REVIEW OF LITERATURE, OBJECTIVES AND METHODOLOGY

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This chapter deals with review of literature, importance of the present study, need for the study, main objectives of the study, methodology, different sources of data, primary and secondary sources, statistical methods used to analyse the data by using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), description of the study area and some important concepts regarding woman agricultural labourers.

2.1 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Chauhan (1971)\textsuperscript{12} observed that as agriculture being an unorganised industry, labourers lack bargaining power. The availability of women and children to field work, and their lack of bargaining result in low wages, the prevalence of the system of payment in kind is a factor responsible for low wage. These systems of payments are governed by tradition and custom.

Leela Gulati (1978)\textsuperscript{13} examined working women in India and value of their labour. She found that the children of the agricultural labour too continuing the same occupation despite whatever education they had been able to receive. She also found that hunger, disease and indebtedness are an integral part of the life of the women labour. There is little prospect of anyone in the family breaking out of viscous circle.

According to Krishna Ahooja Patel (1979)\textsuperscript{14} and Ela, Bhatt (1985)\textsuperscript{15}, technological progress has the dual effect of widening women’s

\textsuperscript{12} Chauhan, J.B.S., “Agricultural Labour in India”, Yojana, May 16, 1971, p.23.
employment opportunities and at the same time pushing them into less skilled and less mechanized occupations.

The study of **Ghodaka and Ryan (1981)**\(^{16}\) discussed that availability of family female labour is inversely related to the farm size. Females may be forced to work outside the family farm in cases where the family owns little or no land in order to supplement the meagre income of adult male members. When farm size increases, women may withdraw from work or only confine to their own farm work.

**Saradamoni (1982)**\(^{17}\) studied that changing agrarian relations and its impact on women in palakkad district. He argues that despite the fact that socio-political changes which coincided with the agrarian struggles favoured legislation for the underprivileged sections in the society and the advantages of justice did not reach all, especially women.

**Sudarshan Reddy and Girija Rani (1982)**\(^{18}\) tried to work out the workdays of female in different economic activities and domestic work according to different categories of household such as agricultural households, artisan households and agricultural labour households and also compared the workdays of females with males. Taking economic and domestic activities together, women work for more number of days in a year and longer hours in a day as compared to men. The study also reveals that the females work days are higher among cultivator families compared to artisan and agricultural labour families.

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Agarwal, Bina (1984)\textsuperscript{19} pointed out that following introduction of new technologies in agriculture, casualisation of work is increased for both men and women, while it is more enhanced in the operations such as transplanting, weeding and harvesting where female labour is primarily employed.

Sisodia (1985)\textsuperscript{20} study the magnitude of the female labour participation rate in the specific field operations as well as in other preparatory or supportive activities to agricultural production process, the family female labour participate in the decision – making process and the association between the extent and nature of female participation in agriculture and economic-demographic characteristics of Bhind and Morena districts of Madhya Pradesh.

The study revealed that the rate of female participation is very low. The pattern of division of labour between men and women varies from region to region according to social customs. In the Chambal region, the preparatory tillage operations are not performed by the farm women. On animal based tasks like cake making, ghee making, milking animals, removing of dung from the cattle shed and feeding of animals are mostly done by the farm women. There is no hired female labour is employed for these animal-based tasks. Only a few per cent of total family labour in preparatory or supportive activities to agricultural production process and the rest is done by men. In the decision making process wives are consulted regarding the choice of crops to be grown, variety of seeds, fertilizer application, number of irrigation quantity of


grains to be marketed and place of marketing. The degree of female participation about new ideas in agriculture is much more in the case of scheduled castes.

**Joshi and Alshi (1985)** have attempted the impact of HYVs on female labour employment by size-groups of holdings and the employment effect of HYVs separately for family and hired female labour in Akola district of Maharashtra state. The study revealed that per hectare female labour use on HYV cotton and farms used about 157 per cent more female labour per hectare over local variety, while in jowar crop, the HYV used 26 per cent more female labour over local variety. The adoption of HYV of cotton and jowar increased the requirement of casually hired female labour to a large extent, implying thereby an increase in the employment opportunities for female labour seeking agricultural wage employment.

**Marothia and Sharma (1985)** have examined the relative share of female labour in paddy production and subsidiary activities to account for their economic contribution at the farm level in Dharisiwa block of Raipur district of Chhattisgarh plains region. The study shows that in spite of high proportion of irrigated areas on medium and large farms, the intensity of cropping has inverse relationship with the size of holdings. The lower intensity of cropping on medium and large farms may be attributed to the management factor and protective of canal irrigation available on the sample farms. The rate of female labour participation was higher than that of male labour on all farm size-

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groups but the rate was slightly less than double for female labour on the farms. The higher participation rates for female labour reflect their greater need to earn income from the employment of their labour. Female labour contributed a higher proportion of total labour input in paddy production activities on all farm size-groups. The share of female labour in total wage earnings was higher than male wage earning on all farm size-groups. The relative share of female labour in total paddy output was slightly higher on small farms but it was significantly higher on medium and farms. The women labour played a significant role in paddy production and subsidiary activities on the sample farms both in terms of terms of working days and wage earnings.

Suryawanshi and Kapase (1985) have studied the changes in their size of family and the effective labour force, the changes in female labour employment after the introduction of irrigation and farm and per hectare labour utilization and participation of female labour in Ghod Irrigation project area of Maharashtra over a period of time. Main findings of their study are both male and female members got higher employment in agriculture due to irrigation available by Ghod project, family female labour utilization was more than that of hired female labour, this is clearly indicated that due to irrigation facilities there was an increase in female employment in the family. The introduction of irrigation project, high labour intensity crops were introduced in the area, which accelerated the labour employment in general and employment of female labour in particular.

Ray, Rangarao and Attari (1985) have attempted the impact of technological changes on female labour employment; compare the wage rates of male and female labour and the impact of differential wage rates on female labour employment and the relative impact of different factors on family female labour employment in the states of Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh and Kerala. The study revealed that the employment of female labour is relatively lower than that of the male labour in two out of the three states. The use of family female labour is found to be negatively related with the size of holding under both the local and high-yielding varieties of wheat and paddy in all the states and the adoption of new production technology, the use of female labour increased enormously on all size-groups of farms. The wage rate of female labour is comparatively lower than of the male labour in all the states.

Ramesh Chand, Sidhu and Kaul (1985) examined the impact of new agricultural technology on the employment and wage of different categories of workers and the impact of new agricultural technology on the employment of casual, attached and family labour in both men and women workers categories and to isolate the effect of various individual factors on the employment pattern of male and female workers in Punjab. The study showed that modernization of agricultural in Punjab has resulted in increased employment per hectare of cultivated area for all kinds of female labour. In the case of male labour there was a small decline in the employment per hectare in 1980-81 compared with that in

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1971-72 and wider application of new agricultural strategy has resulted in reducing the difference in the wage rates of men and women.

**Anuva Saikia (1985)** studied work participation rate of females depended on cropping pattern, crop intensity and economic compulsion to engage in farm activities of Jorhat and Sibsagar districts, Assam. Females worked as casual labour on the farms during specific farm operations. The average female work participation rate was higher on marginal farms. The female work participation rate and volume of employment were higher in paddy. Transplanting and harvesting of paddy were done exclusively by female workers per hectare use of labour decreased and per farm use of labour increased with the increased with the increase of farm size.

