

**PUBLIC AND PRIVATE DICHOTOMY: MEN'S
OUTLOOK ON WOMEN JOB PARTICIPATION**

(An Empirical Study in District Malakand, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Pakistan)

Khalil urRahman*

AmerUllah**

ABSTRACT

This paper aims at evaluating the perceptions of men regarding women participation informal job marketplace in the district of Malakand, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa of Pakistan. Major research question for this work is how men perceive the involvement of women participation in formal job marketplace. Data was collected in three selected villages of sub-division Dargai, District Malakand from a sample of 150 respondents. The targeted respondents, purposively selected, were comprised of students, teachers, religious scholars and NGO workers of age group 20-60. A structured questionnaire based on five points Likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree; was used as a tool of data collection. Respondents view was taken on three selected subjects such as their perceptions regarding women's participation, effects of women participation on their household, social and personal endowments. Each subject was analyzed through different numbers of research items. It was found that a spatial and social separation of women from formal job marketplace is deeply imbedded in male perceptions, patriarchal values, norms and belief system. Women participation in development activities is perceived against men's honor and religious norms. Women traditional role of caring children is favored and majority of men perceived that women's participation is a threat for their safety. Moreover, men perceive that women involvement in outdoor work curtail their overall social status including their marriage market qualities. It is concluded that some peculiar male perceptions are overtly resisting women participation in formal job marketplace.

Key Words: Job Market place, Participation, Social Separation, Patriarchy, Gender Role, Social Status

* Lecturer in Sociology Department of Sociology Hazara University, Mansehra Pakistan

** M.Phil. Scholar in Sociology Department of Sociology Hazara University, Mansehra Pakistan

Introduction and Background

Work and family are two important domains in the life of adults. Gender role theory establishes that family and work roles have traditionally been gender specific, where men are socialized to be work oriented and women to be family oriented (Gutek, Searle & Klepa, 1991). Empirical evidence also shows that work is more central for a man's identity and family is more central for a women's identity (Cinamon & Rich, 2002, Maunno & Kinnunen, 2000, Parusaraman, Greenhaus & Granrose, 1992). Evidence from Egypt, Turkey, and other countries in the Middle East and North Africa, where women's education levels are high but their participation in work activities remains low, suggests that social barriers to female mobility can significantly stifle women's labor force participation. The prominent reason behind such gender based stratification is the societal customs and traditions which accentuate women's primary roles as mothers and housewives and continue to restrict them to these roles. A traditional patriarchal value system favors sexually segregated roles and militates against the advancement, progress and participation of women in any developmental activity. Ideologically, women should only play the role of 'working mother', which is generally unpaid (United Nations Population Fund, 2000).

Women in Pakistan tend to be less visible with respect to their work outside home and their contributions to household income, as well as their participation in social and political life. According to Pakistan Integrated Household Survey (PIHS) 2001-02, at the end of the 1990s, only one in four adult women (aged 10 and older) participated in the labor force, a far lower rate than the nearly 70 percent participation rate for men. Women's rate of labor participation is higher in rural areas (30 percent) and lower in urban areas (15 percent), while male participation rates are close to 70 percent in both regions. Determinants such as household wealth or the education level of the woman also play a role (United Nations, 2014). In most part of the country, women take up opportunities for paid work only in a very geographically circumscribed manner, limiting themselves to work within their villages. As with girls attending school, restrictions on women's activity outside the home are rooted in concerns for female safety and family honor. Males in the household may be concerned that women's safety is at risk. In socially conservative areas, men may also worry about damage to the household's reputation if young women venture out of doors, particularly to earn money. Such activity can brand the family as low status and

imply that the men cannot adequately provide for the economic needs of the household (Asaduzzaman, 2008).

Women participation in economic activities doesn't mean to improve women's control over earning or ability to take self-interested decisions (Khan 2005; Eapen and Kodoth 2002). In Pakistan women's work participation is a status reducing rather than a status enhancing activity, as female work has never been considered as a valued activity (Shah, 1986; Zaidi, 1971). Restricted female mobility in Pakistan, particularly as it limits access to services and generates practical problems of traversing distances, has become a topic of scrutiny. Second, participation in work, particularly paid work, has important ramifications for women's autonomy. Analysis suggests that women who participate in paid work are also much more likely to participate in community and political activities. Given the increasing role of local government under the decentralization process, and thus the increased role of communities in political decisionmaking, participation in work is perhaps one avenue through which women's civic participation can be enhanced.

