

**SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND NUTRITIONAL STATUS OF
WOMEN WORKERS IN THE METROPOLITAN CITY
OF DHAKA: A CASE STUDY OF FIVE
GARMENTS INDUSTRIES**

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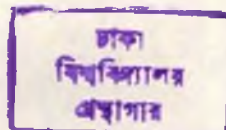
SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND NUTRITIONAL STATUS OF WOMEN WORKERS
IN THE METROPOLITAN CITY OF DHAKA: A CASE STUDY OF
FIVE GARMENTS INDUSTRIES

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for
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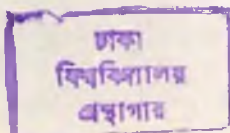
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CONTENTS

Acknowledgements

CHAPTER I

Introduction, 1
Proposition, 1
Importance, 4
Hypothesis and Objectives, 9
Methods, 10
Scope, 12
Conceptual framework, 13

CHAPTER II

The Review of Literatures, 17

CHAPTER III

Historical Background of Women Works in Bangladesh, 31

CHAPTER IV

Structure and Organisation of the Garment Industries, 40

CHAPTER V

Profile of the Garment Workers, 43

CHAPTER VI

Economic Status of the Garment Women Workers, 52

CHAPTER VII

Impact of Garment Employment on Economic Status of the Women Workers, 78

CHAPTER VIII

Social Status of the Garment Women Workers, 86

CHAPTER IX

Health and Nutritional Status of the Garment Women Workers, 112

CHAPTER X

Correlation between the Socio-Economic and Nutrition Status of the Garment Women Workers, 129

CHAPTER XI

Major Findings and Discussions, 138
Conclusions, 155
Recommendations, 157
List of Tables, 159
Questionnaire of the Study, 163
Bibliography, 183

CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

PROPOSITION

Women constitute an important part of the total population of Bangladesh. Their labour is being utilized in the developmental activities of the country. Female participation in productive sector is not only essential for the overall economic development of a society but also contribute to improve the standard of living of a family and provide opportunities to harness one's talent. It is clear that in order to meet the needs of the family and of themselves the question of paid employment arises. Women employment are gradually increasing day by day. But they are facing various problems in their socio-economic life and also nutritionally.

The development planners would argue that women's exposure through increased participation in the urban and agricultural labour force increase their access to the opportunities and benefit of development. The state and its protagonists in its recent drive to modernize through industrialization has begun to recognize the fact that women's labour can make substantial contribution to the national economy. Its rhetoric on integration through wage employment coincides with the strategy for export oriented industrialization. It is urged that Bangladesh needs to adopt a growth strategy not only to balance its deficits but also to liberate the working poor from dependence upon over-extended agricultural resources; capitalist investment is viewed as stimulating the expansion on employment opportunities.

If a flexible demand holds out limited prospects for building a permanent skilled, stable labour force or if it fails to alter the status of working women, what are the likely options for the thousands of illiterate undernourished women and young girls from village and urban slums who are entering the wage labour market ? This question is tied up with the pattern of peripheral capitalist

development in Bangladesh and its capacity to respond to the supply pressures. At present the Garment Industries are the largest export earning source in Bangladesh. These industries are gradually expanding. It has greatly helped improve the situation of the country's foreign income. Table 1 shows the contribution of the readymade garment industries in Bangladesh for earning foreign currency.

Table :I.1
The Contribution of Readymade Garments in Total Export Earnings

Year	Total export earnings (Taka in crore)	Export Earnings from Readymade Garments (Taka in crore)	Percentage in total export earnings
1978-79	928	0.16	0.02%
1982-83	1616.25	25.52	01.58%
1984-85	-----	300.38	-----
1985-86	2431.40	390.22	16.05%
1986-87	-----	907.67	-----
1987-88	-----	1342.13	-----
1988-89	4097.80	1494.28	36.46%
1989-90	4976.00	1990.04	39.99%
1990-91	6056.09 (1717.55 M.US\$)	2593.80 (735.62 M.US\$)	42.83%
1991-92	7590.86 (1993.92 M.US\$)	4050.65 (1064 M.US\$)	53.36%
1992-93	9257.54 (2382.89 M.US\$)	4819.27 (1240.48 M.U S\$)	52.06%
1993-94	11600 (2,900 M.US\$)	3636.27 (918.71 M.US\$) during July-oct. '93 against target of 6600 (1650 M.US\$)	88.24%

The growth of export oriented Garment Industries in Bangladesh has created factory job for women. More than 7 lakh workers are employed in the Garment Industries of which 85% are women. It is assumed that their employment in Garment Industries has increased their socio-economic and nutritional status as a result of income generation. There is hardly any sociological study combining both socio-economic and nutritional status of women. But there are some

aspects of the female workers of the Garment Industries. It attempts to depict the condition of women in the garment industries.

The following aspects are investigated in this study of garment workers.

1. The impact of garment wage employment on the lives of women workers are identified.
2. The socio-economic and legal status of women workers.
3. The correlation between the socio-economic and nutritional status of the Garment women workers are looked into.
4. The cause of gender differentials which may persist in terms of pay is identified.
5. The changes in women role from the unpaid family labour to the market economy are observed.
6. In order to develop a profile, the nature of economic, social and nutritional status are investigated.
7. The life styles and family commitments of women workers, resource allocation, pattern of income distribution and performance within the household are studied.
8. Concentration to work, work environment, lunch period, sanitation facilities, rest rooms etc. are noticed.
9. Nutrition related aspects, such as 24 hours recall of food items, body mass index(BMI), and mid upper arm circumference (MUAC) are determined.

IMPORTANCE

I have just discussed the proposition of this study in the previous section. Now I would like to point out the importance of the study. The socio-economic and nutritional status of garment women workers is a very important area of study in the context of present Bangladesh. In order to justify the study the following three aspects are considered.

- (i) The situation of women in Bangladesh and industrialization.
- (ii) The growth of garment industries.
- (iii) The role of women in earning foreign exchange through these industries.

The overwhelming majority of women in Bangladesh are illiterate, malnourished, poor and deprived. Acute poverty coupled with highly disadvantaged position of women in the society have resulted in one of the highest infant and child mortality and maternal mortality in Bangladesh. For every thousand of mothers in Bangladesh 6 die and out of 1,000 children 183 are die before they reach the age of five. For many of those who survive have been suffering from malnutrition and various diseases. The situation is even worse for women and girl children than it is for man. According to 1989 estimate, compared to a 30 percent rate of literacy for men only about 16 percent women are literate (5 years and above). Only about 50 percent of the school age girls are enrolled compared to 90 percent of the boys. The dropout rate among female children at the primary stage is twice when compared to that of male children. The burden of endemic poverty, widespread malnutrition, illiteracy and deprivation of socio-economic rights are falling heavily on the shoulders of women.¹

The mortality rates are high even for the developing world, but as one of the first signatories of the convention of the rights of the child, and a participant in the 1990 World Summit for children, the Government of Bangladesh has promised that by the year 2000, will

reduce half the maternal mortality rate and more than half the under five child mortality rate. At the same time, it will reduce severe and moderate malnutrition among under five children by one half.

The Third Five Year Plan (TFYP) of the country discloses the fact that the economic mobility is also affected by women's traditionally lower status in the family and also by their status in the household and in the society in relation to ownership and control of land. Women constitute almost one half of the total population of Bangladesh. Adolescent girls constitute 6.5% of the population. Among 30.6 million of the total civilian labour force in our country 27.4 million are male and 3.2 million are female. The female labour force constitute 10.4% of the total civilian labour force.²

According to the different studies conducted by different organizations shows a much higher rate of women work force.

Table: I.2
Percentage of Women Work Force Shown in Different Studies

Organization	Year	Percentage of women work force
Population census	1981	5.8% (official labour force)
Labour force survey	1984-85	8%
Rural industries study project (RISP)	-	8% to 18% very
World Bank Report	1985	13.5%
World Bank Report	1990	17% (Projected)
World Bank Report	2000	25% (Projected)

According to World Bank Report, women's participation in economic activities will increase from 3.2 million in 1990 to 12.2 million by 2000. It is also interesting to observe that female labour force had increased in cotton and handloom sector from 900 in 1973

to 7000 in 1980. It is seen that in 1994 about 85% women workers of the total garment labour force are employed.³

The role of women in industries and industrialization, and their contribution in earning foreign exchange are a very important subject- matter which are dealt with sociologically.

In the Report entitled "Towards progress in women's rights and social status in developing countries," it has been said that women's work in industries has been playing an important role in the industrialization of developing countries over the past 20 years, representing a substantial and increasing share of the industrial labour force.

Working conditions expose women to many stresses and strains due to long hours of work, multiplicity of activities and unhealthy working conditions. A FAO seminar in the Caribbean confirmed that in the types of jobs which are opening up to women, they are being exposed to agricultural equipment and pesticides, toxic chemicals and factory machines, many of which threaten their health as well as the nutrition status of urban women. There has been little study of the socio-economic impact for women on the new technologies being introduced for typically female occupations and it is now being recognized that many insecticides and similar products (Prohibited in industrialized countries but exported by them to the developing countries) are potentially harmful for health.

Women are facing various kinds of difficulties in the field of their employment. Many researchers have shown these in their respective studies. One researcher in an international conference in West Berlin stated that the small scale local industries often escape the notice of law enforcement bodies and it is suggested that some of their working conditions are unacceptable, such as, long hours, inadequate rest periods, primitive or no amenities, no holidays and extremely low wages.

Bangkok UN information service stated that women play a very important role in the economic dynamism of the Asia Pacific region, as a result of which they now constitute a significant part of the industrial work force in many economies of the region. In some Asian economies such as the Philippines, Republic of Korea, Singapore and Thailand, women's share in manufacturing employment amounts to 40 percent. In Hong Kong and the Taiwan province of China the share has reached 50 percent. The number of women workers are increasing both in the formal as well as informal manufacturing activities.

The participation of women in industry, although on the rise, appears to be concentrated in some selected manufacturing industries, particularly in food processing, textile and clothing, electrical machinery, printing and publication and chemical products. Among these industries, women's presence appears to be most pronounced in the textile and wearing apparel sectors. Many of these industries have developed in response to increasing external demand.

In recent years, geographical relocation of industries from developed to developing countries of the region has been a prime factor in facilitating the increased participation of women in industry while there have been many factors including firms to relocate their production abroad, technological breakthrough which allow the separation of complete production processes into segments requiring varying degrees of skills have played a critical role. As a consequence, demand for women in labour intensive work, inexpensive routine and intermediary operations, particularly in garment industries, electronics has shown a sharp increase. However, new technological innovations and advances in information technology have added a new dimension to the future course of demand for women workers in industry.

Now I would discuss the growth of garment industries and the role of women in earning foreign exchange through the industry.

According to Bangladesh Garment Manufacturing Export Association (BGMEA) the garment industries are the fourth largest employer in terms of employment and with the emergence of the garment industries, many women seek jobs and go for regular employment.

The growth of garment industries in the last two decade in Bangladesh has increased the earning of foreign exchange and created industrial job for women. The contribution of readymade garments in total export earning has been shown in Table-I.1. The garments women workers constitute a major part of the population of Bangladesh. Their labours are found useful in overall existing developmental activities. But the studies done so far have reflected only on their socio-economic status. There is hardly any sociological study on health and nutritional status of the garment women workers. The poor health and nutritional status of garment women workers would have detrimental affect on the future earning of foreign exchange and developmental activities of the country as a whole.

It is hoped that the present study will help formulate an adequate programme for the development of working women. It would stimulate the entrepreneurs to increase the facilities for the women employees so that their socio-economic and nutritional status may be improved in future.

Many Government and non-Governmental organizations have undertaken the development programmes for adolescent girls. A part of the adolescent girls are working in the garment industries. They are a helper group. But there is no study on their situation. They are a future generation of the working women of the country. It is also expected that the present study will help adopt proper action for the rising young working girls.

HYPOTHESIS AND OBJECTIVES

Hypothesis is one of the basic elements of the scientific research and methods. It states what we are looking for. The use of deductive method in formulating a hypothesis is a general rule. When it is verified it becomes a part of a future theoretical construction. The formulation of the hypothesis is a central step towards a good research.

The major hypothesis of the present study is that the employment of women workers in the garment industries is accompanied by an increase of their socio-economic and nutritional status.

This will provide a better measurement of the relation between the variables of income and social status, economic status and nutritional status.

This level of hypothesising is not only more abstract than the others. It is also as the most sophisticated and flexible mode of formulation. At this level, the number of variables which can be abstracted and studied is limited only by theory; and since theory grows by the process itself, the opportunities for new research are constantly being created.

OBJECTIVES

The following specific objectives are selected for the present study :

- a) The economic status of the garment women workers.
- b) The social status of the women workers in the garment industries.
- c) The nutritional status of the women workers in the garment industries.
- d) The relationship between socio-economic and nutritional status of garment women workers.

METHODS

The metropolitan city of Dhaka has been selected as the location for this study, because it continues to grow as the major industrial base in the country. It sets trends in the employment pattern. Industrial employment for women has not yet received much attention from the researchers.

The present study has focused on five garment industries from the different parts of the Dhaka city, such as, Mirpur, Mohakhali, Gulshan, Rayer Bazar and Sadarghat. Wage and facilities of the garment workers vary from location to location. An exhaustive list of the garment industries are collected from BGMEA. It is seen from the list that over 1100 garment industries are set up in the country. ⁴ It is observed from the available list of manufacturers supplied by BGMEA that the employment size varies between 100 and 700. The five garment industries are being selected by random sampling for this study. The large, medium and small size garment Industries are taken into consideration. And the women work force is being preferred during the selection of garment industries for this study.

The total number of respondents are 251 workers of the five Garment Industries, of which 59 male and 192 female. In the study group the sample size of male and female are 46 and 156 respectively. The control group consist of 13 male and 36 female workers. The control group is not selected by the age but they are considered according to their length of service, that is 0-3 months. Most of them are adolescent and girl child. It has been decided to take one-fifth of the total study sample from male and four-fifth of the total study sample from female workers of the selected Garment Industries. The number of respondents of control group is also determined in a similar proportion. It has also been decided that the workers would be randomly selected from each category available in the garment industries : Operator, Sewing Helper, Supervisor, Finishing Helper, Cutting Helper, Inspector, Quality Controller etc.

At least one worker has been interviewed by sex in each

occupational category. Workers interviewed are to be randomly picked up on the spot on the basis of their sex and employment categories.

Two sets of questionnaire are prepared, one for the sample and control group and the another for the management. The respondents are being interviewed during March - May 1994. The questionnaire are being filled up by in depth interview of the women and male workers.

The techniques of observation and mutual discussions have been used depending on the situation. About 25-30 minutes were required for each respondent to fill up the questionnaire. There were two check lists, one for the sample group and other for the control group. The check list has covered the information which is not possible to collect through structured questionnaires.

The nutritional status has been measured by using different anthropometric techniques. The heights and weights of the women workers are measured by Meter Scale and Bathroom Scale respectively. The mid-upper arm circumference (MUAC) is measured by MUAC tape. The researcher met the respondents belonging to both the study samples and the control group of workers and also the management. The authorities of one Garment Industry have refused to cooperate in interviewing the workers. Consequently the investigator has to except this industry from the study.

The Management of the garment industries are first contacted in conducting the study. The researcher had to discuss the purpose of the study and the problems faced by the workers with the management. Since the interview was conducted within the factory premises, special care was taken to ensure confidentiality of the interview and none of the management personnel were allowed to attend during interview.

The tabulation and analysis of data obtained through the interview are computerized.

SCOPE

The study is mainly concerned with an enquiry into the lives of garment women workers. The women who are employed in the garment sector received little attention of the researchers. Recently they are looking into the problems of rural women workers. The global market has tempted Bangladesh in recent years into propagating the idea of growth through industrialization (export oriented). A strategy has been evolved to integrate increasing numbers of women as cheap industrial labourers.

Though the garment women workers constitute a large part of industrial work force, the garment women workers who are working outside the Dhaka city such as Narayanganj, Tongi, Chittagong etc., are not included in the study. Since the study is geographically confined to Dhaka the other areas are out of its purview.

All garment workers of the Dhaka city would not be interviewed but the respondents selected from 5 (Five) garment industries of five locations are considered as the representative samples of all garments. The study pin-points the problems of garment workers, their socio-economic and nutritional status. But the problems relating to socio-economic and nutritional status of other industrial female workers could not be determined.

The status of garment women workers, particularly those who are widows, separated, divorced, destitute and migrant could not be discussed elaborately in the study. Due to time constraint the sample size of the study is small but representative. The questionnaires are quite exhaustive to collect more information but the health related other problems like morbidity data are not being collected. The impact of employment on the children of the garment women workers is not included in the study. The problems of management are not adequately discussed.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Since the present study primarily focuses on the socio-economic and nutritional status of garment women workers of the five Garment Industries of the Dhaka City, it is necessary to conceptualise the status of women. The term "status" as used here needs explanation. In sociology, status has been defined in different ways. According to a particular study women's status is "reflected in the authority and power she holds within the family and/ or prestige she commands from the other member of the family and community". Status is also conceptualized as a "Multifaced construct" where the term 'Status' denotes not only "the conjunction of rights and duties" as reflected in several roles of women, but also the "degree of her subordination in the home, her education, the number of sons she has, her role in decision making in family affairs and her self-perceived status in the home and in the community"⁵ Status is further defined as "a position in a social system or sub-system which is distinguishable from and at the same time related to other positions through its designated rights and obligations". Here, status denotes only position vis-a-vis others in terms of rights and obligations.⁶

The united Nations has defined the status of women as the "conjunction of positions a women occupies.... as a worker, student, wife, mother..., of the power and prestige attached to these positions and of the rights and duties she is expected to exercise"⁷. The UN further attempts to provide a 'culture free' definition of status. "To what extent do women, compared with man, have access to knowledge, to economic resources and to political power and what degree of personnel autonomy do these resources permit in the process of decision making and choice at crucial points in the life-style?"⁸ This definition is based on the assumption that low status derives from a lack of control over material of social resources and from a lack of choice in the unfolding of one's destiny.

This study follows the relatively better definition provided by the UN and discusses the status of women as compared with men in the fields of law, education, employment, marriage, fertility and mortality. However, there are some difficulties that need to be recognized when measuring the status of women which include among others :

1. Social indicators that could indicate the status of women, for example, the proportion of women receiving secondary education, could conceal important differences in the quality of the schooling;
2. A single measure cannot be sufficient to assess the status of women; rather a multidimensional variables are required to indicate the status of women;
3. Status is not a rigid concept as it changes over the time and space. Women occupy different positions in the social structure of a given society which is regarded as the central concept of sociology. Because they pass through a number of life cycle, and they varies from community to community which ascribes power, privilege and prestige.

However, some ideas regarding the differences in status between men and women can be obtained from an examination of social indicators like the level of formal education, enrolment and dropping out from schools and employment in services. A comparative examination of the rights given by law can be made possible even though the legal status ascribed to women may not coincide with the actual status enjoyed by them.

WORKER

The definition of "worker" as used in the "Employment of Labour Standing Order 1965" extends to : Any person including an apprentice employed in any shop, commercial establishment or

industrial establishment to do any skilled, unskilled, manual, technical, trade, promotional or clerical work for hire or reward, whether the terms of employment be expressed or implied.

This category of workers are included all those in regular wage employment working a full eight hour day in unskilled, semi-skilled or skilled jobs in the lowest employment range. The dividing line between these three categories is arbitrary and varies from job to job. Making of button holes is classified as semi-skilled while the cutting of material for shirts is seen as skilled labour since both processes are mechanized. There is no actual difference in the work itself. The gradation would appear to depend on other factors e.g. the degree of loss to the employer if the worker commits a mistake.

INCOME ACTIVITIES

The definition of income as stated in "The New Lexicon Webster's Dictionary" is that whatever is received as gain i.e. wages or salary received from business, dividends from investments etc. In the present study the term **income activities** is considered as wages of the garment workers obtained through their physical activities.

EMPLOYMENT

The term "**employment**" means the state of being employed, i.e. work done or to be done, by someone employed. This study has used the term employment in regard to the garment workers whether skilled or unskilled employed for the purpose of garment manufacturing.

SALARY AND WAGE

I have use the word "Salary" for the remuneration received by the managerial staff of the Garment Industries but the word "Wage" is meant here in case of the remuneration received by the people working in the Garment Industries belonging to the different categories of workers. it is interesting to say that the workers who receive wage in real term for there work. They prefer to use the word "Salary" instead of the word "Wage". For this reason I have used the word "Salary" in most cases for the workers.

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CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

It is already stated that women form an important part of the total population of Bangladesh. Their labour is being utilised in the developmental activities of the country. Female participation in productive sector is not only essential for the overall economic development of a society but also necessary for improving the standard of living of a family and at the same time providing opportunities to develop one's talent. It is obvious that in order to meet the needs of the family of a woman the question of her paid employment arises. Women employment is expanding day by day. But they are facing various problems in their socio-economic life and also nutritionally. It is assumed that their employment in garment industries increase their socio-economic and nutritional status as a result of income generation. But the researches which are now available only reflect on their socio-economic status. There is hardly any sociological study combining both socio-economic and nutritional status of the women workers of the Garment Industries in Bangladesh. However, the studies which I have consulted for my work have immensely helped me. This section is devoted to make a modest and critical review of these works.

Hameeda Hossain, Roushan Jahan and Salma Sobhan (1990) in their work entitled: "No Better Option ? Studied Industrial women workers in Bangladesh". They portrayed a general picture of the situation of women workers in the industrial sector of Bangladesh, Such as jute, Textile mills, Cotton Industries, Rice mills, Construction works etc. They especially examined some aspects of socio-economic situation of women workers, but not overall situation of garment-women workers. Who constitute of 85% of female workers in the country. They noted a great differentiation between male and female workers in regard to socio-economic status, through Landholding, Family income, Headship, Migration,

Appointment, Training, Salary, Benefits, Transport and awareness etc. They discussed the educational differences between male and female workers, which also refer to unequal and disadvantaged position of women. But they did not identify the impact of educational differences on monthly income of the female garment workers. They also stated the ratio of men in higher income category compared to that of women.

Women in general have low salaries and lower family income compared to their male colleagues. Female workers received salary which is not likely to meet even basic needs. We could not propose a profile of the salary of garment women workers which might reflect on their socio-economic and nutritional status.

They stated that a majority of the workers both male and female were appointed on an adhoc basis without any stringent selection procedure, They employ them as temporary workers though most of them were later made permanent. Particularly Garment Industries, rice mills and construction invariably appointed workers on a temporary and casual basis, without written document. They found out that in the garment industries where women form the majority of the work force, daily overtime of 3-4 hours is customary, enforcing work on weekly holidays to meet big orders. They reported about the irregularity in payment of overtime and rate is much lower. They observed the migration of workers are very high but they did not explain the impact of migration on socio-economic and nutritional situation of migrating women workers. They analyzed the housing conditions of the workers. They said the absence of amenities, specially drinking water and gas implies that these women have to spend additional time and energy in fetching water and fuel needed by the family. This situation of housing condition are a general phenomenon for the whole wage labourers but not exclusively for garment women workers. They also discussed the daily food items, breast feeding to the working mother's babies and the toilet facilities. They mentioned, on an average, the workers eat fish

once a week; very few of them can have meat, milk or eggs more than thrice a month. A majority of them have tea at best, once a day generally in the morning. A considerable number, specially men drink tea in the afternoon as well.

Quantity of food is not mentioned. As such we can't measure the nutritional status. They discussed all industrial worker's food items but not specially Garment women workers. Other Variables for measurement of nutritional status were not mentioned. They explained the importance of the breast milk to the working mother's babies.

They told the absence of creches is now creating a crucial problem in Bangladesh, where we find immigrant women workers, whose mothers have invariably breast fed their babies and who themselves were socialized to do so are now compelled to cease breast feeding their babies for lack of opportunity. But they did not mentioned how many mothers give up breast milk to their babies in the garment industries.

They also discussed the Trade Union and provisions of the labour laws. The garment industries were most poorly unionised in 1984 and showed a much lower percentage of unionization. They also said that the women of Bangladesh are taught to forgo or delay their need fulfillment in favour of others through deprivation or self denial in the allocation of food, clothes, health care and education. In the sense, they did not explain the impact of increasing income of women on decision making processes and the relationship of power and authority with the income in the families.

They did not mention anything about the implementation of the provisions of the labour laws. Most of their analysis were taken for granted to understand the whole situation but not with the statistical data or the particular situation and the provisions of the labour laws for garment women workers.

They mainly discussed the socio-economic situation of the industrial women workers. They identify the difference between male and female worker. They did not explain the impact of urban wage employment on the lives of women. We could not find out the effects of employment of income activities in the garment industries on socio-economic and nutritional status of female workers.

Rafiqul Huda Chowdhury and Nelufar Raihan Ahmed (1980) studied the "female status in Bangladesh". They explained the general condition of all women particularly to assess the socio-economic and legal status of women in Bangladesh and found the impact on future fertility in the country regarding the implication of their status. They did not explain the status of women workers particularly the status of Garment women workers. This study analyzed the improvement of socio-economic status of women and also linked with overall development in the country and reduction in fertility. They asked how one improve the socio-economic status of woman where women have the inferior status to men in the society. Education is one of the most important variables found to be consistently related to development of a country and it gives an opportunity to explore one's talent and employment opportunities for female outside the home. But about 84 percent women are illiterate, and lack of control over means of production the policies may be adopted to recruit women particularly in those sectors which are traditionally served by women. They reported that mortality of girls under 5 years of age exceeds than that of boys by on an average of 80 percent. Most of the adult female deaths occurred during child bearing and child birth in Bangladesh.

It was only during the neonatal period (i.e the first month after birth) that girls had a considerably higher chance of survival than boys. The risk of death during the first month after birth is significantly higher for boys than those for girls ($p < 0.5$, $t = 2.53$, $df=3$). The post neonatal rates for girls are significantly higher than those for boys.

This inferior status of women than man are due to the lack of education and absence of control over means of production. They suggested for establishing more girls schools and to change social attitudes to female education. The women must be brought out of their home to participate in production and economic activities. Once a women attains economic emancipation she will be able to achieve her other rights.

If women get equal education, employment opportunities, and the right to share in the means of production their socio-economic status must be improved. They mainly found out the cause of inferior status of women in Bangladesh and the impact of inferior status on their lifestyle, mortality, fertility and also development activities in the country. They did not look into the status of industrial working women as a whole and nor they explained the situation of those women who are employed in different sectors. The life style of working women and the impact of urban wage employment (particularly in the garment industries) on their socio-economic and nutritional status are not mentioned.

Salma Chawdhuri and Pratima Paul Majumdar (1991) studied the conditions of garment workers in Bangladesh. The main purpose of their study were to develop a conceptual framework about the nature, mobility and extent of insecurity of the garment workers specially the women workers. They also mentioned the male workers receive more salary than female because of skilled or highly skilled labour force which is often indicated by the management in this study. As a result, an interesting finding emerges from their study is that there exists a sex differential in wage rate. But the researchers said that the types of works are the group work in the garment industries, so it is difficult to identify the skilled or non skilled labour force among the workers while the pay of wages depend on skill and non-skill which is mentioned by the workers. Moreover we assume that their socio-economic structure should be determined by their wage of labour. Although the works of garment

industries are group work, nevertheless it can be easily measured whether skilled or non-skilled. One may measure physical productivity of the workers on an average basis in terms of completed pieces of garments per worker per unit of time and thus one can identify perfect or imperfect works of the workers in terms of completed pieces of garments per worker per unit of time.

It was interesting to observe that the impact of promotion on the wage and a few cases of discrimination regarding it among male and female workers shown by them. They also showed that the women received Tk. 2033 for three times promotion whereas the male received Tk. 2604. Here is also a gender difference in the wage because of the prospect for promotion. There is no relevant information depending on which aspects the promotion prospects are given. The owner's said that the rise of discrepancy is for the differences in the skill but the researchers did not identify the skill differences between the female and male workers. The weaving in the garment industries are a group work. So it is difficult to identify the skill, it is often mentioned by the researchers and it would be interesting to see the entrepreneurs have defined this phenomenon of efficiency differences. They indicate about the elementary aspects of quantity and regularity of the wage along with aspect of economic insecurity and most of the owners mentioned about the high proportion of the wage cost. But quantity of total wage showed from their study was 70 percent less than the wage cost mentioned by the owner of the garment industries. The researchers point out the fact that the owners often spend illegal money for other administrative activities. Thus a big amount is being spent from the workers money. The administrative structure and laws are responsible for this. There is no logic behind the fact that the owners pay from the workers money. We could not get evidence from their study that the workers received their legal wage if the owners do not pay this illegal money for completing the administrative activities. They also showed that the Government of Bangladesh had already established the Minimum Wage Board in 1984 for the workers of garment industries. But 20-40 percent workers

received underwage than that of the Wage Board Declaration in 1984 and the management of garment industries generally do not follow these rules. The researchers gave their opinion in regard to differentiation in the payment of overtime wage. But the overtime work depend only on their attitude and opinion of the workers. The workers should fulfil their basic need and for this reason the Wage Board attached greater importance to the garment industries to be supervised by the Government of Bangladesh. The workers do not receive the wage they need; so they do the overtime works for their maintenance. In these cases we also see the irregular payment of overtime works. The researchers also said that the previous study in this field showed the differences between female and male workers, but the researchers broadly discussed the differences and they tried to find out the aspects of wage indicators between the male and female workers. They tried to identify the achievement of this aspect by the female workers. They also showed only one exceptional case of quality controller. But the female workers are employed for longer service to each category of job than male workers even if they received less salary than the male. The job lengths are lower in the post of quality controller where women are employed than other categories of workers, which reflects different impact on wage of the workers. These researchers did not discuss these issues at all.

They explained the migration of workers, child labour, housing conditions, daily food items, illness etc. They mentioned the impact of duration of migration on acquire of efficiency of the workers, because of their easy adjustment with the management and environment of the industries. They slowly overcome their feelings about own villages and gradually accept the challenge of acquiring skill and efficiency. As a result they become expert, attentive to their works which are most important aspects to achieve the skill of the workers. Period of migration of the female workers are lower than the male workers. Nevertheless total job length of female workers are longer than the male workers. They also mentioned that

the inefficiency existed to the lower extent of migration and attachment with the work from longer job experience of the women workers. The researchers did not mention that the longer time of migration increases the efficiency of the workers. Evidences are not shown about the mental determination to the works which are most important aspects to acquire any skill.

They did not try to find out the level of skill that achieved by the male and female. It may be assumed that with lower duration of migration the workers may be skilled if the mental determination can co-exist with the aspects of skill development, But regarding this assumption they did not show relevant data in their studies. They also showed the intake of daily food items in order to justify the nutritional status. But they did not show other indicators for measurement of nutritional status. It is not clear whether the socio-economic and nutritional status due to employment of women workers in the garment industries has increased or decreased. This study showed the present status of garment women workers mainly socio-economic and also differences between male and female workers. They stated that on an average a worker takes 2 days leave in a month for sickness is not common among the lower income group (Helper group). This reflects that these workers are relatively more malnourished, women are still found to suffer more from illness. It is essential to understand their socio-economic and nutritional status.

Dr. Abdul Latif and Mr. M.S. Alam Mia (1990) studied the Female garment workers in Bangladesh. This study demonstrated physical productivity per working day of the workers. But they did not show the effect of concentration to work, schedule of working hours per shift/ week/ month/ year; rate of being absent; accident rates and problems of eye-sight, incidence of sickness, the impact of nature of job on their physical productivity. They stated that impact of employment has also been very significant. Employment strength in the industry is about 0.35 million, of which female work-force

account for about 90 percent, most of whom belong to the disadvantaged segment of the society. Employment has had a favourable impact upon the status of the women involved and their role in socio-economic spheres. Today they are more confident not only in their perception of family responsibility but also in sharing the decision-making processes in all household affairs. The exposure and learning capability have made them important members of their respective families. They did not show statistically the significant impact on their socio-economic and nutritional status. There was no control group for comparing the impact on their socio-economic and nutritional situation. They only explained present socio-economic status. They mentioned that their study is designed to fill up the existing knowledge gaps.

This study referred to some socio-economic and demographic characteristics which they discussed. These are :

- Provision of family planning and other family welfare services to the workers by management; and
- Issues relating to productivity of female garment workers.

They did not look into the nutritional status of the garment women workers. The above researchers maintain that the helper category of workers, irrespective of age, get very low wages, which is below the subsistence level though they are adolescent girls who constitute a part of the future generation in the country.

Safia Akhter and M.A.Mannan (1992) reported in their paper entitled "Nutrition Situation in Bangladesh Over the Last Twenty Years" that the consumption of nutrients were gradually declining from 1975-76 to 1981-82. They reported about cyclone and flood in this country in 1970 has caused a national disaster which destroyed crops and shelter. Besides, the war of liberation of 1971 again caused widespread misery and destitute. During 1974 famine crop failure

was very severe in the northern districts of Bangladesh. People had to eat unusual foods like arums (Kachu), green leaves and roots. They also observed that different disasters in the country has created a lot of problems to the people particularly problems of malnutrition. They maintained a cyclone in 1985 and massive flood in 1988 both of which damaged the crops and affected the marginal farmers and agricultural labourers. Another cyclone in 1991 also affected crops, livestock and other resources which has direct effect on socio-economic and nutritional status. From their reports it is observed that due to various reasons, such as flood, cyclone, tidalbore, drought etc. the people of this country are the worst sufferer for the last few decades. They reported important factors for malnutrition and also suggested some measures to be undertaken.

Md. Shah Alam (1990) studied child care practices among the mothers working in the garment industry. This study specifically found the common practices of working mothers in caring children, the type of problems in child care faced by the working mothers, the persons who commonly help the mothers in caring their children during their absence from home, the extent of help provided by husband in child care for working mothers and relationship of other variables such as monthly income, type of family, immunization etc. with child care practices.

