Jyoti Bharat (2008) conducted a study on Socio-economic status of the women domestic workers. This study was exploratory in nature and provided valuable insights into the working and living conditions of women domestic workers. There was no legal protection system. A two stage random sampling scheme was adopted in selecting the sample slums and Index Women as the first and second stage study units respectively. Secondary data collected from the Urban Local Bodies provided the database for sampling framework. The first stage of sampling included selection of the urban slums in the selected townships. Thirty slums from each of the five townships were selected randomly for the study. The second stage of sampling dealt with selection of the individual women domestic workers. Ten women per slum were selected randomly. The findings of the study will be useful in providing inputs for improvement in the working and living condition of domestic workers.

Nandal Santosh (2004) conducted a study on Women workers in construction industry in Haryana. Most of the workers in construction industry come from other states and constitute a higher percentage of female. The primary objective of this paper was to focus on the socio-economic problems being faced by a section of the female workers in the
construction industry. They were actively involved in economic activities for survival, yet bearing and rearing of children remain their first responsibility. The study was conducted in six districts of Haryana (Rohtak, Sonipat, Bhiwani, Hissar, Panipat and Karnal) where the total number of employed workers was estimated to be 21,000.

**Mathew K. Tinu (2008)** conducted a study on the role of social movements in organizing the unorganized sector workers LEARN, Dharavi. This study tried to detect the problems as well as the prospects entailed in systematizing the unorganized workers and recognize the part social movements can play in regulating the unorganized sector workers. The intention was to appreciate the troubles and tribulations of the unorganized workers in general and women workers in particular in the state of Maharashtra with Dharavi as the center of attention. Qualitative methodology of research was used to analyse the conditions of informal sector workers. This was conducted through interview methods, which helped in identifying the positive impact of unions on the workers. This also gave an insight into the obstacles faced by the unions in organizing the informal sector workers. In addition to participant observation, newspaper articles, books, journals and various government reports were referred as secondary data.

**Sodadas Kumar Vijya (2011)** conducted a study on the working and living conditions of stone quarry workers. This study attempted to
discuss the problems faced by stone quarry workers in India. The study examined the hiring practices, compensation, the role of government and trade union in this sector. In this regard not much help is provided by the government and legal frame work of the country. The study was limited to the stone quarries in the area of Anakapalli mandal, Visakhapatnam District, Andhra Pradesh. A total population of 300 stone quarry workers was used for the study. It was a social survey research which used the random sampling method. Data was collected from primary and secondary sources. The findings revealed that there was no clear employment relationship with either employer or contractor and the workers always remain uncovered by any labour legislation which regulates the terms and conditions of employment or social security schemes. Hence the requirement implementation of a comprehensive law becomes imperative to provide a better standard of living and to regulate their working conditions.

**Das Kabita, Das B.K, Mohanty Subhransubala (2012)** conducted a study on Social Security in Informal Sector. The aim of this paper was to know the degree of social security of the working women in the informal sector in Odessa. Keeping in view the objective of the study, a sample survey was conducted in districts like Keonjhar, Mayurbhanj and Cuttack. Accordingly 100 women from each district were randomly selected and supplied with structured questionnaire pertaining to their availability of social security measures taken by the Govt. of Odisha. Available data suggested that social security in the organized sector was steadily shrinking.
but the major concern was for informal sector which imposes a heavy cost on society in terms of jobs, income and health care.

Paul G D Bino, Datta Susanta, Murthy R Venkatesha (2011) conducted a study on Working and Living Conditions of Mumbai Women Domestic Workers. Here primary data was collected from 1510 female domestic workers in Mumbai. Based on the findings, the need to create a comprehensive social security system for domestic workers in India, against the backdrop of working and living conditions of labour belonging to this occupational category was highlighted. The study covered themes such as basic demographic features, nature of services, work profile of the domestic workers, access to social security, consumption of edible items, consumption under PDS system, health, union awareness, time use, household assets and liability, habitat, attitude of domestic workers towards gender and domestic violence.

Mukherjee Piu, Paul G D Bino, Pathan J.I (2009) conducted a study on the migrant workers’ working condition in informal sector. The objective of the study was to understand their socio-economic status in urban India. The aim was to explore whether migration to urban areas had substantially altered their working and living conditions as also the labor market and human development issues. The study reviewed how the migrants survived the expected deficiencies and dispossessions and also the role of labor brokers in this arena. The research examined the seasonal
construction workers and ‘naka’ workers in Mumbai and concluded that there was no social security and sustained human development.

Gaines Gaines, Head Jordan, Mokey Matthew, Potemski Amy, Stepansky Michael, Vance Amy (2006) conducted a study on working conditions of domestic workers in Montgomery country, Maryland. The objective of this research was to determine whether the working conditions of domestic workers are unfair and if so, the extent and magnitude of such problems. The goal of this study was to move beyond anecdotal evidence and provide the Montgomery County Health and Human Services committee with sound empirical data on domestic working conditions in order to inform public discussion of these issues and potential policy solutions. The findings of this study showed that there were substantive difference both among types of domestic workers as well as between domestic workers as a class and the general population of Montgomery country. Domestic workers are consistently divested of health, retirement and regularized leave provisions. Therefore, it is imperative to the improvement of domestic worker protections, rights, and welfare that this specific population is targeted for future research and analysis. However, should the country decide to take legislative action it may create mandated work standards.

