How Gender Integration Can Reduce the Income-Inequality Gap

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Abstract

The labour force participation rates in India stands at 27.2 % for women in comparison to 78.8% for men whereas globally, the gender gap in the labour force participation rate is 26.5% as per the report published by ILO (2017). The employment conditions are also reported to be vulnerable for the women in terms of fewer working hours; usually not by choice, access to social protection and ambiguous employment contract. Gender integration in the workforce is facilitated through developmental policies of the government such as cluster development and associated "rurbanisation" i.e. transformation of rural to urban areas. Sustainable economic growth requires greater women participation for the enhanced income of these "rurban" areas. Even though the economic necessity may lead to no choice but to work; for women, the gains from income may not lead to her overall well-being. To optimize these results of socio-economic policies, the policy-makers should be able to gauge the benefits as well as the loop-holes of investment and its impact on human development.

This study assesses whether the stimulation to local economic development through income generation leads to narrowing gaps in areas of income, literacy and gender gap in the workforce. The paper also uses textual analysis to explore the idea and perception of gender integration at the workplace of the women natives of the rurban clusters of Greater Noida which has undergone a shift in the structure of its major economic activities. The study presents the perceptual findings of women and their preference towards work the balance between work and family, similar opportunities as men and obstacles at work. The socio-economic development of women is assessed to examine the role of rurbanisation in reducing the income-inequality gap.

JEL classification: J16, J18.

Keywords: *India, gender integration, rururbanisation, workforce participation, income inequality gap.*

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1. INTRODUCTION

Gender Integration in the Workplace

The participation of women in the labour force in North Africa, Middle East, and South Asia is far less in comparison to East Asia and sub-Saharan Africa with less than one-third of women of working-age participate in the economy in contrast to two-thirds in the latter (Verick, 2014). This disparity in South Asia is reflected in India's female labour force participation rate, which fell from 35.8% in 1994 to merely 20.2% in 2012 (International Labour Organisation, 2012). India lags behind the world in female workforce participation and is ranked 11th from the bottom among 131 countries. The latest round of the National Family Health Survey (NFHS) conducted for 2015-16 shows that the proportion of working women has witnessed a sharp decline compared to a decade ago. The percentage of women who work has declined over time, from 36% of women being employed in 2005-06 to 24% in 2015-16.

Table 1: Gender Integration (Rural/Urban – Female/Male)NCR, Census Report 2011

States/UT	Rural			Urban		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
Delhi	14.6	54.5	37.1	10.9	54.8	34.9
Haryana	16.4	53.2	36.5	10.2	53.5	33.1
Rajasthan	34.9	50	42.7	14.4	50.7	33.6
Uttar Pradesh	17.8	49.6	34.1	10.6	53.3	33.1
India	25.3	55.3	40.6	15.5	56.3	36.7

As per the Census report 2011, the workforce participation rate at all India level was 25.51% for female and 53.26% for males. While the rural-urban gap for males is minor (1%), this is significant in the case of females (rural-25.3%, urban-15.5%). The Labor Force Participation Rate for of females in urban areas is lower than that of females in rural areas in the National Capital Region comprised of the states of Delhi, Haryana, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh (Table 1). Gender integration in workplace participation is an economic issue and as per the results of research conducted by Cubereset. al. (2016) and Ferrant Get. al. (2016)gender gaps cost around 15 percent of GDP to the economy of OECD. As per the report published by McKinsey Global Institute in 2015, closing the global gender gap could deliver $12 trillion to $28 trillion of additional GDP in 2025. Boosting female labor-force participation would contribute 90 percent of the total additional economic opportunity and a US$245 billion boost to female earnings from closing the gender pay gap in India[3]. Using average (mean) hourly wages to estimate the gender pay gap, as suggested in the UN's SDG (Sustainable Goal Development) indicator 8.5.1, the report on Global Wage Report 2018 by ILO reports that based on data for 73 countries that cover about 80 percent of the world's employees – the (weighted) global gender pay gap stands at around 16 percent. There are wide variations among countries, with the mean hourly gender pay gap ranging from 34 percent in Pakistan to −10.3 percent in the Philippines (meaning that in this country, women earn on average 10.3 percent more than men).Even in sectors usually identified with women like healthcare, caring services, and social work, men earn 21 percent more than women[4].

