CHAPTER - II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter reviews some of the studies with working women. Many studies have concentrated on the status of women in an unorganized and organized sector. The present review limits itself to status of women in organized sector, which are relevant to the study.

A review of literature was added to this study by referring to different journal and studies conducted by different individuals to show relevance to the study.

Hate (1978) in her book stated that there is positive change in the political, economics and social status of middle class working and non-working women living in four cities in Maharashtra with the advent of independence.

Armstrong (1979) revealed that higher level employees care more for self actualizing values like advancement, recognition and independence whereas lower level employees care more for salary, fringe benefits and happiness.
**Henley (1979)** stated that the feminine stereotype depicts women as being more concerned than men about their bodies, their clothing, and their appearance in general; as is often the case, there is both truth and reason to the stereotype. Women are subject to a great deal more observation than men; their figures and clothing; their attractiveness is the criteria by which they most often are judged. Not surprisingly, then women are more conscious than men of their visibility. This difference translates into both a power and a sex difference. In a situation where one person is observing and the other is being observed, the observer dominates the situation. When a man on the bases of her dress and appearance judges a woman, the man is able to dominance over the situation.

**Johnson (1979)** in his study started that women, if theory act in an acceptable feminine manner, would rely on indirect personal and helpless forms of power. The interplay of these sex roles expectations and opportunities form and male styles.

**Kapur (1979)** his shown that the twin roles of women cause tension and conflict due to her social structure which is still more dominant. In her study on working women in Delhi, she has shown that traditional authoritarian set up of Hindu social
structure continues to be the same basically and hence. Women face problem of role conflict change in attitudes of men and women according to the situation can help to overcome their problem.

Locke (1979) in his study stated that a cause-effect relationship is available between family functioning and work life, this cause-effect relationship could work in both directions, that is, work attitudes could affect family attitudes and vice versa. The mechanism that is positive in bringing about such effect is emotional generalization of spill over.

M.R Wood (1979) in his study of middle class urban sanitary women un Gujarat showed that some of the women is his sample including one whose marriage was arranged, had established a give and take relationship with their husbands, Women also take part in important decisions.

Rosen and Jerdee (1979) in their study stated that women were seen less favourably in terms of the knowledge, aptitudes, skills, motivation, interests, temperament, and work habits that are demanded in most managerial roles.
Sandhu and Singh (1979) reported that motivation factors viz. feeling of achievement, ability utilization, recognition and rewards, creative work freedom of expression and scope for professional growth contributed comparatively more to job satisfaction than factors like behaviour of immediate officers, job security and advancement, adequacy of salary, administrative setup and social status attached to the job.

Sharpe (1979) in his book titled ‘Double Identity’ stated that, there are some signs of change. Men are now recognizing and having to reconcile work and family demands. When it comes to the division of labour in the home, however, despite some optimistic forecasting women still do the large majority of tasks associated with house work and childcare. Thus while men are increasingly making career discussions with their partners and families in mind, nevertheless most men do not do their share of household and child care tasks. This makes it more difficult for most women to be serious contenders in the competition for promotion in their career.

Beth anne Shelton (1980) in their book presented her analysis that paid work and household responsibilities not only impact on each other but may conflict. That is time spent in one sphere mean less time spent in another. If commitments to paid
labour and household labour call for full time participants in both, that time must come either at the expense of leisure or else some of the demands of paid labour or household labour must go unmeant.

Deborach and Judith (1980) in their in book stated that their survey was designed to elicit response from both parents and non-parents on how they have reached decisions in their work family choices. For example, 85 percent of the 902 women believe that reducing hours of work is detrimental to women’s career. Despite this widely held perception, 70 percent of the women with children decreased their hours of work after the birth of their first child. Knowing that the traditional rules of a male dominated work culture challenge their role as a parent, the Harvard women demonstrated a fierce determination to forge new definitions for being involved parent and a committed professional.

Drucker (1980) in his book stated, that the labour force participation of married women under age fifty is now just as high as that of men. It is therefore unlikely to rise any further. But a very large number a women in the labour force the of those who entered when the inrush of women began are now reaching their mid-thirties. And also he states that most of the married women stay in the labour force after first child.
Julia (1980) in her study that ‘by focusing on women’s careers the short-term objectives has been to correct the gender imbalance, but long-term objective must be to develop theoretical concepts and explanation which the gender neutral and inclusive of both men and women. Second the changes currently under way in work organization and professions will as well be referred to as providing new difficulties for women’s careers as wells as presenting an opportunity for the re-conceptualization of the ‘successful’ career.

Kate Young (1980) in her book stated that “The sexual division of labour also applies to the organization of the household. The dynamics of bargaining, decision making and gender relations within the household have made an important contribution to our understanding of production and consumption. We learn that the household is not a homogenous unit but as Amartys Sen. calls it, a sector of ‘co-operative conflict’, where there are different interest, expectation, contributions, needs and degrees of control.

Reddy and Venkateswarlu (1980) in their study concluded that farm scientists valued creativity and independence most in carrying out their tasks. They did not prefer to work in
rural areas. The other work valves of scientists differed slightly according to their age and experience in the present post.

**Robinson and Skarie (1980)** in their article on stress of working women stated that in the area of stress and its relationship to locus control reveals that internally oriented individuals show less perception of role overload and role ambiguity.

**Rowbotham (1980)** in her book stated that movements of women, now in the past provide more than criticism; they can be a basis for valuable knowledge about needs and well being that have been theoretically disregarded. They also enable us to think about society and the economy in new ways and discover a great deal about the process of politics and culture.

**Templeton (1980)** in her book stated that contracting out requirements for occupational pension schemes make it extremely difficult to achieve equal treatment, because they are based on the unequal at pension ages. The use made of separate sex actuarial tables often leads to unequal treatment of women and men in pensions. Many women are not in apposition to take care of their occupational pension rights during breaks in employment because of caring responsibilities.
Asha (1981) in her study found that there is significant difference between satisfied groups as well as between satisfied and dissatisfied groups of women in cohesion. The satisfied group is found to perceive their families more cohesive than the moderately satisfied group and the dissatisfied group.

Hikka Pietila and Jeanne Vickers (1981) in their book stated that violence against women exists in various forms in everyday life in all societies. Women are beaten, mutilated, burned, sexually abused and raped. Such violence is a major obstacle to the achievement of peace.