Literature Review

About half of the world's population comprised of women for whom the United Nations reaffirmed equal status to men in Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1984. Despite this, women experience disadvantage and discrimination in societies, perpetuation gender-differentiated structure (Babacan, n.d). Evidence presented in previous studies has shown that restrictions on female mobility significantly constrain female access to schooling, health and participation in paid job. The analysis of female labor force participation demonstrates that restrictions on women's mobility affects their ability to participate in the labor force as well as contributes to the gender gap in wages among those who work (Reeves and Baden, 2000). Furthermore, maleness and femaleness are understood as the outcome of cultural ideologies, rather than of inherent qualities or physiology. The value of a symbolic analysis of gender, it was argued, lies in understanding how men and women are socially constructed, and how those constructions are powerfully reinforced by the social activities that both define and are defined by them. This cultural representation of the sexes and the social construction of gender identity influence the relative position and participation of women in society (Razavi and Miller, 1995). A replicated division between fixed role for men and women in production and reproduction arenas

has placed women in reproductive roles as mothers and wives in the home and men as guardian and breadwinners outside the home. A familial, Ideological, social and cultural system in which men by force, direct pressure or through rituals, traditions, law, language, customs etiquette, education, and the division of labor, determine what part women shall or shall not play in which the female is everywhere subsumed under the male (Imtiaz, 2007). The socio-cultural dependence of women is one of the key detrimental factors to their participation in public domain. Women also find it hard to participate due to their lack of exposure and limited time available to them because of their dual roles in the productive and reproductive spheres. With their primary roles as mothers and wives and competing domestic responsibilities and care work, they are left with little time to participate in developmental activities outside home. Moreover, generally the women also face cultural constraints on their mobility. The mechanisms of sex segregation and Purdah are used to restrict their outdoor participation.

In more unequal communities where status hierarchies are quite rigid, such actions can also make women vulnerable to loss of reputation or honor. Families thus may worry even more about the safety and honor of young women who leave the household for work than they do about girls who leave the household to attend school. Furthermore, mobility restrictions matter greatly for women's participation in work outside the home. These restrictions therefore can greatly reduce the number of women who work since they must seek job opportunities within the village. Proscriptions on women's movement outside the home are rooted as much in social taboos as in practical concerns for female safety. Fear of harassment by males and consequent loss of reputation and safety concerns to be important reasons why mobility of women is discouraged by families (Sathar and Kazi 1997).

These socio cultural notions of both men and women are constantly identified as key constraints to women's participation, particularly in rural areas. Many felt that it was important to examine whose attitudes were the main constraint to women's participation, particularly as it was a pervasive trend from families to the communities. This led to a discussion relating to power dynamics as constraints for women's participation and the need for more understanding about these beyond the household level. This cultural notion further leads towards a minimum public participation of women as an active citizen of the society. Educational status of men and women are prominent factor for women participation (Sheikh Noor, 2010).

Rural society is predominantly patriarchal in which female participation in development activities is traditionally looked down upon. The common religious beliefs and sentiment is also against women's spontaneous participation in outdoor activities (Khan, 2009). Social structure, policy barriers, and cultural constructs of gender are some of the barriers that influence women's participation in activities outside the home (Gallagher, 1997). In Malaysia, female workers perceive resistance from both men and women for their advancement and this resistance seem to be more at the subordinate levels in development and business organizations (Gupta and Koshal, 1998). Women's own schooling, the socioeconomic characteristic of their household and their husband's schooling are important determinants of their participation in the labor force. Moreover, mobility restrictions and the social stigma attached to women's work in Pakistan, particularly paid work, result in a strongly segmented women's labor market. Female workers do not freely move between markets to exploit work opportunities. The women's labor market is geographically limited to jobs to which women can easily commute (Mammen&Paxson, 2000).

Method

This study explores perceptions barriers and effect of paid job participation on women personal, household and social endowment in the district of Malakand Khyber Pakhtunkhwa of Pakistan. Data was collected in three selected villages of sub-division Dargai, District Malakand from a sample of 150 respondents. The targeted respondents, purposively selected, were comprised of students, teachers, religious scholars and NGO workers of age group 20-60. A structured questionnaire based on five points Likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree; was used as a tool of data collection. Respondents view was taken on three selected subjects such as their perceptions regarding women's participation, effects of women participation on their household, social and personal endowments. Each subject was analyzed through different numbers of research items. Data was analyzed through descriptive statistics calculating mean and standard deviation values. Additionally, chi square test was conducted to obtain association between the biographic information and selected areas comprised of different research items.