This study showed that the higher educational level of the mother the less frequent was the incidence of diseases among children. Health status was better and more preventive measures were taken for children against diseases. Health status also showed a favourable trend with higher monthly income. There was no day care facility in any of the industries. So all mothers left their children at home.

The purposes of this study were different, although they showed a positive impact of higher monthly income on child health status of the garment working mothers. But they did not show the impact on

nutritional and socio-economic status of the working mother. An investigator in this study and in another article has discussed the women's time use and division of labour in households. He stated that as early as 1959-60 a survey was carried out which aimed to describe the daily routine of women in one factory (Srb, 1967 pp 232-233). The average daily work of a woman in the household (i.e. not at the factory) was very time consuming (5-5.5 hours, including one hour for shopping and 2-3 hours for the preparation of meals, the rest was devoted to other works such as washing, sewing and looking after children). The time for rest of the women workers depend on the number of their children. On an average women without children rested 7.2 hours with one child 6.6 hours and with two or more children 6.2 hours.

The researcher has also observed that the income is not sufficient to maintain the family and to take proper care of the children, specially the care of women who are maintaining their families alone. A large proportion of women workers are recruited from distressed families. This researcher has seen in his study that more than 34% of women are either divorced or widow and are the single parent of the children. This finding can be compared with the American women where 53% of the women in paid employment in the 1975 were from unbroken families whereas others were single, separated or widows.

When this separated or widow women are being employed in the garment industries, what is the impact on their socio-economic and nutritional status, their life style and changing pattern of their lives ? It is important to know from development perspectives.

Tucker, K. et al (1988) Studied the Maternal employment and child nutrition in Panama. This study showed that the maternal employment has been seem to have distorting effects on child nutrition vis-a-vis increased income and decreased time available for house-hold work.

After a series of studies Md. Shah Alam has come to a conclusion that maternal employment has a positive impact on child nutrition.

B.M. Popkin (1980) studied the aspects of time allocation of the mothers and their child nutrition. He showed a negative relationship between maternal employment and weight of the children in terms of age. His study areas were Laguna and Philippines.

On the other hand, S. Kumar (1978) studied the role of the household economy in child nutrition of low income group. His study area was Kerala, India. R.B. Tripp (1981) studied the farmers and traders of northern Ghana in order to understand their nutritional status and have shown a positive relation. They suggested that the income has a direct relation to the nutrition of the children. Others have emphasized the importance of women's income in relation to their decision making power within the family.

J. Akin (1981) analyzed the determinants of breast feeding in Sri Lanka. He showed that women market work was detrimental for breast feeding of infants in Sri Lanka.

Data from rural areas of Laguna province, Philippines, reported by Gonzalo and Evanson (1978) and Gonzalo (1976) also indicated a negative effect of mothers market activities on the overall nutritional status of household.

From the above discussion it is clear that most the researchers found a general situation of women workers and differences between male and female in various categories of labourers. Some of them explained the effect of mother's work on child care, or on child nutrition, but they did not focus on the impact of mothers nutritional status. It is not clear the impact of urban wage earning employment on the lives of women. That is, they did not observe the effects on socio-economic and nutritional status due to increasing employment opportunities of female workers in the garment industries.

When a large number of women from traditional peasant families joined the labour force in the garment industries in which they had works but receive meager wage, their conditions of work remained unsafe and unhealthy. Naturally they might often face fatal accident's, suffer from ill health and malnutrition. The researchers did not make any serious attempt to analyse the health and nutritional status of women workers in the garment industries which might reflect on our future trend of development.

It is obvious that the above mentioned studies have focused on the existing socio-economic conditions of women work in the industrial and service sector. There are no mention of the increasing or reducing the status of the women workers due to opportunities of employment in the garment industries. What is its impact on lifestyle of the garment women workers ? What is the impact on nutritional status of the Garment women workers? These are some important aspects in the present context of development efforts of the country.

A woman's participation in market activities also might have a positive effect on their socio-economic and nutritional status. Outside employment is an alternative attraction to them, such as companionship, recreation, stimulation, creative ability, social and economic rewards, which might help raise their nutritional status. The income activities of women in the market economy may enable them to increase their socio-economic status and may also increase the availability of potential food in the family. This may contribute to the better nutritional status of women which is expected to be investigated in the present study.

On the basis of the above discussions the following major hypothesis of the present studies is tested that the employment of women workers in the garment industries is accompanied by an increase of their socio-economic and nutritional status.

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CHAPTER - III

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF WOMEN'S WORKS IN BANGLADESH

As early as in the 16th century in the west the industrial system of production ushered in a new era of human society. The European industrial process began to draw upon the cheap labour of women and children for productive activities. One can assume that the production system by itself was instrumental in ensuring women's contribution to the family economy or in changing their status. Even in the pre-industrial European economy women's functions were crucial for domestic production. A division of labour was organised on the basis of sex and age. The family unit in the west began to break under pressure of the feudal enclosure system. Children and young girls were sent away from home for reducing the level of consumption as well as for increasing the wage supplementary to the family income. The earnings of the household determined the number of family members who could be employed in domestic production and those who needed to seek wage-earning work outside the family.

The Industrial Revolution induced women into factory production; but the nature of sectoral employment, type of work, working pattern did not necessarily bring about a dramatic shift in their occupational stereotype. In England by 1852, women and girls constituted over half of those employed in manufacturing, and one fifth of the total non-agricultural work force of the country.¹ But not all industries opened their doors of female employment. They were concentrated in their main sectors : domestic service, textiles and collieries. By 1911, 35% of women workers were domestic servants, 19.5% were textile workers and 15.6% were in dress-making. In the last category many worked in small garment sweatshops; the growing service sector also absorbed a large number of women. In France in 1896, 59% of the female labour force was employed outside agriculture, of this 19% was in domestic service, 26% in garments and 14% in textiles.⁽²⁾

Within the industries a segregation of occupations prevailed. In England at the beginning of the nineteenth century women and girls employed in the coal mines were used to push the curves along a narrow underground passage. In textiles women were employed in preliminary processes in spinning and weaving departments.

Paternalistic controls were maintained even at the work place to the mutual advantage of both the employer and the girl's family. In some cases, her wages were remitted directly to the latter; in others the employer took the responsibility of deducting part of the wages towards her dowry.

Yet there was little immediate gain for the young, single, working girl in a Dickensian world where work was hard, conditions poor and she was often exposed to harassment. Access to cheap resources from colonies and women's labour paved the way for prosperous European Empires but it did not seek to emancipate women. When large numbers of young women from traditional peasant families joined the labour force they found the way to wage labour leading to hard work and low returns. Their conditions of work remained unsafe and unhealthy. Work continued for 10/12 hours in mining and upto 14 hours in textiles. They were exposed to fatal accidents, ill health and malnutrition. ⁽³⁾

WOMEN'S WORKS IN PRE-BRITISH INDIA

In pre-industrial manufacture where goods were produced within the family unit, women performed the more elementary functions. Although this included a wide range of products for local rural exchange of domestic use, such as pottery, weaving, shell work, smithy, incense making etc. We can take two examples of commercial production to identify the level of gender based functional divisions. Amongst the Bangi Hindu 'Kumar' caste of potters, differentiation existed between the basic work with clay and work with fire. Women kneaded the clay and shaped vessels manually. While men worked on the primitive wheel and fired the kiln. Whether

this was due to a caste bias is not certain but several assumptions can be made. It could be attributed to the separation of male-female sphere of work within and outside the house; the act of firing involved a collective function whereas women worked individually; taboos relating to purity of fire might have provided a religious basis for an earlier division of labour but this has yet to be substantiated. When coarse cloth for local exchange was made by the Hindu 'jugi' caste of weavers, the primary division of work was between work on the loom and pre-weaving processes. But the jugi women were also known to prepare the warp and work on the loom.

Particular qualities of cloth were made by specific castes in a given region. Thus those who made Dhaka malmals were a different caste from those who wove gurrahs in Dinajpur.⁽⁴⁾ In some castes the women did various forms of embroidery, such as Kashida Chikan and Zardose.⁽⁵⁾

Under the system of money economy, women's functions acquired an economic value. The relatively lower wages received by women spinners was explained by their lower productivity and their irregular hours of work. It was found that the optimum hours for spinning were in the early morning or in the evening, spinning in those days was even known as a leisure time activity. Although the household formed a unit of production the women's output of yarn was not consumed only by the family loom. Evidences from the eighteenth century records maintained by the officials of the East India Company suggest that women spinners were involved in a variety of independent market transactions. Yet, women functioned

under certain control. At one level occupational segmentation prescribed by caste rules restricted their functions to pre-weaving processes; at another specialization of techniques and division of labour, women's output was subjected to mercantile controls exercised by traders. In distributing advances and raw cotton

procured from merchants to spinners, paikars functioned through existing village and family hierarchies to gain access to women's output. When the export trade was at its height in the early eighteenth century, women spinners were in great demand. In the famine of 1770 high female mortality was reported to have reduced the number of spinners and contributed to an increase in the price of yarn. ⁽⁶⁾

A major change in the pattern of trade further devalued women's role. The loss of international markets and the diversion of mercantile capital reduced the demand for their specialized work.

WOMEN'S WORKS IN BRITISH INDIA

An infusion of commercial capital through the trade of European companies until the early nineteenth century, had provided a major impetus for women's involvement in manufacture : The 1881 census records the number of spinners at 200,000. In 1901 we find 1,35,000 women working in the silk industry, spinning yarn and rearing cocoons. ⁽⁷⁾

As industrialization increased opening up of more employment opportunities in the early part of the twentieth century, there was, in fact, a decline in women's participation rates. It has been calculated that the proportion of economically active women to the total female population fell from 34% in 1901 to 24% in 1931, and that their corresponding proportion to total labour force fell from 33.8% to 29.3%. ⁽⁸⁾

The women's proportion declined, although there was a small increase in their absolute numbers until 1921. By 1931, whereas men's labour force declined from 34,000 to 24,000 women's labour force declined from 13,000 to 9,000. In jute they faced a greater decline. In 1901 there were 36,000 women in the labour force, which went up to 48,000 in 1921, and that fell to 32,000 by 1931. It is interesting to note that even though their absolute numbers rose,

the gender ratio become more unequal particularly between 1921 and 1931. This is true even in the exceptional area of tea production, where there was a labour market increased from 76,000 in 1901 to 1,14,000 in 1931, the ratio between men and women workers was reduced.

In 1951 out of the total female civilian labour force, 81.68% were in the agricultural labour force and 18.18% were in the non-agricultural labour force; by 1961 their corresponding involvement had been reduced to 128% in the non agricultural labour force. Nevertheless their work made a crucial contribution to the family economy. Even then living conditions did not always ensure their security. ⁽⁹⁾

The emphasis on family recruitment as in the case of tea leaf pickers and Colliery workers gave the employers an advantage not only to negotiate for a family wage but to ensure discipline through the family hierarchy. Families were recruited as a Unit and both women and children were expected to work on the estate which employed the head of the household. A woman's status as an independent worker remained insecure because of her social dependency upon the patriarchal family head. In the tea estates women were recruited in quite a large number to make their work indispensable to the said industry. Since, however, the management followed a deliberate policy of recruiting non-local Oriya labour, their cultural isolation further humiliated them. Although the introduction of labour laws for tea workers introduced some norms the conditions of work still approximated to those of bonded labour. This pattern of employment ensured that patriarchal controls enforced by social isolation would maintain a docile labour force. Women workers remained marginal to the emerging labour movement not only because of their numbers but because of the nature of their participation and the perception of their roles.

In a segmented labour market, they were seen as performing the preliminary unskilled jobs; further a seasonal demand determined flexibility of women's labour, as in ginning where an eight month season demanded hard work for seventeen hours a day so that women even ate and breastfed their children at the machine, but perforator remained idle for the rest of the year.⁽¹⁰⁾ Unequal wages for equal work was another indicator that women were not able to assert themselves in the labour market.

Different definitions of women's work in the two census periods (Census of India, 1881, Bengal, Vol, and Census of India 1901, Bengal, Vol-5) only partially explain the trend in women's work. While an increased demand for tea had a positive impact on female labour participation rate, this was not the case in jute. Therefore, one can assume that a traditional segregation of the labour market persisted. Even the change in the mode of production in spinning was not compensated for by their entry to the loom. When women's occupations were closed either due to technological change or commercial diversion they were pushed into home-based work, domestic service or even unemployment. Alternatively, more competitive work in other sectors was not an option provided by the investment strategy.

WOMEN'S WORKS IN BANGLADESH

It is of course, relatively easier to distinguish women's role between traditional and modern economies. A women's household work (cooking, rearing children, washing, plastering mud walls etc.) has been attributed to a 'use' value, which contributes to the

maintenance of the family. Since it has no exchange value, such work remains uncounted within the household. Homestead production, processing paddy, growing vegetables, raising cattle or poultry, collecting fodder, water or fuel etc. undertaken for consumption and/or for the market makes her labour crucial for subsistence whether she is self-employed or working as unpaid family labour.

But the nature of this work as defined by different concepts such as **Abasar Samayer Kaj** (Leisure time work). Supplementary work, family occupation, seasonal employment, etc. attributes to a low value in terms of its apparently subsidiary contribution to the family income. The absence of direct cash return also reduces its value.

A gradual devaluation of hand made manufactures in the market also account for the minimization of the contribution of women's work. Part of women's surplus labour has been diverted to the increasing demand in agricultural work which has risen from 32.2% to 55.9%. ⁽¹¹⁾ Their contribution in selective areas of work, such as, rice husking remained disproportionately very high, the female-male ratio being 13.1. In the modern urban sector few opportunities have been opened up for women, though they were still mainly involved in the domestic duties. Bangladesh presents herself as a second example for the allocation of capitalist investment and the use of cheap female labour force in the third world for the creation of free trade zones. In order to understand the changes in the global economy for the last two decades which led to such a dramatic reallocation of consumer industry might suggest the pace of industrialization taking place in Bangladesh and its implications for the female labour force. In the last two decades, investment in garments, textiles, toys, footwear, pharmaceutical, wigs, micro-chips, plastic goods has increased substantially due to the availability of cheap labour force and other benefits across the third world. In Latin American countries such as, Brazil and Mexico have the largest export oriented industrial base for the reasons stated above. Debt repayment and employment were seen as an exchange of advantage to justify the penetration of foreign capital into free trade zones or free processing zones. Hong Kong, Singapore, Taiwan and South Korea are the first four Asian countries to set up big shops for the disposal of export industrial goods. The flow of international capital progressively to the countries like Malaysia, india, Pakistan and Srilanka

resulted into the comparative advantage derived by each country.⁽¹²⁾ Even the People's Republic of China joined this race. Bangladesh is only the latest entrant into the export servicing club, where garments, shrimp (included under agriculture) have been established and the feasibility of leather industry is now under active consideration. The creation of job opportunities for the women workers in the garment industries has brought about a radical change in the overall global reallocation of capital investment. The increase in total value of world trade in clothings has grown from \$12.4 billion in 1973 to \$61.8 billion in 1986, indicating the rate of growth of 13% per year.⁽¹³⁾ This has contributed to the expansion of employment and its diversification. In the US and other OECD countries the chief characteristic of the labour force was that a high proportion were women's poor, black and migrants. They could be easily piped into runaway shops, which were not subjected to industrial regulation. The price compulsion has led to a dramatic change in the geographical location of production. As a result, by 1986 the share of exports increased to 46% from developed market economies, 41% from developing countries, and 13% from centrally planned economies. The clothing industry has moved towards a complex but highly flexible system, having large distribution linkage to small and medium sized firms through share market or direct capital investment in the third world countries. The comparative advantage of cheap labour and unregulated production have induced newer entrants such as Bangladesh and Srilanka in the lower range market, while the more advanced NIC's enter the upstream market or move into a different sector.

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CHAPTER : IV
STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION OF THE GARMENT
INDUSTRIES

The management of the selected Garment Industries are intensively interviewed about the organogram of workers, its establishment, size of the Industries and the educational qualifications of the owners, constraints of production, export and import, and the problems created by the workers. The Garment Industry of Rayer Bazar was established in 1984 having 170 male and 825 female workers. The size of this industry is 30000 square feet. The Garment Industry of Sadarghat was founded in 1985, its size is 55000 Sq.feet, and male workers 600 and female workers 900. The garment industry of Mirpur come into existence in 1986, having 9000 Sq.feet and 40 male and 110 female workers, while the Garment Industry of Gulshan established in 1991 have 15000 Sq.feet area and 120 male and 430 female workers. The most recently established (1992) Garment Industry of Mohakhali occupies 14000 Sq.feet and 56 male and 207 female workers are employed there

Table : IV.1
Structure of Industries

Location	Year of Establish- ment	Size (Sq. ft.)	No. of Labourers			Educational Level of the Owners
			Male	Fem.	Tol.	
Rayer Bazar	1984	30000	170	825	995	Master Degree
Sadarghat	1985	55000	600	900	1500	Graduate
Mirpur	1986	9000	40	110	150	Master Degree
Gulshan	1991	15000	120	430	550	Master Degree
Mohakhali	1992	14000	56	207	263	Master Degree
Average	1984-92	24600	197	494	691	Graduate Master Degree

It has been revealed in the Table IV-1 that the Garments Industries were established in the Metropolitan City of Dhaka during the period of 1984-92 and the average size of the Garments

is about 24600 Sq.ft. The employment size of the workers is 691 in which male 197 and female 494. It is also observed that 71% workers are female and 29% are male in the Garment Industries, whereas the BGMEA Report suggests the proportion of female workers are 85% on average. However, the figures shown in Table IV.1 is quite consistent with the report of BIDS.

RECRUITMENT PROCEDURE OF THE WORKERS OF THE GARMENT INDUSTRIES

Among the Garment Industries studied, the management of two Garment Industries have stated that they are employing their workers by identity card and on the basis of monthly salary, and they did not issue any appointment letter to the workers. The management of three other Garment Industries have clearly stated that they have issued appointment letters to the workers but it is interesting to notice in the study that 92 percent of the workers have no appointment letters and only 7.6 percent informed the researcher that they have got their appointment letters.

Table: IV.2
Recruitment Status Through Appointment Letters by Gender.

Status of appointment letter	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Yes.....	3	1.5%	13	6.4%	1	2.0%	2	4.1%	19	7.6%
No.....	43	21.3%	143	70.8%	12	24.5%	33	67.3%	231	92.0%
No response.....	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	1	.4%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

It is observed that the Garment Industries which are under the present study were established according to the plan. All these Garment Industries except one have adequate light and ventilation. But physical condition and safety measures in most of the garment industries are not adequate. Dining rooms, day care centre, canteen and sick room do not exist in these garments. There is only one entrance in each garment

industries for which the workers have to face difficulties during start, lunch and closing time of the industries. The work space particularly in the sewing section is very hot. During interview of the workers none were seen with apron and masks, although these are legal requirements. The toilet facilities are not at all adequate. Two industries were comparatively neat and clean and have better sanitation facilities than the others.

The management of the Garment Industries is an important aspect of the Garment Industries. The chairman of the Garment Industries is found to be the owner of the industry. All the Garment Industries studied by me are in the private sector. Some of them are joint venture. There is an administrative hierarchy in the industries. The Managing Director/ Director is responsible for matters relating to export, import, sub- contract etc. Besides the Production Manager, there is a Manager who are particularly responsible for production. They directly deal with the workers. All materials, such as fabric, thread, button, needle, machine and parts of machine are imported from abroad. Only sewing works are done in the Garment Industries. As a result, they are playing the role of a tailor. Our neighboring countries, such as India, Pakistan, Singapore, Korea, Thailand etc. are earning more foreign currency than our country because they themselves produce fabric, button, needle, thread and machinery parts in their own country.

During my interview with the management I came to know that the trade union of workers is not very much concerned with the facilities of the workers; rather the workers and their Unions are utilized by the political parties. The illiteracy of workers, load shedding, frequent hartals, demonstrations, changes of political situation etc. greatly hampered the production. Besides the decrease of production, many orders were cancelled due to lengthy administrative procedure, clearance from different tiers, such as banking, customs, port clearing and forwarding etc. which are frequently creating many problems. Consequently the Garment Industries in particular and the country in general are deprived of foreign currency for non-supply of products in due time.

CHAPTER :V
PROFILE OF THE GARMENT WORKERS

In order to comprehend the dimension of the socio-economic and nutritional status of the women workers in the Garment Industries of Bangladesh along with their conspicuous participation in wage employment and its implications, it is essential to develop a characteristic profile of workers emphasizing those aspects which are likely to determine the pattern of their entry and continuance in urban wage employment , particularly in the Garment Industry.

CHARACTERISTICS OF WORKERS BY GENDER

As indicated in Table V.1 the proportion of male and female in my study and control group were 23.5% and 76.5% respectively. The sample size of female and male workers under the present study is 77.2% and 22.8% reflectively and the sample size of female and male workers under control group is 73.5% and 26.5%.

Table V.1
Characteristics of Garment Workers by Gender

Sex of Respondents	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Male.....	46	22.8%	0	.0%	13	26.5%	0	.0%	59	23.5%
Female.....	0	.0%	156	77.2%	0	.0%	36	73.5%	192	76.5%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

It is observed that the percentage of female workers in each Garment Industry is higher than that of the male workers. It is necessary to draw a profile of the women workers in the productive field in comparison to male. In a particular Garment Industry it was found that all Operators and Helpers are female and no male person is being employed in these posts in that industry.

DISTRIBUTION OF AGE

The age distribution of female and male workers interviewed by me in the study shows an interesting variation in the pattern of concentration by gender in different age groups. The Table V.2 demonstrates that the largest female age group was 15-19 years in the study sample (31.8%), whereas largest female age group of 10-14 years was in control group (44.9%). Here the age group of 10-14 years are the highest because of the entry of new comers (within 0-3 months) into garment industries. Whenever one seeks for job she should have to start her work as helper. When she acquired skill after 2-3 years then she was promoted.

Table : V.2
Distribution of Age by Gender of the Respondents

Age of Respondents	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
<9.....	0	.0%	3	1.5%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	4	1.6%
10-14.....	7	3.5%	29	14.4%	8	16.3%	22	44.9%	66	26.4%
15-19.....	12	6.0%	64	31.8%	2	4.1%	6	12.2%	84	33.6%
20-24.....	14	7.0%	30	14.9%	3	6.1%	4	8.2%	51	20.4%
25-29.....	11	5.5%	15	7.5%	0	.0%	3	6.1%	29	11.6%
30-34.....	0	.0%	11	5.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	11	4.4%
35-39.....	1	.5%	3	1.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	4	1.6%
40-44.....	0	.0%	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.4%
TOTAL.....	45	22.4%	156	77.6%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	250	100%

In the study group, 14.9% female workers having 20-24 years of age and 14.4% female workers of the same group having 10-14 years of age constitute the successive largest category of female workers. On the other hand, 12.2% female of the control group workers have their ages between 15-19 years and 8.2% female of the same group have ages between 20-24 years. And they are the successive largest workers in control group. In the control group, 16.3% male whose age was between 10-14 years is the highest percentage of all male in both the study and control groups. Besides 7.0% and 6.0% male in the study group having age between 20-24 years and 15-19 years respectively are the highest percentage of male workers in the study samples.

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND OF THE GARMENT WORKERS

The educational level of the garment workers is one of the important indicators necessary to understand their socio-economic and nutritional

status. The educational background of the garment workers is, therefore, investigated. In the Table V.3 out of the total respondents, 64.5% are found to be literate and 35.5% illiterate i.e. can sign only or have no education. There exist a significant difference between the male and female workers regarding educational level. Among the respondents only 4.4% male workers are illiterate, while for female it is 31%. Though education is considered as one of the important indicators for social status, it reveals in the study that a lot of illiterate women are working in the Garment Industries. About 14% male workers had education beyond primary level while it is 18% for female. It is an interesting finding that the enrolment of female in schools beyond primary level of education has increased perhaps due to free female education introduced upto class VIII by the Government.

Table : V.3
Levels of Educational Background of Garment Workers by Gender

Educational qualification of workers	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
No education.....	1	.5%	12	5.9%	2	4.1%	9	18.4%	24	9.6%
Can sign only.....	6	3.0%	44	21.8%	2	4.1%	13	26.5%	65	25.9%
Primary level.....	11	5.4%	59	29.2%	3	6.1%	10	20.4%	83	33.1%
Secondary level.....	12	5.9%	29	14.4%	2	4.1%	4	8.2%	47	18.7%
S.S.C.....	7	3.5%	9	4.5%	4	8.2%	0	.0%	20	8.0%
H.S.C & Above.....	8	4.0%	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	9	3.6%
No response.....	1	.5%	2	1.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	3	1.2%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

The study shows that among the garment workers 14.4% female workers have secondary level of education which is higher than that of their male counterpart (only 5.9%). But 4.5% female have passed the S.S.C examination as compared to 3.5% male workers of the study group. In the control group, 8.2% female and 4.1% male have

secondary level of education while only 8.2% male have passed the S.S.C examination. However, it is quite evident that about two third of the workers have education which might have impact on their socio-economic and nutritional status.

MARITAL STATUS

The marital status of the garment workers is considered as an important matter to the researchers. In this study it was found that highest percentage of female respondents are unmarried in comparison to the male workers of both the study and control groups. The Table V.4 demonstrates that 37.6% female and 53.1% female of study and control group respectively are unmarried, while 17.8% and 26.5% male of the respective groups are unmarried. Again 29.2% female and 14.3% female of the study and the control group respectively are married. Only 5% male of the study group is married. It is interesting to note that 4.1% of women workers are either separated or abandoned in the control group and

Table : V.4
Marital Status of Garment Workers by Gender

Marital Status	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Married.....	10	5.0%	59	29.2%	0	.0%	7	14.3%	76	30.3%
Un-married.....	36	17.8%	76	37.6%	13	26.5%	26	53.1%	151	60.2%
Widow.....	0	.0%	6	3.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	7	2.8%
Divorced.....	0	.0%	3	1.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	3	1.2%
Separated/Abandoned.	0	.0%	12	5.9%	0	.0%	2	4.1%	14	5.6%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

5.9% women of the study group are separated or abandoned. It may be mentioned here that the number of separated or abandoned women is increasing day by day and these women are coming to the city of Dhaka for search of a job in order to survive.

The unmarried women workers are higher in both study and control group than married women. The reason behind might be the fact that the management prefer to recruit unmarried women for their greater

concentration to work and for larger and speedier production. Besides these there may be other reasons, such as maternity leave and day-care facilities of married women workers.

PREVIOUS PROFESSIONS

It is revealed in the Table V.5 that the previous profession of 25.7% female workers of study sample was education and 30.7% was household activities. On the other hand, the education was the previous occupation of 12.2% female workers and household activities was the occupation of 26.5% female workers in the control group. The similar trend of joining garment works has been observed in both the study and control group. Besides, in the study group 9.9% male worker's previous occupation was education while it was 8.2% male workers in the control group. It is also revealed in the present study that similar trends exist for both male and female workers for joining the Garment Industries. About 14.0% of female workers of the study group were unemployed before the garment job corresponding to 16.3% female from the control group. Similarly 2.5% of male workers were unemployed in the study group corresponding to 6.1% of the control group.

Table : V.5
Previous Profession of the Garment Workers by Gender

Previous Occupation	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Sewing/Tailoring....	2	1.0%	5	2.5%	1	2.0%	0	.0%	8	3.2%
Servant.....	2	1.0%	4	2.0%	0	.0%	2	4.1%	8	3.2%
Labour.....	1	.5%	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	2	.8%
Housekeeping.....	2	1.0%	62	30.7%	0	.0%	13	26.5%	77	30.7%
Education.....	20	9.9%	52	25.7%	4	8.2%	6	12.2%	82	32.7%
Business.....	6	3.0%	0	.0%	3	6.1%	1	2.0%	10	4.0%
Unemployed.....	5	2.5%	28	13.9%	3	6.1%	8	16.3%	44	17.5%
Others.....	5	2.5%	1	.5%	1	2.0%	2	4.1%	9	3.6%
Agriculture.....	2	1.0%	3	1.5%	1	2.0%	1	2.0%	7	2.8%
No response.....	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	3	6.1%	4	1.6%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

It was assumed that the maid servants are not available for household activities in the cities due to the expansion of Garment Industries. But the present research has shown that only 2% female workers from the study and 4.1% female workers from the control groups have previous occupation as maid servant. This is not a significant figure. Not only that, the percentage of changing occupation from agricultural work to Garment Industry (2.8%) is also not very large.

PATTERN OF INTERNAL MIGRATION

Table V.6 refers to the pattern of internal migration in Bangladesh. The highest rate of internal migration has been recorded in the district of Barisal i.e. 17.8% female and 3.5% male workers of study group and 18.4% female and 8.2% male workers of the control group have come to the city of Dhaka from Barisal. The second highest rate of migration was found from Faridpur district, i.e. 10.4 and 14.3 percent female workers in the study and control groups respectively migrated to Dhaka. Among the male workers only 3% was found in the study sample and none in the control group, who migrated from Faridpur to Dhaka.

The third highest rate of migration was noticed in the district of Munshigonj (6%) and Comilla (6%). This was followed by the districts of Patuakhali (4.8%) and Narshingdi (4.8%). The present study reveals the fact that the rate of female migration is higher than their male counterparts in all these districts.

One study shows the proportion of female workers migrating to the city during 1970-74 was higher (14%) than the corresponding proportion of male workers (3%). Another study on the slum dwellers in Dhaka city had suggested that such a high female migration was due to the sudden shortage of food faced by a large number of rural women during the period of severe economic crisis in the early seventies. (1)

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1. Hameeda Hossain, Roushan Jahan and Salma Sobhan, (1990), No Better Option ? Industrial Women Workers in Bangladesh, University Press Ltd., Dhaka; P.57.

Table : V.6
Internal Migration of the Garment Workers by Gender

District of origin	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Dhaka.....	2	1.0%	9	4.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	11	4.4%
Munshigonj.....	2	1.0%	11	5.4%	0	.0%	2	4.1%	15	6.0%
Manikgonj.....	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.4%
Narayangonj.....	1	.5%	2	1.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	3	1.2%
Gazipur.....	1	.5%	1	.5%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	3	1.2%
Narsingdi.....	2	1.0%	8	4.0%	1	2.0%	1	2.0%	12	4.8%
Faridpur.....	6	3.0%	21	10.4%	0	.0%	7	14.3%	34	13.5%
Gopalganj.....	0	.0%	4	2.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	4	1.6%
Madaripur.....	4	2.0%	2	1.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	7	2.8%
Rajbari.....	1	.5%	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	2	.8%
Sariatpur.....	1	.5%	3	1.5%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	5	2.0%
Mymensingh.....	1	.5%	5	2.5%	1	2.0%	1	2.0%	8	3.2%
Kishoregonj.....	0	.0%	8	4.0%	1	2.0%	0	.0%	9	3.6%
Jamalpur.....	0	.0%	2	1.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	3	1.2%
Sherpur.....	0	.0%	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.4%
Tangail.....	1	.5%	6	3.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	8	3.2%
Chittagong.....	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	1	.4%
Noakhali.....	3	1.5%	3	1.5%	1	2.0%	1	2.0%	8	3.2%
Comilla.....	2	1.0%	11	5.4%	0	.0%	2	4.1%	15	6.0%
Chandpur.....	2	1.0%	1	.5%	1	2.0%	1	2.0%	5	2.0%
Sylhet.....	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.4%
Rajshahi.....	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	1	.4%
Nowgaon.....	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	0	.0%	1	.4%
Rangpur.....	1	.5%	2	1.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	3	1.2%
Gaibandha.....	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.4%
Bogra.....	0	.0%	2	1.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	3	1.2%
Pabna.....	0	.0%	2	1.0%	0	.0%	2	4.1%	4	1.6%
Bagerhat.....	0	.0%	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.4%
Jessore.....	0	.0%	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.4%
Jhinaidah.....	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	0	.0%	1	.4%
Kushtia.....	1	.5%	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	2	.8%
Chuadanga.....	0	.0%	1	.5%	1	2.0%	0	.0%	2	.8%
Barisal.....	7	3.5%	36	17.8%	4	8.2%	9	18.4%	56	22.3%
Bhola.....	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	1	.4%
Pirojpur.....	2	1.0%	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	3	1.2%
Patuakhali.....	3	1.5%	7	3.5%	1	2.0%	1	2.0%	12	4.8%
Barguna.....	0	.0%	3	1.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	3	1.2%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

DURATION OF INTERNAL MIGRATION

Table V.7 shows that the highest percentage of internal migration of (58.7%) has been recorded during the last Six years. i.e. from

Table: V.7
Duration of Living of the Garment Workers in Dhaka City by Gender

Duration of living in Dhaka (Years)	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
<1.....	2	1.1%	6	3.2%	8	16.7%	16	33.3%	32	13.5%
1-3.....	10	5.3%	30	15.9%	4	8.3%	6	12.5%	50	21.1%
4-6.....	9	4.8%	45	23.8%	1	2.1%	2	4.2%	57	24.1%
7-9.....	4	2.1%	18	9.5%	0	.0%	3	6.3%	25	10.5%
10-12.....	4	2.1%	12	6.3%	0	.0%	4	8.3%	20	8.4%
13-15.....	5	2.6%	13	6.9%	0	.0%	3	6.3%	21	8.9%
>15.....	7	3.7%	24	12.7%	0	.0%	1	2.1%	32	13.5%
TOTAL.....	41	21.7%	148	78.3%	13	27.1%	35	72.9%	237	100%

1988 to 1994 and 13.5% migration rate was found during the period of 15 years and above i.e. before 1979. About 17.3% migration took place during the last 10 to 15 years i.e. from 1979 to 1984. Besides, 10.5% migration occurred during the last 7 to 9 years i.e. 1985 to 1987.

