1. This study emphasised the need for an effective utilisation of the surplus labour resources throughout the economy, as well as identify and monitor employment potentials in the various segments of the economy. There is an urgent need to emphasise the importance of the 'catchment area' of the labour seeking employment, because the concept of labour has no relevance unless we relate it to space. Recognising the shifts in the paradigms relating to the Urban Labour Market, the proposed models for the analysis of the Urban Labour Market emphasised the need to accommodate a general or macro and particular or micro perspective. Moreover, in any labour surplus economy provision of employment opportunities is contingent upon the demand for labour rather than its supply. This in turn is dependent on the growth of output over time. Macro level structural shifts in the national economy has its repercussions at the micro level too.

2. The indispensability of the service sector in the development process has become in the developed as well as the developing economies. Diverse views about the role of the tertiary sector in the urban economy have been the outcome of the misguided notion that production is superior to consumption. The tertiary sector is no longer considered dysfunctional in a modern economy and is a major source of employment. It also allows for a greater circulation of goods and resources and helps in their effective and optimum utilisation.

3. Lack of a definite conceptual identity of the tertiary/service sector is the result of viewing it as homogenous. The tertiary sector, when conceptualised as an aggregative category, is not able to bring out the diverse activities and services provided within it. Hence in order to account for the heterogenous nature of industries it has been replaced by the concept of the service sector. Ambiguity in the conceptualization of the tertiary sector has resulted in the vagueness of what a service actually is. Till date, there is no standard definition of a service. Four theoretical approaches have however, been used to synthesise the definitions of a service, as given by scholars from different disciplines. There is now a wider appreciation of the functional linkages provided by the service sector. This functionality makes the service sector, a sectorally homogenous unit.

4. For empirical convenience, scholars from Fisher and Clark, down to Kuznets and Fuchs, have all had a fair share in presenting a negative, 'residual' image of the tertiary sector. Such a negative view remained predominant as long as
the tertiary sector played only a marginal role in economic development. At the moment, service sector plays a far more significant role in not only maintaining the rate of growth of national income, but also in generating greater employment opportunities.

5. Lack of a standardised definition of the tertiary/service sector led to a variety of schemes being presented to classify them. The sectoral/service nomenclatures can be classified as either dischotomous or non-dichotomous. Whereas the initial sectoral/service nomenclature reflected a static image of this sector, the more recent nomenclatures stress the fluidity and the inter-linking characteristics of the service sector.

6. While dualism provides a conceptual link between urban labour market and the service sector, loose application of dualistic concepts as formal-informal and modern-traditional, have led to untenable generalisation about the service sector in a developing economy. Empirical evidence percolating through recent researches has confirmed that demand induced growth of service sector is accountable for the growth of employment in this sector. There is a need to exercise greater restraint in impulsively linking dualistic concepts to the service sector.

7. Shifts in the urban labour market paradigms have now come to recognise the heterogeneity of the labour force. This heterogeneity corresponds to the heterogeneity of the service sector. The dualistic features of the urban labour market are reflected in the dichotomous nomenclatures used in classifying the service sector. There is a need to go beyond the simplistic urban rural and formal-informal dualism. For a developing country the greatest schism in a society is between those who are employed and those who are not.

8. Each of the metropolitan cities while possessing a predominant service function provides greater employment opportunities to working women. Again since the distribution of services is uneven among the metropolitan cities, the spatial pattern produced by it has also been uneven.

9. There is a growing evidence of a structural changes taking place within the service sector.

10. It has been found that services are the most interdependent sector generating much of the intermediate demand for their output, the dependence of the secondary sector on tertiary inputs is greater than for the other sectors. This is amply reflected by the fact that, manufacturing industries require more specialised commercial activities such as trade, commerce, finance and government services.
11. Increased demand for services through inter-industry transactions and income expansion has allowed for a greater absorption of labour in the tertiary sector.

12. Metropolitan cities are differentiated in terms of the characteristics of the service industries. There has also been an increase in the avenues for employment for working women in the service sector. Services such as public services in quasi-government bodies; research and scientific services and business services are fast developing into major sources of employment for working women.

13. Between 1971-81, the structure of the minor service categories has undergone a radical transformation. Almost all of the service categories witnessed an increase or decrease of their relative importance in the overall structure of the service sector. Though working women are found in increasing numbers in all service categories, yet their level of participation is not very high as compared to males.

14. The relative position of the minor service industries within the major service groups, is an important determinant of its structure. This determines the level of participation of workers within an industry. The structural features of the service industries is a product of the demand from the economy.

