CHAPTER – 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
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This chapter is devoted to the review of literature already existing on the related aspect of labor time allocation and valuation of women’s contribution in household activities – A comparative study of rural and urban areas. It is important to review an available literature on the problem since it provides the information regarding the work already done on this particular topic. It provides the base for the research to evolve a suitable methodology and framework studying the problem. Certain hypothesis can also be found from existing literature and can be empirically verified with the current available information. A number of empirical studies have been conducted regarding the labor time allocation and valuation of women’s contribution in household activities in rural and urban areas of Himachal Pradesh, both by Government agencies as well as individual scholars.

Poonga (1989)\(^1\) conducted an empirical study from a sample of 100 households in order to know an occupational pattern of an urban women worker of Chamba town in Himachal Pradesh. She concluded that out of the total sample majority of women were working as government servants. Out of total working women, 89 per cent were in government sector and in government sector the percentage of women engaged in class I and class II jobs was low but it was high in class III jobs.

Mukhopadhyay and Ghosh (1990)\(^2\) conducted a study, on time use of male and female population of six villages in the district of Nadia in West Bengal with the objective to estimate, their participation rates based upon the alternative concepts of work and re-estimation of women’s contribution to an income at micro level based on data collected from 2,319 males and 2,123 females, aged 15–50 years, through a survey for various activities and time use pattern during twenty-four hours. They concluded that an average male spends about 9.47 hours and the female about 9.53 hours per day in the activities. Male allocates about 6.25 hours per day to an economic activities and only about 3.22 hours to productive activities. Female, on the other hand, spent the bulk of their time that was, 8.18 hours per day, on such “home
production" activities like own education, childcare, housework and on other activities like sewing, knitting, mat making, making cow dung for fuel and tutoring of one's children. Author argued that if activities, such as, housework, own education, and child care could be viewed, as “work” in broader sense of the term, total work performed by the female, it would be more than the male for almost all the occupational categories. Further study showed that female spent more hours than the male in home production activities. This means females were more burdened than the males.

Harish (1991)^3 studied an economic development and role of Indian women. He concluded that an economic role of women could not be isolated from development. The developing countries have realised the need for an equal participation of women and men in every sphere of national life for the purpose of national development and also for the better standard of living. Unfortunately, the significance of women's participation in socio-economic development had emerged, not out of fundamental consideration, but out of need have maximised output in growth models. To reduce population growth thereby raising per capita income and consumption and to contain misery and discontent that interferes with productivity and growth. He further concluded that woman contributes both directly and indirectly in national building activities. So the measures to accelerate the rate of an economic development should be supplemented by conducive environment for raising women participation in economic activities.

Pong (1991)^4 studied the effect of women's labour on family income inequality. In Hong-Kong, a society which in recent year had experienced one of the world's sharpest increase in women's labour participation, to investigate whether Hong-Kong family welfare became more or less equal as the result of contribution by married women's labour force participation from 1976 to 1981. Probit regressions were applied to the dichotomous variables of whether a woman worked or not. He concluded that in each year, there was strong curvilinear relation between women's age and their labour force participation. Young women were more likely to work than an older women, but their probability of working drops increasingly with the age. He further concluded that women who were born in Hong-Kong were more likely to work
than those born in China and elsewhere. The reason for this might be that, during
immigration, these women lose their specific market skills. Furthermore, their
education credentials lost value for entry into high-paying professions. Other
things being equal, the value of their home time thus rose relative to the value
of their market time, inducing them to stay home. He further concluded that
when non-working women's potential earnings were included in the income
measure, inequality was reduced. As more women participated in the labor
market, and their potential earnings were revealed as market earnings,
conventional income measure would be better approximate family potential
income.

Gautam and Meenakshi (1992) conducted a study on the participation of
women in agriculture/farm activities in Himachal Pradesh. In Himachal
Pradesh women constituted 49.3 per cent of total population and out of total
female workers of 395021, 91.3 per cent were agriculture workers (cultivators
89.6 per cent plus agriculture labourers 1.7 per cent) according to 1981
census. They concluded that in the state within agriculture labour force, the
proportion of women was more as compared to men and their contribution in
agriculture/farm activities was also greater. It might also be seen that on
tending of livestock, women spent more time which was due to the fact that
for grazing the animals and fodder collection the time required was more. The
female of marginal household spent time in this activity because they might
not have their own pasture and depends on forest or common land which was
far off from their houses. As size of holding increased the proportionate time
spent by female decreases on these operations. Moreover extension service
programme were generally provided to men; women were mostly left out of
such training programmes. Therefore, such type of service regarding use of
modern farm techniques, livestock rearing practices, health care, nutrition,
family planning etc. should also be equally provided to women in slack period
of agriculture, also at places where they could conveniently learn, preferably
through women officials.

Menakshi (1992) studied the female labor participation in an urban areas of
Himachal Pradesh, based on primary data, collected from 300 sample
households from six towns. She concluded that the occupational pattern
among the sample households showed that 50.1 per cent were workers out of whom 68.80 per cent were male workers and 31.20 per cent were female workers. The largest per cent male were employed in high salary posts, while a high proportion of same women were more likely to be concentrated in female job, which usually have lower status and lower remuneration. It was observed that the women work for much longer hours than the men folk, but out of the hours so spent, much smaller proportion of time was allocated to economic activities. This showed a lower degree of participation among an urban female in Himachal Pradesh.

Mawar and Jain (1993)\textsuperscript{7} conducted a study to understand the employment and an economic status of tribal women in relation to their decision-making ability in a block of district Mandla in Madhya Pradesh. On the basis of information collected from 180 respondents through observation and in-depth interview. They concluded that women’s contribution in decision-making was only through suggestions to the husband or the elders in the house. Decision regarding expenditure that involves more money e.g. of purchasing land and building of a house, purchasing of vehicle etc. has been taken by the husband, whereas the wife was consulted less frequently. They further concluded that it was in a nuclear set up, where a woman has comparatively more freedom to assert her opinion regarding family matters than in joint families.

