CHAPTER FIVE

Women Participation in Tourism Sector

– Trends & Scope
5.1 INTRODUCTION

यत्र नार्त्यु पुज्यन्ते समन्ते तद्व: देवता
(Where women get respect, the Gods live there) prove the importance and status of women in the Indian family, society as well as in the culture.

Devata or devi by definition is one who gives or provides elements for the sustenance and survival of pranees. In Vedic thought, nari is also a devi and in the same bracket as prithvi, surya, agni, chandra etc. Surya gives us praksh or light, agni gives us warmth, chandrama gives us sheetalta. In a similar way, nari gives us progeny. Nari, where she is respected and revered invokes the bounties of devatas for conception and for birth of healthy and sound children.

The ancient Sanskrit literatures show abundant evidence pointing to the fact that women equal to men as regards access to and capacity for the higher knowledge, including the knowledge of the absolute. The Rig-Veda speaks about the Rishikas and Brahnavadinis. e.g. Romasa, Lopmudra, Apata, Kadr, Visvarana and several others mentioned in the various mandala like Ghosha, Juhu, Vagambhirini, Paulomi, Jarita, Sraddha, Kamani, Saranga, Yami, Indrani, Savitri, Nodha {Purvarchhika} akrishanthsha, sikatanivavari (Uttaravchchika) Gnpayana (Mookherji, 1957). From Epic Times women are consider as source of power (‘Shakti’). Kautilya wrote in his ‘Arthshastra’ that women are superior then men double in Feeding, four times in Hospitality and self respect, six times in Entrepreneurship.

In India, the plight of women is no better than their counterparts in other developing countries. Despite the honor and reverence accorded to them as deities in mythology and personified tribute paid to them as in historical monuments, the ground realities remain opposite in a patriarchal society like Indian, there exists the unfounded belief that man is the bread winner of the family and hence the male child gets the best of limited facilities
and resources within the family. The girl child is under constant risk of being aborted through the misuse of modern technology. She is mostly deprived of schooling for sake of taking care of siblings at home. Since she is to be married off soon, investing in her education is a liability. Despite the fact that women are massively involved in almost all sectors of economy, their work and earnings do not count. Their activities as producers of the household are not reflected in National Income Statistics, thus, making their contribution unaccounted for. In an effort to uphold cultural heritage, the past is glamorized and with it, the equality of women and enhancement of their role in development gets inhabited (*Sengupta and Singh, 2001*).

The research shows those women executives are better than men executive in today’s corporate / social world. Women are natural managers or home managers, and have the required Intelligence Quotient (IQ) in respect of the job they perform, but are emotionally and spiritually (values and ethics) high [hence High Emotional Quotient (EQ) Spiritual Quotient (SQ)] as compared to men executives. *Judith Bardwick* mentions in her book *Psychology of Women* that “Girls do not kick and bite (*Judith, 1971*). Their emotions, passions, serving nature, politeness, capacity and capability of learning make them successful”. According to *Chandana Kochhar*, Executive Director of HDFC Bank “what makes a woman successful in the corporate world is that they bring in their emotional, feminine, multi-dimensional selves to the work place”. At present in context of women development the greatest draw back is their low literacy rate (38%) low work participation (28%) and low urban status in society (*Agarwal, 2006*).

### 5.2 WOMEN EMPLOYMENT

The World’s Women 2000 trends and statistics report signify that women are faring no better in the corporate world. For example, in 1999, women accounted for 11 to 12 per cent of corporate officers in the 500 largest corporations in the United States. While women accounted for 12 per cent of the corporate officers of the 560 largest corporations
in Canada in 1999, they occupied only 3 per cent of the highest positions of those corporations. *(ILO report 2000)* In Germany, in 1995, between 1 and 3 per cent of top executives and board directors in the 70,000 largest enterprises were women. While women's share of administrative and managerial workers rose between 1980 and the early 1990s in every region of the world, except Southern Asia, the proportion of women in these positions is still low. For example, women's share at least doubled in sub-Saharan Africa (from 7 to 14 per cent) and in Western Asia (from 4 to 9 per cent). Even in developed regions outside Europe, women's share is only 35 per cent, although it has increased from 16 per cent since 1980.

In 2007, **1.2 billion women** around the world worked, almost 200 million or 18.4 per cent more than ten years ago *(ILO Report 2008)*. But, the number of unemployed women also grew from 70.2 to 81.6 million over the same period and in 2007, women at the global level still had a higher likelihood of being unemployed than men. The female unemployment rate stood at 6.4 per cent compared to the male rate of 5.7 per cent. As for women who do find work, they are often confined to work in the less productive sectors of economies and in status groups that carry higher economic risk and a lesser likelihood of meeting the characteristics that define decent work, including access to social protection, basic rights and a voice at work. Also, as a result of the type of work where women can find employment (in terms of both sector and status), they often earn less than men.

There are some positive trends as well: education levels for women around the world continue to increase and gender gaps for certain labour market indicators are decreasing in many regions. To find which regions are making progress in the economic integration of women and in offering them an equal chance at attaining decent work, this year's Global Employment Trends for Women is organized according to nine regional trends analyses. The information shows clearly that most regions are making progress in
increasing the number of women in decent employment, but that full gender equality in terms of labour market access and conditions of employment has not yet been attained.

Figure 5.1

Employment-to-population ratios, by sex and region, 1997 and 2007

Sources: ILO report 2008

Economic development for women has a lot to do with their ability or inability to participate in labour markets and with the conditions of employment that the women who do manage to find work face. The international community stresses more and more the fact that promoting decent work is the only sustainable way out of poverty. In fact, a new target was recently introduced in the Millennium Development Goals calling for “full and productive employment and decent work for all”. There is also growing recognition that labour markets are the key transmission mechanism through which the benefits of growth can be distributed to the poor and disadvantaged groups. Access to labour markets and, more specifically, to decent employment is thereby crucial in the process towards improving equality between men and women. Decent work for women is also a
precondition for economic development since, in the long run, economies cannot afford to ignore an untapped resource such as that which could be offered by female labour.