[3]Accessed from https://www.pwc.co.uk/services/economics-policy/insights/women-in-work-index.html

[4] Accessed from https://www.businesstoday.in/current/economy-politics/gender-pay-gap-still-high-women-in-india-earn-19-per-cent-less-than-men-report/story/325378.html

Regional economic development through rural-urban transformation mission has created employment opportunities and consequently, income generation avenues for the labor market in India. The National Capital Region has witnessed the creation of Greater Noida city along with the implementation of policies related to industrial development and creation of infrastructure. The residents have availed the benefits thereof, and there is a marked increase in labour force participation in the region's economy. It remains to be seen whether the female labour force participation has also increased and led to economic gains and equality at the workplace.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Income-Inequality Gap

Gender-based inequality and methods of mitigation of this gender-based gap in society and workplace have been subjects of continuous research as it is an issue which has both social and economic implications. Inequalities faced by women at the workplace are exhibited through disparities in earnings, wage rates, prospects of future growth and in overall treatment. This is a phenomenon existing due to numerous interlinked and disparate disadvantages accruing to women in occupations and ownership of assets (Sen, 2001). Woman participation in the workforce increases their understanding of the decision-making process (Witt et. al., 2000). Enhanced participation improves outcome(Denton 1993) and job satisfaction (Miller &Monge, 1986). Organizations have to now work towards achieving gender balance and equity in decision making(Andaleeb et.al.,2004).

Policy makers need to address this gap as the impact of gender inequality on national growth is established in extant research (Dollar and Gati, 1999). Conversely, it implies that nations which are relatively poorer and developing will have greater gender inequality at the workplace. It has been found that the gender gap is 30% higher in low-income countries than in high-income countries (Kleven&Landais (2017). Stotsky (2006) has argued that economic growth is good for women. Forsythe, Korzeniewicz, Majid, Weathers, and Durrant (2003) have advocated economic reforms focussing on growth as an instrument for reducing the gender-based inequality. In the Indian context, economic reforms aimed at generating income avenues will contribute towards reducing this inequality. Pande (2007) has pointed out that the women employed in the informal sector with poor access to land, credit, education and health facilities are still marginalized despite India's economic policy of globalization. In this scenario, the National Rurban Mission launched by the Government of India for rural-urban transformation can be instrumental in enhanced women participation in the workforce.

2.2 Government Intervention – Cluster Development

The sole aim of welfare policy should be to raise the wellbeing of the population through improvement in the standard of living and the quality of life triggered by the economic activities which can be achieved by meeting the life necessities and implementing the principles of social justice (Tsaurkubule, 2017).

Gender integration in the workforce is facilitated through developmental policies of the government such as cluster development and associated "rurbanisation" i.e. transformation of rural to urban areas. Sustainable economic growth requires greater women participation for the enhanced income of these "rurban" areas. Reallocating people and resources from agricultural activities towards industrial activities through the process of urbanization brings about this structural change (Castells &Royuela,2014). The spillover effect or positive externalities can be induced with the help of infrastructure creation that sets the foundation of

growth as required in the different stages of growth (Xin & Xinyu, 2017). Bloom et al. (2008) have compared industrialization-driven urbanization in Asia which is considered as likely to enhance economic growth with urbanization due to population pressure. Henderson (2003) explains "Urbanisation represents sectoral shifts within an economy as development proceeds but is not a growth stimulus per se. However, the form that urbanization takes, or the degree of urban concentration, strongly affects productivity growth. "Economic growth leads to social development (Pradhan et al., 2013). Search for the interdependencies between volume, the structure of public expenditure, and the level of socio-economic development of quantified indices of human development can contribute to answering the currently discussed question of gender inequality and income gap (Semmler et al., 2007; Agénor&Neanidis, 2011; Rao, 1998). Pietak (2014) states that reconstructing the economy from agriculture to industrialized economy would lead to overall economic growth.

Traditional gender roles which viewed the male as breadwinner and female as a homemaker, have changed over the time and there has been an increase in families headed by two working spouses (Perrone, Wright & Jackson, 2009) and support to this notion keeps increasing (Gallup Pakistan, 2009). The impact of economic reforms on the gender earnings gap in transition economies has been examined by several authors with mixed findings. Forexample, Brainerd (2000) finds that economic reforms increased the gender earnings gap in Russia and Ukraine but reduced it in most Eastern European countries, such as Hungary, Poland, Czech Republic, and the Slovak Republic. Hunt (2002) shows that while the gender earnings gap fell in East Germany after German unification, almost half of it was attributable to the exit from employment of low-skilled women. Mu¨nich, Svejnar, and Terrell (2005) suggest that economic reforms narrowed the gap in the Czech Republic. Studies on China's gender earnings gap mostly find that economic reforms increased the gender earnings gap. For instance, Gustafsson and Li (2000) show that the gender earnings gap in urban China grew slightly, from 15.6% in 1988 to 17.5% in 1995. A similar pattern has also been documented by Knight and Song (2003) and Yang (2005). A recent study by Zhang et al. (2007) shows that the gender gap kept increasing even after 1995, from 14.7% in1988 to 22.6% in 1995 and further to 27.2% in 2004. Nevertheless, compared with other transitional economies, the gender earnings gap in China is still relatively small. The evidence from both studies suggests that changes in the labor force composition of women could play a significant role in shaping the gender earnings gap in China during the reform period.

