



An Explorative Analysis of the Labour Market structure in the Peri-Urban area of Hyderabad Metropolitan Region

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ABSTRACT

The study was undertaken during June–August, 2020 in the peri-urban areas of Hyderabad Metropolitan Region of Telangana under the department of Agricultural Economics, Professor Jayashanker Telangana State Agricultural University, Rajendranagar, Hyderabad, Telangana state, India. The objective was to explore the nature of gender gap in the labour market since peri-urban spaces capture changes better. Based on the Census survey data, descriptive analysis was employed in the study. The study revealed that urban sprawl did not guarantee working environment to men and women equally and women were either pushed out of workforce or rendered with marginal works. A gendered society in developing world was clearly pictured and occupational segregation was also observed in the study locations. The results also revealed the existence of distress employment with a rise in the female marginal workers compared to their male counterparts. Women workers were more into agricultural labour than male workers in the peri-urban study locations confirming feminisation of agriculture whereas other worker category which needs specialized skills were dominated by male workers. A decline in female work participation rate was indeed observed but a detailed look identified it as a rural phenomenon. In a nut shell, the results reflected that the rapid developments in the peri-urban region did not provide a similar working environment to both genders and further, the benefits of urbanization is yet to reach the rural continuum.

KEYWORDS: Peri-urban, gender, labour market, urban sprawl

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Data Availability Statement: Legal restrictions are imposed on the public sharing of raw data. However, authors have full right to transfer or share the data in raw form upon request subject to either meeting the conditions of the original consents and the original research study. Further, access of data needs to meet whether the user complies with the ethical and legal obligations as data controllers to allow for secondary use of the data outside of the original study.

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1. INTRODUCTION

As the World Development Report (2009) corroborates, the economic geography is being reshaped in the new world where the large metropolises are growing under the sway of urbanization creating three major spatial units – Urban, Rural and Peri-urban. Peri-urban is the transient space which enables us to capture changes in society (Sen, 2016) which has an expected potential of diversified work opportunities (Anonymous, 2019). However, it is easy said, but, the peri-urban areas of large metropolises are open to multi-faceted intricacies and are often kept away from the prospects of urbanisation (Dupont, 2007). According to the World Bank (2019), the overall female work participation rate (FWPR) in India was 30.3% in 1990 but by 2019, it has declined to 20.5%. At the same time, the male WPR has shrunken over time, still, the rate has managed to stand fourfold at 76.08% in 2019. When WPR in rural and urban areas are collated, the rural FWPR was almost half of their counterpart, while in the urban areas, the difference was even more (Anonymous, 2013a).

The state of deteriorating FWPR is one of the social and economic challenges which remain unaddressed among the multidimensional challenges faced by the peri-urban villages (Sikarwar et al., 2020). Female work participation in peri-urban areas is found to be significantly low when compared with male workers. The studies conducted in other developing countries also presents confirming reports that “women have gained less from the economic dynamism in the peri-urban areas” (Lanjouw, Quizon and Sparrow, 2001; Sen, 2016). On a comparison with 2004–05 and 2011–12 NSSO data on employment-unemployment, it was observed that over time, gender disparities are widening in the peri-urban areas closely followed by urban core. This indicates that females in ‘the urban part of peri-urban areas’ have a lower probability to enter into their wishful job because of which their overall WPR is descending to men, and also to the urban core, and other spaces (Sen, 2016). Contrasting report is from rural peri-urban zones where participation of women in workforce is comparatively more with a feminized agricultural sector whereas the non-farm sector is not providing enough opportunities to women (Sikarwar, 2020). The likelihood of women to be in the labour force by being in agriculture and informal sector is 30 % more than their male counterparts (Sircar, 2019). On the other side, men have always been fortunate to get into better jobs, especially in non-farm sector while placing burden of managing agricultural production along with unpaid domestic work on their significant other (Naidu and Rao, 2018). The remoteness of field from residential areas further contribute to decline in female workers due to complexities

in performing both duties (Devi and Buechler, 2009). Several studies portray unpleasant relationship between urbanization and FWPR and highlights the creation of a gender bias, particularly affecting rural women (Himanshu et al., 2011; Paul and Raju, 2014), whereas conflicting results are also reported as withdrawal of women from workforce is common in urban areas (Mitra and Okuda, 2018).