REASONS OF MIGRATION

It has been noticed in the Table V.8 that the highest percentage of the respondents (38.9%) have said that they have come to Dhaka "for any type of work". The highest percentage of female (32.6%) of study group stated the reason of their migration is job in garments, while highest percentage of female (30.6%) of control group stated that they have come to Dhaka for any type of work. The male and female migration of control group for any type of job is higher than the male and female migration of the study group. In response to the question of coming to Dhaka, 32.6% female and 3.2% male of the study group and 26.5% female and 4.1% male of control group have replied that they have come to Dhaka "for job in the garments".

Again 16.3% female of the study group and 12.2% female of the control group stated other reasons of migration which included

living with the husband or parents or recreation before they joined the garments industries. While 3.2% female of study group and 2% female of control group stated the fact that the erosion of river

Table : V.8
Reasons of Garment Workers Migrating to Dhaka City

Reasons for Migrating to Dhaka	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
For Job in Garments	6	3.2%	62	32.6%	2	4.1%	13	26.5%	83	34.7%
For any type of work.....	27	14.2%	40	21.1%	11	22.4%	15	30.6%	93	38.9%
For education.....	3	1.6%	5	2.6%	0	.0%	0	.0%	8	3.3%
Others.....	5	2.6%	31	16.3%	0	.0%	6	12.2%	42	17.6%
Erosion of river...	0	.0%	6	3.2%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	7	2.9%
Travel.....	0	.0%	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.4%
No response.....	0	.0%	4	2.1%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	5	2.1%
TOTAL.....	41	21.6%	149	78.4%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	239	100%

has caused their migration. Abandoned or separated women have usually come to the city for existence.

CHAPTER VI

ECONOMIC STATUS OF THE GARMENT WOMEN WORKERS

In this chapter I have tried to discuss the economic conditions of garment workers. A worker usually seeks for a job for his sustenance. Monthly wage earned by a worker is an important indicator for assessing his economic condition. Besides the work schedule, the other aspects which are being discussed here are job training and mobility, length of service, promotion, increment, skill, the procedure of recruitment, leave provisions, gender differentiation, bonus and punishment system.

WORKING HOURS

I have observed that the normal working time in the Garment Industries are 8 hours a day. Daily overtime is a general feature for the workers. This overtime is hardly ever shown on the time card, and there is great irregularity and unbearable delay in the payment of overtime. Most of the workers particularly the Helpers and Operators are being deprived of actual dues for overtime work for any cause by the management. Most of the Helpers and Operators are female workers. The Helpers and newcomers (control group) have reported that their work hour started half an hour before the other category of workers. Four industries officially have been showing that they are providing one hour for Lunch but actually they provide 10 or 15 minutes less than the scheduled time for lunch.

MINIMUM WAGE OF GARMENT WORKERS

Wage is the most important variable for the assessment of economic, social and nutritional status of the workers. Their status can be determined by the wage they received. The workers mental make-up is dependent on their wage. The average income of the garment workers include the average salary and average overtime per month. Quality Controller, Cutting Master and Supervisor do not get overtime payment. Their job is contractual. But for friday work and night shift duty they receive Tk.50 or 60 per day.

QUALITY CONTROLLER

It is observed from the table VI.1 that 75% female workers of the study group hold the position of Quality Controller having salary between 1000-2000, while none of the control group workers occupy that position.

Table : VI.1
Monthly Salary Received by the Different Category of Workers

Designation	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Quality Controller										
Monthly salary										
501-1000.....	1	25.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	25.0%
1001-1500.....	0	.0%	2	50.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	2	50.0%
1501-2000.....	0	.0%	1	25.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	25.0%
TOTAL.....	1	25.0%	3	75.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	4	100%
Cutting Master										
Monthly salary										
2000-3000.....	1	100%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	100%
TOTAL.....	1	100%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	100%
Supervisor										
Monthly salary										
<=300.....	0	.0%	1	4.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	4.5%
501-1000.....	2	9.1%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	2	9.1%
1001-1500.....	1	4.5%	4	18.2%	0	.0%	0	.0%	5	22.7%
1501-2000.....	1	4.5%	1	4.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	2	9.1%
2001-3000.....	5	22.7%	3	13.6%	0	.0%	0	.0%	8	36.4%
>3000.....	3	13.6%	1	4.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	4	18.2%
TOTAL.....	12	54.5%	10	45.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	22	100%
Operator										
Monthly salary										
<=300.....	0	.0%	1	.8%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.8%
301-500.....	0	.0%	5	4.0%	0	.0%	1	100%	6	4.8%
501-1000.....	2	1.6%	33	26.4%	0	.0%	0	.0%	35	27.8%
1001-1500.....	9	7.2%	55	44.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	64	50.8%
1501-2000.....	5	4.0%	12	9.6%	0	.0%	0	.0%	17	13.5%
No response.....	0	.0%	3	2.4%	0	.0%	0	.0%	3	2.4%
TOTAL.....	16	12.8%	109	87.2%	0	.0%	1	100%	126	100%
Cutting Helper										
Monthly salary										
<=300.....	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	12.5%	1	6.3%
301-500.....	3	37.5%	0	.0%	2	25.0%	1	12.5%	6	37.5%
501-1000.....	4	50.0%	0	.0%	4	50.0%	0	.0%	8	50.0%
1501-2000.....	1	12.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	6.3%
TOTAL.....	8	100%	0	.0%	6	75.0%	2	25.0%	16	100%
Sewing Helper										
Monthly salary										
<=300.....	0	.0%	3	7.3%	1	2.5%	3	7.5%	7	8.6%
301-500.....	3	7.3%	25	61.0%	4	10.0%	22	55.0%	54	66.7%
501-1000.....	5	12.2%	5	12.2%	1	2.5%	1	2.5%	12	14.8%
No response.....	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	2.5%	7	17.5%	8	9.9%
TOTAL.....	8	19.5%	33	80.5%	7	17.5%	33	82.5%	81	100%
No response										
Monthly salary										
1001-1500.....	0	.0%	1	100%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	100%
TOTAL.....	0	.0%	1	100%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	100%

CUTTING MASTER

In the study group 100% of the male workers are Cutting Master, and they receive the salary between Tk.2001-3000. None of the female workers of the study group as well as of the control group respondent holds such a position.

SUPERVISOR

In the study group 18.2% female Supervisors receive monthly salary between Tk.1001-1500 and 13.6% female Supervisors get their salary between Tk.2001-3000. It is interesting to note that 22.7% male Supervisors obtain the highest salary ranging from Tk.2001 to 3000 and 13.6% male Supervisors secure more than Tk.3000. It may be admitted that the male Supervisors are receiving higher salary than their female counter part.

OPERATOR

It is noticed in the study that the highest number of Operators are female, 44% Operators receive salary between Tk.1001-1500 and 26.4% receive Tk.501-1000. But 9.6% female Operators get Tk.1501-2000, 4% Operators of the female group receive only Tk.301-500. It is interesting to observe that the Operators are the main working force for production and the sewing section is being represented by the women. But surprisingly enough, they receive lesser salary than that of the male Cutting Master.

CUTTING HELPER

I have come to know that there is no female Cutting Helper in the study group. Among the male Cutting Helpers 50% receive salary between Tk.501-1000 and 37.5% receive salary between Tk.301-500, and 12.5% receive Tk.1501-2000. On the other hand, in the control group 50% male receive Tk.501-1000 and 25% male receive Tk.301-500. The female Cutting Helper in the control group receive less than Tk.500. The Table VI.1 shows that cutting section is being dominated by the male worker.

SEWING HELPER

It is observed that highest percentage of women workers is working

as Sewing Helper in both the study and control groups. Among the female 61% of the study sample and 55% of the control group receive salary between Tk.301-500. On the other hand, the same salary is received by 7.3% and

10% male in the study and control group respectively. The Sewing Helpers are the lowest salary receivers of the study group. It is important to note that 50% male Cutting Helpers in both the study and control group receive wage Tk.501-1000 while 61% and 55% of the study and control group female Sewing Helpers respectively receive wage between Tk.301-500 only. Gender differences do exist in these posts.

TIME OF PAYMENT OF WAGES

In the study sample 26.7% female and 9.4% male workers used to received their salary in the second week of the following month.

Table : VI.2
Time of Payment of Wages to the Workers

Time of Wage Received on the Next Month's	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
First week.....	6	3.0%	36	17.8%	2	4.1%	2	4.1%	46	18.3%
Second week.....	19	9.4%	54	26.7%	4	8.2%	15	30.6%	92	36.7%
Third week.....	12	5.9%	38	18.8%	3	6.1%	5	10.2%	58	23.1%
Fourth week.....	1	0.5%	1	0.5%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	2	0.8%
No fixed date.....	5	2.5%	25	12.4%	4	8.2%	12	24.5%	46	18.3%
No response.....	3	1.5%	2	1.0%	0	0.0%	2	4.1%	7	2.8%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

Besides this, 30.6% female and 8.2% male of the control group generally get their salary in the same time. Of the respondents 18.8% female and 5.9% male in the study group have stated that they received salary during the third week of the next month. On the other hand, 10.2% female and 6.1% male workers get the salary in the same time. The number of respondents belonging to the study and control group sample, who used to receive the salary during the fourth week of the following month is not very significant. Among

the control sample 24.5% female and 8.2% male have stated that no specific time is fixed for the payment of salary. Besides, 12.4% female and 2.5% male of the respondents in the study have told that the payment of salary is almost irregular. During the first week of the following month 17.8% female and 3.0% male of the study group respondents used to receive salary but only 4.1% female and 4.1% male get salary in the same time.

The present study reveals that salary received during the first week of the following month is not at all significant, but its percentage is lower in the Control Group than the study sample. The large number of workers in the control group has stated that there is no fixed time and date for payment of salary. Thus the workers of the study group are in a better position compared to that of the Control group regarding the receipt of salary. It means that the study group is more secured than the Control group in this respect.

OVERTIME WORK OF THE WORKERS

Most of the workers of the garment industries have to work extra hours known as overtime beyond their normal working hours. It is observed from the Table VI.3 that 40.1% female and 12.9% male of the study group do not work overtime while 36.7% female and 8.2% male of the control group do not engage in overtime work. But 15.3%

Table : VI.3
Overtime Work of the Garment Workers

Hours of Overtime Work	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
No overtime.....	26	12.9%	81	40.1%	4	8.2%	18	36.7%	129	51.4%
<=3.....	0	.0%	13	6.4%	4	8.2%	2	4.1%	19	7.6%
4.....	0	.0%	9	4.5%	1	2.0%	1	2.0%	11	4.4%
5.....	11	5.4%	31	15.3%	3	6.1%	13	26.5%	58	23.1%
>5.....	8	4.0%	20	9.9%	1	2.0%	2	4.1%	31	12.4%
No response.....	1	.5%	2	1.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	3	1.2%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

female and 5.4% male of the study group do overtime work for five hours while 26.5% female and 6.1% male of the control group do overtime work for the same hours. On the other hand, 6.4% female of the study group, and 4.1% female and 8.2% male of the control group do overtime job for less than three hours. Among the respondents 9.9% female and 4% male of the study group and 4.1% female and 2% male of the control group are doing overtime work for more than five hours.

It is revealed in the above Table that the female workers of the study group do overtime work in higher percentage than the male workers. Similar is the case with the workers of the control group. It is seen that the control group workers having service length of 0-3 months are more include to do overtime work in comparison to that of the study group. They are likely to do it for the satisfaction of their immediate basic needs.

REASONS FOR OVERTIME WORK

Table VI.4 shows that 22.5% female and 2.5% male workers of the study and 20.8% female and 10.4% male workers in the control group have stated that the reason for overtime work is compulsion. in the study group 18.5% female and 5% male work for overtime due to take more work load. Similar opinion has been expressed by 12.5% female and 2.1% male workers in this regard. the reason for overtime work is the "Self need" has been stated by 10.5% female and 3.5% male

Table : VI.4
Reasons for Overtime Work

Reasons for Overtime Work	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
1. Self need.....	7	3.5%	21	10.5%	4	8.3%	8	16.7%	40	16.1%
2. Under compulsion	5	2.5%	45	22.5%	5	10.4%	10	20.8%	65	26.2%
3. 1+2.....	2	1.0%	6	3.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	8	3.2%
4. More work load..	10	5.0%	37	18.5%	1	2.1%	6	12.5%	54	21.8%
5. 1+4.....	2	1.0%	16	8.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	18	7.3%
6. 2+4.....	12	6.0%	12	6.0%	1	2.1%	5	10.4%	30	12.1%
7. 1+2+4.....	1	.5%	2	1.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	3	1.2%
8. Leisure time....	1	.5%	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	2	.8%
9. Need + Leisure..	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.4%
10.No response.....	4	2.0%	15	7.5%	2	4.2%	6	12.5%	27	10.9%
TOTAL.....	45	22.5%	155	77.5%	13	27.1%	35	72.9%	248	100%

workers of this study group and 16.7% male and 8.3% female of the control group.

In this said, table it is observed that percentage of female workers of the study who have stated that they do the overtime work under compulsion is higher than that of the female workers of the control group. The service length of the workers belonging to study group is higher than those of the control group thus it is evident that the consciousness of the female workers has increased according to the length of their service. On the other hand, percentage of the female workers of the control group who have stated that the "self need" is the main reason for their overtime work is higher, although their wage is less than study those of the study group. It is because of the fact that this is necessary for them to earn more for fulfilment of their immediate basic needs. Hence doing overtime work under compulsion is not considered very important by them.

RATE OF WAGE FOR OVERTIME WORK PER HOUR

It has been observed in the table VI.5 that 27.1% and 8.5% male of study and control group respectively receive overtime payment between Tk. 2.51 to 5.00 per hour. Again, in study group 15.3% male workers receive overtime payment for Tk. 5.00-7.50 per hour and 10.2% male workers earn more than Tk.7.50 per hour. But none of the male workers of the control group receive overtime at these rates.

Table : VI.5
Rate of Wage for Overtime Work Per Hour by Gender

Rate of Wage for Overtime Work Per Hour	Male		Female	
	Study	Control	Study	Control
	%	%	%	%
No overtime done....	15.3	1.7	13.0	2.6
<Tk.2.50.....	10.2	6.8	11.5	7.3
Tk.2.51-5.00.....	27.1	8.5	23.4	0.5
Tk.5.00-7.50.....	15.3	0.0	24.5	0.0
>Tk.7.50.....	10.2	0.0	3.6	0.0
No response.....	0.0	5.1	5.2	8.3
TOTAL.....	78.0	22.0	81.3	18.7

It is also seen that 23.4% female workers earn overtime of Tk.2.51-5.00 per hour of the study sample in comparison to only

0.5% of the control group, 24.5% female workers of the study sample get overtime between Tk.5.00-7.50 per hour while none of the control group receive the same. So it is evident from the table that the female are higher in percentage than the males receive overtime payment between Tk.2.51-5.00 per hour. Not only that both male and female of the study group sample receive overtime payment of more than Tk. five per hour while none from the control group receive overtime at this rate. From this study it is also noted that the study group receive more overtime than the control group. It has both positive and negative implications. On the positive side, the economic condition as well as social status of the study group has been enhanced. On the other hand, due to overwork the health status of the workers as well as social and family relationship of the female workers are seen to be deteriorated.

RATE OF WAGE FOR OVERTIME WORK IN DIFFERENT CATEGORIES OF JOB

It is observed from the Table VI.6 that the Quality Controller and Cutting Master do overtime work but it is not very significant. The holders of these positions are working on a contractual basis and they are getting their salary monthly.

Table : VI.6
Rate of Overtime Work for Quality Controller,
Cutting Master and Supervisor

Rate of Overtime Per Hour by Category of Job	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Quality Controller										
No overtime done.	0	.0%	2	1.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	2	.8%
2.51-5.00.....	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.4%
5.00-7.50.....	0	.0%	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.4%
TOTAL.....	1	.5%	3	1.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	4	1.6%
Cutting Master										
No overtime done.	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.4%
TOTAL.....	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.4%
Supervisor										
No overtime done.	5	2.5%	4	2.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	9	3.6%
<2.50.....	0	.0%	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.4%
2.51-5.00.....	1	.5%	2	1.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	3	1.2%
5.00-7.50.....	2	1.0%	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	3	1.2%
>7.50.....	4	2.0%	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	5	2.0%
No response.....	0	.0%	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.4%
TOTAL.....	12	5.9%	10	5.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	22	8.8%

SUPERVISOR

In the study group only 2% male workers receive overtime payment more than Tk.7.50 per hour while 1% male workers receive overtime payment between Tk.5.00-7.50 per hour and 2.5% male and 2% female receive no overtime payment. There is no Supervisor in the control group. Thus the overtime rates of Quality Controller, Cutting Master and Supervisors belonging to the study sample could not be compared with those of the control group.

OPERATOR

Table VI.7 shows that in the study group 21.8% female receive overtime payment from Tk.5.00-7.50 per hour and 19.8% female

Table : VI.7
Overtime Rate of Work for Operator, Cutting Helper
and Sewing Helper

Rate of Overtime Per Hour by Category of Job	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Operator										
No overtime done.	2	1.0%	9	4.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	11	4.4%
<2.50.....	0	.0%	5	2.5%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	6	2.4%
2.51-5.00.....	6	3.0%	40	19.8%	0	.0%	0	.0%	46	18.3%
5.00-7.50.....	6	3.0%	44	21.8%	0	.0%	0	.0%	50	19.9%
>7.50.....	2	1.0%	5	2.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	7	2.8%
No response.....	0	.0%	6	3.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	6	2.4%
TOTAL.....	16	7.9%	109	54.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	126	50.2%
Cutting Helper										
No overtime done.	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.4%
<2.50.....	3	1.5%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	0	.0%	4	1.6%
2.51-5.00.....	3	1.5%	0	.0%	4	8.2%	1	2.0%	8	3.2%
5.00-7.50.....	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.4%
No response.....	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	1	2.0%	2	.8%
TOTAL.....	8	4.0%	0	.0%	6	12.2%	2	4.1%	16	6.4%
Sewing Helper										
No overtime done.	0	.0%	10	5.0%	1	2.0%	5	10.2%	16	6.4%
<2.50.....	3	1.5%	16	7.9%	3	6.1%	13	26.5%	35	13.9%
2.51-5.00.....	5	2.5%	3	1.5%	1	2.0%	0	.0%	9	3.6%
>7.50.....	0	.0%	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.4%
No response.....	0	.0%	3	1.5%	2	4.1%	15	30.6%	20	8.0%
TOTAL.....	8	4.0%	33	16.3%	7	14.3%	33	67.3%	81	32.3%
No response										
5.00-7.50.....	0	.0%	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.4%
TOTAL.....	0	.0%	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.4%

receive overtime payment between Tk.2.51-5.00 per hour. On the other hand, 3% male receive overtime payment Tk.5.00-7.50 per hour and 3% male receive overtime payment for Tk.2.51-5.00 per hour in the study group respondents. It is interesting to note that only 2% female of the control group receive overtime payment less than Tk.2.50 per hour and none of the male receive overtime of the same group. It is also observed that 41.6% female Operators received overtime ranging Tk.2.51-7.50 per hour which have positive and negative impact on their psycho-economic, health and nutrition status. Positively their economic condition may be improved.

CUTTING HELPER

In the study group 3% male cutting helpers receive overtime payment less than Tk.5.00 per hour. While 10.2% male and only 2% female of the control group receive overtime payment less than Tk.5.00. That means the males are drawing more overtime than female in both the groups.

SEWING HELPER

About 8% female of study group and 26.5% female of control group receive overtime payment less than for Tk.2.50 per hour. While 30.6% female of the control group do not respond to this question.

TIME FOR PAYMENT OF OVERTIME

In the Table VI.8 it is observed that 44.1% study group workers and 63.2% control group respondents reported that either they "don't know" or have no response about the date of receipt of overtime payment.

It shows that 33.6% male and female of the study group have received overtime payment during the first week of the following month, 12.3% male and female respondents in control group reported that they get their overtime payment in the same week. On the other hand, 9.9% workers of the study group reported that they get the payment during the second week and 10.2% control group respondents stated that they receive payment in the second week of the following month. Again, in the control group 10.2% female

Table : VI.8
Time of Overtime Payment to the Workers.

Time of Overtime Payment Received	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
First week.....	15	7.4%	53	26.2%	4	8.2%	2	4.1%	74	29.5%
Second week.....	2	1.0%	18	8.9%	2	4.1%	3	6.1%	25	10.0%
Third week.....	2	1.0%	9	4.5%	0	.0%	2	4.1%	13	5.2%
Fourth week.....	2	1.0%	12	5.9%	0	.0%	5	10.2%	19	7.6%
Don't know.....	3	1.5%	5	2.5%	1	2.0%	5	10.2%	14	5.6%
No response.....	22	10.9%	59	29.2%	6	12.2%	19	38.8%	106	42.2%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

respondents and in the study group 6.9% male and female workers stated that they get overtime payment during the fourth week of the following month. So the percentage of irregular payment of overtime work for the control group is higher than that of the study group.

STATUS OF PROMOTION

Table VI.9 shows that 43.1% female and 9.4% male workers of the study group got promotion; on the other hand, 4.1% male respondents of control group stated that they got promotion but none of the female respondents of control group has been promoted. It is significant that more respondents of study group used to get promotion than the control group.

Table : VI.9
Status of Promotion of Workers by Gender

Status of Promotion	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Yes.....	19	9.4%	87	43.1%	2	4.1%	0	.0%	108	43.0%
No.....	27	13.4%	64	31.7%	11	22.4%	36	73.5%	138	55.0%
No response.....	0	.0%	5	2.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	5	2.0%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

REASONS OF PROMOTION

It is observed in the Table VI.10 that in the study group 34.5% and 31.0% female workers have refused to the reasons of their promotion

Table : VI.10
Reasons of Promotion of Workers by Gender

Reason for Promotion	TYPE						TOTAL	
	Study				Control		NO	%
	Male		Female		Male			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Skilled developed...	9	8.0%	39	34.5%	0	.0%	48	42.1%
Know the work.....	9	8.0%	35	31.0%	0	.0%	44	38.6%
Length of service...	2	1.8%	5	4.4%	0	.0%	7	6.1%
Not stated.....	0	.0%	2	1.8%	0	.0%	2	1.8%
No response.....	0	.0%	12	10.6%	1	100%	13	11.4%
TOTAL.....	20	17.7%	93	82.3%	1	100%	114	100%

as "skill developed" and "know the work" respectively, while 8.0% each of the male respondents of the same group have stated the similar reason respectively for their promotion. But 100% male respondents in the control have "no response" which implies that they did not get promotion.

PROMOTION OF GARMENT WORKERS

It is revealed in the Table:VI.11 that in the study group 65.8% female and 9.0% male workers reported that they were promoted from

Table : VI.11
Promotion of Workers by Gender

Promotion of Workers from	TYPE						TOTAL	
	Study				Control		NO	%
	Male		Female		Male			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Primary Worker to Helper.....	0	.0%	3	2.7%	1	100%	4	3.6%
Helper to operator..	10	9.0%	73	65.8%	0	.0%	83	74.1%
Operator to Supervisor.....	5	4.5%	4	3.6%	0	.0%	9	8.0%
Supervisor to Line chief.....	1	.9%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.9%
Line chief to Quality Controller.....	0	.0%	2	1.8%	0	.0%	2	1.8%
Training Operator to Operator.....	0	.0%	1	.9%	0	.0%	1	.9%
Inspector to Supervisor.....	3	2.7%	2	1.8%	0	.0%	5	4.5%
Don't know.....	0	.0%	7	6.3%	0	.0%	7	6.3%
TOTAL.....	19	17.1%	92	82.9%	1	100%	112	100%

Helper to Operator, 6.3% female worker of the same group stated "don't know" as to when and how and which post they were promoted. In the study group 4.5% male and 3.6% female are promoted from the position of Operator to Supervisor while 2.7% male and 1.8% female were promoted from Inspector to Supervisor. It also reveals the fact that the promotion of male respondents is higher than the female respondents.

INCREMENT OF WORKERS

There is provision for yearly increment. It observed in the Table VI.12 that out of the total 251 workers surveyed 51.5% female and 15.3% male of the study respondents reported that they had received increments. Only 2.0% female workers of control group got the increments. None of the male workers of control group receive any increment.

Table : VI.12
Salary Increment of Workers by Gender

Salary Increment	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Yes.....	31	15.3%	104	51.5%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	136	54.2%
No.....	14	6.9%	38	18.8%	13	26.5%	34	69.4%	99	39.4%
No response.....	1	.5%	14	6.9%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	16	6.4%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

TIMES OF INCREMENT

The Table VI.13 shows that in the study group 25.5% female workers got increment for one time, 12.1% got for two times, 11.4% got for three times, 12.1% got for four times and 6.0% got for five times and above, but it is comparatively less than that of male workers of the same group.

Of the male workers of study group 10.7% got increment for one time, 4.0% for two times, 3.4% for three times and 2.7% for five times and above. But only 50.0% female workers of the control group reported that they got increment for one time and other 50% have no

Table : VI.13
Times of Increment for Workers

Number of Times Salary Increased	TYPE						TOTAL	
	Study				Control		NO	%
	Male		Female		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
1 time.....	16	10.7%	38	25.5%	1	50.0%	55	36.4%
2 times.....	6	4.0%	18	12.1%	0	.0%	24	15.9%
3 times.....	5	3.4%	17	11.4%	0	.0%	22	14.6%
4 times.....	1	.7%	18	12.1%	0	.0%	19	12.6%
5+ times.....	4	2.7%	9	6.0%	0	.0%	13	8.6%
No response.....	1	.7%	16	10.7%	1	50.0%	18	11.9%
TOTAL.....	33	22.1%	116	77.9%	2	100%	151	100%

response. There is none of male respondent in the control group who has received increment. Thus it is revealed that there is gender difference in regard to payment of increment. These increments are added to previous salary every year and thus the economic status of the women workers increased gradually.

HIGHEST AVERAGE INCREMENT

It has been observed that highest percentage of respondents of both study and control groups were found to draw less than Tk. 100 as increment. The second highest increment was found between Tk. 100-200 of the respondents in first, second and third time while no response from the respondents of both study and control group was found from those whose salary was increased in fourth and fifth time. It is interesting to note that in respect of the increase of salary the study group is more benefitted than the control group. The Table VI.14 shows that 36.6% female and 10.5% male of study group and 50% female of control group have received less than Tk.100 as increment for the first time, while 33.3% female and 15% male of the study group and 50% female of the control group have received same amount for the second time. But 49% female and 17% male of study group and 50% female of control group have received the same for the third time and 58.2% female and 19.6% male of study group and 50% female of control group have got the same for

Table : VI.14
Salary of Workers Increased in Times

Salary of Workers Increased in Times	TYPE						TOTAL	
	Study				Control		NO	%
	Male		Female		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
First Time								
<=100.....	16	10.5%	56	36.6%	1	50.0%	73	47.1%
101-200.....	9	5.9%	27	17.6%	0	.0%	36	23.2%
201-300.....	4	2.6%	6	3.9%	0	.0%	10	6.5%
>300.....	5	3.3%	13	8.5%	0	.0%	18	11.6%
No response.....	1	.7%	16	10.5%	1	50.0%	18	11.6%
TOTAL.....	35	22.9%	118	77.1%	2	100%	155	100%
Second Time								
<=100.....	23	15.0%	51	33.3%	1	50.0%	75	48.4%
101-200.....	5	3.3%	26	17.0%	0	.0%	31	20.0%
201-300.....	1	.7%	12	7.8%	0	.0%	13	8.4%
>300.....	5	3.3%	12	7.8%	0	.0%	17	11.0%
No response.....	1	.7%	17	11.1%	1	50.0%	19	12.3%
TOTAL.....	35	22.9%	118	77.1%	2	100%	155	100%
Third Time								
<=100.....	26	17.0%	75	49.0%	1	50.0%	102	65.8%
101-200.....	5	3.3%	14	9.2%	0	.0%	19	12.3%
201-300.....	0	.0%	7	4.6%	0	.0%	7	4.5%
>300.....	3	2.0%	6	3.9%	0	.0%	9	5.8%
No response.....	1	.7%	16	10.5%	1	50.0%	18	11.6%
TOTAL.....	35	22.9%	118	77.1%	2	100%	155	100%
Fourth Time								
<=100.....	30	19.6%	89	58.2%	1	50.0%	120	77.4%
101-200.....	2	1.3%	5	3.3%	0	.0%	7	4.5%
201-300.....	0	.0%	4	2.6%	0	.0%	4	2.6%
>300.....	2	1.3%	3	2.0%	0	.0%	5	3.2%
No response.....	1	.7%	17	11.1%	1	50.0%	19	12.3%
TOTAL.....	35	22.9%	118	77.1%	2	100%	155	100%
Fifth Time								
<=100.....	32	20.9%	95	62.1%	1	50.0%	128	82.6%
101-200.....	0	.0%	3	2.0%	0	.0%	3	1.9%
201-300.....	0	.0%	2	1.3%	0	.0%	2	1.3%
>300.....	2	1.3%	1	.7%	0	.0%	3	1.9%
No response.....	1	.7%	17	11.1%	1	50.0%	19	12.3%
TOTAL.....	35	22.9%	118	77.1%	2	100%	155	100%

the fourth time while 62.1% female and 20.9% male of study group and 50% female of control group received less than Tk.100 for fifth time.

It may concluded from the above data that the study group respondents have received increments for different times in higher percentage than the control group female respondents. But the rate of increment amounting to less than Tk.100 is provided to most of the workers.

TRAINING

The Table VI.15 shows that the 4.5% female and 0.5% male of study respondents have received training but none from control group has received any training for their work. The respondents from study group who have received training is not very significant.

Table : VI.15
Status of Training of Workers by Gender

Status of Training	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Yes.....	1	.5%	9	4.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	10	4.0%
No.....	43	21.3%	146	72.3%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	238	94.8%
No response.....	2	1.0%	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	3	1.2%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

It is observed from the table VI.15 that training is not considered very important by the management while they give more emphasis on performance of the workers.

INTRA-FIRM MOBILITY

It is generally said that the prospects of salary enhancement and promotion are not at all bright for both men and women workers in the garment industry. Yet it has been observed that there is a correlation between firm mobility and the increase of salary. Both interfirm and intra-firm mobility of job may take place. Interfirm mobility has usually occurred when there is no upward mobility and salary increment in the same firm.

It is found in the Table VI.16 that 21.3% of female and 8.4% male workers of the study group did not change their jobs. But 18.3% female and 4.5% male have changed for two times, 18.3% female and 3.0% male have changed for three times, 9.4% female and 3.5% male have changed for four times, 4.5% female and 0.5% male changed for five times. In the control group only 6.1% female workers have changed their job for two time, no male worker has changed his job

Table : VI.16
Number of Industries Served by Garment Workers

Number of Industries Served by Garment Workers	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
One.....	17	8.4%	43	21.3%	13	26.5%	31	63.3%	104	41.4%
Two.....	9	4.5%	37	18.3%	0	.0%	3	6.1%	49	19.5%
Three.....	6	3.0%	37	18.3%	0	.0%	0	.0%	43	17.1%
Four.....	7	3.5%	19	9.4%	0	.0%	0	.0%	26	10.4%
Five.....	1	.5%	9	4.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	10	4.0%
Six.....	2	1.0%	3	1.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	5	2.0%
Seven.....	0	.0%	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.4%
Eight.....	1	.5%	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	2	.8%
No response.....	3	1.5%	6	3.0%	0	.0%	2	4.1%	11	4.4%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

in the same group. Thus it is seen that the rate of turn-over is higher for female than male. It is applicable to both groups. Hence a worker has changed job for better position and handsome salary.

APPOINTMENT

The appointment of workers in the Garment Industries is an important matter to be investigated. It is said that the workers of

Table : VI.17
Status of Workers in Terms of Identity Card

Status of Identity Cards	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Yes.....	36	17.8%	139	68.8%	11	22.4%	31	63.3%	217	86.5%
No.....	10	5.0%	15	7.4%	2	4.1%	5	10.2%	32	12.7%
No response.....	0	.0%	2	1.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	2	.8%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

the garment industries are not usually appointed by appointment letters. But it has been observed that most of the garment workers are appointed by identity card. The Table VI.17 demonstrates the fact that only 68.8% female and 17.8% male possess their identity

cards among respondents of the study group. On the other hand, 63.3% female and 22.4% male of the control group have received identity cards. The workers used to receive their salary by showing the identity cards. Most of the workers have joined the Garment Industries through contact into their neighbours, relatives and friends. Since there is no written contract between the workers and the management, the workers change job very frequently for higher wages. Similarly, the management have the privilege to terminate the job of workers without showing any reason.

CONDITIONS OF CONTRACT OF GARMENT WORKERS

Quite a majority of the workers, both male and female have casual or verbal contract with the management. Of the total respondents, only 92 respondents have stated their conditions of contract. In the Table VI.18 it is observed that 67.5% female and 20.5% male of the study group and 55.6% female and 11.1% male workers of the control group respondents have stated that they are working on temporary and casual appointment i.e. only on the basis of verbal understanding between the recruiting authorities and the employees. It is interesting to note that in this respect the percentage of female workers is higher than that of male workers in both the

Table : VI.18
Conditions of Contract of Workers by Gender

Conditions of Contract	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Verbal contract for salary.....	17	20.5%	56	67.5%	1	11.1%	5	55.6%	79	85.9%
Overtime.....	0	.0%	1	1.2%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	1.1%
Salary+Overtime....	1	1.2%	0	.0%	1	11.1%	2	22.2%	4	4.3%
Office time.....	0	.0%	1	1.2%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	1.1%
Salary+Office time.	1	1.2%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	1.1%
Salary+Office time+Leave.....	0	.0%	1	1.2%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	1.1%
Salary+Bonus.....	0	.0%	1	1.2%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	1.1%
Salary+Bonus+Overtime.....	0	.0%	1	1.2%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	1.1%
No response.....	0	.0%	3	3.6%	0	.0%	0	.0%	3	3.3%
TOTAL.....	19	22.9%	64	77.1%	2	22.2%	7	77.8%	92	100%

groups. Verbal understanding about salary is a general phenomenon in most cases, who have no appointment letters stating the conditions of service.