Arun et al. (2011) have found that though there were positive effects of urbanization and education on earnings, yet there was gender disparity in earnings. In China, the dissimilar impact of growth on inequality is not limited to interprovincial, but also intraprovincial and rural-urban inequality (Heshmati, 2004). In India, the overall income inequality demonstrated a sharp increase during its post-reform period (Sarkar and Mehta,2010). The trends in wage rates indicate the existence of rural-urban and casual-regular dualism. According to this study, in urban and rural India, the intensity of work (total number of days) and educational levels were the most dominant factors contributing to inequality. However, during the post-reform period, there was a significant increase in the proportion of female wage earners, particularly in urban areas. However this also has led to other forms of gender inequality in labor markets, for instance, increased gender-based occupational segregation and occupational inequality in the women-friendly Scandinavian labor markets than in the liberal market economies of the United States and Canada (Glass,2004; Jacobs and Gerson, 2004; Jacobs and Lim, 1992; Mandel and Semyonov, 2006). It is understood that the participation of women in decision making is made conditional on men's, so we do not consider joint utility maximization or bargaining within the household (Pieters, 2012). Due to the

development of education and business, modernization, urbanization, the scenario is changing fast. Thus the opportunities for women of employment have increased drastically.

2.3 Research Gap

There are a number of studies focussed on determining the relationship of economic development through urbanization and its impact on workforce participation, most of which are undertaken in foreign countries. India, being a rapidly developing nation, thus provides a great opportunity to study the impact of economic development fuelled by the 'rurbanisation' on the gender-equality gap. Since its inception in 1976, Greater Noida has witnessed a huge jump from a rural agrarian economy to a manufacturing hub. This has resulted in a massive increase in the job-opportunities for men as well as women in the manufacturing sector, which requires basic educational background, thus making it interesting to study the gender inequality gap and workforce participation of women in these factories. Another group of studies has focussed their research on closing the gender inequality gap for corporate women (Bhardwaj, 2018). India is witnessing rapid urbanization of rural areas, thus providing huge employment opportunities to the women on the bottom of the pyramid. This makes this group of women best suited to understand the impact of 'rurbanisation' and their participation in the workforce. During the last two decades, India has undergone a sea change in these three environments. With the changing social structure and the rising cost of living, society has undergone changes in its perception towards working women, thus making it an interesting study. The study posits that the economic development aided by government policies may lead to greater participation of women in the workplace aided by more avenues of income generation. This may eventually lead to reduced income inequality for women.

3. Research Methodology

The study applies both quantitative and qualitative methodologies, which are discussed in the following sections.

3.1. Research Objectives& Hypothesis

The objectives of the study can be enumerated as follows:

- The study explores latent components determining women workforce participation using linear component analysis.
- This study uses linear regression to estimate the relationship between :

A. Local economic development and female workforce participation.
B. Local economic development and income inequality gap/gender earnings gap for working females.

- The study examines the perception of women through textual analysis for two issues - working women are better than non-working women; income from women contributes to the family expenses and budget

The null hypotheses to be tested in the study are as follows:

H_{o1}– There is no significant relationship between local economic development and female workforce participation.

$H_{o\ 2}$ - There is no significant relationship between local economic development and income inequality gap for working females.

3.2 Variables used in the study

The study explores the latent factors of participation of women at the workplace, which leads to gender integration. Independence and assertiveness of women at work reflect "authority" or perception of empowerment (Koberg et.al, 1999) and is a driving force for participation.

Shared decision making with the opposite gender in the firm results in enhancement of self-worth or "feel important" thereby increasing the morale of the women employees (Denton,1993). The organization climate contributes to gender integration by facilitating inter-relationships (Hoy et.al, 2003) demonstrated through the feeling of "comfort" with the observable practices of workplace ecosystem (Miller & Monte, 1986) and good relations leading to "preference to associate" with the opposite gender. The "feel easy" perception about the office is an indication of the congenial and positive organization climate for women (Andaleeb,2004). The organizational communication framework which leads to the development of a better work-related understanding through an environment of "freely discuss office" (Witt et.al, 2000) and integration in "mainstream decision making" of women with men is an integral component of increased women participation at the workplace. Even though women participation has increased, it is still hindered by gender-based segregation (Glass, 2004) measured in the study through "lack of good-paying jobs" and "unequal pay". Lack of gender-based requirements of "flexible hours" and "work-family balance" also impact workplace participation rates of women. The income inequality gaps which has both economic and social facets (Tchouassi,2011) has been measured in the study within the ambit of gender-based differences in income due to "work hours", "wage rates" and employment prospects in terms of "job opportunities" (more, same, worse) and "promotions". The local economic development triggered by rurbanisation is measured through the perception of "better income opportunities for women" as there exists a positive relationship between economic growth and income opportunities for women as reported by Stotsky, 2006.

