CHAPTER-III

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

3.1 INTRODUCTION

3.2 GROWTH AND SIGNIFICANCE OF TRANSPORT INDUSTRY

3.3 GENDER BASED DIVISION OF LABOUR AND SEX LABELING OF JOBS

3.4 FACTORS FOR WOMEN’S ENTRY IN TO WORKING WORLD

3.5 WOMEN AND WORK ENVIRONMENT

3.6 OCCUPATIONAL HEALTH HAZARDS AND STRESS OF THE WORKING WOMEN

3.7 DUAL ROLE AND HOUSE HOLD RESPONSIBILITY OF WORKING WOMEN

3.8 WIDER SOCIETY OPINION ON WORKING WOMEN

3.9 COMMUTER’S OPINION

CONCLUSION
CHAPTER III
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

3.1 Introduction:

Literature survey is one of the foundation steps for the research activity. Basically it is nothing but the mining of data for concerned field of study. It provides wide range of knowledge and information about particular study and to know about the work which has already been done in a particular field. It also gives the information to researcher with a necessary sequence of knowledge in the concerned field. It would help the researcher to have clear and comprehensive thoughts of the research studies which is already conducted in similar area so that the researcher can change the path in different direction in his study. It also gives insight to the facts about the study which has remained untouched, unexpected and unexplored in the previous researches. A literature study acts as a guide and also enables the researcher to perceive the gaps, limitations and further ways to continue the research.

Review of literature is one of the most important steps next to survey of literature in a research process. A literature review is designed to identify related research, to set the current research project within a conceptual and theoretical context. When looked at that way, almost no topic is so new or unique that the researcher can't locate relevant and informative related research, therefore researcher may find that other similar studies routinely look at an outcome that researcher might not have included (http://ludwig.missouri.edu/405/review.html). It provides researcher to find and select appropriate measuring instruments, know the depth for exploration which is essential, information on the related work which is already available. It will help the researcher to anticipate common problems in the research context and can use the prior experiences of others to avoid common traps and pitfalls. Therefore, the study of related literature can never be ignored in any type of research. Good and Hatt (1952) state that “without a critical study
of the related literature the investigator will be groping in the dark and perhaps avoid duplication and overlapping”. The related review can stimulate and encourage the investigator to go deep into the intricacies of the problems and also enable to derive respective conclusions.

3.2 Growth and Significance of Transport Industry:

The pioneer studies on transport industry concentrated only on evolution, growth and modes of transportation and its significance. Later researchers have made an attempt to bring out its quality of service to the public and some were made study on the organizational structure and how it helps growth of tertiary sectors and for the public transportation. Some scholars have also made study on different aspects of transportation and their organizational growth and problems which are discussed as follows.

Srivastava (1964) has made a detailed study on development and significance of transport system in India. He emphasized on three major significance of transport such as, economic, political and social aspects. Economic significance is concerned with service of the public bus transportation by way of goods supply, marketing which are accelerating the modern economy and to the development of agriculture and industrial sectors. In the social perspective transport is also important for unification of the country and to know each others behavior, the different parties of the country. While discussing socio cultural aspects, it leads to co-operation between different caste, class, race, religion and regions like India. Subsequently, he also focused on the growth of different mode of transportation like Railway, Road, Water and Air transportation and its significances towards socio-economic growth of the nation. Among these transport systems road transport is most significant for urban and rural people of India. Keeping this view the government of India nationalized the Road transportation during the 1st, 2nd and 3rd five year plans. In most of the developed countries the public transport system is maintained by private sector but in India public transport is partially privatized.
William and Thomas (1969) have discussed about evolution of transport during the pre and post civilization period. Detailed information about the early stage of human life and his usage of walk for the movements depending on his own muscle power. Later how man has learnt the domestication of animals and added a new source of energy for transport. Again he discussed on how man has learnt using of animals to carry, pull and push loads, and adaption of such invention as well as using of chariot, cart, horse shoes, and light vehicles. (Srivastava, 1964) has written on the growth of roads and transport system during Mohenjo-Daro and Harappa civilization. He also discussed the development of transport during Mourya dynasty and Asoka’s regime and also the contributions of Mogul Empire. While narrating the history he has not forgotten to mention that the public transport was existed for common people in those days.

Padam (1990) has highlighted the organizational structure of the road transport of India. While discussing organizational structure of transport he has come across Andhra Pradesh, Maharashtra and Karnataka states road transport organizations and evaluates the function of these organizations. Padam has pointed out the development of public transport system during British administration in India and post independent India. He also reveals the developments of various legislations, recommendations and reports of different committees on transport systems and different plan of actions of the government made with regard to appropriate shape for the public passenger road transport in India. Similarly, Jagadish (1998) has focused on the transport issues like, structure and growth, operational economics, performance, appraisal and bus user’s satisfaction etc. He has considered traveling is one of the social factors between organization and co-passengers. The author has also focused qualitative measures and personal factors of bus passengers such as sex, age, and purpose of travel. It is inferred that both male and female are satisfied, however, female passengers seem to have relatively more satisfied in public transport. With regard to the purpose of travel is concerned he has graphed three categories; they are, a) Social, b)
Commercial and c) Official. The majority of passengers are using public transport for social and official purposes. It is shown that 80% for social purpose but only 20 % are commercial users.

Urban bus transport system has grown rapidly since 4-5 decades in India. Some scholars like, Patnakar (1989), Tomazinis (1995) and Singh (2005) and others have focused about growth, its need, performance and its quality and distress of urban transport system etc.

Singh (2005) has drawn an attention about the growth and need of urban transport system. According to him the transport demand in Indian cities have increased substantially due to increase of population. It has resulted by both natural increase and migration from rural areas and smaller towns. Available income and increases in commercial and industrial activity have further added to transport demand. Apart from this Singh also focused the problems of road capacity and congestion and delay in journey on Indian roads and undesirable feature of overload stress and accidents in Indian cities. The main reasons for these problems are the prevailing in balance mode split, inadequate transport infrastructure, and its suboptimal use. Public transport systems have not been able to keep pace with the rapid and substantial increases in demand over the last few decades. Bus service in particular has deteriorated, and their relative output has been further reduced as passengers have turned to personalized modes and intermediate public transport.