Keeping these observations in forward, a study is proposed to explore the nature of gender gap in the peri-urban areas of Hyderabad Metropolitan Region with account to Work Participation Rate (WPR). Hyderabad is the fifth largest metropolis in India and the increased economic activities in the core region has a direct influence on the peri-urban social structure (Kennedy, 2007). Hence, the aim of this analysis was to determine whether the urban out-growth in peri-urban Hyderabad improve work opportunities for female and male equally or does it widen the gender gap by masculinizing the labour market.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

The study was undertaken during June–August, 2020 in the peri-urban areas of Hyderabad Metropolitan Region of Telangana under the department of Agricultural Economics, Professor Jayashanker Telangana State Agricultural University, Rajendranagar, Hyderabad, Telangana state, India.

2.1. Study area and design

The peri-urban Hyderabad Metropolitan Region was chosen as the study area with 17° 22' 31" N and 78° 28' 27" E as location coordinates. The study area selection was inspired and drawn from the works of South Asia Consortium for Interdisciplinary Water Resource Studies (saciWATERS), whose main focus area of research was in peri-urban areas. Zone lying between Greater Hyderabad Municipal Cooperation (GHMC) and Hyderabad Metropolitan Development Authority (HMDA) was generally identified as transitory spaces or peri-urban of Hyderabad. However, to perceive the peri-urban interface more clearly, a map was constructed (Figure 1), with the support of field level data collected using three basic indicators—social, economic and psychological factors along with spatial analysis (Banerjee, 2016). The classified map demarcated peri-urban areas into 3 different zones- (i) Peri-urban to Urban (Urban-Peri-urban), (ii) Peri-urban to Peri-urban (Peri-urban-Peri-urban), and (iii) Rural to Peri-urban (Peri-urban- Rural). Under this classification, out of the total 39 blocks, 15 blocks/mandals fallen under ‘Peri-urban- Rural’ category, 13 blocks/mandals belonged to peri-urban-peri-urban’ category and the rest were ‘Urban-Peri-urban’ blocks.

As such the two adjoining districts of Hyderabad i.e.,



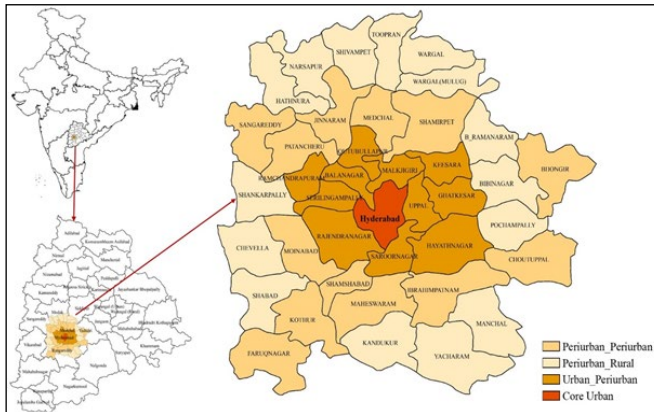


Figure 1: Map showing different study locations around Hyderabad Metropolitan Region

Rangareddy and Medchal were chosen for the study (In 2011, Medchal district was under Rangareddy district). Block/Mandal level statistics on demography and rate of urbanization grounded the selection of study locations. According to the survey data of 2001 and 2011, among the blocks/mandals in the ‘Peri-urban-Peri-urban’ zone, Medchal and Ibrahimpatnam were the top most locations witnessing urban sprawl (Anonymous 2013b). Both regions were completely rural in 2001 and were spotted with a rate of 38.12 and 16.69% respectively. Similarly, in the ‘Urban-Peri-urban’ zone, Ghatkesar and Rajendranagar, the leading mandals, were under the effect of urban sprawl even in 2001 and continue to be in the same path with significant rate of outgrowth (Table 1). Accordingly, Medchal and Ibrahimpatnam from Peri-urban-Peri-urban zone and Ghatkesar and Rajendranagar from Urban-Peri-urban zone were chosen for our study.

