council, observed that there was hardly a village, large or small, in which there was not at least one school. In large villages and towns there were more schools. In these schools children were taught reading, writing and arithmetic.

Higher Education in Pune City

Mount Stuart Elphinstone, the Governor of Bombay from 1819 to1827, made the first official attempt to educate the Indian people on modern lines. In 1821 he established the "Hindu College" in Pune by diverting a part of the money which the Peshwas used to distribute to Brahmins as Dakshina. This was originally meant as a place of Sanskrit learning but later on developed into the Deccan College, the oldest and one of the most important modern educational institutions in the State. Elphinstone also founded an independent association known as Bombay Native Education Society in 1827. This society conducted one English school in Pune. The Deccan College was at that time, a typical institution as it taught English, Sanskrit and Marathi.

Spread of education created a new problem–the necessity of trained teachers. In 1845 a 'Normal Class' was established for this purpose. Later it was converted into "Pune Training College", Shri. Krishnashastri Chiplunkar was the first Principal of this normal Class.

In 1854 an Engineering Class and Mechanical School were founded in Pune. In 1865 these classes were converted into the College of Engineering, Pune. In 1867 the Sasoon Hospital was founded. Attached to it was a medical school. In 1946 B.J. Medical College was started. In 1907 an Agricultural School was opened. Later on it was converted into an Agricultural College, Pune. In 1954-55 an Industrial Training Institute was started. The Pune Municipal Corporation also started its industrial school teaching courses in carpentry, fitting, foundry, machine drawing etc.

Till 1885, there was just one college, the Deccan College, in Pune which was run by the Government. As a part of the national movement, a campaign for popularising education and giving it a somewhat national bias was started. With this end in view, the Deccan Education Society was founded by Lokmanya Tilak, Vishnushastri Chiplunkar and Principal G.G. Agarkar in 1880. In 1885 this society started the Fergusson College. Since then many institutions were founded. We now see that there are about 81 affiliated colleges in Pune city imparting higher education. With the passing of the Poona University Act in 1949, all these affiliated colleges are under the umbrella of the Pune University.

The number of colleges in Pune city increased from 48 in 1985-86 to 81 in 1998-99 their distribution according to type of education is given in table-4.7

Table-4.7
Distribution of Colleges Discipline-wise (1985-86 to 1998-99)

Type of Education	1985-86	1990-91	1995-96	1998-99
Arts and Science	3	3	3	3
Arts and Commerce	7	7	9	9
Arts, Sci. Coms.	6	4	16	16
Science & Commerce	-	2	2	2
Commerce	8	14	7	7
Medicine	2	5	5	6
Pharmacy	1	3	3	3
Homeopathy	1	3	3	3
Ayurved	2	3	5	5
Law	4	4	4	4
Engineering	7	7	9	10
Architecture	1	2	4	4
Education	3	3	4	4
Physical Edn.	1	1	3	3
Unani Medicine	1	1	1	1
Printing, Engg. & Graphics Comm.	1	1	1	1
Total	48	61	78	81

The total enrolment in the year 1998-99 exceeded 53,930 at graduation level.

Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics, Deccan College, Bhandarkar Research Institute, Maharashtra Academy of Cultivation of Science and many such institutes devoted to research are a pride of Pune. In fact institutions catering to almost every branch of professional education such as Engineering, Medicine, Ayurveda, Uanani Medicine, Homeopathy, Architecture, Agriculture, Management, Law, Computer Science,Film Production etc. are located in Pune city. There is provision for post-graduation education and research in most of these institutions.

Pune is the seat of University of Pune, Tilak Maharashtra Vidyapeeth and Bharti Vidyapeeth. In addition SNDT Women's University, Mumbai also has its centre Pune. Recently the Gokhale Institute and the Deccan College have also been declared Deemed Universities.

Pune has been competing with Bangalore and Hyderabad in the field of Information Technology. The University of Pune was one of the few universities in the country to introduce courses in Computer Basics and Compute Applications. At present all Engineering Colleges in Pune impart education leading to B.E. Degree with Computer Science and Electronics. Taking a clue from this, an International Institute of Information Technology has been started at Baramati (about 100 kms. from Pune). Awareness about courses in computer education is at a very high level in Pune. Elementary Computer Training is introduced in most high schools in the city.

Categorisation of Educated Women Workers in Pune city

As regards the women employment in the urban areas of Pune city, the workers can be classified under **three** categories, according to their socio-economic status. The first group comes from the upper strata of the society, the 'elite' among the working women. They take up jobs either to achieve a higher standard of living or for self-development. They have a higher socio-economic status; they are highly educated and have secure jobs. They are generally the professional and well-organised class, such as doctors, pleaders, professors, etc. They form a very small percentage of the total female labour–force. They do face problems of discrimination in their work but they have the capacity to face the situation and through their associations they can tackle their problems. The second group is a heterogeneous group consisting of blue collar workers in industries, and white-collared workers in various service sectors. The development and modernisation of the urban sector led to a rapid expansion of the tertiary sector in the city. Demand for new services, such as teachers, nurses, typists, sales assistants etc. has risen rapidly. The benefits of these opportunities accrue to that social strata where the women have education and training. This group described as the 'enclave sector' includes mainly employment in government and public enterprises, foreign firms and well organised domestic enterprises. The women workers here are better organised and receive higher wages and enjoy job-security. This sector is an expanding sector and here the aggregate number of women workers is continuing to increase. There is intense competition in the group; but traditionally it is assumed that women are more suited to the service sector, (though at a lower level) and there are more opportunities for women in this sector. Some of them are employed in the administrative sections of the industrial units. A large industrial unit in Pune has employed mainly women for its administrative staff, except at the 'top position'. On the production side, women workers are employed in some specific industries

such as electronics, pharmaceutical, where they are thought to be more 'suited' to certain jobs. In all these types of jobs in the service sectors and in a limited manner in the production activities, the women workers are the members of their association or trade unions. Of course, these associations or unions include both the female and male workers. The leaders are generally the males who may not give proper attention to the specific problems of women employees. These women workers belong to the traditional middle class and bear the burden of domestic work as well. The third category of women workers are generally the uneducated or less educated females. Women of this category even go in for self-employment, such as retail trading, preparation of food stuffs, tailoring etc. The small–scale industrial units also employ these women as unskilled labour. In this sector the wages are low and there is limited scope for them to raise their incomes or acquire skill. Trade unions have hardly touched this group of workers. The large supply of labour in this sector and consequently intense competition keep the wages at a low level. The opportunity cost of their labour being almost zero, they are hardly able to get minimal wages. These women are on the periphery of the labour market. There can be overlapping of these groups, such as some women who are somewhat educated and yet work in the informal sector.

The categorisation of female workers indicates that educated women labour consists of different groups working under different conditions in an area. The labour market which the women workers face is a segmented market.

Chapter-5

Methodology and Research Design of the Study

Statement of the Problem

Till today, from the view point of developmental needs and problem solving perspective, the problem of unemployment among educated females has received little attention in social sciences despite the fact that unemployment among these females has ever been on the increase in both the developed and developing countries. With the expansion of educational facilities in urban and rural areas and due to greater realisation of the importance of women's education, more and more female youth are enrolling themselves in institutions of higher learning and professional training. Social Sciences need to necessarily focus on the psycho-social and economic costs of permanent and temporary unemployment for educated persons including the female youth. Viewed in this perspective, it has been thought desirable to study the psycho-social and economic problems of unemployed educated female youth.

The rationality of the present study stems from the fact that the Women's Decade in India witnessed unprecedented efforts in various aspects of the role of women in development, to enlarge the information base, to search for alternative strategies for women's equality and development and to develop policies and programmes addressed to the specific problems women face and their needs. The appointment of the Committee on the Status of Women in India (CSWI) by the Government of India in 1971 has attempted an examination of the several questions relating to the rights and status of women in the context of changing social and economic conditions in the country and emerging problems relating to the advancement of the woman population as a whole. In order to realise the above objective, the committee comprehended the trends of changes in women's status in the wake of rising aspirations among the woman population and came out with various suggestions in order to enable women to play their full and proper role in building the nation. The Committee, comprehending the various changes taking place in the life of a woman in the emerging times and responding to the principle of equality raised some fundamental questions regarding the contradictions that appear in the policies aimed at achieving gender equality in the country. The Committee concluded that with the hierarchical structure of Indian society and its diverse as well as complex socio-economic institutions and organizational patterns, it is difficult to adopt uniform policies and programmes to achieve gender equality. Due to this, the constitutional guarantees extended in terms of socio-economic and political rights to women has failed to affect qualitatively the large masses of women in terms of their problems, poverty, powerlessness, ignorance, illiteracy, etc.

However, a significant shift seems to have taken place in the recent past as an answer to achieve gender equality both in India and at the global level. Stemming from the general premise of initiating comprehensive programmes of socio-economic measures aimed at removing as far as possible the economic and social disabilities and discriminations to which the women all the world over, and particularly in developing countries like India, continue to be subjected to, a shift has taken place from viewing women as largest of welfare policies in the social sector to their emergence as critical groups for development. The shift in recognition of the principle has necessitated the shift in terminologies meant to define the

areas of programmes and policies in the context of the women populations as such. The extension of women's areas of concern from Social Sectors such as education, health and welfare to the critical areas of economic development in terms of making the women population accessible to training and investment resources for their fuller participation in economic activities as an independent and self-reliant person represents a major gain of the emerging consciousness. As a result of the shifts in recognition of the principle and in the newly conceived terminologies on this phenomenon, providing increasing employment opportunities has been one of the major thrusts among the programmes generated for women emancipation in India as well as abroad during the decade 1975-85 with the International year for women (1975) focussing on women's employment and recognising it as the critical entry point for women's integration into development. The women's need for employment was also recognised as the basis of assembled knowledge that women, like their counterparts (men), needed income for survival and that women in employment were in any case working for their survival. While considering the policy and programme intervention of the decade, Employment Exchange Service and Income-generating Programmes aimed at educated women are receiving increased attention of late as part of its efforts to enhance employment opportunities for women youth. With a view to achieving economic independence and self-reliance, women are now becoming eager and enthusiastic ever more to come on the employment agenda of every nation of the world, let alone the developing and the underdeveloped.

It is a fairly established fact by experiences of socio-economic development taking place in both the developed and the developing countries that education and employment are the bedrock of development for any section of society. Socio-economic independence is an essential pre-requisite for improving the socio-economic status of the female population and ultimately for attaining their all-round development. The present study represents a very modest attempt to study the problems of female graduates of Pune city from the angle of gainful employment.

Objectives:

The following are the basic objectives of this study:

a) To study the incidence of unemployment among the female graduates of Pune city, discipline-wise.
b) To undertake an indepth analysis of reasons of unemployment.
c) To analyse the extent of unemployment by the social and economic status of female graduates, with special reference to SC, ST and OBC female graduates.
d) To assess the extent of economic loss due to long spells of unemployment among the female graduates.
e) To study employers' attitude towards female graduate employment.
f) To study the type and level of income earned by the employed graduates discipline-wise.

Hypotheses to be tested

While the number of girls joining graduate and post-graduate courses in the colleges of Pune is steadily increasing year after year, there is a general feeling that the level of unemployment is also simultaneously increasing. The study proposes to test the hypotheses:

a) That a large number of female graduates from the liberal education disciplines of Arts, Science and Commerce remain unemployed for long spells of time, and sometimes never get any job at all.
b) That girls from backward communities and rural areas find it difficult to get jobs in the corporate and other organised private sectors of employment.
c) That the income earned by female graduates through employment, especially private sector employment, is not commensurate with the time, energy and money spent on education.
d) That there are certain fields of employment where there is a shortage of female graduates.
e) That some employers do not favour females in jobs.
f) That employment / self employment opportunities suited to women's dual roles as home-makers and workers are not adequately available to women graduates.

Statistical Design:

Relevant information is collected with the help of pre-designed schedules and questionnaires from 600 female graduates in Pune city. For this purpose a list of female students passing out from the liberal, technical and vocational courses of Pune University and SNDT University (Pune Centre) during the three-year period, 1997-98, 1998-99 and 1999-2000 was collected and a sample of 600 girls selected with probability proportional to the size of graduates from different courses of study.

Sampling

The study of unemployment among female graduates is limited to the municipal area of Pune City only. For this study, a sample of 600 female graduates who had passed out from the University of Pune and the SNDT, Pune in the years 1997-98, 1998-99, 1999-2000 had to be selected. It was initially expected that full records of the students passing out the graduation degree courses would be available in the University Offices. However, when the work commenced, it was revealed that the University of Pune had a combined record of male and female graduates passing out from all the affiliated colleges in its jurisdiction, and that the University maintained record by roll numbers only, without the names and addresses of the students. Such records are available with the affiliated colleges only. The number of affiliated colleges exceeded 250 and the number of students passing out in the three years exceeded four lakhs. No separate records about the students from the Pune City alone were available. In the situation, there was no other alternative than to contact the colleges situated in the city of Pune directly to cull out details (including addresses) from the examination

forms which were available at the colleges only and not in the University. Hence, as a first stage of sampling, 10 colleges from Pune City were selected by discipline-wise stratification, and then the lists of graduate females of the referred years were collected from the records of the selected colleges. The colleges were from liberal education (Arts, Science, and Commerce), technical education (Engineering), and professional education (B.Ed and Home Science). In the case of commerce colleges since the number of graduates in each college was very large, the lists of female graduates were drawn up by systematic random sampling where every fourth female candidate was listed.

The sample of 600 female graduates from the discipline-wise lists of 1997-98, 1998-99, 1999-2000 was drawn proportional to the size of discipline–wise number of graduates. The random number table was used so that each member of the population had an equal chance of being selected.

Further, to make sure that the female graduates selected were representatives of the discipline-wise colleges selected; samples were drawn from each of the 10 selected colleges. A substitute sample list from each college in each discipline was also drawn up for use in case of causality of any sample.

In all 600 female graduates were selected as below:

Discipline	Population size (total)	Sample size	Per cent
Arts	402	93	23.13
Commerce	699	162	23.17
Science	360	83	23.05
Home Science	264	62	23.48
Education	509	118	23.18
Technology	356	82	23.05
Total	2590	600	23.16

The College-wise sample selected is given below:

Faculty/Name of College	1997-98	1998-99	1999-2000	Total
Arts				
1) Poona College	32 (7)	29 (7)	10 (2)	71 (16)
2) S.P.College	111 (26)	110 (25)	110 (26)	331 (77)
Total Sample	143 (33)	139 (32)	120 (28)	402 (93)
Commerce				
1) BMCC College	99 (23)	110 (26)	108 (25)	317 (74)
2) Garware College	182 (42)	100 (23)	100 (23)	382 (88)
Total Sample	281 (65)	210 (49)	208 (48)	699 (162)
Education				
1) SNDT B.Ed College	81 (19)	85 (20)	83 (19)	249 (58)
2) Tilak College of Edn.	84 (19)	87 (20)	89 (21)	260 (60)
Total Sample	165 (38)	172 (40)	172 (40)	509 (118)
Home Science				
1) SNDT	72 (17)	89 (21)	103 (24)	264 (62)
Total Sample	72 (17)	89 (21)	103 (24)	264 (62)
Science				
1) Fergusson College	120 (28)	120 (28)	120 (27)	360 (83)
Total Sample	120 (28)	120 (28)	120 (27)	360 (83)
Technology				
1) MIT College of Engg.	56 (13)	57 (13)	63 (14)	176 (40)
2) Cummins College of Engg.	60 (14)	60 (14)	60 (14)	180 (42)
Total Sample	116 (27)	117 (27)	123 (28)	356 (82)
Grand Total	897 (208)	847 (197)	846 (195)	2590 (600)

- The figures in brackets are the sample selected from each college in each of the three years.

Tools for Data Collection

There have been mainly three tools of data collection used in the present study. The primary source of data collection in the present study is the schedule and questionnaire for the female graduates specially designed for the purpose of seeking information on various dimensions relating to the dependent and independent variables affecting the educated (graduates) female youth.

In order to elicit information from the employers regarding employment of females, a focussed interview guide was constructed for the employers. This has been used as supplement data.

The instruments of observation used in this study were:

FGS 1 - Interview schedule for Female Graduates.
This schedule includes personal information about the girls.

FGS 2 - Questionnaire for the Female Graduates.
In this problems regarding unemployment have been focussed.

FGS 3 - Interview schedule for employers of female graduates.

Besides these, studies and reports published and unpublished on the theme of the present study constitute the secondary source of the study. Elaborated material and pertinent observations of these studies and reports have been contently analysed and presented in order to substantiate the major findings.

First Seminar

A one-day seminar was held on 20th March, 2002 for a detailed discussion on the draft instruments of observation, i.e. schedules, questionnaires, interview guidelines etc. About 25 academics including the principals of the selected colleges, educationists and social scientists attended the seminar. Every instrument of observation was discussed in detail and the suggested changes and improvements were incorporated in the schedules that had been developed

Orientation of Field Staff

The field investigators were first oriented on the basis of the draft schedule-cum-questionnaire just before the pilot study. A second and detailed orientation was held in the beginning of April 2002 i.e. after the seminar referred to above and finalisation of the instruments of observation.

Second Seminar

A tabulation plan was prepared for tabulation of the field data. This plan was discussed in the second seminar held on 24th June, 2002. About 24 academics attended the

seminar. Several changes were suggested in the draft tabulation plan which were incorporated in the final plan.

Field Work (Data Collection)

The field work commenced in the first week of April 2002 and continued upto the end of June 2002. Besides the six field investigators appointed for the purpose, the Supervisor and Study Co-ordinator (a Faculty Member – Reader) had to visit many of the selected graduates' residences to convince them to provide the information required for the study. They had also to interview the selected employers of female graduates.

Difficulties Encountered

Needless to say that the researchers were faced with several problems and difficulties that are inherent in social science investigations of the nature as the present one is.

The major problem faced by the co-ordinator, supervisor and field investigators of the study was with regard to the task of locating the respondents at their residential addresses. College records gave the permanent as well as local addresses. Considerable time and effort had to be consumed in the task of actually locating the respondents of the present study.

The female graduates who happened to be the focus of the study were not always found willing to be available or freely available, for contact at any point of time. The research team had to encounter some difficulties in establishing rapport with such respondents. Very often, the field investigators had to contact the parents / in-laws of the respondents and convince them of the importance of the study in order to seek their fullest co-operation and support for the task on hand.

Chapter-6

Field Data (Sample Survey) Analysis

This chapter deals with the analysis of FGS-1 (Interview Schedule for Female Graduates) and FGS-2 (Questionnaire for Female Graduates) schedules. It describes the socio-economic profile and educational background of the respondents and their views and opinions towards employment and unemployment.

PART-A

Socio-Economic Profile of Respondents

Age Distribution of Respondents

The age-distribution of respondents incorporated in table 6.1 makes it clear that 306 out of 600, i.e 51% of the respondents, fell within the age-group of 23-24 years, followed by the respondents in the age-group above 24 years (27%) and those in the age-group upto 22 years (20%). There were 13 (2%) respondents who did not responded to the query regarding age. Even discipline wise, the highest percentage of the graduates fell in the age-group 23-24 years except in the case of B.Ed where 51.9% were in the age-group above 24 years. The B.Ed. students were of higher age as compared to others, as it is the 'second degree' (double-graduation) and many in-service candidates registered for this professional course of study.

Table-6.1
Age Distribution of Respondents

Age	N.R.	Arts	%	Sc.	%	Comm.	%	B.Ed	%	Eng	%	H.Sc.	%	Total	%
N.R.	1	3	3.2		0	5	2.9	1	1.2	1	1	2	2.6	13	2
Upto 22		13	13.8	17	22.7	58	33.5	6	7.4	10	10.2	15	19.7	119	20
23-24	2	56	59.6	41	54.7	86	49.7	32	39.5	50	51	39	51.3	306	51
Above 24		22	23.4	17	22.7	24	13.9	42	51.9	37	37.8	20	26.3	162	27
Total	3	94	100	75	100	173	100	81	100	98	100	76	100	600	100

Religion-wise and Caste-wise Distribution of Respondents

With the assumption that the religion and caste composition of the respondents will determine the views, opinions and attitude of respondents regarding various dimensions of educated unemployment among female youth, data relating to the religion and the social caste structure of the respondents were collected. Table 6.2 showed that the largest number of the respondents belonged to the Hindu religion (96%), followed by Islam (2.2%), Sikh (0.7%), Christian (0.5%) and Baudh (0.2%). The discipline-wise distribution also shows that the respondents belonged mainly to the Hindu religion. A broad social conclusion can be that except the majority community, representation of other communities in the liberal education streams is less than the relative pro-rata religion wise population.

Table-6.2
Religion-wise Distribution of Respondents

Religion	N.R.	Arts	%	Sc.	%	Comm.	%	B.Ed	%	Eng	%	H.Sc.	%	Total	%
Hindu	2	86	91.5	69	92	170	98.3	78	96.3	94	95.9	74	97.4	573	96
Islam		6	6.4	4	5.3	1	0.6	1	1.2		0	1	1.3	13	2.2
Christian		1	1.1	1	1.3		0		0	1	1		0	3	0.5
Sikh			0	1	1.3		0		0	2	2	1	1.3	4	0.7
Baudh			0		0		0	1	1.2		0		0	1	0.2
N.R.	1	1	1.1		0	2	1.2	1	0	1	1		0	6	1
Total	3	94	100	75	100	173	100	81	100	98	100	76	100	600	100

An attempt has been made to categorise the Hindu respondents according to various caste compositions prevalent in the Indian society. The data in table 6.3 reveals that 77% of the respondents belonged to the higher castes, 4.5% belonged to OBC, 1.5% were Scheduled Castes, and 1.2% belonged to the Nomadic tribes. There were no Scheduled Tribe candidates in the selected sample. A little more than 15% respondents did not respond to this question.

Table-6.3
Caste and Employed Females

Caste	Frequency	%	Employed/ Self Employed	%
Upper Caste	462	77	220	47.6
Scheduled Caste (SC)	11	1.8	5	45.5
Scheduled Tribe (ST)	0	0	0	0
Nomadic Tribe (NT)	7	1.2	2	28.6
OBC	2.7	4.5	14	51.9
N.R.	93	15.5	8	8.6
Total	600	100	249	41.5

It is interesting to note from table 6.3 that only about 41% of the sample were either employed or self-employed. This is indicative of the heavy incidence of unemployment amongst the female graduates of Pune city. The OBC has a larger share among the employed/ self-employed (51.9%) followed by the higher caste (47.6%), Scheduled Caste (45.5%) and Nomadic Tribe (28.6%) respectively. Among those who had not responded to the query on castes, the extent of employment was very low, barely just 8.6%.

