

## **IMPACT OF GENDER DISCRIMINATION ON GENDER DEVELOPMENT AND POVERTY ALLEVIATION**

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### **ABSTRACT**

*This study focused on gender discrimination and its impact on development and poverty alleviation. To know the main reasons and areas of gender discrimination and its impact on development and poverty alleviation, the researcher selected 50 (25 male and 25 female) respondents in Hazar Khuani Peshawar on purposive sampling basis from the targeted respondents. Questionnaire was used for educated respondents and interview schedule for uneducated respondents as the tool of data collection. The study indicates that disparity exists in targeted area, which on many grounds affects poverty alleviation and development. The study indicates that women have no or low share in income / earnings of the family, that there was no equal status of women, female were not allowed to work out side home, women are more vulnerable to poverty, women share more burden of productive and household work, if household and productive burden share equally it could helps in poverty alleviation, household poverty could be reduced when both male and female members earn. Male members were the decision makers in their houses, there was no equal opportunity in higher education for women, women are facing difficulties in labour market, quality education can help in poverty alleviation. Gender inequality hinders poverty alleviation and female education helps in poverty alleviation. Women fertility right helps in poverty alleviation while discrimination in distribution of resources affect poverty alleviation. The study depicts that if skill enhancement opportunities not provided to women equally it would affect poverty alleviation and gender development. Old traditional roles of men and women are hindering the woman participations in development and women have no property & political right in the area, which is negatively affecting poverty alleviation. Women have not given equal opportunities in different jobs except government job (teachers) in targeted area the reason was sex segregated occupational choices. Women incomes were also low as compared to men and in most of the female respondents were totally dependent on men economically, which is also the reason of their exclusion from development and it affects poverty alleviation. For poverty alleviation and gender development there is need of policy formulation focused on women empowerment in education, employment, decision-making and providing legal, political, economic and social rights to women.*

**Key Words:** Gender Discrimination, Data Collection, Poverty Alleviation

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### **INTRODUCTION**

The concept of human poverty sheds light on the relationship between gender inequalities and poverty; women are more vulnerable to chronic poverty because of gender inequalities in the distribution of income, access to productive inputs such as credit, command over property or control over earned income, as well as gender biases in labour markets. Resource allocation is often gender biased within households as well as in state and market institutions. It is often stated women do not always have full control over their own labour or in the income they earn. Men forbid their wives to work outside the household or extract labour from women through actual or threatened violence, making it harder for women to transform their capabilities into incomes or well being while gender inequalities reproduce the poverty of to the next they also have an impact on growth performance and therefore have direct and indirect consequence on poverty and poverty alleviation.

#### ***Definition of Gender***

Gender refers to the social roles and status difference between women and men in a society. These roles are determined by the social, cultural and economic organizations of a society and the prevailing religious, moral and legal norms. 'Sex' is a biological term while "gender" a psychological and socio-cultural one (Anderson 1988).

#### ***Gender Inequality***

Today social class is based in the economy and in the status achieved within that realm. In the past social class rested in part on achieved status in the economic activities of the society, but also in great part on the ascribed status of the family. That is one could earn position in the class system but family status helped gain and maintain that position. The ethnic and racial status affects ones position in the economy. Gender, as defined by the society

serves to assign position and worth in the society. Inequality based on gender exists within our society. The ascribed and achieved role and status of women, the relative power of men and women is discriminative in our society. There is gender inequality in role-play and rights (Oakley, 1972).

### ***Sex Ratios and Power Dependency***

The analysis of Marcia Guttentag actually focused upon power in the relationship between the sexes and how this affected the roles that each played within in the society in different contexts. The theoretical perspective here focuses upon exchange theory and what each sex brings to the bargain (Marcia, 1996).

### ***Dyadic Power***

Dyadic power is the power in the one-to-one relationship between a husband and wife, between girl friend and boy friends. If there is an excess of one sex in the society, that the other sex will tend to have more power in this relationship because that sex is in short supply. Situation in America in the 60s and 70s because of the baby boom, women were in excess supply because of the human pattern of male selection. Typically men choose women who are from two to three years younger than they are. In this time period the age structure was such that which were more women in these preferred age ranges than there were men. The result is that men lacked the dyadic power - they were experienced what Stark calls a power dependency. Simply put, the dependency of one member of a dyad on the other is equal to the person's inability to achieve his or her goals outside the dyad (Stark).

