CHAPTER – II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The following literature has been reviewed in this chapter to study the women labourers in the farm economy of Tiruchirappalli district of Tamilnadu

2.1. REVIEW OF LITERATURE RELATED TO STUDY THE CHARACTERISTICS OF THE WOMEN LABOURERS IN THE FARM ECONOMY

Persons (1959)\textsuperscript{1} explained the role of a woman in the family as “impressive” and that of the man as “Instrumental”. The “impressive” role of the family also helps in the stabilization of the adult personalities by relieving them of tensions, which arise because of their performance of the instrumental role.

Bardhan P.K. (1973)\textsuperscript{2} enlightens the increase in the strength of the agricultural labourers is a significant aspect noticed in the 20th Century and several reasons may be ascribed for this increase. The disappearance of cottage and domestic industries, decline of handicrafts and other subsidiary occupations are some of the causes responsible for the decline of the village economy, which, in turn, made a large number of people depend more upon agriculture which is the only alternative occupation available to them. In the absence of other alternatives, people in rural areas, who are generally unskilled? (Continue

\textsuperscript{1} Persons Tadcott, “The social structure of the family in the family its functions and Destiny, “Ashen, R.N.) (Newyork, Harper Roul 1959.

to stick on to agriculture and women are no exception to the phenomenon. The reasons for women sticking on to agriculture may also be the same as in the case of man. Further, factors like large size of the family, pauperism, illiteracy and ignorance to acquire any other job compelled the womenfolk to depend more upon agriculture which does not require any special skill.

But this does not last long, since most people have no land of their own. In the absence of even tiny bits of land to cultivate, they turned into mere labourers employed on wage employment which, as a result of heavy competition, ultimately resulted in underemployment and unemployment in the field of agriculture. Inadequate land is at the root of all these problems of poverty, tenurial insecurity and underemployment.

Oakley (1974)\(^3\) indicates that socialization of the young can be undertaken by the institutions such as the kibbutz other than the family. She strongly feels that gender roles are determined culturally rather than biologically.

Mamoria C.B. (1976)\(^4\) examines the characteristics of agricultural labourers. The nature of Indian agriculture and general landholding pattern is also discussed and the status of women in the overall context of the mode of production is determined. Though the term ‘agricultural labourer’ is extensively used in many studies there is no unanimity in defining the term. It is generally said that an agricultural labourer is one who works on farm for wages. The first agricultural labour Enquiry Committee (1950-51)’ defined the agricultural

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\(^3\) Oakley Ann, House wife London, Allen Dave, 1974, P-257

labourers as those people who are engaged in raising crops on payment of wages. The Second Agricultural Labour Enquiry Committee (1956-57) enlarged the definition of the agricultural labour to include those who are engaged in other agricultural occupations like dairy, poultry, farming and horticulture, etc.

**Jeffrey (1979)** has pointed out that world over women and children at home depend on the labour of the men folk for their subsistence and therefore women are supposed to be marginal in a capitalist society, under this system they are considered consumers and socialites of children and not as wage-earners.

**Shafi (1981)** expresses that, 38 per cent of all agricultural labourers, 20 per cent of cultivators and 29 per cent of all livestock and forestry workers are women. Contributing a fair share of working population, women form part of a valuable human resource that, with appropriate training and education can bring about phenomenal changes in desirable direction. Labour is the prime factor, be it the primary, secondary or tertiary sector. Labour productivity in agriculture has two important aspects. First, it profoundly affects national prosperity, i.e. national income; second, it principally determines the standard of living of the agricultural population. National prosperity in the economic perspective is largely synonymous with the high output per man-hour. Therefore, if a country intends to attain prosperity it needs to encourage technical assistance and improvements to the labour population, which help to increase productivity in the agricultural economy.

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Marothia and Sharma (1985) explain that women’s contribution to the farm sector has largely been ignored and inadequately understood in the Indian context.

Ashok Rudra (1987) expressed that there is contract development. It was expected that labour relations in the developed area as per finding shows that labour relations in the backward areas are more advanced than those in the developed areas. Labour relation was only one part of the study which aimed at comparing different economic aspects of the two rural areas like cultivation, animal Husbandry, rural industries, marketing channels etc, the areas were so chosen as to provide a contrast between a relatively developed rural area and a relatively backward rural area.

In Indian official statistics agricultural labourers are shown as belonging to two kinds. Namely casual or daily labourers and annual or “permanent” farm servants. The economic condition of labourers judged in terms of land possessed, is more in conformity with one’s a priori expectation. 60 per cent of the labourers in memari area are totally landless whereas the proportion is 70 per cent in bank area.

Bina Agarwal (1989) suggested that women in poor rural household are bordered with a significant responsibility for family subsistence and one

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important often the primary and in many female headed households the sale economic providers. However, their ability to fulfill this responsibility is significantly constrained by the limited (and declining) resources and means of their command a constrained that stems not merely from their class position but also farm gender. These gender inequities in access to resources take varying farms intra-family differences in the distribution of basic necessaries women’s systematically disadvantaged position in the labour market their little access to the crucial means of production land, and associated production technology and the growing determination and privatization of the countries common property resources on which the poor in general and women in particularly depend in substantial degree for substance.

**Thippaiah P. and M.Devendra Babu (1990)**\(^{10}\) explains agricultural labours on the other hand, as the name self reflects, belong to the labour class in the agricultural sector without any tangible property of their own. In the literature, an agricultural labourer is defined as “a person without any land other than homestead and deriving more than 50 per cent income from agricultural wages”. To improve their socio-economic conditions liberal financial assistance has been provided under the integrated rural development programme.

**Narayan Prasad Sharma (1990)**\(^{11}\) explains that agricultural labourers in general and bonded agricultural labourers in particular are the lowest

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\(^{10}\) P.Thippaiah and M.Devendra Babu, Impact of IRDP on Agricultural labours: A case study, Kurukshetra, Vol. XXXVIII, no.9, June 1990, p.28.

segment of the class of poor living in abject poverty. An interesting point to be noted here is that wages fixed at the time of agreement were generally higher, the landlords deducted every month a certain amount from the fixed wages for the redemption of the debt and the balance was given as actual wages, which was hardly sufficient to meet their day-to-day expenditure.

Sobha I. (1995)\textsuperscript{12} had pointed out that women constitute at least one third of the country’s economically active population, particularly in the unorganised sector and specifically in the agrarian sector. Low literacy level (40 per cent), skill based and knowledge grounded technologies along with patriarchal social control restrain women’s access to resources which might enable them to equip themselves to meet the challenges and take advantages of the opportunities provided by the new economic policy. Agriculture and related activities are sowing, transplanting, winnowing, harvesting, threshing, milk animal care, poultry care and preparation of the food for labourers. A one hundred per cent of women belonging to lower socio-economic group being landless had to perform all labour intensive activities such as transplanting, weeding, harvesting and winnowing. More than 50 per cent (55 per cent) performed sowing, threshing, involving muscular activity; therefore, women generally were assisted by men in this task. Among the lower middle socio-economic group of the workers, 100 per cent of the respondents performed weeding, harvesting, and also prepared food for the labourers who worked on their farms.

Mukta Mittal (1995)\textsuperscript{13} has reported that women do not undertake economically productive work, where as the bulk of agricultural and farming operations are performed by women but not accounted for the national labour and income accounting because this is not a wage labour.

Genesan and Duraipandian (1999)\textsuperscript{14} examined that women constitute a sizeable section of the rural workforce as cultivators agricultural labours, artisans, or domestic servants. A situational analysis on the status of rural women indicate they occupy a low position in society. In India 81 per cent of the female workers are employed in agriculture, constituting 87 per cent women work force in rural areas and 17.5 per cent in the urban areas, as per the 1991 census.

Rajesh R. and Kombairaju S. (1999)\textsuperscript{15} have noted that economic status of the female labourers remained inferior to their male counterparts in dry farming areas, although the effect of technological change seems to be favourable on both saxes of the agricultural labour force.

Subramanyam S. (1999)\textsuperscript{16} explains that agriculture has become an important issue since it was discussed by Boserup as early as in 1970. Who distinguished between male, female and mixed farming system. The studies focus on female labour absorption in agriculture in the Indian context. The

\textsuperscript{13} Mukta Mittal, “Women power in India, New Delhi, Anmol Publication.
\textsuperscript{14} Dr.S.Ganesan and Dr. R. Duraipandian, “Rural Women Entrepreneurship, Kisan World, Vol.26, No.12, 1999, p.77.
\textsuperscript{16} S.Subramanyam, Female labour absorption in Andhra Pradesh, Agriculture, Indian Journal of Agriculture Economics, vol.54, no.3. July-September, 1999, P-272
increase in the demand for female labour led to rise in the share of casual labour in paddy cultivation. However, his cannot be interpreted as withdrawal of female family labour on prestige considerations after the increase in incomes resulting from increase in yield.

**Sankaran S. (2006)** suggests that a radical redistribution of land to agricultural labour would be a great advance in equality and institutional reform. He argues that India’s promised social and economic revolution failed to materialise. The expansion of education in advanced countries is marked by increasing emphasis on science and technology leading to faster growth and improvements in the level of living. Education is expanding in under-developed countries without adequate progress of science and research. He calls the South Asian Countries “soft” for lack of sufficient social discipline particularly among the ruling classes. He continually emphasises the need of much greater social discipline if industrialisation is to be achieved in the foreseeable future.

**Bhalla G.S. and Gurmail Singh (2001)** say that the importance of agriculture in Indian Economy has been unaffected despite a steep fall in its contribution to state domestic product during the last 50 years. The pace and pattern of agriculture growth assumes prominence since growth of employment and (reduction of) rural poverty is interlinked with the former. The classification of states based on the growth of male agriculture workers (MAW) productivity reveals that in 80s the impact of agriculture development was more pronounced and widespread.

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Sobha (2001) has suggested that the women constitute at least one third of the earning economically active population, particularly in the unorganized sector. Low literacy levels (40 per cent) skill based and knowledge grounded technologies along with social control restrain women access to resources which might enable them to equip themselves to meet the challenges and take advantage of the opportunities provided by the new economic policy.

Shaik Alauddin. A (2002) explains that the agricultural sector provides livelihood to about 64 per cent of the labour force, contributes nearly 26 per cent of gross domestic product and accounts for about 18 per cent of the total value of country’s exports. As the new century dawns upon us, we have to understand the shifting paradigms and think in terms of the changing contemporary science and the development taking place in world economy in the aftermath of WTO agreements.

Sudher Jmulji (2003) explains that the agriculture has a pool of potential surplus manpower that can be redirected elsewhere and incentive have been proposed to guard agricultural labour in to industry. But few have argued that the thrust should be to reorganize agriculture and that economic forces will divert surplus labour in the most profitable direction, whether industries or services. What is proposed here is a large, even if possibly wasteful, investment in agriculture for the purpose particularly of bringing arid land under cultivation.

Padma (2004) in the article explored that the nine sectors where 90 per cent of Indian women work in agriculture, livestock, textiles and textile products, beverage and tobacco, food products, construction, petty retail trade, education and research and domestic services. The number of women working in agriculture in the years 1999-2000 was 7,91,30,000 which accounted for 64.3 per cent of the workforce. Next come livestock, which accounted for nine per cent of the workforce. The domestic services sector employed 3.2 per cent, retail trade 3.4 per cent, textiles and textile products 2.8 per cent and beverage and tobacco industry 3.0 per cent of the workforce in the same period.

