

CHAPTER - II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

An in depth analysis of the various earlier studies conducted on a research problem enables the researcher to understand the various dimensions of the problem and also the areas to be explored in the particular research area. The literature pertaining to the current study on “**A Comparative analysis of working and non- working women and their time management in Mahe District**” is discussed in this chapter under the following heads

- 2.1 Theories of Labour Supply
- 2.2 Reasons for female work participation
- 2.3 Impact of female work participation
- 2.4 Problems of working women
- 2.5 General studies on female work participation
- 2.6 Time use studies

2.1 Theories on Labour Supply

Women perform multiple roles apart from shouldering the responsibilities of looking after the family. Various approaches have been adopted to understand the women’s role. These approaches range from how women are perceived in different cultures and historical settings apart from their biological functions.

2.1.1 Neo-Classical School of Thought:

The Neo-classical school of thought is the most dominant school in the west. It based its explanation on the concept of utility subject to income and price hence, the Neo-classical explanation for the increasing number of women going for paid employment rests heavily on the impact of income and price. The allocation of time by any individual is linked with the utility attached to it. Utilities are universal phenomenon for all individuals. Thus given that there are no conflicting utility functions which is a condition for an atomized society

assumed by this theory, the society is sustained at a maximized state of welfare. The model is timeless, classless and is applicable across all regions. Women's participation in labour force is a function of total disutility derived out of market work, leisure and home work. If the price of the market work goes up with other things given constant, the labour force participation rises. With rise in household income (husband's income) the relative disutility of work increases and women tend to withdraw from work. Inducing factors and non-inducing factors determine the participation or withdrawal of women from the labour force. Wages are determined by the marginal productivity principle. The equality of marginal productivity with wages sets the labour market in equilibrium. The discontinuities in employment along with break in service for bearing and rearing children is the reason why women are unable to acquire skills which are otherwise acquired by men. This leads to gender specific wage differentials. Wage differentials are also attributed to the voluntary foresight of women in choosing jobs requiring lesser skills as they envisage service breaks and shorter life time works for themselves. The profit maximization instinct of the employer coincides with the women employees thought and they do not employ women in jobs requiring very high sophistication. The Neo-classicists do not consider it rationale on the part of employers to discriminate against women on the basis of jobs as it would be against profit maximizing behavior.

The "new -home- economics", which is the model of house hold behavior in the Neo classical theory, explains marriage as a relationship between individuals to maximize utility. It is assumed that the total shared utility is higher than the sum of individual utilities. The division of labour within a household is derived from the marriage market equilibrium determined by the equations of marginal productivity. Marriage is considered as a two person firm with either member being an entrepreneur who hires the other at salary and received profits (Becker, 1974). Women hire men since the latter earn more and men hire women because they are superior nurse maids. The theory is historical and social which assumes individuals to be completely dehumanized entities working for personal selfish benefits. Furthermore, the concept of power is completely separated and overlooked from economic behavior. Policy actions,

reforms and movements are by definition aborted, since market is the dominant impartial allocation of resources. There is a circularity of the logic presented since one is at best that 'women are as they are', nothing more nothing less.

2.1.2 Institutional Approach

The institutional approach to women studies draws its theoretical rationale not so much from market equilibrium but from rigid or rather quasi - rigid structural institution in the society. Work in economics is generally equated with market work or paid work. Neo classical concept of 'market work', 'market time' are not fully applicable either in subsistence economics or in relation to gender based division and majority of women work in the non market sector. They are classified as non-workers, non -producers and hence invisible. This leads to underestimation of labour force as well as under estimation of their economic contribution. To analyze to what extent house work functions as a wage subsidy for the market sector, the relationship between patriarchy and development thus assumes significance, particularly in relation to the power relationship between men and women within the family. The family is a unit in which production and redistribution of income occur on the basis of material aspects of gender relation and division of labour resulting in conflict and change. The central instrument for maintenance of patriarchy is occupational segregation, which reinforces the traditional division of labour. This leads to lower wages for women who maintain their economic dependence on men simultaneously. The domestic division of Labour reinforces occupational segregation by weakening women status in the labour market (Sinha1980).

In underdeveloped economies, the primary production unit is the household where non-commodity characteristics are retained along with commodity production which is necessary to incorporate both in theory and analysis, the material basis of housework which is an economic function integral to the systems (Krishnaji1980).

Higher entry of women in the market is associated with growing availability of women's work. This shows that women have no preference.

Market decides what jobs they should do. However the dichotomy between home and market work of women should not be carried too far since home is conditioned by the market while the Neo-classical maintains that in spite of the segmentation of labour market, women get a wage equal to their marginal product. The Institutionalism attributes the lower wages of women to labour market segmentation and stereo- type of jobs. Division of labour by sex has always been there. At certain stage of economic development, the rewards of specialization are equitably distributed between sexes.

It has been found that even in the advanced stage of capitalism the difference between men and women cannot be explained merely by the differences in their productivity due to age, schooling or experience. Institutionalism views sex inequality as a form of job discrimination and not wage discrimination. Sex discrimination does not manifest in unequal pay for equal work but rather as an unequal job assignment. They also point out that sex stereo- type of jobs is also the cause of higher unemployment of women.

The main point that emerges from the institutional stand point is that the role of women is confined to certain sectors of the economy. It is the market that imposes such a role so that they can be paid lower wages. But this school has been criticized on the basis that the tools and techniques used by them are similar to the Neo-classical school.

2.1.3 Marxist School of Thought

Marxist school takes a historical view of any social situation. It considers production and capital accumulation as fundamental social decisions. There are two broad streams of thought. The first Marxist school of thought views women's position within the process of capital accumulation and class struggle. The articulation of the relationship between land, labour and capital and their integration with the larger market system is central to the understanding of women's status. Thus splitting trade unions by genders, creating wedge between genders to break labour, homogeneity, exclusion of women from market production or diffusing the contraction between capital

accumulation by the capitalist which in turn directly or indirectly contributes to promotion of these processes (Himmdweit and Mohun, 1997).

The second school also referred to the Marxist Feminist School understands history as a system of relations between men (Patriarchy) who dominate the women who are dominated. The Marxism in this approach takes the form of rooting patriarchy in the material base rather than in psychic one and thereby claiming to eradicate the sex blindness of Marxist categories. Thus while not negating the fundamental contradiction between capital and labour, the Marxist-feminist add yet another dimension to the system of contradictions and suggest a simultaneous struggle against class and gender exploitation (Hartman1979).

All Marxist frames of thought assert that a capitalist state will not and cannot accomplish what is necessary to end sex inequality whether in the domain of market or family. It is observed in all the theories except the Marxist feminist theory that women's question is dealt well within their developed paradigms. Some allege that women are plugged in as a missing ingredient in the existing forms of explanations, which makes these explanations not very different from those already existing for other productive forces. The Marxist feminist school has developed its formulations as if in vengeance against the male dominated society. Their appeal for unisex identification doing away with natural biological process and substituting them with chemical laboratories (Yaggar1979) Perhaps speaks of a call for a dehumanized society built of distrust between the sexes. Furthermore while one can envisage doing away with a class ridden society, it is difficult to envisage altering the biological structure of the human race.

2.1.4 The Capabilities Approach

Women often have no preference for economic independence before they learn about avenues through which women like them might not pressure this goal nor do they think of themselves as citizens with rights that were being ignored, before they learn of their rights and are encouraged to believe in their

equal work. All of these ideas and the preference based on them take shape for women in programs of education sponsored by women's organization of various types. Men's preference too is socially shaped and often misshaped. Men frequently have a strong preference that their wives should do all the child care and all the house hold work often in addition to working an 8hr a day. Such preferences too are not fixed in nature of things; they are constructed by social traditions of privilege and subordination. Thus a preference based approach typically will reinforce inequalities, especially those inequalities that are entrenched to have crept into people's very desires. This approach points out that one of the most effective ways of promoting women's control over their environment and their effective right of political participation is to promote women's literacy. Women who can seek employment outside the home have more resources in protecting their bodily integrity from assaults within it. Such facts give still more reason not to promote one's capability at the expense of others.

Among the capabilities, practical reason and affiliation stand out as being of special importance, since they both organize and suffice all the others making them pursue truly human. To use one's sense in a way not infused by the characteristically human use of thought and planning is to use them in an incompletely human manner. At the same time, to reason for one self without considering the circumstances and needs of others is again to behave in an incompletely human manner. The basic intuition from which the capability approach begins in the political arena is that human abilities exert a moral claim that they be developed. Human beings are creatures such that if they are provided with the right educational and material support, they could become fully capable which implies they are creatures with certain lower level capabilities called as 'basic capabilities' to perform the functions in question. When these capabilities are deprived of the nourishment, they would transform them into the high level capabilities; they are fruitless, cut off in some way but a shadow of themselves.

The central question asked by capabilities approach is not 'how satisfied is the women?' or even 'how much in the way of resources is she able to command?' Instead it is 'what is she actually able to do and to be? A working list of functions that appears to be of central importance in human life, users of this approach asks 'is the person capable of this or not?' They ask not only about the person's satisfaction to do (what her opportunities and liberties are?). They ask not just about how those who do or do not go to work enabling women to function. The initiative behind this approach is of two fold. First, there are certain functions that are particularly central in human life in the sense that their presence or absence is typically understood to be a mark of the presence or absence of human life; second, the core idea of the human being as a dignified person who shapes his or her own life rather than being passively shaped or pushed around by the world in the manner of a flock or herd.

At one extreme, one may judge that the absence of capability for a central function is so acute that the person is not really a human being at all or is in the case of certain very severe forms of mental disability. The idea thus contains a notion of human worth and dignity.

Women all over the world have lacked support for central human functions which is to some extent caused by them being women but women have the potential to become capable of these human functions given sufficient nutrition, education and other support. That is why their unequal failure in capability is a problem of justice. It is up to all human beings to solve this problem across cultural conception of human capabilities. A good guidance is the need to pursue this difficult task.

2.1.5 Economic Approach

A number of scholars have expressed their dissatisfaction with approaches which merely criticized traditional values which supported gender inequality and /or made legal provisions for women's rights. Instead they wanted a change in the established definition of women's role and status. They also felt that such a fundamental change would come only as a

consequence of a change in economic relationship. The three exponents of this view are Ivan Lich and Ester Boserup in the west and Vina Mazumdar in India.

Boserup (1970) in her highly influenced work 'Women's role in economic development' argued that economic and social development lead to the disintegration of existing division of labour in rural communities, migrations to towns and emergence of new economic relationships between men and women are not always to the advantage of latter.

Vina Mazumdar (1979) pointed out that even within the problems of women those of the upper and middle class received maximum attention by way of illustration. She maintained that the social and religious reformers and leaders confined their efforts to evil social practices which are prevalent among the upper classes. Mazumdar saw problems of women as basically from a problem of their economic dependence. Quoting from ICSSR Advisory Committee Report (1997) "unless the economic and social utility of women was enhanced in the eyes of their family and nation by opportunities to take part in socially and economically productive roles, neglect of women will continue". She felt that an historic opportunity was missed in the early days of Indian Independence when a number of problems plaguing women could have been dealt with. That was because at the particular time women had emerged as equally stoic figures for independence. Mahatma Gandhi had himself underlined the need for removal of economic disabilities of women. Nehru also made great effort to remove various social disabilities of women by means of legislation but all these movements began to falter and lost momentum.