Jenny Shaw and Diane Perrons (1981) in their book employment Deregulation and equal opportunities. The case for monitoring gender work stated the despite the existence of equal opportunities policies at a variety of level and despite the attainment of equal opportunities has been limited. The increase in the deregulation of employment and some aspects if organization policy are working against equal opportunities and making the operation of the existing legislation more difficulty to monitor and to enforce.
Marilee Karl (1981) in her book stated that power and control are exercised in many different ways-direct and indirect- in the home, workplace and the community. One important mechanism is culture, including religious beliefs. Culture and tradition are not men who insists that women’s but religious, but the customary practice, it is not men who insists that women’s head should be lower than their, it is the custom. Culture and religion are used to shape attitudes dictate practice and maintain inequality as “the norm”.

Neeraja Dwivedi (1981) her study about women sanitary workers were 23, 47, and 30 in the age group of below 30, 31-50, 50-60 years respectively. In the other study, the percentage of sanitary workers irrespective of gender was 15, 53, 32 in below 30, 31-50, 51-60 years respectively. The difference in the results of these could be attituted due to many factors such as sample size and type of classification.

Amaury de Riencourt (1982) in her book stated that ‘It now becomes easier to see that, even if women alone rarely prove to be intellectually or artistically creative, man cannot create without her; hence, her part in the cultural process, however indirect, is vital. The sexes together are to compare male and female to the two
poles of an elliptic field of magnetic forces. The correlation between the two poles provides the creative power; no one pole, male if female, can achieve anything without the contribution of the other.

**Barbara (1982)** in her research found that the professional development and training needs for female administrators identified by the respondents were consistent with their level of agreement with the barrier statements on the survey.

**Chandrika (1982)** in her study stated that in the last decade of the 20th century the spotlight fell on various specific issues of women, these include multiple feminine identity, gender and sexuality, feminization of poverty environment and sustainable development, planning and power globalization, sex tourism, sexual harassment at work place, Dalit women’s issues, tribal women and minority women’s problem, women’s rights as human rights, communal fascism, women and media. These yielded truly in depth analysis, studies and discussions and action programmers.

**Irene Dankleman (1982)** in his stated that the specific place of women in promoting sustainable development is increasingly appreciated. However, there is still an overall lack of serious consideration of the role of women’s their contribution and
potential in relation to environment and development and there has been a failure to allocate sufficient resources to ensure their inclusion and integration.

Rosemary (1982) in her book stated that more women are moving into managerial and professional occupations (the fastest-growing occupational category) and this trend shows no sings of slackening. It is true that women tend to be located in ‘gendered niches’ with in managerial occupations. Nevertheless, such jobs will usually generate an income, which is sufficient to live interpedently. Managerial and professional women are likely to enter into relationships with men in similar occupations at a similar level, and to remain in paid employment after the birth of their children, such house holds will require various services which have to be purchased, either directly through the employment of paid domestic help or indirectly through ready meals, restaurant, dry cleaners and so on. More generally, two earner house holds (that is not only managerial and professional) will be more likely to buy services of all kinds. More men will be an increasing move of men into services occupations, thus further blurring the boundaries of the gender divisions of labour in the sphere of paid employment.
Sara Arber and Nigel Gilbert (1982) in their book stated that women’s working lives are fundamentally influenced by the composition of their family and their stage in life course. Women in professional occupations achievement and earnings than women in lower level clerical services and are more similar to their male co-workers in terms occupational manual occupations are to their male counter part.

Sarah Philip (1982) in her study stated majority of the respondents were married. That there is no significant difference between married and unmarried respondents with regard to the perception of overall satisfaction. Further she states that there is no significant relationship between age and overall satisfaction.

Teresa Morris (1982) in her research found Majority of the sanitary workers (92) were belong to Hindu religion.

Caldwell (1983) argued that satisfied job incumbents may describe their job favorably in terms of job characteristics, rather than in terms of variations in job dimensions, leading to differences in job satisfaction.
**Herzberg (1983)** emphasized job characteristics rather than individual differences. The theory suggests that jobs with opportunities for achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement and growth in competence are those that enhance motivation and job satisfaction.

**Glickon (1983)** conducted a study on the job satisfaction of social workers. They ranked their job satisfaction in the following order. Satisfaction with co-workers highest, followed by satisfaction with supervision, the work itself, pay and lowest satisfaction with promotional opportunity.

**Desai (1984)** conducted a study on “Economic Opportunities in Women”. Had been managed the dual roles of homemaker and worker, poses serious problems without working women in large cities, particularly with young mothers who often get no help of supportive services such as day care, community creche, foster day care etc. Their difficulties got further eventuated when they had to commute from long distances. Under these circumstances the traditional pattern of mutual help by in-laws, friends, neighbours had been found extremely helpful whenever possible. However, it was not always available.
Gilmer (1984) found that working conditions were more important for female than for male workers, especially for married ones.

Jaya Arunachalam (1984) in her report on “Empowering Women for a positive revolution” revealed attitude of families towards women’s domestic responsibilities, the unsympathetic attitude of employers, lack of training, limiting employment opportunities and above all, women’s low perception in the labour market and had provided ample impressions both to employers and the society that women work only to make subsidiary income to the families, whereas the principal breadwinner were still men. It had also given rise to belief that women were not career-minded and therefore does not mind dead and hobs without promotion options. The facts mentioned precede that even that small percentage of women who get into formal sector, face discrimination and exploitation in their factories and were pushed to accept jobs not accepted by men. A critical examination of these facts would reveal how labour intensive industries had more women workers on low schedule of payment leading to capital accumulation.
L. Krishnaveni (1984) in her report on “Status of Indian Women”. She mentioned that a “Working Women” referred to a woman who works outside her home for a wage or salary. Now-a-days most of the women had been coming forward to work in order to create a meaning for them or out of economic necessity. Generally the women work equally along with men in informal sector. They were facing so many problems especially household responsibilities like cooking, cleaning, washing; child care, etc. were causes for low female work participation in informal sector had no job security and maternity benefits like women engaged in the organized sector.

Lalitha K. Nair (1984) conducted a study on “Women’s two Roles” and said Women’s occupational status had always been closely associated with the home and the family. There was a clear conflict between the socially approved status of women, as house wife and mother of children on the one hand, and their status as more productive worker on the other. Children of 20% respondents were looked after by their parents when the respondents were at work, 26% by the husband’s 18% by servants, 20% were schools going children and 16% had no children. 30% reported that their children were too yond to judge their scholastic performance. 86% families had strong economic support due to respondent’s income,
which was spent to meet family needs. 50% felt it was necessary to work. 46% had satisfactory relations with their supervisors and colleagues. 52% liked both home and their job as against 25% who liked only their home and 28% liked only their office. 62% were fully satisfied with their dual role of working and housewife.

