

**DOMESTIC WOMEN WORKERS IN URBAN INFORMAL
SECTOR IN COIMBATORE CITY**

By

THIRISHILA DEVI. R

11PEC10

**A thesis submitted to the
Avinashilingam Institute for Home Science and
Higher Education for Women, University
Coimbatore - 641 043.**

In Partial Fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of

Master of Arts in Economics

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CERTIFIED AS BONAFIDE RESEARCH WORK

P. Ambekar Dln 7/25/23
**Signature of the
Head of the Department**

Leetha W
**Signature of the
Supervisor**

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CHAPTER-I

INTRODUCTION

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. In its contemporary manifestations, domestic work is a global phenomenon that perpetuates hierarchies based on race, ethnicity, indigenous status, caste and nationality. Care work in the household – whether performed by paid employees or by unpaid household members as part of their family responsibilities and as a “labour of love” – is quite simply indispensable for the economy outside the household to function. The growing participation of women in the labour force, changes in the organization and the intensification of work, as well as the lack of politics reconciling work and family life, the decline in state provision of care services, the feminization of international migration and the ageing of societies, have all increased the demand for care work in recent years. Domestic work, however, is still undervalued. It is looked upon as unskilled because most women have traditionally been considered capable of doing the work, and the skills they are taught by other women in the home are perceived to be innate. When paid, therefore, the work remains undervalued and poorly regulated. By contrast, studies that provide space for domestic workers to speak often reveal their belief in the dignity of their hard work, and, as such, it warrants recognition and respect and calls for regulation.

The term domestic service is difficult to define, as the duties of the domestic servants are not so well defined. In common parlance, the term is defined as a person who is engaged in part time or full time domestic work in return for remuneration payable in cash or kind for a fixed period. The terms of employment may be expressed or implied. Domestic work covers many different activities, situations and relationships, and so is not easy to categorize. It includes many tasks such as cleaning, laundry and ironing; shopping, cooking and fetching water; caring for the sick, elderly and children; looking after pets; sweeping and garden-tidying. It involves workers in many different types of employment relationship. In societies where care workers are employed by the State or organisations subsidized by the State, they often (though not always) benefit from proper employment contracts, union rights, and collective bargaining agreements. With privatization of such services, however, has come the growth of private supply agencies and deterioration in working terms and conditions and unionisation. Most domestic work

around the world, however, is done through private arrangements between individuals, someone hired in or a family member, sometimes with a written contract but usually with none.

Data on the number of domestic workers throughout the world are hard to collect. The main reasons for the lack of accurate and comparable data include the high incidence of undeclared domestic work and the consequent under-reporting, the varying definitions of domestic work in statistical surveys, and the fact that national statistics often do not count domestic workers as a distinct category but register them under such heading as “community, social and personal service activities”. But such data as are available show that domestic work absorbs a significant proportions of the workforce. In developing countries, it accounts for between 4 and 10 per cent of total employment {both female and male}, compared to industrialized countries where the figure ranges between 1and 2.5 per cent of total employment (ILO Bureau of Statistics’ June 2008), although in some countries a significant number of women invariably make-up the overwhelming majority of domestic workers.

Domestic work has a long history in India with both men and women working in others’ homes as ‘servants’. The affluent had servants, mostly men, with loyalty, obligation and patronage being the salient aspects of this relationship. Caste defined the hierarchy- lower castes performed the ‘dirty’ work of cleaning while higher caste men cooked. Over the years, both in the urban and rural contexts, the nature of work and workers have been rapidly changing. The sector now primarily comprises women domestic workers who are not recognised as ‘workers’ while their work is ‘undervalued’. This is primarily due to the gendered notion of housework -value is not ascribed to women’s work in their homes, and by extension, even paid work in others’ homes is not given any value or regarded as work. It is also undervalued because it is often performed by poor, migrant women from lower castes. All these contribute to the inferior status of their work, both in their own minds and in society.

Domestic workers, in particular women domestic workers, are a constantly growing section of workers in the informal sector of urban India. The last three decades have seen a sharp increase in their numbers, especially in contrast to male domestic workers (Neetha 2004). Research has shown that till 2000, the urban workforce

participation of women in India has been lower than those of rural women. Marginal increases were observed in 2000-04 (Rustagi 2009). In 2004, the figure of national urban female workforce participation reached an all-time high of 16 percent. In 2004-05, there were 3.05 million women domestic workers in urban India marking an increase by 222 percent from 1999-2000 (Chandrasekhar and Ghosh 2007). The data shows a feminisation of the service with the share of female workers increasing sharply over the period [Neetha, 2007]. The increase in the number of domestic workers is linked to a shift from agrarian-based economy to a manufacture and service-based economy. It is also associated with the growth of the urban middle class, especially the increase in the number of women working outside their homes and the availability of cheap domestic labour.

In the Indian context, domestic work is generally defined in terms of types of work performed and the time spent at work, i.e., in the employer's home. Live-out and live-in are two distinct categories of domestic work. Live-out work is primarily of two types: first, those who work in one house for the whole day and go back to their homes in the evening and; secondly, those who work in different houses, moving from one to the other, performing one or more tasks in each household. They may clean in one house, chop vegetables in another and wash clothes in the third, while some others may only perform a task, such as cooking. They often visit these households twice a day though the requirements in some families may be limited to only once a day. Another form of part-time live-out work is in terms of piece-rate. It is often applied to washing clothes and wages are calculated on the basis of buckets of clothes. Live-in worker i.e. worker who works full time for a single employer and also stays on the premises of the employer or in a dwelling provided by the employer (which is close or next to the house of the employer) and does not return back to her / his home every day after work.

The tasks performed by either category of domestic workers may include cleaning (sweeping, swabbing and dusting), washing (clothes and dishes), or even putting machine-washed clothes on the clothesline or/and folding them, cooking, or preparation for cooking such as chopping vegetables and making dough, or cooking a part of meal, ironing, housekeeping and extensions of these outside the home such as shopping. Domestic work may also include childcare or care of the aged. There are no standard

norms that decide working conditions. By and large, employers decide wages though this is often the 'rate' of the area they live in. Wages also depend on the bargaining power of the domestic worker and workers' desperation for work. Experienced workers may be able to bargain for more while those desperate for work may be willing to work at lower rates. Other factors that influence decisions about wages include the type of tasks performed and the neighborhood. Rates vary according to the task (for example, cooking attracts more wages than cleaning) and the socio-economic profile of employers. These factors are not cast-in-stone as workers are made to perform extra work with no additional compensation, especially during festivals or when employers have guests. There is no guarantee of employment as employers can ask workers to leave with no prior notice or financial compensation. (Jagori 2004; Mehrotra 2008; Neetha 2008; Menon 2010).

Studies also note that only a few workers get a weekly off; paid leave is often the result of difficult negotiations with the employers. Getting sick leave also depends on the good will of the employer. Instances of workers losing their jobs due to long leave taken at time of childbirth or ill health are often reported. Some also lose their jobs when they visit their villages. Deduction in wages for extra leave is a common practice among employers. Part-time workers are not allowed access to a toilet in the employers' homes. Many commute long distances and thus have no time to cook and carry food with them. They are often not provided with any tea or snacks and stay hungry till they get back home where they have to cope with difficult living conditions in urban slums.

Domestic workers, play an important role in the social life of the community. The household work done by the domestic workers is vital for the well being of the family. In spite of the important role played by the domestic worker, they are the most neglected and vulnerable lot. The National Survey on Domestic Workers shows that they are in a state of dependency, exploitation and quasi-bondage. The biggest problem facing domestic workers across the country is their non-recognition as workers. Domestic workers don't come under labour laws – they have no right to workers' compensation, weekly holidays and minimum wages. Even the Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986, does not include domestic workers. Attempts were made to introduce legislation to improve the lot of the domestic workers but the Domestic

Workers Bill was stalled in 1990 and again in 1996. Though domestic workers have been included in the Unorganised Workers' Social Security Act, 2008 (Act 33 of 2008), they have not yet got any benefits. Even in Maharashtra, the Domestic Workers Welfare Board Act 2008 has not been implemented. Notifications on minimum wages for domestic workers have been issued by states such as Karnataka, Kerala, Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Meghalaya, Tamil Nadu and Rajasthan. There is considerable debate among activists and experts on calculation of wages – whether wages should be based on ‘need-based formula’ or should it be a living wage, including in-kind payment or be based on time or piece-rate? Further, over the years, attempts to have a national legislation for domestic workers have been made. Currently, different organizations and campaigns are working towards different draft bills. These are under the aegis of the National Commission of Women, National Campaign Committee for Unorganised Sector Workers, SEWA and recently by the Domestic Workers Rights Campaign (DWRC). Various draft bills deliberate on the registration of workers, employers and agencies, regulation of work and wages, social security and enforcement mechanisms.

Domestic workers in India thus lack access to sufficient and effective statutory measures and institutional mechanisms for their protection. The few labour laws enacted by the Central and State governments addressing domestic workers face the challenge of implementation. This is aggravated by the discriminating attitude of many employers against the domestic workers, including caste prejudices. As a result, those who carry out domestic work are largely ignored, often specially excluded and economically exploited. On the other hand, the government recognizes the prominent role of migrant domestic workers as a source of foreign exchange in the Indian economy and a solution to the country’s unemployment issues. Compared to their local counterparts, a higher degree of regulation is exerted by the government in the process of their deployment. But despite efforts by the government, Indian domestic workers within and outside the country remain vulnerable to all forms of exploitation from the moment they enter the recruitment process till they enter the workplace. Over the last few years, studies on domestic work in India have noted the increase in the numbers of migrant female domestic workers in the cities. They have also observed that domestic work is highly informal in its organization and highlighted the vulnerabilities of domestic workers who belong to the poorer and

uneducated sections of society. These studies also note that women from marginalized castes form a substantive group of domestic workers (Kaur 2006).

Statement of the Problem

It is found that among all categories in the informal sector, domestic servants' income is the lowest and the problems are many (Sundaram, 1966). They are engaged in household tasks, which include washing utensils, floor cleaning, washing of cloths, cooking as well as some outdoor tasks such as purchase of vegetables etc. Most of them live in slums, lead a monotonous life without any colour, struggle every day for their survival and face a numerous problems in their day to day life like long hours of work, insecurity regarding jobs, low status within the house as well as in the outside world (Gathia, 1983). Under this situation, there arise certain questions such as what sort of people engaged in domestic service relations? What is the background of domestic servants? And which are the socio-economic factors responsible for choosing these occupations and thus earning low wage income. Not many studies have analyzed the socio-economic status of domestic women's servants and problem faced by them. In many studies the focus has been on women's participation in agricultural and allied activities often erroneously considered to be the only form of paid work available to women of lower strata (Sarkar, 2004). Domestic work contributes substantively to type of employment and generation of earnings for many women. The present study is an attempt to examine the socio-economic profile of domestic workers, their employment patterns and identify their job satisfaction and the problems at work place.

Objectives

The specific objectives of the study are:

- To analysis the socio-economic profile and living conditions of the women domestic workers.
- To examine the employment and wage structure of domestic workers.
- To analyse the consumption, saving and debt behavior of the domestic workers.
- To probe the job satisfaction level of the domestic servants.
- To examine the problems faced by domestic servants at work place.

Hypothesis

In the course of the study, the following hypotheses were examined:

- Domestic workers were mainly from marginalized group and their living conditions were poor.
- Economic compulsion is the main reason for taking the job as domestic workers.
- Domestic workers had high propensity to consume and low saving potential.
- Domestic workers were satisfied with monetary benefits and treatment meted out to them by their employers.
- Minimal pay or no pay for extra work, absence of leave facility and verbal harassment at work were the major problems faced by domestic workers.

The findings of the study will be of immense help to decision-makers and stake-holders in understanding the issues faced by women domestic workers and the steps that need to be taken to bring them within the ambit of social security measures.

CHAPTER-II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of literature for the present study is discussed under the following heads:

- I. History and significance of women domestic workers.
- II. Economic status of women domestic workers.
- III. Problems of women domestic workers.
- IV. Related studies.

I.HISTORY AND SIGNIFICANCE OF WOMEN DOMESTIC WORKERS

Domestic service, or the employment of people for wages in their employer's residence, was sometimes simply called "service". It evolved into a hierarchical system in various countries at various times. The United Kingdom's Master and Servant Act 1823 was the first of its kind and influenced the creation of domestic service laws in other nations, although legislation tended to favour employers. However, before the passing of such Acts, servants and workers in general, had no protection in law. The only real advantage that domestic service provided was the provision of meals, accommodation, and sometimes clothes, in addition to a modest wage. Service was normally an apprentice system with room for advancement through the ranks. In Britain this system peaked towards the close of the Victorian era, perhaps reaching its most complicated and rigidly structured state during the Edwardian period, which reflected the limited social mobility of the time. The equivalent in the United States was the Gilded Age.

The term domestic service is difficult to define, as the duties of the domestic servants are not so well defined. In common parlance, the term is defined as a person who is engaged in part time or full time domestic work in return for remuneration payable in cash or kind for a fixed period. The terms of employment may be expressed or implied. Domestic service is becoming a major and growing informal sector activity in the urban areas, especially in big cities. It is one of the informal sector activities where the conditions of work are disgusting with long working hours, low pay and absence of job security. The modern system of domestic work is an outgrowth of the system of slavery, though its nature, functions and relations have undergone considerable changes over time. Historically, though the character of the industry did not change much, certain temporal and spatial distinctions could be traced.

According to Report of the National Commission on Self-Employed Women and Women in the Informal Sector (1988), of all the services in India, domestic work is the most unrecognized and disorganized, and often the most denigrating and humiliating. These workers do the most menial arduous tasks, have impossibly long hours with no benefits of social security, security of employment, wage raises, paid leave or medical facilities, etc.

According to Anderson (2000), domestic work includes mental, manual and emotional aspects, including care work that is necessary to maintain people and communities. Domestic work is thus viewed as reproductive work that creates not only labour units but also people and social relations. Anderson further draws attention to domestic work being rooted in the community: by ‘the doing of domestic work we literally reproduce our communities and our place within them’.

