

Labour Force Participation: Measuring the Gender Gap Trends A Case of ITIs in Uttar Pradesh

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Preface

In this study, we embark on a journey of exploration and analysis, delving into the intricate dynamics of gender disparities in labour force participation, focusing on the ITI's in the state of Uttar Pradesh, India. There is a strong relationship between vocational training, education, and women's engagement in the labour market.

As the United Nations' Sustainable Development Goals cast a spotlight on the urgency of gender equality, we find ourselves at a critical juncture in addressing gender gaps that persist in various aspects of life. This study provides comprehensive analysis of vocational training as a catalyst for change in the context of gender disparities.

The global call for gender empowerment and India's female labour force participation rate requires level playing field. The evidence points to a complex interplay of factors, including social norms, education, and economic conditions, which are also observed in the present research.

This study provides the rich landscape of literature and highlights the unique nuances that shape gender dynamics in the world of work.

We are hopeful that the present research will be beneficial for all the stakeholders in their endeavor to develop a meaningful strategy for policy formulation aimed at bridging gender gaps in vocational training and sustainable workforce participation in the world of work.

I congratulate Dr. Shashi Bala (Senior Fellow) and her team for the endeavor in these directions.

Dr. Arvind
Director General



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Dr. Shashi Bala
Senior Fellow



Chapter 1 : Labour Force Participation Rate: Measuring the Gender Gap Trends of Vocationally Trained youth in Uttar Pradesh

1.1. Overview

The United Nations' 193 member nations united in 2015 to pledge support for 17 Sustainable Development Goals. With a focus on gender equality, Goal 5 established the lofty goal of empowering women and girls worldwide by 2030. Large gender discrepancies still exist many years later, and preliminary data points to a regressive impact of the COVID-19 epidemic on gender equality. At less than 30 per cent, India has one of the lowest levels of female labour force participation in the world, which is the result of a complex set of demand and supply-side factors, including social norms (Verick, 2017). In contrast with global trends, India has witnessed a decline in women's employment rates over the past few decades. Such an occurrence has triggered a debate about the labour force participation rate (LFPR) of women in India (especially in rural areas) (Neff, Sen and King, 2012). The motivation for this research was provided by the fact that from 2009–10 (66th round) to 2011–12 (68th round), the work participation of rural women decreased by 2 percentage points while for urban women it increased by 1 percentage point (Mohammed Zakaria Siddiqui et al., 2017). Despite this, there still exists a significant gender gap in work participation. The all-India participation rates decreased between 1993 and 2000, then increased again in the period between 2000 and 2005, and finally dropped again between 2005 and 2010. The importance and effects of education on labour force participation for both men and women is a widely recognised and well-known fact by economists (Palaz, Karagal and Masatci, 2001). Numerous studies (OECD, 1989; Psacharopoulos and Tzannatos, 1991; Tansel, 1996) have found that educational attainment is a consistent and effective determinant of labour force participation rate in both developing and developed countries. It is one of the most important personal variable influencing both male and female labour force participation.

This study adds to the literature on female work force participation in India (Ghose 2004, Masood and Ahmad 2009, Srivastava and Srivastava 2010, Mehrotra et al 2012, Shaw 2013), by providing empirical evidence on gender gap in participation in vocational training and investigate the gender gap in labour market participation of vocational training graduates, using data from a primary survey of Industrial Training Institutes (ITI) and few Industries which absorb ITI graduates.

1.2. Literature review

The literature on human capital states that women's labour force participation increases with education (Das and Desai, 2003). However, the strength of this relationship varies between countries; being positive (for example in developed western countries), negative (for example in South Asian countries like India) and approaching insignificance (for example in Latin American countries like Brazil). Higher returns to education for women (compared to men) are shown by several studies for different countries (Psacharopoulos, 1994 (cross-country review); Chase, 1997 (Czech Republic and Slovakia); Malathy and Duraiswamy, 1993 (India) and Duraiswamy, 2000 (India)). Human Capital theories emphasise the importance of education in employment outcomes. This is especially so for women as higher levels of education (Human Capital) would lead to higher wages, beyond the threshold of reservation wages¹, drawing women into the labour force. Hence, female education is a key intervening variable for the achievement of several development goals (Schultz, 1994).



“Analysing five Asian countries (Indonesia, Korea, Philippines, Sri Lanka and Thailand), Cameron, Dowling and Worswick (2001) find that female labour force participation rates respond differently to education across countries due to two potentially opposing effects: a wage effect and a bargaining power effect. Higher wages encourage women to join the workforce because the opportunity cost of time at home rises. However, if more education increases the relative bargaining power of women, and women prefer leisure or home production to working in the market, increasing levels of female education could lead to a fall in women’s labour force participation” (Bala and Khurania, 2023). Moreover, even if female returns to education in the labour market rise, they may not rise fast enough to counteract the rise in the returns to education in the marriage market (Behrman et al. 1999) and in home production. For example, Lam and Duryea (1999) show that as Brazilian women get more schooling, total fertility falls and wages rise, but the share of women working does not increase. They hypothesize that in Brazil, home productivity effects are large enough to offset increases in market wages up to the first 8 years of education (Afridi, Dinkelman and Mahajan, 2016).

According to Sudarshan (2014), in India there is a U-shaped association between education and work participation, with highest levels of participation among illiterates and university educated women, in a cross-section analysis. Klasen and Pieters (2015) attribute this towards the importance of social stigma for women in low-skilled jobs. Thus, they opine that at lower levels of education women face the double dilemma of necessity to work if their household incomes are very low and at the same time face the stigma attached to working in low end menial jobs. Low levels of education are associated with low household income and poverty acts as a driver of high work participation by women. Pradhan, Singh and Mitra (2014) conducted a household survey in 1996 and found out a U-shaped relationship between female work force participation and the educational level of the household head.

“Klasen and Pieters (2015) using National Sample Survey Office (NSSO) data from 1987 to 2005, trace the U-shaped relationship between education and female labour force participation in urban India. They have found out in their study that at high levels of education women face fewer constraints from their family, to participate in labour force. As women’s education levels go up, they are able to participate in non-stigmatized jobs. In spite of this fact, there is a higher level of unemployment than educated men. This could be reflective of the fact that acceptable opportunities for educated women are few, due to the mismatch of educational training and labour market requirements (Sudarshan 2014; Klasen and Pieters 2015). Munsri and Rosenzweig (2006) have pointed out that “boys are directed into existing labour networks in ways girls are not”. Das (2006), using NSSO’s data from 1983 to 2000, also confirms the U-shaped relationship, with higher labour participation by uneducated women and highly educated women staying out of the labour force due to an income effect. Olsen and Mehta (2006), using 1999–2000 NSSO data, also trace a U-shape relationship. Kingdon and Unni (1997) note a negative relationship between female education and labour market participation and thereby discourage families from educating the girl child because of low returns on education of women. Some more studies have found a negative relationship between the two (Das and Desai 2003; Dasgupta and Goldar 2005)” (Khurania, 2022).

1.3. Objectives of the Research Study

1. Gender Gap in skill development ecosystem.
2. To conduct case studies of women.



1.4. Methodology

The study used both quantitative and qualitative analysis to address the objectives. The survey included women who had received skill training. In detail, few government skill ITIs were surveyed to find the gender bias existing at the level of education and imparting skills. ITIs provide engineering and non-engineering trades. For the purpose of the survey a mix of both engineering and non-engineering trades were surveyed to investigate the gender gap existing. Questionnaire and interview method was used for conducting survey.

1.5. Justification of the Study

The proposed study's sample drew from the state of Uttar Pradesh. "Uttar Pradesh at large is chosen for its proximity and the presence of large industries that provide wide range of economic opportunities. Uttar Pradesh has seen a rising economic growth, partly owing to its favourable location and for the effort the state has made in creating an environment that is investor friendly. Because of this, the demand for skilled labour has been rising with an expanding labour market. In the manufacturing sector alone, there are about 230 large scale industries and more than 42,000 micro, small and medium enterprises that have been employing a large number of workers and the demand for labour is expected to rise to about 700,000 workers by 2022" (NSDC, 2013). The ITIs and industries employing ITI graduate to be chosen for the study fall in Uttar Pradesh and provide an interesting place to study the labour market linkage and existing gender bias.

Uttar Pradesh is the most populous state in India. This presents it with a huge demographic advantage and also a huge challenge in training and up-skilling of the manpower within the state. "The state is divided into 18 revenue divisions which are further divided into 75 districts. A major phenomenon in Uttar Pradesh is the migration of people to other states-looking for opportunities. As of census 2001, the state had the highest number of migrants-about 4.1 million who went out of the state looking for opportunities. The state's economy is pre-dominantly service based. The industry sector has contributed 24 percent to the state's GSDP. The state is home to several industrial giants like LG, Samsung, Xerox, Areva, Atlas Cycles, amongst others. The state has ramped up significant infrastructure to boost the industry growth. For instance, 15 industrial areas, 12 specialized parks, four growth centres and Industrial Infrastructure Development Centres, 21 SEZs have been identified as of 2011. In terms of Education, according to census 2011, literacy rate in the state stood at 69.72%. There are around 36 universities and university level institutes in the state. This includes four central universities, 19 state universities, two private universities; eight deemed universities, one institution established under state legislature act and two institutes of National importance" (Economic Survey of Uttar Pradesh, 2022). The state currently has about 328 polytechnic institutes offering diploma certificates in various streams. In addition, the state is also home to 1,590 Industrial Training Institutes (ITI).

	ITIs	Polytechnics
Government	226	97
Private	1,364	231
Total	1,590	328

Source: Uttar Pradesh Skill Development Policy 2013

In addition to the above, the State has several training institutes for vocational training run by both Government and private sectors. These institutes offer varied courses such as tailoring



and cutting, embroidery, computer operation, beauty culture, information technology, auto-CAD, electrical wireman etc. There are some private training providers in the state offering vocational training courses. They are mostly National Skill Development Corporation (NSDC) partners and some are partners under various skill development scheme or initiatives. An indicative list of NSDC's private training providers is highlighted in the below table:

S. No.	Name of the Training Provider	Sectors targeted for training	No. of centres	Indicative locations*
1	AISECT	IT (Software & Hardware)	32	Allahabad, Firozabad
2	B-ABLE	Retail Accounting	3	Amroha, Behat, Hapur
3	Centum Learning	Organised Retail	8	Meerut, Noida
4	Drishtee	Textiles	17	Salempur, Ladpur
5	GRAS Education & Training Services Pvt. Ltd.	Banking/insurance and finance Electronics hardware Entrepreneurial Skills IT Organised Retail	18	Saharanpur, Varanasi
6	Laurus Edutech	Accounting IT	1	Noida
7	NIIT YUVA JYOTI LIMITED	Banking/insurance and finance ITES-BPO Organised Retail	6	Ghaziabad, Meerut
8	ASTM	Security	1	Gautam Buddh Nagar

Source: National Skill Development Corporation (NSDC)

“Uttar Pradesh’s population (aged 15 years and above) is 1549.14 lakh as of 2019, of which 595.72 lakh (38%) persons are in the labour force (persons who are either working or willing to work and actively looking for work) (NSDC, 2019). “Female labour force participation rate in the state is 4% compared to, 68% for males. Among employed persons, 12% earn Rs. 20,000 or lower and 61% earn between Rs. 20,001-50,000. 25.43 lakh persons (2% of population aged 15 years and above) have received or are undergoing formal vocational training, of whom 12.17 lakh are 15-30 years of age. Females constitute 23% (5.8 lakh) of the formally trained segment. 54% of this segment took up short-term training courses and 53%, paid training. 74.57% (18.964 lakh) persons are in the labour force - of whom, 16.4 lakh (86.49%) are employed. Among the employed, formally trained persons, 94% are working in non-agriculture occupations. 7.8% earn Rs. 20000 or lower and 30% earn between Rs. 20,001-50,000. 563 lakh persons (36% of the state’s population aged 15 years and above) have informally acquired skills” (NSDC, 2019). In addition, Uttar Pradesh, historically has had a skewed sex ratio, high son preference and high fertility, low levels of girls’ education, low female labour force participation and the practice of seclusion (Hirway, 2012). This makes Uttar Pradesh an interesting field to survey.

1.6. Sample

The study focused on women who have received skill training.

An observational study was conducted across fifteen vocational training centers, focusing on organizations outside the traditional ITI framework. These centers included apprenticeship programs run by private companies, NGOs, and skill development initiatives sponsored



by international agencies. A stratified sampling method was used to select centers based on their location (urban, semi-urban, and rural) and sector focus (manufacturing, services, and agriculture). The sample included 1084 students (500 male and 500 female), and data was collected through in-depth interviews to capture qualitative insights into gender-specific barriers and opportunities in vocational training. The survey also explored the influence of social norms, local labor market demand, and family background on the choice of vocational courses by gender.

Further, an employment outcome analysis was conducted using existing datasets from national employment surveys (such as the Periodic Labour Force Survey and the Annual Employment-Unemployment Survey).

Conclusion

This chapter has outlined the critical dynamics surrounding gender gaps in labor force participation and the role of vocational training in addressing these disparities, focusing on Uttar Pradesh, India. Gender inequality remains a formidable challenge on both societal and economic fronts, and achieving gender parity is a pivotal aspect of the United Nations' Sustainable Development Goals.

