

GENDER COMPOSITION AND GENDER EQUALITY IN WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN TEACHING AND BANKING SECTOR

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Abstract

Despite of its very fast economic growth in India in recent years, we are experiencing declining female's participation in workforce among all the age groups and among all education levels in both urban and rural areas in India. This trend can be to some extent described by the fact that larger no of females now days are more enrolled in higher studies and also family income is rising very much. Other possible source includes measurement issues and also female face get larger opposition from men for less no of jobs. With regard to smaller employment opportunities occupational segregation come into sight to play a major role in holding female back. Closing the gender gap as it may be increase GDP by on average of 35% four fifths of these earnings come from add up workers to the labor force but wholly one fifth of the profits are due to the gender diversity effect on productivity. There is a great deal of evidence about that when women fully participate in labor market it contributes towards macroeconomic gains. Gross Domestic Product per capita release credit to gender gaps in the labor force participation has been estimated at up to 27% in specific regions suggest that put up the female labor force participation rate to country-specific for male used to for example raise GDP in the United States by 5 percent, in Japan by 9 percent, in the United Arab Emirates by 12 percent, and in Egypt by 34 percent. International Labor Organization data Aguirre and others (2012) explore that of the 865 million female from world -wide that has the potentiality and power to put up completely to their national economies 812 million females reside come out and advance countries of the world. The main aim of the paper is to understand the gender disparity and gender equality in participation of women in workforce.

Keywords: Employment, segregation, productivity, growth gains, Closing Gender Gaps, gender disparity, Gender equality, GDP.

INTRODUCTION

Gender Equality: Women's Economic Empowerment

Women in India constitute 29percent of the labor force which is less from 35percent in 2004. Although half of the work done by women in India is unreported, unregistered, unpaid and uncared and nearly all of it is casual and unprotected work which should be counted. Female are not well participated in most sectors plus business leaders. However, they have at least of nearly 40 percent of agricultural labor and they commanded only 9percent of the land in India. The economic results of achieving gender equality in India is make an estimate of US\$ 700 billion of added Gross Domestic Product by 2025. The IMF estimates that equal participation of Women in the workforce will increase India's GDP by 27percent in the next few years.

Economic implications of the labor market divide

1. There are lots of evidences which shows that when female is more participating in the labor market are able to grow their full labor market likely and their earnings grow more. (Loko and Diouf. 2009, Dollar and Gatti, 1999).
2. Aguirre and others (2012) propose that increase in the female labor force participation rate to country- particularly for male would for instance raise Gross Domestic Product in the United States by 5 percent, in Japan by 9 percent, in the United Arab Emirates by 12 percent, and in Egypt by 34 percent. Based on

- International Labor Organization data Aguirre and others (2012) investigates that of the 865 million female world-wide who have the ability and potential to contribute more fully to their national economies 812 million women live in emerging and developing nations of the world.
3. Better chances for women to earn and control income could contributed to economic development in developing economies. More women are participates in labor market and more likely than men to invest a more proportion of their earned income in the education of their children's. According to the International Labor Organization women's work both paid and unpaid may be the single most important factor which should be taken as poverty-reducing factor in developing economies (Heintz, 2006). Accordingly higher Female Labor Force Participation and greater earnings by women will lead in higher expenditure on school enrollment for children including girls potentially activate a virtuous cycle when educated women become female role models (Aguirre and others 2012, Miller 2008). Stotsky (2006) states that women's relative lack of opportunities of jobs in developing economies disturbs economic growth while at the same time, while as economic growth will lead to improvements in their adverse disadvantaged conditions.
 4. Average Female Labor Force Participation remains low at around 50 percent with levels and trends varying across regions. While women participation in the world market now represent 40 percent of the global labor force (World Bank, 2011). Women Participation in labor market has be around 50 percent over the past two decades. Average rate masking significant cross-regional differences in levels and trends and Female Labor Force Participation Rates differ from a low of 21% in the Middle East and North Africa to over 63% in East Asia and the Pacific and sub-Saharan African regions. The Latin America and the Caribbean countries have faced strong increases in Female Participation Rates in work of some percentage points over the past two decades rates have been declining in South Asia. The rate of women participation in Europe and Central Asia has stayed broadly constant.
 5. Variations in the gender gap are very remarkable even among OECD countries. For instance in the gender gap in Japan labor market stands at 25 percent as compared to just over 10 percent on average in the major advanced economies of the world and remain only 6 percent points in Sweden. Across the OECD membership countries female employment is concentrated in the services sector more only which accounts for 80 percent of employed women compared to 60 percent for men. From this sector women fill a disproportionately higher share of occupations in health and community services followed by education (OECD, 2012). An inspection by the International Labour Organisation (2010) finds that female is excessive in sectors that are attributing by low status and pay.
 6. Female Labor Force Participation varies with per capita income and has evidence of a U-shaped relationship. When having lower levels of per capita income, there is a high Female Labor Force Participation Rates shows the essential requirement to work in the absence of social protection programs. With excessive household earnings and growing social protection female can remove from the labor market in favor of household work and childcare. In most advanced countries at different income levels labor force participation recover as a result of better education, lower fertility rates, access to labor-saving household technology, and the availability of market based household services (Duflo, 2012, Tsani and others, 2012, World Bank, 2011).