Marital Status of Respondents

As regards the marital status of respondents shown in Table 6.4, a high proportion of respondents fell in the category of Unmarried (65%), followed by Married (33%), Divorced and Widows (0.3%) each and separated (0.2%) respectively. Discipline-wise distribution shows that 79.8% unmarried respondents belonged to the Commerce discipline followed by Science (72%), Home Science (61.8%), Engineering (59.2%), Arts (58.5%) and B.Ed. (42%).

With the age of marriage having already gone up due to girls seeking higher education, it is not unusual for the girls at graduate level to be mostly unmarried. It is also observed that employed graduate girls have better chances of getting good marriage proposals which encourage girls to seek employment after graduation.

Table-6.4
Distribution of respondents according to Marital Status

Status	N.R.	Arts	%	Sc.	%	Comm.	%	B.Ed	%	Eng	%	H.Sc.	%	Total	%
Married		37	39.4	21	28	33	19.1	44	54.3	38	38.8	27	35.5	200	33
Unmarried	2	55	58.5	54	72	138	79.8	34	42	58	59.2	47	61.8	388	65
Divorced			0		0		0	1	1.2		0	1	1.3	2	0.3
Separated			0		0		0	1	1.2		0		0	1	0.2
Widow		1	1.1		0		0	1	1.2		0		0	2	0.3
N.R.	7	1	1.1		0	2	1.2		0	2	2	1	1.3	7	0
Total	9	94	100	75	100	173	100	81	100	98	100	76	100	600	100

Rural / Urban Background of Respondents

While studying the rural-urban differentials, it was found from the data that a large majority of graduate girls have been staying in Pune city for more than 10 years and have thus acquired the 'urbanised' status. Most of the migrations from the rural to the urban areas have taken place at the primary school level only.

Distribution of Respondents According to Family's Main Occupation

Table 6.5 contains information with regard to the main occupation pursued in the respondent's family, total and discipline-wise.

Table-6.5
Distribution of respondents according to family's main occupation

Occupation	N.R.	Arts	%	Sc.	%	Comm.	%	B.Ed	%	Eng	%	H.Sc	%	Total	%
Service		57	60.6	48	64	104	60.1	45	55.6	67	68.4	34	44.7	356	59
Petty Shopkeeper		1	1.1		0	5	2.9	1	1.2		0	1	1.3	8	1.3
Business		25	26.6	19	25.3	38	22	17	21	32	32.7	25	32.9	156	26
Medical Practice			0	3	4.0	4	2.3	3	3.7	2	2.0	4	5.3	16	2.7
Legal Practice		1	1.1	3	4	4	2.3	1	1.2	1	1	2	2.6	12	2
Teaching		6	6.4	1	1.3	3	1.7	13	16	2	2	2	2.6	28	4.7

Caste Based Occupation			0		0	1	0.6		0		0		0	1	0.2
Traditional Occupation			0		0	2	1.2		0		0		0	2	0.3
Agriculture		1	1.1	1	1.3	1	0.6	1	1.2		0	1	1.3	5	0.8
House-rent		1	1.1		0		0		0		0		0	1	0.2
Bank FD Interest			0		0	1	0.6		0		0	1	1.3	2	0.3
Pension		1	1.1	2	2.7	2	1.2		0	2	2		0	7	1.2
Retired			0	1	1.3	2	1.2	1	1.2	1	1		0	5	0.8
Total	3	94	100	75	100	173	100	81	100	98	100	76	100	600	100

It is evident that a higher percentage (59%) of the sample was constituted by those respondents whose families were mainly engaged in 'Service'. Next to them were the respondents (26%) whose families main occupation was reported as 'Business' followed by 'Teaching' (4.7%), 'Medical Practice' (2.7%), 'Legal Practice' (2.0%). 1.2% reported their family as being pensioners, 0.8% were retired and 0.8% were involved in agricultural activities. Very little weightage was given to traditional occupation (0.3%), involvement in bank FD interest (0.3%), Caste based occupation (0.2%) and landlords (income from house-rent 0.2%).

It is interesting to note that even discipline-wise, the highest response was given to the family's occupation as 'Service' followed by 'Business' and 'Teaching' occupations. The remaining occupations carried very little weightage as seen earlier.

Family Size Distribution and Respondents' Education

Table 6.6 brings out the inter-relationship between family size and the respondents' education. It can be seen that the single largest group (56%) was constituted by those who had family size of 4-6 members, followed by the respondents having family size 1-3 (30%), 7-9 (8.7%), 10-12 (1.8%) and more than 12 (0.8%). There was no response in 3.3% cases.

Table-6.6
Family size distribution and respondents' education

Family Size	N.R.	Arts	%	Sc.	%	Comm.	%	B.Ed	%	Eng	%	H.Sc.	%	Total	%
1 to 3	1	23	24.5	30	40	33	19.1	28	34.6	39	39.8	23	30.3	177	30
4 to 6	1	51	54.3	39	52	110	63.6	44	54.3	50	51	40	52.6	335	56
7 to 9		11	11.7	4	5.3	16	9.2	6	7.4	6	6.1	9	11.8	52	8.7
10 to 12		4	4.3	1	1.3	2	1.2	2	2.5	1	1	1	1.3	11	1.8
More than 12		1	1.1	1	1.3	1	0.6		0		0	2	2.6	5	0.8

N.R.	1	4	4.3		0	11	6.4	1	1.2	2	2	1	1.3	20	3.3
Total	3	94	100	75	100	173	100	81	100	98	100	76	100	600	100

It is seen from the above table that the number of girls from Arts and Commerce disciplines is larger from large family size. But for professional courses like B.Ed., Engineering the girls come from small families. We may conclude that small families encourage and give more attention to girls' professional education. Girls from large families generally opt for general courses, not for specialized courses.

Table 6.7 below gives data on the type of family versus maximum education level in the family of the selected graduates. It is seen from the table that the percentage of nuclear families (72.88%) is far more as compared to the joint families (27.12%). The proportion of nuclear families to joint families is increasing. Considering the type of family in relation to the maximum education level in the respondents' families an attempt has been made to study the trend in the table 6.7. Nuclear families have a large proportion of graduates (76%) whereas in joint families, the maximum level of education is HSC (38%).

Table-6.7
Type of Family Versus Maximum Education

Type of Family	Illit	%	Prim	%	SSC	%	HSC	%	Grad	%	P.G.	%	Dr.s	%	Profes Sional	%	Total	%
Nuclear	2	100	7	70	41	64	44	62	214	76	74	77	19	76	2	50	403	72.88
Joint			3	30	23	36	27	38	67	24	22	23	6	24	2	50	150	27.12
Total	2	100	10	100	64	100	71	100	281	100	96	100	25	100	4	100	553	100

The overall picture emerging from the above table reveals that the educational level of the other family members has been poor in case of joint families where there is a larger concentration of family members. Thus there seems to exist an inverse correlation between family size and the level of maximum education among the family members.

Table 6.8 describes the respondents' family size distribution by education of the father.

Table-6.8
Respondents' Family Size Distribution by Education of Father

Type	Family size	Illit	%	Prim.	%	SSC	%	HSC	%	Grad	%	P.G	%	Medi-cal	%	Profes Sional	%	Total	%
Nuc-lear	1 to 3			5	71.4	16	39	8	18.2	87	41	31	41.9	10	52.6	1	33.3	158	39.21
	4 to 6	2		2	28.6	24	58.5	34	71.3	126	58	42	56.8	9	47.4	2	66.7	241	59.8
	7 to 9					1	2.4	1	2.3	1	0.5	1	1.4		0		0	4	0.99
Total		2		7	100	41	100	44	100	214	100	74	100	19	100	3	100	403	100
Type	Family size		%	Prim.	%	SSC	%	H.Sc.	%	Grad.	%	P.G.	%	Dr.	%	Profes Sional	%	Total	%
Joint	1 to 3				0		0	1	16.7	3	4.5	1	4.5	1	16.7		0	6	4

	4 to 6			1	33.3	12	52.2	12	44.4	40	60	12	54.5	2	33.3	2	100	81	54.4
	7 to 9			2	66.7	10	43.5	11	40.7	15	22	5	22.7	3	50		0	46	30.9
	10 to 12				0	1	4.3	3	11.1	4	6	3	13.6		0		0	11	7.4
	More than 12				0		0		0	4	6	1	4.5		0		0	5	3.4
Total				3	100	23	100	27	100	66	100	22	100	6	100	2		149	100
Grand Total		2		10		64		71		281		96		25		5		552	

It was surprising to note that where the father's education was only upto the primary stage the nuclear family was of the size having 1 to 3 members (71.4%) while the fathers having HSC qualification (71.3%) had family size with 4 to 6 members. Some 52.6% fathers who were in the medical profession had a family size of 1 to 3 members. Fathers with graduate qualifications had a family size of 4 to 6 members in the family.

In the joint family type, 60% fathers were graduates, followed by 54.5% post-graduates, 52.2% SSC passed, 44.4% HSC passed and 33.3% primary education and doctors who had a family size of 4 to 6 persons. 66.7% fathers who had primary education had a family consisting of 7 to 9 members in the joint family.

Table 6.9 describes the respondents' family size distribution by education of the mother. It is expected that where the mother is more highly educated families are of small size. It can be seen from the

Table – 6.9
Respondents' Family Size Distribution by Education of Mother

Type	Family size	Illit	%	Prim.	%	SSC	%	HSC	%	Grad.	%	P.G.	%	Dr.	%	Profe-Ssional	%	Total	%
Nuclear	1 to 3	2	66.7	5	31.3	29	35.4	22	37.3	74	40	31	49.2	4	66.7	1	33.3	168	40.3
	4 to 6		0	10	62.5	52	63.4	37	62.7	110	59.5	32	50.8	2	33.3	2	66.7	245	58.8
	7 to 9	1	33.3	1	6.3	1	1.2		0	1	0.5							4	1
Total		3		16	100	82	100	59	100	185	100	63	100	6	100	3	100	417	100
Type	Family size		%	Prim.	%	SSC	%	HSC	%	Grad.	%	P.G.	%	Dr.	%	Profe-Ssional	%	Total	%
Joint	1 to 3		0		0	1	2.1		0		8		0	1	33.3		0	6	3.9
	4 to 6		0	9	69.2	23	49	14	66.7	27	54	9	64.3	1	33.3	1	50	84	54.5
	7 to 9	2	50	4	30.7	15	32	6	28.6	14	28	5	35.7	1	33.3	1	50	48	31.2
	10 to 12	2	50			5	10.6		0	4	8		0		0		0	11	7.1
	More Than 12					3	6.4	1	4.7	1	2		0		0		0	5	3.3
Total		4	100	13	100	47	100	21	100	50	100	14	100	3	100	2	100	154	100
Grand Total		7		29		129		80		235		77		9		5		571	

Table 6.9 that where mothers are educated upto SSC, the family size in nuclear families is 4 to 6 (63.4%) followed by HSC level of education (62.7%), primary education (62.5%), graduates (59.5%), post-graduates (50.8%) and doctors (33.3%). It is an exceptional finding that professionally educated mothers (66.7%) have a family size 4 to 6 which means other socio-cultural factors must be influencing their decision regarding family size. It is surprising that 66.7% illiterate show family size 1 to 3 members. As regards the joint family,

mothers educated upto primary level had a family size of 4 to 6 members (69.2%) followed by those who are HSC passed (66.7%), post-graduates (64.3%), graduates (54%), professionally educated (50%), SSCs (49%) and doctors 33.3(%). Whether nuclear or joint families, the general family size was found to be consisting of 4 to 6 members. The size of the family often determines what type of education girls opt for at graduate level.

Family Income

Out of the 600 respondents. 226 (37.7%) did not give any response to the question on annual family income. There was an overall reluctance to answer the question which required some convincing by the field investigators. It was observed in the field that the question of income becomes a delicate issue as the respondents consider it to be a matter which is confidential. Table 6.10 gives data on the annual family income as obtained from the remaining 374 respondents. However, in many cases the income filled in was not logical taking into consideration the type of education undertaken by the girls (especially so in the case of those having undertaken professional courses). As such, the average income was calculated on the basis of the assets and consumer durables the family had with them.

Table – 6.10
Annual Family Income of Respondents

Income	N.R.	< 60,000	60,000-1 lakhs	1-2.5 lakhs	2.5-4 lakhs	> 4 lakhs	Total
Total	226	39	97	148	47	43	600
Percent (%)	37.7	6.5	16.2	24.7	7.8	7.2	100

Table 6.11below gives the annual family income distribution of the respondents by the nature of the family. It is seen that the family income distribution for nuclear and joint families follows the same pattern. It is a normal distribution. The common income of the respondents' family was between Rs.1 to 2.5 lakhs whether it is a nuclear family or a joint family, and only about 7% in both types of families had income above 4 lakhs. Again, the income of the family plays a decisive role regarding the type of education girls opt for at the graduate level – liberal education or professional education which again reflects on their employment status.

Table-6.11
Respondents' annual family income distribution by nature of family

Income	N.R.	Nuclear	%	Joint	%	Total	%
N.R.	14	152	35.5	61	39.1	227	37.8
< 60, 000		29	6.8	10	6.4	39	6.5
60, 000 to 1 lakhs	1	77	18.0	19	12.2	97	16.2
1 to 2.5 lakhs		108	25.2	40	25.6	148	24.7
2.5 to 4 lakhs	1	30	7.0	15	9.6	46	7.7
> 4 lakhs		32	7.5	11	7.1	43	7.2
	16	428	100.0	156	100.0	600	100.0

Table 6.12 gives the distribution of the respondents' annual family income by education of the father / husband. As seen in Table 6.10, there were 226 cases of no response. Those educated upto graduate level had an income more than Rs. 4 lakhs (69.8%) followed by post-graduate educated (11.6%) and doctors (9.3%). The table 6.12 further reveals that in the < 60,000 slab, the SSC educated fathers / husbands showed the highest percentage (30.8%) while in the 60,000 to 1 lakh slab, the graduate educated scored highest (46.4%); in the 1 to 2.5 lakhs slab, it was again the graduates who scored highest (52%) followed by the post-graduates (18.2%) and HSC (15.5%); in the 2.5 to 4 lakhs scale again the graduates scored highest percentage (55.3%) followed by the post-graduates (17%). This means the graduate fathers preferred to give good education to their daughters but does not necessarily reflect on the type of education opted for by the girls.

Table – 6.12
Respondents' Family Income by Education of Father / Husband

Annual Income	N.R	%	< 60,000	%	60,000-1 lakhs	%	1 lakh to 2.5 lakhs	%	2.5 lakhs to 4 lakhs	%	> 4 lakhs	%	Total	%
NR	29	12.8	1	2.6	2	2.1	5	3.4	2	4.3	2	4.7	41	6.8
Illiterate	1	0.4		0		0	1	0.7		0		0	2	0.3
Primary	3	1.3	3	7.7	1	1	2	1.4	1	2.1		0	10	1.7
SSC	16	7.1	12	30.8	23	23.7	10	6.8	4	8.5		0	6.5	10.8
HSC	27	11.9	8	20.5	8	8.2	23	15.5	3	6.4	2	4.7	71	11.8
Grad.	98	43.4	9	23.1	45	46.4	77	52	26	55.3	30	69.8	285	47.5
Post-Grad.	39	17.3	4	10.3	13	13.4	27	18.2	8	17	5	11.6	96	16
Doctors	12	5.3	2	5.1	2	2.1	3	2	3	6.4	4	9.3	26	4.3
Profe-Ssional	1	0.4		0	3	3.1		0		0		0	4	0.7
Total	226	100	39	100	97	100	148	100	47	100	43	100	600	100

Table 6.13 gives the respondents' annual family income distribution by main occupation of the family.

Table – 6.13
Respondents' Annual Family Income Distribution by Main Occupation of the Family

Occupation	N.R.	%	< 60,000	%	60,000-1 lakhs	%	1 lakh to 2.5 lakhs	%	2.5 lakhs to 4 lakhs	%	> 4 lakhs	%	Total	%
Service	116	51.3	18	46.2	69	71.1	90	60.8	29	61.7	34	79.1	356	59.3
Petty Shopkeeper	2	0.9	1	2.6	1	1	3	2	1	2.1		0	8	1.3
Business	60	26.5	5	12.8	20	20.6	42	28.4	18	38.3	11	25.6	156	26
Medical														
Practice	8	3.5	3	7.7		0	4	2.7		0	1	2.3	16	2.7

Legal														
Practice	4	1.8	1	2.6	1	1	5	3.4	1	2.1		0	12	2
Teaching	12	5.3	1	2.6	5	5.2	7	4.7	1	2.1	1	2.3	27	4.5
Caste Based Occupation		0	1	2.6		0		0		0		0	1	0.2
Traditional Occupation		0	1	2.6		0	1	0.7		0		0	2	0.3
Agriculture	2	0.9	1	2.6		0	2	1.4		0		0	5	0.8
House Rent		0		0		0		0		0	1	2.3	1	0.2
Bank FD Interest	1	0.4		0		0		0		0	1	2.3	2	0.3
Pension		0	5	12.8	1	1	1	0.7		0		0	7	1.2
Retired	1	0.4	1	2.6	2	2.1	1	0.7		0		0	5	0.8
N.R.	20	8.8	1	2.6	0	0	1	0		0		0	21	3.5
Total	226	100	39	100	97	100	148	100	47	100	43	100	600	100

It can be seen from table 6.13 that service is the main occupation of the family (59.3%) and the income of this category is highest in all the slabs of income, viz.79.1% in the >4 lakhs slab, 71.1% in the 60,000 to 1 lakh slab, 61.7% in the 2.5 to 4 lakh slab, 60.8 in the 1 lakh to 2.5 lakh slab and 46.2% in the <60,000 slab. This is followed by those in business (26.0%) with 38.3% in the 2.5 lakh to 4 lakh slab, 28.4% in the 1 lakh to 2.5 lakh slab, 25.6% in the > 4 lakh slab, 20.6% in the 60,000 to 1 lakh slab and only 12.8% in < 60,000 slab. Other occupations except teaching (4.5%) carries very small weightage and are thus insignificant. This explains the fact that those in service are able to give the higher-level education to the girls. Those in business prefer their daughters to assist them in the family business and therefore are not particular to the type of education their daughters undertake unless the latter themselves are self motivated or motivated by the peer group, teachers or society to go in for professional education.

Part – B
The Employed and Unemployed-Facts and Opinions

Employment status of respondents of various disciplines

Table 6.14 gives the employment status of the female graduates discipline-wise. The data reveals that the highest degree of employment is found among the engineering graduates (66.3%) followed by B.Ed. graduates (53.1%), Commerce graduates (42.2%), Home Science graduates (42.1%), Science graduates (41.3%) and lastly Arts graduates (36.2%). It is however disturbing to note that out of 600 sampled female graduates only 241 were employed (including self employment) while 321 remained unemployed. In other words, more than half the selected respondents (53.5%) were not able to secure jobs even after obtaining the graduation degrees in their opted courses of study.

Table – 6.14
Employment status of respondents discipline-wise

Status	N.R.	Arts	%	Sc.	%	Comm.	%	B.Ed.	%	Eng.	%	H.Sc	%	Total
Employed	1	26	27.7	26	34.7	66	38.2	39	48.1	62	63.3	21	27.6	241

Self Employed	0	8	8.5	3	4	3	1.7	2	2.5	3	3.1	11	14.5	30
Emp+Self Emp.	0		0	2	2.7	4	2.3	2	2.5		0		0	8
Total Employed	1	34	36.2	31	41.3	73	42.2	43	53.1	65	66.3	32	42.1	279
Not Employed	2	60	63.8	44	58.7	100	57.8	38	46.9	33	33.7	44	57.9	321
Total	3	94	100	75	100	173	100	81	100	98	100	76	100	600

It is generally believed that enrolment responds to employment situation. In this study we have found that 53.5% of the sampled 600 female graduates are unemployed. A closer examination of the graduate unemployment data reveals certain other features. As shown in Table 6.14, the Arts faculty followed by Science, Home Science and Commerce faculties constituted the maximum proportion of unemployed graduates. These faculties together constituted nearly 89% of the total graduate unemployment, at the same time these faculties constitute nearly 85 percent of total enrolments to higher education. Obviously for a large number of girls joining colleges, doors of professional education are not open due to various social, economic and cultural reasons even though the incidence of unemployment amongst the non-professional graduates is very high.

Reasons for taking job

Table-6.15
Employed and Self -Employed Respondents

Response	Frequency	Percent
Employed	241	86.4
Self Employed	30	10.8
Employed & Self Employed Total	279	100.0

Table 6.15 gives the response from the three categories of the employed female graduates to the question on reasons for taking a job.

As regards the analysis of the chief considerations behind taking up a job, it is apparent from table 6.16 that a great percentage of respondents (66.3%) have stated that it is for earning income, followed by 'to become independent and self reliant' (40.9%), 'for social status' (28.3%). A small number of respondents have stated 'for experience' (3.2%), 'for time occupation' (1.1%) and 'for educational interest' (1.1%). A similar trend is observed if we analyse this discipline-wise too.

This trend reveals that once the girls become graduates they aspire to become job-seekers basically for three reasons viz. a) to raise the economic status of the family b) to become independent and fully self reliant and c) to improve their image in society. For some, it is a stop-gap arrangement between their having completed graduation and being married off.