Through a comprehensive literature review, we observed the intricate relationship between education, vocational training, and female labor force participation. Despite education being a consistent determinant of labor force participation, the impact varies across countries due to social and economic factors. The U-shaped association between education and work participation among women is notable, particularly in the Indian context, highlighting the complex interplay of social norms, economic conditions, and education.

As Uttar Pradesh emerges as an economic hub with a rising demand for skilled labor, addressing the gender gap in vocational training and subsequent employment becomes imperative. The findings from this research are anticipated to inform policy frameworks and strategies that prioritize gender equality and boost female participation in the workforce. By focusing on Uttar Pradesh, this study aims to contribute to a deeper understanding of the unique socio-economic dynamics at play and to pave the way for a more inclusive and empowered workforce in the state and beyond.

In the following chapters, we would delve into the specifics of the research, analyzing the collected data and drawing meaningful insights to further comprehend the nuances of gender disparities in vocational training and employment.



Chapter 2 : Literature Review

2.1. *Why Women's Participation in the Labour Market is Important?*

The form of economic prosperity in most countries has been characterized by the shift in labour force from agriculture to manufacturing and later on to services (Gaddis and Klasen, 2014). These shifts were, sooner or later, associated with a variety of phenomena that included improved education levels, and reduction in fertility rates, shifts in the labour market and most significantly, change in the role of women. It is said that women participating in the labour force has been a contributor as well as an outcome of economic development (Verick, 2018). When more women work, it increases the available labour input, which in turn help economies grow faster, On the other side, this also helps increase household income, which help families increase their consumption of services and goods and escape poverty (p. 3), However, labour force participation is not determined by supply side factors alone and depends on the demand for labour as well. This often translates into large gaps between men and women,⁹ For example, in 2017 female labour force participation in India was 28.5 percent while it was 82 percent for male (World Economic Forum, 2017). This comparison itself however is not sufficient as women's access to job opportunities and whether or not they can work is decided by the nature of economic growth (for example, whether the jobs being created have suitable working conditions) as well as social norms (Dasgupta and Verick, 2016). While economic progress and stability are important to increase the number of jobs for women; women being part of the labour market also drives economies towards growth and stability at the same time (Elborgh-Wo tek et al, 2013' Kochhar et al, 2017) Aguirret al (2012) find that having women and men participate equally in the labour market has the potential to improve a country's GDP (9 percent in Japan and 5 percent in the US), with more pronounced effects in developing countries (34 percent in Egypt and 12 percent in the United Arab Emirates). In the case of India, Esteve-Volart (2004) had estimated that this can increase India's growth by 8 percent. The importance of women's labour market participation goes beyond human capital returns, as there are many avenues through which it positively affects families and societies. This is because, not only does it impact their own quality of life positively, the entire household benefits from better living conditions (Dréze and Sen 1989). In developing countries, women are found to leave school early and have children early that reduce economic opportunities for them. In such a situation, the incentives for investing in human capital or participating in the labour market is low as well (see Becker, 1960; Mincer, 1963). Expanding women's economic opportunities in the labour market can therefore to reverse these outcomes. Participation in paid work also raises women's opportunity cost of time, which in turn lowers fertility (Jensen, 2012).

Improving opportunities of paid employment for women enables them to have more control on their income and financial assets, which is important to promote growth developing economies (Stotsky, 2006). Paid employment can promote women's empowerment and improve their social and economic freedom, which in turn can help achieve UN's sustainable development goal (Goal 5) related to achievement of "gender equality and empowerment of all girls and women" (United Nations, 2015). A number of studies have shown an association between formal employment of women with an improvement in their roles in the household and society and perception of males towards them (Lopez-Acevedo and Robertson 2012). It has been found that women invest a greater share of their family income in educating their children's, as compared to men. Improved labour market participation rate and higher income



among women can therefore lead to higher investments in education of children, including girls, which can bring about a “virtuous cycle” with more educated women influencing younger girls (Miller 2008). Mothers who earn higher wages have more bargaining power in household matters (Duflo, 2005). In such a situation, as Schultz (1990) notes, when women treat daughters equally as sons, the higher bargaining power enables them to invest higher in their daughters. Also, if investing in daughters is a normal or luxgood for a household, then households can afford to make that investment with increased household income when women work. It has also been found that children of mothers who participate in the labour force have higher probability of being enrolled in school and have higher chance of studying till the ideal grade for their age (Afridi et al., 2018). Based on an experiment in India, Sivasankaran (2014) find that when women stay engaged longer in the labour market, positive outcomes spill among their younger siblings as well; younger sisters are found to marry late and school dropout rates are found to decrease for younger brothers as they delay entry into work. With more women participating in the labour market would also translate into an overall more skilled workforce; especially since completion rates of secondary education in many countries is higher for girls than boys (Steinberg and Nakane, 2012).

Countries with lower number of women in the labour force cannot reap the benefits of a demographic dividend (Mehrotra and Sinha, 2019). A demographic dividend has been the reason behind the economic success of many East Asian countries in the 1970s (Bloom and Williamson 1998). But, if the share of working women remains small, dependency rate would remain high despite the rise in the share of working age population. This results in reduced savings rates, leading to lesser investments and lower economic growth (Mehrotra and Sinha, 2017). Many of the countries in the developing world, including in South Asia, are in a position to take advantage of a demographic dividend. The ability of these countries to benefit from it will depend how well it can integrate its women workforce in the labour market (Klasen, 2019). Latest studies have’ already started to focus on this aspect. While the positive effects of gender equality on; economic growth is well established, a recent study in South Africa has revealed an interesting result on the need for prioritizing development to have greater female labour force participation (Ruiters and Charteris, 2020). It would therefore be important for countries to keep female labour force participation as an area of focus in all policy dialogues related to development.

The discussions above shows why it is important to have more women participate in the labour market, both from macroeconomic as well as individual perspective. Despite this evidence, the situation is far from ideal (as discussed in subsequent sections), particularly in developing and emerging countries, This necessitates the need to relook at the existing knowledge to build a coherent understanding of women’s access to equal opportunities based on how these can be contextualized for women as individuals. The present study contributes to this area by looking at it from the perspective of equality of opportunity and takes a closer look at how it is influenced by socio-economic as well as individual attributes.

2.2. Determinants of Women’s Labour Market participation: Global Picture

A number of studies (OECD, 1989; Psacharopoulos and Tzannatos, 1991; Tansel, 1996) have established educational attainment as a consistent and strong determinant of female labour market participation, both in developing and developed countries. As Schultz (1994) notes, this is particularly important for the case of women as higher level of education can lead to higher wages, which in turn can increase their labour market participation. Numerous studies have shown a positive association between education and female labour market participation



in a number (although not all) of developing countries. Empirical studies have confirmed a causal relationship between the two in countries like Zimbabwe (Grépin and Bharadwaj, 2015); Turkey (Erten and Keskin, 2018) and Uganda (Keats, 2018). Global evidence from countries as diverse as Czech Republic and Slovakia (Chase, 1997), Taiwan (Gindling et al., 1995) and India (Malathy and Duraisamy, 1993; Duraisamy, '2002) have shown that investment in females lead to higher rate of returns than men. The explanation for this is attached to the, fact that the higher returns capture difference in earning between educated and less educated women. It measures investments (costs) as well as benefits (earnings) of education and therefore includes forgone earnings that are less for women as compared to men (Woodhall, 1973). The difference in rates of returns between males and females can be largely explained by women being concentrated in low-income occupations and needs to be addressed. Recent studies that have tried to collect evidence on gender representation in income distribution and have found that in many countries (Norway, New Zealand, Italy, Denmark, Canada, Spain, Australia and the UK), the percentage of women in employment earning higher income has seen an increase between 2000 and 2013 (Atkinson et al., 2018), Exploring this in details a study focusing on the rising share of women in the top one percent of income group between 1999 and 2015 in the United Kingdom (U.K.) has found that increase in the number of years spent in full time education has resulted in higher returns for women (as compared to men) (Burkhauser et al., 2020), The return being considered here is the chance to be in the top 1 per cent of the income group and is much larger for men as compared to women in both years, But there was hardly any change in return for men between the two years, whereas for women, there was a noticeable increase during 1999 to 2015. There is related literature that show that returns vary across wage distribution. The rationale for this is explained by Harmon et al. (2003) based on a study in the U.K. who show that this could be due to 'complementarity' between education and ability i.e., if individuals with higher ability earn more, then returns to those in the top of the income distribution would be higher, While there are considerable studies that promote women's participation in leadership positions, research has shown how it can be a possible indicator of gender stereotyping, a phenomenon termed as "glass cliff". First proposed by Ryan and Haslam (2005) the term is based on a study that analyses the experience of women versus men once they break the glass ceiling to bag leadership roles, Based on the performance of hundred companies listed in the London Stock Exchange, the study finds that it is far more likely for women to be appointed in leadership roles in companies that are not doing well, as compared to men. This phenomenon exposes how appointing women in leadership roles further aggravates stereotypical notion that is consider women as incompetent leaders. A recent study by Morgenroth et al. (2020) show that it is more likely for firms to appoint women as leaders when in crisis, and this was more prevalent in countries with more persistent gender inequalities. The literature discussed above shows that education investment decisions and the associated returns cannot be the only explanatory factor sufficient to explain characteristics of women's labour force participation. Perhaps that is the reason why increased education has not universally translated into a more women participating in the labour market. Theoretically, this can be linked to Becker's time allocation model (Becker, 1965). According to him, women's decision to participate in employment depends not only on the trade off between leisure and work, but also on the trade off between household work (that includes child-care) and the labour market. Women choose to work for wage only when the wages are sufficiently higher to compensate for the costs associated with household work. In a recent study based on a wide-ranging database on fertility and women's work, Aaronson et al (2020) found that with economic progress, the trade off between women's decision and fertility (i.e. having additional children) increases. They show that when a country is in the early stages of development,



there is no strong relationship between fertility and women working. This is because, in such stages, women are mostly engaged in agriculture/home production that are often well suited for childcare. On the other hand, as economies develop, the type of employment shifts to more formal and wage work that are not conducive to childcare, and therefore, a declining fertility results in more women participating in employment

The past century; has seen a rise in females participating in the labour market (Olivetti and Petrongolo, 2016). Most of it has been attributed to technological change (Goldin, 2006) such as availability of household appliances that reduces time required to do household work (Greenwood et al., 2005). On the other hand, transitions in the economy that have led to the creation of service sector jobs where women have been found to be more suited for (Ngai and Petrongolo, 2017) have also improved their labour market participation.

There have been historical events too that have played a role in women's participation in the labour market. Distinct events in history that have had an impact on adult sex ratio have been found to bring changes in labour market conditions and thereby impacting gender equality over the years (Angrist, 2002; Teso, 2019; Grosjean and Khattar, 2019), There is a renewed interest in exploring such events and their role in women's labour force participation across countries. Boehnke and Gay (2020) explored the case of changes in adult sex ratio in France during World War I and showed that with men being away due to the war stimulated many women to join the labour market after the war, There have been instances of similar historical shocks that have influenced women's economic role around the world. In Africa, slave trade across the Atlantic created a shortage of men (Manning, 1990), which has positively influenced female labour force participation today (Teso, 2019). Although the 'shock' to the sex ratio was corrected after the end of the slave trade, it continues to have long run effect on female labour force participation through cultural attitude and norms that came with women's role outside of domestic duties. On the contrary, a study by Grosjean and Khattar (2019) show that influx British (male) convicts in Australia during the nineteenth century increased the male to female sex ratio as a result of which the chances of women getting married were higher than' working outside the household. As a result of these historical trends, both women and men in those areas that had more males than females continue to be influenced by conservative ideas about women's work where women work for less hours and are unlikely to be in higher ranking occupations.

More recent studies have included a host of different determinants while studying female labour force participation. A recent study by Héroult and Kalb (2020) in Australia has, for the first time, studied the influence of tax and transfer policy reforms on female labour force participation. Despite the growing emphasis on policy changes to incentivize women's work, the study found that incentives in the form of reforms in tax and transfer policy have not made much of a contribution to improve female participation rate in the labour force in Australia. The study however reaffirms the importance of other factors like wages and population composition in terms of its age and education attainment in improving female labour force participation. An implication of this study is that policies that seek to incentivize women's work are not consistent to suit the, needs of everyone. For example, policies that discourage part-time work by making it less attractive financially may discourage a lot of women to participate in employment at all as these policies are not well-suited with other responsibilities like childcare. External factors like violence, conflict and terrorism can also determine female participation rates, Hudson and Leidl (2015) put forward the argument that societies that inhibit female labour force participation tend to be more violent as preventing women from exercising their rights is conducive to conflict, In the context of south Asia, a



study by Robertson et al, (2020), using data from India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka and Bangladesh, find that terrorist attacks negatively affect female market participation in these countries. They also find that the effect is less in the case of men participating in the labour force, which further widens the gender gap in employment between males and females in south Asia. An implication of this is that violence increases the cost of working for female workforce, either directly because of the risk of violence itself, or indirectly by reducing opportunities of employment. such costs are higher for those women who are on the margin in terms of their decision to work.

