CHAPTER-2

Review of Literature
CHAPTER-II
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INTRODUCTION

Several studies have been carried out on the status of women in both unorganized and organized sectors. The researcher limited the review to the status of domestic women workers in the unorganized sector, as it was relevant to the study. Books, journals and web sites served as sources of literature review. The review of literature was extremely useful in gaining a deep insight into the status of women working in the unorganized sector in general and women working as domestic workers in particular. To put the findings of the review in a nutshell, it may be said that, research specifically focusing on the conditions of women domestic workers is meager; existing research shows that the living and working conditions of domestic workers are quite deplorable with most of them being deprived of overtime pay, public holiday, and timely payment of salaries. Besides, they are also fired without a reasonable period of notice or any valid ground for dismissal. The conditions faced by these workers are poor not only in India, but globally, with conditions being only somewhat better in western countries. Lack of awareness of their rights and poor unionism serve as hurdles in efforts to improve their plight. Although non-governmental organizations are striving to alleviate the plight of these workers and various legislative measures have been initiated, real improvement in their conditions has not yet been seen and domestic workers are yet to be recognized as workers, and enjoy legal protection, rights and dignity.

The purpose of review of literature is that it gives readers easy access to research on a particular topic by selecting high quality articles or studies that are relevant, meaningful, important, valid and summarizing them into one complete report. It also provides an excellent starting point for researchers beginning to do research in a new area by forcing them to summarize, evaluate, and compare original research in that specific area. The literature reviewed in
Nirmala Banerjee (1987)\(^1\) argues that the emerging labour market is likely to prove even more problematic in the case of women workers than for the rest of Indian workers. Has an opinion that the issue of informal sector are common to the developing countries, but have to be understood in the context where informal systems of work are promoted and encouraged among the working poor. The character of this sector is connected to highly exploitative irregular working conditions and wage discriminations.

According to Sathya Sundaram (1987)\(^2\), the workers in unorganized sector remain unprotected by law. They are the most vulnerable section of the society and they enjoy no job or income security with little bargaining power. The unorganized sector is divided into institutionalized and non-institutionalized sectors. The non-institutionalized unorganized sector comprises workers doing casual work like domestic workers, sweepers, scavengers etc. A key factor in the growth of informal activity in most developing regions has been the plummeting value of wages. The informal sector has not only offered the possibility of work to the unemployed, but has permitted survival of many households with wage earners. Some division of labour exists between formal and informal sectors on the basis of gender. It has been suggested that women tend to stay within the informal sector because of the flexibility of working arrangements and diversity of opportunities.

Atanu Thaker (1987)\(^3\) has made an enquiry into women’s workforce participation and she concluded that the proposal for participating in the workforce made by feminist literature and the gender empowerment measure (Proposed by UNDP) may not empower the women; rather it will burden the women more and more.
Nirmala Banerjee (1988) has made an enquiry about women workers in the unorganized sector of Calcutta’s economy. She found that the employment was regular for working women and their wage rate was significantly lower as compared to those for men with equal qualifications. The working women in the informal sector included a significant number of children and old people and over 60 percent of them were illiterate.

The paper prepared by the Sandra Rothboeck and Surthi Acharya (1990) tries to argue that the gender segregation of jobs has two distinct elements. One referring to bunching of workers in jobs and the other to the social and occupational hierarchy that permeates it. Women’s economic tasks in India can be divided into three categories – as an entrepreneur, as a participant and as a contributor to the family’s real income. There is no uniform official policy as to whether or not all these three categories of tasks are to be taken into account for measuring women’s employment.

Leela Gulati (1988) has made an attempt to study the women in the unorganized sector in Kerala on the basis of micro-level observations. It appeared that women go to work because of the irregular nature of employment that their men are involved in and the low incomes they make. Regarding the kind of work opportunity open to women in the unorganized sector, very often they choose the type of work that their parents or relatives are involved in. Also they prefer to stick on the same kind of work they are similar with and pick closer by locations.

Jeemol Unni and Uma Rani (1988) have made an attempt to study the informal sector in the light of structural adjustment programme. With steady decline in the growth of the formal sector in India following the introduction of the SAP, a large section of the growing labour force is being absorbed in agriculture and the unorganized informal structure resulting in a progressive increase in employment in the informal sector. However, the most important and the large sector of employed women is the unorganized sector which
includes the landless agricultural labourers, workers in traditional Crafts, Village and Cottage industries, migrants to the cities employed as domestic workers and vendors. Domestic services has been, and still is, an important field of employment for many women. Yet, the ways in which it is organized have changed considerably throughout history and these changes have followed different trajectories. CLARA workshop on

Domestic Services and mobility involving scholars from Europe, Asia and America, brought a rich contribution to studies about domestic workers. The increased economic and political interconnectedness of different parts of the world has enabled a rapid increase in the number of labour migrants amongst domestic workers. The status of domestic workers and the statistical categories under which they fall have a direct impact on different state regulations and their status as citizens. The conditions under which domestic workers are defined as citizen are often linked to the larger political context such as fascism, religion and colonialism.

