The aim of the study is to understand the types of discrimination practiced in Rajasthan’s unorganized labour market. Since Rajasthan’s economy is a developing one and many labourers immigrate from neighbouring states, it becomes important to have a closer look at the unorganized labour market it is comparatively larger than the organized one.

The prime concern of this study is to determine if there is discrimination and if so, analyse its types.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE
2.1 What is Review of Literature?

The basis of any research work is a thorough Review of Literature that is available on the subject under consideration. It encapsulates and enriches the understanding of the theory behind the study and reaffirms the significance of the topic. Review of Literature helps to compare, contrast and portray the reasons behind research.

This research work has been segregated on the basis of the different forms of discrimination in order to isolate them and understand their effect on society. Some studies done on Labour Market Discrimination at the National and International Level are as below:

2.2 Caste Discrimination
The caste system and its origin in India has been a matter of great discussion and debate over the years. Whether it has had a constitutional origin, mythological origin or a societal origin, no single conclusion has been accepted in contemporary India yet (Bayly 1999, Deshpande 2005, Dudley-Jenkins 2003, Mendelson and Viczaiany 1998, Searle-Chatterji and Sharma 1994, Srinivas 1996, Sharma 1999).

Ackerlof (1984) explained why an economically irrational phenomenon such as caste discrimination might persist in a modern economy.

Johdka (2002) has shown that multiple identities such as caste, religion, migrant status and gender together affect patterns of employment and exclusion in Indian cities.

Buvinic (2005) describes the meaning of social exclusion as: “The inability of an individual to participate in the basic political, economic and social functioning of the society. It also involves the denial of equal access to opportunities imposed by certain groups in society upon others”.

Premi (1974) has tried to see the role of protective discrimination in equalization of educational opportunities for Scheduled Caste and has found that remarkable progress has been made by them in education. There has been a significant rise in literacy rates, enrolment coefficients and the proportion of their numbers in Class I and II categories of jobs in central and state services.

The analysis of the data in the study shows that people are aware of financial concessions, stipends, scholarships and freeships but only a few are aware of other privileges like free meals and clothing, free books, book loans and assistance to stay in a hostel. 60% of the respondents in the study showed that they were aware about relaxation of marks and age but only half of them knew the exact degree of relaxation. Only 1/3rd of the respondents knew about the coaching facilities. It is seen that special protection is
given to Scheduled Castes only after high school which seems to be too late as a measure of equalization. The implementation of the post-matriculation scholarships seems to favour the “haves” rather than the “have-nots” among the scheduled Castes. Scholarship money given to day scholars in general colleges ranges from Rs. 27/- to Rs. 60/- per month. This money can hardly meet the expenses of higher education and can only be availed by those students who have other sources to rely upon.

There seems to be certain administrative bottlenecks in the implementation of the scheme which emerges in the form of indifference of authorities and delay in reimbursement of scholarships. The results of the study make it evident that there is significant progress at post – school stage for Scheduled Castes because of special facilities and preferences fixed by the law. But this success needs to be viewed in the proper context as the number of Scheduled Castes in professional institutions frequently falls short of their allotted quota. The study finally points to the important fact that the special schemes for the Scheduled Castes have not filtered down as expected and that children of class I & II Scheduled Caste officers should not be given any preferential treatment in order to make the special schemes a success at grassroots level.

The earliest studies of social exclusion in the urban labour market of Delhi, shows that there was discrimination based on caste against the Dalits and Other Backward Castes (OBC). It started right from the selection of candidates for jobs as only manual or ‘dead-end’ jobs were given to the Dalits. So the discrimination was evident from the very beginning and started as segregation of jobs on caste lines. The upper castes were provided the so-called ‘white-collar’ jobs in the urban labour market of Delhi. Thus the quantitative analysis of the urban labour market in India showed bias against the Dalits in occupation (Banerjee and Knight 1985).
The ‘untouchables’, as they were called pre-Independence, or “Dalits”, as described by the Indian Constitution, constitute the major percentage among manual workers, landless agricultural workers and those employed in the lowest paid jobs in the country even today (Thorat and Umakant 2004).

A very interesting psychological study of the effect of past discrimination and its result on present day behaviour was done. It was found out that when a controlled group of sixth and seventh grade students were asked to solve a problem in group without revealing their identities, the result was anonymous within the group. But in the experimental group, when their caste was revealed publicly, the lower caste students performed poorly in comparison to the upper caste students. Thus it was seen that publicly revealing social identity of an individual can significantly affect his performance even if the information is irrelevant to the task. (Hoff and Pandey 2006)

Deshpande and Newman (2007) has studied the role of caste in post university employment expectations and tried to find the different pathways that Dalit and non-Dalit students from equivalent elite education backgrounds traverse in their journey from college to work. The study has drawn sample from Delhi University, JNU and Jamia Milia Islamia. All the students in the sample are graduates. Only 40% Dalit students had first class honours in their undergraduate degrees while 46.3% non-reservation category students had first class honours in their under-graduate degrees. More than half of non-reservation students had previous job experience whereas only 1/3rd of Dalit students had previous job experience. Also, non-reservation category students were more likely trained in computer skills than the Dalit students. The sample overall represents the most able students who are likely to experience success in the labour market with the given educational background. The preliminary results of the study indicated that the majority
of Dalit students expected jobs in public sector: 45% among them mentioned administrative services or police services and another 28% mentioned of seeking jobs as teachers or academics or researchers. Students from non-reservation category were more likely to seek jobs opportunities as business analysts or corporate planners or in the social development sector. Very few non-reservation category students listed administrative services as an ideal job. 30% of the non-reservation category students termed academics and research jobs as their ideal jobs. At the time of the baseline survey, 67% of the reservation category students had taken the civil services examinations in comparison to only 34% of non-reservation students.

Nearly 18% of non-reservation category students opined that they might be employed in a family owned business whereas only 8.5% of the reservation students thought of doing so. 20% of non-reservation indicated that they would use family connections to find a job as compared to only 10% of Dalit students.

16.5% of the non-reservation students said that their fathers were either self-employed or were in big business. 11.5% of the non-reserved students had fathers as managers or in banking sector. 10% had their fathers either as doctors, engineers, software engineers or in the IT sector. Another 10% had their fathers as farmers, 5% had their fathers as lawyers or chartered accounts and another 5% had their fathers as academics and researchers. In contrast to the non-reserved category students, almost 33% of the reserved category students are farmers. 15% of the fathers of reserved category students were academics/researchers and lawyers. 9% of the fathers of reserved category students were part of voluntary retirement schemes. 8.6% of them were government servants of members of civil services.
Mothers of 58% of non-reserved students were not working as compared to 81% of the Dalit students. The study concludes that the Dalit students in elite skilled job market had very low expectation as compared to their high caste counterparts because of their disadvantaged family background and caste. The hiring practices in formal sector labour market are less transparent than they appear at first and social and cultural factors have a huge role to play in them.