### ***Structural Power***

When women are in excess numbers they will use their numbers to shape the social structures. And this is indeed what we have found. Slack points to the roots of the suffragette movement in New England when men left and went west. This can also help to explain the women's movement in the 60s and 70. An interesting trend is coming as the baby boomer age. Older individuals tend to be more politically active, and given the numbers, we can expect women to gain more influence and power in the society as a whole over the next several decades. The result should be more equality for women in all spheres of our society.

### ***Historical Perspective of Gender***

Pre-industrial societies are usually rigidly age graded and sex-segregated. Age cohorts of males and females tend to pass through life in cohesive peer groups. Even after marriage, women and men tend to spend more time with their same sex peers than they do with their spouses. As societies increase in size and complexity, women usually become subordinated to men. There have been few, if any societies in which women as a group controlled the distribution of wealth or the exercise of power (Harris, 1980 and Leacock, 1978). The status of the elderly in pre-industrial societies often hinges directly on the importance of traditions and collective memory or 'strategic knowledge' (Demos, 1978; Harlan, 1968 and Rosow, 1974).

### ***Wid, Gad, and Rights Based Development***

The original WID (Women in Development) approach recognized women's active role in the development process as reproductive, productive and community workers, and emphasis the fulfillment of their strategic needs through direct state intervention. Due to its political nature, this approach was soon replaced by an anti-property approach, focused on practical needs surrounding women's productive role. The equity and empowerment approaches have been labeled as GAD (Gender and Development) approaches because of their emphasis on strategic needs. The term empowerment has come to mean many different things to different actors in the development field. (Anderson and Patricia, 1991)

### ***Definitions of Poverty and Women's Poverty***

According to McNamara's presentation at the World Bank in 1973, Poverty means "powerlessness", "no capabilities" and "sustainable livelihoods" as well as "vulnerability"; (such as multiple privations, including low incomes, poor living accommodation, little access to health services and education). In analyzing the specific causes of women's poverty may think of three factors; Women have less chance of benefiting from gainful employment - because of their exclusive responsibility for child rearing, the generally accepted idea of their gainful activities as an "aid" to their men and their concentration in the unregulated sector.

When women have earnings, it is more difficult for them to ensure that these afford them decision making capacity or enable them to choose what their earnings are spent on -assessments of their value and their contribution to the household, the social rules and levels of independence affect their capacity to speak out when decisions are

being made at all levels. When women take decisions, they do not improve their own welfare but generally decide in line with general "family" well-being - this is not only because of the "traditional" responsibilities of child care, but because the structure of the feminine identity involves being altruistic.

The causes of women's poverty operate at different levels or exist at different poverty "sites". At the level of society in general -including labour markets and the political power -due to institutionalized discrimination; at community level where social rules affect the rates and responsibilities of men and women and at household level where unequal power relations operate depending on sex and age (Nilufer, 1998).

### ***Approaches to Poverty Analysis and its Gender Dimension***

Despite the immensely nuanced insights brought to bear by feminist research on gender and poverty, the three dominant mainstream approaches to poverty analysis remain 'gender-blind' in a number of ways. The poverty line approach, which measures the economic means through which households and individuals meet their basic needs; The 'capabilities' approach, whereby 'means' other than earnings or transfer payments and the like, such as endowments and entitlement achievements, Participatory poverty assessments', which explore the causes and outcomes of poverty in more context-specific ways (Nilufer, 1998).

#### ***The Poverty Line Approach: Constraints Regarding Gender***

Grounded in quantitatively-derived (or 'money metric') measures of income, consumption and/or expenditure, national (and international) 'poverty lines' are drawn at the point which divides 'poor' from non-poor households on the basis of whether their income is sufficient to satisfy an officially-determined minimum level of survival. Two common indicators emanating from these calculations are first, the 'headcount index' which measures the percentage of the population living below the poverty line, and second, the poverty gap which measures the average depth to which people are below the poverty line (Bradshaw, *et al.* 2002).

