CHAPTER - II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, an attempt has been made to present the literature pertaining to the past research work related to the present study. Systematic perusal of the literature of the chosen domain categorized in various segments viz Studies pertains to Women Labour force in the Economy, Studies pertains to the constraints faced by the Women workers, Studies pertains to the Gender-based labour market discrimination, Studies pertains to the dual role of working women, Studies pertains to Globalization and its impact on Women leather workers, Studies pertains to Leather industries and women workers.

2.2. STUDIES PERTAINS TO WOMEN LABOUR FORCE IN THE ECONOMY

Ghosh (1993)\(^1\) writes that in developed countries (DCs), urban work participation rates are higher than rural rates, whereas in less developed countries (LDCs) rural participation rates are higher than urban rates. In DCs females are more inclined to work in the urban areas than to rural; whereas in LDCs, females are participating at higher rate in rural areas. It appears that the proportionate distribution of population between rural and urban sectors, and the economic structure is responsible for these differentials. It should be noted that female education is less valued in rural areas. But after the age group 15-19 years, a larger proportion of females remains permanently absent from work-force, mainly because of high fertility performance: child bearing and child rearing.

Kundu, Amitabha (1997)\(^2\) examined the work participation rate (WPR) in India both in rural as well as in urban areas. The data taken decennial censuses as well as by the N.S.S support this proposition. The urban 19 rates of work participation are lower.

than the rural ones, for both males and females. The reason mentioned by Kundu for this trend is the agrarian nature of Indian economy because agriculture sector has the 'capacity' to carry a large number of disguised unemployed persons to absorb them at low levels of productivity. This is particularly true for women. The 1991 census recorded a significant growth in the number of total female workers during 1981-91 viz 40.4 per cent. The corresponding figure for males was 20.8 per cent only. As a result, the percentage share of total female workers moved up from 19.7 per cent to 22.3 per cent while for male workers, it declined from 52.6 per cent to 51.6 per cent. Importantly the WPR of females has gone up both in rural as well as in urban areas. The opposite is true for males. Furthermore, the increase in the WPR for women in rural area works out as higher than that in urban areas during 1981-91.

Nirmala, V and Bhat, Sham. K. (1999)\(^3\) in their paper attempted to analyze the female labour participation and examine the impact of technological changes on female labour employment in rain fed agriculture in Tuticorin district of Tamil Nadu. It was observed that technology adoption had positive impact on female labour employment. Cotton crop created better employment opportunities accounting for 77.12 man days/ha as compared to Cumbu (37.93 man-days/ha) and Cholam (44 man-days/ha). But the percentage of family female labour to total labour decreased with the increase in the level of adoption of technology.

Tripathy, S. N. and Das, Soudamini (1999)\(^4\) conducted a study on the role of informal groups in increasing women's participation and employment generation among rural poor. The groups were selected from two different project areas viz. Chitradurga district in Karnataka and Periyar district in Tamil Nadu. The study revealed that in terms of occupational pattern of members, agricultural labourers constituted 70 per cent of the membership of the group. The additional employment generated through the informal group lending worked out to 172 person-days per

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\(^4\) Tripathy, S. N. and Das, Soudamini, Informal Women Labour in India. New Delhi: Discovery Publishing House, 1999
member undertaking supplementary activities such as animal husbandry, poultry etc. and non-farm activities like petty shop, kirana shop, flower selling business etc. provided employment to a greater extent. The annual employment available for the group members increased to 85 per cent during post-group formation period when compared to pregroup formation period. The informal groups of rural poor with active intervention of NGOs, adequately supported by training and financial assistance ensured and also significantly improved women’s’ participation both from economic and social aspects.

Agarwal, Bina (1999)\(^5\) has attempted to examine the changes in educational and employment status of female labour in rural areas of Amritsar district of Punjab at two points of time \(i.e.,1990-91\) and \(1997-98\). The data was collected from 200 female workers based on three stage random sampling procedure. The employment of female labour in the primary sector declined from 60 per cent to 53.5 per cent, but it showed upward shifts in secondary and tertiary sectors. The number of illiterate female workers declined from 44 per cent to 39 per cent between \(1990-91\) and \(1997-98\) with a proportionate increase in the number of literate female workers. Their share in the family income from primary, secondary and tertiary activities showed increase from 12, 15 and 18 per cent in \(1990-91\) to 15, 17 and 20 per cent in \(1997-98\).

Mishra (1999)\(^6\) in his paper have examined the extent and proportion of women labour participation in paddy cultivation and gap in wages between men and women labour in Kymore Plateau and Satpura hill region of Madhya Pradesh. The participation of women labour was higher in transplanting of paddy, inter-culture and harvesting while, operations like preparatory tillage, sowing, manuring and fertilizer application, irrigation and threshing operations were performed jointly with men. The use of women labour (both family and hired) in paddy cultivation constituted 53 per


\(^6\) Mishra, Bimlesh Kumar, "Women Workers Deserve a Better Deal." Yojana, Vol. 34, No. 12, 1999, p.19
cent of the total human labour employment. The hiring of women labour was highly associated with the increase in the size of farm. The result of the study also showed that the wage gap was more than 71 per cent between men and women in agricultural all operations. The study suggested that diversified farming such as dairy, poultry etc. can help to increase the employment opportunities of women.

Gumber, Anil (2000)\(^7\) locate the importance of women as workers and as managers of human welfare who are central to the ability of households, communities, and nations in tackling the current crisis of survival. The process of development taking place in almost all the Third World countries is linked up with the global economy, where the key issues are growth versus people-centered development, export-led growth versus inward oriented production, problems of impact of capital and technological and its appropriation. These contradictions reflect the conflicting interests of different groups where the interests of lowest rung in the caste, class and gender hierarchy are deteriorating. If rural women as a group are taken they are the providers of entire range of so – called basic needs. Therefore, if the impacts of development strategies are to be understood properly, then the starting point has to be that of viewing women as principal producers and workers. However, the approach is a blend of gender and class. Referring to the effects of land reforms, the study says that they have often reduced women’s control over land by recognizing male heads of household, resulting in more seasonal, casual, temporary nature of work of the landless women. And, where agricultural mechanization has occurred, it worsens or at least does not improve women’s absolute and relative economic position

V.Nirmala and K.Sham Bhat (1999)\(^8\) observed that since 1971 there has been a stabilization of women’s employment. The ILO database shows no rise in women’s economic activity rates for India during 1972-2002. These data show 31 per cent of women working in 1970, 31 per cent in 1980, 27 per cent in 1990, and 30 per cent in

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\(^8\) V.Nirmala and K.Sham Bhat: “Female Work Participation in The Emerging Labour Market in India”; The Indian Journal of Labour Economics; Vol. 42.4, 1999
2000. In other words there is no substantial change, according to this source. The measures of work participation obtained by the National Council for Applied Economic Research (NCAER) in their survey in 1997 showed labour force participation rates of 52 per cent among men and 26 per cent among women. Their calculations used both usual and subsidiary status. At the all-India level it raised women’s labour force participation from 18 to 26 per cent. The NCAER figures closely mimic the Indian Census figures for 1991. The Census showed 27 per cent of women and 53 per cent of men were in the labour force using the combination of usual and subsidiary status. Furthermore state differences in work participation rates are given using NCAER data. The change in female work participation rates due to including subsidiary status has different effects for different states. For those with low participation rates under the heading of ‘usual’ status (for women), there is a huge difference. Adding subsidiary workers in some cases doubles the work participation rate, e.g. from 9 to 29 per cent in the Punjab, and a similarly large jump occurs in Uttar Pradesh.

Greed (2000) addresses the question of whether an increased number of women entering the construction professions is resulting in the build-up of critical mass, with associated changes in the culture of the construction industry, and thus in its organisation and conditions of employment. The study identifies the change agents such as governmental regulatory bodies, and bottom-up agents such as minority groups and community organizations which are responsible for the changes in the construction industry. One important professional body is the women-led Equal Opportunities in Construction Taskforce, which has produced and is promoting guidelines for equal opportunities in the industry. The study reveals the trends which work against the build-up of critical mass and culture change. They are high job turnover among women in construction, occupational isolation, and limited promotion prospects.

Study of Mitra, P.P. (2001)\textsuperscript{10} presents that urban employment has grown at a faster rate than that of rural, largely due to growth of informal sector. The annual growth of employment in urban areas during 1972 to 1987 had been as high as 4 per cent as against the corresponding growth in rural areas of only 1.7 per cent. The era of eighties has been characterized with jobless growth as employment in the organized sector grew at less than 1 per cent per annum while the labour force in the country grew at 2.5 per cent per annum. He also mentions that in all industries, the proportion of contract workers in total workforce has increased from 8.3 per cent in 1984-85 and 9.1 per cent in 1991-92. There has been perceptible decline in the self employed status of workers both on the basis of Usual Principal Status (UPS) and Usual Principal and Subsidiary status (UPSS) except in the case of urban males. Although there has been an increase in the proportion of female workforce in the category of regular employees, but the decline in the case of male workforce has been so fast that there has been an overall decline in the proportion of regular workers.

N. Rajeswari (2002)\textsuperscript{11} The socio-economic conditions of Handloom weaves in Tamil Nadu in India reference to their occupation, income consumption, debt, education, job satisfaction, investment, sources of finance expenditure savings health environment conditions, welfare schemes etc., are useful for determining their economic independence. Majority of the handloom weavers earn very low monthly income and they live below poverty line. The handloom sector has to be saved from global competition failing which the sector and weavers will lose their economic positions.

According to Jha (2002)\textsuperscript{12} the construction sector in Nepal plays a vital role in providing employment for a large proportion of the poorest sections of the population.

in Nepal. The study reveals that the main priority of the construction workers is to find work on a regular basis and improve their income. Male workers can raise their income considerably by acquiring skills and it is rare to find an unskilled male worker having more than five to seven years of experience in this sector. Thus men in Nepal are trained through on the job training. But this opportunity to acquire skills is denied to female labourers. The contribution of women to the construction industry of Nepal is significant. It was found that the women constituted 25 to 40 per cent in roof casting groups and roughly 75 per cent in production of construction materials. The female construction workers are exploited also in terms of lesser wage rates than their male counterparts. In Nepal, females are employed only as helpers and continue working as helpers throughout their working lives.