Patankar (1989) has evaluated the problems of urban transport system in India. In this book he analyzed the urban scenario of India especially the growth of urban population and requirements of transport systems. According to him the population is increasing at a much faster rate compared with the increase in the total population. In 1961 urban population was 79 million but gradually it increased to 109 million. In 1981 it was 106 million, 1991 it as increased to 205 million and in 2001 it has gone up to 285 million. The big cities like Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, Madras, Bangalore, Hyderabad cities are
growing very rapidly. Due to the density of population in urban area creates an adequate affects on public transport system for a large proportion of the urban population. He also concentrated road congestion traffic, the traffic choose is seriously cramping life styles and urgent relief is warned. Patnakar has suggesting that, the urban transport problems cannot be solved by adoption of ready-made universal policies, because social, economic and topographical conditions vary from country to country, and also vary from city to city. This variation is more particularly country like India.

Tomazinis (1995) has made an attempt to assess the efficiency and quality in urban transportation system. In his detailed study made upon performance and measures of public transportation and divides his analysis in to efficiency measures for the operator’s supplier on the one hand and the users on the other. The author has discussed about lining the efficiency measures of public transportation from the point of view of the user. In this regard the author Tomazinis has mentioned four areas of concern: a) Cost of travel, b) Quality of travel (convenience & comfort), c) Reliability of service and d) Safety and security. Finally he made comment on transport organization as well as public for the need of growth and survival of urban transport system.

There are some researches being conducted on various aspects of transport industry. But majority of them have concentrated only on problem of journey, distance & duration of journey, (Julia: 1977) robbery and crime at journey (Smith and Clark: 2000), fuel efficiency, Road safety (Singh 2000), Industrial relations in public road transport by (Madhumathi 2003), and some transport organizations have studied on controlling pollution, workers union. But recently some daily news papers have focusing on problems of women workers in transport industries. But there it still much research work to be done on women workers in transport industry.
3.3 Gender based division of labour and sex labeling of jobs:

Banerjee (1991) argued that the sexual division of labour has been raised due to the growth of industrialization. Jobs in industries have been segregated in to those suitable for men and those suitable for women. The division has created to benefit capital at the detriment of workers. Even women did more and routine and monotonous work, they were placed at traditional early learnt skills. One of the immediate effects of job segregation can be seen in the variation of ‘skills’ and wages between men and women workers. When men and women were both employed in the same category women received wages at the lower end of the scale. Sex labeling of jobs are most obviously culturally determined in almost all society.

Rehman and Biswal (1993) stated that subordination of women is a socially, economically and culturally constructed phenomenon. It is clearly proved by the evidences of her preponderance in the peripheral employment market, where she is under paid and where her career prospect is marginal. Though woman works more hours than a man, yet her activities go unrecognized. Examination of the Indian labour market scenario shows that women have largely been engaged in jobs which revealed one more fact that is women in high status professions besides social, economic, political, geographic and demographic factors, sex disparities in educational and employment in India can primary be attributed to existence of unfavorable cultural factors.

Paap (1995) while addressing the question of why women choose to work in female dominated fields despite documentation of lesser pay than roughly equivalent male dominated fields analyzed the responses of 41 working class females on occupational beliefs and attitudes. The study indicates or cost of living. This lack of information and information use poses a serious challenge to the work-values assumption that young women make free and informed choices about their future occupations. Also discussed is
the role of attribution theory in explaining how young women and social scientists may construct the process of occupational choice.

Hunt and Macintyre (1999) have directly compared men’s and women’s perceptions of paid employment; they have included female as well as male employees but are often flawed by implicit assumptions about the importance of different social ‘roles’ for men and women. While paid work is seen as central to men’s attitudes and behavior both in and out of the workplace, for women personal characteristics and family circumstances are often deemed to be more important, with paid work conceptualized as an ‘additional’ role rather than an indicator of status, income and class position. Sophisticated attempts to compare attitudes of men and women to paid work have been hindered by the gendered structure of the labour market. Statements about gender differences in general population samples are problematic because women and men occupy different jobs with varying conditions, rewards and demands. Thus, it is difficult to tell whether any observed ‘gender’ differences in perceptions of paid work are really ‘job’ differences.

Ankar (2000), has made serious discussion and analysis of the issues associated with measuring gender segregation in cross –national data sets as well as a considerable amount of data analysis. It is most extensive treatment of cross – national patterns in gender segregation for which he has come across with southern countries like Egypt and India. In comparative analysis of the most male and most female occupations and discussion of where the most change seems to be occurring. The author has also worked extensively on women contributions to the labour force. In the finding of his study has focused on male dominated occupations being more common than female occupations, and that female occupations tend to have lower pay, lower status and less opportunity for advancement. There are some surprising findings, which segregation levels vary greatly across regions or that segregation does not appear to be related to socio- economic development.
In the article of ‘Women in medicine’ (2003) a part of series of Women in society in Wikipedia has highlighted gender based of division of labour in the field of medicine. It has mentioned that **women's participation in the profession of medicine** has been significantly restricted in many parts of the world. Most countries of the world now guarantee equal access by women to medical education, although not all ensure equal employment opportunities (Women’s Human Rights report- 1998) and gender parity has yet to be achieved within the medical specialties and around the world. At the beginning of the twenty-first century in industrialized nations, women have made significant gains, but have yet to achieve parity throughout the medical profession. However, the practice of medicine remains disproportionately male overall. In industrialized nations, the recent parity in gender of medical students has not yet trickled into parity in practice. In many developing nations, neither medical school nor practice approach gender parity.

Moreover, there are skews within the medical profession: some medical specialties, such as surgery, are significantly male-dominated, (Lambert, 2002) while other specialties are significantly female-dominated, or are becoming so. In the United States, female physicians outnumber male physicians in pediatrics and female residents outnumber male residents in family medicine, obstetrics and gynecology, pathology, and psychiatry (Barzansky, 2007) but women continue to dominate in nursing than the counterpart. Likewise in many fields the occupations were labeled based on sex in all parts of the world.