The poverty line approach assumes that well-being can be equated with capacity to meet essential physical survival needs (usually food), and the 'ability – shown by income – to "choose" between different "bundles" of commodities'. While this continues to be important, the poverty line approach can only go so far in that it discounts factors such as the impacts on personal or private well-being of public goods and services such as health and education (UNFPA, 2002). It also ignores non-monetary resources through which people satisfy their survival needs (for example, the 'social capital' generated among networks of kin, friends or neighbors), as well as the fact that the well-being of human beings, and what matters to them, does not only depend on their purchasing power, but on other less tangible aspects, such as dignity and self-respect'. As echoed by May (20001), in many countries, poverty survival to incorporate notions of 'exclusion, powerlessness and stigma', and to construe poverty as being 'relational rather than absolute'. While all these omissions compromise gender-sensitivity, the most significant problem is that poverty lines have remained oriented to the household as a unit of analysis, meaning that the differential poverty burdens of women and men are ignored (Kabeer, 2003). As noted by Razavi (1999), intra-household resource distribution remains largely a feminist concern.

#### ***The Capabilities Approach: Constraints Regarding Gender***

This approach to poverty also focuses on 'ends' as well as blurring the distinction between 'means' and 'ends'. As far as 'means' embraces services, which can significantly assist people to meet their survival, needs (drinking water, sanitation, public health and so on). In respect of 'ends' as shelter, health and clothing, an which, in turn, can assist people in achieving on the individual, capabilities can also be interpreted and measured in gender disaggregated ways, as evidenced by the GDI and GEM. The many useful contributions to gender and poverty offered by the capabilities approach, include: first, assistance in monitoring differences in basic achievements across space and time; second, drawing attention to regional differences in gender inequality (on the basis of kinship and gender relations) that do not necessarily dovetail with regional patterns of income or poverty, and third, revealing aspects of gender inequality that persist regardless of levels of economic growth. By the same token, although the capabilities approach goes well beyond poverty lines in revealing gender dimensions of poverty much information relevant to gender inequality, such as time use and work intensity (Corner, 2002 and Flore, 1995).

#### ***Participatory Poverty Assessments: Constraints Regarding Gender***

Participatory poverty assessments (PPAs) have made a number of important contributions to gendered poverty analysis, notably by highlighting factors such as women's greater burden of time poverty', their vulnerability to domestic violence, and unequal decision-making (Kabeer, 2003) PPAs have also revealed that

perceptions of poverty at the household level are wont to differ by gender insofar as men usually define poverty as a lack of assets whereas women view poverty as shortfalls in consumption and the inability to provide for the family. In the 'Voices of the Poor' study carried out by the World Bank for the 2000/2001 World Development Report, it transpired that men frequently defined poverty in terms of lack of respect and self-esteem, yet 'no women seem to have regarded themselves entitled to demand respect'.

Not all participatory assessments make reference to gender issues, however. This is partly because PPA methodology is subject to the relative 'gender-blindness' or 'gender-awareness' of its facilitators. While, in principle, for example, PPAs promise greater degrees of empowerment and subjectivity, the question of who is selected, encouraged, and/or available to participate at the grassroots can affect the picture. Indeed, even if women as well as men are involved in consultations, the internalization of gendered norms means that both parties may conceal or downplay gender bias. Given that PPA data are often left 'raw' rather than 'interpreted', this can significantly obscure gender differences and their meanings. Moreover, where data are aggregated (in the interests of presentational simplicity) and/or interpreted (in the interests of policy formulation, for example), losses in gender-relevant information can occur through the biases of researchers and analysts (Kabeer, 2003 and Johnson-Lathan, 2002). This situation would undoubtedly be less likely if there were more dedicated efforts to 'triangulate' participatory findings with other, 'objective', criteria (Razavi, 1999), or existing standard qualitative gender analyses, which focus on gendered relations and processes as well as outcomes (Whitehead and Lockwood, 1999).