Women continue to be an untapped potential in the region of South Asia. Overall labour force participation rates within the region have traditionally been low due to the low rates for women. Compared to 100 men active on labour markets only 42 women participate by either working or looking for work. The low participation is also reflected in the employment-to-population ratios: in 2007, only 3.4 out of 10 women of working-age actually worked (34.1 per cent), and over the last ten years the female employment-to-population ratio slightly decreased. The decrease was led by a considerable downward trend in female youth employment. Fortunately, this is mostly the result of more young women participating in education, although the gender gap in access to education in some countries in the region is still large. If education gaps between men and women persist it could lead to even more constraints for women in the future as they would face discrimination in attaining decent jobs based not just on their sex, but also on their relative lack of skills. In 2007, the employment-to-population ratio for young women was 26.2 per cent compared to 57.2 per cent for young men.

The difficult labour market situation of women compared to men is also reflected in their higher risk of being unemployed if they are economically active. The female unemployment rate in 2007 was 5.8 per cent compared to 4.8 per cent for men. Fortunately, these rates are rather low compared with other regions and the concern that they might increase over time have, so far, not materialized.

The situation in South Asian countries is still different from the rest of Asia, in that their economies strongly depend on agriculture and, therefore, on weather conditions and the demand for agricultural products. The agricultural sector accounts for almost half of total employment (overall, 48 per cent of employment is in the agricultural sector), which is more than in any other region except sub-Saharan Africa. Women’s employment share in
agriculture is much higher than men’s (60.5 per cent in 2007 compared to 42.9 per cent for men). However, no other region in the world has seen as fast a decrease of agricultural employment as South Asia; over the last ten years, the share decreased by 13.6 percentage points for women and 10.6 for men.

Surprisingly, given the large amount of attention paid to outsourcing of services sector jobs to India, it was the industrial sector that saw the biggest increase in its job share in the region: in 1997, 15.3 per cent of all jobs were found in this sector, while in 2007 the share was 21.7 per cent. And in terms of percentage points, the growth of employment in the industry sector was even bigger for women. Their share increased by 7.2 percentage points in comparison with 6.0 percentage points for men. The changes in this sector for both sexes are the most significant of all regions. The industry employment shares now stand at 18.4 per cent for women and 23.0 per cent for men and the male-female gap in this sector is now the second lowest in the world. In contrast, the share of employment in the services sector is growing at a slower pace than in most other regions; it increased by 6.3 percentage points for women and 4.6 percentage points for men between 1997 and 2007.

Figure 5.2

Distribution of female status in employment in South Asia, 2007
(percentage point change from 1997 in parentheses)

Sources: ILO report 2008
The vulnerable employment shares of both men and women remained the highest in the world. And, even though the vulnerable employment share for women decreased by slightly more than for men (3.9 percentage points for women and 2.4 percentage points for men), women continue to carry a higher risk of finding themselves in a vulnerable employment situation: more than 8 out of 10 working women compared to more than 7 out of 10 working men are vulnerable. An interesting development within the vulnerable employment sub-categories is that women are shifting out of contributing family work; however, it appears that the majority move into own-account work and not so much into wage and salaried work. This means that women move from one vulnerable group into another, only slightly increasing their chance for economic independence. For the time being South Asia still has an enormous deficit in decent work; too many people in vulnerable employment situations and still 80 per cent of all working people living with their families in poverty on US$2 a day. But, there are hopeful signs: people are moving out of the agricultural sector to work in more productive sectors, unemployment remains at low levels and productivity growth is leading to levels that may soon be sufficiently high to increase earnings of more workers to above the poverty threshold. But do women profit from these positive trends? Those participating in labour markets do, but all those who remain outside the labour market, and this is the majority of the female population (63.8 per cent), may not benefit directly. Many women in the region continue their dependence on the male breadwinner, are still too often excluded from education systems and are trapped in situations where lack of labour market access does not allow them to move beyond their traditional role.

Without the dynamic contribution of women and the incorporation of women’s perspectives at all levels of decision-making, the goals of equality, development and peace for women and men cannot be achieved. Women, independently and as members and leaders of non-governmental organizations, have structured at the grass roots, national and international levels to press. They have engaged in education programmes to
raise awareness, worked for legislation in these areas and lobbied for new data collection and analysis on topics of concern to women.

A sexual characteristic refers to social difference that is learnt, changeable over a period, and has wide variations within and between cultures. In social and organizational, setup, the variation between man and women were many in sharing the role, responsibilities, opportunity etc., and many a time constrain too. Taking this opportunity, man so far has dominated and discriminated women in respect of responsibilities, status, power, etc. in the same manner business enterprises, commercial organization, organization of other kinds have followed the same logic and marginalized women in terms of wages, position etc. In the last quarter of the past century there were founded change in the quality of life has taken place, many customs have broken down and women feel that they are becoming socially and economically free. Women have come out from the kitchen and their traditional roles and they are venturing into new area of work like tourism, hotels, banking and others services. Attitude of society towards women have changed and women are prepared to become useful members not only for their family but also for the organizations, and work for social and economic welfare of the country.

While some of the progress made by women in this century is easy to document, almost every progressive statement can be balanced by a less positive one. For example, despite the dramatic increases in the enrollment of women in higher education, the proportion of women teaching in higher education in most countries is far lower than men's. Compared to men's, women's levels of literacy are low, and their participation in government institutions and the media are also low. While the entry of women, including married women, into the paid work force is one of the biggest worldwide economic shifts this century, women continue to earn well below the average male wage. Women also have their own job ghettos, their unemployment rates worldwide are rising faster than men's are, and, although this is slowly changing, women remain concentrated in the lower echelons of the work place.
Though equality in the workplace is now established as a principle and policy matter in many countries, women's bureaus and organizations around the world remind us that we have not run short of opportunities to progress. Concepts like "equal pay for equal work", "equal pay for work of equal value" and "affirmative action" (or "positive discrimination") are progressive ideas getting attention in some countries, but they signal what is essentially an attempt to overcome long standing discriminatory attitudes, and often, laws.

