SUMMARY
&
CONCLUSION
Chapter-VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

A woman, along with man from times immemorial has formed an integral part of social structure throughout the world. In Indian society, she has played and continues to play an important role. It is true that the progress of a country can be judged to a great extent by the status of her women. She plays manifold role in the society; as a mother, as a sister and as a wife. Thus, she is the foundation stone of the family in particular and the society in general.

While women represent 50 per cent of the adult population and one third of labour force, they perform nearly two-third of all working hours and receives only one-tent of the world income. Human Development Report for the year 2000 on the amount of time that women and men spend on market and non market activities by considering 31 countries reveals that women work longer hours than men in nearly every country. Women carry on average 53 per cent of total burden of work in developing countries and 51 per cent of that in industrial countries. Also, roughly two-third of women's total work time is spent in unpaid non system of national accounts activities.

Women's nutrition has a range of positive effects because healthy women can fulfill their multiple roles generating income, ensuring their families nutrition and having healthy children – more effectively and thereby help advance countries in socio-economic development. Women are often responsible for producing and preparing food for the household. So their knowledge about nutrition can affect the health and nutritional status of the entire family. Promoting greater gender equality, including increasing women's control over resources and their ability to make
decisions, is crucial. Improving women's nutrition can also help nation to achieve three of millennium development goals, which are commonly accepted as a framework for measuring development progress.

Objectives

1. To study the socio-economic status of working and non-working women.
2. To assess the nutritional status of working and non-working women
3. To study the dietary pattern and nutrient intake of the women
4. To develop low cost recipes for the respondent including time and money.
5. To develop the nutrition package for awareness purpose among working and non-working women

Research Methodology

The study was conducted in Lucknow district of Uttar Pradesh. Out of 6 zones, 4 were selected randomly. From each zone, two wards were selected. 25 housewives termed as non-working women and 25 working women were selected purposely from each selected zone. Thus 100 working women and 100 non-working women, total 200 women were selected in the study area. Dependent and independent variables were used such as age, education, caste, nutritional status, nutrient intake, dietary habits etc. The study was mainly survey work. The statistical tools used were percentage, per cent deficit, arithmetic mean, standard deviation, correlation coefficient, Z test and $\chi^2$ test.
Major findings

1. 47.0 per cent working women were belonged to 35 to 40 years age group followed by 35.0 per cent 30 to 35 years age group 46.0 per cent non-working women respondents were belonged to 30 – 35 years age group followed by 36.0 per cent in 25 to 30 years age group Age group of the women respondents plays an important role in working and non-working condition.

2. Among working women, 60.0 per cent women respondents were sedentary worker, 28.0 per cent were moderate and 12.0 per cent were heavy worker. Among non-working women all the respondents were sedentary worker The society’s expectations from working women at the domestic front remain the same as those from a non-working woman.

3. 57.0 per cent working women respondents have passed graduate & above education whereas 18.0 per cent have passed intermediate. 22.0 per cent non-working women respondents have passed graduate whereas 22.0 per cent have passed intermediate. 28.0 per cent non-working women respondents have passed high school whereas 14.0 per cent have passed middle class. Education of women is the key factor in achieving better nutrition by determining household food acquisition patterns

4. 52.0 per cent working women respondents belonged to upper caste whereas 30.0 per cent to other backward caste. 36.0 per cent non-working women respondents were belonged to upper caste while 34.0
per cent other backward caste 30.0 per cent non-working women and 18.0 per cent working women respondents belonged to SC/ST caste.

5. 81.0 per cent working women respondents belonged to Hindu family and 8.0 per cent to Christian family. 70.0 per cent non-working women respondents belonged to Hindu family and 20.0 per cent to Muslim family. 8.0 per cent non-working women respondents belonged to Sikh religion. Nutritional status depends over the religion because diet and variety of meals are change to different religion category.