Objectives

- To understands the participation of women in Teaching sector.
- To know the impact of gender composition and gender gap on women participation in workforce in India.
- To know the gender equality in Teaching and Banking sector in Jammu province.

Globally, Gender Workplace statistics at a glance 2019-20

- Women comprise 47.4% of all employed persons in Australia 25.8% of all employed persons are women working full-time and 21.6% are working part-time.
- Women constitute 37.7% of all full-time employees and 68.2% of all part time employees.
- The workforce participation rate is 61.4% for women and 70.9% for men.
- The workforce participation rate among those aged 15-64 years is 74.5% for women and 83% for men.
- The full time average weekly ordinary earnings for women are 13.9% less than for men.
- Of all women aged 20-24, 91.1% have attained year 12 qualifications or above compared to 88.8% of men in the same age. Of all women aged 25-29, 44.5% have achieved a bachelor degree or above compared to 32.2% of similarly aged men.
- Women represent 58.7% of domestic students enrolled in universities or other institutions. This has risen from 57.6% in 2007.
- Women hold 14.1% of chair positions and 26.8% of directorship and represent 17.1% of CEO's and 31.5% key management personnel.
- 34% of boards and governing bodies have no female directors.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Qian and Fan (2019) in their study focus on that how male and female workers have different experiences at work to the gender composition of their occupations. In logical sample contain 5216 activity records of working at main jobs from 4486 non-employed workers. They discover remarkable gender differences in the relation between occupational gender composition and affective well-being. Working in occupations with higher percentages of male workers is associated with higher levels of meaningfulness at work for women but these associations are not significant for men. Pundarik Mukhopadhaya (2001).He analyzed from his paper that the employment trends gender in different industries, occupational groups and educational levels in the city-state of Singapore. He finds that Singapore's has experienced increased women's participation in workforce as a result of rising educational attainment. He explores the gender wage gap at various occupational and educational levels. Also it was found that the gender wage gap has been decreased over the period from 1975-1999. Lastly it finds that because of a lack of ample childcare facilities and un-availability of part time work which emphasized women who leave the job to start families face certain obstacles when trying to re-enter the workforce.

GENDER EQUALITY IN THE WORLD OF WORK MATTERS

The female can achieve more and more and adds to nations Gross Domestic Product and increase family's support and household earnings. Women have now a day's compete with men in terms of education and also progress more. In the United States of America and a number of other countries, female can now actually surpass men in educational achievements. The problem arises when the young adult women's try to balance work and family and women's have to do all of the care giving responsibilities in the home. If women do more household work and spend more hours into these then men this greatly disadvantages women in the workplace So it is very hard to maintain gender equality if workplaces demand that women be available all the time in work.

- Being in job can bring lot of economic gains for females, their families, businesses, and communities. Jobs can boost self-respect and draw families out of poverty and increases their standard of living. Also, gender disparities persist in the world of work. Closing these gaps will stimulate job creation more broadly is a need for ending extreme poverty, and boosting prosperity in the economy.
- When female employment raises to equal male levels will have a direct impact on Gross Domestic Product and it increased it by 34 percent in Egypt and 12 percent in the United Arab Emirates and 10 percent in South Africa and 9 percent in Japan.
- Also half of women's productive potential globally is not utilized when compared to 22 percent of men's according to the International Labor Organization.
- In places where female's paid work has raised as in Latin America and the Caribbean countries gains have made important contribution in poverty reduction in those countries.
- Both the World Development Report 2013 on Jobs (WDR 2013) and the World Development Report 2012 on Gender Equality and Development (WDR 2012) provide valuable and complementary frameworks to help policy makers and advance gender equality in the world of work. The World Development Report 2013 helps us to know when promoting gender equality in the world of work adding significant development values.