Bulgovind Baboo and Laxmi Panwar (1989) have studied the maid servants in Hariana. The study emphasizes that they are leading a miserable life. They suffer from low wage, long hours of work, shift in nature of job, lack of freedom and low prestige due to inferior status of the job. Due to lack of coordination their children are neglected and familial relations becomes tense. The fragmented nature of their job, lack of education and low bargaining capacity refrain them from organizing collectively. According to the Report on Working Condition of Domestic Servants in Delhi by the Ministry of Labour, Government of India, nearly 90 per cent of domestic workers are women.

According to the National Survey conducted by the School of Social Work, women constituted 87.09 per cent of domestic workers in Karnataka, 82.38 per cent on Ranchi, 75 per cent in Kerala and 90.78 per cent in Andra Pradesh. The domestic workers face various problems and one of them is deplorable wage level. The wages of domestic workers have not kept pace with
the spiraling price-rise. Every price rise cuts their real wage and further nutritional deficiency for them.

Dhanalakshmi (1989)\(^{10}\) pointed out some general issues concerning women in labour market. The issues include the segregation of women into certain occupation, wage differentials between men and women for the same job, low and falling work participation rates of women etc. She made an attempt to study the domestic servants in Thiruvananthapuram city. The socio economic conditions of domestic servants and the need of servants in city have been studied.

According to Padmini (1990)\(^{11}\), of all services in India, there is not a more unregulated or disorganized form of work than the domestic service. There are no regulated hours of work for women in domestic service, nor have laws been passed to protect them. Murugaiah\(^{21}\) has analysed occupational risk of domestic servants in Tirupathi selection grade Municipality in Andra Pradesh. The risk areas include high level of insecurity deplorable wages, long working hours etc.

Todaro (1970)\(^{12}\) described that neoclassical economics has focused on wage and employment deferential between regions, conceiving of migration as an individual decision for income maximization.

Harris and Todaro (1970)\(^{13}\) explained migration as across space, according to, income differentials are taken as the motivating factor in moving people from low-income areas to relatively high-income areas.

Helbock (1975)\(^{14}\) analyzed the 1961 population census data to examine the flows of lifetime migrants in the 12 largest cities of Pakistan, and found that about 15 percent of the total population of these cities had the status of migrants, who moved into these cities from other districts of Pakistan.
Afzal and Abbasi (1979)\textsuperscript{15} concluded that reveal the tendency in family migration. To fill this gap, an in depth analysis of gender dimensions of rural to urban migration is needed.

Irfan \textit{et al.} (1983)\textsuperscript{16} concluded that internal migration is becoming increasingly long distance and in rural-urban direction. Lack of employment opportunities coupled with inadequate income from farming are considered the leading cause for rural to urban migration. Based on the 1979 Migration and Labour Force Survey data.

Bourdieu (1984)\textsuperscript{17} reported that the migrated have no social or economic value. Paying for domestic work facilitates the maintenance of standards which in turn has social implications as we go “out” into the world marked by the home. Thus although themselves hidden, the results of those who labor in private households are everywhere apparent – how many of those smart politicians, senior executives and newscasters who appear on our television sets night after night have had their shirts and blouses ironed by paid domestic workers, and how many by migrant women? The home itself is a site of consumption and status where “personality” and social status are expressed.

Stark \textit{et al.} (1986)\textsuperscript{18} concluded that the new economics of migration has viewed migration as a household decision to minimize risks to family income and to overcome capital constraints on family production activities.

Van Raaphorst (1988)\textsuperscript{19} documented this early history of domestic worker unionisation in the United States and profiles the formation of domestic worker unions like the American Servant Girls’ Association and the Domestic Worker Industrial Union of the International Workers of the World.

Chaney and Castro (1989)\textsuperscript{20} more recent history from other parts of the world revealed a similar flurry of organizing activity amongst domestic workers. The histories of domestic service in Latin America and the Caribbean demonstrated a tradition of active attempts at unionization in the sector.
Kerala et al. (1989)\textsuperscript{21} reported that in all the urban areas of the three states, female migrants’ work participation rates are generally higher among Christians and Scheduled Castes/Tribe whether married or unmarried and availability of high productivity jobs in the rural areas could reduce in-migration to the urban areas.

Reddy (1990)\textsuperscript{22} stated that migration for construction work has brought economic gains and freedom for many but has also brought incredible hardship and personal risk. Many analysts have concluded that it is coping at best and does not result in any long term accumulation for the poor.

Glenn (1992)\textsuperscript{23} said that domestic workers have always been amongst the most exploited workers. They are channeled into paid domestic work on the basis of several axes of differentiation – race, class, and gender – which are reflective and generative of social stratification more broadly.