Jodhka & Newman (2007) have analysed the attitude of employers in India’s organized private sector and have tried to understand the hidden language of caste and its preference in the process of hiring. The study conducted length onsite interviews during 2005-6 with human relation managers and tried to take their views on the high unemployment level of Scheduled Castes population. They were also asked for their opinions on reservations policy and wanted to know whether this should be extended to the private sector. An important finding common to the answers of all interviewees was that workers should be recruited strictly according to merit which was not the case in Indian industry till now. Jobs in the private sector were preferably given in accordance of 1) personal ties 2) village ties and finally 3) caste affinity. The paper concludes that the primitive way of classifying candidates into castes has now been transformed up as “family background” in the present day interviews of companies. The so called modernity of private sector tries to turn a blind eye to the notions of caste and religion favours meritocracy to be adopted as the only basis of employment and should be completely replaced by stereotypes. The study emphasizes a fair production of merit particularly in the form of education which will lead to better employment opportunities for the low caste and rural job applicants in India.
Madheswaran, Attewell (2007) examined the wage gap between higher castes and the scheduled castes/tribes in the regular salaried urban labour market with the help of National Sample Survey data. The findings of the study out that the wages for the Scheduled Castes/Tribes is 15% lower than others equally qualified. This discrimination is much higher in the private sector than the public sector. They also found that the occupational discrimination is more significant than the wage difference. Also the endowment difference is larger than the discrimination component.

Mukherjee (2007), through this study, has mainly concentrated upon Earning Differences among various spatial and socio-economic groups of workers in India post reform period and examined the extent and trends of discrimination in the labour market both during Job Entry and during Wage Setting. Thus she concluded her study by saying that Earning differences between social classes are mostly due to skewed occupational distribution of the backward classes. This is mainly due to their lower endowment levels. Thus human capital formation and basic educational progress among the scheduled castes and tribes should be the main thrust of policy action. Reduction of earning disparity therefore requires a multi-pronged and targeted approach. Preventing exploitation of women in wage setting, expansion of education and skill among backward classes, and ensuring fair wages for casual jobs, are some of the suggested action areas.

The results of another study contradicted the above findings, in which it was found out that in the software jobs, there is no difference in the call back rates for non-upper caste Hindus or Muslims. Whereas in case of the call centre jobs, the call back rates for upper caste Hindus were 60% more than the Other Backward Castes, much higher as compared to the Scheduled Castes and Tribes. The paper also points out that there is no systemic disadvantage in the call back rate for Muslims and others in the software jobs but there is
a major difference in the call back rate for Muslims, Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, Other Backward Castes and the females as compared to the Upper Caste Hindu males. But their overall conclusion from the research was that there is almost insignificant discrimination in the growing private economic sector for overall opportunities. They are at a disadvantage for Human Capital Investment at their primary stage and therefore lack the soft skills and certification required for the private sector jobs. But proper training and certification of them result in the reduction of these differences and provide equal opportunities for them as well (Banerjee, Bertrand, Datta, Mullainathan 2008)

Chakravarty and Somanathan (2008) had a different view on the caste discrimination. They concluded through their research in elite labour market that there is no evidence of discrimination by caste in entry level for elite managers. But in the absence of a control for grades, candidates from Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes get wages which are one–fifth lower than those in general category.

Deshpande (2009) has concentrated upon uncovering pathways of discrimination in urban areas using some of the leading international methods and also on the social and occupational mobility of Dalits in urban India. Deshpande concludes that all available evidence suggests that social and cultural capital (the complex and overlapping categories of caste, family background, network and contacts) play a huge role in urban, formal sector labour markets, where hiring practices are less transparent than they appear at first sight. While Dalits are severely disadvantaged in this setting, an effective affirmative action program has the potential to turn things around.

Katuwal (2009) has concentrated on the various types of discriminations done in Nepal. He concludes through his study that there exists caste, educational, job and salary discrimination in the society of Nepal economy. The findings in his paper and the
suggestions made are of help to the growing need of labour market requirement, reduce poverty and help in eradicating inequality of all kinds in the developing countries like Nepal.

Thorat, Attewell & Rizvi (2009) have asserted through their field experiments in Delhi that social exclusion is not just a residue of the past clinging to the margins of the Indian economy, nor is it limited to people of little education. On the contrary, it appears that caste favouritism and the social exclusion of Dalits and Muslims have infused private enterprises even in the most dynamic modern sector of the Indian economy. (Thorat et al., 2006) (Thorat-Neuman et al. 2007)

A research conducted on four South-Asian countries, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka and Nepal gave the situation of Dalits in these countries. The study concluded that even though the religious and traditional causes behind untouchability are different in all these countries, the effect of this social practice remains the same on the lower strata of each society - social exclusion, economic deprivation and a life of humiliation. (Jodhka, Shah 2010)

2.3. Ethnic Discrimination

Kaas and Manger (2010), through a field experiment have found that the labour market of Germany is highly discriminatory; a German sounding name raises the average probability of a call-back by about 14 percent than a Turkish sounding name. They have concluded that differential treatment is particularly strong and significant at smaller firms where the applicant with the German name receives 24 percent more call-backs.
Baert, Cocks, Gheyle and Vandamme (2015) have empirically tested the cross-sectional relationship between hiring discrimination and labour market restrictions at the level of occupation. The results of the study show that candidates with a foreign sounding name are often invited to job interviews for occupations that are difficult to fill. The study also suggests that in occupations where labour market restrictions are low, candidates with foreign sounding names have to send out twice as many applications. The theory of labour market tightness says that an employer will have to bear an extra cost and risks having an opening remain vacant for a long time if work to a minority worker is refused. The results of this study go in accordance with the theory and show that applicants with Turkish sounding names were not being discriminated when they applied in occupations which were difficult for recruitment.

2.4. Gender Discrimination

The status and discrimination against women in labour market can be easily interpreted from the fact that 94% of the women labour force come under the unorganized sector, only 6% of the women workforce are in the organized sector (ICSSR, Status of Women in India).