**Madula Sherwani (1984)** in her studies on “Why more women entering work force” has observed Indian women still operate under creation limitation and hardship. One of the most common problems faced by a woman was the dual role; she had to play on the domestic front and the shop floor. Particularly the married working women with the small children found that dual responsibility a source of great mental and physical strain. For them the working hours were long 8 hours at the place of employment and at least 4 hours at home. Usually husbands and sometimes even in-laws did not extend any help in the household chores. Again after all this hard work, tragedy was that working women couldn’t claim independent economic assets. Most of the salary earners had to surrender their pay pockets to their husbands in the case of married women and to their parents in the case of unmarried girls. They were allowed to hold back only a small amount for spending on transport and tea.
Rajender Kumar Mansingh (1984) conducted a study on “The Institution of Marriage and Family”. A married woman with a career had really two fronts to guard. The professional and the domestic. The picture becomes more complicated, if she happens to be a mother. Life was really not very easy for her and at times is trying to balance and harmonise these two, finds herself under stress and strain. The pulls of the traditional role and meeting the expectations of the career could create emotional tension. It might be like having her feet in two different boats, which makes her tense and afraid of losing her hold and successfully completing the tasks of life.

Rohila (1984) found that the sanitary workers if they physical environment in which the work is done, is unhealthy, it may contribute to a sense of uneasiness and that work done in poor physical condition over a long period of time may result in dissatisfaction with the job.

Rudd and Wiseman (1984) found that inadequate equipment and supplies as well as lack of other facilities have often been a source of low morale and dissatisfaction
Vinita Srivastava (1984) conducted a study on “Employment of educated married women in India”. In this study by comparing the occupational prestige of husband and wife, it has been found that at each socio-economic level wife were working in occupations which were consistent or only slightly lower in prestige than that of their husband’s occupational prestige. It is never found that wife was working in an occupation which was very much lower in rank as compared to her husband’s occupational rank. Moreover in a good majority of the cases husband and wife were working same kind of occupations.

Anjaneulu (1985) divided the factors of dissatisfaction into three categories: (1) strong dissatisfied (2) weak dissatisfied and (3) conditional dissatisfaction if the situation was changed. Factors like frequent transfers, low standard of pupils, and interference of politicians which was peculiar in certain managements have caused conditional dissatisfaction.

Violet Alva’s (1985) opinion was that equal remuneration men and women workers for work of equal were still for from reality. Marriage versus career home were the hurdles to over come in the higher status of society where women have stepped out to seek careers. There was a sort of could war favours
between the sexes prevailing the relationship between men and women when they step out work together. Women had proved that they were capable of mastering any skill or science as well as men does. Indian administration and the Indian Foreign Service were through open to our women.

**Paliwal & Paliwal (1986)** conducted a study on the need importance in relation to personal characteristics of 52 industrial employees. The results indicated that the skilled semi-skilled and unskilled groups expressed equally strongly the need effort dignified behaviour, giving this need the first place of importance. Need for wage increase was almost the same for all the three groups. Need for housing varies from group to group- the unskilled feeling it least and the skilled feeling it highly strongly.

**Hackman and Oldham (1987)** found that a job high in motivating potential will not affect all individuals in the same ways. In particular who strongly valve and desire personal feelings of accomplishment and growth, would respond very positively who do not value personal growth and accomplishment may find such a job anxiety-arousing and may be uncomfortably ‘stretched’ by it.
Kapur (1987) has shown that the win roles of women cause tension and conflict due to her social structure which is still more dominant. In her study on working women in Delhi, she has shown that traditional authoritarian set up of Hindu social structure continues to be the same basically and hence. Women face problem of role conflict change in attitudes of men and women according to the situation can help to overcome their problem.

Umstot and Mitchell (1987) investigated the effects of job enrichment and goal setting on employee productivity and satisfaction in a well-controlled simulated job environment. The results indicate that job enrichment had a substantial impact on job satisfaction but little effect on productivity. Goal setting on the other hand, had a major impact on productivity and a less substantial impact on satisfaction. In the second phase (after two day’s work) people with unsearched jobs worked under the enrichment conditions and people originally without goals, were assigned goals. Job enrichment again had a positive effect on job satisfaction, while goal setting had a positive effect on performance.

Faris (1988) found that the motivator factors commonly associated with meaningful work experience appeared to provide an intrinsic source of job satisfaction. In addition to this, perceived
success attained through achievement on the job and advancement through the organizational hierarchy, appeared to be major determinants of job satisfaction.

**Goble's (1988)** job satisfaction survey showed that a majority or workers in broiler processing plant, were dissatisfied with their work. Those workers who were least satisfied with co-workers, seemed to have more family-illness-related absences, than did those who were more acceptable to others.

**Kapur (1988)** in his book stated that women are getting into jobs or professions and are continuing to be in them even after marriage. Also an educated women’s attitude towards herself and her employment is ambivalent. She likes to work because of the various social-psycho-economics satisfaction that she derives out of working and of being financially useful.

**Sindhu and singh (1988)** reported that motivation factors viz. Feeling of achievement, ability utilization, recognition and rewards, creative work, freedom of expression and scope for professional growth contributed comparatively more to job satisfaction than factors like behaviour of immediate officers, job
security and advancement, adequacy of salary, administrative set-up and social status attached to the job.

**Vanita (1988)** according to men enjoy superior status in the households and they only take most of the important decision concerning family matters. Women’s participation in gainful employment is bound to bring changes in their position in the family. Working women jointly or independently manage the family budget.

**Charlotte O Kelley (1989)** feels that working women have more independence than full time housewives. Similarly modernized household gave greater autonomy to women in household decision making. This has been reiterated by Bahr when he says working classes women gain more power due to employment.

**Deal and Kennedy (1989)** in their study stated that the value systems influence employee’s behaviour and attitudes. The aspirations and objective reality of their work and society make to think in such fashion and thus, make them differ in their perception about those factors of quality of work life (QWL) in terms of importance they attach to these factors.
Kuppuswamy. B (1989) discussed in the traditional joint family, social life of women was largely confined to family and relatives. Family was the only place for entertainment. There was separation of the perspective spheres of work for men and women. Men were looking after the household work. Basically the spheres of operation were separated. This separation of the sexes in the family tends to characterize social life as well. The women were forming their own social groups. They had much more restricted social life. Very few women socially free to go out of their home or house without escort. Women were not allowed to join unions’ organizations or clubs. Many changes have taken place in the urban family with respect to the social life of women. The new life in the city has altered the family relations, social life because both of them are educated and are developing new relationships. Co-educated has created an opportunity for inter-mixing of boys and girls. A large number of women are working with males and making friendship with them.