The declining trend on poverty in the rural areas seen during 1970 and 1980s was reversed in the 1990. This phenomenon has been referred to as the "Poverty Bomb". The government of Pakistan has prepared an "Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper" that suggest guidelines to reduce poverty in the countryside. As of 2006, Pakistan's Human Development Index is 0.527, high than that of nearby Bangladesh (0.520), which was formerly a part of Pakistan, but lower than that of neighboring India (0.602). (World Bank, 2006)

### ***Gender in Pakistan***

Poverty in Pakistan has historically been higher in rural areas and lower in the cities. Out of the total 47 million living below the poverty line, 35 million live in rural areas. Poverty rose sharply in the rural areas in the 1990s and the gap in income between urban and rural areas of the country became more significant. This trend has been attributed to a disproportionate impact of the economic slowdown in the rural areas caused by low economic growth, decline in public sector development spending and lower worker remunerations. There are also significant variations in the different regions of Pakistan that contribute to the country's rising poverty. In the 1999 Fiscal year, the urban regions of the Sindh province had the lowest levels of poverty, and the rural areas of the North West Frontier Province had the highest. Punjab also has significant gradients in poverty among the different regions of the province. In addition, the north-western frontier provinces of Pakistan are among the most impoverished in the country. Outside the cities, government investment has been negligible, and social and economic structures remained tribal and backward. In the absence of economic development, the Pashtun people of the region dealt in arms and drugs, smuggling people and goods, especially during the Soviet invasion of neighboring Afghanistan and, later, in support of the Taliban regime. These and other activities have led to a breakdown of law and order in many parts of the region.

The gender discriminatory practices in Pakistani society also shape the distribution of poverty in the country. Traditional gender roles in Pakistan define the woman's place as in the home and not in the workplace, and define the man as the breadwinner. Consequently, the society invests far less in women than man. Women in Pakistan suffer from poverty of opportunities throughout their lives. Female literacy in Pakistan is 29% compared to male literacy at 55%. In legislative bodies women constitute less than 3% of the legislature elected on general seats. The 1973 constitutional reform allowed reserved seats for women in both houses of parliament for a period of 20 years, thus ensuring that women would be represented in parliament regardless of whether or not they are elected on general seats. This provision lapsed in 1993, so parliaments elected subsequently did not have reserved seats for women. Reserved seats for women have been restored in the elections scheduled for October 2002, and will constitute 17% of the strength of parliament. Female labor rates in Pakistan are exceptionally low.

All this, coupled with rise of honor killings against women, a legal system that is regarded as misogynistic, and the intransigent denial of these problems by the Pakistan government, as well as their institutionalized harassment of women's rights groups operating in the country contribute the deteriorating situation (Amnesty International, 1995).

### ***Gender Discrimination in Peshawar***

Gender discrimination exists in all parts of Pakistan but it is higher in rural area and particularly in NWFP and Balochistan provinces of Pakistan. Gender discrimination exists in family, marriage, children education, health and career development, in economic field and particularly in employment a women is working more hours and earning less as compare to men. Men are enjoying higher incomes and prestigious jobs while women are usually assistants and having secondary jobs. Women are discriminated in property rights. No woman receives property from her father, mother, brothers and husband. Education plays a vital role in getting better employment but there are obstacles to women in higher education lesser girls are coming to collage and university education and thus lesser get their jobs in the market. There are various constraints on women in getting higher education and employment in Peshawar and NWFP including male domination, early marriage, discrimination against women in employment, negative public opinion about women working, "Pardah" (Veiling), and the prerogative of males as decision makers. Thus gender discrimination in education and employment leads to poverty and problems faced in poverty alleviation in the target area. (Amnesty International, 1995).