Tous Sophorn, Veasna Noun (2009) conducted Study on ‘Living and Working Conditions of Domestic Workers in Cambodia’. In Phnom
Penh, the study on working conditions of domestic worker covered four districts and a total of 30 Communes. Information was collected from members of 9 Trade Unions. Main findings of the research were: Employing someone to undertake domestic households’ chores is a long time practice in Cambodia, associated with gender stereotypes on the traditional role of women in the household as caretakers and caregivers. Domestic work is still considered in the Cambodian culture as a form of servitude rather than as real “work”. The results of the study confirm the need for action to promote and protect the rights of domestic workers required.

Kimera Musooka Moses (2010) conducted a study on ‘Dignity of Workers in Wakiso Town: Wakiso District’. The study contributed to the management theory and practice by establishing the thesis that regard for workers ‘dignity by the tripartite partners (employers, employees and the government) is indispensable for the improvement of the workers’ conditions. The study was conducted to change the prevailing plight of workers. A combination of qualitative and quantitative method was applied and data was collected via interviews, questionnaires, observation and literatures review. The study relied on both secondary sources and government publications related to economic policy and labour rights. Data was summarized and coded into themes and sub-themes from which conclusions and recommendations were drawn. This study found that the lack of awareness, less salary, late payments, underemployment, violence
against employees, dignity and rights, casualness, lack of freedom of association and poor working relations account for the poor condition of workers. Due to the limitation and the scope of the study, these issues are recommended for further research.

Bairagya Indrajit, (2009) conducted study on “Measuring the Informal Economy in Developing Countries”. The goal of this study was to measure the economic importance of the informal sector in Indian economy by its share, growth and composition from the year 1970 to 2006. Another objective was the measurement of efficiency performance of the unorganized sector.

Geetha K.T. (2010) conducted study on Women in Informal Sector- A Case Study. This study was focused on different types of socio-economic problems of female workers in urban informal sector. The study was based on primary data collected. An interview schedule was administered to 100 female workers working in various activities in the informal sector in urban areas. Findings revealed that females in informal sector were overburdened with work and exploited. It was recommended that at the policymaker level, required policy should be prepared and appropriate steps should be taken to improve working and living condition of female workers in this sector.

Remesh P. Babu (2012) conducted a study on ‘Rethinking Social Protection for India’s Working Poor in the Unorganized Sector’. This study gave importance to social security. The characteristics of unorganized
sector were low wages, poor working/living conditions, seasonality of employment, contractual employment, lack of social security as well as welfare procedures, repudiation of rights and privileges. Consequently, the sector has developed into “a competitive and low cost device to absorb labour which cannot be absorbed elsewhere and any attempt to regulate and bring it into more effective legal and institutional framework is perceived to be impairing the labour absorbing capacity of the sector”.

Kumar M. Dileep (2012) conducted a study on Inimitable Issues of Construction Workers: Case Study. Construction workers are available everywhere in all countries. The percentage of construction workers is more in developing countries like India as employment intensity is much higher in lower income countries than higher income ones. This study was conducted in 82 construction sites. Migrated construction workers faced some major problems like poor health condition, arduous working life, harassment, inadequate and unequal wage structure, long working hours, poor housing facilities, atrocities on women workers, lack of safety measures and proper education for children of construction workers. The study stressed on the need to create awareness of all labour rights and recommended proper intervention programme as well as proper implementation of labour law for this sector.

Kundu Amit (2008) conducted a study on Conditions of ‘Work and Rights of The Female Domestic Workers of Kolkata’. This study focused
on women working as domestic helps in private houses. The endeavor was to know about working conditions and rights of women domestic workers. The findings revealed that they were not getting facilities like timely salaries, overtime payment, public holiday, standard daily working hours and prior notice before dismissal from work. The study tried to cover all parts of Kolkata district and surveyed 300 part-time domestic workers as well as 100 full-time domestic workers and suggested that the Government of India should implement schemes, rules and rights for betterment of their working and living condition.

**Dave Vandana (2012)** conducted a study on Women Workers in Unorganised Sector. The study focused on female construction workers, agriculture workers and domestic workers. The objective of this study was to know the socio-economic, working and living conditions of workers. The multistage stratified random sampling technique was applied, data was collected from 350 female workers from urban and rural areas of 3 districts of Haryana namely Panipat, Kaithal and Kurukshetra. Workers faced problems like disparity in wages where female workers were paid less. Working hours were not fixed and harassment at work place was common.

**Nazir Saima (2008)** conducted a study on ‘Socio-economic Conditions of Females Domestic Workers Before and After Migration in Faisalabad City’. The study revealed the generality of domestic employees working in private residences and the predominance of females as domestic
help. They faced problems like health expenditures, working at more than one place, no overtime payment or timely payment and no local holiday. The principle focus was to examine the work situation, compensation configuration and impact of “internal migration” and other aspects of this unorganized sector. Convenient random sampling technique was used for this study. Results indicated that they were not getting their salaries in accordance to the working hours. However, a clear connection between “internal migration and higher social, economic status, better living conditions and children education was found”.