Roth's child (1989) female power autonomy and demographic change in the third world in Banker et al women’s roles and population trends in third world London choom Helm Ltd. Conflict of the married working women.
Whiteleggest al (1989) points out that working women has no power on her salary packet. They state that the concept of our money sounds nice in the theory yet his oppositions it and she spends it on his behalf.

Modula Sherwani (1990) discussed in her studies on why more women entering work force has observed. Indian women still operate under certain limitations and hardships. One of the most common problems faced by women was the dual role she has to play on the domestic front and the shop floor. Particularly the married working women with the small children found that dual responsibility a source of great mental and physical strain. For them the working hours were long 8 hours at the place of employment and at least 4 hours at home. Usually husbands and sometimes even in-laws did not extend any help in the household chores. Again after all these hard work the tragedy was that working women cannot claim independent economic assets. Most of the salary earners had to surrender their pay pockets to their husbands in case of married women and to their parents in case of unmarried girls. They were allowed to hold back only a small amount for spending on transport and tea.
Jackqueline Trivers (1991) pointed out that women are attached in daily lives with young children. The attitude to position of women dimension is as follows. Husbands rather than wives should have the final voice in family matters. A job is all right but for women real fulfillment lays in a home and children, a women’s place is in the home.

Marther (1991) insisted on the identification of specific target groups poor women in many case-if development efforts are to be effective. The main focus is women, as they are at disadvantageous position than men. The agreed objective of this study is growth with equity and participation, policies and initiatives to be taken for helping women among poor. The analysis is based on many case studies and throws light on a few important implications. One of the most stubborn obstacles to poor women’s participation is the misconceptions held by most men and many women about appropriate roles for women. Increase in women’s employment opportunities and incomes do not automatically work to their advantage, the vital question is who exercised control over their labour and income. It is clear that in some cases increased payment for women’s labour lead to greater control over it by others status is considered to be one of the behavioral indicators.
Parkasa Rao and Nandini Rao (1991) feel that in modernized families in India. Women have greater autonomy and greater share in family decision making and authority. Working mother’s participation in decision making process increases by the fact that they contribute their resources to the functioning of the family. She has more privilege and more voice with regard to money matters at home.

Rekhadevi Raju (1991) agrees with the above and says that educational level of a women and type of the household influence her “decision role” while discussing the economic status of Rajgoad tribe and rural women. She says that castes affect their role and rural and tribe women do not have economic freedom to spend what they earn. Wage of such women are collected by their husbands.

Alva Myrdar et al’s (1992) work on “Women’s two roles home and work sought to present that would amid that would enable women for combine their traditional family obligations with paid work in the employment market. Interestingly these authors have gone further to capture multi-facted dimensional role of women in the name of sequencing solutions besides the dual role
mentioned continues to hold as a strong base for further research in this area.

**Indra Chauhan (1992)** conducted a study on women sanitary workers. According to her, for 45 percent of respondents, decisions are mostly taken by the husband, 29 percent of respondents are taking their own decisions, 26 percent of the respondents are taking joint decisions by having discussion with the husband.

**Fox and Richey (1993)** in their study about sanitary workers found that the majority (89%) of the respondents’ health was affected due to the job. Suffering from skin diseases, Tuberculosis, Assma, etc.

**Gupta and borkal (1994)** degree with khan and Singh when they admit that women’s power to control her own sexuality, fertility as well as major decisions regarding up bringing of her children is shamefully low.

**Indradevi (1994)** defines decision making as an activity process by which a course of action is consciously chosen from available alternatives. She has classified decisions into recurring and non-recurring. Recurring includes decision in expenditure on food, entertainment, children’s education, clothing, and rent. None
recurring includes decisions on expenditure in house, gas store case, etc. Allocation of food, clothing entertainment, visiting, friends, spending leisure also is the areas of decision making. She feels that education of women world enhance their competence and promote equalitarian ethics.

**Khan and Singh (1994)** have taken into account different spheres of decision making namely deciding family size. Even though a woman plays several roles through out her life –as daughters, sister, wife, daughter –in- law sister in law and mother, she seldom does have the power to make decisions which concern her own life vitally. Taking into account women in reproductive age in Uttar Pradesh (India) they conclude that the husband has the final in the number of children. They should have in the case of 33 percent of rural women of Uttar Pradesh, both take decision on family size and in 53% cases husbands alone take the decision. In the case of 4.3 percent of urban women, the husbands take the decision in 9.3 percent cases elder members and in 1.9 percent cases women she takes decisions.

**Seta Vaidayalingam (1994)** discussed the problem and concerns of Indian women. According to working women are subject to more explanatory problems and pressures then their non-
working sisters. Finding a suitable occupation in the first problem right and proceeds it and of course fighting for the right amount of education to secure a decent job, tops it all, after having completed her education when a women steps the field of vocation are not quite correct, we find to be women’s staying capacity and the usual remarks is adequate. This kind of attitude spoils a women’s changes at all levels and particularly in the field of self - employment with a job come other problematic situations, kinds of people at work especially men. Number of lawyers do not encourage women simply because the later to level the office at about 6 p.m. in order to reach home early despite the fact that a busy lawyer’s office is at its best after 6 p.m. Single working women have the accommodation problem, if working in a city their families do not live with them. One has heard and read in the newspaper of the unfavorable conditions prevailing in hostels which in any case among to meet encouraged to need. My own mother has never done a day’s work despite having secured a medical education from the Madras Medical College.

Giriappe (1995) her found out that female headed households have reported a better decision role in respect of all types of decision variables and females in male headed households also have reported to participate substantially. Women in
agriculture, fisher women and maid servant groups in female headed households and beedi rollers, fisher women small business women and maid servants in male headed households have a better decision making role later Giriappa and Mahtha assessed that 60.6 percent of decisions taken by females in female headed households are major decisions. Thirty three percent take joint decisions. They have used working condition, family maintenance, recreation and they have concluded their rural households have a better decision making role for women then males.