BONUS AND DEDUCTIONS

Workers in some Garment Industries are fortunate enough to receive bonus beyond their monthly salary and overtime wage. Table VI.19

Table : VI.19
Status of Workers in Terms of Bonus by Gender

Status of Bonus	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Yes.....	34	16.8%	124	61.4%	3	6.1%	16	32.7%	177	70.5%
No.....	11	5.4%	27	13.4%	4	8.2%	9	18.4%	51	20.3%
Don't know.....	1	.5%	3	1.5%	5	10.2%	11	22.4%	20	8.0%
No response.....	0	.0%	2	1.0%	1	2.0%	0	.0%	3	1.2%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

shows that 61.4% female and 16.8% male workers of the study group have stated that their respective industries have provided bonus for them but only 32.7% female and 6.1% male workers of the control group have reported that they have received bonus. In the control group 22.4% female and 10.2% male do not know about the bonus where as 1.5% female and 0.5% male workers of the study group have the similar experience. Thus it is revealed that most of the workers belonging to the study group are aware of bonus. But this is just the reverse in case of control group workers.

TYPES OF BONUS

It is observed in the Table VI.20 that 41.5% female and 6.7% male respondents in the study group have received attendance bonus. While 45.8% female and 4.2% male of the control group have stated the same. Also, 18.9% female and 7.9% male workers in the study group have reported that they got Eid bonus while 16.7% female and 8.3% male of the control group have obtained Eid bonus. It is interesting to note that attendance bonus is being received by the bigger percentage of workers belonging to the control group, but

Table : VI.20
Genderwise Workers by Types of Bonus

Types of Bonus	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
1. Production.....	1	.6%	1	.6%	0	.0%	0	.0%	2	1.1%
2. Efficiency/Skill.	0	.0%	3	1.8%	0	.0%	0	.0%	3	1.6%
3. 1+2.....	0	.0%	4	2.4%	1	4.2%	0	.0%	5	2.7%
4. Attendance.....	11	6.7%	68	41.5%	1	4.2%	11	45.8%	91	48.4%
5. 1+4.....	5	3.0%	4	2.4%	0	.0%	0	.0%	9	4.8%
6. 1+2+4.....	1	.6%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.5%
7. Permanency.....	0	.0%	1	.6%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.5%
8. 1+7.....	0	.0%	1	.6%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.5%
9. 4+7.....	0	.0%	1	.6%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.5%
10. 1+4+7.....	0	.0%	1	.6%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.5%
11. 2+4+7.....	0	.0%	1	.6%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.5%
12. Eid Bonus.....	13	7.9%	31	18.9%	2	8.3%	4	16.7%	50	26.6%
13. 1+2+12.....	0	.0%	1	.6%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.5%
14. 4+12.....	1	.6%	9	5.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	10	5.3%
15. 1+2+8+12.....	1	.6%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.5%
16. 2+4+8+12.....	1	.6%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.5%
17. Others.....	0	.0%	1	.6%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.5%
18. No response.....	1	.6%	2	1.2%	1	4.2%	4	16.7%	8	4.3%
TOTAL.....	35	21.3%	129	78.7%	5	20.8%	19	79.2%	188	100%

Eid bonus is being received by the greater percentage of workers from the study group. Most of the Industries have been providing this type of bonus.

SALARY DEDUCTIONS FOR BEING ABSENT AND LATE

The Table VI.21 shows that in the study 60.8% female and 16.2% male workers have stated that the owners of the Garment Industries have deducted salary for their absence but 44.8% female and 13.8% male in the control group have reported the same. It is interesting to

Table : VI.21
Salary Deduction of Workers for being Absent

Salary Deduction for being Absent	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Yes.....	24	16.2%	90	60.8%	4	13.8%	13	44.8%	131	74.0%
No.....	3	2.0%	25	16.9%	2	6.9%	2	6.9%	32	18.1%
Don't know.....	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	3.4%	3	10.3%	4	2.3%
No response.....	1	.7%	5	3.4%	0	.0%	4	13.8%	10	5.6%
TOTAL.....	28	18.9%	120	81.1%	7	24.1%	22	75.9%	177	100%

note that only 3.4% female and 0.7% male in study group and 24.1% female workers and 3.4% male workers in the control have told me that they either "did not know" or "have no response". It means that most of the respondents of the control group did not know about salary deduction for absence.

The Table VI.22 shows that 67.2% workers of the study group and 41.7% of the control group have reported that the owners have deducted for one day's pay for one day absence. But 16.7% male female of control group and 10.9% male female of the study group stated that the owner deducted two days payment for one day's absence, 4.2% female of the control group have said that three days payment are deducted for one day's absence and similarly 4.2%

Table : VI.22
Amount of Worker's Salary Deducted for being Absent

Amount of Salary Deducted for being Absent	TYPE								TO	AL
	Study				Control					
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Daily overtime rate	0	.0%	3	2.3%	0	.0%	0	.0%	3	2.0%
One day payment for one day.....	18	14.1%	68	53.1%	3	12.5%	7	29.2%	96	63.2%
For one day of two days payment....	4	3.1%	10	7.8%	1	4.2%	3	12.5%	18	11.8%
For one day of 3 days payment....	2	1.6%	7	5.5%	0	.0%	1	4.2%	10	6.6%
Depend on the owner	1	.8%	1	.8%	0	.0%	1	4.2%	3	2.0%
Don't know.....	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	4.2%	1	.7%
No response.....	3	2.3%	11	8.6%	1	4.2%	6	25.0%	21	13.8%
TOTAL.....	28	21.9%	100	78.1%	5	20.8%	19	79.2%	152	100%

female workers have reported that the deduction for absence depends on the wish of the owner. On the other hand, 29.2% female and 4.2% male of the control group and 8.6% female and 2.3% male of the study group have told that they either "did not know" about the deduction for absence or they have no response at all. Thus it is revealed that the workers of the study group is more secure than those of the control group in case of to deduction for absence. It implies that the workers of the study group are more careful than those of the control group.

LATE FINE

Most industries have introduced such penalties. It is observed from Table VI.23 that 12.9% male and 37.6% female respondents of the study group have reported that they know nothing about the deduction of late fine. While 44.9% female workers of the control group and 18.4% male workers have stated the same thing. On the other hand, 15.3% and 2% female workers from the study and the control group respectively have stated the fact that the deduction of attendance bonus is made by the authorities concerned as late fine. Only 4% of the male respondents of the study group have stated the same thing while none if the control group has

Table : VI.23
Workers Punished for Late Attendance by Gender

Punishment for Late Attendance	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
1. No entrance in the factory.....	0	.0%	3	1.5%	1	2.0%	1	2.0%	5	2.0%
2. Deduction of one day salary for 3 days late.....	8	4.0%	17	8.4%	3	6.1%	5	10.2%	33	13.1%
3. 1+2.....	0	.0%	3	1.5%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	4	1.6%
4. Deduction of attendance.....	8	4.0%	31	15.3%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	40	15.9%
5. 1+4.....	0	.0%	6	3.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	7	2.8%
6. 2+4.....	0	.0%	2	1.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	2	.8%
7. 1+2+4.....	0	.0%	2	1.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	2	.8%
8. Deduction of overtime per minute.....	0	.0%	5	2.5%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	6	2.4%
9. 1+8.....	0	.0%	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.4%
10. 2+8.....	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	1	.4%
11. Beating/alternate	1	.5%	7	3.5%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	9	3.6%
12. 2+11.....	0	.0%	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.4%
13. 1+2+11.....	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	1	.4%
14. Deduction of one day salary for 4 days late.....	3	1.5%	2	1.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	6	2.4%
15. don't know.....	1	.5%	2	1.0%	0	.0%	2	4.1%	5	2.0%
16. No response.....	25	12.4%	74	36.6%	9	18.4%	20	40.8%	128	51.0%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

experienced it. Another important phenomenon is that 8.4% female respondents of the study group and 10.2% female respondents of the control group have stated that one day's salary is deducted for 3 days late attendance as late fine; on the other hand, 4% and 6.1%

male respondents from the study group and the control group respectively have stated the same thing. It is amply revealed from the present study that different kinds of punishment are given due to late attendance.

DIFFERENCES OF SALARY BY GENDER

It is observed in the Table VI.24 that 46% female and 14.5% male of the study group have reported that there is no difference of salary between male and female workers. On the other hand, 24.5% female and 18.4% male of the control group have referred to the same. But 22.5% female and 5.5% male of the study group and 6.1% female and 4.1% male of the control group have stated the difference of salary between male and female workers. Besides, 11.5% respondents from both male and female of the study group and about 47% male and female

Table : VI.24
Salary Differentiation of Workers by Gender

Salary Differentiation between Male and Female Workers	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Salary difference..	11	5.5%	45	22.5%	2	4.1%	3	6.1%	61	24.5%
Equitable salary...	29	14.5%	92	46.0%	9	18.4%	12	24.5%	142	57.0%
Don't know.....	4	2.0%	11	5.5%	2	4.1%	20	40.8%	37	14.9%
No response.....	2	1.0%	6	3.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	9	3.6%
TOTAL.....	46	23.0%	154	77.0%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	249	100%

respondents of the control group have stated that either they "do not know" or they have "no response".

REASONS FOR MALE WORKERS RECEIVING HIGHER SALARY

When the respondents were asked about the reasons for male workers receiving more salary than the female workers 38.8% female workers of the study group have stated that it is just they are male where as 13.4% female and 9% male workers of the study group did not reply to this question. Similar answer has been found in 14.3% female of the control group only. This indicates that the female

Table : VI.25
Reasons for Male Workers Receiving higher Salary

Reason for Male Receiving higher Salary	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
They work more.....	6	9.0%	7	10.4%	0	.0%	1	14.3%	14	18.9%
They are more Skilled.....	2	3.0%	11	16.4%	1	14.3%	0	.0%	14	18.9%
They are male.....	0	.0%	26	38.8%	1	14.3%	2	28.6%	29	39.2%
Others.....	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	14.3%	1	1.4%
No response.....	6	9.0%	9	13.4%	0	.0%	1	14.3%	16	21.6%
TOTAL.....	14	20.9%	53	79.1%	2	28.6%	5	71.4%	74	100%

respondents of the study group are more conscious than the female workers of the control group. Earlier it was shown in (Table VI.24) that the male workers received more salary in comparison to their female counterparts.

THE LEVELS OF SKILL OF GARMENT WORKERS

Now let me look into the levels of skill of the garment workers in the different categories. I have seen a positive correlation between the levels of skill and the category of job. There are three categories of Operators in terms of their skill, such as A, B and C.

"A" CATEGORY OPERATORS

They are highly skilled Operators and hence their security of job is very much satisfactory. They can operate minimum 384 machines and work on color making. They have 3-6 years of experience as Operators and they are drawing the salary between Tk.1200-2000 excluding overtime payment. The "A" category of workers are quite small in number. As they are highly skilled the tendency of mobility of these workers is remarkable and as such they are not stable in one Industry. There is a high demand for this category of workers in the labour market.

"B" CATEGORY OPERATORS

This group may consist of workers who have 2-3 years experience as Operators. This level of workers are not highly skilled. They received salary between Tk.1100-1200. When they gathered more experience and efficiency, they move or drive to "A" category Operators.

"C" CATEGORY OPERATORS

This group comprises the workers who have been promoted from Helper to Operator. They are semi-skilled. Their experience of job is for 1-2 years and they draw salary between Tk.800-1000. Tenacity of work is an important factor for learning the work. This is specially applicable in case of "C" Category Operators who can be promoted to "B" Category when they have become skilled. However, "C" Category Operators are not secured in their jobs in terms of wages.

Sewing and Finishing Helpers are unskilled. This group mostly consists of young, female and unmarried workers. It has been said earlier that this is likely to be the most insecure group for low wages. Most of the Cutting Helpers and the people engaged in the work of iron and folding are male workers. They are paid low wages. But they have received higher salary than female Helpers. Generally the Helpers do not get even the minimum wage because they are not experienced. This job is usually done by child labours; and they are relatively unstable. The Helpers do not have any skill and education, for which they are not actually covered by the minimum wage laws passed by the Government of Bangladesh in 1984.

Now I would like to discuss how the management determines the wages and skills of the workers. The management of the Garment Industries under present study are intensively interviewed. Two Garment Industries management have stated that they fix up the wage on the basis of efficiency. The management of another Industry has mentioned that they determine the wages on the basis of efficiency and experience of the workers. On the other hand, the other Industry's management have told me that fixation of wage depends on

efficiency, experience and training. While the management of the remaining Industry has stated that efficiency, experience and production level are taken into consideration for the determination of skill. The management always depends on the report of the Inspector, Floor-in-charge and Production Manager for the estimation of skill of different categories of workers; and daily as well as monthly production reports are also assessed by the management. Although the management measures the skills of the workers from time to time they do not provide appropriate wages to them.

CHAPTER VII
IMPACT OF GARMENT EMPLOYMENT ON ECONOMIC
STATUS OF THE WOMEN WORKERS

It is assumed that garment employment might have some impact on the economic status of the workers. I shall try to discuss this aspect through the facts collected by me during the study conducted in five garment industries in the Metropolitan city of Dhaka.

It is revealed in the Table VII.1 that, 52.0% female of the study group have stated that their economic conditions have improved than before, 15.8% male respondents in the same group have also stated that their economic status is better.

Table : VII.1
Improvement of Economic Condition of Workers

Is Economic Condition Improved?	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Yes.....	32	15.8%	105	52.0%	3	6.1%	16	32.7%	156	62.2%
No.....	8	4.0%	29	14.4%	10	20.4%	14	28.6%	61	24.3%
Same.....	6	3.0%	21	10.4%	0	.0%	6	12.2%	33	13.1%
No response.....	0	.0%	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.4%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

Besides, 32.7% female workers of the control group have reported that their economic condition is improved than before and 6.1% male respondents of the same group have stated the same. Thus it is evident from the study that the economic condition of 67.8% male and female workers of the study group and 38.8% male and female workers of the control group have improved.

It is also found that 10.4% female and 12.2% female workers of the study and the control group respectively have stated that their economic condition is same as before.

The statement of the respondents regarding the improvement of their economic status might be related with their savings and investment. The present study thus reveals that the improvement of worker's economic status is quite positive because 62.2% of the total respondents have maintained that their economic status has improved. It means that these worker's are now economically capable of satisfying their minimum needs, like food, clothes etc., although they have no savings and investment. But the savings and investment of the garments workers is considered as an indicator of better economic status achieved by them. Now I shall try to look into the savings and investment of the garment workers.

SAVINGS OF THE GARMENT WORKERS

The Table VII.2 shows that 29.2% female and 9.9% male workers of the study group have reported that they have savings. On the other hand, 14.3% female and 2.0% male of the control group have some savings. But 4.1% male of the control group and 1.5% female and 0.5% male workers of the study group did not, respond to this question. Workers of the study group have more savings than those of the control group. But interestingly enough that the percentage of the female workers having more savings is higher than that of male workers belonging to this both study and control groups.

Table : VII.2
Saving Situation of the Earning of the Workers

Saving Situation	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Yes.....	20	9.9%	59	29.2%	1	2.0%	7	14.3%	87	34.7%
No.....	25	12.4%	94	46.5%	10	20.4%	29	59.2%	158	62.9%
No response.....	1	.5%	3	1.5%	2	4.1%	0	.0%	6	2.4%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

PLACES OF DEPOSITING THE SAVINGS

The Table VII.3 suggests about of the workers who have saved money, 36.3% female and 10% male of the study group have used to

keep their savings at their own disposal. On the other hand, 57.1% female and 14.3% male of the control group have stated the same. But 23.8% female and 10% male of the study group saved their money at the Banks while 14.3% female and 14.3% male of the control group have deposited their savings at the banks. It is interesting to note that only 7.5% female of the study group have been saving their money in association.

Table : VII.3
Places of Depositing the Savings Chosen by the Workers

Places of Deposit	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Bank.... Own Disposal..	8	10.0%	19	23.8%	1	14.3%	1	14.3%	29	33.4%
Assoc....	8	10.0%	29	36.3%	1	14.3%	4	57.1%	42	48.3%
Others...	0	0.0%	6	7.5%	0	0.0%	0	.0%	6	6.9%
No response	1	1.2%	4	5.0%	0	0.0%	0	.0%	5	5.7%
TOTAL...	18	22.4%	62	77.6%	2	28.6%	5	71.4%	87	100%

The percentage of female workers who are saving money is higher than that of the male counterpart in both the study and control groups. And groups as such these women workers are conscious about their future and thus they save money. They have also reported the fact that they save money from their meager earnings in order to face the critical time and for future of their children. But a few of them have also stated that they used to save money for purchase land, personal marriage and dowry.

AMOUNT OF SAVINGS

The Table VII.4 demonstrates the degree of savings of the workers by gender belonging to both workers the study and control groups. It is observed in the table that 28.4% female and 16.1% male of the study group and only 33.3% female of the control group saved less

than Tk.5000. About 36% of the workers who have saved money did not respond about the amounts of their savings. It is evident that percentage of savings is higher in the study group as compared to that of the control group. It is thus revealed that the economic status of the women workers in the garment industries has become higher than before.

Table : VII.4
Amount of Worker's Savings by Gender

Amount of Savings (Tk.)	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
<5000....	13	16.1%	23	28.4%	0	0.0%	2	33.3%	38	43.8%
5001-10000	1	1.2%	9	11.1%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	10	11.5%
10001-15000.....	1	1.2%	2	2.5%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	3	3.4%
15001-20000....	2	2.5%	1	1.2%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	3	3.4%
>20000	1	1.2%	1	1.2%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	2	2.3%
No response..	8	9.9%	19	23.5%	2	33.3%	2	33.3%	31	35.6%
TOTAL.....	26	32.1%	55	67.9%	2	33.3%	4	66.7%	87	100.0%

INVESTMENT OF INCOME

Table VII.5 shows that 10.4% female workers of the study group have invested their earnings in the purchase of land in the villages while none of the female workers of the control group invest for the same. Besides, 5.0% and 2.0% male workers of the study and control groups respectively have invested in land purchase in the villages. It is also found that 10.4% female and 1.0% male of the study group have bought ornaments and only 2% female of the control group respondents have purchased ornament, while 2% male workers from the control group have invested money for land purchase in the villages. In the study sample, 7.9% female and 2.0% male workers have been assisting their relatives but none of the control group workers are doing so, 5.4% female and 2.5% male workers of the study group have purchased Radio, T.V, watch,

fans etc. but none of the control group have purchased such household effects.

It is observed that 4.0% female and 1.0% male of the study group have stated that they send money to the village home but none of the control group does it, 3.5% female workers of the study group have purchased furniture but no male worker from the study group and none from the control group has purchased the same. On the other hand, 29.2% female workers of the study group and 42.9% female of the control group do not have any response to this question, 18.4% and 9.4% male workers in both the control and study groups respectively do not express their opinion about it. 28.6% female and 6.1% male workers of the control group did .

Table : VII.5
Investment of the Workers Income by Gender

Nature of Investment	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Ornaments.....	2	1.0%	21	10.4%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	24	9.6%
Land purchase at village.....	10	5.0%	22	10.9%	1	2.0%	0	.0%	33	13.1%
Land purchase at Dhaka.....	0	.0%	2	1.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	2	.8%
Business.....	1	.5%	2	1.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	3	1.2%
Education.....	1	.5%	7	3.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	8	3.2%
Assistance to Relatives.....	4	2.0%	16	7.9%	0	.0%	0	.0%	20	8.0%
Money lending.....	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.4%
Purchase of Poultry and cattle.....	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.4%
Purchase of Radio/TV etc.....	5	2.5%	11	5.4%	0	.0%	0	.0%	16	6.4%
Purchase of furniture.....	0	.0%	7	3.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	7	2.8%
Sending money to village home.....	2	1.0%	8	4.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	10	4.0%
No investment.....	0	.0%	1	.5%	3	6.1%	14	28.6%	18	7.2%
No response.....	19	9.4%	59	29.2%	9	18.4%	21	42.9%	108	43.0%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

not invest while 0.5% female and 0.0% male worker of the study group have not invested their income. It is also revealed that

47.5% female and 13.4% male respondents of study group have invested their earnings in different fields of investment. On the other hand, 2.0% male of the control group invest their money for land purchase in the villages and 2.0% female of the same group invest their earnings for buying ornament.

THE CORRELATION BETWEEN LENGTH OF SERVICE AND SALARY

It is observed in the Table VII.6 that among the study group respondents 11.9% workers having 3-4 years of service have received salary from Tk.1001 to 1500. 9.9% workers having 1-2 years service are getting less than Tk.500 as salary and 9.9% workers having the same period of service have received salary from Tk.501 to 1000 in the study group. On the other hand, among the control group 63.3% workers having service

Table : VII.6
Length of Service by Salary of the Workers

Length of service	Salary						No response
	<500	501-1000	1001-1500	1501-2000	2001-3000	>3000	
Study Group							
4-12month	4.0%	2.0%	0.5%	0.0%	0.0%	0.5%	1.0%
1-2 years	9.9%	9.9%	4.5%	2.0%	0.0%	0.5%	3.0%
3-4 years	3.0%	6.4%	11.9%	1.5%	1.5%	1.0%	1.5%
5-6 years	0.5%	4.0%	7.9%	2.0%	1.5%	0.0%	1.0%
7-8 years	0.0%	0.5%	5.4%	4.0%	1.0%	0.5%	0.0%
9+ years	0.0%	0.0%	4.5%	0.5%	0.5%	1.5%	1.0%
Total	17.3%	22.8%	34.7%	9.9%	4.0%	4.0%	7.4%
Control Group							
0-3 month	63.3%	12.2%	0.0%	0.0%	2.1%	0.0%	20.4%
3-4 year	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	2.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Total	63.3%	12.2%	0.0%	0.0%	4.1%	0.0%	20.4%

length of 0-3 months have received salary less than Tk.500 and 12.2% are getting salary from Tk.501 to 1000 while 20.4% do not have any response to their salary.

It is observed in the table that percentage of workers who have received greater salary is higher and they have experience of service from 3-6 years while lower the percentage of workers getting less salary have service, experience for 4 months to 2 years in the study group. On the other hand, the workers having more than 7 years service experience have received higher salary, but their percentage is quite less. But in comparison to the control group workers whose length of service is less than 3 months their salary is below Tk.500.

It may be assumed that optimum energy, efficiency and skill are the important matters for the workers during the service of 3-6 years. Thus this group of workers is receiving the higher grade of salary. The workers having more than seven years service experience perhaps have lesser energy to work. Further research on this subject is necessary.

THE CORRELATION BETWEEN THE INTRA-FIRM MOBILITY AND PRESENT SALARY

It is noticed in the Table VII.7 that those workers who have worked in two to four garment industries their scale of salary is from Tk.500 to 3000 but those workers who work only in one Garment Industry their salary is lower than the above category. It is true that only a few workers get higher salary. On the other hand, those workers who served in five to eight garments their salary amounted to Tk. 1001-1500, 1501-2000, 2001-3000 and >3000. It is also revealed that most of the workers who do not change industry, receive less than Tk.500.

It is seen that 55.1% workers of the control group who have served in one industry have received salary less than Tk.500.

Table : VII.7
Number of Industries Served by Workers

Number of Industries Served	Present Salary (Tk.)						No response
	<500	501-1000	1001-1500	1501-2000	2001-3000	>3000	
Study Group							
One	8.4%	9.9%	5.0%	1.0%	1.0%	1.0%	3.5%
Two	5.9%	5.0%	8.4%	1.5%	0.0%	0.0%	2.0%
Three	1.0%	5.9%	8.4%	4.0%	0.0%	1.0%	1.0%
Four	1.0%	1.0%	6.8%	1.5%	1.5%	1.0%	0.5%
Five	0.0%	0.0%	3.0%	1.0%	0.5%	0.5%	0.0%
Six	0.0%	0.0%	1.5%	0.0%	1.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Seven	0.0%	0.0%	0.5%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Eight	0.0%	0.0%	0.5%	0.0%	0.0%	0.5%	0.0%
No response	1.0%	1.0%	1.0%	1.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.5%
Total	17.3%	22.8%	34.7%	9.9%	4.0%	4.0%	7.4%
Control Group							
One	55.1%	12.2%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	4.1%	18.4%
Two	6.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
No response	2.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	2.0%
Total	63.3%	12.2%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	20.4%

It may be stated that the workers serving two to four industries are getting optimum salary in comparison to others who have served only one industry or more than five industries.

CHAPTER : VIII
SOCIAL STATUS OF GARMENT WOMEN WORKERS

In the previous chapter I have looked into the existing economic status of garment workers. The present chapter is concerned with the housing conditions, incidence of harassment, attitude of neighbours, relatives, and family members towards joining the garment industry, personal perception of work in the garment, decision making of family, and relationship with spouse etc. These problems and issues are important and useful for understanding the social status of the workers.

HOUSING CONDITIONS OF THE WORKERS

In the present work it is found that most of the workers have come to Dhaka from the different rural areas of Bangladesh. Hence it is very important to know about the types of residence and with whom these workers reside.

Table : VIII.1
Persons with Whom the Workers Residing by Gender

Persons with Whom the Workers Residing	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Parents.....	18	8.9%	55	27.2%	3	6.1%	12	24.5%	88	35.1%
Sub-let.....	2	1.0%	6	3.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	9	3.6%
Husband/wife.....	2	1.0%	46	22.8%	1	2.0%	5	10.2%	54	21.5%
Brother.....	7	3.5%	9	4.5%	2	4.1%	1	2.0%	19	7.6%
Children.....	2	1.0%	4	2.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	7	2.8%
Sister.....	2	1.0%	16	7.9%	2	4.1%	8	16.3%	28	11.2%
Relative.....	2	1.0%	9	4.5%	4	8.2%	6	12.2%	21	8.4%
Mess.....	7	3.5%	10	5.0%	0	.0%	2	4.1%	19	7.6%
Alone.....	4	2.0%	1	.5%	1	2.0%	0	.0%	6	2.4%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

Table VIII.1 shows that 27.2% female and 8.9% male respondents of the study group live with their parents, while 24.5% female and 6.1% male workers of the control group live with parents. But 22.8% female and 1.0% male respondents of the study group live with their

husband and wife respectively while 10.2% female and 2.0% male of the control group live with their husband and wife respectively. Among the control group respondents 16.3% female and 4.1% male respondents live with their sister, while 7.9% female and 1.0% male workers of the study group live with their sister. Among the control group respondents 12.2% female and 8.2% male respondents have stated that they live with their relatives. On the other hand, 4.5% female and 1.0% male workers live with relatives. But 5.0% female and 3.5% male of the study group reside in mess while 4.1% female respondents and no male in the control group reside in mess. Besides, 2.0% female and 1.0% male of the study group and only 2.0% female of the control group live with children and 2.0% male, 0.5% female of study group and only 2.0% male of the control group live alone.

It is revealed that more percentage of male and female workers of the study group living with the parents is higher than those of the control group. Then the percentage of workers living with husband, sister, brother, relatives, and children is systematically less. Workers living in mess and sublet houses are also few in number. But those living in mess, especially the women workers are the most insecure. In the control group respondents 4.1% female workers live in mess, 16.3% workers live with sister, 12.2% living with relatives but all of them are living in the same mess. Most of the worker's relatives are their neighbours in the villages. They provide moral support and security. Thus it is revealed that the workers of the study group have better residential arrangement than those of the control group.

RESIDENTIAL STATUS OF WORKERS AT DHAKA

It is interesting to observe in the Table VIII.2 that 8.0% of the total workers both from the study and control group live in their own houses in Dhaka. But 6.1% female workers of the control group and none from male in the same group have their own houses in Dhaka. While 5.4% female and 3.0% male workers of the study group have their own houses in Dhaka. When the workers who have own houses in Dhaka were asked, "Why they have joined the Garment

Industry ?" they either replied that there is neither any other scope of earning nor any earning person in the family. In the control group 2.0%

Table : VIII.2
Residential Status of Workers in Dhaka City by Gender

Personal Houses at Dhaka	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Yes.....	6	3.0%	11	5.4%	0	.0%	3	6.1%	20	8.0%
No.....	39	19.3%	141	69.8%	12	24.5%	32	65.3%	224	89.2%
No response.....	1	.5%	4	2.0%	1	2.0%	1	2.0%	7	2.8%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

female and 2.0% male and in study group 2.0% female and 0.5% male workers did not respond to the question.

TYPES OF HOUSES OF THE WORKERS

It is observed in the Table VIII.3 that 44.9% female workers of the control group live in Kutcha Houses while 38.6% female workers of the study group live in Kutcha houses. But 14.3% male respondents of the control group and 5.4% male of the study group live in Kutcha houses. On the other hand, 18.4% female workers of

Table : VIII.3
Types of Houses of the Workers by Gender

Types of Houses	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Building.....	15	7.4%	30	14.9%	2	4.1%	4	8.2%	51	20.3%
Kutcha house.....	11	5.4%	78	38.6%	7	14.3%	22	44.9%	118	47.0%
Brick wall with tin shed.....	19	9.4%	47	23.3%	3	6.1%	9	18.4%	78	31.1%
No response.....	1	.5%	1	.5%	1	2.0%	1	2.0%	4	1.6%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

the control group and 23.3% female workers of the study group used to live in brick wall with tin shed roofs and 6.1% male respondents of the control group and 9.4% respondent of the study group live in

the similar type of house. On the other hand, 8.2% female workers of the control group and 14.9% female workers of the study group live in building and 4.1% male and 7.4% male workers of the control and study groups respectively live in the buildings. But 2.0% female and 2.0% male workers of the control group did not response to the question. Thus it is observed that in the study group, 22.3% male and female workers live in Buildings, on the other hand, 12.3% of the male and female workers of the control group live in Buildings. It is also estimated that 32.7% male and female respondents of the study group and 24.5% of both sex in the control group live in brick wall with tin shed roof. But the higher percentage of control group respondents (59.2%) live in Kutcha house than the study group respondents (44%). Thus it might be stated that study group's housing system is better than the control group.

FACILITIES AVAILABLE IN THE HOUSES OF THE WORKERS

It is noticed in the Table VIII.4 that out of 251 respondents 57% workers use gas while 93.2% use electricity, 66.9% use tap-water, 29.5% use tube well water and 0.4% use pond water and 0.4% use well water. In comparison between the study group and the control group it is interestingly observed that the higher percentage of study group workers have better facilities in their houses than the control group. This implies mainly the higher percentage of study group respondents belonging to both male and female genders have access to gas,

Table : VIII.4
Worker's Facilities in Their Houses

Facilities Available in Houses	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Gas.....	33	13.1%	86	34.3%	5	2.0%	19	7.6%	143	57.0%
Electricity.....	45	17.9%	146	58.2%	11	4.4%	34	13.5%	234	93.2%
Tap.....	31	12.3%	104	41.4%	8	3.2%	25	10.0%	168	66.9%
Tube well	14	5.6%	45	17.9%	5	2.0%	10	4.0%	74	29.5%
Ponds	1	.4%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	1	.4%
Well	0	0.0%	1	.4%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	1	.4%

electricity, tap water and even tube well water which are considered as indicators of higher socio-economic status than the control group. It may be assumed that the job in the garment Industry largely contribute to the improvement of socio-economic status of the women workers.

TYPES OF FUEL OTHER THAN GAS USED BY THE WORKERS

The Table VIII.5 shows that 42% female workers of the study group and 40.7% female respondents of the control group use fuel for cooking.

Table : VIII.5
Types of Fuel Other than Gas Used by Workers

Use of fuel other than Gas	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Fuel.....	6	7.4%	34	42.0%	5	18.5%	11	40.7%	56	51.8%
Kerosine.....	0	.0%	3	3.7%	3	11.1%	0	.0%	6	5.6%
Heater.....	6	7.4%	27	33.3%	0	0.0%	3	11.1%	36	33.3%
Others.....	1	1.2%	4	4.9%	2	7.4%	3	11.1%	10	9.3%
TOTAL.....	13	16.0%	68	83.9%	10	37.0%	17	62.9%	108	100%

On the other hand, 18.5% male of the control group and 7.4% male of the study group respondents have reported that they use fuel for cooking, 11.1% male of the control group respondents have said that they use Kerosine for cooking and 3.7% female workers of the study group have reported that they use Kerosine for cooking. But no male workers of the study group and no female workers of the control group use the Kerosine for cooking. In the study group 33.3% female respondents and 11.1% female workers of the control group have stated that they use heater for cooking food. On the other hand, 7.4% male respondents of the study group and no male workers of the control group use heater for cooking. It is reported that 11.1% female of control respondents and 4.9% female workers of the study group used to cook their food by other means. On the other hand, 7.4% and 1.2% male worker of the control and study group respectively generally prepare their food by using other means.

The absence of gas, electricity, tap water, especially running water implies that the women workers have to spend additional time and energy in fetching water and fuel needed for cooking food. The women workers are generally subjected to heavy burden. The double burden borne by a women worker as a house wife and as an industrial worker has to be kept in mind while assessing their effect on a women's own life. To the contrary the work of male worker at home resembles that of the male member of the female worker's family. He is not socially expected to

take care of domestic duties. His contribution to the support of the family normally stops when he gets out of job in the factory. When he returns to residence he can reasonably expect to be served food prepared by somebody else and not be bothered with any child care. Nor he is required to get up in the morning to cook food for the family. For this reason it is observed that those male workers who have been living in the mess they used to get their food prepared by the male servants. On the other hand, female workers who have been living in the mess they have to cook their food by themselves.