Devaki Jain (1976), the humanist feminist scholar has argued that any goal for development which is concerned with the broad framework of imitating men is bound to be unsatisfactory and that instead of making women mimic men, her status, power and authority must be improved and all obstacles must be removed. She also argued that their separate identity must not be destroyed.

Krishna Ahuja Patel (1983) was more explicit in her emphasis on the need to recognize the worth of women's work in monetary terms. Only its quantification and monetization as has been attempted in Switzerland would give women's work its due recognition.

The importance of the economic factor as the sole liberating and equating factor in isolation of other factors had exaggerated its effectiveness so far as the problems of women are concerned. In this connection empirical evidence provided by Leela Gulati's (1981), intensive case study of the 'poorest of poor' working women in the outskirts of the city of Trivandrum is most telling. Those women who had supplemented their family income and in some cases were the 'principal earners' as their husbands were unemployed neither rose in status within the social group to which they belong nor did they acquire the pre conditions of being equal with their men folk. As bread winners they are no doubt important to their family. But that is as far as their relative economic strength had taken them. However as women, they were paid less for the work they did and started at the lowest strata of work hierarchy with no hope of vertical mobility.

Thus in treating women as discrete and potentially economically productive units of society such as the industrial worker one tends to overlook the other and more vital aspect of her being. Practically in all societies women are far more deeply involved in bringing up the family and therefore relating themselves in a complex fashion to members of family than do men.

Their role within the family as its main bearers of children, as wives and as mothers forces them to give up or reduce their economic productive role outside home and to that extent they do not emerge from their unequal condition or periodically return back to it.

The problems of women thus force one to consider them against the background of a network of social relationships, attitudes, practices and the manner in which all those constraints prevent them from enjoying a fair measure of social equality with their men folk. Unless one considers such

constraints, within living and operational situation, the prescription for the amelioration of their problems will have very little meaning (Somjee Geetha1989).

2.1.6 Radical Approach

The radical approach views women's labour force participation in a historical perspective. Although they also say that women's labour force participation outside the household was very much related to the family's budget requirements, yet they place greater emphasis on change in nature of the family. During the last century, for example; working women and daughters contributed to their family's income but gradually over time single working girls started keeping their wages for themselves. Thus the old family values were replaced by new individual ones due to graded transformation of family. Especially after the II world war, the number of married women offering themselves for paid jobs went up. This brings us to the radical approach which focused on material and political benefits which capitalist derive from family. They consider that family survived because it served the interest of the capitalist and showed that sex inequality in the market is based on sex inequality at home. For the radicals, the overthrow of the capitalists is a pre condition for the liberation of women. More important never the less, is the overthrow of patriarchal family structure. The radicals see the economic independence and the so called liberation of women in the advanced industrialized countries as an illusion. Although for many women, the transformation of the family into industry centered patriarchal capitalism appears to be liberation, under patriarchal capitalism women's oppression does not end. It only takes another form as is evident in the advanced countries (Varma1988).

The labour market segmentation during the transition from competition to monopoly capitalism arises in response to the needs of the capitalist to divide and rule over the working class. Even the trade union sometimes pressurizes women to stay at home in order to restrict the supply of labour and

occupationally segregate them. Hence class struggle and trade unions grow against women.

2.1.7 Biological Approach

Proponents of biological approach state that there are some fundamental biological differences which not only distinguish women from men but also responsible for their secondary status and role in the society. The approach followed the basic fact that the women because of the child bearing function and lesser mobility stayed closer to home and assumed domestic duties. Males because of their greater muscular strength assumed arduous roles such as hunting and farming and seized power in the society over which they have maintained their control till the present time. Society continues to believe that the men had roles outside their homes where they interact with public. Hence their role has come to be regarded with value and more power because the only way to achieve political power and authority is in the assumption of public roles and interaction with other people while women should work inside (home) closer to kitchen because of their child bearing and rearing function. Stressing the biological differences between men and the women on the basis of sexual division of labour in the society. Murdock (1949) suggested that biological differences such as a greater physical strength of men and the fact that women bear children leads to gender roles.

But Ellis (1914) criticizes this approach saying that the problems of men and women cannot be a question of comparative merits of the two sexes. Mankind is of two aspects but with one essence. Therefore the question of superiority or inferiority between sexes does not come into existence however different they may be, the two sexes are designed for each other and are complementary to each other.

2.1.8 Anthropological Approach

Biological fact is not to provide an adequate answer to the question of inferior status led participation of women. The task is to discover how the

nature of women has been affected through the course of history. People who believe in the anthropological quest begin with the assumption that human behavior is largely directed and determined by cultural norms. Human values and roles are culturally determined and socially transmitted. According to this perspective, gender roles are product of culture rather than of biology. The sexual division of labour is supported and justified by belief and value system, which implies that gender roles are normal, natural right and proper. For example, boys are rewarded for their aggressive physical behavior where as girls who are aggressive or 'Tom Boyish' are generally punished. Crying of a boy is frowned upon as being girlish (feminine behavior). Thus it is culture that produces inequality and not biology. Many researchers have criticized the biological theory of division of roles. Critics of this perspective argue that biological determinism is insufficient to explain the subordination of women as it is based on simple brutal strength. It would seem logical that as civilization progressed and physical strength became less important the position of women should have improved.

Criticising biological approach it was observed that it is wrong to assume that female is by nature sedentary whereas the male is by nature active and superior. Such activity differences do not exist between males and females and to a large extent these would seem to be secondary differences and not primary ones. Women are universally defined as closer to nature because their bodies and physiological functions are more concerned with natural causes surrounding the reproduction of the species. Further women's social role as mother is also seen as closer to nature. They are primarily responsible for the socialization of young infants and young children are seen as 'barely human' because their cultural base is small compared to adults. Women's close relation with young children further associates them with nature. Since the mother's role is linked with family, the family itself is regarded much closer to nature is compared to the activities and institutions outside family. Thus activities such as politics, welfare and religion are seen as being away from nature and also as superior to domestic tasks. Finally, women's psychological makeup is defined as closer to nature because women are concerned with

childcare and primary socialization. They developed personal intimacy and particularistic relationships with others especially with their children following Levi's status it is the men who exchanged in creating social bond. Men benefit more than women from these social bonds and thus the division of labour between the two sexes is hierarchal one. Sir Henry Maine (1861) was one of the early theoreticians who wrote about the natural superiority of men over women. His view is that patriarchal system of authority was the original and universal system of social organization. The family was the original unit and the eldest male parent held supreme authority in the household. To conclude, the anthropologist emphasized that the culture is the main determinant of unequal distribution of roles among men and women in work participation in any existing human society.

2.1.9 Cultural Perceptions

To understand women in different cultural groups, first of all it has to be understood of how they are 'perceived in' them, together with 'ground rules' and 'social maps' which such groups provide for women roles and functions within the group (Sherly,1979). Such perceptions in turn are shaped by society's view of the biological properties or natural endowments of women and how the different societies can use them. Societal 'perceptions', in other words will lay down certain ground rules for governing women activities, jurisdiction and their relationship. Such 'perceptions' of women and ground rules defining their roles and relationships were crystallized and imposed by certain cultural layers in specific societies and reinforced by reference to holy books. That is what happened in Indian situation. The various religious and philosophical texts together with views and commentaries by saints and seers provided a normative structure was further compounded by India's traditional hierarchal social organization and a prolonged period of social destabilization spread over nearly 800 years of almost continuous foreign invasions and conquests. In her case, therefore the thick layer of her classical culture together with historical experiences dictating their own concerns regarding the protection of women created the bulk of problems for women in India. The prolonged process of

social destabilization also added to her inability to do anything about these problems. Such a situation reached its climax on the eve of the British entry into India. After that it provided an opportunity to her social and religious reformers to reflect, write and mobilize public opinion against a number of self degrading social practices and customs involving the treatment of women. Women obviously were at the receiving end of the inhuman treatment involved in sati, purdah, polygamy, child marriages and different forms of exploitation (Neera Desai, 1977). The reform minded individuals felt ashamed of what they as people had done to their women folk. The arrogant colonial rulers and the supercilious Christian missionaries also reminded them in various ways that in the ultimate women symbolizes the quality of civilization. Consequently from the early 19th century women became one of the chief concerns of social and religious reforms, nationalist leaders, institution builders, planners, policy makers and social workers. In this respect the leaders of social and religious reform movement made superhuman effort. Raja Ram Mohan Roy agitated against the practice of sati, Eshwar Chandra Vidyasagar encouraged widow remarriage and Swami Dayanand Saraswati and Ranade strongly supported, education of women. Maharishi Karvy founded educational institutions for women (Paul Thomas, 1964). Education of women and girls were strongly supported by most of these reformers as a means to their wider social emancipation (Sreedevi, 1965) and so far as the educated girls were concerned they continued to divide the traditional security along with the modern education. A close look at various theoretical approaches to study the issue of working women shows that the role of women is an effect of market. The neo Classical viewed women's role to be of adjustment to the market forces while the Institutionalists remarked that women hardly have any choice because it is the market which decides the work women would do. As a result she is paid low wage by segregating her in the labour market. The radicals point out that the historical growth of capitalism has found different ways of exploiting women both in the family and in the market. Increase of the female headed households further showed how patriarchal capitalism gave women the illusion of liberalization, which actually exploited them. Thus, there is a

reciprocal relationship between economic development and the development of the household.

Male domination is an age old phenomenon. With the growth of interest and status, women have made concomitant strides and efforts are made to explain the subordinate position of women in society. A number of interpretations have been advanced to explain the low participation of women in comparison to men. Some biologists view that the division of labour between men and women has resulted from their physical differences. Women's role of reproduction is responsible for the earliest form of division of labour and male supremacy flows from this division. Others believe that only early societies had egalitarian relations and male supremacy arose with the growth of class societies. Still others assert that the division of roles between male and female has always included some amount of male domination. Thus there are divergent explanations regarding gender differences and participation of female in work force. Further there is a need for examining the relevance of these approaches in the present study.

2.2. Reasons for Female Work Participation

Change is a foot in the global economy indicating newness as the emerging need and trend of the society. One such social change is the growing awareness about the status of the women whose traditional, subordinate, passive and modest roles have been challenged due to global exposures and formal education. Women have been stepping out of their homes and opting for occupational status. Various factors have been responsible for women to enter the world of work and to participate in the development process which has been beneficial not only to her family but also to the society at large. Studies conducted in this regard have been outlined below.

O.Andrew Collver (1968) examined that the proportion of women working was negatively correlated with the child-women ratio. It was observed that countries with high levels of female employment tended to have both low

proportion of married women and low marital fertility. The correlation for non-whites was lower than those for the whites and fell into different patterns.

Fong (1975) analysed the female labour force participation rate in a macro level for West Malaysia and Singapore. He estimated the changes in FLFP to changes in the socio-economic factors amongst three major ethnic groups in Malaysia and Singapore- Malaya, Chinese and Indians. The results indicated that Malayas showed a decline in female participation rate over time. There were considerable racial differences. Indian women had very high participation rates. However Chinese women had the lowest participation rates with varying patterns for different states.