Krishnakumari (1995) made an attempt to study area with a sample size of 333. The main objectives of her study were to find out the socio-economic background of single women, her family relationship, social interaction and attitude of society towards them. The study reveals that the position and status of women in Indian society is not encouraging. Married women are accorded a high place in the society. Single women are looked down inspire of their living with their parents, in-laws or children, Even their professional success is often seen with suspicion and their normal behavior happens to be the focus of almost all discussion. The status and position of an individual holds in the society is largely determined by her economic status. Her study revels that the independent single women face economic problems to a laser degree
than those totally economically dependent. Responsibilities of spinsters are less compared to those widowed, separated and divorced with children. Employed women are expected to hand over their entire income to their parents without any expectation in return or even appreciation for the financial assistance rendered. A comparative analysis of the status in society of these single women reveals that unmarried women have a slightly better position than enjoyed by the divorced or separated women and windows they are also exploited at workplace.

**Manikaramerkar (1995)** in his book on “Socio-economic conditions of women workers” describes that as part of the research programmed of labour burden a field enquiry were to study working, economic and living conditions of women workers as also to assess the extent of welfare available to them vies-a-vies the labour laws with a view to identifying the problem being faced by them in these various fields. These findings are recommendations were related to employment size, method of recruitment, employment status, length of service, marital status, impact of labour saving devices, wage rate absenteeism, working conditions and welfare amenities, living conditions, demographic and socio economic status of the female workers of the mines.
Porter (1995) in his study about sanitary workers on majority (91%) of the respondents are taking any kind of liquor.

Rahuram Singh (1995) according to the source collected from the Hindus in India, finds that, very well educated and enlightened women occupying high positions on the one hand and on the other, finds a large section of the women population of the country in ignorance, illiterate and at low social-economic status. In recent years, there had been a growing awareness of the problem of status of women. The official efforts of the government of the centre and the states coupled with action from voluntary agencies have brought some ‘Tempo’ into the women’s movement in the country.

Manikamerkar (1996) in the study on “economics status and career opportunities for women in India today” has remarked that the desirability of giving important status to women society has often been expressed, thought it was denied in actual life. A women’s lower status in the family was often to her exclusion from economic ability gainful employment. Recently, since the Second World War, urban women of middle and upper class, particularly, married women began to seek sinful gainful employment out of home. This phenomenon created the problems
relating women’s two roles, home and work. The most popular jobs as had been seen from the number of women applicants registered in the employment exchanges were those of clerk, the highest percentage of women workers (more than 40%) was for professional technical and related jobs mostly as teachers, nurses and midwives. The next percentage (9%) that’s of clerks, sales and related workers, administrative, executive and management workers from only 2%. According to the author the main reason for women’s employment was economic necessity to supplement the income of her husband or of the family. Though this economic cause was most important there was also social, psychological and situational reasons for taking up employment case of high society ladies such as ambition of a career, charm of the position utilization of leisure, proper use of higher education, killing away time till marriage, escape from domestic work, freedom to mix with people and preference for outdoor life.

Sing. K.P (1996) says that among women who were working out of utter economic necessity, the majority were dissatisfied with the time they spend with their children and the time they allocate to their home 57 percent of working women have alternate arrangements for their children either a mother or a mother-in-law or a maid to look after their children. The age of the
children is an important factor in generalizing the women’s role conflict because a mother’s personal attentions are most essential when they are small. Another cause can be the family size women with larger number of family member may feel the conflict than the women work families are small in number. The other factor associated with this is the nature of job that the time amount spent outside the house.

**Chatterjie (1997)** in the opinion of women have no role in housing decision that is decision regarding choices of residence. In the housing plans, the fulfillment of women’s needs is not guaranteed.

**Girija khanna and Mariamma A. Varghese (1997)** conducted a detailed study on Indian women and their role in the family and society in general. Datum were collected from five different zones in India-East, West, North, South and Central. The total number of samples selected was 1000-2000 from each zone. The finding was that when women were more educated and employed. They were allowed to play a greater part in decision making in the family. Only 10 percent did not have a say in the family matters. Saving is directly related to socio economic status while 90 percent of the urban rich and 78 percent of the middle
class put aside a part of their earnings as savings only 27 percent among the poor are able to save. Recreational habits like reading and playing are rare among women of the lower social-economic status.

**Ireme Tinker (1997)** provides an overview of the past and current debates about development reality in woman’s work and lives within and onside the household. Her work also highlights its connection between women’s development and the global women’s movement and the impact of the policies and programers on women development agencies.

**Kamaraj (1997)** his study about sanitary workers a vast majority of the 92 percentage of the respondents are selected this job to run the family, 8 percentage of the respondents selected this job to increase the family income.

**Manimekalai (1997)** women empowerment has been the concern of academicians, women association’s activists, policy makers etc in recent years. But the empowerment cannot be brought out overnight. The women association claims that government should have an agenda with provisions for women to contribute equally to the society as their counterparts. It is because
they were not given opportunities in the traditional society. But the
time has changed and women are increasingly recognized as
productive human agents and thanks to the Government of India
which declare as the Women Empowerment year. Women
empowerment can be achieved through many ways by providing
education, economic opportunities, imparting, providing decision
making skill, involving them in policy making etc. However,
economic independence has been considered by many experts as
the least instrument of empowerment of women.

Deepti Agarwal (1998) discussed from developing
countries as well as western development planners look upon
education as one of the most important instruments for social and
economic development and modernization. Desired changes in
literacy levels, attitudes, value and skills are to be implemented
with the help of education. In both the developed and developing
countries, the education system as well as the media helps to
reinforce patriarchal values and attitudes existing in society. In the
lower classes, women and girls have been and still are
discriminated against; there is no equal access to educational
opportunities or the media.
Hoppock (1998) by taking into account the possession of 25 household items. For each item the weight of that has been assigned as the basis of median value the households have been placed under “high” or “low” categories of living. As per their assessment 56 percent of their respondents (namely college students of Tamil nadu) are leading a high level of living and the rest low level of living. In India, the participation rates of women workers are declining in recent years. But there has been a gradual deterioration in the general employment situation as a whole in the country. The impact of employment has fallen heavily on women them men in India. This decline in women’s employment is likely to have serious and far reaching effect of fertility, mortality and nutrition. It world be interesting to know how this general trend in employment has affected the women worker’s.

Mankehal (1998) find a different picture according to her education and training equal women to be economically productive but has not brought economic independence to them. They do not have control over their earnings .It is the husband or parent in law who were to spend the salary of working women.