Table 1: The rate of urbanisation in the study area in 2001 and 2011

Study area	Rate of urbanization (2001)	Rate of urbanization (2011)	Deviation
Medchal	0	38.12	38.12
Ghatkesar	20.55	73.18	52.63
Ibrahimpatnam	0	16.69	16.69
Rajendranagar	81.86	91.99	10.13

Source: Anonymous, 2013b

2.2. Source of data

For exploring the effect of urbanization on rural transformation focusing on its gender parity in workforce participation, the district census handbook Rangareddy (2011) was primarily used. Along with it Employment – Unemployment rounds data (68th round) was also used for descriptive purpose. In 2011, Medchal was a part of

Rangareddy, so the census data of Rangareddy district was made use for the study.

2.3. Data analysis

The study was more of explorative in nature hence descriptive statistics was used for describing the data. Female Work Participation Rate was calculated from the available Census data to probe the study. Female Work Participation Rate (FWPR): (FWPR): (Total Female Workers)/(Total Female Population)×100 (For urban and rural)

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Rangareddy district stands 1st in terms of urban area and ranks 2nd in terms of urban population in the state of Telangana. Considering the male–female participation in workforce, the statistics present a grave situation. The district total workers rate was 55% for male while it was just around 27% for female which means that 73% of female do not belong to the workforce in Rangareddy district even under the influence of urban growth.

The study explored the peri-urban regions of Hyderabad to have a micro view on this statistics. Among the four areas under study, Rajendranagar was having highest urban population (91.99%) in which 48.99% was female (Figure 2).

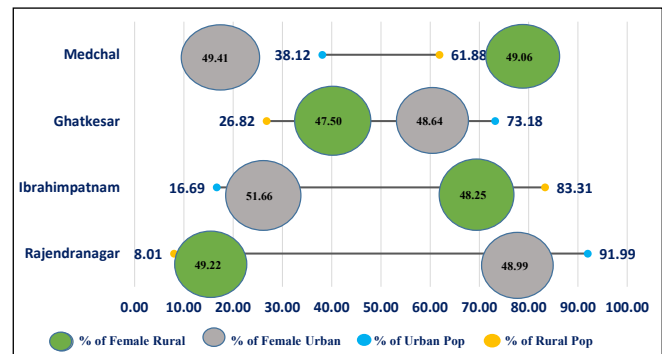


Figure 2: Distribution of urban and rural population in the study area; Source: Anonymous, 2011

On the other hand, Ibrahimpatnam held largest rural population (83.31%) with 48.25% of female. Henceforth, Rajendranagar and Ghatkesar were grouped as ‘more urbanized areas’ while Ibrahimpatnam and Medchal were termed as ‘less urbanized areas’. In all the mandals, the proportion of Male and Female were nearly half except in Ghatkesar where percentage of female rural was 47.50%. On the whole, the figures did not pose a wide or alarming disparity. This forms a base that the advantage of urban sprawl and the subsequent developments were at equal weights for the entire population irrespective of gender. Hence, the study was framed in the right direction.

3.1. Workforce participation rate

The female work participation rate was estimated with an

urban-rural divide. Since the focus of study was on female workforce, male work participation rate has not been taken into consideration.

The figure below provided a clear sight on the urban and rural Female Work Participation Rate. On comparison, the FWPR was higher in rural areas than in urban areas of these mandals. Further, in the rural zone, less urbanized society of Medchal and Ibrahimpatnam (30.64% and 32.13% respectively) showed a better picture than the core urban group of Ghatkesar and Rajendranagar (24.98% and 24.67% respectively) (Figure 3).