Palriwala and Neetha (2009) point out that this kind of work is characterized As ‘part-time’ from the perspective of the employer. For the domestic worker, The actual number of hours she spends in all the households she works in is a Full day’s work. They also note that this form of work may be flexible but is also Unstable as workers shift out of the sector, change employers, stop working for a few years due to marriage or childbirth and also have constant issues with their employers. Yet, in terms of time spent at work, it may be as much or more than a live-in worker. “The fragmented nature of their work, the multitude of tasks, a multiplicity of employers, and the instability of employment pose Challenge in documenting them and in attempts to organize them” (ibid: 14). Researchers have noted that women’s organizations have not consistently taken up advocacy for domestic workers.
Hertz (2004) suggests that the real wages of domestic workers increased and the non-wage terms of employment improved as a result of the implemented regulations. Furthermore, Hertz (2004) found that, on a macro-level, regulations did appear to have raised the wages of domestic workers in South Africa, but the decrease in employment of domestic workers could not significantly be linked to these regulations. Average nominal hourly wages in September 2003 were 23 per cent higher than those of September 2002. The nominal wage increase for workers in other occupations with similar demographics was less than five per cent. This finding was supported by econometric evidence that the wage increases for domestic workers were the result of the regulations, because the largest wage increases were seen in places where the greatest number of workers initially earned less than the minimum wage (ibid., 2004, p. 1). The minimum hourly wage for Bloemfontein at the time of the study was R5.11 for domestic workers working more than 27 hours per week and R6.04 for those working less than that. This wage was the same as for other urban areas in South Africa (Department of Labour, 2006a, p.1).

Kathuria, et. al. (2010) have analyzed the productivity performance of the organized and unorganized units of the Indian manufacturing sector at the state level for the period 1994-95 to 2004-05 and have examined the impact of reforms on their performance. For calculating the productivity levels and growth rates, both partial and total factor productivity methods are considered. After analyzing the production function they showed that
the capital rather than labour played a significant role in the production process in the organized and unorganized manufacturing sector. The comparative role of labour in the production processes is less in the unorganized sector and this has remained a major concern as this sector is a significantly larger employment provider. The TFP has grown steadily in the organized manufacturing sector while the same has declined in the unorganized manufacturing sector. The growth in GVA is driven mostly by productivity and not by inputs in both the sectors.

**Mehrotra (2008)** analyzed the conditions of work (for example, hours of work, hazardous nature of work, safety conditions and wages rates) in the prevailing labour market conditions, where there is excess supply of labour. The unorganized sector workers themselves are fragmented and almost always not organized into unions, where they suffer from access to imperfect information and are not fully aware of their limited rights. To make it even more difficult, they are mostly illiterate or barely literate. If the pre-requisites for improving their conditions of work do not exist, he suggested that the state should focus its attention on improving the social protection for such workers, that is, social assistance and social insurance. This implies that the state should focus on doing the - do able’.

**Rajasekhar, et. al. (2005)** conducted study in Karnataka and used a participatory method to derive the perceived social security needs of unorganized sector workers. Among the workers surveyed, 92.3 percent felt
that benefits towards old age, unemployment, death, sickness and employment injury were relevant for them. Women in the reproductive age groups also felt that maternity benefits were important. Each respondent was shown various pictures of these six types of needs and asked to assign priority to these needs. Workers in the informal sector were not homogenous and various segments among them had different priorities. Among the informal workers, agricultural laborers felt that old age was a major concern followed by unemployment. Among construction workers, unemployment followed by old age and employment injury was assigned priority. Among domestic workers, too, old age security was the major concern followed by unemployment and sickness. An interesting aspect of this study was that about 7.7 percent of the sample workers were unwilling to rank their priorities for security. It was found that these included the highly vulnerable category of households for whom all these insecurities were obviously not important enough since their basic entitlement had not been met.

Kannan and Srivastava (2006) overviewed a comprehensive social security scheme for the unorganized sector which had been proposed for the first time in India. The proposal by the National Commission for Enterprises in the Unorganized Sector (NCEUS) sought to develop a healthy workforce that in turn would have a positive impact on national income and economic growth. The scheme was aimed to cover sickness,
maternity, old age and death and proposed a participatory system with some contribution from the workers.

**Sakthivel and Joddar (2006)** analyzed that the coverage of social security schemes had been largely against economically and socially vulnerable sections while regular workers were largely covered by the provident fund regime. The ever increasing army of casual and contract workers, even in the organized sector appeared too had been discriminated against, not to speak of the entire self-employed, which accounted for a significant proportion of India's workforce. Although the statutory provisions of provident fund were supposed to be applicable universally among industries specified in schedule I, the evidence clearly pointed to a dismal state of affairs. So there was a crying need to enforce the same in the industries covered apart from revising the list of industries continuously.

Domestic workers, in particular women domestic workers, are a constantly growing section of workers in the informal sector of urban India. The last three decades have seen a sharp increase in their numbers, especially in contrast to male domestic workers (Neetha 2004). Research has shown that till 2000, the urban workforce participation of women in India has been lower than those of rural women. Marginal increases were observed in 2000-04. In 2004, the figure of national urban female workforce participation reached an all-time high of 16 percent. In 2004-05, there were 30.5 million women domestic workers in urban India marking an
increase by 22 percent from 1999-2000. (Chandrashekar and Ghoosh 2007)

Domestic work includes mental, manual and emotional aspects, including care work communities (Anderson 2000). Domestic work is thus viewed as reproductive work that creates not only labour units but also people and social relations. Anderson further draws attention to domestic work being rooted in the community. By the doing of domestic work we literally reproduce our communities and our place within them (ibid: 14). In this context, it is important to note who does the domestic work as this reflects the relation between genders race and class.