Shah etal (1976) analysed the effects of selected demographic and socio-economic variables on female labour force participation in the four provinces of Pakistan. The results indicated that work participation is inversely associated with child-woman ratio and nuclear type of family. However marital status and literacy rate were found to have positive relationship with female labour force participation.

Vijay Kaushik and Bella Rani Sharma (1979) reported that women's rising labour force participation in the last three decades was due to increase in both the demand for and supply of women workers. The growth of demand for all types of labour is coupled with rapid growth of employment in traditional female occupations and many more women entered labour force owing to improved employment opportunities. Increased earning potentials and stimulated interest in paid employment owing to rise in educational levels of women were the supply side factors

Mukhopadhyaya, S (1981) stated that 80 percent of women workers are concentrated in agriculture and allied activities while in urban sector they crowded in the lowest paid jobs whether they are in the informal sector or in the organized sector. The labour force participation of women is influenced by many factors such as number and age of children; extend of domestic work, race, sex, caste and not by skill or productivity. It also showed that the age

specific female work participation of rural women is uniformly associated with higher rates. And women's economic role is perceived more as one of supplementing the family income rather than leading to 'emancipation'

Pushpa Sunder (1981) found that factors influencing male and female work participation rate were not identical and that non economic factors were more important for deciding female work than they were for males. Empirical evidences revealed that female participation rate was dependent on male participation rate.

Radhadevi (1981) studied the extent of female participation in economic activity in the state of Kerala and the occupational pattern among them. She found that women in Kerala are primarily engaged in skilled or semi-skilled vocation and level of education among working women is much higher than the rest. Again, marriage and family was found not to affect the work participation rate but family disruption due to divorce or separation did affect.

Hemalatha and Suryanarayanan (1983) conducted a study on the role interaction of married working women in Tirupathi of Chittoor district in Andhra Pradesh and found that married women entered professional occupation or continued job after marriage to support their family and to supplement husbands income to meet the rising cost of living and to meet other specific needs such as education of children.

Hill (1983) revealed that female labour force varied between formal and informal sectors. Husband's wages correlates negatively to women joining the formal sector but positively to women working for family business. Further having children less than six years of age encouraged women to work in family business.

Smith (1983) reported that female labour force participation was strongly related to education. In the case of the urban China and Indian women, there existed an inverse relationship between employment and fertility.

Ramanamma A and Usha Bambawala (1984) stated that women as secondary breadwinner worked only to supplement family income and her own wage rate, job opportunities available and inversely related to income of husband or other family members. It was further opined that women should share with men their life, problems, interests and trends of the time.

GitaSen and ChiranjebSen (1984) supported the view that Indian women participated in traditionally defined labour force in response to economic needs. Even when they withdrew from work they substituted with a range of economic activities around their home and not just their domestic work. Involvement in domestic work was the preserve of well to do rural women. In poorer households married women in their child bearing age group disproportionately engage in domestic work alone. Women's subordination is multifaceted as no aspect can be isolated as a cause or as the situation.

Kalpna Bardhan (1985) explained that nexus of class, caste hierarchy and norms of patriarchal ideology determine the nexus of female work participation in India.

Bloom and Freeman (1986) pointed out that a change in fertility levels translate into changes in structure of population always with a lag. In Kerala there has been a significant decline in the 0-14 age group, while an equivalent increase has been observed in the age group of 15-59 years. Such a middle thick population has obvious implications for the labour force participation move. Women outnumber men in almost all the districts of Kerala.

Raghuradha Reddy, C (1986) concluded that working women in Rayelaseema were oriented towards modernity due to the impact of education though the area is drought prone and poverty stricken. The higher the position of women, higher is her resentment towards household chores compared to women with lower positions. Due to technological development heralding the introduction of modern household appliances and gadgets women have been able to fulfill their role as housewife and working women.

Desai, Meera and Krishna Raj Maithreyi (1987), revealed that for majority of female workers who are poor, work is not a matter of choice. Lower the income level, greater is the pressure on women to seek work in order to sustain themselves and their families.

Tim Maloney (1987) has pointed out that there is only little evidence found supporting the conventional notion of added worker effect. Accordingly, the husband's unemployment has no measurable impact on the wife's actual powers of work. It is the limitations on his ability to supply hours of work to the labour market and not simply his unemployment that influences the wife's labour supply. It is observed that hours of work of the wife need not accurately reflect his desired hours of work. With these considerations of wife's labour supply, it is found to be positively associated with unemployment and underemployment of her husband.

Psacharopoulos and Zafiris Tzannatus (1989) reported that in most economies women were less attached than men to the labour force. This has important implications for development. The article examined definitions and theories of female labour supply and related them to statistical evidence from 136 countries in the early 1980s. The findings support the view that during the transformation from an agrarian subsistence economy the participation of women in the labour force initially decreased and then picked up later after a critical level of development was achieved. Education was a potential booster of the officially recorded female labour supply in developing countries.

Thippaiah (1989) in his analysis on women workers in urban unorganized sector remarked that women have to work for longer hours besides their domestic chores. Majority of the women workers were migrant families who left their homes due to natural calamities like drought or the compulsions of employment or marriage or wage differentials between urban and rural sectors.

. Bhatt and Rajan (1990) pointed that there has been a decline in the fertility as a result of female labour force participation. Apart from the

improvements in infants and child survival, there has been a general mortality decline for the female in the child bearing ages since 1970. Noticeable increase was also seen in life expectancy of females which was 74 years surpassing that of males (at 59 years). Such a positive demographic change has led to an immediate impact in female labour force participation by causing significant increase in adult female population in the working ages

Aliza Fleischer and Levia Applebaun (1992) analyzed spatial differences in the participation rate in labour force of married women in peripheral areas in Israel. They found that this phenomenon was due to different socio-economic characteristics and job opportunities. Their objective was to explore and explain their spatial difference in labour market behavior. They administered a questionnaire to 306 women residing in two different regions and two different types of settlements- urban and rural. They found that urban and rural women from the same region have the same participation rates but of different socio-economic characteristics. However, rural women from two distinct regions have different patterns of labour market behavior because the job includes an acceptable option of farm work.

Spain (1992) has pointed out that confinement to the domestic arena is linked to women's lower status in society. And that Indian women's association with domestic arena is a corollary to the restricted spatial mobility.

Paul Beaudry Cirano and UBC and Thomas Lemieu Cirano and Universita de Montreal (1994) investigated the sources of stagnation in labour force participation rate of women in 25-64 age group during 1990's, whether the stagnation in female labour force participation rate was a temporary phenomenon tied to poor growth performance of the economy during 1990's or whether it represented a permanent change in the behaviour of women in the labour market. Stagnation in the participation rate signals the completeness of the process of integration of women into work force. The main findings is that the leveling off the female participation and employment rates is primarily a structural phenomenon related to the stabilization of the cohort effects which

account for remarkable increase in these rates in the 1970's and 1980's. The hostile macro economic situation has amplified this phenomenon but is not the root cause. The relative performance of participation and employment rates during 1981-83 and 1989-1994 recession illustrates this phenomenon in 1981-83. The downward pressure on the rates from the macro-economic effect was offset by the cohort effects pushing up the rates by 1percent point per year whereas in 1989-1994 due to stabilization of cohort effects the macro economic effects compared to those of 1981-83 resulted in lower participation and employment rates. This re-enforced the importance of cohort effects rather than cyclical factors as the main explanation for this phenomenon.

Claudin Goldin (1994) pointed out that the labour force participation of married women first declines and then rises as countries develop. The initial declining participation rate is due to the movement of production from the household farms to the wider market which had a strong income effect. But the income effect weakens and the substitution effect strengthens at some point. When women are less educated they opted for wage work outside home and in manual work against which a strong social stigma exists. But when women are educated particularly at the secondary level they enter white collar work against which no social stigma exists.

Shakti Kak (1994) analysed the nature and extend of participation by women in work other than domestic work. The socio-economic status of women is determined by their participation in productive work outside the domestic arena. Setting up modern industrial and agricultural sector based on capital intensive technology has pushed women into the low wage sectors and also formed the bulk of unskilled labour. And the traditional upper caste norms of excluding women from labour outside the family acted as a barrier for their entry in the labour force.

Gothoskar (1995) showed how the introduction of information technology increased female participation in banking. It was noted that within each sector

the female participation in low skilled. Clerical positions increased more rapidly than in general.

Aly and Quisi (1996) investigated the socio-economic factors that influence Kuwaiti labour market participation decision. The probability of participation in labour market was estimated using a non-linear maximum likelihood function method. They found that women's wage rate and education were positively correlated with female labour force participation rate where as being married the number of children and age were negatively correlated to female labour force participation.

Nisha Srivastava (1997), focused on women's employment in India's organized sector both public and private. It is premised on the belief that while providing women with jobs it may not alter their subordinate status that has been reinforced over centuries but will enhance their self respect and economic independence. It reduces the worst forms of deprivation and oppression, growing competition, breed fragmentation of jobs which is reflected in the data for banking industry. Either women increase their skills and qualification to make it to the top or sink in the tidal wave of change. Modernization or changes taking place in the economy or tradition all appear to be loaded against women. Measures need to be implemented to motivate women to seek higher qualification.

Ray.C.Fair and Diane.J.Macunovich (1997) examined whether the rise and subsequent leveling off can be accounted for by using a relative, potential income measure in the spirit of Easterlin's Relative Income Hypothesis in the place of traditional absolute income measure and using potential wage rate variables. Both the relative potential income variable and potential wage variable is taken to be exogenous to the labour supply decision. Results support the hypothesis that relative cohort size affects potential wage rates. It also supports the hypothesis that the potential relative income effects labour force participation of young women. Young women participation is estimated to respond negatively to changes in potential relative income.

The time trend test suggested that the trend in labour force participation of women has been explained well by potential wage rate and potential relative income variables.

Swapna Mukhupadhyay (1997) has analyzed on a range of issues and data sources on women in the informal sector in particular to beedi industry. She observed that there was significant crowding of women workers towards the bottom end of the informal sector. The labour supply behavior of majority women were guided by different considerations as compared to women in better paid and more secured jobs as well as men workers. The poor women workers overall objective was to ensure family survival be it for production, reproduction or home management geared for this objective.

Michael, M., Alba and Emmanuel F Esguerra (1998) explored the correlates of various modes of labour force participation by estimating probabilities of unemployment-visible and invisible under employment and full employment for individuals given their socio-economic characteristics and wage offers in each mode. Results showed that single females tend to have higher probabilities of being employed than single males. Although once employed have a greater tendency towards underemployed or fully employed than non-married males. Married women are less likely to be unemployed compared with single woman. The likelihood of being unemployed is increased for every year of high school and college education. These results provide a base line by which the impact of macro-economic adjustment may be evaluated in terms of its employment effects of various social groups.

Ruthanne Deutsch S.D.S (1998) analysed the impact of child care services on female labour force participation and earnings. The mode of child care used and the type of labour force participation was based upon the mother's characteristics, household characteristics and the characteristics of child care alternatives available within the community. Results indicate that by increasing the supply of low cost child care would increase mother's labour force participation and their probability of utilizing public care. Increased access

to high quality child care services not only offers developmental benefits for children but also expanded economic opportunities for the mothers.