Table – 6.16
Reasons For Taking Job (out of 279 employed) (multiple choice)

Reasons	N.R.	Arts	%	Sc.	%	Comm.	%	B.Ed.	%	Eng.	%	H.Sc	%	Total	%
For Income	1	24	70.6	18	58.1	46	53	32	74.4	44	67.7	20	62.5	185	66.3
To become independent and self reliant		16	47.1	13	41.9	27	37	14	32.6	33	50.8	11	34.4	114	40.9
For social status		12	35.3	11	35.5	15	20.5	15	34.9	22	33.8	4	12.5		28.7
For experience		1	2.9		0	5	6.8		0	1	1.5	2	6.3	9	3.2
For time occupation			0		0	3	4.1		0		0		0	3	1.1
Educational purpose			0		0	2	2.7		0		0		0	3	1.1
Out of interest			0	1	3.2		0		0		1.5		0	1	0.4
Computer interest			0		0	2	2.7		0	1	1.5		0	3	1.1
Hobby			0	1	3.2		0	1	2.3	1	1.5		0	4	1.4

Note: ***In some cases, there were multiple responses***

Table-6.17 (a)
Respondents Opinion Regarding Encouragement by Family Members

Opinion	N.R	Arts	%	Sc	%	Com	%	B.Ed	%	Eng	%	H.Sc.	%	Total	%
Yes	3	64	68.1	62	82.7	134	77.5	60	74.1	86	87.8	52	68.4	461	76.8
No	0	7	7.4	4	5.3	7	4.0	4	4.9	3	3.1	4	5.3	29	4.8
N.R		23	24.5	9	12.0	32	18.5	17	21.0	9	9.2	20	26.3	110	18.3
Total	3	94	100	75	100	173	100	81	100	98	100	76	100	600	100

Table-6.17 (b)
Discouraged how

How discouraged	N.R	Arts	%	Sc	%	Com	%	B.Ed	%	Eng	%	H.Sc	%	Total	%
Enough work at home/at farm								1	25.0					1	3.3
Want me to be good housewife		1	14.3	1	25.0	4	57.1			1	33.3			7	23.3
Husband says he is capable for finance				1	25.0			1	25.0					2	6.7
Look after baby /Presently no		2	28.6	1	25.0									3	10.0
Do not do stage shows/society pressure												1	25.0	1	3.3
Discourged by showing mistakes						1	14.3	1	25.0					2	6.7
in household work															

For physical fitness/ very slim										1	33.3			1	3.3
Not allowing to work/she is also disinterested				1	25.0	1	14.3	1	25.0					3	10.0
They want allrounder do all /not possible		1	14.3	1	25.0									2	6.7
No need of money/ financially sound		1	14.3	1	25.0			1	25.0			1	25.0	4	13.3
Market slack- no good/proper job								1	25.0					1	3.3
I have to send child in cresh/non cooperation		1	14.3					1	25.0					2	6.7
Emotional blackmailing						1	14.3					1	25.0	2	6.7
Childrens future gets affected		1	14.3											1	3.3
Ours is jain family/ no use of job												1	25.0	1	3.3
We have to hear taunts/ telling difficulties										1	33.3			1	3.3
They use my all earned money/whats use				1	25.0									1	3.3
Family is illiterate/ no women in family is working						1	14.3							1	3.3
There is no safe place for working								1	25.0					1	3.3
Total no .of respondents , discouraged	0	7	7.4	4	5.3	7	4.0	4	4.9	3	3.1	4	5.3	29	4.8

Table 6.17 (a) gives the opinion of the female graduates regarding encouragement by family members regarding taking up employment. 76.8% stated 'yes' while only 4.8% stated 'No'. There was 18.3% No Response. Table 6.17 (b) describes in what way the 4.8% respondents who stated 'No' are discouraged by family members.

Table-6.18
Respondents Perception of Attitude of Family Members Towards Their Employment

Attitude	N.R	Arts	%	Sci.	%	Comm.	%	B.Ed	%	Eng	%	H.Sc	%	Total
They are very encouraging		14	14.9	14	18.7	40	23.1	13	16.0	20	20.4	21	27.6	122
Happy & helpful		5	5.3	10	13.3	16	9.2	4	4.9	15	15.3	6	7.9	56
They can't force her /very neutral / No objection		6	6.4		0.0	3	1.7	6	7.4	2	2.0	4	5.3	21
Very positive / Co-operative	1	24	25.5	22	29.3	22	12.7	13	16.0	32	32.7	10	13.2	124
Wanted to make a different identity in a society		2	2.1	2	2.7		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	4
Should be employed / self sufficient	1		0.0		0.0	10	5.8	1	1.2	1	1.0	2	2.6	15
Studying - no employment			0.0	1	1.3	1	0.6		0.0	1	1.0		0.0	3
Comfortable with the decision/They support			0.0		0.0	2	1.2	1	1.2		0.0		0.0	3
They are proud / for status		3	3.2	3	4.0	5	2.9	1	1.2	4	4.1	3	3.9	19
They like that she should do job		7	7.4	4	5.3	12	6.9	2	2.5	6	6.1	2	2.6	33
She want do duty & also domestic work		3	3.2	1	1.3	5	2.9	4	4.9	0	0.0	0	0.0	13
Family's secondary income support			0.0		0.0	1	0.6	2	2.5		0.0		0.0	3
All members of family are working so I should work		1	1.1	1	1.3	2	1.2		0.0	2	2.0		0.0	6
They give importance / first preference to the job			0.0	2	2.7	2	1.2		0.0	1	1.0	1	1.3	6
My better future not only for salary			0.0		0.0	2	1.2	3	3.7	1	1.0	1	1.3	7
Own identity			0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.0		0.0	1
Use education for employment		2	2.1	2	2.7	4	2.3	2	2.5	4	4.1	1	1.3	15
Share day to day experience of job/they share			0.0		0.0	2	1.2	1	1.2		0.0		0.0	3
Liberal			0.0		0.0	2	1.2	2	2.5		0.0		0.0	4
Get experience of job /		2	2.1		0.0	1	0.6		0.0		0.0	1	1.3	4

responsibilities														
They need her income/ for money purpose			0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.2		0.0		0.0	1
Do job but not as stage singer			0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.3	1
Job learn/ time management-adjustment		2	2.1	0	0.0	2	1.2	0	0.0	1	1.0	0	0.0	5
Keeps busy			0.0	1	1.3		0.0		0.0	1	1.0		0.0	2
Do not work late night/over-time/		3	3.2	1	1.3	2	1.2	3	3.7	2	2.0	1	1.3	12
Negative ibecause of health fitness			0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.2		0.0		0.0	1
Satisfaction she should do job not for only money	1		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1
Get married first than job/force to marry			0.0		0.0	1	0.6		0.0		0.0		0.0	1
Do job sincerely / Honestly			0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.0		0.0	1
Open choice / as per wish/no compulsion			0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.2		0.0		0.0	1
Lady should work only if there is financial need			0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.0		0.0	1
Children should become independent then work		1	1.1		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.0	1	1.3	3
Do own business/ Self employed			0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.0		0.0	1
They feel sorry regarding job but it is need so allow			0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.2		0.0		0.0	1
They want to compromise with husband (divorce)			0.0	1	1.3		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1

Table 6.18 gives the attitudes of the family members towards the employment of the respondents. From the table, the interest of the family members shown towards the respondents who are employed can be divided into ten major sub-groups viz. a) very positive / co-operative; b) very encouraging; c) happy and helpful; d) they like that she should do the job; e) no objection; f) they are proud / for status; g) she should be employed for self reliance; h) use education for employment; i) she should work at the same time do domestic work; j) negative because of health fitness. The table reveals that doing domestic work with a job and negative because of health fitness carry less response compared to the first five attitudes. These days, family members are found to be encouraging girls to take up employment basically because it adds to the income of the family and for social status besides making use of their education to become self reliant.

Nature of Duties of Respondents

Table 6.19 describes the type of work the employed female graduates do at their place of work

Table-6.19
Nature of Duties of Respondents (base-emp + S emp=279)

Nature of duties	N.R.	Arts	%	Sc.	%	Comm.	%	B.Ed.	%	Eng.	%	H.Sc.	%	Total	%
Clerical		13	38.2	3	9.7	37	50.7	1	2.3	0	0	5	15.6	59	21.1

Secretarial / Computing	1	7	20.6	9	29	25	34.2	3	7	9	13.8	0	0	54	19.4
Field based		3	8.8	5	16.1	8	11	5	11.6	7	10.8	8	25	36	12.9
Technical		2	5.9	12	38.7	6	8.2	1	2.3	54	83.1	3	9.4	78	28
Shift Duties			0		0	2	2.7		0	1	1.5	3	9.4	6	2.2
Day Duties		8	23.5	9	29	11	15.1	32	74.4	9	13.8	11	34.4	80	28.7

Note: *In some cases added responsibilities have been taken as duties as there were several answers to the question*

We see from Table 6.19, that 28.7% reported they were doing day duties while only 2.2% were engaged in shift duties. 28.0% reported they were engaged in technical work, 21.1% were doing clerical jobs, 19.4% were doing secretarial / computing work and 12.9% were engaged in field based work.

Discipline-wise, the Engineering graduates (83.1%) for obvious reasons was the largest group engaged in technical work, while Commerce graduates (50.7%) followed by Arts graduates (38.2%) were highest in doing Clerical work. Again, Commerce graduates (34.2%), Science graduates (29.0%) and Arts graduates (20.6%) were the groups engaged in Secretarial / computing work. Field-based work was more common in Home-Science graduates (25.0%). B.Ed. graduates (74.4%) highly reported day duties as teachers are mainly engaged in day time jobs, followed by Home Science graduates (34.4%), Science graduates (29.0%), Arts graduates (23.5%), Commerce graduates (15.1%) and Engineering graduates (13.8%) respectively.

Mode of travel to place of work

The distance that the woman worker has to travel and mode of transport are relevant to the time involved in reaching the place of work. The woman workers therefore have to spend time, money and energy in reaching their place of work. Most of the girls also have to do domestic work both before going to work and after returning thus bearing the double burden of work due to their domestic responsibilities. Unmarried girls who form 65 per cent of women workers have their mothers to take care of housework. The marital status reflects the double burden of work they bear.

Table 6.20 gives the modes of transport used by the employed female graduates to reach their place of work.

Table-6.20
Mode of Travel to Place of Work (emp + semp.=279)

Mode of Travel	N.R.	Arts	%	Sc.	%	Comm.	%	B.Ed.	%	Eng.	%	H.Sc.	%	Total	%
Car		0	0	0	0	0	0		0	2	3.1		0	2	0.7
Two Wheeler	1	13	38.2	18	58.1	43	58.9	21	48.8	42	64.6	11	34.4	149	53.4
Auto-rickshaw		0	0		0	1	1.4		0		0		0	1	0.4
Bus Local		12	35.3	6	19.4	11	15.1	13	30.2	12	18.5	6	18.8	60	21.5
Walking		1	2.9	1	3.2	8	11	3	7	3	4.6	1	3.1	17	6.1
Cycle			0		0	1	1.4		0		0		0	1	0.4
Work at home		1	2.9		0		0		0	6	9.2		0	7	2.5
State Tr. Bus		3	8.8	1	3.2	2	2.7		0		0	2	6.3	8	2.9
Train			0	1	3.2		0		0		0	1	3.1	2	0.7
N.R.	1	4	11.8	4	12.9	7	9.6	6	14		0	11	34.4	32	11.5
Total Employed	1	34	100	31	100	73	100	43	100	65	100	32	100	279	100

It is seen from the Table 6.20 that the most common mode of travel to work is by two-wheeler (53.4%) self-driven vehicles like scooters, motor-cycles etc., followed by use of bus (local municipal bus) as transport (21.5%), some walking to their place of work (6.1%), some using the State Transport Bus if their work takes them outside the Pune city limits (2.9%) and the self-employed working from home (2.5%). Only 0.7% reported using the car to travel to work and 0.7% reported using train if their work is outside Pune city. This is the general trend even among discipline-wise graduate employment.

Time taken to reach place of work

Table-6.21 gives the time taken to reach the place of work . The average time taken is 15 to 30 minutes as reported by 47.0% followed by less than 15 minutes (35.8%), half an hour to one hour (15.1%), and more than one hour (2.2%) to place of work.

Table-6.21
Time Taken to Reach Place of Work

Time	N.R.	Arts	%	Sc.	%	Comm.	%	B.Ed.	%	Eng.	%	H.Sc.	%	Total	%
< 15 mins.	1	5	19.2	10	40	27	42.9	15	42.9	18	28.6	7	36.8	83	35.8
15 to 30 mins.		14	53.8	11	44	32	50.8	15	42.9	27	42.9	10	52.6	109	47
½ hr. to 1 hr.		6	23.1	3	12	4	6.3	4	11.4	16	25.4	2	10.5	35	15.1
> 1 hr		1	3.8	1	4		0	1	2.9	2	3.2		0	5	2.2
Total		26	100	25	100	63	100	35	100	63	100	19	100	232	100

Expected and Actual Salaries

Table 6.22 gives the mean values of expected and actual salaries. Most of the employed female graduates opined that they were not being paid on par with their male colleagues. They felt they had to be paid more than what they were being paid in view of their skills and abilities and that the employers should not merely go by qualifications. In many cases, were female graduates who were basically qualified but who did technical work due to having developed the skills through additional training courses who felt they were underpaid. Apparently, there is a general dissatisfaction about the salary paid to the female graduates.

Table-6.22
Mean Values of Expected and Actual Salaries

Salary in Rs.	Actual	Expected
1000-2000	1780.57	2758.10
2001-3000	2828.33	5175.00
3001-4000	3939.71	5279.41
4001-6000	5026.09	7434.78
6001-9000	7359.63	9102.10
10,000-15,000	11,541.18	15,539.22
15,000-25,000	18,526.09	21,260.87

Table 6.23 gives the average income per month of the employed female graduates. It can be seen from the table that Engineering graduates are the highest paid followed by Science graduates, Home-Science graduates, B.Ed. graduates and Arts graduates. The least paid are the Commerce graduates.

Table-6.23
Distribution of Salary Discipline-wise

Disciplines	Minimum	Maximum	Average income of month
Arts	1200	12,000	4004.76
Science	2000	16,000	6511.00
Commerce	1200	8,500	3492.59
B.Ed.	800	12,000	4457.50
Engineering	4000	29,000	11,348.84
Home Science	1500	20,000	4933.57

Total period of time not employed after graduation

A study was made of the total period of time of unemployment after graduation. The analysis of table 6.24 shows that the maximum period of time of unemployment before

getting a job was 1 to 2 years (32.9%). For some (22.7%) the waiting period was 6 months to 1 year while for others (21.7%) it was less than or almost 6 months. This time period depends on the discipline and skills acquired by the graduates. For engineering graduates, employment is almost immediate (4.5%) due to campus interviews held by industrial companies and 4.2% have reported to be still pursuing higher studies due to non-availability of jobs.

Table-6.24
Total Period of Time not Employed After Graduation

Period	N.R.	Arts	%	Sc.	%	Comm.	%	B.Ed	%	Eng.	%	H.Sc.	%	Total	%
<= 6 months	1	3	7.9	9	22.5	19	21.3	5	10	21	36.8	10	26.3	68	21.7
6 months to 1 year		10	26.3	7	17.5	24	27	12	24	10	17.5	8	21.1	71	22.7
1 to 2 yrs.		8	21.1	16	40	40	44.9	17	34	10	17.5	12	31.6	103	32.9
2 to 5 yrs.		11	28.9	5	12.5	4	4.5	15	30	1	1.8	4	10.5	40	12.8
> 5 yrs		2	5.3	1	2.5		0	1	2		0		0	4	1.3
Through campus			0		0		0		0	13	22.8	1	2.6	14	4.5
Still studying		4	10.5	2	5	2	2.2		0	2	3.5	3	7.9	13	4.2
Total	1	38	100	40	100	89	100	50	100	57	100	38	100	313	100

In the case of Arts graduates the waiting period could be as high as 2 to 5 years (28.9%), for Science graduates, 1 to 2 years (40.0%), for Commerce graduates 1 to 2 years (44.9%), B.Ed. graduates 1 to 2 years (34.0%). Engineering graduates often found jobs within 6 months of graduation (36.8%), and for Home Science graduates it could be as much as 1 to 2 years (31.6%). This would mean that except for the technically equipped engineering graduates, the girls from other faculties found it difficult to get jobs and have had to undergo long spells of idleness.

Out of the 600 female graduates taken for the study, 321 were unemployed. Opinions of the unemployed are described in this section. Table 6.25 gives the distribution of unemployment amongst the sampled female graduates. It can be seen that the highest unemployment is amongst Arts graduates (63.8%) followed by Science graduates (58.7%), Home Science graduates (57.9%), Commerce graduates (57.8%) B.Ed. graduates (46.9%) and lastly the Engineering graduates (33.7%).

Table-6.25
Distribution of Unemployment Discipline-wise

Disciplines	Arts	Science	Commerce	B.Ed.	Engg.	Home Science	Total
Total unemployed	60	44	100	38	33	44	321
Total respondents	94	75	173	81	98	76	600
% of unemployment	63.8	58.7	57.8	46.9	33.7	57.9	53.5

Reasons for being Unemployed

Table-6.26
Reasons for Being Unemployed

Disciplines	Arts	%	Scie.	%	Com	%	B.Ed	%	Eng	%	H.Sc	%	Total	%
Jobs not available	24	40.0	21	47.7	37	37.0	25	65.8	13	39.4	7	15.9	127	39.6
Parents/In laws do not allow	10	16.7	6	13.6	8	8.0	4	10.5	5	15.2	9	20.5	42	13.1
Graduation on an over qualification	14	23.3	9	20.5	18	18.0	6	15.8	4	12.1	14	31.8	66	20.6
Pursuing further education	7	11.7	11	25.0	24	24.0	2	5.3	6	18.2	6	13.6	55	17.1
Residence in rural area jobs unavail.	1	1.7		0.0	1	1.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	2	0.6
Related job are not available		0.0	1	2.3		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.3
Baby is so small so can't find out job	1	1.7	1	2.3		0.0	4	10.5		0.0	2	4.5	8	2.5
Interest career	2	3.3		0.0	4	4.0	1	2.6	2	6.1	6	13.6	15	4.7
No experience		0.0		0.0	1	1.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.3
House responsibility		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	2.3	1	0.3
Want to do something different		0.0		0.0	1	1.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.3
Just project was complete- work break		0.0	1	2.3		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.3
Suitable job with Good salary package		0.0		0.0	1	1.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.3
Full attention in setting our home		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	2	4.5	2	0.6
Want to practical knowledge		0.0		0.0	1	1.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.3
Dependent - visa so not doing job		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	3.0		0.0	1	0.3
Want to work good		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	2.3	1	0.3
I want to help to family business	1	1.7		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.3
Company closed down due to recession		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	2.3	1	0.3
Husband job are transferable		0.0	1	2.3		0.0	1	2.6		0.0		0.0	2	0.6
I don't want to work / job	4	6.7		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	4	1.2
She has just appeared		0.0	1	2.3	4	4.0		0.0		0.0	2	4.5	7	2.2
Interest in other activity		0.0		0.0	1	1.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.3
Not employed total	60	100	44	100	100	100	38	100	33	100	44	100	321	100

There was a much varied response to the query regarding reasons for being unemployed as seen in Table 6.26. However, the highest response was given to 'jobs not available' (39.6%), followed by 'Graduation an over qualification' (20.6%), 'Pursuing further education' (17.1%) and 'Parents / in-laws do not allow' (13.1%). Other reasons expressed are given in the table which include reasons such as 'do not want to work', 'setting up home', 'pursuing own interest career', 'looking for a suitable job' and others. From this analysis, it is obvious that the education system must be related to the job market for only then will jobs be available for the large numbers of female graduates who pass out each year. Besides, vocationalisation of secondary education is now a necessity for there are many jobs where certain skills are required even after only SSC or HSC so that graduation becomes redundant. This would also reduce the numbers who go in for graduation only because they are not able to get employment after Secondary Education.

Difficulties faced by Respondents in getting Employment

Table-6.27
Difficulties Faced by Respondents in Getting Employment

Type	Difficulties	N.R	Arts	%	Sc	%	Com	%	B.Ed	%	Eng	%	H.Sc	%	Total	%
Edu	Qualification not right		0	0.0	0	0.0	4	2.3	0	0.0	1	1.0	2	2.6	7	1.2
Edu	Masters degree/ higher qualification needed		1	1.1	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	1.2	2	2.0	2	2.6	6	1.0
Edu	Extra courses/ Knowledge needed		0	0.0	0	0.0	2	1.2	0	0.0	1	1.0	1	1.3	4	0.7
Edu	Extra efforts/ high fees /cost		0	0.0	0	0.0	4	2.3	1	1.2	2	2.0	0	0.0	7	1.2
Edu	Shifted in software job but again wait			0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.0		0.0	1	0.2
Edu	Arts graduates have no value			0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.2		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
Edu	Less marks/ no first class			0.0	1	1.3	1	0.6		0.0	4	4.1		0.0	6	1.0
Edu	Not selected through campus interview			0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.2	1	1.0	1	1.3	3	0.5
Edu	Cannot speak English fluently		1	1.1		0.0	1	0.6		0.0	1	1.0	1	1.3	4	0.7
Edu/market	No proper job related to my field		2	2.1	3	4.0	5	2.9	1	1.2	3	3.1	1	1.3	15	2.5
Total1	**Education related difficulties**		4	4.3	4	5.3	17	9.8	5	6.2	16	16.3	8	10.5	54	9.0
market	Few job opportunities / Competition more		5	5.3	1	1.3	10	5.8	12	14.8	4	4.1	1	1.3	33	5.5
market	No reasonable salary/ Compensation		5	5.3	2	2.7	7	4.0	5	6.2	2	2.0	1	1.3	22	3.7
market	Experience needed		2	2.1	4	5.3	12	6.9	3	3.7	7	7.1	3	3.9	31	5.2
Market	Saturation			0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.2		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
market	Recession/ market slakhk		0	0.0	4	5.3	5	2.9	2	2.5	6	6.1	2	2.6	19	3.2
market	Experience was not good/ no future growth			0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.0		0.0	1	0.2
market	Do not interview in time		0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.6	1	1.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	0.3
market	Misguidance by Employment agency			0.0	1	1.3		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
market	Contract basis/ no permanent jobs		1	1.1		0.0		0.0	2	2.5		0.0	1	1.3	4	0.7
market	No rewards/ incentives			0.0		0.0	1	0.6	1	1.2		0.0		0.0	2	0.3
market	Advertisement not proper/ give wrong information			0.0		0.0	1	0.6		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
Market	Overqualified			0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.2		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
market/ social	No use of employment exchange			0.0		0.0	1	0.6		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
market/	Not on merit/ on looks/		1	1.1		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.3	2	0.3
social	on free talking															
Total2	**Market related problems**		**14**	**14.9**	**12**	**16.0**	**38**	**22.0**	**28**	**34.6**	**20**	**20.4**	**9**	**11.8**	**121**	**20.2**
Social	Candidates already selected			0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.2		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
Social	Reservation policy is harmful/ caste bar		3	3.2	2	2.7	8	4.6	9	11.1	1	1.0	1	1.3	24	4.0
Social	Govt. policy -jobs not available		3	3.2	1	1.3	10	5.8	5	6.2	3	3.1	1	1.3	23	3.8
Social	Society not aware of Specialized field			0.0		0.0	1	0.6		0.0	1	1.0		0.0	2	0.3
Social	Corruption for permanent jobs/ influence		7	7.4	2	2.7	4	2.3	3	3.7	2	2.0	1	1.3	19	3.2
Social	Bond demanded		0	0.0	0	0.0	2	1.2	0	0.0	1	1.0	0	0.0	3	0.5
Social	Wrong policies		1	1.1		0.0	3	1.7		0.0		0.0		0.0	4	0.7
Total3	**Social problems**		**14**	**14.9**	**5**	**6.7**	**28**	**16.2**	**18**	**22.2**	**8**	**8.2**	**3**	**3.9**	**76**	**12.66**
Women	Timing/ shifts/ over time at night		4	4.3	1	1.3	5	2.9	0	0.0	1	1.0	2	2.6	13	2.2
Women	Sex differentiation/ male dominance		1	1.1	1	1.3	1	0.6	3	3.7	2	2.0	0	0.0	8	1.3
Women	Unsuitable job environment/ criteria unsuited		1	1.1	1	1.3	3	1.7	1	1.2	1	1.0	0	0.0	7	1.2
Women	Women are not stable		0	0.0	1	1.3	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	1.0	0	0.0	2	0.3
Women	Office environment not suitable			0.0		0.0	2	1.2		0.0		0.0		0.0	2	0.3

Women	No fieldwork/ marketing job		1	1.1		0.0	2	1.2		0.0	1	1.0		0.0	4	0.7
Women	Women have to give more facilities			0.0	1	1.3	1	0.6		0.0	1	1.0		0.0	3	0.5
Women	Sexual harassment			0.0		0.0	1	0.6	1	1.2		0.0		0.0	2	0.3
Women/ Personal	Far distance /away from home		3	3.2	0	0.0	4	2.3	3	3.7	2	2.0	1	1.3	13	2.2
Women/ Personal	Gap because of children			0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.2	1	1.0		0.0	2	0.3
Total4	**Women related problems**		**10**	**10.6**	**5**	**6.7**	**19**	**11.0**	**9**	**11.1**	**10**	**10.2**	**3**	**3.9**	**56**	**9.3**
Personal	No social contacts			0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.3	1	0.2
Personal	Local language problems		1	1.1	1	1.3		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	2	0.3
Personal	Age problem						1								1	0.2
Personal	Very hectic work			0.0	1	1.3		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
Personal	Lakhk of confidence/ personality		2	2.1		0.0		0.0	1	1.2		0.0		0.0	3	0.5
Total5	**Personal problems**		**3**	**3.2**	**2**	**2.7**	**1**	**0.6**	**1**	**1.2**	**0**	**0.0**	**1**	**1.3**	**8**	**1.3**
No	No difficulties	1	11	11.7	16	21.3	35	20.2	14	17.3	16	16.3	17	22.4	110	18.3
	Unemployed		1	1.1	2	2.7	1	0.6	1	1.2		0.0		0.0	5	0.8

Summary Table

Reason	Difficulties	N.R	Arts	%	Sc	%	Com	%	B.Ed	%	Eng	%	H.Sc.	%	Total	%
Total1	Education related difficulties		4	4.3	4	5.3	17	9.8	5	6.2	16	16.33	8	10.5	54	9.0
Total2	Market related problems		14	14.9	12	16.0	38	22.0	28	34.6	20	20.41	9	11.8	121	20.2
Total3	Social problems		14	14.9	5	6.7	28	16.2	18	22.2	8	8.2	3	3.9	76	12.7
Total4	Women related problems		10	10.6	5	6.7	19	11.0	9	11.1	10	10.2	3	3.9	56	9.3
Total5	Personal problems		3	3.2	2	2.7	1	0.6	1	1.2	0	0	1	1.3	8	1.3

Table 6.27 presents a broad picture of the nature of difficulties faced by the unemployed respondents in getting employment.