Gender equality in the world of work is present. Broadly various key like dimensions include labor force participation, employment, farming and firm earnings, and job quality. However, full-time wage employment is a very strong predictor of women's development, well-being, and jobs that provides higher earnings, profits, rights, and various opportunities for skills and development are more likely to expand women's agency.

- With respect to global measure women's are more economically excluded from men. Trends suggest that women's labor force participation of ages 15–64 worldwide over the last two decades has stagnated, declining from 57 to 55 percent globally.
- Women's Participation in workforce is lower level as 25 percent in the Middle East and North Africa. Globally, Gallup estimates that men have twice jobs available to them when compared with women in South Asia.
- Gender gaps are very prevalent among farmers, entrepreneurs, and employees. Because of gender-specific factors women have lower output per unit of land and are less participate in commercial farming. In the Central Highlands of Ethiopia the value of output per hectare of female-headed households has been estimated to be 35 % lower than that of male-headed households a disparity is seen everywhere. Female entrepreneurs are mainly operated in smaller firms and they are less profitable to them. In Latin America

and the Caribbean countries half of established businesses are owned by which no women employees have compared to 38 % of the businesses are owned by men.

- Female employees are more likely to work in temporary and part-time jobs and less wage paying jobs are less likely to be promoted and are more concentrated in activities and sectors with lower barriers to entry. Women and girls also do the vast majority of unpaid care and housework activities. Females are generally earning less than men. International Labor Organization analysis of 83 countries shows that women in paid work earn on average between 10% and 30 % less than men.
- Gaps are particularly small in the Middle East and North African countries but also more in high-income OECD countries. Gender sorting into different jobs, industries, and firm types explains much of the pay gap. Throughout the world women are more concentrated in less-productive, less wage giving jobs, run enterprises in less-productive sectors with fewer opportunities for business scale-up or career advancement. Across developing countries 18 percent of non-agricultural self-employed males work in business-oriented services compared to only 5% of female's women are more heavily concentrated in retail services and often in the informal sector.

GENDER INEQUALITIES IN PAID AND UNPAID WORK: EMPIRICAL PATTERNS AND TRENDS

- An investigation of the gender distribution of both paid and unpaid work will help us to understand the claim that gender remains one of the more durable forms of disadvantage in the economy. Globally they have increased from 50.2 percent in 1980 to 51.7percent in 2008 according to the International Labour Organisation estimates. Men have always more participation than females from 82 to 77.7percent during this period led to the reduction in the gender gap in labor force participation rates from 32 to 26 percentage points. The prevalence of various factors on women's movement in the public domain probably explains why there were just 35 to 42 women per 100 men in the labor force in South Asia and the MENA region where these barriers are strong lot when compared to 70-79 in East Asia, Latin America and Sub-Saharan African regions where they are weaker enough (International Labour Organisation, 2008).
- Females now days have been moving out of agriculture sector and more participated in service and manufacturing sector now a days.
- First of all many women's unemployment is more than men in 113 out of 152 countries for which there are available data (ILO, 2010) estimates.
- Evidences have comes from various developing countries of the world shows that widespread and increasing entry of women into work on a temporary work and casual laborers, seasonal or part time basis, often in home-based activities as part of global value chains (Zammit, 2010). In addition a large proportion of working women are working as unpaid labor in family farms and enterprises with no access and with income of their own.
- The prevalence of women's in the labor market is also widely shown in the gender disparity in earnings. According to International Labor Organization estimates shows that women's earnings is less from men's by 22.9% in 2008-09, an improvement from the shortfall of 26.2% in 1995. This is a positive trend, the pace of progress means that it would take more than 75 years to achieve the principle of equal pay for work of equal value (International Labor Organization, 2011).