N.I. Mulla, B.C. Banue and Krishnamurthy (2005), elucidates that agriculture happens to be the main occupation of the rural population as it provides livelihood to about 64 per cent of labour force and contributes nearly 25 per cent to GDP and shares 18 per cent in total value exports. The committee on labour welfare (1969) defined, agricultural labour as one whose primary means of livelihood is income arising out of farm labour and allied activities. According to the data of census of Indian (1991) the number of agricultural laboures increased from 27.3 million in 1951 to 74.6 million 1991.39.

Radhakrishna, R (2005) explains that poverty does not mean just scarcity of financial resources, but has larger connotations like rights denied,
opportunities curtailed and voices silenced (CARE, 2005) [1]. The patriarchal society of India has put a check on women’s potential, capabilities as well as self-confidence just because of their financial dependence on men folk. There emerges the need of financial inclusion for women empowerment. Financial inclusion is “the process of ensuring access to appropriate financial products and services needed by vulnerable groups such as weaker section and low income groups at an affordable cost in a fair and transparent manner by mainstream institutional players.”

Baijnath Singh (2006)25 explains that the women from the landless households hire out their personal labour on the fields, sweating lower wages to supplement household earnings. Women belonging to small and marginal farm households, work not only on their own uneconomical fields but supplement family earnings by working on others field too. In agriculture sector women have performed most of the backbone breaking work.

Sarah Razack and Pradeep Kumar P.C. (2014)26 analysed that Agriculture is an indispensable part of Indian economy. The direct contribution of agricultural sector to the national economy is reflected by its share in total GDP, total employment and so on. It still remains the most acceptable fact that agriculture continues to play an important role in the socio-economic

development of the country. Women are an inseparable part of Indian economy in general and Indian agriculture in particular. Hence this paper systematically tries to analyze the socio-economic conditions and contribution of agricultural working women to socio-economic development.

The study has been confined to two villages namely, Kurki and Hirethogleri geographically placed in Davangere district of Karnataka state. Agriculture is the dominant occupation of the people in the villages and the lands are irrigated lands based on canal irrigation. In order to accomplish the objectives, the study has made use of primary data collected through field survey. A well structured questionnaire has been used to collect the necessary information about the crucial parameters of the study. The results of the study have been illustrated using tables and graphs. The study is showing the educational status of the respondents in both the villages. In Hirethogleri village, more women are illiterate compared to Kurki village. There are 10 women who are signature literate in Hirethogleri village compared 7 in Kurki village. Only 6 women have studied up to primary school in Hirethogleri village and the number is more in Kurki village, 14 and 2 women have studied up to High school in Hirethogleri village and 4 of them in Kurki village. The number of women who have reached the level of Pre-university and Degree is also very few.

Singh and Vinay (2012) discussed in their working paper about the significance of female labour in agriculture and allied activities. They further

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stated that the role of women in agriculture as female labour is not highlighted in India. Despite their presence in activities of sowing, transplanting and post-harvest operations they are considered an invisible workers.

**Padun et al., (2013)** explains that majority of Indians work in agricultural sector. Most of female and male workers are employed in agricultural sector. India is a rural based country and 80 per cent of all working women are working as agricultural labours. Agricultural labours work in other’s land for monetary wages or in kind compensation. This suggests that most female workers are employed in lower skilled, low paid position and are not the supervisors on owner of capital. According to 1991 report of the census commissioner, there has been a remarkable increase in the number of women getting out the four walls of the household and becoming workers in both cities and villages. By the end of 19th century a sizable number of educated Indian women entered for the first time in the field of salaried profession. By the end of 19th century, mainly two professions attracted women namely- (i) Medical and (ii) Teaching profession. In course of time, women entered other professional field to work as clerks, accountant, receptionist, typist, nurses, advocates, bank employees, telephonic operators, personal assistants, drivers and so on. Now in rural areas self help groups play a vital role in the economic upliftment of rural women. In Indian culture, since the very early period women have been dominated by men and their status has been low in the

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family and society. Women are not taken seriously in obtaining opinions, not treated as equal to men and not given due respect. Generally, a man commands power over women, though in a few cases, women also might exercise control over a man.

Women in rural India play dual role - producers of goods and services as well as their domestic chores as wives and mothers, yet their contribution to economic development has been neglected. Women’s ‘Double Burden’ includes the invisible uncounted work of managing the house, child bearing and rearing, feeding the family, cleaning, organizing, maintaining the health and wealth of the family, serving and satisfying the needs of the husband. Women plough fields and harvest crops, while working on farms, women weave and make handicraft, while working in house-hold industries, women sale food and gather wood while working in the informal sectors. Since Indian culture hinders women’s access to job’s in stores, factories and the public sector, the informal sector is particularly important for women. Once, women may be involved in undocumented or disguised work in the formal labour force. There are estimates that over 90 per cent of women are involved in the informal sector and not included in official statistics. (The world Bank 1991)

Discrimination hasn’t gone away but, where it exists, it is losing its ability to demoralize and demotivate women. Serious gaps persist related to discrimination against women in the work place. There is also discrimination in wages of women. Evidenced even when the job description, skills and have
estimated that female agricultural labour owner were unusually paid 40 per cent to 60 per cent of the female wage. The informal sector includes jobs such as domestic servant, small traders, artesian or field labourer or a family farmer. Most of these jobs are unskilled and low paid and don’t provide benefits to the women, violence against women and sexual harassment persist in the work place. As in many other countries working women of Indian society face various discrimination including sexual harassment.

**Archana Chaudhary (2015)** explains the present investigation attempt to highlight the decision making pattern of farm families in rural area of Uttar Pradesh. The analysis of data collected from 80 farm households indicates that the participation of rural women was of a supportive nature in the decision making process except in case of the decision related to households. Their participation in decision making was observed to be joint with their male counterparts. For data collection interview schedule, field observation and cross questioning were farmed. Finding revealed that majority of rural women respondents were middle age women in the age group between 31 to 40 years (55 per cent). Most of the respondents 52.50 per cent were from general caste. Majority of respondents were 81.25 per cent from nuclear family and main occupation were agriculture 57.50 per cent. A large majority of seventy five rural women respondents were making decision for cooking food and purchase grocery (75.50 per cent). Majority of rural women participated in the decision

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making process for vaccination of children (61.25), participation of social and religious function (52.50 per cent). It is also revealed that only 6.25 per cent rural women respondents were in for sale and purchase of property and 16.25 per cent taken decision for income generating. Decision about seed and fertilizers and harvesting crop were taking by their husband majority of these case the husband were decision maker.

Mahmood Hamid Umar (2011)\textsuperscript{30} has examined the socio-economic characteristics of women farmers in Girei Local Government Area of Adamawa State, Nigeria and how these characteristics affect food security in the area. A structured questionnaire was used to obtain primary data from 200 women involved in agriculture or agricultural related activities from the area. The study revealed that women are more involved in agriculture than the male and the males have more access to factors of production, use of technology, extension services, and access to credit services, education and farm inputs than the female. These inequalities affect the production levels of the women in agriculture making farming business not profitable to them. A gross margin analysis revealed that average gross revenue per farmer is 7000.00. A cursory view at the literature revealed that in developing countries, women contribute significantly to agricultural production particularly in food production, processing and storage. It is however, uncovered that in spite of their enormous contributions to agricultural production, their work remains unrecognized, uncounted and

unsupported. The research concluded by stating that for an assured food security in the area and Nigeria as a whole, those factors affecting the contribution of women farmers to agriculture must be addressed by policy makers.30

2.2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE RELATED TO FIND OUT THE NATURE OF WORK AND EMPLOYMENT CONDITIONS OF WOMEN LABOURS IN FARM ECONOMY

Majumdar and madan (1956)31 have explained that status of women in all types of societies, but particularly on the patriarchal is determined by various types of labours that are attended to by women generally.

Sankaran, S. (1970)32 explains that agriculture being a hereditary and caste occupation, the sentimentality attached towards agricultural work makes women agricultural labourers still work in the fields. In such a situation the women agricultural labourers take agricultural work in the lighter sense and hence bestow less effort and attention in doing agricultural work. This might be the possible reason for noticing more per cent under low efficiency in the overall level and in majority of the labour efficiency dimensions. It has been reported that in general, Indian labour is not much efficient intrinsically and many internal factors are responsible for their low efficiency.

Sharma and Singh (1970)33 have reported that farm women participate in farm operations such as a seed storage, winnowing, core of animals,

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harvesting, weeding, sowing, applying manure and using implements in the above order. The author also indicates that in the majority of the cases husband and wife together take decision on. Care of animals selecting seed and at the time of selling farm produce.

**Dhillon (1980)**\(^3\) The rural women’s role in decision making has revealed that in overall analysis of the decision making on the farm management, women indicate that in 27.7 per cent case the decisions are taken on joint basis of these in 15 per cent. They enjoyed equal say as their husband, while in 19.9 per cent 13.7 per cent and 5.7 per cent hold rank of the second and third order of importance of the family respectively. This reveals that the rural women are increasingly participating in taking decisions.

**R.S. Dhillwal and S.S. Grewal (1981)**\(^4\) explains the basis of employment, of agricultural labourers. They divisible into (i) attached or permanent labourers and (ii) casual labourers. The attached labourers were employed on the basis of employment contracts – oral or written, which were generally of one year. The casual labourers were free to engage themselves indifferent types of wage employment on daily basis.

The new technology in agriculture in the state of Punjab has improved the economic lot of all classes of people, including that of agricultural labour. The available evidence shows that the new technology has dampened the

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fluctuations in the seasonal pattern of wages and also lengthened the period of hike in wage rates. Some diversification in sources of income is also coming up. Agricultural labourers are rearing cattle and performing non-farm jobs to increase their income. Although the increase in wages of agricultural labourers and diversification of their occupational structure during recent years gives an idea about the betterment of economic lot of the labouring class, this does not depict the total picture. The sources of employment, its durations and magnitude and income from self and off-farm employment are matters that need to be probed. This article is an attempt in this direction and studies the local landless agricultural labour in Punjab state. Specially, it aims at assessing the income of agricultural labour households from various sources at a point of time and working out the extent of employment of agricultural labour and seasonality in its employment pattern.

**Dandekar (1982)**\(^{36}\) explains a full integration of women in economic development, women must enter the ‘Labour force’ on an equal footing with men, that the participation of women in the labour force lags far behind that of men is well known. We can cite some data to illustrate the dimensions and the nature of the problem. 1971 Agricultural labour men 31.698 million and women 15.796 million. 1971 census of India 1971, 49.83 women per 100 men in agricultural labour.

J.S Sisodia (1985)\(^{37}\) explains the role of farm women in agriculture, the tending of farm animals and saving farmyard waste for use either as fuel or manure have all been predominantly women’s occupation. Thus they have provided much of the unpaid family labour in agriculture.

Panghal B.S. and Mange Ram (1985)\(^{38}\) have revealed that as the size of farm increased the participation of women labour also increased. It varied from 20.67 per cent on small farms to 40.91 per cent on large farms in zone land from 20.24 to 37.70 per cent in zone. However in zone, it was almost the same on all size of farms. The increasing trend of women labour participation with the increasing size of the farm. More is the amount of hired women labour. The highest participation of women labour was found in performing the harvesting, picking operators on all size of farms.