Das (1993)\textsuperscript{6} conducted a study in Johrat town of Assam to analyse the decision-making practices of families with employed and non-employed homemakers based on primary information collected by interview. She concluded that in case of 90 per cent of employed homemakers, food preparation was governed by planned decision. As far as purchasing of clothes was concerned, 50 per cent employed homemakers make impulsive decision. On the other hand, 70 per cent of the non-employed home makers made repetitive decisions, and 62 per cent made planned decisions for food preparation and purchasing of cloths respectively. Regarding furnishing and decoration of the house planned decision was observed in employed homemaker. He further concluded that employed women took an active part in decision-making about money matter and family expenses.
Despande (1994)\textsuperscript{9} pointed out that jobs which are likely to be offered to women who enter the labour market could be best described as follows: (1) their jobs are likely to have short time horizons or would be non-permanent in state. They could be in temporary, casual or contract jobs, (2) Since these jobs are non-permanent, it implies that they would be irregular or intermittent and would create insecurity of income, (3) in these jobs women would have no control either over their working conditions or their wages or the pace of work as all these factor would be controlled by others like employers, jobbers or contractors; and (4) these jobs would not only lie outside the purview of labour legislation but also would not enjoy the protection of family, community or caste in which women gets as helpers or unpaid family workers in agricultural or artisans households. The emerging female labour market indicates clearly that women working there would be victims of discrimination and unfair labour practices to a great extent than in the past. But despite the precariousness of the work, with its instability, insecurity and social and tolerate exploitation. The meagre income they get would be precious for their own and for their families survival since they form substantial proportions of their equally, low family/household incomes. More importantly, as the future labour market would offer, wage work to women, certain complex labour processes could be expected to emerge which would control both women’s participation and their job access.

Mitra and Cheney (1994)\textsuperscript{10} evaluated the impact of the current economic policies on women in an urban India. They observed that an increased supply of labour resulted largely of an increased participation of women in the labour force. This is particularly true of low income households where the reserved labour of women and children were deployed to cope up with an economic crisis. Larger numbers of women have found jobs in an unorganised manufacturing and service sectors, as casual labour, piece rate workers or self-employed Person. They further concluded that women receive only a small share of the development opportunities. They are often excluded from an education or from the better jobs, from Political system or from adequate health care.
Devendra (1994)\(^1\) conducted a study on changing status of women in India, to study the changes brought about in the status of an Indian woman after 1947, and the effectiveness of the legal reforms which were enacted from 1829 to 1992. He concluded that education has made it possible for women to adopt a career and the law has given her protection the environment at home and around her has not changed much. Despite that women has been working today the contradiction in their lives still remains the main factor. The changes that have taken place are more theoretical than practical and they have failed to penetrate deep because the laws passed by the Government still await genuine acceptance by families and society.

Sharma (1995)\(^2\) conducted an empirical study from a sample of 300 sample households in order to know an urban female labour participation in Himachal Pradesh and observed that out of total 50.1 per cent workers in sample area, 68.8 per cent were male workers and 31.2 per cent were female workers. The study also revealed that a high proportion of sample women were concentrated in jobs like teaching, clerks, assistants, peons and as domestic workers and very few women were in an engineering, medical profession, an administration and research.

Thakur and Thakur (1995)\(^3\) conducted micro level study on female work participation and their decision making power in chowk village in Mandi district of Himachal Pradesh based on primary data collected from 160 sample household. They concluded that irrespective of the familial composition the structure of family followed the pattern of joint family system. The only redeeming feature noticeable in the study was that sharing of role responsibilities in both levels, i.e. household and an economic work. Work was considered a part and parcel of the women's life in the hilly areas. In other words, the familial network of respondents gave the impression that in the villages, there was a trend towards nuclear households and sharing of the household responsibilities. The power dynamics have got changed. Decision making authorities was still vested in the hand of male members in the family. In the familial network of relationship, it was still the elder male members who enjoy authority.
Sethi (1996) conducted a study which was related with the work structure for an educated and an uneducated employed or an unemployed women had basic similarities in the domestic front. She concluded that there exist some basic similarities in the domestic front. In both cases, there was no reward, monetary or otherwise, for performing the household jobs, which were mainly indoors. It includes cooking, health care, cleaning etc. But outside the house, the work situation and structure were hierarchically related to the level of education. She classified the jobs related to an education and training specially in an urban areas as: (1) low level jobs as clerical and secretarial (2) Higher level jobs of officers, managers and administrators, (3) professional and technical (4) legal and political.

Despande (1996) analysed the changing structure of an employment in India during the period 1981-1991 based on secondary data. He concluded that work Participation of men declined while those of women increased both in rural and urban India. There was a shift in structure of male employment from primary to tertiary sector but women’s share of employment in the primary sector remained unchanged. Non-farm employment, mainly in an unorganised segment, grew faster than the total employment. She further observed that urban areas, tertiary sector emerged as the largest sector of absorption followed by the secondary sector.

Singh (1996) examined the pattern of women’s occupational participation in eleven district of Punjab based on secondary data. She divided occupation in three categories viz.: traditional (farm workers, farmers, hunters etc.), modern (teacher, jurists, doctors, architects, scientists etc.) and mixed (artists, writers, administrators, executive officials etc.). She concluded that modern occupation showed a significant rise and mixed occupations witnessed a rise in female participation in most regions of Punjab in both an urban and rural areas. In traditional occupations, rural female worker’s participation was higher as compared to urban female workers.