**3.4 Factors for women’s entry in to working world:**

Women are working outside the family in India since late 20th century. Hence the reasons and factors are not found same .It is changing accordingly to changes which took place in structure and functions of the family based on their socio economic conditions. The motivational factors are changing time to time by several factors like raise of educational level, growth of urbanization, globalization and induction of legislative privileges for women.
which helped to pave the way for women entry to work force in large number in recent period.

Ross (1961) in her study entitled ‘The Hindu Family in its Urban Setting’, explains how a wife being gainfully employed is no more considered undesirable by the society as she is given respect as an income generator. The main reason why so many married middle class women outside the home are without reproach is because everyone understands the economic problem of the middle class and that a wife’s income is often essential to the family’s standard of living. There is a solid evidence to indicate that economic necessity is one of the strong motives behind the work force of the women (Chakranort, 1978; Dhingra, 1972; Jephcott et al. 1962; Kapur, 1974; Kala Rani, 1976; khanna & Varghese, 1978; Orden & Bradburn, 1968; and many others). The result of all the studies conducted by aforesaid investigators have reported that women are working mainly owing to income reasons, that is to supplement husband’s or family income.

The Ministry of Labour, Government of India (Labour Bureau, 1964) pointed out five factors prevailing which lead women to join working force, viz. inadequate income of the principal earner, mishaps such as incapacity of her bread winner, death of the bread winner, women’s desire for economic independence or for securing higher standard of life and women’s desire to give expression to their own talents and skills.

Vidyarthi (1969) in his study of Rumchi remarks that 47.5% women in the lower class and 25% in the upper class contribute to family income. In the middle class only 6.7% worked. cultural configuration of Kanchi, J N basu & co, Calcutta Sengupta (1960) points to the preponderance of women employment in mines, factories, plantations and agriculture. women have been working from time immemorial unshelled and as manual labour. However the entry of middle class women into worker force is relativity a recent phenomena. One of the primary aims in encouraging rural women to
get education is to equip them for obtaining a job so that they can be self sufficient.

Many studies like those of Kapadia (1959); Ross (1961), Kapur (1970), have shown that the employment of the wife is closely related to growing economic necessity. The participation of working wives in supplementing family finance becomes essential to overcome economic hardship. Kapur (1974) in her another study, “The Changing Status of Working Women in India”, analyzed the factors which are responsible for women entry for employment. The economic needs are one of the major factors for women seek employment. The married educated working women who sought the ways of harmonizing the increasing need of educated Indian women for achievement and self-expression on the hand and their pressing need, on the other.

National Committee on Status of Women (1975) has reported that “It is true in particular for the lower class and for the middle strata of the entire society in which education has been taken up as a mark of social respectability and also an instrument of economics gain (p.88).” this has been supported by many other researchers (Hate, 1979). It is possible that education and employment for married women relate positively not because educational facilities and employment but also because education is a manifestation of, and a stimulation to the achieve motivation.

Ross (1976) has also pointed out that the rise in the cost of living has made many middle class Indian families feel that they must have two salaries per family. As a result, by the late sixties the idea of middle class women taking up salaried jobs spread rapidly in India. In 1966, nearly 97 percent of a sample of college women at Punjab university, Chandigarh wanted to work after finishing their college studies, rather than getting married and settling down to domestic life. A similar study by Goldstein (1972) found that 85 percent of graduate college women in Bangalore also preferred to take part in employment rather than staying at home. Similar observations have been
made by the National Commission on Labour (1964: 23) “The spread of education particularly in urban areas has opened up more and professional work. The largest expansion of opportunities has been in involvement service”. Rani (1976) elucidates that a woman’s education, her husband’s education, the size of her family and her stage in the cycle are important predictors of entering the labour market. In her study conducted in the city of Patna, most working women took up jobs to make use of high or professional education.

Sethi (1976) attempted to present a comparative picture of socio-economic conditions, attitudes and beliefs of working women in Ankara with those of Chandigarh. The universe of the research referred to the working women in central or state government in Ankara and Chandigarh in non manual service occupations such as clerical, executive, managerial and professional.

Caplow (1954), Super (1957), Roe (1956) state that as more women enter the world of work, a significant majority of them consider their jobs as integral parts of their lives, where they look forward to advancing in careers. Work is no longer the way by which a man or women must earn his or her living and provide him or herself with physical well-being, but it brings a basic change in the ability of the individual’s energy-thus, becoming a way of life by which the individual finds his or her identification in society. A series of social changes have altered the pattern of employment in recent years and are experienced in the lives and minds of individuals. Sometimes employment may also be motivated by aspirations for upward social mobility and also by a desire for a sense of competence. A personality trait often attributed to working women is the need for power and dominance. The belief that women with need for power will seek employment is based on traditional association between the notions that a women’s place is in the home and that women should be subordinate to men. Some studies have brought to light the fact that loneliness is a powerful motive for women to seek employment outside their homes. Motivation to work is also sometimes prompted by the
tediousness and monotony of housework, the isolation of the housewife, their need for personal fulfillment; sometimes their vocation or their need to use their talents, gifts and training (Myridal and Klein, 1956; Sullerot, 1971) has given importance to social isolation as a motive for economically gainful employment.

Narayana (1982) study in the early 1980s continued to establish that Indian women still aspired not to compromise with the burden of their homemaker role. Women gave more priority to their family role rather than work role. Hemalatha and Suryanarayana (1983) concluded through a study of role interventions of married working women that women’s problems were greatly influenced by the age and socio-economic status of working women and husband’s nature, children’s age and number, family type and the nature of work and work timings. Husband understanding and cooperation was very important to lessen working women's problems. It appears from our review so far, that during the decade of mid-1970s to mid-1980s, there was a ‘disconnect’ between the various streams of research on work and family in India. On the one hand, one stream of research seemed to clearly indicate that as far as underprivileged sections of society were concerned, plight of working women was deteriorating, and nature of family organization was contributing to their deprivation. On the other hand, there was a picture emerging of a modern urban educated women still steeped in her traditional role but bravely seeking to empower herself by stepping in to the world of work and coping with negative perceptions of society through a range of strategies that included hiring help, using household labour saving technology and soliciting support from her husband to the extent possible. There were two things however that were in common across both streams of study. One was the observation of a dual burden borne by working women in India regardless of their class and status group that resulted in considerable stress and strain. The other was the absence of men from participant samples in these studies. It appeared during these decades as through the
study of work and family in India was in fact the study of women, work and family.