Dr. Singh and Bhati J.P. (1985)\(^{39}\) have attempted to examine the role of women in the agricultural economy. The study revealed that among the farm workers the participation of females was higher than males. The level of illiteracy was higher among females as compared to males. Among the literature females of working age group, the majority was educated up to the primary only. On average, each female of working age group, the majority was educated up to the primary only. On average, each female worker devoted 4.2


hours of work per day on marginal farms 4.1 hours on small farmers and 3.6 hours on medium size of farmers. About two thirds of their time was utilized for tending of cattle and one third for crop production activities. In addition to this, women devote considerable time in household chores.

**Chatterjee (1985)** has examined that landless agricultural women labour has found out that female agricultural labourers in this country are mostly casual workers as they have the responsibility of looking after their households. The employment of women in agriculture is mostly due to necessity of household economy and the need for supplementing meager family income. Labour force participation receives special attention as agriculture is still a mainstay of the majority of the people, from the beginning a low level of participation of women labour in total labour force, emerged as the sticking features about women’s involvement in agriculture. Considering per capita income assets per households, structure of employment sex ratio, average size of households and literacy level, as explanatory variables.

**J.S. Sisodia (1985)** explains that women played a provital role in our agriculture. They have not only attended to various fields operations like transplanting of rice, weeding of crops and scaring birds but have also been practically in complete change of many harvest and post-harvest like harvesting, threshing, winnowing and storage. The tending of farm animals and saving from yard refuse either as fuel or measure have all been pre-dominantly

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women’s occupation. Thus, they have provided much of the unpaid family in agriculture. The role of farmwomen in agriculture can be classified as follows:

(a) Contributor of labour in agricultural productions.

(b) Responsible for the management of cattle and other farm animals food grains and processing marketing.

(c) Decision-maker.

Gupta et al. (1987)\(^{42}\) have revealed that the women’s contribution was generally found more in two fields-household activities and in agricultural labour. It was an indirect contribution of economic activity in the society that has not been counted since time immemorial.

Agarwal (1988)\(^ {43}\) has observed that the role of educated working women is changing fast but their status is not changing at the same rate. Limited control on wealth has been found related to her low status in the family. The traditional attitude towards women and their participation in the development process particularly in a rural community on rural areas women are important productive resource. The prevailing extended family pattern proves to be quite conducive for women to perform both productive as well as motherly roles.

Anandalakshmi and Sawhney (1988)\(^ {44}\) have concluded that women play a prominent role in crop cultivation, post-harvesting operations, food

management, and management of milch cattle and milk products. All women in rural areas irrespective of their age, size of their family size of the land holding, caste and community, perform major agricultural tasks, women of landless labour families are the poorest bearing a heavy burden of work in cultivation and performing even the task of land preparation, along with all other task.

Debal K. Singharoy (1989)\textsuperscript{45} explains that the female agricultural workers are absolutely from the lowest section of the agrarian class. The females agricultural labourers are however, pre dominantly from landless and semi-land less households. Majority of the female workers work in the field primarily as agricultural labourers and a section of them as agricultural labourers cum household far workers.

Sri Sankari and Uma K. (1990)\textsuperscript{46} pointed out that, 74 per cent of the entire female working force were engaged in agricultural operations, 28 per cent as cultivators and 46 per cent as agricultural labour. About 60 per cent of agricultural operations like transplantation of saplings, winnowing, moorage of grain, etc are handled almost exclusively by women while in all other jobs except ploughing the fields and in some areas, sowing of the seed, they share the work with men. During peak of agricultural operations specially at harvesting fine, women of farm families work on an average seven to eight hours a day in the fields. This is besides their routine duties of cooking, cleaning, etc.,


\textsuperscript{46} Sri Sankari and Uma K. ‘Women participation in agriculture’, Kurusethra, Vol. XLIII, No. 11, August 1990, p P-103-104.
Manjit Singh (1991)\textsuperscript{47} explains that Capitalism grows out of disparities and in the process of its expanded reproduction. In India, women play an important role in agriculture. In most part of the country the jobs done traditionally by women are generally those of transplanting, sowing, weeding, harvesting, winnowing and threshing. The fact that the proportion of women wage labourers is much higher than that of men.

Satnamkar (1991)\textsuperscript{48}, explains that agriculture constitutes the main source of main area of work for most people in the developing countries. Most of the countries are at the early stage of development, where the majority of women are employed in agriculture. In India, women play an important role in agriculture. In most part of the country the jobs done traditionally by women are generally those of transplanting, sowing, weeding harvesting, winnowing and threshing. The fact that the proportion of women wage labourers is much higher than that of men.

Chandhari M.D. and Ganorkar P.L. (1992)\textsuperscript{49}, the usual manual activities to be carried out by them under different heads.

(i) **Land preparation:**

(a) Stable collection

(b) Land levelling

(c) Application of manures

(d) Clearing of field boundaries.


(ii) **Sowing**

(a) Cleaning of seeds

(b) Selection and treatment of seeds

(c) Sowing operations

(iii) **Intercultural activities**

(a) Irrigation

(b) Thinning and gap filling

(c) Weeding

(d) Watching standing crops

(e) Application of fertilizers

(f) Spraying

(g) Dusting

(iv) **Harvesting**

(a) Reaping the crops

(b) Collection and to heap crops

(c) Threshing grains

(d) Winnowing operations

(e) Drying and cleaning grains

(f) Storage and treatment to grains and seeds

(v) **Allied agricultural activities**

(a) Milking the milch animals

(b) Preparing cattle feeds and feeding the animals
(c) Cleaning animals and cattle shed
(d) Taking care of sick animals
(e) Arrangement of drinking water for animals
(f) Collecting fodder for animals
(g) Supervision of farm labourer’s work
(h) Working in kitchen garden
(i) Maintaining poultry birds
(j) Calf rearing and care
(k) Female labour management and their payment.

Under the first category of land preparation, seed cleaning operations involved 89 per cent farm women and actual sowing was done by 82 per cent farm women.

Sen (1993) reveals that any intervention for improving the conditions of women involved in agricultural activities should begin with an understanding of their role profile in terms of various agricultural and related activities.

C. Jayanthi (1995) explains that one of the major reasons for the increased participation of women in agricultural work seems to be migration of men to urban areas in search work of will which requires more skills. There is also the continued lack of recognition in certain pockets of the country of women’s contribution to agriculture due to the cultural “viel”, that persists and devalues women’s unpaid activity.

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Widge M.K. (1995) were broadly, classified the agricultural labourers activities. That is, 1. Paid labourers, 2. Cultivators - doing labour in their own land as unpaid workers, 3. Managers of certain aspects of agricultural production by way of labour supervision, participating in post-harvesting, were processing etc. The male cultivators have increased in the country by 11.67 per cent from 7.67 crore in 1981 to 8.56 crore in 1991. The female cultivators, however, increased at a much faster rate of 45.23 per cent from 1.48 crore in 1981 to 215 crore in 1991. The number of male agricultural labourers increased by 31.18 per cent from 347 crore in 1981 to 4.55 crore in 1991. Female agricultural labourers increased by a slightly higher percentage of 36.15 from 2.08 crore in 1981 to 2.82 crore in 1991.

Hansa V.S. and Dhillon D.S. (1995) have reported that women have equal contribution to make in every sphere as cultivators, Agricultural labourers or house wives they constitute a sizable section of rural work force.

Vaidyanathan A. (1996) observed a strong positive relation between unemployment and the proportion of non-agricultural workers across states and attributed this to an imbalance between demand and supply of labour. His conclusion that rural non-agricultural activities may have become the new residual sector was however moderated by the findings that the ratio of non-agricultural sector to agricultural wage rates was not universally related to the unemployment rate.

J.V. Meenachi (1999)\textsuperscript{55} explains the decrease in the size of operational holding on an average changes in cropping pattern towards crops which are more intensive in the use of female labour. The withdrawals of children from agricultural labour necessitating a higher participation by women, a higher aggregate labour demand of new technology were some of the possible factors discussed. It was also noted that the increased labour demand for women was perhaps not an all India phenomenon. The N.S.S. Statistics suggest that the work force participation rates for women have been fairly volatile over time.

Bastidas (1999)\textsuperscript{56} found that women’s participation in agriculture was higher in female-headed households. In households where the couple had small children women’s participation in agriculture was limited due to family obligations. Where the couple had no small children women preferred to engage in other activities where they could control their income. He also found that women with rural background are more likely to participate in agricultural activities than those with an urban background.

Sharma Brij Bala and H.R. Sharma (1999)\textsuperscript{57} explain that in the cultivation of major crops and livestock rearing the contribution of female labour to total labour requirements was more than half except for marketing operations. In the case of livestock enterprise also the contribution of female


\textsuperscript{57} Sharma Brij Bala and H.R.Sharma, contribution of female labour to farm income: A study of tribal areas of Himachal Pradesh, Indian journal of agriculture economics, Vol.54, No.3, July-September, 1999, P-305.
labour was around 70 per cent for indoor activities where as in the case of market oriented operations, the contribution of male labour was important.

Thamarajakshi R. (1999)\(^{58}\) has explained real wage of agricultural labourers and poverty. There has also been an increase in the proportion of casual labour mainly at the cost of the self employed of the work force; about 34 per cent of rural males and 46 per cent of rural female are casual workers. While this has been accompanied by a rise in the real wage earning this is a continuation of the uptrend that started in the eighties and the rise in the six year period of 1987-94 was only 5.9. Besides the absolute levels of rural wages in 1993-94 were lower than the minimum levels to assure a reasonable level of living let alone a reasonable level of social security for the agricultural labourers.

Debdult Berora, Dibaker Naik and Diptimay II Jena (1999)\(^{59}\) have suggested that farm women are found to engage themselves livestock management. Almost all women took active part in decision making of implement farm Operation besides controlling day to day family budget and marketing of farm produce. Women were willing to cultivate more crops on availability of irrigation and more interested to earn more income even by providing more labour as casual workers.

\(^{58}\) R.Thamarajakshi, Agriculture Economic, vol.xxxiv, No.3, August, 1999, P-2293

\(^{59}\) Debdult Berora, Dibaker Naik and Diptimayee Jene, "Role of Women in traditional farming Indian" Journal of Agricultural Economics, Vol.54, No.3, July-September 1999, P-306.
Bharathi and A-chandran, (2000)\textsuperscript{60} explains that in 1971 there were 27.63 million rural workers and 3.3 million urban workers. A study in Himachal Pradesh indicates that the average number of days women work exceeds that of men (151 days against 121 days) in agricultural. Not only that the hours work put by a women also exceeds that of men as pointed by a study in Karnataka 8.3 hours as against 8.1 hour. However, the division of labour along gender lines separates women from the production process and help in what millions call as “house vitiation” of women’s work, there by excluding women altogether the pur view of policy.

Tulasi Ram and Angadi (2000)\textsuperscript{61} have reviewed that farm – women are taking active part in rain fed as well as irrigated farming. Now a days, farmers have confined themselves into overseeing the farm but women are taking active role in all the operations rights from preparatory cultivation sowing and continued up to harvesting followed by post harvest operators like threshing, winnowing, cleaning, grading, storage, etc. Now let us see, the roles played by women in important crops in case of ground farm women perform activities like preparation of seed material for sowing, weeding, harvesting, threshing etc. If investment income ratio is worked out in peanut, nearly 70 per cent is contributed by women whereas 30 per cent is contributed by men. In paddy

\textsuperscript{60} M.Bharathi and A.Chandran, Empowerment of women through Agriculture, Third concept, vol.14, nos-162, August 2000, P-46.
farmwomen do the works like preparation of nursery, planting, weeding, harvesting and thrusting.