Sankaran Kamala and Roopa Madhav (2011) The life of unorganized sector workers is very tough. Social workers and educationists have been for a long time concerned more with women empowerment and have contributed a great deal in focusing attention of the people to the importance of several factors which should be taken care of in helping women to develop fully. The supremacy of male is reflected in all the acts in the family but women’s autonomy is essential to rectify this imbalance and attain gender equality. The workers in an unorganized sector have legal protection in terms of job security, wages or working conditions. In 2005 the Confederation of Indian Industries (CII) commissioned a study titled ‘Understanding the Levels of Women’s Empowerment in the Work Place” revealed that women constitute only 6% of total workforce in corporate

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houses. The percentage of women in leading managerial positions is abysmally low. Only 7% labour force is in the organized sector and 93% work in unorganized or informal sector. The reason for the employment of women in such large numbers in the informal sector is women’s weaker bargaining power, low skilled labour, generally lower wages than men and lack of unionization. The precise effects of women's participation in wage work on the family-based household have received little detailed attention until recently. This is particularly the case in the urban context of many developing countries where female labour force participation. Despite the existence of various constitutional and legal provisions safeguarding women’s employment a large number of women workers, particularly in the unorganized sector suffer from various disadvantages relating to their working lives as well as home. The coverage of labour laws has not benefited these women workers in many crucial area, especially health, maternal and social security. A striking feature of most unorganized sector employment is that workers are employed largely through unorganized contractors or subcontractors.

**Moghe (2000)** The unorganized sector employs a large section of the workforce, especially women, in urban India. There is wide gap between the organized and unorganized sectors, in terms of wages and working conditions, as well as bargaining power. Domestic workers have employment throughout the year, but their wages are exploitative low. They are not aware of minimum wage laws for their categories of work. For
these workers, it is pertinent to bring in policies relating to conditions of work, holidays, payment of wages, overtime etc. Some mobilization of workers must be attempted in order to organize them and increase their bargaining power capacities. These were physically, mentally or sexually abused. Most of them were illiterate, a significant proportion of the cohort were school drop-outs, probably due to adverse financial status. They are engaged as maid servants that included delivering services like cleaning, sweeping, washing up clothes and utensils, dusting, fetching water etc. and involved primarily in baby care, cooking and outdoor duties. To reduce the adverse impact in the short run, there is a need to understand the emerging process of job recess since these processes would control female labour force participation. But despite the precariousness of the work, with its instability, insecurity and social and economic vulnerability, the women, given their poverty and lack of skills, would have a very little option by to tolerate exploitation. The meager incomes they get would be precious for their own and for their family’s survival as they form substantial proportions of their equally low family/household incomes. By and large, there are three types of issues of unorganized sector workers that need to be addressed. One is the regulation of their working conditions, the second is provisioning for conditions in which they are unable to continue to work, such as old age and disability, and the third is measures to help them overcome situations of insecurity, such as major illnesses and the liability of
losing employment or being laid off at the will of the employer, for which they have no legal remedy.

A large number of domestic workers belongs to lower castes and marginalized sections of the society number of domestic workers found today has increased greatly over the last three decades. The increase can be because of modernization which has led to more women working out of the home and having to be replaced by domestic workers, big development projects forced entire population to migrate to the cities in order to survive. The emergence nuclear families are also reason for the appointment of domestic workers to look after house hold tasks. India does not include domestic workers in the minimum wage legislation (ILO, 2010).

Varia and Becker (2012) domestic work is not recognized as work and is not included in government legislations and labour rights, especially in developing countries. Many countries exclude standard agreements on the level of minimum wage and the amount of working hours for domestic work. Within the domestic worker industry, stories of immoral working conditions, exploitation and verbal, physical and sexual assaults are often disclosed by media reports, labour and migrant organizations (ILO 2010: 25-36). Problems for domestic workers range from non- or underpayment of wages, long working hours, limited or no time off, no personal space within the household to serious harassments such as emotional abuse, physical violence.
J.Y. Suchitra and D. Rajasekhar (2006) found the difference in the extent of employment security faced by different occupational groups within the unorganised sector and the factors influencing the same. They argued that a one-size-fits-all policy for the entire unorganised sector would be inadequate because of its failure to address the sector-specific needs of workers. They defined employment security as primarily the availability of employment and the workers’ perception of the short fall of employment that they have faced. They found the determinants – sex, age, skill and average wages of workers, prerequisites they get from employers and the position of their households with respect to human development indicators, of the extent of employment security of agricultural workers. They expressed the area of residence, human development, average wages and age of workers as the determinants of the employment security of the construction workers.

The Ministry of Labour and Emoloyment (2008) conducted a survey in six states namely Assam, Tamil Nadu, West Bengal, Kerala, Karnataka and Tripura to assess the socio-economic conditions of women labour in plantation industry during the period September – October, 2008. The survey was conducted in 4 plantations viz. tea, coffee, rubber and cardamom. The survey was conducted in all the major plantation growing states. For tea plantations the states of Assam, Tamil Nadu, West Bengal, Kerala, and Tripura had been covered. In case of coffee, Tamil Nadu,
Kerala and Karnataka had been taken. The units under the rubber plantations were covered in Tamil Nadu, Karnataka, Kerala and Tripura and under the cardamom plantation these were covered from Tamil Nadu and Kerala. A two stage sampling design was adopted for the survey during which a total of 132 unit level and 827 worker level schedules were canvassed.

Until 2006 all labour legislations in India were inapplicable to the unorganized sector and domestic workers because of the rigid definitions of terms such as ‘establishment’, ‘worker’ and ‘employer’. The amendments made in 2006 to the Child Labour (Prohibitions and Regulation) Act 1986, was the first instance of recognizing domestic work as ‘work’ which could be hazardous for children. However, this act talks about domestic workers and servants. The distinction between the two is not clear. Work done in a household would include work such as driving, which is considered skilled but done for a household and performed outside the home. Such drivers receive higher wages than women who perform skilled jobs within employers’ home. Thus classification of work is also important (Vasanthi, 2011).

