Review of related literature
CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In order to have a better insight into the field in which the investigator is working, an attempt is made to review some prevailing literature in the area pertaining to the study. The available studies relevant to the topic both abroad and in India were screened and have been presented under the following headings:

2.1. Working women in the present scenario
   2.1.1. Women work force in the world
   2.1.2. Women work force in India
   2.1.3. Attitude of women towards work

2.2. Work-life balance of dual career women

2.3. Time expenditure pattern of dual career women
   2.3.1. Duration of work among employed women
   2.3.2. Duration of leisure time activities and its effect on employed women
   2.3.3. Duration of rest among employed women
   2.3.4. Women working in atypical hours/ part-time

2.4. Time management practices of working women

2.5. Time wasters

2.6. Behavioural tasks of working women

2.7. Intervention on time management
2.1. WORKING WOMEN IN THE PRESENT SCENARIO

The concept "status of women" eludes precise definition and hence precise measurement. Status can be perceived in different ways: the extent of a woman's access to social and material resources within the family, community and society (Dixon, 1978), or her authority or power within the family/community and the prestige commanded from those other members (Mukerjee, 1975). The idea of status also connotes the notion of equality (Krishnaraj, 1986). There can be self-perceived status, group-perceived status or objective status (Mukerjee, 1975), a situation, which can lead to status inconsistency when a person is very high in one type of status and very low in another.

It is argued that, if a woman's economic dependence can be reduced by her ability to earn an income outside the household, she would enjoy a higher status, which would be the case if there was not much difference in the nature of the work done by males and females (Lal, 1979).

According to Shriner (1996), participation of women in the paid labor force had increased steadily in recent years. While women took additional responsibilities away from home, their household duties often remained the same.

Until recently, males have monopolized some of the occupations in the modern sector. In India, as in many other developing countries, the role of women in the economic activity of the nation was practically ignored. The increasing participation of women in the work-force, the multiple role of women as mothers, homemakers and paid workers and misunderstandings of the nature of unemployment among women, therefore, suggest the usefulness of describing trends and relationships, in labour force participation as a background for assessing the volume of employment, occupational structure and the impact of the same on one's management of time.

2.1.1. Women Work force in the world

Today women represent 40 per cent of the world's working force. Approximately 70 per cent of the women in developed countries and 60 per cent of
the women in developing countries are employed in paid jobs. Women are entering the global labour force in record numbers, but they still face higher unemployment rates and lower wages and represent 60 per cent of the world's 550 million working poor (ILO, 2004).

Women take up 90 per cent of jobs in the government sector. Traditional areas of female employment, such as secretarial, administrative, and caring occupations remain predominated by women. Women also dominate the customer service occupations. Women are comparatively under represented in manual occupations and among managers and senior officials, where 31 per cent of those employed were women (Women's National Commission, 2004).

An analysis of female employment, says more women work today than ever before. In 2003, 1.1 billion of the world's 2.8 billion workers, or 40 per cent, were women, representing a worldwide increase of nearly 200 million women in employment in the past 10 years (Global Employment Trends for Women, 2004).

The study found that while the gap between the number of men and women in the labour force (the sum of the unemployed and employed) has been decreasing in all regions of the world since 1993, this decrease has varied widely. While women in the transition economies and East Asia - where the number of women working per 100 men is 91 and 83 respectively - have nearly closed the gap, in other regions of the world such as the Middle East, North Africa and South Asia, only 40 women per 100 men are economically active. In developing countries, women simply cannot afford to not work. The challenge for women in these countries is not gaining employment - they have to take whatever work is available and are likely to wind up in informal sector work such as agriculture (ILO, 2004).

Between 1975 and 1995, the percentage of women in managerial and professional specialty occupations in the American work force increased significantly. In 1995, women accounted for 43 per cent of managerial and related employment, nearly double their share in 1975 (22 per cent). Women's share of employment in professional occupations also rose during this period, from 45 per cent to 53 per cent (Wooton, 1997). Recent global statistics show that women continue to increase their share of managerial positions, but the rate of progress is slow, uneven and sometimes
discouraging ("Breaking through the glass ceiling: Women in management - Update 2004).

The overall employment situation for women hasn't evolved significantly since 2001, the update says. Women's share of professional jobs increased by just 0.7 per cent between 1996 and 1999, and between 2000 and 2002. And with women's share of managerial positions in some 60 countries ranging between 20 and 40 per cent, the data show that women are markedly under-represented in management compared to their overall share of employment.

The update did find recent increases in the number of women in traditionally male-dominated cabinet posts, such as foreign affairs, finance and defence. Women's overall share of professional jobs in 2000-2002 was highest in Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS), largely due to long-standing policies supporting working mothers. Women's share of professional jobs in South Asian and Middle Eastern countries was markedly lower at around 30 per cent, due to societal views of women's labour force participation and to women prioritising family responsibilities.

However, data show that in female-dominated sectors where there are more women managers, a disproportionate number of men rise to the more senior positions and in those professions normally reserved for men, women managers are few and far between. Between 1985 and 1991, the proportion of women in management positions increased in 39 of 41 countries for which statistics were available (International Labour Office, 1993).

The results of the study done by Posey (1984) indicated that the following managerial skills were of great importance as the contributors and inhibitors to career success among women managers: stable job performance, confidence in others, human relation skills, determination, time management skills, job competence, motivation of subordinates, oral communication skills, initiative, intellectual ability, delegation of responsibility and authority, objective decision making, supervisory skills, leadership ability and desireness.
Findings from a study by Chernesky et al. (1988), among women executives of human service agencies, on their perceptions of how they approach administration, supported the assertion that women brought to their administrative positions a unique view and understanding of women’s experience of caring, and in doing so were found to be more effective managers.