Result and Discussions

Table 1 Distribution of the Respondents

S. No	Profession	Age of the respondents				F/N	%
		20-30	30-40	40-50	50-60		
1	Teachers	10	06	05	04	25	16.6
2	Students	16	05	02	00	23	15.3
3	Self employed	10	23	17	07	57	38.0
4	Job seekers	05	16	09	04	34	22.6
5	Religious figures	04	03	03	01	11	07.3
Total (%)		45(30)	53(35)	36(24)	16(11)	150	100

Table1 shows the numbers, profession and age wise distribution of the respondents. It is indicated that respondents were divided in 4 age groups and majority 53 (35.3%) of the respondents came from age group 30-40 followed by 45% from age group 20-30. Moreover, 57 (38%) of the respondents were found self -employed followed by the numbers of job seekers which is 34 with 22.66%.

Table 2 Mean and Standard Deviation Values of Male Perceptions on Women job Participation

Description	Mean	S. D	Implication
Cumulative Score	3.55	0.326	Agree
Women should not participate in the job market outsidehome	3.67	0.349	Agree
Women should participate only when she has to work with women and not with men	3.67	0.366	Agree
Participation of women in job is against the honor of men	4.12	0.421	Strongly agree
Women participation is repugnant to religious injunctions	3.71	0.374	Agree
Women have less exposure for participation as compare to men	3.34	0.321	Neutral

Perceptions Regarding Women Participation in Job

Table 2 shows the average mean and standard deviation values of each selected areas along with detail calculated values of each research items. Data shows that majority men were opined that women should be restricted from participation in outdoor job ($M=3.67$, $SD=.0.349$). Under this category, a high numerical value was obtained for participation of women against men's honor ($M=4.12$, $SD=0.421$) and was found in the strongly agree response. This response was followed by religious injunctions by scoring as ($M=3.71$, $SD= 0.374$) and fall inside the agree response. Apart from this, only one item such as women lack of exposure and experience remained in the neutral response by obtaining ($M=3.34$, $SD= 0.321$). On the basis of the above statistical tests, it is found that men's honor and religious norms are the prominent factors that potentially influence women participation in outdoor job activities Moreover; it was found that men favor women outdoor job with the condition when their co-workers are women rather than male professional.

Table 3 Perceived Factors Effecting JobParticipation of Women

Description	Mean	S.D	Implication
Cumulative Score	3.37	0.159	Agree
Rural Women face more barrier than urban women in job participation	4.11	0.399	Strongly agree
Women have more opportunity for participation in the nuclear family system as compare to joint family	3.21	0.311	Neutral
Educational status of women is an important factor in their participation	4.43	0.408	Strongly agree
Educational status of men positively determine women participation	4.29	0.398	Strongly agree
A woman face more restrictions at home from father than her husband	3.09	0.293	Neutral

Table 3 further shows Perceived factors effecting job participation of women. The average mean and standard deviation values for this category is ($M=3.37$, $SD= 0.159$) which is placed under the agree response. Factors that perceived by respondents to be more crucial in effecting

women's participation in the job market are their educational status ($M=4.43$, $SD= 0.408$) and husband educational status ($M=4.29$, $SD= 0.398$). Besides, men perceived that women public participation is mostly stalled by their place of origin as rural women face more challenges for public participation. The data revealed that family structure such as nuclear and joint family system ($M=3.21$, $SD= 0.311$) has no such effect on women public participation.

Table 4 Effect of Women Job Participation on Their Personal, Social and Household Endowments

Description	Mean	S.D	Implication
Cumulative score	3.82	0.365	Agree
Women participation negatively effecttheir children socialization	4.57	0.439	Strongly agree
Women participation is a threat towards their safety	4.12	0.397	Strongly agree
Women openness and participation minimizes their marriage market quality	3.93	0.376	Agree
Women participation effects their domestic chores like washing and cleanliness of home	4.46	0.419	Strongly agree
Participation of women make them economically independent	4.03	0.391	Strongly agree
Women job participation is useful for family finance	3.57	0.334	Agree

Table 4 indicates the perceived effect and consequences of women job on their personal social and household endowment. In the selected factors, child care ($M=4.57$, $SD= 0.439$) was reported as more important for a woman than her participation in job market. Moreover, statistical values depicts that women participation in earning income earnestly effect their marriage market qualities ($M=3.93$, $SD= 0.376$), undermine their role performances in domestic tasks ($M=4.46$, $SD= 0.419$) and also a threat for their safety ($M=4.12$, $SD= 0.397$). Some positive outcomes of women participation in the job market were also reported by the respondents as working women is becoming financially more independent ($M=4.03$, $SD= 0.391$) thus becoming able to contribute in family budget and finances ($M=3.57$, $SD= 0.334$).