Papola (1996) reviewed an employment situation of women in terms of its level, extent and structure in different South Asian countries including India and found that in most South Asian societies, majority of women were reported to be ‘non-workers’ due to full time engagement in household
activities and social constraints. Majority of female workforce was in agriculture and the figure was 65 per cent for India. A significant proportion of women workers were employed in non-agricultural activities like manufacturing and services but they were mostly concentrated in low-wage occupation and informal segments of these sectors. He further concluded that in India, a large majority of women workers (55 per cent) were self-employed and casual workers forming the next largest group i.e. (39 per cent). He pointed out that certain changes in structure of women's employment have been observed particularly in modern sectors and white collar jobs due to improvements in an educational level of women.

Brown (1996)\(^{18}\) studied the valuation of household services with the help of the opportunity cost method and replacement cost method. He concluded that since individual make valid contributions through their efforts at both paid and an unpaid work, they should be compensated when they are unable to pursue either type of employment.

Jackson (1996)\(^{19}\) concluded in his study of an unpaid work that women engaged in an unpaid work in Canada in higher proportions, and spent more time than men in each area of activity. He indicated that meal preparations and clearing were the most time consuming chores and that spending on child care was one of the fastest growing components of personal spending.

Singh (1996)\(^{20}\) examined the pattern of women's occupational participation in eleven districts of Punjab based on secondary data. She divided occupations in three categories viz: traditional (farm workers, farmers, hunters etc), modern (teachers, jurists, doctors, architects, scientists etc.) and mixed (artists, writers, administrators, executive officials etc.). She concluded that modern occupations showed a significant rise and mixed occupations witnessed a rise in female participation in most regions of Punjab in both urban and rural areas. In traditional occupations, rural female worker's participation was higher as compared to urban female workers.

Rao (1997)\(^{21}\) on the basis of census data analysed the trends and structure of women work force in rural non-farm sector by comparing all India and Andhra Pradesh for the period 1971-1999. He concluded that women employment
was highest in manufacturing. Trade and commerce also showed increasing
trend both for Andhra Pradesh and all India. Construction and transport;
storage and communication have exhibited declining trends in share in both
for Andhra Pradesh and all India but mining and quarrying showed an
increasing trends in share for Andhra Pradesh. He further concluded that
there was a speedy shift of women work force in favour of non-farm sector in
Andhra Pradesh as compared to all India. Women workforce in non-farm
sector has with drown from arduous and less remunerative jobs.

Vidya (1997)\textsuperscript{22} conducted a study on the role of women in Panchayati Raj
Institution and Political life in India, especially in Karnataka. She has
meticulously described an emerging pattern of women leadership, their
effective participation in the decision making process, their influence in these
institutions and an impact on the overall development of women especially in
the rural areas. She disclosed many social, economic, constraints on parts of
women in their functioning in the Panchayati Raj bodies.

Srivastva (1997)\textsuperscript{23} conducted a study on women's employment in India's
organised sector, both public and private. She concluded that women
comprised a small proportion, about 15.84 per cent, of the total work force in
this sector. 70 per cent of all the workers in an organised sector were an
employed in the public sector. In public sector, there were 6 times more men
than women and in the private sector, there were roughly 4 times more men
than women. This might be that women were treated as merely
supplementary income earners and also in public sector gender bias and
tradition have kept many areas like an electricity generation and transmission,
petroleum, gas and construction etc., out of bounds for women.

Kundu (1997)\textsuperscript{24} on the basis of secondary data analysed recent trend and
pattern in employment growth for women in both rural and urban areas and
compared these with corresponding trends and pattern for males. He
concluded that a decline in work participation rate for adult males and
increase in share of women in workforce has been observed, particularly in
urban areas. In self-employment category, percentage of male and female
workers has gone down in rural and urban areas. He noticed an increase in
the share of casual workers for males in both rural and urban areas but for
females only in rural areas. Share of male workers-rural as well as urban has declined in regular/salaried category, but share of urban women workers has increased in this. He further concluded that this trend of urban women workers was mainly in the low productivity sectors and that regular female worker are paid the same as male casual workers or even less.

Patrick (1998) conducted a study on the problems of sales women working in registered shops in Ernakulum district of Kerala to estimate the discrimination against sales women in relation to salesmen in the labour market in terms of wages and discrimination in the household sector based on time allocation theory as well as to analyse the aspect of migration and its process based on primary and secondary data. For the study 150 sales women were interviewed. Multiple regression and opportunity cost technique were used to analyse the data. He concluded that sales women were not only paid low wages but were also discriminated against in the labour market. It was found that there existed both occupational segregation and wage discrimination. Most of the women were employed in the sales section. Very limited numbers of them were engaged in account or clerical work. There was a high rate of unemployment less mobility and skill, absence of alternatives available to them, less competition from males. Thus, it was concluded that there were low wages and occupational and wage discriminations in the labour market.

Statistics Canada (1998) calculated and estimated the value of unpaid household work based on their 1992 time use survey. The unpaid household labour was estimated at between 31 per cent and 46 per cent of Gross Domestic Product. On an individual level, the value of unpaid work done by an average Canadian woman at home was valued at between $11,920 and $16,860 for that year.

Human Development Report (1998) focused on changing today's consumption pattern for tomorrow's human development. The report was divided into five chapters to address the state of human development on consumption patterns. It was concluded in the report that there was an uneven distribution of consumption expansion globally. World wide disparity between nations. Initial disparities were so large that an increased
consumption has not bridged the gap between the most developed nations and the developing nations. For example, in low income countries consumption has declined 1 per cent annually over past 15 years. While developed country consumption has increased.