**Dangat and Yadav (1985)** have discussed the role of women in crop production in Ahmedanagar district in Maharashtra. They observed that the proportion of hired female labour used on the farm to the total hired human labour was higher as compared to that of family female human labour. This may be due to the lower wage rates for the females than for the males and their relatively more use on larger farms. The use of female labour for various farm operations, the operations like stubble collection and weeding were exclusively carried out by the females. The participation of female labour was also large in the operations like harvesting, threshing and winnowing; equally important operations in crop production were performed by the female


labour which accounted for one-third of the total human labour used in crop production on the farm.

Dhongada, Patil S.D. and Patil S.J. (1985) have attempted the nature of family women labour for the three crop regions, namely, Jowar region, cotton region and sugarcane region in Maharashtra. The participation of women in the farm work in different size classes of holdings showed that in jowar and cotton regions, the participation in the work done on own farm for crop production increased with the increase in the size of holdings. In sugarcane region the participation of women for ‘work’ in others farm showed a declining trend with the increase in size-group of holdings. The participation of family women labour in farm activities is related to the economic development of the area and the farmers. The participation was relatively low in the developed sugarcane area and also on the holdings which are financially better.

Gadre and Mahalle (1985) discussed that to work out and compare the levels of female labour utilization in crop production under traditional technology and modern technology, the extent of farm and non-farm employment available to female workers in the farm family and the seasonal fluctuations in employment of female workers in the family in Akola and Amaravati district of Maharashtra. Female farm worker was observed to be more depended on the farm for employment as compared to male farm worker. High variability in month to month employment was observed in the case of female farm

worker when viewed from overall employment angle. Month wise employment of female farm worker ranged from 2.61 days in the month of March to 21.52 days in the month of July. Female farm workers were underemployed.

Reddy (1985)\textsuperscript{30} study of female labour employment in dry land areas was carried out at Nagaur. It is observed that the number of employed days declined with the increase in the size of land holdings at most of the centers. The employment opportunities increased with the increase of moisture index of region. The employment situation in the case of female workers differed from one location to another due to variation in the cropping pattern, rainfall distribution, soil type, availability of irrigational facilities and non-agricultural works available in the locality. The employment days in crop production increased with the increases of land holding but declined with the increase of land holding but declined with the increase of land holding in the case of hiring out female labour for wage and also miscellaneous works such as earth works and road repairs etc., at all centres. The unemployment in the case of females was very severe at all locations.

Singh and Bhatt (1985)\textsuperscript{31} examined the role of women in the agricultural economy of Himachal Pradesh. The study revealed that among the farm workers the proportion of females was higher than males. The level of illiteracy was higher among females as compared to males. Two- third of their time was utilized for tending of cattle and

one-third for crop production activities. Changes in crop production technologies of the work load of women in all size farms have increased.

**Guleria Amar and Brij Agnihotri (1985)** discussed the female labour participation in various farm operations and their contribution towards the total farm and household incomes. They observed that the share of female workers in the overall income of the sample households was higher than the male workers. But the farm income over a unit of land attributed to the female workers was found less as compared to male workers. The money contribution of females in the farm income is found to be smaller than that of male labour.

**Jaiswal and Singh (1985)** investigated the pattern and level of employment of women labour, wage structure and the income of women labour. The study observed that the economic conditions of women labour were very pitiable. Their socio-economic status in the rural community is the lowest. The hours of work were not fixed. Even during maternity period, women labour were compelled to work. The wage rates paid were also low as compared to the male workers for the same job.

**Dutta and Sharma (1985)** attempted the contribution of female labour is larger in the peasant household farms as compared to other hired labour- based farm, participation of female labour largely

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depends on the customary division of work between men and the percentage of female labour spent in agricultural process is significantly higher among STs and koiry farmers as compared to other communities. The study showed that the percentage of female labour input is significantly higher on peasant farms, most of which belonged to the small and medium size classes. The organizational character of peasant households induces more female labour participation in agriculture. The women workers are generally allocated lighter works such as transplanting of paddy, weeding and harvesting. In the case of ST and koiry farms where in the female workers have participated even in pursuits like land preparation, irrigation and marketing. ST female labour have greater willingness to participate in agriculture as compared to other high caste farmers.

**Panghal and Mange Ram (1985)**\(^35\) examined the employment pattern of women labour on farms in different agro-climatic zones of Haryana. The study revealed that as the size of farm increased the participation of women labour also increased. The increasing trend of women labour participation with the increase in the size of farm is due to the fact that the larger is the size of the farm more is the amount of hired women labour. The employment of women labour was the highest in cotton followed by paddy and wheat.

**Shashi Munjal, Punia and Veena Sagwan (1985)**\(^36\) have attempted the actual time spent in performing different activities in home farm and dairy sectors. Their economic contribution in the


household by performing different activities and the impact of agricultural season and farm size on their work participation are examined. The findings of the study as the farm size increased work participation of farm women decreased in the farm sector and increased in the home and dairy sector. On small and marginal farms farm women had to perform the farm operations in peak season besides the home and dairy activities which are their traditional roles.

Yadav C.P. and Yadav R.N. (1985) attempted the effect of changes in the cropping pattern on female work participation using inter-temporal approach. The female farm labour participation are increased. Their participation was maximum on small farms. They also participated in a variety of farm operations such as land preparations excluding (ploughing), transplanting, harvesting, mechanical threshing, winnowing and primary processing of agricultural commodities. Seasonal variation of agricultural labour has declined.

Azad, Prasad, Yadav and Bhatiya (1985) have discussed the participation of female workers in agriculture and allied enterprises, the utilization of women labour in various farm operations and the contribution of female wage earners to the farm income. It is concluded that illiteracy and financial hardships of Scheduled Caste (SC) families are responsible for their worst conditions placing them at the lowest ladder in the rural society. The women from the lowest strata of the society showed an inclination to take up wage–paid employment in agro-based industries, if they are educated. The participation of women

in agriculture and allied enterprises as wage earners, is confined to only the female workers of SC’s. Besides working as wage earners, the female workers are also engaged in the maintenance of their milch cattle and in the procurement of fodder and grains for them.

**Vinod Kumar, Singh, Yadav and Singh (1985)**[^39] studied to work out the level of employment of women workers, their wage structure and the level of income and Measures for the improvement of the conditions of women workers. In agriculture, female employment was the highest in harvesting, threshing and winnowing followed by intercultural, maintenance of cattle, application of manure and fertilizers, sowing and preparation of land. The wage rate for all the operations was equal except for harvesting, threshing and winnowing. In non-agriculture, the female employment pattern was the highest in spinning and weaving followed by house construction, repairing and maintenance and sewing and other work. Women worker received employment mostly on casual basis. None of the women was employed as permanent labour. Women agriculture labour got almost full employment.

**Balaraman (1985)**[^40] discussed the types of sex discrimination practiced in farm wages with particular reference to Tamil Nadu. The study revealed that on an average, the wage paid to a female worker was roughly 60 to 80 per cent of the wages paid to a male worker. The discrimination against women has been prevailing in all its form. In the


agricultural sector this discrimination is largely operated through open wage discrimination.