3.3. Sampling and Research Techniques

The study used a purposive sampling technique for collecting primary data using the instrument of a questionnaire, which had both closed-ended and open-ended questions. The questionnaire was initially pilot tested with 35 respondents and later administered to 310 working women who were natives of Greater Noida city, above 18 years of age and working in a company with less than 1000 employees in both manufacturing and service industries with monthly income less than Rs.10,000 (USD 144)[5]. The rationale behind the selection of Greater Noida is the rapid economic growth of the city through industrialisation in the past three decades. This has given immense opportunity to the natives as well as migrants to participate in the workforce. Since most of the industries set-up in Greater Noida are in the manufacturing sector, they do not require higher levels of education for employment purposes. This, in turn, has provided a platform for all those men and women who were earlier either unemployed or self-employed in the agrarian sector, to earn their living through these factories and contribute in the economic development of the society as a whole. The reason behind choosing working women for this study is they are the ones who have taken the leap from being just home-makers to ones who can now contribute to their economic development through employment. These are the women who are not well-educated, however they are well-aware of the benefits of double income and are vocal about the perception the society holds for them as working women.

The questionnaire consisted of 11 items for determining the “women workforce participation” wherein responses were collected on a Likert scale of 1 to 5 with the rating of 5 is the biggest challenge for women workplace participation on the concerned item and the rating of 1 being the least challenging aspect of workplace participation for the woman respondent. Responses on local economic development due to rurbanisation were also collected on a scale of 1 to 5 with 1 being “strongly agree”, and 5 being “strongly disagree”.

[5]As per the exchange rate as on 8th April, 2019.

There were 7 items for measuring the income –equality gap on the Likert scale of 1 to 5 wherein a rating of 1 meant that the respondent strongly agreed to the statement and a rating of 5 meant that the respondent strongly disagreed with the statement. There were two open-ended questions for the textual analysis using DICTION 7.1.3. IBM SPSS Statistics 24 has been used to analyze the data using linear regression and principal component analysis.

3.3. Results

The data used for analysis after removal of outliers was limited to 300 respondents. The internal consistency of data for the 19 items was found to be acceptable with the value of Cronbach's Alpha equal to 0.851. The mean value of the variable "Betterincomeopportunity" was found to be 4.88 meaning thereby that the respondents strongly agreed to the phenomenon of local economic development due to the creation of Greater Noida city. It is interesting to note that the mean values indicate that according to the respondents, integration in mainstream decision making is a lesser challenge than feeling important and having the authority to decide in the workplace (Table 2). Maintaining work-family balance, "LackWorkfamilybalance" remains a big challenge for the respondents but there is agreement on more job opportunities for women in the city as reflected by the mean values of "Morewomenjob" (table 2). According to the respondents, gender-based income inequality of working women is reflected in lesser number of working hours("EarningsWorkhours"), the difference in wage rates ("EarningsWagerates") and opportunities for promotion ("EarningsPromotion").

Table 2: Descriptive statistics

S.No.	Variable	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
1	Betterincomeopportunity	4.8889	0.321	300
2	Comfortable	3.6944	1.87951	300
3	Feeleasy	3.6667	1.91237	300
4	Freelydiscussoffice	3.6944	1.87951	300
5	Prefertoassociate	2.3611	1.89967	300
6	Mainstreamdecisionmaking	1.7222	.97427	300
7	Feelimportant	4.3056	.95077	300
8	Authority	4.6667	.47809	300
9	UnequalPay	1.3889	.49441	300
10	LackWorkfamilybalance	4.0000	1.43427	300
11	Lackflexiblehours	3.0833	1.40153	300
12	Lackgoodpayingjobs	3.0833	1.42177	300
13	UnfairSupervisor	3.6944	1.81768	300
14	Morewomenjob	1.6944	.74907	300
15	Sameopportunity	4.4167	.69179	300
16	Worseopportunity	4.6944	.65304	300
17	EarningsWorkhours	1.8056	.88864	300
18	EarningsWagerates	2.4722	1.74824	300
19	EarningsPromotion	2.6389	1.74279	300

3.3.1 Factor extraction for Female workforce participation

In current research work, exploratory factor analysis using principal component analysis has been employed to uncover the underlying structure, extract important variables, develop a parsimonious model and to review dimensionality or homogeneity in the components. The internal consistency of the 11 items was found to be 0.886. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy is 0.761 and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was also found to be significant at a 95 % confidence interval. There were two components extracted from Varimax rotation, and the two-factor solution explains 96.6 % of the shared variance. Component 1 may be termed as "Perceived Belongingness" with five facets of workplace participation with high loadings on this factor. This component reflects ease of women while working, discussing office issues, feeling comfortable with the opposite gender and having authority to take decisions. The remaining items had moderate to high loadings on the facets of workforce participation termed as "Compatibility in Work Environment." The second component includes gender-based flexibility in office timings, work-life balance, pay gaps, the opportunity for well paying profiles along with mainstream decision making and preference to associate with opposite gender ensuring continuity and progress in the workplace.