Table 5 Chi Square Test Values Showing Association between Demographic Variables and Perceptions Regarding Effect

Characteristics	Perception	Personal Endowment	Household and Social Endowment
Teachers	$\chi^2 = 26.628$ P=0.009	$\chi^2 = 11.658$ P=0.004	$\chi^2 = 12.345$ P=0.002
Students	$\chi^2 = 21.654$ P=0.042	$\chi^2 = 9.129$ P=0.002	$\chi^2 = 14.674$ P=0.003
Self employed	$\chi^2 = 25.392$ P=0.001	$\chi^2 = 14.250$ P=0.001	$\chi^2 = 11.348$ P=0.003
Religious figures	$\chi^2 = 28.748$ P=0.000	$\chi^2 = 12.303$ P=0.001	$\chi^2 = 9.456$ P=0.001
Other	$\chi^2 = 24.570$ P=0.001	$\chi^2 = 12.583$ P=0.005	$\chi^2 = 12.456$ P=0.002

Table 3 shows association between respondent characteristics and their perception about women job participation. Moreover, it also shows different respondents views about the effect of women job on their personal, social and household endowments. All three selected categories with different items were associated and tested across different groups of the selected respondents such as teachers, students, self-employed and religious figures to determine whether any relationships and variations are existed among the responses of selected respondents. Statistical values show that a close association was found between all characteristics respondents and selected categories. Among respondents, data from the religious group shows a strong perception barrier (Pearson= $\chi^2 = 28.748$ P=0.000) in the way of women job participation. Furthermore, women's personal (Pearson= $\chi^2 = 12.303$ P=0.001), household and social endowment (Pearson= $\chi^2 = 9.456$, P=0.001) were perceived by religious figures to be largely effected with their job participation. Similar findings were obtained among the responses of self-employed (Pearson= $\chi^2 = 25.392$ P=0.001), and job seekers participants (Pearson= $\chi^2 = 24.250$ P=0.001). Besides, in the view of this group of respondents, a strong association was obtained between women

participation and its effect on their personal (Pearson= $\chi^2= 24.250$ P=0.001), household and social endowment.

Discussion and Major Findings

This study conducted to know about male perceptions regarding women job participation and its effect on overall personal, household and social endowment of women. Statistical data suggest that a consolidated response from male is not favoring women participation in job market. A resilient perception is prevailing that women participation is against the *Izzat*(Honor) of male and religious injunctions. However, they think women should be allowed for outdoor work whenever their immediate coworkers are women. It has also been found that there are certain factors which effect women participation in job market such as their place of origin, family structure and after all their educational level. Moreover, husband educational status was also found a significant detector effecting female job participation. It has been thoroughly discovered in this work that female participation in formal job market is propelling enormous effect on their personal, social and household endowment. Majority respondents reported that physical safety of women remains at stake when she participates in outdoor activities. In many cases, a woman has to remain for most part of her time outside home which curtail their role performance in domestic task such as child care, cleanliness and washing. Moreover, it was perceived that greater mobility for the sake of job cut down their marriage market quality as job demands more investment of time and require commitment and devotion. the study also reveal some positive effect of job as it was perceived by respondents that women get a financial support which give them a financial independence and enable her to supplement family finances and to contribute in family budget. Furthermore, it has been noted that across various characteristics of respondents, more perception barriers were reported by religious group.

Conclusion

It is concluded from this study that socio cultural norms are reflected in male perceptions and attitude regarding the role and status of women. From a male centered perspective, women participation in outdoor activities not only against men's honor and religious norms but also

considered as threat for women safety. Participation of women is looked down upon as bringsome negative effects on women lives. It is widely perceived that participation of women in job minimize their marriage market qualities and effect spouse relationships within the families. Moreover, Participation of women in outdoor paid work significantly restricts their active participation in domestic task. Socially appropriate behavior which is mostly expected from a mother is looking after their children rather than participation in paid job outside their home. Economic independence and wellbeing of women is closely associated with their active participation but can negatively affect reciprocal relations with men. However, the research findings support and extend the findings of previous research findings that some personal and social attributes suchas awareness, experience, marital status and educational qualification of both men and women are mediating factors between women participation and the prevailing normative structure of the society.

Acknowledgement

The author of this research work is highly indebted to his colleagues in Hazara University, Mansehra for their generous support and valuable guidance. A special thank you also goes to the students of Sociology Department at Hazara University, Mansehra; who extended their cooperation in compilation of this work.