Broadly, the difficulties faced an account of being unemployed are divided into five broad categories. Almost 22% difficulties are related to society and women oriented problems, 20% difficulties are related to market conditions, 10% are related to education while only 1.3% are related to personal problems. However, as we analyse further, many respondents (around 75%) feel that the present educational system needs to be reviewed and revised, New courses, trainings, professional courses, personality development courses should be incorporated in the present system of education in order to over come these difficulties.

Respondents' perception of personal needs dependency

Table-6.28
Respondents Perception of Personal Needs Dependency

Dependent	N.R	Arts	%	Sc.	%	Comm	%	B.Ed	%	Eng	%	H.Sc.	%	Total	%
Yes		50	53.2	46	61.3	96	55.5	37	45.7	34	34.7	32	42.1	295	49.2
No	1	36	38.3	27	36.0	64	37.0	39	48.1	61	62.2	39	51.3	267	44.5
N.R	2	6	6.4	2	2.7	13	7.5	5	6.2	3	3.1	5	6.6	34	5.7
Grand Total	3	94	100.0	75	100.0	173	100.0	81	100.0	98	100.0	76	100.0	600	100.0

Table 6.28 gives the distribution of the dependency state of the respondents. We find that 49.2% of the respondents feel they are dependent for their personal needs while 44.5% felt they were not dependent on their families of their personal needs.

Table 6.29 describes the respondents' perception of fulfilment of their needs by the family. We find that 47.8% opined their needs were fulfilled, 27.0% opined that all their requirements were fulfilled, 3.5% responded their needs were not fulfilled by the family, 3.0% responded they were supported monetarily and emotionally, 2.5% stated their needs were somewhat fulfilled, 2.0% stated that they received their basic requirements.

Table-6.29
Respondents perception of fulfillment of their needs

Perception	N.R	Arts	%	Sc.	%	Comm	%	B.Ed	%	Eng	%	H.Sc	%	Total	%
Yes	2	39	41.5	35	46.7	78	45.1	34	42.0	62	63.3	37	48.7	287	47.8
They fulfill my all requirement	1	37	39.4	19	25.3	45	26.0	24	29.6	16	16.3	20	26.3	162	27.0
No		3	3.2	5	6.7	7	4.0	3	3.7	2	2.0	1	1.3	21	3.5
They support monetarily / Emotionally		1	1.1	5	6.7	5	2.9	1	1.2	4	4.1	2	2.6	18	3.0
For big assets			0.0	2	2.7	2	1.2		0.0		0.0	1	1.3	5	0.8
Basic requirements			0.0	1	1.3	6	3.5	3	3.7	4	4.1		0.0	12	2.0
Sometimes / to some extent			0.0	3	4.0	7	4.0	2	2.5	2	2.0	1	1.3	15	2.5
They did expenses on my specialization			0.0	2	2.7		0.0		0.0	1	1.0		0.0	3	0.5
My income is secondary not enough			0.0	1	1.3	1	0.6	1	1.2		0.0		0.0	3	0.5
I am employed so not required		1	1.1		0.0		0.0	1	1.2	1	1.0		0.0	3	0.5
Pocket money			0.0		0.0	2	1.2	1	1.2	1	1.0	4	5.3	8	1.3
Mental satisfaction			0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.0		0.0	1	0.2
Moped conveyance/maintances/ to & fro to office			0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.2		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
If my requirement is essential then do.			0.0		0.0	1	0.6		0.0		0.0	1	1.3	2	0.3
Grand Total	3	94	100.0	75	100.0	173	100.0	81	100.0	98	100.0	76	100.0	600	

Unemployed female youth depend largely upon their parents / guardians / husband for satisfaction of their needs and requirements. Poor economic conditions of the parents / guardians / husband become a major impediment in the way of fulfilment of the respondents' needs and requirements which is understandable. However, the family members were found to be aware of the development needs of the younger generation in the family and this was found to creep in among the middle class cultural syndrome and then this consciousness tends to move gradually both upward and downward in the socio-economic classes of society.

Effects on Family Life due to the state of Unemployment

Table 6.30 gives the varied distribution of respondents according to nature of effects on family life due to the state of unemployment. Among the major effects 'Monetary problems' (9.0%) was listed the highest followed by 'Nervousness / Depression (5.9%), 'Emotional effects' (4.4%), Lakh of status / No respect / No own identity' (2.2%), 'Lakh of self reliance and independence' (2.2%), 'Cannot afford a better life style' (1.6%), 'Family quarrels' (1.2%), 'Restlessness' (1.2%), 'Personal needs not fulfilled' (1.2%), and 'Worry in the family' (1.6%). There were other effects too which are listed in table 6.30.

Table-6.30

Distribution of Respondents According to Nature of Eeffects on Family Life Due to the State of Unemployment

Effects	N.R	Arts	%	Sc	%	Com	%	B.Ed	%	Eng	%	H.Sc.	%	Total	%
Yes		1	1.7		0.0	1	1.0		0.0	1	3.0		0.0	3	0.9
Monetary problems		5	8.3	5	11.4	7	7.0	4	10.5	3	9.1	1	2.3	29	9.0
Emotional effect		2	3.3	2	4.5	3	3.0	1	2.6	5	15.2	1	2.3	14	4.4
Nervousness / Depressed			0.0	6	13.6	5	5.0	2	5.3	6	18.2	0	0.0	19	5.9
Still Studying - Can't say			0.0		0.0	1	1.0		0.0	1	3.0	4	9.1	6	1.9
Family quarrels			0.0	1	2.3	1	1.0	1	2.6	1	3.0		0.0	4	1.2
Positive attitude			0.0		0.0		0.0	1	2.6	1	3.0		0.0	2	0.6
Lakh of status/No respect/ No own identity			0.0		0.0	4	4.0	3	7.9		0.0		0.0	7	2.2
Restless		1	1.7	1	2.3	2	2.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	4	1.2
We can not afford better life style		2	3.3	1	2.3		0.0		0.0		0.0	2	4.5	5	1.6
We can not give good education To our child		1	1.7		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.3
Only father has to bear all expenses / family needs			0.0	1	2.3		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.3
Social life is greatly hampered / Lakh of social status			0.0	1	2.3	1	1.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	2	0.6
Personal needs/Liking Are not satisfied			0.0	1	2.3	1	1.0	1	2.6	1	3.0		0.0	4	1.2
I am not independent although Well educated		2	3.3	2	4.5		0.0	1	2.6	2	6.1		0.0	7	2.2
We can not buy luxury items			0.0		0.0	1	1.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.3
Family life disturbed / worried		3	5.0	2	4.5	5	5.0	2	5.3	3	9.1	1	2.3	16	5.0
Marriage problems-			0.0		0.0	2	2.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	2	0.6
Professional education no requirements so depression			0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	2	6.1		0.0	2	0.6
It is difficult to pass time without job/ Bored			0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	3	9.1		0.0	3	0.9
Everybody in family is scared / Worried		1	1.7		0.0	1	1.0	1	2.6	2	6.1		0.0	5	1.6
We are educated but not employed what is in future			0.0		0.0		0.0	1	2.6		0.0		0.0	1	0.3
No saving for future			0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	2.3	1	0.3
Every one takes person as granted for household work		2	3.3	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.6	0	0.0	1	2.3	4	1.2
Education worthless / No utilization			0.0		0.0	1	1.0	1	2.6		0.0		0.0	2	0.6
No scope for development of my career or personality			0.0		0.0		0.0	1	2.6		0.0		0.0	1	0.3
I can't help my family/parents		2	3.3		0.0	1	1.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	3	0.9
Lakh of confidence / that I cannot deal in outside world			0.0	1	2.3		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.3
Family members become lazy		1	1.7		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.3
members tease you		1	1.7		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.3
Open category- we have to struggle it is very frustrating			0.0		0.0	1	1.0	1	2.6		0.0		0.0	2	0.6
Payment are very low			0.0		0.0	1	1.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.3
Not employ	2	60	100	44	100.0	100	100.0	38	100.0	33	100.0	44	100.0	321	100.0
No		2	3.3	6	13.6	22	22.0	4	10.5	8	24.2	10	22.7	52	
No such effect		26	43.3	16	36.4	40	40.0	19	50.0	10	30.3	16	36.4	127	

PART-C
Issues related to Employment and Unemployment

This section deals with the respondents' approach to the fundamental issues related to female employment.

Respondents' Opinion about and Unmarried youth pursuing an Employment Career

Assuming that employment in the case of unmarried educated female youth will be taken as an undesirable proposition, information with regard to the question 'whether employment was desirable for an unmarried female' was obtained in the study. Table 6.31 incorporates the trend of opinion in this regard.

Table-6.31
Table-28 Respondents Opinion About an Unmarried Female Youth Pursuing an Employment Career

	N.R	Arts	%	Sc.	%	Comm	%	B.Ed	%	Eng	%	H.Sc.	%	Total	%
Desirable	3	90	95.7	73	97.3	161	93.1	77	95.1	97	99.0	73	96.1	574	95.7
Undesirable			0.0	1	1.3	4	2.3	3	3.7		0.0	1	1.3	9	1.5
N.R		4	4.3	1	1.3	8	4.6	1	1.2	1	1.0	2	2.6	13	2.2
Total	3	94	100.0	75	100.0	173	100.0	81	100.0	98	100.0	76	100.0	600	100.0

It is clear that a very large proportion (95.7%) is constituted of those respondents who have found that pursuance of employment career by unmarried female youth is 'Desirable' while only 1.5% of the respondents found the employment career for an unmarried female youth to be 'Undesirable' with 2.2% 'No Response'.

As regards the discipline-wise analysis, it is apparent that the Engineering graduates (99.0%) are highly in favour of employment career for unmarried female youth, followed by Science graduates (97.3%), Home Science graduates (96.1%), Arts graduates (95.7%), B.Eds (95.1%) and Commerce graduates (93.1%) respectively. Very small percent in each discipline have found it 'Undesirable'.

Respondents' Opinion about Married Female Youth pursuing an Employment Career

Logically drawn from the above discussion in the sequence of obtaining opinion of the respondents on desirability of an employment career in the case of unmarried female youth has engaged an important area of concern with regard to he desirability of an employment career for married female youth. The question, to follow in this sequence, related to 'whether pursuance of an employment career by married female youth was desirable?.' Table-6.32 incorporates the trend of opinion in this regard.

Table-6.32

Respondents Opinion About a Married Female Youth Pursuing an Employment Career

	N.R	Arts	%	Sc.	%	Comm	%	B.Ed	%	Eng	%	H.Sc.	%	Total	%
Desirable	3	83	88.3	72	96.0	158	91.3	74	91.4	96	98.0	69	90.8	555	92.5
Undesirable		7	7.4	3	4.0	4	2.3	3	3.7		0.0	3	3.9	20	3.3
N.R		4	4.3		0.0	11	6.4	4	4.9	2	2.0	4	5.3	25	4.2
Total	3	94	100	75	100	173	100	81	100	98	100	76	100	600	100

It is seen that a very large majority of females (92.5%) is of those respondents who feel that pursuance of employment career by married female youth is 'Desirable' particularly because they should make use of their education besides supplementing the family income. Only 3.3% opined it 'Undesirable' with 4.2% 'No Response'.

As regards analysis discipline-wise, we find that here too Engineering graduates recorded the highest response (98.0%) followed by Science graduates (96.0%), B.Eds (91.4%), Commerce graduates (91.3%), Home Science graduates (90.8%) and Arts graduates (88.3%) respectively.

Conclusively, it can be said that married female graduates are very keen on employment.

Respondents' Opinion about Married Female with children pursuing an Employment Career

The next question related to the aspect whether pursuance of an employment career was 'Desirable' for female youth with children . With the assumption that the responses will vary on the subject stated above according to discipline-wise education of the respondents, the information vis-à-vis their discipline-wise educational status has been incorporated in Table 6.33

Table-6.33
Respondents Opinion About An Married Female With Children Pursuing An Employment Career

	N.R	Arts	%	Sc.	%	Comm	%	B.Ed	%	Eng	%	H.Sc.	%	Total	%
Desirable	3	70	74.5	72	96.0	138	79.8	69	85.2	92	93.9	64	84.2	508	84.7
Undesirable		17	18.1	3	4.0	22	12.7	8	9.9	4	4.1	7	9.2	61	10.2
N.R		7	7.4		0.0	13	7.5	4	4.9	2	2.0	5	6.6	31	5.2
Total	3	94	100	75	100	173	100	81	100	98	100	76	100	600	100

Here too it is found that 84.7% respondents thought it 'Desirable' for married female with children to pursue an employment career. Only 10.2% reported 'Undesirable' with 5.2%

'No Response'. Discipline-wise, Science graduates were highest in their positive response (96.0%) followed by Engineering graduates (93.9%), B.Eds (85.2%), Home Science graduates (84.2%), Commerce graduates (79.8%) and Arts graduates (74.5%).

Sensing the need for women to continue working despite having the responsibility of children, more and more day-care centres (creches) for young children are mushrooming along with the women seeking the help of parents and in-laws or hired maids to look after their children while they are away at work. This comes out of the necessity for both partners to be working especially in the middle-class families to ensure an upliftment in their standard of living.

Respondents' opinion on suitability of jobs in Female Employment

Table-6.34
Respondents Opinion On Suitability Of Jobs In Female Employment

Suitability	N.R	Arts	%	Sc.	%	Comm	%	B.Ed	%	Eng	%	H.Sc.	%	Total	%
Teaching		29	30.9	22	29.3	28	16.2	43	53.1	17	17.3	20	26.3	159	26.5
Clerical (bank job)		12	12.8	12	16.0	51	29.5	14	17.3	9	9.2	8	10.5	106	17.7
Any jobs	1	22	23.4	21	28.0	27	15.6	17	21.0	11	11.2	13	17.1	112	18.7
C.A.'s Articleship			0.0		0.0	3	1.7		0.0	1	1.0		0.0	3	0.5
As per education		6	6.4	4	5.3	11	6.4	2	2.5	8	8.2	8	10.5	39	6.5
Software / IT		3	3.2	6	8.0	15	8.7	2	2.5	33	33.7	3	3.9	62	10.3
Doctor			0.0	1	1.3	3	1.7	3	3.7	4	4.1	2	2.6	13	2.2
Engineer / Technical		1	1.1	4	5.3	2	1.2	1	1.2	10	10.2	2	2.6	20	3.3
Pilot			0.0	2	2.7	1	0.6		0.0	2	2.0		0.0	5	0.8
Table / Sitting / Office work job		12	12.8	5	6.7	32	18.5	7	8.6	4	4.1	11	14.5	71	11.8
Any satisfication as per liking job		4	4.3	1	1.3	10	5.8	2	2.5	5	5.1	5	6.6	27	4.5
Account job / Finance			0.0	3	4.0	7	4.0	1	1.2	2	2.0		0.0	13	2.2
Fixed timing job		2	2.1	0	0.0	4	2.3	2	2.5	3	3.1	1	1.3	12	2.0
Interest in business		1	1.1	0	0.0	2	1.2	3	3.7	0	0.0	1	1.3	7	1.2
Good salary		1	1.1	1	1.3		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	2	0.3
Any jobs like male		1	1.1	3	4.0	5	2.9	2	2.5	2	2.0	1	1.3	14	2.3
Self employed / Free lancing		2	2.1	1	1.3	8	4.6	6	7.4	2	2.0	8	10.5	27	4.5
Govt. / LIC/ Railway job	1	2	2.1	1	1.3	9	5.2	4	4.9	4	4.1	0	0.0	21	3.5
Management / Administration job		1	1.1	3	4.0	9	5.2	0	0.0	4	4.1	2	2.6	19	3.2
Air hostess		2	2.1	1	1.3	0	0.0	3	3.7	0	0.0	2	2.6	8	1.3
Theatre / Music / Modeling		2	2.1	1	1.3	1	0.6		0.0	1	1.0	1	1.3	6	1.0
Receptionist / Assistant		4	4.3	2	2.7	14	8.1	2	2.5	0	0.0	1	1.3	23	3.8
DTL / Tax			0.0		0.0	1	0.6		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
Officer / Executive level			0.0		0.0	2	1.2		0.0	1	1.0		0.0	3	0.5
Part time job		1	1.1	2	2.7	2	1.2	3	3.7	5	5.1	3	3.9	16	2.7
Not travelling / Not transferable			0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	3	3.1		0.0	3	0.5
Educational job		1	1.1	0	0.0	1	0.6	2	2.5	1	1.0	2	2.6	7	1.2
Counselors / Advisors		2	2.1		0.0	1	0.6		0.0		0.0		0.0	3	0.5
Assembly operators		1	1.1	1	1.3		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	2	0.3
Marketing		3	3.2	1	1.3	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	1.0	2	2.6	6	1.0
Health / Fitness / Dietician / medical / Nursing		2	2.1	2	2.7	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	8	10.5	12	2.0
Uncreative fields			0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	4	5.3	4	0.7
Legal practice			0.0		0.0	3	1.7	1	1.2	2	2.0	1	1.3	6	1.0

Intellectual skill/Not physical strain		2	2.1	2	2.7	8	4.6	0	0.0	7	7.1	4	5.3	23	3.8
Any job not like- "conductor"		1	1.1		0.0	1	0.6		0.0		0.0	1	1.3	3	0.5
Professionals career oriented jobs			0.0	1	1.3		0.0		0.0	3	3.1		0.0	4	0.7
Flexible job		2	2.1		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.3	3	0.5
R & D / Scientific		2	2.1	1	1.3		0.0		0.0	1	1.0	1	1.3	5	0.8
Catering/Fashion/Interior		1	1.1	0	0.0	2	1.2	1	1.2	0	0.0	1	1.3	5	0.8
Hotel management		1	1.1		0.0	2	1.2		0.0		0.0	1	1.3	4	0.7
Home based/ small skill business		1	1.1	1	1.3	1	0.6		0.0		0.0		0.0	3	0.5
Looking after children is go job.			0.0	1	1.3		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
Defence / Police		1	1.1		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.3	2	0.3
Public relation officer		2	2.1		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.0	1	1.3	4	0.7
Job of interest			0.0	1	1.3		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
Social work			0.0		0.0	2	1.2		0.0		0.0	1	1.3	3	0.5
Journalist		1	1.1		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.2

Table 6.34 describes the nature of jobs suitable for women as per the respondents. Maximum number (159) thought 'teaching' was most suitable for women, followed by 'women can do any jobs' (112), 'Clerical preferably bank jobs' (106), 'Office Jobs-desk work' (71), 'Software-Information Technology' (62), 'Job as per education' (39), 'Self employment / Free Lancing ' (27), 'Receptionist or Office Assistant' (23) and 'Intellectual jobs not involving physical strain' (23). These are the highly significant responses apart from several other responses.

However, the respondents felt that industrial growth and urbanisation of various suburban areas of Pune city which have been accelerated in recent past have increased the aggregate employment potential of women. Yet, related to the growth of population and increasing supply of educated women labour in the market, the employment opportunities for educated women have not correspondingly expanded . Of course, the domestic work is not considered as employment as it is non-income earning work. So, unemployment as regards women does not mean no work, but no-income earning work, although maybe physically they are engaged for long hours in domestic work.

Inflation has raised the cost of living for families. In the urban areas, the social attitudes to women going out for work are changing. Factors such as these encourage an increasing flow of women labour to the market. This is a significant factor contributing to increased competition and low wages of women labour. Industrialisation and urbanisation have not raised the participation rates of women workers. Actually, these have declined in some sectors. As a result, unemployment continues to be high in the case of females. Further, the women workers are mainly employed at the lower level of skills and wages. They are mostly working in the unorganised sectors of production where the wages are low and there are no opportunities for acquiring skills and going up the ladder. In the organised industrial sector, the women are concentrated in few industries and even in an industry at limited types of jobs which are, according to the respondents, repetitive and boring. They do not acquire the experience of other processes or skills.