Chaitanya (1991) conducted a study on government’s discriminatory attitude against women in Bihar. In 1991, Bihar government slashed the quota for women teachers in primary schools from 50% to just 3%. This violated the 1987 central government directive that such jobs would be majorly reserved for women. This system of reservation in state government jobs came into existence in 1979. Later a provision for 50% reservation for women was made in primary school teachers in 1987. The study
highlights that the female literacy rate in Bihar is very low and the state has least progressed in this respect till 1991. But a trend of higher female literacy as revealed in 1991 census and it was found that the increase in the female literacy rate was more than that of male. Still, the performance of Bihar as compared to all - India level has been very poor and the female literacy rate in rural areas in 1981 was 10.17%. Besides literacy, various other issues such as poverty, feudal system and purdah system blocked the spread of literacy among females.

The school drop-out rate for girls in Bihar remains very low and the percentage of trained women teachers is lower than the low national percentage. The appointment of trained women teachers in government schools becomes all the more important to encourage enrolment and retention of girls in schools. The government’s decision to reduce the quota for women teachers from 50% to 3% symbolizes an anti – women dimension.

“Kingdon (1995) found out in the urban labour market of Uttar Pradesh that both the gender differences in enrolment rate and the gender difference in average years of education attained are statistically significant. She concluded that the important factors influencing educational attainment of women are parental background and opinions, ability, age at marriage and the quality of primary school attended. Her findings suggest that 70-80% of the gender disparity in average years of education attained is discriminatory, only 20-30% being accounted for girl’s inferior education-enhancing characteristics. Her research concluded that in spite of government’s encouraging policies for enrolment and education of girls, there remains a significant discrimination in the average years of schooling for girls due to parental discrimination. Thus, parental discrimination in education of daughters may reflect entrenched beliefs about the gender division of labour”.
“Helmers (2000) conducted a study on Swedish Labour Law and found that there is salary discrimination against women and employees of foreign origin. In his study, he mainly concentrated on the salary discrimination against the women and employees of foreign origin. According to his study, the xenophobic leadership of the unions together with the Government causes the discrimination against women and citizens of other European Union states”.

“Anjireddy (2002), through his research work on Dynamic of Labour Markets and Inter-Intra Migration Trends under Different Sources of Irrigation in Andhra Pradesh, found that there was a wage difference between male and females workers which was discriminatory. Therefore, to ensure gender equality the government should standardize the wage rates for different operations irrespective of whether it is done by male or female worker. It was found in this study that both in-and out-migration of agricultural labourers in the study area were prompted by irrigation facilities employment opportunities and education facilities. The differences in the wage rates under different sources of irrigation for the same operation need to be minimized”.

“United Nations Development Fund for women (2003) has tried to look into the human rights of human migrant workers. The international labour organization estimates that a significant portion of 80-100 million migrant workers in the world are women. The analysts speak of increasing feminization of migration as a result of various global forces in which gender roles and sex discrimination are intertwined with globalization. The paper points that this trend includes growing demand for labour in women dominated field, lower cost of production and sex-stereotyping of large business enterprises and governments. Many other global changes which contribute to female labour migration are oil booms in western Asia, where employment of foreign domestic workers has
become a status symbol, country specific labour shortages in women dominated sectors and increasing women participation in newly industrializing countries. Most of the job opportunities for women migrants seem to be in unregulated sectors, for example domestic work, informal parts of industries or services sector and criminalized sectors including the sex industry. The international labour organization explains the increase in demand for foreign labour as a long term trend of in-formalization of low skilled and poorly paid jobs. Globalization has ushered a simultaneous growth in informal sector which has increased labour migration and decreased regulation of labour market resulting in new forms of exploitation”. This paper tries to emphasize of women in domestic service using human rights convention mainly under the ‘Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women’ (CEDAW) and ‘International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and their Families’ (MWC).

“The paper finds that women domestic workers work in completely unregulated conditions in most of the countries and in many countries domestic sector workers are not included under legal definition of employees. Such circumstances make women migrant workers more vulnerable and force them to work for long hours without breaks. The International Labour Organization (ILO) explains that one of the main causes of forced labour is that labour standards are not enforced in either countries of destination or origin. In already marginal sectors such as agriculture, domestic service and sex work the absence of work site monitor makes the situation worse. Domestic workers have restrictions on the freedom of movement and are locked in the home. They are often not allowed to leave the premises alone and have any contact with the outside world at their discretion. Women have restrictions on the freedom of movement”.
“Volart (2004), in his study on gender inequality conducted in India, insisted that gender inequality is a persistent problem in developing countries and is an inefficient practice. He modelled gender discrimination as complete exclusion of females from labour market or as exclusion of females from managerial positions. He then analysed the distortion in allocation of talent between managerial and unskilled positions and in human capital investment. It was found out that both types of discrimination, lower economic growth and the former, i.e. complete exclusion of females from the labour market reduced per capita GDP while the latter distorts the allocation of talent. His evidence was based on panel data regressions across Indian states over 1961-1991 which is consistent with the model’s predictions”.

“Sethuraman and Duvvury (2007) point out a complex relationship between gender discrimination and malnutrition arrived at through a study in three sites in India and Bangladesh. In spite of the extensive nutrition programmes for curing malnutrition among women and children in this region, 50% are affected by it. Gender inequality has a significant role at the adolescent age of girls in the lifecycle of malnutrition. Gender bias is a constant feature of lifecycle of women in this region. This study has four papers describing findings from three-site qualitative study. Two of the papers in the study present findings on unmarried adolescent girls and the next two are based on the experiences of newly married adolescent girls. Important remedies include delaying the age of marriage and first pregnancy, improved maternal and child welfare, and better health and nutrition care. The research identifies several key elements which lead to ignorance of women and child welfare. The first one being onset of violence within six months of marriage and after the birth of the first child. The second is violence against women as an acceptable means of conflict resolution within households. Finally, an
examination of early experiences in marriage shows that some adolescent girls enter households which have different terms of gender role expectations. In this case, physical violence against women is very common. The study also focuses on the ability of unmarried adolescent girls as a determinant of access to education, exposure to the wider world and acquisition of life skills. The paper discusses the important of delaying first pregnancy among young newly-wed couples and their mutual understanding to use contraceptive. The study also shows that there is difference in social acceptability for both temporary contraceptives and couple communication on use of contraception which are key factors in creating an environment which enables couples for improved nutrition outcomes. The study concludes that nutrition-gender gap can only be reduced through targeted interventions promoting women empowerment, particularly among adolescent girls, and changes in the social acceptability of contraceptives”.

“Bravo, Sanhueza, Urzua (2008) analysed the gender difference in Chile’s labour market, addressing the selection of individuals at school level and its impact on gender gaps. The results found out that gaps depend largely on individuals’ level of schooling. It implied that human capital endowment is a greater cause for post market labour discrimination.

Ahmad and Masood (2009), through their empirical study found out that States with high sex ratio are experiencing high participation of rural women’s participation in labour force”.