Findings of a survey by Jalilvand (2000), showed a continuing secular increase in the labour force participation of married women since 1960. The Bureau of Labour Statistics projects that by the year 2008, women will form 48 percent of the labour force, compared with 46 percent in 1998 (Fullerton, 1999).

According to a survey by Rickman (2000), of the National Statistics Labour Force, UK, approximately 47 per cent of the work force was made up of women, with 12 million employed. According to Smith (2000), the total percentage of women being employed has doubled from about 30 per cent in 1950, to 60 per cent in the year 2000. Hochschild (1989), found that women worked 10 to 15 hours more per week than their husbands, at their combined paid employment and household and childcare tasks.

In Japan, women participated in workforce throughout the working-life cycle only with interruption at the birth of a child. According to Hori (1998), the percentages of women working at 25 to 29 years and 30 to 34 years in Japan were 69.7 per cent and 56.7 per cent respectively, 77.3 per cent and 74.9 per cent for the US (1997), 82.1 per cent and 80.6 per cent for France (1998), 74.4 per cent and 73.5 per cent for Germany (1997), 60.4 per cent and 61.2 per cent for Italy (1996), and 76.9 per cent and 81.4 per cent for Sweden (1997).

Ogasowara (1995), examined Japanese women in modern bureaucratic organizations where their power had generally been considered to be least effective. Data collected through participant observation in a large bank in Tokyo, as well as interviews with more than 100 Sarariman (white-collar workers), their wives and female clerical assistants of large Corporations were analyzed to understand the way in which Japanese women exercise their power, what is the basis of their power, and why men, in spite of their exclusive command of authority, often subjected themselves to women’s control. The results revealed that women were excluded from
the race for promotion in the first place and what enabled women to wield power over men was their accommodation to discriminatory policies and their defiant attitude towards men.

An increasing wage rate, the changing economic position of women, declines in the male-female earnings gap and in sex discrimination, lower fertility, a larger interval between marriage and the birth of the first child, the use of birth control, the development of time- and labour-saving capital-intensive devices, a secular decline in the length of the workweek, increasing urbanization, the unemployment and inflation rates, and, finally, government laws and practices are leading to increased women labour force in the world (Mincer, 1979).

2.1.2. Women Work Force in India

Indian population is 48.1 per cent women and 51.9 per cent men. The labour force participation rate of women is 22.7 per cent, less than half of the men's rate of 51.6 per cent. In rural India, agriculture and allied industrial sectors employ as much as 89.5 per cent of the total female labour.

Women in India make up 31 per cent of the official workforce. According to December 2000 estimates by HinduBusinessLine.com, women comprised 19 per cent of the information technology work force in India, primarily within the software sector. Their overall median age is 25.7 years. According to Nasscom predictions, the male-female ratio in information technology jobs will be 65 men to 35 women by the year 2005. Women already comprise 37 per cent of the employees in IT-enabled service sector.

The Redforwomen Research Organization (2002), of India had made a statistical survey (2002), and found that the working women population had risen from 13 per cent in 1987, to 25 per cent in 2001, with 3 per cent of them being in senior management position in India. It was concluded from the survey that while men worked for money, status and satisfaction, women worked for the same, but in a reverse order.
In the rural sector, Indian women are extensively involved in agricultural activities. However, the nature and extent of their involvement differs with the variations in agro-production systems. The mode of female participation in agricultural production varies with the land-owning status of farm households. Their roles range from managers to landless labourers. In overall farm production, women's average contribution is estimated at 55 per cent to 66 per cent of the total labour with percentages much higher in certain regions (Venkateswaran, 1992).

According to the Director General of Employment and Training (1997), the total women work force in organized sector in India has steadily increased from 11 per cent in 1971 to 15.9 per cent in 1997. The representation of women in three premier government services in the country viz, IAS, IPS, and IFS had increased from 5.8 per cent in 1987 to 7.5 in 1997.

An opinion poll conducted by the ‘Metro Monitor’ (2004) on the jobs taken up by women revealed that the number of working women in Chennai are equal to or more than in other cities. Khwaja (1999) studied the reasons for taking up employment among the working women in New Delhi from various categories of jobs in government department. The result indicated that majority of the respondents took up employment more as an economic compulsion rather than as a career.

2.1.3. Attitude of Women towards Work

Mederer (1993) pointed out that women with more traditional gender attitudes were likely to do more tasks but not management work. Women with higher education had lesser traditional gender attitudes and did a smaller preparation of housework, as measured by time.

Khaleque et al (1988) explored domestic and employment role attitudes, strain and mental health in 105 employed mothers engaged in part and full time employment in banks and educational institutions. Results indicated that women with negative home and employment role attitude experienced greater strain than women with positive home employment role attitudes. It was found that women with negative employment role attitude and with dependent children felt more strain than women with grown up children.
A study among 118 married professional women revealed that extra-work factors strongly influence Career commitment, moderately influence Organizational commitment and weakly influence Community commitment of the women. Financial insecurity, coping behaviors and mental satisfaction positively predicted career commitment. Organizational commitment was higher among women who felt financially insecure and engaged in individual career planning. A woman who earned more than her husband was more committed to her career and Organization, but less committed to her community (Brian, 1988).

An attitude study by Baseline Survey, U.K among 2000 women workers, mainly from the public sector, showed that 14 per cent were more committed to work than to life outside work. 25 per cent were more committed to life outside work, and the remainder, a little over 60 per cent were equally committed to both. A rather high proportion, almost 20 per cent of those in the private sector, were found to be more committed to work.