Bridget Anderson (2000) observes that paid domestic work is a feature of households all over the world, from Ecuador to Swaziland, from Spain to the ivory Coast. In many countries, it probably constitutes the single largest female employment sector (though its invisibility can make this difficult to document). It is a work that is predominantly performed by women. And is usually managed by other women yet it has received very little attention, either from feminists or from trade unionists. Or indeed from political activists in general_ many of whom, particularly if they are women, depend on a domestic worker to facilitate their activism. This paper explores the experiences of migrant domestic workers in Europe and in particular in the UK. However, the issues it raises present challenges _ both personal and political-for women and men throughout the world, whether they are domestic workers or employees. The most effective means of protecting domestic workers from abuse was, in the first instance, to treat domestic work as ‘just another job’ extending employment; rights and a means of implementing these rights to these workers. As far as migrant women are concerned, this also entails the granting of work permits.

Lang (2004) 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.

Geneva (2004) reiterates that in its contemporary manifestations, domestic work is a global phenomenon that perpetuates hierarchies based on race, ethnicity, indigenous status, caste and nationality.

Galotti (2004) observes 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.

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 percent of all children under the age of 14 in India.

Domestic workers constitute one of the largest women sectors in India. They also represent one of the largest numbers of workers in the informal economy of the country. The varying statistics on their population would illustrate the significance of their participation in India's workforce. According to Indian National Sample Survey (NSS) data, there were 2.0 million female workers and 0.3 million male workers in 2001 as compared to 1.2 million female and 0.3 male workers in 1983, showing a substantial increase in the number of female workers (Mehrotra, 2008). It is generally held that the official figures are unreliable and grossly inadequate as domestic work is notoriously under enumerated. (Gothoskar 2005; Raghuram 2005; Social Alert, 2000). On the basis of information from several Indian civil society organizations, it is estimated that there are around 20 million domestic workers in India. Of them about 20 percent are estimated to be aged fewer than fourteen and 20-25 percent are aged fifteen to twenty. While domestic workers in most countries are mainly women and girls, in India there are relatively large numbers of male workers. Despite this, domestic work is increasingly feminized in India (Ray 2000), around 90 percent of these workers being female (Social Alert 2000). This makes it one of the few sectors which have a female majority (Raghuram, 2005), and one of the largest employment providers for women and girls in India. According to the National Domestic Workers' Movement [NDWM], an estimated 20million people work as domestics throughout the country. Of these workers, 90 percent

are women and children between the ages of 12 to 75, while those below 14 years old make up 25 percent of the workers (NDWM).

A significant population of women and children domestic workers tends to be concentrated in large cities of the country. In Mumbai city alone, an estimated 600,000 domestic workers exist, of whom 80,000 are on full time employment (Rani and Roy, 2005). Bangalore is reportedly a host to 500,000 domestic workers. They are mainly migrant women workers, 25 percent of whom are girls 10-16 years of age who dropped out of primary school and accompany their mothers to work and would soon end up being workers in their own right (Rani and Roy, 2005). Ahmedabad city has more than 50,000 domestic workers constituting mostly women (SEWA, 2008). On the other hand, 5,000 children mostly girls work as domestic in the Bhubaneswar, the large city of Orissa, India (Press Trust of India, 2005).

This increase in the number of domestic workers is linked to a shift from agrarian-based economy to a manufacture and service-based economy. It is also associated with the growth of the urban middle class, especially the increase in the number of women working outside their homes and the availability of cheap domestic labour. The migration from the tribal belt is ascribed to “ecological degradation, landlessness and land alienation, unemployment and poverty” (Kujur and Jha 2008).

Amnesty International (2007) within the formal sector where wages are higher, women are underrepresented; whereas women are over-represented in the informal low-paid jobs like domestic work. There are approximately 2.6 million domestic workers in Indonesia, and the majority of them are women and girls, ranging from 14 to 40 years old. However, some of them can be young.

In developing and developed countries alike, the domestic work sector work absorbs significant numbers of workers, many of whom belong to the poorest segments of society with little access to other work or employment, generally as a result of limited educational opportunities (ILO, 2010) In many countries, domestic work is performed to a large extent or even exclusively by migrant workers, mainly women, who migrate in order to earn money to support their families in their home countries.

According to the most recent global and regional estimates produced by the ILO (2011), at least 52.6 million women and men above the age of 15 were domestic workers

in their main job. This figure represents some 3.6 per cent of global wage employment. Women comprise the overwhelming majority of domestic workers: 43.6 million workers or some 83 per cent of the total. Domestic work is an important source of wage employment for women, accounting for 7.5 percent of female employees worldwide. These figures are estimates based on available official statistical data, which means that the actual number of domestic workers is likely to be much higher. Available data show, that domestic work is a growing economic sector.

According to John (2012) domestic workers in India belong to a greatly disadvantaged working sector in the country. They are part of the informal economy with very minimal if not absent regulation by the government and have in most cases no protection in law. Mostly composed of women and children, they hardly figure in the statistical records and the laws of country and remained invisible workers. They usually come from lower caste, with very little education and are often unaware of their rights.

II.ECONOMIC STATUS OF WOMEN DOMESTIC WORKERS

It is found that among all categories in the informal sector, domestic servants' income was the lowest and the problems are many (Sundaram, 1966). They are engaged in household tasks, which include washing utensils, floor cleaning, washing of cloths, cooking as well as some outdoor tasks such as purchase of vegetables etc. Most of them live in slums; lead a monotonous life without any color, struggle every day for their survival and face a numerous problems in their day to day life like long hours of work, insecurity regarding jobs, low status within the house as well as in the outside world (Gathia, 1983).

Ebenezer Ravichandran (1988) while examining the socio-economic conditions of women domestic workers in slums of Tamil Nadu found that 50 percent of the women workers were illiterate and another 44 percent had education up to primary level only. The lowest income received was Rs.20 per month while the highest was Ra. 700 per month. The average family income was found to be Rs. 168 and nearly 86 percent of them were heavily indebted and as high as 76 percent of the women suffered from body-ache.

Gracious Thomas (1992) studying the female domestic workers in Stuna community of Indore, Madhya Pradesh found that illiteracy was rampant among the respondents, 75 percent were from backward classes, 36 percent had six to eight children, 57 percent reported that there was frequent quarrels in the family and 1/3rd work, 25 percent of them belonged to rural areas and when they return to their native villages, they were looked down with suspicion.

Pervez (1994) reported from a survey on child domestic labour in Islamabad that 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 percent 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.

Singh (2001) in his research focused on the problem of women domestic workers and examined the working environment, conditions of work, factors forcing them to undertake the work, family life and work, job security options and resource development. Singh found that 41.33 percent of the workers were in the age group of 31 to 45 years and 48 percent were less than 30 years; 40.67 percent were from backward classes; 21.22 percent were from lower classes; 22.33 percent possessed Kachcha houses, 20 percent had Pakka houses, 65.33 percent houses had no electricity, 14.67 percent had no toilet and 64 percent were under debt. Singh pointed out that unlike the workers of the organized sector, the women domestic workers did not enjoy better conditions of work and working conditions, neither did they get satisfactory wages.

Hazarika, Bipul, Ghosh S, Chattopdhyay, Majumder A and Sunit Kumr (2002) examined the history, experiences, emotions, feeling and aspiration about children of the vulnerable group of domestic helpers. The study was conducted in Mumbai and the

required information was compiled from 50 randomly selected domestic helpers. The findings revealed that 60 percent of the samples were migrants and most of the women were either illiterate or primary educated. Working hours mean year of work and self-income increased with age. However contribution of other family members decreases. About 80 percent expressed dissatisfaction with their present salary, ten percent expressed grievance for doing 'extra work' and salary of 20 percent of women get reduced for absence in work. Many of the respondents express their inefficiency to look after children's study though they wanted their children to have better education and not to follow their path, though increasing cost was a great concern given their inadequate income.

Meagher (2003) stated that domestic work should be regarded as any other job, requiring recognition and professionalization rather than elimination.

Moors (2003) 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 have started to increase.

To identify the critical issues of concern among young women migrant domestic workers and to determine the extent of the vulnerability faced by these women the ILO (2004) undertook studies in Bahrain, Lebanon and the United Arab Emirates. The study based on questionnaires and directs interview of domestic workers and their employers. The findings reveal that while payment ranged from \$100 wage in Lebanon and \$150 to \$200 on an average in UAE, non-payment of wages was a significant concern in Lebanon (19%) and Bahrain (20.5%). The average working hours per week rose from 72 hours to 108 hours. Many workers complained of not having enough sleep and being on-call all the time. The number of days off averaged from 0 to 2 days per month. Most of those workers were vulnerable to sexual abuse by their male employers 'as well social isolation from other domestic workers or friends. The study concludes by observing the need for joint action on the part of the Government, employers and workers organization to provide social protection to migrant workers especially women migrant workers.

Siddharta Sarkar (2005) examined women at work in the informal sector with special reference to female domestic workers in Cooch Bihar district of West Bengal. The study was based on survey research technique. The information on 200 female domestic workers in the informal sector has been gathered from extensive survey of field investigation. Since working women in informal sector of Cooch Bihar district constitute a heterogeneous group, stratified sampling method has been undertaken while collecting the sample workers. The economic compulsion was the main hardship for taking the job as domestic servants. The general educational status of the female domestic workers in the district was not satisfactory. The workers contribute a lion part of their earnings to the family and few of them have saving potentials too. Since wages of the female domestic servants are very low, they have been worst exploited. The female domestic workers are subject to variety of exploitations starting from low wages to maltreatment and sexual harassment by the employer. These problems can never be overcome until the concept of unionism was developed among the female domestic workers.

Kalayaan (2006) observed that though domestic workers have the legal status of workers in the UK – and are entitled to right such as the minimum wage, time off, etc; yet, of more than 300 workers registered with, 43 percent of workers reported not being given their own bed, 41 percent were not given regular meals, 70 percent were given no time off, 61 percent were not allowed out of the house without their employer's permission. In addition, 10 percent reported sexual abuse, 26 percent physical abuse and 72 percent psychological abuse at the hands of their employers. Many workers were paid as little as 50 p an hour, were made to work up to 16 hours a day, and were on constant call to their employers.

Asher D. Colombo (2007) in her article discussed a number of aspects of paid domestic work in contemporary Italy and recent changes in that sector. The men are less numerous than the women, but they enjoy better working conditions and higher pay, and it was easier and quicker for the men to get out of the sector and attain less under qualified occupations. Exploring the differences between live-in and live-out domestic service, the author observe that live-in domestic service was relatively modest. In contrast with domestic service taken as a whole, live-in domestic service was largely a kind of

work 'that immigrant women does'. In general, live-in domestic service constitutes a marginal component of traditional duties and new duties. Among the new duties, there also emerges an immaterial aspect to the service, consisting of providing emotional involvement and interaction, caring and emotional commitment, which are all areas deserving further study.

Diganta (2010) examined the socio economic profile of the part time domestic workers to understand their occupation structure and wage structure and also the scope of unionization as a process of empowerment. The study was based on primary data collected from the part time domestic workers. Thirty seven women part-time domestic workers were selected from Agartala Municipal area from 3 different locations by purposive sampling method. The women engaged as part time domestic workers are primarily in their mid-ages, on an average serve 2-3 houses and earn an average amount of Rs. 750 per month and spend around 5 hours per day. Around half of them are still non-literate unlike their next generation where though cent percent literacy was yet to be achieved. The majority are married within the district though their social activity shifts from agriculture to non – agricultural work types. Finally majority of them are socially and politically conscious and are a part of the political movement of the state. The above summarization eventually exposes the vivid deplorable economic condition of the part-time domestic workers in Agartala, which was comparable to other cities of the country. As a regards their attitude towards literacy it definitely points towards pro-literacy consciousness with 70 percent of their children being literates. Their involvement in political process particularly voting on self opinion was a remarkable feature, probably absent in other states. Their willingness to organize, if a proper organization emerges in the near future, was a feature to reckon with which points for their preparedness for unionization.

Awosusi and Adebo (2012) examined the use of children and youths as domestic servants in Ekiti and Ondo States of Nigeria. Using a snowballing technique 80 respondents was selected from the two states. Findings of the study show that the domestic servants were mainly from Benue and Oyo States and Republic of Benin/Togo. They are young and mostly females with low educational background. Reasons for

working as domestic servants include inability to pay school fees, low academic performance, and parent's separation and family problems. There was no definite contract of employment or specifications for jobs done. They work for long hours with no compensation; living conditions are poor and have no definite plan for future. The study recommends that the Federal government should map out policies and programmes to reduce poverty and encourage basic education with special consideration for the girl child in poor rural areas of Nigeria.

PROBLEMS OF WOMEN DOMESTIC WORKERS

According to Padmini (1980), of all services in India, there was not a more unregulated or disorganized form of work than the domestic service. Nor have laws been passed to protect them.

According to National survey conducted by the school of Social Work in Calcutta only 6 per cent of the workers had made some contract with the employers, while, in other regions, it was mere 1 and 2 percent. The contract was made with third party of agent and so the exploitation runs beyond the employer-employee relationship. According to the survey, in domestic service rest was considered by the employers and their problem has serious consequence on their health. The National survey comments that though hours of work were regularized in Kerala, 76 percent of its workers did not enjoy any holidays. A study of women domestics in Delhi indicates that women do not go to hospital due to fear of the hospital and long delays there. Most of the women hold a number of jobs and time was of great value to them (Dasgupta, 1980).

Bulgovind Baboo and Laxmi Panwar (1984) have studied the maid servants in Haryana. The study emphasizes that they were 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 become tense. The fragmented nature of their job and due to lack of coordination, their children are neglected and familial relations become tense. The

fragmented nature of their job, lack of education and low bargaining capacity refrain them from organizing collectively.

Cockjaelyn (1989) takes a look at the lives of domestic workers in South Africa under the reign of apartheid, including the conditions of service, relations with employers themselves. An important work that explores the oppression of women by women, it draws attention to the story of the poor. Examining the race, class, and gender dynamics that posit domestic workers in their societal position, the study looks at the way that domestic workers are placed in their society due to apartheid laws, sexism, racism, and the power dynamics within their employers' homes. Much attention was paid to the exploitation of black women by white women. Cock asserts that domestic labor does not exist specifically for economic reasons, but as an important social status marker that has been normalized within white South Africa.

Khan, Quarraisha (1992) looks at the day-to-day conditions of domestic workers' lives and relates them to their health. The many occupational hazards are explored, such as stress related disorders and injury from monotonous daily activities or harsh cleaning agents. The health hazards resulting from the poverty in which they live are also discussed—conditions of squatter camps, vulnerability to rape and theft, the double burden of housework for employers and their own families. The chapter ends with a look ahead to reform measures that can be taken to change the domestic workers' situation for the better.

Glenn (1992) observes 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.