Gender equality is achieved when people are able to access and enjoy the same rewards, resources and opportunities regardless of whether they are a woman or a man. The aim of gender equality in the workplace is to achieve broadly equal outcomes for women and men, not exactly the same outcome for all individuals. The meaning of gender equality in law has been descended from Aristotle's dictum treating alike, unlike alike, which means equality is pivotal to mandate equality for equals and dissimilar classes need to be similarly treated. In India, gender inequality has not only been an important social issue but also a critical economic challenge. According to a survey conducted by National Family Health Survey (NFHS) in 2016 girls in India have mortality rate as high as 61%. A survey by Catalysts suggests that the organizations with highest percentage of women on senior management on boards are technology, media and telecommunication. Women hold only 7.7 % of board seats and 2.7% of board chairs. Although with time there have been some improvements in the society, the working women ratio has increased from 14.8% to 27% from 2012 to 2016, but still gender inequality is the most prevalent issue in Indian workplaces. It is far below the world average of 50% according to the World Bank. Not only in India, but organizations across the world witness that Gender ratios are usually imbalanced irrespective of sectors, industries, and job categories. This is regardless of the fact that most nations are developing or developed and they have almost equal numbers of male and female students at the school and university levels.

Gender Inequality in simple words may be defined as discrimination against women based on their sex. Women are traditionally considered by the society as weaker sex. They have been accorded subordinate position to men.

They are often exploited, degraded, violated and discriminated both in the homes and in the outside world. This peculiar type of discrimination against women is prevalent everywhere in the world of work and more so in the Indian society.

Some of the problems which women feel they face at workplace are as follows:

- Women get paid less as compared to the men at the same position.
- Women are less likely to advance their careers as far as men are concerned.
- Sexual harassment

GENDER INEQUALITY, WORK HOURS, AND THE FUTURE OF WORK

Gender differences in paid and unpaid time at work are an important aspect of gender inequality. Women tend to spend more time on unpaid household and family care work, and men spend more time in paid work. This unequal distribution of time creates barriers to women's advancement at work and reduces women's economic security.

Technological innovation through machine learning, robotics, and artificial intelligence is likely to automate many tasks and jobs, thus improving productivity, freeing time, and allowing fewer workers to do more. Technological innovation presents an opportunity to rethink the distribution of time spent on paid and unpaid work, tackle the inequality in the division of domestic and care work between women and men, and provide time for up skilling and lifelong learning needed to benefit from future opportunities.

WOMEN'S HOURS ROSE DURING THE LAST 40 YEARS, WHILE MEN'S DECLINED MARGINALLY

During the last 40 years women's average annual number of hours in paid work increased substantially while average hours worked by men during the same period declined only marginally. In 2017 women's average annual hours were slightly below 40 per week while men's were above. The increase in annual hours was particularly strong for women who work full-time (at least 35 hours per week). On average women full-time workers now work five more weeks per year than they did in 1977 and men one more week. As a sign of growing polarization of paid time at work average weeks in paid work for women who work less than full-time did not increase in the last two decades and decreased for men who work less than full-time.

Policy Recommendations

Redistributing and reorganizing hours of work is one way of distributing productivity gains from automation equitably, smoothing the potential disruptive impact of technological displacement, and encouraging greater gender equality in paid and unpaid work.

Recommendations to improve equity in work hours include:

Guarantee paid family leave, paid sick days, and paid vacation. Investing in paid leave policies that address life cycle needs for time off (for parenthood, education, elder care and civic engagement) can potentially increase GDP by increasing labor force participation rates, particularly for women.

Improve access to quality part-time or reduced hour's work. Legislation to provide workers who work less than 35 hours with the right to equal treatment in pay, promotions, and benefits, and to give employees options for reducing their hours without having to change employment or their career, can improve access to quality part-time work.

Increase worker control over the scheduling of their time at work. New scheduling technology makes it easier and less costly to prepare schedules and allocate shifts in occupations with extensive operating hours. Fair scheduling statutes passed in several jurisdictions offer examples of how to provide workers with more stability in the time they work.

Discourage extensive overwork and overtime. Providing workers with a right to refuse mandatory overtime, and providing mandatory rest times between shifts, will reduce scheduling conflict and improve health. Updating overtime earnings thresholds, and ensuring that a larger number of women and men are covered by overtime regulations, will reduce employer incentives to make long hours an expected component of employment.

Provide paid time for employees to upgrade their skills as technology changes. Technological innovation is affecting the delivery of learning and increasing the options for remote access to instruction. Yet, learning will continue to take time, time outside of paid work that women often do not have because of their care commitments. Paid time to upgrade skills and pursue lifelong learning can reduce inequality in access to new employment opportunities.