2.2. WORK-LIFE BALANCE OF DUAL CAREER WOMEN

Clark (2000) defines balance as “satisfaction and good functioning at work and at home with a minimum of role conflict”. Sparks et al. (1997), of the European legislation defines 48 working hours a week as an appropriate maximum and reports that working beyond these hours would affect health and performance of an individual, resulting in imbalance between work and family life. The issue of work-life balance has been spoken about as a balance between work and the rest of life (Tulgan, 1996).

Working women are often confronted with the problem of “dual role” fulfilment at home and at work place. According to Working Women Count Survey, Department of Labour (1994), 60 per cent of working women are stressed and find it difficult to strike a balance between work and family.

According to a survey by Galt (2003), 47 per cent of the working Canadian women surveyed had not achieved a work-life balance. Among those who felt they had not achieved a work-life balance, 26 percent of the women who were found to be twice as that of men (13 per cent) cited the reason of being too busy.
A study by Shahla (2000), on American dual career women revealed that the women had to sacrifice their personal hobbies and activities such as cooking, reading and socializing, as their time and work pressures had been overwhelming and were very demanding. They were found to be less tolerant with their family and spouse.

According to a study by Rorty (1994) on 300 women, they found it very difficult to balance their personal and professional lives and had to juggle their multitude of responsibilities. The study revealed that, since 1979 working hours had noticeably increased, as the companies had responded to improvements by having employers work overtime.

Multiple roles in work and family can be the source of multiple satisfactions for employed women but a combination of career and family roles are often associated with conflict, overload and stress situation. A Canadian study made by Public Task Force Report (1998) reveals that 32 per cent of full-time employed mothers are "highly-time stressed" and nearly one-third of the women continued to experience the fatigue of "double day". Women in the 25-34 years age group were affected the most, missing an average of 14.3 days.

A study by Judith (1998), on time utilization by Canadian working women of different ages reveal that working women in the age group of 25-44 years are highly stressed for time and their time pressure is even carried forward into their senior years after retirement. According to a survey commissioned by the Kerzner (1997) women employed “full-time” spent an average of 64 minutes per day on childcare and were stressed and overburdened with the bulk of the household work. They suffered from extreme levels of time stress.

Although unrealistic deadlines and constant time pressures were a source of stress, according to a Work-Foundation Survey in UK (2000), majority (70 per cent) of the respondents were stressed because of juggling between home and work demands. Over two-thirds of respondents (69 per cent) wanted to spend more time with their families. But it was full time workers who felt that time squeeze the most. Nearly three quarters (73 per cent) wanted to spend more time with families and they were only half as likely as part time workers who said that they were very happy with their work-life balance. Those who were under 25 and those who were with children
under six, were also most likely to be discontent with their current work life balance. Findings also reveal that nearly two thirds (64 per cent) of those without young children wanted to spend more time with their family (Jones, 2003).

In a study conducted by Padmavathy (2002), among women entrepreneurs in Tirupathi, 24.4 percent of the women opined that their families were not conducive to their development as entrepreneurs, as they were expected to help in domestic chores and were over burdened with their dual role. The rest of the women (75.6 per cent) felt happy to work independently as entrepreneur with more freedom to plan and schedule their activities.

Due to their dual career life, women generally devote fewer hours than men to paid work especially when there are children in the family. On the one hand, women continue to spend more time than men, on home and family activities even when the women are employed outside the home (Hochschild 1989, Greenberger and O’Neil, 1993; Parasuraman et al 1996; Singh, Greenhaus, Parasuraman and Collins, 1998).

Research findings by Stake (1979), revealed that highly competent women though highly committed to their careers were less involved in their families and suffered from guilt and personal dissatisfaction with life. Pines and Kafry (1981), found that professional women reported more stress experiences than men. These differences were attributed to the burden of two full time jobs: a career and a home. They were harassed, conflicted and felt guilty about compromising both the quality of their work and relationship with their family.

According to a Canadian study on the problems of women who worked as factory labourers, janitors, telephone operators, teachers or technicians by Messig (2000), women’s jobs involve greater stress than men’s jobs and are more tightly structured with less respect and less control over job demands. According to the research some women even face harassment at work and are less respected than their male counterparts and sometimes women employed in full time jobs with children at home were prone to higher levels of cortisol, a stress hormone, which is known to increase the risk for heart disease.
A survey conducted in 1992, by Korn and Ferry International and the ULCA Anderson Graduate School of Management among 400 senior women revealed that majority of the working women were stressed by balancing work with family and they wanted to retire before age 65. Sixteen per cent of employed women said that the time demands of their job were incompatible with their family life. The study also showed that compatibility problems increase when weekly working time increases beyond 45 hours (Fagan et al, 2002).

The European Foundation’s studies had underlined the persistence of women’s role as the main housework provider at home. Bielenski et al (2000) and Atkinson (2000) of the Foundation had looked at the impact of individuals’ working time schedules on the work–life balance. Men and women were asked how well their working hours fitted in with family and social commitments outside of employment; a significant proportion of female and male workers reported that their working time was relatively compatible with family life and other social commitments. Paid work - particularly full-time paid work- had an impact upon people’s leisure activities and eating habits.

A survey by the Work Foundation, UK (Jones, 2003) in association with the employers for Work Life Balance Forum among 300 working men and women revealed that over two thirds of respondents (69 per cent) wanted to spend more time with their families. Findings also revealed that women in pursuit of this so-called “have it all” strategy experienced a great deal of time stress at home and at job (Davidson & Cooper, 1986; Greenglass, 1987; Offermann & Armitage, 1993).

According to findings of Sorcinelli and Near (1989), professors were stressed trying to balance their professional responsibilities and family life. In general, studies suggest that the challenge for women in achieving a balance between professional and family life is greater than that for men, given the simple logistics of the biological clock, the tenure clock, the physical demands of pregnancy and childbirth, the gendered expectations of family obligations, and the ongoing disparity with which women take on the “second shift” through maintenance of children and home (Drago and Williams, 2000; Hochschild, 1975, 1989; Spalter-Roth and Merola, 2001; Varner, 2000; Williams, 2000).
According to Catalyst's (2001) study, 71 percent of women in legal profession find it difficult to balance work with personal lives. They frequently experienced work-life balance conflicts with regard to time.