HARASSMENT FACED BY WOMEN WORKERS

It is often stated that a lot of harassment take place within and outside the garment industries. The accident may occur in the industry, or on the street or in the residence of the workers. When the respondents were asked about any embarrassing situation they have faced so far, most of them have stated that this did not happen in their own cases but they have heard or seen the harassment faced by others. The Table VIII.6 shows that 42.1% female and 5.9% male workers of the study group and 26.5% female and 2% male workers of the control group have said that they had faced embarrassing situation while 32.7% female and 13.9% male workers of the study group and 46.9% female and 14.3% male workers of the control group have replied in negative. Among the respondents of both the groups only 6.4% have no response to the query.

Table : VIII.6
Harassment Faced by Workers

Have you faced any harassment	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Yes.....	12	5.9%	85	42.1%	1	2.0%	13	26.5%	111	44.2%
No.....	28	13.9%	66	32.7%	7	14.3%	23	46.9%	124	49.4%
No response.....	6	3.0%	5	2.5%	5	10.2%	0	.0%	16	6.4%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

The respondents were also asked categorically about the types of harassment they have faced. It is found in Table VIII.7 that 60.0% female workers of the study group and 41.2% female workers of the control group have stated that they had to hear bad comments about them or to face teasing on the way to the industry. But 47.7% female workers of the study group and 52.9% female workers of the control group have faced threatening on the road. On the other hand, 42.2% female workers of the study group and 52.9% female workers of the control group were attacked by hijackers/moistens. But 32.1% and 29.4% female workers of the study and the control groups respectively have stated that they have heard about rape of the women workers on the way to industry. Besides, 15.7% and 17.6% female workers of the study and control groups have said that they were beaten in the industry by the Supervisor or Production Manager, 3.7% and 11.8% female workers of the study and the control groups respectively have also reported that they have heard about rape of the fellow female workers in the premises of the industry itself. While 13.9% female and 5.9% female of the study and the control groups have stated that they were threatened by women traffickers in the residence. On the other hand, 27.5% female and 11.8% female of the study and control groups respectively have stated that they were attacked by moistens in the residence. It is interesting to note that 45.5% female and 47.1% female of the study and the control group respectively have stated that they have heard about women hijacking on the way to industry.

Table : VIII.7
 Specific Types of Harassment Faced by Workers

Specific Types of Harassment	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Faced Threatening while walking along the road										
Yes.....	6	5.4%	53	47.7%	1	5.9%	9	52.9%	69	53.9%
No.....	6	5.4%	33	29.7%	0	.0%	4	23.5%	43	33.6%
No response.....	6	5.4%	7	6.3%	3	17.6%	0	.0%	16	12.5%
TOTAL.....	18	16.2%	93	83.8%	4	23.5%	13	76.5%	128	100%
Teasing on the way to industry										
Yes.....	2	1.8%	66	60.0%	1	5.9%	7	41.2%	76	59.8%
No.....	10	9.1%	19	17.3%	0	.0%	6	35.3%	35	27.6%
No response.....	6	5.5%	7	6.4%	3	17.6%	0	.0%	16	12.6%
TOTAL.....	18	16.4%	92	83.6%	4	23.5%	13	76.5%	127	100%
Attacked by Moistens/Hijackers										
Yes.....	6	5.5%	46	42.2%	0	.0%	9	52.9%	61	48.4%
No.....	5	4.6%	39	35.8%	1	5.9%	4	23.5%	49	38.9%
No response.....	6	5.5%	7	6.4%	3	17.6%	0	.0%	16	12.7%
TOTAL.....	17	15.6%	92	84.4%	4	23.5%	13	76.5%	126	100%
Raped on the way to the industry										
Yes.....	0	.0%	35	32.1%	0	.0%	5	29.4%	40	31.7%
No.....	11	10.1%	50	45.9%	1	5.9%	8	47.1%	70	55.6%
No response.....	6	5.5%	7	6.4%	3	17.6%	0	.0%	16	12.7%
TOTAL.....	17	15.6%	92	84.4%	4	23.5%	13	76.5%	126	100%
Attacked by Police on the way to industry										
Yes.....	2	1.9%	2	1.9%	0	.0%	0	.0%	4	3.2%
No.....	9	8.3%	82	75.9%	1	5.9%	13	76.5%	105	84.0%
No response.....	6	5.6%	7	6.5%	3	17.6%	0	.0%	16	12.8%
TOTAL.....	17	15.7%	91	84.3%	4	23.5%	13	76.5%	125	100%
Beaten by Supervisor in the industry										
Yes.....	3	2.8%	17	15.7%	1	5.9%	3	17.6%	24	19.2%
No.....	8	7.4%	67	62.0%	0	.0%	10	58.8%	85	68.0%
No response.....	6	5.6%	7	6.5%	3	17.6%	0	.0%	16	12.8%
TOTAL.....	17	15.7%	91	84.3%	4	23.5%	13	76.5%	125	100%
Raped inside the industry										
Yes.....	0	.0%	4	3.7%	0	.0%	2	11.8%	6	4.8%
No.....	11	10.2%	80	74.1%	1	5.9%	11	64.7%	103	82.4%
No response.....	6	5.6%	7	6.5%	3	17.6%	0	.0%	16	12.8%
TOTAL.....	17	15.7%	91	84.3%	4	23.5%	13	76.5%	125	100%
Harassment by women Traffickers										
Yes.....	0	.0%	15	13.9%	0	.0%	1	5.9%	16	12.8%
No.....	11	10.2%	69	63.9%	1	5.9%	12	70.6%	93	74.4%
No response.....	6	5.6%	7	6.5%	3	17.6%	0	.0%	16	12.8%
TOTAL.....	17	15.7%	91	84.3%	4	23.5%	13	76.5%	125	100%
Attacked by Moistens at the residence										
Yes.....	1	.9%	30	27.5%	0	.0%	2	11.8%	33	26.2%
No.....	10	9.2%	55	50.5%	1	5.9%	11	64.7%	77	61.1%
No response.....	6	5.5%	7	6.4%	3	17.6%	0	.0%	16	12.7%
TOTAL.....	17	15.6%	92	84.4%	4	23.5%	13	76.5%	126	100%
Hijacked on the way to the industry										
Yes.....	3	2.7%	50	45.5%	0	.0%	8	47.1%	61	48.0%
No.....	9	8.2%	35	31.8%	1	5.9%	5	29.4%	50	39.4%
No response.....	6	5.5%	7	6.4%	3	17.6%	0	.0%	16	12.6%
TOTAL.....	18	16.4%	92	83.6%	4	23.5%	13	76.5%	127	100%

It is clear that the female workers of the study group have faced harassment in higher percentage than that of the control group females. The reason behind it might be the age of female workers of the study group, that is they are very young while the respondents of the control group are adolescent girls or child labour. Thus it can be said that the women workers of Garment Industries are feeling very insecure in the industry as well as on the street and the residence itself.

ATTITUDE OF NEIGHBOURS TOWARDS WORKING IN THE GARMENT INDUSTRIES

The Table VIII.8 shows that 30.2% female and 8.9% male workers of the study group perceived that their neighbours considered the work in garments as good, while 28.6% female and 10.2% male workers of the control group have perceived the same. Only 22.3% female workers of the study group and 26.5% female workers of the control group have reported that they think their neighbour considered it not bad, while 5.4% and 10.2% male workers of both the study and control group have reported the similar experience. It is also seen that 21.8% and 12.2% female workers in the study and control groups respectively have stated that neighbours considered it "Bad", 6.4% and 4.1% male respondents of the study and control groups respectively have stated that neighbours considered it "Bad". But a very small percentage of female respondents of both the groups (study 1.5% and control 2.0%) have "no idea" and 1.5% and

Table : VIII.8
Attitudes of Neighbours Towards Workers Joining
Garment Industries

Attitudes of Neighbours Towards Workers Joining Garment Industries	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Good.....	18	8.9%	61	30.2%	5	10.2%	14	28.6%	98	39.0%
Fair.....	11	5.4%	45	22.3%	5	10.2%	13	26.5%	74	29.5%
Bad.....	13	6.4%	44	21.8%	2	4.1%	6	12.2%	65	25.9%
No idea.....	3	1.5%	3	1.5%	1	2.0%	1	2.0%	8	3.2%
No response.....	1	.5%	3	1.5%	0	.0%	2	4.1%	6	2.4%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

2.0% male respondents have stated the same. On the other hand, 1.5% female workers of the study group and 4.1% female workers of the control group did not respond to this query.

On the basis of the above facts it may be said that relatively larger number of the female workers of the control group have reported that their neighbours thought about their garment work as both Good and Fair. But among the female workers of the study group higher percentage have stated that their neighbours considered their work in the garment as good. Not only that, higher percentage of the study group workers have stated that their neighbours considered it bad than that of the control group respondents.

ATTITUDE OF RELATIVES TOWARDS WORKING IN THE GARMENT INDUSTRIES

The Table VIII.9 shows that 34.2% female workers of the study group have said that their relatives consider it good but 32.7% female respondents of the control group have reported that their relatives have similar view. 14.3% male workers of the control group and 10.4% male workers of the study group have reported that their relative's perception about working in the garments is quite good. In the study group 24.8% female workers have stated that

Table : VIII.9
Attitudes of Worker's Relatives Towards Joining
the Garment Industries

Attitudes of Relatives Towards Joining Garments	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Good.....	21	10.4%	69	34.2%	7	14.3%	16	32.7%	113	45.0%
Fair.....	7	3.5%	50	24.8%	5	10.2%	11	22.4%	73	29.1%
Bad.....	14	6.9%	32	15.8%	1	2.0%	8	16.3%	55	21.9%
No idea.....	4	2.0%	3	1.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	7	2.8%
No response.....	0	.0%	2	1.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	3	1.2%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

their relatives have considered garment work as fair, but 22.4% female workers of the control group have said that their relative's perception is similar, 10.2% male workers of the control group and

3.5% male workers of the study group have informed me that their relative's opinion is fair. On the other hand, 15.8% and 16.3% female respondents of the study and control group respectively have reported that their relative's perception on the job in the garments is bad. 6.9% and 2.0% male workers of the study group and control group respectively have stated that their relative consider garment work as "Bad". In the present study only 2.0% male workers and 1.5% female workers of the study group have said that they have no idea but none of the control group respondents has expressed the similar view. 2.0% female workers of the control group were silent but only 1.0% female workers of the study group did not answer this question.

The response pattern suggests that the percentage of female workers of the study is higher than that of the control group regarding their relative's perception that work in the Garment Industry is "Good/Fair", but the percentage of male respondents of the control group who have stated that perception of their relatives is "Good/Fair" about the job in the Garment Industry is even far far higher than that of the male workers of the study group.

ATTITUDE OF FAMILY MEMBERS TOWARD WORKING IN THE GARMENT INDUSTRIES

Table VIII.10 shows that the 42.6% female workers of the study group and 22.4% female workers of the control group have said that their family members have considered the garment job as good. Although 12.2% male workers of the control group and 8.4% male workers of the study group have stated that their family members have perceived the garment work is good. From this table it approves that 20.4% female respondents of the control group have said that their family members have considered it fair but only 12.9% female workers of the study group respondents have informed me that garment job is considered fair by their relatives. A small percentage of the study and control group male respondents have stated that their relative think it "Fair". It is observed that 6.4% and 2.0% female workers of the study and control group respectively have reported that their relatives considered it "Bad".

Table : VIII.10
Attitudes of Family Members Towards Working
in the Garment Industries

Attitudes of Family Members Towards Joining Garments	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Good.....	17	8.4%	86	42.6%	6	12.2%	11	22.4%	120	47.8%
Fair.....	7	3.5%	26	12.9%	1	2.0%	10	20.4%	44	17.5%
Bad.....	5	2.5%	13	6.4%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	19	7.6%
No idea.....	1	.5%	2	1.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	4	1.6%
No response.....	16	7.9%	29	14.4%	6	12.2%	13	26.5%	64	25.5%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

One the other hand, 2.5% male workers of the study group and no male from the control group have reported that garment job is considered "Bad" by their family members. But 26.5% female workers of the control group and 14.4% female workers of the study group did not respond to the query, 7.9% male workers of the study group and 12.2% male workers of control group did not respond. Only a small percentage of female workers from the both groups have stated that they have no idea.

This indicates the fact that the percentage of family members of the female workers belonging to the study group who have considered that the garment job is "Good and Fair" is higher than that of the control group but, on the other hand, even more percentage of control group male respondents have reported that their family members perceived the working in Garment Industry is "Good and Fair" than the male respondents of the study group. Besides, larger number of female workers from the study group have stated that their family members considered garment work as "Bad" compared to that of the control group. But 2.5% male respondents of the study group only stated that their family considered is "Bad".

PERSONAL PERCEPTION ABOUT JOINING THE GARMENT INDUSTRY

It is observed in the table VIII.11 that 49.5% female workers of the study group and 42.9% female workers of the control group have

"Good" impression about themselves while 8.9% male workers of the study groups and 12.2% male workers of the control group have reported the same. On the other hand, 9.4% and 16.3% female workers of the study and the control groups respectively have stated that they have moderately favourable impression about themselves while 5.9% and 4.1% male workers of the study and the control groups respectively expressed the same. But 3.5% and 2% female workers of the study and the control groups have replied that they have "Bad" idea about themselves. While 3.5% and 2% male workers of the study and the control groups respectively have expressed the similar opinion. On the other hand, 17% workers belonging to the both groups did not respond to this question. On the basis of the above discussion it may be assumed that the percentage of female workers who have developed their self-confidence by working in the garments is quite high. They consider themselves that they are doing the right thing. But the percentage of the female workers of the control group who perceive that they are doing the right thing is comparatively low.

At best it may be said their self-confidence among the later group has just begun to grow. However the self-confidence among the male workers of the control group as compared to that of the study group has significantly developed.

Table : VIII.11
Personal Perception of the Workers About Joining
the Garment Industries

Personal Perception about Joining Garment Industry	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Good.....	18	8.9%	100	49.5%	6	12.2%	21	42.9%	145	57.8%
Fair.....	12	5.9%	19	9.4%	2	4.1%	8	16.3%	41	16.3%
Bad.....	7	3.5%	7	3.5%	1	2.0%	1	2.0%	16	6.4%
No idea.....	3	1.5%	1	.5%	1	2.0%	1	2.0%	6	2.4%
No response.....	6	3.0%	29	14.4%	3	6.1%	5	10.2%	43	17.1%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

Most of the female workers of the study and control group have considered their work in the Garment Industry as good. It is important to note that the employment of female workers in the Garment Industries has brought significant social changes in the tradition bound society of Bangladesh. Not long ago rural families did not like the women working outside, not to speak of Garment Industries. The traditional attitudes towards women working outside, especially any kind of physical work might be gradually changing due to the present of abject poverty and for more survival as human being.

PRINCIPAL EARNING MEMBER OF THE FAMILY

The principal earner of a family is defined here as the member whose earning is the highest in the family. The present empirical research shows that 24.3% female workers of the study group are the principal earners whereas only 6.1% female workers of the control group belong to this category. 6.4% male workers of the study group and none from the control group have reported that they are the principal earners of their respective families.

The Table VIII.12 reflects the fact that 19.3% and 30.6% female workers of the study and control group respectively have indicated that father is the principal earner of the family. 9.9% and 14.3%

Table : VIII.12
Principal Earning Member of the Family.

Principal Earning Member of the Family	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Myself.....	13	6.4%	49	24.3%	0	.0%	3	6.1%	65	25.9%
Husband/Wife.....	1	.5%	37	18.3%	0	.0%	7	14.3%	45	17.9%
Father.....	20	9.9%	39	19.3%	7	14.3%	15	30.6%	81	32.3%
Mother.....	2	1.0%	4	2.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	7	2.8%
Brother.....	8	4.0%	19	9.4%	3	6.1%	6	12.2%	36	14.3%
Sister.....	1	.5%	3	1.5%	1	2.0%	2	4.1%	7	2.8%
Others.....	1	.5%	5	2.5%	2	4.1%	2	4.1%	10	4.0%
Total.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

male respondents of the study and the control group respectively have stated the fact. But 18.3% and 14.3% female respondents of the study and control group respectively have reported that husband is the principal earner of the family. It is also noted that 9.4% and 12.2% female workers of the study and control group respectively have maintained that brother is the principal earner of the family while 4% and 6.1% male workers of both groups have stated the same fact. On the other hand, 4.1% and 1.5% female respondents of the control and the study group respectively have indicated that the sister is the principal earner. The above pattern of responses suggests that the jobs of women in the Garment Industry greatly contribute to the steady increase of family income. The percentage of female workers of the study as the principal earners of the family is the highest, but the percentage of female workers of the control group as the principal earners is quite small. On the other hand, the percentage of father being the principal earner is higher among the female workers of the control group in contrast to that of lower percentage of the study group. While the percentage of male workers themselves being the highest as the principal earners of the study group and their is none so in the control. Similar phenomenon is observed in the case of male respondents of both the study group and control group where father is the principal earner. Thus it is evident in this study that higher percentage of female workers are the principal earners of the family than male workers. The fact that the female workers are gradually becoming principal earners indicates an important change in the socio-economic status of women. Traditionally, the male members are considered the principal earners of the family but the above phenomenon suggests a significant departure.

SPENDERS OF EARNING AND DECISION-MAKERS OF THE FAMILY

As regards the expenditure of the earnings of the garment workers, 28.7% and 22.4% female respondents of study and control group respectively have claimed that they are themselves the spenders of their earnings (see Table VIII.13). On the other hand, 13.4% and 12.2% male respondents of the study and control group respectively have stated the same fact. But 14.4% and 20.4% female workers of

the study and control group respectively have stated that the father used to spend their earnings. The similar answer was given by 5.4% and 4.1% male respondents of the study and control group respectively. The most interesting fact is that only 5.9% female respondents of the study group have stated that they spend their earnings jointly. It is also demonstrated that 19.8% and 26.5% female workers and 11.4% and 14.3% male workers belonging to the study and control group respectively have reported that father is the decision-maker about expenditure of the family. On the other hand, only 15.3% and 12.2% female workers of the study and control group informed me that they are themselves the decision-makers for

Table : VIII.13
Spenders of Earnings and Decision-Makers of the Family
of Garment Workers

Spenders of Earnings and Decision-Makers of the Family	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Spenders of Earnings										
Myself.....	27	13.4%	58	28.7%	6	12.2%	11	22.4%	102	40.6%
Husband/Wife.....	0	.0%	24	11.9%	0	.0%	2	4.1%	26	10.4%
Father.....	11	5.4%	29	14.4%	2	4.1%	10	20.4%	52	20.7%
Mother.....	6	3.0%	17	8.4%	1	2.0%	3	6.1%	27	10.8%
Brother.....	0	.0%	9	4.5%	1	2.0%	1	2.0%	11	4.4%
Sister.....	0	.0%	5	2.5%	1	2.0%	5	10.2%	11	4.4%
Jointly.....	0	.0%	12	5.9%	0	.0%	0	.0%	12	4.8%
Others.....	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	4	8.2%	5	2.0%
No response.....	2	1.0%	2	1.0%	1	2.0%	0	.0%	5	2.0%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%
Decision Makers of Family										
Myself.....	7	3.5%	31	15.3%	0	.0%	6	12.2%	44	17.5%
Husband/Wife.....	0	.0%	23	11.4%	0	.0%	6	12.2%	29	11.6%
Father.....	23	11.4%	40	19.8%	7	14.3%	13	26.5%	83	33.1%
Mother.....	5	2.5%	15	7.4%	1	2.0%	5	10.2%	26	10.4%
Brother.....	4	2.0%	12	5.9%	4	8.2%	0	.0%	20	8.0%
Sister.....	0	.0%	4	2.0%	1	2.0%	1	2.0%	6	2.4%
Jointly.....	6	3.0%	29	14.4%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	36	14.3%
Others.....	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	3	6.1%	3	1.2%
No response.....	1	.5%	2	1.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	4	1.6%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

expenditure of the family. Among the female workers 11.4% and 12.2% of the study and control group respectively have indicated that husband decides about expenditure of the family. Only 14.4% female workers of the study group have stated that they jointly take

decision regarding the expenditure and 2% female workers of the control group have expressed the similar view.

It is observed that the highest percentage of respondents of both the groups have opined that father is the decision-maker of the family. While the second highest decision-maker of the family is the women who earn. Besides, a significant number of women respondents from the study group informed about joint decision - the fact of which should in taken note of.

It is important to note that though the women are principal earners and they can spend their earnings themselves, but they can not play the principal role of decision making in the family. It means that the women are in the second position of decision-making process of the family even though they are the principal earners.

INDEPENDENT SHOPPING AND TRAVELLING BY THE WOMEN WORKERS

In order to determine the degree of self dependence and social consciousness of the garment workers, the Table VIII.14 presents

Table : VIII.14
Shopping and Travelling of Workers by Gender

Shopping and Travelling of Workers Alone	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
			Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Whether go to market alone										
Yes.....	37	18.3%	50	24.8%	6	12.2%	5	10.2%	98	39.0%
No.....	8	4.0%	106	52.5%	6	12.2%	31	63.3%	151	60.2%
No response.....	1	.5%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	0	.0%	2	.8%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%
Whether travel alone										
Yes.....	40	19.8%	38	18.8%	6	12.2%	4	8.2%	88	35.1%
No.....	4	2.0%	116	57.4%	6	12.2%	32	65.3%	158	62.9%
No response.....	2	1.0%	2	1.0%	1	2.0%	0	.0%	5	2.0%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

certain important facts. 52.5% and 63.3% female respondents of the study and control group respectively have said that they cannot go for shopping alone and 57.4% and 65.3% female workers of the study and the control group respectively cannot travel alone. On the other hand, 24.8% and 10.2% female workers of the study and control group respectively can go to the market alone and 18.8% and 8.2% female workers of the study and control group respectively can travel alone.

CHOICE OF SPOUSE

The Table VIII.15 shows that 31.5% female workers of the study group and 27.3% female workers of the control group got married according to their own choice while 6.7% male workers of study group and none from control group stated the same fact. On the other hand, 52.8% and 63.6% female workers of the study and control group respectively have stated that they got married according to the choice of their family members. But 5.6% and 9.1% male workers of the study and control group respectively have expressed the same view. Only 3.3% respondents of the study group have no response to the query.

It is revealed in the said table that the percentage of female workers of the study group who have stated that they got married

Table : VIII.15
Marriage of Workers According to Their Own Choice by Gender

Whether married according to own choice	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Yes.....	6	6.7%	28	31.5%	0	0.0%	3	27.3%	37	37.0%
No.....	5	5.6%	47	52.8%	1	9.1%	7	63.6%	60	60.0%
No response..	1	1.1%	2	2.2%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	3	3.0%
TOTAL...	12	13.4%	77	86.6%	1	9.1%	10	90.9%	100	100%

according to their own choice is higher. It is also important to note that although most of the female workers are the principal earners of the family they can play major role in family spendings and they can also take decisions about their own marriage yet they cannot play the role of a principal decision-maker in the family.

REASONS FOR NOT GETTING MARRIED

It may be observed in the Table VIII.16 that 38.4% and 51.3% female workers of the study and control group respectively have mentioned that they were getting married as the time for marriage was yet to be matured. While 13.4% and 15.4% male workers of the study and control group have stated the same fact respectively. Among the respondents 10.7% and 2.6% female workers belonging to both the study and the control group respectively have reported that they would marry after adequate earning while 3.6% and 2.6% male workers of the study and control group have the similar opinion. It is interesting to note that most of the respondents of both the groups have opined about their marriage. Although majority

Table : VIII.16
Reasons for not Getting Married by Gender

Reasons for not Getting Married	Type								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				No	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%		
Non availability of good bridegroom.....	1	.9%	4	3.6%	0	.0%	1	2.6%	6	4.0%
It is not the time for marriage.....	15	13.4%	34	38.4%	6	15.4%	20	51.3%	84	55.6%
After earning more.....	4	3.6%	12	10.7%	1	2.6%	1	2.6%	18	11.9%
No money for dowry.....	0	.0%	2	1.8%	0	.0%	0	.0%	2	1.3%
Not willing to marry.....	0	.0%	3	2.7%	0	.0%	0	.0%	3	2.0%
Parent's concern	2	1.8%	12	10.7%	1	2.6%	2	3.1%	17	11.3%
No response.....	14	12.5%	0	.0%	5	12.8%	2	5.1%	21	13.9%
TOTAL	36	32.1%	76	67.9%	13	33.3%	26	66.7%	151	100%

of them reported that the time for marriage had not become mature it can be said that they are well aware of their marriage themselves.

RELATIONSHIP WITH SPOUSE

The garment workers have to spend most of their time in the place of their work. Whether relationship with the spouse has improved or deteriorated due to their work in the garments may be considered as a social aspect.

It is observed in the Table VIII.17 that 35% and 50% female workers of study and control group respectively have stated that their relationship with their husbands has improved while about 23.8% female of the study group have stated that their relationship is quite fair. 12.5% and 25% female workers of the study and the control groups respectively have reported that their relationship has not changed. But 13.8% and 25% female workers of the study and

Table : VIII.17
Workers Relationship with Spouse

Nature of Relationship with Spouse	TYPE						TOTAL	
	Study				Control		NO	%
	Male		Female		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Improved.....	2	2.5%	28	35.0%	4	50.0%	34	38.6%
Fair.....	0	.0%	19	23.8%	0	.0%	19	21.6%
Same.....	3	3.8%	10	12.5%	2	25.0%	15	17.0%
Deteriorated.....	0	.0%	11	13.8%	2	25.0%	13	14.8%
No response.....	4	5.0%	3	3.8%	0	.0%	7	8.0%
TOTAL.....	9	11.3%	71	88.8%	8	100%	88	100%

the control group respectively have said that due to their job in the garments their relationship with husband has deteriorated.

ASSISTANCE OF FEMALE WORKERS HUSBAND IN HOUSEHOLD ACTIVITIES

When enquired about any assistance of husbands in the household activities, among respondents of study group 21.7% female have replied

Table : VIII.18
Assistance of Women Worker's Husbands in Household Activities

Types of Assistance Provided by Spouse in Household Work	TYPE						TOTAL	
	Study				Control		NO	%
	Male		Female		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
1. Cooking.....	0	.0%	9	15.0%	1	33.3%	10	15.9%
2. Caring of Children	0	.0%	5	8.3%	1	33.3%	6	9.5%
3. 1+2.....	0	.0%	4	6.7%	0	.0%	4	6.3%
4. Washing of Clothes	0	.0%	1	1.7%	0	.0%	1	1.6%
5. 1+4.....	0	.0%	1	1.7%	1	33.3%	2	3.2%
6. 1+2+4.....	0	.0%	1	1.7%	0	.0%	1	1.6%
7. Cleaning of home.	4	6.7%	13	21.7%	0	.0%	17	27.0%
8. 1+8*.....	0	.0%	4	6.7%	0	.0%	4	6.3%
9. 1+2+8*.....	0	.0%	1	1.7%	0	.0%	1	1.6%
10. 4+8*.....	1	1.7%	2	3.3%	0	.0%	3	4.8%
11. 1+4+8*.....	0	.0%	2	3.3%	0	.0%	2	3.2%
12. 1+2+4+8*.....	0	.0%	4	6.7%	0	.0%	4	6.3%
13. No response.....	3	5.0%	5	8.3%	0	.0%	8	12.7%
TOTAL.....	8	13.3%	52	86.7%	3	100%	63	100%

8* Means not applicable

that their husbands help in cleaning home, 15% stated their help in cooking and 8.3% in caring of children (see Table VIII.18). On the other hand, 33.3% female workers received help from the husbands for cooking and same percentage of women received assistance from husbands in caring of children and the remaining 33.3% female workers of the control group have stated that they receive help from husbands for cooking and washing of clothes. When the garment workers were asked about the number of hours their spouses assist

Table : VIII.19
Number of Hours the Spouse Assist Domestic Work by Gender

Number of Hours Spouse Assist in Domestic Work	TYPE						TOTAL	
	Study				Control		NO	%
	Male		Female		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Don't assist.....	0	.0%	7	10.9%	3	42.9%	10	14.1%
1 hour.....	0	.0%	12	18.8%	1	14.3%	13	18.3%
2 hours.....	1	1.6%	13	20.3%	0	.0%	14	19.7%
3+hours.....	0	.0%	9	14.1%	0	.0%	9	12.7%
No response.....	5	7.8%	17	26.6%	3	42.9%	25	35.2%
TOTAL.....	6	9.4%	58	90.6%	7	100%	71	100%

for house work, they replied that 19.7% spent 2 hours for assistance, 18.3% assisted for one hour; while 14.1% reported no assistance by the husbands. There is one interesting fact that 35.2% did not respond to this question (see Table VIII.19). It is observed in the above table that 20.3% female workers of the study group have stated that their husbands assist for two hours in contrast to none of the control; and 18.8% and 14.3% female workers of both the groups have stated that they receive one hour assistance from their husbands. Where as 10.9% and 42.9% female workers of the two groups have stated that their husbands do not assist them in household work. More than three hours assistance of the husband have been received by only 14.1% female respondents of study group.

PHYSICAL TORTURE BY SPOUSE BEFORE AND AFTER JOINING GARMENTS

It is known from the Table VIII.20 that about 19.5% female workers have complained that they are now beaten by their husbands, while

Table : VIII.20
Physical Torture by Spouse Before and After Joining Garments

Beating by Spouse Before and After Joining Garments	TYPE						TOTAL	
	Study				Control		NO	%
	Male		Female		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Beaten by spouse before joining garment								
Yes.....	0	.0%	15	21.1%	1	11.1%	16	20.0%
No.....	0	.0%	39	54.9%	6	66.7%	45	56.3%
No response.....	5	7.0%	12	16.9%	2	22.2%	19	23.8%
TOTAL.....	5	7.0%	66	93.0%	9	100%	80	100%
Beaten by spouse after joining garment								
Yes.....	0	.0%	14	17.9%	3	33.3%	17	19.5%
No.....	2	2.6%	51	65.4%	6	66.7%	59	67.8%
No response.....	4	5.1%	7	9.0%	0	.0%	11	12.6%
TOTAL.....	6	7.7%	72	92.3%	9	100%	87	100%

20% responded that they were beaten before joining the garments work. On the other hand, 67.8% have stated that they are not beaten

after joining the garments and 56.3% said that they were not beaten by husband even before joining this work. A significant percentage (i.e.about 24%) of the female workers did not respond to this query.

It is clear from the above facts that the physical torture of spouse before and after joining the garments has reduced the rate of quarrel or beating in the family of garment worker. The relevant Table shows that 56.3% women were not beaten by their husbands before joining the garments while 67.8% respondents are not beaten by the spouse at present. This is, indeed, a clear indication of the improvement of their social status.

REASONS FOR BEATING BY SPOUSE

The respondents were asked about the reasons for beating. The Table VIII.21 reflects the fact that among the respondents 17.9% female workers have stated that beating by the husband was caused by his desire to spend wife's earnings, while 14.3% said that they were beaten for dowry. But 42.9% respondents did not open their mouths on this question where as some of them have cried.

Table : VIII.21
Reasons for Beating by Spouse

Reasons for Beating by Spouse	TYPE						TOTAL	
	Study				Control		NO	%
	Male		Female		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
1.Late home coming	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%
2.Give no time to spouse.....	0	.0%	1	4.0%	0	.0%	1	3.6%
3.Housework not finished in time....	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%
4.Wants to spend earnings of spouse..	0	.0%	5	20.0%	0	.0%	5	17.9%
5.2+4.....	0	.0%	1	4.0%	1	33.3%	2	7.1%
6.1+2+8.....	0	.0%	1	4.0%	0	.0%	1	3.6%
7.4+8.....	0	.0%	1	4.0%	0	.0%	1	3.6%
8.For dowry.....	0	.0%	2	8.0%	2	66.7%	4	14.3%
9.8+16.....	0	.0%	1	4.0%	0	.0%	1	3.6%
10.Others.....	0	.0%	1	4.0%	0	.0%	1	3.6%
11.No response.....	4	16.0%	8	32.0%	0	.0%	12	42.9%
TOTAL.....	4	16.0%	21	84.0%	3	100%	28	100%

LENGTH OF SERVICE AND RELATIONSHIP WITH SPOUSE

Length of service might have some effect on the relationship with the spouse. It is revealed in the Table VIII.22 that due to the service for 5-6 years 13.8% respondents of the study group have reported that their relationship with their spouses have improved, while 6.2% reported that their relationship is quite fair, and 1.5% respondents said that their relationship has remained the same as before. But due to 3-4 years service, 10.8% respondents have stated that their relationship with spouse has improved after joining the Garment Industry, 12.3% reported that their relationship is quite fair and 4.6% said relationship is unchanged and 1.5% reported that their relationship has deteriorated with the spouse. Among the respondents, 3.1% did not give any answer to this question. In case of 1-2 years service 3.1% respondents of the

Table : VIII.22
Length of Service and Relationship with the Spouse

Length of Service	Control or Study	Nature of Relationship				
		Improved 1	Fair 2	Same 3	Deteriorated 4	No response 9
<1 year	Control	57.1%	.0%	28.6%	14.3%	.0%
	Study	.0%	.0%	.0%	1.5%	.0%
1-2 years	Control	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%
	Study	3.1%	3.1%	1.5%	.0%	1.5%
3-4 years	Control	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%
	Study	10.8%	12.3%	4.6%	1.5%	3.1%
5-6 years	Control	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%
	Study	13.8%	6.2%	1.5%		1.5%
7-8 years	Control	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%
	Study	6.2%	3.1%	9.2%	.0%	.0%
9+ years	Control	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%
	Study	7.7%	1.5%	1.5%	3.1%	1.5%

study group have reported that their relationship have improved, 3.1% respondents of the same category of service length have stated that their relationship "Quite Fair" and 1.5% respondents'

relationship is unchanged and 1.5% have "no response". 1.5% respondents whose service period is less than 1 year stated that their relationship has deteriorated. But among those whose service length is 7-8 years, 6.2% respondents stated that their relationship have improved and 3.1% respondents stated that their relationship is "Quite Fair" and 9.2% of respondents said that their relationship has remained the same. On the other hand, 7.7% respondents whose length of service is more than 9 years have stated that their relationship has improved, 1.5% of respondents reported that their relationship is "Quite Fair" and 1.5% respondents said that their relationship is same as before and 3.1% reported that their relationship has deteriorated while 1.5% of respondents did not respond.