Sundari and Gowri (2002)\(^{62}\) explains Female and male agricultural labourers the average time spent to different activities of paddy cultivation was 324 hours preseason before the introduction of NAT. After introduction of NAT, it increased to 470 hours Person, an increase of 45 per cent. Sex wise changes show that while for male Agricultural laboures the time spent accelerated from 149 to 221 hours by 49 per cent), the increase for female agricultural laboures was from 175 to 249 hours (an increase of 49 per cent). For male Agricultural labourers, pere-sowing activity decreased from 48 hours to 25.4 hours a decrease of 47 per cent.

Sundari, Gowri (2002)\(^{63}\) explain that for female and male agricultural labourers the average time spent to different activities of paddy cultivation was 324 hours per season before the introduction of NAT. After introduction of NAT, it increased to 470 hours per person, an increase of 45 per cent. Sex wise changes show that while for male agricultural labourers the time spent accelerated form 149 to 221 hours (by 49 per cent), the increase for female agricultural laboures was from 175 to 249 hours (an increase of 49 per cent). For male agricultural labourers, pre-sowing activity decreased from 48 hours to 25.4 hours a decrease of 47 per cent.


Venkataraman (2002)\textsuperscript{64} explains agriculture to remain competitive despite being largely a small hold operation, use of factors like manual labour would have to be optimized, selective meaning rural people, particularly labour, from exclusive defense on agricultural and providing them with accessible opportunities to earn dependable higher income from alternate employment would go a long way in mitigating rural poverty and promoting agricultural growth. To achieve these twin goals of reducing pressure on land with wider opportunities for better employment and improving farm production efficiency our policy efforts must be directed as skill development of the rural people though education and training, and widening the scope of non-form employment by attracting capital flow to the rural sector. Rural Labourers consisting one of the largest work forces in India remains the most backward unorganized disadvantaged and deprived section of Society.

M.S. Sudhir (2002)\textsuperscript{65} has pointed out that according to planning commission’s recent estimates the labour force of the country was of the range of 352 million in the year 1998 out of which 80 per cent that about 282 million are in the rural sector. The female labour force constitutes one third of rural workers as against 10 per cent of the urban workers.

Swarna Svepa (2005)\textsuperscript{66} explains, as per the 2001 census, one third of the rural workers are agricultural laboureres. Female agriculture labour is high

\textsuperscript{64} A.Venkataraman, agricultural extension, How do we respond to the emerging environment. The Hindu survey on Indian agriculture, 2002, P-25.


\textsuperscript{66} Swarna svepa, feminization of Agriculture and marginalization of their Economic stake, Economic and political weekly, Vol. xl, No. 25, June 18-24, 2005, P-2566.
in some states compared to others. Female labour is important for rich
cultivation, yet due to limitation of migration. Women cannot take up working
high demand, high wage areas. In some states, there are more women than men
cultivators. In others women are engaged more as agricultural labour than men.
In the states on Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh,
Maharashtra, Rajasthan and Tamilnadu more than 50 per cent of agricultural
labourers are women. In these states the percentage of female cultivators is also
high about 30 to 40 per cent. The wage rates in 1998-99 show that the states of
Orissa, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh get the lowest wage rates
between Rs.30 and Rs.40 rate at Rs.105.84 followed by west Bengal, Haryana
and Tamilnadu. Depressed wages Kerala labour gets the highest wage also
contribute to the poverty and differential between male and female wage
further means declining economic stake of women.

In India, adult population consists of nearly 50 per cent of women, 77
per cent of the Indian adult population lives in rural areas. Rural women
participate in Agriculture and related activities. They contribute 75 per cent of
the labour required for operations. About 36 million women are engaged on
farm operations as main workers; from sowing to harvesting and storing in bins
and bags. They also participate in off–farm activities like processing and
marketing of farm products.

Women play a significant role in farming and farm management
activities, though most are engaged either as cultivators or helpers to cultivators
or as agricultural labourers. They are actively involved in agricultural
development and allied fields including crop production livestock production, horticulture post harvest operations, agro and social forestry, fishing etc. The largest number of women in India are engaged in farming operations either as cultivators or as supervisors or as agricultural labourers.

They are the main decision makers and participants in various agricultural operations like seed sowing, transplanting, weeding, harvesting, threshing, application of manure, storage of seeds and food grains and post harvest home level processing. Apart from all these they also involve in bringing fodder from field, chaff cutting, feeding and cleaning of cattle, maintaining cattle shed, compost making etc. In view of all these things, woman is recognized as a partner of man in agriculture and she is included in the effort of bringing new technology to the farmers because of her intimate involvement in agriculture as a manager, decision maker and labourer. The status of rural women is improving day by day.

Meer and Parhiar (2005)\(^\text{67}\) have investigated that rural women do all on farm/off farm works. Her day begins from pre-dawn with crushing. Their traditional role of housekeeping has been extended to collect firewood, fodder, and working on farms. Owing to social taboos, ignorance, financial constraints, inadequate education facilities, and non-availability of lady teachers in rural girls schools they have not opened the doors of literacy for them. Agriculture-dependent rural people has struggled to improve their economic conditions. On

\(^{67}\) Ere, g. O., d.i. osasogie and a.a. osifo, differentials in socioeconomic attributes of male and female farmers and effects on technical efficiency in food crop production in edo state, nigeria, journal of agriculture and social research (jasr) Vol. 11, No. 1, 2011, pp-8-13.
the contrary, shortage of water, dry spell cycles, decrease in cultivable area due to soil deterioration, extension of towns and villages, contraction of infrastructure, rising cost of inputs, non-availability of high yield quality varieties seeds to small farmers, un-checked population growth, etc. have together adversely affected the lives of rural people.

This paper was designed to compare the technical efficiency of food crop farmers along gender line. The stochastic production function, using the Cobb - Douglas functional form was used to estimate and compare the effects of some socio-economic characteristics of farmers on technical efficiency of male and female food crop farmers in the study area.

Estimated results revealed that some socio-economic attributes such as education ($b = -0.195$ and $b = -0.237$), age ($b = -0.297$ and $b = -0.051$), household size ($b = -0.216$ and $b = -0.319$) and credit ($b = -0.023$ and $b = -0.096$) for both male and female food crop farmers respectively. It revealed negative relationship with technical inefficiency, indicating that they (variables) decrease technical inefficiency and hence increase technical efficiency of the food crop farmers in the study area. But the coefficient of farming experience ($b = 0.163$ and $b = 0.133$) was positive for both male and female food crop farmers respectively. This shows a positive relationship with technical inefficiency effects, and negative relationship with technical efficiency. The study further revealed the significant differences in the socioeconomic attributes of male and female food crop farmers, resulting in differences in their
technical efficiencies in the study area. An enhancement of the respective endowments (socio-economic status), as they affect the sexes for improved technical efficiency was recommended by the researchers.  

Bijay Biharison (2005)\textsuperscript{68} explains that there are two types of agricultural labour the attached and casual labour. The 93.47 per cent of casual labour and 6.53 per cent farm labour are the total agricultural labour. The incidence of farm labour has declined sharply. It has been observed that casual agricultural labour generally works from 8 am to 4 pm which one hour lunch break. She brings food from her/his house. But there is no such time limit for farm labour usually no written agreement of a casual labourer gets between Rs.25 and Rs.30 per day. A casual female agricultural labourer gets Rs.2 to Rs.5 less than the male labourer wages for a farm labourer various between Rs.2,000 and Rs.4,000 annually with food and clothing.  

Pooja Sharma, Ashok Gulati (2005)\textsuperscript{69} explains that more than any other budget, which has been presented in recent years, the budget for 2005-06 was expected to correct the neglect of the agricultural sector. The budget is not worthy for its focus on creation of greater employment in rural areas through increased allocation for rural development and irrigation. It also acknowledges some of the important changes that need to be implemented in agriculture, including a policy for diversification, rationalization. But are the fiscal

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\textsuperscript{68} Bijay Bihari som, Agrarian changes and Agriculture laboures in cooch behar, economic and political weekly, Vol.xl, June – 11-17, 2005, P-2440.  
\textsuperscript{69} Pooja Sharma, Ashok Gulati, can the budget boots agricultural performance ? Economic and political weekly, Vol.xl, May, 2005, P-2136. 
\end{flushleft}
allocation and the policy impetus emanating from the budget adequate to revitalize agricultural growth performance in the economy? In this regard, the budget falls shot of expectations, not much of an effort has also been to cut of food and fertilizer subsidy and stimulate public investment in agricultural research and development. Institutional changes necessary to improve service delivery in rural areas have also not been addressed adequately.

**Swarna Svepa (2005)** explains as per the 2001 census, one third of the rural workers are agricultural labourers. Female agriculture labour is high in some states compared to others. Female labour is important for rich cultivation, Yet due to limitation of migration. Women cannot take up working with high demand, high wage areas. In some states, there are more women than men cultivators. In others women are engaged more as agricultural labourer than men. In the states on Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Rajasthan and Tamilnadu more than 50 per cent of agricultural labourers are women. In these states the percentage of female cultivators is also high at about 30 to 40 per cent.

The wage rates in 1998-99 show that the states of Orissa, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh get the lowest wage rates between Rs.30 and Rs.40 at Rs.105.84 followed by west Bengal, Hariyana and Tamilnadu. Kerala labour gets the highest wage also contribute to the poverty and differential between male and female wage further means declining economic stake of women.

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Mencher, Joan and Sordonai. K (2006)\textsuperscript{71} according to them, they were classified the agricultural labourers are classified into three types.

(i) Field Labourers

(ii) Ordinary labourers and

(iii) Skilled labourers.

Field workers include ploughmen, Reapers, Sowers, weepers and translators. Ordinary labourers are employed in building embankments, and digging. Skilled labourers are carpenters, masons, blacksmith and others. Who are employed by cultivators on the same rate as agricultural labourers.

The features of the women agricultural labourers are:

1. Women agricultural labourers are semiskilled workers. They have to work in open place. Seasonal changes do affect their work.

2. Female agricultural labourers perform different agricultural activities, which they learn from their family members.

3. Women agricultural labourers move out. But the reason for their moving out is not economical and it is more social based.

4. There is a lack of specialization in the female agricultural labour, they do not perform some kind of work. Sometimes they cultivate and sometimes they do the job of transplantation.

5. Most of the female agricultural labourers come from backward castes. Size of the family of the female labour of this caste is big.

6. Female agricultural labourers are unorganised; they do not have any national, state (or) regional level organisation (or) union.

7. Most of the female labourers in agricultural sector are casual and works on daily wage system.

8. Demand for female agricultural labourers is different in different seasons. When cross are ready for cultivation demand for female workers increases. But at the time of farming demand declines. Thus demand differs from season to season.\textsuperscript{71}

2.3. REVIEW OF LITERATURE RELATED TO STUDY THE WAGE PATTERNS AND CAUSES OF DISCRIMINATION IN WAGES OF WOMEN AGRICULTURAL LABOURERS IN THE FARM ECONOMY

George P.T (1980)\textsuperscript{72} has explained that this demographic trend of these weaker sections needs to be borne in mind while planning for their economic betterment. Total number of employment (taking into account employment in agricultural, non-agricultural occupations as well as self-employment), declined from 272 in 1964-65 to 246 in 1974-75. This decline is difficult to explain in the context of the general development that has been taking place in agricultural production, particularly after 1967.