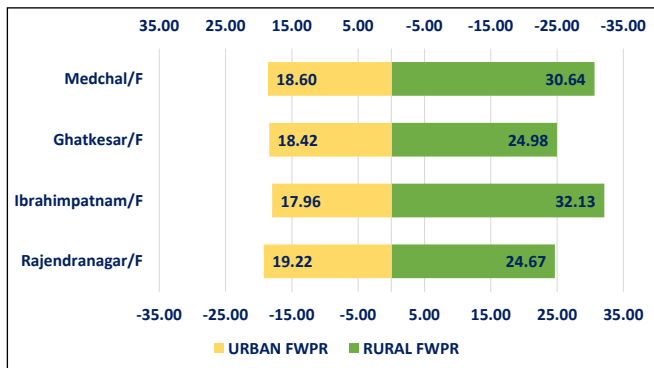


Figure 3: Female Work Participation Rate in urban and rural study area in 2011; Source: Anonymous, 2011

This was in conformity with several studies done on rural-urban female workforce (Srivastava and Srivastava, 2010; Ara, 2015; Sorsa et al., 2015; Singh and Pattanaik, 2020) citing that rural females participate in workforce better than their urban counterparts. These figures also aligned with the 2004-05 national workforce figures of 16.60% women workers in urban areas, while it was 32.70% in rural part of India (Anonymous, 2006).

On comparing the FWPR figures in 2001 and 2011 (Figure 4), it was observed that the female participation in rural Ibrahimpatnam has reduced over the years (by 4%) along with a slight reduction in rural Medchal while the other two rural locations (Rajendranagar and Ghatkesar) have fared well. This could be due to the reason proposed by Kannan

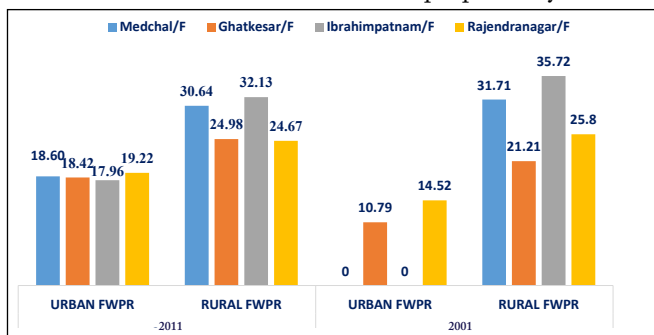


Figure 4: Comparison of urban and rural FWPR in 2001 and 2011; Source: Anonymous, 2001 and 2011

and Raveendran (2012), that overwhelming proportion of women who dropped out of the labour force were from rural areas, who belonged to economically poor households, under income effect. Due to high income only a small portion of upper class women withdrew from workforce. However, for the two periods, FWPR in urban areas have increased quite satisfactorily.

An interesting information was obtained by contrasting the data that the ‘less urbanized’ areas i.e. Medchal and Ibrahimpatnam have managed to push their urban FWPR from nil to 18 % almost on par with the other two ‘more urbanized’ locations. Here, it was to be noted that the rate of growth in FWPR in more urbanised study areas were low compared to less urbanised areas. This was conflicting with the U-shaped relationship between FWPR and economic growth (Goldin, 1994) observed in other countries. The experience, however, was different in India as cited in several literatures (Abraham, 2013; Lahoti and Swaminathan, 2016; Sen, 2016) which was in turn being ascertained through these observations.

3.2. Disaggregation of workforce participation rate

In this section, we have tried to disaggregate the population in the study area into total workers and non-workers, main and marginal workers for urban and rural areas separately to explore the genderwise workforce composition in different locations.