Nayak (1993)\textsuperscript{24} Another study in southern MP also found that migration earnings were an important source of income: he studied 550 households in 60 villages in Jhabua district in 2000/1 it was seen that households in the three poorest quartiles earned 65-70% of their total wage income from seasonal migration. In contrast, households in the top quartile earned the largest share of total labour income (63%) from regular jobs in the private or public sector and only about 30% from off village labour.

Hunter (1993)\textsuperscript{25} said that Eventually attracting nearly three thousand washerwomen, cooks, and child nurses, and lasting almost three weeks, this act not only defies the construction of domestics “as passive victims”, it also “revealed an astute political consciousness by making women’s work carried out in private households a public issue.

Pervez (1994)\textsuperscript{26} reported from a survey that on child domestic labour in Islamabad, the children engaged as domestic servants were pushed into this
activity by poverty. Most of them had rural background. Their family size comprised of 8-12 members. Most of them were uneducated. Parents of all the children were illiterate. Strong gender discrimination was evident, as mostly boys in the family were attending school, and girls were working as domestic servants. Child domestic servants also complained about job insecurity and harsh behavior of the employers. About 20% of the children were below average in health and their appearance reflected the neglect and lack of love. The employers abused verbally and physically many child workers, the former more frequently. They also suffered abuse at the hands of employers’ children and their own parents. reported that social networks play an important role in mitigating the hazards of crossing the border. said that researchers in the past have combined different models of migration by including a variety of indicators representing each theory, and testing their impact on migration using multivariate regression techniques.

Mosse et al (1997)\(^{27}\) in the villages in MP and other parts of western India studied by David Mosse and colleagues, for instance, migration for construction work was generating more than 86% of the cash income for migrating households in the mid 1990s.

Patel, Urmila (1980)\(^{28}\) concluded that the changed these provisions so that migrant domestic workers could change employer after entering the UK and have a route to settlement. This followed a long campaign by activists within the trade union, church and refugee and migrant sectors based on reports of abuse and exploitation suffered by migrant domestic workers in the UK. Initially these provisions operated as a concession outside of the Immigration Rules, but since 2002 the provisions have been part of the rules.

Smith (1999)\(^{29}\) argued that far from being relegated to the private, domestic workers made the issue of household labour “nothing less than ‘the Great American’ question of the nineteenth century”.
Momsen, (1999)\textsuperscript{30} described that Finally, researchers point out the case of Middle Eastern countries, where the rate of women participation in the labour force is quite low, but where having a servant has become an important status symbol for middle-class families. Smith (2000) documented history of unionism amongst domestic workers is limited, especially in terms of geographical and historical scope, it does reveal that, far from being resistant to organization, and especially unionization, domestic workers have organized on the basis of their worker status to form unions. This history challenges the presumption that paid domestic work is “an occupational oddity that defies organization”.

Anderson (2000)\textsuperscript{31} stated that Demand for elder care is only one of many factors shaping the labour market for migrant domestic workers. Domestic work involves cleaning as well as caring, and argued that the logic of social reproduction is such that the employment of a domestic worker rewrites gendered, classed and radicalized roles, and that what is being purchased is not simply labour power but “personhood”.

Cancedda (2000)\textsuperscript{32} analyzed that (migrant) domestic workers as a challenge to the market/private dichotomy shifts the emphasis from immigration to employment. The questions raised continue to be extremely complex. One can apply the notion of spectrum of irregularity to employment as well as immigration status, and this is particularly useful with reference to domestic work. In countries for which estimates are available 50-80\% of those cleaning in private households were working in undeclared jobs.

Smet (2000)\textsuperscript{33} stated that Interrogating demand for cleaning services is necessarily complex, and more messy than simply ascribing a value to it. There is a notable lack of literature on demand specifically for cleaning services inside the home but it has been recognized as increasing.
Smet (2000)\textsuperscript{34} conducted that Domestic workers who are paid but not declared... have a considerable impact on the black economy. This form of work, which is hidden and not easily quantifiable, provides a significant proportion of women with a source of income which is not subject to any form of state control.

Khan and Shahnaz (2000)\textsuperscript{35} based on Labour Force Survey 1996-97 reached to the conclusion that rural to urban direction reverse to urban-urban direction. observed a higher (46.2 percent) percentage of such households analysing data, the difference in result may be due to different data sets. Their study is based on PSES Survey 2001 that covers both intra-district and inter-district migration. NSSO (2001) documented that the 55th round of NSS of 1999-00 was the first to cover short-duration migration defined as: “persons staying away from usual place of residence for 60 days or more for employment or better employment or in search of employment”. It estimates that roughly 1% of the Indian population or 10 million people migrated temporarily. Sharma (2001) described that Rapid Assessment on child domestic labourers carried out in Nepal have reinforced that there is a preference for hiring younger children for domestic work. This is mostly due to the fact that salaries increase with age and that teenagers and adults are perceived to be more difficult to manage for employers.

Radin (2001)\textsuperscript{36} concluded that the migrants Those taking the latter position may recognize that, while certain aspects of reproductive labour may be susceptible to commodification, others, particularly those involving care, can be more problematic or “contested” but nevertheless advocate a pragmatic response.