Parmine Sangupta (1998) in her book ‘women in India’ states that participation of women in economic activity was very
common from the time immemorial. Primitive society offered many instances of vigorous work in hunting and in cultivation by women. Women’s role become more real and designed with an evaluation of an agricultural economy, Even in Moherjadaro and Harappa culture women shared a responsible position with men and helped in spinning and day modeling and other simple arts and crafts. There are more several explanations for the tendency of female participation in economic activity to deadline at the early stage of development. In addition, she states that according to Baser up Easter the most important were technical chances within the agricultural sector Unemployment policy which induces women to accept employment to restrict somewhat the growth of urban areas holding down the birth rate, working women poor countries can therefore reduce the burden of supporting both non–working women children and non working women by providing vocational training for employment instead of reserving employment for men.

**Agarwal (1999)** points out that emphasis on non-income indices have grown as a reaction to the inadequacy of income, index as a criterion of development. POLI is an important non-income index. It incorporates life expectancy, infant mortality and literacy rate. Use pattern of national income improves life.
Anant Suchitra (1999) in her study about sanitary workers on economic Status and found that majority (90%) of the respondents were below the poverty line.

Ashoke Kumar chakrabartie (1999) explores the causes of women’s unemployment in India. The greater rush of women job seekers within a more or less inflexible employment counter, the failure of defective development process to economic transformation, the low level of educational attainment the frightening increase in female population highly prejudiced social attitude resulting in unwillingness on the part of the employers to employ women. Wide–spread sex discrimination in different productive sectors, women’s preference for certain selected occupations the unwillingness of educated women to go to villages the unhelpful attitude of employers towards handicapped women and lack of provision of adequate opportunities for their self–employment ventures are the main causes of colossal problem of women’s unemployment in India today.

Borman, (1999) pointed out that the sanitary worker’s backwardness in education, income and their major role in their economic conditions of them.
Janet zollinger Gule (1999) says that uses data on individual women from 1000 samples of this a picture of the labour market in each of the major metropolitan areas where these women lived is added. This helps in arriving at a picture of a relative weight that each background or situational factor contributes to a women’s employment. A married women’s score is 100 if she employed zero if she is not. Labour market conditions appear to about twice the weight of women’s own individual and family characteristics in determining whether she is employed or not. If the metropolitan area in which she lives contains industries with a good number of female jobs and if there are high female wages, married women in that area are more likely to work but if the cost of household help is high and there is a high female ratio in the population, their changes are less favorable. The lower her husband’s income and the more her own schooling the greater the likelihood that married women will work. However if she has pre-school age children, she is deterred from working. If she is black but all the other characteristics are the same as a white women’s she is also more likely to work.

Kathleen Gough (1999) in her study found that as a consequence of implementation of land reforms, the lives of women have changed. They were less sub-ordinate of the land lord and
more sub-ordinate to the men of their own groups. They were also more economically valuable helping with showing weeding and harvesting. A few of them also worked in the homes of land lords, while the women among the agricultural laborers tend to benefit from land reforms legislation, they are not placed on equal footing with men in the sphere of social relations. This is more due to the impact of the dominance of patriarchal family structure in the Indian society. Gough is of the view that through agricultural labour women constitutes a substantial proportion of the membership of parties and mass movements. They are hardly associated in matters of decision making.

Pretty sigh and saran kasha (1999) discussed the role of rural women in decision making for credit procurement rural women are an important segment of our society because of their active participation in home and farm affairs. The participation in the decision making reflects the status of any individual which increase with the growing participation unto final decision. Thus, women are in a position to exercise sufficient influence over important family affairs like finance and generally act as bankers for their husbands. Their influence on decision making in household affairs is being affected due to certain factors like degree of economic independence socio cultural pressure demographic
factors physical setting etc. but, how far the rural women have been able to asset and influence decision.

**Stanton William J. (1999)** says that in low income families both spouses often work to make financial ends meet. Personal career fulfillment may have little to do with the decision to work, for more affluent couples women especially seek satisfying professional or marginal careers and while income certainly may be a motivating factor, it is not the primary factor. Disturbing tensions arise between wives who work because so strict financial need and those who work because they want the status satisfying and adventure of earning a niche in the labour market. According to one report it is increasingly common to hear lower income competition, they face from middle and lower income feel that these women need not have to work, yet the typing of work and the motives for doing it differ widely.

**Mishra (2000)** in his empirical studies says that the government records also suggest that crores of aches of land have been acquired by the government under the agricultural ceiling. Act and such land are distributed among the landless agricultural laborers, ex-army and destitute. The guidelines of the Central Government and the State Governments clearly mention that while
assigning the surplus ceiling land the beneficiaries a joint path should be issued in the name of both husband and wife. But empirical studies.

**Srilekha Basu (2000)** status that the developing countries are characterized by low income, illiteracy, unemployment and low standard of living. In these counties extra income eared by women is vital to cross the poverty line. so the initiative in making the intended changes must come from the government itself in the from of incentives to women who are bound by tradition and constrained by established bent on preserving the status women in 15 to 59 age group if not in labour force are to be considered as unused rezones (except when they are sick or students) A change in the attitude towards life is imperative to ensure that women gain confidence in their own capabilities and a new value system is accepted by the society.

**Thresa Morris (2000)** in her personal research found that, leadership for women is partly being out in front, “in the lead” and partly about stewardship of power. The stewardship power is more of a facilitator tole.
Appadorai, D.A. (2001) in his study on sanitary workers found that majority of the respondents are illiterate. It is also found that there is a relationship between education and employment.

Jagadish (2001) in his study on job involvement of first level supervisors found that the least educated group showed high job involvement whereas the highly educated group showed lowest job involvement.

Parthasarathy (2001) while analyzing Punjab and Haryana situations says that two indicators of women’s invisible participation are very high in both the status of women the number of working and the percentage of female population engaged in expanded domestic work.

Shoba B Nair (2001) states that quality of life has political, economic, social, cultural, environmental, psychological dimensions in addition to health. She admits that there is no commonly accepted index for factors like political and cultural life. Therefore PQLI is measured in terms of education, birth rate and death rate including modality rate. She tries to show how the higher status of women in Kerala has contributed to a better quality
of life taking into account age of marriage, education, birth rate, expectations of life, mortality and health care. She concludes that higher status of women reduces the status gap between the two sexes and reduces higher PQLI.