The real income of the male agricultural workers declined from Rs.1.43 in 1964-65 to Rs.1.26 in 1974-75 with the 1960-61 price level as 100. The average household income of agricultural labour was Rs.447 per annum in

1950-51. This declined to Rs.437 in 1956-57. The money income in 1964-65 was Rs.660.19 which, if deflated by the price rise (with (1960-61 as base), was only Rs.461.16. In the absence of complete data for 1974-75, it is difficult to find the relative position in that year. A rough estimate showed that the money income in 1974-75 per agricultural labour household was Rs.1,404. The abnormal price rise during the period actually negated this improvement reduced to 1960-61; price level the income was only Rs.381.52 per household in 1974-75. On the same basis the per capita income declined from Rs.103.16 in 1964-65 to 80.84 in 1974-75.

**Dr. Narayan Prasad Sharma (1989)**\(^73\) has observed that women agricultural labourers are discriminated in wage payment throughout the country even in operations such as transplanting and weeding which are women intensive operation and are better performed by them. In same areas, the female wage rates are lower than the prescribed minimum wages. According to a census compared with 63 per cent of men, 79 per cent of female working population was actively engaged in agriculture (35 per cent as cultivators and 46 per cent as agricultural labourers). Almost 50 per cent of the rural female workers were working as agricultural labourers and 37 per cent of cultivators. The Study on working conditions of women agriculture labour in India had been growing with contributions from economists, Sociologists among others.

K. Gough’s (1983) Study on “Agriculture Labour in Thanjavur District of Tamilnadu had focused the problem from many aspects. The land labourers’ relationship between land owners and landless agricultural labourers’ relationship between land owners and landless agricultural labourers are based on the caste factor. Government policy about agriculture and agricultural labours have been studied. Nata Duvvury’s Study focused on work participation of women with special reference to agriculture labour during the period of 1961 to 1981 and found inequalities in wages and other gender discriminative factors in agriculture.

Jayanthi (1995) explains that women workers in the informal sector live in abject poverty and work for long hours at extremely low wages is well known.

Swedamishra (1995) has explained that the agricultural labourers increased economic independence an opportunity to march towards greater equality in legal, political and social rights, we cannot think of women’s empowerment without giving legal status to women in landed property. More policy declarations and enactment of loan may not empower woman to hold acquire and dispose of property. It requires effective measures at implementation stage as also basic social returns, she opines.

75 Jayanthi, C. “A suffering lot”, Documentation on women’s concerns, All India association for Christian Higher Education, New Delhi, April to June 1995, P-11.
Jeemol unini (1997)\textsuperscript{77} analysed the changes in employment of the workers labour households in the rural areas in real wage earnings rates in agricultural and non agricultural activities, the implications of the trend in real wages and its link with the observed changes in employment in labour households.

Thamarajakshi R. (1999)\textsuperscript{78} has explained the real wages of agricultural labourers and poverty. There has also been an increase in the proportion of casual labour mainly at the cost of the self employed of the work force; about 34 per cent of rural males and 46 per cent of rural female are casual workers. While this has been accompanied by a rise in the real wage earning this is a continuation of the up trend that started in the eighties and the rise in the six year period of 1987-94 was only 5.9. Besides the absolute levels of rural wages in 1993-94 were lower than the minimum levels to assure a reasonable level of living let alone a reasonable level of social security for the agricultural labourers.

Rajesh R. and Kombairaju S. (1999)\textsuperscript{79} have noted that economic status of the female labourers remained interior to their male counterparts in dry farming areas, although the effect of technological change seems to be favourable on both sexes of the agricultural labour force.

\textsuperscript{78} R.Thamarajakshi, Agriculture Economic, Vol. XXXIV. No.3, August, 1999, P-2293.
Meenakshi J.V. (1999)\(^80\) explains that labour productivity was rarely computed in the micro studies. The limited evidence suggests that if anything labour productivity of women is greater than that of men is several operations. It was also suggested that the possibility of adding another component the cost of cultivation surveys, which already contain a comprehensive labour time disposition scheduled should be explored.

Usha Tuteja (2000)\(^81\) explains the true picture of female work and its contribution to the economic well-being of the family. This problem relates more to rural agricultural economics due to the pervasiveness of family, based economic enterprises where women work as unpaid family workers. The share of female workers in family income in calculated in proportion to their share in total labour used by the family in cultivation. We have divided income from wage employment in agriculture according to casual and permanent labour, workers engaged in both earn income in cash as well as in kind. The inclusion of cash income in employment from agriculture is quite simple but in the case of income in kind, all the perquisites received are first valued at the market rate and then added to the income.

Alka Srivastava (2000)\(^82\) explains that over the past 50 years the share of agriculture in the domestic product (GDP) has declined from about 48.50 per


cent in the early 1950’s to about 32 per cent in 1990’s the changes in the structure of the work force, however have been much slower than expected, partly because of the population growth and the consequent increase in the labour force. The static show that worker’s participation rate over the years has increased slowly, that male worker’s participation rate is higher than that of the female and that the latter’s worker participation rate rural India is much higher than in urban India poverty in rural India may account for this.

Ravi (2000)\(^83\) explains the study of the casual rural work force and increase in agricultural labours, the percentage of casual male workers among rural male workers has steadily increased from 22 per cent in 1972-73 to 33-8 per cent in 1993-94. The percentage of casual female workers has also steadily increased 31.4 per cent to 38.7 per cent over this period. While the preparation of casual workers is higher for female workers, the proportion of regular female workers is much lower.\(^84\)

Bharathi and Chandran A. (2000)\(^85\) explained that the study in Himachal Pradesh indicates that the average number of days women work exceeds that of men (151 days against 121 days) in agricultural. Not only the hours work put by a women but also exceeds that of men as pointed by a study in Karnataka 8.3 hours as against 8.1 hour. However, the division of labour

\(^83\) Ravi Srivastava, Changes in contractual relations in land and labour in India, journal of agricultural economics, Vol.55, No.3, July-September, 2000 P-267

\(^84\) Usha Tuteja, contribution of female agricultural workers in family income and their status in Haryana, India Jul of agriculture economic, Vol.55, No.2, April – June, 2000, P-137.

\(^85\) M.Bharathi and A.Chandran, empowerment of women through agriculture, Third concept, Vol.14, Nos. 162, August 2000, P-46.
along gender lines separates women from the production process and help in what million call as “house vitiation” of women’s work, thereby excluding women altogether the pur view of policy.

**Shoba I. (2001)** revealed that the people from socially disadvantaged communities have been doing all the manual works. The women from forward communities happened to be either owners or supervisions of the land. Her study based on 14 villages of the Chithor district of Andhra Pradesh had also brought disparity in wage, the near emptiness of asset holdings and also indebtedness among the households of women agriculture labourers.

**Ajit Kumar Singh (2001)** explains that the contractual labour Contractual arrangements in labour market: largely focused on the issues of inter and intra-regional mobility of labour and increasing segmentation of the rural labour. The regional variations in the pattern of contractual labour were also highlighted. It was pointed out that increased mobility of rural labour market and leading to compression of wage differential although it also led to some conflate in the interests of the local and the migrant labour. The issue of earning difference also between contract labour and local casual / attached labour was also raised. It was felt that this required careful in-depth study.

**Veena Kumari and R.K.P. Singh (2002)** explained that agriculture is still an important sector for employment in Bihar because more than 80 per

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87 Reportear: Ajit kumar singh, contractual arrangements in land and labour markets in rural areas. I.J. of Ag.t, vol. 56, no.1, January-march’ 2001, P-26
cent of working forces still get gainful employment in this sector. In Bihar, cultivation workers get in average annual employment of 54.64 days only while agricultural labourers are employed for 76.95 days in a year which are less than the level of full employment for improving economic accent food grains. Due to sluggish agricultural development and low level of employment generation. In farm and non farm sectors, numbers of rural poor increased from 33.7 million in 1973-74 to 45.09 million in 1993-94, which further increased to 50.01 million in 1996-97.

Ranjana Kumar (2005)\(^{89}\) has analysed the growth of real agricultural wages in India decelerated by 2.5 per cent points (5 per cent per annum in 1980s to 2.5 per cent per annum in the 1990s) (dev, 2004) the growth rates of real daily wages of female and male agricultural laboures declined during 1993-94 to 1999-2000 in majority of the states. Minimum wage rate, though welfare - oriented and aimed at protecting the agricultural labourel from exploitation, has in fact promoted disparities. In economic terms Minimum wage rate is the amount needed by the labour for the sustenance of his body and soul i.e., the amount in which worker is barely able to sustain himself.

Pushpinder (2002)\(^{90}\) indicates the Indian agriculture contributes to about one third of the country’s national income. The latest census (India, 2001) reports that 495.7 million females (48.27 per cent of total population)

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\(^{89}\) Ranjana Kumar, constraints facing Indian Agricultural need for policy intervention, Indian journal of Agricultural Economics, Vol.60, No.1, January-March, 2005, P-52.

\(^{90}\) Dr.Phuspinder Sandhu, Female labour force in Punjab : socio economic profile, participation rates and problems faced. The Indian journal of social work, vol.63, Issue - 4, October, 2002, P-
According to official estimates, one third of agricultural labour force are women of the total female work force in rural areas, 89.5 per cent are employed as agricultural labourers (National Statistical Survey Organization, 1999-2000). Overall women’s average contribution in agricultural labour is estimated at 55.66 per cent of the total labour.

Bijay Bihari Som (2005) examines that the incidence of farm labour has been declined sharply. It has been observed that casual agricultural labour generally works from 8 am to 4 pm with one hour lunch break. She brings food from her/his house. But there is no such time limit for farm labours usually no written agreement is verbal wage of a casual labourer varies between Rs.25 and Rs.30 per day. A casual female agricultural labourer gets Rs.2 to Rs.5 less than the male labourer wages for a farm labourer varies between Rs.2,000 and Rs.4,000 annually with food and clothing.

Ranjana Kumar (2005) explains the employment elasticity as seen in the aggregate use of labour in agriculture due to increased by new technology and changing demand pattern. But despite increased production levels, the agriculture sector is unable to sustain and retain its labour force. Growth in employment opportunities in agriculture has also not been encouraging the growth rate or rural employment was around 0.5 per cent per annum between 1993-94 and 1999-2000, as against 1.7 per cent per annum between 1993-94 (Dev, 2004). The seasonality condition in agriculture and absence of alternative

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91 Bijay Bihari Som, Agrarian changes and Agriculture laboures in cooch behar, Economic and political weekly, Vol. xl, June-11-17, 2005, P-2440.
source of employment has further accentuated the labour crisis. This has resulted in creating larger surplus of agriculture/landless labourers (48 per cent in 1999-2000) (Devi-2004). At the India level the growth of real agricultural wages decelerated by 2.5 per cent points (5 per cent per annum in 1980s to 2.5 per cent per annum in the 1990s) (dev, 2004). The growth rates of real daily wages of female and male agricultural laboures declined during 1993-94 to 1999-2000 in majority of the states. Minimum wage rate, though welfare – oriented and aimed at protecting the agricultural labourers from exploitation, has in fact promoted disparities. In economic terms,” Minimum wage rate is the amount needed by the labour for the sustenance of his body and soul i.e., the amount in which worker is barely able to sustain himself.

2.4. REVIEW OF LITERATURE RELATED TO FIND OUT CONSTRAINTS FACED BY THE WOMEN AGRICULTURAL LABOURERS

Nirmal Kantisaha, (1972)93 explains that, now a days it is a common belief that agricultural labourer is the most neglected number of such labourers assumed as a decisive factor in the direction of social, economic as well as political transformation. According to 1991 census, their number is 20.5 per cent of the total earning population of India.