Deb et al (2002)\textsuperscript{37} concluded that migration has been an important way of coping with drought in Mahabubnagar which has huge tracts of unirrigated land with only a single cropping season. analyzed the Village Level Studies (VLS) conducted by ICRISAT (International Crop Research Institute for Semi-
Arid Tropics) over the last three decades in two villages of Mahbubnagar district in Andhra Pradesh show that both seasonal and permanent migration have increased during the reference period.

Arif Hassan (2002)\textsuperscript{38} observed that the migration from India had a major impact on the sociology, economics and politics of Pakistan. Before the coming of the refugees, clan and caste organizations were strong and urban areas were divided into clan neighborhoods. Caste and professions were interrelated. With the coming of the refugees and the anarchy that followed, caste and clan organizations in the towns where they settled became weak and ineffective, almost overnight. Neighborhoods vacated by migrating Hindus and Sikhs were occupied by Muslims and were no longer homogenous in terms of ethnicity or caste.

HC and Cm (2002)\textsuperscript{39} amended that Before 1998 migrant domestic workers could come to the UK under 1 a concession which tied immigration status to a specific employer and did not give them a route to Indefinite Leave to Remain (often referred to as ‘settlement’).

Anderson and O’Connell Davision (2002)\textsuperscript{40} analyzed that why people “need” cleaners the invisible and gendered hand of social institutions and practices is important, as is labor supply, the availability of someone to do the work.

Romero and Tronto (2002)\textsuperscript{41} observed that For many of those academically engaged, a key debate that has emerged in recent years is around whether paid domestic work is “just another job”? Does payment for domestic work necessarily further inequality, particularly between women.

Karim and Nasar (2003)\textsuperscript{42} described that while analysing intra- and inter-provincial moved of all internal migrants based on 1998 population census indicated the same trend that we have observed for rural to urban migrants. The findings indicated that quite large percentage of rural to urban
migrants in provinces of NWFP and Punjab are short distance (intra-provincial), while in provinces of Sindh and Balochistan they are from long distance. (inter-province).

Meagher (2003)\textsuperscript{43} stated that Domestic work should be regarded as any other job, requiring recognition and professionalisation rather than elimination.

Meagher (2003)\textsuperscript{44} observed that Domestic work in private households, whether or not it is performed by migrants, has widely different forms and relations, some of which are more easy to commodify than others.

Hugo (2003)\textsuperscript{45} observed that Particular impact of migration in family structure and functioning was the increasing levels of female headship. A major impact which was evaluated relates to the effect of migration on women’s traditional sides and status in the family. Absence of husband after migration and wife take the responsibilities to look after the children in case of other family members in the origin area.

Virgo \textit{et al.} (2003)\textsuperscript{46} conducted that the incidence of migration was clearly growing in the area as a few years later another study in the same area found that in many villages up to three-quarters of the population were absent between November and June.

Srivastava (2003)\textsuperscript{47} stated that migration for construction work has brought economic gains and freedom for many but has also brought incredible hardship and personal risk. Many analysts have concluded that it is coping at best and does not result in any long term accumulation for the poor. and described that unlike countries in Southeast Asia and East Asia, the bulk of the migrant workforce in India has little or no education.

Neetha (2004)\textsuperscript{48} reported that a study of domestic workers in Delhi shows that although domestic work has brought higher incomes to many women and their families it is still far from decent work being characterized by
long working hours, low wages and hardly any social security. Moors (2003)\textsuperscript{49} concluded that a worldwide trend that paid domestic work has grown rapidly. Moors argued that paid domestic work has never been a “prestige zone” in social sciences. It is only recently that the studies in this field has started to increase. Moors (2003) stated modernization theory predicted in the 1970s that paid domestic work would wither away. Hogdagneu-Sotel, (2003)\textsuperscript{50} documented that Meanwhile, in the global south, increasing numbers of households have been displaced from their usual means of subsistence, forcing members to emigrate in search of a livelihood.

Zlotnik (2003)\textsuperscript{51} pointed out that globally, the number of female migrants has been large and increasing, both in terms of the sheer number of women involved and in terms of their share of the world's migrant stock. NCCWD (2003) conducted in 6 major cities in Pakistan, Eight percent of total working children are engaged as domestic servants.

Keough, (2003)\textsuperscript{52} parallel to the studies and research on the new international migration flows, the impact of the feminization of migration and globalization of domestic work are generally under-researched fields in migration studies in Turkey. Although there are some ongoing research studies, there are only a few published works on this topic.

Lang (2004)\textsuperscript{53} documented that Domestic work is one of the oldest and most important occupations for many women in many countries. It is linked to the global history of slavery, colonialism and other forms of servitude.