3.2.1. Total workers and non workers

A wide distinction was noticed between male and female of total worker and non worker groups in the study area. Demarcating the graph into two parts and observing the urban area, around 80 % of the female population in all the four study locations fall under non-worker (NW) category while male non-workers were less than 50% (Figure 5). Among total workers group in urban area, female participation was less than 20 % while male workers contributed more than 50%.

On the other hand, in the rural part of study area although there was variation between male and female workforce,

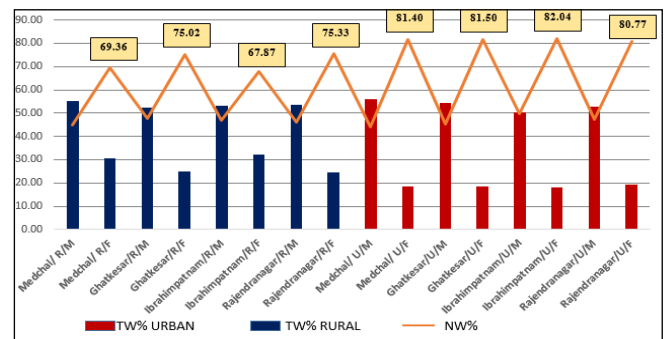


Figure 5: Composition of Total workers and Non-workers in 2011 (Genderwise); Source: Anonymous, 2011

the percentage of total female workers was more than their urban counterparts. The range falls between 20-30 % with the highest in Ibrahimpatnam and Medchal while in Rajendranagar and Ghatkesar the figures were comparatively less, still better than urban figures. This relation corresponded with the observation of Paul and Raju (2014) where it was revealed that urban areas have undergone higher levels of segregation though it had a massive spurt of opportunities. In rural areas, in order to support the family expenses, the female population took up jobs like MGNREGA or any meagre work irrespective of diversified profile (Sanghi et al., 2015).

3.2.2. Main workers and marginal workers

The total workers were again categorised into – Main and Marginal workers.

When compared with main workers and marginal workers in the urban study area in 2011, it was very evident that females were engaged as marginal workers more than their male counterparts (Figure 6). On a detailed look an expected result was observed in female main workers group where Rajendranagar – the more urbanised area, had the largest percentage (above 80%). On the contrary, Ibrahimpatnam-

the less urbanised area, held the highest percentage in the marginal workers group (30%).

The results were clearly in line with the observations of Sen (2016) that “in the urban part of fringes the women from richer household stay away from paid out jobs till they get regular salaried work whereas in rural fringes the poorer women were forced to move into casual jobs to manage their daily expenses”.

The rural part of the study area however showed a different composition. The females in all the four study locations contributed more than 20% to the marginal workers category with the highest spotted in an unexpected location, Ghatkesar (32%) - one of the ‘more urbanised area’. Still on comparison with urban area, the average female marginal workers were more in rural part of the study area. It was in line with the studies conducted by Sen (2016) and Sorsa et al. (2015).

On comparing the main and marginal workers in the urban study area for two periods, 2001 and 2011, female main workers had increased substantially (Table 2). Meanwhile, female marginal workers also increased over the period but their male counterparts showed only minimal rise. A pronounced rise in marginal workers was seen in the less urbanised area- Ibrahimpatnam followed by Ghatkesar and Medchal while in Rajendranagar, a ten year period resulted relatively less increase in their female marginal worker.

Contrasting the main and marginal workers in the rural part of study area in 2001 and 2011, the observations were almost similar to that of urban study locations. The increase in female marginal workers were prominent than the variation observed in their equivalent other. In 2001, the female marginal workers percentage was highest in Rajendranagar and Ibrahimpatnam while in 2011 the trend shifted with Ghatkesar leading the group. Apart from spatial proximity and spillovers from urban growth, there could