Unni and Rani (1999) conducted an empirical study of an informal sector and the role of women in an emerging labour market during 1998-99 in Ahmadabad City of Gujarat state. They concluded that majority of an informal workers are self-employed, operating with a very low level of capital. A noteworthy feature of an emerging scenario as revealed by them was the consistent growth of non-wage employment in non-agricultural sector and capacity of informal women workers to generate an employment and an income, undeterred by constraints such as poor access to capital and lack of state support. They further concluded that there was an urgent need for improving access to capital and level of productivity in the informal sector.

Sharma et. al (1999) analysed the magnitude of female labour participation in an agricultural and livestock enterprises to estimate the contribution of female labour to farm income, based on primary data collected from 120 sample household proportionally drawn from the blocks, namely Nichar and Kalpa in the tribal district of Kinnaur of Himachal Pradesh in 1995-96. They concluded that in the cultivation of major crops and in livestock rearing, the contribution of female labour to total labour requirements was more than half except for marketing operations. It was as high as 75 per cent in the case of intercultural and harvesting. In the case of livestock enterprise also, the contribution of female labour was 70 per cent for indoor activities, whereas, in the case of market-oriented operations, the contribution of male labour was important.

Chauhan (1999) conducted a study to examine the contribution of Gaddi tribal women in farm and household economy and their participation in decision-making of various activities, based on data collected from 100 sample households chosen from 13 villages of Bharmour block in Chamba district of Himachal Pradesh through Proportional allocation method in 1996-97. He concluded that the contribution of women was more than that of men in an activities performed near to their dwellings, which is reflected through
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more labour days put in crop production, cattle rearing and handloom weaving, though the contribution of males was more in tending of small ruminants (sheep & goats). In decision making process the participation of women was found to be higher in an activities which were to be performed near their living places and require an involvement of their family members.

Dahiya, Saraswat and Sharma (1999)\textsuperscript{31} concluded a study on women in various farm and non-farm activities in rural areas of the low, mid and high hill zones of Himachal Pradesh, based on primary data collected from 120 sample household selected from twelve villages with a proportional sample of ten farming households from each village and 40 households from each zone under cost accounting method. They concluded that participation of women was consistently higher vis-a-vis men in labour force in the farm sector because of occupational shift by men towards secondary sector and territory sector, low literacy rate and poor skill level of women constraining them to stay in the farm sector. Social taboos and household work also constrain women to continue in primary sector occupations. Women participation in subsidiary rural occupation was negligible in all the three zones. The participation of a women worker in productive an economic activities was 155 day per annum as against 182 days for a male worker in low zone; it was higher at 225 days for women labour in mid hills as against 176 days for male worker. In the high hill zone, the participation by both sexes was at par per annum. Women out performed men in tending animals and attending to the household work. Their participation in crop production was below 2 hours per day in all three zones except during October and November on large farms. The participation of women in paid an economic activities was 4 to 5 hours and considering an unpaid household work the total working hours were 8 to 10 hours, with nil participation in farm activities during January to March in mid and high hills. They suggested the need for launching an extensive outreach programmes for an upgradation of technological skill for both women and men, acquiring newer skills by women, improving their literacy levels, for imparting training to women in subsidiary occupation in the non-farm sector and for stricter enforcement of public policies in the country for an ensuring gender equity and women empowerment.
Mehta (1999)\textsuperscript{32} conducted a study to bring out the silent feature of the level and rate of work participation of male and female population in rural Rajasthan. He concluded that non-availability of full time work as one of the main reason for the low rate of female participation in the work force. He concluded that work participation rate in female population was much lower than in the male population, though over time it has shown as increase, the main (full-time) work force was predominantly masculine, the participation rate was higher among tribals and the districts dominated by the tribals was supported. However, no such conclusion could be derived for the scheduled castes.

Singh (1999)\textsuperscript{33} conducted an empirical study in order to know an impact of employment on the socio-economic status of female industrial labour in Ludhiana city of Punjab State. He concluded that most of women took to factory work as they were able to purchase many household items from their saving. He further said that after an employment, women workers got respect from family and from society. Their presence was felt in the family due to their earnings and they were consulted in an important family matters. He also indicated that women workers were very poor from an economic as well as social point of view.

Sharma, Bala and Sharma (1999)\textsuperscript{34} conducted a study in the contribution of Female Labour to Farm Income: of Tribal Areas of Himachal Pradesh to examine the magnitude of female labour participation in an agricultural and livestock enterprises and to estimate the contribution of female labour based on a sample of 120 households proportionally drawn from two blocks, namely, Nichar and Kalpa in the tribal district of Kinnaur of Himachal Pradesh for agriculture year 1995-96. They concluded that the contribution of female labour to total income in all the important crops and livestock was higher than that of male labour in all the farm categories, indicating that the female labour was the sole performers of most of the operations. This suggests that for an enhancing farm gross household income, the female of the tribal area need to be trained in farm/non-farm operations preferably through female extension workers.
Rajivan (1999) studied the policy implication for gender equity through time use survey during July 1998 to June 1999 based on primary data collected from 75000 persons of 19000 sample households from 6 states in India. The data tabulated separately for males and females by rural-urban, by age group, by paid and an unpaid for SNA activities and under extended-SNA activities. She concluded that men spend more time on SNA activities (paid work) as compared to women. Women spend much more time on an extended SNA as compared to men. Children do spend time on SNA and extended SNA work, with the direction of male-female differences consistent with those of adults, but the size of gap being less. And, finally, there is not much difference by sex in respect of personal activities overall, with some differences in individual activities like males spend more time than females on learning, the male-female gap are not wide (47-61 hours for males and 45-49 hours females weekly average). In respect of social and cultural activities, women’s time exceeds that of men in social and religious activities etc. and male time being higher in the remaining activities under this group. She further added that valuation of an unpaid work is a future direction identified for the Indian study. Valuation is planned to be taken up on a pilot basis. A large part of E-SNA activities are non-market and therefore not valued, thus omitting women's contribution. It is planned that to begin with, for an unpaid activities the data on time use and the local wage rate for that particular type of activity could be used to generate estimates of value added. This would be of special significance in respect of an unpaid work done by women as well as men.