Ross (1999) empirically estimated the determinants of unpaid work in nuclear households by each adult in Australia using the 1992 Australian Time-Use Survey. In his paper eight types of unpaid work Analyses 50 are examined. He found that wage rates and demographic variables exert most influence on household time spent on unpaid work. The strongest result was the negative effect of the female wage rate on unpaid work performed by females.

Jennifer A Stoloff, Jenniffer L Glan villa and Ellisa Jayna Bienen stock (1999), examined the role of social networks on the constraints and opportunities which women face in labour force participation. They found that the greater the quality and diversity of social resources that are available through a women social network the more likely she is to be working for pay. It was found that women with children must have to rely on their social support activities for childcare in order to enter the labour market.

Pradeep kumar Panda (1999), explored the inter linkages between marital status, economic conditions and the employment of the women in the state of Kerala in a macro context. A sample of 630 households including 530 women between ages 18-35 were taken. The analysis provided strong evidence for a U shaped relationship between household economic status and women's current employment status. But in the case of single women poverty increases the likelihood of paid employment without significant effect as the upper end of the class spectrum. The interplay of economic factors (in terms of household needs and aspirations) and cultural factors (in terms of women's position in the family as unmarried daughters as opposed to wives or daughter-in-law) as determinants of women employment is important both on supply side of labour market and women's ability to obtain employment in an imperfect and almost saturated labour market in Kerala.

Michael. M. Lokshin (2000) examined the interdependency of women labour force participation activity and household childcare choices in Russia.

The estimation indicates that economic incentives have a powerful effect on the work behavior of women with children in Russia. The level of wages available to them and the costs of childcare affected women labour force participation and labour supply decision. He observed that when the costs of care are high it discourages households from using formal childcare and rely only on informal care. Government subsidies for childcare may increase the number of mothers who work thus increasing the incomes of the poor households and lifting the families out of poverty. Measures such as subsidies aimed at reducing the cost of market childcare are more effective than measures that increase women wages in order to increase the number of mothers who work and number of hours that they work. Simulations indicate that family allowances intended as a means of reducing poverty do not significantly affect the household choice for childcare arrangements. Therefore substituting childcare subsidies for family allowances would have a strong positive effect on the level of labour force participation of women with children and thus may be effective in reducing poverty. A significant proportion of Russian households with children used a network of family members to provide for child care. This kind of informal care was substituted for the care that was provided by Russian government there is a relatively high level of participation by women in labour force despite a sharp drop in number of kinder gardens and nurseries in the last 10 years.

Ranjan Ray (2000) investigated whether the backward classes and female headed household faced higher poverty rates than others and also examined the impact of poverty along with a host of individual family, socio-economic and state characteristics on child labour and child schooling. Special attention was paid to the gender issues and to the employment and schooling of children from the backward classes and female headed households. The Logit regression results pointed out that state government can play an important role in improving child welfare and found children of both sexes from the backward classes less likely to attend schools than other children. In contrast children from female headed households are more likely to be at school than those from male headed households. Children from female headed households combined schooling with employment unlike from the

backward classes who dropped out of school completely to enter the labour market.

Sasaki (2000) estimated the effects of family structure in labour force participation. They reported that a reverse causality existed between the two variables. Co- residence with parents has a positive impact on participation in labour force. Co- residence allows married females to share the burden of household work with their parents and in-laws thus increased the probability of labour force participation.

Sangeeta Nagaich (2000) analyzed the sources of variations in female participation rates in Punjab. The study found that both structural differences in female populations and the basic work force tendency among females indicated by the adjusted female participation rate turned out to be the major source of deviation of the observed female participation rate from the state average in each district. Age specific female participation rate showed further greater inter district variations in rural areas in relation to that of the urban areas. Economic factors as the inter-district variation. It is only the socio-cultural factors such as literacy, average size of house hold and sex ratio which influenced inter district variations in the work force among females.

Kabeer (2000) and Kantor (2003, 2005) have found the prevalence of seclusion norms among both Muslim and Hindu households which limit their range of choices available to them over” what work to do and where to do it”.

Aysit Tansil (2001) investigated the long term relationship between female labour force participation as a measure of economic development and other determinants. The cross province estimates in Turkey vindicates the U-shaped hypothesis between female labour force participation and level of economic development. Other important findings relate to a high rate of increase in the work opportunities for women due to a high rate of economic growth. Female education was to have a strong positive effect on female labour force participation. Another important finding of the analysis was the negative impact of unemployment on female labour force participation which implied a

considerable discouraging effect of both female and male unemployment rates on female participation rates. The hidden unemployment computations indicated that the urban female unemployment rate is underestimated and the discouraged worker effect for women is substantial. The employment share of the agriculture sector was found to increase the female labour force participation as compared to service sector and the employment share of the industrial sector decreased the female labour force participation as compared to the service sector. This implies that agriculture sector encourages female labour force participation since there is little contradiction between work and household responsibilities in this sector. Significant regional differentials in female labour force participation were found. The cross province analysis for female labour force participation rate in non- agricultural activities did not have U-shaped relationship between female labour force participation and level of economic development. Growth rate of output had a positive impact on female non agriculture activities. Education influenced positively the female non agriculture participation. Unemployment has a negative impact on female non agriculture participation. The employment share of agriculture sector has a negative impact as compared to service sector while employment share of industrial sector was not significantly different from the service sector. This implied of a strong link between education and female activity rates.

Janine Rodgers (2001) studied the dynamics underlying the participation of women in the labour market. The sector wise shift and expansion of services are the gender dimensions of employment. The study pointed out that the expansion of service sector led to creation of both high and low skilled jobs for women.

Murthy (2001) studied the problems of employed educated women in few selected sectors of the Indian economy. The study was mainly based on working women in teaching, medicine, engineering, administration and others in Ujjain city of Madhya Pradesh. The study revealed that gender ails in the way of some women, job choice on others and still others on promotions. Nearly 93percent were satisfied with the job. For 50 percent of them financial

needs made them to pursue jobs 30 percent opined that they should go for job and 20 percent of the others disliked jobs though they were working women.

Amtul Hafeez and Eatzaz Ahmed (2002) explored the factors which caused educated married women to participate in labour force activities. According to them females in joint families were more likely to participate in labour market than those in nuclear families due to availability of family members to assist them in their work at home. Likewise economic pressure and hardship was found to bring the women to work force shaping their wage and work profiles. Women in joint families were not constrained from participating in labour force. So the social factors did not have adverse effect on their participation in economic activities.

Metwally (2002), By means of Discriminant analysis he tried to find out the factors that motivated the women to join the labour force. 85 quarry women were selected for the study to find the motivational factors. Monthly wages and level of education exerted positive influence on their decision to join the work force. Age was an important factor for unmarried quarry women while family income, looking after young children and lack of job opportunities had strong negative effects on the probability to join the labour force in married quarry women.

Evam M.D.R and Jonathan Kelley (2002) pointed out that women's work force participation increased strongly over the 1980s and 1990s especially among middle aged women. Multivariate analysis revealed large compositional changes and a trend for succeeding cohorts of women to work more than their predecessors but few had period effects. Among the compositional changes, rising women education and falling fertility substantially elevated women work force participation and hours worked. No clear time effects were associated with particular policy. The origin of family and religion both have direct and indirect effects on women work participation.

Sham Bhat and Nirmala (2002) analyzed the determinants of higher occupational scales in service sectors by women which led them to greater

empowerment. 100 women employees from service sectors in Kerala were selected. The results showed that possessing job training and technical education significantly helped women to rise up in the employment ladder. Own income encouraged a significant upward movement while assets discouraged it.

Salway, S., Rahman, S and Jesmin, S (2003) presented a profile of women's work participation among slum dwellers in Dhaka. They found that cyclical factors, socio-economic status and residential location are associated with their level of work participation and the type of employment. Their contribution to household livelihood

Alice Sebastian and Navaneetham.K (2003) found the factors that influence female labour force participation using multivariate logistic regression analysis. The data was mainly drawn from CDS surveys on employment/unemployment conducted in 3 districts of Thiruvanthapuram, Ernakulam and Kannur of Kerala. It was pointed out that education, age group, marital status, place of residence; economic status and the level of employment of husband were found to be significant influencing factors in determining woman's entry into the work force. Level of education of husband is not significant in influencing women employment while controlling other characteristics. It was found that women from poor family were more likely to work than women from rich family as they are forced to supplement family income. The place of residence exerted its influence on women employment. Single women have more probability than married women to take up employment. Religion does not exert any influence on women employment as the coefficient of religion turned out to be insignificant. Age turned out to be an important characteristic factor for women work participation. Women in age groups 40-59 years had 13 times more probability to work than women in age group of 15-24. Women with diploma and professional education have more probability to be employed than graduate and post graduates.

Amaresh Dubey, Veronica Pala and Eugene D Thomas (2004) underscored educational attainment and economic status as well as social group affinity as among the key factors that determine their labour force participation.

Casale (2004) argued that the increase in female headship of households and the erosion of support of male income was the reason for the significant rise in female unemployment rate.

Beatriz Muries Fernandez (2005) found that probabilities of women being in the labour force increased with higher education and age. They further observed that the probability of women in labour force participation diminished when women were indigenous and poor because the opportunity cost of spending time working in the labour market was low. They also observed that female labour force participation decreased with higher ratio of children per adult was in the family.

Florence Jaumotte (2005) observed that increase in the availability of part-time work opportunities raise female participation. The study covered 17 countries over the period 1985-1999. Preference for part-time and full-time work differs across countries. Paid parental leave keeps women out of labour market for an extended period of time and reducing participation rates as skills are lost and career paths and earnings are interrupted. The analysis suggests that any increase in paid parental leave beyond 20 weeks has a negative effect on women's labour force. Child benefits for maintenance and care of children discourages women who would have worked part-time because they replace household income. Other crucial factors such as cultural attitudes to work, education levels of women, labour market conditions, fertility, rules and practices if open to work, then participation will likely raise.

Greenwood, Seshadri and Yorukuglu (2005) argued that the diffusion of home appliances such as washing machines, freezers etc has an important role in liberating women from house work and in propelling them into the work force.

Harry.A.Sackey (2005) opined that to participate or not to participate is an issue of survival driven by factors such as education and cost of living and parallel to this trend is a tendency towards fertility decline. Together it strengthens the fragile and income deficient status of Ghanaian women. Education has been observed as one of the factors accounting for increased participation of females. The gender gap and education at both primary and secondary levels has been getting smaller over the years due to Government policy of free basic education, positive spillovers from educated mothers to their daughters and female educational awareness campaigns. This pattern sustained and therefore experienced improvement in their education and wellbeing. Fertility preference is also likely to be affected with a trend towards child spacing, relatively smaller family sizes and child quality. Other factors that accounted for increased participation included prevalence of a declining pattern in fertility, improvement in education status of females in terms of enrolment and years of schooling as well as tendency for late marriages, improvement in child survival rates all of these factors has a positive effect on female participation, the presence of older children is expected to increase female participation, women are likely to get help in home production activities too. A rise in the cost conditions of urban areas have tended in stimulating women to participate in labour market activities. The spate of campaigns on female capabilities compared to males could be another plausible factor for this observed pattern according to him to work, then participation will likely rise.

Purnamita Dasgupta and Bishwanth Goldar (2005) presented an econometric evidence of forced employment or need based participation in workforce of females from BPL families in rural areas and observed that if wage rates of females in BPL households rose substantially or if male members got more employment opportunities then more women of these families would withdraw from labour force because the returns from home based work is higher and entails welfare gains for the family.