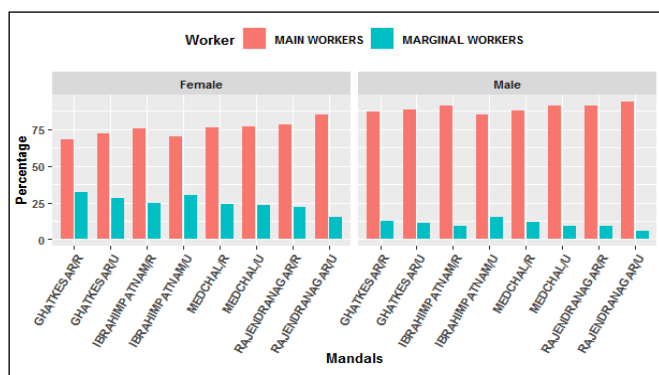


Figure 6: Composition of main workers and marginal workers in 2011 (Genderwise); Source: Anonymous, 2011

Table 2: Comparison between main workers and marginal workers 2001 and 2011 (Genderwise)

CATEGORIES	2001				2011			
	Main workers (%)		Marginal workers (%)		Main workers (%)		Marginal workers (%)	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
MEDCHAL/U	0	0	0	0	91.09	76.60	8.91	23.40
GHATKESAR/U	44.88	8.17	4.23	2.63	88.56	71.74	11.44	28.26
RAJENDRANAGAR/U	49.01	10.52	3.68	4.00	93.94	84.64	6.06	15.36
IBRAHIMPATNAM/U	0	0	0	0	84.66	69.87	15.34	30.13
MEDCHAL/R	52.96	24.10	3.89	7.62	87.94	76.24	12.06	23.76
GHATKESAR/R	46.84	14.87	5.69	6.35	87.25	67.73	12.75	32.27
RAJENDRANAGAR/R	49.98	24.72	6.16	11.01	90.88	77.86	9.12	22.14
IBRAHIMPATNAM/R	41.74	15.47	10.64	10.34	90.82	75.59	9.18	24.41

be other reasons that can provide a proper explanation for this pattern.

3.2.2. Categories of workers

The main workers were further classified into – Cultivators, Agricultural Labourers, Household Industry workers and Other workers. The classification criteria followed in 2001 and 2011 Census were different but we tried to bring in a uniformity before analysis.

Figure 7, gives a comprehensible representation of the categories of workers. There was a clear distinction between jobs preferred by male and female workers. ‘Other categories’ and ‘cultivators’ were the preferred categories for male group while for females it was ‘other workers’ followed by ‘agricultural labourers’. It was also clearly observed that women in urban Rajendranagar look out for more progressive jobs with their highest contribution in ‘other workers’ category (88%) followed by ‘household industry workers’ (6%). As observed by Sikarwar et al. (2020) reduction in agricultural land in suburbs could be the reason prompting females to shift from primary activities. The observation of Sundari (2020) also seems to be appropriate here that with the advent of structural changes in economy intersectoral movement was observed among women workers.

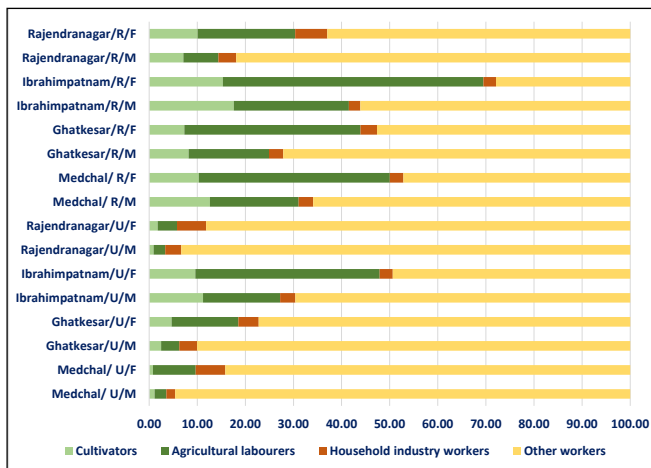


Figure 7: Categories of workers in urban and rural study locations in 2011 (Genderwise); Source: Anonymous, 2011

On the flip side, the area with least urban nature in group – Ibrahimpatnam had considerable percentage of its females working as ‘agricultural labourers’ and ‘cultivators’ (nearly 40% and 10% respectively), though ‘other workers’ category had major contribution (49%) which could be due to structural changes as cited by Gaddis and Klasen (2014). When urban Ghatkesar did not show most of the urban characters, Medchal was more influenced by the urban sprawl.