5.3. WOMEN DEVELOPMENT PARADIGMS

_Cardine Moser (1989)_ has identified five paradigms towards women's development in Third World countries. The first paradigm related to welfare approach is based on the traditional view of marking the women's role in development or the basis of customary gender division of labour. The second paradigm came into existence during 1975-85, when the decade was declared as the 'Decade of Women'. This approach was aimed at gaining equity and procuring her as an active participant in development process. It further aimed at giving equal opportunities to women even by creating positive discrimination or reservation. The third paradigm was concerned with anti-poverty, directed at poor women to ensure and increase their productivity. This is still being followed under the assumption that women's problems arise out of under-development. The fourth paradigm is related with efficiency which depends on the belief that policies of economic stabilization and adjustment rely on women's economic contribution to development and their economic participation is seen as a mechanism to achieve equity. The fifth paradigm is development model, which envisages greater self-reliance among women their subordination is seen not only as a problem of men but also of colonialism and neocolonialism. This approach focuses on overall development and particularly on enhancing social and economic capabilities. In this task, a number of non-governmental organizations are playing crucial role since government is seeking partnership to ensure sustainable, people's centered and decentralized development and governance. It is also
well accepted that women’s active role in ecological and environmental programmes may ensure sustainable development, since increasing ecological and environmental degradation has caused environmental crisis when women belonging to weaker sections of society are protesting against government policies and programmes which are causing development induced displacement, loss of sustainable livelihood and natural resources.

The present paradigm of development of women is not woman in development but gender and development. The women in development paradigm assumes that women have been left out in development process and hence need to be integrated to give benefit, gender and development paradigm recognizes women’s triple role i.e. in reproduction, production and community management. Therefore, the main objectives of development programmes in this context may be categorized as (i) initiate income generating programmes; (ii) sensitise women about their rights, entitlements and legal framework; and (iii) take up capacity building measures. Gender and development approach stress as the need for gender analysis and identification of strategic gender needs before initiating any appropriate action for empowering women (Reddy, 2003). It is seen that gender inequality retards economic growth. There is growing evidence to suggest that several aspects of gender relations, the gender based division of labour, disparities between males and females in power and resources, and gender biases in rights and entitlements act to undermine economic growth and reduce the well being of men, women and children (Meenai, 2003). It is commonly held that, investments in female education and health tend to increase the incomes of families; educated women who know more about health and hygiene, are also able to practice this knowledge; better educated women are able to adapt newer technologies, hold on to new opportunities, and cope us with economic shocks. Women’s development has come a long way from the earlier welfare orientation. In the welfare approach, women were taken as vulnerable sections of the population, whose situation could be ameliorated; through the provision of support services like health, nutrition and childcare.
The economic self-reliance puts emphasis on income generation projects for women; the equality model put the blame on inequality and promoted affirmative action to promote equal opportunity. The present approach of development looks at unequal gender and power relations and uses concretization, mobilization, solidarity and collective action. The development approach arises from a strong commitment to women's rights and capacity to make their own decisions about development strategies, under the credit for development. The status of women in a complex society like ours is not uniform. Within Indian subcontinent, there have been infinite variations of the status of women, differing according to the cultural milieu, family structure, caste, class, occupation, property rights etc. All these factors are significant determinants of variations in her position in different groups. Scheduled caste women who constitute sizeable population of India is subjected not merely to gender bias, but also to indignities arising out of the age old tradition of untouchables, marginalization and exploitation from which incidentally the entire social group of scheduled Castes suffer. The deep-rooted social discriminations have compelled this section of population to lead a life of bare subsistence level, both in respect of economic terms and human dignity.

5.4. WOMEN DEVELOPMENT IN GOVERNMENT POLICIES

Gender equality and women development are the buzzwords, entrusted with different interpretations to suit varied socio-political perspectives. The rhetoric of gender equity and women's development has acquired an important place in government policy, non-governmental advocacy, media and academic research. The terms, women development and gender equality determine the direction of diverse discourses on women, locally, nationally, and internationally. The action plan, as recommended by International Conference on Population and Development at Cairo (1992) included: (i) establishing mechanism for women's equal participation and equitable representation at all levels of the political process; (ii) promoting the fulfillment of women's potentials through education, skills development and employment, giving paramount importance to the
elimination of poverty, illiteracy and ill-health among women; (iii) eliminating all practices that discriminate amongst women and assisting them to establish and realize their rights; (iv) adopting measures to improve women's ability to earn income beyond traditional occupations, achieve economic self-reliance and ensure their equal access to the labour market and social security systems; (v) eliminating violence against women; (vi) eliminating discriminatory practices by employers against women; (vii) making it possible through laws, regulations and other appropriate measures for women to combine the roles of child-bearing, breast-feeding, and childrearing with participation in the workforce; (vii) strengthening policies and programmes that improve, ensure and broaden the participation of women in all spheres of life as equal partners and improve their access to all resources needed for the full exercise of their fundamental rights. The Beijing Conference (1995) was the first significant milestone in the journey towards ensuring gender equality and women development. The goals of the Conference were; (i) sharing power equally; (ii) obtaining full access to the means of development; (iii) overcoming poverty; (iv) promoting peace and protecting women's rights; (v) inspiring a new generation of women to work together for equality and equity.