Kumari Latha Devi.P (2006) observed that the decision to participate in the labour force is the outcome of the decision making of the household. It depends on the personal and family characteristics and other intervening variables. Female unemployment in Kerala is of the nature of educated unemployment. Demographic, social, economic and even political factors have contributed to this pattern. Women of Kerala are relatively more developed in terms of social indicators. But these indicators do not add up women empowerment.

Wendy Olsen and Smitha Mehta (2006) illustrated that labour force participation in India responds to a plurality of casual mechanisms. Men's labour force participation stood at 85 percent and women's at 35 percent. The overall rate of labour force participation of women had fallen since 1989. Regression results revealed a U shaped female employment by education levels. At the bottom of the U there are many women doing extra domestic work. Women in Muslim cultural group are not likely to be inactive than other women. Employment of women is due to economic poverty.

Tarajyothi Buragohain (2007) Attempted to estimate the trend growth rate of employment and GDP growth rate in the different sectors. Employment elasticity has been estimated to discern the labour productivity among different sectors of the economy. It was found that employment elasticity with respect to GDP was the highest in agriculture sector and lowest in the secondary sector. The higher the elasticity the lower was the labour productivity. Work participation among women was much higher in rural areas than in urban areas. In rural areas more women were employed in agriculture sector as wage labourers which attributed as one of the reasons for low labour productivity, landlessness, female illiteracy and presence of large number of SC's and ST's in the rural population

Achinty Ray and Indrani Ray (2008) observed that higher wages promoted higher female labour force participation and reduces women's participation in the production of household public good. When wages decrease

women withdraws from labour market and specializes more in the production of household public goods. Higher price of consumption goods reduces both female labour force participation and women participation in production of household public goods. Higher intra household gender inequality reduces female bargaining power. Lower female bargaining power leads to lower labour force participation.

Betsey Stevenson (2008) examined how changes in laws governing divorce and property division changes women labour supply decisions. Divorce laws change the value of exiting the marriage and thus potentially change bargaining within the house hold. These laws may also change the returns to specialization in household production by reducing the amount of time women can expect to spend in marriage and by one's options outside marriage. Unilateral divorce increases the experience and other human capital for women before, during and after marriage.

Daniele Alexis Leon and Steven Lugauer (2008), attempted to identify the casual effect by home appliances on labour force participation of married women using a time series and cross sectional variation analysis in 1960-1970. A micro data from the US Census was used to evaluate the contribution of household gadgets in increasing the female labour force participation during 1960s which showed 40 percent rise in the participation of married women. Labour supply of single women did not increase during 1960s. They pointed out to technological progress as a potentially important factor in economic and social change of women.

Kantor (2008) noted that for women in Northern India, labour force participation is a survival strategy for the household and not a means of improving the standard of living or voice in the household.

Chris M. Herbst, Burt S. Barnow (2008) pointed out that rising rates of maternal employment among current and former welfare recipients have increased the use of non parental child care. It was observed that women labour supply was sensitive to the geographic supply of child care and vice

versa. The results being that states now spend a significant income on quality improvement initiatives which increases child care supplies in low income neighborhoods.

Ghosh and Kanbur (2008) reported that the gendered division of labour characterized by traditional forms of household organization is mediated by individual characteristics and wider social and cultural institutions.

Sajeda Amin and Luciana Suran (2008) explored relationship between marriage arrangement and daily activities of young married women using time use data from an adolescent study in rural Bangladesh. Results showed that women's time spent in domestic work, productive work, self care, social time and sleep. Social time significantly decreased with current age of married women and increased with number of children that a woman has. This increase in social time may be associated with relaxation of restrictions on their mobility as she grows old or becomes a mother. It was found that productive work increased with age and decreased significantly with number of children.

Almout Baleer Raman Gomez etal (2009) analyzed determinants of participation for disaggregated groups of workers in European country. The model identified age and cohort effect for detailed workers group as indicators of (unobserved) structural determinants. They used observed structural determinants and age and cohort effects to construct trend measures of labour supply and disentangled the impact of structural and business cycles factors on labour force participation rates. The results suggested that the age and cohort effects explained a substantial part of the recent increase in the labour force participation rate in Euro area although not the surge, since early 2000, cohort effects are particularly relevant for women with those born in 1920's and 1930's less likely and those born in late 1960's and early 1970's more likely to participate in the labour market over the life cycle. There is a substantial variation in cohort effects across 5 largest Euro area countries while cohort effects generally encompasses any factor associated with a particular birth

year. They speculated that the cohort effects observed, reflected evolving preferences or social norms that varied across countries. They controlled for a number of observed time varying institutions such as labour taxes, union density, unemployment benefits and average number of children and found that they had an impact on labour force participation rate. Although specific impact varied across age, gender groups and countries, they continued to provide some upward support to participation rates of women and positive cohort effects was not large enough to compensate for the downward impact of population aging on labour force participation rate.

Charles Ackah et al (2009) investigated the determinants of female labour force participation in Ghana at two points of time, 1991 and 2006. According to them, labour market participation of women will improve their relative economic position and also increase the overall economic efficiency of the country. They analyzed the determinants of fertility and the role of education in explaining the relationships with female labour force participation. The findings indicated the presence of children at home, reduced participation in wage employment significantly. With regard to education, the study confirmed a strong positive relationship between education and labour force participation. The long years of participation increased the likelihood of women's labour force participation. In addition, the findings gave a statistically significant negative relationship between the presence of children and female labour force participation. Presence of children at home significantly reduces participation in wage work controlling for age, education, ethnicity religion and marital status.

Lyn Criag and Pooja Sawrikar (2009) investigated how work family balance and the gender division of labour differed according to whether children were in their early childhood, middle childhood or early teens. They found that women had more responsibilities for care than men but with older children there was greater equity in the division of labour, less pressing domestic burden and less maternal stress as women calibrated their commitments to work and home. Further mother's who worked full time had

high workloads and high stress levels regardless of age of children. But fathers were more satisfied with their work family balance. The more they participated in child care the more supported they were in work places and were able to access family friendly work policies.

Neetha and Palriwala (2010) in their study tried to understand the household division of labour in the context of cultural practices, explored variations in demands for care and domestic work and in ritual practices for women belonging to different castes and religious backgrounds and how that affected their participation in paid employment. They found that the age, marital status and household size are likely to influence the demand for care and the ability of men and women to meet these demands. Castes and religions perceived social roles and responsibilities.

Preet Rustogi (2010) stated that illiteracy has become more of a barrier to enter in labour market particularly for urban women. Similarly analysis of the impact of slowdown in global economy through a complex factor though did not have any direct influence in their employment, nevertheless there has been a decline in real wages, and a rise in economic disparities among urban-rural women, closing down of job opportunities in unorganized sector gave reasons for worry. As a whole women in the margin suffered. Women bore the disproportionate burden of work regardless of their entry in formal or in the informal labour market because they remain primarily responsible for basic survival needs of the family.

Saraswati Raju (2010) in her attempt to map women's locations in the world of work conceptually and spatially tried to analyse the growth in job opportunities for women in the early 21st century as compared to jobless Growth Syndrome of 1990's to see whether the growth has been distributive across the sectors and whether or not the increase is spatially distributive given the concern of inclusive growth. Her finding is that women's participation in labour market has a distinct regional pattern. Women labour force participation in Northern states vis-à-vis North East- a behavior that cannot be explained

away by demand supply paradigm. Region specific socio cultural norms continue to encode women work force.

Aruna Kanchi (2010) dealt at great length on women workers in agriculture sector. She observed that the migration of male work force to urban area for more remunerative economic activity has led to the increase in women's share in agriculture work force and expansion of their role in this sector. However, the economic gain of enhanced women participation would be difficult as 2/3rd of women work force were unpaid self- employed worker who worked in their own farms.

. Sonia Bhalotra and Marcela (2010) investigated cyclical in women labour supply motivated by the hypothesis that it contributes to smooth household consumption in environments characterized by income volatility comparing individual data on 1.1 million women in 63 developing and transition countries merged with country level panel data on GDP during 1986-2006. It was found that within country, relationship of women employment and income is on an average negative in Asia and Latin America but positive in Africa. Women behave differently and that the conventional family structure with income pooling is less the norms, there are fewer opportunities for paid employment and aggregate income shocks are more closely tied to rainfall variation. The findings are robust to controls for country specific trends and potentially correlated shocks. In Asia and Latin America the characteristics that strengthen counter cyclical responses includes low education, being married to men with low education, low wealth, no ownership of land ,rural residence and fertility. These findings suggest that insurance motives underpin the dynamics of women work participation. Examination of cyclical in the distribution of employment across countries suggests that recession is associated with a rise in self employment among women. In Asia and Latin American countries a rise in paid employment and a sharp drop in unemployment exist. In Africa there is a decline in paid employment which overwhelms the rise in self employment and this is how total comes to decline. It has important implications on labour market fertility timing and child outcomes.

Yakubu A Yakubu (2010) investigated dynamics in the South African labour force using the Human Capital Theory which postulated that education of women is positively related to the likelihood of their labour force participation. Females in south African labour market tended to be between 15 and 29 years old and single/ never married been described as” demographically dense period of life” by Rindfuss (1991) and Amuateng et al., (2003). This is a period when multiple roles and events such as marriage, fertility, leaving school, unemployment, migration and mortality occur. Female labour force participation rose with level of education. It highlighted the challenges of labour market entry for females who did not have educational skills. The demand for unskilled labour continued to decline in South Africa, hence the female labour force participation remained low.

Dante Contreras and Gonzalo plaza (2010) analyzed the determinants of female participation in the Chilean labour force with the determinants such as age and education, marital status, number of children etc. The results indicate that greater the education level of a woman ,the greater is her labour participation and that older women participate more although the rate of growth of this effect is decreasing and the number of children that a woman has is negatively correlated to her decision to participate in the labour force. They also examined the male chauvinism and other cultural values that influence female labour force participation. They pointed out that more is the women with conservative cultural values, the less they participate in labour force. The existence of these cultural factors as a group more than compensates for the positive effect of human capital variables and is statistically associated with low female labour participation in Chile. Evidence also shows an inverse correlation between female education and traditional gender attitudes. They point out that education is positively correlated with the decision to participate. As educational attainment of women increase social norms become prone and open to female participation in labour markets. Education plays an important role in reducing chauvinistic attitude of male. Greater the human capital the greater the probability that women will participate in the labour market. There is also a positive relationship with decreasing rates

between age and participation. Women exhibit greater rates of participation between ages of 24 and 28 and between the ages 39 and 43. Young women and older women show lower participation rates. The presence of children under the age of 4 in the home reduces the probability of female labour participation. Inverse correlation is explained by lack of access to childcare centers and preferences associated with child bearing women who are married and show a lower probability of participating in labour force.

Melanda Mornil (2011) opined that the effects of maternal employment on children's health were ambiguous and challenging to identify. The tradeoffs between income and time and mothers decision to work reflected partly on her children health and her underlying preferences. Women are reluctant to allocate less time for raising children unless there is alternative uses for satisfying the characteristics of market for female labour, tastes, social attitude towards women's role and familial values.