### ***The Fourth World Conference on Women***

#### ***Women and Poverty***

More than 1 billion people (majority women) in the developing world today, live in unacceptable conditions of poverty. Transformations in the world economy are profoundly changing the parameters of social development in all countries. One significant trend has been the increased poverty of women, the extent of which varies from region to region. The gender disparities in economic power sharing are also an important contributing factor to the poverty of women. Migration and consequent changes in family structures have placed additional burdens on women, especially those who provide for several dependants. Macroeconomic policies need rethinking and reformulation to address such trends. These policies focus almost exclusively on the formal sector. They also tend to impede the initiatives of women and fail to consider the differential impact on women and men. The application of gender analysis to a wide range of policies and programs is therefore critical to poverty reduction strategies. In order to eradicate poverty and achieve sustainable development, women and men must participate fully and equally in the formulation of macroeconomic and social policies and strategies for the eradication of poverty. The eradication of poverty cannot be accomplished through anti-poverty programs alone but will require democratic participation and changes in economic structures in order to ensure access for all women to resources, opportunities and public services. Poverty has various manifestations, including lack of income and productive resources sufficient to ensure a sustainable livelihood; hunger and malnutrition; ill health; limited or lack of access to education and other basic services; increasing morbidity and mortality from illness; homelessness and inadequate housing; unsafe environments; and social discrimination and exclusion. It is also characterized by lack of participation in decision-making and in civil, social and cultural life. It occurs in all countries - as mass poverty in many developing countries and as pockets of poverty amidst wealth in developed countries. Poverty may be caused by an economic recession resulting in the loss of livelihood or by disaster or conflict. There is also the poverty of low-wage workers and the utter destitution of people who fall outside family support systems, social institutions and safety nets (The Beijing Platform for Action, 2000).

In the past decade the number of women living in poverty has increased disproportionately to the number of men, particularly in the developing countries. The feminization of poverty has also recently become a significant problem in the countries with economies in transition as a short-term consequence of the process of political, economic and social transformation. In addition to economic factors, the rigidity of socially ascribed gender roles and women's limited access to power, education, training and productive resources as well as other emerging factors that may lead to insecurity for families are also responsible. The failure to adequately mainstream a gender perspective in all economic analysis and planning and to address the structural causes of poverty is also a contributing factor.

Women contribute to the economy and to combating poverty through both remunerated and unremunerated work at home, in the community and in the workplace. The empowerment of women is a critical factor in the eradication of poverty. While poverty affects households as a whole, because of the gender division of labour and responsibilities for household welfare, women bear a disproportionate burden, attempting to manage household consumption and production under conditions of increasing scarcity. Poverty is particularly acute for women living in rural households. Women's poverty is directly related to the absence of economic opportunities and autonomy, lack of access to economic resources, including credit, land ownership and inheritance, lack of access to education

and support services and their minimal participation in the decision-making process. Poverty can also force women into situations in which they are vulnerable to sexual exploitation.

In too many countries, social welfare systems do not take sufficient account of the specific conditions of women living in poverty, and there is a tendency to scale back the services provided by such systems. The risk of falling into poverty is greater for women than for men, particularly in old age, where social security systems are based on the principle of continuous remunerated employment. In some cases, women do not fulfill this requirement because of interruptions in their work, due to the unbalanced distribution of remunerated and unremunerated work. Moreover, older women also face greater obstacles to labour market re-entry. In many developed countries, where the level of general education and professional training of women and men are similar and where systems of protection against discrimination are available, in some sectors the economic transformations of the past decade have strongly increased either the unemployment of women or the precarious nature of their employment. The proportion of women among the poor has consequently increased. In countries with a high level of school enrolment of girls, those who leave the educational system the earliest, without any qualification, are among the most vulnerable in the labour market.

In countries with economies in transition and in other countries undergoing fundamental political, economic and social transformations, these transformations have often led to a reduction in women's income or to women being deprived of income (The Beijing Platform for Action, 2000).

### ***Women and Gender in South Asia***

South Asian women are commonly portrayed as among the most oppressed peoples in the world. Indeed, the experiences of the majority of women of the subcontinent are grounded in both poverty and patriarchy. In what is Patriarchy (1993), Basin notes that the term used refer to male domination, to the power relationships by which men dominate women; and especially to the system through which women are kept subordinate. There are different theories surrounding the origins of patriarchy, and the extent to which there have ever been a matriarchal society. Indeed, the precise nature of patriarchal beliefs and behaviour vary across cultures and communities and over time. It is clear that patriarchal ideologies and practices pervade political, economic, legal, socio-cultural and religious structures around the world. Patriarchy constrains women in all facets of life. Control of women's reproductive abilities and sexuality is placed in men's hands. Patriarchy limits women's ownership and control of property and other economic resources. Including the product of their own labour. Women's mobility is constrained, and their access to and information hindered. In these ways, patriarchal structures perpetuate the enduring gaps between the opportunities available to South Asian women and men.