Hickson, Joyce and Martin Strous (1993) gives a brief description of the social position of domestic workers and the material inadequacy they face both inside and outside their employers' homes. It describes the psychological place of the domestic worker as “in-human in the eyes of their employer,” and the effects of that mentality. The issue of mental health services for domestic workers was discussed, placed in the

already inadequate frame of South African mental health services. The article gives a psychological perspective on the sociological impacts of oppression. The target audience was mental health professionals, and recommendations are made in order to remedy the problems discussed.

Piereete Hondagneu-Sotelo (2001) observes that domestic work was undervalued as an occupation in our society, probably because it is seen as “women’s work”. As more and more families have both parents working outside the home, domestic work has become a growth industry in many U.S. metropolitan areas. For the most part, it employs an invisible and unregulated workforce of non English-speaking immigrant women. The entry point for domestic employment was usually the live- in position, which provides childcare and usually housekeeping. Given these working conditions, most workers look for live-out situations. Live-out childcare workers may face similar problems, but at least they can leave at the end of the day. Long hours, lack of privacy and freedom, low pay and other less tangible attacks on dignity make live-in work the least desirable position in the domestic employment chain. Hondagneu- Sotelo stresses that employers of domestic workers should be educated about their duties under the Fair Labour Standards Act, and pay overtime and other taxes. Domestic employees have a right to know the expectations of the employer, to be treated with dignity, and to enjoy their right as workers to a living wage and benefits.

Murugaiah (2002) has analyzed occupational risk of domestic servants in Tirupathi selection grade Municipality in Andhra Pradesh. The risk areas include high level of insecurity, deplorable wages, long working hours, etc.

Neetha (2004) reported that although domestic work has brought higher incomes to many women and their families it was still far from decent work being characterized by long working hours, low wages and hardly any social security.

Cauvery and Sudhan Nayak (2005) assessed the gender poverty nexus with reference to female domestic servants in Salem. Primary data were collected from 300 female respondents engaged in domestic work through personal interview method. A significant proportion (75 percent) of the respondents had come from urban areas and 45.67 percent had secured jobs on their own account. The major push factor had been a

desire to earn additional income (66.33 percent). Lack of skills, heavy physical work of different types, and long hours of work with limited payment, lack of guarantee of minimum wages, lack of jobs security and lack of minimum facilities at workplace are the major problems faced by these women. Despite these constraints the women preferred this job because it permits flexibility in working hours. Though these women enjoyed a low percapita income, if one monetizes the real benefits they receive through meals and other perks, the percapita income seems to be at par with their counterparts in the organized sector.

Melante Jacquemim (2009) in her study demonstrated the diverse nature of the “little domestics” phenomenon in West Africa. These little domestics have entered into interpersonal work relationships, where submission was created by direct supervision and which was reinforced by the private nature of their work. They start work at a very young age and have legal or social protection. They do about 11 to 16 hours of repetitive, often difficult and at times excessive work per day and get two weekends off.

Examining the working condition of maids in Federal District of Brasilia, Nunes and Theodoro (2010) observed that about 50 percent of them are employed by the middle class or upper middle class. The lives of domestics reveals that many live in extremely precarious fashion, face high transport cost to get to and from work, were poorly paid with no possibilities for promotion, work 8 hours per day and entered the labour market at a very early age.

The 99th Session of the International Labour Conference (2010) observe that today, domestic workers make up a large portion of the workforce, especially in developing countries, and their number has been increasing even in the industrialized world. Domestic work, nonetheless, was undervalued and poorly regulated, and many domestic workers remain overworked, underpaid and unprotected. Accounts of maltreatment and abuse, especially of live-in and migrant domestic workers, are regularly denounced in the media. In many countries, domestic work was very largely performed by child labourers. This state of affairs was due in part to the fact that paid domestic work remains virtually invisible as a form of employment in many countries. Domestic work does not take place in a factory or an office, but in the home. The employees are not male

breadwinners, but overwhelmingly women. They do not work alongside other co-workers, but in isolation behind closed doors. Their work was not aimed at producing added value, but at providing care to millions of households. Domestic work typically entails the otherwise unpaid labour traditionally performed in the household by women. This explains why domestic work was undervalued in monetary terms and was often informal and undocumented. It tends to be perceived as something other than regular employment, as not fitting the general frame work of existing labour laws despite the fact that its origins go back to the “master-servant” relationship. As a result, the domestic employment relationship was not specifically addressed in many legislative enactments, thus rendering domestic workers vulnerable to unequal, unfair and often abusive treatment. The report advocates the adoption of specific international labour standards that promote decent work for domestic workers, including social protection.

James Chamberlain (2010) in his paper explores, explain, and critique the work experiences and political activism of some of the most socially exploited and abused workers in the United States. As a preliminary step he sketched an outline of the demographics of paid domestic laborers, showing that the vast majority are women of color and immigrants from the global South, and pointed to some of their more common negative work experiences. These highlight the operation of sexist and racist stereotypes in the selection of women of color for employment and in their negative treatment once at work, and draw attention to the key role of immigration and employment law in constructing and perpetuating domestic labourers vulnerability to abuse and exploitation at work and in denying them to organize for fairer labor standards.

Saima Nazir (2011) investigated the causes of Migration of Domestic Workers and to investigate the issues and problems of migrant domestic workers. The present study was conducted in the areas of University of Agriculture, Faisalabad, in District Faisalabad. From District Faisalabad a town Lyallpur was selected through simple randomly technique from the four towns of Faisalabad. The sample of 150 respondents was selected conveniently. Results indicate that majority of female domestic workers work more than eight hours within one house but they are exploited and deprived from

their proper wages. However, a strong linkage between internal migration and higher social, economic status, better living conditions and children education was found.

John (2012) reported within India, many women and children domestic workers are vulnerable or continue to suffer other kinds of abuses in violation of their human rights. Inside the home of their employers, where there are no checks and controls in place they do not have protection against employers or other members of the family who exploit and sexually, physically and psychologically abuse them. Activists and researchers have regularly pointed out that women workers face discrimination in the form of non-recognition as workers, inequality of wages and denial of rights, especially in the unorganized sector. The constantly changing urban scenario, with evictions and displacement, has affected their life, livelihood and, in turn, their dignity. The challenge, then, is to involve workers, unions and workers organizations, employers and the state in this debate to identify steps to address the issues.

Darael and Mohajery (2012) undertook a qualitative and quantitative study aiming at describing the problems of female domestic workers, the relationship of their employers with them, and exploring the impact of socioeconomic status mainly, occupation, education, and income on life satisfaction. The study used ethnographic observation and in-depth interview over a 4 year period in Mysore. The quantitative research was guided by convenience sampling technique selecting 125 (65 domestic workers, 60 employers) samples. The results of the study indicate that domestic workers suffer from various problems inside and outside their homes. The relationship between domestic workers and employers was a master–servant relationship. Domestic workers remain as an unorganized job group though in 2004 the Karnataka Minimum Wage Act was passed. The quantitative findings reveal that there was a positive correlation between socioeconomic status and life satisfaction.

Madhumathi (2013) conceptualizes domestic services as major informal sector activities which assume importance due to transformations in class relations and the development of new life style combined with unprecedented mobility of labour. The development of the city attracted many more people for the menial jobs. The case of women domestic workers in Bangalore shows that migration for domestic service was

largely a female driven phenomenon from within the state[from other districts] and from neighboring states, like Tamilnadu, Kerala, Andhra Pradesh for the menial jobs where migration was primarily due to employment availability of women. Findings reveal that the conditions of work in domestic service are deplorable with long working hours, low pay and absence of job security. They also face various problems at the work place, which include over work load, minimal pay or no pay for extra work, absence of leave facility, no rest, sexual harassment by male employers etc.

RELATED STUDIES

Bourdieu (1984) reported that 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.

Hondagneu- Sotelo, (1993) uses the case of paid domestic work in Los Angeles to argue that affluent and middle-class members of U.S society constitute important participants in the informal economy. In-depth, tape-recorded interviews conducted with thirty-five employers of nannies and house cleaners, and survey responses of 154 Latin house cleaners and nannies shows that compliance with government regulations, as indicated by payment of Social Security, Medicare and federal tax withholding, are rare. Affluent citizens may not directly depend on informally generated income, but as employers of paid domestic workers and nannies, they do depend on informally organized and remunerated services. Employers of paid domestic workers rely on three major narrative strategies to distance themselves from the regulations, arguing that the standards should be followed by certain categories of people (attorneys, celebrities, and the very wealthy) that the regulations apply only to those employing full-time help, and that the regulations are illegitimate because both undocumented workers and the state lack legitimacy. These rationalizations allow them to simultaneously condemn Zoe Baird and yet follow the same practice. Upgrading the occupation requires state support and the education of employers. This process would lead to greater recognition of paid domestic work as an occupation, one that merits the protections and regulatory guidelines governing other jobs.

Smith (2000) documented history of unionism amongst domestic workers was 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 was “an occupational oddity that defies organization”

Cancedda (2000) analyzed that (migrant) domestic worker 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 estimate are available 50-80 percent of the cleaning in private households were working in undeclared jobs.

Smet (2000) stated that interrogated demand for cleaning service was necessarily complex, and messier than simply ascribing a value to it. There was a notable lack of literature on demand specifically for cleaning services inside the home but it has been recognized as increasing. She concluded that domestic workers who are paid but not declared... have a considerable impact on the black economy. This form of work, which was hidden and not easily quantifiable, provides a significant proportion of women with a source of income which was not subject to any form of state control.

Lazar, Eva Doreen (2000) provides first a critical analysis of the domestic service sector, drawing up on both cross-national literatures related to slavery, as well as a number of neo-Gramscian concepts. Third, within this new framework, this dissertation presents the findings of dozens of interviews with domestic workers, employers, government officials, union officials, and church workers, carried out in the Johannesburg region in 1997. Finally primary data was integrated with a textual analysis of the new labour legislation in South Africa. The findings of this dissertation suggest that while domestic workers remain on the margins of South Africa's new social contract, there was evidence that a movement towards transformative politics in this sector may be possible in the near future.

Ray (2000) argued in his paper that domestic workers in Calcutta, and indeed, in

India, was individualized, unorganized, and made familial. Unions are either not interested in organizing these workers or give up after initial efforts. Given this, and the extreme stigmatization of this occupation, it was not surprising that these domestic workers minimize their identities as workers and instead think of themselves as men and women, mothers and fathers, husbands and wives, daughters and sons. These are not, however, the only alternate identities that domestic servants can choose. In other parts of India, where there are powerful political parties and organizations representing lower castes (such as in the state of Bihar), domestic workers could make their caste identities primary. In Calcutta, domestic workers, by and large, lack caste or class representation.

Bridget Anderson (2001) reiterates that domestic labour was not just another paid job. It differs from other forms of paid work in its very nature, and this makes a contractual relationship very problematic. This is because it involves turning not only the workers labour power, but also their personal identity into commodities to be bought. First the practical aspects of caring cannot be clearly detached from caring in an emotional sense. Second, paying for domestic work enables an employer to assert power and superiority over the domestic work in private households highlights the fact that it was not possible to understand work in isolation from the worker.

Wing Suen (2002) observe that domestic servants and a woman's own time are in substitutes in the household production process. The demand for servants increases with the woman's market wage, her non-wage income and the presence of young children in the family. A Bivariate Probit model using data from Hong Kong suggests that women who participate in the labor force have a 0.008 higher probability of having servants than women who are not in the labor force participation than women with no servants. In households that use market-procured domestic help, the presence of young children was found to have no negative effect on female labor force participation.

Linda Delp and Katie Quan (2002) examine the challenges facing California homecare workers in their historic struggle to unionize from the 1980 through the 90s in terms of three inter-related components namely: 1) grassroots organizing, 2) changing policy at the state and county level and 3) working in coalition with group of senior and disabled care recipients critical to their ultimate success. They found that the organizing

of homecare workers in California was and continued to be a tremendous achievement. The long-range strategy of using grassroots organizing as a foundation, policy change as a tool, and coalition building as leverage enabled the union to succeed against overwhelming odds. Although the union still faces serious challenges in raising wages and providing benefits, by integrating this new workforce into its existing structure, and continuing the coalition with consumers, it has proven its ability to overcome obstacles by adopting creative strategies that address complex issues. The efforts of the workers, consumers and staff organizers, have contributed new ideas and fresh inspiration to all those involved in rebuilding the economic and political clout of the labor movement.

Bothma, Martin and Celeste Campher (2003) investigate the impact of a minimum wage for domestic workers on employment levels. A comparative analysis of two surveys undertaken in a Bloemfontein suburb challenges the Minister's statement that the newly announced minimum wage for domestic workers in South Africa was not only affordable but very realistic. The analysis indicates that the demand for domestic workers was decreasing and that minimum wages could aggravate the situation. The wages of domestic workers vary not only between areas, but also within areas. Therefore, if job losses occur rural and full-time domestic workers will be most affected. COSATU's proposal that minimum wages should not be set according to geographical differentials, but according to work performed, seems meritorious.

ILO (2004) 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"

Galotti (2004) 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.

Ford (2004) described that with cross-national unionization rates in the domestic service sector at barely 1 percent (ILO, 2004), domestic workers are not only unorganized, but widely regarded as ‘unorganisable’.

According to Lutz (2005) there was 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 and single parents, for young urban professionals as well as for the elderly and invalid”.

Arreeba Hamid (2006) argues that while domestic workers are covered by the legislative framework in many countries, in India they stand excluded from national legislations that deal with minimum wages, dispute settlement, conditions of work, social security and workplace injuries. This study draws upon the findings of a research project of the National Domestic Workers Movement that was conducted between February 2010 and February 2011. It sets out the definition of domestic work as a conceptual issue that is necessary for understanding domestic work and explores the constitutional and employment law framework and the challenges in legislating for this sector. It concludes with exploring ways of reducing the gap between law and practice.

Elizabeth Frantz (2008) analyzes the social, economic, and political factors influencing the market for foreign domestic worker in Jordan and describes how demand has been fueled by changes in class formation and kinship. It focuses on the largest group of domestic workers in Jordan and Sri Lanka and draws on extensive fieldwork in Sri Lanka as well as Jordan. The article explores the dynamic relationships between domestic workers and the families who employ them, arguing that an essential strategy used by both groups involves the construction of relations of dependency. The article also chronicles Sri Lankan migrants ‘experiences’, suggesting that there are meaningful cohorts, which are differentiated by age, length of stay, and place of residence, that have distinct experiences, attitudes to the host country, and homeward orientations. The use of Christian worship and conversion as coping strategies are also described. The author argues that several factors relating to the ways paid domestic work are managed by the state,

recruiting agencies, and employers have hindered collective action for workers' rights. In the absence of other forms of activism, faith-based networks fill the void providing essential support to migrants in need.