The annual UK (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development), CIPD survey (2000), showed a strong correlation between long working hours and imbalance between work and family life among a random sample of 1000 men and women. The survey further revealed that women working long hours and those with dependent children have a greater problem of achieving work-life balance (Guest and Conway 1998, 2000).

The literature on time squeeze among working women confirms the findings of "National Study of the Changing Workforce" (1994), which stated that work problems were three times more likely to spill over into family time than family problems were likely to spill over into work time.

2.3. TIME EXPENDITURE PATTERN OF DUAL CAREER WOMEN

Time expenditure pattern of a dual career woman reveals the hours spent by the woman on household and outside work, rest/sleep and leisure in a day. Activity log helps one to analyse how exactly time is spent. Keeping a log for several days helps one to understand how one's time is distributed and whether he/she is performing at his/her best.

2.3.1. Duration of Work among Employed Women

According to a study by Korean National Statistics Office (2004), the largest percentage of women spent their leisure times in, watching television followed by miscellaneous works for household and, resting or sleeping; 96.8 percent of the married women aged 20 years old and over, spent 3 hour 40 minutes per day for their household works. The number of the female who worked less than 54 hours per week were larger than that of men who worked the same hours of work; 89.9 percent of employed women took care of their household work for 2 hour 42 minutes per day.
Orme (1969), also studied tests on verbal estimation of intervals and comparison of time intervals among working women. An interesting experimental result reported by Orme was that the estimate of experienced time appeared to be inversely related to the rate of believed progress towards a goal.

According to a survey by Stuart (2000), 66 percent of the surveyed women worked 46 to 60 hours a week and 22 percent worked 61 to 75 hours a week. According to a research report by Walker and Woods (1996) women in labour force worked on an average, 76 hours in a week of which 33 hours were dedicated to household tasks. Women on an average were found to spend six hours and 49 minutes per day in household labour according to Berk and Berk (1978).

The results from the opinions of 1,250 working women employed in both union and non-union work places, released by the American Federation of Labour (2002), showed that women were more concerned than ever with health care, retirement security and worker’s rights and worked more hours than ever. The studies showed that more than one out of four working mothers worked during nights or weekends and 63 per cent of women worked 40 or more hours per week.

A survey by Clarke (2000), on working practices of male and female executives in the Europe and U.S. reported that the day-to-day pressures for women at work were more than men and women were generally spending more time at work than men. One third of the women surveyed worked for an average of 45 hours per week.

According to findings of Work-Life Balance (2000) Baseline Survey, UK, almost 11 per cent of the surveyed employees (men and women) worked 60 or more hours a week - typically in professional and managerial jobs.

According to findings by Yogev & Vierra (1980), on faculty women, focusing on their estimation of the time they spent on their professions, housework and their families, revealed that the women who had children worked considerably more (100+hours per week) than those who were childless (70+ hours per week). However, none of the mothers reported feeling more over worked.
According to figures obtained by Dusevic (1996) from the Australian Bureau of Statistics, among the 1.67 million people with jobs, the number of men who worked 49 hours or more a week had almost doubled, while the number of women in this category had tripled since the 1970s.

Gross and Crandall (1967) analysed the relationship between the age of both the home maker and of family members with the time spent on home making activities. The study revealed that older homemakers without children at home spent more time (5.5 hours) in home making activities than the younger homemakers without children (4.4 hours).

As per the study by Saramma and Maheswari (1991), on the time expenditure pattern of the entrepreneurs of Coimbatore, it was found that they spent 10 hours per day on household activities and 8.5 hours for entrepreneurial activities on an average. Only 40 per cent had pursued some sort of leisure time activities. After a busy week, an ‘Off day’ was received with mixed feelings probably due to the fact that there were numerous chores to be completed both at enterprise and at the house which necessitated one’s undivided attention through out the day causing frustration and anger.

A study by Roy (1982) on the influence of time management concepts on the productivity of vocational teachers, discussed on how the teachers spent varying amounts of time on job related work. Home economics teachers spent the most time and industrial educational teachers, the least. The difference in total time between the two groups was equal to 28 percent. The work hours were found to be stacked at the beginning of the week with a 20.54 percent on Monday and tapered down to 14.64 percent on Friday. The weekend accounted for 9.31 percent of the work hours.

Kirkaldy et al (1997), studied on working hours, job stress, work satisfaction, and accident rates among 2500 medical practitioners and allied personnel in Germany. There were 86.9 per cent females and 13.1 per cent males, age ranging 15-86 years. Only 7 per cent of women were medical doctors and 93 per cent were auxiliary personnel. The proportion of doctors to other personnel was 1:5.7. The main conclusions from the study were that the mean weekly working hours were 47.69 for doctors and 31.97 for auxiliary personnel. Physicians working over 48 hours per week
reported significantly more driving accidents and higher levels of job-related stress than those working fewer than 48 hours per week.

2.3.2. Duration of Leisure Time Activities among Employed Women

"Leisure is a state of mind. It is a state of being in which activity is performed for its own sake", said Aristotle. Leisure is time devoted to work, sleep and other necessities subtracted from twenty-four hours, which gives the surplus time (The Dictionary of Sociology).

Findings of a survey on dual career women by Chauhan (2001), revealed that dual career women had less leisure time and struggled to create quality time for children or their spouse. They had little time for relationships, friends and simple recreation. When couples were finally able to manage out for themselves or with friends, the occasion was often overshadowed by feelings of guilt.