A look at categories of workers in rural part of study

locations in 2011 revealed that next to ‘other worker’ category, ‘agricultural labourers’ was a prominent option for female workers wherein rural Ibrahimpatnam had a significant share of females in ‘agricultural labourers’ group (54%). Though the categories of workers were convincible, collated figure of the rural women participation rates (32.13% -Ibrahimpatnam and 24.67%- Rajendranagar) were in conformity with the report of Chatterjee et al. (2015) that the lack of jobs that can absorb women transitioning out of agriculture depress demand for potential female labor.

On comparing the categories of workers in urban study locations in 2001 and 2011 considering only female group (Figure 8), it was very clear that women in Urban-Peri-urban study locations - Rajendranagar and Ghatkesar, kept their job preference stable over ten years period by participating more in ‘other worker’ category and also had a shift from primary to secondary or tertiary sectors. Several factors like income (Rangarajan et al., 2011), education (Kannan and Raveendran, 2012; Hirway, 2012) more skill (Mehrotra et al., 2014), infrastructure (Jatav and Sen, 2013; Sikarwar et al., 2020) could have attributed to this growth pattern. Contrasting the pattern with FWPR figures for 2001 and 2011, females in both urban Rajendranagar (14% to 19%) and urban Ghatkesar (10% to 18%) were receiving fair opportunities.

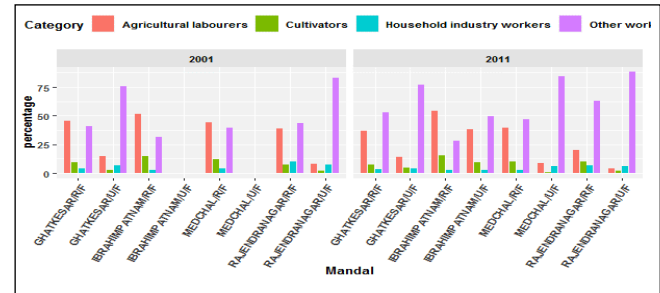


Figure 8: Comparison of categories of workers (female) in study area in 2001 and 2011; Source: Anonymous, 2001 and 2011

An interesting detail seen in rural part was that the female participation in ‘other worker’ category had increased in rural part of study areas except Ibrahimpatnam over a ten year span while ‘agricultural labourers’ were still leading as the female working group in this less urbanised region. Rajendranagar, Ghatkesar and Medchal were showing a decline in their female participation in both ‘agricultural labourer’ and ‘cultivator’ category.

At this juncture, a comparison with rural FWPR figures previously stated revealed that, from 2001 to 2011 female workforce participation in rural Ibrahimpatnam had reduced from 35.72% to 32.13%. This was actually the period during which Ibrahimpatnam witnessed the effects of urban spill (2001- 0% and 2011- 16.69%). Rural Medchal also followed

a similar trend however the decrease in participation was comparatively low (31.71% to 30.64%). Rural Ghatkesar, however saw an increase (21.21–24.98%). As such it could be perceived on the similar lines of Desai and Joshi (2019) that decline in FWPR was more of a rural phenomenon. Although urban women had lower work participation rates than rural women, these rates were more stable than rural figures. This indicated that when the urban-Peri-urban location benefit from urbanisation, its rural continuum was yet to taste the benefits.

4. CONCLUSION

The female participation rate had indeed seen a declining trend in the rural part of peri-urban areas than their counterpart. Skill training through government agencies, safe transport facilities and childcare units were some provisions which could encourage more women to work.

5. ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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