Elumalai and Sharma (2003)\textsuperscript{13} in their study on non-farm employment for rural households in India have found that the employment of wage labour has been declining in agriculture, while it is increasing in non agricultural activities. The non-farm activities provide opportunities to earn income during the slack season in agriculture. The study also revealed the multi activity nature of the workers. About 62.13 per cent of the person-days spent in agriculture as principal activity by the rural male, also spent 3.35 per cent and 4.34 per cent of the person-days as self-employed and wage labour in non-agriculture respectively. The per cent distribution of male workers in non-farm employment in 1999-00 was the highest in Kerala followed by Himachal Pradesh and the per cent distribution of rural female workers in non-farm activities was the highest in West Bengal followed by Kerala. The study concludes that augmenting rural investment in the development of non-farm sector will increase the income of rural households and thus reduce poverty.

Mohanty, S.K.(2004)\textsuperscript{14} examined that overall levels of WPR is likely to be lower. The WPR is derived from the occupation of the labour force. It is found that


the WPR in urban India has remained constant at 55 percent at both early reform and late reform period for the population aged 20-59. The WPR by broad age group showed that there is sharp decline in the WPR for the age group 45 and above whereas there is no/marginal change for other age group. For the age group 20-24 the WPR has increased from 19.2 to 20.6 percent while it has increased from 37.6 to 38.8 for the age group 25-29 in urban India. But the WPR has remained stagnant at 64 percent for the age group 40-45, declined from 62 to 59, 51 to 49.44 to 31 and 35 to 21 for the age group 50-54, 55-59, 60-64 and 65+ respectively. The NSSO findings revealed that there is decline in overall work participation rate during 1993-94 and 1999-2000 in all the age group whereas this finding shows such a decline in elder ages. The NSSO finding reveals that the WPRs had declined from 420 to 395, for both sexes, from 545 to 527 for males, and from 286 to 254 for females per 1000 work force. The sex differential in work participation is quite distinct in urban India in both early-reform period (ERP) and late-reform period (LRP). While the female work participation rate has increased the male work participation had remained constant the ERP and LRP for the age group 20-59 years. But the decline in work participation is observed for higher ages irrespective of sex. The female work participation in urban India still remains low. Further it may be noted that the male work participation rate reaches its peak at the age of 30-34 years and the female work participation reaches its peak at the age group 35-39. This is true both in ERP and LRP. The NSSO (2001) finding reveals that the age specific WPRs per 1000 work force on the usual status had declined for all age group in urban India and for both sexes.

Meer Muhammad Parhiair (2005)\textsuperscript{15} has investigated in his research article entitled “Understanding Poverty in Rural Sindh” that rural women do all on farm/off farm works. Her day begins from pre-dawn with crushing. If the family is fortunate enough to have cattle, and end up by taking leftover bites of bread and bowl of

porridge. Their traditional role of housekeeping has been extended to collect firewood, fodder, and working on farms. Owing to social taboos, ignorance, financial constraints, inadequate education facilities, and non-availability of lady teachers in rural girls’, schools have not opened the doors of literacy for them. Agriculture-dependent rural people have struggled to improve their economic conditions. On the contrary, shortage of water, dry spell cycles, decrease in cultivable area due to soil deterioration, extension of towns and villages, contraction of infrastructure, rising cost of inputs, non-availability of high yield quality varieties seeds to small farmers, unchecked population growth, etc, have together adversely affected the lives of rural people.

Korinek (2005)\textsuperscript{16} in the OEDC Working Paper “Trade and Gender: Issues and Interactions” examines ways in which greater integration through trade impacts women and men differently, and ensuing implications for growth. The paper finds that trade creates jobs for women in export-oriented sectors. Although women are more than ever formally employed, differences in wages earned by men and women persist in all countries. Women also have less access to productive resources, time and, particularly in many developing countries, education. Professional women continue to encounter discrimination in hiring and promotion, including in OECD countries. The study suggests that women comprise between 53% and 90% of the employed in many export sectors in middle-income developing countries. These jobs bring more household resources under women’s control, which in turn has a positive effect on investments in the health and education of future generations. However, there is some evidence that women are constrained from moving into more skilled, higher-paying jobs created by trade liberalization because they have less access to resources, education and time.

According to Ahsan, Ahmad (2006)\textsuperscript{17} there has been growing concern with Indian employment trends in recent years. Although the Indian economy witnessed robust and sustained growth rate of about 6 per cent per annum in 1990's but employment trends presented a worrying picture. By official estimates employment growth rates almost halved in 1990's, compared to 1980's. Further, there has been a marked fall in participation rates and unemployment rate and casualisation rates both have increased. When the first result of the 55th Round of the National Sample Survey (conducted in 1999-2000) was released, it was already apparent that there had been some major shifts in patterns of employment, especially in the rural areas. The 55th Round indicated a substantial decline in the share of agriculture and a rise in the share of non-agriculture in employment. In itself this could be a positive sign of progress and diversification, but it was associated with a fairly large drop in work participation rates of both men and women, which indicated a deceleration in aggregate employment growth. Such a deceleration has now been confirmed by data emerging from 2001 Census. When the estimated population is used to estimate the total number of those in some form of employment in 1999-2000, it yields results which show an even sharper drop in the rate of growth of rural employment generation than was previously supposed, although the fall in urban employment growth is less severe. Thus, the combined estimates suggest an average annual rate of growth of aggregate rural employment growth of only 0.58 per cent over the period between 1993-94 and 1999-2000. This makes it not only as low as around one-fourth of the previous period’s rate, but also the lowest such rate of increase observed since the NSSO first began recording employment data in the 1950s.

\textsuperscript{17} Ahsan, Ahmad (2006))Studies of educated working Women in India Trends and Issues, Economics and political weekly,vol.14 (13)
2.3. STUDIES PERTAINS TO THE CONSTRAINTS FACED BY THE WOMEN WORKERS

Kaveri (1995)\(^{18}\) notes that in Tamil Nadu women and children on worksites are called *chithals*, literally small people. Male workers on the other hand are *periyal* or big people. On large construction sites, *periyals* act as watchmen. They often have the responsibility for curing operations at night that require watering freshly laid cement at intervals so that it sets without cracking. The *periyal’s* wife is expected to help him with this job but it is he who gets paid for it. Women construction workers in Tamil Nadu are employed only on a temporary and casual daily basis as unskilled workers (lifting earth loads, cutting soil, mixing cement, breaking bricks) and not as masons. There is also considerable hostility from the contractors and male workers to women masons.

Deshpande, Sudha (1996)\(^{19}\) conducted a study by pointing out that the country points to the awful conditions of women workers in the informal sector. Ignorance, traditional bound attitudes, illiteracy, lack of skills, seasonal nature of employment, heavy physical work of different types, long hours of work with limited payment, sex discrimination in wage structures, lack of guarantee of minimum wages/ comprehensive legislation/ minimum facilities; migration and disintegration of families, bondage and alienation etc are some characteristics of employment of women in this sector. But these unattractive sectors still involve many women because they search these jobs for their livelihood.

Deshpande (2000)\(^{20}\) examined the role of caste affiliation as an indicator of inter-group disparity. She formulated the Caste Development Index (CDI), based

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on the Theil index, to measure caste inequality and defined caste disparity as the distance between the CDI for low caste groups and for others (non-low castes). She analyzed between-group and within-group disparity focusing on the southern Indian State of Kerala which has experienced greater social and labor reforms thanks to a communist regime and where caste is expected to be less important in the society. She used the Consumption and Expenditure Data from the National Sample Survey Organization for 1993-94, and considered three groups - the scheduled castes (SC), scheduled tribes (ST) and others. She found that overall inequality was not on the higher side, as was expected given the State’s social and political history. Contrary to expectations, she found evidence of inter-caste disparity in both rural and urban areas. But she found that the problem of within-group

According to Nirmala V and Bhat, Sham. K. (1999)\(^{21}\) the degree of casualisation is found to be more in the case of rural females as compared to the rural males. The ratio of female casual labour to male casual labour shows a continuous decline over time since 1972-73 and shows a slight rise in the period in internationalization of agriculture. The ratio of casual labour to regular employees is much more in the case of rural females as compared to rural males. Urban India is characterized by more regular employment and casual labour forms only a fraction of it. Though over a period, the ratio of casual labour to regular ones tends to increase for males but the corresponding ratio is much higher for females. They also concludes that the marginalization of women manifests itself in declining work participation rates and a shift of low paid occupations rather than in increased unemployment rate and increased casualisation.

Ravindar (2003) analyzed the time use pattern of the poor so that employment and welfare programmes could be planned for them. A survey was conducted covering 2000 households (1000 rural and 1000 urban) spread over 11 divisions categorized by the Slum Clearance Board of the Coimbatore Municipal Corporation. It was found that the average household size was 3.97 in rural areas and 4.12 in urban areas. 71% of the rural households were nuclear and in urban areas 59% of the households were joint families. Overall, only 6% households in rural areas and 8% in urban areas were headed by women. In rural areas 49% of the women were working, while in urban areas 31% women worked. About 58% of the working women in rural areas were in the active working age group of 15-35 years, 38% were in 36-59 years age group, and 4% were 60+ years. More than 90% of the working women were married, widowed or separated. About 91.82% of the working women in rural areas were in full time jobs, and this percentage was 65.60% in urban areas. On an average in rural areas, males spent about 6.223 hours in a day on SNA activities (Standards of National Activities) and 0.7155 hours on extended SNA activities. In rural areas, females spent about 2.8252 hours on SNA activities and 3.4466 hours on extended SNA activities in a day. In urban areas, the time spent by females on SNA activities was only 1.6374 hours, while males spent 5.3108 hours on SNA activities per day. Females spent about 5.8457 hours in a day on extended SNA activities, while males spent about 1.6487 hours in a day on extended SNA activities in urban areas. In rural areas working males spent about 11.81 hours on personal care, while females spent about 10.96 hours per week. Females spent 1.86 hours per day on cooking, 0.97 hours on washing clothes, cleaning utensils and cleaning the house. The economic cost of activities such as cooking, washing utensils, washing clothes and cleaning the house were estimated in monetary terms. It was

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found that the per capita monthly expenses incurred would be Rs.40 for each of these activities. It was recommended that a macro level policy is needed that could integrated women’s paid and unpaid work, reduce their drudgery, and lessen the burden of extended SNA activities.