Shah and Sah (2004)\textsuperscript{54} reported that On the whole migration among poor tribals in southern MP may be helping the households to maintain their standard of living rather than breaking away from poverty: he collected qualitative data from 212 households in a village in Bhadwani district in southern MP shows that migration helped landless households to maintain their standard of living over a decade.
Geneva (2004)\textsuperscript{55} said that in its contemporary manifestations, domestic work is a global phenomenon that perpetuates hierarchies based on race, ethnicity, indigenous status, caste and nationality.

McKenzie and Rapoport (2004)\textsuperscript{56} observed that Friends and relatives who have migrant experience often accompany new immigrants across the border or arrange coyotes. A reduction in migration costs has two main impacts on the decision to migrate.

Galotti (2004)\textsuperscript{57} stated that one of the most striking changes in domestic work in the past 30 years has been the growing prevalence of migrant work. In several regions, including Europe and the Gulf countries and the Middle East, the majority of domestic labourers today are migrant women. Idealized that employer ideologies that construct domestics as ‘one of the family,’ and social ideologies that refuse to recognize domestic labour as real work, mitigate against domestics’ understanding of themselves as ‘workers,’ and therefore unionisation. Even when domestics can overcome these ideological mystifications, possibilities for collective mobilisation based on a worker identity are limited given the “personal nature of the employer-employee relationship”, and “the worker’s extreme dependence on the employer” ILO (2004) reported, more than 2 million children are found in domestic labour in South Africa, 559,000 in Brazil, 250,000 in Haiti, 200,000 in Kenya, 264,000 in Pakistan, 100,000 in Sri Lanka, 300,000 in Bangladesh, 62,000 under the age of 14 in Nepal, and 20% of all children under the age of 14 in India.

Ford (2004)\textsuperscript{58} described that With cross-national unionisation rates in the domestic service sector at barely 1% (ILO, 2004), domestic workers are not only unorganised, but widely regarded as ‘unorganisable’. In Pakistan many researchers have made valuable contribution to the literature on migration. The population censuses, labour force surveys and special surveys such as population surveys, migration and labour force surveys, have been the major
data sources for migration studies, which have covered a wide range of issues including the impact of human capital on migration decision, impact of migration on well-being of migrant households the patterns of migration and inter and intra-provincial migration.

Panda (2005) conducted survey and found that skilled workers did particularly well in getting remunerative work in brick-kilns and construction sites. While this did not mean that migration was viewed as the ideal form of employment, it was certainly seen as better paid and more secure than employment in the village.

Sundari (2005) migration for construction work has brought economic gains and freedom for many but has also brought incredible hardship and personal risk. Many analysts have concluded that it is coping at best and does not result in any long term accumulation for the poor.

Anderson and Rogaly (2005) documented that Services provided by franchises and agencies for example are arguably easier to commodify because they do not involve personalized relation between householder and worker, the worker may not technically be an employee of the householder at all but is self-employed or an agency worker. This does not mean that workers employed under such circumstances are protected from exploitation. Sub-contracting chains are rife within the commercial cleaning sector, and the person at the end of a long sub-contracting chain may often be in an extremely exploitative relation with the person above them on whom they depend for work. Unemployment rates for women are approximately 50 percent higher than those for men. According to World Bank statistics, only 41% of women versus 73% of men are either working or looking for work.

Kabeer (2005) Migrant labour makes enormous contributions to the Indian economy through major sectors such as construction, textiles, small industries, brick-making, stone quarries, mines, fish and prawn processing and
hospitality services. But migrants remain on the periphery of society, with few citizen rights and no political voice in shaping decisions that impact their lives.

Lutz (2005)\textsuperscript{63} there is strong evidence that the demand for paid domestic work has started to increase all over the world. As Lutz stated, “domestic workers can be found working for dual earners, middle class families and single people, for double or single parents, for young urban professionals as well as for the elderly and invalid”. in most of Europe, domestic workers have been disappearing since the beginning of the 20th century, and particularly after World War II.

Balisacan and Ducanes (2005)\textsuperscript{64} Although significant in recent years, growth has been unequal in India characterized by industry in developed states such as Gujarat, Maharashtra and Punjab drawing labour from agriculturally backward and poor regions such as eastern Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, southern Madhya Pradesh, western Orissa and southern Rajasthan. High productivity agricultural areas (“green revolution areas”) continue to be important destinations, but rural urban migration is the fastest growing type of migration as more migrants choose to work in better paying non-farm occupations in urban areas and industrial zones. Delhi and the states of Gujarat and Maharashtra are top destinations for inter-state migrant labour. Labour mobility has grown and will probably continue to grow once the economy recovers from the current crisis.