Table 3: Results of Principal Component Analysis

Acronym used	Manifest Variables	Component 1	Component 2
Feel easy	Do working women feel easy with colleagues of the opposite gender	.980	
Authority	Do you have some authority to take decisions in office	.980	
Freely discuss office	Do working women freely discuss office issues with the opposite gender	.977	
Comfortable	Do working women feel comfortable with colleagues of the opposite gender	.977	
Feelimportant	How important do working women feel about themselves in your workplace	.976	
Prefer to associate	Do working women prefer to associate with the opposite gender		.939
Mainstream decision making	Are working women part of mainstream decision-making in their workplace		.928
Unequal Pay	Do women get unequally paid than men in their workplace		-.854
Lack flexible hours	Do women get some flexibility in their office timings		-.756
Lack Work family balance	It is difficult to maintain a balance between work and family life		-.749
Lack good paying jobs	A woman does not get the opportunity of good-paying profiles in her workplace		.628
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.			
a. Rotation converged in 8 iterations.			

3.3.2 Hypotheses testing using Linear Regression Analysis

The relationship between local economic development and femaleworkforce participation was found to be significant (F = 148.901, *p*= 0.000) with adjusted R square value of 0.78 thereby implying that the null hypothesis H_{o1} is not accepted.

The Durbin Watson statistic was 1.959 indicating no auto correlation. Multicollinearity is also not observed as VIF values lies between 1- 10.

The regression equation is presented below:

BetterIncomeOpportunity= (0.193)Comfortable+ (2.141)Prefertoassociate+ (0.040) Mainstreamdecisionmaking + (0.061)Feelimportant+(0.702)Authority+ (-0.023)UnequalPay +(-1.858)LackWorkfamilybalance+(-0.045)Lackflexiblehours +(0.028)Lackgoodpayingjobs+ 0.260

- equation 1

For predicting the value of "betterincomeopportunties", it was found that "Prefertoassociate" (Beta = 2.1.41, *p*=0.000) and "workfamilybalance"(Beta = -1.858, *p*=0.000)were significant predictors.The Explanatory variables having negative relationship with the dependent variable are "UnequalPay", "LackWorkfamilybalance", "Lackflexiblehours" and "Lackgodpayingjobs" (equation 1). The variables "prefertoassociate" and "comfortable" with reference to opposite gender were found to be positively affecting the perceived better income opportunities for working women respondents. Two variables "Feeleasy" and "freelydiscussoffice" are excluded from the regression output

Table 4.1: Regression Coefficients

Coefficients[a]								
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	20.173	8.623		2.339	.027		
	Comfortable	.167	0.285	-.193	-.586	.563	.007	8.386
	Prefer to associate	1.833	0.285	2.141	6.428	.000	.007	1.586
	Mainstream decision making	0.067	0.139	.040	.485	.632	.106	9.434
	Feel important	0.104	0.274	.061	.380	.707	.029	4.969
	Authority	2.388	1.937	.702	1.233	.229	.002	2.902
	Unequal Pay	-0.074	-0.214	-.023	-.347	.731	.173	5.767
	Work family balance	-2.106	-0.441	-1.858	-4.780	.000	.005	6.339
	Lack flexible hours	-0.052	-0.180	-.045	-.290	.774	.031	2.712
	Lack good paying jobs	-.033	-0.052	-.028	-.623	.538	.351	2.846
a. Dependent Variable: Betterincomeopportunity								

The Relationship between Local Economic Development and Income-Inequality Gap was also found to be significant (F = 47.803, *p*= 0.000) with adjusted R square value of 0.74 thereby implying that the null hypothesis H_{o2} is not accepted.

No autocorrelation was observed (Durbin Watson statistic =2.699) as well as multicollinearity is also not observed as VIF values lies between 1- 10. The regression equation is presented as follows:

BetterIncomeOpportunity = (-0.365)UnfairSupervisor + (0.052) Morewomenjob + (-0.057)Sameopportunity + (-0.621)Worseopportunity + (-0.53)EarningsWorkhours + (-0.414)EarningsWagerates + (-0.274) EarningsPromotion +0.5050 -equation 2

For predicting the value of "betterincomeopportunties", it was found that "Unfairsupervisor" (Beta = -0.365, p<0.005),"Worseopportunities" (Beta = -6.21, p=0.000)and "Earningswagerates" (Beta = -0.414, p<0.005) are found to have a significant relationship with the variable "betterincomeopportunties". Explanatory variables having positive relationship with the dependent variable are "Morewomenjobs", "Earningworkhours" and "Earningspromotion" (equation2).

Predictor variables which have a negative relationship with "betterincomeopportunities" are "Unfairsupervisor","Sameopportunity","Worseopportunity" and "Earningswagerate".