Despite some measure of improvement over the decades, in almost every case, women are on the losing side of all these gaps. For this reason, our discussion of gender issues in South Asian development tends to focus on women, yet, by definition gender issues also concern men as women's partners in the development process, and as both passive and active agents of women's subordinate.

South Asian women are primarily conceived of as wives, mothers and homemakers, and their responsibilities within this realm define the notion of 'women's'. Thus 'women's issues' continue to be primarily located within the social sector, with health-especially reproductive and child health-and girls' education as the center of attention. Incidents of physical violence against women are increasingly mentioned in the media, but rarely within the context of larger processes of gender discrimination (Zain-ud-din, 1988).

### ***Gender Inequality and Household Poverty in South Asia***

#### ***Women's Work and Household Survival***

Female seclusion in regions of extreme patriarchy explains women's generally low level of labor force participation. Work in the public domain, particularly in waged employment for others, means a loss of status for women and their households. Thus while poverty may force women to work outside the home, increased household prosperity may lead to withdrawal into it again. The ILO notes that there is a strong relationship between paid work by women and household poverty.

#### ***The Gender Distribution of Work in Rural Areas***

Rural poverty in South Asia is closely connected with landlessness, rural wage labor and, in India, with caste. Partly as a result of increasing landlessness, there has been a steady decline in owner cultivation as a source of rural employment during the twentieth century. Men have diversified into wage labour in the agricultural sector, as well as various forms of non-agricultural activities in the rural sector economy. They have also migrated into the

urban economy. Women, however, remain largely concentrated in rural areas. According to official estimates, landless and land poor households made up over 50 per cent of rural households in India in 1992. Bangladesh has also experienced growing landlessness, declining farm size and diversification out of agriculture into various off farm activities. Village studies from the 1970 and earlier noted that women's contribution in the agricultural process was largely in post harvest processing. This used manually operated technology and was carried out in the home, did hire female labor from landless groups to substitute for the labor of women within the family.

### ***Household Poverty and Women's Paid Work***

Apart from restrictions on women's mobility noted, another reason for the strong association between household poverty and women's work is that poor women are paid even less than poor men. Thus while their earnings are used to meet basic needs in the household, they are not sufficient to pull households out of poverty. This is particularly so when there is no male earner in the household. Statistics show that women in both India and Bangladesh were commonly paid approximately half the male wage for the same employment although there are regional variations in overall wages as well as in gender wage disparities.

### ***Gender and Work in Urban Areas***

Poverty also has a marked gender dimension in urban areas in South Asia. Urbanization is growing across the sub-continuant, partly driven by the rural poor's search for employment. The percentage of women living in urban areas has risen from around 19% in 1970 to around 25% in recent years.

### ***Gender Inequality and Returns to Women's Work***

The link between gender inequality and poverty reflects inequality in returns to labor, widely recognized the key asset at the disposal of the poor. It is clear that these inequalities are not static. Pakistani culture restricts women's movement in the public domain and confines them to activities in the home that generally carry lower or no returns (Zain-ud-din, 1988).

## **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

50 respondents 25 male and 25 females were selected on purposive sampling basis out of the targeted group of the population. A questionnaire was used for educated and an interview schedule was used for illiterate respondents.

## **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

(Table I) indicates the response of respondents regarding the question of women share in income. Out of 50 respondents 4 being 8% of male replied yes and 21 being 42% told no While 12 being 24 female replied yes and 13 being 26. Out of 50 respondents, 20 being 40% male replied yes women and man have equal status and 5 being 10% replied no. On the other hand 12 being 24% female replied yes and 13 being 26% told no.