Bhatt, Aparna and Sen, Aatreyee (2005) defines a domestic worker as “someone who carries out household work in private households in return for wages”. The report focused on the findings of two public hearings in Mumbai and Delhi. The hearings investigated cases of gross human rights violations against domestic labourers/ workers by both state and private parties, and aimed to report, campaign and litigate for the same. A gathering was organized of 140 domestic workers in Mumbai and 200 domestic workers in Delhi. These hearings had a multidisciplinary panel consisting of professionals ranging from lawyers, journalists, activists to academicians, etc. Domestic workers were categorized into 3 groups namely child domestic workers (CDWs), live in workers (full timers), and part time domestic workers. The problem of each type of worker was not very different from the other but the intensity of exploitation increased with lower age groups (children). The report showed that poverty was the main factor responsible for the plight of domestic workers. Several other problems faced by domestic workers were strenuous working hours, low wages, no job security, physical assault if the work was not done, frequent scolding for minor things like breaking a cup, and most of the times salary was deducted for any breakage or minor accidental damage while at work. One major problem faced by live in workers/ full timers was trafficking. They were trafficked from villages and brought to Bombay or Delhi by giving them high expectations of better lives and most of the time false hopes. All the full timers and part time domestic workers complained that no yearly increment, holidays, bonus, medical allowances and maternity leave benefits were given to them. Suggestions given/ made by panelists were that CDWs

should be treated like children not as slaves or bonded labour by their employers; compulsory registration of domestic workers should be done to avoid the problem of very young children working in homes; awareness and sensitization programmes should be launched for both politicians and government servants on the plight of domestic workers; all domestic workers throughout the country should be guaranteed minimum wages, paid work off, adequate and free medical treatment; and the Labour Commissioner of the states should register all CDWs under the provisions of Child Labour Act.

Singh, D.P. (2005) conducted the study to investigate the Socio-economic conditions of women brick workers in Haryana. It also introspected the different economic activities adopted for survival; and explored various aspects relating to the family, migration, and women’s working conditions. A sample of 410 women workers were drawn using multi stage random sampling technique. Structured interview schedules were used, and employers. The study found that more than 87% women workers of brick kilns were found to be less than 45 years of age. The major chunk of workers were hails from the neighbouring states namely Uttar Pradesh (32%), Bihar (29%), Haryana (22.68%) and Rajasthan (13.41%). For most of the women, it was the husband’s decision to work in the kiln. The chief attraction was that money could be obtained in advance. Women workers in brick kilns were at the bottom of the hierarchy. Only a few of the respondents (6.34%) mentioned that women were either looked down upon or physically harassed. Almost 98.04% workers came to the brick kiln only for the season, that is, from October and November to May or June. Family size of workers varied from two to five members (67.56%), six to ten (24.15%), and eleven to fifteen (8.29%). In all the brick kilns of this area employers gave some money to workers for their day-to-day expenses on the 15th day of the month. This money was actually paid to the male workers, and women did not receive money for

expenses separately. Most of the women said that their families were unable to save. Control and decision making usually rested with males. The lives of women working in brick kilns was exhausting and tough because of the double burden of working at home as well as at the work site. They hardly got any time for recreation or leisure activities. Although all of them contributed to the family’s survival, it was disheartening to note that they did not receive any independent income and had to depend upon their men folk entirely.

Vanker, Purushottam. (2005) has undertaken a study to assess the challenges faced by construction workers, due to mechanization, wage structure, etc. The sample consisted of 250 workers (150 females and 100 males) in the construction sector. For every 3 females 2 male respondents were picked up at random from each of the 50 kadiyanakas (labour points) of Ahmedabad. Due to rampant unemployment, many educated people and unemployed factory workers had joined construction work. Increased competition led workers to work for lower wages and sometimes they failed to find work. Also, migrant labourers worked for very low wages and further harmed prospects of the regular workforce. Respondents said that communal violence also affected their work as they were scared to move to another area in search of work. Mechanization had also led to a decreased demand for these workers. More than 30% of the total workers reported that they had met with an accident or had experienced an episode of sickness related to work. This led to declined work efficiency in addition to medical expenses. More than 23.2% of the workers met with accidents. 16.4% of the female workers faced sexual harassment, while 9.2% of the workers faced mental harassment due to abusive language and low wages. It is necessary to provide workers with skill training to enable them to adapt to the rapidly changing construction industry. Construction Workers Welfare Board should compensate

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workers for accidents. Also, it is important to identify the safety measures and equipment that is required and to ensure the implementation of safety norms and measures.

Rao, K. Hanumantha (2006) identified the states where the number of female workers grew faster than that of male workers, viz Andhra Pradesh, Himachal Pradesh, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu. These trends indicate feminisation of rural labour markets. The data of NSSO for the years 1987-88 and 1993-94 point out that the phenomenon of landlessness has considerably reduced in several states, which is a welcome sign from the viewpoint of unemployment and poverty eradication. Male workers joined the ranks of agricultural labour and a reverse pattern i.e. rise in 'cultivator' category was observed among female workers. The most recent reports relating to employment trends were released by the NSSO in the closing weeks of 2006; these are based on the 61st Round of the NSS, covering 2004-05. On the face of it, going by these reports, it would appear that there has been a revival of employment growth, after the sharp deceleration in the late 1990s, both in rural and urban India, over the first half of the current decade. Labour force participation rates, for both males and females, have recovered the lost ground and the aggregate employment growth rates for both males and females in rural as well as urban areas were close to the rates achieved during the period of 1987-88 to 1993-94. Nonetheless, in spite of the recovery, unemployment rates, both in rural and urban India (taking the current daily status measure) have continued to rise. Moreover, possibly the most striking results from the latest survey relate to the shift in the type of employment. Essentially, self-employment among major segments of the workforce has witnessed very significant increases. For instance, annual compound growth rate of agricultural self-employment, which was as low as (-) 0.53 during 1993-94 to 1999-2000, jumped to 2.89 between 1999-2000 and 2004-05. The story is no different in

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urban areas, as there too self-employment accounts for the dominant share of the increase in aggregate employment since 2000.

2.4. STUDIES PERTAINS TO THE GENDER BASED LABOUR MARKET DISCRIMINATION

Hakim (1976)\textsuperscript{27} analyzed whether women’s employment has been and still is characterized by high levels of occupational and sectoral segregation by sex. The study elucidates the segregation through the distinction between vertical and horizontal occupational segregation. The usual trend in the employment of women is downward, gaining proportionately less than male employment in the upswings of business cycles. Differences in wages due to a variety of discriminatory practices are designed to perpetuate the vertical as well as horizontal division of labour markets leading to gender based segregation and stereotyping of jobs resulting in women being concentrated in a few occupations.

Usharani et al. (1993)\textsuperscript{28} conducted a study to examine the gender differential in work participation in various operations of crop and livestock enterprises in semi-arid areas of Haryana. In the study female labour days of 8 hours were converted into man-equivalent days. One day work of woman was taken as equivalent to 0.75 man day. The major female labour absorbing operations are weeding, harvesting and threshing. Farm women spent about 85 per cent (on large farms) to about 89 per cent (on marginal farms) of their time in these operations only. The overall women participation rate in dairy enterprise was as high as 94 per cent as against 6 per cent only for men. The women work participation was minimum on marginal farms (86.24\%) and maximum on large farms (99.12\%) indicating positive relationship with the size of the holdings. In all farm size groups, female labour use was 58 per cent of


\textsuperscript{28} Usharani et al. (1993) Extent and causes of gender and poverty in India: A Case Study of rural Hayana. Journal of International Women’s Studies, 7(2): 182 -190
the total labour use. With the help of the primary data collected from a sample of 150 farm couples

Jayawardane & Gunawardena, (1998)\textsuperscript{29} made an analysis of human resource development issues in the Sri Lankan construction industry shows that the work force in Sri Lanka consists of 51 per cent unskilled workers and 49 per cent skilled workers. The highest percentage of skilled workers is aged 30-39 years. Approximately 86 per cent of the skilled work force have received informal training only. Low income, lack of job security and difficulty in finding regular work are the causes for dissatisfaction of more than 20 per cent of the work force. The study compares the HRD practices in Sri Lanka with the USA and the UK and reveals that Sri Lanka needs to adopt a more formal training system and proper grading of the skilled work force.

Saxena (1999)\textsuperscript{30} examines the working conditions for women in India, in industry and analyses possible discrimination against women with the view to shape future strategies from four perspectives: the woman worker, the male worker, the management and union leader. It looks at specific working conditions like wages and timings, promotions and benefits, facilities, occupational health and safety, collective bargaining and harassment at the work place. The study also tried to surface any best practices with respect to women workers so that worker’s organisations could use these as precedents to advocate change in working conditions, of workers in general and of women in particular. The key findings in the study are women are slotted into certain jobs, based on the real differences caused by their differential access to skills and perceived constraints which takes the form of jobs predominantly staffed by women, categorised as low skilled and low paying. The second and more overt form of discrimination found is unequal pay for equal work. Inequity in pay was also dependent on the following factors: Women not deployed for overtime or night shifts


where payments are higher. In general, men receive more promotions and for men, unlike women, the nature of their jobs often changed with these promotions. A higher proportion of men received benefits in all categories compared to women. The presence of unions has generally meant more benefits for the workers, including women.

Ray and Haque (2000)\(^{31}\) in their paper have examined the employment per acre, operation wise labour use and wage differential between migrated contract labour and local hired labour employed. The study revealed that in Hoogly district of West Bengal contract male and child labourers migrated to the study area and were employed predominantly in sowing and harvesting seasons of boro and aman paddy. No female contract labour migrated to the study area. Poverty was the main reason for migration. Besides, lower wages and low employment opportunities also caused migration.

Solanki and Sharma (2001)\(^{32}\) in their study 'Impact of Economic Reforms on Rural Employment-A case study of Jhakam Irrigation Project, Rajasthan' revealed that there is a significant impact of economic reforms on rural employment through irrigation. The 'with and without approach' of impact analysis was used. A sample of 100 farmers were selected for the study from two villages, 50 each from irrigated command area and unirrigated command area. The study revealed that the total labour use in crop production activity in the command area was higher compared to non command area. The use of family labour, attached labour and casual labour were also higher in the command area. The share of female workers in total labour absorption in crop production was found to be 42.45 per cent per farm in the command area compared to non command area. The labour in the non command area which was left out of


\(^{32}\) Solanki and Sharma (2001) : "Impact of Female Work Participation: A Study of Agricultural Labourer Households; The Indian Journal of Labour Economic; Vol. 48, No. 1, Jan- March, Pp. 6-7
irrigation suffered diversification from crop production and diverted to other activities in search of gainful employment.