15. Between 1971-81, there has been an increase of working women engaged in repair industries. The distribution of working women in the manufacturing and repair industries is evident overtime.

16. The rate of growth of manufacturing enterprises is closely related to the rate of growth of service enterprises. However, service enterprises account for a higher rate of growth of investments between 1978-79 and 1985-86; as compared to manufacturing enterprises. This is particularly true of the public sector service enterprises. In enterprises rendering services the highest rate of growth in gross turnover was observed in industrial development services for small scale industries, financial services and contract and construction services.

17. Any growth in output from the service sector is dependent on the growth of labour input rather than that of capital inputs. This reinforces the labour absorptive capacity of the service sector.

18. In all the metropolitan cities of India, working women in the formal sector were employed largely in professional and technical occupations, service occupations, clerical occupations and administrative executive and managerial occupations. Bombay, Madras and Delhi provide maximum avenues for employment to working women in a large number of
occupations followed by Nagpur, Lucknow, Madras and Jaipur. Individual metropolitan cities still retain their dynamism influencing the surrounding urban regions and provides scope for a greater restructuring of the urban labour market in general and the service industries in particular.

19. This suggests that the service sector has a wide diversity in its growth rates, which is in fact, a true reflection of the heterogeneous nature of the sector itself. There is a considerable level of regional/spatial differentiation in the employment of female workers in the service sector. Pune had the highest growth of urban employment in the service sector followed by Delhi, Jaipur, Bangalore, Bombay, Madras, Ahmedabad, Nagpur, Kanpur, Calcutta and Hyderabad. Lucknow experienced a negative rate of growth. Each metropolitan city while possessing a dominant service function also had a wide diversity in the growth of service employment.

20. The highest growth of working women in the service sector were recorded in Jaipur, Delhi, Bangalore, Pune, Bombay, Madras, Ahmedabad, Nagpur, Kanpur and Hyderabad. This suggests that while in most metropolitan cities, growth of service employment was reflected in the growth of female employment in the service sector, there were observable variations. This is particularly true not only in terms of the growth rates, but also in terms of the growth rates ranked in an descending order.

21. It was also observed that there were substantial changes in the employment of working women in the manufacturing and repair industries, especially in the metropolitan cities.

22. The metropolitan cities of Bombay, Pune, Bangalore and Delhi showed some uniformity in the growth of working women in administrative, executive and managerial occupations; clerical and related occupations, professional and technical occupations and in sales occupations.

23. Since services follow the market, a greater dispersal of service employment implied greater opportunities for working women in the service sector.

24. The elasticity measures suggest that changes in the employment of working women in the service sector would be determined by a change in women's population in urban centres and urban female employment in the manufacturing sector.

Conversely, it has also been observed that any growth in the employment of female workers, especially in the urban areas would be determined by changes in urban female service employment. At the same time changes in urban women's employment in the manufacturing sector would be affected by the changes which are introduced in the urban female service employment. These conclusions help us to throw light on the
debate relating to the relationship between labour force participation rates and the service sector employment. The links between the service sector and the manufacturing sector hold the key to the continued vigour of the metropolitan cities.

25. There has been a growth of women's employment in producer service for all the metropolitan cities of India. Non-marketed services show high growth of women's employment in the cities of Nagpur, Calcutta, Jaipur and Kanpur. In terms of Location Quotients Non-Marketed Services show high concentration of women's employment in Bombay, Pune, Nagpur, Jaipur, Kanpur and Hyderabad. Producer Services show high concentration of women's workers in Pune, Nagpur, Kanpur, Lucknow and Hyderabad. Personal Services show high concentration in Madras, Kanpur, Lucknow, Calcutta, Bangalore and Hyderabad.

26. The elasticity index shows that any growth in employment of women workers led to a growth in producer and non-marketed services. Further, a growth in the employment of women workers in distributive, non-marketed services and personal services were reflected in the growth of women's employment in urban areas. Growth in women's employment in manufacturing and repair enterprises provided a proliferation of women's employment in producer services indicated a growth in women's employment in the manufacturing and repair industries.

27. Indeed, the emergence of producer services in the metropolitan cities of India is one of the key features of the structural changes taking place in the metropolitan economy. This is adequately reflected in the formal sector of the urban labour market and in the wide diversity of jobs available to women workers. Further, growth of producer services implies a growth of intermediate demand. This is also suggestive of the fact that there is a greater orientation of the cities towards external labour market for the recruitment of all forms of labour.