Eric Morgan (2010) observes that domestic workers suffered from social stigma and sometimes racial inferiority. Saddled with the persistent belief that house work was the natural occupation of women and the perception that domestic work symbolized servility and racial inferiority, domestic workers lacked liberty of contract and the bargaining power to demand higher wages and better working conditions. Attempts to organize into unions, while initially successful, failed. While progressive reformers tried to emphasize the business relationship that existed between domestic workers and their employers, they neglected to push for legal reform. All of their reforms, like domestic science education and contracts, were voluntary. Legislators and courts forgot that domestic work was a true form of work; legislators and courts clung to the mistaken belief that women truly belonged in the home. As a result, protective labor legislation ignored domestic work and courts and legislators did not recognize domestic workers as having either unlimited or limited liberty of contract because domestic work was the natural work of women, especially women of color who were racially inferior.

Kayoko Ueno (2010) examines how the identities of migrant domestic workers are likely to be endangered and how these individuals struggle to reconstitute them. It is largely based on an interview and observational study with Indonesian and Filipina domestic workers in Singapore. The study reveals how each migrant domestic worker manages her identity in her specific social context. This study shows that domestic workers contrive tactics to negotiate their situations, given that domestic work is considered a low prestige occupation and workers tend to be divested of the usual "identity kit" to make up their identity front. Specifically, to compensate for their discredited status, domestic workers attempt to reconstitute their damaged identity, obtain a new identity kit, recall previous social and family roles, or anticipate a future identity. They also attempt to acquire new skills and increase their value, so they can identify themselves as more than "just a maid." They obtain additional roles in an attempt to change how they feel about themselves, to alter the meaning of being a domestic worker,

and to redefine their relationships with others either by individual struggles or through collective activities. This study also points out a possible pitfall of identity management among the actors. The mechanism of identity politics might lead to an erosion of value, alienation from other domestic workers, and a strengthening of conventional stereotypes and generalizations regarding ethnicity, nationality, and gender.

Conclusions:

To sum, the earlier studies have focused on the life and problems of women domestic workers. Most of these studies have been done in western countries and a few studies have done in Indian conditions. The present study focuses on analyzing not only the employment and living condition of women domestic workers, but also on the level of satisfaction and the problems these workers face at their work place.

CHAPTER- III

METHODOLOGY

The methodology for the present study is discussed under the following heads:

- I. Locale of the study
- II. Selection of the sample
- III. Data base of the study
- IV. Period of the study
- V. Techniques of analysis
- VI. Limitations of the study

I. Locale of the study

Coimbatore, the third largest city of Tamil Nadu, is also an important district of the State. Due to the presence of several textile industries, it is sometime referred to as the textile capital of South India or the 'Manchester of the South'. The district city is situated on the banks of the river Noyyal. The total area of the district is 7469sq.kms which is divided into three revenue divisions, nine taluks, 19 blocks and 482 revenue villages. The district is an inland district in the southern part of the peninsula. It lies, between 10°10' – 11° 36' northern latitude and 76° 46 – 77° 36' eastern longitude, on the extreme west of Tamilnadu. It is surrounded by the Niligris in the western and south western side, Erode district in its northern and Dindigul district in its eastern side. It shares part of its boundaries with neighbouring state of Kerala.

Population of this district is 3472578 of which 1735362 are males and 1737216 are females (Census, 2011). The sex ratio as per 2011 census is 1001. The total rural population in the district is 839408 and urban population is 2820203. Scheduled castes and scheduled tribes' accounts for 13.8 percent and 0.66 percent of the total population.

The total workers in the district are 19.78 lakhs, of which male workers are 13.76 lakhs. The total main workers are 18.95 lakhs, of which 13.75 lakhs are males and 5.20 lakhs are females. The non workers are 22.93 lakhs of which 8 lakhs are males and 14.93 lakhs females (Census 2001). The literacy rate of the district is 68.27 percent, with male literacy being 55.5 percent and female literacy 44.5 percent.

Over the years, the number of women entering the labour market is on the rise in India and Coimbatore is no exception. Majority of these women are engaged in informal sector where jobs are often low paid and repetitive. Among all categories in the informal sector, earnings of domestic workers are the lowest and their problems are many. Employments of domestic workers have become very common in the urban areas of the city where a large number of house wives are employed. Besides working women, housewives also engage domestic workers to carry out household chores partly due to physical inability and partly due to lack of time. Further the changing life styles have also increased the demand for servants.

Thus, the domestic workers employed in household labour are playing a significant role especially in urban areas in India. It is difficult to gauge the exact number of women in the occupation as the workers in this category have not been enumerated in the Census. In this context, an attempt is made to examine the level of women labour participation in domestic services in Coimbatore city along with their socio-economic conditions. Hence, Coimbatore city was selected as the area of study.

II. Selection of the Sample

The universe of the study consisted of all women who were working as domestic workers in three areas namely Kavundampalayam, Saibaba Colony and Selvapuram within Coimbatore city. From this universe 75 domestic workers were selected by adopting purposive sampling technique as not all the women domestic workers were willing to cooperate with the investigator, and due to time constraints. Hence, the investigator approached only those women who were willing to cooperate and supply the needed information. Further only those women workers who were employed to carry out

specific task/ tasks assigned to them and go away when the specified work is over, were included as sample in the study.

III. Data base of the Study

Relevant and required data for the present study were collected from primary source by administering an interview schedule to the selected women domestic workers. The interview schedule was first pre-tested to check for clarity and specificity and the necessary modifications were made on the basis of the experience gained during pre-testing. The finalized schedule used in the study is given in Annexure I.

IV. Period of Study

The field investigation and data collection for the study was carried out during the period November, 2012- January 2013.

V. Techniques of Analysis

Data collected were tabulated and analysed for giving precise and concise information. Besides, percentages and graphs, the following tools were used.

Physical Quality of life Index (PQLI)

The living conditions of the domestic workers were analysed by constructing PQLI. The first step in constructing the index was the identification of indicators having a bearing on the quality of life, and then assigning weights to these indicators and the estimation of composite index for each household. The indicators considered in the study are not exhaustive yet have impact on the quality of life in general. Table 3.1 presents details of the indicators used and the pattern of weights adopted.

To estimate the composite index, weights of each indicator for each household are added and the total was divided by number of indicators.

TABLE 3.1**INDICATORS OF PHYSICAL QUALITY OF LIFE AND THEIR WEIGHTS**

S.No	Indicators	Weight
1	House Owned Rented	1 0
2	Type of house Kutchu house Semi-Pucca house Pucca house	1 2 3
3	House electrified or not Yes No	1 0
4	Source of drinking water facility Public tap Private tap	1 2
5	Separate area for cooking Yes No	1 0
6	Cooking fuel Firewood Kerosene Gas	1 2 3
7	Type of latrine Open place Public latrine Private latrine	1 2 3
8	Separate area for washing Yes No	1 0
9	Nature of drainage Closed Open	1 0

Based on the value of the composite index, the households are classified into three categories as given below.

- Less than 50 percent : poor
- 50-75 percent : good
- Above 75 percent : very good

Garrett's Rating Scale

To determine the order of merit of the motives for taking up the work of domestic servants, the respondent were asked to rank the various reasons. The ranks were converted into percent position by using the following formula:

$$\text{Percent Position} = \frac{100 (R_i - 0.5)}{N}$$

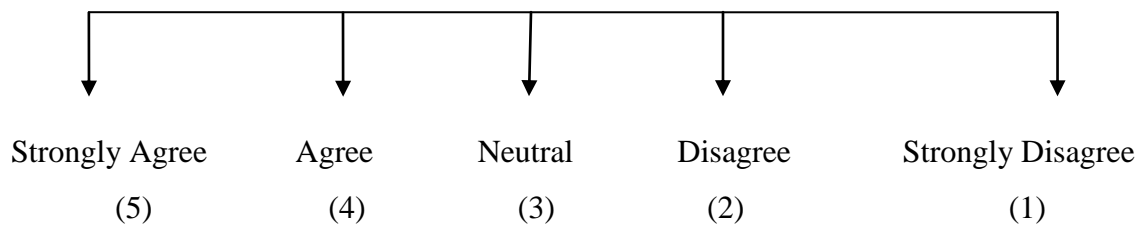
where R_i is the rank given by the i^{th} respondent for the reasons for taking up the job and N is the number of items ranked. Based on percent position, the individual scores were determined, on a scale of 100, by using Garrett' scoring table. (Garrett, 2005).

Multiple Regression Analysis

Multiple regression analysis was used to analyse the determinants of monthly earnings of domestic workers and their food expenditure. The coefficient of determination and 't' values were computed to verify the extent of variation and the level of significance of the independent variables.

Likert's Summated Scale

The Likert's Summated Scale was used to scale the characteristics of job satisfaction and problems at workplace. In the Likert scale, the respondent was asked to respond to each of the statements in terms of five degrees of agreement or disagreement.



Each point on the scale carries a score. Response indicating the least favourable degree of satisfaction is given the least score (say 1) and the most favourable is given the highest score (say 5). This way the instrument yields a total score for the respondents

which would then measure the respondents' favourableness towards the given point of view.

Factor Analysis

Factor analysis is a multivariate statistical analysis whose objective is to define the underlying structure in the data matrix. Broadly speaking, it addressed the problem of analyzing the structure of interrelationship (correlation) among a large number of variables by defining a set of underlying dimensions known as factors. Once these dimensions and the explanation of each variable are determined, the two primary uses for factor analysis, namely summarization and data reduction can be achieved. In summarizing the data, factor analysis derives underlying dimensions that, when interpreted and understood, describe the data in a much small number of concepts than the original individual variables.

Factor analysis was used in the present study to identify the underlying pattern of relationship between the various dimensions of job satisfaction and problems at work place and whether these factors can be grouped in terms of a composite variable.

VII Limitations of the Study

- The primary data was collected using memory recall method which has memory bias particularly in the case of illiterate and semi-literate population.
- Besides memory lapses, deliberate under-statement, over-statements or erosion of information may have affected the quality and reliability of the data collected.
- Above all, the findings and conclusions could only be applicable to similar set of socio-economic situations.

But these limitations in no way negate the findings of the study and offer scope for further research in future.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The major findings of the study are presented and discussed under the following heads:

- I. Socio-economic profile of the selected respondents
- II. Living conditions
- III. Employment details
- IV. Expenditure, Savings, Debt and Assets Holdings
- V. Job satisfaction
- VI. Problems at work place.

I. Socio-Economic Profile of the Selected Respondents

In the traditional and structured society, socio-economic factors play a significant role in shaping the personality and characteristics of an individual. Hence, to develop a proper perspective analysis, all the components of social and economic environment must be considered. The general notion is that the social environment is a combination of factors such as religion, caste, family structure, marital status, size of family and age, while economic environment is made up factors such as education, occupation, income and expenditure. A clear insight into the socio-economic factors is of paramount significance to establish the influence of these factors on the life and activities of the respondents. The socio-economic characteristics of the respondents are presented in the table 4.1

Religion and Caste

Religion is playing an important role in shaping the attitude and behavior pattern of the people. Caste has been a peculiar feature of Indian society defining the status of its member on the basis at birth as also prescribing the corresponding rates. Data pertaining

TABLE-4.1**SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROFILE OF THE RESPONDENTS (in percentage)**

S.No.	Particulars	Proportion of Respondents
1	Religion: Hindu Muslims Christians	89.3 6.7 4.0
2	Caste: Scheduled Caste Scheduled Tribe Most Backward Caste Backward Caste	38.7 2.7 6.7 52.0
3	Type of family: Nuclear Family Joint Family	98.7 1.3
4	Marital Status: Married Widow	90.7 9.3
5	Family Size: 1-4 5 and above	86.7 13.3
6	Average size of the Family (in numbers)	2.49
7	Age of the Respondents: 20-30 Years 30-40 Years 40 Years and above	42.7 36.0 21.3
8	Education: Illiterate Primary School Middle School Higher secondary	2.7 41.3 44.0 12.0
9	Family Income (in Rs): Less than 5000 Rs.5000-10,000 Rs.10,000 and above	9.3 54.7 36.0
10	Average Family Income (in Rs)	9044

Source: Based on field survey, 2012-13.

to the religion of the respondents unravel that majority (89 percent) of the sample respondents, owned allegiance to Hindu religion, 7 percent of the sample respondents were Muslims and the remaining 4 percent of the sample respondents were Christians. Thus the surveyed samples were predominantly Hindus.

Caste wise, among the surveyed population, the largest single group (52 percent) was backward caste. The next important group was Scheduled caste (39 percent), followed by Most Backward caste (7 percent) and Scheduled tribes (3 percent). Thus the respondents were mostly from the Hindu community belonging to backward community.

Type of Family

Family in India has been changing very fast. Most of them like to live in nuclear family consisting of husband, wife and their unmarried children. Among the surveyed population 99 percent respondents belonged to nuclear family and the remaining 1 percent respondent belonged to joint family. Thus, nuclear family was predominant feature among the households of domestic workers.

Marital Status

Marriage is an important event particularly from the stand point of additional burden of responsibility on the marriage partner to pull together as constituent of a new family. Marriage brings about a number of changes in the attitude and behavior patterns of the people, especially from the point of view of engaging in gainful economic activities yielding income and providing opportunities for independent expenditure. Information relating to marital status highlights that majority (91 percent) of the respondents was married and about (9 percent) were widows.

Family Size

Household size assumes significance since in a large household, the pressure of meeting the economic burden of household expenses forces women to enter the labour market to add to all overall income of the family. Information gathered regarding the size of the households of the respondents highlights the single largest groups of households (87 percent) of domestic servants have been formed by those having 4 or less numbers and 13.3 percent of the households have been formed by more than 4 members. The average size of the family was 2.49. Thus, majority of the respondents were adopting small family norms.

Age

Data pertaining to the age composition of the domestic servants reveals the main concentration of the respondents were in the age group of 20-30 years. It is interesting to note that there was none below 18 years and the percentage of women domestic workers above the age of 40 years was (21 percent). However the demand for active adults was on the rise among the employers with more than ¾th of the respondents belonging to the active age group of 20-40 years.