Thus it is revealed from the above fact that there is a higher percentage of respondents whose relationship has "Improved and Fair" because of their length of service from 3-6 years but after 6 years of their service their relation has "Improved" and become "Fair". It is also simultaneously observed that workers of less service length have not maintained good relationship while the workers with longer service period have improved their relationship.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LENGTH OF SERVICE AND DECISION-MAKING POWER

It is revealed in the Table VIII.23 that there is a relationship between the length of service and decision-making power in the family. The relevant table shows that in the study group, 6.4% respondents are decision makers of family affairs, whose length of service is 5-6 years and 5.0% of the same group could take decision in the family matters having 3-4 years service, 2.5% respondents are decision-makers of the family whose length of service is from 1-2 years. Only 1.0% are decision makers of the family having <1 year service length. It is also observed that after 6 years of service their decision making power in the family has declined. It is interesting to note that 14.4% respondents have stated that father is the decision-maker, whose length of service is 1-2 years. Secondly, the many respondents take decision jointly in the family,

whose length of service is 3-9 years. On the other hand, only 12.2% of the control group respondents are decision-makers of the family. But 38.8% respondents have stated that their father is exclusively the decision maker and 12.2% have said

Table : VIII.23
Workers' Length of Service and Decision Making Power

Length of Service	Control or Study	Decision Makers of Family								
		Myself	Husband/Wife	Father	Mother	Brother	Sister	Jointly	No response	Others
<1 year	Control	12.2%	12.2%	38.8%	12.2%	8.2%	4.1%	2.0%	2.0%	6.1%
	Study	1.0%	0.0%	3.5%	1.5%	1.5%	0.0%	.5%	0.0%	0.0%
1-2 years	Control	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
	Study	2.5%	1.0%	14.4%	3.5%	3.5%	1.0%	2.5%	1.5%	0.0%
3-4 years	Control	0.0%	0.0%	2.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
	Study	5.0%	5.0%	6.9%	2.0%	2.0%	0.5%	5.0%	0.0%	0.0%
5-6 years	Control	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
	Study	6.4%	2.0%	4.5%	1.0%	0.5%	0.0%	2.5%	0.0%	0.0%
7-8 years	Control	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
	Study	2.5%	2.0%	0.5%	1.0%	0.5%	0.5%	4.5%	0.0%	0.0%
9+ years	Control	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
	Study	1.5%	1.5%	1.5%	1.0%	0.0%	0.0%	2.5%	0.0%	0.0%

their husband, 12.2% said their mother, 8.2% said their brother and 4.1% said their sister are decision-makers of the family. Thus it is clear that decision-making power of the respondents has increased in the family with length of service.

CHAPTER IX

HEALTH AND NUTRITIONAL STATUS OF THE GARMENT WOMEN WORKERS

Maintenance of good health and nutrition of the workers is the most important prerequisite for better production in any industry. Good health and physique can be maintained by intake of adequate food and healthy environment. Besides, the control of diseases as well as medical facilities, better sanitation, rest and care are also essential. If anybody wants to assess the health status of women s(he) has to look into the utilization of health care facilities as well as the services available for maintaining good physical and mental health.

HEALTH STATUS OF GARMENT WORKERS

Health status of the garment women workers depends on various factors like open space, environment, good ventilation and lighting arrangements, regular medical checkup, toilet facilities etc. In the present study I have tried to examine only those aspects which are particularly relevant to hygiene and nutrition. In this chapter, facilities provided by the Garment Industries for the maintenance of health and nutritional status of women workers are to be analysed.

TOILET FACILITIES

It is observed that all the garments industries have separate toilets for male and female workers. Table IX.1 shows that 68.8% and 65.3% female workers of the study and control group respectively have stated that they have separate toilet for female workers. On the other hand, 20.3% and 24.5% male workers have stated that there are separate toilet facilities for female. But 6.8% of the total respondents have replied in negative in regard to separate toilet for female. However; it has been observed that though there are separate toilets for female and male workers these are not adequate for female as well as male workers. Some workers have narrated that the time allowed by the Supervisor for

defecation is not at all enough. Some of these toilets are neither maintained well nor in good hygienic condition. Inadequate toilet facilities as well as irregular maintenance have adverse effect on the health of the workers.

Table : IX.1
Availability of Toilet Facilities for Female Workers in the Garment Industries

Availability of separate toilet for female workers	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Yes.....	41	20.3%	139	68.8%	12	24.5%	32	65.3%	224	89.2%
No.....	4	2.0%	11	5.4%	0	.0%	2	4.1%	17	6.8%
No response.....	1	.5%	6	3.0%	1	2.0%	2	4.1%	10	4.0%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

Toilet facilities at the residence of the garments workers are also not good. Sometimes, one toilet is being used by 5-7 families. They have to make a long queue for defecation as well as for bath in their residences.

AVAILABILITY OF DINING ROOM FOR THE WORKERS

It is observed in the Table IX.2 that out of the total respondents 37.8% have said the Garments Industries have dining room, while 59.4% have stated in negative. But 43.6% and 42.9% female workers of the study and the control groups respectively have stated that there is no dining room in the Garment Industry for taking lunch

Table : IX.2
Availability of Dining Room for the Workers in the Industries

Availability of Dining Room for the Workers	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Yes.....	13	6.4%	64	31.7%	4	8.2%	14	28.6%	95	37.8%
No.....	33	16.3%	88	43.6%	7	14.3%	21	42.9%	149	59.4%
No response.....	0	.0%	4	2.0%	2	4.1%	1	2.0%	7	2.8%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

while 16.3% and 14.3% male respondents have stated the same. While 31.7% and 28.6% female workers of the study and control groups have informed me that there is dining room and the similar fact has been stated by 6.4% and 8.2% male workers of the study and the control groups respectively. The availability of dining room has been observed directly by me and it has been found that there is no specific dining room for the workers to take lunch except in one industry. But the dining space is very inadequate in that industry.

PLACE OF LUNCH

Place of taking lunch by the garments workers is also identified in the present study. It is observed in the Table IX.3 that among the respondents 32.2% and 42.9% female workers of the study and the

Table : IX.3
Place of Taking Lunch by the Workers

Place of Taking Lunch by the Workers	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
On roof/ Veranda of the Industries..	15	7.4%	68	33.7%	4	8.2%	12	24.5%	99	39.4%
Lunch room.....	2	1.0%	16	7.9%	1	2.0%	3	6.1%	22	8.8%
Hotel.....	1	.5%	1	.5%	1	2.0%	0	.0%	3	1.2%
Residence nearer to work place.....	25	12.4%	65	32.2%	7	14.3%	21	42.9%	118	47.0%
Don't take lunch...	1	.5%	6	3.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	7	2.8%
Others.....	2	1.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	2	.8%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

control groups respectively have stated that they take lunch in the residence nearer to the work place. Similar reply has been given by 12.4% and 14.3% workers of the study and the control groups respectively. While 33.7% and 24.5% female workers of the study and the control groups respectively have stated that they take lunch either on the roof or veranda of the Garment Industries. The same answer has been given by 7.4% and 8.2% male workers of the study and the control groups respectively. It is noted that 3% women of the study group do not take lunch during working hour. I have found that the workers who are taking lunch in the work place have insufficient space with unhygienic conditions.

DURATION OF LUNCH TIME

The Table IX.4 shows that among the respondents 80% have informed me that the industry's management has fixed up lunch time for one hour. 62.4% and 63.3% female workers of the study and the control groups have stated that the duration of lunch time is one hour respectively,

Table : IX.4
Duration of Lunch Time for Workers

Duration of Lunch Time for Workers	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
30 mins.....	12	5.9%	30	14.9%	2	4.1%	5	10.2%	49	19.5%
1 hour.....	33	16.3%	126	62.4%	11	22.4%	31	63.3%	201	80.1%
1:30 hour.....	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.4%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

while 16.3% and 22.4% male workers have similar response. On the other hand, 14.9% and 10.2% female workers of the study and the control groups have indicated that their lunch time is only 30 minutes respectively as compared to 5.9% and 4.1% male counterparts.

It has been seen in the Table IX.5 that when the respondents are asked whether they can complete lunch and other works during this

Table : IX.5
Adequacy of Lunch Time for the Workers

Whether Lunch Time is Adequate	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Yes.....	35	17.3%	95	47.0%	10	20.4%	25	51.0%	165	65.7%
No.....	11	5.4%	59	29.2%	3	6.1%	11	22.4%	84	33.5%
No response.....	0	.0%	2	1.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	2	.8%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

period, 65.7% of the respondents have replied that the time is adequate while 33.5% said it is inadequate.

It is also observed in the Table IX.6 that out of 251 respondents of the study and the control groups 231 have stated that they (92%) are not given any extra time other than lunch. Only 20(8%) of the total respondents (Most of them are female workers of the study group) have stated that they are provided with extra time in addition to lunch hour.

Table : IX.6
Availability of Extra time for Workers Other than Lunch Hour

Whether there is Any Extra Time Other than Lunch Hour.	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Yes.....	3	1.5%	16	7.9%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	20	8.0%
No.....	43	21.3%	140	69.3%	13	26.5%	35	71.4%	231	92.0%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

The respondents are also asked about the reasons for giving extra time in addition to lunch hour. The reason for extra time other than lunch hour has been indicated for tea by 58.8% female and 11.8% male workers of the study group and 100% female workers of the control group respectively. This fact is shown in (Table IX.7).

Table : IX.7
Reasons of Extra Time for Workers Other than Lunch

Reasons for Giving Extra Time other than Lunch Hour	TYPE						TOTAL	
	Study				Control		NO	%
	Male		Female		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
For tea.....	2	11.8%	10	58.8%	1	100%	13	72.2%
For Rest.....	0	.0%	1	5.9%	0	.0%	1	5.6%
For Other Purposes..	0	.0%	2	11.8%	0	.0%	2	11.1%
No response.....	1	5.9%	1	5.9%	0	.0%	2	11.1%
TOTAL.....	3	17.6%	14	82.4%	1	100%	18	100%

On the other hand, 17.7% female and 5.9% male respondents of the study group have stated that extra time beyond lunch hour is also provided for some other purposes. some of them have no response to it.

CANTEEN FACILITIES

There are no canteen facilities in the Garment Industries under study although it is considered essential for the workers. About 96% of the respondents have stated that there is no canteen in the Garment Industries. Perhaps the management does not consider it essential rather it might think that it could be a place of gossiping and as such this time will be spent for nonproductive purposes.

NIGHT SHIFT WORK

It is observed in the Table IX.8 that 23.9% of the studied respondents have no night shift work. Among the study group 17.3% female and 3% male have no night shift duty and 32.7% female and 6.1% male of the control group respondents have no night work. It is indicated that the percentage of workers belonging to the control group who have no night shift work is higher than that of

Table : IX.8
Night Duties of the Workers

Night Duties of Workers	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
No night duties....	6	3.0%	35	17.3%	3	6.1%	16	32.7%	60	23.9%
1 Banana 1 bread...	0	.0%	1	.5%	0	.0%	2	4.1%	3	1.2%
1 Danish.....	0	.0%	4	2.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	4	1.6%
Tk. 5-10 only.....	1	.5%	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	2	.8%
Tk. 10-20 only.....	5	2.5%	16	7.9%	2	4.1%	4	8.2%	27	10.8%
Tk. 20-30 only.....	5	2.5%	17	8.4%	1	2.0%	1	2.0%	24	9.6%
Overtime wage per Hours.....	19	9.4%	42	20.8%	1	2.0%	2	4.1%	64	25.5%
Overtime wage per hours on monthly basis.....	1	.5%	5	2.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	6	2.4%
Do not provide.....	1	.5%	5	2.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	6	2.4%
Not received.....	0	.0%	1	.5%	1	2.0%	0	.0%	2	.8%
Not stated.....	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.4%
No response.....	7	3.5%	29	14.4%	5	10.2%	11	22.4%	52	20.7%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

the study group. As regards the wages of night shift work, 20.8% female and 9.4% male workers of the study group have stated that they receive wages for night shift duties at the rate of overtime wage per hours while 4.1% female and 2% male workers of the control group have stated the same. There are interesting findings in this

respect. For example, 10.4% of the study group and 12.3% of the control group have stated that only Tk.10-20 is given for night shift work. This demonstrates the extent of deprivation of the workers. It is also found that 10.9% of the study and 4% of the control groups have informed me that only Tk.20-30 has been provided for night shift work. But 20.7% respondents do not response to the rate of night shift work.

FRIDAY WORK

All the Garment Industries under study are supposed to remain open on all weekly days except Friday. But all these garments remain open everyday. It is observed in the Table IX.9 that about 46.6%

Table : IX.9
Duties on Friday for Workers

Duties on Friday for Workers	TYPE								TO AL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Yes.....	8	4.0%	17	8.4%	0	.0%	0	.0%	25	10.0%
No.....	2	1.0%	9	4.5%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	12	4.8%
Most of the Fridays	17	8.4%	67	33.2%	7	14.3%	26	53.1%	117	46.6%
Sometimes.....	19	9.4%	52	25.7%	3	6.1%	4	8.2%	78	31.1%
No response.....	0	.0%	11	5.4%	3	6.1%	5	10.2%	19	7.6%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

workers have duties in most of the Friday's and 31.1% used to work in some Fridays. It is revealed that most of the garment workers do not get any weekly rest time. This might affect the health of the garment workers which, in turn, might reduce production. It is also observed that the female workers of both the groups are working in larger numbers on Friday than their male counterparts. It implies the fact that female workers are in greater need for their subsistence than the male workers.

MATERNITY LEAVE

It is reported that the highest percentage of women are employed in the Garment Industries than any other sectors in Bangladesh. But when these women workers have become pregnant they cannot enjoy maternity leave in most of the Garment Industries under study. In

almost all cases they are either have to leave their job or they have to take maternity leave without pay during the period of maternity. Only one Garment Industry provides maternity leave with half average pay to the married female workers. The duration of leave enjoyed by the married women workers varies from industry to industry. The Table IX.10 shows that 31% married women workers

Table : IX.10
Enjoyment of Maternity Leave by Female Workers
on the Basis of Days

Number of Days for Maternity Leave Enjoyed by the Female Workers	TYPE				TOTAL	
	Study		Control		NO	%
	NO	%	NO	%		
3.....	2	5.1%	0	.0%	2	4.8%
30.....	1	2.6%	0	.0%	1	2.4%
60.....	1	2.6%	0	.0%	1	2.4%
90.....	13	33.3%	0	.0%	13	31.0%
No response.....	22	56.4%	3	100%	25	59.5%
TOTAL.....	39	100%	3	100%	42	100%

have enjoyed maternity leave for 90 days, while 59.5% have no response. Only 2.4% have reported they enjoy such leave for 60 days. When they are asked about maternity leave 38.7% female workers have reported that child was born before getting the job(see the Table IX.11), while 9.3% have stated that they left the job without praying for leave. The management does

Table : IX.11
Reasons for Not Enjoying Maternity Leave by the Women Workers

Reason for not Enjoy's Maternity Leave by Women Workers	TYPE						TOTAL	
	Study				Control		NO	%
	Male		Female		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
The management does not permit.....	0	.0%	2	3.1%	0	.0%	2	2.7%
Left the job without praying for leave...	0	.0%	7	10.8%	0	.0%	7	9.3%
Left the job as leave not approved by the management...	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	10.0%	1	1.3%
The child was born before getting the job.....	0	.0%	24	36.9%	5	50.0%	29	38.7%
No response.....	9	13.8%	23	35.4%	4	40.0%	36	48.0%
TOTAL.....	9	13.8%	56	86.2%	10	100%	75	100%

not permit maternity leave in 2.7% cases and 48% female workers do not answer this question.

CHILDREN OF GARMENT WORKERS AND THEIR CARE

It is observed in Table IX.12 that 37.8% workers have only one child while 16.3% have two children, 12.2% have no child and 6.1% have three children. There is no day-care centre in any of the Garment Industries under study. As a result the infants of the

Table : IX.12
Number of Children Procreated by Workers

Number of Children	TYPE						TOTAL	
	Study				Control		NO	%
	Male		Female		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
No child.....	0	.0%	11	12.5%	1	10.0%	12	12.2%
One.....	3	3.4%	29	33.0%	5	50.0%	37	37.8%
Two.....	2	2.3%	13	14.8%	1	10.0%	16	16.3%
Three.....	0	.0%	5	5.7%	1	10.0%	6	6.1%
Four.....	0	.0%	3	3.4%	0	.0%	3	3.1%
Five.....	0	.0%	1	1.1%	0	.0%	1	1.0%
Six.....	0	.0%	1	1.1%	0	.0%	1	1.0%
None.....	0	.0%	1	1.1%	0	.0%	1	1.0%
No response.....	4	4.5%	15	17.0%	2	20.0%	21	21.4%
TOTAL.....	9	10.2%	79	89.8%	10	100%	98	100%

women workers of Garment Industries are not taken care of as desirable. Besides, it is observed in the Table IX.13 that 27.1% children are looked after by their grand mothers, 21.2% by the relatives, 9.4% by elder children

Table : IX.13
Child Care of Workers

Child care of workers	TYPE						TOTAL	
	Study				Control		NO	%
	Male		Female		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Father.....	0	.0%	1	1.3%	0	.0%	1	1.2%
Grand Mother.....	0	.0%	19	25.3%	4	40.0%	23	27.1%
Relatives.....	0	.0%	15	20.0%	3	30.0%	18	21.2%
Elder children.....	0	.0%	8	10.7%	0	.0%	8	9.4%
Neighbours.....	0	.0%	2	2.7%	0	.0%	2	2.4%
Alone.....	0	.0%	3	4.0%	0	.0%	3	3.5%
No response.....	9	12.0%	18	24.0%	3	30.0%	30	35.3%
TOTAL.....	9	12.0%	66	88.0%	10	100%	85	100%

and 3.5% are grown alone at the houses. The above child-rearing situation of the garment women workers would affect their health.

SLEEPING TIME AND REST

It has been recorded in the Table IX.14 that 51% of the garment workers could sleep for 6-7 hours, while 22.3% could sleep for 5 hours only during 24 hours of a day.

Table : IX.14
Sleeping Hours of Workers

Sleeping Hours of Workers	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
<=4 hours.....	1	.5%	11	5.4%	0	.0%	0	.0%	12	4.8%
5 hours.....	9	4.5%	38	18.8%	4	8.2%	5	10.2%	56	22.3%
6 hours.....	16	7.9%	52	25.7%	5	10.2%	7	14.3%	80	31.9%
7 hours.....	9	4.5%	26	12.9%	1	2.0%	12	24.5%	48	19.1%
8+ hours.....	10	5.0%	23	11.4%	3	6.1%	12	24.5%	48	19.1%
No response.....	1	.5%	6	3.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	7	2.8%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

Besides, 4.8% women workers could sleep less than 4 hours at night. On the other hand, 96.4% of the total respondents have said that they have no time to take rest excepting the time for sleeping at night. Although rest really is considered as a source of gaining more spirit for increasing activities this is virtually absent for the garment workers. For keeping good health and physique as well as sound mind, rest and recreation are essentially elements. Otherwise their both physical and mental health will break down. Alienation of the workers will eventually produce adverse reaction upon the production itself. For the understanding of the concept of alienation of man in an industrial Society. See Karl Marx, **Early writings**, translated and edited by T.B. Bottomore (London, Watts, 1963), PP-VIII-IX. Introduction, where he says that man is alienated in two senses: first, the vast majority of men (and perhaps all men) have lost control of the products of their own activity; Secondly, in the process of work itself most men are not productive in the sense of exercising freely their natural powers, but are constrained to perform uninteresting and degrading tasks.

Marx's empirical observation about alienation of the workers in an industrial society includes an element of their mental health and happiness. In this connection see also Georges Friedmann, *The Anatomy of Work*, London, 1961, and Erich Fromm, *The SANE Society*, London, 1956.¹

1. Karl Marx : Early writings translated and edited by T.B.Bottomore (London), watts, 1963, pp-viii-ix.
Georges Friedman : *The Anatomy of work*, London 1961 and Erich Fromm: *The SANE SOCIETY*, London, 1956.

UTILIZATION OF INCOME BY WORKERS

The garment workers earn money for themselves and family. the Table IX.15 demonstrates the fact that 23.9% workers have stated that they spend nothing for themselves, 32.3% have said that they spend less than Tk.250 for themselves and 17.1% spend Tk.251-Tk.500 for themselves. It may be noted that the last month as stated by

Table : IX.15
Utilization of Income by Workers for Themselves

Amount Spent for Herself in Last Month	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Not spent.....	6	3.0%	38	18.8%	5	10.2%	11	22.4%	60	23.9%
<=250.....	16	7.9%	46	22.8%	5	10.2%	14	28.6%	81	32.3%
251-500.....	8	4.0%	28	13.9%	0	.0%	7	14.3%	43	17.1%
501-1000.....	8	4.0%	21	10.4%	1	2.0%	0	.0%	30	12.0%
1001-2000.....	4	2.0%	8	4.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	12	4.8%
>2000.....	1	.5%	3	1.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	4	1.6%
No response.....	3	1.5%	12	5.9%	2	4.1%	4	8.2%	21	8.4%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

the workers was the month of Ramadan. The muslim women workers used to spent money as much as it is possible for them in order to buy clothes and other necessary items in connection with the observance of Eid festival.

PROBLEMS OF HEALTH

The garment workers, especially the women have no health facilities in the Garment Industries although it is one of the prerequisites for the establishment of any industry. Only one Garment Industry out of 5 under present study has a part time doctor who attends the

patient workers for 2-3 days a week. Even there is no health insurance of the workers of the Garment Industries. It is observed in the Table IX.16 that when the workers are enquired about the reasons for their absence in the last month, 15.2% have stated that they are suffering from fever, 13.6% for other physical illness, 12% for family problems, 6.4% for headache, 4.8% for problems of eyes and headache, and 4.8% for accidents. It is thus revealed that percentage of women workers who are suffering from the

Table : IX.16
Health Reasons for Absence of Workers

Health Reasons for Absence	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
1. Eye Problems....	1	1.0%	1	1.0%	0	.0%	1	4.2%	3	2.4%
2. Fever/Cough.....	5	5.0%	11	10.9%	3	12.5%	0	.0%	19	15.2%
3. 1+2.....	1	1.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.8%
4. Headache.....	1	1.0%	5	5.0%	0	.0%	2	8.3%	8	6.4%
5. 1+4.....	1	1.0%	5	5.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	6	4.8%
6. 2+4.....	0	.0%	4	4.0%	0	.0%	3	12.5%	7	5.6%
7. 1+2+4.....	0	.0%	2	2.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	2	1.6%
8. Others.....	3	3.0%	12	11.9%	0	.0%	2	8.3%	17	13.6%
9. 1+8.....	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	4.2%	1	.8%
10. 2+8.....	0	.0%	1	1.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.8%
11. 4+8.....	0	.0%	1	1.0%	0	.0%	1	4.2%	2	1.6%
12. 1+4+8.....	0	.0%	2	2.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	2	1.6%
13. Accident.....	1	1.0%	5	5.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	6	4.8%
14. Family problem..	2	2.0%	10	9.9%	0	.0%	3	12.5%	15	12.0%
15. Physical illness	0	.0%	15	14.9%	0	.0%	2	8.3%	17	13.6%
16. 2+4+15.....	0	.0%	1	1.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	.8%
17. No response.....	2	2.0%	9	8.9%	2	8.3%	4	16.7%	17	13.6%
TOTAL.....	17	16.8%	84	83.2%	5	20.8%	19	79.2%	125	100%

above problems is higher than that of their male counter parts in both study and control groups.

NUTRITIONAL STATUS OF THE GARMENT WORKERS

The nutritional status of the garment women workers is a very important factor to be seriously taken note of. For the production of any industry largely depends on sound health and better nutrition of those workers who are directly involved in production. It should be stated here that the nutritional status of workers of the Garment Industries under present study has been decided to be

determined by the following two different methods so that it could be scientifically compared and verified.

MID UPPER ARM CIRCUMFERENCE (MUAC)

The nutritional status of the women workers can be determined by measuring the Mid Upper Arm Circumference. It is an internationally accepted method for measurement of nutritional status.

Those females who have MUAC more than 23 cm are nutritionally normal and those who have 22 to 23 cm MUAC are moderately

Table : IX.17
Worker's Nutritional Status by MUAC

Nutritional Status by MUAC	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
23+ cm.....	19	9.4%	43	21.3%	3	6.1%	10	20.4%	75	29.9%
20-23 cm.....	18	8.9%	77	38.1%	2	4.1%	11	22.4%	108	43.0%
<20 cm.....	9	4.5%	36	17.8%	8	16.3%	15	30.6%	68	27.1%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

malnourished and those who have <20 cm MUAC are severely malnourished. It is observed in the Table IX.17 that 21.3% female workers of the study group as against 20.4% female workers of the control group are nutritionally normal i.e their MUAC is more than 23 cm. But 38.1% female and 22.4% female workers of the study and the control groups respectively are moderately malnourished i.e their MUAC are between 20-23 cm. On the other hand, 17.8% female workers of the study group and 30.6% female workers of the control group are severely malnourished that is their MUAC are less than 20 cm.

It is also noticed that 9.4% male workers in the study group are normal as compared to 6.1% male workers of the control group, and 8.9% male workers of the study group and 4.1% male workers of the control group are moderately malnourished, while 4.5% male workers

of the study group and 16.3% male workers of the control group are severely malnourished.

It is important to note that the percentage of female workers belonging to study group being moderately malnourished is higher. But, on the other hand, the female workers are more severely malnourished in the control group than those of the study group. It may also be mentioned that the length of service of the female workers belonging to the study group is higher than that of the control group. Hence the economic status of the former is better than the latter. Thus it can be assumed that due to better economic support of the female workers of the study group the severity of their being malnourished has reduced substantially.

CALORIE INTAKE OF THE WORKERS

The Table IX.18 shows that 29.7% female workers of the study group and 20.4% female workers of the control group consume 1501-2000

Table : IX.18
Nutritional status of Workers by Calorie Intake

Calorie Intake (Kilo-Calorie)	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
<=1500.....	1	.5%	29	14.4%	1	2.0%	8	16.3%	39	15.5%
1501-2000.....	7	3.5%	60	29.7%	4	8.2%	10	20.4%	81	32.3%
2001-2500.....	17	8.4%	47	23.3%	3	6.1%	12	24.5%	79	31.5%
2501-3000.....	8	4.0%	19	9.4%	5	10.2%	6	12.2%	38	15.1%
>3000.....	13	6.4%	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	14	5.6%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

calorie per day whereas 3.5% male workers of the study group and 8.2% male workers of the control group consume the same. But 23.3% female workers of the study group and 24.5% female workers of the control group consume 2001-2500 calorie per day and 14.4% female workers of the study group and 16.3% female workers of the control group consume <1500 calorie. On the other hand, 8.4% male workers of the study group and 6.1% male workers of the control group consume 2001-2500 calorie. It may be noted here that a significant

percentage of respondents belonging to the study group consume optimum calorie which is better than that of the control group. The lowest calorie intake of the female workers of the study group has been observed in lower percentage than that of the control group. Similar trend is being noticed in the case of male respondents. Thus it may be concluded that due to higher length of service and enhanced wages of the female workers of the study group, the intake of calorie has increased in comparison to their control counter part. Besides, the pattern of food intake is also observed in the present study (Table IX.19). It is found that all the respondents take carbohydrate foods such as rice, wheat, sugar etc. 90.4% workers take protein foods such as pulses, beans, fish, eggs and milk and 70.5% workers eat vegetables as a source of vitamin and minerals. It is noted that at least 70.5% respondents have taken balanced diet having carbohydrate, protein, vitamin/minerals and the diet of 29.5% workers is found to be nonbalanced. It is also observed that the female workers having low calorie intake and doing longer hours of work without taking rest is higher in percentage. This food position of the female workers have caused physical illness. It is revealed this study that the nutritional status is better in the study group

Table : IX.19
Pattern of Food Intake by Workers

Intake of Nutrients	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Carbohydrate Food...	46	18.3%	156	62.2%	13	5.2%	36	14.3%	251	100%
No Carbohydrate Food	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
Protein Food.....	44	17.5%	141	56.2%	11	4.4%	31	12.3%	227	90.4%
No Protein Food.....	2	0.8%	15	6.0%	2	0.8%	5	2.0%	24	9.6%
Vitamin & Mineral Rich Food.....	34	13.5%	110	43.8%	9	3.6%	24	9.6%	177	70.5%
No Vitamin & Mineral Rich Food	12	4.8%	46	18.3%	4	1.6%	12	4.8%	74	29.5%

respondents than those of the control group. That is, the respondents of the study group take more balanced diet than those of the control group.

BODY MASS INDEX OF GARMENT WORKERS

Body mass index (BMI) is determined by weight in Kg and divided by the square of the height in meter. This measurement provides a simple index of nutritional status of an adult. The BMI is a meaningful index for the use in the developing world where economic productivity depends on working capacity and the ability to undertake physical activity with particular reference to the intake of poor quality food. BMI is also used for measuring the obesity of persons in the developed world.

The nutritional status of workers was considered normal whose BMI is between 20.01 to 26.00, the first one is the lower starting range for the female and the last one is the highest range for the male. The total respondents of the present study are categorized into three i.e. Those workers whose BMI would be between 20.01 to 26.00 would be considered as having normal nutritional status; those whose BMI would be less than 20 are categorized as malnourished who are practically undernourished, and those whose BMI would be more than 26.00 are also malnourished having obesity or over nutrition. The undernourished and over-nourished groups of the garments workers are equally prone to higher morbidity and infections.

The present study suggests the improvement of nutritional status of the workers whose length of service, income and socio-economic status are higher in comparison to those of the control group whose length of service in the Garment Industries is not more than 3 months.

Table : IX.20
Worker's Nutritional Status by BMI

Body Mass Index (BMI)	TYPE								TOTAL	
	Study				Control				NO	%
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
<=20.00.....	35	17.3%	107	53.0%	12	24.5%	28	57.1%	182	72.5%
20.01-26.00.....	11	5.4%	47	23.3%	1	2.0%	8	16.3%	67	26.7%
>26.00.....	0	.0%	2	1.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	2	.8%
TOTAL.....	46	22.8%	156	77.2%	13	26.5%	36	73.5%	251	100%

It has been observed in the Table IX.20 that 53% female workers and 57.1% female workers of the study and control groups respectively are undernourished. Similarly 17.3% male and 24.5% male workers of the study and control groups respectively are also undernourished. Therefore, the undernourishment of both male and female garment workers in the study group is less than that of the control group. On the other hand, 23.3% female and 16.3% female workers of the study and control groups respectively are nutritionally normal. Among the male workers 5.4% of the study group and 2.0% of the control group are nutritionally normal. This indicates that both the female and male workers of the study group are nutritionally sound in higher percentage than those of their counterparts in the control group.

It is also observed that only 1.0% female having BMI >26.00 are obese i.e. over-nourished in the study group. None of other respondents is over-nourished.

Therefore, from the nutritional point of view it might be assumed that there is an impact of garment employment and income generation upon the enhancement of nutritional status, particularly among the women workers in the Garment Industries.

CHAPTER : X
CORRELATION BETWEEN SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND NUTRITIONAL
STATUS OF THE GARMENT WOMEN WORKERS

I have already discussed the socio-economic and nutritional status of the women workers in the Garment Industry. It has become obvious that due to garment employment of the women workers their economic status has increased. Although their social status, especially the level of social consciousness and self-confidence have improved their decision making power in the family has not substantially increased. The present chapter is devoted to dealing with the relation between the socio-economic and nutritional status of the women workers of the Garment Industries.