The service sector has expanded rapidly and has provided jobs to women in the administrative, clerical, banking, teaching, nursing occupations. Yet, very few here have reached the executive or even supervisory levels. They are mainly confined to the lower level or jobs. Further, while the unskilled women workers in the unorganised sector have to

constantly fight with poverty and maintain their subsistence level, the tertiary sector women workers who mostly belong to the middle class in the society have to struggle with the double burden of work at the office and the home. As regards the self-employed women in the urban areas of Pune city, they are either doing work which is an extension of domestic work (food preparations, cleaning, tailoring) or trading at the lowest level (selling door-to-door) where their income is minimal. There is a group of self-employed 'elite' women who belong to the upper strata of the society such as professionals, entrepreneurs.

The low work participation of women in the urban areas especially in the production sector can be attributed to a number of factors. There is a view that protective legislation for female workers has discouraged employment of women. This may be the case in the construction, automobile and pharmaceutical industries where the law prohibits the employment of women on construction sites, shop-floors, in dangerous work environment or for night shifts.

The capital intensive technology adopted in industries is a significant factor in depressing the work participation of labour especially the women labour. There are other conditions peculiar to women labour. They are mostly employed in unskilled or semi-skilled jobs. Women have limited opportunities for education and training and therefore have less openings for other jobs. Majority of the women belong to the lower income group and therefore are either ignorant about the availability of jobs or cannot afford the search for jobs. *The employers assume that women are suited only to particular types of jobs and attribute such aptitudes to them*. This leads to concentration of labour both occupation-wise as well as industry-wise, which limits the work participation by women. Their mobility is low due to domestic responsibilities and they are confined to jobs which are labour intensive, time consuming, unpleasant and monotonous.

Respondents observations on Education taken –Appropriate or not

Table-6.35 describes the distribution of responses as to whether the education acquired by the respondents is appropriate or not. 43.0% respondents felt their education was appropriate to get employment while 20.2% felt it was not appropriate. Some 19.2% were undecided but expressed the hope that the education they acquired was appropriate. Discipline-wise, 53.1% B.Eds felt their education was appropriate followed by 48.9% Arts graduates, 48.7%, Home Science graduates, 48.0% Science graduates, 35.3%, Commerce graduates and 33.7%, Engineering graduates. It is surprising that 33.7% Engineering graduates, though hopeful that their education could get them employment, were not fully assured on this count. 4.5% of the respondents felt they needed to learn something more (additional skills required) if they were to get employment while 1.2% felt the need for post-graduate education.

Table-6.35
Respondents Observation On Education-Appropriate Or Not

Reactions	N.R	Arts	%	Sc	%	Comm	%	B.Ed	%	Eng	%	H.Sc	%	Total	%
Hopefully		11	11.7	14	18.7	31	17.9	15	18.5	33	33.7	11	14.5	115	19.2
Yes	2	46	48.9	36	48.0	61	35.3	43	53.1	33	33.7	37	48.7	258	43.0
No		23	24.5	11	14.7	50	28.9	12	14.8	15	15.3	10	13.2	121	20.2
Over qualification			0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.0		0.0	1	0.2
Education should be job oriented			0.0		0.0	1	0.6		0.0	1	1.0		0.0	2	0.3
Need experience			0.0		0.0	3	1.7		0.0		0.0		0.0	3	0.5
Not completely /partly/ up to some extent		1	1.1		0.0		0.0	1	1.2	1	1.0	1	1.3	4	0.7
I have to learn some thing (skills)		2	2.1	4	5.3	8	4.6	1	1.2	7	7.1	5	6.6	27	4.5
In IT fields you have to update			0.0		0.0	1	0.6		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
Market condition are bad/recession			0.0		0.0	1	0.6		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
we do not have at school job orientation edu			0.0		0.0	2	1.2		0.0		0.0		0.0	2	0.3
English is problem because - base is Marathi			0.0		0.0	1	0.6		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
I have to do master degree/ Higher education			0.0	1	1.3	1	0.6		0.0	2	2.0	3	3.9	7	1.2

Respondents' opinion on further steps needed to enhance job chances

Table 6.36 gives the opinions of the respondents regarding further steps needed to enhance job chances. This was a multiple choice question. We find 54.3% felt the need to take new courses to keep in line with the needs of the job market, of whom 62.4% response was from Commerce graduates followed by 55.3% Arts graduates, 53.3% Science graduates, 51.3% Home Science graduates and 50.0% Engineering graduates respectively. Only43.2% response came from the B.Eds.

37.3% respondents felt the need to undergo training of some kind or the other which would equip them with skills to get employment. Here too the trend was almost similar as that where new courses were the felt need.

4.8% respondents felt the need for job opportunities to gain experience. Here the B.Ed respondents were the highest (8.6%) followed by Science graduates (8.0%), Engineering graduates (6.1%), Commerce graduates (5.2%) and Home Science graduates (3.9%). 2.2% respondents stated the need for additional qualifications.

Among other responses were, 'applicants without experience should be given a chance' (0.7%), 'need for on-the-job training' (0.7%), 'Government should provide jobs'(0.5%), 'Making degree courses more professional' (0.3%), 'Education be related to market conditions' (0.3%), and need for personality development' (0.2%).

Table-6.36
Respondents Opinion On Further Steps Needed To Enhance Job Chances (Multiple Answers)

To improve job chances	N.R	Arts	%	Sc.	%	Comm	%	B.Ed	%	Eng	%	H.Sc.	%	Total	%
New courses	3	52	55.3	40	53.3	108	62.4	35	43.2	49	50.0	39	51.3	326	54.3
Training	1	33	35.1	22	29.3	76	43.9	25	30.9	40	40.8	27	35.5	224	37.3
Job opportunities/ work experience			0.0	6	8.0	9	5.2	7	8.6	6	6.1	3	3.9	29	4.8
Keeping my knowledge upto date			0.0		0.0	1	0.6		0.0	1	1.0	1	1.3	3	0.5
Additional qualification		1	1.1	4	5.3	4	2.3	2	2.5	2	2.0		0.0	13	2.2
Reservation policy / Govt. should provide jobs			0.0	3	4.0	0	0.0	2	2.5	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	0.5
Applicants without exp. should be given a chance			0.0	2	2.7	2	1.2		0.0		0.0		0.0	4	0.7
On job training			0.0		0.0	4	2.3		0.0		0.0	2	2.6	4	0.7
Proper distribution of reserved category		1	1.1		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.0		0.0	2	0.3
in govt.employment															
Social awareness			0.0		0.0	1	0.6	1	1.2		0.0		0.0	2	0.3
Make degree courses more professional			0.0	1	1.3	2	1.2		0.0		0.0		0.0	3	0.5
Computer		1	1.1		0.0	1	0.6		0.0		0.0		0.0	2	0.3
Job oriented courses			0.0		0.0	1	0.6		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
Professional edu /market conditions			0.0	1	1.3	2	1.2		0.0		0.0	1	1.3	2	0.3
Proper teaching staff			0.0	1	1.3		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
Give competitive exams.			0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.2		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
Personality development			0.0		0.0	1	0.6		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
Research		1	1.1	1	1.3		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	2	0.3
Some encouragement		1	1.1		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
To increase my business / New ideas			0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.3	1	0.2

Respondents' Expectations from family in Fulfilment of Aspirations

Table 6.37 gives the distribution of the respondents to expectations from the family in fulfilment of aspirations. It is seen that 25.0% felt they needed co-operation, support and adjustment from the family, 16.2% felt they had no expectations as they already got full support, 14.0% felt they needed strong support in every aspect, 7.7% felt the need for mental and moral support, 6.2% responded their expectations were fulfilled, while 1.5% felt the need for a liberal attitude with less time restrictions. Other responses with less weightage are described in the table.

It is not surprising that 32.7% Engineering graduates felt the need for co-operation, support and adjustments as their work entails long and sometimes irregular hours of working.

Table-6.37
Distribution Of Respondents To Expectations From Family In Fulfillment Of Aspirations

Expectations from family	N.R	Arts	%	Sc.	%	Comm	%	B.Ed	%	Eng	%	H.Sc	%	Total	%
Co-operation/Support / Adjustment	1	27	28.7	21	28.0	36	20.8	15	18.5	32	32.7	18	22.8	150	25.0
A strong support in every aspect		16	17.0	11	14.7	25	14.5	9	11.1	12	12.2	12	15.2	85	14.2
Yes		4	4.3	0	0.0	8	4.6	5	6.2	2	2.0	5	6.3	24	4.0
No		11	11.7	17	22.7	31	17.9	18	22.2	10	10.2	10	12.7	97	16.2

Respect / Social status		1	1.1		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.0	1	1.3	3	0.5
Want to learn new courses		5	5.3	5	6.7	3	1.7	3	3.7	3	3.1	3	3.8	22	3.7
They can give mental & moral support	2	2	2.1	7	9.3	11	6.4	7	8.6	13	13.3	4	5.1	46	7.7
Liberal attitude/less time restrictions		2	2.1	0	0.0	4	2.3	0	0.0	3	3.1	0	0.0	9	1.5
Fullfillment of all expectation		4	4.3	5	6.7	8	4.6	4	4.9	11	11.2	5	6.3	37	6.2
Find good job suitable for qualification			0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.2		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
No expectations			0.0		0.0	1	0.6		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
Do not compare with other/not hate/ not discourage			0.0		0.0	1	0.6		0.0	1	1.0		0.0	2	0.3
They should understand dual role.		1	1.1		0.0	2	1.2		0.0	1	1.0	1	1.3	5	0.8
Job satisfaction is important		1	1.1		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
Every one should share house work	1		0.0	4	5.3	1	0.6		0.0	2	2.0		0.0	8	1.3
Allowing me to be independent - force to marry		4	4.3	2	2.7	3	1.7	1	1.2	1	1.0	3	3.8	14	2.3
They should give me guidance/help			0.0	2	2.7	3	1.7	1	1.2	1	1.0		0.0	7	1.2
Help me in work/give their time			0.0		0.0	1	0.6	1	1.2		0.0	1	1.3	3	0.5
Support me in changing job for better prospects			0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.0		0.0	1	0.2
When I go to work they should take care of my child		1	1.1		0.0		0.0	1	1.2		0.0		0.0	2	0.3
Faith in me/Patience/Believe me		2	2.1		0.0	2	1.2	1	1.2	1	1.0		0.0	6	1.0
Helping in finding a job & guide me.			0.0	4	5.3	3	1.7		0.0		0.0		0.0	7	1.2
Do not over protect		1	1.1		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
Treat me as human being not machine		1	1.1		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
They should fulfill minimum requirement			0.0		0.0	1	0.6		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
I should get support to teach students as a social work			0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	2	2.5	2	0.3
They should give some time for job		2	2.1	1	1.3	1	0.6	1	1.2		0.0		0.0	5	0.8

Respondents observation on Expectation of the Family from them

Table 6.38 gives the distribution of the observations of the respondents to expectations of the family from them. Among the observations of respondents, 11.3% felt their family wanted them to become independent and self sufficient with a good job, 9.0% felt they were expected to reach new heights in their profession, 8.2% stated their family had no expectations, 5.7% stated they were expected to be well cultured and responsible citizens, 6.2% responded that they were expected to become successful in their work, 5.5% were expected to achieve stability in job and settle well, 4.8% stated their family felt they should strike a proper balance between career and family, 3.5% felt their family wanted them to make good use of knowledge and education acquired while 1.5% respondents felt they were expected to fulfil basic responsibilities.

Table-6.38
Respondents Observation On Expectations From Them By The Family

Expectations	N.R	Arts	%	Sc.	%	Comm	%	B.Ed	%	Eng	%	H.Sc	%	Total	%
Achieve the height of profession		9	9.6	7	9.3	11	6.4	9	11.1	10	10.2	8	10.5	54	9.0
A cultured, well educated citizen	1	4	4.3	6	8.0	8	4.6	7	8.6	2	2.0	6	7.9	34	5.7
No expectations		7	7.4	6	8.0	12	6.9	6	7.4	8	8.2	10	13.2	49	8.2
Full support		2	2.1	2	2.7	2	1.2	1	1.2	3	3.1	1	1.3	11	1.8
She should be always happy		7	7.4	7	9.3	7	4.0	5	6.2	6	6.1	11	14.5	43	7.2

Must be strong/ confident			0.0	1	1.3	7	4.0		0.0	1	1.0	1	1.3	10	1.7
Good income job		1	1.1	1	1.3	2	1.2		0.0		0.0		0.0	4	0.7
Job satisfaction		2	2.1	4	5.3	1	0.6	3	3.7	0	0.0	2	2.6	12	2.0
Fulfill basic responsibilities			0.0	4	5.3	2	1.2	2	2.5	1	1.0		0.0	9	1.5
Good career in computer/ IT			0.0		0.0	1	0.6		0.0	1	1.0		0.0	2	0.3
Expect to be good housewife		7	7.4	1	1.3	6	3.5	4	4.9	2	2.0	3	3.9	23	3.8
Become independent good job/ self sufficient		8	8.5	17	22.7	23	13.3	6	7.4	9	9.2	6	7.9	68	11.3
Create a good home look after baby		1	1.1		0.0	1	0.6	2	2.5	2	2.0	2	2.6	8	1.3
Getting a good job / job satisfaction		4	4.3	0	0.0	13	7.5	7	8.6	5	5.1	4	5.3	33	5.5
Successful in work/ progress	1	3	3.2	6	8.0	14	8.1	3	3.7	10	10.2	2	2.6	37	6.2
Stability in job/ settlement		7	7.4	3	4.0	10	5.8	6	7.4	8	8.2	1	1.3	33	5.5
Equality			0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.3	1	0.2
Good use of knowledge / use education		3	3.2	3	4.0	4	2.3	4	4.9	5	5.1	3	3.9	21	3.5
Proper balance your career and your family	1	4	4.3	4	5.3	4	2.3	6	7.4	7	7.1	3	3.9	29	4.8
Should complete education and find the job			0.0		0.0	1	0.6		0.0	2	2.0		0.0	3	0.5
Should support family / help brother's career			0.0	3	4.0	2	1.2	1	1.2		0.0		0.0	4	0.7
Do business from house			0.0	1	1.3	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	1.0	2	2.6	4	0.7
To be self employed		1	1.1		0.0	1	0.6		0.0		0.0	1	1.3	3	0.5
Personality development			0.0	2	2.7	2	1.2		0.0	2	2.0		0.0	5	0.8
Independent to make decisions/ financially independent	1		0.0	2	2.7	1	0.6		0.0	1	1.0		0.0	5	0.8
Some time for home/ do not bring office work		1	1.1	2	2.7	5	2.9	3	3.7	4	4.1	1	1.3	15	2.5
She should marry / get match partner			0.0		0.0	1	0.6		0.0	1	1.0		0.0	2	0.3
Learn at every step		2	2.1	3	4.0	4	2.3	1	1.2	5	5.1	2	2.6	17	2.8
Keep physical fitness		1	1.1		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.0	1	1.3	3	0.5
Stay with husband doing job or without job			0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.0		0.0	1	0.2
Highly qualified/Qualification should be bright		1	1.1		0.0	4	2.3		0.0	1	1.0	1	1.3	7	1.2
To become advocate		1	1.1		0.0	1	0.6		0.0		0.0		0.0	2	0.3
Complete all duties nicely. All rounder		1	1.1	1	1.3		0.0	2	2.5	2	2.0		0.0	6	1.0
To engage in work for spending time			0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.2		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
First priority to home then job / career		1	1.1		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
Get status in society		1	1.1		0.0	2	1.2		0.0		0.0		0.0	3	0.5
Do something for society			0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.2	1	1.0		0.0	2	0.3
Good social life		1	1.1		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
Work hard			0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.3	1	0.2
Earn well and bring as much as I can		1	1.1		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
Some time for children after job			0.0	1	1.3		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
I do not bother / I am fade up			0.0		0.0		0.0	2	2.5		0.0		0.0	2	0.3
N.R		23	24.5	10	13.3	41	23.7	17	21.0	11	11.2	18	23.7	120	20.0

Respondents' expectations from Society in fulfilling Aspirations / Expectations

Table 6.39 describes the expectations of the respondents from society in fulfilling aspirations / exceptions. There was a much varied response as can be seen from the Table. To mention a few significant ones, 19.7% respondents were neutral (they did not believe society could do anything for them), 8% felt they did not care about the society, 7.2% expected some support from society, 6.8 felt society should respect women and their choice to

work, 5.8% expected some kind of encouragement, 6.5% felt there should be no discrimination between males and females and felt the need for equality, in work, while 3.2% felt they should help the individual achieve his aspirations.

Table-6.39
Respondents Expectations From Society In Fulfilling Aspirations/Expectations

Expectations	N.R	Arts	%	Sc.	%	Comm	%	B.Ed	%	Eng	%	H.Sc	%	Total	%
I do not care about society		10	10.6	7	9.3	2	1.2	8	9.9	16	16.3	6	7.9	48	8.0
Minimum interference	1	6	6.4	4	5.3	4	2.3	3	3.7	0	0.0	4	5.3	22	3.7
Support		6	6.4	6	8.0	17	9.8	5	6.2	3	3.1	6	7.9	43	7.2
Encouragement		5	5.3	5	6.7	11	6.4	5	6.2	6	6.1	3	3.9	35	5.8
Show right track		2	2.1	0	0.0	3	1.7	1	1.2	2	2.0	0	0.0	7	1.2
Helping an individual		4	4.3	0	0.0	8	4.6	3	3.7	3	3.1	2	2.6	19	3.2
Respect for woman	1	5	5.3	3	4.0	15	8.7	3	3.7	8	8.2	6	7.9	41	6.8
Some new concept in society		1	1.1		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	2	2.6	3	0.5
Neutral		11	11.7	18	24.0	33	19.1	14	17.3	27	27.6	15	19.7	118	19.7
Chance should be given for experience		5	5.3	1	1.3	6	3.5	1	1.2	2	2.0	1	1.3	15	2.5
More jobs should be open		6	6.4	3	4.0	7	4.0	4	4.9	1	1.0	6	7.9	27	4.5
Free atmosphere/ better work environment		1	1.1	0	0.0	3	1.7	1	1.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	5	0.8
Liberal/ to give courage to female		0	0.0	0	0.0	2	1.2	2	2.5	0	0.0	0	0.0	4	0.7
Society should understand female		1	1.1	1	1.3	3	1.7	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	2.6	7	1.2
Co-operation		0	0.0	6	8.0	12	6.9	5	6.2	3	3.1	2	2.6	28	4.7
Helpful in generating the employment		1	1.1		0.0	3	1.7	1	1.2	1	1.0		0.0	5	0.8
Do not over burden		1	1.1		0.0	2	1.2		0.0	1	1.0	1	1.3	3	0.5
Equality for male/ female / no discrimination		6	6.4	6	8.0	9	5.2	8	9.9	5	5.1	4	5.3	38	6.3
Appropriate facilities should be for women		1	1.1	1	1.3	4	2.3	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	1.3	7	1.2
Avoid corruption		1	1.1		0.0	1	0.6	1	1.2		0.0		0.0	3	0.5
Attitude should be changed		2	2.1	0	0.0	3	1.7	1	1.2	3	3.1	3	3.9	12	2.0
Reframe education more practical knowledge			0.0		0.0	2	1.2		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
Facilities in employment (during pregnancy)			0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.3	1	0.2
Reservation policy should be slowly terminated			0.0		0.0	1	0.6	2	2.5		0.0	2	2.6	4	0.7
Educate people- literate should educate illiterate			0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.2		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
One female should understand other female			0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.3	1	0.2
Protection for ladies			0.0	2	2.7	1	0.6		0.0		0.0		0.0	2	0.3
Job security			0.0		0.0	1	0.6		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
Everybody wants working wife			0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.3	1	0.2
N.R	1	27		16		47		25		27	27.6	18		161	

Nature of Effects on Respondents due to non-fulfilment of expectations

Table 6.40 describes the effects on the respondents due to non-fulfilment of their expectations. 14.5% reported they felt frustrated and badly affected while 7.3% felt they were strong enough to accept disappointments. Further, 6.8% felt desperate and disappointed, 5.5% felt dissatisfied, 3.3% developed a low morale and felt discouraged, 3.5% showed lakh of self-confidence, 3.5% felt they should try harder, 2.8% felt they were financially dependent and experienced monetary loss, 1.2% felt incompetent and incapable, 0.8% expressed a

feeling of loneliness and emptiness, 0.8% expressed wrong career decision at graduate study level, while 0.5% each felt boredom and a feeling of laziness and lakh of dedication to seek employment. These describe some the of major effects on the respondents. There was 48.8% no responses.

Table-6.40
Nature Of Effects On Respondents Due To Non Fulfillment Of Expectations

Nature of effects	N.R	Arts	%	Sc.	%	Com	%	B.Ed	%	Eng	%	H.Sc	%	Total	%
Desperation / Disappointment		3	3.2	6	8.0	15	8.7	13	16.0	4	4.1	0	0.0	41	6.8
No / Strong to accept		6	6.4	8	10.7	13	7.5	4	4.9	5	5.1	8	10.5	44	7.3
Low morale/ discouraged	1	6	6.4	3	4.0	4	2.3	3	3.7	3	3.1	3	3.9	23	3.8
It is punishment		1	1.1	1	1.3	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	1.0	1	1.3	4	0.7
Frustrated / It affects badly		8		14	18.7	26	15.0	14	17.3	12	12.2	12	15.8	87	14.5
No satisfaction		8	8.5	6	8.0	10	5.8	4	4.9	3	3.1	2	2.6	33	5.5
Yes			0.0		0.0	1	0.6	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	1.3	2	0.3
Boredom			0.0	1	1.3	1	0.6	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	1.3	3	0.5
Lakh of confidence			0.0	2	2.7	13	7.5	2	2.5	2	2.0	2	2.6	21	3.5
No aspiration		2	2.1	0	0.0	1	0.6	0	0.0	1	1.0	0	0.0	4	0.7
Upbringing		2	2.1		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	2	0.3
Financially dependant / Monetary loss		1	1.1	3	4.0	2	1.2	5	6.2	2	2.0	4	5.3	17	2.8
Laziness / Lakh of dedication			0.0	1	1.3	1	0.6	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	1.3	3	0.5
Wrong side for career decision			0.0		0.0	2	1.2	0	0.0	1	1.0	2	2.6	5	0.8
Feel in capable / Incompetent			0.0	1	1.3	2	1.2	3	3.7	1	1.0	0	0.0	7	1.2
Education worthless			0.0	1	1.3	1	0.6	0	0.0	1	1.0	0	0.0	3	0.5
Lost time/No utilization of career		1	1.1	1	1.3	2	1.2	0	0.0	1	1.0	1	1.3	6	1.0
Feel lonely / empty / alone		0	0.0	0	0.0	2	1.2	2	2.5	0	0.0	1	1.3	5	0.8
I will try to improve / try harder		5	5.3	1	1.3	7	4.0	2	2.5	2	2.0	4	5.3	21	3.5
Depend on parents for all decision				1	1.3		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
It might lead to crime			0.0		0.0	1	0.6		0.0	2	2.0		0.0	3	0.5
How to spend time					0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0
Insecure about future tension			0.0	1	1.3	1	0.6	3	3.7	1	1.0	0	0.0	6	1.0
Affects social status			0.0		0.0	1	0.6		0.0	1	1.0		0.0	2	0.3
Depend on luck			0.0		0.0	1	0.6		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
Poor physical health			0.0		0.0	1	0.6	1	1.2	1	1.0		0.0	3	0.5
Alternation for poor students			0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.3	1	0.2
It affects mentally & physically			0.0	1	1.3		0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
All my aspirations are fulfilled		1	1.1		0.0	1	0.6		0.0		0.0	1	1.3	3	0.5
Mental imbalance			0.0		0.0	1	0.6		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
N.R	1	55	58.5	31	41.3	78	45.1	38	46.9	55	56.1	35	46.1	293	48.8

Apart from the listed observations, some responses that were found in the schedules regarding this issue deserve to be mentioned here. Some respondents felt they were being neglected by family members, had monetary problems, faced psychological problems due to lakh of self-confidence and frustration, some faced problems in marriage as these days a majority of families seek a working girl in marriage, and lakh of recognition in friends' circle and society.