28. The classification of services by Gershuny and Miles has provided new insights into the Indian metropolitan economy. A typology of Indian metropolitan cities have emerged, namely:

Cluster - 1 Bombay, Nagpur, Hyderabad - specialising producer services and distributional services.

Cluster - 2 Madras, Pune, Bangalore - specialising in producer services, personal services, non-marketed services and distributional services.

Cluster - 3 Calcutta, Jaipur and Kanpur - specialising in producer services, non-marketed services, distributional services and personal services.
Cluster - 4 Delhi, Ahmedabad and Lucknow - specialising in producer services, distributional services, non-marketed services and personal services.

29. Taking an overview of this chapter suggests that the emergence of the producer services in the metropolitan cities would have an immediate effect on the urban labour market in general and on the female workers in particular. Producer services being closely associated with investment, innovation and technical change would lead to greater spatial variations in the course of development.

30. Evidences show that producer services are highly concentrated in the metropolitan economy. Thus, cities specialising in producer services is likely to grow faster than cities engaged primarily in the provision of consumer services. Growth of producer services (or intermediate services) also implies the growth of intermediate demand. The discussion on employment elasticity rates for the cities in terms of the various classification reconfirms the conclusions reached by Gershuny and Miles, that producer services cannot be seen as a major source of service employment growth. The consumer services still accounts for more jobs for moment in the metropolitan cities of India than the producer services (The second and third elasticity indices confirms the above proposition). At the same time fourth and the fifth elasticity indices also gives credence to the fact that manufacturing and services are interdependent sector in a modern metropolitan economy. Various services not only strengthen, but also facilitate the role of industrial operations.

31. That retailing sanitation and consumer services normally regarded as the most important of activities in the rise of services (Fuchs) have not grown very rapidly for the majority of the metropolis of India. Rather the non-profit public sector units and complex corporate activities have made important employment gains.

32. The growth of producer sources may form the core and the basis for the economic vitality of the metros. At the moment evidence on the comparative advantage each city has in the specialised services is rather value and unknown. However, one feels that the newly emerging metros in India may reveal such a competition based on comparative advantages on goods and services. This would lead to greater structural transformation of the metros and their hinterland.

33. Women's full-time economic activity in the urban labour market varies with age, marital status and the stage in the life cycle. Even working women with children below 16 years of age work full-time as there are very few options for a part-time job.
31. It was observed that the year of entry into the urban labour market is an important indicator of the life stage of a working women. Thus a woman who is entering the job market for the first time would interact very differently with the labour market than a woman who has been working for a long time. In this sense the location of urban working women within the sibling order of their natal family becomes important. This has important implications not only from the point of view of the importance that is attached to their earnings but also with their level of work participation and the skills acquired overtime.

35. It has been seen that the working status of the parents reflects on a woman's propensity to work. This is true for the other children in the family. A working mother infuses a greater feeling of confidence and independence on her children. However, major motivation for a woman to work in the urban labour market came from her father, followed by the mother. Rarely did both parents jointly endorse a woman's decision to work.

36. In terms of the length of journey to work, it was evident that decisions to increase the working days or the working hours would have a differential impact on the lives of working women. This would not have the same effect on the male workers.

37. Again most of the working women in the formals sector were doing a full-time job and there was little evidence of a part-time work being done.

Paucity of time rarely allowed women to engage in additional subsidiary jobs in the urban labour market. Unlike in the West, where technological advancements had helped to reduce the drudgery of housework, Indian working women in Delhi city still have to contend with the hours of travelling time in public transport. This is also the main reason why women do not readily engage in paid overtime jobs even in the private sector.

38. Though working women in the public sector were members of their unions/association, they rarely attended the meetings. Lack of time, and the secondary status attached to women's issues evoked an indifference towards unions.

39. In terms of the conditions of employment, majority of the respondents had a women as an immediate-in-charge. Contrary to the notion, the formal sector of the urban labour market is not totally segregated into male jobs and female jobs. Again, 51 per cent of the respondents received a formal training in the urban labour market. There was a sizeable section who received no formal training. Therefore, those who received training also received promotions in their jobs. They also felt satisfied that the present job made full use of their work experience and abilities.
It has been observed that working women were rarely satisfied with their future prospects at their job. While most respondents said that working was a normal thing to do, others acknowledged the need for money, not only to buy the basic essentials but also to gain independence. In all the main reason for working as cited by working women were independence, career and a sense of fulfilment.