Grewal (1985) examined the pattern of employment in agriculture for SC women month wise and operation wise, the level and method of payment of wages for SC women operation wise and to highlight the difference in the pattern of employment and wage structure for SC men and women month wise and operation wise in Sangur district of Punjab.

It was observed that contract money wages have taken roots in Punjab agriculture particularly in paddy transplantation and paddy-wheat harvesting. All the respondents showed preference for contract money wages as all members of the family irrespective of age and sex are engaged in farm operations leading to higher wage per worker. Farm workers also preferred to work on kind wages in Paddy-wheat harvesting. Thus the technological breakthrough in agriculture has increased the working days per year of agricultural workers resulting in more earnings for this class.

Mallik, Chowdary and Giri (1985) have examined the extent of variations in female labour used by region, by crop, by operation etc., the self-employed and wage employed female labour and their socio-economic conditions to compare the wage and work output of female labour and male labour, the effect of introduction of mechanical

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thresher on female labour absorption and the impact of increase in production on labour absorption. The study revealed that labour absorption was higher in the IADP district as compared to the non-IADP district. Female labour absorption was much greater in boro paddy than in aman paddy. Among the various operations, female labour was engaged mostly in seed-bed preparation, transplantation and threshing.

In the IADP district, the extent of wage-employed female labour mostly belonged to the landless labour families and SC’s and ST’s. Introduction of mechanical thresher the engagement of female labour has declined to a greater extent as compared to the use of male labour. Paddy production and labour absorption indicated that every tone increase in production of paddy will absorb more female labour than the male labour both in the IADP and non-IADP districts.

**Sharma, Sharma and Sharma (1985)** have emphasized the pattern of labour contribution to the total labour supply by female farm workers as associated with modernization of agriculture and the extent and analyse the pattern of contribution to the total labour supply to the farm sector made by female workers by performing supportive activity of cattle upkeep under various conditions due to agricultural modernization. The results of the study indicated that high and low technologies were compared, then it was noted that high technology reduced female labour absorption on the farm of the total labour supply.

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Nayyar (1987)\textsuperscript{44} examined that using descriptive Cross-state Indian data on female participation rates and agricultural wages for the period 1964-65 to 1974-75, complained about the continuing practice of wage discrimination in Indian agriculture and the limited access of women to agricultural employment, being generally restricted to busy seasons and to certain kinds of farm work.

Erra Gattu Swamy, Venkata Narayana and Linga Murthy (1989)\textsuperscript{45} in their study discussed that working women are engaged as wage labour especially women belonging to socially backward and economically disadvantaged groups like scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and backward classes. Wages for women depending upon their work and caste stratification, wages are low for women compared to men though they do the same type of work with men. Hence there is discrimination between men and women working in agriculture and allied activities.

Rao C.H.H., (1989)\textsuperscript{46} suggested that the observed declining male-female wage differentials across states are possibly due to the introduction of new technology that may have improved the bargaining power of female labour.

The study of Asokan and Pradeepa Choudary (1989)\textsuperscript{47} tries to release female work participation rates at district level in Andhra


Pradesh with several factors such as cropping intensity, female literacy, scheduled caste population, male participation rates, sex ratios, gini ratio and sex index with the help of rank correlation and regression analysis. They came to the conclusions that poverty is the root cause for the female work participation rate in rural areas and they feel that this result should be proved with more disaggregated data.

Chaudhari and Ganorkar (1992) pointed out the farm women who faced some of the difficulties in agricultural activities. Majority of the farm women participated in the activities like storage of produce, uprooting of seedlings, transplanting weeding, sowing, harvesting, picking, threshing, winnowing and cleaning. Besides this farm women played active role in decision-making regarding areas of crops to be sown. Major difficulties of farm women are low compensation. They came to the conclusions that the majority of the farm women faced difficulties even though their contribution to agriculture is high.

Autkar, et al. (1992) examined the impact of the technological factors on the intensity of labour use and its intensities in the farm. The study showed that technological factors like intensity of cropping, proportion of area under hybrid varieties of crops and allocation of area under crops requiring higher male to female labour ratio exhibited a great influence on the intensity of female labour use and two-thirds of human labour work hours in agriculture is done by the female labour.

Bhople and Alka Patki (1992)⁵⁰ studies the role of expectation and role performance and identify the areas where training is required by farm women labour in agriculture. The study revealed that the farm women labour were involved in all types of farm activities but their maximum contribution was in pre-sowing, sowing, manuring, harvesting, and grain storage and marketing operations and the role performance was found to be minimum in respect of land preparation and plant protection. The role of performance of farm women labour coming from poor and backward castes with no formal education was found to be higher than that of others. The training needs were also found to be higher. So as to involve farm women labour in skilled jobs in farming like plant protection, threshing, and grain storage and marketing, and the skill training needs to be imparted to them.

Arene and Kalu (1993)⁵¹ in their paper discussed the agricultural productivity of rural women farmers, and their socio-economic characteristics. They found using trade technology in farm activities are relatively old and less literates productivity to agriculture is more and they are mainly rural wage labourers in Nigeria.

Sri Sankari and Uma (1995)⁵² argued on the position and problems of women in agricultural activities. Women in agriculture spend time seven to eight hours a day in the fields. In some of the agricultural activities they share the work with men. In some aspects women are not employed in any remunerative work. Women are more

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efficient than men in some aspects of employment. But most women lack confidence and lack of skills as their husbands are not interested in sending their wives to venture in such new occupations.

**Haque’s (1998)** paper analyses the regional trends, patterns and determinants of wages of agricultural labourers in India. It also examines the relationship between wage rates and rural poverty in various NSS rounds. Based on the analysis of available state wise, region wise and district wise data, the paper bears out that in the wake of economic liberalisation, there is a declining trend in real wages in many states. Besides, in every state, there are some districts where the wage rates are much lower than the state average wage rates and these districts include high productivity as well as low productivity areas. Improvements in real wage rate is a necessary if not a sufficient condition for enabling the agricultural labour households to cross poverty line. Also wage discrimination against women labourers exists in many places even for similar type of work being performed by men and women. Moreover, the adult-child wage ratios are very high in most parts of the country. In fact, interventions by both government and workers’ organisations would be required for effective implementation of minimum wages and employment guarantee schemes in all these areas.

**Nirmala, Ramesh, Jude Anpazhagan and Subodh (1998)** discussed about differences in wages between men and women in agriculture and there is discrimination against women regarding wages.

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Other causes of low wages between men and women are ill health, education etc. Mainly the females are getting low wages than men even though the same work is done by them. Females are discriminated on the basis of gender both by their employers and Government despite the passage of Minimum Wages Acts and Equal Remuneration Act.

**Linga Murthy and Ashok Kumar (1998)**\(^55\) in their study examine the issue of wage differentials between males and females over a period of 31 years and also at present on the basis of sex, caste and agricultural and non-agricultural operations. Sex-wise and operation-wise wage differentials were found between males and females both during Kharif and Rabi seasons in agricultural and non-agricultural operations. The sex-wise wage differentials have not decreased over a period of 31 years although absolute money wages increased in the case of both males and females.

**Subrahmanyam (1999)**\(^56\) in his article titled “Female labour Absorption in Andhra Pradesh” has written that state has the highest Female Work Participation rate while male work Participation rate decline due to mechanisation introduced along with HYVS. Godavari, Krishna zone have the highest intensity of cropping with high concentration of paddy. The share of female labour in rice cultivation increased from 30 per cent to 47 per cent.