Kalpagam (1999) on the basis of secondary data analysed that women who are engaged predominantly in domestic duties also perform a set of activities, of which some could be classified as an economic and others as beneficial. He observed that merely complaining about the lack of visibility of women's work or theoretical debates on valuation of women's non-marketed work in estimates of GDP are not sufficient for the empowerment of women in practice. The need is to make an access to cash income possible for them. He concluded that many studies across the world have highlighted that
patriarchal dominance in household can only be countered by strengthening women's bargaining position.

**Pal (2000)** conducted a study on male-female differentials in rural labour in India an inter-state analysis. He concluded that inter-state disparity widened in respect of worker population ratio. It was more for female than for male in the rural area. Mode of employment in case of rural labour has been changing over the years. The numbers of self-employed rural male and female labour have declined in almost all the states. However, the number of rural male and female employed as wage labourer had been more than those as self-employed labour, presumably due to expansion of non-farm activities in the rural economy. He further observed that an index of casualisation for female employment more than that of male employment in India. In addition to this, variation in the activity status of rural labour has been observed. Employment in the non-farm activities has expanded at the cost of farm activities. Such a diversification had however, been more for male than female in all the states except Punjab and West Bengal during the period under study.

**Amuda and Veerabhadraiah (2000)** conducted an empirical study from a sample of 120 households in order to study the participation of women in different activities of commercial poultry farming in two taluks of Tamil Nadu and concluded that in this sector, participation of women was mostly confined to an activities like feeding and litter management while the important aspect like marketing, production and medical care was handled by men. They suggested that women should be made more organised and aware of improved poultry practices and disease control measures.

**Tuteja (2000)** conducted a study on the contribution of female income in the farm households of rural Haryana based on primary data collected from 150 farm households in 1994-95. He concluded that female agriculture workers contributed significantly in household income on all farm sizes and their earning were found most crucial for landless and small farm workers and role in decision-making was found to be poor. Female workers belonging to big farm households had a better say as compared to others. Ownership right in land was almost non-existent for female workers. He further concluded that
the female agricultural workers do not enjoy the status commensurate to their involvement in the households as a worker.

**Dutta (2000)** \(^40\) on the basis of census and national sample survey data analysed the trends and pattern of women employment in service sector and found that share of women workers in service sector, both in an organised and an unorganised, has increased especially in urban areas. This was particularly due to current system of sub-contracting of work in urban economy. But this trend hardly depicts an overall improvement in the quality of work and status of women. She concluded that quantity vs. quality dialectic needs a thorough reassessment in any review of women workforce in the tertiary sector and in this regard four essentials of human development—productivity, equity, sustainability and empowerment, denied to majority of women workers, should be kept in mind.

**Maurya (2001)** \(^41\) conducted a study on the occupational pattern of employment of women in India and world. He concluded that women today stand for all round competition in almost all the spheres and are found to be in an abundant quest for their suitable placement in a country of their origin or abroad. He further concluded that in India the employment of women in the organised sector has gone up steadily over the last ten years. There was an increase in women's employment in almost all industrial categories. Women by and large represented occupational group which were not only female dominated but were also partly seemed to be male dominated.

**Verma and Larson (2001)** \(^42\) conducted a study on the time spend by urban middle class women in household work in 1996-97 based on the data collected from 100 families from Chandigarh, Mohali and Panchkula, with the help of Experience Sampling Method. They concluded that employed women spent a larger proportion of their family work time in food preparation and a smaller proportion in cleaning and washing. They also indicated that division of labour in these families was closer to the pattern of traditional rural families. An employed women carried the heaviest burden of total labour.

**Ironmonger (2001)** \(^43\) conducted a study on household production and the household economy and concluded that the household functions as the basic
social unit that allocates labour time towards production and consumption and household production, thus involves the collective generation of goods and services by household, combining capital assets such as land, tools and implements and skills held or controlled by certain members with an unpaid labour contributed directly and indirectly by other members to support the production process.

Rodgers (2001) analysed the women service sector employment in global context and found that expansion of services has led to creation of both low-skilled and high-skilled jobs. Women have been able to take an advantage of new employment opportunities offered in service sector though there is an increasing polarization of income both among women and between men and women working in service sector. She further concluded that an educated urban woman have benefited from the expansion of services but they continue to be under-represented in service and technical subjects and an info .nation computer technology (ICT) based jobs which need constant updating.

Seth (2001) studied on empowerment of women by generating awareness among them. Women’s awareness about development was basic to her employment. For achieving this awareness the most important ingredient was the necessity of a healthy environment about her perception by the society and the community in which she was born. She had reached on the conclusion that in India there is son preference cutting across caste, creed, religion and the birth of a girl child is not as welcome as that of a boy. It is most important therefore that, there should be awareness among generation regarding the falling sex ratio in the country. The sex ratio in the country has declined from 970/1000 in 1901 to 933/1000 according to the census figures of 2001. It is important to note that this has happened inspite of an accelerated efforts at development for women increasing their life expectancy from 23.3 years in 1901 to 65.6 years in 2000 and their literacy rates from 0.60 per cent in 1901 to 54.16 per cent, according to the provisional census figures of 2001. She further concluded that an atmosphere of positivity, hope, encouragement and enthusiasm has to be created which would lead to an
increasing access of women to all the benefits created by development efforts.