Economic development is a necessary condition for enabling women to seek justice and equality. Without economic strength, women cannot be able to exercise their guaranteed rights. It is, therefore, necessary to seek participation of women as equal partners with men in all fields of work, equal access to all positions of employment, equal opportunities for work related training and full protection of women at work place. Economic development of women, including reduction of female poverty require programmes that focus on identifying, developing and promoting alternative approaches to increase women's access to and control over the means of making a living on a sustainable and long term basis (Srivastava, 2001). It necessitates supporting their existing livelihood, widening choices and building capacity to take advantage of new economic opportunities. Its strategies to advocate that the government undertakes legislative measures to speed up women's participation in economic life, including the right of equality in property
ownership and inheritance and access to credit, financial service and assistance in entrepreneurial development. The basic requirements of women's development strategy are;

(i) introduction of special measures to increase the proportion of women involved in decision making;
(ii) establishment of specific training programmes, especially for women living in extreme poverty, to improve their condition;
(iii) creation of equal employment opportunities for educationally, technically and professionally qualified women by dismantling the forbidding walls of silent discrimination in their recruitment and related process;
(iv) encouragement to women's entrepreneurship and other self-reliant activities, particularly in the informal sector;
(v) integration of gender perspective into all economic structuring;
(vi) elimination of all forms of discrimination in employment, including wages and breaking down of gender based occupational segregation;
(vii) initiation of measures to improve working conditions of women in the informal sector, particularly, by encouraging them to organize so that they know their rights and are able to obtain necessary support to exercise them;
(viii) mobilization of banking sector to increase lending on easier terms to women entrepreneurs and producers, especially in the rural areas; and
(ix) Activisation of enforcement machinery to ensure that the interests of women workers are protected, especially in the informal sector where large scale discrimination persists.

As the largest democracy in the world, India has enjoyed the freedom to continuously experiment with a number of forms, structures and modes of organizations to achieve women's equality. During the last six decades, development planning for women straddled theories as disparate as welfare, development, equality, efficiency &
development (Sujaya, 1995). Today, the state has accepted women as active agents, participating in development programmes and schemes & thereby achieving their own Development. The gender dimension on the development approaches at conceptual level came from uncovering several distinct areas of gender bias. Their subordinate status meant development benefits; be it education, health, income, employment did not rest them in same measure as men. All pervasive sexual division of labour that assigned the task of family maintenance and child care to women meant their inability to participation in many activities outside the home, whether social, economic or political (Krishna Raj, 1996). A comprehensive plan for women was formulated by the Department of Women & Child Development, called 'The Perspective Plan for women 1988-2000'. A National Commission for Women was established with a view to ensure women's rights and entitlements. From 19th century, the role of the state in defining and influencing the status of women has informed many struggles for their equality. The state, its policies and programmes continue to be the focus of much of the energies of the women's movement in post independence India as well. From 1970's, the women's movement has tried to establish an autonomous identity for itself and attempted to bring about changes through the process of influencing and pressurizing the state and its structures (Jandhyala, 2001). The trends in planning in India show that in the first Five Year Plan, most of whose members had liberal education and also participated in the national struggle for independence wanted to give women the rights of self centralization to the fullest extent. They laid down very progressive parameters of higher education, the need for women to get employment and to function in a protected labour environment. The Second, Third, Fourth and Fifth plans carried forward on the same strategies. It was only in the mid seventies, in preparation to celebrate the International Women's Year in 1975 that a committee to survey the status of women was set up 1971. From the Sixth Plan onwards, a new exercise in planning stressed on women development and Department of Women & Child Development, GOI was set up in 1985 with a separate minister in-charge. National Commission for Women, a National Creche Fund, a National Credit Fund, a National Women's Fund, Mahila Samridhi Yojana and Indira Mahila Vikas Yojana
were set up. This acted as an effective nodal unit for monitoring activities relating to women's development in various ministries of the government and taken for review and its recommendations. The strategy for women's development has been multi-dimension and multispectral. Although many schemes have been made for women in different ministries and departments, the agencies for executing them have been the same and they give women a certain consideration. Since 1980's, there has been an effort to give women an integrated approach and to provide health, family welfare, and Non-formal education and create awareness of their rights and skill training at the same time. Several states have launched the projects for women development, development and welfare. While formulating the First Five year plan (1951-56), it was envisaged that the programmes under various sectors of development would benefit all sections of the population including SC’s, ST’s, OBC’s and minorities. But, unfortunately, it never happened. Therefore, special programmes under backward classes sector were formulated keeping in view the special requirements of SC’s, ST’s and OBC’s. The second Five year Plan (1956-61) promised to ensure that the benefits of economic development accrue more and more to the relatively less privileged classes of society in order to reduce inequalities. The Third Five Year Plan (1961-66) advocated the principles to establish greater equality of opportunity and to reduce disparity in income and wealth. The Fourth and Fifth Five Year Plan (1969-78) envisaged basic goal as rapid increase in the standard of living of the people through measures, which also promote equality and social justice. In the Eighth Five Year Plan (1992-97) national level apex bodies have been set up to act as catalytic agents in development schemes for employment generation and financing pilot projects. The Ninth Five Year Plan (1997-2002) envisaged the development of socially disadvantaged groups as agents of socio-economic change and development through creating enabling environments conductive for the SC’s, OBC’s and minorities.
5.5 WOMEN'S EMPLOYMENT IN INDIA

After independence, enormous changes have penetrated all segments of Indian society. The 1991 census shows that 23% of the women in the country were working as against 19.6% in 1981. In urban areas women participation as work force has increased 8.31% in 1981 to 9.74% in 1991.

According to the National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO) report on work participation in urban area indicates that work participation rates of women workers have increased in 2004-05, not only in comparison with 1999-2000 when they had fallen sharply, but also in comparison to a decade earlier. Since this is meant to be much more marked in the urban areas, work participation rates have indeed increased and in 2004-05 were at the highest rate of the past 25 years. (The year 1999-2000 now appears to be a significant outlier, and other problems with that data suggest that the long-term trends are confirmed by the most recent data.) Of course, these work participation rates are still low by international standards, and reflect substantial variation across States, with southern States showing generally higher rates.

Figure 5.3

![Graph showing work participation rates of urban females](image)

Sources: Hindu Business line. E. Paper, Tuesday, Feb 06, 2007
There has been an overall decline in casual employment and a general increase in regular work and self-employment. The shift is especially marked in the case of principal activity, with more than 42 per cent of urban women workers now reporting themselves as having a regular job. When subsidiary activities are included, self-employment assumes greater significance, with nearly 48 per cent reporting as self-employed.