Table 4.2: Regression Coefficients

Coefficients[a]								
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4.707	1.259		3.740	.001		
	Unfair Supervisor	-.327	.125	-.365	2.617	.004	.141	7.071
	More women job	.112	.129	.052	-.871	.391	.782	1.278
	Same opportunity	-.133	.181	-.057	-.735	.468	.466	2.144
	Worse opportunity	-.611	.122	-.621	-4.986	.000	.178	5.621
	Earnings Work hours	.097	.104	-.053	.934	.359	.860	1.163
	Earnings Wage rates	-.385	.176	-.414	-2.188	.003	.077	2.998
	Earnings Promotion	.255	.186	-.274	1.376	.180	.070	4.358
a. Dependent Variable: Betterincomeopportunity								

3.3.3 Textual Analysis

For the textual analysis of the gathered data, DICTION 7.1.3 (Short & Palmer, 2008; Morris, Pitt, Vella& Botha, 2017) is used. Diction software uses content analysis technique in which the textual data is classified as per the set procedures and formulae (Weber, 1990). It makes use of artificial intelligence and word-count techniques to derive the quantitative results in the form of outliers and frequency (Deffner, 1986; Morris, 1994; Short & Palmer, 2008). This process accounts for the increased reliability of this software (Morris, 1994) as there are about thirty-one different types of dictionaries for analyzing the text for five master variables (MV) – "activity, optimism, certainty, realism, and commonality". Each of these variables has significance in the passage which lies in the fact that if the passage is to be analyzed through five questions based on the above five variables, all the answers will be provided through them. These five MV helps in understanding the tone of the individual data. Each of these MV has been defined as per the Diction 5.0 user's manual (Cheema & Srivastava, 2018). The first MV "Activity" is defined as – "actions which refer to the words or phrase which means movement, change, idea implementation, and inertia avoidance." The next MV is "Certainty" which refers "to the words which mean or relate to the inflexibility, authority, completeness, and resoluteness." The third MV is "Optimism" which "refers to the words or phrase or text which indicates to endorsing, recognition of element, concept, variable, situation or person." The next MV is "Commonality" which "relates to the values,

agreeableness, engagement and avoiding idiocrasy." The last one is called "Realism" and is defined as "It refers to the tangible, reality, pragmatic, immediate and recognizable aspects."

Apart from five MV, there a couple of other variables which are termed as "Calculated variables" (CV). These are derived from a specific pattern in the data detected by the software. The first CV is termed as "Insistence" an is defined as "the measure of code restriction and semantic contentedness. The assumption is that the repetition of key terms indicates a preference for a limited, ordered world." The next CV is known as "Embellishment" and is "selective ratio of adjectives to verbs is determined based on the conception that modification slows down a verbal passage by de-emphasizing human and material action." The third CV is called "Variety" and is defined as "type-token ratio which divides the number of different words in a passage by the passage's total words." The last CV is "Complexity" defined as "simple measure of the average number of characters-per-word in a given input file."

For the study, two open-ended questions were asked from the respondents and the text was analyzed through DICTION 7.1.3. The questions collected perceptual qualitative data on whether working women are better than non-working women and the reasons thereof (Income-Inequality Gap 1) along with the perception on whether the working woman's income is contributing to the family expenses and budget and if credit is given to her for this role (Income-Inequality Gap 2).

Income-Inequality Gap 1

For the variable "Activity" it was found that all the 300 respondents were well within the range which implies that they are well aware of the importance of working women in the family as compared to non-working women. Only 15% of the respondents were outside the pre-defined range, and 85% of respondents recognized the importance of the female workforce. (Refer to Table 5.1)

For the master variable "Certainty" all 300 respondents were quite certain about their own condition and their contribution in the family. The percentage of the outlier respondents was 26.67% which implies that more than 73% of respondents were firm in their views that working women are better than the non-working women. (Refer to Table 5.2)

For the master variable "Optimism" the analysis showed that all 300 respondents were quite satisfied with their current position which implied that they were eager to work more and provide family support. However, 22.67% were outliers implying that there might be hardships and denial for their current position as a working female in their family. This showed that working females face issues in their personal as well as professional lives, although they still want to contribute to the work-force. (Refer to Table 5.3)

For the master variable "Commonality" it was found that all the 300 respondents were well within the range which implies that they agree to the phenomenon under question. These respondents were engaged fully in the concept that working women are better than the non-working counterparts as they have a greater contribution to the family as well as to society. Only 16.67% were outlier which showed that most of the respondents agreed to the phenomenon of working. (Refer to Table 5.4)

For the master variable "Realism", the analysis of 300 respondents showed that respondents were truthful about the familiarity of the phenomenon and showed their keen interest in talking about the same. Around 29% of respondents fall in the outlier category, which implied that they had some past concern and faced complex situations. (Refer to Table 5.5)

For the calculated variable "Insistence" it was found that respondents were not reiterating the phenomenon when being interviewed. However, 38.67% were outliers implying that they repeated the phenomenon a number of times to make it more important for them. (Refer to Table 5.6)

For the calculated variable "Embellishment", the analysis showed that respondents had concerns along with being vocal about the phenomenon. Most of the respondents were within the range pre-defined by the DICTION software. Only 37% were in the outlier category, implying that they had a concern about their experiences and the problems faced as a working female. (Refer to Table 5.7)