Regression model estimated for urban women’s labour force participation suggest that household characteristic variables like household size, female headed household and child population are significant determinants of urban women’s labour force participation. Thus they conclude by saying that there is a need to generate education based jobs for women in rural areas. Various State Governments should prepare and
implement policies for the participation of rural women in permanent salaried jobs. Also various states should design and implement some special schemes for the participation of Muslim women in labour force.

Rao and Dasgupta (2009) have tried to study the nature of employment in food processing sector in Andhra Pradesh. They have examined the condition of workers, their wages, employment security, social security and condition of women workers in mango jelly and pickle making in the unorganized segment and fish processing and cashew processing in the factory sector. They found in their study that women working in these areas have no social security and earn only half of their male counterparts. The study finds that proportion of women in both organized and unorganized segments of food processing sector is 27%. The proportion of women in the sub-sectors of food processing when seen in different states seemed to vary. It is very high in Kerala, accounting 86% of the total workforce, followed by Tamil Nadu. The study observed that women earned only 51% what males earned in food processing activity. The number of working hours is very long in all food processing industries at around 10 hours every day. As there is no social security in these segments, the pregnant women have no benefits and they lose their jobs. The average wage is rupees 52/- per day which is 48% of the statutory minimum wage. While women get 42% of statutory minimum wage, men are relatively better with 71% of statutory minimum wages. The study highlights a very important fact that in many of the food processing units, workers from Scheduled Castes are denied jobs. This denial of job is mainly observed in the preparation of wet products or ready to eat items which are directly consumed. Whereas, in the processing of a dried commodity like cashew or even in fish processing the caste does not appear to be a basis of denial of jobs.
Kumar and Anuradha (2009) have studied women with disabilities and the discriminatory treatment faced by them in society. They have raised a very important issue of right to sexuality and reproductive choice of such women. They have tried to move the focus from charity and sympathy for such women to justice and equality. This paper suggests that better systems for justice delivery, social rules, attitudes and removal of inherent social prejudice can help to reduce the challenges faced by such women. The paper finally concludes that there is a need for progressive resistance for women with disabilities towards building a society of equals with respect to equality before law and society.

Uppal (2009) has concluded that it is confirmed that there is an existence of a significant difference in male and female wages in labour market of Punjab. It is quite worrisome that these differences exist even when there are higher human capabilities among the female workers. This shows that the differences in labour market outcome are purely due to cultural bias in favour of males as females with higher education level who put in more work effort are still paid a lower amount for their work. Since, the cultural bias cannot be changed overnight; there should be continuous efforts to remove it against women by involving religious and socio-cultural organizations in the process of change. In this study Uppal has used the Blinder-Oaxaca technique of decomposition.

Srivastava & Srivastava (2010) conducted research drawing data from National Sample Survey, National Family Health surveys and central statistical organization to gauge the work profile and participation of women in rural India. The employment and participation rate has increased significantly but the fact remains that a large number of female employees are still self–employed or working as casual labour in agriculture. The study shows that women face various forms of discrimination including job
discrimination that forces them into low paying jobs. The study finds that a man’s employment is principally determined by economic factors while a women’s employment determination includes demographic, reproductive, social, religious and cultural factors. The study also indicates that work participation rate among women is highest for Scheduled Tribe & Scheduled Castes and lowest for other castes. The reason behind this high women participation rate is linked to extreme poverty among these marginalized sections of the society which leaves them with no choice but to work. While considering religion, Muslim women in rural areas have very low participation rate which is almost half for the national rate of women of all religions. The research also highlights that the work participation rate of illiterate women is much higher than for women with higher levels of school education. This pattern is just reverse for males, which means that with higher education the males have high participation rates at work. The factors behind such pattern are compulsion for men to earn, greater availability of jobs for men and the restrictive social norms for women. The study concludes that rural women are in a lower position than their urban counterparts and among them the most marginalized category belongs to the SC/STs. The highest concentration of rural women workers is in agriculture and only a small portion of rural women workforce is employed in non-agricultural jobs. Much lower is the percentage of women in valued regular – salaried jobs.

Pankaj and Tankha (2010) using a field survey have examined the effect of National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (NREGS) in Bihar, Jharkhand, Rajasthan and Himachal Pradesh. Although the main objectives of National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (2005) was not empowering the women but certain provisions like flexibility in choosing and periods and months of employment, absence of supervisor and
contractor, creches for children of working women, equal wages for men and women and working within 5 km radius of home made it one of the main factors of employment for rural women. In 2006-07, 40.65% of the total workers in NREGS were women which increased to 47.88% in 2008-09. During the 3 years (2006-07, 2007-08, 2008-09) the share of women in total person days exceeded 50% in Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, Rajasthan and Tripura. The study had examined the effects of NREGS at individual and community levels with individual level being examined through income - consumption effects, intra-household effects and enhancement of choice and capability while the community level effects have been assessed in terms of increased participation, equal wages and overall impact on gender relations. The paper has concluded that NREGS has resulted in empowering women as workers through better employment opportunity, earning independently, increased consumption choices and reduced economic dependence. As a result of these, women have started contributing to the household’s income which has translated into an increased say for women in household affairs. At a community level, there has been an increase of women speakers in Gram Sabha, increased interaction with government officials and access to banks and post offices. The negative side of this increased participation of women in labour force is enhanced emotional strain as women with young children stay separated from them for long hours and the leisure time of women has vanished.

The study finally suggests that linking programs like Anganvadi integrated child development services, local school buildings, maternity relief for women, makeshift toilets at worksites and a minimum representation of women among NREGS’ functionaries may help in furthering the empowerment of women and reduce exploitation.
“Jaaskelainen (2011) explained gender gap in labour force participation and said that it varied strongly between countries and time. Although the gender gap has been constantly narrowing over the past 40 years, it still persists significantly everywhere. He opined that closing the gender gap and participation should be an important goal because working and gaining income empowers women both within their households and in the society. It also improves children welfare and the efficiency of the economy as a whole. Household models explain labour market differences between men and women by either utility maximization for the whole household or by the result of a bargaining game within the household. Government policies can also influence gender gap and participation through the system of taxation, parental leave policies or by subsidizing child care. Recent research suggests that identity and culture are also important determinants of participation decisions. Finally, closing the gender gap in primary education by supporting women’s educational attainment is the most important measure to be used in closing the gender gap and participation”.