Encourage work sharing through the Unemployment Insurance system during times of economic transition and downturns and facilitate work sharing more broadly. During slack business or downturns, work sharing arrangements allow workers to receive unemployment benefits to compensate for loss of earnings if their hours are temporarily cut back. This allows employers to retain valued and skilled workers and provides greater economic security and workforce attachment to workers.

Promote a reduction in the standard working week. Even though it fails to be the reality for many workers, the 40-hour workweek nevertheless has become the benchmark against which working time is judged. The 40-hour threshold has not been improved since 1938 and the coming decades provide an opportunity to share time and rewards more equally by lowering the legal definition of full-time work.

- India has slipped four places to rank 112th globally in terms of gender gap amid widening disparity in terms of women's health and survival and economic participation the two areas where the country is now ranked in the bottom-five an annual survey showed on December 17.
- While Iceland remains the world's most gender-neutral country India has moved down the ladder from its 108th position last year on the World Economic Forum's Gender Gap Report to rank below countries like China (106th), Sri Lanka (102nd), Nepal (101st), Brazil (92nd), Indonesia (85th) and Bangladesh (50th). Yemen is ranked the worst (153rd), while Iraq is 152nd and Pakistan 151st. The political gender gap will take 95 years to close, compared to 107 years last year. Worldwide women now hold 25.2% of parliamentary lower-house seats and 21.2% of ministerial positions compared to 24.1% and 19% respectively last year.
- Since then India's rank has worsened on three of four metrics used for the overall ranking. While India has improved to 18th place on political empowerment it has slipped to 150th on health and survival to 149th in terms of economic participation and opportunity and to 112th place for educational attainment.
- The World Economic Forum said economic opportunities for women are extremely limited in India (35.4%), Pakistan (32.7%), Yemen (27.3%), Syria (24.9%) and Iraq (22.7%). It also named India among countries with very low women representation on company boards (13.8 %), while it was even worse in China (9.7%).

LOW SEX RATIOS AT BIRTH IN INDIA

- On health and survival four large countries Pakistan, India, Vietnam and China fare badly with millions of women there not getting the same access to health as men the World Economic Forum said. It also flagged abnormally low sex ratios at birth in India (91 girls for every 100 boys) and Pakistan (92/100).
- Since 2006, the gap has significantly widened and India is the only country among the 153 countries studied where the economic gender gap is larger than the political one. Only one-quarter of women, compared with 82% of men, engage actively in the labor market one of the lowest rates globally (145th). Furthermore, the female estimated earned income is mere one-fifth of the male income, again among the world's lowest (144th).
- Women account for only 14% of leadership roles (136th) and 30% of professional and technical workers. Violence forced marriage and discrimination in access to health remain pervasive. The situation and the trend are more positive in terms of gender gaps in education. But a large difference persists for literacy rate only two-thirds of women are literate compared with 82 % of men according to the World Economic Forum.

LOW FEMALE POLITICAL REPRESENTATION

India ranks high on the political empowerment sub-index largely because the country was headed by a woman for 20 of the past 50 years. But female political representation today is low as women make up only 14.4% of Parliament (122nd rank globally) and 23% of the cabinet (69th).

GENDER GAPS IN WORK RELATED TO WOMEN'S WORK

Gender gaps are one of the most pressing challenges facing the world of work today. Globally, women are substantially less likely than men to participate in the labor market, and once in the workforce, they are also less likely to find jobs than men. Indeed, their access to quality employment opportunities remains restricted. Overall, for example, women are more likely to work longer hours than men when both paid and unpaid work is taken into account. The analysis by ILO economists, covering 142 countries and territories, found the following:

- Having a spouse or partner reduces the probability for women to participate in the labor market in emerging developed and the Arab States and Northern African (ASNA) countries. In developing countries however the effect is reversed: partnerships/marriage have a positive effect on participation. This latter finding highlights the economic necessity to work despite partnership status in developing countries.
- Women suffering from severe poverty are more likely to participate irrespective of gender norms. In developing countries the probability of participating in the workforce increases by 7.8 per cent in emerging by 6.4 per cent in ASNA two regions with the widest gap in participation rates the probability increases further at 12.9 per cent.
- Globally the lack of affordable care for children or family members affects women's participation negatively. In ASNA countries it decreases the probability to participate by 6.2 percentage points in developing countries by 4.8 percentage points and in developed countries by 4.0 percentage points. Having children however has a small negative effect on participation but it is not significant in fact in developing countries there is a small positive effect.
- Limited access to safe transportation is the greatest challenge to participation that women face in developing countries reducing their participation probability by 15.5 percentage points.
- Religions embody a complex system of values that extends to gender roles. In developing countries the probability to participate is substantially reduced by religion a proxy indicator for more restrictive gender role conformity. In developed and emerging countries the results are mixed: in some cases the effect is positive in others negative.