Talwar Sabanna (2001) says that the new economy offers a plethora of opportunities to educated and trained women workers who compete on par with men for jobs in the IT, telecom and other technology sectors. The process of structural adjustment hits unorganized and unskilled women workers. The hardest coping mechanisms must include retraining, orientation towards service industry sectors and focus on market trends for traditional products. The social status of women have been considerably Increased in the country during the post-reform period. The women population has been gradually enabling itself to overcome the shackles of a custom ridden, basically orthodox society. This could be observed from the increasing enrolment of female population in educational institutions at all levels, increasing number of female job-seekers on the live registers of employment exchanges, steadily rising rate of women employment in public and private sectors, growing rate of female participation in voluntary organizations promoting women welfare and social service activities etc. Thus the post-reform period has been associated with growing employment
opportunities for women. However, these claims of increased employment generation are generally supplemented with information on the nature of employment and the terms and conditions under which labour is employed in the emerging women labour market.

Koran Prasad (2002) reveals that women carry a disproportionate and growing share of economic and domestic responsibility for the family. Inspire of this they do not have the decision making power to determine when they start a family and at what time intervals they have children. Access to information and means for enhancing their reproductive health and family planning choices has been demonstrated to be a major tool for the empowerment of women. The first formal definition of women’s reproductive rights at the Teheran conference in (1968) generated intense debate on this issue at all consequent international conferences and conventions. These conferences also arrived at several policy measures which world improve the lives of girls and women including better education and economic opportunities, equality before the law, an end to gender based violence access to high quality and family planning information and services and greater participation by men in family planning and family life. Achieving these objectives will increase women’s freedom to take
their own reproductive decisions which is not only a basic human right but will also help to reduce unwanted pregnancy, improve reproductive health and slow population growth. The human rights campaign to reinforce women’s reproductive rights will not only improve girls and women’s lives but will be the key to any strategy for empowering women and achieving national development. It is well established that women carry a disproportionate and growing share of economic and domestic responsibility for family members.

**Vinita (2002)** women working in cities and towns firstly constitute a small proportion to total workers and secondly out of the total members of the opinion that the factory employment opportunities to women have declined due to technological changes and this is accompanied by an increase in service sector employment such as public service, medical, health and education.

**Anindita Mukerji (2003)** on the socio–economic backwardness in women, the socio economic condition of women was evaluated with the help of a number of indicators like social, economic, educational and the like. It has been observed that the socio–economic condition of women belongings to the lower strata was rather miserable. This is partly due to the social system and
partly due to the women themselves in the society. Indian society is primarily a male dominated society where little or no change is expected or allowed. Even if a change is introduced women show their inability to adjust to such changes. The lack of clarity in women about their status leads to exploitation and economic deprivation.

Calman (2003) (73%) of the sanitary workers expressed dissatisfaction in their job.

Denti (2003) female activity rates in less developed countries seem to be more influenced by social and cultural factors. He has taken into account forty countries of Asia, Latin America, North America and Europe and grouped them as more developed country if male labour in agriculture is less then 45 percent and less developed if male labour in agriculture is more than 45 percent. He has pointed out that female labour force participation rate is high during 20-24 years of age it decreases moderately until 45-54 and then it declines sharply.

Dixon (2003) class and caste influence women’s participation in outside home work. The committee on status of women in India reports that social attitudes and social institutions
which stem from the social ideology influence women’s labour force participation.

**Haggade (2003)** feels that the awareness of social and economic potentiality, imitative to acquire social equality and economic independence are the motivating factors which induce educated women to seek career as means and ways of life.

**Karuna (2003)** is of the opinion that in lower income family women works to get necessary family income which in upper income families, they work to help augment family income.

**Lalithadevi (2003)** points out that the need for extra income for family coupled with the demand for labour from industry is the greatest incentive for female workers. The availability of gadgets makes household work light and less time consuming and enable women to work. Myrdal and klein (1970) quote on international survey carried out by the International Labour Office about the motivational forces. According to it, women work due to economic needs on the one hand and due to national necessity for increased production on the other hand. They further continue to state that a sense of vocation influences the desire of women to continue their work after marriage and some are inspired by the
feeling of social responsibility and so they continue to be in labour force.

**Ruth Katz (2003)** accepts the existence of strain resulting from coinciding demands of work and family and from inflicting norms of values. The advantages which are likely to compensate for the strain and the additional resource skills and essential possessions.

**Sergiovanni (2003)** for females from lower socio economic stratum, economic need is the most important reason for participating in market work and non economic motives are predominant for upper class women.

**Sheena Briley (2003)** in her book stated that ‘in the, 71 percentage of women in the 16-58 age group were economically active, representing an increase of 16 percent over the nine. Of this increase, 40 percent was in part time working and estimates suggests that between now and the end of the century, there will be a further 7,50,000 jobs for women.

**Smith (2003)** never married and childless women have higher participation rate than women who are married and who
have children. Smith lists real income, educational attainment, attitude of men and women about women’s roles as factors influencing labour force participation of women.

**Swete Mishra (2003)** studied in land reforms and women’s empowerment in the most parts of the country. And particularly among marginal and landless agriculturists earning a livelihood is still a family endeavors. Various studies conducted have clearly pointed out that there are larger number of women who primarily derive their livelihood, for working sometimes on a regular basic and often on a seasonal basis or attached labours. The women agricultural laborers generally belong to illiterate SC, ST and backward classes. Though the Hindu code act and Hindu succession act provide equal rights and share to the children birth male and female in parental; property, yet due to particular pattern of our society how many female children have fit their share without legal legislations it is big question to be answered by the policy planners and the implementing agencies, more policy declarations and enacting various acts by different states may not empower women to hold acquire and disposal of parental property. It requires effective measures for implementation and basic social reforms. But of the land is in the name of both husband and wife the male member of the property if the wife family is not willing.
Similarly in the case of operation Baryon the record of share croppers in the name of both husband and wife more social and economic stability.

**Wilson (2003)** Sex-age structure and composition and size of population are the demographic factors. Educational level, degree of industrialization and cost of living are the socio-economic factors. Composition of population and socio-economic factors exert more influence in determining female activity rates at all ages. Wilson is of the notion that widespread free education has been responsible for the change in the attitude towards women’s responsibilities in society and for the increase in female labour force participation during 1946-63 in Sri Lanka.