Conclusion

This chapter has underscored the significance of women's participation in the labor market from both a macroeconomic and individual perspective. Economic development, characterized by shifts from agriculture to manufacturing and services, has been intrinsically linked with changes in the role of women in the workforce. Women's engagement in the labor force has not only acted as a contributor to economic development but also as an outcome of it. The benefits of increased female labor force participation are far-reaching, including economic growth, poverty reduction, enhanced household income, improved educational investments, and overall societal empowerment.

However, despite the established benefits and empirical evidence supporting the positive impact of education on women's labor market participation, achieving a significant increase in female participation remains a complex challenge. Education, although crucial, is not the sole determinant, and addressing factors like social norms, economic conditions, and opportunities in the labor market is equally vital. A deeper understanding of the determinants of women's labor market participation is necessary to tailor effective policies that encourage and empower women to join the workforce.

This chapter has also highlighted the various determinants influencing women's labor market participation globally, including educational attainment, technological changes, historical events, policy reforms, and societal factors. The multifaceted nature of these determinants calls for a holistic approach to policy formulation, recognizing the diverse contexts and experiences of women in different regions. The subsequent chapter would elaborate on the methodology and data used in this study to comprehensively analyze the dynamics of women's access to equal opportunities in the labor market.



Chapter 3 : Data and Methodology

3.1. Stages of Study

The following are the stages of this study:

Stage 1: Planning and Designing

- Target Population
- Objectives and Areas of Enquiry
- Survey Instrument and Data Collection Methods including Sampling

Stage 2: Questionnaire Finalization

- Finalizing the questionnaire to be used by the target respondents.

Stage 3: Collection and Updation of Contact Details

- Maintain database of passed out trainees 'contact details.

Stage 4: Organize data collection

- Collect data from the selected respondents

Stage 5: Analysis of data and Interpretation of results followed by report generation

3.2. Data Collection Methodology

Data collection is carried out in two ways- at one place the field investigators carry printed copies of questionnaires and distributed it to the respondents. Two, google sheets are used to record the responses. Apart from the questionnaire method, interviews are taken of respondents. These interviews are further made into case studies and are discussed in detail in the later chapters.

3.3. Survey Design

The Target Population: The target population for the survey are the currently enrolled trainees at the ITIs. The study only focused on assessing the gender gap in ITIs. The trades were selected so as to cover the various aspects of Industrial Training provided at ITIs in Gorakhpur district of Uttar Pradesh which included popularity of trades, no. of trainees admitted, female oriented trades, rural coverage etc.

Timing: The survey is conducted for a duration of two months from mid-June of 2023 to mid-August of 2023.

Sample Size: The sample size was maintained large enough to draw quality inferences at the trade level. The following is the trade level targeting which was done for the sample of approximately 1084 respondents.

For each ITI in Gorakhpur district, the selected sample following requirements were kept mandatory:

- Should capture the diversity of trainees in terms of their age, SC/ST/ OBC status, minority status, disability, location (rural/urban), education level and household economic status
- Should include trainees from both government and private ITIs.



- All government ITIs and select private ITIs were surveyed in the district.

Sampling of ITI trainees: The ITIs and trades were selected so as to cover the gender gap in Industrial Training Institutes. The factors included popularity of trades, no. of trainees admitted, female oriented

Sample:

A total of 1084 students were surveyed from both engineering and non-engineering trades; and from government and private ITIs (details in table 3.1).

Table 3.1- Details of sample surveyed

		Government	Private	No Response	Total	Engineering	Non - Engineering	No Response	Total
Gender	Male	622	209	3	834	631	188	15	834
	Female	221	5	24	250	80	145	25	250
	Total				1084				1084

3.4. Methodology

Post the design of the instrument (questionnaire), the survey was conducted in the process as below:

- Identifying the trades and ITIs to be targeted.
- Questionnaire development to get the desired results from the insights gained from the pilot study conducted.
- Collecting and updating the contact details – to develop and maintain a database with updated contact details of the trainees.
- Collecting contact information of the pass outs through different mechanisms
- the mobile numbers verified through SMS / call
- Detailed survey – for gathering the data from the respondents for quality inputs in less time
- Reaching out to the target population among the verified candidates for collecting the data for the study
- Done Through Online survey.

Questionnaire: The questionnaire was developed as per the defined research objectives and questions to be answered. To encourage high response rate, the questionnaire was kept short while comprising of mainly the closed questions. Questionnaire of the study is available in *Annexure A1*. The questionnaire included primarily closed ended questions. The questionnaire was asked in English and Hindi language (vernacular). Candidates had choice to select language in which they prefer to respond. Candidates were sent google forms via their institution and faculty. Candidates selected the language in which they preferred to take the survey. The survey could be taken on mobile phone or any device with minimum internet connection.



Interview Schedule: An interview schedule was prepared (enclosed in *annexure 2*) for the female trainees at the ITIs. The field investigators took the interview on one-on-one basis. After taking the consent of the respondent, the interview was recorded and later transcribed. The transcripts were made into case studies, discussed in the later chapters.

3.5. Conclusion

The study adopted a systematic and structured approach that encompassed careful planning, methodology selection, data collection, analysis, and interpretation, with the goal of gaining comprehensive insights into the gender gap in vocational education and employment outcomes outside the ITI framework. A meticulous planning process was undertaken, ensuring a targeted and efficient data collection process from diverse vocational training centers. The study design incorporated various elements such as organizational type (private, NGO, international agency), regional diversity (urban, semi-urban, rural), and sector focus (manufacturing, services, agriculture) to ensure a representative sample of trainees.

The data collection methodology, tailored to capture gender-specific experiences, utilized both qualitative and quantitative methods. Structured interviews and in-depth qualitative surveys were administered to 1000 trainees across 15 centers, accounting for different socio-economic backgrounds and local labor market demands. The use of semi-structured interviews added depth, enabling the exploration of social norms and other contextual factors influencing vocational choices. Additionally, national employment datasets were analyzed to provide a broader picture of gender disparities in employment outcomes following vocational training.

The diverse data collection tools, including case studies of female graduates and interviews with employers, provided a multi-faceted understanding of the gender disparities in vocational training and employment. This chapter demonstrated the importance of using a mixed-method approach to not only quantify gender gaps but also explore the underlying factors contributing to these disparities, thus forming a solid foundation for analyzing, interpreting, and generating a comprehensive report on the findings.

Chapter 4 : Findings and Result

4.1. Introduction

This chapter presents an analysis of the data collected from the vocational training centers and employment datasets in the study. The findings are structured into three key sections. Section 1 focuses on the socio-economic profile of the trainees, examining how factors such as regional diversity, family background, and local labor market conditions influence vocational training choices. Section 2 investigates the gender gap in participation across the selected vocational training centers, highlighting disparities in access to training programs and sectoral preferences by gender. Section 3 provides a detailed analysis of the interviews conducted with vocational graduates, employers, and training facilitators to explore the gender gap between vocational training and employment outcomes. The combination of qualitative insights and secondary data analysis offers a comprehensive understanding of the barriers and opportunities faced by trainees, particularly women, in accessing training and entering the labor market.

Section 1

4.2. Socio- Economic Profile of Respondents

In the following section as general socio-economic profile of the student’s surveyed is provided. The study has a majority representation of males representing the target population. Out of total 1084 respondents 88% were male respondents in the sample while around 12% were Female respondents. It would be important to also see what the Male-Female distribution across the various districts and trades which is covered further in this report.

4.2.1. Caste, Religion and Gender distribution of respondents

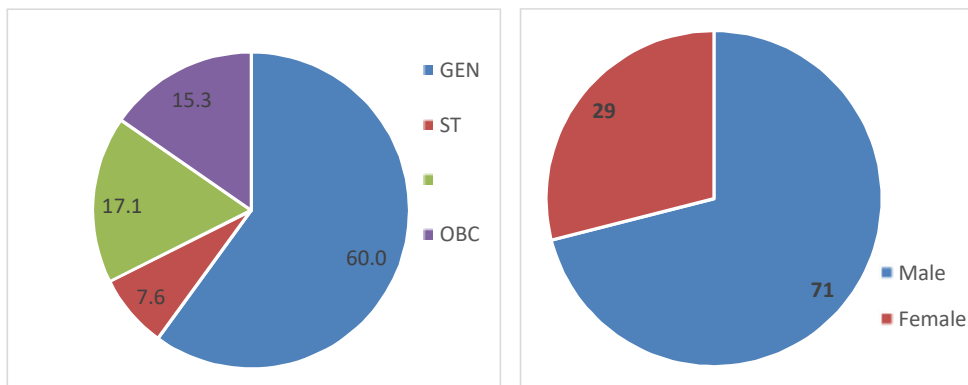


Figure. 4.1: Caste and Gender wise distribution of Respondents (in percentage)

Source: Compiled by the research associate using primary survey data

Table. 4.1: Religion of the Respondents

Religion	Percentage
Hindu	87%
Muslim	9%
Christian	3%
Sikh	1%
Total	100

Source: Compiled using primary survey data

The data presented in Figure 4.1 and Table 4.1 provides valuable insights into the demographic characteristics of the respondents in the survey. Figure 4.1 shows the caste and gender-wise distribution of respondents. Gender wise analysis shows 71% of males and 29% of females participated. Notably, it reveals that a diverse group of individuals participated in the survey. The data indicates that 87% of the respondents are Hindu, while 9% are Muslim, 3% are Christian, and 1% are Sikh. This religious distribution reflects the religious diversity within the surveyed population. Overall, these findings suggest that the survey was able to capture a representative sample of respondents from various religious, caste and gender backgrounds.

4.2.2. Educational Background of the Respondents

Table No. 4.2: Educational Background

Trade	Class X			Institution Type				Board				Medium			Total		
	Above 60 %	Less than 60%	No Response	Total	Government	Private	No Response	Total	CBSE	NIOS	UP Board	No Response	Total	English		Hindi	No Response
Engineering	46.86	17.07	1.66	65.59	50.09	15.31	0.18	65.59	20.66	1.75	38.28	4.89	65.59	17.53	30.72	17.34	65.59
Non - Engineering	19.93	8.58	2.21	30.72	26.01	3.78	0.92	30.72	8.12	1.75	17.07	3.87	30.81	4.61	17.25	8.95	30.81
No Response	1.11	0.55	2.03	3.69	1.66	0.65	1.38	3.69	0.37	0.00	1.38	1.85	3.60	0.18	0.92	2.49	3.60
Total	67.90	26.20	5.90	100.00	77.77	19.74	2.49	100.00	29.15	3.51	56.73	10.61	100.00	22.32	48.89	28.78	100.00
Class XII																	
Engineering	34.41	22.69	8.49	65.59	50.09	15.31	0.18	65.59	17.99	1.48	36.81	9.32	65.59	20.57	30.90	14.11	65.59
Non - Engineering	17.80	8.58	4.34	30.72	26.01	3.78	0.92	30.72	7.84	1.29	15.96	5.63	30.72	5.90	17.34	7.47	30.72
No Response	1.20	0.28	2.21	3.69	1.66	0.65	1.38	3.69	0.18	0.00	1.29	2.21	3.69	0.55	1.20	1.94	3.69
Total	53.41	31.55	15.04	100.00	77.77	19.74	2.49	100.00	26.01	2.77	54.06	17.16	100.00	27.03	49.45	23.52	100.00

Source: Compiled using primary survey data

There are a range of gender gaps in education and labour market. There are overwhelming distinctions in education between the sexes in some developing countries. In the economics of education literature, an important explanation of the gender inequality in education is that the labour market rewards women's education less well than men's, especially in developed in developing countries (Kingdon, 1998). Hence, a study was undertaken to find the educational background of the students currently enrolled in the industrial training institutes (ITIs). Education is seen as an investment in human capital and as its amount increases, individual's skills and competencies also increase (Becker, 1964). Employment opportunities and earnings differ greatly by gender in most developing nations (World Bank, 2001). A primary determinant of labour market participation in developed as well as developing countries is levels of education attainment (Cazes and Verick, 2013). An analysis of educational background of student's currently enrolled in the ITIs (see, table 4.1) revealed that most students accessing ITIs perform average in school. The data related to class X and XIIth education, was further broken down into

various categories such as- trade, type of institution- government or private, medium- English or Hindi and board- Uttar Pradesh board, ICSE, CBSE. The survey revealed that majority of the students were from Uttar Pradesh board. In terms of ‘type of institution’, majority of students went to a government school for their Xth and XIIth education. In both class X and class XII, the majority of students in the “Engineering” trade category scored above 60 %. In both Class X and Class XII, the majority of students fall into the engineering category. This table throws light on the diverse educational landscape and its impact on student performance. This table helps gain insights into the educational background of students undertaking vocational training at the ITIs. A gender wise analysis of educational background is done in section 2 of this chapter.