**Table-I** *Share of women in earning and equal status*

Sex distribution	Responses	Share of women		Equal Status	
		F	%	F	%
Male	Yes	4	8	20	40
	No	21	42	5	10
Female	Yes	12	24	12	24
	No	13	26	13	26
Total	-	50	100	50	100

Source: Field Data

(Table II) indicates the response regarding the question of women work out side home and their reasons. Out of 50 respondents 7 being 14% male were in the favor of women work out side home and 18 being 36% were against women work out side home. While 16 being 32% female replied yes women are allowed to work out side home, 9 being 18% of female are not in favor of female work out side home. Out of 50 respondents, 20 being 40% male replied yes women are more vulnerable to poverty, 5 being 10% replied no and 18 being 36% female response was yes while 7 being 14 replied no.

**Table-II** *Women work out side home and vulnerability to poverty*

Sex distribution	Responses	Women Work Outside Home		Women Vulnerability to Poverty	
		F	%	F	%
Male	Yes	7	14	20	40
	No	18	36	5	10
Female	Yes	16	32	18	36
	No	9	18	7	14
Total	-	50	100	50	100

Source: Field Data

(Table III) indicates that out of 50 respondents, 11 being 22% male replied yes women share more burden of productive and household work and 14 being 28% replied no. 20 being 40% of female replied yes women share more burden and 5 being 10% replied no. Out of 50 respondents, 14 being 28% male replied yes poverty can be reduced if such burden shared equally while 11 being 22% were replied no. 21 being 42% female respondents replied yes and 4 being 8% replied no.

**Table-III** *Women share more productive and household work and Poverty can reduce by equal sharing household and productive burden*

Sex distribution	Responses	Women share more Productive & Household Work		Poverty can be Reduced by Equal sharing these burden	
		F	%	F	%
Male	Yes	11	22	14	28
	No	14	28	11	22
Female	Yes	20	40	21	42
	No	5	10	4	8
Total	-	50	100	50	100

Source: Field Data

(Table IV) indicates the response of respondents in connection to the question of household poverty reduction. Out of 50 respondents, 16 being 32% male respondent replied yes and 9 being 18% replied no, while 20 being 40% female respondents replied yes and 5 being 10% replied no. Out of 50 respondents, 18 being 36% male respondents replied positively and 7 being 14% replied negatively and 20 being 40% female respondents replied positively and 5 being 10% female replied negatively.

**Table-IV** *Poverty can be reduced if both male & female earn and male dominancy in decision-making*

Sex distribution	Responses	Poverty can be reduced if both earn		Male Dominancy in Decision-making	
		F	%	F	%
Male	Yes	16	32	18	36
	No	9	18	7	14
Female	Yes	20	40	20	40
	No	5	10	5	10
Total	-	50	100	50	100

Source: Field Data

(Table V) indicates out of 50 respondent 7 being 14% male replied positively and 18 being 36% replied negatively. While 12 being 24% female respondents replied yes and 13 being 26% replied no. Out of 50 respondents, 18 being 36% male replied yes and 7 being 14% replied no. While 20 being 40% female respondents replied yes and 5 being 10% no.

**Table-V** *Equal opportunities for women in higher education and female facing difficulties In labour market*

Sex distribution	Responses	Equal Opportunities		Difficulties in Market	
		F	%	F	%
Male	Yes	7	14	18	36
	No	18	36	7	14
Female	Yes	12	24	20	40
	No	13	26	5	10
Total	-	50	100	50	100

Source: Field Data

(Table VI) indicates the quality and opportunities of education and employment for both genders can help in reducing poverty. Out 50 respondents 20 being 40% male replied yes, 5 being 10% replied no and 23 being 46% female replied yes 2 being 4% replied no. Out of 50 respondents 13 being 26% male replied yes inequality in gender roles hinder poverty alleviation while 12 being 24% male replied no and 15 being 30% female replied yes and 10 being 20 female respondents answered no.