**Bhagirathi Das (2000)**\(^57\) studied women are the major contributions in agriculture Production and they played an important

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role in agriculture such as livestock, rearing, Beekeeping, sericulture, decision-making on farm activities and they are the mostly agricultural labour than cultivators, modern technology in agriculture displaced the women in traditional activities and reduce the demand for female employment in agriculture.

Usha Tuteja (2000) examined the contribution of female workers to family income in the farm households of rural Haryana. The study revealed that female agricultural workers contribute significantly in household income on all farm sizes and their earnings are found most crucial for the landless and small farm households. The proportionate contribution of females declined with increasing farm size. The status of female agricultural workers in decision-making is found to be poor. Female workers belonging to big farm households had a better say as compared to others. Ownership rights in land are almost non-existent for female workers. The assessment of the level of control of female workers over their earnings revealed that women belonging to land owning classes enjoyed the financial power of their earned money to some extent but female workers from small and landless households usually surrendered their earned income to the family pool and they had no freedom to spend their earned money. The female agricultural workers do not enjoy the status commensurate to their involvement in the household as a worker. Female agricultural workers have lacked education, health and other support services and frequently do not have access to economic resources. They are not

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integrated into the mainstream development process in the rural areas despite being the backbone of the village economy.

Padmanabhan (2001)\textsuperscript{59} argued that women are engaged in agriculture and allied activities and their role as landless labour. Migration of male labour leaving women in rural areas and they are the income earners in agriculture in rural areas. To empower rural women in agriculture through effective training and extension services and welfare schemes to improve the working conditions of agricultural women.

Sobha (2001)\textsuperscript{60} pointed out that mainly rural women depending on agriculture. Women belonged to backward classes and their economic position is not good. Caste plays a dominant role to provide employment of women as agricultural labour belonged to lower caste and the upper caste women supervise the work in own farming to other women engaged as wage labour. Socio-economic conditions play a dominant role on women.

Sobha (2001)\textsuperscript{61} in her study conducted in Andhra Pradesh has found that women workers comprise a formidable 88 per cent of the agricultural sector. This figure includes both cultivators and agricultural labourers, which indirectly leads to further depletion of the already scarce resources of the female worker. This in turn has an adverse impact on her health conditions. The main factors which had a bearing on their socio economic status were educational level, income


and debt, number of hours spent in the farm, and distance travelled for work.

**Muguntha Raj and Bharathi (2001)** have examined the factors which determine the active participation of small farm women in agriculture and allied activities in one of the Taluk of Chintamani, Kolar district, Karnataka. The study has revealed that women were fully engaged in some task or other which is directly or indirectly contributed to the family economy. Mechanisation of agriculture, rural development programs and market oriented economy has accelerated the active participation of rural women at home and also in agricultural and allied activities. But her status has not changed either in the family or in the community since she is not economically empowered. The small farmers are not in a position to avail loans from the bank. The greatest tragedy is that none of the rural development programs, except few have so far identified the ‘farm women’ as beneficiaries. The various finance institutions also do not advance loans to them, this trend forces the small farmers to run for the local money lenders for their day-to-day urgent requirements, and this adversely affects the women in the household, since the principles and the interests of loans advanced is collected by the village money lenders from the women in an unethical manner. Most of the times they are made to work for a long time in the money lenders household for less payment or no payment, they are also physically assaulted and sexually abused, forcibly raped, the public and the police also keep silent over the issue. Only in a rare situation it is reported to the press.

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**Dogra (2002)**63 in his article discussed about women a farm worker which is basically in unorganized sector. He pointed out that women farm workers are generally the double victims of class based exploitation and gender based discrimination. Due to their economically precarious condition they generally agree to work at very low wages sheer subsistence. There have been very few movements to resist the injustice. Researcher gave more importance to ‘Disha’, a voluntary organization active in Saharanpur district of Uttar Pradesh, has played a notable role in the mobilization of women farm workers and asserting their equal rights.

**Sobha and Reddy (2003)**64 argued that women’s work is increased in agriculture and allied activities in Andhra Pradesh and the data was collected from two villages on sample basis. The main content in their paper was women belonged to different landholdings (Landless, Marginal, Small, Large) categories and occupational groups, their work force participation rate was very high as compared to men. But there is discrimination of women in terms of employment and wages as compared to men. Women in agriculture must be given equal importance with men even though they are engaged in household activities.

**Bimla, et al., (2003)**65 examined women’s participation in agricultural activities in Kaithal district of Haryana. They observed that involvement of rural women in agricultural activities was to the extent of 73 percent and also drudgery was involved in the activities like

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transplanting, crushing etc. Women, particularly rural women who participate equally with men should be trained in the modern techniques of agriculture.

Satyasundaram (2003)\(^{66}\) in his paper titled “India’s Economy and Rural Women Workers”, discussed about the policies introduced by Government of India towards the women in agriculture and allied activities. Even though polices introduced towards women, they are lagging behind in employment opportunities because lack of education, training and skills but when compared to men, women work load is heavy and they earn low income and there is discrimination towards women particularly in wages.

Padmaja Reddy (2003)\(^{67}\) has stated that Agricultural women participate actively in making decisions in the households and farm activities. The women labourers are with no Productive assets to their own credit, except their labour power. The economic condition of these women is further deteriorated with their men’s addiction to alcohol and smoking. There is a least opportunity of savings, because of continuous famine, drought, and insufficient wages, lack of work during off-season, marriage of children, increasing other inevitable expenditure. This enforces them to raise loans at exorbitant rates of interest.

Saraswathi Raju Iyer (2004)\(^{68}\) studied that women in rural areas are depending on agriculture which is the major unorganized sector in

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India. Rural women in India are classified into four categories namely landless women, near landless women, small peasant women and peasant women. Women are mostly the agricultural labour 50 percent of agricultural operations and allied activities are done by women. Women face a lot of problems in agriculture like women labour displaced by technology, physical strenuous labour, illiteracy etc. Women are the major contributors in agriculture. So, the government of India introduced some schemes towards women to reduce drudgery of the women in agriculture and allied activities.

Saraswathi Raju Iyer (2004)\textsuperscript{69} has observed that women are mostly the agricultural labourers and 50 per cent of agricultural operations and allied activities are being carried out by women. Women face a lot of problems in agriculture like women displaced by technology, physical strenuous labour, and illiteracy being the major drawback etc. Women are the major contributors in agriculture. So, the Government of India introduced some schemes for the upliftment of women to reduce drudgery of the women in agriculture and allied activities.

Jaivir Singh and Meenakshi (2004)\textsuperscript{70} pointed out that changing the nature of women’s work in casual labour market works as daily wage and piece wage rates in agriculture, leads to increase in working hours of both adult and child females, gender-based wage differences are there in spite of same work done by women along with men, males received high wage rates, it also deals with increased presence of women in the agricultural labour force.

Thresia (2004)\textsuperscript{71} pointed out that women agricultural workers are mainly the sufferers and their health spoiled due to lack of access to modern technology and there is discrimination against women as most of them are ill-affected women agricultural workers.