In the service sectors, there has been very little increase in female employment in public administration, reflecting the overall constraints on such employment, although employment in education (mainly with private employers) has shown a large increase. However, the biggest singles increase after apparel — and the category of work that is now the single largest for urban India women — has been among those employed in private households. In other words, women working as domestic servants now number more than three million, and account for more than 12 per cent of all women workers in urban India.

The newer activities that are much cited — such as IT and finance — continue to absorb only a tiny proportion of urban women workers, which is why they have not been included in this table. Thus, women workers in all IT-related activities — that is, computer hardware and software as well as IT-enabled services — account for only 0.3 per cent of the urban women workers in this large sample, amounting to an estimated total of 74,000 workers at most.

Similarly, women workers in all financial activities — that is, formal financial intermediation through banks and other institutions, life-insurance and pension activities and other auxiliary financial activities — added up to only 1.4 per cent of the women workers in urban India. So there is clearly a long way to go before the newer sectors — or even traditional but more dynamic exporting sectors such as textiles and garments — can make a dent in transforming labour conditions for urban Indian women.
Table 5.1
Main Sectors of Employment of Urban Women Workers

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<tr>
<th>Sectors</th>
<th>1999-2000</th>
<th>2004-2005</th>
<th>PERCENT CHANGE</th>
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<tr>
<td>Food Products and Beverages</td>
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<td>418593</td>
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<td>1920602</td>
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<td>1600502</td>
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<td>Leather &amp; leather goods</td>
<td>72802</td>
<td>196985</td>
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<td>Chemical and chemical products</td>
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<td>Construction</td>
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<td>Education</td>
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<td>Employment in private house hold</td>
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<td>% of all worker</td>
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<td>All urban women worker</td>
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Source: Hindu Business line. E. Paper, Tuesday, Feb 06, 2007

5.6 TOURISM INDUSTRY & EMPLOYMENT

Tourism has demonstrated its potential for creating jobs and encouraging income-generating activities to benefit local communities in destination areas. The tourism sector definitely provides various entry points for women's employment and opportunities for creating self-employment in small and medium sized income generating activities, thus creating paths towards the elimination of poverty of women and local communities in
developing countries. However, there are a number of conditions under which this potential can be used more effectively. This requires collaboration of all stakeholders - governments and intergovernmental bodies, local government, industry, trade unions, local communities and their different member groups, NGOs, community based tourism initiatives, etc. Increasing the uses of tourism's potential whilst safeguarding the natural environment and cultural heritage and increasing social, economic justice should be the goal of further tourism development.

Tourism has demonstrated its potential for creating jobs and encouraging income-generating activities to benefit local communities in destination areas. The tourism sector definitely provides various entry points for women's employment and opportunities for creating self-employment in small and medium sized income generating activities, thus creating paths towards the elimination of poverty of women and local communities in developing countries. However, there are a number of conditions under which this potential can be used more effectively. This requires collaboration of all stakeholders - governments and intergovernmental bodies, local government, industry, trade unions, local communities and their different member groups, NGOs, community based tourism initiatives, etc. Increasing the use of tourism potential whilst safeguarding the natural environment, cultural heritage and increasing social, economic justice should be the goal of further tourism development.

The tourism industry reflects an enormous economic factor and its wide spread environmental and social impacts have been well documented. Tourism and travel related services account for about 11% of GDP and employ about 200 million people worldwide. They also represent 34% of world service exports (UNESCO courier 1999). Furthermore, given that, there are about 700 million travelers per years, tourism and travel related sectors have become dynamic sources of income and major strategic sector for development in many countries. However integrating women perspectives in to the discussion of tourism is particularly a neglected field of research despite the fact that it is
a major employer of women. It offers various opportunities for independent income generating activities and affects women’s lives in eliminating poverty in the various destination communities. Uplifting of such target groups is the biggest challenge facing the tourism sector of various destinations especially among developing countries.

**Central Statistical Organization** provides data on Indian economic growth; it indicates that the gross domestic product (GDP) was growing at 8.2% in financial year 2003-2004 and service sector notched up a growth of 11.2% against 7% in preceding year. **CII** forecasted that by the year 2020 India could have 40 million arrivals constituting 4% of total world foreign tourist arrival against 04% of the current ratio. Tourism is the second largest net foreign currency earner industry in India. Investment and foreign employments generation ratio is highest in tourism. Rs.1 million investments generate 12.6 jobs in manufacturing industry 44.7 jobs in agriculture industry and 47.5 jobs in tourism industry.

### 5.7 Women's Occupations and Positions in the Tourism Industry

The general picture shows that the tourism industry is a particularly important sector for women (46 % of the workforce are women) as their percentages of employment in most countries are higher than in the workforce in general (34 - 40 % are women). The numbers of women and their percentage of the workforce in tourism vary greatly between countries - from 2 % up to over 80 %. Although there were few obvious regional trends it would appear that in those countries where tourism is a more mature industry woman generally account for around 50 % of the workforce.

The situation in the tourism industry resembles the one in the labour markets in general: There is significant horizontal and vertical gender segregation. Horizontally, women and men are placed in different occupations - women are being employed as waitresses,
chambermaids, cleaners, travel agencies sales persons, flight attendants, etc., whereas men are being employed as barmen, gardeners, construction workers, drivers, pilots, etc. Vertically, the typical "gender pyramid" is prevalent in the tourism sector - lower levels and occupations with few career development opportunities being dominated by women and key managerial positions being dominated by men.

In the broadly defined "service sector" (Anker / ILO 1998), women and men are nearly equally involved in the workforce (44 % women), slightly more than in the global non-agricultural workforce in the 41 countries studied by Anker (about 40 %) and significantly more than in the overall global workforce (34 % - ILO data from 82 countries). Examining the occupations being particularly relevant in the tourism sector, one can see that more than 90 % of people working in catering & lodging, as waitresses, bartenders, maids, babysitters, cleaners, housekeeping helpers, launderers, dry-cleaners, and the like, are women.