**Becker’s (2004)** according to model women on an average devote less effort to work activities than men. However family status, household responsibilities and market human capital should mediate the relationships. This model used to differentiate men’s work effort from women’s work effort and this can be applied to differences in work effort among women.
Dhanasekaran (2004) his evolved a rural quality of life. Index (KOLI) to measure rural poverty taking has a rural poverty taking into account ten components. He has classified the respondents as destitute very vary poor, very poor marginally, non poor rich and very rich.

Franca Akarippadathu (2004) discussed as the indicates few allocation for socio-economic and sanitation is very low and during some years nothing is spent under this head. The amount is to be spent for starting new dispensaries and strengthening the old ones. For example in Kannampady only 5 families have sanitarians, toilets. The information they receive about it is mostly from radio. Further enquiries reveal that either husband or wife under mutual agreement take recourse to some permanent method of family planning to prevent another pregnancy. They generally go for it after the second child. Women work has remained a much researched debated area. The underlying assumption in arguments for women’s employment is that economic independence is the first pre-requisite to moving towards gender equality. The concept viewed in the context of opportunity in employment on the board spectrum of women’s employment at one and are women working all and paid jobs and other end are higher professional women works.
Heckman and Mercurdary (2004) women are coming forward to paid employment outside home to supplement the income of husbands or parents and to fill the gap between income and expenditure due to soaring prices of essential goods.

Padmini (2004) points out that according to the Ministry of Labour and Employment, Government of India, inadequate income of the principal earner, temporary mishaps, death of breadwinner and women’s desires for economic independence are the factors which induce women to work.

Sing K.P (2004) says that among women who were working out of utter economic necessity, the majority were dissatisfied with the time they spend with their children and the time they allocate to their home 57 percent of working women have alternate arrangements for their children either a mother or a mother-in law or a maid to look after their children. The age of the children is an important factor in generalizing the women’s role conflict because a mother’s personal attentions are most essential when they are small. Another cause can be the family size women with larger number of family member may feel the conflict than the women work families are small in number. The other factor associated with this is the nature of job that the time amount spent
outside the house. Some who do not feel any role conflict are school teachers, lecturers and those who are in independent professions.

**Vinita (2004)** according to women working in cities and towns firstly constitute a small proportion to total workers and secondly out of the total members of women workers the majority is engaged in low status occupations. She is of the opinion that the factory employment opportunities to women have declined due to technological changes and this is accompanied by an increase in service sector employment such as public service, medical, health and education.

**Washer (2004)** his assessed that 57.3 percent of working women of Delhi are working due to economic reasons and others due to non-economic reasons. According to Mehta rising cost of living along with new trends of modern living resulting in ever widening necessities of life are compelling more and more women to seek employment outside home.

**Becker’s (2005)** model of effort allocation implies that an hour of a man’s time produces more of value to an employer than an hour of equally skilled and experienced women who has greater responsibilities. This in true influences both employer’s
treatment of equally capable male and female employees and worker’s subsequent decisions about investing time and energy in household versus market-work. The model implies that small initial disadvantages faced by women in the work-place can lead to extreme results in the division of labour in the household, occupational segregation and earning difference. Even a small amount of discrimination against women in the work place gives men a comparative advantage in market work. Likewise a small “natural” advantage in child-care activities gives women an advantage in household work.

Dwaraki and B.kumaresan (2005) asks that do women have a nice in the of real of rural development working women have been in the nears in the last 5-10 years like it is the want in the in rather confused world of rural development those in the same by try to cling into anything new novel as if they have found the phenomena what with the slogan of empowering women especially rural women the grace for being associated with scavenger women is spreading like mass hysteria in about last one year. So much as any one in the realm of rural development, today in any discussion on scavenger women is an ignoramus. This is based on very small scale study conducted exclusively for the purpose needs no justification. The authors in this study have covered just 10 women
scavenger from about four contiguous villages in which three office bearers the President, Secretary and Treasurer were personally interviewed on a very small list of question concentrating on the aspect of self-sustenance for us contention of contention of authors that women workers can find nice in the realm of rural development.

**Jennifer (2005)** in his study about sanitary workers that economics status showed a significant difference according to their age, marital status duration of working, life and position at work.

**Henning and Jardim (2005)** in their book stated that the women managers has achieved their position through progressive career advancement and their current positions through progressive career advancement and their current positions were ones not resgarded as feminine. The question being addressed was how they had managed to depart from traditional female roles tom active success in a man’s world.

**Kalarani (2005)** her classified motivations behind the decision to work as monetary, social and personal factors. For the first preference she has assigned a score of 3, for the second preference 2, and for the third preference one. Her analysis shows
that among the purposes ‘making use of education’ ranks first followed by ‘job as an engagement for spare time’, ‘Supplementing husband’s income’ and ‘to raise economic status’ occupies the third rank. ‘Gross necessity’ occupies the fourth rank and ‘to have independent income’ the last rank. She has proved that there is correlation between age and motivation and education and motivation.

**Kaur and Punia (2005)** about working women of Hissar District of Haryana, it is observed that most of the working women apt for job out of the gross economic necessity (50 percent), followed by the urge to raise economic status (23 percent), to make use of education (11 percent) to have independent income (9 percent) and the remaining due to miscellaneous motives. Wife’s income is essential to raise family’s standard of living. 18 percent were widows, divorcees and separated. Another 24 percent were single. All these women worked to support themselves and their children. In addition to this, women whose husbands’ incomes were inadequate were compelled to seek gainful employment.

**Raka Sharan (2005)** conducted a survey on women workers employed in industrial and non-industrial organizations in Kanpur city. The main objectives of her study were to analyze the working conditions of women workers to measure there socio-
conditions states and to study their participation in trade union activities. She had selected 100 samples in the industrial sector and 100 samples in the non-industrial sector and collected the necessary data from them. Socio-economic status of women workers we one measured with the help of kappasamy’s method of rating scale. Various economic and social indicators were used to measure the socio-economic status. Her study revealed some important aspects of women labour. Among the industrial and non-industrial women workers 80 percent were from the young category that is between 20 and 35 years. The non-industrial workers were more qualified. Them the industrial workers. The working conditions of the women workers were far from satisfactory. There was sluggish participation in trade union activities among women workers. The bulk of the respondents adopted middle life style and value orientations.

Srilekha (2005) based states that developing countries are characterized by low income illiteracy, unemployment and low standard of living. In these countries extra income earned by women ids vital to cross the poverty line, of the initiative in making the intended changes must come from the government itself in the form of incentives to women who are bounded by tradition and constrained by interest bent on preserving the status-quota women
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