Amaresh Dubey, Veronica Pala and Eugene Thomas (2004)\textsuperscript{72} emphasized that role of education and participation of women in the labour force. The paper showed that as the economic status improves the female labour force participation rate declines. Women work participation rates with increase in education level especially at the primary and secondary levels.

Suchitra Sinha (2005)\textsuperscript{73} examined rural female work participation rates in four districts of West Bengal. The study showed that in the West Bengal female labour force participation is relatively higher in non-agricultural activities. Occupational classification of female workers within West Bengal showed an almost clear dichotomy between districts having high employment of women workers in agricultural and non-agricultural activities, suggested that the absence of opportunities for non-agricultural employment could be a possible cause for low rural female work participation rate in the districts of West Bengal and Institutional biases and a tradition of non-participation in agriculture might thus be reasons contributing to a low rural female work participation rate in the state.


Singh, Anil Kumar and Singh (2005) discussed to work out differences in labour wages paid to male and female agricultural labour at their work place in the rural society from different part of the country. The study revealed that the drudgery of women in overall activities as well as household works was higher than men in all the selected areas. Among men and women in agriculture where men enjoyed with higher wages than women while in case of on farm activities.

Swarna Vepa (2005) argued about the declining economic stake of women in agriculture in spite of their contribution. Women are mainly wage labour they are also as main workers, marginal workers in agriculture, marginalization of the workforce is done by women in rural areas because the males are migrated from low paid agricultural areas because the males are migrated from low paid agricultural areas to high paid agricultural prosperous areas. Due to mechanization also women are replaced and work done by the women is more than the men. Another reason for women is that they don’t migrate to other areas because of family responsibilities and so they are forced to work in agriculture with low paid jobs. In the Southern States especially in rice cultivation, females are agricultural labour than in Northern states.

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Thangamani and Uma Rani (2005) pointed out that women are facing so many problems in agriculture like mechanization has affected women by reducing the demand for employment in peak season. Poor access to financial services, lack of mobility and time, lack of education and lack of incentives, low status and rigid traditional and social norms and heavy work load is carried by women in agriculture. Hence, they are facing so many problems when compared to men.

Jyoti Kachroo (2005) studied on rural farm women’s contributing to family income in Jammu district, argues that despite they are agricultural workers, who contribution significantly in cultivation and dairy income little in wage but overall contribution of females towards family income is very high which always remains unaccountable and therefore, it us suggested that the employment policies for the rural women may be framed.

Thelma Paris, et al. (2005) discussed about the labour out migration of rice farming households and the impact on women’s work burden. Migration of males increased women’s decision making capacity and their contribution to agriculture is high particularly rice farming and also the wages are low who work in another farms but at the same time they are left behind to face several problems in farming because their lack of access to modern seed technology impedes their work.

Misra and Puri (2005) have stated Female agricultural workers are generally forced to work harder and are paid less than their male counter parts. Such bias against female workers exists in most of the dry land areas. At many places, wages paid to female workers are even less than the minimum wages.

Purnamita Dasgupta and Bishwanath Goldar (2006) studied that an inverse relationship between supply of labour and wage rate at low level of wage, especially for women in rural areas. The results showed that supply of female labour from below poverty line households in rural areas is inversely related to wage rate and the number of earning members in the family.

Kajeswari (2006) in her article titled “Technological changes and women’s participation in Agriculture” has quoted, it is to be noted that an ILO study finds that men tend to spend 60 per cent of their income in their home and 40 per cent on themselves, whereas a women spends 90 per cent of their income on her family and only 10 per cent on herself.

Supriya (2006) has observed that women’s share of agricultural wage employment is rising across the Indian sub-continent. Studies examining this process of feminisation tend to be divided along lines of an ideological debate following either the ‘poverty-push’ or the

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79 Misra and Puri (2005)
'demand pull' argument. This debate however has largely ignored the institution of patriarchy. This study revisits the debate with a focus on domestic gender relations. We find that, despite increased labour market participation, women’s household status remains acutely depressed. Women labourers, with access to productive assets, however, are effectively gender relations within and outside the household.

**Talwar Sabanna (2006)**\(^{83}\) has analysed female work force structure in rural India during post-reform period and has found that the share of women in employment compared to their male counterparts has been very small. Even the small amount of women labour force has been accorded discriminatory treatment by the set-up creating socio-economic problems.

**Vanaja Rani (2006)**\(^{84}\) has examined human rights perspective of women and work in organised and unorganised activities. She argues that there is continued considerable discrimination against women primarily because women and girls face a multitude of constraints imposed by society not by law. It has violated the principle of equality of rights and respect for human rights. It is further, analysed that since the beginning of the 1970s, there have been some indications that in the otherwise dismal prospects of employment for women in India, there will be a slight but significant improvement in the case of manufacturing sector.


Rajeswari (2006)\(^85\) analysed technological change and women’s participation in agriculture. She studied the role of women in agricultural activities, impact of technological change and women’s participation in agriculture and wage discrimination between male and female workers. She argued that technology is normally gender neutral and can be utilised by both men and women alike. Wherever women were performing the tasks of sowing and threshing, the impact of introduction of HYV has increased work opportunities for women labour in agriculture.

Pallavi Chavan and Rajshree Bedamatta (2006)\(^86\) in their paper examine the trends in agricultural wages in India from 1964-65 to 1999-2000, using data from Agricultural wages in India and Rural labour Enquiry, after dealing with the limitations of the AWI data. The trends show that there was slowdown in the rate of growth of real daily wages of male and female agricultural labourers in more than half of the districts in the sample during the 1990’s. Earlier, there was a striking rise in the growth of daily real earnings across all states between 1983 and 1987-88. Second, there was a rising trend in the variations in real wages across districts in the 1990’s. Third, the differences between the average wages of male and female agricultural labourers have widened over the years. Fourth, the daily wages of male agricultural labourers exceeded the minimum wage levels in most states, while those of women were below the minimum in most states.


The World Bank (2007)\textsuperscript{87} the international development community has recognized that agriculture is an engine of growth and poverty reduction in countries where it is the main occupation of the poor.

The food price rise would affect the overall food consumption of households, in turn reducing food consumption by women and children. Also, households may spend more on cheaper, high calorie staples and less on foods rich in protein and vitamins, such as meat, fish, dairy, fruit and vegetables, reducing the quality of their diet. This will have significant negative consequences for nutrition.

Bouis et al, (2008)\textsuperscript{88} cites four basic factors supporting this conclusion.

I. Expenditures on non-staple food by poor consumers comprise 40-60\% of total expenditures on food.

II. Demand for food staples (rice, wheat, maize etc., depending on the geographical region and culture) is highly inelastic. Income and price elasticities for food staples in the aggregate are low.

III. In diets, minerals and vitamins are concentrated in non-staple foods; energy is concentrated in staple foods.

Current intakes of vitamins and minerals are already too low, resulting in high prevalence rates of micro-nutrient deficiencies. Modest decrease in current intakes of minerals and vitamins will drive these prevalence rates significantly higher, with severe consequences for the nutritional status of the poor and public health.