Respondents' plans in view of failure to get job in India

Responses to the above question are given in table 6.41 below. Among the responses, 12.2% felt they would continue to try in India, 11.0% were undecided about what they would do, 10.8% stated they would try to get a job abroad or undertake a job which needs learning a foreign language, 10.2% stated they would resort to taking tuitions or do something on their own, 7.5% felt they needed to work harder to get employment, 3.5% felt they would have to study new courses and upgrade their skills. Other responses are given in the table.

Table-6.41
Respondents Plans In View Of Failure To Get Job In India

Plans	N.R	Arts	%	Sc	%	Com	%	B.Ed	%	Eng	%	H.Sc.	%	Total	%
Try harder		7	7.4	8	10.7	20	11.6	4	4.9	4	4.1	2	2.6	45	7.5
Try in India	2	11	11.7	6	8.0	23	13.3	9	11.1	12	12.2	10	13.2	73	12.2
Use the knowledge to the fullest		1	1.1	0	0.0	2	1.2	0	0.0	1	1.0	0	0.0	4	0.7
Try job opportunity / wait for good job		0	0.0	3	4.0	4	2.3	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	7	1.2
Tutors / self employed / own clinic	1	11	11.7	6	8.0	20	11.6	15	18.5	3	3.1	5	6.6	61	10.2
To go to some other place			0.0		0.0	1	0.6		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	0.2
Not interested in going permanently to abroad			0.0	2	2.7	1	0.6	2	2.5	1	1.0	1	1.3	7	1.2
No plans decided		15	16.0	8	10.7	18	10.4	13	16.0	4	4.1	8	10.5	66	11.0
Try to get job abroad/ foreign language job	1	7	7.4	12	16.0	17	9.8	2	2.5	14	14.3	12	15.8	65	10.8
Personal choice			0.0		0.0		0.0		0.0	1	1.0		0.0	1	0.2
Further course to get job/ Learn new courses		3	3.2	4	5.3	5	2.9	5	6.2	1	1.0	3	3.9	21	3.5
No need to go many jobs are available in INDIA		4	4.3	3	4.0	5	2.9	0	0.0	2	2.0	2	2.6	16	2.7
Many jobs are available/ Good salary		1	1.1	2	2.7	2	1.2	1	1.2	7	7.1	3	3.9	16	2.7
Marry a boy who stays in abroad earning well		0	0.0	1	1.3	1	0.6	1	1.2	1	1.0	3	3.9	7	1.2
No jobs then good house wife		1	1.1		0.0	3	1.7		0.0		0.0		0.0	4	0.7
Education in abroad - already doing job in abroad		0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	11	11.2	0	0.0	11	1.8
For education will go to abroad (further study)			0.0		0.0	1	0.6		0.0	1	1.0		0.0	2	0.3
Depends upon in laws/ After marriage I will think		1	1.1		0.0	1	0.6		0.0		0.0		0.0	2	0.3

Among the freely quoted responses, some are given below as:

a) May marry a person living abroad;
b) Go abroad for study;
c) Seek assistance from any foreign university to study abroad;
d) Seek help from relatives living abroad to help them go abroad.

Economic / Opportunity Loss

Table-6.42
Average Duration Of Unemployment And Economic Loss

	Months (Average duration of unemployment)	Average in (average income)	Economic loss	Avg.Eco.loss (per month)
Arts	22.3	4004.8	89386.3	2629.0
Science	16.3	6511.0	105868.9	2446.7
Commerce	13.1	3492.6	45613.3	524.3
B.Ed	17.0	4457.5	75688.4	1513.8
Engineering	6.5	11348.8	73540.5	1290.2
Home Science	13.6	4933.6	66997.9	1763.1

Note: *Average months of Unemployment X Average Salary of month = Total Eco. Loss*

For those women who decide to work, finding a job proves to be more difficult than for the man. It is seen from table 6.43 that in the field Engineering, women have a shorter waiting period. A possible explanation could be that being a professional degree it leaves less to the discretion of the employer.

Also worth considering is the possibility that the figures for a woman's waiting period have a downward bias. Women might be more willing to compromise about the job they take up or they might be forced to compormise due to family or other considerations which limit their geographical mobility and consequently their range of choice. Should they be as particular a men, the waiting period would in all probability be longer. This willingness to 'job compromise' is also likely to affect the emoluments women are prepared to settle for.

The Weaker Sections – Education and Employment

The scheduled caste women represent the most depressed section of society in the Indian social structure. Though the problems facing scheduled caste women are by and large similar to the problems faced by Scheduled Caste men and children and women belonging to the general categories to some extent. Responses from the SC graduate respondents have been collectively put together to identify the basic problems of this group. A few remedial measures relevant to urban problems have also been suggested by them.

A consistent feature of the Indian Society has been very low literacy levels among Scheduled Caste people a compared to the non-Scheduled Caste population (49.91 for males and 23.76 for females in 1991). Within the two segments, a further disparity exists between the male and female components, with literacy among females presenting a perpetually low profile. The proportion of Scheduled Caste females in the B.A., B.Sc., B.Com. courses collectively was only about 21 courses. Some Scheduled Caste graduates have taken up the B.Ed. course or Home Science course.

In respect to students belonging to the weaker sections like SC, it is not always the academically weak students who drop out but the economically poor ones. The actual private cost of education is many a times too high to provide and then preference is always given to educating the male child. There is need to promote qualitative education for the girls by picking up the meritorious children while they are young and provide them with financial aid.

The basic causes of low levels of literacy and access to higher education among Scheduled Caste children can be identified as the following:

a) The reluctance of parents to send girl children to school and college because they are made to assist at home.
b) The costs involved in sending a child to school or college.
c) The need to make the child / girl contribute to family income by working.
d) The concept of early marriage and the girl child as a liability.
e) The dominant commmunity's discouragement of the Scheduled Caste parents in educating their children (especially at graduate level)
f) Lakh of motivation and enthusiasm among teachers regarding the Scheduled Caste children in general and girls in particular.
g) Incentives provided are often very meagre or totally wanting.

In view of the large number of factors operating against the education of the Scheduled Caste children, particularly the girls, it is necessary for the government to have an integrated approach in the Education Sector not only to motivate the parents, but also the girls, the teachers, and the community in urban as well as rural areas (for girls migrate as school-age children alongwith parents to urban areas). A high level Central and State agency should monitor these aspects, particularly the enrolment and literacy of Scheduled Caste female children.

Scheduled Caste graduate females are often engaged in a variety of work and perform multifarious activities but do not have a principal occupation. They contribute significantly to meet the survival needs of their own families. They are more often than not engaged along with other family members in 'traditional activity.' Sometimes they are engaged in semi-skilled, low-paying and insecure jobs. They lakh access to markets if self-employed and lakh access to institutional forms of credit. They also lakh access to modern tools and skill training.

For removing economic deprivation it is essential that they organise into self aware groups with economic focus so as to be able to realise groups with economic greater benefits for themselves. Scheduled Caste Women should be encouraged to organise and form groups and associations like Co-operatives, Trade Unions, etc. Besides, the economic role of SC women should be highlighted. Labour laws should be strictly implemented. Employment Guarantee Scheme should be implemented with a preference to women workers and credit should be made easily available. Social security schemes of creches, health, maternity benefit for unorganised female workers should be provided by the Government.

Chapter-7

Analysis of Views of Employers on Female Employment

This Chapter includes the views of employers on female employment from different types of units in relation to their women employees. The management of the units were interviewed on the basis of a structure questionnaire (FGS-3) about their experiences of employment and management of women workers. Diverse views have been expressed but these views reflect the relation between the management and the women workers. In all 25 employers were approached but only 19 gave their responses.

Distribution of Employers by Sex

Table 7.1 gives the distribution of the employers by sex. As seen from the Table 15 (78.9%) were male and 4 (21.1%) female.

Table-7.1
Distribution Of Employers By Sex

Employer	Frequency	Percent
Male	15	78.9
Female	4	21.1
Total	19	100.0

Age Distribution of Employers

Table 7.2 gives the distribution of the employers by age. It is found that 6(31.6%) were in the age-group 40-50 years, 4 each (21.1%) were in the age-groups 51.55 and 61.70 years, 3 (15.8%) in the age-group 56-60 years and 1 (5.3%) in the age-group 71-90 with 1 (5.3%) no response to the question an age.

Table-7.2
Age Distribution of Employers

Age of Employer	Frequency	Percent
40-50	6	31.6
51-55	4	21.1
56-60	3	15.8
61-70	4	21.1
71-90	1	5.3
N.R.	1	5.3
Total	19	100

Distribution of Type of Organisation

Table 7.3 gives the distribution of the type of organisation the unit belonged to. 15 (78.9%) units were private organisations with 2 (10.5%) co-operatives, 1 (5.3%) in the public sector and 1 (5.3%) a government organisation.

Table-7.3
Distribution of Type of Organisation

Type of Organisation	Frequency	Percent
Government	1	5.3
Public Sector	1	5.3
Co-operative	2	10.5
Private	15	78.9
Total	19	100

Distribution of Employers by Sex

Depending on the size of the company/organisation, there was a variation in the number of male and female employees. Table 7.4 gives the distribution of the employees by sex.

Table-7.4
Distribution of Employees by Sex (Proportion of male and female)

Size of Company	Number	Male	Female
Upto 20 (SSU)	3	17	12
Proportion M:F		100	70
21-50 (SSU)	3	57	34
Proportion M:F		100	58
51-100 (SSU)	4	138	169
Proportion M:F		100	122
101-500 (LSU)	4	510	255
Proportion M:F		100	50
Large Scale (LSU)	4	16800	1062
Proportion M:F		100	6
Total	18	17,522	1532
Proportion M:F		100	9

Note: SSU - Small Scale Unit
LSU - Large Scale Unit

It would be noted that in large scale units which were industrial units there were fewer women employees. This was also the case even in the small scale units though with a lesser differential. There is no open discrimination made between employing male and female workers as both get equal benefits from the Factory Legislation, fixed hours of work and rest, ESIS benefits and so on. However, the male and female workers are given different types of jobs. The males perform the heavy and machine jobs, the more technically oriented jobs, work night shifts and are therefore paid higher wages. It is assumed that women cannot do machine work and other mechanical jobs and are therefore not given such jobs. Further, women are generally not given supervisory jobs even when they are qualified for the same, perhaps on the general assumption that women cannot be efficient supervisors. But this has been proved wrong in the small-scale units. There is also some discrimination in promotions. In the surveyed organisations, there is hardly any woman worker in a higher executive position. Almost all of them work at the subordinate levels and about 90 per cent in the production sector are at the level of general or ordinary 'workers'.

The employers of large scale units also try to limit the number of women workers so that they can evade provisions of the Factory Acts in relation to the provision of facilities to women workers such as crèche or rest rooms etc. Some of the employers prefer to employ single women workers so that the problem of granting maternity leave does not arise. Both in LSU and SSU, some women workers are kept on the temporary list in order to evade payment of provident fund or social security benefits. Given the low income of the women workers in SSU and the difficulty of getting another job, they do no make any complaints. Many times, women workers in SSU have to work even after regular hours even though they do not get any overtime payment for this work.

Preference for Fresh Graduates in Job

Table 7.5 gives the distribution of preference for fresh graduates in job by the employers. Of the 19, employers 15 (78.9%) stated in the affirmative, 3 (15.8%) were negative with 1 (5.3%) no response.

Table-7.5
Preference For Fresh Graduates In Job

Value Label	Frequency	Percent
Yes	15	78.9
No	3	15.8
N.R.	1	5.3
Total	19	100

Generally fresh women graduates are preferred since the starting emoluments are lesser than of those with experience in work. Moreover, fresh women graduates are more often than not single which means the employers do not have to face the problems related with those of married women.

The 15 employers who showed preference for fresh graduates further expressed their views on this issue as is described in table 7.6 (a)

Table-7.6 (a)
If Fresh Graduates Are Preferred, Why? (15 Employers Said Yes)
(Multiple Response)

Value Label	Frequency	Per cent
Since they can be moulded as per our wish	2	13.3
More enthusiastic	3	20.0
Better opportunities to students	1	6.7
To give latest information	1	6.7
Policy of recruiting through campus	1	6.7
We can pay less	2	13.3
No problems due to marriage	1	6.7
Total response	15	100

We find the largest response 3 (20.0%) is that fresh graduates are more enthusiastic followed by 'they can be moulded' (2 i.e 13.3%), 'they can be paid less' (2 i.e. 13.3%) with responses like giving better opportunities to students, give them latest information, recruiting through campus and no marriage related problems receiving single responses.

4 employers stated they had no preference to employing fresh graduates. Their responses have been summarised in table 7.6(b).

Table-7.6(b)
If Fresh Graduates Are Not Preferred (4 Employers Said No)

Value Label	Frequency	Percent
Experienced candidates for lab, x-ray taken	1	25
Experience is important	2	50
Some skills are acquired only after experience e.g. fitting, electronic	1	25
For cooking section, experience is needed	1	25
Total response	4	100

It is seen from table 7.6, that experience obtained is important and required for certain kinds of jobs.

Preference for Male Graduates

Table 7.7 gives the distribution as to whether male graduates are preferred. Among the employers interviewed, 7 said 'Yes', 7 said 'No' 4 were 'Not Certain' (both) and 1 gave no response. It is obvious that preference in favour of male graduate is not very high.

Table-7.7
Preference For Male Graduates

Value Label	Frequency	Percent
Yes	7	36.8
No	7	36.8
Both	4	21.1
N.R.	1	5.3
Total	19	100

Further, reasons for preference of male graduates is given in table 7.8(a). Among the 11 employers (7+4), 9 gave their responses.

Table-7.8(a)
Preference Given For Employing Male Graduates (Base 11)
(Multiple Response)

Yes-Reasons	Frequency	Per cent
For maximum control and discipline	2	18.2
We have excess female employees	1	9.1
Factory set-up	1	9.1
Shift Duty	2	18.2
On site require males only	2	18.2
Heavy jobs	1	9.1
Total response	9	81.8

Reasons for preference not given to male graduates is given in table 7.8(b). Out of 11 employers (7+4), only 6 responded.

Table-7.8(b)
Reasons For Preference Not Given For Male Graduates (Base 11)
(Multiple Response)

No-Reasons	Frequency	Per cent
For jobs like nursing, receptionist females preferred	2	33.3
For co-op shops, household commodities sale females preferred	1	16.6
Females more sincere	2	33.3
Cannot care for little children (school jobs)	2	33.3
They might be misfits	1	16.6
Total	6	54.5

It is seen that for specific jobs like nursing, receptionists, school jobs where care of children is required and for their sincerity to their work female graduates are preferred to male graduates.

Nature of Employment of Female Graduates

Table 7.9 gives the distribution of the nature of employment of the female graduates. It is seen that 12 employers stated the females worked full-time, 1 stated they worked part-time and 5 stated they worked full-time and part-time with 1 no response.

Table-7.9
Employment Of Female Graduates

Employment of Female Graduation	Frequency	Per cent
Full-time	12	63.2
Part-time	1	5.3
Both	5	26.3
N.R.	1	5.3
Total	19	100

Vacancies in the Organisation at present

The employers were asked whether there were any vacancies in their organisation / unit at present. Only 6 started there were vacancies while 12 stated there were none.

Table 7.10 (a) gives the distribution

Table-7.10(a)
Are There Vacancies In Your Organisation At Present

Value Label	Frequency	Per cent
Yes	6	31.6
No	12	63.2
N.R.	1	5.3
Total	19	100

To the question on expectation of vacancies, 11 replied they did not expect any vacancies, I stated there might be according to requirements, 3 stated they expected vacancies and there were 4 no response. Table 7.10 (b) gives the distribution.

Table-7.10 (b)
Expecting Vacancies In Your Organisation

Value Label	Frequency	Per cent
Yes	3	15.8
No	11	57.9
According to requirement	1	5.3
N.R.	4	21.1
Total	19	100

This would mean that graduates among the earlier passed batches would find it difficult to get employment. Due to this situation, the type of education is often considered not relevant for females who seek to take whatever jobs come their way, irrespective of whether the same are related to their education, or not.

Asked whether there were hurdles in creating posts for female graduates, 1 stated it was difficult, 12 said 'No'. One employer stated that for marketing organisations, the working hours are stretched long and hence the expected remuneration cannot be fulfilled. Another employer from an industrial unit stated that due to the Factory Act, time constraints and need of providing maternity leaves it was difficult to create posts for female graduates. Another stated that for female engineers it is difficult to be on site 24 hours of work.

Table-7.10 (c)
Hurdles In Way Of Creating Posts For Female Graduates

Value Label	**Frequency**	**Per cent**
Yes	1	5.3
No	12	63.2
For marketing institutions working hours are stretched, we cannot fulfil expected remuneration	1	5.3
Because of factory act, time constraints and maternity levels	1	5.3
For female engineers it is difficult to work on site 24 hours	2	10.5
N.R.	2	10.5
	19	100

Thus, it is seen that creating posts for female graduates is at the discretion of the employers.

Qualifications expected according to type of Organisation

Employers were asked what kind of qualifications (educational and other) they expected the employment seeking female graduates to possess. Responses depended on the type of organisation of the employer and the distribution is given in table 7.11. It can be seen that the employers expected the employment seeking female graduates to have qualifications related to the nature of work carried out in the organisation. Except for the technically and professionally qualified it is not always possible for female graduates to have acquired the expected qualifications. There should be some system whereby the employers can provide in-service training for the newly employed female graduates to acquire the required skills. This is a basic hurdle the job seekers face and thereby fail to get employment. The question is, for those other than the professionally qualified how many types of courses can they undertake not knowing where they will get employment. This is another reason for vocationalisation at secondary stage of education where the females (as well as males) can choose their future vocation and focus their interests in that direction. This would also reduce the quantum of unemployment after graduation for not all jobs require a graduate degree.

Table-7.11
Type Or Organisation And Educational Qualifications Required

Type of organisation	**Requirements**
Bank	Any graduate degree
Commercial	Legal qualification
Commercial	MBA / CA / ICWA

Commercial	MPM
Commercial	Computer
Construction	B.E.
Construction	Architect, B.E.
Educational	Child education, Psychology, Teacher Training
Educational	PG
Educational	PG
Educational	Computer / B.Ed.
Hotel	Hotel Management
Industry	Related degree
Medical	Computer, Nursing, Pharmacy
Medical	DMLT, B.M (Diploma in Medical Technology Lab related)
NGO	MSW / BSW
Shop	Type of work
Shop	Command over languates
Shop	'Karagir' of gold

Suggestions for Improving the present Educational Scenario

The employers were asked to give suggestions for improving the present educational scenario so that female graduates could get employment. Seven employers did not respond to the question. Among the remaining, some felt the need for more practical training, proper technical education and computer knowledge while others felt the need for more extra curricular activities and job oriented courses. The distribution is given in table 7.12

Table-7.12
Suggestions For Improving The Present Educational Scenario So That Female Graduates Could Get Employment

(Multiple Response)

Value Label	Frequency	Per cent
No	1	5.3
More practical training	3	15.8
On the job training	2	10.5
Proper technical education	3	15.8
Extra curricular activity	1	5.3
Computer knowledge	3	15.8
Job oriented courses	1	5.3
N.R.	7	36.8

The employers expressed their views on the development of employment information and guidance service for women entering higher education since "many of them suffer from lack of information regarding job opportunities and regret their choice of subjects when faced by difficulties in obtaining employment."

Changes in Labour Laws

Employers were asked whether they felt there should be changes made in the labour laws. Many of those having small scale units did not respond as they felt the Factory Act did not govern them. The distribution of responses received is given in table 7.13

Table-7.13
Changes In Labour Laws

(Multiple response)

Value Label	Frequency	Per cent
Yes	1	5.3
No	1	5.3
Laws must be made more strict to introduce efficiency and discipline	2	0.5
Changes in rules regarding leave	1	5.3
Special leave without pay or half pay after child-birth in addition to maternity leave benefits	1	5.3
Lay off, closure of contract etc must be phased	1	5.3
Labourer should know his responsibilities (give-training)	1	5.3
Company should provide ESI, PF, Bonus	1	5.3
N.R.	11	57.9

The employers' responses were varied including the need to introduce changes for better work efficiency, changes in leave pattern, special leave benefits in addition to maternally leave, phasing of lay off or closure and provision of ESI, PF and Bonus.

Changes in Apprenticeship Laws

15 employers did not respond to this question. Of the remaining four as seen in table 7.14, 3 did not feel the need to change apprenticeship laws while 1 felt that the period of apprenticeship be increased with increase in stipend.