Educational Status of Respondents

Education not only creates knowledge and understanding but also generates attitude and behaviour patterns and thereby plays an important role in all kinds of decisions, Information concerning the highest level of education of the respondents unravels that 44 percent of the domestic servants had completed middle school. About (41 percent) of them had completed primary education and 12 percent had higher education. It is interesting it note that only a negligible proportion (3 percent) of the domestic workers were illiterate. Thus the general educational status of the female domestic workers was quite low.

Total Family Income

Level of income is an important indicator of economic welfare. The analysis of the total income of the respondents reveals that (55 percent) of the households had monthly family income of Rs 5000-Rs 10,000, (36 percent) were earning Rs.10, 000 and above In terms of economic status, (91 percent) of the respondents enjoyed a household income of Rs 5,000and above and only (9 percent) domestic workers reported lowest family income of less than Rs 5000. The average income of all the respondents taken together was Rs.9044.

II. Living conditions

Housing includes not only the physical structure providing shelter but also the immediate surroundings and the related community services and facilities. In the present study, the quality of a house is assessed in terms of ownership of the house , types of

house, number of rooms, availability of electricity, separate rooms for cooking, toilet facilities, types of toilet, availability of washing area and drainage facilities. Table 4.2 present details on the living arrangements of the selected sample respondents.

**TABLE 4.2
DETAILS OF LIVING CONDITIONS**

(In percentage)

S.No.	Particulars	Proportion of Respondents
1	Ownership of the House: Own	35.5
	Rented	64.5
2	Type of House: Semi -pucca	60
	Pucca house	40
3	Number of Rooms: One room	36
	Two rooms	44
	Three rooms	16
	4 or more rooms	4
4	Availability of Electricity: Yes	100
	No	0.0
5	Type of Fuel used: Firewood	6.7
	Kerosene	26.7
	LPG	66.6
6	Source of Drinking Water: Private Tap	20
	Public Tap	80
7	Separate room for Cooking: Yes	42.7
	No	57.3
8	Availability of Toilet Facilities: Yes	100.0
	No	0.0
9	Types of Toilet: Private toilet	40
	Service latrine	60
10	Availability of Washing area: Yes	100.0
	No	0.0
11	Drainage Facility: Closed	100.0
	Opened	0.0

Source: Based on Field survey, 2012-13

The details on the ownership of the dwelling revealed that 65 percent of the domestic workers lived in rented houses and the remaining 35 percent of the respondents lived in own houses.

Housing facilities are generally grouped into three categories namely kachcha, semi- pucca and pucca. A house which has walls and roofs made up of non- pucca materials like unburnt bricks, bamboo, mud, grass leave, etc is regarded as kachcha house. A pucca house is one whose walls and roofs are made up of pucca materials like cement, concrete, burned bricks, stone etc. A house which cannot be classified as a pucca or kachcha is categorized as a semi-pucca house. Such a house will have either the wall or roof but not both made up of pucca materials. The analysis of type of residential houses reveals that majority (60 percent) of domestic servants lived in semi- Pucca houses and the remaining 40 percent of the workers were living in Pucca houses. Thus the housing condition of the domestic workers was partially better off.

Nearly 36 percent of the respondents were living in houses which had one room, around 44 percent of the respondents were living in houses which had two rooms, 16 percent were living in houses which had three rooms and only 4 percent of the respondents were living in houses with more than 4 or more rooms. The smaller area of living indicates the poor economic status of the respondents.

Availability of electricity, type of the fuel used, availability of drinking water and type of latrine are some of the other indicators that influence environmental status. Most of the variables are the determinants of the housing condition also. All the respondents were living in electrified houses. Around 67 percent of the respondents were using LPG for cooking, 27 percent used kerosene and only 7 percent respondents were using fire wood. The increased use of LPG may be attributed to the governmental assistance of supplying the gas connection to below poverty- line families.

All the respondents had access to safe drinking water and the major source of drinking water was public tap for 80 percent of the domestic workers. The next important source was private tap for 20 percent of the respondents. Thus the respondents were mainly dependent on public water taps for meeting their water requirements.

The condition of public sanitation was reasonably good for the respondents. About 60 percent of the respondents have access to service latrine and the remaining 40 percent had private toilet facilities.

All the respondents have access to separate washing area and the drainage system was closed for all the respondents. Thus, the domestic workers were living in hygienic surrounding.

Physical Quality of Life Index (PQLI):

Under the constitutional provision, the government is committed to provide basic amenities like housing, safe drinking water, electricity, etc which will enable the marginalized group in the society to improve their quality of life. Hence an attempt was made to measure the Physical Quality of Life Index (PQLI). The first step in the estimation of PQLI is to identify the various indicators having a bearing on quality of life. Then assign weights to these indicators and then estimate the composite index for each household. The indicators considered here are not exhaustive, yet have an impact on the quantity of life in general, viz,

- House owned or rented
- Type of house
- House electrified or not
- Type of Fuel used
- Type of latrine
- Source of drinking water facility
- Separate room for Cooking
- Cooking fuel
- Availability of Washing area
- Drainage Facility

Weights are assigned to the above listed Indicators (details are presented in chapter III). To estimate the composite index, weights of each indicator for each household are added and the total was divided by number of indicators.

Based on the value of the composite index, the households are classified into three categories as given below.

- Less than 50 percent : poor
- 50-75 percent : good
- Above 75 percent : very good

Table 4.3 and figure 4.1 give the details of the score obtained by the sample household.

TABLE 4.3

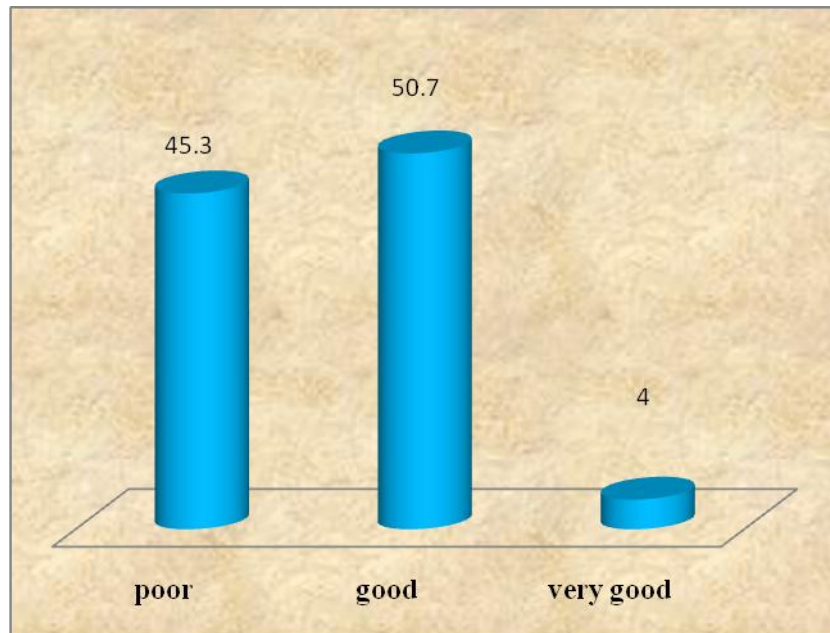
DISTRIBUTION OF HOUSEHOLDS ON THE BASIS OF PQLI

S.No.	Particulars	Number	Percentage
1.	Poor	34	45.3
2.	Good	38	50.7
3.	Very Good	3	4.0
	Total	75	100.0

Source: Estimation based on field survey, 2012-13.

FIGURE-4.1

DISTRIBUTION OF HOUSEHOLDS ON THE BASIS OF PQLI



A perusal of the table reveals that the percentage of households classified as good was maximum (51 percent), closely followed by poor (45 percent) and only 4 percent of the households were classified as very good. Thus the concentration of the households in the lower range of the PQLI indicates that the living condition of the households was quite low. However, it is encouraging to note that a substantial proportion of the households had good quality of life. Both the Government of India and the State Government have accorded high priority to human development via the

provision of basic services like provision of electricity, free supply of LPG connection, provision for drinking water, etc., in time bound manner. The results of the survey show that the efforts in this regard have facilitated an improvement in the quality of life of a large group of marginalized women.

III. Employment Details

Age of entry

Age of entry into a job is an indicator of the organized nature of an occupation. The informal sector is well- known for its lapses on this account and it is often characterized by loose norms in matters of allowing young children to work. Table 4.4 shows the age of entry of women into labour force as domestic servants

TABLE 4.4
AGE OF ENTRY OF WOMEN INTO LABOUR MARKET

S.No.	Age at entry	Number of Respondents	Percentage
1	20-25	12	16.0
2	25-30	29	38.7
3	30-35	19	25.3
4	35 and above	15	20.0
	Total	75	100.0

Source: Based on Field survey, 2012-13.

Among the 75 domestic workers surveyed, majority (39 percent) had entered the job at the age of 25-30 years, 25 percent at the age of 30-35 years, 20 percent at the age of 35 and above and 16 percent at the age of 20-25. It is heartening to note that none of the respondents had entered the job at a very young age of 18 years and below. The age distribution reveals that it was motivation to support their family and the ease of entry that may have induced the respondents to enter the domestic labour market.

Mode of Recruitment

The recruitment of the domestic workers may be done either through employer's own effort or through worker's own effort or neighbour's effort or fellow worker's effort. Table 4.5 shows the mode of recruitment of the sample respondents.

TABLE 4.5

MODE OF RECRUITMENT OF DOMESTIC WORKERS

Mode of Recruitment	Percentage of Workers
Own effort	57.3
Neighbour's effort	42.7
Total	100

Source: Based on Field survey, 2012-13.

A significant percent of the domestic servants (57 percent) have secured their jobs on their own efforts. Neighbours efforts had secured jobs for 43 percent of the workers. The increasing demand for domestic workers among the growing urban population has facilitated these groups of workers to secure the job easily without depending on other's efforts.

Rationale for Entering the Job

An understanding of the labour-market forces should necessarily take into account the prevailing push factors motivating women to enter into domestic services. Sarkar (2004) observes that women were forced to do this job to feed their family. Given their low educational background there are no alternative ways to earn money. For 4/5th percent of the workers it was economic compulsion which made them take the job as domestic maids.

In the present study, the respondents were asked to rank the reasons for choosing the job and rank were converted into percent position by using the formula:

$$\text{Percent Position} = \frac{100 (R_i - 0.5)}{N}$$

where R_i is the rank of the i^{th} item and N refers to the number of items ranked. The percent position was converted into score by using Garrets' Rating scale and the average score obtained for differential reasons are tabulated and presented in table 4.6

TABLE.4.6
AVERAGE SCORE OBTAINED FOR REASONS FOR CHOOSING THE JOB

Rationale	Average score	Ranks
Low income of the spouse	62.67	1
To earn additional income	55.39	3
Sole bread winner	51.39	4
To save money for children's education/marriage	47.48	6
Financial independence	58.24	2
Easy availability of job	40.08	7
Family history	48.48	5
Financial difficulties	38.52	8

Source: Estimation based on field survey, 2012-13.

The major push factors has been 'low income of the spouse' (1st Rank), followed by 'financial independence' (2nd Rank), 'to earn additional income' (3rd Rank), and 'sole bread winner' (4th Rank), since the women were not skilled enough to take up specific jobs, 'family history' (5th Rank) was another significant factor motivating women to take up the job of domestic workers. The other reasons in their order of priority were 'to save money for children's education/ marriage' (6th Rank), 'easy availability of job' (7th Rank), and 'financial difficulties' (8th Rank). Thus, economic compulsion was the main reason behind the respondents for taking the job as domestic workers.

Work Load Pattern

The work load naturally consisted of assisting the house wife in normal chores like sweeping and mopping, washing dishes, washing clothes, cooking and dusting the houses. In some cases chopping vegetables, washing bathrooms, ironing clothes, caring for children, shopping were additional duties assigned to domestic workers. In most cases it was a combination of some of these that constituted the work load pattern. The work load pattern of the selected respondents is shown in table 4.7

TABLE 4.7

WORK LOAD PATTERN OF THE SELECTED RESPONDENTS

S.No.	Nature of work	Number of servants
1	Sweeping &Mopping	61 (81.3)
2	Dishes	39 (52.0)
3	Washing clothes	28 (37.3)
4	Cooking only	6 (8.0)
5	Dusting	0.0 (0.0)
6	Chopping vegetables	17 (22.7)
7	Washing Bathrooms	0.0 (0.0)
8	Folding/ Ironing clothes	0.0 (0.0)
9	Taking care of children/elderly people	0.0 (0.0)
10	Shopping	0.0 (0.0)

Source: Based on field survey, 2012-13.

Figures within parenthesis indicate percentage to total respondents

The domestic servants were engaged in multi-tasking activities. About 81 percent of them were engaged in sweeping and mopping the house. About 52 percent were employed in washing dishes and 37 percent were employed in washing clothes. Around 23 percent were engaged in chopping vegetables and only 6 percent were engaged in

cooking. Thus the work pattern indicates a combination of household duties and the employment of the domestic workers were mostly for cleaning utensils, cleaning the houses and washing clothes in combination with some other duties.

Working Hours

A major reason for women preferring this type of job was the flexibility in working hours. Yet it could also mean exploitation through a long work day. Hence the hours of work was considered to gauge the extent of work burden on women and the details are presented in table 4.8

TABLE 4.8
WORKING HOURS OF THE DOMESTIC SERVANTS

S.No.	Hours per day	Number of servants
1	1-5	66 (88.0)
2	5-10	9 (12.0)
	Total	75 (100.0)

Source: Based on field survey, 2012-13.

Figures within parenthesis indicate percentage to total.

A statutory work day stretches for 10 hours a day. In the present study the sample group was working for a maximum of 10 hours a day with significant variations in the hours of the work between the sample groups. Among the domestic workers about 88 percent worked for 1-5 hours a day, followed by 12 percent for 5-10 hours a day. Thus, the majority of the domestic workers reported a slightly lower hours of work.

Number of houses served

For domestic servants the day invariably stretches from not only one household work to another but also between households too. The number of the households to be served by the workers depends not only on physical capability of the individual. But also on the economic status of their family. Low wages often compels these women to work in

more than two households to earn something extra to support their family. Table 4.9 shows the numbers of houses served by the respondents.

TABLE 4.9
NUMBER OF HOUSEHOLD SERVED BY DOMESTIC SERVANTS

Number of Household served	Number of servants
1	0 (0.00)
2	56 (74.7)
3	19 (25.3)
Total	75(100.0)

Source: Based on field survey, 2012-13.