Econometric analysis of determinants of unpaid work can be also found in McCloughan et al. (2011) for three types of unpaid work performed in European countries: caring for and educating children, cooking and housework and caring for elderly or disabled relatives. They found that in each type of unpaid work activities there is strong gender effect. Women spend almost twice as many hours per week on unpaid work than men. Among other important factors which influence the unpaid work were for caring and education of children: employment status and educational attainment.

Mehak Ejaz (2011) analyzed the determinants of female labour force participation across rural and urban Pakistan. A cross sectional data on females between 15-50 years of age were drawn from household data. Potential explanatory variables that determine female labour force participation included females own characteristics, household characteristics, female empowerment indicators and endogenous covariates i.e. the average number of home appliances owned in the locality, the gender of the first born child, whether or not the first two children are of the same sex, proximity to a clinic,

contraceptive use and housing type. Results found an inverse and significant relationship between female labour force participation and both fertility and gender gap and a direct and significant relationship between female labour force participation and ownership of home appliances and co-residence. The empirical results showed an inverse U shaped relationship between female age and labour force participation. The likelihood of females participating in economic activity increased until age 42 after which any further increase in age reduced the likelihood of participation in labour market.

Francesca Francavilla and Gianna Claudia Claudia ginnell (2011) investigated on whether health and family planning program will lead to greater involvement of women in the labour market. It gives some insight into the existence of positive effect of family planning programs on women's employment in developing countries. This study was conducted using a sample drawn from NFHS-2 for 1998-1999 on married women aged 15-49 years. Results derived from the estimation of fixed effect linear probability and conditional Logit models showed positive and significant correlation of the share of women living in a local area visited by family planning workers with the probability of women employment. A multinomial analysis also shows that the largest causative effect of family planning in rural India is to be found on paid work as opposed to unpaid work suggesting a potential empowering feedback of demographic measures through earnings.

Chowdhary (2011) argued that the decline of FLFPR could be due to cultural factors and social constraints which might come to the fore with rising incomes or limited employment opportunities.

Himanshu (2011); Rangarajan (2011) highlighted the possibility of 'income effect.' The household income rose in rural areas due to higher wage levels which have taken the pressure off women to seek distress employment in times of economic hardships.

Hirway and Jose (2011) revealed that 90 percent of the women who did not participate in workforce were attributed due to pressing need for domestic

work, showed clear connection between household responsibilities and their labour force participation as well as the type of work they are employed in the job market.

Pieters Janneke and KlasenStephen (2011), examined trends and drivers of female labour force participation in urban India between 1987 and 2004 using aggregate and unit level data to estimate participation model. It was found that culture and social factors strongly influences female labour force participation rates. At lower levels of education increase in female labour force participation are driven more by distress than by increasing economic opportunities which is linked to stagnant real wages. At mid levels of education the income effect of rising male incomes served to reduce female labour force participation considerably although some evidence of positive own wage effect is prevalent, the income effect of husbands earning remains a very strong driver of female labour force participation. At the highest education levels there are some evidence from pull factors drawing women into labour force with high pay conditions which affects only a tiny minority of the women. As a result the economic boom has offered remarkably few opportunities to women in India.

Premratne S.P (2011) focused on the labour supply decision in Sri Lanka of parents with the presence of pre-school children and found that women's non-market time does not depend on their husband's wage. Both housework and childcare of other adults especially female adults responded positively to an increase in the wife's labour force participation. Decision to buy formal childcare is affected by the age of children, cost of daycare centers, household income, type of occupation and level of education and quality of childcare services increased with FLP. If childcare is more affordable more mothers would participate in the labour force.

Verena Tandrayen etal (2011) used household survey data and logistic regression model for Mauritius for the period 2006 to 2008, to investigate the factors that encourage and also deter women from entering the labour market. Their findings corroborated with previous evidence for developing countries and

indicated that the greater a woman's educational level, the greater her participation, and that older woman participates more, though the rate of growth of this effect decreases. In addition, secondary education proved to be a significant determinant of female labour participation rate in Mauritius. Results also revealed that married women are less likely to enter the labour force. In fact marital status is one of the most important factors averting them from work

Janice Compton and Robert A Pollak (2011) portrayed that close geographical proximity to mothers or mother-in-law had a substantial positive effect on the labour supply of married women with young children. The predicted probability of employment and labour force participation was 4-10 percent points higher for married women with young children living close to their mother or their mother-in-law compared with those living further away. Availability of childcare was the mechanism linking proximity and labour supply.

Isis Gaddis and Stephen Klasen (2012) pointed out that there is no evidence of a systematic U shaped relationship between GDP per capita and female labour force participation. It cannot be considered as a stylized fact that countries that initially experienced a decline in the female labour force participation would experience a rise in female participation over the course of economic development. The sectoral changes, changes in employment trends within sectors as well as policies that promote female employment opportunities associated with female education are the drivers of female employment than secular trends.

Jean Fouré Agnes Benassy- Quereand Lionel Foutagnne (2012) projected the expected growth scenario for 147 countries from 2010 to 2050 on the basis of macro- econometrics of the global economy. They found that India's active population would exceed China's population by around 130 million and Sub Saharan African active population were of 30 million which is greater than India. Only 40 percent of India's working age female population were in the labour force due to fertility, urbanization and education.

Karen. N. Eggleston & Vector R. Fuchs (2012) covered the period 1900-2007 for the U.S&16 other developed countries that were chosen for continuity of their mortality data. Demographic statistics such as life expectancy at birth and the percentage of each birth cohort expected to survive to age 65 and the share of the increase in life expectancy at birth realized after age 65 were taken. Expected labour force participation was calculated to investigate how changes in mortality affected labour force participation and work life as a share of life expectancy. Results found that better health in terms of improved survival and reduced morbidity raised age specific rates of labour force participation. Changes in the occupational structure that lowered the physical demand for work increased participation rate.

Sunny Jose (2012) pointed that participation of women in workforce continued to be quite low. Paid work was not the preferred choice of women in India. It is the economic compulsion that made them to participate in paid work as it was essential and inevitable for household food security. Women spent an average 18.72 hours per week in SNA activities while the men spent 41.96 hours per week.

Aditi Nigan (2013) opined that a combination of factors such as increased education, enrolment in school, income effect, lack of job opportunities were the reasons for decline in female labour force participation rate. And further suggested the need for a comprehensive approach to address the challenge as there is great uncertainty over labour force participation to rise as women become more educated.

Sharmistha Sinha (2013) pointed out that lack of education is an impediment for the women to shift to paid work. Though shortage of human capital is an important supply side constraint. Various socio economic factors apart from educational level debar them from taking to employment in other capacities. Socio-economic structures are deterrent factor. Demand side factors also lead to high incidence of unpaid work. With shrinking employment

opportunities in formal sectors has further restricted the possibilities of paid jobs.

Tornoko Kishi (2013) estimated the labour supply functions for married women in Japan capturing the difference between 3 cohorts of women regarding their choice of employment status-full time employment or part time employment. They found that there was negative effect of having children aged 3 to 5 years on both full time and part time employment which was weaker among the younger cohorts. On the other hand the negative effect of having children less than 2 years of age on full time and part time employment was common to both older and younger cohorts.

Kelly Hard and Jenniffer Baxter (2013) described a positive link between maternal employment and use of different types of childcare for school aged children. Thereby explored factors involved in mothers decision making about employment as well as child care with key concerns being related to availability of different care providers, flexibility of their own employment and children's capacity for self care.

Farrah Yasmin, Hina Amjad and Waqar Ahmed (2013) examined the effects of a variety of variables of household earnings on female labour force participation. Results based on Mincerian measurement identified that each year of education leads to increase in female labour force participation. Estimations signifies that education, choice of good occupation and household income, age of females, number of earners and household income significantly increases female participation in labour market. Age significantly affects female labour force participation. Participation was more in the case of married women than the unmarried women. Females in cities showed more participation compared to women in villages Education, choice of occupation and health facilities had significant impact on female labour force participation in Tehsil Vehari.

Mahapatro (2013) pointed out relationship between education and labour force participation stating that illiterate women had the highest work

participation in India indicating that the poorly educated women were forced to work mainly for their sustenance.

Rupa Subramanaya (2013) pointed that both demand and supply side factors of the labour market has been the reasons for women to drop out. There has been a U shaped relationship between years of education and FLFP. At very low levels of education and income women have no choice but to work in order to support the family. But as men in the family start earning from income women tend to cut back their work in formal economy to concentrate more on household activities. But women with some schooling or with high school completion are squeezed both by the pressure to stay at home and by the lack of plentiful jobs matching their intermediate levels of skills and education. At higher levels of education and income women re-enter the workforce into remunerative jobs matching their education and skills.

Klasen.S and J. Peters (2015) pointed that female labour force participation rates in urban India between 1987 and 2011 was surprisingly low and stagnated since late 1980's in spite of rising growth, fertility decline and rising wages and education levels. The female labour force participation of married women was around 18 percent. A combination of demand and supply affects contributed for the stagnation. The supply side factors are rising household incomes and husband's education as well as fall in the selectivity of highly educated women. On the demand side there was least expansion of the sectors that drew in female workers. So the changes in the sectoral structure of employment alone would have led to declining participation rates.

Lipishree Das (2015) explored the factors responsible for women's participation such as age, family income, family size, land holdings and level of education. They found that low family income was the main reason for their participation. The second reason stated by them was to meet the family's basic needs. The third reason was to meet the additional needs of their family such as education of their children, medical charges, marriage of their children, or

any unforeseen contingencies. Besides this socio-economic and cultural factors also influence their participation.

Married women were less likely to participate in the labour market compared to un married because the former were constrained with responsibilities. A rise in educational level beyond 12 years of schooling increased the probability of female labour force participation where as less educated females were discouraged from entering the labour market. Household per capita income had a positive and significant relationship with female labour force participation implies that the higher the level of income the higher the probability of female working. Females living in agriculture households were more likely to participate in labour market than those from non agriculture household. With rise in family size the probability of female labour force participation rises but if it increases beyond 15 then their participation becomes negative. If a female is the household head and lives in an urban location she is more likely to prefer a paid job rather than as an unpaid family help without any monetary benefits. In rural agricultural households the female household head supports the family as unpaid help. There is a U shaped relationship between labour saving appliances and female labour force participation. When the number of appliances owned increased beyond 7 there was a greater likelihood of a female moving towards the labour market to meet household needs. Similarly the ownership of luxurious appliances showed a negative relationship with female labour force participation. While the squared term had a positive relationship representing upper class households in which females were more likely to spend time utilizing the facilities at home to gain access to other opportunities such as education, health etc. Therefore being more competitive they were likely to be active participants of labour market. Fertility has a significant negative impact on female labour force participation. Living in a joint family increased the possibility of female participants in economic activities. The low labour participation rate among females in Pakistan reflects the penalty for the possible disruption of human capital formation among females resulting from their discontinuous market activity due to being married, to meet child care

needs and discriminating practices by employers or co-workers. These factors led to lower wages and push them down the occupational ladder. Therefore demand deficiency and low market wages combined with high reservation wages is responsible for low participation of females in labour market.