“Akee and Yuksel (2012) have investigated the effect of skin tone on women’s full-time employment. They have studied the extent to which skin tone determines full-time employment probabilities due to persistence of racial and gender discrimination or other unobserved differences. The authors have used coronary artery risk in young adult survey for a period between 1985 – 2000 including both African American and White young adults and have also used an objective measure of skin tone from a light spectrometer and a self - reported measure of race to find that effect of skin tone diminishes over the time on employment. These results are valid across both samples as within the African – American sub-sample. Also, within the sub-sample the employment outcomes of darker toned women were similar to those of lighter toned women. The study finds that there
were no changes in employment probabilities for African–American men in the referred 15 year data. The study finds that increase in full-time opportunities have occurred mainly in the low–skilled service occupations”.

Guner, Kaya and Sánchez-Marcos (2012), in their effort to explain the existence of gender gaps in the Spanish labour market over the last three decades have said that although the gender gap has reduced in the employment opportunities, females are reluctant to work. They have concluded through their study that the gender gap (after controlling for worker and job characteristics) is about 20% and has not change between 1995 and 2006. Furthermore, the gender gap in wages is driven mainly by differences in returns to individual characteristic.

Kulkarni and Hatekar (2013) have made an attempt to establish a relationship between “trust and cooperation” and “trust and ability” with respect to gender. They highlight the facts of the society which seem to have lack of trust in ability of women with respect to certain areas of work. In these areas, women are typically believed to inefficient and social beliefs, practices originating from endorsement of prejudices, lead to dominance in some professions by men. Informal reservation in professions like fund managers, mechanical engineers and drivers which seem to be dominated by men keep women out of this market.

Such lack of trust in ability of women in society govern directly or indirectly women’s access to education and employment which finally results in occupational segregation of the labour market. Stereotypes about women’s inability to perform certain tasks are originated from social beliefs and prejudices of society. Nine experimental sessions were conducted with a total of 156 post graduate students from Pune and Mumbai for this
research study. The study concludes that there was no gender gap in actual mechanical performances. This was proven using OLS and Tobbit regressions.

Wadhawan (2013) relates women and migration for domestic work from Jharkhand and tries to focus on their life looking at data on educational levels, migration processes and social relations at the village level. Her paper tries to highlight the life of live-in domestic help from Jharkhand through multi-method approach and focuses on Ghumla district which is one of the major source areas of the domestic help and witnesses’ high levels of female out migration but still scores very low on development indicators. During her scheduled interview for the survey of the study, a live-in domestic worker from Delhi revealed that females like her in Jharkhand have only two options for going out from household before marriage. The first one is to be a migrant for domestic work to a large city and the second to join the Maoist movement. Thus the women from this area have very limited employment opportunities to support their family. In the process of migrating, many of these women become victims of human trafficking organizations and agencies which provide domestic workers in large cities. The National Sample Survey Office’s (NSSO) 61st round (2004-5) data confirms that there are 42 lakh. 2.2% of all employed women are domestic workers as compared to 0.5% of men. The study area selected has a majority of Scheduled Tribe population that is around 70% & has the largest presence of Oraons, being the largest tribal group of Jharkhand. Census 2001 revealed that 92% of houses in this area still use mud and unburnt bricks for construction of its walls and basic amenities are very low. Only 2.8% of the households were provided electricity which was provided for the state. Proportion of households with toilet facilities and drinking water facilities were as low as 3.6% and 5.5% respectively.78% of the total migrant females in the surveyed village of the study were domestic help who had
migrated to large cities. But the positive part of their migration is that these tribal women are preferred as live-in domestic workers to their lower caste counterparts who are still not allowed to stay as live-in domestic help due to caste based notions of purity. The study found that these domestic workers are given cheaper rice and left-overs, use separate utensils, sit on designated stools and usually sleep on the kitchen floor. Despite being discriminated, working for long hours with meagre pay, these women expressed a preference to work in high class apartments with modular kitchens than their own bare cooking areas at home.

To these women feeding pampered children seemed less demanding as compared to collecting fodder and fire-wood in deep forests. This study also finds out these work opportunities are based on the basic assumption that women do not require special skills to carry out domestic work in the cities. Hence, any women migrant who is willing to help as a live-in domestic help for lower pay, is employed in the metro cities easily.

Ayyer (2013) highlights the social factors which tend to play a significant role in a Mumbai resettlement site with relation to caste and gender. She has focused on the traumatic processes of displacement and re-settlement which affect the most marginalized group of population which are neither networked non-government organizations nor civic authorities deprived of rights and citizenry. The metropolitan city of Mumbai seems to be fast developing and creating opportunities for capital and labour while on the same platform it has created several deep inequalities, mass displacement and entrenchment of segregation. The study was based on extensive fieldwork conducted at Lallubhai compound, a resettlement site in Mankhurd, Mumbai. The research mainly focuses on the experiences of Dalit women which has tried to provide privacy to voice experiences of caste discrimination through in-depth interview, field observations and focused group
discussions. The study highlights basic worries of the residents of this slum in the form of challenges faced in terms of trust and bonding in the new neighbourhood. By compulsion, young girls in these areas were to maintain modesty and dignity by wearing “decent” clothes whereas young boys were free to wear whatever they wished to. Women, spoke about the fear of rape, molestation and sexual harassment in the new neighbourhood. The new neighbourhood comprised of people from different caste and religion and therefore, posed different types of challenges for the residents. The study underlined the aspects of everyday life and tries to point out how intersections of caste, gender, religion and language create hierarchies which lead to many forms of barriers, conflicts, forms of inclusion or exclusion and communalization. The study also focuses on the impact of displacement on women in form of loss of livelihood which is deeper and complex in comparison to others. The Dalit women in this re-settlement site face humiliation and exclusion and negotiate discrimination which leads to their endless struggle of caste, identity, hierarchy and domination.

Majumdar, Neetha and Agnihotri (2013), from their series of primary survey conducted between 2009 and 2011 across 20 states, have tried to view types of migration, patterns of female labour migration, conditions of work and civic life of women migrant workers. This paper criticizes the gender insensitive methodology of analyzing migration which uses only male migration as an indicator. The study presents an accurate picture of sectoral composition of female labour migration in India by broad industrial classification. Agriculture accounts for 34.3% of female migrant workforce, industry accounts for 30.8% and services for 34.8% in 2007-8. The data shows the inclination of female labour migration towards agriculture and a bias towards males in services and industry sector. The data represents an absolute fall in the number of women in total
workforce by over 21 million between 2004-5 and 2009-10. This study finds predominance of temporary labour migration including medium term and circular migration. This study shows a large proportion of SC/ST women in rural based circular migration. The study suggests that more weight of agriculture in overall structure of country’s female workforce is because of restricted movement of female agricultural workforce to urban style employment. The results of this study indicate that the women migration has limited diversification of occupation and they majorly concentrate in brick kiln work in rural areas and paid domestic work in urban areas. The meso-level survey shows expansion of village exogamous marriages and a rapid increase in dowry, particularly among OBC, SC and ST communities. These findings combined with the evidence of declining rural female work participation rates provide evidence of inter-linkages between increased rates of marriage migration, falling female work participation rates and the expanding burden of dowry.