Singh and Misra (2002)\textsuperscript{46} conducted a study on the women workforce in the UP hill region based on the data throw up by the Census of 1981 and 1991. They concluded that the female population of the region, according to the 1991 census, was 28.94 lakh, constituting 48.8 per cent of the total population of the region. The corresponding percentage for Uttar Pradesh was 46.8 between the census years 1981 and 1991, the female population in the hill region increased from 23.68 lakh to 28.94 lakh, showing an increase of 22.2 per cent, which was lower than the corresponding rise (25.1 per cent) in the state as a whole. They further concluded that women workers were predominant more in the hill areas than in the state as a whole. Women workers to total workers between the hills and the state were, by and large, explained by the high incidence of out migration of able bodied males from the hill areas.

Dasgupta (2003)\textsuperscript{47} using data from the people's security survey carried out by the ILO's Socio Economic Security Programme in India, to examines the hypothesis that such an organisation of women in an informal economy leads to both tangible and intangible benefits—greater income security, employment security and work security along with greater control over their earnings and greater self-esteem. Women workers in an informal economy were amongst those with least access to social protection. Given their vulnerable status at home and at work, income generation along may not improve their socio-economic status. Their economic empowerment need to go along with political empowerment, which could improve their bargaining power both in the household and at work. This means organising women workers in the informal economy could have beneficial impacts on their work and their life if such an organisation combines voice representation along with an access to resources such as credit and information a holistic strategy that provides political empowerment allied with economic empowerment.

Pal (2004)\textsuperscript{48} conducted a study on Social Development of Rural Women in India, particularly in term of their general health and nutrition, sex ratio education and physical, equality because these aspects of their development
are very necessary for their empowerments and capacity building as reproductive and productive factors in India society and economy. Development may be defined as a function of an economic, social and an educational and cultural betterment of people. In Indian context not only various programmes and policies have been initiated for own betterment but their share has also been ensured as member and chairpersons, in rural and urban local government so that they can take in decentralised decision making process for the development of their own and fellow citizens. The sex ratio in the age group of 0-6 years was more serious because it was 824 at state level. The literacy rate according to the census as against 71.81 percentage literacy of male their counterparts was merely 46.56 per cent.

Rani and Unni (2004) examined the insecurities faced by poor women in a developing country like India. They concluded that poor women in developing countries were burdened with the dual responsibility of taking care of housework and the need to supplement household income to meet the subsistence needs. The on-going flexibilisation process world over has no doubt created new jobs, most of them informal, but they lie beyond the reach of labour legislation and social protection and were characterised by low income and high levels of insecurity. For improving their situation they suggested for a need to address economic needs of the women and a need to reform the social security system to recognise the value of women's labour at home.

Shimray (2004) conducted a study on women's work in Naga society household work, workforce participation and division of labour. To understand household work, workforce participation, division of labour and women's position in Naga society with special reference to the Tangkhul Nagas of Manipur state. Using a qualitative approach, the average time spent on housework and an agricultural activities by men, women and children and the gendered division of labour were examined. Although Naga society was patriarchal, women enjoy considerable freedom and play on important role in family and community life. Women have a greater range of responsibilities, from domestic work, within and outside the homestead to various agricultural activities and bear a greater work burden as well. Gender disparity measures
reveal that men's responsibility for household activities was shrinking while women's work frontier was expanding, as they take over work traditionally designated as 'male'.

Sinha (2004)\textsuperscript{51} conducted an evaluation study on an empowering women to give greater control over natural resources. She concluded that in rural India, agriculture production has to be supplemented by collecting vegetative produce such as fire-wood, fodder, medicinal roots and plants, from the surrounding natural environment. Under the traditional gender division of labour, the gathering of biomass was generally women's work, women thus have a much greater stake in the distribution and management of local natural resources. To restore the balance between women's need and natural resources available to them it is essential to educate women to develop awareness, knowledge and skill in natural resource management. It is true that women were the hardest workers in the country. If given a chance to women, she could create the greatest change in living and social conditions for the many numbers of people. She further pointed out that women from different socio-economic situation have different needs which affect their level of interest and participation in various activities. For example, women from upper class households were less interested in activities that were related to maintenance of common property resources than women from poorer households. She suggested that to empower women, men must be taken into confidence. Hence, the focus will not be on women per se but on the family. Without the support of men, they will make little or no progress.

Sarkar (2004)\textsuperscript{52} studied on women literacy and India. He concluded that women empowerment has become a prime concern all over the world because of the growing tendencies of victimizing women and committing social crimes on them making them weak, destitute and risk prone. The situation was grave and formidable where the women were poor and illiterate. The girl children were more susceptible to social evils and crimes than the boys particularly in the lower income brackets. The various social exploitations and humiliation on women and girls over several hundreds of years have devastated the women race with powerlessness, voiceless ness and ill-treatments. He further suggested that the only remedy to overcome
this horrible malpractice is to make them literate by providing them education at any cost through both formal and informal system so as to achieve a balanced socio-economic development. Because any attempt to develop a society will be a futile effort unless and until the women are brought to the forefront of the society through proper education, training and social as well as economic rehabilitation.