6. 65.0 per cent respondents belonged to nuclear families and 35.0 per cent to joint family system in the working group while in the non-working group 72.0 per cent belonged to nuclear families and 28.0 per cent belong to joint families.

7 62.0 per cent working women respondents have 5 members in the family whereas 38.0 per cent have 6 and above members in family. 70.0 per cent non-working women respondents have up to 5 members in their family, while 30.0 per cent have 6 and above members in family. In big size family having less income, per capita consumption of food decreases because it get distributed among all the members in the family and in our culture it is the tradition that women eat at last, so women is the sufferer because she eats the left over. Thus family size directly affects the nutritional status of women.

8. 42.0 per cent working women respondents belonged to Rs. 10000 to Rs. 20000 monthly income group whereas 20.0 per cent working women respondents belonged to up to Rs. 10000 and Rs. 20000 to Rs. 30000 monthly income respectively. Women's income has a positive impact
not only on the socio-economic status of the families, but also on the food and nutrient intake of the families. Involvement of women in improving the cash economy increases the drudgery of their daily activities leading to a greater amount of energy expended and in turn increasing their energy requirements.

9. 68.0 per cent working women have 11 and more items whereas 64.0 per cent non-working women have 6 to 10 items. 32.0 per cent working women respondents have 6 to 10 items as a material possession whereas 32.0 per cent non-working women respondents have 11 and more items as a material possession.

10. The mean height of the working women was 154.1 cm and non-working women was 152.9 cm. Standard deviation was more in 30 to 35 year age group in both groups. Thus, maximum variation in height was in this age group.

11. Mean weight of the working respondents was 51.0 kg and non-working women respondents 51.6 kg. The more variation in weight was found in 35-40 years age group and 30-35 years age group. The correlation coefficient was positively significant in non-working group and non-significant in working group.

12. Mean BMI of working women was 21.1 and of non-working women was 21.8. In working women group more variation was found in age group 30-35 years whereas in non-working women it was found in 35 to 40 years. The correlation coefficient was found to be significant in non-working group and in working women the correlation coefficient was found to be statistically significant.
13. 83.0 per cent working women were in normal BMI grade whereas 11.0 per cent in obese grade. 78.0 per cent non-working women respondents were in normal range BMI category whereas 15.0 per cent non-working women were in obese category and 7.0 per cent in grade I thinness.

14. In working women category maximum 46.0 per cent belonged to high nutritional status followed by 31.0 per cent medium nutritional status. This is due to income and other causes. In non-working women category majority of the women (48.0 %) have medium nutritional status followed by 26.0 per cent low and high nutritional status respectively. Nutrition is one of the most important factors influencing the quality of human life. Nutritional status is an important health indicator to assess a country’s health status and morbidity pattern. In developing countries, women mature bearing obvious evidence of deprivation in childhood, namely stunting.

15. On the basis of clinical assessment it was found that 74.0 per cent working women respondents and 59.0 per cent non-working women respondents were looking healthy in general appearance whereas 22.0 per cent working women and 32.0 per cent non-working women were unwell. 52.0 per cent working women respondents have normal hair while 60.0 per cent non-working women respondents have normal hair. 30.0 per cent working women respondents have lack of luster due to some working condition. Only 18.0 per cent non-working women respondents have lack of luster.

16. On assessing morbidity pattern it was found that 60.0 per cent working women have headache frequently due to working environment and conditions while only 23.0 per cent non-working women have
headache. 26.0 per cent non-working women have suffered from cold and cough while this percentage for working women was 9.0 only 32.0 percent and 35.0 per cent of the working women respondents and non-working women respondents were suffering from backache respectively. The problem of frequent joint pain was found in 27.0 per cent and 23.0 per cent working and non-working women respondents respectively. The gastric problem was more frequently present among non-working women (40.0%) while, among working women it was 19.0 per cent. 18.0 per cent working women complained for other problems like high blood pressure, diabetes, anaemia, migraine and stones problem whereas 15.0 per cent non-working women complained for high blood pressure, filaria, diabetes and stone in gall bladder etc.