Sengupta and Das (2014), in their study of gender-wage discrimination across different social and religious groups have focussed on the presence of substantial wage differentials between men and women. Their study takes social and religious accounts following the human capital theory using the National Sample Survey data of 55th and 60th round. They emphasize on the fact that the wage gap does not arise due to difference in the productivity of the two genders but due to gender discrimination and this difference becomes omnipresent when minority caste and religion groups are taken into account. The results of the study pointed towards gender gap in labour market participation. While Hindu women had high participation rate, the rate for Muslim women has increased over the years. Study also shows an increasing trend in the participation rate of Dalit and Other Backward Castes women. The study observes that job opportunities have increased for
women in the post-reform period but largely for the low-skilled and less educated women. This research concludes that gender-wage discrimination is more severe for women workers both from minority-religious and tribal-social groups.

Neetha(2014), on the basis of employment unemployment data since 1999-2000, finds that social inequalities in female employment has increased, alongside worsening gender-based segregation. A Very significant result of the NSSO survey shows significant decline in the female workforce participation rate or worker population ratio between 2004-05 and 2011-12. Her research shows that in the agriculture sector, the highest participation rates are by the Scheduled Tribe women, while Muslims show the lowest rates followed by the upper caste non-Muslim women. The secondary sector, except construction, sees a striking dominance of Muslim women. Construction has shown positive shift in terms of female employment recently, where Scheduled Tribe women are highest in proportion and upper caste non-Muslim women are lowest. In the services sector, there is an above average concentration of upper caste women, sharing about 69% of the services and Muslim women sharing the lowest with having only 33% of the sector. The service sector also has about 61% of Scheduled Caste women, which means that their participation rate is significant within the caste, in the sector. The data shows increasing demand for domestic work irrespective of social group, with Muslims sharing the highest rate of employment, followed by upper castes and Other Backward Castes. This study points to the fact that Indian labour market still operates within the restricted structure of gender, caste and religion inequalities and instead of altering these inequalities, worsens and reinforces them.

Kelkar (2014) throws light on a very important issue which questions the inheritance and asset ownership laws in India and relate it to gender gap. This paper points it as one of
the key factor of poverty among women. The Indian economy has seen a large number of women population engaged in the informal sector, with agriculture having 70-80% of this population. This is often termed as 'feminization if agriculture’, which makes it further more important to be dealt in terms of women. Kelkar focuses on the matter of land ownership in agriculture for women farmers and other related factors of production. His research showed that 40% of the women-owned plots came from inheritance, 34% of it was from market and 26% of the women-owned plots were government allocations. In this study, Kelkar shows that a large number of respondents are unaware of the proper legal rights for women inheritance in property and assets. One important fact which comes out of this study is that only 60% of the plots were formally documented. 93% of the plots were owned by men and only 7% of the plots were owned by women. Less than 10% of the male-headed plots had the names of their wives in the legal documents. In light of the recent amendments in various laws related to equal rights for women, the paper concludes that women also need to interact more with the government officials in order to solve matters. Hence the gender gap in the society can be changed with continuous and intense efforts both on government and society's part.

Thappan, Singh and Srikumar (2014) study the mobility and migration aspect of Muslim women who have migrated to Jamia Nagar in Delhi and seemed to have a more fulfilling life in their new locality. The Muslim women who have been prejudiced to remain at home traditionally claim to have migrated for social security wellbeing, better opportunities and higher education. Migration and specific gender is viewed as a phenomenon or response to economic pressures. There occurs differential treatment of women even in migrant families. This paper takes the case of Muslim women as special because of their minority status and the fact that Muslim women remain hidden under the
cover of Muslim minority issue. The common rights given to Indian women by the constitution do not apply to Muslim women as they are governed by Muslim personal law. This study has dealt with some of the issues pertaining to migration by Muslim women, their choices, their aspirations and problems. Legal and policy frameworks in India are not giving due importance to women migrants. Government and scholars have been largely ignorant to the desire for education, employment and freedom as contributing factor for the mobility of Muslim women in India. Gender sensitization in migration laws should be given importance and proper statistical record should be maintained for women migrants and their wellbeing. Most of the respondents in the study reported that they feel free from the traditional binding cultural norms and societal values of their native place.

Ludsteck (2014) has inspected the relation between segregation at the workplace and gender wage gap using linked longitudinal employer employee data from the German employment register. The study has sorted the workers into job cells establishments and occupations. The pooled least squares estimates signify that gender wage gap increases with the increase in job cell – level proportion of females. The paper shows that women experience greater wage declines than men when additional women enter their job cell. Related sorting analyses suggest that significant proportion effects can be explained by unobserved individual ability and indicates that women working in job cells with small proportion of females show above average unobserved individual ability.

2.5. Racial Discrimination
Are races real or not? The United States Government’s Human Genome Project has proved that there is no distinct biological genesis to race as such. The biological studies concerning blacks and non-blacks have proved that there is no such genetic characteristic exclusively attached to either of them.

“McElroy & Darity (1999) concluded through their study that one reason offered for why blacks ostensibly have more human capital on average than whites do, is the claim that blacks possess a genetic disadvantage in intelligence or in cognitive ability. This is precisely the argument advanced by Richard Herrnstein and Charles Murray in *The Bell Curve* (1994). The research team performed two tests, the first of which involved use of a spectrophotometer to measure skin reflectance to gauge the skin shade of each of the children. In the second test researchers took blood samples from each of the children to measure their degree of African ancestry by extracting blood markers from each sample and comparing it against the known distribution of blood markers across populations on the African continent. The team found no connection between the measured degree of African ancestry and IQ test scores. However, they did find a correlation between how light-skinned or dark skinned a person was and how high they scored tests”.

“Carneiro, Heckman & Masterov (2003), through their study on Labour Market Discrimination and Racial differences in Premarket Factors, discuss the sources of wage gaps between minorities and whites. They suggest that major source of economic disparity by race and ethnicity in U.S. labour markets is in endowments, not in payments to endowments. This evidence suggested that strengthened civil rights and affirmative action policies targeted at the labour market are unlikely to have much effect on racial and ethnic wage gaps, except possibly for those specially targeted toward black males. Policies that foster endowments have much greater promise”.