Women participation in Banking sector.

Group-Wise Distribution of Employees of All Scheduled Commercial Banks According To Category Since March 2005-2014						
Total Employees of which Females						
Year	Officers	Clerks	Subordinates	Officers	Clerks	Subordinates
2014	640869	431842	161244	129345	125795	226527
2013	551712	484975	184044	95507	115233	22436
2012	502938	581421	190790	84375	107826	23113
2011	4700144	481421	178220	67958	100999	17827
2010	401060	402521	175608	50507	86351	16525
2009	351841	349360	174641	41558	79174	17382
2008	3334884	342930	170471	36091	72102	15208
2007	347662	333414	185045	34441	81031	17252
2006	330093	366700	185210	30566	84843	17339
2005	313863	384821	189758	27282	86094	17113

The above table depicts the distribution of employees of all scheduled commercial banks in India since 2005-2014, it is clear from the table that every year the number of women entering into the banking sector has been increasing significantly, that is from 1, 30, 489 in 2005, to 2, 77,792 in the year 2014, out of which 1,29, 345 are in the officers position. That means 1,47,303 and optimal women entered into the banking sector, within a period of 9 years. The increasing number of women employees in Indian banking sector shows that the gender discrimination in the workplace is being reduced since past few decades.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Babu and Vembu (2014) concluded that there are different stressors among women employees in public sector Banks such as lack of participation in decision making, poor working conditions relating work shifts, work overload, role ambiguity, in appropriate leadership style, poor working relationship lack of

social support, transfer and technological changes in the organization. Excessive stress may result in bodily disturbances like peptic ulcers, headache, migraine, fever etc. By testing the hypothesis, the researcher concluded that high level of stress is experienced by women employees due to factors like role ambiguity, role overload, lack of supervisory support and Technological changes. According to a study by Kamala Srinivasan (1991) 50% of women have complaints that extra work is always shunted to them, sexual harassment from colleagues, managers, or customers, dissatisfaction that they were not sent out for training. Some obstacles arise from women specific difficulties in demanding promotion – as promotions are linked with transfers Women have difficulties in working late they shy away from responsibility, and they have a low opinion of their own abilities and a negative attitude to accepting recognition (Mankidy, 1986a). Some women employees feel that these constraints are intensified by being forced to adopt the behaviour of the 'successful manager or officer' which has been established by men. It is also argued that women could find their own strategies which would achieve the same result (Mankidy, 1988). To improve prospects for women restructuring the work by flexible working hours, part-time job assignments, split location positions performed partly at home, and job-sharing opportunities can be made available (Mankidy, 1988). Women feel the thirst for more knowledge and better career prospects. Stagnation somehow scares them. The discrimination experienced by women working in banks is mainly in terms of the lack of infrastructural facilities, the transfer policy, and assumptions that women would not be interested in training or in promotions.

Women participation in Teaching sector.

Year	Primary			Upper Primary		
	Males	Females	Total	Male	Female	Total
1950-51	456	82	538	73	13	86
1960-61	615	127	742	262	83	345
1970-71	835	225	1060	563	175	638
1980-81	1021	343	1363	598	253	851
1990-91	1143	473	1616	717	356	1073
2000-01	1221	675	1896	820	506	1326
2005-2006	1326	858	2184	998	673	1671
2007-08	1403	920	2323	1039	678	1717
2009-10	1288	1027	2315	1063	717	1780
2011-12	1285	944	2217	1110	789	1899
2012-13	1208	1009	2099	1048	764	1778
2013-14	1194	905	2254	1168	839	1887
2014-15	1259	995	2656	N.A	N.A	2057
2015-16	N.A	N.A	2684	N.A	N.A	2513

N.A- Not available

Data Sources:-Ministry of human resources development, Government of India, National Institute of Educational planning and Administration, New Delhi.