SALARY OF THE WORKERS AND MID UPPER ARM CIRCUMFERENCE

It is observed in the Table X.1 that 10.9% female workers of the study group and none of the female workers of the control group have more than 23 cm MUAC i.e. normal nutritional status, whose monthly salary is between Tk.1001-1500. Only 1.5% male workers of the study group as against no male worker in the control group have the similar range of monthly salary. This means that the percentage of respondents of the study group having nutritionally normal status is higher than none of the control group whose salary ranges from Tk.1001-1500. Among the respondents 4.1% female workers of the control group are nutritionally normal in comparison to 1.5% female workers of the study group whose salary is less than Tk.300. Besides, 8.2% female workers of the control group and 1.5% female workers of the study group are nutritionally normal whose salary is between Tk.301-500. On the other hand, 15.8% female workers and 3% male workers of the study group and none of the control group are moderately mal-nourished (20-23 cm MUAC) whose monthly income is between 1001-1500. While in the case of severely malnourished, highest percentage has been found in the control group i.e 20.4% female and 10.2% male workers as against the less percentage of the study group, that is, 6.9% female and 2.5% male workers whose monthly income is between 301-500. Among the study group 1.5%

Table : XI.1
Workers by Salary and Mid Upper Arm Circumference

Present Salary	Study												TOTAL											
	23+ cm						20-23 cm						23+ cm						MUC					
	Male			Female			Male			Female			Male			Female			NO					
	NO	†	‡	NO	†	‡	NO	†	‡	NO	†	‡	NO	†	‡	NO	†	‡	NO	†				
<=300	0	.0†	3	1.5†	0	.0†	3	1.5†	1	.5†	0	.0†	2	4.1†	1	2.0†	1	2.0†	0	.0†	1	2.0†	12	4.8†
301-500	0	.0†	3	1.5†	0	.0†	6	3.0†	5	2.5†	14	6.9†	0	8.2†	4	8.2†	7	14.3†	5	10.2†	10	20.4†	54	21.5†
501-1000	5	2.5†	8	4.0†	5	2.5†	15	7.4†	2	1.0†	11	5.4†	3	6.1†	0	.0†	1	2.0†	1	2.0†	0	.0†	52	20.7†
1001-1500	3	1.5†	22	10.9†	6	3.0†	32	15.8†	1	.5†	6	3.0†	0	.0†	0	.0†	0	.0†	0	.0†	0	.0†	70	27.1†
1501-2000	5	2.5†	4	2.0†	2	1.0†	8	4.0†	0	.0†	1	.5†	0	.0†	0	.0†	0	.0†	0	.0†	0	.0†	20	8.7†
2001-3000	4	2.0†	0	.0†	1	.5†	3	1.5†	0	.0†	0	.0†	0	.0†	0	.0†	0	.0†	0	.0†	0	.0†	8	3.7†
>1000	1	.5†	3	1.5†	2	1.0†	2	1.0†	0	.0†	0	.0†	0	.0†	0	.0†	0	.0†	0	.0†	0	.0†	10	4.0†
No response	1	.5†	0	.0†	2	1.0†	8	4.0†	1	.5†	3	1.5†	0	8.2†	4	8.2†	0	.0†	2	4.1†	2	4.1†	25	10.0†
TOTAL	19	9.4†	43	21.3†	18	8.9†	77	38.1†	9	4.5†	36	17.8†	3	6.1†	10	20.4†	2	4.1†	11	22.4†	8	16.3†	15	30.6†

Table : XI.2

Workers by Salary and Body Mass Index

Present Salary	Study												TOTAL					
	BMI						Control						TOTAL					
	<=20.00			20.01-26.00			>26.00			<=20.00			20.01-26.00			NO		
	NO	†	‡	NO	†	‡	NO	†	‡	NO	†	‡	NO	†	‡	NO	†	
<=300	0	.0†	5	2.5†	0	.0†	1	.5†	1	2.0†	2	4.1†	0	.0†	2	4.1†	12	4.8†
301-500	5	2.5†	18	8.9†	0	.0†	5	2.5†	0	8.2†	17	34.7†	0	.0†	4	8.2†	54	21.5†
501-1000	10	5.0†	26	12.9†	2	1.0†	8	4.0†	0	.0†	4	8.2†	1	2.0†	0	.0†	52	20.7†
1001-1500	7	3.5†	36	17.8†	3	1.5†	23	11.4†	1	.5†	0	.0†	0	.0†	0	.0†	70	27.9†
1501-2000	3	1.5†	7	3.5†	4	2.0†	6	3.0†	0	.0†	0	.0†	0	.0†	0	.0†	20	8.0†
2001-3000	3	1.5†	2	1.0†	2	1.0†	1	.5†	0	.0†	0	.0†	0	.0†	0	.0†	8	3.2†
>1000	3	1.5†	2	1.0†	0	.0†	3	1.5†	0	.0†	0	.0†	0	.0†	0	.0†	10	4.0†
No response	4	2.0†	11	5.4†	0	.0†	0	.0†	0	.0†	6	12.2†	0	.0†	2	4.1†	25	10.0†
TOTAL	35	17.3†	107	53.0†	11	5.4†	47	23.3†	2	1.0†	12	24.5†	28	57.1†	1	2.0†	251	100†

female and only 0.5% male workers are nutritionally normal by MUAC having monthly income more than Tk.3000.

The Table X.2 shows that 11.4% female workers and 1.5% male workers of the study group and none from the control group are nutritionally normal by BMI (i.e. BMI 20.01-26.00) having monthly income of Tk.1001-1500. On the other hand, 17.8% female and 3.5% male workers are undernourished by BMI in the study group having the same monthly income and there is none in the control group as such. Besides, 12.9% female and 5% male workers of the study group are undernourished as compared to 2% female and 8.2% male workers of the control group having monthly income of Tk. 501-1000. But 34.7% female and 10.2% male workers of the control group are more undernourished than 8.9% female and 2.5% male workers of the study group having monthly income of Tk.301-500 i.e. the percentage of workers being undernourished is higher in the control group than that of the study group.

From the above two tables one interesting fact has become explicit. That is, the workers whose income is Tk.1001-1500 have the better nutritional status than those of the other income groups. Besides, the income range of the control group remains within the limit of Tk.500 and sometimes ranges from Tk.501-1000. The other income groups among the control respondents cannot be compared with those of the study group respondents. However, it is revealed from these two tables that the workers belonging to the control group are more undernourished than those of the study group. This indicates precisely the correlation between the socio-economic and nutritional status of the garment workers in Bangladesh.

SAVINGS AND NUTRITIONAL STATUS

It is often considered that those who have more savings are nutritionally better. The Table X.3 shows that 7.4% female and 3.5% male workers who can save money in the study group have normal nutritional status in comparison to only 2% female workers of the control group. On the other hand, 14.9% female and 4% male workers of the study group and 4.1 female workers of the control group are

Table : XI.3
Workers by Savings and Mid Upper Arm Circumference

Status of Savings	Study												Control						TOTAL							
	MUMC												MUMC						NO	%						
	23+ cm				<20 cm				23+ cm				<20 cm													
	Male		Female		Male		Female		Male		Female		Male		Female		Male		Female							
NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%							
Yes.....	7	3.5%	15	7.4%	8	4.0%	30	14.9%	5	2.5%	14	6.9%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	0	.0%	2	4.1%	0	2.0%	4	8.2%	87	34.7%
No.....	12	5.9%	26	12.9%	9	4.5%	46	22.8%	4	2.0%	22	10.9%	2	4.1%	9	18.4%	2	4.1%	9	18.4%	6	12.2%	11	22.4%	158	62.9%
No response.....	0	.0%	2	1.0%	1	.5%	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	6	2.4%
TOTAL.....	19	9.4%	43	21.3%	18	8.9%	77	38.1%	9	4.5%	36	17.8%	3	6.1%	10	20.4%	2	4.1%	11	22.4%	8	16.3%	15	30.6%	251	100%

Table : XI.4
Workers by Savings and BMI

Status of Savings	Study												Control						TOTAL							
	BMI												BMI						NO	%						
	<=20.00				20.01-26.00				>26.00				<=20.00				20.01-26.00									
	Male		Female		Male		Female		Male		Female		Male		Female		Male		Female							
NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	
Yes.....	15	7.4%	39	19.3%	5	2.5%	19	9.4%	1	.5%	1	.5%	1	2.0%	6	12.2%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	1	2.0%	1	2.0%	87	34.7%
No.....	19	9.4%	67	33.2%	6	3.0%	26	12.9%	1	.5%	9	18.4%	22	44.9%	1	2.0%	7	14.3%	7	14.3%	158	62.9%				
No response.....	1	.5%	1	.5%	0	.0%	2	1.0%	0	.0%	2	4.1%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	6	2.4%
TOTAL.....	35	17.3%	107	53.0%	11	5.4%	47	23.3%	2	1.0%	12	24.5%	28	57.1%	1	2.0%	8	16.3%	15	30.6%	251	100%				

moderately malnourished who have savings and 6.9% female and 2.5% male workers of the study group and 8.2% female and 2.0% male workers of the control group are severely malnourished who have savings.

On the contrary, among those who have no savings, 12.9% female and 5.9% male workers of the study group and 18.4% female and 4.1% male workers of the control group are nutritionally normal; 22.8% female and 4.5% male workers of the study group and 18.4% female and 4.1% male workers of the control group are moderately malnourished while 10.9% female and 2% male workers of the study group and 22.4% female and 12.2% male workers in the control group are severely malnourished in terms of MUAC.

The status of savings of the garment workers can be compared with BMI, another index of nutritional status. The Table X.4 shows that among the respondents who have savings, 19.3% female and 7.4% male workers of the study group and 12.2% female and 2% male workers of the control group are undernourished, while 9.4% female and 2.5% male workers of the study group and 2% female and 0% male workers of the control group are nutritionally normal, only 0.5% female workers of those who have savings are obese i.e. over-nourished in the study group.

On the contrary, among those who cannot save, 33.2% female and 9.4% male workers of the study group and 44.9% female and 18.4% male workers of the control group are undernourished as determined by BMI; while 12.9% female and 3% male workers of the study group and 14.3% female and 2% male workers of the control group are nutritionally normal, and only 0.5% female workers of the study group are over-nourished as determined by BMI.

Thus from the above two tables it is observed that those who have no savings are severely malnourished. Their percentage is higher in control group than those of the study group. On the other hand, the percentage of workers in the study group who are nutritionally normal among those who cannot save money is higher than those who can save money.

The reason behind it may be that the intention of the money savers is only for further accumulation of property while non-savers would have the capacity for optimum utilization of income for food, which might improve their nutritional status.

Although the savings are considered as one of the indicators of economic status this study surprisingly reveals the fact that the nutritional status is better among those who have no savings but can spend their income in a balanced way for nutrition.

It is thus clear that there is a close relationship between socio-economic and nutritional status but in-depth study on these issue is necessary in future.

NUTRITIONAL AND SOCIAL STATUS

It has been observed in the previous tables relating to social status, particularly housing conditions, principal earner of the family, decision making of the family, travelling and shopping, marriage according to personal choice and attitudes of unmarried respondents about marriage etc. have shown that self-consciousness and confidence have grown among the respondent workers of the Garment Industries under study.

Decision making power in the family is considered as the most important indicator of social status. Now I shall try to find out if there is any relationship between the social status and nutritional improvement. In the above discussions I have shown that the women who have earned more money and whose service is longer are economically better. This situation has impact on the nutritional status of concerned women. Now if the decision making power of the family is vested with the women workers and their nutritional status has improved then it might be argued that there is a relationship between these two variables.

The Table X.5 shows that 6.4% female and 2.5% male workers of the study group and 6.1% female and 0.0% male workers of the control group are nutritionally normal by MUAC where decision making of the family lies with the garment worker himself/herself. It is interesting to note that when the women workers have become the

Table : XI.5
Workers by Decision Making and MUAC

Decision Maker of Family	Study												Control												TOTAL	
	MUAC												MUAC												NO	%
	23+ cm				20-23 cm				<20 cm				23+ cm				20-23 cm				<20 cm					
	Male		Female		Male		Female		Male		Female		Male		Female		Male		Female		Male		Female			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Myself.....	5	2.5%	13	6.4%	2	1.0%	15	7.4%	0	.0%	3	1.5%	0	.0%	3	6.1%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	0	.0%	2	4.1%	44	17.5%
Husband/Wife.....	0	.0%	7	3.5%	0	.0%	15	7.4%	0	.0%	1	.5%	0	.0%	3	6.1%	0	.0%	2	4.1%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	29	11.6%
Father.....	8	4.0%	9	4.5%	10	5.0%	17	8.4%	5	2.5%	14	6.9%	1	2.0%	1	2.0%	1	2.0%	5	10.2%	5	10.2%	7	14.3%	83	33.1%
Mother.....	1	.5%	2	1.0%	1	.5%	7	3.5%	3	1.5%	6	3.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	3	6.1%	1	2.0%	2	4.1%	26	10.4%
Brother.....	2	1.0%	2	1.0%	2	1.0%	5	2.5%	0	.0%	5	2.5%	2	4.1%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	0	.0%	20	8.0%
Sister.....	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	2	1.0%	0	.0%	2	1.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	0	.0%	6	2.4%
Jointly.....	3	1.5%	9	4.5%	2	1.0%	15	7.4%	1	.5%	5	2.5%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	36	14.3%
Others.....	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	3	6.1%	3	1.2%
No response.....	0	.0%	1	.5%	1	.5%	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	4	1.6%
TOTAL.....	19	9.4%	43	21.3%	18	8.9%	77	38.1%	9	4.5%	36	17.8%	3	6.1%	10	20.4%	2	4.1%	11	22.4%	8	16.3%	15	30.6%	251	100%

Table : XI.6

Workers by Decision Making and BMI

Decision Maker of Family	Study										Control										TOTAL	
	BMI										BMI										NO	%
	<=20.00				20.01-26.00				>26.00		<=20.00				20.01-26.00							
	Male		Female		Male		Female		Female		Male		Female		Male		Female					
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%				
Myself.....	3	1.5%	20	9.9%	4	2.0%	10	5.0%	1	.5%	0	.0%	3	6.1%	0	.0%	3	6.1%	44	17.5%		
Husband/Wife.....	0	.0%	13	6.4%	0	.0%	10	5.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	4	8.2%	0	.0%	2	4.1%	29	11.6%		
Father.....	18	8.9%	30	14.9%	5	2.5%	10	5.0%	0	.0%	7	14.3%	13	26.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	83	33.1%		
Mother.....	5	2.5%	10	5.0%	0	.0%	5	2.5%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	5	10.2%	0	.0%	0	.0%	26	10.4%		
Brother.....	4	2.0%	10	5.0%	0	.0%	2	1.0%	0	.0%	3	6.1%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	0	.0%	20	8.0%		
Sister.....	0	.0%	4	2.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	6	2.4%		
Jointly.....	4	2.0%	19	9.4%	2	1.0%	9	4.5%	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	36	14.3%		
Others.....	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	3	6.1%	0	.0%	0	.0%	3	1.2%		
No response.....	1	.5%	1	.5%	0	.0%	1	.5%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%	1	2.0%	4	1.6%		
TOTAL.....	35	17.3%	107	53.0%	11	5.4%	47	23.3%	2	1.0%	12	24.5%	28	57.1%	1	2.0%	8	16.3%	251	100%		

decision makers of the family the nutritional status by MUAC has been found normal in higher percentage than any other decision makers of the family.

On the other hand, while father is the decision maker of the family, 8.4% female and 5.0% male workers of the study group and 10.2% female and 2.0% male workers of the control group have moderate nutritional status. In case of female worker where father is the decision maker the percentage is higher than that of any other principal decision makers of the family.

Similar trend has been observed in case of the severely malnourished workers where father is the decision maker of the family.

But the decision making power of the family is comparable to the nutritional status of workers by BMI. The Table X.6 shows that only 5.0% female and 2.0% male workers of the study group and 6.1% female workers of the control group only are nutritionally normal by BMI i.e. their BMI is found to be between 20.01-26.00 and they are the principal decision makers of the family. When father is the principal decision maker of the family, it has been observed that 14.9% female and 8.9% male of study group and 26.5% female and 14.3% male of the control group are undernourished which is higher in percentage than that of any principal decision makers.

On the basis of the above facts it may be stated that self decision of the women workers in the family has positive impact on their nutritional status. Even when fathers decide the matters in the family it has some good impact on their nutritional status. The reason behind this is the fact that the decision maker has the privilege to make the necessary foods and nutrients available to the family. The educational background, housing condition and other parameters might have also some impact on nutritional situation of the workers.

If the women workers are empowered in the family as decision maker certainly it would have great influence on the availability of basic needs particularly food.

The highest percentage among the respondents having normal nutritional status has been found among the workers who are themselves the decision makers of the family. Thus it may be said that the status, consciousness, self confidence and decision making power among the women workers are gradually developing for employment in the Garment Industries.

CHAPTER XI

MAJOR FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

It is already said that the Garment Industries under present study were established between 1984 and 1992 and the educational level of the owners of these industries ranges from graduation to Master degree. The gender distribution of workers employed in these industries is fairly determined. 71% female and 29% male workers are now engaged in production activities in the said industries.

It is revealed that 92% of the workers were employed without appointment letters. These industries came into existence according to the plan of the authorities concerned. The study shows that the situation and safety measures in most of the Garment Industries are not congenial and adequate. Dining rooms, day care centre, canteen and sick room do not exist in these Garments. There is only one entrance to each Garment Industry for which the workers have been facing enormous difficulties during starting, lunch and closing time of the industries.

The space for production, especially the sewing section is very hot. During the interview of the workers by the present researcher none were found with apron and masks, although these are legal requirements. The toilet facilities are not adequate. Only two Industries are comparatively neat and clean, and the sanitation system of these two industries is better than that of other industries.

It has been seen that age of the majority workers ranges between 10-24 years. The workers belonging to the age group of 15-19 years constitute the largest category followed by the workers whose age is between 10-14 years. The latter are the adolescent girls. Most of them are working as Helper and thus newcomers to the Garment Industry. It is interesting to find that although the level of education of female workers has become higher than before perhaps due to the introduction of free female education upto class VIII

beyond primary education the garment workers are still largely illiterate.

It is noticed that the number of the separated or abandoned women is gradually increasing day by day. These women have come to Dhaka in order to get a job for their survival. They have already lost all types of support in the family. The present study reveals the fact that the number of unmarried women workers is higher than the married ones. This is due to the fact that the management of the Garment Industries prefer the recruitment of women to men for the former's better tenacity to work which is needed for speedy and smooth production in larger quantities. Besides, the availability of maternity leave and some sort of day care facilities might induce the married women to engage themselves in the work of the Garment Industries.

It is found that only 3.2% respondents of the study group possess experience of sewing and tailoring as previous profession. But most of the workers were involved in household activities the rate of unemployment among them is quite high. The study reveals the fact that the Garment workers whose previous profession was not sewing or tailoring are an unskilled work force who are attracted to join the Garment Industries.

The highest rate of migration of rural people to Dhaka has been found from the district of Barisal in connection with the Garment Industries, which is followed by the people from the district of Faridpur. The districts of Munshigonj and Comilla stand third in terms of migration. This was followed by the districts of Patuakhali and Narshingdi. It is revealed that the rate of female migration is higher than their male counterparts from all these districts. From the various studies in regard to Garment Industries it has become evident that the proportion of female workers migrating to the metropolitan city of Dhaka during the period of severe economic crisis is very high. The female migration during 1970-74 is higher (14%) than the corresponding proportion of male workers (3%) and a very high rate of female migration from the

rural areas due to the sudden natural catastrophe was also noticed during the period of severe economic crisis in the early seventies in Bangladesh. 58.7% migration being the highest was found to take place from 1988 to 1994, about 17.3% migration occurred in the period from 1979 to 1984 and 13.5% migration was recorded before 1979. Besides, 10.5% migration was made during the last 7 to 9 years i.e 1985 to 1987.

In the present study, 38.9% of the workers have reported that the reasons for their coming to Dhaka was "for any type of work". The highest percentage of male and female workers of the control group respondents have the similar answer. While 34.7% of the total respondents have stated that they came to Dhaka especially "for job in Garments". But 17.6% have referred to various other reasons for migrating to Dhaka.

During the investigation it has been found that 75% female workers of the study group hold the position of Quality Controller having monthly salary between Tk.1001-2000 and none of the control group workers holds this position. The cutting section of the Garment Industries is generally manned by male workers (100%) whose salary is between Tk.2001-3000 per month.

The present study shows that the male Supervisors used to receive higher salary than their female counter part; 22.7% male Supervisors have received the highest salary ranging from Tk.2001-3000 whereas only 13.6% female Supervisors have received the same amount. On the other hand, 13.6% male and 4.5% female Supervisors have received salary more than Tk.3000. But 18.2% female Supervisors have secured monthly salary between Tk.1001-1500 and 4.5% male Supervisors have obtained the equal range of salary and none of the control group respondents holds this position. Sewing section is widely represented by women but the female workers of this section are receiving lower salary than the male. On the other hand, cutting section is highly represented by the male; their salary is higher than the female of sewing section. The study shows that 70.4% female got salary between Tk.500-1500 and only 8.8%

male got the same amount. There is not a single male Operator who used to receive salary less than Tk.500 while 4.8% female operators have received salary less than Tk.500. Since the cutting section is dominated by the male workers and sewing section is dominated by the female workers, it has been observed that 37.5% male Cutting Helpers have received salary between of Tk.301-500 in comparison to 61% female sewing helpers in the study group. But 50% male Cutting Helper have received salary between Tk.501-1000 as against only 12.2% female sewing helpers in the study group. Not only that, when compared between the male and female Sewing Helpers in study group, it is observed that 12.2% of male and female workers are receiving salary between Tk.501-1000. It is revealed in the present study that the male workers are always receiving higher salary than the female workers irrespective of their predominance in the different sections of the Garment Industries.

The payment of wages is usually made on the second week of the next month as stated by highest percentage of respondents. While 23.1% have stated that they receive their salary on the third week of next month. Only 18.3% respondents have said that the payment of wage is made in the first week while 18.3% have stated that there is no fixed date for the payment of salary. Besides, it has been observed that the workers belonging to the study group receive their salary earlier than that of the control group. It means that they are in a better position than the control group workers in regard to receiving salary.

It is found that the female workers of the study group are doing more overtime work than the male workers belonging to the both study and control groups. Not only that, female workers of the control group having less than three months of service length did more overtime work for the satisfaction of their minimum basic needs. It is also revealed that 26.2% workers did overtime work under compulsion and 21.8% for more work load. The self need was stated to be the reason for overtime work by the higher percentage of control group respondents. But the higher percentage of the study group respondents have received overtime wage between

Tk.2.51-5.00 per hour than the control group. It may be safely said that the overtime benefits are derived by higher percentage of the study group workers than those of the control group. The income which includes normal salary, overtime wage and other fringe benefits like bonus, increment, promotion etc. are much more available to the workers of the study group than those of the control group.

Overtime dues is not regularly paid along with the salary. The present study shows that 42.2% workers even do not know the time of payment of overtime dues. Control group respondents are higher in percentage in regard to the irregular payment of overtime bill those of than the study group.

It is found that the mobility of workers is higher in the study group. But greater inter-firm mobility has existed among the female workers than the male workers of both these groups.

Most of the workers (86.5%) in both the groups possess identity cards. The worker used to receive their salary by showing the identity card. Among the workers 67.5% female and 20.5% male of the study group and 55.6% female and 11.1% male workers of the control group have stated that they are working on temporary and casual basis under a verbal contract. It is interesting to note that in this regard female percentage is higher than the male in the both groups. Verbal contract concerning salary is found to be in most of the cases. The percentage of study group workers is higher than the control group. The garment workers of this category do not possess any appointment letters.

It is revealed that most of the respondents of the study group are aware of bonus than those of the control group. The percentage of the control group workers who used to receive attendance bonus is higher but Eid bonus is being received by the higher percentage of the study group workers. The presence of control group workers in the work place is higher but they provided with lesser amount of Eid bonus by the industries concerned.

All the owners of the Garment Industries under present study are in the habit of deducting salary of the workers for their absence from work. But most of the female workers of the control group are found to be ignorant about the deduction of their salary for absence. The owners have deducted the salary of 41.7% workers of the control group for absence from work on the basis of one day's pay for one day absence, while 67.2% of the study group workers have stated the same. It is also revealed that 16.7% male and female workers in the control group and 10.9% male workers of the study group have reported that the owners have deducted two days salary for one day's absence, 4.2% female workers of the control group have stated three days salary for one day's absence and 5.5% of the study group workers have said the same. In the control group 4.2% have reported that the deduction depends on the will of the owners and 4.2% have stated than they "Don't know" the exact amount of deduction for absence. Thus it is revealed that the workers of the study group is losing less than those of the control group in case of deduction for absence.

Punishment for being late attendance of the workers in the Garment Industries is noticed in the present study. In the study group 15.3% female respondents and 4.0% male respondents have stated that for one day late attendance the management have deducted the total monthly attendance bonus. But 10.2% female and 6.1% male workers of the control group have reported that their late attendance to work resulted to the deduction of one day's salary for three days late, while 8.4% female and 4.0% male workers have stated the same thing in the study group. It means that the management is very strict in regard to the attendance of the workers in the industries. Punctuality is naturally being preferred and praised. Thus it is found in the present study that there is a provision of both reward and punishment for the workers.

It is also observed that there is an imbalance in regard to salary between the male and female workers. In the study group, 22.5% female and 5.5% male workers and 6.1% female and 4.1% male workers of the control group respondents have stated the differentiation of

salary between the male and female workers. The reason for the male workers receiving higher salary than the female ones are being stated by 38.6% and 28.6% female respondents of the study and control groups respectively. This indicates that the consciousness about gender inequality has grown among the female respondents. Not only that, the female respondents of the study group are found to be more conscious than those of the control group.

Most the respondents (62.2%) have stated that their economic status has raised due to their work in the Garment Industries. The savings and investment of the Garment workers are taken into consideration in the present study. It is found that the percentage of workers who used to deposit money in their own residence is the highest while some of them deposit at the Bank and other Associations. The female respondents save money for the use at the time of crisis, betterment of their children, purchasing land and for own marriage. Among the savers 43.8% have savings of less than Tk.5000 while 11.5% could save between Tk.5001-10000. The savers are generally prone to invest their income for the purchase of land in their own villages.

It is interesting to note that there is a correlation between the length of service and the level of salary. The higher percentage of workers receiving higher scale of salary having service length between 3-6 years while lower percentage of workers receiving less salary having service length of 4 months to 2 years in the study group. On the other hand, the workers having more than 7 years service length have received higher salary. But in comparison to the workers of the control group whose length of service is less than 3 months have received salary less than Tk.500. It has been assessed that optimum energy, efficiency and skill are available among the workers during their service of 3-6 years. Thus the category of these workers receive the higher scale of salary. It is also revealed in the present study that the workers having more than seven years experience have developed tendency to reduce their energy to work. Further research on their problem is necessary in order to come to a conclusion.

There is also relationship between the Intra-firm mobility and the structure of salary. The workers who work in two to four Garment Industries generally receive salary amounting to Tk.500 to 3000 but those who work only in one Garment Industry their salary is lower than this. Only a small member of workers get higher salary. On the other hand, workers who are employed in five to eight Garments used to get salary between Tk.1001-1500 and Tk.1501-2000. And their percentage is higher. It also revealed that the workers who do not move from one industry to another, normally receive salary less than Tk.500.

The present study suggests the fact that most of the workers live with their parents. The percentage of the workers living with husband, in sisters, in mess, brothers, relatives and in subletting houses with children is quite less in orders of Kinship terms. Among those living in mess, women are the most insecure especially of the control group, among whom 16.3% workers live with their sisters, 12.2% live with their relatives. It means most of them are living in same mess. It should be mentioned here that worker's relatives mean the neighbours of the villagers. They provide moral support and security. Thus it is revealed that the workers belonging to the study group have better residential facilities than those of the control group.

The study shows that the housing facilities of the women workers of the Garment Industries has become improved. For example, 38.6% female workers of the study group and 44.9% female workers of the control group live in Kutcha houses. On the other hand, 14.9% female workers of the study group and 8.2% female workers of the control group live in building and 23.3% female workers of the study group and 18.4% female workers of the control group live in the house of brick wall with tin shed roof. The higher percentage of study group workers have better living facilities available in their houses than that of the control group. The percentage of female workers of the study group who are subjected to harassment is higher than that of the control group. The reason behind it might be the age of the female workers of belonging to the study group.

The study discloses the fact that most of the female workers of the control group have reported that their neighbours perceive working in the Garment Industries as "Good and Fair". The percentage of women workers of the study group who have stated that their neighbours consider the work in the Garments as "good" is higher. While some of them have said that their neighbours consider it "bad". On the other hand, the perception of the relatives of the workers belonging to the study regarding working in the Garment Industries is "Good and Fair" in comparison to that of the control group. While large number of male respondents of the control group have stated that the perception of their relatives regarding garment job is "Good and Fair" as against the male workers of the study group.

The study shows that the women workers are becoming the decision makers in their families. They constitute the highest percentage among the respondents having normal nutritional status. The social status, especially social consciousness, self-confidence and decision making power among the women workers have gradually improved through garment employment. This might have direct relationship with their nutritional status. The percentage of female workers of the study group who have stated that their family members consider that Garment job is "Good", is higher than that of the female workers of the control group. But the percentage of the male workers belonging to the control group who have reported that their family members perceive their working in the Garment Industry is "Good and Fair" is higher than that of the study group. Besides, more female workers from the study group have stated that their family members consider the Garment work as "Bad" as compared to those of the control group.

It may be suggested that the large number of female workers have grown their self confidence due to garment employment. They consider themselves that they are better in socio-economic sense than before. Comparatively, the percentage of female workers who have perceived that they are "Good/Fair" is less or it might be at best said that self- confidence among them has just begun to grow.

On the other hand, self-confidence of the male workers of the control group has developed in comparison to that of the study group.

It may be said that the most of the family member of the female workers of the study and control groups consider their work in the Garment Industry as "Good". It is important to note that the attitude of our rural people toward female work is changing. A few days ago the rural people of Bangladesh do not generally like the outside job of the women. The urge for poverty alleviation and for more survival might attribute to their change in the traditional attitudes of the rural families of Bangladesh.

Through this study it has been identified that women have become the principal earners of the family. The pattern of response suggests the fact that the jobs in the Garment Industry are contributing to enhance women's income. Most of the female workers of the study group are the principal earners of their families but a small percentage of the female workers belonging to the control group is found to be the principal earners in their respective families. On the other hand, the percentage of father being the principal earner is higher in case of the family of female workers pertaining to the control group as against the lower percentage of the female workers of the study group. While the percentage of male workers being the principal earners of the study group is the highest and none is found in this category belonging to the control group. Similar trend is found in the case of male workers of the control group in which father is the principal earner. Thus it is evident in the study that the percentage of female workers being the principal earner of the family is higher than the male workers. But the study shows that the women are gradually becoming principal earners. This is really an important socio-economic change. Traditionally, the male are considered as the principal earners of the family but the study shows a significant change in the opposite direction, i.e. female workers are going to be the main earning members of their family.

It is also noted that the highest percentage of respondents belonging to both the study and the control have opined that their fathers are the decision-makers of the family. But the second highest decision-makers of the family are the women who can earn themselves. Besides, a significant number of women respondents in the study group informed me that there is a system of joint decision-making which should be taken note of.

Although the women are principal earners and spend their earn themselves, but they cannot play the principal role of decision maker in the family; it appears that the women are in the second position of decision-making process in the family.

The other facts suggest that 24.8% and 10.2% female workers of the study and the control group respectively can go for shopping alone and 18.8% and 8.2% female workers of the study and the control groups respectively can travel alone. The reason behind it might be the age differences of the study and the control groups. Age is really considered an important factor for shopping and travelling alone so far as female workers of the Garment Industries are concerned.

It has been observed that a significant percentage of the female workers are married according to their own choice although majority of the female workers got married according to the choice of the family members. Besides, among those women who are married according to their own choice, more percentage is found to be in the study group than that of the control group. This indicates that consciousness and decision making ability are gradually developing among those who are the principal earner of the family and they can play the major role in matters relating to family expenses. But these women are not always the principal decision-makers of the family. Among the respondents who are unmarried have stated that time for marriage is yet to become ripe. Their percentage is higher than other. While others have said that they will marry after earning some more money. It is important to note that they have become conscious of giving their opinion about their marriage. Thus the awareness about marriage is growing among the women workers.

It is observed in the study that the garment jobs of the women workers have largely contributed to the improvement of the relationship with husbands significantly. Among the married workers 38.6% have stated about the improved relationship, 21.6% have stated fair and 17.0% referred to the same, while 14.8% have said that their relationship have deteriorated. It suggests the fact that the relationship with spouse of the garment workers have become excellent although some workers have stated the deterioration of their relationship.

This is, in fact, related to the assistance of husband in the household work. It is observed that the husband assists the wife in cleaning home, cooking and caring of children. Their percentage is quite significant. Besides, 19.7% husband of the garment women workers assist their wives for 2 hours in house work while 18.3% have stated one hour and 12.7% have said 3 hours assistance. A significant percentage of workers does not respond while others have stated directly that their husband do not assist them in household work at all.

The attitude of the husband to his wife has been critically observed. It is revealed that beating of spouse after joining the garment work has been reduced as compared to the situation prevailing before their joining the garment work, it shows that 56.3% women are not beaten by their husbands before joining and 67.8% women are not beaten at present which means a significant improvement of their social status.

On the other hand, the husband physically assault his wife on the plea that he would either want to spend her earning or demand dowry. Quite a significant percentage of women does not provide any response in this regard. The awareness of the husband regarding the legislation against dowry may contribute to improve the situation. The present study reveals an interesting fact that the relationship with the spouse has become better with the increase in the length of service of the garment women workers. The workers whose service length is less have no good relationship. The longer the service

period leads to the improvement of relationship. It may be asserted that the garment job of the women workers has created income assurance and has thus strengthened the bond between husband and wife gradually.

The relationship between the length of service and the decision-making power in the family has been observed in the present study. It has been found that among the respondents of the study group whose length of service is 5-6 years are the decision-makers of the family. Their percentage is the highest. The second highest percentage belongs to the respondents who have 3-4 years of service length. But that father is the decision-maker of the family is found in highest percentage in case of workers having <1 year length of service. It is important to note that in the study group father is the decision maker in highest percentage in case of workers having 1-2 years service length and this percentage is gradually decreasing with the increase of length of service.

The health and nutritional conditions of the Garment Workers are observed through different indicators. The environment of work place is considered as a prerequisite for better health. All the Garment Industries under present study have provided separate toilet facilities for the male and female workers but it is not adequate, and 89.2% respondents have confirmed this fact. Not only that, these toilet system is not maintained well. There is no dining room, canteen and day care centre in the Garment Industries. The highest percentage of workers have stated that they take lunch from the residence nearer to the work place while the second highest percentage of workers take lunch either on the roof or on the varendah of the industry. During my study I have found that the workers who are taking lunch in the work place have insufficient space with unhygienic conditions. It means that these workers do not take their meal with satisfaction and mental peace. Because they have to take their food in a hurry either by standing on the roof or on the stairs. Some respondents have reported that there is no extra time other than lunch. Among the respondents, highest percentage of workers have stated that they have to do night shift work but wage of night shift work is not at all adequate.