Dandekar (1982)94 explained that the full integration of women in economic development, must enter the ‘labor force’ on an equal footing with men, that the participation of women in the labour force lags far behind that of

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men is well known. He cites some date to illustrate the dimensions and the
nature of the problem. 1971 agricultural labour men 31.698 million and women
15.796 million. In 1971 census of India 1971, 49.83 women per 100 men are in
agricultural labour.

Singh and Rathore (1982)\textsuperscript{95} have found that during the slack season,
the problem is less serious to agricultural labourers that for cultivators because
the agricultural labourers can afford to leave the village and seek every other
opportunity of employment. The self-employed cultivator is precluded from
doing so by the very nature of enterprise, which requires his presence even
during the off season. The most time consuming and unproductive but
necessary activity is the social and family functions.

Singh and Bhata (1985)\textsuperscript{96} explains that women’s share in total farm
work is 62 per cent on marginal farms, 57 per cent on small farms and 59 per
cent on medium farms. Change in crop production technologies would add to
the existing work of females. Whereas livestock improvement programmes
reduces this work load. It is also emphasized that for too long, reaching women
with extension services and inputs has not been an important part of
development planning. It is high time to realize the enormous cost of ignoring
women’s role in the rural areas.

\textsuperscript{95} D.V. Singh and M.S. Rathore, “Seasonal pattern of agricultural employment in Hemachal
Pradesh”, Manpower Journal, 18(3); (59-P), 1982.
\textsuperscript{96} D.V.Singh and J.P. Bhata, “Women in Hill Agriculture Economics – A case study of Himachal
Sahasasudha (1987)\(^97\) has found that “the most depressed class in our society is the women folk. Deprived of their rights to properly, secluded from the wide dynamic world confined to their homes. Clamped down by antiquated social customs stepped in poverty, ignorance, squalor and ill health, with no other interest in life except marriage and feasts. The two facets of the role of women - in production are reproduction - should be conceived as complementary and interactive. In order to realize women’s potential for fuller participation in the production and decision making processes there is a need not only for a sharing of parental responsibilities but also for institutional provision, which would benefit children and families.

Sheila Bhalla (1989)\(^98\) indicates evidence from expansionary phase in Hariyana Agriculture. To understand what has been happening to women’s employment in agriculture this paper presents the findings of a study in Hariyana, a state where labour absorption rose rapidly until the mid - seventies, but is now falling, the one year survey, covering 153 villages in all was about labour observation in Haryana Agriculture, the finding deals with the demand for women workers in the field of crop operations and the supply behaviour of cultivating and landless agricultural labour households are examined and an account is given of seasonal occupation shift phenomenon a dominant feature of the annual cycle of employment among landless women which has been


very little discussed in the literature on the impact of the Green Revolutions on women’s work.

Narayan Prasad Sharma (1990)\(^9\) explains the agricultural labourers in general and bonded agricultural labourers in particular are the lowest segment of the class of poor living in abject poverty. An interesting point to be noted here is that wages fixed at the time of agreement were generally higher, yet the landlords deducted every month a certain amount from the fixed wages for the redemption of the dept and the balance was given as actual wages, which was hardly sufficient to meet their day-to-day expenditure.

Hazell B.R. (1991)\(^10\) points out the district level data to estimate agricultural growth multiplier economically. He supported the hypothesis that the growth of the rural non-farm sector was striven primarily by agriculutral growth. They also found evidence that both production and consumption linkages had growth substantially, buoyed up by the rising input-intensity in agriculture and the growing incomes with stimulate consumer diversification of spending into non-food items.

Seetha M. (1991)\(^11\) reveals that women play an important role in agriculture production, animal husbandry and other related activities such as storage and marketing of produce food processing etc., apart from these, they

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spend almost 10-12 hours per day doing household chores including fetching water and gathering fuel. About 54 per cent of rural women and 26 per cent of urban women are engaged in marginal occupations to supplement the family income. An ILO study estimated that the value of unpaid household work constitutes 25-39 per cent of the total gross national product in the developing countries.

Problems faced by women workers in rural areas are altogether different from those in the urban areas. Women workers in rural areas are largely landless agricultural labourers, members of households with uneconomic holdings. They are engaged in traditional household industries like spinning, hand weaving, oil pressing, rice pounding, leather tobacco processing, etc. These household industries which are predominately female labour, intensive and which have been a major source of employment in villages appear to have declined in important during the post independence period.

The share of rural women as wage labourers in agriculture vises from 25.6 per cent in 1961 to 49.6 per cent in 1981 though the share of agriculture in the total national income declined from 60.5 per cent in 1951-56 to 33 per cent in 1985-88 causing stagnation in real wages and available man days employment area for women are restricted by (a) increase in landless households and female labour (b) adverse impact of farm technology (c) decline in jobs including trade and services (d) restrictions on women’s access to resources (like land, credit, skills and technology) (e) negative attitudes to working women by women
themselves by men and society at large. (f) inadequate educational and training opportunities for women (g) in access to information and career guidance (h) household and child-rearing responsibilities and (i) lack of situational support.

**Ben Rogaly Barbara Harris (1995)**\(^{102}\) explains the interaction of agricultural growth and political change in three villages where he carried out field work in 1992-93. He was involved in empowerment of the poor, which would not necessarily have been the outcome of either on its own. The increase in demand for labour together with the implementation of Panchayatraj increased the bargaining power of labour the former led to a decline in personalized employment arrangements because of which labourers were better able to shift support between factions. They could thus use the vote for material gain, the presence of large number of ‘untouchable’ workers in one area was also associated with their ‘takeover’ of possible panchayatraj.

**Manjit Singh (1995)**\(^{103}\) explains the delimitation of simple economic rationality is instrumental to the regular supply of labour force. Infact, absolute freedom in the movement of capital as well as labour would bring demise of the very social relations on which they stand. Labour power or its tangible products, circulate within the circuited of reproduction only under the cautiously guarded freedom. The former can be deemed as bondage and the latter as attachment. Bondage and latter as attachment is social expression of unequal relation between capital and labour.

\(^{102}\) Ben Rogaly Barbara Harriss – White Sugata Bose, Sonar, agricultural growth and Agrarian change in west bangal and Bangaladesh, EPW, Vol. xxx, No.29, July 1995, P-1867

The most significant changes have occurred in casualisation of agricultural labour and a shift from time rate wages to contract / price rate wage payment. This is also partly a marriage of convenience between the employer and the labour. By giving work on contract the employer saves supervisory cost also the hassles to provide cooked food to the labourers. A casual labourer by working for six month in agriculture (inclusive of intermittent help from daily members) and remaining six month in allied or non-agricultural occupations, earns far more than an attached labourer who works like a bull throughout the year.

Praveen Jha (1997)\textsuperscript{104} has explained that 30 per cent of all rural households in India constitute the population of agricultural labour households and the overwhelming majority of such households have made little economic progress, during the period since independence. In spite of the fact that the agricultural labourers constitute one of the most substantial occupational categories in the India economy; they are easily among the most neglected in terms of the policies of the state.

Manjit Singh (1997)\textsuperscript{105} explains that, capitalism grows out of disparities in the process of its expanded reproduction. It further accentuates those disparities, precipitating the amorphous social reproduction in to the small enclaves of high capital activity connected to the fur-flung hinterlands for

\textsuperscript{104} Praveen Jha, Devi take the Hindmost Economic Reforms and Agricultural labourers, Economic and political weekly, may 17-24, 1997, P-1066.

\textsuperscript{105} Manjit Singh, Bonded – Migrant labour in Panjab agriculture, economic and political weekly, Vol. xxxii, No.11, March-15, 1997, P-519
purpose of both labour and product marketen clave - hinterland relation is true for the industrial as well as agricultural development under the domination impulse of capitalist rule. The migrant labour is in gross violation to the various acts, such as, interstate migrant work men act, 1979, bonded labour (abolition) act, 1976, minimum wage act also child labour act.

Haque T. (2000)\textsuperscript{106} explains that in areas where commercialization and modernization of agriculture have taken place, the farmers often feels shortage of local labour of work inefficiency on the part of the regular labourers, as result, there has emerged a system of contract labour of job contract which have implications for productivity wage, security of employment, etc.

Saravanan R. and Bharathi M. (2000)\textsuperscript{107} examines the problems of women labourers and their discrimination of wages. The low rates of wage for the women farm labour are due to unorganized nature of employment most of the time hired women labour are substituted by family members in the small and marginal farms. The seasonal nature of demand for labour in agriculture and non-enforcement of laws to reduce wage discrimination also leads to discrimination of wages. Agriculture sector is season oriented. During the off season women were unemployed or under employed.

The decline of village and cottage industries and the consequent loss of alternative employment as well as skills have resulted in unemployment of


women. There is no continuous and steady employment in rural area. Rural women are not easily mobile and cannot search for alternative occupations like the male. They prefer to search for employment in their own village or with in short distance from home, because of socio-cultural restrictions in the rural society and family responsibilities. Introduction of modern agriculture techniques of cultivation resulted in a gradual displacement of women labour and shrinking of their activities. This is due to male extension agent who communicates only to male, not female. Because of this biased approach, rural women are handicapped with recent technological knowledge and skill, which reduces the job opportunities in agriculture. Large female illiteracy is also one of the reasons for lack of recent knowledge.

Rural women labour is mostly unemployed or underemployed in off-season. Even though, they have confidence and time to take up self-employment schemes, the lack of resources presents insurmountable problems to them. Women play the dual role as housewives and agricultural labourers collection of fuel wood, drinking water, clearing of house and using traditional cholha add drudgery to their work.

Ajit Kumar Singh (2001) explains the contractual labour arrangements in the labour market largely focused on the issues of inter and intra-regional mobility of labour and increasing segmentation of the rural labour. The regional variations in the pattern of contractual labour were also highlighted. It has

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pointed out the increased mobility of rural labour market and leading to compression of wage differential although it also led to some conflict in the interests of the local and the migrant labour. The issue of earning different also between contract labour and local casual / attached labour was also raised. It was felt that this required careful in-depth study.

S.P.Singh (2002)\textsuperscript{109} explains that there is a need to encourage member – based organization of social security for agricultural labours. In this regard, the role of voluntary organization operating in rural areas may be vital in organizing agricultural labourers in self-help group. Since, the number of attached labourers has been continuously declining and the number of casual and contract labour ever in agriculture have been on rise, formation of such groups will be feasible and desirable. Agricultural labourers who constitute nearly 70 per cent of total rural labour households, safe from seasonal unemployment, job insecurity, poverty, indebtedness, bondage, migration, inability to get minimum wages, literacy, malnourishment, lack of access to assets like cultivated land, discrimination and incapability from or join any organization. As against 2.94 per cent annual average growth observed between 1992-94 and 199-2000, the growth in real wages was 4.89 per cent per annum between 1983 and 1987-88. This also confirms that the relative position of agricultural labourer has worsened during 1990s.

Mrinali Gogoi and Botomic B.C. (2002)\textsuperscript{110} explained that in our society both husband and wife participate in different household activity. Their roles are generally complementary not only in physical participation in farm and home related activities, quantity to produce to be used for family consumption and quality to be marketed, women participation was also important in joint decision making. It was observed in the study that women were consulted by their husbands or men folk in the form in determining purchase and sale of land from borrowing arrangement and payment of labour selection of crop varieties, time of transplanting inter culture as well as harvesting and storage of produce.