According to a study by Sood (1991), majority (71.6 percent) of the respondents had masculine leisure time activities, whereas only minority (9.5 percent) were found to have feminine leisure time activities. The masculine activities were very common among the upper stratum of respondents while the feminine activities were common among the lower occupation categories.

The Journal "Psychology Today" (1980), conducted a survey on how North Americans viewed their vacations as a leisure. The respondents to the survey reported that vacations allowed them to rest, relax, escape routine, and get renewed. More specifically, when the responses were analysed statistically, it was found that people took vacation to get relieved of tension (37 per cent), to improve spiritual or intellectual enrichment (18 per cent), to help family togetherness (13 per cent), to seek excitement, adventure, new friends and sexual escapade (12 per cent), to self seek for themselves (11 per cent) and to escape from routine (18 per cent). The respondents also felt that they were feeling healthier on holidays, which could help prevent the emotional exhaustion known as "burn-out" (McRae, 2001).

A study by Schor (1999) indicates a decrease in annual leisure time by 47 hours whereas a survey conducted by the Work Foundation (2000), has found that
leisure time had increased more than 50 per cent from 40 hours in 1990 to 64 hours per week in the present decade, among American women.

"Time Use Surveys" of Norway (1971 to 2000) found that considerably less time was used for household work and personal needs, like night sleep and meals, and more time was used for leisure activities at present than before. The time used for leisure activities had been increasing for both sexes in the last 30 years among all the age groups, on all days except on Sundays. Persons in age group 25-44 years had least time for leisure activities and they had longest working hours. There had been a certain decline in the time used for socializing and visiting each other per day, but conversations per day increased. The percentage who read printed publications per day had declined, but the percentage who viewed television per day and the duration of television viewing had a fairly even increase from 1971 to 2000. However, radio listening had declined through the years.

Coleman (2002), had concluded in her study among the population aged 9-79 years, women on an average used slightly below 10 ½ hours for personal needs per day, including weekends and holidays, 6½ hours for leisure activities, about 3 ½ hours at income producing work, slightly below 4 hours for household work and ¾ hour for education. The days one was at work, she used on the average slightly above 8 hours for this.

According to a survey of rural working women by Conner (2002), the rural women surveyed had an average of 50 – 80 minutes of leisure time per day in the busy season and 3 hours and 24 minutes per day in slack seasons. The women surveyed spent part of their leisure time listening to radio or watching television. About two-thirds of the young women surveyed spent their leisure time by reading books, newspapers and magazines. Women of the young associate were more sociable and had wider connection with outside world, especially their schoolmates, colleagues and friends.

According to the findings of a study by the Canadian Fitness and Lifestyle Research Institute (1996) on the time constraints faced by 2500 Canadian women, the respondents spent 4 hours per week day and seven and a half hours in week ends on leisure activities. Women of 18 – 44 age group had less than three hours of leisure
time as they spent time caring for children and dependents. Women with children under 18 living at home had considerably less time for leisure. The results of the study also show that stress levels increase with a decrease in leisure time.

2.3.3 Duration of Rest among Employed Women

Though rest is generally cessation of work, it can also be obtained by complete relaxation of body or mind when an individual lies down in a reclining position and relaxes, or when one sleeps over.

A study by Stein (1976) on the relation between resting hours and quality of work among working women reveals that constant work without rest produces the poorest quality of work.

According to findings by Smith of National Sleep Foundation (2000), a majority of American women (63 per cent) did not get the recommended eight hours of sleep required for good health, safety and optimum performance. The study reported 31 per cent (nearly one-third) of the women to be sleeping less than seven hours each week night. Schor (1999) also confirmed that majority of American got 60-90 minutes less sleep per night than they needed for optimal health and performance.

The findings by the National Sleep Foundation (2002-2004) revealed that the problem of sleep deprivation among women is widespread and a majority (74 per cent) of women slept less than eight hours a night during the work week; the average sleep time being six hours and 41 minutes, especially between the ages of 30 and 60 years. The findings also reveal that working mothers are particularly prone to sleep disturbances.

Research shows that short-term sleep deprivation may increase blood pressure in individuals. A study by the Archives of Internal Medicine (1999) demonstrates that chronic sleep loss is associated with an increased risk of heart disease. Women between the ages of 45 and 65 who sleep an average of five hours or less per night are 39 per cent more likely to have heart problems than women who sleep the recommended eight hours per night.
According to the findings of the National Sleep Foundation's Women and Sleep Poll, sleep loss hinders the ability to perform daily responsibilities and also had an impact on the relationships in a majority of women (51 per cent) studied. Poor sleep interfered with normal household duties in 46 per cent of the women, with normal job performance in 27 per cent of the women and caused problems in the relationship with spouse and children among two-thirds of the women (*Aphrodite Women’s health and its licensors, 2002-2004*).

2.3.4. Women Working in Atypical hours/ Part-time

'Atypical hours' are defined as work at weekends and on week days before 8.30am and after 5.30pm. The study by *Mark (2001)*, on a sample represented by working families with children under 17 was conducted in two stages: a telephone survey of over 1,000 mothers; and 40 follow-up depth interviews with both mothers and fathers. This study concluded that where parents frequently worked atypical hours, family activities were more likely to be affected by work.

Findings of the research by *Shirley (2004)*, reveal that employed parents worked at 'atypical times' of day (outside 9 to 5) more than other workers; 53 per cent of mothers and 54 per cent of lone mothers frequently worked during atypical hours.

Over half of fathers and 13 per cent of mothers regularly worked over 40 hours per week. 30 per cent of fathers and 6 per cent of mothers regularly worked over 48 hours per week, above the limit of the Working Hours Directive (*La Valle et al., 2002*). Self-employed parents were more likely than other parents to work long hours, at weekends and at atypical times of day (*Bell and La Valle, 2003*).