Singh (2005)\textsuperscript{33} have conducted a study on labour wage discrimination in agriculture. The study was conducted in six states using stratified random sampling technique. The results of the study showed that women worked less hours per day compared to men. The allocation of time by women in the six states varied from 7.3 hours per day in Ranchi (Jharkand) to 9.5 hours per day in Adilabad (A.P). The work performed by women are weeding, spraying (assisting to men), irrigation, harvesting, threshing, drying up of pods grains \textit{etc}. Wage disparities were found to be higher among men and women in agriculture. Labour wages of male over female in agriculture were found to be higher (47\%) in Ranchi (Jharkand) and lower (31\%) in Coimbatore (Tamil Nadu). The CV of labour wages of male over female in agriculture was 42.1075 while in others (non-farm) it was 32.875.

Rana, A.S, Jasbir Singh and Kulwant Singh (2002)\textsuperscript{34}; in their study on non-farm employment for rural households in India have found that the employment of wage labour has been declining in agriculture, while it is increasing in non agricultural activities. The non-farm activities provide opportunities to earn income during the slack season in agriculture. The study also revealed the multi activity nature of the workers. About 62.13 per cent of the person-days spent in agriculture as principal activity by the rural male, also spent 3.35 per cent and 4.34 per cent of the person-days as self-employed and wage labour in non-agriculture respectively. The per cent distribution of male workers in non-farm employment in 1999-00 was the highest in Kerala followed by Himachal Pradesh and the per cent distribution of rural female workers in non-farm activities was the highest in West Bengal followed by


Kerala. The study concludes that augmenting rural investment in the development of non-farm sector will increase the income of rural households and thus reduce poverty.

Muniyandi et al. (2003)\(^3\) studied the 'Changes in Rural Non-Agricultural Employment in India'. The present study examined the changes in the labour force and workforce participation rate, sector wise distribution of this workforce, employment status of this workforce in the two sectors and the relationship between the level of poverty and employment in India. The analysis of the study was mainly based on the NSSO Data gathered over different rounds. The study revealed that the labour force participation rate in rural area (male and female) and in urban areas (female) during post reform period showed a decline, while the urban male labour force participation rate showed an increase. The workforce participation rate of male and female in urban and rural areas showed a marginal increase in the post reform period. The sector wise distribution of workers in rural areas indicated that workforce participation rate in agriculture sector has been declining and that in non agricultural sector has been increasing. The study emphasizes the need for encouraging the workers to establish non farm enterprise by providing appropriate training facilities at a reasonable rate of interest.

Luke and Munshi (2005)\(^3\) assess the role that women might play in reducing the disparities in income and education that persist across social groups in India. In the South Indian setting, low caste women - who have historically been disadvantaged in terms of both caste and gender - emerge as agents of change, using their income to move their families from the traditional network-based economy to the modern market economy. An exogenous increase in low caste female income, net of total


household income, weakens the family’s ties to the home community as the woman gains bargaining power within the household. The children are significantly less likely to marry in the traditional fashion, to be schooled in the ancestral location, and to ultimately settle there. At the same time, an exogenous increase in relative female income increases the educational attainment of the low caste children, particularly the girls. Female income effects, in contrast, are absent among the high castes, emphasizing the importance of social affiliation in shaping household decisions in a developing economy. The results in this paper suggest that historically disadvantaged groups and, in particular, disadvantaged individuals within those groups, may in fact be most responsive to new opportunities when resources are made available to them.

Madhok (2005) reports that work on construction sites is invariably divided along gender lines. The types of work that men do are labeled as skilled work and fetch higher wages than the work that women are allowed to do. Women are restricted to head loading and beldari jobs that involve fetching and carrying of materials and this type of work is labeled as unskilled work. Naturally, unskilled work is paid less than skilled work. This division of labour seems to be prevalent everywhere in the country. Even where men are hired to do beldari jobs, they are, by custom, paid a higher wage than women. The Equal Remuneration Act is flouted everywhere. On some jobs, men and women are treated as a couple and wages are paid to the man, not the woman. Assisting a mason and anticipating his exact requirement so that work can progress smoothly requires a high degree of skill, as does climbing scaffolding and balancing loads of brick. However these are not considered skilled activities.

Suchitra and Rajasekar (2006)\textsuperscript{38} focus on the promotional aspect of employment security in the context of unorganised workers. Regarding skill in case of construction workers, they find that skill level and continuous improvements in the same are very important for upward mobility. There exists a marked hierarchy among these workers based on their skill levels. The sample construction workers included skilled, semiskilled and unskilled workers. Skilled workers include masons, painters, polishers, carpenters, electricians and road layers. Semi skilled workers usually belonged to the category of apprentices. They are those learning a particular skill such as masonry or carpentry. The unskilled workers constituted helpers in all trades, and usually, they were involved in carrying mud, bricks and cement. These workers were highly marginalised and vulnerable in terms of the competition they faced and the low wages that they were paid. A gender differential was found in the case of construction workers and skill levels. Women construction workers are, in general, unskilled workers and are paid wages even lesser than those paid to the men unskilled workers. The few women workers interviewed mentioned that no matter what skills they learnt (for instance, some had learnt bricklaying and basic masonry), they were always classified as unskilled and paid the associated wage. The study finds that the key factors that determine the employment security of the construction workers are area of residence, human development, average wages and age of workers.

2.5. STUDIES PERTAINS TO THE DUAL ROLE OF WORKING WOMEN

Rosemary (1982)\textsuperscript{39} in her book stated that more women are moving into managerial and professional occupations (the fastest-growing occupational category) and this trend shows no signs of slackening. It is true that women tend to be located in ‘gendered niches’ with in managerial occupations. Nevertheless, such jobs will usually generate an income, which is sufficient to live


\textsuperscript{39} Rosemary (1982), Trends and Prospects for Women”s Employment in 1990”s, European Commission
interpedently. Managerial and professional women are likely to enter into relationships with men in similar occupations at a similar level, and to remain in paid employment after the birth of their children, such households will require various services which have to be purchased, either directly through the employment of paid domestic help or indirectly through ready meals, restaurant, dry cleaners and so on. More generally, two earner households (that is not only managerial and professional) will be more likely to buy services of all kinds. More men will be an increasing move of men into services occupations, thus further blurring the boundaries of the gender divisions of labour in the sphere of paid employment.

Jaya Arunachalam (1984)\textsuperscript{40} in her report on “Empowering Women for a positive revolution” revealed attitude of families towards women’s domestic responsibilities, the unsympathetic attitude of employers, lack of training, limiting employment opportunities and above all, women’s low perception in the labour market and had provided ample impressions both to employers and the society that women work only to make subsidiary income to the families, whereas the principal breadwinner were still men. It had also given rise to belief that women were not career-minded and therefore does not mind dead and lobs without promotion options. The facts mentioned precede that even that small percentage of women who get into formal sector, face discrimination and exploitation in their factories and were pushed to accept jobs not accepted by men. A critical examination of these facts would reveal how labour intensive industries had more women workers on low schedule of payment leading to capital accumulation.

Lalitha K. Nair (1984)\textsuperscript{41} conducted a study on “Women’s two Roles” and said Women’s occupational status had always been closely associated with the home and the family. There was a clear conflict between the socially approved status of

\textsuperscript{40} Jaya Arunachalam (1984). Status and Role Perception of middle class women. New Delhi : Puja Publishers

women, as housewife and mother of children on the one hand, and their status as more productive worker on the other. Children of 20% respondents were looked after by their parents when the respondents were at work, 26% by the husband’s 18% by servants, 20% were schools going children and 16% had no children. 30% reported that their children were too young to judge their scholastic performance. 86% families had strong economic support due to respondent’s income, which was spent to meet family needs. 50% felt it was necessary to work. 46% had satisfactory relations with their supervisors and colleagues. 52% liked both home and their job as against 25% who liked only their home and 28% liked only their office. 62% were fully satisfied with their dual role of working and housewife.

Madula Sherwani (1984) in her studies on “Why more women entering work force” has observed Indian women still operate under creation limitation and hardship. One of the most common problems faced by a woman was the dual role; she had to play on the domestic front and the shop floor. Particularly the married working women with the small children found that dual responsibility a source of great mental and physical strain. For them the working hours were long 8 hours at the place of employment and at least 4 hours at home. Usually husbands and sometimes even in-laws did not extend any help in the household chores. Again after all this hard work, tragedy was that working women couldn’t claim independent economic assets. Most of the salary earners had to surrender their pay pockets to their husbands in the case of married women and to their parents in the case of unmarried girls. They were allowed to hold back only a small amount for spending on transport and tea.

Kuppuswamy, B (1989) discussed in the traditional joint family, social life of women was largely confined to family and relatives. Family was the only place for entertainment. There was separation of the perspective spheres of work for men

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and women. Men were looking after the household work. Basically the spheres of operation were separated. This separation of the sexes in the family tends to characterize social life as well. The women were forming their own social groups.

They had much more restricted social life. Very few women socially free to go out of their home or house without escort. Women were not allowed to join unions’ organizations or clubs. Many changes have taken place in the urban family with respect to the social life of women. The new life in the city has altered the family relations, social life because both of them are educated and are developing new relationships. Co-educated has created an opportunity for intermixing of boys and girls. A large number of women are working with males and making friendship with them.

Manikaramerkar (1995) in his book on “Socio-economic conditions of women workers” describes that as parts of the research programmed of labour burden a field enquiry were to study working, economic and living conditions of women workers as also to assess the extent of welfare available to them vies-a vies the labour laws with a view to identifying the problem being faced by them in these various fields. These findings are recommendations were related to employment size, method of recruitment, employment status, length of service, marital status, impact of labour saving devices, wage rate absenteeism, working conditions and welfare amenities, living conditions, demographic and socio economic status of the female workers of the mines. development efforts are to be effective. The main focus is women, as they are at disadvantageous position than men. The agreed objective of this study is growth with equity and participation, policies and initiatives to be taken for helping women among poor. The analysis is based on many case studies and throws light on a few important implications. One of the most stubborn obstacles to poor women’s participation is the misconceptions held by most men and many women about appropriate roles for women. Increase in women’s employment

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44 Manikaramerkar (1995): “Female participation in farm work and non-farm work”; Sociological Bulletin; vol.25, no.2, Pp.105-110
opportunities and incomes do not automatically work to their advantage, the vital question is who exercised control over their labour and income. It is clear that in some cases increased payment for women’s labour lead to greater control over it by others status is considered to be one of the behavioral indicators.