Figures within parenthesis indicate percentage to total

Majority (75 percent) of the domestic workers served in 2 households at a time and the remaining 25 percent of the workers served in 3 households per day. Part-time nature of their work and the desire to earn more may have motivated these women to accept work in two or more houses.

Daily Distance commuted

Domestic servants were found to commute daily to work place. Normally, they come from nearby locality. The daily commuting distance of the domestic servant has been shown in the table 4.10.

TABLE 4.10
DAILY COMMUTING DISTANCE OF DOMESTIC WORKERS

Distance	Number of servants
0-1 km	75 (100.0)
2 km or more	0.0 (0.0)
Total	75 (100.0)

Source: Based on field survey, 2012-13.

Figures within parentheses indicate percentage to total

Majority (100 percent) of the domestic maids resided in nearby locality. Easy access to the place of work helped the respondents to work in two or three houses. Their residence being very close to their place of work, the respondents did not have to spend any money on transportation. All of them travelled by foot to reach their place of work.

Work Experience of Domestic Workers

Domestic workers continue to work in the same households over a long period of time, though at times they are forced to leave if the employer moves house or, in a few cases, when employer does not increase wages. A worker working over a long time period might have a combination of older and newer households, while a relatively new worker will have a different profile. Table 4.11 shows the work experience of the surveyed respondents.

TABLE 4.11
WORK EXPERIENCE OF DOMESTIC WORKERS

S.No.	Year of Experience	Number of servants
1	Less than 5	12 (16.0)
2	5-10	29 (38.7)
3	10-15	19 (25.3)
4	15 and above	15 (20.0)
	Total	75 (100.0)

Source: Based on field survey, 2012-13.

Figures within parenthesis indicate percentage to total

Majority (39 percent) of the respondents had work experience of 5-10 years. The proportion of respondents having work experience of 15 years and above was 20 percent. The respondents with less than 5 years were 16 percent and about 25 percent had the work experience of 10-15 years. Thus, the new entrants into domestic service industry were quite negligible and a significant proportion of the selected respondents have been in this field for quite sometimes.

Monthly Earnings

For domestic workers, minimum wages is an alien word. The wages paid to these workers are not determined by economic criteria. The wages paid for the same quantum of work varied from one household to that of other. Table 4.12 shows the monthly earnings of the domestic servants.

TABLE 4.12

MONTHLY EARNINGS OF DOMESTIC WORKERS

S.No.	Monthly Earnings (in Rs)	Number of servants
1	Less than 1000	7 (9.3)
2	1000-2000	50 (66.7)
3	2000-3000	16 (21.3)
4	3000-5000	2 (2.7)
	Total	75 (100.0)
	Average Monthly income (in Rs)	2138.67

Source: Based on field survey, 2012-13.

Figures within parenthesis indicate percentage to total

Majority (67 percent) of the domestic servants were earning between Rs.1000-2000 per month. The proportion of the workers earning Rs.2000-3000 per month was 21 percent. Only 9 percent of the domestic workers were earning less than Rs.1000. On an average the monthly earnings of the domestic servants were RS.2138.67. This was clearly not sufficient to maintain an adequate standard of living in the city like Coimbatore.

Determinants of Monthly Earnings

To determine the influence of selected variables on monthly earning of the respondent, multiple regression analysis was used. The explanatory variables included in the analysis were hours of work and number of houses worked. The monthly earnings of the domestic workers are assumed to increase with the increase in the hours of work and the number of houses worked. The functional relationship between wages and the hours

of work and the number of houses worked were estimated by applying the ordinary least square method and the estimated results are shown in table 4.13.

TABLE 4.13

DETERMINANTS OF MONTHLY EARNINGS OF DOMESTIC WORKERS

Variables	Regression co-efficient	Standard error	t ratio	Level of Significance
Constant	-574.562	480.790	-1.195	0.236
Hours of Work	645.165	78.023	8.269	0.000
Number of Houses served	235.279	233.076	1.009	0.316
Model Fit	$R^2 = 0.577$ F ratio = 49.181*			

Source: Estimation based on Field Survey, 2012-2013.

*significant at one percent level

Dependent variable: Wages per month.

The explanatory power of the model as indicated by R^2 was quite high, (0.577) indicating that nearly 57 percent of the variance in the dependent variable was explained the independent variables, namely, hours of work and number of houses served. The F ratio was significant at one percent level implying that the model showed good fit. Both the regression co-efficient were positive implying the positive effects of hours of work and number of houses on monthly earnings. However, elasticity co-efficient of hours of work alone was found to be statistically significant at one percent level. Thus the single most important variable explaining variations in monthly wages was hours of work.

Other Monetary Benefits

As domestic work involves more of personal relationships, payments are sometimes paid in kind than in cash. In addition to wages, some domestics receive pecuniary benefits such as clothes old as well as new, allowances and donations for festivals and other occasions and food. These are found to supplement the wage income,

which is most important form of compensation. A large number of domestic workers were found to receive old clothes from their employers. But once in a year, on a particular festival, they are also given new clothes. Besides, domestic servants also receive medical expenses, interest free loan and advance for children's education/marriage. Table4.14 shows the percentage of workers enjoying these benefits and the average amount received.

TABLE 4.14

MONETARY BENEFITS ENJOYED BY DOMESTIC WORKERS

S.No.	Type of benefits	Percentage of Respondents	Average amount (in Rs)
1	Bonus	100.0	1393.33
2	Festival advances	100.0	961.54
3	Medical expenses	88	198.98
4	Interest free loan	0.0	0.0
5	Advances for children's education/marriage	2.6	2250.0
6	Clothes during festival time	100.0	606.0

Source: Based on field survey, 2012-13.

Figures within parentheses indicate percentage to total

All the respondents received bonus, clothes and advances during festival times, with the maximum amount (Rs.1393) for bonus, followed by festival advances(Rs.962) and clothing (Rs.606) While 88 percent of the domestic workers received money to meet medical expenses, only 3 percent of them received advances for children's education/marriage and none were given interest-free loans. Thus, the major privileges enjoyed by the domestic workers were bonus, advances and clothes during festival times.

Availability of Refreshment and Food at work place

It is rationale that maids should get refreshment like tea, breakfast, lunch etc at work place, irrespective of the nature of work. Table4.15 shows the refreshment and food provided to domestic workers by employers.

TABLE 4.15

REFRESHMENT AND FOOD PROVIDED BY EMPLOYERS

Type of refreshment	Number of servants
Tea/coffee	7 (9.3)
Breakfast with tea	30 (40.0)
Lunch	2 (29.3)
Breakfast & lunch	16 (21.3)

Source: Based on field survey, 2012-13.

Figures within parenthesis indicate percentage to total

Among the respondents, 40 percent enjoyed breakfast with tea, 29 percent got lunch, 21 percent got breakfast and lunch and the remaining 9 percent were provided tea / coffee only. Thus, all the surveyed domestic workers were provided with some refreshment at their place of work.

Paid leave

Perhaps the most controversial issue which is the bone of contention in the informal sector was issue of leave or absence from work. Organized sector has achieved norms in this respect. However, the segment of informal sector is untouched with no provisions for official holidays unless it is obtained with permission. Table 4.16 shows the distribution of respondents with reference to the leave availed by them.

TABLE 4.16

PAID HOLIDAYS ENJOYED BY DOMESTIC WORKERS

S.No.	Number of days	Number of Workers
1	1 day	10 (13.3)
2	2 days	26 (34.7)
3	3 days	23 (30.7)
4	4 or more days	16 (21.3)
	Total	75 (100.0)

Source: Based on field survey, 2012-13.

Figures within parenthesis indicate percentage to total

While a majority of domestic workers (35 percent) availed 2 days of paid holiday, about 31 percent of the domestic workers were able to avail 3 days of leave and about 21 percent of them were able to avail 4 or more days of leave and only 10 percent availed one day leave. Thus, nearly one-half of the respondents were able to avail two-three days of the paid holidays.

IV Expenditure, Savings and Debt

In this section an attempt is made to examine the expenditure pattern, savings behaviour and incidence of indebtedness of the sample respondents.

Household Expenditure Pattern

Household expenditure refers to the consumption expenditure incurred by the household on food and non-food items such as clothing, housing, fuel, medicine, education etc. The consumption expenditure is generally used as yard stick for measuring the standard of living in developing nations. Table 4.17 and figure 4.2 shows the average expenditure pattern of the selected respondents for various items of expenses.

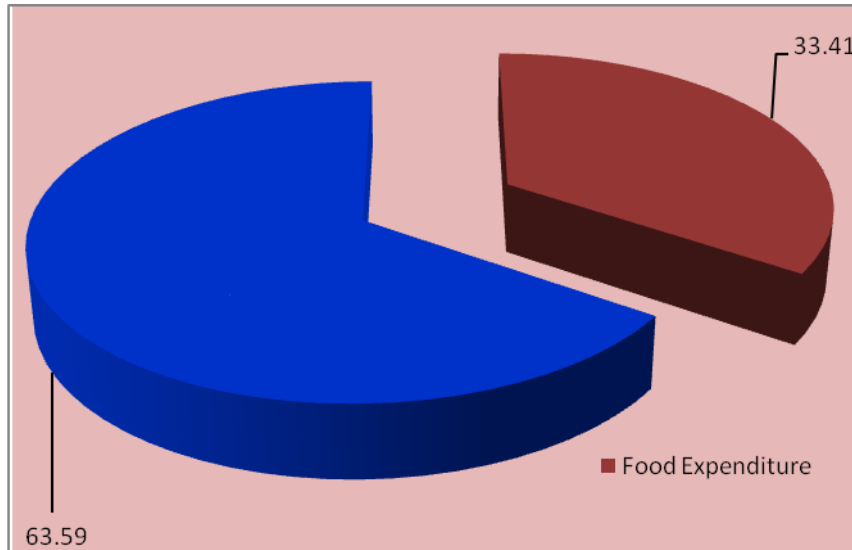
TABLE 4.17

AVERAGE EXPENDITURE PATTERN OF THE DOMESTIC WORKERS

S.No	Items of Expenditure	Average amount (in Rs./ month)	Percentage
1	Food	1663	33.41
2	Rent	750	15.07
3	Clothing	376	7.55
4	Fuel and Light	426	8.56
5	Education	1186	23.82
6	Festivals/ Entertainment	247	4.96
7	Medicine	173	3.48
8	Transport	157	3.15
	Total	4978	100.0

Source: Estimation based on field survey, 2012-13.

FIGURE-4.2
EXPENDITURE PATERN OF DOMESTIC WORKERS



The share of food expenditure was lower than non-food expenditure for the sample households, with the ratio being 33:67. Item-wise break-up of expenditure reveals that single most important item of expenditure was food (33 percent) for all the respondents, followed by education, accounting for 24 percent of the total income and rent 15 percent. For the remaining items of expenses it was less than 10 percent. It is interesting to note that domestic workers were spending a significant portion of their income on the education of their children. Their awareness on the significance of education in ensuring a better future for their children may have induced them to spend more on education.

Determinants of Food Expenditure

Since Engle's classic work in 1857, the relation between income and food expenditure has attracted considerable attention. Besides income, explicit inclusion of household size in the specification of Engle's curve has been emphasized by Paris and Houthekkar (1955). They argued that family size and food expenditure was significantly

correlated and exclusion of family size would bias the results. Hence in the present study, to identify the determinants of food expenditure the following functional form:

$$\text{Log } E_i = \alpha + \beta \log Y_i + \eta \log N_i + U_i$$

where E_i represents food expenditure i^{th} domestic workers, Y_i the total income of the i^{th} worker, and N_i family size of the i^{th} worker and α , β and η are the elasticity co-efficients and U_i the random term. The estimated results are shown in table 4.18.

TABLE 4.18

DETERMINANTS OF FOOD EXPENDITURE AND LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE

S.No.	Variables	Regression Co-efficient
1	Total Income	0.746 * (5.105)
2	Family size	0.259 ** (2.301)
3	$R^2 = 0.609$	F ratio = 20.912*

Source: Estimation based on Field survey, 2012-13.

Dependent variable: Total food expenditure.

* and ** significant at 1 percent and 5 percent level.

Figures within parentheses indicate t ratios.

The R^2 value, measure of goodness of fit, was 0.609 implying that nearly 61 percent of the variations in food expenditure were explained by total income and family size. The F ratio was significant at one percent level indicating the model showed good fit. The regression co-efficient of both income and family size was positive and significant implying that a unit increases in family income and family size would cause food expenditure to increase by 0.75 and 0.259 units respectively. The elasticity co-efficient of family income was higher than family size indicating that income had greater impact on expenditure than family size. The above findings substantiate the Engle's law of consumption and the theories put forward by Paris and Houthekkar.

Saving Behaviour

Savings are essential for the meeting the challenges of adversities. It generally depends upon the number and nature of various sources of earnings of the households. With increased earnings the incidence of saving is also likely to be higher. Along with income, savings are also an important indicator of economic status of households. Table 4.19 furnishes the details on the saving behavior of the sample households.

TABLE 4.19

SAVINGS PATTERN AMONG THE DOMESTIC SERVANTS

Particulars		Percentage of Workers
Number of workers:	With savings	41.3
	Zero savings	58.7
Sources of savings:	Chit funds	19.35
	Post office	12.90
	LIC	25.81
	Bank	41.94
Amount of savings (in Rs) :	Less than 500	41.94
	600-1000	38.71
	1100-3000	19.35
Average amount of Savings (in Rs)		908.06
Reasons for savings:	Future	51.61
	Children's education/marriage	48.39

Source: Based on field survey, 2012-13.

The analysis of the savings behavior of the surveyed group reveals that about (41 percent) of the domestic workers had savings. The proportion of non-savers was more about 59 percent. Low wages may be a reason for a large proportion of the workers not being able to save. The main source of savings was bank for 42 percent of the respondents, followed by LIC (26 percent), Chit Funds (26 percent) and Post office (19 percent). The amount of savings also varied with majority (42 percent) saving less than Rs 500 per month, followed by 39 percent saving between Rs. 600-1000 and 19 percent saving between Rs.1100-3000. Majority (52 percent) had stated that the main reason for

savings was to provide for future and the remaining 48 percent have stated the motivation to be to provide for their children's education/ marriage.

Incidence of Indebtedness

Poverty and indebtedness generally go together. Low income coupled with lack of proper employment induces these households to borrow to meet both current expenditure and also unforeseen expenditure. The details of the debt pattern are shown in table 4.20.