17. 52.0 per cent of the working women and 58.0 per cent of the non-working women were vegetarian 48.0 per cent of the working women respondents and 42.0 per cent of the non-working women were non-vegetarian. Woman who takes non-vegetarian diet has better nutritional status than those who take vegetarian diet because non-vegetarian foods like meat, poultry and fish are rich in good quality protein, which helps in body building and they also provide B vitamins. A special feature of flesh foods is their content of vitamin B_{12} which is absent in plant foods.

18. 90.0 per cent working women were taking cereal legume combination in the meals whereas 82.0 per cent non-working women respondents have taking in her meals as a cereal legume combination.

19. Snacks in between the meal was more preferred by the working women respondents, 50.0 per cent took it one time while 35.0 per cent took 2 or
more times in between the meal. 55.0 per cent of the non-working women respondents never took snacks in between the meals. It is observed that working women are always in hurry in morning so they prefer to take snacks at evening time when they came back to their homes. They feel it necessary from health point of view to take at least one snack in evening time to receive the energy they spend during working and to maintain their health and working efficiency.

20. 51.0 per cent working women respondents had taken dinner, 24.0 per cent had lunch and only 25.0 per cent had breakfast as their major meal. In case of non-working women 62.0 per cent of them had lunch as their major meal. Due to the working hours of the respondents of working group majority of them were having heaviest major meal at night time. It was observed that working women feel relaxed at night time and can give more time to kitchen as compared to morning.

21. 35.0 per cent working women preferred to eat weekly, 18.0 per cent fortnightly and 55.0 per cent monthly outside the house. In case of non-working women respondents 18.0 per cent eat weekly, 10.0 per cent fortnightly and 48.0 per cent monthly outside the house. Working women respondents preferred more in weekly and monthly due to sound earning and she want to change meal in a month as well as save herself from cooking task. In Indian culture there is no freedom for a women either working or housewife to take food daily outside the home that is in restaurants and hotels etc. and it is not very good from health point of view too, because the preference of women observed for meal outside the home was mainly for fast foods which contains high fat and more spices.
50.0 per cent of working women and 44.0 per cent non-working women respondents were eating in front of T.V 50 per cent working and 14.0 per cent non-working women were eating in kitchen, 24.0 per cent working and 40.0 per cent non-working women respondents were eating in dining room. 21.0 per cent working women while on the go as they were not have much time because of working condition Women have a burden of domestic work, either she is working or housewife so she does not want to waste her time in eating and she prefer to take her food in front of T.V. for entertainment of herself with fooding.

45.0 per cent of the working women themselves took the decision regarding meals while only 15.0 per cent was in the case of non-working women group. In the non-working group, in the decision regarding meal 34.0 per cent depend on husbands view, 36.0 per cent on children, while 15.0 per cent used seasonal food in their meals.

Pressure cooking was frequently used by the women, 72.0 per cent among the working women and 68.0 per cent among the non-working group of women respondents were using pressure cooking. Working women were less using frying cooking while non-working women (24.0 %) were adopted frying cooking. Working women have shortage of time so she want to finish her cooking task as early as possible and being aware of nutritional losses during cooking, she prefers pressure cooking which save her time as well as nutrients. While in case of housewife having proper time for cooking and lack of nutrition knowledge, she prefers frying with pressure cooking.

54.0 per cent of the working women and 59.0 per cent of the non-working women respondents washed the vegetable after cutting.
Majority of the women knew the disadvantages of it but they followed of their habit. 46.0 per cent of the working women and 41.0 per cent of the non-working women were washed vegetables after peeling.

26. Working women were aware about their health, they were taking more pulses, green leafy vegetables, fruits and milk in their diet daily. In non-working women category they were taking more roots and tubers in their daily diet as compared with working women respondents. It is observed that, as income increases, there is an increase in the consumption of protective foods such as pulses, fruits, milk and dairy products, which while adding to calories contribute significantly to the increase in other nutrients whose intake is particularly lacking in the diet of the poor.