Vertical segregation of the labour market in the service and the administrative / managerial sectors reflects the situation in the labour markets in general. Women around the world have achieved higher levels of education than ever before and today represent more than 40 % of the global workforce. Yet their share of management positions remains unacceptably low, with just a tiny proportion succeeding in breaking through the "glass ceiling". There are numerous inter-linked factors which help to maintain gender segregation of the labour market. Among them are gender stereotyping, traditional gender roles and gender identity - women are seen as being suitable for certain occupations and they seem themselves as suitable. In addition, traditional gender roles assign to women the main responsibilities for raising children, caring for the elderly, and doing household work. Thus, women are often forced to choose casual labour, part-time and seasonal employment.
Women are much more likely to be employed on a part time basis than men. Although this allows accommodating various responsibilities plus their work outside the home, it does have significant drawbacks: in many cases lower pay per working hour, fewer advancement opportunities, less formal training, less protection from unemployment, etc. Acknowledging that the problem of gender segregation of labour markets is a general one should not mean that it isn't addressed when discussing tourism. Bringing the necessary changes about requires efforts in all sectors. However, the tourism industry seems to be a particularly good "candidate" for engaging in efforts towards the advancement of women. Due to its size, its rapid growth and its extremely diverse and dynamic nature, the tourism industry has an enormous flexibility. This can enable the industry to develop key initiatives for the advancement of women so that other industries can benefit from initiatives and strategies in the tourism sector as models for their own development. The high percentage of women in the tourism workforce in many countries provides a necessary fundament for the further advancement of women: The "critical mass" is already there.

Community based tourism initiatives, particular of local women's groups and cooperatives can be an accessible and suitable entry point for women into the paid workforce. They seem to generate more long-term motivation than initiatives from outside. There are numerous examples where women and women's groups have started income generating activities on their own. These activities help to create financial independence for local women and challenges them to develop the necessary skills and improve their education, which in turn increase self-esteem and help create more equitable relationships in families and communities.

The seasonal nature of tourism industry creates particularly good conditions for women enabling them to accommodate their various responsibilities. However, women and mothers, particularly in female-headed households, need regular income all year just as traditional households with a male bread-winner.
Gender stereotypes and traditional gender roles are among the most prominent reasons why women and men tend to pursue different occupations and horizontal and vertical segregation of labour markets prevail (Mackie & Hamilton 1993). Gender stereotypes are prevalent in most cultures and rather resemble each other than being culturally specific. Gender stereotypes influence the way we perceive each other and how we see ourselves. Women are perceived as being particularly suited to fill certain positions in tourism; they tend to see themselves as suited and tend to be interested in stereotypical occupations. Thus, women are in fact particularly suited to take on certain jobs, for example involving caring and household-related work and service positions. On the one hand, this serves to perpetuate gender stereotyping and positioning of women accordingly. This is not generally desirable, particularly because most gender stereotypical occupations are lower paid and do not include key managerial positions. On the other hand, the situation allows women to enter the tourism workforce based on their traditional roles and their own confidence to fulfil them. Addressing the issue of gender stereotypes and gender roles is not tourism-specific; rather it seems that the tourism sector is yet another example where traditional stereotypes and roles come into play. However, tourism could play a key role in challenging gender stereotypes.

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) and the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW, 1979), and respective national legislation are the legal and policy basis of addressing human rights and women's rights issues in tourism (Keefe & Wheat 1998). Women can suffer specific discrimination within the tourism sector. They are consistently denied positions of leadership and responsibility within the industry, are concentrated in low skilled and low paid occupations, are being objectified as part of the tourism "package", and they can have their traditional roles perpetuated within an industry that feeds on uncomplicated images. Women will also be among those most adversely affected by negative environmental impacts tourism development - e.g. scarcity of freshwater. Tourism can
violate women's rights, but it can also be used to challenge traditional roles and to empower women, in economic, social, cultural and political terms. Women can find a voice and independence through getting involved in tourism activities - by becoming part of decision-making processes and carving out new roles in their families, homes and within local power structures.

The scandalous realities of sex tourism and trafficking of women are not being addressed here. They do indeed represent a most horrific violation of human rights and dignity. Fighting sex tourism and trafficking needs to be a priority on the agenda of everybody involved in tourism. Raising consumer awareness and introducing effective legal measures, including in the country of tourist origin, are among the crucial strategies.

But there is also a strong case for eliminating less obvious variations of sexual objectification of women working in the tourism industry. Studies have shown that women are expected to dress in an "attractive" manner, to look beautiful (i.e. slim, young, and pretty) and to "play along" with sexual harassment by customers (e.g. Gruetter & Pluess 1996, Griffiths 1999). Stereotypical images of women are in many cases part of the tourism product. Friendly smiling women, fitting certain standards of attractiveness, which seem to be waiting submissively serve the customer's every wish are being portrayed. Women working at destinations as well as indigenous women are being shown in a stereotypical way in tourism brochures and other material.

Women have a vital role in environmental management and development of tourism. Their full participation is therefore essential to achieve sustainable development (Principle 20, Rio Conference on Environment and Development). The central issue of women's development is to enable them to take an equal place with men and to encourage them to participate equally in the development process in order to achieve control over the factor of production. In a research by Dr Lianne Parrett, taking into account their
varying motivations and intentions, women cited a number of common attractions of employment in the tourism sector:

- Vocational orientation
- People-oriented sector
- Flexibility
- Abundance of full time, part time, casual and seasonal employment fits well with outside commitments (childcare, study, etc)
- Fits with skill set and experience
- Varied and interesting work
- Pleasant working atmosphere
- Convenience of local area employment
- Interest in local history & it’s “better than working at Sainsbury’s”

The abundance of full time, part time, seasonal, temporary and casual work available in the tourism sector was cited as a key attraction by many women, but most commonly by mothers of young children, careers, semi-retired women and students. These and other women spoke of deciding to remain in tourism after doing a “quality of life assessment” that often took into account the advantages of workplace flexibility and its positive impact on family life.