From the above table we can analyze that in primary classes the participation of female teachers is increasing from the year 1950-51 to 2013-2014, from 82,000 to 99,5000 while their participation in the upper primary classes increases from 13,000 to about 839,000 in the year 2013-14. While comparing with males, their participation in the year 1950-51 is 456,000 to about 1259,000 in the year 2013-14 for primary classes, also witnessing rising rapidly when compared to 73,000 in the year 1950-51 to 1168,000 in the year 2012-13 for the Upper Primary classes.

Year	Secondary			Senior-secondary		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1950-51	N.A	N.A	N.A	107	20	127
1960-61	N.A	N.A	N.A	234	62	296
1970-71	N.A	N.A	N.A	474	257	629
1980-81	N.A	N.A	N.A	669	417	926
1990-91	N.A	N.A	N.A	917	225	1334
2000-01	654	352	1006	531	394	756
2005-06	696	427	1123	638	408	1032
2007-08	721	452	1173	667	349	1075
2008-09	728	447	1175	603	385	952
2009-10	747	447	1194	639	442	1024

2010-2011	729	456	1185	703	496	1145
2011-12	776	471	1247	766	520	1262
2012-13	700	462	1162	783	N.A	1303
2013-14	765	471	1247	N.A	N.A	1799
2014-15	N.A	462	1286	N.A	N.A	1785
2015-16	N.A	482	1347	N.A	N.A	1985

N.A- not available

Source: Ministry of human resource development, Government of India, National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration, New Delhi.

From the above table we can analyze that in Secondary schools female participation in teaching sector showing an increasing trend from the year 2000-01 which is 352,000 to 482,000 in the year 2011-12. While comparing with male counterparts their participation is more in teaching sector from 654,000 in the year 2000-01 to 765,000 in the year 2012-13. Also in Senior secondary classes female participation is increasing from 20,000 in the year 1950-51 to 520,000 in the year 2011-12 and males participation is also increases from the year from 107,000 to 766,000.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Kapur,(1970) in his study found that more adjustment problems are created and faced by working women and hence they expect their spouses to accommodate and adjust. They also face role-conflict and adjustment problems in family and workplace. Similarly, Kohli,(1970) in his study found that females appeared to have a better perception of an open school climate and this in turn appeared associated with better job satisfaction. Another study by, Ranade and Ramachandran, (1970) in their study concluded that women's employment has no adverse effect on their domestic responsibilities. In a similar way, Sengupta and Sankar,(1970) in their study stated that in spite of women's increasing participation in a variety of professions, one cannot say that their status has improved. In the same line of thought, Verma,(1971) in his study found that female teachers were more satisfied with their career and possessed a better attitude towards their profession, students and school work. They also exhibited better mental health and suffered less from problems related to their teaching activities. Another study done by, Lavingia,(1974) in his study on polytechnic teachers stated that job satisfaction of teachers differed significantly according to sex and the type of schools Government or Private in which they happened to work. Wood, M.R., (1975) in his study on middle class urban working women in urban Gujarat showed that only some of the women had established a give and take difference with their husbands. Women were also found to take/to take part in important decisions. Also, Sandhu and Singh,(1977) in their study listed out the motivation factors-viz. feeling of achievement, ability utilization, recognition and rewards, creative work, freedom of expression and scope for professional growth contributed comparatively more to job satisfaction than factors like behavior of immediate superior officers, job security and advancement, adequacy of Salary, administrative set-up and social status attached to the job. In the same line of thought, Sharan, (1980) in his study on job satisfaction of women workers in manufacturing industries reported that job satisfaction of women is low as they have poor conditions of work and living. Gupta, S.P. (1980) in his study on job satisfaction of teachers found that teaching experience was not significantly associated with job satisfaction. Similarly, Porwal (1980) in his study revealed that a negative difference between the length of service and the level of job satisfaction of teachers. Bennett, (1982) in her study stated that it may be particularly important for female professors to demonstrate both sets of characteristics-those traditionally viewed as feminine, such as friendliness and support, and those traditionally viewed as masculine, such as competence and confidence. Another study was done by, Basow and Distenfeld, (1985) in their study about the availability/accessibility of the teachers, record that students are more critical of their female teachers than their male teachers. Also, Doherty and Bielby, (1985) in their study found that in most of the systems, there are only a handful of male teachers teaching in primary classes when there is a lower representation of female teachers in higher classes. This differential distribution in the educational system makes teaching a gender specific occupation. Moreover, teachers being products of society may be expected to appear/ behave differently by virtue of their gender. As gender role-conditioning starts from the very beginning, society prominently defines duties and rights associated with each sex. Trained in institutions in which gender role-biases, are embedded teachers may unconsciously model cultural expectations in both their personal and educational practices, that reflect gender discrimination. Another study was done by, Dalia Etzion and Ayala Pines, (1986) in their stress-related study, found that Americans reported feeling more burned-out than Israelis, and women reported feeling more burned-out than men. As for coping, women reported