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When it comes to racial discrimination, Indian government has always cleared itself from it. It has always been projected that there are no different races in India nor does any discrimination of this type exist. But evidences from recent events and incidents against the north-east people in India show that severe discrimination is prevalent in the mainland India against the entire north-east people. The glorious struggles of the Manipuri people against the AFSPA (Armed Forces Special Power Act), which designates one army man to every 15 Manipuri. (Teltumbde 2009)

Baer (2011), looked at the presence of wage gap between white and black men during the recession and has tried to analyse how recession has hit Black men. The study finds that every four out of five jobs lost during recession was held by black men. The unemployment rate among black men is more than twice (16.8%), as compared to the white men (7.7%), as stated in Bureau of Labour Statistics report (2011). Even when the American economy was at boom, Black men with regular, full-time jobs, earned 72% of what white men with comparable working hours were earning. Another important point raised in this study is regarding the limited areas of job opportunities for the black men. The reason behind this is the large education gap between the blacks and the whites. In the year 200-08, only 47% of black men reached in the education level as far as graduation. Out of them, only 40.5% of the men who had enrolled in a four-year course could graduate within six years. This is an alarming figure regarding the education level of the black men. One important explanation given for the restricted entry of black men in certain jobs or lower percentage of employment of the black men is that they have a high criminal record and they constitute 48% of all inmates. When a study on the ration of black to white men was done on all but one of the 469 occupations included in the Annual American Community Survey, three major facts emerged out. First, 87% of the
occupation was found to be racially segregated; second, those occupations where black men dominated had 13,328$ less income annually than in white men dominated occupation and third, every 10,000$ increase in the annual wage of an occupation was correlated with 7% decrease in black men representation. A common perception prevails in the society that the black men have very low soft skills, which is discarded in the study. The services industry where soft skills are high in demand and wages are low, the presence of black men is high. Black men have low presence in construction, extraction and manufacturing industries, where soft skills have low priority and wages are generally much higher. The author concludes that since black men are denied high wage jobs they are ‘crowding’ the low wage ones. The ‘overcrowding’ of black men in the low wage occupation further depresses the wages in those occupations and thus the earning gaps between white and black men persists and deepens.

Lang and Lehmann (2011) have concluded through empirical analysis that the discrimination between the whites and the blacks in the American job market may be due to the difference in the investment in pre job market. There is as such no model which clearly explains the reason for the wage gaps between them. So the government should take strict actions towards it and formulate policies.

Galarza & Yamada (2012), through their field experiment have found that the Latin America has a highly discriminatory labour market. They sent some 4,820 fictitious and equivalent CVs in response to 1,205 real job vacancies advertised in an important Peruvian newspaper and found that that males receive 20 percent more call-backs than females, and whites receive 80 percent more calls than indigenous applicants.

Borghans, Weel and Weinberg (2014) have studied people skills and its relation to labour market outcomes and showed how during between the period between late 70s and early
90s in the United States, gender gap closed and black-white wage gap stagnated relative to the preceding and following years. The research emphasizes that people skills are important determinants of labour market outcomes which include occupational choice and wages. The study indicates that technological and organizational changes have increased the importance of people skills at the workplace and focuses on how the enhanced importance of these skills have affected labour market outcome of under-represented groups. The study finds that sociability at young ages is positively correlated with the importance of people tasks in a worker’s adult occupation using data from Unites States, Britain and Germany. The study also finds that computers initially were more important but this relationship has weakened over time. The results suggest that occupations in which people tasks are more important employ more women but less racial ethnic and linguistic minorities and fewer immigrants.

2.6. Regional Discrimination

Howell and Kambhampati (1999) in a study for the fate of retrenched workers in the cotton textile industry in India discussed the controversial impacts of liberalization. After the Indian government went for major liberalization policies in 1991, the economy opened up and the privatization of public sector invited foreign investment which reformed the labour market. In their study, Howell and Kambhampati focused on the case of retrenched workers in the cotton textile industry. They argued that the informal sector cannot readily absorb a sudden localized search in unemployment. Also, the conditions of employment in terms of wages, working hours, health and safety and representation would likely be worse in informal sectors. The study pointed out that the
trade unions may not be able to negotiate a satisfactory deal for redundant workers and finally the national renewal fund was not effective as a social safety net for regenerating industry.

Mariappan (2009) has made an analysis of wage differential and discrimination against the migrant workers. It is estimated using primary data in the Indian urban unorganized sector labour market. He finds that the age-earnings profile of the migrant workers is steeper than the age-earnings profile of the non-migrant workers in the urban unorganized sector labour market. In general, the wage differentials are also usually attributed to differences in the productivity-linked characteristics of human capital. He finally concludes that policy intervention may be envisaged to implement equal employment opportunities and appropriate wages for migrant workers at the place of destination.

Narayan (2009) postulates the status and the conditions of the migrant auto-rickshaw drivers in Mumbai. She has used both primary and the secondary data to study this perspective. Through this study, she concludes that the socio-economic conditions of auto-workers of Mumbai are very bad. There are no authorized auto stands. As workers operate round the clock they need some facilities such as auto-parking zones where they can park autos without fear of police. They need some time to relax and proper food subsidized canteens availability can help them in living healthy lifestyle.

Adyanthaya (2000) evaluated the performance of Integrated Rural Development Programme in Pune district of Maharashtra. The study found out that 89% of families belonging to below poverty line which were surveyed were aware of integrated IRDP benefits. Agriculture was a low priority area in the eyes of these BPL families. Nearly 76% families had obtained loans for their business or other purposes. Illiteracy was much common among the rural population. The study found out that the tendency among
borrowers to misuse or make defaults in repaying loans was very common and it suggested that steps should be taken to check this malpractice.

2.7. Job Discrimination

Harris, Kannan and Rodgers (1990), in a study of the urban labour market structure and job access in Coimbatore, found out that the labour market in Coimbatore is both stratified i.e. characterized by layering of individuals and segmented which means reflecting the differential workings of labour market in different parts of the urban economy. They also found out that the access to better jobs was dominated by specific groups by fundamental characteristics of the social structure and also by better human capital investment.

Deshpande and Palshikar (2008) conducted a study in Pune in 2007 and found a relationship between caste and occupation. They have investigated the patterns of inter-generational occupational mobility across four generations and different caste groups in the city of Pune. The study finds that caste is important for upward mobility but is not strongly related with occupational mobility in general. Maratha – Kunbis and Dalit are the largest beneficiaries of upward mobility although there is a difference in their mode of journey. The study shows that Other Backward Castes are behind these two classes and some castes among them show stagnation as far as mobility is concerned. They have pointed out that mobility in urban areas in a more modest phenomenon and caste is not a
very strong predictor of mobility. The Dalit have improved their chances of getting into salaried class and upper mobility among Dalit is high. The study sees that some caste groups are crowded in particular occupational categories for one or two generations but this trend is not general.