Table-7.14
Changes In Apprenticeship Laws

Value Label	Frequency	Per cent
No	3	15.8
Increase period of apprenticeship with increase in stipend	1	5.3
Stipend	15	78.9
N.R.		
Total	19	100

Fluency in written / Spoken English an added qualification for Female Employment

15 employers stated that having knowledge of written / spoken English was an added qualification for females seeking employment. 2 employers stated it was not necessary. One employer felt that in the medical field as knowledge continues to be in English one should be fluent in English language. The distribution is given in table-7.15

Table-7.15
Fluency In Written / Spoken English An Added Qualification For Female Employment

Value Label	Frequency	Per cent
Yes	15	78.9
No	2	10.5
Medical field knowledge continues to be in English	1	5.3
N.R.	1	5.3
Total	19	100

Differentiation between Male and Female Graduates for Employment

The employers were asked whether they made any differentiation between male and female graduates for employment. 11 employers stated they considered them equal. However, for shop floor duties, an employer gave preference for males due to the nature of job and the shift duties. Generally for office work, laboratory work, teaching, and salesmen jobs ladies are preferred. In construction companies men are preferred for site work while ladies are taken for the front desk and administrative jobs. In hotels, males are preferred as chefs. Distribution is given in table 7.16.

Table-7.16
Differentiation Between Male And Female Graduates For Employment
(Multiple response)

Value Label	Frequency	Per cent
No-equal	11	57.9
Girls are regular & punctual	1	5.3
Women preferred for teaching children	1	5.3
On shop floor we consider males only due to nature of job and shift duties	1	5.3
For laboratory work / office work ladies preferred	2	10.5
For site work male workers & ladies for front office	1	5.3
Girls are good salesmen, they talk politely and attend to customers effectively	1	5.3
We talk male cooks only	1	5.3
Total	19	

Management views about experiences of women workers

The management of the units (SSU and LSU) were asked about their experiences of employment and management of women workers. Their response is described in table 7.17. Four respondents did not give any response, while 2 stated that work efficiency and other qualities are not gender specific but change from person to person.

Table-7.17
General Experience Or Work Of Female Graduates Compared To Males

Characteristics	Poor	%	Avg.	%	Good	%	More	%	Yes	%	Equally Efficient	N.R.
Efficiency of work			1	5.3			9.6	10.5	9	47.4	1	5
Punctuality			1	5.3	1	5.3	2	10.5	10	52.6	1	4
Regularity			3	15.8			2	10.5	8	42.1		6
Co-operative, helpless					3	15.8	2	10.5	9	47.4		5
Obedience					3	15.8	2	10.5	7	36.8		7
Cleanliness					1	5.3	1	5.3	9	47.4	1	7
Attendance to time schedule					1	5.3	4	21.1	9	47.4		5
Decision making	3	15.8	1	5.3					1	5.3		14
Leadership dualities	2	10.5	1	5.3	1	5.3			3	15.8	1	11
Willingness to take responsibilities			1	5.3	2	10.5	1	5.3	4	21.1	1	10
Faithfulness			1	5.3	2	10.5	3	15.8	11	57.9		2

As regards efficiency of work 1 stated their performance was ‘average’, 1 stated it was ‘good’, 2 stated the females were ‘more efficient’, 9 stated ‘yes’ and 1 stated males and females were ‘equally efficient’ with 5 ‘no response’.

Regarding punctuality, 1 stated females were punctual, 1 opted for ‘average’, 1 stated ‘good’, 2 stated women were ‘more’ punctual, 1 stated both males and females showed ‘equal’ efficiency with 4 ‘no response’.

For regularity, 8 felt the females were ‘regular’, 3 opted for ‘average’ in regularity, 2 felt they were ‘more’ regular, with 6 ‘no response’.

9 employers felt females were co-operative and helpful with 3 feeling they were ‘good’, 2 feeling they showed ‘more’ co-operativeness and helpfulness with 5 ‘no response’.

Again for obedience, 7 employers felt females were obedient, with 3 opting for ‘good’ and 2 feeling they were ‘more’ obedient. There were 7 ‘no response’.

Regarding cleanliness, 9 employers were in favour of females, with 1 employer each opting for ‘good’, ‘more’, and ‘equal’. There were 7 ‘no response’.

For attendance to time-schedule, 9 employers stated females adhered to time-schedule while 1 opted for ‘good’, and 4 for ‘more’ with 5 ‘no response’.

It can be concluded that the employers on the whole do not feel that female graduates are more efficient or devoted to work as compared to their male counter parts.

As regards decision-making, 3 employers felt females were ‘poor’ in decision-making with 1 each opting for ‘average’ and ‘yes’ and there were 14 ‘no response’. This reflects on

the socio-cultural effects on girls where they are not allowed to come to the fore-front and male decisions in the family.

3 employers felt females possessed leadership qualities, while 2 felt they were 'poor' in this aspect and 1 each feeling females were 'average', 'good', and 'equal' and 11 'no response'.

Again regarding faithfulness, 11 employers felt females showed faithfulness, 3 felt they were 'more' faithful, 2 felt they were 'good' in this aspect and 1 felt 'average' with 2 'no response'.

Smartness / attractive personality a consideration for female employment

13 employers felt smartness / attractive personality was an added quality for consideration for female employment, 3 did not respond, 2 stated in the negative and 1 employer thought a pleasant personality was an added consideration. The responses are given in table 7.18.

Table-7.18
Smartness / Attractive Personality A Consideration For Female Employment

Value Label	Frequency	Per cent
N.R.	3	15.8
Yes	13	68.4
No	2	10.5
Pleasantness	1	5.3
Total	19	100

Effect of marriage / maternity / general health condition on Female Employment the distribution of responses is given in table 7.19. 3 employers felt that marriage / maternity / general health conditions had an effect on female employment while 6 felt it did not have any effect. 2 employers gave no response to the question.

Table-7.19
Effect Of Marriage / Maternity / General Health Condition On Female Employment

(Multiple Response)

Value Label	Frequency	Per cent
Yes	3	15.8
No	6	31.6
Yes, non-availability of arrangements to look after baby	1	5.3
Long leaves taken for marriage increases work load for others	2	10.5
No effect if they get good support from family	1	5.3
Females get tired due to double burden of household work and office work while males are more robust	1	5.3
Newly married women face various problems from husbands / in-laws	1	5.3
Cannot work efficiently after marriage due to multiple	2	10.5

Most women take up jobs due to economic necessity and often find it difficult to bear the 'double burden'. But if they are given encouragement and support by the family, women workers show an enhanced potential in their work environment.

Shift duties a stumbling block to employ Female Graduates

Table 7.20 gives the distribution of responses to this question. There were 8 'No Response' with 5 employers saying 'yes' and 5 saying 'no'. The employers stated there was difficulty since at the nights, it is not always possible to provide an escort by the company. Moreover, the Factory Act, 1948 prohibits employment of women between 7 p.m. and 6 a.m.

Table-7.20
Shift Duties A Stumbling Block To Female Employment

Value Label	Frequency	Per cent
N.R.	8	42.1
Yes	5	26.3
No	5	26.3
Late nights, escort is not provided by company	1	5.2
Total	19	100.0

Is there a dispensary / hospital attached to your organisation?

To this question, 13 employers stated there was no medical facility available in their organisation. Only 4 employers had medical facilities in their unit and there were 2 'no response' Table 7.21 gives the distribution of responses.

Table-7.21
Dispensary / Hospital Attached To The Organisation

Value Label	Frequency	Per Cent
N.R.	2	10.5
Yes	4	21.1
No	13	68.4
Total	19	100

The Factory Act, 1948 provides that every unit must have a first-aid box or cupboard equipped with the prescribed contents which should be maintained so as to be readily accessible during all working hours. In units having 500 or more workers an ambulance and a room of the prescribed size having the prescribed equipment and facilities with medical staff is to be provided during the working hours. Employers need to take cognisance of these rules in their units.

Is there a crèche or other arrangement for young children?

Only 2 employers reported they had creche or other facilities for young children of their women employees. There were 8 'No Response' and a stated 'No'. The distribution of the responses is given in table 7.22

Table-7.22
Creche / Other Arrangement For Young Children

Value Label	Frequency	Per cent
Yes	2	10.5
N.R.	8	31.6
No	9	57.9
Total	19	100

The main reasons reported by the management for not providing the creche facility were as under:-

a) Units are small with regular working hours;
b) Lack of space for the creche,;
c) Women employees do not bring their children; and
d) The number of eligible children is very low.

A limited production company (Telco) and a School stated they had made arrangements for the young children.

Facilities provided for Female Employees

Table 7.23 gives the distribution of the various facilities provided for female employers as given by the managements.

Table-7.23
Facilities Provided For Female Employees

Facilities	Yes	%	No	%	Total
Separate rest room	9	47.4	4	21.1	13
Canteen	8	42.1	2	10.5	10
Toilet Facility	10	52.6	2	10.5	12
Drinking water closet	8	42.1	2	10.5	10

Regarding a separate rest room for women, 9 employers stated 'Yes' and 4 stated 'No'. Separate canteen facilities for females were reported by 8 employers whereas 2 stated there was no such separate facility provided. Separate toilet facilities were provided by 10 managements while 2 did not have such facilities. Separate drinking water closet was provided for female employees by 8 managements while 2 did not provide any such facilities.

Management views in relation to women workers

The employers were asked to provide any additional information which has been described under management views in relation to women workers. Diverse views have been expressed, some even contradictory but these views reflect the relation between the management and the women workers.

The women workers in various organisations are doing a variety of jobs; some the them are even handling the machines. Most of the employers felt that women could work on machines provided they are given necessary training and skill. The modern machines do not need heavy manual handling. One whole unit of production in an engineering industry is managed by women workers. The management in one unit said that they would not employ women on the shop floor due to the problems of labour trouble from male workers.

Almost all the managers expressed the view that women workers are as efficient, if not more, as the male workers. Various reasons were given for this view point. Women are more sincere as they are not interested in union activities. There are relatively less problems of absenteeism except for maternity leave. The women are not liquor addicts so the work does not suffer. Women are good at certain jobs, which may be delicate, repetitive, routine or monotonous and their efficiency is higher in these types of work. They have patience and are good at precision type of jobs. Women workers are not aggressive and they are more responsible in their behaviour. So the problems of discipline are minimised. They are eager to work and learn. They are happy with even small bonus or gift and do not aspire for more. Women do not have any diversions so they can work sincerely at the place of work. They do not change the jobs often. These views support the employment of women especially in industries, at times even in preference to the male workers.

In spite of these tributes paid to the women workers, there are only a few lady supervisors appointed by the management. The women continue to be workers at lower rungs throughout their tenure or work. One employer said that it is difficult for a lady supervisor to supervise male workers. Even for the female workers, male supervisors are considered to be more effective than the female supervisors.

Some Managers feel that they cannot easily approach the women workers and prefer to work with males. Other employers stated that it is difficult to employ women as they have to be given maternity benefits, creche facilities etc. They cannot be called for the night shift; employers have to take care of women if they are harassed or are in some difficulty. They have domestic responsibilities. They take leave for festivals. After marriage, absenteeism increases for the women worker, as they have to take care of the family. So some employers prefer to employ single or unmarried women workers. Career motivation is low for the women workers. They may leave the job after marriage. They are not work-oriented or career ambitious. It is difficult to reason with women and scolding them will immediately result into tears. So some employers find it difficult to manage women workers. Yet majority of the managers were satisfied with their work.

There is a considered view that women are best suited for only certain types of jobs, such as food preparations, tailoring, typing clerical etc. The management does believe that women should get educated but when it comes to working, the general view is that the women's first duty is to the house and the children. They should work only when necessary or if some one is at home to take care of the children. The management, though appreciative of women's work and efficiency stated that they cannot be promoted to the top level due to the domestic constraints. Yet a few enlightened entrepreneurs had the faith in the equality of sexes and were ready to accept women workers in all types of jobs and positions.

Chapter-8

Summary of Findings and Suggestions

Retrospect

The present system of higher education started in the Nineteenth Century under the British India. In the year 1857 there were 23 colleges of general education, 3 medical colleges and 1 Civil Engineering School. Colonial rulers used education as a device to build perfect and exploitative machine to deny to the Indian an identity of his own and to insulate local people from the rising world industrial culture. As an end product of the 'Civilising' mission of British rule, the higher education enrollment per lakh population in 1947-48 was 30.31. Women accounted for only 1.24 per cent of the total enrolment in 1916-17 and even in 1947-48, their percentage share in the total enrolment was less than ten.

As a result of the investments made in the successive Five year plans for various developmental projects under higher education in the post-independence period, there has been a phenomenal growth in institutions and enrolment. By 2002 there are 259 Universities in the country of which 16 are Central Universities and the remaining are functioning under the respective State Acts. There are 49 institutions declared as deemed-to-be universities under the University Grants Commission Act, 1956. There are 11,089 colleges, enrolment of students is 74.18 lakhs while the number of teachers is 3.42 lakhs.

Inspite of the rapid expansion of the formal educational system, a vast majority of Indian women has remained outside the reach of education. The share of women in the total enrolment was 34.6 per cent in 1997-98. The highest concentration of women is in the Arts faculty including Humanities and the percentage of women students is lower in Education, Law and Engineering. The number of women's colleges has recorded a substantial increase during the period 1986-87 to 1997-98, regarding a little more than 60% growth.

State – level Scenario

The lead in the establishment of the modern colleges of Arts and Science was taken up by the Government of the erstwhile Bombay Presidency which established the first institutions of this type in Bombay. The oldest college in the State is the Elphinstone college, Bombay, established in the early years of the nineteenth century and which began with the object of spreading knowledge of Western Science and literature among the people. It was affiliated to the University of Bombay in 1860. The missionaries followed in the footsteps of the Government and established two colleges of Arts and Science in Bombay, viz. the Wilson College, which was affiliated to the University in 1861 and the St.Xavier's college which was affiliated in 1869. In 1941, the Sophia college for women was established in Bombay city and in 1947 another women college was established at Ahmednagar. The bulk of the colleges of Arts and Science i.e. 44 out of 55 were then conducted by private enterprise.

The present State of Maharashtra came into existence by the Act of Parliament on 1 May 1960. In 2001 (census), the sex-ratio was 922 females per 1000 males. The literacy rates in 2001 were General: 77.27, Male: 86.27, Female: 67.51. Today, Maharashtra has 8 non-agricultural Universities, 4 Agricultural Universities and 8 Deemed Universities besides a large number of post-graduate research institution. The female enrolment to the total enrolment in higher education in Maharashtra for 1997-98 was 37.0 percent. Out of the labour force of 64.8% in Maharashtra for 1999-2000, the percentage of females in the labour force was 46.3 per cent as compared to that of males 82.1 per cent.

Area of the Study

The study of unemployment among female graduates is limited to the municipal area of Pune city only. For this study, a sample of 600 female graduates who had passed out from the University of Pune and the SNDT, Pune, in the years 1997-98, 1998-99, 1999-2000 were selected. As a first stage of sampling, 10 colleges from Pune city were selected by discipline-wise stratification and then the lists of graduate females of the referred years were collected from the records of the selected colleges. The colleges were from liberal education, technical education, and professional education. The sample of 600 female graduates from the discipline-wise lists of 1997-98, 1998-99, 1999-2000 was drawn proportional to the size of discipline-wise number of graduates. Further, 25 employers were identified for seeking opinions and views on female employment.

Data Analysis

Data was collected through canvassing of two schedules FGS-1 and FGS-2 among the female graduates and one interview schedule FGS-3 for the employers. A summary of the analysis is given below.

Socio-Economic Profile

1) The selected female graduates are concentrated in the age-group 23-24 years for all the disciplines.
2) Respondents largely belonged to the Hindu religion out of whom the Upper Castes composition had a larger share.
3) Out of 600 graduates only 279 were found to be employed while 321 were unemployed.
4) Among the employed / self-employed graduates, those belonging to the OBC category had a slight edge over those belonging to Upper Castes and Scheduled Castes.
5) As regards the marital status, a greater percentage of the graduate respondents were unmarried and this was the case in all disciplines.
6) Though looking for rural–urban differentials, it was found from the data that most of the graduate girls have been urbanised having stayed in Pune city for more than 10 years.
7) Considering the main occupation of respondents' family, those engaged in service constituted a greater percentage. This trend is common to respondents from all disciplines.

8) The family size consisting of 4-6 family members constituted the greater percentage among the respondents.
9) The percentage of nuclear families was found to be more than that of joint families. Nuclear families had a large proportion of graduates while in joint families, maximum level of education was HSC.
10) Considering the family income among the graduates, the largest single group had been constituted by those who were found to be belonging to monthly family income range of 1-2.5 lakhs.
11) As regards the relationship between respondents' education and the family income, it was noticed that those having an income of more than 2.5 lakhs provided better education for their girls and so they got employment due to their qualifications.
12) Considering relationship between family income and education of father / husband, it was found that those who were educated upto or more than graduate level showed highest level of income. Family income is greatly conditioned by the educational attainments of the head of the family. Family income and the level of education were found to be positively dependent variables. This may be so perhaps because the service-sector families predominated the selected sample of this study.
13) Where service was the main occupation of the family, the annual income of the family was also the highest.

The Employed and Unemployed – Facts and Opinions

1) The study revealed that out of the sampled 600 female graduates, 241 were employed, 30 were self-employed and 8 had some sort of self-earnings along with their employment while 321 graduates were not employed.
2) Referring to the main considerations behind taking up a job, the chief motivating factor was earning income. This was the case in all disciplines but more particularly among the Engineering graduates.
3) As regards the attitudes of family members towards their employment, a large percentage opined that their attitudes were positive and encouraging and their family members felt they should become independent and self-reliant. Some stated that their family members felt they should undertake more household responsibilities at the same time.
4) Majority of the employed graduates do day duties and only a very small per cent work on shift duties. Except for the technically educated (engineering graduates), a large per cent do clerical jobs or secretarial and computing jobs.
5) The most common mode of travel to the place of work was found to be the two-wheeler and the average time taken for travel was about half an hour. Time taken for women to reach their place of work is often crucial in their selection of jobs as more often than not they have to bear the 'double burden', i.e. job responsibilities and household work.
6) Most of the employed female graduates opined that they were not being paid on par with their male colleagues. The mean values of actual and expected salaries shows that payment is made irrespective of the qualifications of the graduates and at the discretion of the employers to a large extent.
7) The unemployment period on an average ranged between one to two years. However, it was stated that for Arts graduates the waiting period could be anywhere between two to five years. Due to campus interviews, Engineering graduates have a much lesser waiting period, some getting employed immediately after graduation.

8) Among the reasons for being unemployed, the highest weightage was given to 'jobs being not available'. From this analysis it is inevitable that the type of education must be related to the job market, so that employment does not elude the large mass of female graduates passing out each year.
9) Most of the difficulties faced for being unemployed are related to society and the women oriented problems. However, some felt the need for revising the educational system.
10) Regarding fulfillment of their personal needs by the family, most felt satisfied. Unemployed female youth largely depend upon their parents / guardians / husband for satisfaction of their monetary needs and living requirements.
11) On effects on family life due to their state of unemployment most reported that the major issues were related to monetary problems besides emotional effects and lack of status in the society.

Issues related to Employment and Unemployment

1) Keeping in view the development needs of educated female youth in general, the phenomenon of employment was considered 'desirable' for both unmarried and married female youth. Desirability of being employed was also accepted by the respondents for pursuance of an employment career even after marriage and children.
2) Regarding the nature of jobs suitable for women, the most common opinion represented by all the educational categories was teaching or clerical jobs. However, some were of the view that no difference was to be found between males and females for any kind of job.
3) Among the respondents, a majority felt their education was appropriate enough to enable them to get employment. However, some felt there was need to undertake post-graduate education to further their chances of getting employment.
4) On what steps needed to be taken to enhance job chances, surprisingly, many felt that they needed to take up new courses to keep in line with the needs of the job market.
5) A majority of the respondents felt they needed co-operation, support and adjustment from the family while they tried to fulfill their aspirations. This aspect gets a very large response especially from the Engineering graduates whose work often entails long, and sometimes irregular, working hours.
6) Regarding expectations of the family from them, the respondents felt that the family wanted them to become independent and self-sufficient with a good job and reach new heights in the profession of their choice.
7) As for their expectations from society, the respondents believed that by and large, the society could not do anything for them nor did they have any aspirations from the society. But some felt the need for society to support them, especially the working women.
8) Due to non-fulfillment of their expectations, the respondents felt frustrated and disappointed. Some felt incomplete and incapable while others had a sense of loneliness and emptiness. We can see that the psychological effects due to unemployment, has a depressing element on the educated female youth. Some respondents even felt that they were being neglected by the family members and some even reported they faced problems in getting married with a majority of families seeking working girls for their sons.
9) Many respondents stated they would try to get a job abroad or pursue higher studies abroad if they failed to get a job in India.

Opportunity Cost and Economic Loss

For those graduate women who decide to work, finding a job proves to be much more difficult than for the man. Only in the field of Engineering, women have a shorter waiting period. Otherwise the long span of waiting period for getting employment leads to a heavy opportunity cost, which is an economic loss. The average economic loss per month was found to be highest among the science graduates and least among the commerce graduates.

The Weaker Sections (SC. and OBC) - Higher Education and Employment

In respect of students belonging to weaker sections, it is not always the academically weak students who drop out at graduate level, but the economically poor ones too suffer. Only 21 per cent pursued their graduate level education in the Arts, Science or Commerce fields, while only a significant few could pursue the Engineering degree.

Graduate females from the weaker sections find employment in semi-skilled jobs or are self-employed performing multifarious activities and they do not have a principal occupation. They contribute significantly to meet the survival needs of their own families. Generally, they are engaged along with other family members in 'traditional activities'.

Employers' views on Female Employment

Views of employers of different types of units were included in the study with regard to female employment.

1) Of the employers interviewed 78.9% were male and 21.1% female.
2) Majority of employers (31.6%) were in the age-group 40-50 years.
3) 78.9% organisations were private units.
4) The proportion of total female employees to total male employees was 9:100.
5) The employers (78.9%) preferred fresh graduates in jobs.
6) The fresh graduates were preferred because majority employers reported they were found to be more enthusiastic in their work. Some however gave the preference because they felt fresh graduates can be molded as per the employers' needs in the job.
7) However, among those who responded in the negative to preference for fresh graduates, 50% stated experience was an important criteria in job selection.
8) Among those who preferred male employees, majority reported that females were not allowed to work on shift duties and on construction sites or shop-floor, hence they did not prefer female employees. However, some employers stated that for 'caring' jobs (like in schools, hospitals) and clerical / administrative work they preferred female employees.
9) Most female employees work full-time (63.2%).
10) A majority of employers stated there were no vacancies at present in their organisations, nor were they expecting any vacancies in the near future.
11) Many employers stated that there were no hurdles in creating posts for female graduates except that some jobs entail stretched working hours which were unsuitable for girls.