Khan and Singh (1994) have taken into account different spheres of decision making namely deciding family size. Even though a woman plays several roles throughout her life—as daughters, sister, wife, daughter—in-law sister in law and mother, she seldom does have the power to make decisions which concern her own life vitally. Taking into account women in reproductive age in Uttar Pradesh (India) they conclude that the husband has the final in the number of children. They should have in the case of 33 percent of rural women of Uttar Pradesh, both take decision on family size and in 53% cases husbands alone take the decision. In the case of 4.3 percent of urban women, the husbands take the decision in 9.3 percent cases elder members and in 1.9 percent cases women she takes decisions.

Seta Vaidayalingam (1994) discussed the problem and concerns of Indian women. According to him working women are subject to more explanatory problems and pressures than their non-working sisters. Finding a suitable occupation is the first problem right and proceeds it and of course fighting for the right amount of education to secure a decent job, tops it all, after having completed her education when a women steps the field of vocation are not quite correct, we find to be women’s staying capacity and the usual remarks is adequate. This kind of attitude spoils a women’s changes at all levels and particularly in the field of self-employment with a job come other problematic situations, kinds of people at work especially men. Number of lawyers do not encourage women simply

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46 Seta Vaidayalingam (1994) “Development Paradox in Kerala: Analysis of Industrial Stagnation,” Economic and Political Weekly; September 15,
because the later to level the office at about 6 p.m. in order to reach home early despite the fact that a busy lawyer’s office is at its best after 6 p.m. Single working women have the accommodation problem, if working in a city their families do not live with them.

Peggy Antrobus, (1996)\textsuperscript{47} in the study on “economics status and career opportunities for women in India today” has remarked that the desirability of giving important status to women society has often been expressed, though it was denied in actual life. A women’s lower status in the family was often to her exclusion from economic ability gainful employment. Since the Second World War, urban women of middle and upper class, particularly, married women began to seek gainful employment out of home. This phenomenon created the problem relating women’s two roles, home and work. The most popular jobs as had been seen from the number of women applicants registered in the employment exchanges were those of clerk, the highest percentage of women workers (more than 40%) was for professional technical and related jobs mostly as teachers, nurses and midwives. The next percentage (9%) that’s of clerks, sales and related workers, administrative, executive and management workers from only 2%. According to the author the main reason for women’s employment was economic necessity to supplement the income of her husband or of the family. Though this economic cause was most important there was also social, psychological and situational reasons for taking up employment case of high society ladies such as ambition of a career, charm of the position utilization of leisure, proper use of higher education, killing away time till marriage, escape from domestic work, freedom to mix with people and preference for outdoor life.

Parmine Sangupta (1998)\textsuperscript{48} in her book ‘women in India’ states that participation of women in economic activity was very common from the time

\textsuperscript{47} Peggy Antrobus, (1996), ”Women and Development: An Alternative Analysis”; Journal of the Society for International Development

\textsuperscript{48} Senguptha, P.(1998). The Story of Women in India (II edition), Delhi ;Indian Book Company
immemorial. Primitive society offered many instances of vigorous work in hunting and in cultivation by women. Women’s role became more real and designed with an evaluation of an agricultural economy, Even in Moherjadaro and Harappa culture, women shared a responsible position with men and helped in spinning and day modeling and other simple arts and crafts. There are more several explanations for the tendency of female participation in economic activity to deadline at the early stage of development. In addition, she states that according to Baser up Easter the most important were technical chances within the agricultural sector, Unemployment policy which induces women to accept employment to restrict somewhat the growth of urban areas holding down the birth rate, working women poor countries can therefore reduce the burden of supporting both non-working women children and non-working women by providing vocational training for employment instead of reserving employment for men.

Cherian, J. & Prasad K.V. (1999) explores the causes of women’s unemployment in India. The greater rush of women job seekers within a more or less inflexible employment counter, the failure of defective development process to economic transformation, the low level of educational attainment, the frightening increase in female population highly prejudiced social attitude resulting in unwillingness on the part of the employers to employ women. Wide-spread sex discrimination in different productive sectors, women’s preference for certain selected occupations the unwillingness of educated women to go to villages the unhelpful attitude of employers towards handicapped women and lack of provision of adequate opportunities for their self-employment ventures are the main causes of colossal problem of women’s unemployment in India today.

Jhabvala, Renana and Sinha, Shalini (1999) says that uses data on individual women from 1000 samples of this a picture of the labour market in each of

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the major metropolitan areas where these women lived is added. This helps in arriving at a picture of a relative weight that each background or situational factor contributes to a woman’s employment. A married women’s score is 100 if she employed zero if she is not. Labour market conditions appear to about twice the weight of women’s own individual and family characteristics in determining whether she is employed or not. If the metropolitan area in which she lives contains industries with a good number of female jobs and if there are high female wages, married women in that area are more likely to work but if the cost of household help is high and there is a high female ratio in the population, their changes are less favorable. The lower her husband’s income and the more her own schooling the greater the likelihood that married women will work. However if she has pre-school age children, she is deterred from working. If she is block but all the other characteristics are the same as a white woman’s she is also more likely to work.

Katherine Mckee, (1999)\textsuperscript{51} in her study found that as a consequence of implementation of land reforms, the lives of women have changed. They were less subordinate of the landlord and more subordinate to the men of their own groups. They were also more economically valuable helping with showing weeding and harvesting. A few of them also worked in the homes of land lords, while the women among the agricultural laborers tend to benefit from land reforms legislation, they are not placed on equal footing with men in the sphere of social relations. This is more due to the impact of the dominance of patriarchal family structure in the Indian society and they are hardly associated in matters of decision making.

Talwar Sabanna (2001)\textsuperscript{52} says that the new economy offers a plethora of opportunities to educated and trained women workers who compete on par with men for jobs in the IT, telecom and other technology sectors. The process of

\textsuperscript{51} Katherine Mckee, (1999), in her paper “Micro Level Strategies for Supporting Livelihoods”, Journal of the Society for International Development

structural adjustment hits unorganized and unskilled women workers. The hardest coping mechanisms must include retraining, orientation towards service industry sectors and focus on market trends for traditional products. The social stales of women have been considerably increased in the country during the post-reform period. The women population has been gradually enabling itself to overcome the shackles of a custom ridden, basically orthodox society. This could be observed from the increasing enrolment of female population in educational institutions at all levels, increasing number of female job–seekers on the live registers of employment exchanges, steadily rising rate of women employment–in public and private sectors, growing rate of female participation in voluntary organizations promoting women welfare and social service activities etc. Thus the post–reform period has been associated with growing employment opportunities for women. However, these claims of increased employment generation are generally supplemented with information on the nature of employment and the terms and conditions under which labour is employed in the emerging women labour market.

Koran Prasad (2002) reveals that women carry a disproportionate and growing share of economic and domestic responsibility for the family. Inspire of this they do not have the decision making power to determine when they start a family and at what time intervals they have children. Access to information and means for enhancing their reproductive health and family planning choices has been demonstrated to be a major tool for the empowerment of women. The first formal definition of women’s reproductive rights at the Teheran conference generated intense debate on this issue at all consequent international conferences and conventions. These conferences also arrived at several policy measures which would improve the lives of girls and women including better education and economic opportunities, equality before the law, an end to gender based violence access to high quality and family planning information and services and greater participation by men in

family planning and family life. Achieving these objectives will increase women’s freedom to take their own reproductive decisions which is not only a basic human right but will also help to reduce unwanted pregnancy, improve reproductive health and slow population growth. The human rights campaign to reinforce women’s reproductive rights will not only improve girls and women’s lives but will not only improve girls and women’s lives but will be the key to any strategy for empowering women and achieving national development. It is well established that women carry a disproportionate and growing share of economic and domestic responsibility for family members.

Raka Sharan (2005) conducted a survey on women workers employed in industrial and non-industrial organizations in Kanpur city. The main objectives of her study were to analyze the working conditions of women workers to measure their socio-economic status and to study their participation in trade union activities. She had selected 100 samples in the industrial sector and 100 samples in the non-industrial sector and collected the necessary data from them. Socio-economic status of women workers are measured with the help of Kappasamy’s method of rating scale. Various economic and social indicators were used to measure the socio-economic status. Her study revealed some important aspects of women labour. Among the industrial and non-industrial women workers 80 percent were from the young category that is between 20 and 35 years. The non-industrial workers were more qualified than the industrial workers. The working conditions of the women workers were far from satisfactory. There was sluggish participation in trade union activities among women workers. The bulk of the respondents adopted middle life style and value orientations.

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2.6. STUDIES PERTAINS TO GLOBALIZATION AND ITS IMPACT ON WOMEN WORKERS

Horton (1996)\textsuperscript{55} points out that while in most Asian countries women move to regular jobs, in the case of India, they move to the less advantageous status of casual employees. Moreover, compared to countries like South Korea, Indonesia, Philippines, and Thailand, women’s work participation in India is marked by relatively low and stagnant rates. Women's workforce participation has been increasing in many developing countries. This could have occurred due to increasing education levels of women, new opportunities of employment in the industrial sector or increasing migration to urban areas. Falling household real incomes and income insecurity boosting the "additional worker" effects, may also force the women to enter in the labour market. One of the reasons that could be attributed to the increase in female workforce participation is the increasing globalization trend which the world witnessed since the late eighties. Women’s employment has gone up significantly in every region of the world, with the exception of Africa (UN Report, 1999). Informalization of work has stimulated growth of female employment across the countries (as casual, contract worker, outsourcing, home-working). The drop in female unemployment rates related to men has also been noted by scholars, to be recent phenomena. There are many economists who say that female work participation has declined during post reform period.

Artecona & Cunningham (2001)\textsuperscript{56} examined the change in the gender wage gap in the manufacturing sector in urban Mexico over the trade liberalization period (1987-1993). Trade liberalization was found to be associated with higher gender wage gaps in the Mexican manufacturing sector, but this is likely due to an increased premium to men’s higher (experience) skills; the discrimination

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component of wage differentials seems to fall with competition that is brought about by international competition. A comparison of men’s and women’s wages before and after Mexico’s trade liberalization period shows that the wage gap in the manufacturing industry increased. However, the increase in the wage gap appeared to be due to general movements in the economy over the period and an increased premium to skills, as found by Hanson and Harrison (1999). Suggestive evidence was found (significant at the 20 percent level) that trade liberalization leads to a decrease in wage discrimination. In particular, those industries that were forced to become competitive due to trade liberalization saw a fall in the gender wage gap. These findings indicate that trade may be beneficial to women by decreasing wage discrimination, but an improvement in women’s relative wages will depend on improving women’s skills to better compete in the newly competitive markets.