4.2.3. Household Income

Table no. 4.3. Household Income of the respondents

Socioeconomic Profile	Government ITI	Private ITI	No Response	Total	Engineering Trade	Non - Engineering Trade	No Response	Total
Below 6000	7.84	1.57	0.09	9.50	5.72	3.60	0.18	9.50
6000-10000	23.71	6.92	0.00	30.63	21.31	8.86	0.46	30.63
10000-15000	13.56	2.68	0.00	16.24	11.07	5.07	0.09	16.24
15000-20000	5.44	1.20	0.00	6.64	4.24	2.40	0.00	6.64
20000-25000	1.11	0.09	0.00	1.20	0.74	0.46	0.00	1.20
More than 25000	18.17	4.80	0.00	22.97	16.05	6.73	0.18	22.97
Did not answer	7.93	2.49	2.40	12.82	6.46	3.60	2.77	12.82
Total	77.77	19.74	2.49	100.00	65.59	30.72	3.69	100.00

Source: Compiled using primary survey data

Table 4.3. provides a breakdown of the household incomes of respondents based on their type of institution that is, in government ITI and private ITI, as well as their field of study, either in engineering or non-engineering programs. Household income is an important indicator to decide on the type of institution one goes to and the type of trade one chooses (Khurania, 2022). The data is expressed in percentages in the table. Key observations and analysis of table 4.3 note that when analysing income categories: The table is divided into income categories, ranging from “Below 6000” to “More than 25000.” It is evident that the majority of respondents fall into the “6000-10000” and “More than 25000” income categories, at 30.63% and 22.97% respectively. The majority of respondents hence choose to take admission in the government ITI, accounting for 77.77% of the total, while the private ITIs attract only 19.74% of students. The data is further divided based on the field of study, distinguishing between “Engineering” and “Non-Engineering” programs. A significant portion of respondents falls into the “Engineering” category (65.59%), while the rest are in “Non-Engineering” programs (30.72%).

Income and Field of Study: Looking at the income categories, it is apparent that the “6000-10000” and “More than 25000” income groups have a higher representation of respondents who have studied engineering. On the other hand, the “Below 6000” and “10000-15000” income groups have a more balanced distribution between engineering and non-engineering backgrounds. This table suggests that there is a significant number of engineering trade students in the survey, particularly in the higher income categories, and that the government ITIs enrol a substantial portion of the respondents. The data could be further used to explore the relationship between income, field of study, and employment sector, enabling more in-depth analysis and insights for research or decision-making purposes.

4.2.4. Parent's Educational Background

Table no. 4.4. Parent's Educational Background

		Government ITI	Private ITI	No Response	Total	Engineering Trade	Trade Non - Engineering	No Response	Total
Father's Education	8th pass	19.46	5.54	0.09	25.09	16.61	7.84	0.65	25.09
	10th pass	17.16	5.63	0.28	23.06	16.42	6.09	0.55	23.06
	12th pass	14.11	2.40	0.00	16.51	10.24	6.18	0.09	16.51
	Graduation	6.46	0.92	0.00	7.38	5.17	2.21	0.00	7.38
	Post-Graduation	3.14	0.65	0.00	3.78	2.95	0.83	0.00	3.78
	Illiterate	11.62	3.41	0.18	15.22	9.96	4.70	0.55	15.22
	No Response	5.81	1.20	1.94	8.95	4.24	2.86	1.85	8.95
	Total	77.77	19.74	2.49	100.00	65.59	30.72	3.69	100.00
Mother's Education	8th pass	19.10	5.72	0.37	25.18	17.90	6.64	0.65	25.18
	10th pass	9.41	1.29	0.00	10.70	7.56	3.04	0.09	10.70
	12th pass	6.92	1.01	0.00	7.93	5.72	2.12	0.09	7.93
	Graduation	3.32	0.74	0.00	4.06	3.04	0.92	0.09	4.06
	Post-Graduation	0.65	0.37	0.00	1.01	0.83	0.18	0.00	1.01
	Illiterate	29.80	8.21	0.18	38.19	24.17	13.28	0.74	38.19
	No Response	8.58	2.40	1.94	12.92	6.37	4.52	2.03	12.92
	Total	77.77	19.74	2.49	100.00	65.59	30.72	3.69	100.00

Source: Compiled using primary survey data

The analysis of the educational backgrounds of the parents of respondents provides valuable insights into the relationship between parental education, the field of study pursued by the respondents, and their choice of employment sectors. Overall, the data suggests a correlation between parents' education and the respondents' fields of study and employment sectors. Respondents with parents having higher education levels are more likely to pursue engineering studies and are more evenly distributed between government and private ITIs. A significant portion of respondents has illiterate parents, and these individuals are more likely to study in the government ITIs. The analysis can help in understanding the influence of parental education on the educational and employment choices of the respondents. It may also have implications for education policy and access to opportunities.

4.2.5. Parent’s Occupational Background

Table 4.5. Parent’s Occupational Background

		Government ITI	Private ITI	No Response	Total	Engineering Trade	Non - Engineering Trade	No Response	Total
Father’s Occupation	Self - Employed	30.07	6.83	0.18	37.08	25.28	11.16	0.65	37.08
	Wages/ Salaried	14.76	1.66	0.00	16.42	10.61	5.90	0.00	16.51
	Casual Labour	27.49	9.78	0.18	37.45	25.83	10.52	1.11	37.45
	No Response	5.44	1.38	2.21	9.04	3.87	3.14	1.94	8.95
	Total	77.77	19.65	2.58	100.00	65.59	30.72	3.69	100.00
Mother’s Occupation	Self - Employed	6.18	1.66	0.00	7.84	4.80	2.86	0.18	7.84
	Wages/ Salaried	2.12	0.37	0.00	2.49	1.48	1.01	0.00	2.49
	Casual Labour	4.34	1.85	0.09	6.27	3.87	2.21	0.18	6.27
	House-wife	51.20	11.90	0.28	63.38	43.36	18.82	1.20	63.38
	No Response	13.93	3.97	2.12	20.02	12.08	5.81	2.12	20.02
	Total	77.77	19.74	2.49	100.00	65.59	30.72	3.69	100.00

Source: Compiled using primary survey data

The data suggests that there is a correlation between parents’ occupations and the respondents’ choice of trade background. For example, respondents with self-employed fathers tend to have higher representation in engineering trades and are often enrolled in government ITI. Casual labourer fathers show a similar trend, with a notable proportion in engineering trades and a preference for government ITIs. Respondents with housewife mothers, the most prevalent category, show a strong inclination toward engineering trades. The “No Response” category for both fathers and mothers introduce ambiguity, as it encompasses a wide range of occupational and trade backgrounds. It is essential to collect more specific data for a clearer analysis. This analysis provides insights into the influence of parents’ occupations on the choice of trade background and enrolment in ITIs for the respondents, which may have implications for career counselling and vocational education programs.

Section 2

4.3. Gender Gap in participation in vocational training

Table 4.6. Distribution by gender between Government and Private

	Govt ITI	Pvt ITI	No Response	Total
Male	74.58	25.06	0.36	100.00
Female	88.40	2.00	9.60	100.00

Source: Compiled using primary survey data

An examination of student enrolment at the ITI reveals that majority of females surveyed choose to go to government ITIs vis-à-vis private ITIs (table 4.6). The data reveals a clear gender disparity in the choice of ITI enrolment. Government ITI is the predominant choice for both males and females, but this preference is even stronger among females, with 88.40% of them choosing government ITI compared to 74.58% of males. Private ITI has a higher



representation among males (25.06%) than among females (2.00%). The “No Response” category is more prevalent among females (9.60%) compared to males (0.36%), which may indicate a reluctance to disclose ITI enrolment status or potentially reflect data collection challenges. Overall, this analysis highlights the significant gender differences in ITI enrolment, with government institutions being the preferred choice for both genders, but even more so for females. Understanding these enrolment patterns can help in tailoring educational policies and initiatives to ensure equitable access and opportunities for both males and females in the vocational education sector.

Table 4.7. Trade wise distribution of sample

	Engineering Trade	Non-Engineering Trade	No Response	Total
Male	75.66	22.54	1.80	100.00
Female	32.00	58.00	10.00	100.00

Source: Compiled using primary survey data

An examination of choice of trade (in table 4.7) i.e., engineering or non-engineering trade reveals that, majority of males (75%) choose engineering trade while majority of females (58%) choose non-engineering trade. The data highlights significant gender-based differences in the choice of vocational training. Males overwhelmingly favour engineering trades, with a strong majority opting for technical and engineering-related skills. In contrast, females show a preference for non-engineering trades, with a majority enrolling in such vocations. Understanding these gender-based disparities in trade preferences is crucial for tailoring vocational education and career development initiatives to promote inclusivity and provide equal opportunities for individuals in both engineering and non-engineering fields, regardless of their gender, Khurania (2024).

Table 4.8. Place of Residence

Gender	Hostel	Rented	Relatives house	Own house	No Response	Total
Male	3.00	20.02	3.48	72.90	0.60	100.00
Female	1.60	7.20	2.40	75.60	13.20	100.00

Source: Compiled using primary survey data

An analysis of the place of residence (in table 4.8) of the sample revealed that majority resides in their own house. The data reveals that both male and female respondents predominantly prefer residing in their own houses, reflecting a strong inclination towards homeownership. Rented accommodations are the second most popular choice, with smaller percentages living with relatives and in hostels. Gender-based differences in accommodation preferences, as evident in the data, are consistent with previous studies. Research has shown that female students often prioritize safety, security, and the quality of living spaces more than males, which may impact their choices.

Table 4.9. Time spent doing in doing household chores

Gender	1-2 Hours	4 hours	6 hrs	More than 6 hrs	No Response	Total
Male	32.61	36.81	13.67	10.91	6.00	100.00
Female	5.00	14.40	33.20	34.20	13.20	100.00

Source: Compiled using primary survey data



An analysis of the time spent in doing household chores (in table 4.9), after completing training at the ITI, reveals a stark gap in the time allocation done by both the genders. Majority of females (67.40%) reported spending six or more than six hours doing household activities. The analysis reveals notable differences in the time spent on household chores between males and females. The majority of male respondents spend 1-4 hours on chores, with a substantial portion dedicating 4 hours. In contrast, many female respondents spend more than 6 hours on household chores, highlighting a gender-based disparity in the distribution of domestic responsibilities. A significant percentage of respondents from both genders did not specify their chore time, indicating potential challenges in collecting this data. A study by Gager and Sanchez (2003) found that traditional gender roles often lead to women taking on a disproportionate share of household chores, which is consistent with the higher percentages of females spending more than 6 hours on chores in the current data.

Table 4.10. Income expectation of respondents

Gender	5-10,000	11-15,000	15-20,000	20,000	No Response	Total
Male	2.04	8.51	24.34	55.04	10.07	100.00
Female	44.00	20.00	13.60	9.20	13.20	100.00

Source: Compiled using primary survey data

An analysis of income expectation of the respondents (in table 4.10) revealed that females maintain a low-income expectation in comparison to males. The analysis reveals striking disparities in income expectations between male and female respondents. Males predominantly have high income expectations, with the majority aiming for incomes of 20,000 or more. In contrast, females have lower income expectations, with a significant proportion hoping for incomes in the 5-10,000 range. A substantial percentage of both genders did not specify their income expectations, indicating potential challenges in collecting this data. A study by Correll, Benard, and Paik (2007) found that women often have lower income expectations than men, which aligns with the data showing a larger proportion of females expecting lower incomes. Research by Bertrand, Goldin, and Katz (2010) revealed that gender pay gaps and disparities in income expectations continue to persist in the labour market, potentially contributing to the differences observed in this table. A study by Hegewisch and Gornick (2011) indicated that societal norms and gender roles influence women’s career choices and income expectations, potentially leading to differences in income aspirations. These previous studies substantiate the results of the current analysis, highlighting the persistence of gender-based disparities in income expectations and emphasizing the importance of addressing these disparities in efforts to promote gender equality in the workforce.