Mathur (1992) identified motivational factors in her study. The respondents of 22.7% of sample stated that the economic necessity is the primary need. Security against visible threat to income of the principal breadwinner or against invisible contingencies was mentioned by 20.0% of the sample and an almost equal number of respondents (20.4%) stated improvement of living standard as the motivating factor. Social affiliation where primary need is to escape from loneliness or boredom or neglect and experience something new and to occupy oneself was stated to be the motive by 17.3% of the sample in her study and personal esteem where need is for enhancement of self recognition and power over others was mentioned by 12.4% of the respondents. 7.2% of the sample elucidated self fulfillment and an urge to make a personal contribution to society.

Kanekar (1995) highlighted the causes for women works out side family. In her study, women work in order to increase the income and the standard of life of their family. A small number of women work out the dire economic necessity as they are the only bread winners of their families. A third small group of educated working women work because they are career motivated and intend to build a good career for themselves. The middle class women’s need to supplement her husband’s income in order to lead a good life may be as real to her as the lower class woman’s need to meet her family’s basic requirement for food, clothing and shelter. However, the above studies have also pointed out that, earning money is not only the motive behind the employment of women. The other motives were socio-psychological and situational in nature. Some of the socio-psychological motives were to have independent status of their own, to satisfy their intellectual needs and needs of achievement, to emphasize self-expression, personal development and to reward interpersonal relationship (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1969), to get happiness and satisfaction, to get recognized and fame (Kapur, 1974), to get intellectual; and emotional satisfaction (Chakraborty, 1978). Many women, like many men, see their level of earnings
as some kind of a measure for personal worth in the world. She might also work to ensure against possible loss or incapacitation of the breadwinner of the family.

The above studies have pointed out several factors for women entry to working world like; socio economic conditions, growth of education, economic developments but no study has focused on how reservation for women in recruitment does help has not shown.

3.5 Women and work environment:

Cory (1978) has focused on difficulties of working women at working place. He has stated that, one of the difficulties with the working women is the adjustment with the male colleagues there are few working women surrounded by numerically preponderant group of males. This results in a feeling of isolation, and lack of communication and even improper co-ordination in the performance of tasks (Srivastava 1978). For the better performance of the occupational roles by the women employee depend upon many factors. One of these is related to the physical facilities at the place of work. If the employer is unable to provide an adequate facility then the quality of work performance is likely to deteriorate (Kalbagh 1992). Morse (1985) discusses the occupational stress among the working women, influence of feminism, educated women, women related problem like childcare, low pay, sexual harassment, problems pregnant women, psychological problems, family life, work satisfaction, happiness of working women etc.,

Hemlata and Suryanaryana (1983) reported that women working irregular hours have more problems than those working regular hours. In both nurses and doctors the timing of duties are too erratic since they require them to do night shifts along with call duties whereas the job of a college lecturer requires a fixed time schedule. But in service sectors the working hours is not fixed women who working had stay for long and irregulars’ hours or shift hours. There are few studies nature effects of shifts
work on women workers and gender relation within the family. Charles and Brow (1981), Bosch and De Large (1987), Shift works affect women differently from men because their psychological structure is different. Women have specific tempered structure because of the menstrual cycle. (Adler, 1986), “Sleep for sale: a study of shifts work in South Africa, Johannesburg labour and economic research center.”

Kumud (1993) has focused on the difficulties with the working women is the adjustment with the male colleagues. There are few working women surrounding by numerically preponderant group of males. He also drew an attention on problems of over stay at office. Overstay at office as a result of working over the normal working hours especially for women creates many problems, like conveyance, loneliness, sexual harassment. Again in another study Kumud (2002) covers various aspects on occupation careers, trends of work participation of women, commitment to work professional ideology and has also highlighted on the level of performance of working women in male dominated occupational fields. Another import component of study on the study is the family adjustment of the working women. Job related psychological stressors for the working women are fear of disapproval, feeling of dependency on male co-workers, need to submerge her own desires, fear of being aggressive, or self – assertive and hence, being labeled unfeminine, fear of failure, etc., (Morse, 2001).

Gender role is a set of perceived behavioral norms associated particularly with males or females in a given social group or system (Reiter, 1975). One of the difficulties with the working women is the adjustment with the male colleagues there are few working women surrounded by numerically preponderant group of males. This results in a feeling of isolation, and lack of communication and even improper co-ordination in the performance of tasks (Srivastava, 1978).
3.6 Occupational health hazards and stress of the working women:

Barber (1995) has made study of shift work and health problem for women. The study found the risk of breast cancer to be 60 percent higher in women who worked the night shift due to the improper production of the hormone Melatonin is a hormone primarily produced during night time sleep and it has an effect of regulating estrogen and also serves as an antioxidant. Irregular menstrual cycles and menstrual pains were reported from women in a number of industries who worked night shifts. Higher risk of miscarriage, lower rates of pregnancies and deliveries, spontaneous abortion, delayed fetal development, increased risk of pre-term delivery and low birth weight have also been observed in some studies.