A study of indebtedness among the domestic workers reveals that the proportion of borrowers was around (39 percent). Inadequacy of income coupled with indiscriminate spending may have induced the domestic workers to resort to increased borrowings. However, it is heartening to note that the proportion of non-borrowers (61 percent) was more than borrowers (39 percent). The main source of borrowings for domestic workers was from private money lenders (48 percent) and employees (35 percent) for meeting their financial needs. Another important source of borrowing was banks (17 percent). The increasing dependence on non-formal source of finance may be attributed to the ease of borrowing when compared to banks.

TABLE 4.20**INCIDENCE OF INDEBTEDNESS AMONG DOMESTIC WORKERS**

Particulars	Percentage of Domestic Servants
Number of households	
(i) Borrowers	38.7
(ii) Non-borrowers	61.3
Source of borrowing	
(i) Banks	17.24
(ii) Employers	34.48
(iii) Private money lenders	48.28
Amount borrowed (in Rs)	
(i) Less than 5000	24.14
(ii) More than 5000	75.86
Average debt (in Rs)	6517
Average amount outstanding (in Rs)	3698
Reasons for borrowing	
(i) Children's education	6.89
(ii) Marriage	44.83
(iii) Medical	48.28

Source: Based on Field Survey, 2012-13.

Majority of the domestic servants (76 percent) had borrowed more than Rs. 5000. The average liability per worker was Rs.6517 and the average amount outstanding was Rs.3698. Thus, the amount borrowed was high for more than three-fourth of the respondents.

The important reason for borrowings among workers was 'to meet medical expenses' (48 percent), followed by marriage which was stated by nearly (45 percent) of the respondents and children's education (7 percent). Thus the reasons for borrowings differed among the workers. Poor health and the high cost of hospitalization may have prompted the respondents to borrow money to meet these expenses.

Asset Holding

Poverty is directly related to the lack of access to productive assets. It is generally agreed that increasing the access of the poor to the productive assets will prove a viable strategy for poverty alleviations. A large number of people in the informal sector are without assets or with grossly inadequate assets. Table 4.21 shows the details of the assets owned by the respondents

TABLE 4.21

ASSETS OWNED BY THE RESPONDENTS

S.No	Assets	Percentage of Domestic Workers
1	Productive assets	
	i. Land	36.0
2	Consumer durable:	
	i. House	36.0
	ii. Television	100.0
	iii. VCR/DVD	72.0
	iv. Two-in-one	44.0
	v. Watch	100.0
	vi. Mixie	56.0
	vii. Grinder	56.0
	viii. Two-wheeler	44.0
	ix. Cycle	44.0
	x. Gold	75.0
	xi. Silver	90.0
	xii. Furniture	56.0

Source: Based on Field Survey, 2012-13.

The asset holdings of the domestic workers reveal that only 36 percent of the workers possessed land. With regard to the possession of other consumer durable assets, all the workers had television and watches. The possession of T.V can attributed to the governmental scheme of distributing free TV to all households. The other important assets possessed by the workers include silver (90 percent), gold (75 percent), VCR/VCD (72 percent), mixie (56 percent), Grinder (56 percent), furniture (56 percent), two-wheeler (44 percent) and cycle (44 percent). Only 36 percent of the respondents had invested in own house. Thus the domestic workers showed greater preference for unproductive assets than productive assets.

V. Job Satisfaction among Domestic Workers

Job satisfaction is a global affective that an individual holds about their job/work. It has different dimensions /facets. Examinations of these facets are useful for a careful examination of employee's satisfaction with critical job factors which include working conditions, nature of work and benefits, supervision, etc. Hence an attempt was made to examine the level of satisfaction experienced by the respondents with respect to the different facets of their jobs which include monetary benefits, non-monetary benefits and working conditions. Hence in the present study the benefits enjoyed by domestic services were identified and the respondents were asked to state their opinion on a five point scale, namely, strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree. The responses were given the weights as 5,4,3,2 and 1. Cronbach's Alpha test, conducted for all constructs to determine the internal consistency across items, was found to 0.741, exceeding the minimum alpha of 0.7 (Nunnally, 1978). This indicates good reliability of all items.

Having established the consistency of the items, factor analysis was used to identify the underlying pattern of relationship between the various dimensions of benefits. To determine the underlying structure, the correlation matrix was initially examined to determine how appropriate it was for factor analysis. The Kaiser - Meyer - Oklin (KMO) value was 0.739, which was higher than the recommended minimum of 0.6 (Kaiser, 1974) indicating the sample size was adequate for applying factor analysis. In addition Bartlett's test for sphericity ($\chi^2 = 343.063$) was significant supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix and the associated significance level was extremely small (0.00). The communalities for each variable was assessed to determine the amount of variance accounted by the variables to be included in the factor rotations and all the variables had values greater than 0.50 signifying substantial portion of the variance are accounted by the factors. Table 4.22 enlists the Eigen value, their relative explanatory powers and factor loadings for 11 linear components identified within the data set.

TABLE-4.22**ROTATED COMPONENT MATRIX- JOB SATISFACTION**

S.No	Job Satisfaction	Components		
		1	2	3
1	Adequate wages	0.832		
2	Adequate Bonus		0.728	
3	Monetary help during emergency			
4	Extra payment for extra job			0.746
5	No payment for extra leave			
6	Adequate leave			
7	Permission to take extra leave during emergency			
8	Adequate leave facility			0.832
9	Employer treat you as a family	0.946		
10	Adequate leisure time		0.788	
11	No interference in job performance	0.870		
Eigen values		3.966	1.793	1.325
Percentage of variance		36.058	16.298	12.043
Cumulative percentage		36.058	52.356	64.399

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis, Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization, Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Source: Estimation based on Field Survey

The Eigen value for the first three factors was greater than one indicating these factors alone were appropriate for inclusion in the analysis. These three factors together accounted for nearly 64 percent of the variations in the factors. Factor one had significant loadings on three dimensions, namely, ‘adequate wages’, representing monetary benefit and ‘employer treat you as a family member’ and ‘no interference in performance of job’ together representing better working environment. The first factor accounted for nearly 36 percent of the variations. Factor two had significant loadings for two dimensions, namely,

'adequate bonus' (monetary benefits) and 'adequate leisure time' (working environment) and together accounted for nearly 16 percent of the variance. Factor three had significant loadings on two dimensions, namely, 'extra payment for extra work' (representing monetary benefit) and 'adequate leave' (representing non-monetary benefit) and account for 12 percent of the variance. Thus the major factors which gave a greater job satisfaction were monetary benefits in the form of adequate wages, adequate bonus and extra payment for extra job; good working environment in the form of being treated as a family member and no interference in job performance and non-monetary benefit in the form of adequate leave facility.

VI. Problems at Work Place

Earlier studies have highlighted the problems of women in informal sector. An analysis was carried out in the present study to assess the nature of problems women domestic workers face at their work place. The respondents were asked to state their views on the problems they face at their work place as either 'strongly agree', 'agree', 'neutral', 'disagree' or 'strongly disagree'. Using Likert's Summated Rating Scale technique, the scores were assigned as 5,4,3,2 and 1 respectively. Cronbach's Alpha test, conducted for all constructs to determine the internal consistency across items, was found to 0.788, exceeding the minimum alpha of 0.7 (Nunnally, 1978). This indicates good reliability of all items.

Having established the consistency of the items, factor analysis was done to identify the underlying pattern of relationship between various dimensions of problems at work place and whether the problems can be grouped in terms of composite variable. KMO statistics and Bartlett's test measure was used to determine the appropriateness of applying factor analysis. KMO statistics was found to be 0.663, which was higher than the recommended minimum of 0.6 (Kaiser,1974) indicating the sample size was adequate for applying factor analysis. In addition Bartlett's test for sphericity ($\chi^2 = 161.266$) was significant supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix and the associated significance level was extremely small (0.00). The communalities for each variable was assessed to determine the amount of variance accounted by the variables to be included in the factor rotations and all the variables had values greater than 0.50 signifying

substantial portion of the variance are accounted by the factors. Table 4.22 enlists the Eigen value, their relative explanatory powers and factor loadings for 15 linear components identified within the data set.

The Eigen value for the first seven factors alone was greater than one indicating these factors alone were appropriate for inclusion in the analysis. These seven factors together accounted for nearly 70 percent of the variations in the factors. Factor one had significant loadings on two dimensions, namely, 'delay in payment of wages/ bonus' (monetary issues) and 'treated as menial worker' (working environment). The first factor accounted for 16 percent of the variance. Factor two had significant loadings on three dimensions, namely, 'wage cuts for exceeding permitted leave' (monetary issues), 'no job security' (work-related issues) and 'lack of facilities at work place' (working environment) and accounted for nearly 12 percent of the variance. Factor three had significant loadings for two dimensions namely, 'inadequate wages' (monetary issues) and 'insufficiency of leave' (work-related issues) and explains nearly 11 percent of the variance. Factor four had significant loadings on two dimensions namely, 'dominating attitude of

TABLE-4.23

ROTATED COMPONENT MATRIX-PROBLEMS AT WORK PLACE

S.No	Problems	Component						
		I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII
1	Inadequate Wages			0.729				
2	Inadequate Bonus							0.867
3	Delay in Payment of Wages/Bonus	0.734						
4	Wage cuts for exceeding permitted leave		0.739					
5	No pay for extra leave							
6	Long hours of work							
7	Strenuous job/heavy physical work				0.683			
8	Sexual harassment by male employees							
9	Treated as menial worker	0.805						
10	Dominating attitude of employers				0.849			
11	Hostile attitude of employers						0.839	
12	Lack of Facilities at work place		0.651					
13	No job security		0.749					
14	Insufficiency of leave			0.644				
15	No paid leave without permission					0.881		
Eigen Value		2.4	1.773	1.613	1.428	1.176	1.118	1.017
Percentage of Variance		16.0	11.818	10.754	9.520	7.838	7.452	6.777
Cumulative percentage		16.0	27.818	38.572	48.092	55.93	63.382	70.159

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis, Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization, Rotation converged in 18 iterations.

Source: Estimation based on Field Survey

employers' and 'strenuous job/ heavy physical work', together representing working environment and explains nearly 10 percent of the variance. Factor five had significant loadings on one dimensions namely, 'no paid leave without permission' representing work-related issues and explains nearly eight percent of the variance. Factor six had significant loadings on one dimensions namely, 'hostile attitude' (working environment) and accounts for nearly eight percent of the variance. Lastly, seven had significant loadings on one dimensions namely, 'inadequate bonuses' (monetary issues) and explains nearly seven percent of the variance. The major problems were monetary issues (delay in payment of wages/ bonus, wage cuts for exceeding permitted leave, inadequate wages and inadequate bonuses), working environment (treated as menial worker, lack of facilities at work place, dominating attitude of employers, strenuous job/ heavy physical work and strenuous job/ heavy physical work') and work-related issues (no job security, insufficiency of leave and no paid leave without permission). Hence by enhancing the working environment, solving work-related issues and ensuring adequate monetary rewards the dissatisfaction level of the domestic workers can be lowered.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Domestic service is becoming a major and growing informal sector activity in the urban areas, especially in big cities. The increased importance of domestic service has been seen as a result of transformations in class relations and the development of new life style combined with unprecedented mobility of labour. The new middle class has seemingly developed a life style which has increased the demand for domestic service. The sources of supply of domestic workers have also changed over time, with new classes and groups entering into the service. Domestic work was largely a male job in the post-independence period as men dominated rural –urban migration [Mehta, 1960]. Overtime, domestic service has become more feminised. The lack of any former skill and training requirement and the flexibility in employment are some of the factors, which ensure a regular and increasing inflow of domestic workers. They are being employed generally for household tasks which include washing utensils and clothes, fetching water, sweeping and cleaning house along with a few outdoor tasks like irregular marketing, grocery shopping, ration drawing and even childcare activity. In fact, many of these women are looking after more than one household and spend more time and work far more for their employer's than work in their own household. It is found that among all categories in the informal sector, domestic servants' income is the lowest and the problems are many (Sundaram, 1966). Most of them live in slums, lead a monotonous life without any colour, struggle every day for their survival and face a numerous problems in their day to day life like long hours of work, insecurity regarding jobs, low status within the house as well as in the outside world (Gathia, 1983). Under this situation, there arise certain questions such as what sort of people engaged in domestic service relations? What is the background of domestic servants? And which are the socio economic factors responsible for choosing these occupations and thus earning low wage income.

Not many studies have analyzed the socio-economic status of domestic women servants and problem faced by them. In many studies the focus has been on women' participation in agricultural and allied activities often erroneously considered to be the

only form of paid work available to women of lower strata (Sarkar, 2004). Domestic work contributes substantively to type of employment and generation of earnings for many women. The present study is an attempt to examine the socio-economic profile of domestic workers, their employment patterns and identify the job satisfaction and the problems at work place.

Objectives

The specific objectives of the study are:

- To analysis the socio-economic profile and living conditions of the women domestic workers.
- To examine the employment and wage structure of domestic workers.
- To analyse the consumption, saving and debt behavior of the domestic workers.
- To probe the job satisfaction level of the domestic servants.
- To examine the problems faced by domestic servants at work place.

Hypothesis

In the course of the study, the following hypotheses were examined:

- Domestic workers were mainly from marginalized group and their living conditions were poor.
- Economic compulsion is the main reason for taking the job as domestic workers.
- Domestic workers had high propensity to consume and low saving potential.
- Domestic workers were satisfied with monetary benefits and treatment meted out to them by their employers.
- Minimal pay or no pay for extra work, absence of leave facility and verbal harassment at work were the major problems faced by domestic workers.

Methodology

The required data was collected from primary sources by administering a pre-tested questionnaire to 75 respondents residing in Kavundampalayam, Saibaba Colony

and Selvapuram within Coimbatore city. The respondents were selected by adopting purposive sampling technique as not all the women domestic workers were willing to cooperate with the investigator, and due to time constraints. Hence, the investigator approached only those women who were willing to cooperate and supply the needed information. Further only those women workers who were employed to carry out specific task/ tasks assigned to them and go away when the specified work is over, were included as sample in the study. The field investigation and data collection for the study was carried out during the period November, 2012- January 2013. Data collected was analysed by using techniques like, Physical Quality of Life Index, Garrett's rating scale, multiple regression analysis, Likert's summated scale and factor analysis.