Table 4.11. Willingness to move away from one’s own house to any other location for getting a job

Gender	Metropolitan City	Other place in your district	Other State	Own district	No Response	Total
Male	11.27	41.13	9.59	27.94	10.07	100.00
Female	7.20	31.20	6.40	42.80	12.40	100.00

Source: Compiled using primary survey data

The analysis (of table 4.11) reveals differences in the willingness of males and females to relocate for job opportunities. Both genders show a strong willingness to move within their districts and to other places within their districts. Males are relatively more inclined to consider



relocating to metropolitan cities, whereas females are more open to moving within their own districts. A study by Mincer and Jovanovic (1981) found that men are generally more willing to relocate for job opportunities, possibly due to traditional gender roles and expectations related to breadwinning. Research by Cooke and Boyle (2011) showed that willingness to relocate is influenced by factors such as age, family status, and career prospects. This could explain the differences observed between males and females in the table. A study by Khan et al. (2019) suggested that attitudes toward relocation are shaped by regional economic conditions and employment prospects. This may contribute to the variations in willingness to relocate within one’s district or to other locations observed in the data. These previous studies provide insights into the factors influencing individuals’ willingness to move for job opportunities and substantiate the results of the current analysis, highlighting the importance of understanding and addressing gender-based disparities in relocation preferences for employment. Top of Form

Table 4.12. Willingness to change job post marriage

Gender	Yes	No	Don’t Know	No Response	Total
Male	20.74	41.73	27.34	10.19	100.00
Female	31.20	26.00	29.60	13.20	100.00

Source: Compiled using primary survey data

The analysis (of table 4.12) reveals gender-based differences in the willingness to change jobs after marriage. A significant proportion of males are not open to the idea of changing their job, while a substantial portion of females is willing to consider a job change after marriage. There is also a notable level of uncertainty in both genders regarding this decision. Additionally, a noteworthy percentage of respondents from both genders did not provide a response to this question, indicating the potential complexity of factors involved in such decisions. Several previous studies have explored the willingness to change jobs after marriage and the associated gender dynamics. A study by Polachek and Kim (1994) found that women are more likely than men to experience changes in their career paths and employment situations after marriage, which aligns with the data showing a significant proportion of females willing to change their job. Research by Behrman, Pollak, and Taubman (1982) suggests that the decision to change jobs after marriage is often influenced by factors such as family responsibilities and spousal career opportunities. These factors may explain the varying responses observed in the table. A study by Killewald (2013) indicated that cultural and societal norms play a significant role in shaping gender differences in career decisions and job changes post-marriage. These norms could contribute to the differences in willingness to change jobs among male and female respondents in the data. These previous studies provide context and insights into the factors influencing individuals’ willingness to change jobs after marriage, highlighting the complexity of this decision and its impact on career trajectories and family dynamics. Top of Form

Table 4.13. Willingness to move to another state/district/location for the sake of a job

Gender	Difficult to Decide	Partially Willing	Unable to take decision	Willing to work	No Response	Total
Male	7.79	19.78	3.24	58.03	11.15	100.00
Female	6.00	55.20	4.40	21.20	13.20	100.00

Source: Compiled using primary survey data

The analysis (of table 4.13) reveals gender-based differences in the willingness to relocate for job opportunities. Males show a stronger inclination towards job mobility, with a significant majority expressing their willingness to work in another state, district, or location. In contrast,

females are partially willing to make such moves. Both genders have segments that find it challenging to decide or are unable to make a decision. Additionally, a notable percentage of respondents from both genders did not provide a response, indicating potential complexities in their decision-making process. Several previous studies have explored the willingness to move for job opportunities and the associated gender dynamics. A study by Desiderio and Lloyd (2019) found that men are often more mobile in terms of job relocation, potentially due to traditional gender roles related to career opportunities and breadwinning. Research by Laczko and Barutciski (2009) suggests that willingness to move for a job is influenced by factors such as the job market, family responsibilities, and the attractiveness of the destination location. These factors may explain the variations observed in the data. A study by Maralani (2018) indicated that gender norms and spousal career opportunities play a significant role in shaping decisions about job relocation, potentially contributing to the differences in willingness to relocate among male and female respondents in the data. These previous studies provide context and insights into the factors influencing individuals' willingness to relocate for job opportunities, highlighting the complexity of these decisions and the impact of gender dynamics on job mobility.

Table 4.14. Willingness to work post marriage

Gender	Yes	No	Can't Say	No Response	Total
Male	78.18	2.64	6.47	12.71	100.00
Female	78.40	2.80	5.20	13.60	100.00

Source: Compiled using primary survey data

The analysis (of table 4.14) reveals that the willingness to work after marriage is high among both male and female respondents, with the majority in both groups expressing their commitment to employment post-marriage. A smaller but still notable percentage are not willing to work after marriage, while some individuals, in both genders, have uncertainty about their post-marriage work plans. Additionally, a significant portion of respondents from both genders did not provide a response, indicating potential complexities in their decision-making process. Several previous studies have explored the willingness to work after marriage and the associated gender dynamics. A study by Neumark and Korenman (1994) found that both men and women have increasingly shown a willingness to work after marriage, reflecting changing social and economic norms. Research by Cherlin (2010) suggested that the decision to work after marriage is influenced by factors such as economic necessity, family structure, and individual career aspirations. These factors may explain the variations observed in the data. A study by Mattingly and Bianchi (2003) indicated that gender roles and family dynamics play a significant role in shaping decisions about work after marriage. These factors could contribute to the similarities and differences observed in the willingness to work among male and female respondents in the data. These previous studies provide context and insights into the factors influencing individuals' willingness to work after marriage, emphasizing the importance of understanding these dynamics to support individuals' choices and promote gender equity in employment.

Table 4.15. Class 10th Educational Background of the respondent

Gender	Less than 60 %	Above 60%	No Response	Total
Male	30.34	66.19	3.48	100.00
Female	12.40	73.60	14.00	100.00

Source: Compiled using primary survey data

**Table 4.16. Class 12th Educational Background of the respondent**

Gender	Less than 60 %	Above 60%	No Response	Total
Male	34.05	52.40	13.55	100.00
Female	23.20	56.80	20.00	100.00

Source: Compiled using primary survey data

The analysis of these tables (4.15 and 4.16) reveals varying educational performance among respondents at the Class 10th and Class 12th levels, with differences based on gender. In Class 10th, both male and female respondents predominantly achieved educational performance above 60%, with females showing a higher percentage in this category. In Class 12th, while there is a relatively even distribution among males, females still tend to have a higher percentage with scores above 60%. A significant proportion of respondents in both genders did not provide information about their educational performance at both educational levels. Several previous studies have explored gender-based disparities in educational performance. A study by Machin and McNally (2005) found that females tend to outperform males in school examinations, which aligns with the data showing a higher percentage of females with scores above 60% in both Class 10th and Class 12th. Research by Voyer and Voyer (2014) suggested that differences in educational performance may be influenced by factors such as learning styles and preferences, as well as societal expectations. These factors could explain the variations observed in the data. A study by Buchmann and DiPrete (2006) indicated that gender differences in educational achievement are shaped by a combination of factors, including family background, school experiences, and social norms. These factors may contribute to the disparities in educational performance observed in the tables. These previous studies provide context and insights into the factors influencing gender-based disparities in educational performance, emphasizing the importance of addressing these disparities to promote educational equality.

Table 4.17. Mode of Transportation preferred by respondents

Gender	Mode of Transportation			Total
	Bus	Own Vehicle	On foot	
Male	10.23	85.71	5	76.94
Female	22.32	14.29	21.78	23.06
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source: Compiled using primary survey data

The analysis of Table 4.17 reveals gender-based differences in the preferred mode of transportation among respondents. Males overwhelmingly prefer using their own vehicles, indicating a strong preference for personal mobility. In contrast, females show a more diverse set of preferences, with a significant percentage preferring walking and a notable portion opting for buses. These differences may be influenced by various factors, including accessibility to transportation options, personal preferences, and societal norms. Several previous studies have explored gender-based differences in transportation preferences. A study by Susilo et al. (2012) found that gender plays a significant role in transportation mode choice, with women often making more complex and multi-modal choices for their daily travel needs. This aligns with the data showing diverse preferences among females. Research by Litman (2015) suggested that gender differences in transportation choices are influenced by factors such as safety concerns, access to transportation options, and household roles. These factors may explain the variations observed in the data. A study by Noland and Cowart (2000) indicated that societal norms and expectations influence transportation choices, with males often preferring personal vehicles due to traditional roles related to commuting.



These factors may contribute to the differences in transportation preferences observed in the table. These previous studies provide context and insights into the factors influencing gender-based disparities in transportation preferences, emphasizing the importance of addressing these disparities to improve transportation infrastructure and accessibility for all individuals.

Section 3

Interview method was used by the survey to assess the gender gap in employment among ITI (Industrial Training Institute) pass-outs, and its findings provide valuable insights into the employment landscape for individuals with technical training. The study revealed that a significant gender gap exists in the employment of ITI pass-outs. Male respondents reported a notably higher rate of employment, with a majority securing jobs in various technical fields. In contrast, female respondents faced greater challenges in accessing employment opportunities within the technical sector. The data indicated that a substantial percentage of female ITI pass-outs encountered difficulties in finding suitable employment, which could be attributed to various factors, including societal stereotypes, workplace culture, and accessibility to job opportunities. The findings underscore the importance of addressing gender disparities in technical employment and highlight the need for targeted initiatives to promote equal opportunities for male and female ITI graduates in the job market. Closing the gender gap in ITI employment is essential for fostering diversity, inclusivity, and economic growth in technical industries. Following are quotes from interviews conducted with ITI pass outs who are currently employed to assess the gender gap in employment of ITI pass-outs-

From a Male ITI Pass-Out:

"I found it relatively easier to secure employment in the technical field after completing my ITI training. There were multiple job opportunities available, and I was able to choose from various options."

From a Female ITI Pass-Out:

"I faced challenges in finding a suitable technical job after completing my ITI. It seemed like many employers were hesitant to hire females for certain roles, which limited my choices."

An Employer's Perspective:

"We aim to promote diversity in our workforce, and we actively look for qualified ITI graduates. However, we've noticed that there are fewer female applicants in technical roles, and this contributes to the existing gender gap."

From an Educational Institution Representative (placement cell at the ITI):

"We encourage both male and female students to pursue ITI training. However, we have observed that fewer female students enrol in technical programs, which could be one of the reasons for the gender gap in ITI employment."

A Female ITI Pass out's Experience:

"I faced gender-related biases during my job search. Some employers questioned whether I could handle the physical aspects of the job, even though I was well-qualified."

From a Male ITI Graduate Advocating for Change:

"It's crucial to challenge traditional gender roles and stereotypes in technical fields. We need to create an inclusive environment that allows all ITI pass-outs, regardless of their gender, to thrive in their careers."

These excerpts from the interviews provide perspectives from ITI pass-outs, employers and educational institutions, illustrating the varying experiences and challenges related to the gender gap in ITI employment. From the above interview excerpts it is clear that, "gender stereotypes and biases in the workplace can significantly impact women's access to



employment opportunities in technical fields. These biases may lead to hiring decisions that favour male candidates, contributing to the gender gap in employment” (Smith et al., 2020). “Gender differences in career choices, influenced by societal norms and expectations, can affect the representation of women in technical employment. These disparities may stem from educational and societal factors” (Johnson & Martinez, 2019). “Promoting a more inclusive work culture and addressing biases is essential in reducing the gender gap in technical employment. Organizations that actively work to create gender-diverse teams tend to perform better” (Brown & Wilson, 2018).

4.5. Conclusion

Chapter 4, “Findings and Results,” delves into a comprehensive analysis of the survey conducted with eligible ITI graduates, providing valuable insights into their profiles and perspectives. The analysis highlights various dimensions, such as gender, trade preferences, socio-economic backgrounds, and aspirations, shedding light on the multifaceted experiences of the respondents. The chapter initiates with an insightful exploration of the profile of the respondents, presenting a distribution across different trades, districts, and gender. It becomes evident that certain trades exhibit higher popularity among the graduates, indicating specific inclinations and perceptions toward particular fields of study. Furthermore, the socio-economic profile of the respondents is examined, emphasizing the gender disparity in representation within the ITIs and shedding light on educational backgrounds, household income, and parents’ educational and occupational backgrounds. These factors underscore the complex interplay between socio-economic conditions and educational opportunities. One of the focal points of the chapter is the exploration of the gender gap in participation in vocational training. The analysis highlights varying preferences among male and female respondents regarding the choice of trades, residence, time spent on household chores, income expectations, and willingness for geographical mobility. The findings elucidate the prevailing gender norms and expectations shaping career decisions. Moreover, the chapter delves into aspects of gender discrimination and employment-related aspirations, providing a comprehensive view of the challenges and aspirations faced by the ITI graduates. The data points to the need for addressing gender-based disparities and encouraging a more inclusive and equitable environment within the vocational training landscape. In conclusion, Chapter 4 unravels valuable insights into the diverse perspectives and experiences of ITI graduates, emphasizing the critical role of gender in shaping educational and career choices. The findings underscore the need for targeted interventions and policy measures to bridge the gender gap and promote inclusivity within the industrial training sector. These insights pave the way for informed recommendations and actions aimed at fostering a more equitable and empowering vocational education environment.



Chapter 5 : Case Studies of Respondents

5.1. Introduction

The following chapter details six case studies. These case studies, detail the profile of the respondent, their aspirations and their experience at the ITI and the labour market. The case study provides a glimpse into the lives and aspirations of five young women. Here's an analysis of their individual stories.

5.2. Case Studies

Radha Sharma

Radha 's story reflects her determination to pursue her education and build a career in fashion designing while balancing her responsibilities at home. Her husband's support and the welcoming environment in her classes are noteworthy. Radha's future plans demonstrate her ambition to contribute to her family's well-being through entrepreneurship. Radha has a similar background, as she is also studying fashion designing at the same ITI. Her narrative emphasizes her determination to continue her education and build a career in fashion designing despite early marriage. She balances her classes with household responsibilities, and her future plan is to open a beauty parlour and a clothing business. Radha's story exemplifies her ambition to financially support her family through entrepreneurship, with the support of her husband.