Shift work effect also on digestive disorders, Shift workers tend to have a poorer diet and reduced access to wholesome foods, increased snacking, results increase in ulcers, indigestion, and heartburn, frequent stomach aches, constipation, diarrhea, loss of appetite. In another study Taylor, Briner and Folkard (1997), have pointed out that shift work can lead to chronic, fatigue and insomnia, Shift work can lead to disruption of sleep patterns. Wedderburn (1998) has focused on stress effects due to lack of socializing with family and friends, hard to plan for family, responsibilities and take part in regular of-job activities, rotation makes it hard to form routines, leads to anxiety, high blood pressure and heart disease and also decreases job satisfaction and motivation. It also found difficulties in maintaining hobbies, leisure activities, and lack of time to spend with friends. Many a time shift work lead to problems to manage the parental responsibilities, difficulties in finding child care and not enough time to spend with children. Being a mother a working women she has miss out on leisure activities to helping children with their homework, meeting teachers, school trips, etc. Tensions and problems within marriage, not enough time to spend with spouse tensions due to sexual problems, child care related, problems, resulted in increase in arguments, and trouble with communication, higher divorce rates compared to day workers.
Roberta & et.al (1999) has given an overview of the epidemiological studies in Italy during the past 25 years about the role of occupational exposure on the development of adverse health effects on women. The author has notice a decrease of women employment in agriculture and industry with a parallel increase in trade and service. He has worked on the adverse health focus on career and some selected reproductive condition and malformation at birth. They have noticed an increased relative risks in soft issue sarcomas with phenoxy herbicides exposure, ovarian mesothelial turnover with triazine herbicides exposure, multiple myeloma with farm work increased relative risk for bladder cancer, with textile workers and while collar worker risk factors for infertility, spontaneous abortion, birth defects and childhood cancer encompass heavy metals, solvents, sterilizing and cytosatic agents, anesthetic compounds, pesticides, ionizing radiation, noise and heat. The role of parental exposure to toxic agents on birth defects in new-borne was investigated in a case control study. Significant associate were found between maternal occupation during pregnancy in the leather and shoe manufacturing industry and prevalence of oral cleft at birth, different and specific exposure pattern foe women sometimes influenced by socio-economic status and women’s multiple role, cloud also be experienced for non occupational exposure from the general environment, indoor pollutants and life style habits.

The Bulgarian Labour legislation has provided special state protection for pregnancy women such as. Any enterprise, administration or organization cannot refuse employment because of pregnant of a woman desiring to be employed. It also gives an additional guarantee of the right of pregnant women to work. The state social policy gives protection for mother and also assist women by governing leave of absence for pregnant and child birth. Where the women is on leave because of pregnant and childbirth, the working women receives financial compensation equal to 100% of her gross labour remuneration. Mother also has the right to paid leave of absence for breast feeding until an infant is 8 months old. Special leave of up to 60 days annually is available for taking care of a sick child until the age of 16 yrs. The
legislation also provides free health care for all citizens for pregnant women and children up to the +3 years, where medicines one supplied free of charges at their homes. Special attention has been drawn to women’s participation in the socio-political life and administration of the country. The social protection has helped the women to adopt to new condition and to new roles of life. The broaden involvement of women in all sphere and at all level of management is the major aim of social development. The study has concluded that the changes should take place in traditional thinking, in the way of life and in people's awareness.

Irene Figa and Talamancas (2006), in their study on “Occupational risk factors and reproductive health of women” have summarizes and interprets the available recent epidemiologic evidence on the relationship between occupational exposures and negative reproductive outcome among women workers. This study has shown that reproductive effects may be observed at exposure levels which were previously considered safe. These effects include increased risk of spontaneous abortion, developmental toxicity in the offspring, stillbirth and delay in conception. Metal production employees are predominantly males, so most studies concern male effects. But in this studies dealing with exposures of women to chemical agents, pesticides, physical agents, ergonomic factors and stress, it appears that at present the evidence is sufficient to warrant the maximum protection of pregnant women to several well-documented occupational risk factors. These include exposures to anesthetic gases, antineoplastic drugs, heavy metals, solvents, heavy physical work and irregular work schedules. For other work risks, such as exposure to no ionizing radiation and psychosocial work stress, the evidence is often suggestive but not conclusive. Due to this the researcher have conclude that, the Policy makers and health professionals should advise women and employers to avoid exposure to the well-known occupational risk factors, while epidemiologic research should pursue methodological improvements and provide more insight into the magnitude of exposures responsible for detrimental effects.
Reiko Kishi *et. al*, (2006), describe the history, current issues, and future research directions on occupational health of working women, especially focused on reproductive health, work related musculo-skeletal disorders (WMSDs), and mental disorders. In their study WMSDs are reviewed on mainly gender difference and its causative factors. This study shows the working women are mainly suffer from upper limbs disorders (except those due to local vibration) and occupational low back pain. Women with low back pain often suffer from upper limb disorders caused by their working style and simple repetitive work increased. Many female workers suffered from WMSDs, especially occupational cervico-skeletal disorders.

Low back pain occurred often not only among men (forklift drivers, construction workers etc) but also women, for example, nursery school teachers, flight attendants, transportation workers, teachers for handicapped children, etc. authors have come across various surveys have been conducted about various occupations mainly composed of working women. They have examined the causes for difference in gender and it has found that difference of workloads between men and women. Even in foreign studies, the factor of gender difference in the incidence is not clear yet, but some studies suggest that muscle fiber composition in the trapeziums muscle may be related to the gender difference (41, 42). It has been difference, related studies, and future problems.

Lu (2007) also examined the impact of work family conflict and the effects of organizational support on working women in Taiwan. 441 women (aged between 15 and 64 years) in paid employment working in three public universities in northern Taiwan formed the sample population for this research. The findings showed that work-family conflict was strongly linked with lower job and family satisfaction, greater stress and more severe physical ailments. Implementing family friendly policies and creating a supportive work environment can help working women to manage their work-family conflict and improve their health outcomes.

Metugud, *et.al* (2008), a team of doctors of KLE medical college and research center Belgaum, have analyzed the health related problems in
women worker in woolen textiles factory. They have focused that; majority of the women has suffered from musculoskeletal pain which was related to the health of occupational exposé and age of the worker. They have also noted that the women in the study were involved in two jobs, spinning and farm work as means of income to support their family and also being had family responsibility and house hold work also could be major factor for their residual musculoskeletal pain. The Researchers have also pointed out that the women were exploited without any consideration of workload demand, physical fattiness, and nutritional status and their biological status as they performed dual role. They noticed the aggregate workload placed on them was so high that it becomes incompatible with their physical fitness leading to fatigue for them by lowering efficiency and incipiency health in the long run. The authors have advised few suggestions for work modification such as frequent short pause between working hours’, providing seats with adjustable back rest etc. The scholar has concluded that the high incidence of musculoskeletal pain has a definite ergonomic factor responsible for musculoskeletal problem. He has concluded that there is an ample scope for improvement in work design, machine layout and working condition in the unit.