Fontana and Natali (2008)\textsuperscript{89} find a marked gender bias in most unpaid work in Tanzania. Women, and in particular women from low-income groups and living in areas with limited facilities, spend long hours on water and fuel collection, food preparation and other domestic and child care activities to compensate for poor infrastructure. Malmberg-Calvo’s (1994) study of household surveys from Ghana, Tanzania and Zambia, shows that women (and daughters) are responsible for about 65 percent of all transport activities in rural households, including travel for firewood, water and transport to the grinding mill.

Mehra, R. and M.H. Rojas. (2008)\textsuperscript{90} women produce 60 to 80 percent of food in most developing countries and half of the world’s food supply. Sometimes the statement is qualified in various ways, specifying that it refers to local food production or a particular geographic region, and it is often phrased poetically: “… in developing countries, between 60 and 80 percent of food crops grow from seeds that are planted by a woman’s hand…”

Suman Chandel, Chandel, Rajiv Dogra and Samsher Sing (2008)\textsuperscript{91} have stated that some efforts have been made in the past decades or so to improve the situation of women in most aspects yet a lot more remains to be tackled. In the state, women continue to carry

\textsuperscript{89} Bouis, Howarth (2008), “Rising Food Prices will Result in Severe Declines in Mineral and Vitamin Intakes of the Poor”, Harvestplus, Washignton, DC IFPRI.
the brunt of an ever-worsening food security situation, particularly at community and household levels. Literature review after 2008 up to 2013 has to be incorporated.

Mohana Kumar (2008)\textsuperscript{92} analyses the situation of agricultural labourers in the crisis-affected districts of Kerala-Wayanad, Idukki and Palakkad. The daily wage rate for male agricultural labourers in Idukki was 47 per cent lower than the state average in 2005-06 and for female agricultural labour it was 37 per cent less. More or less the same difference can be observed in the daily wage rate of agricultural labourers in Wayanad and Palakkad also. The another feels that in these crisis ridden district, where a high proportion of agricultural labourers are there. This discrimination in paying wages leads to the depression agrarian crisis. However, social security measures provide some solace to agriculture labourers.

To sum up, various studies discussed in this chapter carried out by a number of scholars and research institutions have proved that the economic policies of developing countries had limited effects on socio-economic development of female labour in agricultural sector. The studies find that development policies failed to address the basic needs of female labour. Since the female labour belongs poorer section of the society are not organised and do not have political influence, the adverse effects of economic policies fall disproportionately on them. They are playing vital role in agricultural sector. In spite of large number of studies on female agricultural labour, they are confirmed to one or other region. There is no comprehensive study covering all the

regions. The development strategies had their impact differently in different regions. So far there is no comprehensive study on the socio economic conditions of female agricultural labour in Andhra Pradesh. In this context, the present study is important to assess the impact of development strategies on female agricultural labour in Andhra Pradesh. The present study is taken up to bridge the gap.

Thus, the review of literature shows that it is a common phenomenon in rural India that women actively participate in a wide range of farm activities, sharing equal labour with that of men, and play a significant role in nation’s economy. Women are the molder and builder of the country’s economy. Women have been facing troubles and difficulties due to gender discrimination. Almost all the writers agree that women contribute labour equally on far with men, but pitiable they are paid less ways.

Wrangham, R.T. (2009), it is estimated that women provide 85 to 90 percent of the time spent on household food processing and preparation across a wide range of countries. Women are also usually responsible for child care and household chores. Depending on the household structure and size, these tasks may be extremely time intensive. Time-allocation studies have shown that women work significantly more than men if care giving is included in the calculations. Find that girls do significantly more work in household chores and on the farm as compared to boys in Himachal Pradesh, India.

Hertz et al. (2009)\textsuperscript{94} explore the issue of job distribution according to pay in rural areas. They acknowledge that non-agricultural jobs tend to pay on average more than agricultural jobs. Based on this, they define three categories of jobs: (i) low wage jobs, which pay less than the median agricultural wage; (ii) medium wage activities, which pay more than the median agricultural wage, but less than the median non-agricultural wage; and (iii) high wage jobs, which pay more than the median non-agricultural wage.

Hill, R.V. and M. Vigneri. (2009)\textsuperscript{95} the study by concludes that gender differences in marketing are largely explained by the fact that women market smaller quantities of coffee and do not own bicycles. They also find that a major constraint facing women is their relative difficulty in accessing marketing channels that allow added value.

Maertens and Swinnen, (2009)\textsuperscript{96} commercial value chains for high-value products such as fresh fruit, vegetables, flowers and livestock products are growing rapidly to supply urban supermarkets and export markets. The growth of modern value chains and the broader structural transformation of the agricultural sector in many developing countries have major implications for women’s employment, but the impact of these trends for women has received relatively little analytical attention.


Mu and van de Walle (2009) argue that the aggregate transformation of work during China’s rapid economic development is leading to a substantial re-allocation of traditional farm labour among women — the young farming much less and older women much more.

Anríquez, G. (2010), a few time-use surveys have data by activity and these show that in general weeding and harvesting were predominantly female activities. Overall the labour burden of rural women exceeds that of men, and includes a higher proportion of unpaid household responsibilities related to preparing food and collecting fuel and water. The contribution of women to agricultural and food production is significant but it is impossible to verify empirically the share produced by women.

Women’s participation in rural labour markets varies considerably across regions, but invariably women are over represented in unpaid, seasonal and part-time work, and the available evidence suggests that women are often paid less than men, for the same work.

Available data on rural and agricultural feminisation shows that this is not a general trend but mainly a sub-Saharan Africa phenomena, as well as observed in some sectors such as unskilled labour in the fruit, vegetable and cut-flower export sector.

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Thompson, T.P. and J. Sanabria. (2010)\textsuperscript{99} a few of the time use studies present the precise breakdown of time use by farming activity. Five of the studies, covering six cases, have information on five common categories: land preparation, fertilizer application, weeding, harvesting and storage.

All studies with the exception of Bangladesh (where, for rice, women’s time is nearly entirely spent on post-harvest activities) found weeding to be a predominantly female activity, followed by harvesting (in 3 studies) and fertilizer application (2 studies). Women were typically involved in all other activities (except for ploughing) but did not provide a majority of labour.

Viswanathan and Serajuddin (2010)\textsuperscript{100} in India, rising food prices would have an adverse impact on the poor, because (a) the poor have a large share of expenditure on food, and (b) most poor households are not buyers of staple food rather than net sellers.

The impact on poverty would have four damaging effects on the poor, through (a) impaired nutrition status of pregnant and lactating women and of pre-school children, (b) impaired health status of women and children; (c) an increase in child labour and withdrawal of children from school; and (d) the distress sale of productive assets.


Birthal et al., (2011) provide four conclusions from these cropping patterns. 1) small and marginal farmers allocative a larger proportion of their cultivated land to high-value crops like fruits and vegetables. 2) Small and marginal farmers seem to have a comparative advantage in growing vegetables rather than fruits, because of quick returns in vegetables. 3) Small and marginal farmers allocate a larger proportion of land to rice and wheat than other farmers. 4) Small and marginal farmers allocate a smaller proportion of land to pulses and oilseeds.

The income from MGNREGS made a very significant contribution to children’s well-being, through reducing hunger and improving health and education.

Global food prices also have an impact on domestic prices. The G20 discussions of the issue of price volatility and food security concluded that, in the short run, information sharing and transparency in markets should be improved, for better international coordination among governments. Newer financial instruments and risk management tools need to be found to ensure steady prices to producers (G20 2011).