**Table-VI** *Quality education for both genders can help and Inequality in gender roles hinder poverty alleviation*

Sex distribution	Responses	Quality Ed. Help in Poverty Alleviation		Inequality in Gender Roles Hinder Poverty Alleviation	
		F	%	F	%
Male	Yes	20	40	13	26
	No	5	10	12	24
Female	Yes	23	46	15	30
	No	2	4	10	20
Total	-	50	100	50	100

Source: Field Data

(Table VII) indicates that out of 50 respondents, 10 being 20% male respondent replied yes female education reduce poverty while 15 being 30% replied negatively and 13 being 26% female respondents replied yes while 12 being 24% replied negatively. Out of 50 respondents 10 being 20% male replied yes women fertility right would help in Poverty alleviation while 15 being 30% male respondents replied no. While 20 being 40% female respondents replied yes and 5 being 10% replied no.

**Table-VII** *Female Education and women fertility right helps in poverty alleviation*

Sex distribution	Responses	Female Education is must for Poverty Alleviation		Women Fertility Right helps in Poverty Alleviation	
		F	%	F	%
Male	Yes	10	20	10	20
	No	15	30	15	30
Female	Yes	13	26	20	40
	No	12	24	5	10
Total	-	50	100	50	100

Source: Field Data

(Table VIII) indicates that out of 50 respondents, 19 being 38% male replied yes discrimination in resource distribution affect poverty alleviation and 6 being 12% said no. While 21 being 42% female replied yes such type of discrimination affect poverty alleviation and 4 being 8% female replied no. Out of 50 respondents 19 being 38% male respondents replied yes lack of skill enhancement opportunities for women affect poverty alleviation and gender development while 6 being 12% replied no. 21 being 42% female respondents replied yes and 4 being 8% replied no.

**Table-VIII** *Discrimination in distribution of resources and lack of skill enhancement opportunities for women affect poverty alleviation*

Sex distribution	Responses	Discrimination in Distribution of Resources Affect Poverty Alleviation		Lack of Skills Enhancement opportunities for women affect Poverty Alleviation	
		F	%	F	%
Male	Yes	19	38	19	38
	No	6	12	6	12
Female	Yes	21	42	21	42
	No	4	8	4	12
Total	-	50	100	50	100

Source: Field Data

(Table IX) indicates that out of 50 respondents 13 being 26% male replied yes old traditional role are hindering women participation in developments and 12 being 24% were replied no and 14 being 28% female respondents replied yes and 11 being 22% were replied no. out of 50 respondents 10 being 20% male respondents replied yes woman have political right while 15 being 30% replied negatively and 12 being 24% female respondents replied yes while 13 being 26% replied negatively.

**Table-IX** *Old traditional roles of men and women are hindering women participation in development and political right of women*

Sex distribution	Responses	Female Education is must for Poverty Alleviation		Women Fertility Right helps in Poverty Alleviation	
		F	%	F	%
Male	Yes	13	26	10	20
	No	12	24	15	30
Female	Yes	14	28	12	24
	No	11	22	13	26
Total	-	50	100	50	100

Source: Field Data

## CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Poverty is a worldwide issue and growing. If poverty is analyzed through gender perspective we find that women are more vulnerable to poverty because of inequality in different socio-economic aspects and the culture of patriarchy. After analyzing the data it is concluded that a disparity exists in targeted area, which on many grounds affect poverty alleviation and development. The study indicates that women have no or low share in income / earnings of the family, all female and a few male respondents specified that there was no equal status of women, females were not allowed to work outside home, women are more vulnerable to poverty, women share more burden of productive and household work, if household and productive burden share equally it could helps in poverty alleviation, household poverty could be reduced when both male and female members earn. Male members were the decision makers in their houses, there were no equal opportunities in higher education for women, and women are facing difficulties in labour market. The study shows that quality education can help in poverty alleviation while gender inequality hinders poverty alleviation.

On the basis of findings, the following recommendation are made:

Equal educational opportunities should be provided to women,; skill-training facilities should be provided to them; women should be given equal right and power of decision-making; there is a need to bring equality in resources distribution; equal opportunities of participation should be given to both genders in various activities; equal opportunities should be given to the women inside the family affairs as well as outside the family; equal opportunities should be provided to women in different jobs. It will be helpful in poverty alleviation.

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