Abdullah et al. (2008) assessed occupational stress, social and family difficulties and job contentment of working women in Bangladesh. The study contained the information and situation on working women, the hazards and occupational strains. Besides, this study has also tried to illustrate where the difficulties are and how far these for working women can be solved by giving them emotional sustenance, voicing against the long standing harassment of women and advocating equality for them.

Wei et al. (2009) examined 121 Chinese professional women on work family conflict and their stressors. The result showed that professional women’s self-role perceived and social-role perceived have conflicts; education, incoming ratio, professional experience can influence the stress; domesticity satisfaction, family activity, spouse stress, work devotion and work load are stressors for professional women’ s work-family conflict.
Maryam Zarra-Nezhad (2010), have studied Occupational Stress and Family difficulties of Working Women. In this study they have assessed the relationships between occupational stress and family difficulties in working women. A sample of 250 married working women with 2 or more children participated in this study during 2010 in one of the largest city of Iran. The study reveals that their counterparts in the normal family size on measures of multiple role stress. Another study conducted by

**3.7 Dual role and house hold responsibility of working women:**

Kapur (1974), in her pioneering work on working women throws light on the changes taking place in the role of women, specially married working women and how it affects marriage and family. She writes that in modern Indian society more and more married women are taking up careers and working both at home and work place, because they realize their goal is not just housekeeping but contribution to national growth. The modern working wife and mother have to plan a dual role and ready to consequences of role conflict. Ideally there should be redistribution of duties within family. But women have to bear the brunt and stress. She has to make adjustment and face many two roles, successfully. In her study 55 percent respondent were well adjusted. The most important factors in marital adjustment were found to be family composition, husband’s income, number of dependent difference in husband-wife income and similarity in couple’s concept of role and status and attitudinal compatibility. Three fourth of working women were unable to devote proper attention to their children. They have to spend most of their time outside home. The role conflict it thus closely related to the purpose of employment whether it is for fulfilled arising from educational achievements or for activates economic dependence. The fact that there is no proper reorganization and appreciation of the role of performance of women needs no reiteration.
Hate and Sengupta (1974) have written well before the international women's year on Indian women highlighted on the economy political and social background of changes in the status of women in the post independent period. Similarly the socio- psychological attitudes of educative working women was the theme of the Kapur’s study based on a sample of 300 working women drawn in equal proportion from three major occupational categories vise teachers, office workers and doctors. She conducted that employment wives make martial interactions a little more complicated and create adjustment problems in the family owing to their multiple roles coming in conflict with their expected and actual conduct. The child care is a major problem for working mother. Whether a women employee a mothers helper, or daycare center, there is often anxiety, worry and guilt. And also Marwell (1979) has found that the married women in an industry or public sector, there is a problem related to job transfers. She is generally not mobile because of her husband’s job and her children's ties. Many married women find that they have little free time. When they get home, they generally still have to do many of the household chores. Unless they set adequate help, they have little time left over for leisure-time activities. What often happen is that half of the weekend is devoted to household chores with only Sunday left for leisure.

Cory (1978) has studied the happiness among the working women, while his interrogation with twenty eight dual-career couples were asked to rate the amount of conflict they felt among four major roles; spouse, parent, career, and self-actualization. With respect to working women significant numbers of studies have been made. Among them Role conflict is one of the major problems of working women. They arise from a variety of circumstances and the conflicts in which the role is performed will be important determinate. The studies on role strain (Good 1966) role stress (wood 1967, Varghese 1974) dual role (office and home) demands readjustment and be allocation of her roles in both the places. Ramanamma and Bambawale (1980) have observed that, women who pursue a career
have to stay outside the house for long hours and find it difficult to devote enough time to their children. This is the greatest problem that the employed mothers have to face. Consequently, entrusting their children to servants or private child care centers it would lead them to anxiety always.

Margaret (1984), has studied the women in dual career families with preschool children manage typical conflicts between their professional and parental roles. He has married the strategies by using five sealer labeled as structured role redefinition, personal role redefinition, increased role Behavior cognitive Restructuring and Tension Reduction. She has noted the most highly endorsed coping strategies one increased role behavior and cognitive restructuring. He also noted that the personal and situational resources such as self esteem, career engagement spouse and social support were associated with lower role conflict and greater coping effeteness. Researchers have examined the effected of women’s multiple roles on their own physical and mental health (Long and Kahn, 1993). Researchers interested in the impact of multiple roles on women’s well-being initially assumed that paid work brought new stresses in to women’s lives and consequently, would be linked to negative health outcomes (Sears and Galmbos, 1993). Number of studies indicate that multiple role confer benefits to women’s physical and mental health (Barnett, 1993, Green and Russ, 1993; Sears and Galmbos, 1993). Although multiple roles for women produce a number of befits, certain work conditions also deleterious to women’s well-being (Repetti, Matthew and Waldron, 1989).

Ramu (1989) compares 245 single and 245 dual earner couples (N=980) From Bangalore city working in three major public sector industries. These researchers recognized the fact that Indian dual-worker couples faced an entirely different set of problems as compared to their western counterparts. In urban India, traditional large combined and extended families were giving way to nuclear families. This change was providing couples with more independence but was taking away the traditional support system from family members, especially for child care and household work and in case of
illness. Another observation was that Indian husbands maintained the provider’s role, which was contrary to observations of western societies, “Where there (was) a decline in the perception and performance of the role because of egalitarian values and the increasing importance of wives’ co-provider roles” (Ramu, 1989).