According to a study by *Corwin (2004)*, on part-time professional women revealed a majority (80 per cent) of them to be part-timers largely because of childcare issues. The research revealed strong commonalities on the approaches of successful part-time professionals - specifically to their work-life priorities, schedules, and plans for the future, to routines, to protect their time at work and rituals at home. Cultivated champions in senior management not only protected them from skeptics but also actively advocated for their arrangements up and down the ranks; gently but firmly reminded their colleagues that despite their part-time status, they were still in the game and could not be ignored.
According to a study by Potter & Sloan (2003), almost 40 percent of part-time workers aged 25 to 65, working so for reasons related to work-life balance—childcare problems, other personal or family obligations or education. Significant differences existed between men and women in how many chose to work part time, as well as, why they worked part-time. Women (20.5 percent) were found to be much more likely to be part-time professionals than men (7.9 percent).

The study sponsored by McDonald’s Corporation, UK (2000), presents a ten-year look at the work experiences of women who had used reduced work schedules. Catalyst, a research group in the US, worked with the 78 participants from the initial 1989 study, including the 45 who participated again in 1993. They found that flexible work arrangements allowed more working mothers to participate in the workforce. The ability to work on a reduced-hour schedule kept some working mothers in the workforce, allowing them to keep a foot in the door and an eye on the pulse of their industries. The European Foundation’s research findings also clearly documented that women’s employment depended on factors such as childcare arrangements, access to social and public services and work organisation (Atkinson, 2000; Pillinger, 2000).

A three-year survey by Rosalind (2002), estimated the relationship between full- and part-time work schedules and stress-related mental and physical health outcomes among a random sample of 200 married women. The women aged 25-50 years with under-high school age children, in two-health-care professions - medicine and licensed practical nursing, and who vary in race/ethnicity were selected. The findings revealed that the relationship between work hours and health outcomes varied significantly with different work arrangements.

2.4. TIME MANAGEMENT PRACTICES OF WORKING WOMEN

Time management involves working on important things and not sweating the small stuff. The training on time management tries to convey that work is accomplished faster, not by picking up the pace, but by working smarter. This includes changing methods, introducing newer, faster equipment, delegating, eliminating non-essential activities, simplifying procedures, prioritizing, eliminating bad habits, and automating. Rushing through the work in order to get the leisure was usually counterproductive—errors occurred, items were overlooked, and stress levels got elevated (Rorty, 1994).
A research by Sheridan (1980), to measure short-term time management practices of women faculty showed that individuals differed substantially in the optimality with which they allocated their time. Tulga and Sheridan’s (1980) studies confirm that there are individual differences in time management practices.

A survey by Hall and Hursch (1982) proves the negative relationship between time management practices and stress. They measured time management practices among faculty staff who used behaviour management technique to increase the time to self selected, high priority tasks over several weeks.

A survey by Saramma and Maheswari (1991), on Management practices of 50 women entrepreneurs from the city of Coimbatore revealed that majority of the women did not resort to any kind of time management practices as housework had become quite a routine, except for 26 per cent who preferred to have mental plans for doing their work. It was required of them to have written time plans (76 percent) for the entrepreneurial activities.

A survey of 40 married couples in England by Seymour (1992), reveals that the concept of time (especially personal time) varies among household members, and arose more from gender and power divisions than from the nature of employment of the household members. The survey also reveals that women’s personal or spare time was frequently conflated with household time and that women acted as facilitators for the activities of other household members, managing rather than controlling the temporal organisation of the household.

Hessing (1994), examined how women organized their lives to accomplish their many tasks. According to her findings, women with both paid and household responsibilities were successful in accomplishing both by using the following time management strategies: prioritization, accommodation of time use, routinization of activities, synchronization of events, and preparation for contingencies for effective time management. The women were found to routinize their activities to keep families on schedule, developed checklists for children to use as reminders, synchronize many chores and made advance contingency arrangements which helped to replace or change regular schedules especially in case of family emergencies and unusual circumstances. The study also revealed that women were mostly responsible for the
smooth scheduling of other family members' activities. They used calendars to record each individual's activities, made notes and used them as reminders of special events, prepared large quantities of food on weekends and froze them for busy days, selected outside social activities very carefully and used other strategies which helped them to successfully meet the demands of their busy lives.

2.5. TIME WASTERS

According to Charlesworth and Nathan (1982), time wasters are activities that keep people from realizing their goals most effectively and steal them of their time. An evaluation of time wasters is necessary to establish a solid foundation for effective time management. Time wasters could be the time killers which are self-imposed or the time displacers which are caused by personal or environmental factors.

The results of various findings support the fact that telephone, visitors, procrastination, inability to decline requests, personal disorganization, inconsistency and lack of self-discipline were some of the time wasters that prove to be major obstacles to effective time management by an individual (Sahgal (1987), Alcock (1995), Helen (1998), Taraban et al (1999), Panella (2001), O'Brien (2002) and Lockwood (2004).

Findings of a study by Panella (2001), reveal that about 2.5 hours are spent on the telephone on an average workday (about 12 to 14 calls per day), of which 20 per cent of the time is wasted because of unplanned and disorganized calls.

According to Lockwood (2004), incoming calls are time wasters with 68 per cent of phone interruptions being less important than what they interrupted. His findings also reveal that meetings are ultimate time consumers and nearly one-third of time in any meeting is wasted. Time is also consumed in preparations for meetings. The other time wasters identified by him were disorganization and talking.