In the long run, agriculture production and productivity must increase in a sustainable manner to match the increasing demand. Investment was recommended in research and development and extension services for better farm management, as a way to significantly

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increase production levels. Most of the G20 members agreed that increasing agriculture production was the key to the control of price volatility (G20 2011).\textsuperscript{103}

Inclusiveness and equity in agriculture can be achieved by increasing agricultural productivity in rainfed and resource poor areas, thereby raising the productivity and income of small and marginal farmer” (Dev and Kadiyala 2011).\textsuperscript{104}

As regards agriculture growth in the state of Andhra Pradesh, it is 6.27 per cent area occupied y small and marginal farmers in the year 2005-06, the percentage is 48. The incidence of rural poverty in 2004-05 is 32.30 per cent. In 2005-06 the percentage of underweight persons is 32.70 during 1999-2000 and 2008-09.\textsuperscript{105}

Ved and Menon (2011)\textsuperscript{106} provide the framework for analysing convergence at the policy level. Convergence in agriculture-nutrition is a new element of policy design in India. The agriculture and food security sectors are mainly oriented toward ensuring availability and access, they deal essentially with production (supply) and livelihoods, although in discussions of food security, nutrition is mentioned.

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2.2 IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

The project initiative is useful to prove whether there is evidence that suggests that technological progress sometimes has a negative impact on women’s employment opportunities. When a new technology is introduced to automate specific manual labour, women may lose their jobs because they are often responsible for the manual duties. For instance, one village irrigated its fields through a bucket system in which women were very active. When the village replaced the manual irrigation system with a tube well irrigation system, women lost their jobs. Many other examples exist where manual tasks such as wheat grinding and weeding are replaced by wheat grinding machines, herbicides and other modern technologies.

The project initiative brings to light the status of women in agriculture. Most female and male main workers are employed in agriculture. Agricultural employment is divided into three categories in the census: cultivators, agricultural labourers, and other agricultural work. Cultivators usually have some right to the land – they or their family own the land or lease it from the government, an institution, or another individual. In addition, cultivators may supervise or direct others. In contrast, agricultural labourers work on another person’s land for monetary wages or in kind compensation. These workers have no right to the land on which they work.

More than half (55 per cent) of female agricultural workers are considered labourers, compared with just one-third of male agricultural workers. This suggests that most female workers are employed in lower-skilled, lower-paid positions, and are not the supervisors or owners of capital. Most female cultivators are members of a family that
owns the land, rather than being the owners themselves (Kishwar and Vanita, 1985). The share of total female agricultural workers who were cultivators increased slightly between 1961 and 1991, from 41 to 43 per cent.

Thus, importance of the study can be explained.

2.3. NEED FOR THE STUDY

Andhra Pradesh is predominantly an agricultural economy. 65 per cent of its population depends upon the vital sector of agriculture. As per the 2001 census, 89 per cent of the labour force depends upon agriculture. Agriculture contributed 24 per cent to gross state domestic product in 1995-96. Vision-2020 document plans for higher growth rate of agriculture, the rate and growth of agriculture is expected to increase from 6.1 per cent during 2000-05 to 6.9 per cent and 2005-10. In this context, a study on women agricultural labourers assumes importance as agricultural labourers are increasingly women. The significant change in the era of globalisation and in the gender composition of agricultural labourer, feminisation of agriculture is a point to be considered.

Agriculture is now the biggest unorganised sector. In this sector, large number of rural women participates very actively. Three-fourths of the Indian agricultural female population are from rural families. They belong to small and marginal farmers and landless agricultural labourers as confirmed by the census of India 2001. It is also true that in India, a significant proportion of the population are below the poverty line and it is a fact that labour force participation will increase with poverty.
A large proportion of rural women are under a pressure to participate in the labour force. These unknown and unacknowledged beings are responsible to keep the economy at a steady pace and helped the nation occupy a significant place in the world.

Research on female participation rate in agriculture, raising proportion of female agricultural labourers, insufficient understanding of the dimensions of women’s role in agriculture, distinction between sex sequential and sex segregated tasks, distinction between outdoor and indoor activities, process of organising the landless labourers, ignored role of women calls for further exploration into the cause of women labour welfare.

2.4 OBJECTIVES

The main objectives of the present study are:

1. To find out the nature and extent of women labour in Agriculture in the selected villages in Six Districts belonging to three geographical regions of Andhra Pradesh.
2. To assess the socio-demographic and economic conditions of working women in Agriculture in the selected areas.
3. To examine the degree of discrimination if any based on gender.
4. To evaluate the working conditions of women labourers in Agriculture in the study areas.
5. To suggest measures to promote gender equality for the all round development of women.
6. To examine the welfare measures, if any, with regard to woman agricultural labourers in Andhra Pradesh.
2.5. HYPOTHESIS

The following hypotheses are listed during the study.

Social Factors:
1) Woman agricultural labourers are from all religions and communities.
2) All of them have their own houses, with drinking water, sanitation, electricity facilities.
3) All of them have ration cards and MGNREGS cards.

Demographic factors:
4) Woman agricultural labourers are from joint families and all are married.
5) All of them have minimum education.
6) They have large families.

Economic Factors:
7) Woman agricultural labourers earn their income only from agricultural activities.
8) They spend their income more on non-food items and less on food items.
9) All of them have debts to repay.
10) A few of them have Bank accounts.
11) They are all members of DWCRA groups.

Other Related factors:
12) All the woman labourers have movable assets.
13) All of them have live stock to generate additional income.
14) None of them have their own lands.
15) All of them are healthy.
Welfare related factors:

16) Many of the agricultural woman labourers availed government sponsored welfare schemes.
17) All of them are being benefited by the Government programmes.
18) Agricultural woman labourers work voluntarily to earn income.
19) Working conditions at work place are quite satisfactory.

2.6 METHODOLOGY

The research is exploratory in nature and so uncontrolled observation method is applied in the process of data collection. The interview method is followed. A pilot study is conducted where in, pilot study schedules are canvassed to select respondents. Then the data collected is analysed. Based on the analysis, the questionnaire is finalised and the data was collected. The area chosen for study is a village. The unit is woman agricultural labourer.