Giri, A.K. (2002)\(^{57}\) has the view that the pattern of employment observed in percentage contribution of different sectors during the post-reform period was not very much significantly different from that observed during the pre-reform period. In rural areas the primary sector and in the urban areas the tertiary sector was the most important sources of employment both for males and females. The trend observed in the change of employment over the period of time was that the proportion of person employed in the tertiary sector both in the rural and urban areas was seen to increase for both males and females; and this increment was more pronounced during the post-reform period than pre-reform period. On the other hand, employment in the primary sector in urban as well as rural areas was seen to decline over the rounds; and this decline was again more conspicuous during the post-reform period than during the pre-reform period particularly in the rural areas. Regarding employment in secondary sector, it was observed that in the urban areas, it gradually declined over the rounds.

but in the rural areas it increased during the post-reform period (1993-94 to 1991-2000) despite a decline during the pre-reform period (1987-88 to 1993-94).

Ramya Vijaya (2003)\(^\text{58}\) explores the impact of trade openness on gender divergence in skills in developing economies. This study combines the Heckscher-Ohlin trade perspective with the evidence of the increasing feminization of the low-skilled export labour force. She analyzes the trends in gender differentiated skills data, school enrolment ratio and the average years of schooling in the adult population, the study carries out a cross-country regression analysis using the available data. The OLS method is used to estimate the empirical equation for a group of 50 countries. It is found that higher growth rates of GNP and public education expenditure lead to a narrowing of the gap between male and female enrolments. The coefficient on the trade variable is not statistically significant which indicates that the impact of higher trade on the enrolment gap is not significant. The results also highlight that countries which start out with a gap between adult male and female skills, trade has a positive impact on the change in the enrolment gap i.e. the enrolment gap increases further. The regression analysis supports causality between trade participation and gender divergence in education investments. Larger trade volumes cause the secondary school enrolment gender gap to increase further in countries that have larger gaps between the average levels of male and female adult education. This research concludes that in low-skilled developing countries where a gender gap in education exists, trade related employment trends have the potential to establish an employment structure that lowers women's incentives to invest in higher education while allowing more opportunities for skills upgradation for men. Therefore, existing gender gaps in education are reinforced and widened.

Berik, Rodgers & Zveglich (2003) explored the impact of competition from international trade on wage discrimination by sex in two highly open economies, Korea and Taiwan. The study explicitly tests Becker’s theory that discrimination is incompatible with rising competitiveness. In both economies, trends in international trade were accompanied by structural changes in manufacturing. Two decades of structural change in both economies also saw major changes in the labour market. Labour force participation rates for men fell and for women rose. Despite women’s relative gains in labour-market qualifications, Taiwan (China)’s average female-male wage ratio in manufacturing dropped from 66% in 1981 to 60% in 1993, with a reversal to 67% by 1999. Korea’s female to male wage ratio rose fairly steadily throughout the period, from 47% in 1980 to 58% by 1998. The residual wage gap in manufacturing changed over time in both economies. Trends in wage gaps are separated by concentrated and less concentrated industries. For Taiwan (China), the residual wage gap was lower in concentrated industries than in non-concentrated industries. In both concentrated and less concentrated industries, the residual wage gap rose sharply until the mid-1990s and diminished somewhat during the late 1990s. Considering the trends in the trade ratios, the period of rising residual gaps coincided with a fairly steady increase in both export and import ratios, while the narrowing in the residual wage gap toward the end of the period coincides with a flattening in trade ratios. In Taiwan (China), greater trade openness in concentrated industries is associated with wider residual wage gaps between men and women, particularly when openness is measured by the manufacturing-sector import ratio. Import competition appears to widen the wage gap by adversely affecting women’s relative employment prospects, leading to a loss of bargaining power for women. Women thus appear to be bearing the brunt of employers’ competitive cost-cutting efforts. For Korea,

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the positive relationship between trade openness in concentrated industries and the residual wage gap continues to be evident for exports. Results for both economies imply that concerted efforts to enforce equal pay legislation and apply effective equal opportunity legislation are crucial for ensuring that women’s pay gains will match those of men in a competitive environment.

Oostendorp (2004) conducted a cross-country study of the impact of globalization on the occupational gender wage gap, based on the ILO October Inquiry. The study analyzes data for the years 1983-1999. 18931 observations are used for a total of 83 countries and 161 occupations. The author conducts a regression analysis to determine the impact of trade and FDI on the gender wage gap, using OLS. Results of the OLS Analysis conducted shows that there is a significant positive impact of GDP per capita on the gender wage gap in poorer countries. The effect of trade is generally negative (although not always significant), that is, the gender wage gap tends to fall with the openness of the economy and as far as the FDI net inflows are concerned, a more ambiguous pattern is found, with a negative and a positive but insignificant effect for the poorer and richer countries respectively. The results state that the occupational gender wage gap appears to be narrowing with increases in GDP per capita. There is a significantly narrowing impact of trade and FDI net inflows on the occupational gender wage gap for low-skill occupations, both in poorer and richer countries, and for high-skill occupations in richer countries. Also there is a lack of evidence of a narrowing impact of trade, but there is evidence of a widening impact of FDI net inflows on the high skill occupational gender wage gap in poorer countries. This shows that, on balance, globalization may not lower, and in some instances may increase gender gaps. This finding complements several other studies documenting an increase in wage inequality after trade liberalization in a number of developing countries. It is also found that wage-setting institutions have a strong impact on the

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occupational gender wage differentials and may interfere with the impact of globalization on the gender gap.

Reilly & Dutta (2005)\textsuperscript{61} in their study “The Gender Pay Gap and Trade Liberalisation: Evidence for India” examine the magnitude of the gender pay gap in India and its relationship to a set of trade liberalization measures. The study focuses on quantification of the magnitude of these effects and eventually assesses whether there is a relationship between industry-specific gender pay gaps and other industry-specific measures that capture the effects of trade liberalization programmes in India. The individual-level data is taken from the National Sample Survey employment surveys and is restricted to males and females in wage employment and aged between 15 and 65 years old. The industry-specific tariff data for 1983-84, 1993-94 and 1999-2000 are constructed as simple averages of the basic customs tariff. The finding of a relatively stable average gender pay gap in India and the absence of any obvious trade-related effects represents only a very partial assessment of the effect of trade liberalization on women’s relative position in the Indian labour market. The paper suggests that the stability observed in the gender pay gap is attributable to the selective withdrawal of the less able Indian women. Both the unadjusted and the residual gender pay gap appear to have exhibited a degree of stability over a period of very rapid labour market change in India. The role of unemployment and the changing nature of employment contracts through the use of greater informalisation, sub-contracting and out-sourcing have not been explored in this paper. If these issues have a strong gender dimension, they may have had adverse implications for the welfare of those women participating in the labour market.

Menon & Rodgers (2006)\textsuperscript{62} in their study “The Impact of Trade Liberalization on Gender Wage Differentials in India’s Manufacturing Sector” address the question of whether the increasing competitive forces from India’s trade liberalization affects the wages of male and female workers differently. The study demonstrates that although an increase in trade still has a mitigating effect on the gender wage gap, under certain conditions, the net effect may be a widening of the wage gap between male and female workers. The theory is tested by estimating the impact of the trade reforms on gender wage differentials using four cross sections of household survey data from the National Sample Survey Organization between 1983 and 2004. The data has been aggregated to the industry level and merged with several other industry-level data sets for international trade, output, and industry structure. The relationship between the male-female wage gap and variations across industry and time in the exposure to competition from international trade have been examined, while controlling for changes in worker characteristics and domestic concentration. Results show that groups of workers who have weak bargaining power and lower workplace status may be less able to negotiate for favourable working conditions and higher pay, a situation that places them in a vulnerable position as firms compete in the global market place. Rather than competition from international trade putting pressure on firms to eliminate costly discrimination against women, pressures to cut costs due to international competition appear to be hurting women’s relative pay. The results are consistent with several previous studies on India that have found negative social impacts resulting from the introduction of trade policy reforms.

Sinha, Aseema (2007)\textsuperscript{63} indicated that liberalization has increased inequalities in employment opportunities and income. Economic opportunities created by liberalization are highly unequal. For most women workers, quality of employment is


\textsuperscript{63} Sinha, Aseema (2007): " Globalization, Rising Inequality, and New Insecurities in India" muse.jhu.edu/journals/journal_of_democracy/.../18.2.sinha.html
poor with very low income returns. In rural as well as in urban areas FWP has declined during 1983 to 1999-2000. In urban India female workers face a marginal decline from 45.8 per cent in 1983 to 45.3 per cent in 1999-2000. Secondly there was a fluctuating trend of regular salaried jobs for rural females whereas it has increased for urban females, the incidence of employment under casual labour basis has increased for rural females and declined for urban females workers. The rural FWPR has decreased from 34.0 per cent in 1983 to 29.9 per cent in 1999-2000, while to their urban counterparts; it has declined feebly from 15.2 per cent to 13.9 per cent during the same period. The gap in worker-population ratio is more pronounced in the urban areas than in the rural areas. The urban female work participation rate in India is lower than the rural. Overall proportion of women workers in the workforce has been declining. Liberalization has in some sectors caused loss of employment without creation of new employment opportunities,

Yamamoto (2007) assessed the impacts of increases in international trade on gender wage discrimination in Japan. It was found that the residual wage gap increased in concentrated industries relative to competitive industries, or in other words, that gender wage gap declined more in competitive industries than in concentrated industries in absence of import penetration. Results for increased trade competition however, especially the one from Asian neighbouring countries, was positively associated with wage discrimination against women in all industries, resulting in wider gender wage gap. In competitive industries, the gender wage gap grew more in industries that experienced greater increases in import penetration than in those that experienced little or no competition from abroad. In contrast to neoclassical theory, the gender wage inequality widens in concentrated industries that experienced greater increase in import penetration than in those that experienced little or no competition from abroad. The results indicate that in competitive industries, increased trade competition adversely affected both male

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and female wages, but more so for the latter. Among concentrated industries, increased trade competition is positively associated with both male and female wages, but benefiting more for men, thus resulting in widening gender wage gap. As far as the export share is concerned, gender wage gap widened in competitive industries which experienced greater export by suppressing women’s wages. Among concentrated industries, increase in export share led to a reduction in gender wage inequality in industries that experienced greater exports. The growth of exports in concentrated industries is negatively associated with residual male wages and positively associated with residual female wages; however both are not statistically significant. Therefore, causes of narrowing export effects on gender wage inequalities are not clear. The high-tech industries experience narrower wage gap relative to low-tech industries. Technological advancement is positively associated with women wages. In other words, that gender wage gap increased more in low-tech industries in absence of import penetration. In low-tech industries, the gender wage gap grew more in industries that experienced greater increases in import penetration than in those that experienced little or no competition from abroad.