Results of a study on time management among executives by Sahgal (1987) revealed bosses' interference (36.8 per cent) and meetings (21.7 per cent) as the largest external time wasters; private sector ranked highest in time wasting due to the bosses' interference (52.7 per cent) and lowest due to meetings (6.9 per cent), while
the public sector found meetings as the greatest time waster (49 per cent) than the interference of bosses (37.2 per cent). In the case of banks, about 37 per cent of bosses created time wastage and about 19.6 per cent of time was wasted by meetings.

She also found that among the various other time wasters, only 23.5 percent of respondents had termed telephone as a time waster, which implied that an overwhelming majority thinks of the telephone as a time saving device. Visitors too, like the telephone, were not found to be time wasters by the sample population. Paper work and correspondence had been termed as a time waster by 20 percent of the respondents which is a greater percentage as indicated by the public sector.

Another interesting finding of Sahgal (1987) revealed that the inability to say “No” which leads to acceptance of many odd jobs, leaving little time for doing one’s tasks, often resulted in management by crisis. The highest percentage of executives in banks (20.9 per cent) faced this problem. The next factor that wasted a lot of time was procrastination, which had been, stated so by 24.4 per cent respondents. The tendency to procrastinate was found to be highest in the public sector (37.2 per cent), followed by banks (29.4 per cent). Few respondents agreed to lack of self discipline (6.6 per cent), inconsistency in action (9.7 per cent), and low morale (2.2 per cent) as time wasters.

According to Lockwood (2004), procrastination is a time waster and reducing procrastination, could substantially increase time availability in a day. O’Brien (2002) and Taraben et al (1999), reported that students experienced procrastination a major problem.

Son and Metcalf (2000) report that people allocate more time to the judged-easy task than to judged-difficult tasks. Burka and Yuen (1983) argue that procrastination often emerges as a means of distancing oneself from stressful activities. They indicate that the extent of procrastination can be reduced by dealing with stressful aspects of the activities.

Findings of a survey by Alcock (1995), on time utilization by women managers reveal that the major time wasters in managers’ time utilization schedule were personal disorganization (cluttered desks) (90.3 per cent) and routine paperwork
(33 per cent) which resulted in a cost of 20 per cent of management time. Phone interruptions, arrival of visitors and poor lateral communication were also identified as time wasters, in the study.

According to a study by Helen (1998), among business executives around the world, the world’s commonest time wasters are telephone interruptions, drop in visitors and meetings.

Findings of a survey of 150 US executives by the agency “Best upon request” (2004), reveals that the top 10 Time wasters that are controllable and that get in the way of an individual’s productivity are no response / nothing, paperwork / administrative tasks, interruptions by phone or in person, time management, no focus / doing too many things, procrastination, poor planning, socializing / breaks / calls to friends, customer complaints and lack of knowledge / training.

According to surveys conducted by Ellewood(2002) and Pace productivity (2003), among 690 employees and entrepreneurs across North America, the time displacers that impede an individual’s productivity are (in the order of priority) - paper work, administrative tasks, customer requests, phone calls, phone interruptions, inquiries, inefficiency, unspecified interruptions, meetings, volume of work, not enough time, changing priorities, unplanned projects, doing others people’s jobs and customers without appointments. According to the surveys, the time killers that impeded productivity are paper work, administrative tasks, interruptions by phone or in person, poor time management, doing too many things, not prioritizing, procrastination, poor planning, socializing, gossip during breaks, calls to friends, customer requests, lack of knowledge-training on product and duties, burnout, sickness, lack of concentration, stress, poor filing, inefficient personal feeling and internal communications, doing others work or being too helpful.

According to a study by Kerzner (1997), the common time wasters that affect time management practices in industries are phone calls, lack of ready information, lack of clerical support, drop-ins, too many employees and casual conversations.
2.6. BEHAVIOURAL TASKS OF WORKING WOMEN

Behaviour pattern of individuals is found to play a casual role in effective time management practices. Behaviour patterns of individuals may include various personalities such as introverts and extroverts, Jung (1954), Inner vs Outer directness, Rotter (1966), flexibility vs rigidity, Marshall (1978) and Type A vs Type B, Friedman & Rosenman (1969).

In the late 1950's Meyer Friedman and Ray Rosenman led the field of cardiology into a study of what they later called Type ‘A’ behaviour, a coronary prone behaviour pattern. Type ‘A’ is a style of behaviour with which some persons habitually respond to circumstances, that arouse them. They display greater work involvement, strongly endorse the work efficiently and tend to produce more work of higher quality than Type ‘B’(Glass, 1976). They tend to be achievement striving and hostile.

Type ‘B’ individuals, on the other hand, were identified to be free of all such habits of Type ‘A’ individuals. They seldom feel any sense of time, urgency or impatience. They possess patience and almost always speak, walk and eat at a moderate speed. The type ‘B’ behaviour tends to evoke a very pleasant feeling of relaxation and serenity in others. Their voice constantly seems pleasant and their laughter delightful. They know what to overlook or disregard. In addition most of the Type ‘B’ people appear capable of giving and receiving praise and affection, which makes them less vulnerable to irritation (Friedman and Ulmer, 1984).

Carver, Coleman and Glass (1976) conclude from their survey, that Type A individuals, tend to work near their maximal rate even when there is no explicit time deadline. They display greater work involvement, strongly enclose the work ethic or tend to produce more work of higher quality than Type ‘B’ and such behaviour, in turn results in the experience of greater stress. Studies of Jennings and Choli (1981), elicit that Type ‘A’ subjects tend to show a greater heart rate and blood pressure responses to a variety of Psychomotor and Cognitive laboratory stresses.

Friedman and Rosenman (1974), believe that individuals with Type ‘A’ personalities are pre-disposed to develop premature coronary heart diseases. Their research on 3411 mean aged 39-59 years of those who developed coronary heart disease were originally diagnosed as having Type ‘A’ personalities.
House (1978), concluded that a central psychological trait of the Type ‘A’ is his/her ‘desire for social achievement’ (reflected in ambition), Competitiveness, aggressiveness, a ‘Status’ Seeking ‘ or extrinsic motivation for working (ie) desire for money, status, recognition as opposed to intrinsic motivation(ie) desire for interesting, self satisfying work.