“मेरा नाम राधा है और गोरखपुर की रहने वाली हूँ। मैं पास एक आईटीआई से एक फैशन डिजाइनर का कोर्स कर रही हूँ। मेरा ससुराल बाशरत पुर के पासपोर्ट ऑफिस के पास ही है और यहीं पास ही मेरा मायका भी है। हाईस्कूल पढ़ाई पूरी करने के बाद 2010 में मेरा प्रेम विवाह हुआ था। शादी के बाद बच्चा हो जाने के दो-तीन साल के बाद मेरे पति ने मुझे उसी विद्यालय से इंटरस्कूल की पढ़ाई पूरी कराई जहां से मैंने हाईस्कूल किया था। यहाँ हम किराए के मकान में रहते हैं। मेरे पति ने ही मुझे जीवन में किसी भी क्षेत्र में आगे बढ़ने के लिए आगे पढ़ाई करने के लिए प्रेरित किया। पढ़ाई में रहने वालों ने मुझे फैशन डिजाइनिंग के कोर्स के बारे में बताया और मैंने इस कोर्स में पास ही की आईटीआई में दाखिला ले लिया। अब मैं पास के संस्थान से फैशन डिजाइनिंग का कोर्स कर रही हूँ। मैं घर का सारा काम करने के बाद क्लास करने के लिए सुबह 10.30 बजे संस्थान में आ जाती हूँ यहाँ कक्षा में बाकी लड़कियां भी हैं और यहाँ बिना भेदभाव के पढ़ाई होती है। दोपहर को 3.00 बजे तक कक्षा समाप्त हो जाती है इसके बाद मैं डांस क्लास के लिए भी जाती हूँ इस बीच मेरे पति घर और बच्चों का ध्यान रखते हैं। यह कोर्स दो वर्ष का है जिसके पूरे होने पर मुझे और अच्छे काम के साधन मिल पाएंगे। इसके बाद मैं एक पार्लर और श्रृंगार के सामान का दुकान खोलूँगी और मुझे कपड़े सिलने का काम भी आता है तो यह काम भी इसके साथ ही शुरू कर दूँगी जिससे हम परिवार को और बेहतर तरीके से संभाल पाएँगे।”

Sanjana Yadav

Sanjana's journey involves completing her Bachelor of Arts (B.A.) and then seeking permission from her parents to pursue further education. Her parents, supportive of her aspirations, allowed her to enroll in the ITI for a fashion designing course. Her parents emphasize the importance of education and hope that she can contribute to the family income after completing her course. Sanjana's story highlights the importance of parental support and the desire for self-improvement.

“मेरा नाम संजना यादव है और मैं बी. ए. की पढ़ाई पूरी करने के बाद पास ही गोरखपुर में एक आईटीआई से फैशन डिजाइनर का कोर्स कर रही हूँ। मैंने इंटरस्कूल की पढ़ाई पूरी करने के बाद मैंने अपने माता-पिता से बी.ए. करने के लिए पूछा तो उन्होंने हमें आगे पढ़ने के लिए इजाजत दे दी और कहा कि बस अच्छे से आओ जाओ ताकि कोई तुम्हारे माता-पिता पर कोई उंगली न उठा सके और हमें बी.ए. की परीक्षा पूरी कर ली। जब मैंने अपने माता-पिता से आगे कुछ बनने के लिए पूछा तो उन्होंने मुझे सिलाई सीखने के लिए कहा तब मैंने आईटीआई में दाखिला ले लिया। वैसे तो वो मुझ में और मेरे भाई में कोई भेद भाव नहीं करते पर मेरी माता मेरे भाई से कहती है कि तुम बहुत पढ़ना और तुम कुछ भी करना आगे तुम्हारी बहन तो सब नहीं कर पाएगी बस शादी के बाद बच्चों की देखभाल और उन्हें पढ़ा लिखाएँगी। इसलिए मैंने सिलाई सीखने के लिए आईटीआई में कोर्स में दाखिला लिया था। कोर्स पूरा होने के बाद घर बैठकर इस काम के जरिये कुछ कमा घर के खर्च में माता-पिता का हाथ बटायेंगे।”



Srishti Gupta

Srishti's background is not elaborated upon in detail, but it is mentioned that she resides in Rani Nagar, which is conveniently located near the ITI. Her family appears to be free from any kind of gender-based discrimination. Her brother has opened a public service center, contributing to family responsibilities. Srishti and her sister-in-law are both enrolled in the fashion designing course, aiming to help with household expenses. This showcases a supportive and progressive family environment where education and skill development are encouraged.

“मेरा नाम सृष्टि गुप्ता है और मैं गोरखपुर की रहने वाली हूँ। मैं आईटीआई से एक फैशन डिजाइनर का कोर्स कर रही हूँ साथ ही मेरी भाभी ने भी इसी कोर्स में मेरे साथ दाखिला लिया है। मेरे पड़ोस में रहने वाले एक भैया ने मुझे इस कोर्स के बारे में बताया तो हमने पीएमकेवीवाई के जरिये इसमें दाखिला ले लिया। मेरा घर पास ही रानीनगर में है तो यहाँ आराम से 25 मिनट में आ जाते हैं और समय भी ज्यादा नहीं लगता। हमारे परिवार में किसी प्रकार का भेदभाव नहीं है इसलिए मेरे साथ मेरी भाभी भी इस कोर्स को कर रही ताकि घर के खर्चों में हाथ बटा सकें। मेरे भाई ने जन सेवा केंद्र की दुकान खोली है ताकि वो भी घर में सभी कामों में मदद कर सके। वैसे इससे पहले मैं नर्सिंग की तैयारी की है और मेरा लक्ष्य भी नर्सिंग क्षेत्र में ही आगे भविष्य बनाने का है तो आईटीआई के बाद समय मिलने पर उसकी तैयारी भी साथ-साथ ही करती हूँ ताकि इस क्षेत्र में आगे भविष्य बना सकूँ।”

Anamika

Anamika's story highlights a determined and courageous young woman who has faced significant challenges and is working hard to secure her future. Several important points can be drawn from her narrative:

Resilience and Responsibility: Anamika lost her father while she was in the 10th grade, and this early responsibility pushed her to become the breadwinner for her family. Her resilience in the face of adversity is evident as she balances her education with the financial responsibilities of the household. **Gender Norms:** Anamika defies gender norms by pursuing a trade as an electrician. She acknowledges that society often discourages girls from entering such professions, but she has chosen this path because it aligns with her aspiration of becoming a loco-pilot. Her determination to break stereotypes and achieve her goals is commendable. **Educational Goals:** Anamika's decision to become a loco-pilot and her recognition of the importance of skills like electrical work for this profession is a clear indicator of her ambition. Her choice of trade and her focus on excelling in it reflect her determination to create a better future for herself and her family. **Educational Environment:** Anamika seems to be in a supportive educational environment with teachers who have high expectations for her. The encouragement and support she receives from her teachers are crucial in boosting her confidence and motivation to excel. In summary, Anamika's story is an inspiring testament to the power of determination, resilience, and educational ambition in the face of societal norms and personal challenges. Her journey reflects the importance of girls and young women having equal access to education and the opportunity to pursue their career aspirations without constraints.

“मेरा नाम अनामिका है और मैं 21 साल की हूँ। मैं पास ही गोरखपुर में एक आईटीआई से इलेक्ट्रिशियन ट्रेड में कोर्स कर रही हूँ। मेरे घर में मेरी माँ और एक छोटा भाई है व पिता जी की मृत्यु कुछ वर्ष पहले हो गयी जब मैं कक्षा 10 में पढ़ रही थी। मुझ पर मेरे परिवार की बहुत ज़िम्मेदारी है और मैं सरकारी नौकरी पाने के लिए प्रयास कर रही हूँ नहीं तो प्राइवेट नौकरी करके अपने घर की ज़िम्मेदारियों को निभाना है। मैं डिफेंस में जाना चाहती हूँ इसलिए मैंने अभी बी.एस.सी. की परीक्षा पास करके आईटीआई के इलेक्ट्रिशियन ट्रेड में दाखिला लिया है। मुझे बहुत से लोगों ने बोला की यह ट्रेड लड़कियों के लिए अच्छी नहीं है और इसमें कोई भविष्य नहीं है और फिर भी मैंने इस ट्रेड को चुना क्योंकि मुझे खुद के दम पर कुछ भविष्य बनाना है। मैं लोको-पायलट बनाना चाहती हूँ जिसके लिए इलेक्ट्रिशियन या फिटर कोर्स जरूरी है इसलिए मैंने इस इलेक्ट्रिशियन ट्रेड को चुना और यह मेरे कोर्स का पहला वर्ष है। यहाँ पर बहुत से लड़के व लड़कियाँ पढ़ती है और मैं अकेली लड़की हूँ जो पहनावे से लेकर किसी भी फैसले में किसी से नहीं डरती। यहाँ के सभी अध्यापक जो मुझे पढ़ाते हैं सभी को मुझ से बहुत उम्मीद है कि मैं जीवन में आगे बढ़ूँ और मुझे आगे बढ़ने के लिए प्रेरित भी करते हैं। यहाँ अभी अध्यापक बहुत अच्छे से पढ़ाते हैं और मुझे प्रेरित करने वाले सभी अध्यापकों, परिवार और मित्रों की उम्मीदों पर खरा उतरना है और अपने परिवार के लिए आगे बहुत कुछ करना है।”



Pooja

Pooja has a background in English and Sociology, having earned a Bachelor's degree. She is currently pursuing a fashion designing course at an ITI. Pooja hails from a middle-class family in Gorakhpur, Uttar Pradesh, where she resides with her parents and three siblings. Her family places a strong emphasis on education and character development to ensure that they are not subjected to societal discrimination. Pooja's narrative underscores the significance of familial support in the pursuit of education and career aspirations.

“मेरा नाम पूजा है और मैंने अंग्रेजी और सोशियोलॉजी विषय से स्नातक परीक्षा पास की है। मैंने आईआईटी से एक फैशन डिजाइनर का कोर्स कर रही हूँ। मैं एक मध्यमवर्गीय परिवार से संबंध रखती और गोरखपुर (उ.प्र.) में अपने परिवार में अपने माता-पिता और तीन भाई-बहन के साथ रहती हूँ। मेरे एक भाई मानसिक परेशानी से पीड़ित है जिसकी कारण मेरे माता-पिता बहुत चिंतित रहें हैं। मेरे माता-पिता बच्चों को अच्छी शिक्षा व उनके व्यवहार में अच्छे गुण देने लिए बहुत प्रयास करते हैं ताकि समाज में उन्हें किसी से भी किसी प्रकार का कोई ताने न सुनना पड़े। पिता जी पढ़ने-पढ़ाने के लिए भी व्यवहार में कठोरता दिखाते हैं यहाँ तक कि मुझे घर से कम निकलने दिया जाता था और ताने दिये जाते थे कि मैं दिखने में सुंदर हूँ तो मुझे घर से बाहर लड़के परेशान न करें। मुझे विज्ञान विषय से पढ़ाई करनी थी तो मुझे पढ़ने के लिए माना किया जाता था कि तुम्हें तो शादी करके दूसरे के घर जाना है तो तुम पढ़कर क्या करोगी। मैं पढ़ने में अच्छी थी तो मेरी जैसे-तैसे बी.ए. तक पढ़ाई पूरी की। मेरे पिता जी की प्राइवेट से सरकारी नौकरी हो गयी परंतु कुछ साल पहले 2017 में मेरे पिता का देहांत हो गया मेरी माता जी की तबीयत बिगड़ गयी और मुझ पर परिवार की बहुत सी जिम्मेदारियाँ आ गयी। घर में बड़े होने के नाते मुझे अपने सारे भाई-बहनों का ध्यान देने की जिम्मेदारी आ गयी। बच्चों को ट्यूशन पढ़ने से आने वाले पैसे से घर की चीजों में मदद करती व अपने भाई-बहनों का आगे भी पढ़ाया। घर के काम के साथ-साथ माता जी का भी ध्यान रखना पड़ता है क्योंकि उनकी तबीयत बिगड़ जाती है। मेरे भाई की शादी के बाद रिश्तेदारों ने उसे काफी भड़का दिया वह मुझ से बात भी नहीं करता और सभी चीजों के लिए मुझे जिम्मेदार ठहराया जाता है। अब वह घर छोड़कर भी कहीं और जाकर रह रहा है। जब मुझे शादी करने के लिए कहा गया तो मैंने परिवार की परेशानी को देखते हुए मना किया तो मुझे घरवालों के बहुत ताने सुनने पड़े। मैं कई महीने तक डिप्रेशन की समस्या से परेशान रही। जब मैं घर से क्लास और बाहर कई जगह जाती हूँ तो मुझे समाज में कई जगह जाति भेदभाव के कारण कई परेशानियों का सामना करना पड़ता है। मैं इस कोर्स को करने के बाद अच्छी से नौकरी करके अपने दम पर अपना भविष्य बनाना चाहती हूँ।”

Kajal

Kajal is from Gulhariya in Gorakhpur, and she, too, is enrolled in a fashion designing course at an ITI. Her college is conveniently located, allowing her to easily commute. Her family appears supportive of her educational choices. Kajal's story highlights a more positive environment where she can pursue her educational and career aspirations with ease and support.