Ward Lesteuit (2003)\textsuperscript{111} explains the United Nations Decade for women (1976-1985) that for the first time in history of the world they were focused on that 50\textsuperscript{th} of its population who, by virtue of an accident of birth, perform two thirds of the world’s work, receive 1/10\textsuperscript{th} of its income and own less than 1/100\textsuperscript{th} of its property. They are the female human beings. Ward (1894) has considered four types sex based inequalities viz. the inequalities in dress, education, duties and rights as contributing factors in the sub-orientation and dependence of women in society. These inequalities prescribe a different set of roles for women beneath the dignity of men workers because of the belief that women are not capable of performing male tasks.

\textsuperscript{110} Mrinali Gogoi and B.C. Botomic, “Role of women farm decision making”, agricultural situation in India, Vol. L.VIII No.12, March 2002.

Gurusamy S. (2004)\textsuperscript{112} elucidates the plight of agriculture labourers in rural India. The agriculture workers spend most their time in slush but with half appeased appetite. These labourers devote their life on land for raising the crops. Even though the agriculture labourers are hard workers they face various problems throughout their life. They earn very low and their employment revenue also in very limited. The agriculture labourers do not have any Guarantee for their full employment of the land. They have employment opportunities only during seasons and during off seasons they have to face the problems of unemployment and under employment. Poverty and indebtedness are common peculiar features of Indian agriculture labourers. Most of the time, the agricultural labourers are forced to go out of their village in search of employment. The study also traces the working and living conditions of agriculture labourers besides programmes undertaken by the government for their development and presents suggestions for improving their living conditions.

Seth M.L. (2005)\textsuperscript{113} enlightens the employment elasticity as seen in the aggregate use of labour in agriculture due to increased by new technology and changing demand pattern but despite increased production levels, the agriculture sector is unable to sustain and retain its labour force. Growth in employment opportunities in agriculture has also not been encouraging the growth rate or rural employment was around 0.5 per cent per annum between


\textsuperscript{113} Seth M.L., Micro Economics, Lakshime Varian, Agarwal Education Publisher – New Delhi, 1963, P– 598.
1993-94 and 1999-2000, as against 1.7 per cent per annum between 1993-94 (Dev, 2004). The seasonality condition in agriculture and absence of alternative source of employment has further accentuated the labour crisis. This has resulted in creating larger surplus of agriculture/landless labourers (48 per cent in 1999-2000) (Devi-2004).

Baijnath Singh (2006)\textsuperscript{114} explains that rural women are an important segment of society because of their active participation in home and farm affairs the extent of participation in the decision making activities Household, agricultural and socio-cultural affairs reflect the status of women in the family as well as society.

Tauffiqu Ahamad, et al. (2015)\textsuperscript{115} has pointed out the Problems of Women’s Participation Some of the farm women may feel inhibited to participate for reasons such as lack of confidence, family pressure, costumes etc.,

1. Most of the women were not willing to take up jobs though. They remained unemployed. These were mainly male dominant families where their husbands were not interested in sending their wives to venture in such new occupations.

2. Women are lagging behind in developing their skills due to some social hazards like male chauvinism compulsory responsibilities of domestic affairs on women and more persons are not aware of the opportunities offered to them.


Agriculture sector is season oriented. During the off season women were unemployed or under employed. The decline of village and cottage industries and the consequent loss of alternatives employment as well as skills have resulted in unemployment of women. There is no continuous and steady employment in rural area. Rural women are not easily mobile and cannot search for alternative occupations like male. They prefer to search for employment in their own village or with in short distance from home, because of socio-cultural restrictions in the rural society and family responsibilities.

Sankari and Uma.K(1995) have analysed the emerging male dominance in agriculture, introduction of modern agriculture techniques of cultivation resulted in a gradual displacement of women labour and shrinking of their activities. This is due to male extension agent who communicates only to male, not female. Because of this biased approach, rural women are handicapped with recent technological knowledge and skill, which reduces the job opportunities in agriculture. Large female illiteracy is also one of reasons for lack of recent knowledge. The wage of women are half the wages of male even to operations which are women intensive and are better performed by them such as ploughing, irrigation, sowing, 13 eveling etc., and those of female are paid less such as weeding, transplanting, winnowing etc. it is generally assumed that activities done by women are unskilled and require less labour.

2.5. REVIEW OF LITERATURE RELATED TO SUGGEST MEASURE TO SOLVE THE PROBLEM OF WOMEN AGRICULTURAL LABOURERS IN THE FARM ECONOMY

Mohan Rao .J (1955)\footnote{J. Mohan rad, Food Agriculture and Reforms changes contribuicy, E.P.W. Vol. xxxii, 1998, P.1955.} has pointed out that the policies of structural adjustment of the 1990s together with the falling trend in public investment in agriculture dating from the 1980s are undermining the basis for equitable growth in the future of even for growth itself. Thus, serious concern has been raised regarding the trend deceleration in agricultural output increment, the sharp increases in food prices and poverty following reforms and prospects for employment growth in the unorganized sector (including agriculture and rural non-farm activities) given that employment growth in the organized sector is not expected to rise above labour force growth.

Govind Dasjabra (1975)\footnote{Govind Daskabra, 'A study of small and marginal farmers, Kurusethra, Vol:24, No:1, Oct – 1975, PP-50-52.} had pointed out that, providing loans to the farmers for various beneficial programmes is only one of the important aspects of the development of weaker sections. As animal husbandry is the main programme adopted by the villagers, it is necessary to give them proper education, techniques and medical facilities about the animal upkeep and maintaining the high level of milk yield. In his study he concludes that, with the emergence of new technology in agriculture and the introduction of the special programmes like SFDA, MFAL, ICDP, CAD, etc., agriculture requires, a more scientific and sophisticated approach. I demand a comprehensive knowledge of farm management, social and water management and effective use of inputs.
Dhillon (1980)\textsuperscript{119} explains that rural women’s decision making action has revealed that an overall analysis of the decision making on the farm and home management. Women indicate that in 27.7 per cent cases, the decision are on joint basis of these, in 15 per cent. They enjoyed equal say as their husbands while in 19.9 per cent 13.7 per cent and 5.7 per cent. They hold rank of the second and third order of importance of the family respectively. This reveals that the rural women are increasingly participating in taking decisions.

Madan G.S. (1981)\textsuperscript{120} explained that, good deal of training into the social, cultural, customary, and traditional ways of living, thinking, and behaviour of the peasantry will also have to be entrusted with the task of implementation of various provisions of the proposed Bill, when enacted. The manning of conciliation machinery, inspectorate and the agricultural tribunals would, therefore have to be on quite different line than the one meant for industrial labour, which is urbanised, is comparatively more literate, less traditional, custom and caste ridden and less entrenched in the past. This would require a good deal of home work on the part of authorities concerned with the matter as to what type of cadre has to be created for implementing both welfare and regulating agricultural industry, there would be no going back on it for that would create a situation more complex than what once comes back on it for that would create a situation more complex than what one comes across now, in

\textsuperscript{119} Gurmeet Dhillon, “A Study on rural women in decision making action”, Kurushetra, 22(9), (19-20-Page), year 1980.
the varied patterns of agrarian conditions of working and living it more than six lakh villages in our country.

**Prabhat Kumar Singh’s (1985)** has examines that Mechanization of Agriculture in India will result in labour surplus. As per an estimate three or four million persons can cultivate the existing lands with mechnaization. Disguised unemployment is increasing at the rate of 5 million per year. As a result of this production will increase to a greater extent. But this argument will be true for a short period only because mechanization will not only result in unemployment but will also have much production at a low cost.

**Raghavan A.V. and Varadarajan S. (1985)** have expressed that it has been observed that rural women were neither involved in nor giving their due share from participation in development efforts. To remedy this IRDP was designed to help women as one of its target groups. This attempts to examine. (i) Whether the strategies adopted for IRDP have nearly benefited households headed by women and (ii) Whether the IRDP assistance extended for various economic active has generated sufficient income to raise such households above the poverty line. In Kundrathur block of Changalpattu (Tamilnadu) 136 households (10 per cent of the total beneficiaries of the block in 1983-84). The result of this study shows that dairying followed by TRYSEM, Sheep rearing, ISBG (Industrial Service Business) work bullocks distribution and ducking

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were preferred by women. In the households headed by women, the major members, consequent to the creation to productive assets, women beneficiaries were able to find additional employment for the family to the extent of about 180 days in a year, and to earn an additional income of about Rs.702 per year. This worked out to Rs.390 per day. Workers mostly though self-employment about 24 percent of the women headed households crossed the poverty line and additional 12 per cent would be in a position to do so with some further assistance.

C.K. Joshi and M.R. Alshi (1985)\textsuperscript{123} point out the introduction of high yielding varieties (HYVS) is one if the important factors which has increased agricultural production and created employment for male and female labours in the rural sector. The empirical studies to evaluate the employment. Implications of (HYVS) for female labourers showed that HYV cotton farms used variety, which Jowar crop the (HYV) used 26 per cent more female labourers over the requirement of causally hired females labours to a large extent, implying there by an increase in the employment opportunities for female labourers.

Thamarajash (1989)\textsuperscript{124} has explained that poverty alleviation employment generation and human resource development are principal goals in the developing economies in Asia. Many of these economics are keen on endogonising these in their plans. This would require an understanding of the


\textsuperscript{124} Thamarajash, "Agricultural Growth, rural development and employment generation economic and political weekly, Vol. xxiv, No. 17, April-29, 1989, P-23.
structural changes that exist in different sectors so that investment pattern policies and programmes can be accordingly farmed.

Sheila Bhalla (1989)\textsuperscript{125} explains the role of women in farm decision-making study on farm management decision revealed that women play a decisive role in matters pertaining to buying and selling of livestock and livestock produce allocation of area under different activities, quantity of produce to be used for family consumption and quantity to be marketed. Women participation was also important in decision making. It was observed in the study that women were consulted by their husbands or men folk in the farm in determining purchase and sale of land. Farm borrowing, arrangement and payment of labour, selection of crop varieties, time of transplanting, intercultural as well as harvesting and storage of produce. However, women participation in decision-making was not prominent in areas like adoption and procurement of modern implements. Application of plant production measures etc.

Thippaiah. P and M. Devendra Babu (1990)\textsuperscript{126} have described the agricultural labour on the other hand, as the name reflects, belongs to the labour class in the agricultural sector without any tangible property of their own. In the literature, an agricultural labourer is defined as “a person without any land other than homestead and deriving more than 50 per cent his income from agricultural wages”. To improve their socio-economic conditions liberal

\textsuperscript{125} Sheila Bhalla (1989), “Technological change and women workers”, Economic and Political weekly, Vol.43, No.28, P-63.

financial assistance has been provided under the integrated rural development programme.

*Swedamishra (1995)*\(^{127}\) has explained that the agricultural labourers increased economic independence an opportunity to march towards greater equality in legal, political and social rights, we cannot think of women’s empowerment without giving legal status to women in landed property. More policy declarations and enactment of loan may not empower woman to hold acquire and dispose of property. It requires effective measures at implementation stage as also basic social returns.

*Manickavasagam (1996)*\(^{128}\) pointed out the development of women in our country plays an equally important role through development of their resourcefulness and their skills women are in employment of jobs run business carry on profession in order to raise their incomes and standard of living and to reduce the imbalance in income, as they exist and increase their purchasing power. They need financial assistance in the form of capital of create productive work.

*Mohan Rao J. (1998)*\(^{129}\) explains the policies of structural adjustment of the 1990s together with the falling trend in public investment in agriculture dating from the 1980s are undermining the basis for equitable growth in the future of even for growth itself. Thus, serious concern has been raised regarding the trend deceleration in agricultural output increment, the sharp

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increases in food prices and poverty following reforms and prospects for employment growth in the unorganized sector (including agriculture and rural non-farm activities) given that employment growth in the organized sector is not expected to rise above labour force growth.