Eysenck (1992), Rowler and Schmired (1992), found that Type ‘A’ personality in women was associated with greater illness frequently than Type ‘B’ personality, and the psychological variable most related to good health in women was an internal locus of control.

Recent work from the Framingham Heart Study in the USA found that working women who score high on type A behaviour are twice as likely to develop coronary heart disease as their type A males. A small percentage of women working in managerial position enjoy high status in organizations and often subject to male dominated policies, therefore, with the additional pressures associated with being a minority group, female managers are more likely to be type A individuals and perceive themselves as undergoing higher levels of stress than their male counterparts (Cooper and Davidson, 1987).

Personality of an individual is a major factor which affects his working pattern, his adaptation to the work environment and ability to take in new ideas and adopt them in day to day schedules. The personality of an individual greatly affects self management and self management paves way for work-life balance.

2.7. INTERVENTION ON TIME MANAGEMENT

The effect of a training programme on any skill over a period is expected to produce performance improvement.

A study on “An effective Time and Management strategy in quality circles” in California by Halverson (1983), featured a pre and post-test on time management in quality circles. A first group received no time management training. A second group received basic time management training while a third group received training plus two additional time management experiences. The study concluded that the time management training did improve the effectiveness of those who had received training over those who did not.
A survey on the Time Management of Higher secondary School Teachers from Government, Aided and Private schools by Kamala (1996), concluded that time management skills helped the teachers to reduce their wastage of time and manage their time efficiently. A training programme was conducted on a group of selected sample to find out the effect of the training. The results of the study revealed that the time consciousness was higher among the private school teachers than among those in the government or aided schools, and those who had more time consciousness seemed to have better time management skills. These skills were also found to be better among the science teachers than those who taught arts subjects. Time wastage was found more among the teachers in government school, among the respondents above 50 years of age and also among the male teachers than the females. A positive correlation was seen between the time management practices of women and the training given to them.

Summary of Review

2.1 The above study on working women in the present scenario reveals that more percentage of women are emerging into the labour force participation, though it is still a male dominated society. But women are found to participate in more Premier Government Services as well as in professional jobs nowadays. It also shows that while men worked for money, status and satisfaction, women worked for the same in reverse order. Considering the attitude of the working women, it is seen that few were committed to work and some towards like outside work, while more than two-fifth of them were committed to both work and life equally. The studies also show that those in the private sector seemed to be more committed to work.

2.2 On summarizing the studies on work-life balance of dual-career women, it is found that a greater number of working women than men, found it difficult to strike a balance between work and life. Multiple roles in work and family was associated with conflict, overload and stress among working women in America, Canada and UK.

Women employed full time were burdened more than 'part-time' workers. Most women felt the time crunch in not being able to spend quality time with their
family. Literature reveals that majority of women chose to work part-time to balance their life pattern. Highly competent women though highly committed to career, were found to be dissatisfied and felt guilty about compromising both quality of their work and relationship with their family. Stress in balancing work with family increased due to their compatibility problems. Full time paid work had an impact on people's leisure activities and eating habits. Women working long hours and those with dependent children have a greater problem of achieving work-life balance and needed flexibility in their working hours.

2.3 The studies examining the time use pattern, shows that the working hours of a women fluctuated from country to country as 40 hours per week to 70 hours per week and also went up to 100 hours per week sometimes. Hours of leisure seem to have increased considerably during the present years, as sleep requirements have gone below the eight hours per day as well as the average per week. The reduction in sleeping hours have caused other side effects among women, leading to stress and health problems, which can further affect their household chores or their job performance.

2.4 The above studies reveal the various methods adopted by women to manage their time demands such as changing methods, using newer, faster equipment, delegating, eliminating non-essential activities, prioritising, simplifying and planning and pre-preparing when necessary. Women managed time by working smarter and not by rushing the pace, which could turn counter-productive.

2.5 The main obstacles in the management of time are the time wasters, which inhibit the progress of a planned schedule. The literature highlighted the various time wasters that affected the time plans, such as telephone interruptions, visitors, interference from boss, meetings and personal characteristics of the women such as gossiping, procrastination and inconsistency.

2.6 Studies on the behaviour pattern of individuals have been made and personalities with Type A behaviour and Type B behaviour have been identified. Type A people were found to work to their maximum rate with no time deadline,
thereby resulting in higher quality of work and also greater stress. But Type B people seldom feel any time urgency and always sound relaxed and serene, thus resulting in greater praise and affection and less stress. Personality is a factor that affects one's life style and work pattern, which in turn influences self-management, that paves way for work-life balance.

2.7 The effect of training programmes conducted to improve the time management practices were revealed in the above studies. The results showed marked improvement in their performances, proving the positive correlation of time management practices of women and the training given to them.

Critical Evaluation of the Review

The review of the available literature has thrown light on the various aspects of dual career women, their time management practices, their ability to balance work and life smoothly, their time use pattern and the time wasters that affect their routine. The literature reveals the financial and psychological compulsion faced by women to enter into the labour force, to meet the demands of one's family and society. As a consequence, they tend to compromise with their quality time with family members, their health and leisure time activities. Resting duration has decreased and stress has increased.

The overall evaluation of these studies shows the lesser contribution of Indian studies towards research in time management practices and the training given to women regarding this concept and the related variables. Women being in a position to provoke people to think and act, in the present era, should be carefully attended with utmost care and therefore, more research in their day to day life management becomes a greater necessity, to sustain their superiority.