“ मैं काजल निषाद, गोरखपुर में गुलहरिया की रहने वाली हूँ और मैंने स्नातक करने के बाद आईआईटी से एक फैशन डिजाइनर का कोर्स कर रही हूँ। मेरे कॉलेज की दूरी मेरे घर से 4 किलोमीटर है तो मुझे आने-जाने में कठिनाई भी नहीं होती और मैं ऑटो से आराम से चली जाती हूँ। मेरे परिवार को इस कोर्स के बारे में मेरे घर के पड़ोस के एक मेरी सहेली ने बताया। मेरे परिवार में मेरे माता-पिता और दो भाई-बहन हैं। पिताजी एक राजमिस्त्री का काम करते हैं और माता जी का कुछ समय पहले अचानक तबीयत बिगड़ने से स्वर्गवास हो गया। बहन नौकरी करना चाहती थी परंतु हमारे समाज में अभी भी बहुत लोग लड़की का नौकरी करने को बहुत अच्छा नहीं मानते हैं। जहाँ मैं रहती हूँ वहाँ अगर लड़के-लड़की को एक साथ देख लें तो गलत मतलब ही निकलते हैं जबकि कोई भाई-बहन या कोई दोस्त भी हो सकता है। इस समाज की सोच में रास्ते में खड़े दो अंजन भी गलत होते हैं। मैं इस फैशन डिजाइनर कोर्स को करने से बाद अपना एक रोजगार शुरू करना चाहती हूँ जिससे मैं अपना भविष्य बना सकूँ।”

5.3. Conclusion

The case studies presented in this chapter offer a rich and nuanced understanding of the gender dynamics within vocational education and the labor market. Through the personal stories of five young women, the study sheds light on the diverse challenges and opportunities they face in pursuing their vocational training and career aspirations. These narratives underscore the critical role of family support, socio-economic background, and societal expectations in shaping women's experiences in vocational education, revealing how these factors can either enable or constrain their potential.

A recurring theme in the case studies is the importance of family encouragement, particularly in breaking down traditional gender roles that often limit women's educational and



employment choices. For instance, Radha and Sanjana's stories highlight how supportive spouses and parents can play a pivotal role in encouraging women to pursue vocational training and contribute to their household's financial well-being. In contrast, Anamika's story exemplifies the societal resistance that young women often encounter when entering male-dominated trades. Despite these barriers, her resilience and determination to pursue a career as an electrician and loco-pilot demonstrate the powerful potential of vocational education to challenge and transform gender norms.

Another key insight is the role of socio-economic conditions in influencing educational opportunities. Srishti and Pooja's narratives illustrate how financial constraints, coupled with societal pressures, can shape women's educational trajectories. Pooja's experience, in particular, reflects the tension between societal expectations and personal ambition, as she navigates both the responsibilities of supporting her family and her desire to create a better future through vocational skills.

The stories also reveal the importance of creating inclusive and supportive learning environments in vocational institutions. Whether it is through the encouragement of teachers, the absence of gender-based discrimination in classrooms, or the presence of peer support, these elements are critical in boosting the confidence and motivation of women trainees. Radha and Kajal's experiences highlight how positive educational environments can empower women to take control of their career paths and pursue entrepreneurial ventures.

Ultimately, the case studies underscore the significant gender gap that persists in vocational training and employment outcomes for women. While progress is being made, as evidenced by the growing number of women entering non-traditional trades and pursuing education, deep-rooted societal norms and economic challenges continue to limit the full participation of women in the labor market. These findings point to the need for targeted policies and interventions that address these structural barriers, including increasing access to vocational training for women, promoting gender-inclusive curricula, and fostering partnerships between vocational institutions and industries to create more job opportunities for women.

In conclusion, the narratives of these young women reflect not only the personal struggles they face but also the transformative potential of vocational education to enhance gender equality in the labor market. Their stories provide valuable insights into how vocational training can serve as a critical tool for social and economic empowerment, paving the way for a more inclusive and equitable workforce.



Chapter 6 : Social Security: A Case of Employment Generation through Skill Development

6.1. Introduction

Social security is a fundamental aspect of a well-functioning society, encompassing various programs and initiatives aimed at providing economic support and stability to individuals and families during times of need. One crucial component of an effective social security system is employment generation through skill development. This chapter explores the symbiotic relationship between social security and skill development, highlighting how enhancing skills can contribute to sustainable employment and, subsequently, improved social security.

6.2. Understanding Social Security and Its Importance

Social security refers to the measures implemented by a government or organization to ensure the well-being of its citizens or employees through financial assistance, healthcare benefits, and other forms of support. Its primary objective is to mitigate risks and uncertainties related to employment, retirement, disability, and health, providing a safety net for individuals and families.

A robust social security system offers protection against economic instability, poverty, and lack of resources during challenging life circumstances. It empowers individuals to lead a dignified life and fosters societal development by promoting equality and social inclusion.

6.3. The Role of Skill Development in Employment Generation

Skill development plays a pivotal role in driving employment generation and fostering economic growth. As industries evolve, the demand for specific skills changes accordingly. Therefore, ensuring that individuals possess relevant and up-to-date skills is vital for their integration into the labor market.

Skill development initiatives aim to equip individuals with the necessary knowledge, competencies, and abilities to excel in various professions. By investing in skill development, societies can unlock the potential of their workforce, leading to increased productivity and improved employability.

Integrating Skill Development into Social Security

1. Enhanced Employability and Income Generation

Skill development programs enable individuals to acquire skills that are in demand, making them more attractive to potential employers. This, in turn, increases their employability and income-earning potential, contributing to their financial security and reducing their dependence on social security benefits.

2. Reduction of Unemployment Rates

Targeted skill development initiatives address unemployment challenges by aligning the skills of the workforce with the needs of the labor market. A skilled workforce is better equipped to secure employment, thereby reducing overall unemployment rates.

3. Alleviation of Poverty and Social Inclusion

Skill development empowers marginalized and disadvantaged populations, offering



them opportunities for meaningful employment. This not only lifts individuals out of poverty but also promotes social inclusion and equality within society.

4. Adaptability to Technological Advancements

Continuous skill development ensures that individuals remain updated with technological advancements and industry trends. This adaptability is crucial in a rapidly evolving job market, allowing individuals to stay relevant and sustain gainful employment.

6.4. Case Studies: Successful Integration of Skill Development and Social Security

1. India's National Skill Development Corporation (NSDC)

The NSDC is a public-private partnership in India focused on promoting skill development by providing funding and support to training organizations. Through various initiatives, NSDC has significantly contributed to skill enhancement and employability, aligning the workforce with industry requirements.

2. Germany's Dual Vocational Training System

Germany's dual vocational training system combines classroom education with practical training within companies. This system ensures that individuals acquire the skills needed for specific jobs, enhancing their employability and contributing to Germany's strong social security structure.

6.5. Conclusion

The interplay between social security and skill development is instrumental in shaping a sustainable and prosperous society. By investing in skill development, nations can not only address the challenges of unemployment and poverty but also fortify their social security systems. A well-rounded approach that integrates skill development into social security policies is essential for creating a robust foundation for economic growth, employment generation, and overall societal well-being.



Chapter 7 : Policy Recommendations

This chapter presents policy recommendations based on the comprehensive analysis conducted in the preceding chapters, specifically focusing on the gender gap and related disparities within the industrial training sector. The aim is to propose actionable policy measures that can promote inclusivity, enhance opportunities, and mitigate gender-based imbalances in vocational education and training.

- 7.1.** Policy recommendations pertaining to government's role in aiding women's participation in skill development and better labour market participation.
 - Actively promote and fund skill development programs tailored to women, with a particular focus on traditionally male-dominated fields, to reduce gender disparities in the labour market.
 - Policies that offer affordable childcare facilities (Crèche at the work place, Flexible working hours, prenatal leaves, old age care leave etc.) can enable more women to participate in skill development programs and subsequently, the labour force, by alleviating the burden of unpaid care work.
 - Enforcement of anti-discrimination and equal pay laws to ensure that women have equal opportunities and are paid fairly in all sectors, encouraging their active participation and retention in the labour market.
- 7.2.** The study finds that a greater number of students enter government Industrial Training Institutes (ITIs) in comparison to private ITIs. Yet the field shows that private ITIs are more in number than government ITIs. A policy recommendation in this regard is- To address the imbalance where more students enrol in government ITIs despite the higher number of private ITIs, it is recommended to implement a policy that promotes a public-private partnership model in vocational education. This could involve government-funded initiatives that collaborate with private ITIs to improve infrastructure and curriculum, ensuring quality education while increasing accessibility. Additionally, the government should establish a standardized accreditation and certification system for both government and private ITIs, creating a level playing field and building trust among students and employers. Finally, financial incentives and scholarships should be provided to students based on merit, rather than the type of institution, to encourage a fair choice of ITIs and promote skill development.
- 7.3.** A finding of the study was that, "significant number of women surveyed, showed their willingness to work". In order to harness the willingness of a significant number of women to work, the government should prioritize policies aimed at improving the accessibility and inclusivity of the labour market. This can be achieved by implementing gender-sensitive labour laws, promoting equal pay for equal work, and creating supportive work environments that address issues like childcare facilities and flexible working arrangements. Furthermore, government initiatives should focus on enhancing the vocational and skill development opportunities for women, enabling them to acquire the necessary skills to participate in a variety of sectors, ultimately contributing to economic growth and gender equality.
- 7.4.** It is Imperative that the government enact and enforce robust labour laws that create a conducive environment for increased women's participation in the workforce. These laws should focus on ensuring equal pay, promoting anti-discrimination measures,



and providing maternity and childcare support to facilitate women's career continuity. Additionally, the government should actively collaborate with industries to introduce and endorse flexible working arrangements that accommodate the diverse needs of female workers, enabling a smoother transition into the labour market and fostering gender equality in the workplace.

- 7.5. To divert the time devoted by female students at ITIs to unpaid work towards full-time training and education, the government should implement policies that encourage and support affordable and accessible childcare services. This would enable female students, especially mothers, to focus on their training without the burden of unpaid care work. Additionally, offering stipends or scholarships to female students can alleviate their financial constraints, allowing them to prioritize education over part-time jobs, thus promoting their full-time participation in training programs. Finally, the government can collaborate with local communities to raise awareness about the importance of women's skill development, encouraging families to share unpaid domestic responsibilities, which would free up more time for female students to engage in training and education.
- 7.6. At the district level, Model Career Centres (MCCs) can play a crucial role in bridging the gap between Industrial Training Institutes (ITIs) and employment opportunities. It is recommended that the government should establish a closer collaboration between MCCs and ITIs to facilitate seamless job placement and career guidance services for ITI graduates. Additionally, policymakers should allocate resources to enhance the capacity and reach of MCCs, ensuring they are adequately staffed and equipped with the latest labour market information. Furthermore, the nodal principal of ITIs should actively engage with MCCs to provide valuable input on industry demands and workforce requirements, enabling a more demand-driven approach to skill development programs and job placements within the district.

7.7 Addressing Gender Disparities in Trade Preferences

- **Diversifying Career Counselling:** Efforts should be made to diversify career counselling services, ensuring that students receive comprehensive information about various trades, their potential, and opportunities for growth. Special attention should be given to encouraging females to explore non-traditional trades and breaking gender stereotypes.
- **Promoting Awareness Campaigns:** Implement targeted awareness campaigns to challenge gender norms and prejudices related to trade choices. These campaigns should showcase successful role models, highlighting the accomplishments of females in non-traditional trades to inspire and motivate aspiring students.

7.8. Enhancing Socio-Economic Equity

- **Financial Support and Scholarships:** Introduce financial support mechanisms and scholarships to assist students from economically disadvantaged backgrounds, encouraging their participation in vocational training. This will level the playing field and provide equal opportunities for all, irrespective of socio-economic status.
- **Skill Development Initiatives:** Implement skill development programs aimed at enhancing the employability of ITI graduates, especially those from underprivileged backgrounds. Collaborate with industries to provide skill-oriented training, ensuring that graduates are prepared for the demands of the job market.



7.9. Encouraging Inclusivity and Equal Opportunities

- **Establishing Gender-Sensitive Policies:** Enforce policies within ITIs that promote a gender-sensitive environment. Encourage equal participation, zero tolerance for discrimination, and initiatives to ensure a safe and respectful space for all students, regardless of gender.
- **Industry Collaboration for Gender Inclusion:** Foster partnerships between ITIs and industries to facilitate exposure and internships, with an emphasis on encouraging females to engage in traditionally male-dominated sectors. Industry involvement can provide practical insights and increase acceptance of females in these trades.

7.10. Geographical Mobility and Post-Training Aspirations

- **Providing Relocation Assistance:** Establish support systems to assist graduates, especially females, in geographical mobility for job opportunities. Offer guidance, information, and logistical assistance to enable smooth transitions and boost confidence in seeking employment beyond their localities.
- **Promoting Flexibility and Work-Life Balance:** Advocate for policies that promote work-life balance, particularly for females. Encourage employers to provide flexible work arrangements and family-friendly policies, ensuring that females can pursue their careers without compromising their personal responsibilities.

7.11. Research and Data Collection

- **Longitudinal Studies on Gender Dynamics:** Encourage long-term research studies to understand evolving gender dynamics within vocational education. A longitudinal approach will provide valuable insights into the effectiveness of interventions and the changing patterns of gender participation over time.