Ratha (2005)\textsuperscript{65} Remittances from migrants have grown rapidly over the same time, with developing countries receiving $126 billion in 2004. parallel to the studies and research on the new international migration flows, the impact of the feminization of migration and globalization of domestic work are generally under-researched fields in migration studies in Turkey. Although there are some ongoing research studies, there are only a few published works on this topic. Kalayaan (2006)\textsuperscript{66} Migrant domestic workers have the legal status of workers in the UK - and are entitled to rights such as the minimum wage, time
off, etc. Yet, of more than 300 workers registered with, 43% of workers reported not being given their own bed, 41% were not given regular meals, 70% were given no time off, 61% were not allowed out of the house without their employer's permission. In addition, 10% reported sexual abuse, 26% physical abuse and 72% psychological abuse at the hands of their employers. Many workers were paid as little as 50p an hour, were made to work up to 16 hours a day, and were on constant call to their employers. Deshingkar et al. (2006)\textsuperscript{67} child migration from Purnia, Madhubani and Sitamarhi districts in Bihar to towns in Uttar Pradesh and Bihar for work in “dhabas” has been on the increase over the last 10 years These are mainly children from SC families and they migrate for 8-9 months a year. They are paid Rs.500-1500 a month with food. Often the payment is given directly to the parents as an advance and the child repays the debt. Discussions with NGOs in several parts of Bihar in 2006 showed the different livelihood enhancing ways in which migration money is used.

Shah (2006)\textsuperscript{68} Shah’s research on migration to brick-kilns from Jharkhand shows that migration gives young men and women the opportunity to pursue amorous relationships away from social restrictions in the village.

Samal (2006)\textsuperscript{69} Research on seasonal migration conducted under the Andhra Pradesh Rural Livelihoods Project in two villages in Mahabubnagar district and two villages in Ananthapur found that most households did not save much but some did accumulate wealth and one of the major factors leading to the accumulation of assets was the repetition of migration to the same destination. Long-term migration to places like Mumbai, Hyderabad and Bangalore enabled migrant households to accumulate because of the relatively higher wages and absence of middlemen. Migrants were predominantly from the lower social strata of SCs, STs and BCs (95 per cent). They were mainly illiterate, landless labourers and marginal farmers.
Ghate (2006)\textsuperscript{70} the relationship between debt and migration is not straightforward. While some analysts have concluded that migration increases debt levels because of higher expenditures during transit and at the destination, others have argued that migration improves the creditworthiness of households and they are able to borrow more because of that.

Deshingkar \textit{et al} (2006)\textsuperscript{71} child migration from Purnia, Madhubani and Sitamarhi districts in Bihar to towns in Uttar Pradesh and Bihar for work in “dhabas” has been on the increase over the last 10 years. A case study of the Delhi garment industry which accounts for 35-40 per cent of the value of the country’s total garment exports estimated that there are 3,000-4,000 production units where poor, first generation industrial workers are hired by contractors known as the kedars from rural areas.

Dubey \textit{et al} (2006)\textsuperscript{72} argue on the basis of their analysis of the 1999-2000 round of the NSS that individuals from scheduled castes and scheduled tribes and those with little or no education are less likely to migrate to urban areas. The proposed removing the special immigration category for domestic workers. Instead, employers would have been expected to look to the resident UK workforce or EEA nationals for such staff. The only proposed alternative was that these people may have been able to come to the UK as ‘business visitors’ for up to six months, which does not lead to settlement. If there was evidence of a shortage of workers, the Government would consider setting up a scheme for domestic workers under Tier 3 of the points-based system (which is for low-skilled workers, but has never been implemented).

Mitra and Murayama (2006)\textsuperscript{73} studied ‘Rural to Urban Migration: A District Level Analysis for India’, during the last 10 years, the number of male and female was almost equal in total rural-to-urban flows. While women outnumber men in intra-state rural-urban flows, the number of male was significantly greater in case of inter-state rural-urban migration. The differences in work participation rates are also observed along the line of
religion and caste group of migrants. McKenzie and Sasin (2007)\textsuperscript{74} identified that Measurement of the impact of migration on human development indicators such as health, education, consumption, income (in general, welfare) is difficult. He identified three sets of challenges that researchers face on analysing the impact of migration. The first set relates to data and definition used, the second set relates to endogeniety/selectivity/omitted variable problems; decisions on migration, expenditure allocation, education and health care choices are usually made simultaneously. Many variables that explain migration also determine expenditure choices making it difficult to establish causality. The third set relates to indirect socioeconomic effects (extra burden to members living in the origin, transferring knowledge/information, exchange of ideas/culture, emotional stress on children etc.)

Migrant Alliance (2007)\textsuperscript{75} The export of labor in Indonesia has become part of the country’s development plan in addressing poverty recorded remittances sent by Indonesian migrant workers were up to U.S$ 5 billion. Despite this large contribution, Indonesian domestic workers’ rights are neglected both in their home country and abroad. Reports have surfaced that domestic workers are routinely underpaid, overworked, confined to the workplace, and subject to verbal, physical, and sexual abuse. In theory, human rights are supposed to be universal and applicable to all regardless of race and citizenship. However, political and economic interests, rooted in the legal and social structures of countries, have led to the rights violations, discrimination and exploitation of migrant domestic workers.