**Jense Larche (1998)** analyse the development of the agriculture labourers position within the social fabric of Uttar Pradesh during the 1990’s. He concluded that the capitalist development in west Uttar Pradesh has maintained the monopoly of numerically stronger jobs or land ownership. Thus, neglecting any change in rural social relations. The capitalist development in west Uttar Pradesh has maintained the monopoly of numerically stronger jobs on land ownership. Thus negating changes rural social relations.

**Subramanyam S. (1999)** reveals that the agriculture has become an important issue since it was discussed by Boserup as early as in 1970, who distinguished between male, female and mixed farming system. The studies focus on female labour absorption in agriculture in the Indian context. Mostly on the information relating to the mits eventies. hough the High-yielding variety (HYN) technology was introduced in the late sixties, he adoption was slightly delayed in the case of rice. The increase in the demand for female labour led to rise in the share of casual labour in paddy cultivation. However, his cannot be interpreted as withdrawal of female family labour on prestige considerations after the increase in incomes resulting from increase in yield.

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Alagumani (1999)\textsuperscript{132} has suggested the poor involvement of rural women on investment decision makes a mean score value of only 38.70 per cent. However, women with the score values above mean value in the class intervals of 41-50 and above constituting 49.57 per cent of all women who were not currently working, might be considered to have entrepreneurs potential and they could be motivated and assisted for undertaking entrepreneurs activities.

Singh V.K. Khathar and Narrong A.K. (1999)\textsuperscript{133} suggest that in regard to extension services, training camps for rural women on different aspects farm and non-farm activities should be arranged on a large so as improve their technical and socio-economic know how, for this purpose a co-ordinating committee should be set-up at block and district levels to co-ordinate the activities of various organization engaged in rural women development programmes. Efforts should be made to raise the literacy rate or rural women through adult education programmes. Area specify cottage/rural industries should be developed where in rural women could develop their skill and participation in production in order to make them financially self-reliant.

Chandravathi Rao and Raju (1999)\textsuperscript{134} suggest the need for conducting major demonstration on farm holding, involvement of more women. Farm extension workers, developing improved technology for reducing hardship


faced by women in farm activities, conducting need-based training programs for women farmers and provision of credit facilities for small scale and cottage industries. There should be close follow-up action offer imparting training in different farm activities.

Joshi C.K. and Alshi M. R. (2000)\textsuperscript{135} explains that in recent years there has been more reliance on the agricultural sector in India for employment creation, structural changes have been effected to transform traditional low productivity agriculture into high productivity agriculture and to provide employment to the rural people.

Kumar John and Veerasekaran (2000)\textsuperscript{136} explain the attempts to pass on information and idea regarding women entrepreneurial in informal sector and to develop activities to promoted as well safeguard the interest of women entrepreneurship in terms of finding solution, to their problem. Women entrepreneurs in India especially have been mobilized by number of government efforts believing that they can establish business for economic independence through empowerment and improvement of women status may lead to improved quality of life and general well being of the target group. The development of women entrepreneurship ensures the building up of their confidence and motivation. Thereby develop themselves constrains which may arise in their walk of life in their future ventures.


Swaminathan M.S. (2001) analysed in his study that science and our Agriculture future is for over 60 years Prof. Ranga was the soul of Indian Agriculture. Among the Political leaders of the pre-Independence era he was the foremost fighting for farmer’s rights, like Gandhiji, he was of the firm cultivation that India’s test is in rural upliftment and that if Indian Agriculture goes wrong nothing else will have a change to go right. He also believed that the scientific transformation of Indian Agriculture is a must, if the economic being of small farm families is to be improved. Above all he was wrong in advocating a high priority to building a sustainable food security system for the country. In a lecture devoted to his memory, about the role of science in our agriculture future.

Hazna C.R. (2001) reveals in his study diversification of Indian Agriculture. India is a country of about one billion people. More than 70 per cent of Indian’s population lives in rural areas where the main occupation is agriculture. Indian agriculture is characterized by small farm holding. The average size of farm is 1.57 hectare only around 93 per cent farmers have hand holding smaller than 459, and they operate nearly 55 per cent of the Arable land. On the other hand only 1.6 per cent farmers have operational land holdings and them operation 17.4 per cent of the total cultivated land. Due to diverse agro-climatic conditions in the country a larger number of agricultural items are produced.

Rasure K.A. (2002)\textsuperscript{139} indicates, since primary agricultural credit societies (PACS) are the most important source of institutional credit, many steps have been taken to improve their working for example credit is given not only for production but also for the development of agriculture as a whole. The farmers get loans for a variety of purposes like production marketing of products, investment, and to some extent for consumption. In many cases loans have been given without the security of land moreover special care is taken whether sections including small and marginal farmers and agricultural labour.

Mutharayappa R. (2002)\textsuperscript{140} explains that the bonded labour system was widely in use in India until recently landless labourers normally borrowed money from the landlords for marriages, festivals repayment of old loans and even for consumption during times of distress and unemployment. Many land owners who were in need of agricultural labour provided loans against pledged labour.

Panjab Singh (2002)\textsuperscript{141} explain 69 per cent of the Indian agriculture employs the total work force compared to 2 per cent in the U.S, U.K, 2.6 per cent Germany, 81 per cent in Tanzania, 93 per cent in Nepal and is a major source of poverty alleviation and empowerment of the agrarian folk. This situation of the Indian economy is likely to remain unchanged for long time.

\textsuperscript{139} Dr.K.A.Rasure, Agricultural finance, development of rural financial institution, (part – i) facts for you, Vol.23, No.3, December, 2002, P-29.
\textsuperscript{141} Panjab Sing, globalization prospects, realising an agricultural dream, the Hindu survey of Indian agriculture, 2002, P-15.
Mrinali Gogai and Bhowmick B.C. (2002)\textsuperscript{142} explains that the eighth five year plan gives due recognition to the role of women in agriculture production. It envisages distribution of surplus land to women headed households and grant little. Women in the allotment of house sites and other productive assets. Emphasis in on the expansion of programmes of training in soil conservation, dairy development. Social forestry and other allied occupations like sericulture dairying development. Social forest and other allied occupation’s like sericulture dairying horticulture, poultry etc. Besides strengthening the extension services. The latter would help rural women in farming co-operatives Mahila mandals measures would be taken to reduce the element of drudgery among rural women through improved sanitary and environmental conditions. Smokeless chulahs, bio-gas plants, solar cookers and low cost technologies.

Sudher Jmulji (2003)\textsuperscript{143} recognized that agriculture has a pool of potential surplus manpower that can be redirected elsewhere and incentive have been proposed to guard agricultural labour into industry. But few have argued that the thrust should be to reorganize agriculture and that economic forces will divert surplus labour in the most profitable direction, whether industries or services. What is proposed here is a large, even it possibly wasteful, investment in agriculture for the purpose particularly of bringing arid land under cultivation.

\textsuperscript{142} Mrinali Gogai and B.C.Bhowmick (2002), “Role of women in farm decision making”, Agricultural situation in India, No.45, P-560, November.

\textsuperscript{143} Sudher Jmulji, agriculture and unemployment- Economic and political weekly, vol.xxxvii, no. 15, April-12, 2003, P- 1463.
Kathirvel, Manian R. and Er. Senthil Kumar. T (2003)\textsuperscript{144} explains that over the past three decades there have been remarkable changes in agriculture practices. Mechanization of various agriculture operations has been introduced. There is increasing use of chemical fertilizers and pesticides. These modified agriculture practices have introduced newer occupational health problems.

Shyam Sunder K.R. (2005)\textsuperscript{145} elucidates that the employers have been noisy advocates of labour market flexibility in most countries India included. Labour institutions have not restricted the freedom of employers in the employment. That labour institutions do restrain them; on the other hand, unions are asking for more restrictions in view of the rising insecurity in the weaker of globalisation.

C.Amalu (2005)\textsuperscript{146} enlightens that the agriculture’s like ages to the non-form sector alone generate considerable employment, income and growth in the rest of any economy. Agriculture is a means to an end not an end in itself. Agriculture has grown into an economic activity that has become so distorted that as Mahathma Gandhi would have said, it meets some people’s greed but not every one’s need. As a result some people’s greed has not been focused on bolstering agricultural itself. But even if robust agricultural growth rates are

\textsuperscript{144} Dr.K.Kathirvel, Dr.R.Manian and Er.T.Senthil Kumar, occupational Health problems of agricultural workers, kisan world, Vol.30, No.6, June 2003, P-47.
\textsuperscript{146} Uche C.Amalu, poverty alleviation and agriculture experience, journal of food, agriculture and environment, Vol.3, No.2, April, 2005, P-231.
achieved it alone cannot support and sustain the rising number of young people who each year join African rural labour force.

**Nirmala B, (2009)** explains that Contract farming is a system for the production and supply of agricultural/horticultural produce under forward contracts between producers/suppliers and buyers. It involves commitment of the producer/seller to provide an agricultural commodity of a certain type at a time and price, and in the quantity required by a committed buyer. Contract farming has long term benefits for both the grower and the purchaser, provided that their long-term association is mutually complementary. Certainly, not all contract farming is bad for farmers. It can lead to sustainable cultivation practices. However, there is a need for the government to step in and monitor the contract farming practices.

**Ezeh C.I. et al. (2013)** have determined the impact of agricultural development programmes (ADP) on rural women contact farmers’ poverty levels in Aguata, agricultural zone of Abia State, Nigeria. A-multistage random sampling technique was used to select 180 rural women farmers (90 a piece for rural women contact and non contact farmers). Instrument for data collection was two sets of pre-tested and structured questionnaires. The poverty line was N5037.79 and N5027.91 per month for rural women contact and non contact farmers respectively. Poverty incidence was 0.444 and 0.5222 for rural women

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contact and non contact farmers respectively. The result of the paired t-test showed that the ADP impacted positively and significantly on rural women contact farmers’ farm income, farm size and fertilizer use levels at 5.0 per cent risk level. The multiple regression analysis with double log as the lead equation showed that the critical determinants of gross expenditure of the rural women contact farmers include household size, farm size, labour use levels and farm incomes at given levels of significance. It was recommended the women farmers should be given increased access to agricultural lands to help boost agricultural output and reduce endemic poverty.

Rajagopalan V. and Varadarajan S. (2014)\textsuperscript{149} have explained that labour using (change biased) technology would directly contribute to solve that problem of unemployment through larger absorption in agriculture, provided that problem of high transaction cost in employing labour was solved by a policy of better farmer labour relationship. However, if the technology was not labour using, it was at least not labour for growing unemployment and under employment in the form sector. Incidentally, the results would also reply that increasing use of labour in rice farms would depend on increasing application of capital. Then policies on agricultural credit and fertilizers prices would emerge as important, determinants of diffusion of new technology and consequent gains in employment potential on farm.

Pratisha Padmasri Deka (2015)\textsuperscript{150} has analysed that two thirds of the women in one study felt that they had to work harder to receive the same benefits compared to employed men. The women have to work in polluted atmosphere and get very low wages, their health is affected, because of low wages they are not able to eat properly. Women work more than 16th hours a day both in production and in producing the country’s labour force. Much of their work however is unpaid, among a wide range of other activities. In fact, most of the families live only on the income of their women folk, who are the bread winners of their families. But their labour is not recognized and they are treated as cheap, unorganized, unrecognized labours.