Every state decides individually on laws about domestic workers. For decades, groups like the National Domestic Workers' Movement have campaigned for recognition of domestic work as a form of labour. The diligence and persistence of such groups has resulted in some States
initiating legislation. For instance, both Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka have included domestic workers in the legal provisions for minimum wage. Tamil Nadu has included domestic work in the Manual Labour Act and in January 2007 set up the Domestic Workers' Welfare Board. Kerala has taken some steps in this direction, as have Bihar and Rajasthan. The Central government has included domestic workers in provisions under the Unorganised Sector Workers' Social Security Act that was passed in January last year. And now Maharashtra has passed its own law (Sharma, 2009).

Booth 1995: Early definitions describe trade unions generally as organizations that only aim for bargaining power in order to raise workers’ wages. This view has transformed within the course of the 20th century. Trade unions are now more broadly concerned, which is reflected in the ILO’s definition, stating that a trade union is “an organization of employees usually associated beyond the confines of one enterprise, established for protecting or improving through collective action, the economic and social status of its members.” Trade unions have more functions than merely seeking income improvement for workers.

Gurowitz (2000) The problem for female migrants is their migrant status. In Malaysia, migrant workers face more legal limitations and exclusion. They are defined as non-Malaysians, which leave them more
vulnerable. In case of undocumented migration, female migrants run the risk of imprisonment and deportation to their home country. In case of documented migration, female migrants still face problems with recruitment agencies and employers taking possession of their legal and travel documentation. Either way, the fear of job loss, and subsequently the loss of their in-house accommodation, makes the MDWs dependent on employers. Maltreatment is often not reported and legal proceedings are prolonged with often disappointing outcomes. In most cases, female migrants have neither the means nor the opportunity to remain in the country during these legal proceedings.

Chen Kung-Hung’s (2011a-2011c, Chen, 2008) research is different from the previous studies because he advocates: the original existence of the urban business district and its’ surrounding communities’ local community residents and shop owners, their original life style and shop’s mode of operation will change because immigration of different cultural groups, will bring influence and change on its culture and space, their way of presenting changes of lives, culture and space are called the “result” of “transnational space” or “divided space”. Under the concept of “transnational space” or “divided space”, the paper focuses on the attitudes of local community residents and shop owners toward the impacts of immigration of different cultural groups, of urban space parti-tioning and it also explains the degrees of “partitioning of urban space”. It emphasis the main research orientation on “urban bu- siness district’s migrant workers
gathering caused partitioning of urban space phenomenon”, it’s an innovative area of re-search, which is worthy of attention.

**Huimin Du and Si-ming Li (2010),** have been observing China’s economic reform and the process of urbanization. In recent years, millions of migrant workers came from the countryside to the big cities in China, and they have become an important part of the labor force of the cities, and eventually shaped the so-called “urban villages”. In this development trend, both of them focus on the “urban villages” laborers’ socio-economic background, life satisfaction, living environments etc., to describe the situations in detail, and at the same time use “community satisfaction” and “community contacts” to explore the emotions of these “urban villages” laborer’s emotions about the community.

**According to Sathya Sundaram (1987),** the workers in unorganized sector remain unprotected by law. They are the most vulnerable section of the society and they enjoy no job or income security with little bargaining power. The unorganized sector is divided in to institutionalized and non-institutionalized sectors. The non-institutionalized unorganized sector comprises workers doing casual work like domestic workers, sweepers, scavengers etc. A key factor in the growth of informal activity in most developing regions has been the plummeting value of wages. The informal sector has not only offered the possibility of work to the unemployed, but has permitted survival of
many households with wage earners. Some division of labour exists between formal and informal sectors on the basis of gender. It has been suggested that women tend to stay within the informal sector because of the flexibility of working arrangements and diversity of opportunities.

Bulgovind Baboo and Laxmi Panwar (1989) have studied the maid servants in Hariana. The study emphasizes that they are leading a miserable life. They suffer from low wage, long hours of work, shift in nature of job, lack of freedom and low prestige due to inferior status of the job. Due to lack of coordination their children are neglected and familial relations become tense. The fragmented nature of their job, lack of education and low bargaining capacity refrain them from organizing collectively. According to the Report on Working Condition of Domestic Servants in Delhi by the Ministry of Labour, Government of India, nearly 90 per cent of domestic workers are women.

Dhanalakshmi (1989) pointed out some general issues concerning women in labour market. The issues include the segregation of women in to certain occupation, wage differentials between men and women for the same job, low and falling work participation rates of women etc. She made an attempt to study the domestic servants in Thiruvananthapuram city. The socio economic conditions of domestic servants and the need of servants in city have been studied.

Glenn (1992) said that domestic workers have always been
amongst the most exploited workers. They are channeled into paid domestic work on the basis of several axes of differentiation - race, class, and gender - which are reflective and generative of social stratification more broadly.

Khan and Shahnaz (2000) based on Labour Force Survey 1996-97 reached to the conclusion that rural to urban direction reverse to urban-urban direction. Observed a higher (46.2 percent) percentage of such households analyzing data, the difference in result may be due to different data sets. Their study is based on PSES Survey 2001 that covers both intra-district and inter-district migration. NSSO (2001) documented that the 55th round of NSS of 1999-00 was the first to cover short-duration migration defined as: “persons staying away from usual place of residence for 60 days or more for employment or better employment or in search of employment”. It estimates that roughly 1% of the Indian population or 10 million people migrated temporarily. Sharma (2001) described that Rapid Assessment on child domestic laborers’ carried out in Nepal have reinforced that there is a preference for hiring younger children for domestic work. This is mostly due to the fact that salaries increase with age and that teenagers and adults are perceived to be more difficult to manage for employers.

Srivastava (2003) stated that migration for construction work has brought economic gains and freedom for many but has also brought
incredible hardship and personal risk. Many analysts have concluded that it is coping at best and does not result in any long term accumulation for the poor. and described that unlike countries in Southeast Asia and East Asia, the bulk of the migrant workforce in India has little or no education.

**Shah and Sah (2004)** reported that On the whole migration among poor tribal’s in southern MP may be helping the households to maintain their standard of living rather than breaking away from poverty: he collected qualitative data from 212 households in a village in Bhadwani district in southern MP shows that migration helped landless households to maintain their standard of living over a decade.

**Galotti (2004)** stated that one of the most striking changes in domestic work in the past 30 years has been the growing prevalence of migrant work. In several regions, including Europe and the Gulf countries and the Middle East, the majority of domestic laborers’ today are migrant women. idealized that employer ideologies that construct domestics as ‘one of the family,’ and social ideologies that refuse to recognize domestic labour as real work, mitigate against domestics’ understanding of themselves as ‘workers,’ and therefore unionization. Even when domestics can overcome these ideological mystifications, possibilities for collective mobilization based on a worker identity are limited given the “personal nature of the employer-employee relationship”, and “the
worker’s extreme dependence on the employer” ILO (2004) reported, more than 2 million children are found in domestic labour in South Africa, 559,000 in Brazil, 250,000 in Haiti, 200,000 in Kenya, 264,000 in Pakistan, 100,000 in Sri Lanka, 300,000 in Bangladesh, 62,000 under the age of 14 in Nepal, and 20% of all children under the age of 14 in India.

Anderson and Rogaly (2005) documented that Services provided by franchises and agencies for example are arguably easier to commodity because they do not involve personalized relation between householder and worker, the worker may not technically be an employee of the householder at all but is self-employed or an agency worker. This does not mean that workers employed under such circumstances are protected from exploitation. Sub-contracting chains are rife within the commercial cleaning sector, and the person at the end of a long sub-contracting chain may often be in an extremely exploitative relation with the person above them on whom they depend for work. Unemployment rates for women are approximately 50 percent higher than those for men. According to World Bank statistics, only 41% of women versus 73% of men are either working or looking for work.

Balisacan and Ducanes (2005) Although significant in recent years, growth has been unequal in India characterized by industry in developed states such as Gujarat, Maharashtra and Punjab drawing labour from agriculturally backward and poor regions such as eastern Uttar
Pradesh, Bihar, southern Madhya Pradesh, western Orissa and southern Rajasthan. High productivity agricultural areas (‘green revolution areas’) continue to be important destinations, but rural urban migration is the fastest growing type of migration as more migrants choose to work in better paying non-farm occupations in urban areas and industrial zones. Delhi and the states of Gujarat and Maharashtra are top destinations for inter-state migrant labour. Labour mobility has grown and will probably continue to grow once the economy recovers from the current crisis.

Dubey et al (2006) argue on the basis of their analysis of the 1999-2000 round of the NSS that individuals from scheduled castes and scheduled tribes and those with little or no education are less likely to migrate to urban areas. The proposed removing the special immigration category for domestic workers. Instead, employers would have been expected to look to the resident UK workforce or EEA nationals for such staff. The only proposed alternative was that these people may have been able to come to the UK as ‘business visitors’ for up to six months, which does not lead to settlement. If there was evidence of a shortage of workers, the Government would consider setting up a scheme for domestic workers under Tier 3 of the points-based system (which is for low-skilled workers, but has never been implemented).

Migrant Alliance (2007) The export of labor in Indonesia has become part of the country’s development plan in addressing poverty
recorded remittances sent by Indonesian migrant workers were up to U.S$ 5 billion. Despite this large contribution, Indonesian domestic workers’ rights are neglected both in their home country and abroad. Reports have surfaced that domestic workers are routinely underpaid, overworked, confined to the workplace, and subject to verbal, physical, and sexual abuse. In theory, human rights are supposed to be universal and applicable to all regardless of race and citizenship. However, political and economic interests, rooted in the legal and social structures of countries, have led to the rights violations, discrimination and exploitation of migrant domestic workers.

**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 potion that wide spread 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.

**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.

**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.

**Washer (2004)** has 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.

**Budlender (2011)** summarizes the reasons for domestic workers’ vulnerability: the similarity between paid domestic work and the unpaid care work; domestic workers are usually women and often child laborers; they often belong to historically disadvantaged communities, such as minority ethnic groups, indigenous peoples, low-caste, low-income groups, or are migrants. These attributes make them particularly vulnerable to discrimination in respect of conditions of employment and work. The ILO identifies domestic workers as ‘among the most vulnerable groups of workers’, and has recently operationalised the Domestic Workers
Convention, 2011 (No. 189) which aims to introduce decent work standards to address ‘deplorable working conditions, labour exploitation, and abuses of human rights’. The ILO estimates that globally, 29.9 per cent of domestic workers are excluded from national labour legislation, 45 per cent have no entitlement to weekly rest periods and paid annual leave, and more than a third of female domestic workers have no maternity protection.