Arif (2007)\textsuperscript{76} indicated the dominance of rural to urban migration in internal migration. Although, the studies come to different conclusion, they indicate a modest increase in rural to urban migration. documented that reveal the tendency in family migration. To fill this gap, an in depth analysis of gender dimensions of rural to urban migration is needed.
Arif and Hamid (2007)\textsuperscript{77} described that the proportion of household having only female migrants reveals an increasing trend till the year 1997-98. After that the proportion gradually declined and it reached to 30.6 percent in 2006-2007. The percentage of households having only female migrant is lower than that presented.

Mezzardi (2008)\textsuperscript{78} Migrant workers are preferred because they do not pose the threat of unionization. The workers stay in the city for the production cycle and then return to their villages. This has led to faster improvements in living standards. A leading migrant’s rights organization in Malaysia, rescued 148 abused Indonesian maids with the help of the Malaysian police after the organization received over 200 calls through its Domestic Workers Action Line, and it has recorded 1,050 violations of human rights, such as non-payment of wages and sexual and physical abuse. On average, each domestic worker suffered 6-7 rights violations.

Kundu and Sarangi (2007)\textsuperscript{79} compare migrant and non-migrant populations to argue that the probability of being poor among migrants (both urban-urban and rural-urban including seasonal migrants) is lower than among non-migrants. Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe stated that at a conservative estimate there were 5.5 million irregular migrants living within the European Union, with a further 8 million irregular migrants in Russia. The report states that well governed regularisation schemes are valid options for labour markets. Migrant workers who attain a regular status can escape from abusive and exploitative situations. The main economic argument in favour of regularisation schemes is the need of reducing the size of the underground economy and to increase tax and social security contributions. In terms of safety and security, regularisation schemes can be a good instrument to gain a realistic picture of the total foreign population.

Deshingkar \textit{et al} (2008)\textsuperscript{80} regarding health and education, permanent and seasonal/circular migrants were asked to prioritise their use of income from
migration; one person was permitted to indicate four most important purposes. The first choice identified health and education less important than consumption, paying off debts and investment. In MP health/education and investment/savings were being valued nearly equally.

Pramod et al (2008)\textsuperscript{81} regarding health and education, permanent and seasonal/ circular migrants were asked to prioritise their use of income from migration; one person was permitted to indicate four most important purposes. The first choice identified health and education less important than consumption, paying off debts and investment. In MP health/education and investment/savings were being valued nearly equally. The ILO is a founding member of the Geneva Migration Group, now the Global Migration Group (GMG), established in 2003 to enhance coordination and complementarily on migration.\textsuperscript{17} In spite of international standards to protect migrants, their rights as workers are too often undermined, especially if the migrants go abroad undocumented searching for a job. While no reliable data on undocumented migrants by sex can be found, the report on Gender and Migration prepared by the Global Commission on International Migration argued that due to “… the undervaluing of women’s labour and restrictions on their right to work, a higher proportion of women migrants than men are statistically invisible and are or could become undocumented.

Swete Mishra (2003)\textsuperscript{82} studied in land reforms and women’s empowerment in the most parts of the country. And particularly among marginal and landless agriculturists earning a livelihood is still a family endeavors. Various studies conducted have clearly pointed out that there are larger number of women who primarily derive their livelihood, for working sometimes on a regular basic and often on a seasonal basis or attached labours. The women agricultural laborers generally belong to illiterate SC, ST and backward classes. Though the Hindu code act and Hindu succession act provide equal rights and share to the children birth male and female in parental; property, yet due to particular pattern of our society how many female children
have fit their share without legal legislations it is big question to be answered by the policy planners and the implementing agencies, more policy declarations and enacting various acts by different states may not empower women to hold acquire and disposal of parental property. It requires effective measures for implementation and basic social reforms. But of the land is in the name of both husband and wife the male member of the property if the wife family is not willing. Similarly in the case of operation Baryon the record of share croppers in the name of both husband and wife more social and economic stability.

Wilson (2003)\textsuperscript{83} Sex-age structure and composition and size of population are the demographic factors. Educational level, degree of industrialization and cost of living are the socio-economic factors. Composition of population and socio-economic factors exert more influence in determining female activity rates at all ages. Wilson is of the potion that wide spread free education has been responsible for the change in the attitude towards women’s responsible for the change in the attitude towards women’s responsibilities in society and for the increase in female labour force participation during 1946-63 in Sri Lanka.

Becker’s (2004)\textsuperscript{84} according to model women on an average devote less effort to work activities than men. However family status, household responsibilities and market human capital should mediate the relationships. This model used to differentiate men’s work effort from women’s work effort and this can be applied to differences in work effort among women.

Dhanasekaran (2004)\textsuperscript{85} his evolved a rural quality of life. Index (KOLI) to measure rural poverty taking has a rural poverty taking into account ten components. He has classified the respondents as destitute very vary poor, very poor marginally, non poor rich and very rich.