Motiram and Singh (2012) have examined inter-generational occupational mobility in India using a 2005 India human development survey data. They have grouped individuals into classes and have seen that there are patterns of mobility at rural, urban and all - India levels and for different caste groups. They find that there is a significant inter-generational persistence, especially in low-skilled and low-paying occupations. The results of this paper suggest a significant inequality of opportunity in India. They have used both transition matrices and mobility measures for their study. Mobility in rural areas according to the study is much less than in urban areas. There is a considerable downward mobility among Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes which suggests unequal opportunity in Indian economy.

2.8. Other forms of Discrimination

Majumdar (2001) focused his attention on child labour considering child well-being as a separate problem of its own contrary to what was discussed as a family strategy approach focusing their attention on family resources earlier. His paper argued that non-schooling and work of children reflect not only parental income constraints but also the paucity publicly provided educational opportunities. These deficiencies are not the products of parental incapability but a lack in public policy and social institutions. With empirical focus on India, this research demonstrates that the burden of child labour as well as the
onus of educational deprivation is disproportionately borne by different population groups in the country. Paper concludes that expansion of educational opportunities and changes in current political policy are the only way out to reduce child labour.

Ruwanpura (2005), considering Britain and India as cases for exploring the links of multi-discrimination; particularly in the labour market, showed how economists are unfortunately lagging behind legal and human rights theorists in tackling the issue of multi-discrimination. The cases of Britain and India used in this literature survey show the value and need to address multi-discrimination from an economic angle. This preliminary research which highlights the prevalence of multi–discrimination or intersectional discrimination indicates the absence of decent work opportunities with natural implications for poverty, social exclusion and development.

Waite (2005) conducted a study on manual workers in India and focused on how seemingly vulnerable and malnourished bodies in rural context are enabled to labour. He thoroughly studied 22 households for 10 months and focused on their work experiences, food intakes, habituated learning, psychological realms and cultural beliefs and practices. He finally reached on the conclusion that necessity of mobilizing bodies to perform crucial labour implies that bodies are primary resources for the working poor, no matter what the circumstances are.

Mitra and Sambamoorthi (2006) conducted a study on rural labour market in Tamil Nadu and emphasized on the differences in employment and wages between persons with and without disabilities. They applied decomposition technique to employment rate differences between the two groups and concluded that the employment gap is not explained by differences in human capital and productivity and the possibility of
discrimination of access to employment. Results suggest that wages are not statistically different between disabled and non-disabled individuals.

Dasgupta (2008) conducted field work in New Delhi for a year on the working of Supreme Court of India and its effectiveness in protection of the rights of India’s most disadvantaged workers. She argued that a distinctive form of public interest litigation in the Supreme Court to protect the rights of exploited workers. There have been extreme cases of child labour and bonded labour in which the Indian Supreme Court has been found labour friendly and has taken seriously the Constitutional promise of socio-economic development. In this scenario, the role of local governments, non-government organizations and higher judiciary have made a positive impact for the most disadvantaged workers in Indian society.

Sur (2008) has done a study on theories of race and gender in science and tried to debate the role of science in promoting the basis of discrimination among race, gender and ethnicity. This paper studies how scholars have shown ways in which race, gender, ethnicity are basis of discrimination, especially biology. Craniology has established the fact that male skeleton size is larger as compared to women and therefore the absolute brain size or cranial volume is inferior in women. Biologists like Morton have emphasized on the relation between size of brain in various races and social status and have thus linked brain size to race and social status. Later on, Haeckel used Darwin’s theories of evolution and sexual selection to rationalize the existing social order. According to him, in the bio-genetic law, the racial classification of humans was seen as depicting different developmental stages of human embryo with “negroes permanently having the imperfect brow, projecting lower jaw and slender bent limbs of a Caucasian
child and aboriginal American representing the same child nearer to birth.” [Cited in Russett 1991:52]

Another form of bias in science which continues till today is debate whether girls should study mathematics. Studies in this regard have proven that sex hormones impact the developing the brains of males, females and homosexuals differently and by and large favours the heterosexual men with having greater conceptual clarity, mathematical reasoning and analytical abilities. This paper concludes that these discriminatory theories of science have become obsolete and have been much debated upon as the basis of increasing and promoting discrimination in society. The paper suggests that various different methods like intelligence testing should be promoted for equally ranking the hierarchy of human races and promoting equality.

Robinson (2014) has raised the issue of Dalit Christians not been given the status of minorities in India. They have been continuously agitating for being considered as minorities which will bring them at par with Hindu, Sikh and Buddhist Dalit. She also argues and highlights that during the period the constitution was framed whether Christian castes were discussed. The paper also points that the discriminatory clause in the Scheduled Castes Order of the constitution is part of the problem faced by the Dalit Christians.

Mukhopadhyay and Sharan (2015) study the performance of National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme in Rajasthan and have tried to find the reason for sharp decline of this scheme. They found it is not solely due to lack of demand but also supply-driven top-down nature of the programme that has resulted into a "discouraged worker" syndrome. The state which had completely embraced NREGS showed a drastic slowdown of the performance of the scheme. For the study, 75 Gram Panchayats and 328 villages of 8
districts in Rajasthan were considered. Main reasons for decline in the performance of scheme relate to seasonality, lack of funds, low wages and supply-driven approach of the work. A significant contribution of this research has been to notice and analyse the 'sarpanch effect' on the employment schemes, which meant that the Sarpanch has a say in the flow of funds for the scheme.

Wang (2015) shows that there is a positive relationship between height and worker ability and compares wage returns to height of immigrants and natives to find an explanation for positive wage-height gradient. The multiple data sets used in the study present a significant empirical finding that wage gains related with height are almost twice as large for immigrants as native-born individuals. The study suggests that such relationship between wage and height happens because of the productivity gap between tall and short immigrants which is greater than the productivity gap between tall and short native born workers. The study does not support the hypothesis of statistical discrimination based on height.

Looking at the facts and figures of various studies and reports mentioned above, it becomes important to study the presence of discrimination element in Rajasthan, which is the largest state of India (area-wise) and is developing fast.

Various rigorous research and studies have been done in many parts of India related to it. But the void remains in the part of Rajasthan, where no such detailed study has been done in this regard. Thus this research work tries to fill this void and proceeds in the area of estimating the reasons and degree of discrimination done by the labour market of Rajasthan in the unorganized labour force.
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY