CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Different researchers have conducted studies on working and non-working women. Some have related it to role perception, role playing, employment, education and other areas.

Locke and Mack (1949) conducted a study on marital adjustment and employed wife and found that there was no significance of difference between the marital adjustment of working women engaged in full time employment and non-working women engaged in full time home making.
Kala (1986) conducted a study on personality development and adjustment of pre-adolescent children born to working and non-working women and found that the girls of working women were better adjusted at home than those of non-working group.

Sharma (1986) conducted a study on the children of the working and non-working mothers. The results revealed that the children of non-working mothers were excited, tender-hearted, sensitive, dependent and more protected.

Sabhavathmma (1989) conducted a study on educated working women and found that due to dual responsibility married working women expressed that they faced difficulties in meeting demands of both profession and family. There was a clash of personal interests between the spouses, which had been experienced by a majority of the respondents.

Hot Jujats (1990) conducted study on working women’s perception on their self and environment in relation to job and life satisfaction and found that women in skilled labour
were found satisfied than women in semi-skilled and unskilled jobs.

Vasti (1990) conducted a study on attitudes of women towards women's education and found that women of different occupations, income groups, and age level had a favourable attitude towards women's education.

Dua (1991) conducted a study on adjustment familial role expectations, and modernization of working and non-working women and found that working women yielded significantly higher mean values as compared to their non-working counter parts on the variables of emotional adjustment.

Upmanyn Kalpana (1991) conducted a study of marital adjustment of working and non-working women in relation to certain socio-psychological variables and found that women in Rajasthan had a more favourable attitude towards marriage as compared to women of Uttar Pradesh.

Das, et. al (1992) conducted a study on need achievement as related to type A/B behaviour patterns among working and non-working women and found that there is no significant
difference between type "A" behaviour pattern of working and non-working women.

Over the past decade, an increasing number of women have started working outside their homes. A number of studies have considered several aspects of women workers: their activities (i.e. Buttner, 2001); career selection (Matthews and Moser, 1996; Scherer, Brodzinski and Wiebe, 1990); work-


home, role conflict (Stoner, Hartman and Arora\textsuperscript{6}, 1990); gender and ownership patterns (Rosa and Hamilton\textsuperscript{7}, 1994); entrepreneurial attitudes and skills (Sexton and Bowman-Upton\textsuperscript{8}, 1990); perceptions about work (Hisrich, Koiranen and Hyrski\textsuperscript{9}, 1996).


1996); education (Dolinsky, Caputo, Parsumarty and Quazi\(^10\), 1993; Hisrich and Brush\(^11\), 1983); and networking patterns (Aldrich, Reese and Dubini\(^12\), 1989; Andre\(^13\), 1992; Carsrud, 1989).


Gaglio and Olin\textsuperscript{14}, 1986; Cromie and Birley\textsuperscript{15}, 1992). The majority of these studies compared male and female workers. While these studies show the differences between working and non working women, collectively they fail to clarify the unique dimensions of women workers. The studies reviewed in this chapter are as under:


Lingam\textsuperscript{16} (2005) reviewed working and non-working women over the past one and half decades with a focus on different continents and different communities in diverse societies. The literature showed a broad consensus regarding the determinants of women’s work, increase in women’s public domain work as a strategy for survival of households, the mutual accommodation of markets and gender ideology in service of each other. The stubbornness, with which gender division of work and gender relations within households remains unchanging, is demonstrated in most studies. A woman as resource for globalizing capital which simultaneously incorporates women’s work but also undermines its significance was apparent through the literature.

When women began to make inroads into the managerial and professional ranks in the mid-1960s, conventional wisdom held that career success would bring with it a host of

work-related health problems. Job stress, it maintained, would leave women as ravaged by high blood pressure and heart attacks as men. A new finding appears to put such concerns to rest. North Carolina researchers have found no overall increase in women's blood pressure to go along with their increased presence in the workplace. In fact, professional women enjoy lower blood pressure than women who stay at home. "Basically, the theory that job stress will make women as susceptible to cardiovascular disease as men doesn't bear out," says study author Kathryn Rose of the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill School of Public Health. Rose and her colleagues used data from the National Health Examination Survey of 1960 and the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey of 1976 to 1980. In the 1960 study, 64 percent of the 2,500 women surveyed listed their occupation as homemaker. Working white women filled predominantly sales and clerical positions. Black women, who reported higher employment rates, had largely domestic jobs. Sixteen years later, 54 percent of the 3,800 women surveyed worked, about one-quarter of them as managers and professionals. This dramatic difference in employment patterns led Rose's team to compare blood pressure readings for the two sets of women. In the 1960 survey, the researchers saw only a
very small trend toward higher blood pressure in working women. In comparison, women in the later survey had lower overall blood pressure, regardless of employment status. However, as Rose reported at the annual meeting of the Society for Epidemiologic Research in Snowbird, Utah, last week, the decrease was more pronounced, at 23 percent, among working women than nonworking women, who experienced a 4 percent decrease. “Overall, the working women had lower blood pressures than those who were not employed,” says Rose. Seventeen percent fewer working women suffered high blood pressure than women who stayed at home.

Mubarak et. al (1991)^1^ conducted a cross-sectional case-control study comparing working women employed by the Women’s Work Centres of the Orangi Pilot Project with nonworking matched controls. Differences in the knowledge, attitude and practice of several variables were elicited. Working women's

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families had significantly higher immunization rates, 73 per cent vs 55 per cent, and shorter duration of illness, 5.9 days vs 8.8 days, compared to controls. More working than non-working women supported contraception, 100 per cent vs 74 per cent, desired equal education for sons and daughters (P less than 0.005), and had a dominant role in family health decision-making, 48 per cent vs 12 per cent. The study concluded that these working women in Orangi had a different set of beliefs and practices than non-working women and this may be one important factor responsible for the lower morbidity in their children.

Seachrist (1995)\textsuperscript{18} separated the women into two age groups, 25 to 44 and 45 to 64. Among the older group, working and nonworking women in the later survey registered lower blood pressure than women in the earlier one. Looking at the younger groups, the prevalence of hypertension had increased for stay-at-home women in the second survey. High blood pressure increased by 15.3 percent among young, nonworking black women and by 1.7 percent among young, nonworking white women.

women. The researcher questioned link between hypertension and employment. The condition is far more closely related to weight, high-sodium diets, and alcohol. Other studies show that workers are healthier than non-workers. The study agrees that higher blood pressure among the stay-at-home women may result in part from the healthy worker effect—that is, health problems may keep these women out of the workplace.

Rabbani (1999)\textsuperscript{19} proven through his study that risk and benefits of having multiple roles, the emotional problems and complaints of housewives are understandable. Their anxiety and other emotional problems could be related to their monotonous life, lack of independence and social support, a sense of insecurity regarding marital life, etc. The most common contributory factors which may lead to mental distress in non-working women are low family income, dispute among spouses, verbal abuse by in-laws and too many children. The objective of this study was to observe the presence of anxiety in working and non-working women with reference to their education, family system and the number of their children.

Mukhopadhyay (2000)\textsuperscript{20} observed that the problems and difficulties of working women are multidimensional and may be broadly classified into three types – environmental, social and psychological.

Ahmad (2002)\textsuperscript{21} analyzed research on the impact of work on mothers' health in Tehran (Iran) within a role analytic framework. A survey was conducted with a representative sample of working and non-working mothers in Tehran in 1998 (N = 1065, 710 working mothers, and 355 non-working mothers). Three main explanatory factors were examined (socio-demographic, work and work-related, and social-life context variables) alongside a range of mental and physical health outcome variables. Unlike in the West, where women's paid work was generally associated with better health, statistically significant differences between working and non-working women were not found in Tehran. It was argued


that this was a result of the counter-balance of the positive and negative factors associated with paid work, such as increased stress on one hand and self-esteem on the other. Iranian society's particular socio-cultural climate had contributed to this finding, with its dominant gender-role ideology; the priority and extra weight placed on women's traditional roles as wives and mothers, and the remarkably influential impact of husbands' attitudes on women's health.

Lim, et.al. (2002) identified socio-demographic, work, living arrangement and lifestyle factors associated with morbidity of electronics women workers in selected factories in Selangor, Malaysia. The research design was a cross-sectional questionnaire-based survey. Most of the 401 respondents were young single Malay women. Morbidity was high than non-working women, as 85.5 per cent of the women reported experiencing at

least one chronic health problem, and 25.7 per cent said that an illness or injury prevented them from carrying out normal activities within the last two weeks. Major acute illness symptoms were the common cold, backache, and diarrhoea while chronic health problems such as persistent headache, eye problems, menstrual problems, and persistent backache were also reported. After logistic regression, chronic health problems significantly associated with room sharing; while illness that prevented normal activities within the last two weeks was significantly associated with overtime work and exercise.

Helmy and Ahmad (2002) presented self report measures of health promotion activities and demographic variables of working women and housewives. A sample of 516 female clients (283 of housewives and 233 of working women) were chosen from nine different out patient clinics offering health services to

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women in Tanta city. Three structured questionnaire sheets were used, namely: (1) Health promoting life style questionnaire (HPLQ), (2) Health value scale (HVS), and (3) self-efficacy. The results showed that a minority of housewives and working women groups correctly tended to practice more health promotion activities. However, the total mean scores of working women were slightly higher (362.03 +/- 33.55 out of 522) than that among housewives group (332.77 +/- 31.18). Multiple regression analysis indicated a significant correlation between women scores regarding most of the studied items related to self reported health promotion activities and demographic variables. Higher education (p = 0.004), family income (p = 0.005), and duration of marriage (p = 0.031) were associated significantly with working women who sought more health promotion activities, while education (p = 0.003) and family income (p = 0.028) were associated significantly with housewives group. Finally, the present study proved that work of women (p = 0.000) significantly related to the practice of health promotion behaviours.
Thoits (2002) reported that traditional role theories suggest that women who are trying to maintain several roles would be expected to experience negative stressful feelings. In contrast, more recent theories suggest that individuals may profit from enacting multiple roles. Performing several roles may increase individual's privileges and resources in their social environment, assist in establishing social and economic status and security, act as a buffer for problems or families in any single life domain, and enhance feelings of self-worth. Recent studies of the risk and benefits of having multiple roles indicate that people who had more social roles experience less psychological distress and mental illness.

Linville (2003) observed that joining the business life outside home is an extra burden for women who have already

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been responsible for baby-sitting (child rearing) and other household chores. From this aspect, working women are expected to have more psychological symptoms. However, the studies carried out in various countries show that it is not the case. Working has a positive psychological influence on women especially those from the lower socioeconomic class. In a comparison of working and non-working women, the study showed a positive statistically significant relationship between the 'health score' and 'anxiety score'.

Harpham (2004) observed that majority of housewives presented with anxiety had low education. Researchers have already established the role of formal education in developing psychiatric disorders. It has been observed that lack of formal education is a major risk factor for developing psychiatric disorders as it is felt that education provides coping mechanisms in more than one way. It raises self-efficacy, makes us feel less sensitively in situations and gives a greater sense of control over

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environment. It is concluded from the study that non-working women suffer more from anxiety as compared to working women. The main contributory factors could be their low education, their involvement in less number of roles, and their familial and social status in general. It is suggested that women should be encouraged to concentrate on enhancing their formal educational level and should participate in more social roles to avoid the risk of developing anxiety.

Iqbal et al. (2004) studies the presence of anxiety in working and non-working women with reference to their education, family system and the number of their children. A purposive sample of 50 working women and 50 non-working women was taken. Both groups were matched on their age, education, occupation and socioeconomic background. Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale was administered on all women to assess their anxiety. They were also interviewed to record the

demographic information. Anxiety was observed in 57 per cent of sampled women; 74 per cent of non-working women and 36 per cent of working women had anxiety. A statistically significant association between anxiety in women and education and number of their children was found. No significant association was observed between women’ anxiety and their family system. It was concluded that all non-working women should be supported morally and socially to spare some time for their entertainment and pleasurable activities outside homes to distract the monotony of routine work.

Kekker, et. al (2007) studied the variation of the menopause rating scale (MRS) scores with age, working/non-working and educated/uneducated status in a cohort of north-Indian subpopulation and to look for the possible reasons for the incurred variations. MRS is a well-known and validated instrument

for assessing the frequency and intensity of menopausal symptoms. A menopause clinic was organized in collaboration with a primary care centre (under the guidance of a gynaecologist). A random sample of 208 women aged 35-65 years participated in the study. The MRS scale, a self-administered standardized questionnaire was applied with additional patient related information (age at menopause, level of education, working/non-working and exercising or not). The results were evaluated for psychological (P), somatic (S), and urogenital (U) symptoms. The average age at which menopause set in, in the cohort was found to be 48.7+-2.3 years (46.4-51 years). Based on the average age at the menopause, the cohort was divided into p123 (35-45), menopausal/early menopause (46-51) and the postmenopausal (52-65) groups. A significantly higher per cent of p123 menopausal women (36 per cent) showed a P score of >/=7; while a higher per cent of postmenopausal showed S score and U score >/=7 (>40 per cent; p<0.001). Working women seem to suffer more from psychological symptoms whereas non-working women showed a greater incidence of somatic symptoms. Educated women showed a lower incidence of psychological and somatic symptoms. The study indicated that age, level of education and working/non-working status (in a
group of women with same socio-cultural background) may also contribute to significant variations in menopausal symptoms.

**Adjustments among Working and Non-working Women**


to their adjustment approaches. These studies did not view the impact of adjustment on working women as necessarily negative. This approach focused on women's sectoral representation and emphasised the constraints to women's work. Constraints on women's flexibility hindered the success of adjustment in working and non-working women. Typically, the constraints on women's work reallocation cited include labour market discrimination; lack of education; limited access to credit or other inputs; and reproductive responsibilities. Thus, the argument was that countervailing policies are needed to facilitate the optimal allocation of women's work (from an efficiency perspective) under adjustment.

Demas (1990)\textsuperscript{33} identified diabetes as a source of psychological stress among non-working women than working women. Factors of stress were different for different occupations and vary according to the women's psychological maturity.


Hirata and Humphrey (1990)\textsuperscript{34} found that economically active women in Sao Paolo were three times as likely to be unemployed as men (31 per cent versus 11 per cent), although more skilled women were less likely to be unemployed. The mean period of unemployment for women was also longer (11.6 months versus 8.2 or 8.8 months for men).

\textsuperscript{34} Hirata, H. and Humphrey, J., 1990. \textit{Male and female workers and economic recession in Brazil.}, (Version 3, July 1990), mimeo, paper prepared for ICRW project: \textit{Weathering economic crises: women's economic responses to recession in Latin America and the Caribbean.}
Commonwealth Secretariat (1991\textsuperscript{35} and 1993\textsuperscript{36}) disaggregated the impact of adjustment on women in terms of four major roles (producers, mothers, household managers, community organisers). Emphases on the pressures on women's time and energy, brought about under adjustment as they strive to continue fulfilling these roles with reduced incomes and support. Various strategies were detrimental to women or other household members e.g. reduced feeding; withdrawal of girls from school, and some were in the nature of collective self-help initiatives e.g. communal kitchens; savings and loan associations, which were deployed by women to deal with the effects of adjustment at


\textsuperscript{36} Commonwealth Secretariat, 1993, *Mitigating the social costs of adjustment: the vital role of transfers, safety nets and other social provisions*, paper for Commonwealth Secretariat Asian Regional Seminar on Structural Adjustment, Economic Change and Women, 5-8 January.
household and community levels. Women's involvement in informal sector work increased, with a deterioration of the position of women working in this sector. There was an increase in women's unpaid family labour in agriculture; and the small scale of women's independent operations (in agriculture and the informal sector) limits their ability to take advantage of new incentives. Joekes (1991a\textsuperscript{37}, 1991b\textsuperscript{38} and 1993\textsuperscript{39}) found that the female share of public service employment in developing countries is stable or rising slowly. In Botswana, there was a


\textsuperscript{38} Joekes, S., 1991b, .Women and structural adjustment: operational implications for the JCGP member agencies., (mimeo).

\textsuperscript{39} Joekes, S., 1993, .The influence of international trade expansion on women's work. Paper prepared for interdepartmental project on equality for women in employment. International Labour Organisation, Bridge Report No.16, Sussex: BRIDGE, IDS.
dramatic rise in the share of female employment, although this was probably one of the countries in sub-Saharan Africa least affected by adjustment. Also, data from Kenya showed that women’s share of public sector employment had increased consistently over the period 1970-90, with a jump from 21 to 26 per cent between 1985 and 1990, whereas the female share of private sector waged employment did not expand significantly between 1985 and 1990. However, in Latin America, public sector employment had only been affected by adjustment in the latter half of the 1980s, and even in sub-Saharan Africa, retrenchment (as opposed to freezes in recruitment or wages) had tended to come later rather than earlier in the adjustment process.

Lockwood (1992) used data from 1960 to the early 1980s to examine trends in female labour participation in manufacturing and their association with adjustment patterns. He found that developing countries which exported a rising proportion of their manufacturing output to the North, tended to employ an increasing

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40 Lockwood, M., 1992,. Engendering adjustment or adjusting gender: some new approaches to women and development in Africa., IDS Discussion Paper.
share of females in their manufacturing sectors. Of the 35 countries covered, over half increased the female intensity of their manufacturing sectors in the period - although a number of countries in Latin America showed falling female intensity in manufacturing. He also found (although the association is weaker) that countries with export-oriented manufacturing sectors tended to have female intensive manufacturing sectors. These findings cannot be directly related to the impact of adjustment, although they would seem to suggest that, where increased export-orientation follows devaluation and trade liberalization under adjustment, it may lead to more female intensive manufacturing.

Moser (1992)\(^4\) differentiated working and non-working women's responses to the pressures of adjustment within a low income community in Guayaquil, Ecuador, and found that factors such as the number of persons in the household in productive work; the stage in the household life cycle and the

\(^4\) Moser, C., 1992, *Adjustment from below: low income women, time and the triple role in Guayaquil, Ecuador*, in Afshar and Dennis.
number of other females (particularly daughters) involved in reproductive work, are important in determining which women enter the work force. The study also reveal that women are working longer hours than a decade previously in order to maintain the same incomes, and beginning work earlier (in relation to the age of their children).

Kanji and Jazdowska (1993)\textsuperscript{42} conducted a study on the impact of adjustment on women in Zimbabwe in mid-1991 and found that, in one particular district of Harare, the majority of women surveyed were engaged in some form of informal sector activity. Self-employment was also found to be highly gender segregated, with men commonly working as taxi drivers, whilst women worked mainly as seamstresses and knitters, and selling agricultural produce. Gender differentials in earnings did not appear to be particularly marked, with women’s earnings averaging Z$740 compared to men’s of Z$760 per month; however, most of the women who identified themselves as housewives were in fact engaging in regular or irregular income-

generating activities, with monthly incomes averaging Z$170 for regular activities and Z$44 for irregular ones. Six months later, a small sample follow-up survey found that the incomes from women's cash generating activities had fallen, due to higher outlay costs and lower demand; several women had given up their activities because they could no longer afford the initial outlay.

Baden (1993) attempted to provide a framework for the analysis of the impact of adjustment on women, including on their paid and unpaid work. Overall, the assessment of these studies was that the impact of adjustment on women, particularly poor women, was negative. However, these broken works had tended to rely heavily on a priori arguments, rather than rigorous empirical study. Moreover, little if any attempt was made to distinguish the effects of recession or longer term

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trends from adjustment. Overall assessments of the impact of adjustment on women stress the intensification of the trade off between women's producer and non-producer roles, leading to a squeeze on women's time and energy, with women bearing the hidden costs of adjustment. Other assessments focus on the constraints to women's labour mobility which may restrict their ability to benefit from new opportunities. Adjustment policies themselves may be worsening such constraints. Moreover, the new opportunities were in reality very limited for the majority of women.

Mostow (1995) compared housewives with a matched group of working women and revealed some significant differences in social functioning in relation to work roles. The psychological benefits of outside employment have been widely significant in relation to middle-class and upper-class women. This

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study indicates that, for women of lower socio-economic status, work may also have a protective psychological effect. When a working woman gets stressed out, many blame her job. But women who stay at home are more likely to suffer anxiety and to feel unhappy.

Florence (1996)\textsuperscript{45} stated that low income urban working women in Nicaragua were constantly making adjustment to their paid work as well as unpaid work in the home to absorb the pressure of neo-liberal policies of the 1980s and 1990s. The urban informal sector comprised of women who sold food, fruit, vegetables, ice and drinks, run barbershops and carpenters', tailors', and mechanics' workshops often in the front parts of their homes.

Messias (1997)\textsuperscript{46} found that the engagement of non-working women in less number of roles may also be a contributory factor towards high adjustability in them, as they have to rely mainly on their role as housewives for their identity and self-esteem. Whereas, occupying multiple roles is thought to increase women's chances to learn, to develop self-efficacy and self-esteem, to build social network and open access to informational, instrumental and emotional support, and to buffer life's stresses and strains. Playing multiple roles also provides cognitive cushioning and alternative sources of self-esteem and gratification when things go poorly in one life domain.

Milkman (1997)\textsuperscript{47} investigated women's paid and unpaid work roles and the implications of this for their situation in the current economic crisis and their adjustability. The widely


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accepted notion that women form a "reserve army" which is integrated into the labour market during periods of expansion and expelled with contractions was criticized. While economic expansion draws women into the labour force, it was argued, the sexual segregation of occupations creates inflexibility in the labour market which prevents their expulsion during a crisis of contraction. Women's unpaid household work, however, is an arena where they can be forced to "take up the slack" in the economy during crises.

Mukhopodaya (1998) found that in India an increase in female employment outside the home has occurred during the last few decades, especially in urban areas. A working woman may face difficulties in attempting to fulfill the demands of both worlds, at home and outside, while a housewife may feel tired and irritated with her household chores and financial dependence. All these may cause stress for these groups of women. The present study compares a group of working mothers with their non-working

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counterparts with respect to their adjustability. The results show that anxiety and health scores of the two groups of women are similar. Further, the health score and anxiety score seem to be correlated, more clearly among the working mothers.

Newberry, et. al. (1999)\textsuperscript{49} matched groups of working wives and housewives drawn from a community sample which did not differ on current and past adjustments and social functioning. However, they did differ markedly on enjoyment in and satisfaction from their work. The working women derived considerably more satisfaction from their outside jobs than either they or the housewives did from their work in the home.

Griffin et al. (2002)\textsuperscript{50} revealed that the main reasons of high frequency of unadjustability in non-working women could be their familial and social status, low control at home, low education and their involvement in limited number of roles. Women in our society have more household responsibilities, face domestic conflicts, abusive relationships, and enjoy less privilege, less rights, less social and economic freedom. They lack the ability to escape their captors due to social and cultural pressures and rarely get an opportunity for dissipating their stress. The fact, however, remains that they face much-pronged problems stemming from socio-cultural values and traditions, illiteracy, political instability and the erroneous interpretation of religion. Their housework is typically associated with unpaid, obligatory work. This along with the lack of benefits and positive knowledge, may contribute to a decrease in mental well-being and an increase in anxiety, stress and depression. All these stresses may cause low control at home,

which usually result in high anxiety in non-working women. Griffin JM, et. al have also reported increased risk of developing depression and unadjustability in women having low control at home.

UNIFEM (2002)\textsuperscript{51} conducted a short-term study, solely based on secondary data sources. It aimed at assessing the impact of economic liberalization on the textiles and food processing industries in India and whether women workers have been able to reap the benefits. These two sectors were selected due to the large proportion of women employed in these industries and because both industries have experienced substantial export-led growth in the post-liberalization period. The study found that although both the textiles and food processing industries have experienced substantial export and

employment growth in the post-liberalization period, this does not necessarily mean that there has been an improvement in women's wages or working conditions in these industries. It found that the increasing mechanization of the textiles sector could pose a particular threat to women's jobs because women tend to be employed in greater numbers in the more labour-intensive processes. The study found that many of the jobs created in the food processing sector were very casual in nature and that woman workers are over-represented in part-time work and in the unorganized sector. The case study conducted on the marine processing industry illustrated that in spite of many indicators of improvements in the employment situation in this industry, the conditions of women workers are still very poor. The study found that although there have been various policies initiated by the government to promote exports, not many steps have been taken to ensure that women workers in the sector also reap the benefits of growth. It was recommended that while formulating policies, the Government of India should give more attention to the welfare of women workers in the industry.
Murry, et. al (2003) conducted a study on adjustability of working and non-working women. The purpose of this study was to assess the impact of unemployment on the adjustability of women in the context of massive unemployed women. Comparisons were made between the level of mental distress experienced by unemployed and employed women, in two areas of Newfoundland, Canada that were affected by the northern cod moratorium. In addition, the relationships between women's mental distress and a number of variables were explored. Questionnaires were administered to 112 unemployed and 112 employed women three years after the moratorium began. The unemployed women reported significantly poorer mental well-being in the year prior to data collection. At the time of the study, however, both groups of women were experiencing high levels of distress. The moratorium, financial problems, and feelings of uncertainty were identified as key stressors for all the women, but

especially for those without work. Among the working women, past experience with unemployment and level of education had significant correlations with their mental well-being.

Blake (2004)\textsuperscript{53} put forth two ways to look at women and work. One way supposes that women have a limited amount of energy. Each role drains part of that energy, so the more women do, the worse off women are. But the other way, which women’s work supports, is that having more roles offers women more opportunities to be challenged, to feel competent and to have their work acknowledged. It also gives them more options, like having more money to hire help, to lessen the burden of housework. Filling more than one role also allows women to divide their emotional eggs among several baskets. If something is going poorly in one area, things are likely to be going better in another. Stress doesn’t seem to be related to how many roles a woman takes on. Up to a point, the more roles, and the greater the self-esteem. It is the family role that gives women the most stress.

Work is clearly not the culprit. Planning, child care and day-to-day support systems are an important part of being a successful wife, mother and career woman. It takes more than hard work and high hopes.

Kumthekar (2004) revealed that self-concept is an important indicator of personality. The working woman, being an earner in the family, is easily accepted and respected. Hence, it was thought that working women would have a more positive self-concept as compared to non-working women. To assess this, a Q-sort technique developed by Butler and Haigh (1954) was used for 137 working and 99 non-working, all graduate, middle-class, married women in the age range of 25 to 45 years. However, it is amazing to note that no significant difference between working and non-working women was found. All women had a devaluated self-concept. The study was also aimed to note the differences among women working at different occupational levels. There is also no significant difference in their self-concept. However, in

item-wise analysis, more confidence, ambition and assertiveness were seen in the case of working women as compared to non-working women.

Harshpinder and Aujla (2006) found that unfinished tasks, compulsion of doing disliked activities, death of a close relative and improper sleep were the common factors of stress in both working and non working women. Working women were more stressed due to factors viz. pleasing others, overburden of work and non-allowance by family to take family decisions independently. Non-working women were more stressed than working women due to wrong working posture and her non-involvement in decision making by family. On an average, working-women were experiencing more physiological and psychological factors of stress.

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Hymowitz (2007)\textsuperscript{56} reported that women often are told that all they need to do to advance to the top of companies is acquire experience and show their competence. The researcher found that women have great difficulty following the same career path as men. The survey conducted on 2,500 working and non-working women revealed that most working women take some time off work or intentionally avoid advancing for a while so they have time to care for children and elderly relatives. Getting back on the fast track is difficult for them. The growing number of jobs that require workweeks of 60-plus hours and 24/7 attention to clients, is leaving women farther behind and costing business valuable talent.


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Aspirations among Working and Non-working Women

Fox and Faver (1991)\textsuperscript{57} considered both meaning and mediation factors in the achievement-aspiration relationship. In a sample of graduate women students ("academic-career aspirants"), the achievement-aspiration relationship varied with type of academic achievement and professional aspirations, and as it was mediated by women's perceptions of their professional roles and their faculty's support. Women's achievement-aspiration conversion was different from, but not necessarily lower than, non-graduate non-working women. Rather, the strength and direction of the relationship varied with aspiration type (traditional versus alternative) and, to some extent, with specific types of academic achievement. The mediators of the achievement-aspiration relationship also vary by work conditions and aspiration type.

Women's aspirations for traditional career rewards were largely a function of their perceptions of the structural availability of job opportunity.

Carpenter and Western (1993)\textsuperscript{58} analysed working and non-working women within the context of the restructuring of higher education and possible changing perceptions about the benefits of higher education among those involved, the impact of selected structural and social psychological variables upon the transition of a group of young working and non-working women from Year 12 of high school to higher education and/or the workforce. The data revealed that the transition from high school to tertiary education was dependent upon social origins, prior school achievements and aspirations as well as on the processes of interpersonal encouragement and academic self-assessment of women. Such dependence differs between the working and non-working women. Specifically where educational aspirations were constant, social

background was more important for working women than non-working women, while perceived encouragement from significant others, academic self-assessment and academic achievement were more important for women.

Reyes, O. et. al. (1999)\textsuperscript{59} revealed that distribution of jobs remains vastly disproportionate, especially among women minority groups. Women continue to be overrepresented in traditionally female occupied jobs and underrepresented in high-status, high-paying occupations. Literature on gender distribution of careers and factors affecting career choice remains sparse where ethnic minority females are concerned. The present study attempted to fill this gap and focuses on adolescent females from Mexican American backgrounds. Descriptive findings indicate the general male dominance of females' career aspirations. Compared to females aspiring to highly female-dominated careers, females aspiring to highly male-dominated careers were more

acculturated, earned higher grade point averages (GPAs) and higher achievement scores in science and social studies, and held higher educational aspirations and expectations, and a greater number of this group evidenced a clear understanding of the steps needed to achieve career goals.

Seginer (2002) tested a four-step model consisting of family background, perceived parental support and demandingness, educational aspirations, and academic achievement. The model was estimated on data collected from working and non-working women \( (N = 686) \) growing up in two cultural settings: transition to modernity (Israeli Arabs) and Western (Israeli Jews). The results showed that family background had direct and indirect effects on the academic achievement of Arab but not Jewish women. The indirect family background-academic achievement path showed working and non-working differences only for the Arab women via educational aspirations.

for girls and parental demandingness for boys, and parental demandingness was directly related to academic achievement of women. The study also explained ethnic and gender differences in terms of demographic and socio-cultural conditions.

Behnke, et. al. (2004) conducted an in-depth interviews of 10 rural Latino family triads and investigated the educational and occupational aspirations of working and non-working women, and factors affecting those aspirations. Using a content analysis of the interview scripts, several themes emerged that described their families’ experiences. In some instances, Latino women aspirations were found to transfer to their work. However, only one half of the women were aware of their career’s aspirations. Non-working women articulated several barriers to achieving higher educational or occupational aspirations. Implications for programmatic initiatives and research are delineated.

Gasser. et. al (2004)\textsuperscript{62} examined how a different model of personality beyond the Big Five and interest are predictive of an important criterion variable, i.e. aspirations. This is the first study to investigate personality-interest convergence by examining the newly revised 2003 California Psychological Inventory with the 1994 Strong Interest Inventory. In general, the researchers found that those personality scales and interest scales that were more related or applicable to educational aspirations of working and non-working women, were moderately correlated with level of educational aspirations. Also, hierarchical regression results show that specific dimensions of personality and interests are related to women’s plans for future work. The study found that components of working and non-working women’s personality and interest may relate to aspiring to higher levels of education.

McElroy et. al. (2005) used longitudinal data collected over a twenty-year period to explore whether college-educated women workers were different early in their lives from other women. Early differences would offer evidence that woman workers are led to self-employment by their inherent virtues or by their specific talents or interests. Lack of early differences would lend credence to the notion that woman workers are led to self-employment by other factors. The study suggests that women’s status as workers is at least as much the result of life circumstances as the completion of long-term goals. Early in their careers, some women appear to make career and self-employment decisions much as men do. However, when children enter the picture, some women begin to re-consider the balance between their commitment to work ideals and their commitment to traditional gender roles when making self-employment decisions. Even today, for many women, family needs trump career aspirations, and the career paths they follow are determined, at least while children remain at home, by

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practical considerations rather than ideology. Some would prefer to be taken tradition jobs because they offer more security, and some who would prefer to be employees or choose self-employment because it gives them the flexibility to continue working and earning money while offering them more control. The study provides useful insights regarding the employment choices of women.

Lallukka, et. al. (2006) examined whether psychosocial working conditions and aspirations are associated working and non-working women. Data were derived from postal questionnaires filled in by 40- to 60-year-old women employed by the City of Helsinki, Finland, in 2000 to 2002 (n = 7093, response rate 67 per cent). Aspiration symptoms were measured by the Rose Questionnaire. Logistic regression analyses were carried out. Independent variables consisted of Karasek’s job demands and job control, work fatigue, working overtime, work-related mental and physical strain, the work–home interface, and social

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support, adjusted for age. Confounding effects of socioeconomic status, health behaviours (smoking, binge drinking, body mass index), and menopause were also examined. Pregnant women were excluded. High aspiration symptoms were reported by 6 per cent of participants. Work fatigue was strongly associated with aspiration. In addition, working overtime, low job control, and high physical strain at work were associated with aspiration. The associations between psychosocial working conditions and aspiration were unaffected by health behaviours, socioeconomic status, or menopause.

**Marital Relations and Children’s Care by Working and Non-working Women**

Mubarak, et. al. (1990) conducted a cross-sectional case-control study comparing working women employed by the Women’s Work Centres of the Orangi Pilot Project with non-working matched controls. Differences in the knowledge, attitude and practice of several variables were elicited. Working women's

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families had significantly higher immunization rates, 73 per cent vs 55 per cent, and shorter duration of illness, 5.9 days vs 8.8 days, compared to controls. More working than non-working women supported contraception, 100 per cent vs 74 per cent, desired equal education for sons and daughters (P less than 0.005), and had a dominant role in family health decision-making, 48 per cent vs 12 per cent. We conclude that these working women in Orangi have a different set of beliefs and practices than non-working women and this may be one important factor responsible for the lower morbidity in their children.

Chant (1994)\textsuperscript{66} identified the activities like income generation by working women and domestic activities by non-working women, as household survival strategies in the towns of Mexico and Costa Rica. The study showed that working women have to substitute for the lack of civic amenities and labour-saving household gadgets with their own labour power. Very often,

undertaking income-generating work implies an added burden for women. Outside work usually involved preparing and selling food and food-related things and offering domestic services. For many women home-based activity was their only option especially if they have young children and no child care support.

Langermyre (1997) investigated the possible effects of maternal employment on children. Whereas 30 years ago especially behaviour disorders were found to be correlating, today the situation is more differentiate. Results suggest that the effects of maternal employment have changed the years. The effects depend on the degree of the mother's satisfaction with her work, the sex of the children, social class, children's age, residential area, substitute care, the possibility to conciliate working and

private needs as well as the attitude of society regarding working mothers. The part of the father in this connection is controversial. Lately unconscious motives of working (e.g. career drive resulting from early familial conflicts, marriage problems) or non-working (e.g. fear of occupational conflicts) mothers are regarded more intensively. Correlations are especially found to sex role understanding of the children, as well as to intellectual development and emotional stability dependent on further factors.

Andrade, et. al (1999) observed that in urban India, working women were expected to continue to discharge their traditional domestic duties; the likely result was compromised well-being due to role strain. Husbands of working women may also experience pressures and hence poorer well-being. Well-being in working couples, particularly husbands, was little researched in developing countries. The Subjective Well-Being Inventory was administered to 46 'one-working, (only husband employed) and 51 'both-working' (both spouses employed)
randomly selected urban, middle-class couples. In one-working as well as both-working families, wives experienced less well-being than their husbands. Working wives experienced more confidence in coping than non-working wives. Husbands in both-working families experienced better social support but less social contact, less mental mastery, and poorer perceived health than husbands in one-working families. Few or no socio-demographic variables were associated with well-being. Employment may benefit women but stress their husbands.

Hussain and Smith (1999) studied the relationship between maternal work status, other socio-economic factors, and incidence of diarrhoea among children using the Bangladesh Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) 1994 data. This study showed that 12.4 per cent of children had suffered from diarrhoea in the two weeks preceding the survey. Of the women in the sample, 12 per cent were working. Logistic regression analysis

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revealed that children of working mothers were 65 per cent more likely to have had diarrhoea than children of non-working mothers. The study also found that children of women who work seasonally were 8 per cent less likely to have had diarrhoea than children of women who work all year. Women's higher education was found to be one of the important determinants related to childhood diarrhoea. Religion and ownership of land also appeared to be important factors affecting the incidence of diarrhoea in early childhood.

Nathawat and Mathur (1999)\textsuperscript{70} and Rani and Yadav (2000)\textsuperscript{71} put forth anecdotal evidence that housewives frequently complain about the monotony of their lives. They feel that they have to look after children and do the housework and they do not have time for


themselves. Compared to the working women their social environment is limited. Their husbands are the only ones to appreciate their intense efforts they make for their homes. A woman, for instance, with six children and a husband, and with no help from others and no money for the most costly labour-saving devices, simply can not organize her necessary duties so that she will have leisure for pleasures and activities outside the daily routine. In such a house the most modest requirements for food, shelter, and clothing become a driving force that pushes aside relentlessly any irrelevant longing. The working women, however, have the chance of being appreciated by the society and behave independently and earn money. On the other hand, many working women find that children provide a common focus of interest for them and their husbands and many of them feel that the time devoted to children resulted in less sharing and companionship and less spontaneity in marital relationship.

Nakahara et.al (2006)\textsuperscript{72} observed that in many developing countries, poor women have multiple roles, and often their time

\textsuperscript{72} Nakahara, S. et.al. 2006. Availability of childcare support and nutritional status of children of non-working and working mothers in
constraints are so severe that their participation in income-generating activities results in reduced childcare time, which in turn affects child health. The study investigated how childcare support influences nutrition of children with working mothers' based on comparisons with non-working mothers. However, non-working mothers are not a homogeneous group, and we therefore need to distinguish between those who need not work and those who wish to but cannot, for example, due to a lack of substitute caregivers. The researcher examined the association between availability of childcare support and the nutritional status of children of both non-working and working mothers in poor areas of Pokhara, a sub-metropolitan city in Nepal. The sample comprised 150 children of age 10-24 months from the waiting lists of 17 day-care centres and measured their weights and heights. Those with height-for-age and weight-for-age Z scores of less than -2 were defined as stunted and underweight, respectively. To collect information on childcare practices and socioeconomic characteristics, mothers were interviewed using a pre-tested structured questionnaire. Unavailability of adult childcare support
height-for-age and weight-for-age Z scores of less than -2 were defined as stunted and underweight, respectively. To collect information on childcare practices and socioeconomic characteristics, mothers were interviewed using a pre-tested structured questionnaire. Unavailability of adult childcare support was associated with increased risk of malnutrition among children of both non-working and working mothers. Peer childcare was not significantly associated with child malnutrition among children of non-working mothers, but it was associated with an increased risk of malnutrition among children of working mothers. The study suggested that childcare support from adult substitute caregivers is essential for children of non-working mothers with limited resources.