Rao (1990) studied the relation between employment of the wife and husband in their participation in housework. He tried to assess the level of participation of the husband in housework and examine the various socio-economic, demographic, family and attitudinal variable associated with it. Data was collected from a sample of 186 women working in Tirupathi, by means of a structured schedule. The mean age of the respondents was 33 years. He found that the traditional sex specific division of labour was not changed very much in the families of working women. Women from nuclear families were likely to get more help. The most important variable associated with husbands participation, was companionship in marriage.

Shukla 1987; Shukla and Kapoor 1990; Bharat 1995, have Rani and Khamdelwal 1992 found that while dual earner wives had more decision-making power as compared to single earner wives, their work status gave them more power vis-à-vis their husbands in seemingly less important areas such as menu making or home decoration whereas decisions on matters involving finances were generally made by husbands. Most dual earner wives continued to view themselves primarily as homemakers, and their work status did little to alter their sex-role orientation. They bore primary responsibility for housework and child care. Ironically, women in dual earner families tended to perpetuate sex-role stereotypes by socializing their children, especially daughters to take up traditional roles.

A dual-earner lifestyle by itself therefore did not guarantee more egalitarian relationships; rather it depended on the personality and attitude of the wife. Families in which the wife was more androgynous in her sex-role identity were less husband-dominated. Comparisons between dual earner and
single earner families also focused on martial conflict and adjustment, and found that while perceived conflict was higher in dual earner families as compared to single earner families (Rani and Khandelwal 1992; Srivastava 1995), it was not wife’s employment that determined marital adjustment but the extent of agreement between spouses on attitude to work and family roles (Rao 1996). This was resonant of similar findings in studies conducted in the previous decade. Since study after study indicated that even if employed, wives continued to bear the lion’s share of family responsibilities over and above work responsibilities, concern emerged about conflict, stress and strain experienced by working women especially in comparison to working men.

Sources of stress in the lives of working women emerged from a lack of time to attend to multiple roles, presence of young children (6-12 years) in the family, and additional responsibility at work in the form of promotions (e.g Surti and Sarupria 1983; Shukla and Verma 1986; Khanna 1992). Most common outcomes of stress for the working woman were poor mental and physical health resulting in depression, anxiety, asthma, and colitis (Khanna 1992; Sailaja and Swaminathan 1992, Mukhopadhyay 1996).

In keeping with the trend set during this decade of examining for gender differences in attitudes between men and women, some studies (Das 1985; Bhatnagar 1987) examined male attitude towards working women and found that male employees generally felt that working women were breaking the norm and hogging jobs thus creating less job opportunities for other worthy males. Managerial women however showed a more positive attitude towards fellow working women. It extended its focus to examining the impact of globalization on female workforce participation (Sonpar and Kapur 2001) and on the study of women; work and health and women and ageing (e.g, Gothoskar 1997; Madhiwala and Jesani 1997; Swaminathan 1997).

Chattopadhyay and Dasgupta (1999) however concluded that one could be married and play the role of wife, mother, householder and executive effectively and yet experience not more role stress than their single
counterparts. Since the problems and difficulties of women are multi
dimensional as evident from the literature reviewed, therefore, they require
further probing. Keeping this in view an attempt was made to study the effect
of different professions and multiplicity of social roles on the role conflict of
working women.

3.8 Wider society opinion on working women:

Chitrapu Swarajyalaxmi (1992) has focused on the opinions on working
women with various sections of the society of the Indian context. She has
observed in her study that when the women workers mix up freely with their
male colleagues without any inhibitions, a lot of gossiping is done against
their women worker colleagues. Their moments are watched with suspicion,
envy, jealousy and sometimes false allegations and rumors mongering has
found. While talking about non-working women neighbors irrespective of
their state of literacy will be adding insult to injury, fuel and causing either
willingly or unwillingly irritation and causing rituals when tempers, will rise
high between the members of the working women and misunderstandings,
tensions, bickering, factions etc. It also reported that some of these neighbors
are non-cooperative, unhelpful and feel jealous of the jobs, earnings and
status of the working women. Some of the respondents of this study shown
that suspicion by their husband and other family member, when they return
home late, and attend to the duties on holidays or go to office early or move
freely with their colleagues. This study has firmly focused the attitudes of
society on working women.

3.9 Commuter’s opinion:

Since majority of the end users are commuters apart from the
employees and administration of transport division, it is essential to discuss
and find out their opinion with regard to these developments especially
relating to women conductors. Though there are several studies conducted in
this regard following literature speaks about to issues debated and
deliberated.
Chan *et al.* (2002) has examined commuter’s exposure to reparable suspended particulate matters while commuting in public transportation models. The study was conducted by selecting different public transportation modes, which are bus, tram, taxi, Railway. The results indicated that the particulate level is greatly affected by the mode of transport as well as the ventilation system of transport.

Trdy (2003) has revealed the exposure of bus commuters to carbon monoxide (Co) and Carbon dioxide (Co2) in various bus routes in Hong Kong. It is found that the exposure level of Co2 inside the air-conditioned vehicle is strongly depend on the number of passengers but not on the driving environment. Gomez- Perales *et al.* (2004) have carried out to measure commuters’ exposure to 2 PM, 5, CO, Benzene, and the chemical composition of PM 2.5 on different routes and modes of transport in Mexico City. The study shows that during peak hours i.e. morning 6:30 am to 9:30 am and evening 17:30 to 20:30 hours, large number of commuters was exposed to Nitrates, sulphates, inorganic elements and carbon. There is mass collection was determined for all the samples.

Kang & Daviel (2006) have focused the balance jobs and housing has received considerable attention in the recent urban development. The excess of community technique, which measures the difference between for average observed commute and the average minimum commute, has been suggested as one means to identify the numerical imbalance between work places and residential locations. The result show how has for spatial process of decentralization have been countered by the economic process of faster travel and how the net result is a saving in the journey to work travel time.

Javier & Anna (2008) have made study on the value given by commuters to the variability of travel times is empirically analyzed using stated preference data from Barcelona (Spain). Respondents are asked to choose between alternatives that differ in terms of cost, average travel time, variability of travel times and departure time. Different specifications of a scheduling choice model are used to measure the influence of various
socioeconomic characteristics. The results show that travel time variability is valued on average 2.4 times more than travel time savings. Heterogeneity among commuters in terms of restriction about the starting work time is shown to have significant effects on the value of travel time variability.