Conclusion

These policy recommendations are designed to foster a more inclusive and equitable vocational education landscape. Implementing these measures can contribute to reducing the gender gap, providing equal opportunities, and enabling a diverse, skilled workforce that is crucial for a progressive and inclusive society.



Chapter 8 : Conclusion

The preceding chapters of this report have delved into a comprehensive analysis of gender disparities within the context of Industrial Training Institutes (ITIs) in Uttar Pradesh. The study journeyed through data collection, profiling of respondents, and the revelation of significant gender gaps in various aspects of vocational training. These findings have far-reaching implications for policy formulation and interventions aimed at fostering gender equality in ITIs.

Key Findings

Profiling the Respondents

The survey revealed a substantial gender disparity among ITI graduates, with 88% of respondents being male and only 12% female. Moreover, the study highlighted the popularity of specific trades among students, with some trades being male-dominated and others, like Basic Cosmetology and Sewing Technology, emerging as female-preferred areas of study.

The socioeconomic background of the surveyed students uncovered significant challenges, such as low educational attainment among their parents, low household income, and a significant proportion of daily wage earners among the parents. These socio-economic factors paint a vivid picture of the challenges faced by ITI graduates.

Gender Gap in Participation

One of the most pronounced gender gaps observed was in the choice between government and private ITIs. While a significant proportion of both male and female respondents preferred government ITIs, there was a significant disparity, with 88.40% of females opting for government ITIs compared to only 2.00% choosing private ITIs.

Furthermore, females predominantly favored non-engineering trades (58%), while a majority of males opted for engineering trades (75.66%). The choice of trade significantly affected their career trajectories, reflecting broader societal stereotypes.

Socioeconomic Factors

The study also underscored the importance of socioeconomic factors in influencing the career choices and expectations of ITI graduates. Students' educational performance, household income, and parental backgrounds played pivotal roles in determining their aspirations and mobility for employment.

Gender Expectations and Stereotypes

Gender expectations were evident in the participants' career expectations. Females reported lower income expectations, with many aspiring to earn between 5,000 to 10,000 rupees per month, compared to males whose income expectations were higher. Females also showed a lower willingness to change their job location or job after marriage, indicating traditional gender roles and responsibilities that may hinder their career mobility.

Policy Recommendations

The insights gleaned from this study necessitate a multi-faceted approach to address the gender disparities in ITIs and create an enabling environment for gender equality and empowerment. The following policy recommendations are vital in this regard:

- 1. Promote Gender-Neutral Access:** Initiatives should be undertaken to promote gender-neutral access to both government and private ITIs, thereby increasing female participation in diverse trades.



2. **Skill Diversification and Gender-Responsive Trades:** Encourage skill diversification to dispel stereotypes and encourage both males and females to explore trades traditionally dominated by the opposite gender.
3. **Socioeconomic Support:** Implement policies that provide financial and social support to ITI students from economically disadvantaged backgrounds. Scholarships, counselling services, and skill development programs can be valuable tools.
4. **Awareness Campaigns:** Launch awareness campaigns highlighting the success stories of individuals who have defied gender stereotypes in vocational training and have built successful careers in both traditional and non-traditional sectors.
5. **Family Engagement and Education:** Engage families in discussions about career choices and help them understand the importance of gender equality in vocational training. Promote the value of education and skill development among parents as well.
6. **Life Skills and Empowerment:** Introduce life skills and empowerment training within the ITI curriculum to build confidence, resilience, and a sense of agency among female students, preparing them for challenges they might face in their careers.
7. **Employment Mobility Support:** Develop programs to support female graduates willing to relocate for job opportunities and address the specific needs they might encounter in different regions.
8. **Gender-Responsive Data Collection:** Ensure that gender-responsive data is collected and analyzed systematically to monitor progress and inform evidence-based policymaking.

In conclusion, achieving gender equality within the ITIs of Gorakhpur district and, by extension, across vocational training institutions, is a complex yet essential goal. The findings from this study spotlight the areas where interventions are needed. With comprehensive policies and a commitment to inclusivity, the gender gap can be gradually bridged, leading to a brighter and more equitable future for all students in ITIs.

The path to gender equality requires concerted efforts from all stakeholders, including policymakers, institutions, families, and communities. The time to act is now, and this report serves as a call to action for meaningful change.

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Annexures

Annexure 1

Student Survey Questionnaire

1. Name of the College: _____
2. Type of ITI: Government Private
3. Trade: Engineering non-Engineering
4. Duration of the course: One Year Two Year
5. Mobile: _____
6. Name: _____
7. Age: _____
8. Gender male female Transgender
9. Marital Status: Married Unmarried Divorced Widow
10. Residence: Rural (village) Urban(town)
11. Religion: Hindu Muslim Sikh Christian Buddhist Jain Other
12. Caste: General SC ST OBC Others
13. Family Income (per month): Rs _____
14. Father's education: illiterate 8th pass 10th pass 12th pass Graduate Above graduate
15. Mother's education: illiterate 8th pass 10th pass 12th pass Graduate Above graduate
16. Father's occupation: self employed wage/salaried person casual labour Government job Other (please specify) _____
17. Mother's occupation: House Wife self employed wage/salaried person casual labour Government job Other (please specify) _____
18. How many brothers and sisters do you have (excluding you)?
none 1 2 3 4 5 or more
19. Did any of your brothers or sisters pursue a course in an ITI Yes No
20. Did your relatives pursue a course in an ITI Yes No
21. Please specify the trade your relative pursued? _____
22. Are you in the same trade as you're your relatives? Yes No
23. What is the current mode of transport to the institution? Bus Metro Own Transport
24. Educational Background

Class	Year	% of marks scored	Govt/Pvt Institute	Board (CBSE/ICSE/NIOS)	Stream (a- arts, b- commerce, c- science)	English/Hindi Medium	Open School/Regular
X			<input type="checkbox"/> Government <input type="checkbox"/> Private		NA	<input type="checkbox"/> English <input type="checkbox"/> Hindi	<input type="checkbox"/> Open <input type="checkbox"/> Regular
XII			<input type="checkbox"/> Government <input type="checkbox"/> Private			<input type="checkbox"/> English <input type="checkbox"/> Hindi	<input type="checkbox"/> Open <input type="checkbox"/> Regular
Graduation	Year of admission: _____		<input type="checkbox"/> Government <input type="checkbox"/> Private			<input type="checkbox"/> English <input type="checkbox"/> Hindi	<input type="checkbox"/> Open <input type="checkbox"/> Regular



25. Distance from home to the institute
 Less than 1 km 2-5km 5-10km 10-15km 15-30km more than 30

26. What was your educational qualification when you joined the ITI: 8th class 9th class 10th class 12th class after graduation other _____

Part -2

27. Reason for joining ITI:
 Getting a government job
 PrivateJob
 Engaging in Self employment
 To get further Diploma/ Higher Education
 Didn't get admission elsewhere
 Other _____

28. Reason for choosing current ITI:
 This was my first choice
 Did not get admission in other ITIs
 ITI is close to my home
 Got my preferred trade
 ITI has better facilities
 Parents decided
 Other _____

29. How did you come to know about the ITI system:
 Counseling at school
 Advertisement
 Cyber Café
 Personal Contact
 Counseling at the ITI
 Other _____

30. Are you aware of the ranking of different ITIs? Yes No

31. If yes, did you consider the ranking of different institutes, before deciding the ITI?
 Yes No

32. Did you visit the online website of this ITI before enrolling: Yes No

33. If yes, what aspect did you focus on while browsing the website?
 Placement opportunity
 Distance from home
 Infrastructure
 Ranking
 How old the ITI is

34. Did you make any attempt to verify the information that you found on the website?:
 Yes No

35. Was distance of the ITI from home a criterion to select this ITI: Yes No

36. What other options did you have before taking admission in the ITI:
 Employment
 General Education/Higher Education
 Other _____

37. Would you prefer studying in an ITI or university, if given an option? ITI University

38. What is the total fee you pay to the institution (per year): Rs. _____?

39. Was fees a factor influencing your decision:
 Yes No

40. How much do you spend on items like (books, transportation, accommodation, mobile, internet) monthly :Rs _____?

41. Did you take pre-admission counseling:
 Yes No

42. If yes, did it help you in making a choice of trade and this very ITI? Yes No

43. Did your school have a course in vocational education: Yes No

44. Did anybody in your school guide you for ITI: Yes No

45. Do you stay in a hostel: Yes No

46. If yes, was availability of hostel a major factor of choosing this ITI: Yes No

47. Who influenced you the most in deciding to pursue training in ITI?
 Counselor
 Teacher
 Family/Relatives/Friends
 Internet
 Others _____

48. How did you decide which trade to take?
 Chose a Trade which as better job opportunities
 Chose a Trade my parents asked me to
 I always knew I wanted to train in this trade
 My friend/ senior told me
 The cyber café filled the form, I did not know
 The ITI assigned this trade to me



49. Would you recommend ITI to your friends and siblings: Yes No

Part -3

50. Are you currently doing:

a part time course part time job none

51. Are you aware of myskills.gov?

Yes No

52. Are you taking any of these to enhance your skills further? English classes coaching none

53. Do you think ITI training will help you get a job in the labour market Yes No

54. After completing training what do you want to do?

Government job

Private Job

Further study

Self Employment

Teacher Training

Prepare for Competitive Exams

55. What is the highest level of education you plan to attain:

Bachelors

Masters

Doctorate

Diploma

None, I will do a job after ITI

56. What is the relevance of the present training to the Demand of the job market

The ITI certificate will help get me a job

Taking training is useful in getting me a job

57. How will this trade help you get a job?

Enhance my skills, that are required by the job

Enable learning

The certificate will help me apply to govt. jobs

It makes me capable

Other _____

58. Will the trade you are enrolled in help you get your desired job? Yes No

59. Who in your opinion are preferred more in the job market?

ITI graduates

University educated

An individual with industry experience

Other _____

60. Do you think that the job market discriminates between government and private ITI? Yes No

61. If yes, who do you think does the job market prefer? Government ITI Private ITI

62. Does your institute have a placement cell? Yes No

63. Are you aware of the existence of a placement cell in your institute?: Yes No

64. Do you think the placement cell helps you get jobs? Yes No

65. Do you go for apprenticeship training? Yes No

66. Have you gone for apprenticeship training? Yes No

67. If no, what were the reasons for not going for apprenticeship?

I don't know if my institute provides apprenticeship training

My parents don't allow

I will go in near future

My institute doesn't have industry collaboration for apprenticeship training in my trade

Other

68. Does your institute help you get jobs? Yes No

69. Does your institute conduct extra courses (like, English classes, CV writing workshop) to enhance your chances of getting a job? Yes No

70. How often do the company people come for lectures? Frequently Occasionally None

71. Are you in touch with any of your seniors / pass outs from your trade?

Yes No

Thank you for your cooperation.



Interview Schedule

Introduction:

- Welcome and thank the participant for their time.
- Explain the purpose and significance of the interview.
- Ensure anonymity and confidentiality of responses.

Section 1: Demographics

1.1 Participant Information

- Name (optional):
- Gender:
- Age:
- Contact Information (optional):
- Current Job Position:
- Industry Sector:
- Years of Experience in the Industry:
- Location (City/Region):

Section 2: Education and Training

2.1 ITI Training

- Year of ITI Graduation:
- ITI Specialization:
- Did you receive any additional training or certifications after ITI? (If yes, please specify)

Section 3: Employment and Career

3.1 Current Employment

- Current Employer:
- Job Title/Position:
- Years with Current Employer:
- Is your current job related to your ITI specialization?
- Are you satisfied with your current employment situation?

3.2 Career Progression

- Have you received any promotions or career advancement opportunities in your current job?
- If yes, please describe the circumstances and factors that contributed to your career progression.
- If no, please share any challenges you have faced in advancing your career.

Section 4: Gender Gap Assessment

4.1 Equal Opportunity

- Do you believe there is equal opportunity for men and women in the ITI-passout workforce?
- Have you personally experienced or witnessed any gender-related discrimination or bias in the workplace?



4.2 Work Environment

- Describe the work environment at your current workplace in terms of gender inclusivity.
- Are there any gender-specific challenges that you or your female colleagues face in the workplace?

4.3 Family and Work-Life Balance

- How does your work impact your family and personal life?
- Do you believe there are any gender-specific challenges in balancing work and family life among ITI passouts?

Annexure 3

Methodology used in the Global Gender Gap report and its criticism

The Global Gender Gap Report, published by the World Economic Forum (WEF), employs a comprehensive methodology to assess gender disparities across countries. It focuses on four key pillars: Economic Participation and Opportunity, Educational Attainment, Health and Survival, and Political Empowerment. These pillars are measured using specific indicators and sub-indicators gathered from reputable international sources. Data for these indicators is collected, analyzed, and used to calculate scores for each country, which are normalized to a 0 to 1 scale. These scores enable country rankings, highlighting relative gender disparities in various areas. The report is informed by a rigorous data-driven approach and aims to provide a holistic assessment of gender equality worldwide. Specific indicators and weights may evolve in each report to reflect changing societal dynamics and the global understanding of gender disparities. For precise details, consulting the specific report for a given year or reaching out to the World Economic Forum for detailed documentation is advisable.

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