2.6.1 Source of Data

Multi-stage random sampling method is used to select the districts, mandals and villages. Systematic circular stratified random sampling method is used at each stage. 6 districts were selected from three geographical regions viz., Coastal Andhra, Rayalaseema and Telangana of Andhra Pradesh. 12 mandals, two from each district are taken. 24 villages are selected, two from each mandal. The following table shows the names of the districts, mandals, and villages taken for the study.
Table II.1
REGION-WISE DISTRICT, MANDAL AND VILLAGE COMPOSITION OF THE SAMPLE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No</th>
<th>Name of the Region</th>
<th>Code and District Name</th>
<th>Code and Mandal Name</th>
<th>Code and Village Name</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Coastal Andhra</td>
<td>2.VIZIANAGARAM</td>
<td>17.DATTIRAJERU</td>
<td>23.VANDHYAVASI</td>
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<td>46.M.LINGALAVALASA</td>
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<td>34.KOTHAVALASA</td>
<td>14.SUNDARAYYAPET</td>
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<td>28.RELLI</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>East-Godavari</td>
<td>4.EAST-GODAVARI</td>
<td>129.RAJAHMUNDRY (RURAL)</td>
<td>5.MORAMPUDI</td>
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<td>9 RAJAVOLU</td>
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<td>59.SAKHINETIPALLE</td>
<td>4.GUDIMULAKANRIKA</td>
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<td>8.ANTARVEDI</td>
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<td>Prakasam</td>
<td>8.PRAKASAM</td>
<td>28.MADDIPADU</td>
<td>10.VENKATARAJUPALEM</td>
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<td>20.YEDUGUNDLAPADU</td>
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<td>56.SINGARAYAKONDA</td>
<td>4.SOMARAJUPALLI</td>
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<td>8.SANAMPUDI</td>
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<td>Rayales-eema</td>
<td>12.ANANT-APUR</td>
<td>12.RAPTADU</td>
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<td>10.YERRAGUNTA</td>
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<td>63.ROLLA</td>
<td>3.ROLLA</td>
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<td>7.DODEERU</td>
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<td>Medak</td>
<td>17.MEDAK</td>
<td>23.CHEGUNTA</td>
<td>15.ANANTHASAGAR</td>
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<td>29.KASANPALLE</td>
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<td>45.MULUGU</td>
<td>13.DAMARAKUNTA</td>
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<td>27.BANDA MAILARAM</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>Telangana</td>
<td>21.WARANGAL</td>
<td>25.KESAMUDRAM</td>
<td>8.INUGURTHY</td>
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<td>16.ANNARAM</td>
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<td>50.MANGAPET</td>
<td>12.RAMANAKKAPETA</td>
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<td>23.DOMEDA</td>
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</table>

TOTAL 6 12 24

NB: Codes and sequence of names are taken as given in the census of India tables.
2.6.1.1 Primary Data

The unit of study is a women labourer. Out of 24 villages 1200 sample women labourers, 50 from each village, chosen for the collection of primary data. The women labourers are selected on the basis of “Willingness to answer the questions” were taken. The women labourers who are reluctant to answer the questions were left out. Care has been taken to include different communities, working as women agricultural labourers, in order to explain the socio-demographic and economic profile in general and for each community.

Questionnaire containing 264 questions was canvassed to obtain data on socio-demographic and economic status of the agricultural women labourers from 24 villages during the months of April and May 2012.

Information, regarding demography, economic activity of the villages was also collected from the Surpanches of the respective villages. Wage rates, prevailing in the villages, at the time of data collection, were checked from the records of the village revenue officers. Help of school teachers and Anganwadi workers was taken during data collection. Hospitality was arranged to the research scholar by the village elders at free of cost.

2.6.1.2 Secondary Data

The secondary data is obtained from the previous studies such as the International and National Journals of Agricultural institutes, Indian Journal of Labour Economics, articles in various newspapers. Agriculture News and Bulletins from United Nations Agricultural Organisations.
2.6.1.3 Statistical methods

Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) is used throughout the study. The simple statistical methods of data collection, classification of data and tabulation of data are adopted. Statistical averages are employed to explain and analyse data. Each table consists of information and the percentages calculated and are quoted along with the quantitative data. The measures of central tendency like averages, percentages, correlation, regression analysis are used to arrive at conclusions.

2.6.1.4 Description of the study area

Andhra Pradesh location in the merging area of the Deccan plateau and the Coastal plains, the state has got varied physical features. Historically known as the “Rice Bowl of India”.

Andhra Pradesh Climate is generally hot and humid. The major role in determining the climate of the state is played by South-West Monsoons. But the winters in Andhra Pradesh are pleasant. As per the 2011 census, Andhra Pradesh has a total population of 84,665,533: previously it was 76,210,007 in 2001. Out of the total population of Andhra Pradesh, the population of male are 42,509,881 and female are 42,155,652. The population growth was 11.10 percent and the population of the state forms 7.00 percent of India in 2011. The total area of Andhra Pradesh is 275045sq.km with a density of 308 per sq.km.

Agricultural is the most important sector of Andhra Pradesh’s economy. About 70 percent of the population is engaged in agriculture and the state is one of India’s main rice-producing areas. The main crops are rice, maize, millets, pulses, caster, tobacco, cotton, sugarcane, groundnut and bananas. The covered forest area in the state is about 23
percent, and important forest products include teak, eucalyptus, cashew, tamarind, bamboo and soft wood.

Geographically, the state is located in between the longitudes of 77°E and 84°W 40’ N and 22 degrees N. Spread over an area of 2,75,045 sq.km. This is the 4th biggest state in the Indian sub-continent. This state of south India shares its borders with the state of Chhattisgarh, Maharashtra and Orissa towards its north, Karnataka towards its west and Tamil Nadu towards its south. The eastern side of the state is bordered by Bay of Bengal, which is situated on the country’s coastal area, Andhra Pradesh has got a coastline of around 972 km, that makes it possess the 2nd longest in the nation.

2.7. SOME SALIENT CONCEPTS IN AGRICULTURE WOMEN LABOURERS

Concept of work

There are different definitions of work, relevant for qualifying employment, unemployment.

Census Definition

The Census of India recognises production for own consumption in cultivation as economic activity. The term cultivation in the census, covers only growing of certain crops such as cereals, millets, sugarcane etc. Growing of plantation crops, vegetables, flowers and other crops are not included under cultivation. Growing of such crops if done, exclusively for home consumption, is not considered as economic activity in the Census.
Processing of primary commodities for own consumption and own account production of fixed assets are also excluded from the purview of economic activity in the Census. In other words, with the exception of cultivation, the Census does not include the non-market economic activities as work. Consequently persons working for the household in non-market activities would not be ‘workers’.

**NSSO Definition**

The NSSO has defined ‘work’ or ‘gainful activity’ as the activity pursued for pay, profit or family gain or in other words, the activity which adds value to the “rational product.” Normally, it is an activity which results in production of goods and services of exchange. However, all activities in the agricultural sector (Division ‘0’ of the NIC) in which a part or whole of the agricultural production is used for own consumption and does not go for sale are also considered as gainful. In short, work is defined as any market activity and any non-market activity relating to the agricultural sector.\(^{107}\)

Main Workers are those who had worked for the major part of the year are termed as main workers. By major part of the year is meant 6 months (183 days) or more.

Marginal workers are those who had not worked for the major part of the year, i.e., those who had worked for less than six months (183 days) in the year are termed as marginal workers.

**ILO’s Concept**

According to Resolution No.1 of the 13\(^{th}\) International Conference of Labour Statisticians 1982, the economically active population

\(^{107}\) NSSO, New Delhi.
comprises persons of either sex, who furnish the supply of labour for the production of economic goods and services as defined by the United Nations systems of national accounts and balances, during a specified time reference period.

According to these systems, production of economic goods and services includes all production and processing of primary products whether of the market, for barter or for own consumption. The production of all other goods and services for the market and, in the case of households which produce such goods and services of the market, the corresponding production for own consumption.108

2.8. SUMMARY

The chapter consists of review of literature, importance of the study, need for the present study, objectives, hypothesis, methodology, sources of data, primary and secondary data, statistical methods used, description of the study area and concepts of agricultural women labour were dealt elaborately. The forthcoming chapter deals with analysis of the data with respect to socio-demographic and economic profile of sample respondents.

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