Franz (2013) accuses governments in the Gulf countries of deliberately keeping the Khafala system outside the scope of regulation as a way to trap migrant domestic workers in bonded-labour like conditions and prevent unionization and bargaining. She analyses the migration of Sri Lankan domestic workers as a system of bonded labour facilitated both by the Sri Lankan government, with its policies and institutions to encourage the migration of unskilled women, and the governments of Jordan and other countries in the Middle East, who benefit from cheap foreign labour. Jureidini and Moukarbel (2006) have coined the term ‘contract slavery’ to describe the situation of Sri Lankan migrant domestic workers in the Middle East, which they compare to trafficking in human labour. They view both the Sri Lankan government and the Lebanese government as two sides of the system: the Sri Lankan government facilitates the ‘export’ of domestic labour to earn foreign revenue for the country while Lebanese policies allow workers to be employed in exploitative conditions.
Drawing Rogaly’s (2009) work with low-skilled workers in India, we regard the act of migration itself as a manifestation of agency. The literature reviewed here is highly lacking in this regard and offers little explanation of why people are choosing to migrate into working conditions that are widely considered degrading, dangerous and exploitative. There are clearly choices being made and trade-offs being considered between working conditions and financial and social benefits, in the quest for a better life in the longer term, but the Literature does not address these adequately. Only one paper by O’Neill (2007), based on interviews with Nepali migrant domestic workers in the Gulf, appears to follow this line of reasoning. By gaining a deeper understanding of the migration decision made by these women, O’Neill completely rejects the notion that migrant domestic workers are victims of trafficking and instead shows how they are trying to take control of their destinies through migration. He feels that legislation to protect them against such migration is actually Harming them and their families by keeping them out of Nepal’s increasingly important remittance economy.

The paternalistic nature of this relationship established by daily workers, caregivers or janitors with their employers that personalizes employer-employee relations and gives it a familial character accords employers the opportunity of perceiving the definition of domestic services in broad terms together with Practices associated with this broad definition. Especially by in cash and in kind assistance, employers may ask workers to
do some additional works that are not specified earlier. This paternalistic relationship enables domestic workers and caregivers, on the other hand, to act more freely in the house and behave autonomously to a certain extent in doing the housework. It can be said that employers make domestic workers work more intensively and for longer hours not by force or any despotic ways but on the basis of consent (Sugur et.al. 2008).

Women’s participation to labour force is not only limited; for those who participate, irregular and unprotected forms of employment are dominant. Uneducated and unqualified women work Unprotected in agriculture as unpaid family workers, as domestic workers, in service sectors, as Workshop toilers in manufacturing industry and as home workers or self-employed. The social security System in Turkey has a structure that excludes women in atypical work. In spite of various recent Arrangements to include in the social protection system part-time or temporary workers as well, this avenue is hard to access due to various reasons including low earning levels of atypical workers, high levels of social security contributions expected to be eligible for insurance benefits and long terms of compulsory contribution (Karadeniz, 2011).

As a result of family-centered welfare regime women’s participation to employment is low in Turkey. There is limited demand for female labour force and its supply is also limited. Since welfare is ensured through household and care services expected from women, they socially are not
approved to engage in wage work outside the home unless economic circumstances force them to do so. As a result of patriarchal control on women’s labour, it is up to men’s decision how women would work either at home or outside. Of course this situation varies with respect to women from different social classes and strata. Urban women of middle and upper classes have their chances of education and working in specialized professions. However, fields of work are limited for uneducated and unqualified women from lower classes; so there ought to be jobs that are “fit” for women and where they do not share the same spaces with men (Toksoz, 2012).

Another factor for the declining trend in Thai child domestic workers has to do with the lack of appeals of the job itself. Both ILO-IPEC and FCD studies indicated that most children and young people do not find working as domestic workers an attractive option, especially when they have access to a higher level of education. Young Thai domestic workers interviewed found domestic work to be boring, repetitive and endless so they preferred to work in shops, restaurant or factories where they can have more freedom. Some of them also wanted to continue their education so that they could have a better and more secured job. The study by Foundation for Child Development pointed out that young Thai workers who took up domestic work were often first-time migrants with limited or no network and hence, they did not have much alternative for job choices. However, with the
changing situation, it would be more difficult now to find Thai children below 18 for domestic work. In fact, one village leader in the IPEC study pointed out that domestic work will become the job for older women with little education since most of them would not have much alternative for other types of employment. Beside this, there is also a clear trend that migrants have been replacing Thai child workers for domestic work.

Social Research Institute’s study is useful in providing an insight into general trend and characteristics of domestic workers, there are other studies which contained in-depth interviews with domestic workers including caregivers of elderly and children. One of such study is the research on Forms and Service Conditions of Agencies Providing Domestic Workers carried out by Foundation for Child Development which included interviews with 31 women who worked as domestic workers. However, the majority of the women interviewed in this study (19 persons) had a job as cleaners in office buildings or in offices belonging to the government or private companies. The second largest group was made up of live-in caregivers of elderly people (7 persons); three women worked as office helpers and only two of them were domestic helpers in private homes who had two roles, i.e. taking care of children or the elderly and doing domestic work (cleaning, laundering, etc.). Although this desk review focuses on domestic work in private households, it would be useful to understand the overall context and perception of women who have taken up the “housekeeping” and “care giving” jobs as they are in the same continuum of
informal sector work with possible movement from one type of work to another.

**According to Kiran Moghe (2000)** almost 400 million people - more than 85% of the working population in India - work in the unorganized sector. Of these, at least 120 million are women. The Arjun Sengupta Committee Report (2006) is a stark reminder of the huge size and poor conditions in this sector. A subsequent draft Bill to provide security to workers, which bypasses regulatory measures and budgetary provisions, has generated intense debate. Workers engaged in the unorganized sector do not have the benefit of several laws such as the Minimum Wages Act or the Factories Act. They are also not covered by statutory welfare measures such as maternity benefits, provident fund, gratuity, etc, all of which were put in place after intense struggles by the Indian working class in the pre- and post-Independence period. Two National Labour Commissions, along with several other international and national commissions, committees and conferences in the last 50 years have documented the socioeconomic conditions of workers in the unorganized sector in India. The latest is the National Commission for Enterprises in the Unorganized Sector (NCEUS), also known as the Arjun Sengupta Committee, which submitted its report to the Government of India in 2006. According to the 1989 Shramshakti report there were at that time 16.8 lakh female domestic workers in the country where the presence of male domestic workers was negligible. The same
picture is also observed in Kolkata (Banerjee 1985) though no proper study has been done recently on female domestic workers.