The work at night definitely has adverse affect on the health of the women workers. The deprivation of just wages, hard labour, long overtime work duties during holidays along with the work at night have caused real health problems for the women workers. One important fact is that most of the married women are not granted maternity leave; But the female workers who are allowed maternity leave only enjoy it without any wage. The women workers of the Garment Industries, who have children cannot take care of them very well. These workers do not get adequate time for sleep and rest. When the workers are asked about the amount of money spent for herself in the last month, 22.8% female and 7.9% male workers of the study group and 28.6% female and 10.2% male workers of the control group have stated that they spend for themselves less than Tk. 250 in the last month. The garment job has really created opportunity for the women workers spending money for themselves. The morbidity rate among the garment workers is found to be one of the causes of their absence from work. Among them 15.2% are suffering from fever, 3.6% from physical illness, and 6.4% from headache, 4.8% from the problems of eye sight and headache. It has been observed that higher percentage of the women workers are suffering from the above ailments than their male counterparts in both the study and control groups.

The nutritional status has been scientifically observed by the measurement of Mid Upper Arm Circumference (MUAC) and Body Mass Index (BMI). The calorie intake of the workers and the pattern of food intake are also observed in this connection. It is interesting to note here that the nutritional status of the study respondents is found to be better than those of the control group in terms of MUAC and BMI. The percentage of normal nutritional status among the female workers of study group is higher than that of the female workers of the control group. But the severely malnourished women workers are higher in percentage in the control group than those of the study group.

Among the respondents, 21.3% female workers of the study group and 20.4% female workers of the control group are found to be

nutritionally normal by MUAC, whereas 38.1% female workers of the study group and 22.4% female workers of the control group are moderately malnourished. On the other hand, 30.6% female workers of the control group are severely malnourished as compared to 17.8% female workers of the study group in terms of MUAC.

Body Mass Index measurement of the garment workers also shows that 23.3% female workers of the study group are nutritionally normal as against 16.3% female workers of the control group. But 57.1% female workers of the control group are severely malnourished in comparison to 53% female workers of the study group. Thus it may be assumed that the nutritional status of the workers in the Garment Industries has improved due to their improvement in economic status including their decision-making power.

Besides, the consumption of optimum calorie is more visible among the garment workers belonging the study group than those of the control group. The pattern of nutrient intake is also better among the workers of the study group. It has been revealed that at least 13.5% male and 43.8% female workers of the study group can take balanced diet as against the 3.6% male and 9.6% female workers of the control group. Therefore, from the nutritional point of view it might be said that the impact of garment employment, income generation, becoming principal earner of the family as well as spender of earning for oneself have enhanced the nutritional status of the garment workers, especially the women workers of the Garment Industries under study.

The present study clearly shows that there is a positive correlation between the socio-economic and nutritional status of the garment workers. I have found that there is a relation between salary and nutritional status measured by MUAC and BMI. When salary has been related to MUAC, it has been found that the workers who are earning salary between Tk. 1001-1500 are nutritionally normal. And they are in higher percentage in the study group than those of the control group. Similar trend has been noticed when Body Mass Index is taken into consideration in the present study.

When the savings of the garment workers are related to nutrition, it has been found that those who can save from their income have better nutritional status. This is more evident in the study group than the control group. The percentage of severely malnourished workers has been found higher among the workers of the control group than that of the study group. It is interesting to find that the percentage of savingless female workers who are nutritionally normal is higher in the study group than that of the control group. But the severely malnourished workers are found in higher percentage in the control group.

When the level of savings of the garment workers is compared with BMI it has been found that the percentage of the workers belonging to the study group who are nutritionally normal is higher than that of the control group. But the higher percentage of the study group workers are moderately malnourished than that of the control group and higher percentage of severely malnourished has been found in the control group than that of the study group.

But those who cannot save money among the workers of the control group are found to be undernourished in higher percentage than those of the study group. However, the percentage of nutritionally normal workers is almost equal in both the study and control groups.

It is interesting to note that those who have no savings at all among the workers belonging to the control group are severely malnourished in higher percentage than the workers of the study group who are nutritionally normal even though they cannot save money.

The reason behind it might be the fact that the intention of the money savers is only to save for the accumulation of wealth while nonsavers might have the capacity of optimum utilization of income for food, which might contribute to the improvement of their nutritional status.

Since the savings of the garment workers are considered as one of the indicators of the improvement of their socio-economic status this study reveals the fact that the nutritional status is better among those who have no savings but used their income in a balanced way for nutrition.

Now it can be said that if the decision-making power of the family lies with the female workers their nutritional status might improve. That is, there is a positive correlation between these two factors.

It has been observed that the capacity for self-decision of the women workers in the family has positive impact on their nutritional status. It is due to the fact that the decision-maker has the capacity to make available the necessary foods and nutrients to the family. The higher educational level, better housing condition and other parameters might have also some positive impact on the nutritional status of the workers. The study shows that 6.4% female and 2.5% male workers of the study group and 6.1% female and 0.0% male workers of the control group are nutritionally normal by MUAC where decision-maker of the family is the garment worker himself/herself. On the other hand, 5.0% female and 2.0% male workers of the study group and 6.1% female workers of the control group are merely nutritionally normal by BMI.

If the women workers are empowered in the family as decision-makers certainly it would better ensure the availability of basic needs, particularly food.

CONCLUSIONS

The growth of Garment Industries in Bangladesh has rather taken place quite suddenly and without planning in the urban residential and commercial centres of the larger cities such as Dhaka, Chittagong, Narayanganj, Tongi etc. The urge for industrialization raises several vital issues relating to rural-urban imbalance, under-development of the agricultural sector, separation of marriage, increase of the number of destitute women, pattern of capitalist investment, penetration of foreign capital and so on, which need to be taken into serious consideration. The Garment Industries have been expanded quickly in Bangladesh because of the availability of cheap labour, especially of the illiterate, destitute and migrated women from the rural areas.

The objectives of the study are to look into the conditions of these destitute, illiterate and poverty-stricken women who are employed in the Garment Industries. The Garment employment of the women workers has certainly enhanced their economic status but not so significantly as desired. This is due to the fact that they are being exploited by different quarters. They used to receive a very meager salary and overtime payment which is not adequate to meet the minimum basic needs of the most of the workers. But in the case of those women workers who have other earning members in the family are managing well. But the widow, abandoned/separated women workers who have no other supporting earning hand in the family are somehow surviving.

Due to their employment in the Garment Industries their housing condition and other facilities have improved and increased, decision-making power has enhanced but they cannot play the role of principal decision-maker in the family even though she is the principal earner of the family. She can only take decision about her own marriage. However, the rising of their income on account of being employed in productive activities has really reduced the dimension of physical torture by their husbands in the families.

In the present study the environment of the Garment Industries for maintaining better health and nutritional status are tried to be traced. It is found that the toilet facilities are not adequate and there is no dining room, canteen and day care centre for the women workers in the Garment Industries. Most of the married women workers are not provided with maternity leave. However, those who are allowed maternity leave they can only enjoy their leave without salary. The percentage of the female workers who are suffering from physical illness, fever, problem of eye sight and headache etc. is higher than that of the male workers.

It may be concluded that the nutritional status of the female workers has improved remarkably from the level of severe malnutrition due to the rise of their economic status and decision-making power, and for being principal earner of the family as well as spender of the earnings for oneself, which, in turn, have enhanced the nutritional status of Garment workers especially the women workers of Garment Industries. It is observed that the workers who have earned salary between Tk.1001-1500 are nutritionally normal by MUAC. Similar situation has been seen when the Body Mass Index has been taken into consideration in the present study.

It is interesting to note that the nutritional status is better among those who have no savings but used their income in a proper way for nutrition. It has also been observed that the capacity for self decision of the women workers in the family has impact on the nutritional status. The reason behind it may be that the decision-maker has the privilege to make available the foods and nutrients required for the family.

The empowerment of the women workers in the family as decision-makers would certainly have direct bearing upon the availability of basic needs particularly food for their respective families.

In fine, it can be said that this study has succeeded in proving the fact that the socio-economic and nutritional status of the garment women workers have improved due to their employment in the Garment Industries now existing in the country.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are made on the basis of the above findings and discussions :

1. The wages as fixed up in the Minimum Wage Legislation of 1984 should be strictly followed in the Garment Industry.
2. The payment of salary and overtime wage of the Garment workers should be made on regular basis preferably on the first day of following month.
3. The employment of adolescent girls aged 10-14 years who constitute a section of child labour force may be encouraged but their working time should be only for five hours. Beyond that period the Authorities of the Garment Industries concerned with the assistance of the Government should provide education and technical training to these young workers. This is very important for Bangladesh in terms of poverty alleviation, destitution and crisis in the family.
4. The housing facilities of the Garment workers particularly the women workers should be provided with jointly by the Management of Garment Industries and the Government.
5. Congenial working environment should be ensured, especially adequate toilet facilities, day-care centre (creches), canteen, sick room etc. should be established for the garment workers. At least one day-care centre should be immediately established in each Garment Industry where more than 50 women workers are being employed.
6. Medical facilities, maternity leave with pay and employment of married women workers should be ensured by the Management of the Garment Industries. Leave on medical grounds should also be provided for the workers. At least one physician for 200 workers should be appointed in each Garment Industry.
7. The continuous working of the workers without rest should be prohibited. At least one particular day of the week should be declared closed. The overtime work in the evening and night shift duties for the women should also be stopped.

8. Mid-day meal should be made available to the workers at a very subsidized rate to ensure nutritional and physical requirements of the workers.
9. The export and import arrangements, and banking, clearing and forwarding system of the Garment Industries should be made much more easier for earning more foreign currency in order to develop the country both economically and socially.
10. Adequate measures for social security in case of the accidents on the road, premises of the industry and residence should be undertaken by the concerned authorities.
11. Annual increment and promotion after working for certain period of time according to efficiency should be ensured in all Garment Industries of Bangladesh. Appointment letters should be issued to the workers mentioning explicitly the terms and conditions of their employment.
12. Physical and mental torture of the workers particularly child labours should be strictly prohibited.
13. Awareness about labour law, minimum wages fixed up by the Government and other facilities of the workers etc. should be generated through the collective efforts of the government and non-government organizations.
14. The Management of the Garment Industries should be convinced about the improvement of the conditions of garment workers, who are the real earners of foreign currency.
15. The improvement of socio-economic and nutritional status of the workers should get priority. Otherwise it will have an adverse effect on the earning of foreign currency in future for the country.

LIST OF TABLES

	Title of the Tables	No. of Page
Chapter-I		
I.1.	The Contribution of Readymade Garments in Total Export Earnings	2
I.2.	Percentage of Women Work Force Shown in Different Studies	5
 Chapter-IV		
IV.1	Structure of Industries	40
IV.2	Recruitment Status Through Appointment Letters by Gender	41
 Chapter-V		
V.1	Characteristics of Garment Workers by Gender	43
V.2	Distribution of Age by Gender of the Respondents	44
V.3	Levels of Educational Background of Garment Workers by Gender	45
V.4	Marital Status of Garment Workers by Gender	46
V.5	Previous Professions of the Garment Workers by Gender	47
V.6	Internal Migration of the Garment Workers by Gender	49
V.7	Duration of Living of the Garment Workers in Dhaka City by Gender	50
V.8	Reasons of Garment Workers Migrating to Dhaka City	51
 Chapter-VI		
VI.1	Monthly Salary Received by the Different Category of Workers	53
VI.2	Time of Payment of Wages to the Workers	55
VI.3	Overtime Work of the Garment Workers	56
VI.4	Reasons for Overtime Work	57
VI.5	Rate of Wage for Overtime Work Per Hour by Gender	58

VI.6	Rate of Overtime Work for Quality Controller, Cutting Master and Supervisor	59
VI.7	Rate of Overtime Work for Operator, Cutting Helper and Sewing Helper	60
VI.8	Time of Overtime Payment to the Workers	62
VI.9	Status of Promotion of Workers by Gender	62
VI.10	Reasons of Promotion of Workers by Gender	63
VI.11	Promotion of Workers by Gender	63
VI.12	Salary Increment of Workers by Gender	64
VI.13	Times of Increment for Workers	65
VI.14	Salary of Workers Increased in Times	66
VI.15	Status of Training of Workers by Gender	67
VI.16	Number of Industries Served by Garment Workers	68
VI.17	Status of Workers in Terms of Identity Card	68
VI.18	Conditions of Contract of Workers by Gender	69
VI.19	Status of Workers in Terms of Bonus by Gender	70
VI.20	Genderwise Workers by Types of Bonus	71
VI.21	Salary Deduction of Workers for being Absent	71
VI.22	Amount of Worker's Salary Deducted for being Absent	72
VI.23	Workers Punished for Late Attendance by Gender	73
VI.24	Salary Differentiation of Workers by Gender	74
VI.25	Reasons for Male Workers Receiving higher Salary	75

Chapter-VII

VII.1	Improvement of Economic Condition of Workers	78
VII.2	Saving Situation of the Earning of the Workers	79
VII.3	Places of Depositing the Savings Chosen by the Workers	80
VII.4	Amounts of Worker's Savings by Gender	81
VII.5	Investment of the Workers Income by Gender	82
VII.6	Length of Service by Salary of the Workers	83
VII.7	Number of Industries Served by Workers	85

Chapter-VIII

VIII.1	Persons with Whom the Workers Residing by Gender	86
VIII.2	Residential Status of Workers in Dhaka City by Gender	88

VIII.3	Types of Houses of the Workers by Gender	88
VIII.4	Worker's Facilities in Their Houses	89
VIII.5	Types of Fuel Other than Gas Used by Workers	90
VIII.6	Harassment Faced by Workers	92
VIII.7	Specific Types of Harassment Faced by Workers	93
VIII.8	Attitudes of Neighbours Towards Workers Joining Garment Industries	94
VIII.9	Attitude of Worker's Relatives Towards Joining the Garment Industries	95
VIII.10	Attitudes of Family Members Towards Working in the Garment Industries	97
VIII.11	Personal Perception of the Workers About Joining the Garment Industries	98
VIII.12	Principal Earning Member of the Family	99
VIII.13	Spenders of Earnings and Decision Makers of the Family of Garment Workers	101
VIII.14	Shopping and Travelling of Workers by Gender	102
VIII.15	Marriage of Workers According to Their Own Choice by Gender	103
VIII.16	Reasons for Not Getting Married by Gender	104
VIII.17	Workers Relationship with Spouse	105
VIII.18	Assistance of Women Worker's Husbands in Household Activities	106
VIII.19	Number of Hours the Spouse Assist Domestic Work by Gender	106
VIII.20	Physical Torture by Spouse before and after Joining Garments	107
VIII.21	Reasons for Beating by Spouse	108
VIII.22	Length of Service and Relationship with the Spouse	109
VIII.23	Workers Length of Service and Decision Making	111
 Chapter -IX		
IX.1	Availability of Toilet Facilities for Female Workers in the Garment Industries	113
IX.2	Availability of Dining Room for the Workers in the Industries	113

IX.3	Place of Taking Lunch by the Workers	114
IX.4	Duration of Lunch Time for Workers	115
IX.5	Adequacy of Lunch Time for the Workers	115
IX.6	Availability of Extra time for Workers Other than Lunch Hour	116
IX.7	Reasons of Extra Time for Workers Other than Lunch	116
IX.8	Night Duties of the Workers	117
IX.9	Duties on Friday for Workers	118
IX.10	Enjoyment of Maternity Leave by Female Workers on the Basis of Days	119
IX.11	Reasons for Not Enjoying Maternity Leave by the Women Workers	119
IX.12	Number of Children Procreated by Workers	120
IX.13	Child Care of Workers	120
IX.14	Sleeping Hours of Workers	121
IX.15	Utilization of Income by Workers for Them	122
IX.16	Health Reasons for Absence of Workers	123
IX.17	Worker's Nutritional Status by MUAC	124
IX.18	Nutritional status of Workers by Calorie Intake	125
IX.19	Pattern of Food Intake by Workers	126
IX.20	Worker's Nutritional Status by BMI	127

Chapter-X

X.1	Workers by Salary and Mid Upper Arm Circumference	130
X.2	Workers by Salary and Body Mass Index	130
X.3	Workers by Savings and Mid Upper Arm Circumference	132
X.4	Workers by Savings and BMI	132
X.5	Workers by Decision Making and MUAC	135
X.6	Workers by Decision Making and BMI	135

QUESTIONNAIRE OF THE STUDY

A. Personal Information

1. Name of the Interviewee _____
- 1.1 Name of the Garment Industry _____
Address _____
- 1.2 Present Address of the Interviewee _____
2. Age : _____ Year _____ Month _____
3. Sex : 1 Male 2 Female
4. Own District : _____ Code
5. Educational Qualifications :
 1 No education 2 Can sign only 3 Primary level 4 Secondary level
 5 S.S.C 6 H.S.C 7 Graduation & Above 8 Noresponse
6. Marital status :
 1 Married 2 Unmarried 3 Widow 4 Divorced
 5 Separated/Abandoned
- 7.1 Husband's Educational Qualifications :
 1 No education 2 Can sign only 3 Primary level
 4 Secondary level 5 S.S.C 6 H.S C
 7 Graduation & Above 8 No response 9 Not applicable
- 7.2 What work you have been doing before taking the job in the Garment Industry ?
 1 Sewing/Tailoring 2 Servant 3 Labour 4 House hold work
 5 Education 6 Business 7 No response 8 Unemployed

9 House Tutor 10 Others 11 Agriculture

8.1 For how many years you are in Dhaka? 1 --- Years --- Month

2 from Birth.

8.2 With whom you are living here ?

1 Parents 2 Sub-let 3 Husband 4 Brother 5 Children

6 Sister 7 Relatives 8 Mess 9 Alone

8.3 Why you have come to Dhaka?

1 For a Job in the Garment Industry 2 For any type of work

3 For education 4 Others 5 Erosion of river 6 Travel

7 The worst economic condition of my village.

B. SERVICE AND ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

1. Do you have appointment letter ? 1 Yes 2 No

1.1 If yes, what are the conditions of your appointment?

1 Monthly salary 2 Bonus 3 Leave 4 Facilities 5 Maternity Leave

6 Overtime 7 Termination, Resignation 8 Others

1.2 Are you working under contract ? 1 Yes 2 No

1.2.1 If yes, what are the conditions of contract ?

1 Verbal contract on salary 2 Overtime 3 Leave

4 Office time 5 Bonus 6 Others

- 1.3 Do you have identity card ? 1 Yes 2 No
- 1.4 In which post you are working ?
- 1 Quality Controller 2 Cutting Master 3 Supervisor
- 4 Operator 5 Iron man 6 Cutting Helper
- 7 Sewing Helper 8 Finishing Helper
- 9 Folding 10 Floor-in-charge 11 Trainee 12 Others
- 13 Inspector. 14 Line-chief.
2. How many hours you work except overtime ? _____ Hours
- 2.1 How many hours you work as overtime ? 1 --- hours
 2 Don't know.
- 2.2 What is your monthly salary except overtime wage? 1 Tk. —
 2 Don't know.
- 2.3 When do you receive your salary? 1 First week 2 Second week
 3 Third week 4 Fourth week
- 2.4 Do you work on piece rate? 1 Yes 2 No
- 2.5 If yes, what is the rate per piece? 1 Tk. _____
 2 What amount you receive in terms of salary ? Tk. _____
- 2.6 What is the rate of overtime? 1 Tk. _____ percent of salary.
 2 Tk. _____ per piece 3 Tk. _____ per hour. 4 Don't know.

3. Why you do work for overtime ?

- 1 Self need 2 Under compulsion 3 More work load
 4 Leisure time 5 Don't know 6 Not Applicable

3.1 What is your rate of night shift work ?

- 1 2 Banana 1 bread 2 1 Banana 1 bread 3 1 Danish
 4 Tk. 5-10 only 5 Tk. 10-20 only 6 Tk. 20-30 only
 7 Each hours of overtime 8 Each hours of monthly payment
 9 Do not provide 10 Not received 11 Not stated

3.2 When do you receive overtime Money ?

- 1 First week 2 Second week 3 Third week 4 Forth week
 5 1-2 month Unpaid 6 2-3 month Unpaid 7 4-5 month Unpaid
 8 5-6 month Unpaid 9 No particular time 10 Not stated
 11 Not applicable

3.3 Why is the overtime payment late ?

- 1 Prevention of workers from getting job elsewhere.
 2 The Owner invest the money in other business
 3 Non-completion of work order 4 Do not pay willingly
 5 Don't know 6 Difficulty of the owner 7 Not Applicable.

4. In how many Garment Industries you have worked (including the present one)?

1 One 2 Two 3 Three 4 Four 5 Five 6 Six 7 Seven 8 Eight

4.1 For how many years you are working in the garment industry ?

_____ Year _____ Month

4.2 How many mistakes you had committed yesterday in your work ?

_____ Nos.

4.3 Why did you commit such mistakes ?

1 Cannot understand 2 Fear of Supervisor 3 Absent Mindedness

4 Quickness 5 Children at residence 6 Others

7 More work load 8 Machine disturbed 9 Mistake of the Operator

10 Mistake in cutting 11 Remembering of parents living in village home 12 Don't know.

4.4 Where do you take lunch ?

1 On the roof, Varandah and work place 2 Lunch room 3 Hotel 4 Residence

5 Don't take lunch 6 Others

5. Have you got promotion? 1 Yes 2 No

5.1 If yes, why you are promoted? 1 Skill developed 2 Know the work

3 Intra-firm mobility 4 Length of service 5 Not stated

6 Others 7 Don't Know 8 Not applicable.

5.2 Promotion from which post to what post?

- 1 Primary Worker to Helper 2 Helper to operator
 3 Operator to Supervisor 4 Supervisor to Line chief
 5 Line chief to Quality Controller 6 Training Operator
to Operator 7 Inspector to Supervisor 8 Not stated
 9 Don't know 10 Others

5.3 What was your salary before promotion ? 1 Tk. _____

2 Don't know.

5.4 What is your present salary ? Tk. _____

5.5 Is your salary increased ? 1 Yes 2 No 3 Reduced.

5.6 If yes, How many times increased ? _____ times

2 Don't know.

5.7 What is the increment in each time?

1 1st time Tk. _____ 2 2nd time Tk. _____

3 3rd time Tk. _____ 4 4th time Tk. _____

5 5th time Tk. _____ 6 5th time Tk. _____

6. How much time do you get for lunch ?

1 30 mins. 2 1 hour 3 1:30 hour 4 2+hour

6.1 Can you complete your lunch, and other necessary work by this time ? 1 Yes 2 No

6.2 Do you get extra time other than lunch time? 1 Yes 2 No

6.3 For what this extra time is given ?

1 Taking of tea 2 Saying of Prayer 3 Taking Rest 4 others

7. Do you get Bonus from the factory? 1 Yes 2 No 3 Don't know.

7.1 If yes, what type of Bonus ?

1 Production 2 Efficiency/Skill 3 Attendance

4 Permanency 5 Eid Bonus 6 Others.

8. For how many days of leave you are provided per year by the industry ?

1 _____ days 2 Don't know.

8.1 For how many days you were absent in the last month ?

1 _____ days.

2 Not absent.

8.2 Why were you absent ?

1 Problems in the eyes 2 Fever/cough 3 Headache 4 Others

5 Accident 6 Family work 7 Physical illness/weakness.

8.3 Is any salary deducted for the absence? 1 Yes 2 No

3 Don't know.

8.4 If yes, what amount was deducted ?

- 1 Daily overtime rate 2 One day payment for one day absence
 3 Two days payment for one day absence 4 3 days payment for one day absence
 5 Depend on owner 6 Bonus 7 Don't know 8 Not stated

8.5 Have you ever undergo any kind of punishment ? 1 Yes 2 No
 3 No response

8.6 For how many days you were late in the last month? 1 ———days
 2 Not late.

8.7 If late, what type of punishment is given ?

- 1 No entrance in the industry 2 Deduction of one day salary for 3 days' late
 3 Deduction of attendance 4 Deduction of overtime per minute
 5 Beating 6 Deduction of one day salary for 4 days late
 7 Don't know 8 Not applicable

9. Have you received any training from the industry ? 1 Yes
 2 No

9.1 If yes, what types of training ?

- 1 For doing the job 2 For operating the machines 3 For new design
 4 For Cleanliness 5 Others.

9.2 Did you get full salary during training? 1 Yes 2 No

9.3 If not, what amount you received ? Tk. _____

9.4 Were you send for in-country or abroad training ?

Yes No

9.5 If yes, where ? In country Abroad

9.6 Did you get promotion after training ? Yes No

9.7 Has your salary increased after training ? Yes No

10. Is there individual toilet for male and female ? Yes No

10.1 How many toilets are there for women ?

_____ toilets for _____ women.

10.2 Is there any dining room for you in the industry? Yes No

10.3 If yes, is it sufficient for all of you ? Yes No

10.4 Is there any canteen ? Yes No

10.5 Whether male workers received more salary than women ?

Yes No

10.6 If yes, why they get more salary ?

They work more They are more skilled They are male

Others

11. How many children you have ? (For married only)

One Two Three Four Five Six None

11.1 What is the age of your young child ?--- Years--- Month

11.2 Do you know about maternity leave of working women ?

1 Yes 2 No

11.3 Did you enjoy maternity leave ? 1 Yes , 2 No

11.4 If yes, for how many days ? _____ days.

11.5 If not, why did you not enjoy maternity leave ?

1 The authority did not permit 2 I did not want .

3 Left the job without applying for leave

4 Left the job as leave was not granted.

5 The child was born before getting the job.

12. Is there any day care centre for looking after your child ?

1 Yes 2 No

12.1 Who takes care of your child at home ?

1 Husband 2 Grand Father 3 Grand Mother 4 Servant 5 Relatives

6 Elder children 7 Neighbours 8 Other day-care centre

9 Alone 10 Others.

13. Do you breastfeed your child ? 1 Yes 2 No

13.1 If not, why do you not breastfeed ?

- 1 Time not available 2 Insufficient milk
 3 Long distance of residence
 4 No arrangement for day-care 5 Others

13.2 What type of milk you give to the child ?

- 1 Powdered milk 2 Cow milk 3 No milk

14. Do you know that the Government had introduced minimum wage laws in 1984 ?

- 1 Yes 2 No

14.1 If yes, do you get salary accordingly ?

- 1 Yes 2 No 3 Don't know

14.2 Is your father alive ?

- 1 Yes 2 No 3 No response

14.3 What is or was your father ?

- 1 Farmer 2 Small service 3 Small business 4 Medium business
 5 Day-labourer 6 Rickshaw/cart puller 7 Jobless 8 Looking after the Family
 9 Electrician/Carpentry/Mason 10 Officer 11 Teacher
 12 Don't Know 13 No response

14.4 Is your mother alive ?

1 Yes 2 No 3 No response

14.5 What is or was your mother ?

1 House-wife 2 Maid-servant 3 Small service 4 No response.

5 Don't know 6 Teacher 7 Agricultural work.

14.6 What is or was your husband ?

1 Farmer 2 Small Service 3 Small business 4 Medium business

5 Day-labourer 6 Rickshaw/cart puller 7 Jobless 8 Working abroad

9 Working in the garments 10 Officer 11 No response

12 Don't know 13 Others 14 Not applicable

C. SOCIAL STATUS

1.1 Are you living in your own house at Dhaka ?

1 Yes, 2 No

1.2 If not, where do you live in ?

1 Rented house 2 Colony 3 Quarter of the industry

4 Mess 5 Other.

1.3 What is the type of your house ?

|1| Building |2| Kutcha house |3| Brick wall with tin shed.

1.4 What facilities are available in your house ?

1 Electricity 2 Gas 3 Tap-water 4 Tubewell water

5 Pond-water. 6 Well.

1.5 If gas is not available, how do you cook ?

1 Fuel 2 Kerosine 3 Heater 4 Others.

1.6 If gas is available, how many families use one burner ?

_____ Families.

1.7 How many families use one tap or tube-well ?

_____ Families.

1.8 Have you faced any harassment ?

1 Yes 2 No 3 No response 4 Don't know.

1.9 If yes, what kind of harassment ?

- 1 Threatened while walking on the road.
- 2 Teasing on the way to industry.
- 3 Attacked by the Hijackers/Mastans.
- 4 Raped on the way to industry.
- 5 Attacked by the police on the way to industry
- 6 Beaten by the Supervisor in the industry.
- 7 Raped within the industry.
- 8 Threatened by women traffickers at the residence.
- 9 Attacked by the mastans at the residence.
- 10 Hijacked on the way to industry.

1.10 Is your present economic condition better than before ?

- 1 Yes 2 No 3 Same.

1.11 Can you save something of your earnings ?

- 1 Yes 2 No

1.12 Where do you deposit your savings ?

- 1 Bank 2 Accumulating at home 3 Association 4 Others
- 5 Not applicable.

1.13 If you deposit in the Bank, what is the amount ?

1 Tk. _____ 2 Don't know 3 No response

4 Not applicable.

1.14 Could you save money in the last month ?

1 Yes 2 No

1.15 If yes, what amount of money you saved ?

1 Tk. _____ 2 Don't know 3 No response 4 Not applicable

1.16 Where do you like to invest ?

1 Ornaments 2 Land purchase at village

3 Land purchase at Dhaka 4 Business 5 Education

6 Assistance to Relatives 7 Money lending

8 Purchase of Poultry and cattle 9 Purchase of Radio,

Television, Bi-cycle, Motor-cycle etc.

10 Purchase of furniture 11 Maintenance of family members living in village home

1.17 Why do you save money ?

1 For own marriage 2 For Dowry 3 For purchasing land

4 For Business. 5 For the future of the children

6 For the future of the brothers and sisters

7 For overcoming the economic crisis of family.

8 For own future.

2 What is the impression of your neighbours about your joining the garment Industry ?

1 Good 2 Fair 3 Bad 4 No idea.

2.1 What is the impression of your relatives about your working in the garment industry.

1 Good 2 Fair 3 Bad 4 No idea.

2.2 What is your opinion about yourself ?

1 Good 2 Fair 3 Bad 4 No idea.

2.3 What is the impression of your spouse and other members of your family about you ?

1 Good 2 Fair 3 Bad 4 No idea.

2.4 What is the monthly income of your family ?

1 Tk. _____ 2 Don't know.

2.5 Who earns more in your family ?

1 Myself 2 Husband/Wife 3 Father 4 Mother 5 Brother

6 Sister 7 Son 8 Daughter 9 Others.

2.6 Who spends the money that you earn ?

1 Myself 2 Husband/Wife 3 Father 4 Mother 5 Brother

6 Sister 7 Son 8 Daughter 9 Jointly 10 Others.

2.7 Who decides spending of family income ?

- 1 Myself 2 Husband/Wife 3 Father 4 Mother 5 Brother 6 Sister
 7 Son 8 Daughter 9 Jointly 10 Others.

2.8 Do your neighbours and relatives like to know your opinion regarding their mundane matters ?

- 1 Yes 2 No.

3 Do you go to market alone for purchasing goods ?

- 1 Yes 2 No.

3.1 Can you travel alone ?

- 1 Yes 2 No.

3.2 Do your children and other members of the family follow your advice ?

- 1 Yes 2 No.

4.1 Did you get married according to your own choice ?

- 1 Yes 2 No 3 Not applicable

4.2 If not, did you marry according to the choice of your family members ?

- 1 Yes 2 No 3 Not applicable

4.3 What is the state of your relationship with your spouse for the job in the garment Industry ?

- 1 Improved 2 Fair 3 Same 4 Deteriorated 5 Not applicable.

4.4 Do your Husband/Wife assist you in domestic work ?

1 Yes 2 No 3 Not applicable.

4.5 If yes, what type of assistance ?

1 Cooking 2 Caring of children 3 Washing of clothes

4 Keeping the house clean 5 Not applicable.

4.6. How many hours your husband/Wife assist you in domestic work ?

1 _____ Hours 2 Don't know 3 Not applicable.

5. Does your husband/Wife beat you ?

1 Yes 2 No 3 No response 4 Not applicable.

5.1. If yes, What is the reason ?

1 Late home-coming from work.

2 For not giving more time to the spouse.

3 For not finishing the family work in time

4 Husband wants to spend wife's earnings.

5 For Dowry 6 Others.

5.2. If not, did it happen before joining the garment Industry?

1 Yes 2 No 3 Not applicable.

5.3. If yes, what was the reason ?

- 1 Inability to earn for the family.
- 2 For dowry..
- 3 Serious economic crisis of the family.
- 4 Others.
- 5 Not applicable.

6. Why are you not marrying ?

- 1 Non-availability of good spouse.
- 2 Time is not mature for marrying
- 6 After adequate earning 4 Having no money for dowry
- 5 Unwilling to marry 6 Marriage is a parental concern.
- 7 Not applicable.

7. What amount of money you had spent for yourself in the last month?

- 1 Tk. _____ 2 Did not spend 3 Don't know.

8. For what purpose you have spent ?

- 1 Food 2 entertainment of the friends 3 Purchase of clothes
- 4 Video Show 5 Cosmetics 6 Travelling
- 7 Cinema Show 8 Treatment of illness 9 Others.

9. How many hours you sleep a day ?

- 1 _____ Hours 2 Don't know.

10. Do you get time for rest ? 1 Yes 2 No.

10.1. Do you work on friday ?

1 Yes 2 No 3 Most of the Fridays 4 Sometimes 5 No response

D.NUTRITIONAL STATUS

24 HOURS RECALL

Food items Quantity	Morning Quantity	Afternoon Quantity	Night Quantity	Other time Quantity
Rice				
Bread				
Vegetable				
Egg				
Fish				
Meat				
Pulse				
Milk				
Khichuri				
Sweetmeat				
Tea				
Others				

1.1. Mid upper arm circumference (MUAC)

1 23 + cm 2 20-23 Cm 3 <20 cm

1.2. Body Mass Index Identification.

1 Height _____ Meter 2 Weight _____ Kg.

3 BMI _____

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