using indirect and inactive coping strategies more than men, and Americans reported using them more than Israelis. Similarly, Basow and Silberg(1987) in their study reveal that lower ratings are obtained by female teachers on items related to female stereotypes, because female teachers lack interpersonal interaction with students. Moreover, male teachers are perceived to be dynamic, energetic, enthusiastic, which are masculine characteristics and students associate them with male teachers rather than female teachers. The sex-stereotype-conditioning may affect others' rating of teachers revealing the differential expectations from male and female teachers. When student evaluation of teachers suffers from subjectivity where female teachers are underrated, the spurious results obtained will introduce a negative attitude among the teachers towards their profession. Thus, the status of female teachers may be under threat. Also, in the same study, Basow and Howe, (1987) in another study found that students value teachers who are androgynous, high in both masculine instrumental and feminine expressive qualities. Another study was done by, Ramanamma, A. and Bambawale, (1987) in their study stated that Women's employment is a double burden and working women are unable to face adequately both the roles as worker and mother, which finally leads to role-conflict. Similarly, Sinha and Pushpa,(1987) in their research found that working women have to perform two sets of roles that is the role of a mother, a wife, a daughter-in-law, and a neighbor of the family on the one hand and on the other hand as an employee. She has to perform a specific set of roles at her work place which may involve the role of an employee, a sub-ordinate, a colleague, a peer, and supervisor. It is argued that working women have to confront more conflicting role-expectations as they occupy a large number of positions than the non-working women. Another study was done by, Gutek, B.A., and Larwood, L.,(1987) in their study found that women's career development is different from and more complex than men's because of role expectations about both paid work and family life. The same writers name five elements requiring particular attention in the study of women's careers: career preparation opportunities in society, the influence of marriage, pregnancy and child care, timing and age. Lastly, Kiersteal et al.(1988) in their study found that students rate same teaching styles behaviors differently when displayed by female and male professors.

RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

The following null hypotheses were formulated to carry out the study.

Ho1: There is no impact of gender composition of an occupation on gender equality.

Ho2: There is an impact of gender composition of an occupation on gender equality.

METHODOLOGY

The study uses a descriptive survey research design. The target population consists of all 435 females from banking and teaching sectors of Jammu Division of Jammu and Kashmir. Out of which 139 females from banking sector and 296 females from teaching sectors has been chosen on the basis of purposive based sampling covered surveyed in Jammu, Udhampur, Kathua districts of Jammu division

The instrument used was self-constructed questionnaire based on likert scale items. The questionnaire consists of two sections. Section A dealt with bio data of the respondents, while section B consists of items that focused on Gender composition vs. Gender equality.

The experts validated the instrument and the reliability was tested by Cronbach Alpha reliability test Cronbach Alpha co-efficient obtained for the instrument was considered well enough for the instrument to be used.

The data collected were analyzed using t - testing at 0.05 level of significant.

RESULTS

The hypotheses generated in this study were tested and the results are as follows:

Ho1: There is no impact of gender composition of an occupation on gender equality.

KRUSKAL-WALLIS TEST

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
GD_Mean	435	2.6065	.75505	1.00	7.77
Gender_Composition	435	2.17	.692	1	3

Ranks			
	Gender_Composition	N	Mean Rank
GD_Mean	Male dominated	73	192.31
	Female dominated	214	222.78
	Balanced Composition	148	223.76
	Total	435	
Test Statistics ^{a,b}			
	GD_Mean		
Chi-Square	3.674		
Df	2		
Asymp. Sig.	.159		
a. Kruskal Wallis Test			
P value is .159>0.05 accept the null the null hypothesis that the gender composition of an occupation has no affect on gender equality.			

CONCLUSION

Women's have done large amounts of unpaid care work such as child-rearing and household activities which is remains invisible and unaccounted for in GDP. When women started participated in the labor market its depends upon certain factors such as higher allocation of time paid to unpaid care work, perform various household activities. Gender Gap in wage and in Equality at workplace persists very wide in most countries of the world.

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