Bala and Sharma (2005) conducted a study on the contribution of tribal women in temperate horticulture attempts to highlight the magnitude of female labour participation in apple orchards as well as the contribution of female labour to the total income from horticultural crops. Digging of Pits, Preparation of Basins, FYM and Fertilizer application, irrigation, watch ward, cleaning of the orchards and applying paste after training / pruning, picking and assembling of fruits and taking them to god owns were the female dominated tasks and about 65-70 percent of the labour required for these operations was supplied by women which comprised of family as well as hired for cash or kind on the other hand, the operations like lay out, purchase of nursery plants, planting, training, pruning, plant protection and marketing were the male dominated and female labour provided about 30-40 percent of the labour input required. They concluded that women participation was more (45 percent) in cultural and physical control of insect pests as compared to chemical control (31 percent). Grading and packing of fruits is a very important operation in fruit cultivation and was generally carried out by specially trained males in post-harvest management of fruits also women contributed significantly through home scale preparation of different products like jams, jellies, pickles, chutney, brewing wines, etc. But for the technical decision like selection of varieties, rootstocks and plants, plant protection measures, time and the place to market the produce etc. The female were totally dependent on their male counterparts. The results of Euler’s theorem showed that the share of female labour to total income was higher than their male counterparts. The commercial fruit cultivation involves greater use of new technologies and input to which the tribal women, the major input providers, need to be exposed. They need to be trained in different technical operations using time saving techniques in horticulture preferably through
female extension workers, so as to reduce their drudgery and make better utilization of their time. In order to commercially utilize the indigenous knowledge of tribal women in processing of fruits, women cooperatives/local organizations should be promoted to take up these activities at large scale to uplift the socio-economic status of tribal women.

Chakraborty (2005) conducted a study to examine the link between public infrastructure and time allocation across gender in the context of selected states in India. He concluded that the time allocation in SNA activity of women was found significant and inversely related to the public infrastructure related to water supply. But there was no evidence that the release of time locked up in unpaid SNA work through better infrastructure could have substitution effect towards market work. This gets further reinforced by the significant positive link between infrastructure and time allocation in Non-SNA activity, which manifests forced leisure in the context of India. The policy suggestion arising from the analysis was that though infrastructure investment lessens the time stress in unpaid SNA activity; complementary employment policies was required along with infrastructure investment to ensure substitution effect of unpaid work with market work, which in turn can have impact on household poverty. In particular, the time use statistics of water revealed that it was significantly higher for girls in both rural and urban areas, which in turn points to the deficiency in an adequate infrastructure in water and sanitation. It has significant fiscal policy implications as easy accessibility to drinking water facilities might lead to an increase in school enrolment, particularly for girls, by reducing the time utilized for fetching water. In other words, time budget statistics enables the identification of the complementary fiscal services for better gender sensitive human development. He also suggested that there is a need to integrate time budgets in ex-ante expenditure intervention (where the paper presents a matrix in terms of sen's capabilities, functioning and commodity space in terms of time budgets, unpaid work and fiscal stance) and also for ex-post benefit incidence analysis using unit utilized data from time budgets.

Latigo and Neijwa (2005) conducted a study measuring an unpaid work for pro-poor development policies based on new round of time-use studies for
Africa. They concluded that African countries did not conduct regular time use studies, which were emerging as a very useful statistical tool for collecting detailed information about how individuals spend their time, on a daily and weekly basis as an input to estimating the value of paid and unpaid work as well as the size of labour force in a country. There is now a strong sentiment from the international community that the lack of time use survey in countries from which to measure the value of an unpaid work is a significant data gap in statistical system. Thus, an economic and social development discussions and policy decisions fail to account for all an economic activity-they exclude the undeniably enormous value added of household production and care service. To redress these issues, ECA recently introduced in six African countries a new round of annual time-use survey, which are cost-effective studies of a representative sample size of not more than 5,000 households per country. The surveys aimed to provide a modern, scientific and cost-effective way to generate new, timely and more accurate figure of the complete economic system that would greatly enhance pro-poor policy formulation as well as improve modelling and forecasting of African economies towards achieving poverty reduction strategies and MDGs. They concluded that the concepts and results of selected household surveys and their applications for preparing National Time Accounts (NTA) and National Satellite Accounts of Household Production (NSAHP). National Time Accounts for analysis of "time poverty" were presented along with NSAHP as the main framework for integrating gender perspectives and household production in national accounts, budgets and policies: and for constructing gender-aware micro-simulation and macroeconomic models. They discussed the importance of an unpaid work in development policy within the context of six critical policy areas: (i) Policy for the reform of statistical systems; (ii) policies for promoting gender equality; (iii) policies for the enhancement of women's employment and income; (iv) policies for the enhancement of women's well-being and quality of life; (v) policies to reduce gender bias in macroeconomic policies; and (vi) policies to monitor impacts of policies on household production and poverty.
Chattopadhyay (2005) conducted a study on female participation in an income generating activities. He concluded that female work participation not only increased their family income but also brings an economic independence to women in the household. This helped them to participate more effectively in inter-household decision making. He further concluded that female work participation along cannot ensure true economic empowerment as the ownership of resources may still lie in the hands of the male members. Thus, female work participation rate was a necessary condition but was not a sufficient condition for an economic empowerment of women. Economic empowerment of women is possible only when women have full autonomy to spend their income and also control resources.

Rao (2005) examined the gender equality, land rights and households food security. She concluded that while women's income was only 55 per cent of men's on an average in an area of study but their household contribution was 70 per cent that of men. Women tend to contribute almost their entire income to the household in line with "Society's view of her role and the demands of her children" subject as she was to an ideology of maternal altruism that mothers will not let their children starve. So women's greater contribution to the household could perhaps not be disputed. She suggested that there is a positive relationship between the value of women's time and household food and nutrition, especially of the children. If employment opportunities, for women expand, accompanied by fair wages, it is assumed that household income, hence consumption will improve.

Dasgupta and Goldar (2006) conducted a study of female labour in India using NSS data for 1999-2000. They concluded that supply of female labour from below Poverty line households in the rural areas wage rate and the numbers of earning members in the family were inversely related. Several studies for developing countries have come up with an econometric evidence to indicate that an inverse relationship existed. Between supply of labour and wage rate at low level of wage, especially for women in rural areas. This may create difficulties in attaining an objectives of the recent National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme and calls for greater attention of the
designing of the scheme, particularly the activities in which employment will be provided.