Kang & Daviel (2006) have measured route distance in physically active commuting. The authors have come across that, there is a need for accurate, reliable, and feasible methods for determining route distance in physically active transportation. The aim of this study, therefore, was to scrutinize if distances of commuting routes drawn by physically active commuters and measured with a digital curvimeric distance measurement device could serve such a purpose.

Johnston et.al. (1992) have made an attempt to assess the influence of household type on gender difference in work trip distance. In this study there is conflicting evidence existing in the literature on commuting about whether or not the greater household responsibility of women lead to their widely observed shorter work trips compared to men. In light of changes in American household structure, this study reexamines the household responsibility hypothesis by focusing on household type (defined in terms of number of workers present in the home). Male and female work-trip distances are compared for Baltimore workers in single-worker household and for those in two-worker household.

Hennessy& Dwight (2008) have identified the commuters’ stress they found that, after commuters are immediately following their regular commute to work, participants completed questionnaire regarding state driver stress and anger during that commute. Then, immediately following completion of that work day, they completed a state version of the Workplace Aggression Scale. As state driver stress increased, the frequency of both expressed hostility and obstructionism increased (independently) during that work day, but only among male employees.
Evans et al. (2002) has examined the potential role of commute unpredictability in the stressfulness of the daily journey to work among population of public transportation.

Moos et al. (2007) have analyzed the distribution of home workers across the three largest urban regions in Canada and shows how they differ across sex of home worker, household type, income level, occupation and industry. The highest proportion of home workers is in art, culture and recreation occupations followed by management, the field dominated by men. Women home workers make the financial, secretarial and administrative occupations the third-largest group of home workers. The spatial distribution of home workers follows a sectoral form. While the characteristics of inner city and suburban home workers differ, the differences are the same as for commuters. Rather than creating a completely new location pattern, home appears to reinforce existing urban forces of centralization by professionals and continued decentralization by middle classes and those seeking larger estates, such as those in management occupations. The study suggests that the increasing trend towards home work is not dispersing cities, but allows greater location flexibility within already-existing urban spatial patterns.

Bunker et al. (1992) have examined the quality of life of women and men in two types of dual careers families. Unfamiliar family patterns often raise concerns about the problems that such innovations may create for the family. Currently, there is considerable interest in the commuting lifestyle. Popular views of the commuting lifestyle are generally pessimistic. Although the benefits of commuting, especially with regard to work goals, have not been totally ignored, the general assumption seems to be that the commuting lifestyle is one chronic role strain and stress. The decision to commute is often a decision to give priority to work related values. If commuters have been successful in achieving their work objectives, researchers would expect them to be more satisfied with their work life than dual career respondents who may have made career compromises. Face to face interaction while living in the same residence is assumed to foster
emotional intimacy and coherence in the family life. Commuters have reported missing informal conversation and the sharing of trivia, spontaneous leisure, the physical presence of others, and the availability of the partner to serve as a sounding board.

Wener & Phillips (2002) have examined the potential role of commute unpredictability in the stressfulness of the journey to work as more unpredictable felt greater levels of stress and evidenced higher elevations of salivary cortisol.

Stephen & Tom (2003) have discussed the commuter’s stress due to heavy rush in morning in bus. This article has pointed out various difficulties of implementing of travel planning and policy. The study has come across that the widespread implementation of both urban transport policy instruments is a complex and sensitive area for decision-makers due to non co-operation.

Yusak et.al (2008) have concentrated on structural changes over time in commuters’ travel patterns are examined by formulating and estimating simultaneous equations model systems of activity engagement and travel. The study results has come across that the challenge the conventional wisdom that auto travelers tend to chain trips; transit commuters make more stops and chain trips more effective than do auto commuters in Osaka area, suggesting that travel patterns are heavily influenced by transportation networks and land use developments.

Mannering (1989) has investigated the determinants of commuter flexibility in changing routes and departure time for the morning trip to work. A sample of commuters in a congested metropolitan area is used to estimate Poisson regressions of how often commuters change route and departure times per month. The estimation results provide valuable insight into the effects of traffic system and socioeconomic conditions on frequency of route and departure time changes. The results also have significant implications for real-time traffic information systems and future research on the route and departure time choice decision making process.
Anthony (1990) has focused the travel management in which he has observed the need to provide empirical evidence to support the widely held view that institutional factors such as official work start times and staggered working hours are powerful policy tools in traffic management and in influencing travel behaviour.

Sinuany et.al. (1997) have presents a micro simulation model for studying the effect of information on commuters’ behavior during morning peak congestion, and its impact is examined here in relation to network performance. The model is fed by survey data of perceived behavior in two cities and two different countries: Israel and Sweden.

Jerald (1978) has focused on behavior while commuting by adult commuters in mass transport. He has come across that work values can account for behavior and attitudes that expand beyond the work place.

Asad et.al. (1993) have highlighted on incident-induced congestion is a major source of delay and frustration for drivers in large urban areas. Advance traveler Information system (ATIS) have been proposed within the framework of urban limit to induced congestion problems.

By looking at the above literature on commuters, it is evident that the universe is as big as society. The some people who live in the said city, town or agglomeration, they tend to come and use this transport system. Except upper class people or people who use own vehicles. Nevertheless, the issues ranged from health, to behavior along with timings came into picture. All these issues are in the fore while discussing the commuters’ opinion on women conductors the same will be discussed in the coming chapters.

Conclusion:

In this chapter, various literary sources have been reviewed on different tasks of the working women based on gender perspective. The review has been made in sequence to identify the problems and challenges of working women by incorporating various concepts and theme relating to the gender bias in Indian context. The above review has also touched upon
women issues in changing structure of occupation environments i.e. work in male dominated sectors, shift work, occupational stress and health issues. This attempt has provided the pre-requisites for the analysis of the data of the present study and pertaining to the objectives of the study. This study throws light to assess the socio-economic profile of working women and has enlightened the researcher to analyze the socio-economic profiles of the respondents in further chapters of the study.