Pirita sorsa, Jan Mares, Mathilda Didier, Caio Guimaraes, Marie Rabate Gen Tang Annamaria Tuske (2015), identified education and income to be negatively correlated with female labour force participation in India. According to them apart from the lack of jobs, social and cultural factors keep women outside the labour force. Other factors included infrastructure, access to finance, labour laws and rural employment programmes. Infrastructure is a significant positive determinant of female labour force participation. Regional differences in the female labour force participation are large.

Piritta Sorsa (2015) pointed out that economic participation of women in labour force or as entrepreneur is low compared to peer. Participation has declined with higher education achievements and family income. Complex set of reasons such as socio- economic and cultural factors were the main reasons for this. Family status increased if women stayed at home so housework became more attractive than poorly paid market work with rise in husband's income. Concerns of safety and poor infrastructure kept women away from market work. High unemployment among educated women and revealed preference for work indicated that they preferred to work if conditions of work improved. Lack of availability of jobs was also an issue as high growth had not created enough jobs especially for women.

. Sonali Das, Sonali Jain-Chandra, Kalpana Kochhar and Naresh Kumar (2015) linked the issue of FLP in India to market rigidities. And found that there is a U shaped relationship between labour force participation rate, with increasing education FLPR first declined and then picked up among highly educated women who experience pull factor of high paid white collar jobs. Over time the gender gap narrows and at higher education levels female labour force participation rises. Income has a dampening effect on female labour force

participation, with higher participation rates among low income households due to economic necessity. With rising household incomes participation rates for women start to drop off.

Stephan Klasen and Janneke Pieters (2015) investigated that it was the combination of both demand and supply side effects that accounted for the low and stagnant female labour force participation rate in urban India over the past 25 years in spite of high GDP and earnings growth, decline in fertility, rapid expansion of female education and rising returns to education. On the supply side with rise in male income and education there has been a fall in female labour force participation showed income effect was at work. Although there had been increase in the proportion of women with graduate education that led to increased labour force participation but as a result of stigmas the women worked in low skilled sectors. On the demand side changes in the sectoral structure of employment contributed to the fall in female labour force participation. The findings pointed a mismatch between sectoral structure of employment and women's preferences. Their labour force participation was decided by their families and was not the reflection of their own preferences.

George Argyrous, Lyn Craig, Sara Rahman (2016) draws on pre and post birth information to understand the time allocation first time parents to work and child care. Among the Australian couples it is the mother's role to make adjustments to her working life. The unwillingness or inability of husbands to make substantial changes to their paid work commitments of the fathers has constrained the choices available to women in order to balance their own paid work and child care. The results suggested that each partner's absolute salary, coupled with structural factors such as work place flexibility, paid parental leave and child care availability are the main determinants of women's work force participation after the birth of the first child.

Oslen and Sen (2016) argued that the decline in women's LFPR is due to an overall decline in or absence of short and long term employment opportunities in rural areas.

The existing literature suggests many reasons for women either to enter or not to enter into work force. Reasons cited pertained to 'economic necessity to look after their families' points to the fact that push factors are more compelling for women to come to the work force.

2.3 Impact of Female Labour Force Participation

Women often choose an identity of a mother who nurtures her family making huge investments for the stability and peace of her home. Women contribute her mind and soul for the survival of her family and society at large with a sense of responsibility. "Breaking the glass ceiling" is a first step in this direction would bring radical changes if recognition and support are given to women. Some of the noteworthy findings of various studies that focused on impact of women's' entry into labour force has been illustrated as follows.

Popkin B.M and F.S. Solon (1976) found that activities of the mother's work had a significant influence on the nutritional status of her child. With the allocation of her time spent on income, production and household work there has been an important impact on her child's nutritional status.

Sawant.S.D and Rita Devana (1979) in their study on rural female labour and economic development in Maharashtra concluded that developed villages show lower female participation rates than less developed villages.

Moshe Semy Onov (1980) focused on women's labour force participation as a feature of social structure and demonstrates that participation is positively related to economic development and divorce rate and negatively related to fertility and income inequality. While the effect of economic development is indicated by various aspects of familial composition, the most significant effect on female labour participation is that of income inequality. Women are less likely to join labour force in such society where inequality is high. The female labour force participation has consequences for occupational discrimination. The odds that women can achieve high status and well paid jobs decreases with women in the labour force. The findings suggest that

integration of females into labour force is determined by the shape of the stratification system which caused discrimination.

Claudia Goldin (1983) pointed the importance of early occupational choice with women who began in manufacturing jobs to exit from labour force upon marriage. The substantial heterogeneity of labour force meant that the accumulated work experience of currently employed married women barely increased during periods of rising labour force participation. These results have important implications for the relative constancy in the ratio of female to male wages. The relative stability of experience ratings for working married women suggest that the steadiness of ratio of female to male wages is consistent with the increase in labour force participation during that time period.

Shekaran (1984), focused on working couples from the city of Mumbai. He established moderate role of gender in relationship between work variables (such as income, discretionary time, job involvement, career guidance and self esteem from job) and outcomes of life satisfaction and job satisfaction. Further observed that traditional large combined and extended families in urban India were giving way to nuclear families. This change in the couples attitude to become more independent took away the traditional support system from family members especially the childcare and household work and during illness.

Ware, H (1984) observed that women's economic activities affect child care adversely where the activity was incompatible with child rearing or where the mother lacked accessibility to another person who would take care of her child.

Winegarden, C.R (1986) has analysed the cross sectional data pertaining to the effects of women labour force participation on the inequality of household income. It highlighted that direct effects of female labour force participation on the distribution of household income followed a u-shaped pattern. Starting from low levels of participation, a rise in activity rates substantially increased income inequality. This disequalising effect gradually diminishes as participation rises up to an overall rate for women aged

15-64 years of slightly more than 40 percent. Higher participation rates decreases fertility which slow down the subsequent growth of the working age population. This in turn reduces disparities in household income.

Using aggregate data from the Registrar General of India's survey of infant and child mortality, Beenstark and Sturdy (1990) concluded that, controlling for other socio economic factors, the relative probability of infants dying was 27 percentage higher for working mothers than for nonworking mothers.

Basu's (1991) findings on child mortality, found that in villages in Karnataka, children whose mothers were wage workers were less likely to be immunized and more likely to suffer from poor nutrition than children whose mothers are family workers or housewives. On the other hand, the difference in health and nutritional status between children whose mothers work on the family farm and whose mothers are housewives is relatively small. Result does not lead them to conclude that maternal participation in wage work causes poor health outcomes for their children. Rather, they have seen it as an outcome of the socio-economic context in which women work. Women's economic activities are strongly correlated with family income and socio-economic status. Wage workers and petty traders are more likely to belong to SCs and STs, to have less education, to have lower levels of family income and consumption. Therefore, the apparent negative correlation between mothers wage work and child health is likely to be caused by the family's socio-economic circumstances and may have little to do with maternal work status. Again, based on actual time-use patterns, it was found that the mother's time in specific child care activities such as feeding or bathing children does not differ much by work status, but the mother's leisure time gets affected.

The above review suggests that there are many socio-economic, cultural and demographic factors, which influence the association between women's work status and child care and survival.

Using Census data of 1981, Yearbook of Ministry of Health and Family Planning 1987 and Registrar General of India 1988, Basu and Basu (1991) came to the conclusion that women's employment, in spite of other benefits, has a crucial adverse consequence on child survival. By examining various immediate relationships, they concluded that shortage of time is one of the main reasons for this negative relation between maternal employment and child survival. However, this study does not have adequate evidence on the distribution of women's work by kind of employment. Again, like nonworking women, working women are also heterogeneous in terms of their characteristics, it is possible that they share a common disadvantage which predisposes them to greater child loss, may be low income. The authors argue that while employed women are forced to work because of greater poverty, the additional income from their working has reduced their crunch in expenditure. It is important to the family as this income supplements or substitutes the male income of the household.

Basu,A.M and K.Basu (1991) found that among the poorer sections of the population, the probability of a child dying is greater for a mother who is employed than in the case of a mother who is not employed.

Gillepsie and McNeil (1992) studied on the dynamics of the food system in South Indian village society and its relation to agriculture, social institutions, physical work, nutrition, health and survival has analyzed the impact of maternal work on child health and nutrition. It was found that the net effect of maternal labour force participation and time allocated to activities of household work are incompatible with childcare using correlation analysis. They argued that the adverse effect of high maternal labour participation on child nutritional status is likely to have impact on both quantitative and qualitative aspects of childcare and feeding. Infants tended to be 'opportunity-fed' as opposed to 'demand-fed', i.e. they were fed whenever the mother had a chance. The correlation results showed a high degree of association between maternal labour force participation and child malnutrition but it did not prove to be the cause.

Prabhajot Malhi et al (1992) analyzed the impact of women's literacy and economic participation on the change in sex ratio in India. The findings suggested that the neglect of female children was more pronounced in areas where women had limited access to value resources such as education and employment. Therefore, a strong case was made in framing deliberate policies to increase accessibility of women to education and employment. Such policies enabled them to become independent, self reliant and productive members of the society as well as improve the prospects of their female children.

Desai.S and D. Jain (1994) observed that in India, maternal time with children was not very sensitive to women's involvement in market work. And women with no market work were responsible for spending much of their time in domestic chores there by spend less time with children.

Zachariah K.C, S.Irudaya Rajan, P.S.Sharma K. Navneethan, PSG Nair and U.S.Mishra (1994) observed that in Kerala the mortality risk for child during infancy and childhood was higher if women were working and vice versa. The working women had less time to take care of her child. Even spend less time on breastfeeding her children.

Using the Census data of 1981, a district-level analysis of the determinants of mortality, fertility and gender bias in India has been made by Murthy, Guio and Dreze (1995).They realized that in estimating the effect of female labour force participation on child mortality and other demographic outcomes, it is important to control for the incidence of poverty. The female labour force participation in India is a reflection of the economic hardship, and the failure to control this factor may lead to a spurious positive relationship between female labour force participation and child mortality, while implicitly reflecting the positive association between poverty and child mortality. The analysis, after controlling for this variable, showed higher female participation associated with lower child mortality.

Krishnaji (1995) has analyzed the impact of female work status on child survival using 1981 Census data and found that in all the states of India,

working mothers experienced greater child loss than non-working mothers owing to poor nutritional status and health care among their children.

Horton (1996) stated that women's inclusion in the market labour force has been cherished as a goal of social and economic initiative that has been historically associated with the transition from unpaid household and family work to paid work with a number of improvements in development indicators. And the independent market labour does not necessarily mean that there would be a significant control over income.

Sasikala Patnaik and Prahlad Misra (1997), in the study on contribution of employed women in household income in Bhubaneswar highlighted the economic contribution of the employed women to their family income.

Agarwal (1998) revealed that women's income was typically acquired and controlled by men. Although the ability to generate independent income may empower women to some degree yet may also not be supported by male kin, leaving them isolated and increasingly vulnerable to market forces on which they cannot have any control. Thus earning an income does not translate into autonomy, empowerment or control.

Analysing the impact of mothers' employment on infant and child mortality in India, using NFHS data 1992, Kishore and Parasuraman (1998) found that mothers who were employed had 100 percent higher infant mortality rate and 36 percent higher child mortality rate than mothers who were not employed. Hence, concluded that employment of women outside the home for cash was the most empowering form of employment associated with elevated risk of infant and child mortality. In India, women involved in market work were more likely to be poor, landless and belonging to backward castes.