Empirical Findings

The major findings of the study are summarized below:

- ❖ The surveyed samples were predominantly Hindus, belonging to backward caste and were from nuclear family.
- ❖ Majority (90.7 percent) of the respondents was married and about (9.3 percent) were widows. The average size of the family was 2.49, signifying the adoption of small family by the sample respondents.
- ❖ The main concentrations of the respondents (43 percent) were in the age group of 20-30 years and there was none below 18 years. The demand for active adults was on the rise among the employers with more than ¾th of the respondents belonging to the active age group of 20-40 years.
- ❖ The general educational status of the female domestic workers was quite low with nearly 4/5th of the domestic workers completing middle school and three percent being illiterate.
- ❖ In terms of economic status, 91 percent of the respondents enjoyed a household income of Rs 5,000 and above and only 9 percent domestic workers reported lower family income of less than Rs 5000. The average income of all the respondents taken together was Rs.9044.

Living conditions

- ❖ About 65 percent of the domestic workers lived in rented houses and the remaining 35 percent of the respondents lived in own houses.
- ❖ Majority (60 percent) of domestic servants lived in semi- Pucca houses and the remaining 40 percent of the workers were living in Pucca houses.
- ❖ Nearly 36 percent of the respondents were living in houses which had one room and around 44 percent of the respondents were living in houses which had two rooms. The smaller area of living indicates the poor economic status of the respondents.
- ❖ All the respondents were living in electrified houses and round 67 percent of the respondents were using LPG for cooking. The increased use of LPG may be attributed to the governmental assistance of supplying the gas connection to below poverty- line families.
- ❖ All the respondents had access to safe drinking water and the major source of drinking water was public tap for 80 percent of the domestic workers. Thus the respondents were mainly dependent on public water taps for meeting their water requirements.
- ❖ About 60 percent of the respondents have access to service latrine and the remaining 40 percent had private toilet facilities.
- ❖ All the respondents have access to separate washing area and the drainage system was closed for all the respondents. Thus, the domestic workers were living in hygienic surrounding.
- ❖ The distribution of the household on the basis of PQLI reveals that the percentage of households classified as good was maximum (51 percent), closely followed by poor (45 percent) and only 4 percent of the households were classified as very good. Thus the concentration of the households in the lower range of the PQLI indicates that the living condition of the households was quite low.

Employment Details

- ❖ Majority (39 percent) had entered the job at the age of 25-30 years, 25 percent at the age of 30-35 years, 20 percent at the age of 35 and above and 16 percent at the age of 20-25. None of the respondents had entered the job at a very young age of 18 years and below.
- ❖ A significant percent of the domestic servants (57 percent) have secured their jobs by their own efforts. The increasing demand for domestic workers among the growing urban population has facilitated these groups of workers to secure the job easily without depending on other's efforts.
- ❖ The major push factors has been 'low income of the spouse' (1st Rank), followed by 'financial independence' (2nd Rank), 'to earn additional income' (3rd Rank), and 'sole bread winner' (4th Rank). Thus, economic compulsion was the main reason behind the respondents for taking the job as domestic workers.
- ❖ The work pattern indicates a combination of household duties and the employment of the domestic workers were mostly for cleaning utensils, cleaning the houses and washing clothes in combination with some other duties.
- ❖ Among the domestic workers about 88 percent worked for 1-5 hours a day, followed by 12 percent for 5-10 hours a day. Thus, the majority of the domestic workers reported a slightly lower hours of work.
- ❖ Majority (75 percent) of the domestic workers served in 2 households at a time and the remaining 25 percent of the workers served in 3 households per day. Part-time nature of their work and the desire to earn more may have motivated these women to accept work in two or more houses.
- ❖ Majority (100 percent) of the domestic maids resided in nearby locality. Easy access to the place of work helped the respondents to work in two or three houses.
- ❖ Majority of the (39 percent) respondents had work experience of 5-10 years. The proportion of respondents having work experience of 15 years and above

was 20 percent. The respondents with less than 5 years were 16 percent. Thus, the new entrants into domestic service industry were quite negligible and a significant proportion of the selected respondents have been in this field for quite sometimes.

- ❖ Majority (66.7 percent) of the domestic servants were earning Rs.1000-2000 per month. On an average the monthly earnings of the domestic servants were RS.2138.67. This was clearly not sufficient to maintain an adequate standard of living in the city like Coimbatore.
- ❖ The functional relationship between wages and the hours of work and the number of houses worked estimated by using multiple regression analysis revealed that the single most important variable explaining variations in monthly wages was hours of work. The regression co-efficient was positive and significant implying the positive effects of hours of work on monthly earnings.
- ❖ The major privileges enjoyed by the domestic workers were bonus, advances and clothes during festival times. All the respondents received bonus, clothes and advances during festival times, with the maximum amount (Rs.1393) for bonus, followed by festival advances (Rs.962) and clothing (Rs.606).
- ❖ Among the respondents, 40 percent enjoyed breakfast with tea, 29 percent got lunch, 21 percent got breakfast and lunch and the remaining 9 percent were provided tea / coffee only. Thus, all the surveyed domestic workers were provided with some refreshment at their place of work.
- ❖ Nearly one-half of the respondents were able to avail two-three days of the paid holidays.

Expenditure, Savings and Debt

- ❖ The share of food expenditure was lower than non-food expenditure for the sample households, with the ratio being 33:67. Item-wise break-up of expenditure reveals that single most important item of expenditure was food (33 percent) for all the respondents, followed by education, accounting for 24 percent of the total income and rent 15 percent.

- ❖ The regression of both family income and family size on food expenditure reveals that both income and family size was positive and significant implying that a unit increase in family income and family size would cause food expenditure to increase by 0.75 and 0.259 units respectively. The elasticity coefficient of family income was higher than family size indicating that income had greater impact on expenditure than family size. The above findings substantiate the Engle's law of consumption and the theories put forward by Paris and Houtheekar.
- ❖ The analysis of the savings behavior of the surveyed group reveals that about (41 percent) of the domestic workers had savings, with the proportion of non-savers being more (59 percent). Low wages may be a reason for a large proportion of the workers not being able to save.
- ❖ The main source of savings was bank for 42 percent of the respondents and a majority (42 percent) of the respondents was saving less than Rs 500 per month.
- ❖ Majority (52 percent) had stated that the main reason for savings was to provide for future and the remaining 48 percent have stated the motivation to be to provide for their children's education/ marriage.
- ❖ The proportion of borrowers was around 39 percent, with the proportion of non-borrowers being 61 percent. Inadequacy of income coupled with indiscriminate spending may have caused the domestic workers to resort to increased borrowings.
- ❖ The main source of borrowings for domestic workers was from private money lenders (48 percent) and employees (35 percent) for meeting their financial needs.
- ❖ Majority of the domestic servants (75.86 percent) had borrowed more than Rs. 5000. The average liability per worker was Rs.6517 and the average amount outstanding was Rs.3698.

- ❖ The important reason for borrowings among workers was ‘to meet medical expenses’ (48.28 percent), followed by ‘marriage’ which was stated by nearly 44.83 percent of the respondents and children’s education (6.89 percent). Poor health and the high cost of hospitalization may have prompted the respondents to borrow money to meet their expenses.
- ❖ The asset holdings of the domestic workers reveal that only 36 percent of the workers possessed land. With regard to the possession of other consumer durable assets, all the workers possessed television and watches, followed by silver (90 percent), gold (75 percent), VCR/VCD (72 percent), mixie (56 percent), grinder (56 percent), furniture (56 percent), two-wheeler (44 percent) and cycle (44 percent). Only 36 percent of the respondents had invested in own house. Thus the domestic workers showed greater preference for unproductive assets than productive assets.

Job Satisfaction and Problems at Work Place

- ❖ Factor analysis was used to identify the underlying pattern of relationship between the various dimensions of benefits shows that the major factors which gave a greater job satisfaction were monetary benefits in the form of adequate wages, adequate bonus and extra payment for extra job; good working environment in the form of being treated as a family member, and no interference in job performance and non-monetary benefit in the form of adequate leave facility.
- ❖ Factor analysis to identify the problems of domestic workers showed that the major problems were monetary issues (delay in payment of wages/ bonus, wage cuts for exceeding permitted leave, inadequate wages and inadequate bonuses), working environment (treated as menial worker, lack of facilities at work place, dominating attitude of employers, strenuous job/ heavy physical work and strenuous job/ heavy physical work?) and work-related issues (no job security, insufficiency of leave and no paid leave without permission). Hence by enhancing the working environment,

solving work-related issues and ensuring adequate monetary rewards the dissatisfaction level of the domestic workers can be lowered.

Conclusion

Domestic service is a major and growing informal sector activity in the urban centers. For a large proportion of such workers domestic work is the only option available. While domestic workers enjoy both money wages and real wages, they also face various problems at the work place, which include over-work load, low wage, minimal pay or no pay for extra work, absence of leave facility, etc. The working conditions of domestic workers are deplorable with long working hours and absence of job security.

While the problems of domestic workers are multifaceted, the endeavor by the State has been very minimal. There is an urgent need to address the issues suggested below:

- The Government should notify minimum wages for domestic workers and issues such as wage structure, working conditions, leave and absenteeism need to be addressed through legislation.
- Steps should be taken to ensure job security and safe working conditions of domestic workers and stringent laws enacted to prevent their exploitation and sexual abuse.
- The domestic workers' right to 'decent work: inclusion in labour laws, trade union rights and employment contracts to achieve good working conditions and access to social benefits including pensions etc should be enforced.
- Systematic mobilization and organizational skills training to help domestic workers build their own associations and unions for common solidarity and leadership building should be organised.
- Above all, the government and the society at large should recognize the economic and social contributions that domestic workers make, give due recognition to their work and treat them with respect and dignity.

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ANNEXURE -1

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE ON DOMESTIC WOMEN IN URBAN INFORMAL SECTOR IN COIMBATORE CITY

I. Family Details

1. Name

2. Address

3. Religion Hindu Muslim Christian Others

4. Caste SC ST MBC BC Others

5. Type of Family Nuclear Joint

6. Family Background Information (Including Respondent)

S.NO	Name	Relation to Respondent	Gender	Age	Education	Occupation	Income of Month

7. Other Sources of Income Rent

Interest

Landed Property

Others

III. Employment Details

1. Age of entry into the first job :
2. Where you employed prior to taking up domestic work?

Yes No

If yes, state the nature of job:

- Reason for quitting the job :
- Payment details :

3. When did you start working as a domestic servant?
4. What was mode of recruitment?

Own effort Neighbours effort

Employers effort Agency

5. What was the reasons for entering the job?(Rank)

- i. Low income of the spouse
- ii. To earn additional income
- iii. Sole bread winner
- iv. To save money for children's
Education/marriage
- v. Financial Independence
- vi. Easy availability of job
- vii. Family history
- viii. Financial difficulties

6. In how many houses have you taken up part time work?

1 2 3 4 or more

7. List out the type of job you are doing?

	First	Second	Third
i. Sweeping & Mopping			
ii. Washing dishes			
iii. Washing clothes			
iv. Cooking			
v. Dusting			
vi. Chopping vegetables			
vii. Washing bathrooms			
viii. Folding/Ironing clothes			
ix. Taking care of children/elderly people			
x. Shopping			

8. How much time do you spend to complete the job in each house?

I House	II House	III House	Total time

9. How much wages are you paid for your job in each house?

10. Do you take up any extra unpaid job like buying milk, minding children etc?

Yes No

11. Are you paid any extra money for doing extra job?

Type of work	Amount paid
i. Cleaning house during festival time	
ii. Washing extra clothes when there are extra guests	
iii. Cleaning up after party other functions	
iv. Any others, specify	

12. Does your employee pay wages on time?

Yes No

13. Is your work place close to your place of residence?

Yes No

If no, daily commute distance

- Mode of transportation :
- Cost of transportation :

14. How many days of leave does your employees give you without any pay cuts?

1 2 3 4 or more days

15. Does your employee cut wages for taking more than requisite leave?

Yes No

16. Besides wages, what other benefits do you receive?

Type of benefits	Yes/No	Amount (in Rs)
Bonus		
Festival advances		
Medical expenses		
Interest free loan		
Advances for children's education/marriage		
Clothing during festival time		

17. Do you receive refreshment and food at place of work?

Tea / Coffee Breakfast with Tea / Coffee
Lunch Breakfast & Lunch

18. Pattern of Expenditure, Saving Debt and Assets

i. Household expenditure pattern

Items of Expenditure	Amount spend/year
Food	
Rent	
Clothing	
Fuel & Light	
Education	
Entertainment	
Medicine	
Transport	

ii. Savings pattern

a) Do you save? Yes No

If yes give the following details

Source of savings	Amount saved/month	Reasons for savings
Chit funds		
Post office		
Banks		
LIC		

iii. Debt

a) Do you have any debts? Yes No

If yes give me the following details

Source of borrowing	Amount borrowed	Amount repaid	Reason for borrowing
Money lenders			
Employers			
Banks			
Friends & Relation			

iv. Do you possess the following Assets

	Yes	No
i. Land		
ii. House		
iii. Television		
iv. VCR/DVD		
v. Two-in-one		
vi. Watch		
vii. Mixie		
viii. Grinder		
ix. Two-wheeler		

x.	Cycle		
xi.	Gold		
xii.	Silver		
xiii.	Furniture		
xiv.	Others specify		

V. Job Satisfaction and problems at workplace

a) Job satisfaction

	SA	A	N	DA	SDA
Monetary benefits					
i. Adequate wages					
ii. Satisfactory wages					
iii. Monetary help during emergency					
iv. Extra payment for extra job					
v. No payment for extra leave					
Non-monetary benefits					
i. Adequate payment incurred					
ii. Permission to take extra leave during emergency					
iii. Adequate leave facility					
Working conditions					
i. Employees treat you as a					

family					
ii. Adequate leisure time					
iii. No interference in the performance of jobs					

19. Problems at workplace

Problems	SA	A	N	DA	SDA
Monetary issues					
1. Wages are inadequate					
2. Inadequate bonus					
3. Delay in payment of wages/bonus					
4. Wage cuts for exceedly permitted leave					
5. No pay for extra leave					
Working environment					
6. Long hours of work					
7. Strenuous job/heavy physical work					
8. Sexual harassment by male employers					
9. Treated as a menial workers					
10. Dominating attitude of employers					
11. Hostile attitude of employers					
12. Lack of facilities at workplace					
Work related issues					
13. No job security					
14. Insufficiency of leave					
15. No paid leave without permission					