Hari Priya (2000)\textsuperscript{65} analyzed the problems of women leather workers in Kerala. Her findings are: Majority of the respondents needs to cover a distance of five to ten km, to reach their workplace. Majority of the workers have an experience of less than five years and only 18.7 per cent has more than 10 years of experience. Majority of them joined this sector due to circumstantial poverty (husband/parents died) by chance and not by choice. More than half of the respondents (53.3 per cent) are illiterate without attending any formal schooling. Being a politically active and aware state, 68 per cent of the respondents are members of leather footwear footwear union affiliated to either ruling left party or opposition party. The union provides variety of welfare activities such as old age pension, and crisis support. The union

\textsuperscript{65}Hari Priya (2000)\textit{Quality of women’s employment: A focus on the South. International Institute for Labour Studies: Decent Work Research
also educates its members on entitlement and other rights. At the same time 28 per 
cent of the respondents felt that the number of women respondents in the union is 
inadequate and the existing women members are not pro-active. The respondents who 
have infants and children under 6 years of age is 24.7 per cent. The organisations 
never provide crèche facility and these women are depending on neighbours, parents 
and in laws to look after the infants. 76.6 per cent are unskilled manual labourers

Vankar’s (2005) survey of women leatherworkers in Ahmedabad revealed 
that a majority of workers seek to upgrade their skills. During the survey, 70 per cent 
of the total workers reported that they are willing to participate in training 
programmes to help them improve their skills. The following findings were reported: 
22 per cent of the women workers said that they wanted to be trained in all work, but 
did not name any specific work, 14 per cent of the women workers said that they 
wanted to undergo training in the work, plaster work and design fitting and that they 
wanted to participate in such specific training so as to improve their standard of living 
and increase their income. As many as 83 per cent of the workers claimed that their 
income and job opportunities would increase and risk in work would be reduced after 
training.

2.7. STUDIES PERTAINS TO LEATHER INDUSTRIES AND WOMEN 
WORKERS

Ruchira Ganguly Scrase (1987) in her study has provided an account of the 
social and economic changes that have taken place within a small ethnically 
identifiable artisan community is called Rabi Das living in small and not yet 
industrialized town, Krishnagar in W. Bengal. She deals with socio-economic aspects 
of shoe makers community from an anthropologist's view point. The leather footwear 
industry is traditional in India, the economic conditions of the workers remain not 
much changed. The industry has not been able to provide whole time employment to

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Role of Women in Contributing to Family Income
all workers. Footwear units in Athani Taiuka producing 40 types of leather Kolhapuri Chappals have provided employment opportunities to two principal scheduled castes viz. Samagar and Dhor. Different studies reviewed above have followed the cafeteria approach dealing with leather industry. Very few studies are made considering the problems of footwear manufacturing units. Hence, this attempt aims at analyzing the pattern of output, employment and income generation by the footwear manufacturing units in the study area. It also aims at finding out the specific problems of the leather footwear manufacturing units.

Abhay Shukla (1991)\textsuperscript{68} aimed to integrate physical, social and health related improvements. It is expected that the development approach and methodology can be replicated in other urban settlements in India. the author is also aimed at the improvement of the living conditions of the population, by installing drinking water and drainage systems. The Occupational Health Programme in Jajmau, an industrial slum of Kanpur, aims to improve the working conditions of tannery workers. Four hundred and ninety-seven tannery workers and 80 employees were engaged in leather work, from 20 tanneries, were interviewed and underwent physical examination. The mean age of tannery workers was 32 years, about half of them recently migrated to Kanpur. The majority of the workers are illiterate, have temporary jobs and 85% have a monthly income between 300 and 600 Rs. Occupational morbidity was 28.2%. Regular meetings with tannery owners, the training of tannery workers in first aid, and support for the installation of safety and health councils in tanneries are the main programme activities. A walk through survey to detect occupational and safety hazards and the workshop “Higher productivity and a better place to work” in collaboration with the International Labour Office (ILO) led to industrial modification in the tanneries. Occupational health should form an integral part of industrial

\textsuperscript{68} Abhay Shukla “Occupational health and the environment in an urban slum in India” Social Science & Medicine, Volume 33, Issue 5, 1991, Pages 597–603
counselling as it is an important link between health and environmental protection by controlling pollution.

S.Mitra (1993) made a study to introspect the health conditions of the child workers in leather industries in Calcutta. Forty male children aged between seven and 14 years, working in small scale leather workshops in a slum locality in Calcutta were studied, along with a control group of 40 non-working male children of the same age group, same locality, and the same socioeconomic class. Three specific health problems—namely, low back and ankle pain, dizziness, and tingling pain in the hands were found in a significantly higher proportion in the working children. For height, weight, nutritional state, and general morbidity pattern, however there were no significant differences between the two groups. Possibly the particular sitting posture of the child workers for long working hours and the chemical nature of the glue and solvents used in this industry were responsible for the manifestations in the working children.

Knorringa Peter (1996) an eminent scholar in his case study of the Agra Footwear industry stresses that the small scale enterprises, as part of large chain sector and the vertical economic relations, can be improved by including trust and the extent of professional collaborations. He highlights the institutional peculiarities of this industry which include a lack of rigorous enforcement of property rights and caste based indignity dasher between artisans and traders, and show how these factors shape the objectives of individual entrepreneurs. It is based on extensive primary data. This study adds a new theoretical prospective to the study of small scale production. It will be of great interest to economists and researchers in the areas of institutional economics, transaction cost economics, socio economic development studies and economic organization theory.

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Padmini Swaminathan (1996)\textsuperscript{71} in her paper "Development Experiences: Gender Prospective on Industrial Growth, Employment and Education" explains how the industrial development in India lacks the co-ordination between the govt/industry and the labour. The paper attempts to assess the quality of state interventions and their impact on industry and labour. The author emphasizes the need for transforming the state interventions into strategic gender needs. She also highlights the importance of the Indian leather footwear industry's potentiality for exports. She brings out the need for popularizing brand name, strengthening training facilities particularly to women, and close linkages between industry, training and educational institutions. The paper also emphasized the need to have the service of experts from developed countries to train the local artisans in particular lines.

Sundaram Shobha and ao Sheshagiri K (1996)\textsuperscript{72} have made detailed analysis relating to the social background of the women workers viz, community, age groups, educational levels, marital status, and the factors responsible for migration. An attempt has also been made to bring out the circumstances that made the women workers to enter into footwear industry, with special emphasis on acquisition of skills, types of work undertaken, labour mobility, working conditions and wage structure. Author also found that most of the artisans were made footwear in Thikana's the tools were dissimilar, the proportion of their working capital reflects the difference in their scale of operations. Out of 34 sample units only 10 units had substantial finance and marketing outlets. The raw material cost has the larger share (58.57) to the total cost of productions.

\textsuperscript{72} Sundaram . (1996), 'Indian Leather Industry: Growth, Productivity and Export Performance', APH Publication, New Delhi
Antonio Fiorito and Francesca Larese (1997) made a study on liver function alterations in synthetic leather workers exposed to dimethylformamide. A cross-sectional study of the prevalence of chronic liver function alterations was performed in 75 workers employed in a synthetic leather factory, exposed to dimethylformamide (DMF) air concentrations below threshold limit values (30 mg/m³). Biological monitoring among workers revealed acceptable urine levels of monomethylformamide (NMF) on average, but the very wide range indicated that occasional overexposure was possible. The worker survey showed a high percentage of disulfiram-like symptoms (50%) and liver function abnormalities (22.7%), compared with a demographically similar group of unexposed workers. Covariance analysis (ANCOVA) revealed that enzyme levels were significantly higher in exposed workers than in controls after data were corrected for age, alcohol consumption, body mass index, and cholesterol levels. The authors conclude that DMF can cause liver diseases even if air TLVs are respected, because accidental contact with liquid DMF can significantly increase DMF uptake. In this situation, air monitoring is no longer sufficient to evaluate worker exposure.

Sahasranaman (2000) highlighted the occupational safety in Leather industries, the study illustrated the activities initiated by UNIDO in the field of occupational safety and health standards at work in the tanning industry in South East Asia can be seen only as a beginning. The existing facilities consisting of OSH demonstration sites, training packages, support services and a roster of available experts may be used by the R&D institutions and industry associations for disseminating the ideas further. Possible further steps include the replication of the successful initiatives in the leather industry of other countries in Asia, Africa and


74 Sahasranaman "Occupational Safety and Health in the Tanning Industry in South East Asia" Fourteenth Session of the Leather and Leather Products Industry Panel Zlin, Czech Republic 13-15 December 2000
South America. At the local level, the designated agencies and industry associations should constantly strive for further dissemination of ways for improved occupational safety and health of tannery workers. In India, the Central Leather Research Institute has taken the initiative to include occupational safety and health as a separate theme in its “Vision Beyond Mission” proposal which attempts to define the future path of development for the Indian leather industry in the coming 7 –10 years. There is no gainsaying the fact that a lot has been achieved. However today tanners in all major leather producing countries of South and East Asia are well aware of the various aspects of OSH in tanneries and agencies and experts they could access for implementation of improvement measures. Permanent institutional arrangements created under the programme in India and Indonesia, it is believed, will help propagate the cause further.

Kamala Marius-Gnanou (2003) examined the gender empowerment through industrial job opportunities for women in south India, the study found that the regular income has however enable the women to negotiate the sharing of power within the family or even to participate in decision making (empowerment). The general deterioration of living conditions and patriarchal attitudes have forced them to look after their families and at the same time to take up an income generating occupation. On the other hand women are often the first victims of closure of industries. India has had only a mild experience of the Asian crisis, but considering the global crisis in certain manufacturing industries, is no exception to the loss of thousands of jobs among working women. But the majority of the women met give the earnings to the father and in some cases to their husbands. So our first impressions confirm the fact that few women workers are empowered. Paradoxically in these industrialized rural areas, some of these women have sometimes been the only ones to have a regular employment in the formal sector.