Ramachandran and R. (2006) conducted a comparative study to examine the cross-country difference in socio-economic status of elderly women in India and Japan. Empirical data was collected from representative samples of elderly women from both countries. They concluded that to highlight the differences in the social and economic conditions of aged women in a developed country as against a developing country. Greying of population was one of the most significant characteristics of the twenty-first century. Rapid ageing trends present new challenges to Government, communities, families, and the elderly themselves. Elderly women were a significant group of the society. Addressing their agendas in familial, social and economic spheres was imperative for improving their overall status and, in turn, the society's as well.

Mukherjee and Sengupta (2006) conducted a time use survey based on primary data collected from 50 rural households in West Bengal on gender disparities in rural work. They concluded that division of labour within a rural household generates a hierarchy of paid and an unpaid work, pushing rural women into subordinate social and economic positions by making their work invisible. The time use methodology proved particularly effective in capturing the working roles of women and making their dual labour contribution to economic and subsidiary household activities strongly visible.

Sharma and Sharma (2006) conducted an empirical investigation on time allocation and valuation of rural women's contribution to household activities based on primary data collected from 296 rural sample households of Una district of Himachal Pradesh. They concluded that most of work under SNA activities of males and females has been recorded, documented and valued, but very little efforts have been made to record, document and valued the E-SNA activities by National Income Accounts. This is a reflection of the commonly made hypothesis in women studies these days that women's work remains nationally invisible, unrecognised, under played and unrewarded. This is a clear indicator of what is called gender discrimination.
Kundu (2007) conducted a study on conditions of work and rights of female domestic workers of Kolkata. He concluded that young married women from districts with higher number of children, with low and uncertain income of other family member, preferred part-time domestic work to supplement their family income. On the basis of Engel's ratio it was identified that the standard of living of the full-time domestic workers was slightly better than that of the part-time domestic workers. Most of them were deprived of overtime pay, public holidays, and timely payment of salaries.

Kelkar (2009) conducted a study on The Feminisation of Agriculture in Asia: Implication for women's Agency and Productivity. He concluded that one of the long standing issues and bottlenecks for women was having equal economic importance men were enjoying. Rural women face a distinct disadvantage, since they were the ones who sacrifice their opportunity for an education and skill development to manage land and agriculture. Women were largely excluded from training, extension and irrigation managements. The phenomenon of an increasing feminisation of agriculture in many part of the world has drawn policy attention. An increased number of women and agriculture production was brought by male rural out migration, the growing number of households headed by women and the development labour-intensive cash crops. All of these lead to change in the traditional gender division of farm work: women taking up at lower wages the tasks formerly did only by men, such as land preparation, cultivation of crops, spraying pesticides, harvesting, post-harvesting and marketing of the produce. He further concluded that interrelationship between women agricultural producers and their lack of rights to land and related factor of production. It further explores an implication for the producers' economic agency and productivity; whether or not women's participation in agriculture has undermined farm income. Gender equality is a social desirability that must be put into social practice to reduce gender discrimination. Technological empowerment, an unmediated control and ownership of land, enhancing of agriculture management skills and knowledge of women in agriculture are ways by which an agricultural production could be improved thus, overcoming poverty and income inequality.
Kishtwaria, Rana and Sood (2009) conducted a study on Work Pattern of Hill Farm Women-A Study of Himachal Pradesh. They concluded that women played a pivotal role in all household, farm and allied activities. Women's contribution to the Indian agriculture and allied activities has been a recognised factor. They participated in several activities such as harvesting, manuring, sowing, transplanting, weeding, picking etc. they further concluded that farm women spent maximum time in transplanting activity and in dairy maximum time was spent in cutting of fodder.

Folbre, Gornick, Connolly and Munzi (2010) conducted a study on "Women's Employment, Unpaid Work and Economic Well Being: A Cross-National Analysis". They concluded that most studies of an impact of increases in women's employment on earnings inequality ignore associated declines in an amount of time women devote to unpaid work. They link estimate of time devoted to unpaid work among partnered couples ages 25-59 from the Harmonized European Time use Survey and the American Time use Survey to estimates of household earnings for similar couples for whom they have micro data in the LIS database. They concluded that results demonstrate the equalizing impact of unpaid work hours in nine countries, as well as the equalizing impact of an imputed value of an unpaid work based on replacement cost estimates using national minimum wages as a lower bound and median wages for men and women as an upper bound.

Ayyangar and Joshi (2010) conducted a study on Information Communication Technology and Livelihood Opportunity for Rural Women. They concluded that women represented half of human kind and almost 50 per cent of India's population. In India, most of the women were engaged in agricultural production, which was the backbone of our country's economy. Today rapid expansion and penetration of Information Communication Technology (ICT) in the field agriculture was visible but at the same time access to Information Communication Technology tools among the rural women was still negligible. This might be due to an availability of resources in public spheres which was not approachable places for women. Since empowerment was a complex phenomenon to measure and to achieve.
Sharma and Devi (2012) conducted a study on Role of Women in Decision Making in Tribal Economy of Himachal Pradesh based on primary data collected from 150 sample households of Kinnaur district. They concluded that women's decision-making played an important role in determining her reproductive health and fertility behaviour. Family is the smallest area where women can share or control over the resources. But gender inequality in the family level is manifested by a weaker role of women in decision-making and less control over resources and restrictions in physical movements by women. They further concluded that irrespective of the familial composition that was, nuclear or joint the authority remained under the domain of elders who may be husband/parents-in-law in the family. Women's were generally playing traditional role of child bearing and rearing and managing the household chores. The results of the present study do not support the generally held contention that when women become independent their status is elevated.
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