References

- [1] Asaduzzaman, M., 2008, Governance in Practice: Decentralization and People's Participation in the Local Government of Bangladesh: Published PhD Thesis, University of Tampere Press
- [2] Babacan, H.n.d, Women and Development, Institutional Issues Involving Ethics and Justice., Vol. II, University of Sunshine, Coast Australia
- [3] Bari, Farzana, 2005, Women's Political Participation: Issues and Challenges. United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women. Bangkok: Thailand
- [4] Beall, J. and D. Esser, 2005, Shaping Urban Futures: Challenges to Governing and Managing Afghan Cities', AREU Issues Paper Series. Kabul: AREU
- [5] Chattopadhyay, R. and Duflo, E., 2004, Women as Policy Makers: Evidence From a Randomized Policy Experiment in India. *Econometrica*, vol. 72, No. 5, pp. 1409-1443.
- [6] Chaudhry, M. I., 1987, Pakistani Society: (Reprinted) Lahore: Aziz Publishers
- [7] Coontz, S., 1997, The Way We Really Are: Coming to Terms with America's Changing Families. New York: Basic Books.
- [8] Ferdaush, J. & Rahman, K.M.M., 2011, Gender Inequality in Bangladesh. The Innovators, Dhaka: Bangladesh.
- [9] Gutek, B.A., Searle, S. & Klepa, L., 1991, Rational Versus Gender Role Explanations for Work-Family Conflict. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, vol. 76, no. 4, pp. 560-568.
- [10] Kabeer, N., and L. Natali, 2013, Gender Equality and Economic Growth: Is there a Win-Win? IDS Working Paper, No. 417. Brighton: Institute of Development Studies.
- [11] Khan, M.M., 2009, Decentralization in Bangladesh: Myth or Reality, A H Development Publishing House, Dhaka: Bangladesh.
- [12] Korton, D., 1980, Community Organization and Rural Development: A Learning Process Approach. *Public Administration Review*, Vol. 40, No. 5 pp. 480-511. Blackwell Publishing, USA.
- [13] Koshal, M., Gupta. & RKoshal, 1998, Women in Management. A Malaysian Longman Inc

- [14] Mammen, K & Paxson, C, 2000, Women's Work and Economic Development. The Journal of Economic Perspectives, Vol. 14, No. 4, pp. 141-164 Published by: American Economic Association
- [15] Maunno, S, & Kinnunen. U, 2000, The Stability of Job and Family Involvement: Applying the Multi-Wave, Multivariable Technique to Longitudinal Data. Work and Stress, 14: 51-64.
- [16] Narayan, D, 1996, The Contribution of People's Participation: Evidence From Rural Water Supply Project. Occasional Paper Series No.1. Environmental Sustainable Development. World Bank: Washington. DC.
- [17] Newhall, D. F. Halpern, & S. J. Tan. Eds. The Changing Realities of Work and Family (pp. 9-24). Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell
- [18] Noor, S, 2010, People Participation in Development Projects, North South Banglades
- [19] Pant, B, 2002, Women's Participation and NGOs, Kantipure, National Daily News Paper, Kathmandu: Nepal.
- [20] Parasuraman, S., Greenhaus, J.H, & Granrose, C.S, 1992, Role Stressors, Social Support, and Well-Being among Two-Career Couples. Journal of Organizational Behaviour, 13: 339-356.
- [21] Razavi, S. Miller, C, 1995, From WID to GAD: Conceptual Shifts in the Women and Development Discourse, Occasional Paper I, United Nations Research Institute for Social Development, United Nations Development Program.
- [22] Reeves, H. and Baden, S, 2000, Gender and Development: Concepts and Definitions, Report No. 55 Prepared for the Department for International Development (DFID) for its gender mainstreaming intranet resource, Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex, Brighton BN1 9RE, UK.
- [23] Roc. A, 1977, Of Women Born: Motherhood as Experience and Institution, Virago Press, London: UK.

- [24] Samad, M, 2002, Participation of the Rural Poor in Government and NGO Programs, Mowla Brothers, Dhaka:Bangladesh.
- [25] Seguino, S, 2000, Gender Inequality and Economic Growth: a Cross-country Analysis. World Development, vol. 28, No. 7, pp. 1211-1230.
- [26] Shahid, I, 2007, Contemporary Affaires. Situational Analysis of Women in Pakistan.Jehangir series, Lahore.
- [27] United Nation Development, 2005, Human Development Report.
- [28] United Nations Population Fund, 2000, Lives Together, Worlds Apart:TheState of World Population'. New York: UNPF
- [29] United Nations,2014,Gender Equality and Sustainable Development.The Research and Data Section of UN Women Secretary-General (A/69/15).
- [30] White, S,1996, Depoliticizing Development. The Uses and Abuses of Participation. Development Practices, 6(1), 6-15.