For the calculated variable "Variety", it was found that the respondents were not avoiding the respondents were precise and presented the facts only. This variable had a number of respondents in the outlier category 67.34%, which implies that the respondents did not avoid overstatement and had a preference for precise, molecular statements. (Refer to Table 5.8)

For the calculated variable "Complexity" the analysis showed that respondents were clear about their viewpoint. Around 47.67% of the respondents were outliers suggesting abstractness and ambiguity of the idea. However, more than 52% were clear that working women are better than non-working women. (Refer to Table 5.9)

Income-Inequality Gap 2

For the master variable "Activity", all 300 respondents opined that income from the women have a significant contribution to the family expenses and budget as only 7.67% were the outliers. This implies that more than 92% appreciated that there was a significant contribution of women in the family expenses. (Refer to Table 5.1).

For the master variable "Certainty" it was found that all 300 respondents were certain about their condition regarding their contribution to the family budget and expenses. The respondents are fully aware of their contribution. However, 28% were outliers implying that their income is all consumed and they are left with nothing as their own investments. (Refer to Table 5.2).

For the master variable "Optimism", all the 300 respondents were well within the range which implies that there might be hardships and denial of the fact the working women feel that their contribution to the family expenses is not appreciated by family members. Around 19.67% are outliers which imply that these respondents were not happy about their own position regarding the phenomenon under question. (Refer to Table 5.3).

For the master variable "Commonality", it was found that most of the respondents were in agreement with the phenomenon under question. They believed that their contribution to family expenses and to the family budget is significant. On the other hand, only 14% of respondents felt that others do not see their financial support to the family in their family. (Refer to Table 5.4).

For the master variable "Realism", all the 300 respondents depicted were truthfulness about the familiarity of the phenomenon and showed their keen interest in talking about the same. However, 26.34% of respondents felt that their position in the family as a working female is complex and full of problems. They were not appreciated much by other family members, which, according to the respondents, was well deserved. (Refer to Table 5.5).

For the calculated variable "Insistence", the analysis showed less iteration of the phenomenon as most of the respondents were well within the pre-defined range of the DICTION software. Only 41% of respondents repeated their views to show how important the phenomenon under question was to them. (Refer to Table 5.6).

For the calculated variable "Embellishment", it was found that most of the respondents were vocal about their experience in sharing their earnings in the family expenses. However, 34% of respondents showed reluctance and shame in sharing their concerns about the phenomenon under review. (Refer to Table 5.7).

For the calculated variable "Variety", a large number of the respondents were outliers and were outside the pre-defined range of the DICTION software. A high score indicates a speaker's avoidance of overstatement and a preference for precise, molecular statements. Respondents were precise and presented the facts only. 71% of respondents were outliers. (Refer to Table 5.8).

For the calculated variable "Complexity", around half of the respondents were outside the pre-defined range of the DICTION software. Around 52.34% were outliers suggesting that half of the respondents were unclear about the question under review, and therefore, their replies were abstract and ambiguous. (Refer to Table 5.9)

Table 5.1. Frequency Table for Variable "Activity"

Master Variable	Activity = [Tenacity + Leveling + Collectives + Insistence.] - [Numerical Terms + Ambivalence + Self Reference + Variety						
Predefined Range (as per Diction 7.1.3)			46.74		55.48		
Range of values	<46.74	46-48	48-50	50-52	52-54	54-56	>55.48
Frequency **(Income Inequality Gap 1)**	18	84	36	25	41	69	27
Frequency **(Income Inequality gap 2)**	10	75	55	48	79	20	13

Table 5.2. Frequency table for variable Certainty

Master Variable	Certainty = [Tenacity + Leveling + Collectives + Insistence.] - [Numerical Terms + Ambivalence + Self Reference + Variety]				
Predefined Range (as per Diction 7.1.3)			46.9	51.96	
Range of values	<46.90	46-48	48-50	50-52	>51.96
Frequency **(Income Inequality Gap 1)**	53	72	89	68	18
Frequency **(Income Inequality gap 2)**	61	69	93	54	23

Optimism

Table 5.3. Frequency for Optimism

Master Variable	Optimism : [Praise + Satisfaction + Inspiration] - [Blame + Hardship + Denial]				
Predefined Range (as per Diction 7.1.3)			46.37	52.25	
Range of values	<46.37	46-48	48-50	50-52	>52.25
Frequency (Income Inequality Gap 1)	35	59	95	78	33
Frequency (Income Inequality gap 2)	25	69	101	71	34

Commonality

Table 5.4. Frequency for Commonality

Master Variable	Commonality : [Centrality + Cooperation + Rapport] - [Diversity + Exclusion + Liberation]				
Predefined Range (as per Diction 7.1.3)			46.86	52.28	
Range of values	<46.10	46-48	48-50	50-52	>52.28
Frequency (Income Inequality Gap 1)	8	99	103	57	33
Frequency (Income Inequality gap 2)	13	89	105	64	29