Raj Narayan R. Tiwari (2005) examined the foot wear industries and the occupational hazards of Child labour, the study found that Footwear industry is one of the major export oriented industry employing a large number of children. The Footwear Industry is a significant segment of the Leather Industry in India. India ranks second among the footwear producing countries next to China. The industry is labour intensive and is concentrated in the small and cottage industry sectors. While leather shoes and uppers are concentrated in large-scale units, the sandals and Chappals are produced in the household and cottage sector. The major production centers India are Chennai, Ranipet, Ambur in Tamil Nadu, Mumbai in Maharashtra, Kanpur and Agra in Uttar Pradesh, Jalandhar in Punjab and Delhi. The processes in the footwear making include last making, pattern cutting, clicking, Sewing, Assembling and Finishing. Children between 10 and 15 years old are mainly employed in assembling shoes. Some 80 percent of the children work for contractors at home. Children work on soling (fixing upper portions of shoes to leather or rubber soles) with glue. Children in cramped poorly lit rooms suffer from continuous skin contact with industrial adhesives and breathing vapors from glues. The children working in the footwear industry are exposed to physical factors like poor illumination, noise and poor ventilation, and chemicals like leather dust, benzene that is used as a solvent in glues and phenols, which is used in neoprene adhesives. Thus most children suffer from respiratory problems, lung diseases and skin infections through constant exposure to glue and fumes. They are also exposed to risk of nasal cancer, neurotoxicity and adverse physical factors. It is recommended to stop child labour and let the child be bread eater rather than bread earner.

J Kanagaraj, K C Velappan (2006) review the kinds of solid wastes generated in leather industry and the useful technologies developed to overcome the

\[76\] Raj Narayan R. Tiwari “Child Labour in Foot wear Industry; Possible occupational hazards” Indian Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine - April 2005 - Volume 9 - Issue 1

solid wastes problem, the study found that Solid wastes generated in the leather industry pose pollution problem in terms of sludge, BOD and TDS. Raw trimmings and wet blue trimmings are useful in developing glue and gelatin. Keratin hydrolysate can be used as an exhaustive aid for chrome tanning. Similarly fleshing hydrolysate can also be used as a tanning agent by proper chemical modification. Fleshing wastes can also be used to develop glue, gelatin and poultry feed. Chrome and buffing dust are useful in developing retuning agent, poultry feed, fertilizer and landfill sites.

Paola Calzoni and Marco De Santis (2006)78 investigates the mortality of leather tanners in Tuscany, Italy. The cohort consisted of 4,874 workers (4,150 males and 724 females) employed in 92 tanneries active in 1996 and operating on December 31, 1970. Ascertainment of vital status and cause of death were completed for all individuals by the end of follow-up, December 31, 1998. Males showed increases for cancer of the endocrine glands (SMR 5.67, 4 observed (obs), 90% Confidence Intervals (CI) 195–1,308), blood diseases (SMR 3.29, 4 obs, 90% CI 112–753), mental disorders (SMR 1.95, 6 obs, 90% CI 85–385), violence and accidents (SMR 1.30, 54 obs, 90% CI 102–163). Mortality from myeloid leukemia was increased in males (SMR 2.08, 5 obs, 90% CI 82–437) and in females (SMR 5.99, 2 obs, 90% CI 106–1,887). One death from nasal cancer was observed versus 0.2 expected. Mortality from lung cancer was increased among finishers (SMR 1.45, 19 obs, 90% CI 95–212), an increase was observed also for bladder cancer (SMR 1.25, 2 obs, 90% CI 22–393) and pancreatic cancer (SMR 1.20, 2 obs, 90% CI 21–379). The study confirms previous observations among tanners of increased mortality from lung, bladder, and pancreatic cancer. Noteworthy are the increased mortality from myeloid leukemia together with the new findings of an increased mortality from endocrine glands tumors, blood diseases, and psychiatric disorders which should be considered with caution because of the small number of cases and the novelty of the observation.

78 Paola Calzoni and Marco De Santis “A cohort mortality study of leather tanners in Tuscany, Italy” American Journal of Industrial Medicine, Volume 49, Issue 6, pages 452–459, June 2006
Subodh Kumar Rastogi and Amit Pandey (2008) examined the Occupational health risks among the workers employed in leather tanneries at Kanpur, the author made a cross-sectional study, a random sample of 197 male workers drawn from different sections of 10 leather tanneries in Kanpur were selected for the assessment of health risks. A control group comprising of 117 male subjects belonging to a similar age group and socioeconomic strata, who never had any occupational exposure in the leather tanneries, were also examined for the comparison purpose. The findings revealed a significantly higher prevalence of morbidity among the exposed workers in contrast to that observed in the controls (40.1% vs. 19.6%). The respiratory diseases (16.7%) were mainly responsible for a higher morbidity among the exposed workers whereas the gastrointestinal tract problems were predominant in the control group. The urinary and blood samples collected from the exposed group showed significantly higher levels of chromium, thereby reflecting the body burden of chromium in the exposed workers as a result of a high concentration of environmental chromium at the work place.

Sumangala Damodaran and Pallavi Mansingh (2008) undertaken the study to examine the nature of the value chain in the leather industry, India’s role within the value chain and its impact on the organization of production and conditions of labour in the Indian leather industry. This was looked at through a detailed examination, through fieldwork, of three clusters, Agra, Chennai (and associated locations) and Warangal. This chapter summarizes the findings of the study in terms of an analysis of India’s participation in the value chain for leather and comparison and contrast of the three locations where fieldwork was done in terms of production organization and the labour market. Economic organization in the leather and leather products industry has been shaped by three factors: insertion into global markets from colonial times onwards, historical and contemporary links with the

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79 Subodh Kumar Rastogi and Amit Pandey “Occupational health risks among the workers employed in leather tanneries at Kanpur” Vol:12, issue 3, PP 132-135 year 2008
social structure and State intervention through government policy geared primarily towards exports. The availability of cheap labour presents the possibility of adjusting instantly to changes in demand, whereas investment in more machinery, even if the costs can be recovered quickly, prevents the possibility of such instantaneous adjustments. The control over the labour process constitutes the most certain element in the production process for an entrepreneur and in a situation where entrepreneurs consider production conditions to be vulnerable, informal labour processes are used and are widespread. The use of informal labour processes is possible due to employment based on caste in Agra and that segregated by gender in Tamil Nadu.

Hensman, Rohini (2010) examined the women labour and the importance of labour legislation, the study found that Workers’ rights in India were weakened since Independence by the large proportion of informal employees in the labour force. From the late 1970s, the situation deteriorated further, with attacks on unions by employers assisted by government policy. The attacks peaked during 1998-2004, after the globalization of the Indian economy from 1991 onwards, but declined thereafter. Therefore they cannot be explained by globalization alone. Neo-liberal policies resulted in assaults on labour rights and social welfare, but trade unions and social activists struggled successfully against them. They even gained ground, in the form of the National Rural Employment Guarantee Act, which counteracted job and wage losses resulting from the global economic crisis. Globalization could help to strengthen workers’ rights in India if unions worldwide could agree on a social clause in WTO agreements which would guarantee the basic human rights embodied in the ILO Core Conventions to all workers, including those currently in informal employment relationships, and launch campaigns for employment creation programs. Additionally, they would need to put pressure on governments to slash military

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expenditure and redirect public spending to the social sector, infrastructure, and
civilian research and development. These steps would also help to end the economic
downturn.

Madiha Syed and Taimur Saleem (2010) made a study to examine the
effects of Leather Industry on Health and Recommendations for Improving the
Situation in Pakistan. The study found that leather industry and its associated sectors
contribute significantly to the Pakistani economy. There are around 600 tanneries in
Pakistan that are concentrated in 3 major cities. Waste discharge from tanneries
pollutes the air, soil, and water, causing serious health problems. Exposure to such
contaminated environmental milieu has been seen to culminate in a multiple array of
disease processes such as asthma, dermatitis, hepatic and neurological disorders, and
various malignancies. An overall dearth of research on the occupational hazards of
employment in the leather industry as well as its effects on pediatric population was
observed during literature review with particular reference to Pakistan. It is
recommended that research should be conducted about the health hazards in
the leather industry in Pakistan as well as globally to gather data that can be translated
into effective prevention programs for both adults as well as pediatric populations.

Gonca Telli Yamamoto, Özgür Şekeroğlu (2011) made a comparative
country analysis under the light of the data retrieved with web screening method
about various associations, non-governmental organizations, foundations etc. acting in
various countries ambitious in the leather industry. The differing formats of the
websites of such organizations regarding the data offered about the countries has
imposed a limitation for the study; albeit, the comparisons have been compared with
the compilation and incorporation the data retrieved from both the contents of these

82 Madiha Syed and Taimur Saleem “Effects of Leather Industry on Health and
Recommendations for Improving the Situation in Pakistan” Archives of Environmental &
83 Gonca Telli Yamamoto, Özgür Şekeroğlu “Marketing Activities in the Leather Industry:
Comparative Country Analysis” International Journal of Economics and Management
websites and from secondary sources. This study also gives a snapshot of marketing activities of world leather industry in today’s situation and the study further indicated that Leather industry enterprises are continuously influenced by the social, cultural, technological, political and legal changes around them on both strategic and tactical terms in global arena. The leather industry must keep up with the changes around, in order to survive and compete against its rivals. In the competitive environment, the improvement of the leather industry’s current situation and the development of its export potential depend on taking advantage of the information technologies and choosing electronic/mobile commerce as an important way. Marketing activities and e-marketing efforts following the general tendencies of our time are among the leading issues that should primarily and carefully be considered in the leather industry.

Somnath Gangopadhyay and Tarannum Ara (2011) made an attempt to identify the influence of occupation on the health of workers engaged in footwear industries of Kolkata. For this purpose the Experimental Group involved in various manufacturing processes and the Control Group of the same strength involved only in stitching jobs from the same footwear manufacturing unit were randomly selected. The statistical analysis of physical parameters of both the groups showed no significant difference between these parameters, which established the fact that the subjects of both groups belong to the same range of age, weight, height and BSA. But the statistical evaluation of PEFR of experimental group and the control group showed significant result, with the control group exhibiting higher values. From the present observation it may be concluded that dust particles and adhesives affect the lung capacity and PEFR of the footwear manufacturing workers irrespective of their type of work. The workers who are engaged in different footwear manufacturing activities, which involve exposure to leather dust and various toxic adhesives in the

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working environment have significantly lower peak flow rate than their predicted PEFR value. It seems that inhalation of the leather dust and toxic adhesives during work cause deposition of small particles along the lining of alveoli that decreases the ventilation-perfusion ratio and thus reduces the lung capacity and the PEFR value with height, age and weight

**Conclusion**

So far plethora of studies have been carried out on the working conditions, safety aspects, awareness of social issues and inclination to upgrade the skill of women workers in the leather industries, the review of the existing literature on the chosen domain enable to formulate the conceptual background for the study.