12) On the type of qualifications required for the jobs the responses differed. Preferred qualifications depended on the type of unit the employers were having, hence there was a multivaried response.
13) A majority of the employers felt the need for practical training and knowledge of computer skills in prospective job seekers.
14) As regards changes in labour laws, the major response was that the labour laws should be implemented more strictly. They also felt that Maternity Benefit Act 1961 should be extended to all units including the small units to provide relief to female workers when they need it.
15) Employers by and large felt the need to increase the period of apprenticeship with increase in stipend.
16) 78.9% employers felt that fluency in written / spoken English was an added qualification for female employment.
17) A majority of employers (57.9%) stated they did not differentiate between male and female graduates for employment 10.5% opted preference for females for laboratory and office work.
18) Regarding experience of women workers, the employers found that females were efficient in their work, were more punctual, showed regularity, were co-operative, helpful and willing to take responsibilities. Besides, women employees adhered to time schedule and showed marked obedience to their employers. Women generally kept-away from labour-union activities.
19) 68.4% employees stated that smartness / attractive personality was consideration for female employment.
20) Majority of employers did not feel that marriage / maternity / general health conditions affected female employment. However, some felt women cannot work efficiently after marriage due to multiple responsibilities.
21) There was a mixed response from employers regarding shift duties being a stumbling block to employ female graduates.
22) 68.4% employers reported there was no dispensary / hospital attached to the organisation.
23) 57.9% employers reported there was no creche / other arrangement for young children of their female employees attached to their organisation.
24) Provision of various facilities such as separate rest-room, canteen, toilet facility and drinking water facilities for women employees were reported by most employers.

Suggestions and Recommendations

The perspective of the present study has grown from the conviction that the problem of unemployment among the educated female youth should be of great concern to the Indian Government, planners and the people at large. The appointment of committees, commissions and study-groups in this regard from time to time, bears ample testimony to the above conviction.. However, for the sake of attempting a thorough quest of policy-making, it is necessary to identify two clearly distinguishable schools of thought on finding answers to the growing unemployment menace among the educated persons, including the educated women youth. One school considers the educational system as the entry point towards the remedial search of the problem, while the second school refers to restructuring of the economic system in this context. According to a well-considered view, both of these schools are, however, not mutually exclusive. The distinction is based on the basic nature of the remedial root of the phenomena. It is, therefore, of vital concern to consider the measures to be initiated in

accordance with the perspective contained in both of these schools. As a pre-requisite to successfully tackling the unemployment problem, however, a number of general measures of preventive nature may also be required to strike at the root of the unemployment problem. Thus, the suggestions and recommendations of the present study will be grouped under three sub heads; namely : employment matched education, employment matched economy and general measures.

Employment matched education

The problem of employment among educated women is largely confined to female youth below the age of 25 years. Due to the lack of matured guidance from the policy makers, we find the market flooded with ill-equipped and ill-prepared youth seeking the type of employment which is hardly available.

This problem may be tackled by introducing a system of graded education from Primary to University stages. If the intake capacity of the institution at each successive higher level is reduced with the introduction of right type of education at corresponding levels, it would be improving the employability of female youth. Hence, the alternative techniques of vocationalization of education and adoption of policies of recruitment at post higher-secondary level would be more appreciated. Emphasis should be on practical courses. Keeping in view the nature of gender preferences and interests in this regard, alternative courses in vocational or professional subjects may be introduced based on market surveys, revealing the trends of business, industry and profession. In this context, the role of vocational guidance career counseling and mass publicity of employment information needs profound emphasis.

Inspite of substantial policy support, the resources available for educational development, especially for female population as such, have never been adequate while the overall structure of education has expanded enormously in the decades since independence.

The paucity of resources hits the women's education at the first instant. Thus, with Vocationalization of education for them, the resources to build up infrastructure to encourage girl's education at primary and secondary levels, removing the demographic and regional imblances, needs special emphasis towards reorienting the educational patterns on employment needs of the women population and the society in general.

Employment matched Economy

From the view-point of policy and programmes, women's employment can be categorized in terms of : (a) existing employment in traditional industries/occupations, and (b) new employment avenues. There is considerable evidence that the growth competing mechanized sector with huge resources and capacity at command has affected women's employment in the industries. Given the gravity of the employment situation among the educated women, the prevalent laisez-faire should give way to protect employment of women engaged in various tasks, skilled and semi-skilled.

Adoption of labour intensive techniques which are significant to women's employment is another important measure in this regard. While the most economic method of

production should be the guiding principle, employment-oriented industries or programmes need be encouraged more than the capital intensive.

Fair selection process based on adequate recognition of one's talent and proper placement of the right person to the right job would bring confidence and trust in the system, besides raising efficiency and output. The pay structure and recruitment policies in general should be updated to minimize inter-state, inter-regional, inter-industry, inter-occupation and other such variations to facilitate mobility and productivity of labour. Besides, the recruitment system should be simplified to make it less costly and less time-consuming so as to prevent hazards and difficulties faced by the educated women youth in getting employment.

It may be further added that social support, coupled with women's own organizations and unity between them, are required to make educated female youth a viable, economic unit and providing the relevant infrastructure becomes important once the role of the employment for them is recognised. This recognition contains within its characteristics that provide much of the impetus or inhibition towards female labour participation or to the emergence of the female into the labour force.

As it appears, the problems of employment information through Employment Exchanges, University Employment Information and Guidance Bureaus etc among the educated female youth would call for a great deal of research into several factors affecting the effective use of educated women resource in a developing economy. Some beginning seems to have been made in the direction of Employment Exchange Service and University Employment Information and Guidance Bureau, there is still a need for purposive guidance, effective co-ordination and monitoring and an inbuilt system of critical assessment of various programmes.

General Measures

The higher participation of women labour force is related to the extension of women's education and provision of technical training. The women should be encouraged to enter into all types of production activities including the work on machines. There is scope for expansion of employment for women in the tertiary sector both public and private. The women workers have to be provided with information and facilities for jobs in this sector. This applies more to the women in the lower income groups.

The women workers in the unorganised sectors should be organised by voluntary women's organisations. These organisations are taking up some production activities for providing employment to women. It would be better if they help to organise the production activities by forming industrial co-operatives for women. The women entrepreneurs of Pune city can play a significant role here. The industrial co-operatives can also get help from the government institutions.

The women workers have to be provided with certain facilities. Availability of part-time jobs needs to be extended. The family has to reduce the domestic burden by sharing the woman's work. The society has to provide facilities such as domestic help, prepared food, creche, nursery schools etc. The facilities should be at reasonable prices within the reach of all levels of women workers. At present they cater mainly to the higher income groups.

The woman worker has to develop her efficiency and career and change her views about herself and the role she can play in the family and the society. This will enable her to achieve not merely economic freedom but individual freedom and self-confidence.

Basically the women who come to the labour market in search of jobs should be provided with opportunities for work. Economic independence enables a woman to develop herself as an individual and establish her status in the society. The government's policies are relevant in this context. These include policy planning for employment creation in the urban areas and development of administrative, financial and technical organisations for helping the expansion of various sectors of the urban economy. These policies are at present formulated and implemented through the Five-year-plans, the state and the district plans. These policies should be related to the specific problems of expansion of women employment in the urban areas. The women work-seekers need to be provided with information about jobs and proper guidance in their education and search for work.

But the government policies alone cannot tackle the problems of women employment. The voluntary organisations have to supplement the efforts of the government. In Pune, there are well-established and active women's organisations and they can help the women workers especially the major group of women in the low and middle income levels in Pune. Some suggestions in this respect can be:

(1) The basic need is of providing facilities to the girls upto the level of secondary education. In addition to free tuition or books, the girls need some income to meet the other expenses such as for dresses, travel, snacks etc. So those who are good in studies should be provided with some part-time work-may be simple work as baby sitting, or help in nursing or help in the production activities undertaken by the women's organisation. Non-formal and job-oriented education can play an important role here. The women's organisations in co-ordination with the government agencies can help the girls in achieving education and skills needed for the jobs. In Pune city, some social organisations arrange part-time jobs for female college students. This has proved very popular among girls from the poorer strata.

(2) Various self-employment schemes can be organised by the women's organisations. They can help the women to establish industrial co-operatives for the production of those goods and services for which the demand is rising.

(3) The women should be provided with information about the possible avenues for jobs in various sectors. Vocational guidance for the girls at the school level can be organised in this context.

(4) The women's organisations can provide the women with education for a better life. This would include a broad spectrum of educational activities, such as proper nutrition, sanitation, family planning, health care, proper care of children etc. The modern audio-visual aids are very useful here. Some of the women's organisations of Pune have made efforts in this direction. But what is needed is an integrated approach to raise the quality of woman's life. Further these efforts have to be directed to the women who are most needy, that is those in the lower income groups. Sincere and sustained efforts are necessary for reaching these goals. The women's organisations in the city with the leadership provided by their elite women members can help the women to improve their economic and social status.

(5) The women workers can be provided with various services which will reduce the burden of the house work such as supply of prepared foods at reasonable prices, creche services, etc. The family can be socially educated so as to share the burden of woman's domestic work.

(6) The women should be provided with facilities for part-time work. The put out system in the industries at present can be better organised and regulated so that the workers receive proper remuneration. Industrial co-operatives can also provide such part-time jobs.

(7) Factory legislation especially as regards the women in the small industrial units should be properly implemented.

Ultimately the women themselves have to acquire self-confidence through economic independence and visualise a better life for themselves and the family. The industrial growth, expansion of employment, government policies and voluntary welfare activities can provide the necessary support. Wider opportunities for work will help the women to develop their individuality and to establish their proper place in the society. The active participation by the women workers in the industrial and economic development of the city will improve the conditions of living for the citizens of Pune including those in the low income groups.

The broad suggestions and recommendations that emerge from the foregoing may be stated as under:

1) A system of graded education from primary to university stages, coupled with the concept of vocalisation of education is an essential prerequisite for successfully tackling the problem of unemployment among the educated female youth.
2) Labour-intensive techniques leading to optimum utilisation of educated women power is an immensely required policy in this regard.
3) The problem of employment information and women power utilisation would call for a systematic research, purposive guidance, effective co-ordination and critical assessment of various existing programmes.
4) Some preventive measures in the form of population control, checking of rural migration to urban areas, provision of social infrastructure and basic amenities in rural areas and some immediate relief measures, such as vocational / professional training on stipendiary basis, lowering the age of retirement, prohibition of re-employment of pensioners and retired persons, stoppage of over-time, etc., need be introduced do promote employment among the educated female youth.

The conclusion, thus, is inescapable. With unemployment among educated female youth perpetuating itself and with ever widening backlog at each of the successive five years plans, this concern must be brought to the centre stage of the national action. With the governments, educational institutions, industrial establishments based on decentralised production units searching for alternative approaches for employment generation programmes, some of the forward looking quasi-and-non governmental, regional and state organisations, policy makers, administrators, professional social workers, Employment Exchange Service Personnel and the educated unemployed among female youth themselves, using their critical experience, can help to facilitate the successful process. The preventive as

well as the immediate relief measures to combat the problem of unemployment among the educated female youth can follow once the 'will' to liberate the women from double burden, being a woman and an employee, is surfaced. The key word, however, is the 'will'. The government, the society and the unemployed educated female youth themselves have to provide sensitively the flexible support system required to deal effectively with the problem at hand.

Chapter-9

Some Analytical Remarks

Education is the most important instrument for human resource development. Education of women, therefore, occupies top priority amongst various measures taken to improve the status of women in India. It is considered to be the most effective weapon for implementing social change. In recent years, the focus of planning has shifted from equipping women for their traditional roles as house-wives and mothers to recognising their worth as producers, making a major contribution to family and national income.

Education has normally been viewed as an agency helping economic production; it is also said to provide instructions in suitable skills for a general division of labour. Thus, one of the aims of higher education is to develop efficiency in production.

A great deal of ambivalence exists as regards women's education which has increased since women have begun to seek employment. The educated woman is expected to display efficiency in all her roles. Any error, and the blame goes to her education; in fact, it is viewed as wastage of education.

The educational system must, therefore, be geared to meet all these needs. The role of women in India has yet to be clearly defined, particularly whether she should play a new role in the family, community and national context. Since the constitution has declared men and women as equals the grounds of women's education cannot be different from men's education. Education for both should have vocational or occupational bias. As stated by the Committee on the status of women, "In the progressive society of tomorrow, life should be a joint venture of men and women. Men should share the responsibility of parenthood and home making with women and women in their turn should share the social and economic responsibilities of men". Though these sentiments were expressed decades back, no significant change in policy or attitudes has occurred. On the contrary, women's role in the economic sphere has increased without any reduction in her domestic work, resulting in stress and strain of a dual role. Education of women must equip them to play their multiple roles judiciously.

Educated Women Power and Employment

The contribution of women to social produce continues to be undervalued or to receive no valuation at all. The type of training or education she receives does not provide full scope for the development of her potential abilities. This limits her chances of finding lucrative employment. Social taboos and psychological conditioning continue to hamper her participation in activities outside the home, and so prevent her from making the best use of existing abilities All these aspects indicate that a more subtle, yet a considerable disadvantage continues to be at work.

To qualify the extent to which there is ineffective utilisation of women's potential among the higher educated (graduates in this study), we need to consider the following three aspects in which this gets manifested:

a) in women not seeking employment;

b) in women seeking employment but having to wait much longer than men in getting jobs; and

c) In women finding employment but in jobs which do not give the same credit to their qualifications that a man would get.

Let us consider each of these in turn.

Education often delays the age at which the woman steps out of her father's threshold and enters her husband's but it seldom proves to be a sufficient condition for directing her along a path other than the familiar one. Her world, more often than not, continues to centre around her duties as housewife and mother. Nevertheless, the educational acumen that she brings to bear on these roles, does constitute a departure from her traditional contribution to a given situation. The most obvious of these departures is the marked difference she can make in the attitudes, motivations and ambitions of her children – both male and female. These contributions though unquantified are not small.

However, glorification of educated motherhood has inherent dangers. For in doing so, a point often missed or conveniently bypassed, is that a similar contribution is often made by the educated father, without it being necessary for him to make this the sole purpose of his life. In fact, it is not infrequent that inspite of the mother's education, the father continues to play the dominant role in shaping the child's mind. Yet, one seldom hears it being argued that men should be educated so as to make them better fathers, though a similar logic continues to be used for women.

If, therefore, we consider educated men who are not employed, manifest a waste of national potential, then unemployment among educated women becomes an equally valid reflection of the same. Out of the 321 (53.5%) unemployed in the sample of 600 graduate females, 35.7% graduates were those not trying for a job. If occupied in productive employment outside the home, these graduate women would be contributing as much as what employed women with similar qualifications are earning.

Why are these women voluntarily unemployed? Two important factors suggest themselves. Firstly, the type of educational qualifications that women hold limits their chances for lucrative employment. Second, and perhaps the more important of the two, is the attitude of the women themselves and those of their parental and marital families(although the respondents state that women should work even after marriage and having children to look after).

i) Type of Educational Qualifications

If an emphasis on a degree irrespective of the subject in which it is held and without consideration of its worth in the employment market continues to be the general feature of the Indian educational system, nowhere is this aspect more poignantly manifested than in the type of education that girls get.

In our study, the highest percentage of employment is seen in the technical education (engineering) which is an employment oriented course. However, only girls from high economic strata enter this field. On the other hand, the highest percentage of unemployment among the female graduates is found in the field which the majority of women opt for, namely, Arts and Humanities. Almost as high is the percentage of unemployment of female graduates in Science and Commerce the next most popular fields among women. Obviously, these are not the qualifications most in demand. Relatively better is employment in teaching and for Home Science graduates. This aspect is also reflected in the returns from such education Average emoluments per month for women are the lowest in the liberal education (Arts, Science, Commerce), the highest paid are those who qualify in Engineering.

Why do these women take up subjects where their chances of employment, particularly lucrative employment, are so low? The answer is simple – because employment is not the chief consideration in a girl's education. Besides, where income is low, or family size large, preference is given to providing better education to the male child.

ii) Attitudes: We come to the second important factor leading to large voluntary unemployment among women – attitudes.

Most parents even today send their daughters to college primarily for consideration of marriage, than for their intellectual growth or for equipping them for a job. The woman's main functions continue to be viewed as those of child-bearing and housekeeping. Other roles, if assumed at all, are considered supplementary. The biological reality, woman as bearer of the child, has been transformed into a sociological misreality – woman as the sole rearer. Her resulting pre-occupation with the physical role of wife, mother and house-keeper, is then held up as being 'nature-given' and unchangeable. Conditioned from childhood by both parents and by the media (film, advertisement, literature) to accept this, the woman herself seldom questions the path charted out for her in a male dominant culture. This conditioning further projects the woman as emotional, subjective and submissive and the man as practical, objective and aggressive. This also determines the culture each is exposed to-the former to liberal art subjectivity, the latter to scientific rationality. Hence, by and large, when faced with a choice of subjects at graduate level (college level), the woman usually opts for those subjects which require more of imagination and intuition and less of analysis or logic. If ***'Functionality'*** at all enters her choice, it is usually in terms of training to be a good housewife by taking up the varied courses in Home-Science-Courses, that is courses which serve more the interest of the man she chooses to marry than the development of her own personality.

Where the woman breaks out of this form of thought, either because of a non-traditional family or through the force of her own personality and takes up professionally oriented courses, a second hurdle has to be crossed – the attitude of the husband and his family towards a woman being employed. This factor is of primary importance in our cultural environment where marriage is universal and an enlightened husband, an exception. In their responses too, the sampled female graduates stated what supports our every day experience, that, very often, the husband or the in-laws strongly disapprove of the woman taking up a job, even when she has put in long years of work required to become, an engineer / or medical doctor. The respondents further elaborated that social stigma against separation and divorce is so strong that very few women would have the courage to take a stand for the sake of their professional lives.

In those cases where the husband allows his wife to work, they stated, it is often because it supplements the family income rather than for her personal advancement. The woman is also expected to bear the burden of house-work alone. Husbands like their wives to take up jobs but dislike their traditional responsibility being neglected which results from their preoccupation with out–of–home vocation, they observed. In a nuclear household in urban areas, the physical burden on the women employed outside the home becomes extremely heavy, if there is no full-time help.

In short, the type of education she receives, her childhood orientation, the hurdles placed by her family and added to this her observation of the difficulties faced by the present day working women – all these factors can be expected to reduce the woman's inducement to look for a job, unless economic circumstances make it imperative.

Those Seeking Employment

For those women who decide to work, finding a job proves to be much more difficult than for the man. This is obvious when we study the average duration of unemployment for women with graduate level qualifications. This waiting period involves opportunity cost in terms of economic loss which was calculated for graduates in the various disciplines in terms of what woman in similar fields are earning. It is interesting to note, however, that in the field of Engineering, women have a shorter waiting period. A possible explanation could be that this is a professional degree which leaves less to the discretion of the employer. Unfortunately, relatively fewer women qualify in this profession. Majority of the women teachers are found working in primary schools.

Also worth considering is the possibility that the figures for a woman's waiting period have a downward bias. Women might be more willing to compromise about the job they take up, or might be forced to compromise due to family or other considerations which limit their geographical mobility and consequently their range of choice. Should they be as particular as men with equal qualifications, the waiting period for them, would, in all probability, be longer still. This willingness to ***'job-compromise'*** is also likely to affect the emoluments women are prepared to settle for, as seen in the subsequent section.

Those Employed

Having obtained a job, women face a third block - that of discrimination in emoluments given as brought out in this study. Among the public and private sector, the respondents stated, mean earnings are approximately the same at the beginning of the work period (i.e at the age of less than 25). However, from then on, the difference widens rapidly. Earnings differentials are highest in the private sector and lowest in the public sector, with self employed coming in between. One probable explanation for the wide gap in male-female emoluments in the private sector, is the greater scope that employers have for giving rein to their prejudices in promotion of women workers to positions with better emoluments. Promotions in all likelihood are more impersonal in the public sector.

Secondly, the more lucrative jobs in the private sector tend to be concentrated in specific geographic locations. The woman, as indicated earlier, is usually more constrained in her choice of jobs, often (though not always) having to limit her choices to areas nearer home

i.e. where her parents or husband resides as also at shorter distances taking less time to reach her place of work because of her dual responsibilities. In addition, the attitudinal factor, elaborated on earlier, becomes important here also. If she does not consider her career as the primary focus of her life, and if her earnings are merely taken as supplementary to that of the family's or husband's, she is more willing to settle for a lower pay.

This situation does not go unexploited in the private sector, though the argument that may be put forward by the employer, to justify his stand, is that woman is less efficient and less capable than a man holding a position of responsibility. If in some cases the employer might have basis for his scepticism regarding the woman' ability to do justice to the job, it is not because she is intrinsically less capable. It may be because she has the additional responsibility of the home, a responsibility for which she can normally expect no help from her family or husband.

Success in the field of self-employment calls for a considerable degree of entrepreneurial initiative and drive. With the right motivation, women can go far.

Social Efficiency of Graduate Education

It must be conceded that the universities and large expanse of colleges of higher education have kept moving the wheels of socio-economic life in the city of Pune, and that they have provided most of the skilled manpower – at whatever level needed by the economy, research institutions and civil service. That the universities have responded favourably, often with greater zeal than wisdom, to the irrational demands of parents and students and to the equally irrational targets of professional manpower fixed by the planners in the last twenty-five years is obvious from the surplus with which the employment market is glutted today. It is, however, only the top 25 to 30 per cent of the university and college students mostly the first class degree holders, male and female) who may hope to enter the professions and institutions which require academic competence and professional skills of a high order. How do the universities or colleges help others to cultivate "skills suitable to play a part in the general division of labour?"

It is unfortunate that no university or college in Pune, or for that matter in the whole country, has any follow-up record of its graduates, not to talk of female graduates. The data on unemployment too, are sketchy, uneven, sometimes contradictory and lack a periodicity and sophistication necessary for a meaningful discussion. But whatever information is available can perhaps be profitably used to ascertain relationship between higher education and the employment situation.

A few axioms regarding education, productivity and human resource development which are common for both male and female students may be stated as:

a) As a result of education and training given in institutions of higher training, a student should be able to add to the sum total of production and in fact add more than what he would have done without that education and training; the difference between the two may be called productivity ascribable to education.

b) The contribution, that a student makes to production as a result of his education and training must exceed the expenditure on his education and training.

c) There should be a positive correlation between the level of training and the level of earnings; the higher the training the more should be the earnings.

d) In general, professional, technical and vocational education in courses involving high ***'per capita'*** investment should enable a student to earn more than he would if he had received his education for an equal number of years in a non-professional academic institution.

e) Productivity will be higher if the educational system is geared to self-earnings or earnings from self-employment rather than to wages or fixed salaries.

f) Any investment in education that causes or aggravates unemployment, is wasteful.

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