Franca Akarippadathu (2004)\textsuperscript{86} discussed as the indicates few allocation for socio-economic and sanitation is very low and during some years nothing is
spent under this head. The amount is to be spent for starting new dispensaries and strengthening the old ones. For example in Kannampady only families have sanitarians, toilets. The information they receive about it is mostly from radio. Further enquiries reveal that either husband or wife under mutual agreement take recourse to some permanent method of family planning to prevent another pregnancy. They generally go for it after the second child. Women work has remained a much researched debated area. The underlying assumption in arguments for women’s employment is that economic independence is the first pre-requisite to moving towards gender equality. The concept viewed in the context of opportunity in employment on the board spectrum of women’s employment at one and are women working all and paid jobs and other end are higher professional women works.

Heckman and Mercurdary (2004) women are coming forward to paid employment outside home to supplement the income of husbands or parents and to fill the gap between income and expenditure due to soaring prices of essential goods.

Padmini (2004) points out that according to the Ministry of Labour and Employment, government of India, inadequate income of the principal earner, temporary mishaps, death of breadwinner and women’s desires for economic independence are the factors which induce women to work.

Sing K.P (2004) says that among women who were working out of utter economic necessity, the majority were dissatisfied with the time they spend with their children and the time they allocate to their home 57 percent of working women have alternate arrangements for their children either a mother or a mother-in law or a maid to look after their children. The age of the children is an important factor in generalizing the women’s role conflict because a mother’s personal attentions are most essential when they are small. Another cause can be the family size women with larger number of family member may feel the conflict than the women work families are small in
number. The other factor associated with this is the nature of job that the time amount spent outside the house. Some who do not feel any role conflict are school teachers, lecturers and those who are in independent professions.

Vinita (2004)\textsuperscript{90} according to women working in cities and towns firstly constitute a small proportion to total workers and secondly out of the total members of women workers the majority is engaged in low status occupations. She is of the opinion that the factory employment opportunities to women have declined due to technological changes and this is accompanied by an increase in service sector employment such as public service, medical, health and education.

Washer (2004)\textsuperscript{91} his assessed that 57.3 percent of working women of Delhi are working due to economic reasons and others due to non-economic reasons. According to Mehta rising cost of living along with new trends of modern living resulting in ever widening necessities of life are compelling more and more women to seek employment outside home.

Becker’s (2005)\textsuperscript{92} model of effort allocation implies that an hour of a man’s time produces more of value to an employer than an hour of equally skilled and experienced women who has greater responsibilities. This in true influences both employer’s treatment of equally capable male and female employees and worker’s subsequent decisions about investing time and energy in household versus market-work. The model implies that small initial disadvantages faced by women in the work-place can lead to extreme results in the division of labour in the household, occupational segregation and earning difference. Even a small amount of discrimination against women in the work place gives men a comparative advantage in market work. Likewise a small “natural” advantage in child–care activities gives women an advantage in household work.
Dwaraki and B. kumaresan (2005) asks that do women have a nice in the realm of rural development working women have been in the nears in the last 5-10 years like it is the want in the in rather confused world of rural development those in the same by try to cling into anything new novel as if they have found the phenomena what with the slogan of empowering women especially rural women the grace for being associated with scavenger women is spreading like mass hysteria in about last one year. So much as any one in the realm of rural development, today in any discussion on scavenger women is an ignoramus. This is based on very small scale study conducted exclusively for the purpose needs no justification. The authors in this study have covered just 10 women scavenger from about four contiguous villages in which three office bearers the President, Secretary and Treasurer were personally interviewed on a very small list of question concentrating on the aspect of self-sustenance for us contention of contention of authors that women workers can find nice in the realm of rural development.

Henning and Jardim (2005) in their book stated that the women managers has achieved their position through progressive career advancement and their current positions through progressive career advancement and their current positions were ones not regarded as feminine. The question being addressed was how they had managed to depart from traditional female roles to active success in a man’s world.

Kalarani (2005) her classified motivations behind the decision to work as monetary, social and personal factors. For the first preference she has assigned a score of 3, for the second preference 2, and for the third preference one. Her analysis shows that among the purposes ‘making use of education’ ranks first followed by ‘job as an engagement for spare time’, ‘Supplementing husband’s income’ and ‘to raise economic status’ occupies the third rank. ‘Gross necessity’ occupies the fourth rank and ‘to have independent income’ the last rank. She has proved that there is correlation between age and motivation and education and motivation.
Kaur and Punia (2005) about working women of Hissar District of Haryana, it is observed that most of the working women apt for job out of the gross economic necessity (50 percent), followed by the urge to raise economic status (23 percent), to make use of education (11 percent) to have independent income (9 percent) and the remaining due to miscellaneous motives. Wife’s income is essential to raise family’s standard of living. 18 percent were widows, divorcees and separated. Another 24 percent were single. All these women worked to support themselves and their children. In addition to this, women whose husbands’ incomes were inadequate were compelled to seek gainful employment.
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15. Afzal and Abbasi (1979), ‘Socio Economic Aspects of Employment of Female Labour in Agriculture’, Agriculture Situation in India.


43. ibid