The unorganized sector is divided into institutionalized and non-institutionalized sectors. The non-institutionalized unorganized sector comprises workers doing casual work like domestic workers, sweepers, scavengers etc. A key factor in the growth of informal activity in most developing regions has been the plummeting value of wages. The informal sector has not only offered the possibility of work to the unemployed, but has permitted survival of many households with wage earners. Some division of labour exists between formal and informal sectors on the basis of gender. It has been suggested that women tend to stay within the informal sector because of the flexibility of working arrangements and diversity of opportunities (Susan 1994).

According to ILO (2010), of total domestic workers in the country in 2009-10, more than two thirds lived in urban India and 57 per cent of them were women. This is a lower rate of female involvement in this type of employment than in many other countries, and reflects the combination of several forces: the long history in India of the affluent employing domestic servants, which created aspirations of such hiring patterns also among the newly affluent; low employment generation in other activities as well as uncertain household income generation prospects that have increased the supply of such workers and changes in income distribution and GDP
growth patterns that have created a new middle class that is able to afford to demand such workers. Not only is this activity becoming more feminized, but it is becoming more important in the total employment of women, especially in urban India where domestic work accounts for a growing and increasingly significant share of the total employment of women (Chandrasekhar and Ghosh).

**Johnson A.G. (2004)** has described the characteristic features of patriarchy “a society is patriarchal to the degree that it promotes male privilege by being male dominated, male identified and male centered. It is also organized around an obsession with control and involves as one of its key pacts the oppression of women.” Men become an oppressive authority. Women are supported to organize their lives around men’s desires and needs. Men maintain their privilege by control and oppression of women.

**Mathur (2004)** for a woman negating the self in the cause of the family and community becomes her prime concern and responsibility. Throughout her life cycle she is socialized into accepting her lower status. Even if she is subjected to extreme discrimination or physical violence she accepts it as her fate. Hence the women’s body is continuously made to fit and mould to societal expectations with severe denial of rights, her bodily integrity constantly violated.
In India and probably the world over domestic violence perpetrated against women by partners and close family members continues to remain a matter of silent suffering within the four walls of the home….. The phenomenon of intimate violence against women is typically identified as a private matter, made invisible by society and kept under wraps because of concerns of guilt, shame and secrecy. The norms that perpetuate silence and the stigma around domestic violence in family and community setting parameter to the formal institutional response as well. (Nandita Bhalla and Anuradha Rajan 2003).

Vindhya (2002) describe violence in broader context. She state violence, whether domestic or in any other form, is not merely an act of physical force, perpetuated against women. It covers the entire gamut of exploitation, discrimination maintaining unequal economic and social structures and creation of an atmosphere of terror and threat all of which are supported and maintained by socio-economic context of power relations.

Shaifali Sandhya (2009) points out that 94 percent of Indian couples say (falsely) that they are happy in their relationship but a majority of them say that they would not marry the same person if they had a chance to replay their lives. One third of Indian couples say that they are dissatisfied with their sex life, most couples call the early years of their marriage the honeymoon years. For Indian couples they are usually the worst.
Molestation and cruelty within homes by husband and relatives emprises the largest kind of violence toward women.

According to Dewan (2005), the monthly income is affected by the fact that while wages are calculated on a daily basis it is paid only monthly. Only six days of the week are taken into account and the compulsory holiday in the week is unpaid. As has been noted in earlier studies most of the workers worked for more than eight hours a day. The overtime wages added little to the monthly income because it was really an extension of the working day from ten hours to twelve hours. The extra two hours were recorded in 16 a register and when this added up to a full working of ten hours an extra day’s wage was received. The overtime, therefore, did not increase the wages but merely added to a normal work-day.

James Midgley (1984) analyzed the role of social security schemes in developing countries from an egalitarian angle and found that the prevailing Social Security Schemes in developing countries cover only a small portion of the total labour force and majority of the workers working in the unorganized sector are excluded. He argues that unless the Social Security Schemes are extended to cover informal workers as well, it would accentuate the existing inequalities.

Wadhavan, S. K. (1989) while studying the social security for informal workers in India found that developing countries are too poor to
replicate the complex and expensive programme of social insurance and income maintenance that now form the backbone of social security schemes in the rich countries.

Amartya Sen and Jean Dreze (1990) state that security of needs like food, health care, housing and child care, is empowering for vulnerable unorganized sector workers and helps them to alter their bargaining positions in the market.

The 2nd Asian Pacific seminar on Construction Workers Problems and Future Tasks (2004) made an attempt to bring out many information covering the entire Asia-Pacific Regional problems of construction industry, workers, activities of trade unions and published a booklet on the problems of construction workers covering various aspects like attack of liberal policies on organized sector and unorganized sector, occupational health and safety problems and problems and solutions of migrant labour. The globalization in all its manifestations continues to have a dramatic impact in the Asia-Pacific region, and construction industry like other finds itself under external pressures and subject to changes. The seminar also discussed the impact of new technologies in the construction sector and found that rapid technological change, which occurred in our country, has been uneven creating some socio-employment consequences.

Jayasree S (1994) examined the socio economic and health status of women construction workers in the unorganized sector and found the
impact of the welfare measures implemented by the government and the extent of union participation among them. Women in this sector suffer more due to their powerlessness, immobility and lack of bargaining power.