Tourism industry seems to be a particularly good ‘contender’ for engaging in efforts towards the advancement of women (Dutta, 2000). In the last few decades, the tourism industry has undergone a period of explosive growth, and as a labour intensive industry, there has consequently been a rapid rate of job creation and development.

The "restaurant, catering and hotel industry" are the largest employers in the tourism industry overall. Gender disaggregated data for the tourism sector was not available for all countries. While data on numbers of women and men working in tourism related
professions (73 countries) are more comprehensive than for the average wage (31 countries) and working hours (39 countries); the availability of this information is still highly limited. Data is not available for many of the Middle Eastern countries, for China and, regarding working hours and wages, for the United States of America. The general picture suggests that the tourism industry seems to be a particularly important sector for women (46 % of the workforce are women) as their percentages of employment in most countries are higher than in the workforce in general (34 - 40 % are women, ILO data). The numbers of women and their percentage of the workforce in tourism vary greatly between countries - from 2 % up to over 80 %. Although there were few obvious regional trends it would appear that in those countries where tourism is a more mature industry woman generally account for around 50 % of the workforce. The latest world tourism employment trend shows that there has been a broad increase in the participation of women for tourism industry at a global level. The majority of this increase in female participation may be driven by the growth in the industry for specific countries, such as Puerto Rico, Chile and Turkey. For the industrially developed countries, there has been little change in the actual participation of women in the tourism industry.

Figure 5.4
Percent of adults who have worked in the restaurant industry

All Adults

By Gender

42%
Males: 40%
Females: 44%

Source: National Restaurant Association, 2003
Regarding the disproportionate relation between women's and men's working hours and their respective wages, there is a divide between the developed world, which employs females on an average weekly wage equivalent to 80% of a male's wage, and the less developed world, where average female wages fall by another 10% to 70% of male wages. However, there are significant variations within these groups. (ILO Report)

5.8 WOMEN AS TOURIST

Women are regarded & occupy a distinct position in Indian Society. This is reflected while travelling in India. Women are given privileges & advantages. These include special coaches/berths in Rail/ Bus Travel & additional queue for tickets/ banks etc. The significant growth in the number of women travelling from the Americas, Europe, Australia, New Zealand, North Asia, South and Southeast Asia, Japan and Chinese Taipei into the major market areas of the Pacific/Asia region indicates that women, as a group, are well positioned financially to impact all sectors of the travel industry.

Female travelers are directly affected by the religious and societal beliefs of the countries they visit. As they make their way around the globe, chances are they'll be called upon to adapt the way they dress or the manner in which they interact with the male population. They might even find that, in some places, it's inappropriate to be outdoors after sundown. The more that woman prepares themselves for these differing attitudes, the richer and safer their travelling experiences will be. Whether the woman is a breast-feeding mother, a busy executive or an older traveler, as a woman they have a unique set of health concerns to contend with on the road. Research Indicates, Seventy percent (70%) of all travel decisions are made by women. A woman hears or reads about a particular destination, trip, airline or cruise and then she begins more extensive research. Eventually it is the woman who books the air, hotel, and tour or land arrangements for herself, her spouse, her family or her boss.
In decades to come, the increasing affluence and growth of the middle class in the rapidly developing countries of Southeast Asia will feed a steady stream of women travelers originating from Japan, Hong Kong, Singapore, South Korea, and Chinese Taipei. There will continue to be an increase in travel by Japanese Office Ladies. Although there is no precise definition of "Office Ladies," the majority of them are young, single, working women. They live at home with their parents until they marry. Most Office Ladies are about 25-30 years old. A large percentage of their income is available for leisure activities, shopping and travel. According to the Tokyo office of PATA (PATA 1997), the total number of Japanese travelers outbound increased 300% in the past ten years. The number of Office Ladies travelling outbound increased 380% in the same period. They represent a significant market. In fact, the incident of businessmen's wives travelling without their spouses in all the Asian areas mentioned above is on the increase.

Women are travelling more and more. They are also travelling more confidently. There are at least four major subdivisions of travelling women. These are:

- **One** increasingly, women are travelling without their spouses or a man. Although many women also vacation with their spouses or significant others, they are taking more trips per year on their own. These additional trips, without a man, are both short trips to visit relatives and friends and also longer domestic or international trips with a female friend or with a tour group.

- **Second** the solo woman traveler represents a growing and influential market segment. Solo women travelers are not loners; they are bold, confident, gutsy adventurers. When they hear the beckoning call to travel, they don't wait for or depend upon a husband, friend or tour. These women travel independently.

- **Third** women-only tours represent another expanding segment of the women's travel market. Twenty years ago the first women-only adventure travel companies were founded. They offered athletic, skill-development opportunities such as
hiking, climbing, rafting or backpacking adventures close to home. Women-only travel is not niche travel—it has entered the mainstream, and

- **Fourth** women experiencing life-style changes represent a lucrative, new group of travelers. Women recently divorced or widowed are no longer staying at home. They are taking off alone, in groups, with their daughters or friends. Many of these women make numerous long trips per year.

The female traveler looks for during her journey:

- **Safety**, the number one concern for a female traveler is safety. This applies to all areas of the travel experience. The concept of safety from a female perspective is defined in two ways. First is physical safety means safety of herself as well his baggage, jewelry money etc. Second is psychological safety, a woman's sense of psychological safety depends upon her feeling "at ease" or comfortable with a group of people (such as the other participants in a tour), with a culture, the religious environment, or in nature Women typically ask: Is this country or destination female-friendly? Is it physically safe for me, as a woman alone, to walk though local markets or at night? Will I be harassed by men, carpet merchants or beggars? What are the threats of mugging, theft or rape? Is the hotel located in a safe neighborhood? Does the hotel room have double locks, a peephole in the door, a phone in the room that works?