40. Whereas, the job search strategies of a female worker may not be very different from that of a male worker, yet women have a greater and faster access to untapped informal urban labour market information. These informations are generally overlooked by males in their efforts to undercut the level of job competition overlooked by males in their efforts to undercut the level of job competition within the urban labour market. Working women generally take recourse to identifying jobs from newspaper advertisements, and information through friends and relatives. Only those who with limited qualification and those who are in dire need of a job go through the government employment exchanges.

41. While security of a permanent job was an abiding interest, opportunities to use their abilities did not emerge as an essential requirement for women seeking a job in the urban labour market. This inevitably leads to a mismatch of skills and the work done. It also leads to a depression of wages and the resultant earning potential of a working woman. Though majority of the respondents had no difficulty in getting a job in Delhi due to the support from their families, the time spent in actually getting a job varied with occupations as also between the private and public sector.

42. Finally it was seen that the rate of labour turnover especially of working women was quite high in the urban labour market of Delhi. This was specially true of the private sector enterprises like tourism, advertising agencies, hotel services. In order to retain a control over the workers, managements generally makes regular use of the external labour market for recruiting workers. However, the public sector enterprises, possessing a vast pool of labour resources, generally makes use of an internal labour market for recruitment of additional workers. It has been found that unions/associations do not generally give a free hand to the management to recruit employees from the external labour market. In most cases, judicious policy mixes are adopted to expand employment in the public sector.

43. The rate of turnover in the urban market is a function of the age of the working women and the stage of their life cycle.

44. Importance attached by the family to the income earned by working women was dependent on their sibling order and the earning capacity. The capacity to earn a higher income
however, was dependent on the level of her skills acquired over time. In this respect, younger a woman is in the sibling order of her natal family, greater are the opportunities available to her to continue education.

45. Working women who are engaged in doing additional jobs earn a higher gross pay. At the same time, those who are already earning a higher net pay do not engage in subsidiary additional work. The prevailing low salaries hardly provide any incentive for working women to do additional jobs. They are quite content with their earnings which normally adds as a supplement to the household income pool.

46. It has been found that a working woman's earning capacity within the urban labour market is not a function of her age. At the same time such an earning capacity rarely reflects the years of job experience. It is largely dependent on the institution in which she is employed i.e. private or the public sector. Unlike the public sector, the private sector offers higher wages and recognises the years of experience within the urban labour market. Highly skilled occupations generally command a higher salary and women with higher qualifications earn a higher income.

47. There is a mismatch in terms of skills acquired and the level of earnings of working women. Besides, there were evidences of disparity in the salaries offered to working women. This reflects distortions and imperfections within the urban labour market.

48. Life cycle assumes significance throughout a woman's life. Ages 50 to 54 are periods of tremendous adjustments and fluctuations in terms of their marital status. Likewise, the age range between 20 to 39 years is a period of major transition in a woman's life.

49. Working women at a younger age show tremendous interest and motivation to work which diminishes by the time they reach age 30 to 34 years and again between 45 to 49 years. This is due to an increase in responsibilities such as child-baring and rearing and also other family commitments.

50. Working women's attitudes to work when unemployed, their attitudes to family finances and their husband's attitudes to their work varies with age and marital status.

51. The urban labour market of Delhi, especially among the formal sector working women reflects. There is a high financial dependence and a high intrinsic attraction to work among working women. However, majority of them find it difficult to cope with family and work. There is a high level of dissatisfaction when a paid regular job is not available because there is a high financial need to work in order to maintain their level of consumption and lifestyle within the city. Traditional attitudes to work and home persist even
while women accept that work is beneficial to them. Financial independence is low despite the fact that husbands generally like their wives to be working. Though working women in general have access to property and shares, yet they face discrimination in their place of work. Delhi's urban labour market in the formal service sector does not show any serious level of segmentation in terms of gender.

The effect on the urban labour market would be more intense and definite. There would be a greater bifurcation of the urban labour market into external and internal labour markets. Cities oriented towards producer services would show greater dependence on the external labour market in the formal sector. Whereas those specialising in consumer services will take recourse to an internal labour market for the optimal utilisation of the labour force. In India, specific state policies of recruitment have modified recruitment to corporate public sector units. Here the external labour markets are specifically utilised instead of the internal labour market. This strategy plays an effective role in the control and management of labour within these units. There is therefore an urgent need to identify the process of labour market transformation taking place within the Indian economy both between the private and public sectors. Different periods of ups and downs of the economy would be reflected in the changing fortunes of the production and its related service enterprises. This would have its repercussions in the labour market in general and the urban labour market in particular.