Realism

Table 5.5. Frequency for Realism

Master Variable	Realism: [Familiarity + Spatial Awareness + Temporal Awareness + Present Concern + Human Interest + Concreteness] - [Past Concern + Complexity]				
Predefined Range (as per Diction 7.1.3)			46.1	52.62	
Range of values	<46.10	46-48	48-50	50-52	>52.62
Frequency (Income Inequality Gap 1)	59	72	83	67	19
Frequency (Income Inequality gap 2)	49	88	79	54	30

Insistence

Table 5.6. Frequency for Insistence

Calculated Variable	Insistence *: [Number of Eligible Words x Sum of their Occurrences] ÷ 10*			
Predefined Range (as per Diction 7.1.3)		9.15	111.15	
Range of values	<9.15	9.15	111.15	>111.15
Frequency (Income Inequality Gap 1)	39	184		77
Frequency (Income Inequality gap 2)	30	177		93

Embellishment

Table 5.7. Frequency for Embellishment

Calculated Variable	Embellishment :[Praise + Blame +1] ÷ [Present Concern + Past Concern +1]			
Predefined Range (as per Diction 7.1.3)		0.16	1.14	
Range of values	<0.16	0.16	1.14	>1.14
Frequency (Income Inequality Gap 1)	69	189		42
Frequency (Income Inequality gap 2)	55	198		47

Variety

Table 5.8. Frequency for Variety

Calculated Variable	Variety			
Predefined Range (as per Diction 7.1.3)		0.45	0.53	
Range of values	<0.45	0.45	0.53	>0.53
Frequency (Income Inequality Gap 1)	89	98		113
Frequency (Income Inequality gap 2)	64	87		149

Complexity

Table 5.9. Frequency for Complexity

Calculated Variable	Complexity			
Predefined Range (as per Diction 7.1.3)		4.31	4.91	
Range of values	<4.31	4.31	4.91	>4.91
Frequency (Income Inequality Gap 1)	64	157		79
Frequency (Income Inequality gap 2)	59	143		98

4. Conclusion and Implications

The study decomposes the workplace participation of women into two linear components, i.e. "Perceived Belongingness" and "compatibility in work environment". Though the study includes women with monthly income limited to USD 144, it highlights the determinants of labour participation amongst women at the ground level. In India, government policies have an enormous task in terms of not only creating better income opportunities for women but also overseeing that the work environment is compatible to women in terms of human resources practices and innovations on gender workforce integration (Castilla 2008; Dobbin et. al. 2015) in the next phase. Incremental jumps in economic development cannot proceed further without higher female labour force participation, and therefore the two issues found statistically significant in the study are noteworthy. The perception of better income opportunities arising out of the city's development is negatively affected by the lack of the respondents' ability to balance work and family and positively related to the working women's ease and preference to associate with the opposite gender in workplace commitments. The study also points out that there is a significant relationship between local economic development and gender inequality in the workplace. Differences in wage rates based on gender negatively affect the perception of better income opportunities. Unfair

treatment by supervisors also has a negative relationship with the perception of better income opportunities in the minds of the working women. Thus the income –inequality gap does not narrow down as envisaged by the development policies of the government. This is the most alarming situation for the policy-makers to think back and come up with a solution to enhance workforce participation by bridging the gender-inequality gap. These women have taken the leap from just tending to their houses to contribute to the family income as well. Studies worldwide have shown that the participation of women in workforce highly impacts the economic development of the nation. Therefore, the government, as well as the policymakers, should focus on bridging the gender-inequality gap by increasing the workforce participation of women. The perceptual study also establishes a negative (although not statistically significant) relation between disparities in earnings due to the difference in work hours and opportunities for promotion.

The textual analysis reveals a very important finding of the perception of working women in the Indian context. The rurbanisation policy has contributed to narrowing the income-inequality gap to some extent. The respondents are aware of their improved stature in society as well as a family due to their employment as indicated by more than 70 % frequency of the master variables - 'Activity', 'Certainty', 'Optimism', 'Realism' and 'Commonality' among the respondents. The second income-inequality gap measured by the study points out that the income of working women gets used up by the family expenses, thereby leaving no opportunities for further uses such as savings, investments, etc. This provides the policy makers with the opportunity to formulate policies for the benefit of these working-women in the bottom of the pyramid level. There are policies in place which are more focused on rural areas like Aaganwadi, Pradhan Mantri Jan Dhan Yojana, which aim at families living below the poverty line. However, the government should now focus on the urban working women by formulating policies which are beneficial for them and can motivate these working women to bridge the gender-inequality gap.

The study is an attempt to analyze the impact of the developmental policies of government, specifically the role of "Rurban Mission" in creating the path for reducing inequality of women in India. Gender integration at the workplace assumes great significance for realizing the economic potential of the region and the nation, thus providing the policy-makers to look at the bottom of the pyramid as well in formulating policies which would fuel the economic development of the nation as a whole.

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