- **Comfort** is the second need of female traveler. Most women want to be comfortable when they travel. Of course, the level of comfort each woman needs varies according to her individual level of experience with adventure travel, wilderness trips or travel in developing countries. Some women do not feel "comfortable" unless they have a daily shower (with warm water) and room service.

- **Social Interaction**, women look for connections. Women love the social interaction inherent in group travel. The group dynamics are important. Men are
less interested in the gregarious nature of group travel and are less likely to correspond with fellow travelers after a tour. On the other hand, women who travel together often become close friends. "Roommates for a trip, friends for life." A high priority for women, whether travelling in groups or solo, is to make connections with the local people. "When we travel we pause more to listen, assimilate, to move in and out of the lives of those we meet on the way.

- Women want opportunities to Purchase Local Crafts Indigenous Art during his journey. For almost all women, shopping is an inherent part of the pleasure of traveling—especially if she feels she is getting a bargain or has uncovered a unique, handmade craft representative of the local artistry or culture. Women want to have the time when traveling to buy presents or curios or mementos for family members, work associates, friends, neighbors and themselves.

5.9 SCOPE FOR WOMEN IN TOURISM INDUSTRY

The Role of tourism industry in generation of employment is very significant. Tourism is a labour incentive industry. So number of job seekers can get employment in this industry. Ministry of tourism, Government of India reported that number of people already employed in tourism industry is more than seven million. The number is about 2.4% of total labour force. People directly – indirectly associated with tourism industry are about eleven million. Tourism industry creates employment especially for hoteliers, restaurant owner, guides, local shopkeepers; merchant etc. the remarkable feature of industry is that it employs a large number of both educated and uneducated women. Skilled, semiskilled and unskilled women are employed in this industry. Women, in fact, out number men in hotels, airlines services, travel agencies, handicraft and cultural activities are playing the major role in industry. The estimated employment multiplier figure in the tourism industry is 2.36. It means the direct employment of 100 persons in tourism industry which creates job foe 136 person in other sector of our economy. From
the view point of employment generation, this multiplier is very attractive then other industry multiplier (Thakur).

The effort made by Ministry of tourism and culture in the last few years have had a salutary effect on the Indian tourism. While the foreign tourist arrivals are expected to witness a growth of 78% in 2006 over 2001 (Last five year) growth in the foreign exchange earning is expected to be of the order of 122% during this period. India’s share in world tourism which was 0.37% during 2001 end is likely increase to 0.53% during 2006 (DOT Report 2007). According to statement of tourism minister Smt. Ambika Soni, tourism industry created 3.1 million additional jobs per year directly and indirectly in the last 4 years.

Tourism industry, has the scope of providing job opportunities for skilled, semi skilled and unskilled women. Booming airlines industry at international and national level creates a lot of direct jobs in airlines operation like airhostess, booking clerk, receptionist, and other back office now female commercial pilots etc. Besides this airlines sector also generate indirect jobs for female through their back offices, GSA and PSA too. It generates jobs in both organized and unorganized sector. Hotels, Motels, Resorts, etc are organized sector and Dhabas, way side tea stall etc make jobs in unorganized sector. Accommodation sector also use the skilled, semiskilled and unskilled professional. Travel agency business is another opportunity sector for females. Studies show that women due to their softness and pleasing nature better are better counselors as compared to men.

Unorganized sector of tourism industry provide job opportunity for uneducated, illiterate and rural women. Its also provide self-employment opportunity not only for men but women also. We can seen that the women are selling flower-items, toys, cosmetics, ladies uses items, souvenirs, sweets, garlands, bangles, ring, etc on and around the tourist spots. Either they have their own shops, business or part of their family business. Lot of rural
and uneducated women involved in the manufacturing of this gift items. We can see in Bundelkhand Region in ‘Tara Gram’ a hand made paper unit near Orchha provide a lot of job opportunity for local ladies. In Bheda Ghat near Jabalpur women made and sell soft marble items, same examples are found in Chitrakoot and Chanderi, etc. women not only preserve, promote and popularized their local craft culture, tradition but also they become a earning member of their family.

No doubt that tourism industry provide lot of women empowering opportunity to the society. There are lot social challenges for the women in tourism and hospitality industry. Women trafficking, sexual harassments, gender differences etc are social problem that not only disturb the career life of female employee but they are also at times victimized in the tourism maze and get infected by deadly diseases like HIV/AIDS.

Within the European Union and EFTA countries, the hotel and catering industry has been identified as one of those most at risk of physical violence. Staff may have to work in highly stressful conditions, with frequent contact with inebriated clients and customers. Exposure to violence and sexual harassment is sometimes viewed as being a regular occurrence and a part of the job in the sector. Half of all recorded incidents of violence, e.g. in Norway, happen inside or directly outside hospitality industry establishments and are largely connected with abuse of alcohol or drugs. (ILO Report 1996-2007) Other specific factors of violence in this industry are unusual working hours (night work); persons working alone; general vulnerability of the workforce who tends to be young and transient in the industry, with little experience and little training; a majority of female and a large proportion of migrant workers, some of them belonging to ethnic minorities.

Stress factors in the hospitality industry include an intensive interface with customers; increasing customer demand for highly diversified and personalized services; tight requirements on timely delivery of services, especially in kitchens and restaurants; unclear roles in a customer-dominated environment; and lack of training for supervisors.
These result in low control of employees over their work. The health status of workers in the hospitality industry is worse than that of the average population, especially concerning mental health.

Incidents are reported less frequently than in other industries. Reasons include the prevalence of small and medium-sized enterprises in the sector that have little capacity to support workers exposed to violence and stress; weak social dialogue in the industry; and a general expectation that violence and stress are part of the job in the hospitality industry.

Measures proposed to improve the situation in the hospitality industry are based on empowering employees to better cope with the broad variety of customer demands and work situations, and improving their general level of skills, including personality-related skills needed in this industry.
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