27. Mean energy intake of the respondents was 2020.3 Kcal in the working women and 1803.5 Kcal in the non-working women respondents. The energy intake of working women in the age group 25-30 years was increased by 21.6 per cent and in the non-working women in the age group 35-40 years by 4.6 per cent. The energy intake of working women was decreasing with age, it might be due to the busy schedule of their work activities that they ignore their diet. Age group of the working women respondents was negatively correlated with energy intake whereas age of non-working women respondents was positively correlated to energy intake.

28. Mean protein intake was 50.1 g by working women whereas 46.8 g by non-working women respondents: Working women have taken more protein (+7.6 %) in age group 30 to 35 years whereas non-working women respondents have taken less protein (-13.6 %) intake in 25 to 30
years age group The correlation coefficient was found to be non-
significant. Proteins are the important constituent of tissues and cells of
the body. Protein supplies the body building material and also provides
the energy. Proteins are one of the most important nutrients required by
the body and should be supplied in adequate amounts in the diet Thus,
the habitual diets of vegetarians in India based on cereal and pulse has
indeed a rational basis.

29 In the working women the mean fat intake was 23.2 g while in case of
non-working women it was 21.2 g which is greater than the
recommended dietary allowance of 20 g. The fat intake among the
working women in the age group of 25–30 years was increased by 19.0
per cent while in the non-working women in age group 35 – 40 years
by 13.0 per cent. Fat is a concentrated source of energy and it supplies
per unit weight more than twice the energy furnished by either protein
or carbohydrate. Fat is an important component of diet and serves a
number of functions in the body.

30 In the working women respondents in the age group of 25-30 years the
calcium intake was deficit by 14 per cent while in the non-working
women respondents this figure was 9.8 per cent. Calcium is an essential
element required for several life processes. As the structural
component, calcium is required for the formation and maintenance of
skeleton and teeth. The correlation coefficient in working women group
was positively correlated and in non-working women group it was non-
significant.

31. In the working group the mean iron intake was 24.6 mg and in non-
working women group was 23.2 mg against the recommended dietary
allowance of 30 mg per day. In the working women in the age group 25-30 years iron intake was deficit by 22.0 per cent while in the non-working women in the age group 35-50 years iron was most deficit by 24.7 per cent. The correlation coefficient for working women group was (-0.2150) and for non-working women group, it was (-0.3411).

32. Mean β-carotene intake by the respondents was 1161.0 μg for working women and 1006.9 μg for non-working women respondents. β-carotene intake in the age group of 25-30 years in case of working women was deficit 68.8 per cent while in non-working women by 64.1 per cent. The correlation coefficient was non-significant at 50 per cent level of significance in both groups working and non-working women.

33. Mean thiamine intake was 1.41 mg for working women respondents and 1.44 mg for non-working women. Its intake was more than the recommended dietary allowance in both the groups. The richest source of thiamine is yeast and the outer layers of cereals like rice, wheat and millets. Thiamine is concerned in the proper utilization of carbohydrates in the body and in the absence of adequate amounts of thiamine full utilization of sugars and starches for meeting the energy needs is adversely affected.

34. In the working women in the age group 25-30 years, riboflavin intake was deficit by 12.7 per cent while in the non-working women group in 30-35 years it was deficit by 38.2 per cent. Riboflavin as a part of a coenzyme is essential for several oxidation processes inside the cell and is concerned with energy and protein metabolism. There is good evidence that poor Indian diets which contain little milk are generally
deficient in riboflavin. The correlation coefficient in working women group was 0.0109 and in non-working women group was 0.2054.

Non-significant relationship have been found between awareness and nutrients intake in both group however, it can be concluded that the mean intake of nutrients such as protein, fat, iron and calcium is higher in the working women in comparison to non-working women.