Sunita Kishor and Sulabha Parasuraman (1998) generalized that mother's employment outside the home is associated with elevated risk of infant and child mortality. The narrowing of gender differentials in child mortality associated with mother's employment found in bi-variate data is largely due to

stronger association between mother's employment and mortality risk for boys more than for girls. Examining the effect of employment by area of residence pointed out that the survival of infant girls varied by mother's employment. Infant mortality is unaffected by mother's employment in rural areas irrespective of the sex of the child. At the infant mortality stage, women in the urban areas are less successful in combining infant care and work than rural women. The higher mortality of children if mother's work reflects that employment for women is in addition to their traditionally ascribed roles. Hence, society and culture have to adapt so as to ensure alternatives for child care to women who work irrespective of whether they work out of choice or necessity.

Engineer Mahrukh, Parikh Indira. J. (1999) provided a panoramic view of Indian women in Management from the 1950's to the end of the 19th century. It looks at the transformation of the Indian women clad in meters of fabric to today's educated, capable and successful women accomplished with great personal sacrifices. The paper discusses in five phases of evolution of the Indian women's role in management. The first being the beginning of women in work places to utilize their education and time. Second is their struggle to break through the barrier of promotions and senior positions. Third phase is the one where the women competed for career and opportunities in the organizations and the fourth phase represented the organization and society with the evolution of a mature career person with professional ambitions and aspirations matching their male counterpart. The consequent evolution of the environment both at home and at workplace witnessed societal changes in terms of an increased acceptance by families and colleagues at workplace of the women's new role.

Cauvery and Sudha Nayak (2000) maintained that the direct involvement of women in welfare activities could create a sense of responsibility in the government machinery and further supportive services for working would also make women powerful, indispensable agents of social change and development.

Dora. L.Corta (2000) opined that the entry of women into career represented a fundamental breakthrough with the past. The concept of cohort matters in increasing participation of married women's work for pay outside the home. Cohorts differ in terms of their education and wealth, their fertility, accumulation of labour market experience and their socialization experiences when young. The rise in the career women into labour market was determined both by contemporaneous demand factors and by their characteristics expectations and social norms regarding work and family of different cohorts of women.

Muthuraja C (2001) opines that with development there would be diversification of tertiary sector /urban areas which does not hold good for women. Women in the informal sector outside agriculture are mostly extension of the role they play within the household. Though women are entering the labour market in increasing numbers their employment was relatively concentrated in small numbers of female areas and occupation tending to attract low rewards and prestige. Women's participation in employment is not only mediated by gender but also by caste, ethnicity ,age and marital status. Marriage results in retrenchment of women especially after child birth. It was suggested that the new millennium was not likely to bring about a quantitative improvement in the position of women in the labour market. Government made some special effort to open up new avenues of employment for women especially in the administrative, banking and insurance sectors.

Nomita.P.Kumar (2002), analyzed the domestic duties of the secretariat workers in Lucknow city. The findings pointed out a break up in traditional patriarchal system. Respondents have achieved a high level of adjustment between domestic and office work due to the presence of kin and hired help which helped to reduce the role- conflict. This highlighted the change in the attitude of women towards employment. Employment had a remarkable impact on the development of their personality. It had also brought changes in their family attitude in terms of respect, obedience, seeking advice on the career and the marriage of the children. Females were treated equally within families in

matters of decision making and purchases of durable goods and monetary expenditures.

Ambiga Devi.P (2003) analyzed the share of women to the total family income. Discriminant analysis was carried out to find out whether the women respondents could be discriminated into two groups based on their share of family income with 8 socio economic factors viz. number of hours worked, income of respondents, total family income, dependents in the family, size of family, marital status, type of family, total family expenditure. From the analysis it was found that income had the highest discriminating power of 55.46 percent. With increased income, women were able to contribute more to their families. Family income was the second highest discriminating factor of score of 29.03 percent followed by family expenditure with a score of 8.28 percent. Although 8 factors were included in the function, only 3 factors together contributed about 93 percent of the total discrimination.

Mohammed Hossain and Clem Tisdell (2003) examined the link between fertility and female labour force participation in Bangladesh specifying a bivariate and trivariate models. They included average age at first marriage for females, per capita GDP and infant mortality rate which controls for the effects of other socio-economic factors on fertility and female labour force participation. All the models indicated an inverse long run relationship between fertility and female labour force participation. While the bivariate model indicated bidirectional causality, the multivariate model models confirm only a unidirectional causality- from female labour force participation to fertility. Further per capita GDP and infant mortality rate appear to Granger-cause both fertility and female labour force participation. And the average age at marriage has only contemporaneous effects on them. The findings are consistent with similar macro level studies for other countries.

Nirmala.V and Sham Bhatt (2003) analyzed the factors influencing female decision to shift from farm to non- farm employment in rural Pondicherry region. It also examined the impact of their earnings on household income

distribution. A random sample of 200 female respondents comprising of 100 each engaged in farm and non-farm activities respectively were collected. Simple averages percentages, correlation matrix, OLS and logit regression, co-efficient of variation Gini co-efficient and Lorenz curve were used. The regression results revealed that marriage and children below 4 years of age significantly discouraged female workers from shifting into non-farm sector. This was due to the conflict arising between domestic and market work in the sector. On the other hand, higher education level and credit amounts significantly encouraged the shift. Longer years of experience, more hours of work and higher earnings in the farm sector significantly reduced the inclination of female members to move into non- farm employment. Higher incomes of family members also had a significant negative effect on the decision to shift. The assessment of impact on female earnings on household income distribution indicated that they had an equalizing affect.

Renuka Pillai and Lakshmi Devi (2003) studied the influence of female earners on the economic status of the family using primary data collected from 400 households in Trichur district of Kerala. The general conclusion emerging from the study was that the economic status of households with the female earner was high and the women contributed a larger proportion of their income for family maintenance compared to men.

Ukwuani, F.A and Suchindran, C.M (2003) observed that in sub-saharan Africa, mother's work did not have a negative effect on stunting during their infancy and wasting was higher for children of mother's who did not earn and never went to work. Their children were about 1.87 times more likely to be wasted than children of non-working mother's.

Parthasarathy (2004) in his study on poverty and female headed households found that both poverty and female headed households go together. The household expenditure of female headed households were half that of male headed households. It was established that the children's

nutritional status mainly depended on the wage of mother rather than the employment of the father and his wages.

Rana et al (2004) conducted a study on female labour participation in productive work. Primary source of data collection was used to select households of village Dulehara in Jhejjar district of Haryana state. The aim of the study was to raise the standard of living of women through active female participation in productive works. A proportional stratified random sampling technique was adopted to select the sample households. The study found that 29.75 percent of the overall working hours were devoted by the female population. This constitutes nearly one third of the total working hours. Female work participation has been found to be low due to various reasons like the decline in social status, scarcity of funds, lack of technical knowhow and training and lack of availability of suitable jobs. The study stressed on increasing awareness for all productive works with dignity and devotion and to increase infrastructure facilities to enhance work participation.

Shimray.U.A (2004) made a study on the household work, work force participation, division of labour and women's position in Naga society with special reference to Tankhal Nagas of Manipur state. The average time spent on housework and agricultural activities by men and children and their gendered division of labour were examined. Although Naga society is patriarchal, women enjoy considerable freedom and play an important role in family and community life. Gender disparity measures revealed that men's responsibilities for household activities is shrinking while women's work frontier is expanding as they take over time works traditionally designated to males.

Jameela.V.A (2006) pointed out that employment structure in Kerala as revealed by the analysis supported the presence of female marginalization thesis in Kerala. The labour force participation rates were lower for women and were declining over the years than for men. Women constitute a small proportion of the total work force particularly in non-agricultural sectors and in urban areas; Kerala's rural labour market is still dominated by self

employment and casual labour with a small share of regular employment. The urban labour market is also dominated by self employment and casual labour. Within the work force; women are mostly found working in low paid occupations. Thus there is a tendency for increasing casualization of female.

Sundari, S (2006) observed that female work participation increased marginally during 1991-2000. It was found that work participation was more among the urban women. And gender disparity in work participation was relatively higher in urban than in rural areas and there was no occupational diversification among women. Concentration of women in agricultural occupations an indicator of women's disadvantaged position, increased economic disparity and poverty.

Baby K. A (2007) pointed out that though Kerala state has a high physical quality of life index, the health status of urban working women is low. Though they are economically better off, their health status is low when compared to that of non- working women. Health status of informal sector employees is lower than that of employees in the formal sector. Three hundred women employees were selected of whom 150 were from the formal sector and 150 from the informal sector. They were classified into 10 groups. Samples were taken in proportion to their number in different occupational groups such as sales girls, last grade workers, nurses, typist, clerks, technicians, school teachers, professionals and gazette officers and lecturers. It was found that the health status of urban working women with large family having long distance to reach work places, have to spend more time in workplaces. The results show that the improvement in monthly income does not have much impact on raising health status of individuals. Women employees in the informal sector are in a vulnerable position because of the nature of work and low pay. They have to do menial jobs in dangerous environment which resulted in low health status of urban working women of Kerala.

Escher T.V (2007) observed that there is a partial reversal of the culture of female devaluation which is currently emerging among the young women

from the urban middle class employed in India's high tech sector. India has an increasingly large middle class estimated to be more than 200 million making it a significant and crucial segment that can act as a harbinger for social change. There are far reaching implications for gender equality and social change when young women find opportunities to improve their financial autonomy, mobility and social acceptance in a male dominated society. As part of the transition the old concept of breadwinner is paving way to gender equity model of family.

Using panel data from the Young Lives Study for 2007 and 2009-10, we find that participation of mothers in the work force has a positive effect on her children's time in school. Moreover we find that this effect is largely on children in the poorest wealth group and for girls in the household. Our findings of the positive effect of mothers working on children's time spent in school carries implications for the latter's educational attainment as well. Our results suggest that grade attainment of children, particularly of those from poorer households and girls, and test scores improve due to mothers' labor force participation. These findings imply that more time in school translates into better educational outcomes.

Anderson and Eswaran (2009) using data from Bangladesh, the effect of earned income on female autonomy was found to have far greater impact than that of unearned income. Women who worked on the household farm have no more autonomy than those who are housewives, while those who earned independent income had considerably greater autonomy.

Chee K.H and R.D Conger and G.H.Jr. Elder (2009) opined that mothers with long working hours and irregular schedules were likely to spend lesser time and energy for unpaid work such as family obligations.

David E. Bloom David Canning et al., (2009) estimated that an increase in female labour force supply raises the economic returns to women's schooling and provides positive incentives to invest in education. And a decline in fertility also allows greater investment in child health and education. Examining the effect of fertility on female labour force participation on a panel of countries

following abortion legislations as an instrument for fertility they found that removing the legal restrictions on abortions significantly reduced fertility. It was estimated that on average a birth reduces a women's labour supply by almost two years during her reproductive age. Results implied that behavioural change in labour supply contributed significantly to economic growth using the demographic transition when fertility declined.

Farzana Afridi, Abhiroop Mukhopadhyay et al. (2012) pointed out that women labour force participation is associated with better educational outcomes of their children via National Rural Employment Guaranteed Scheme. It is further estimated that the impact of mothers labour force participation is over and above any income effect induced by the scheme.

Mynul Islam (2012) described that most of the household works are done by women whatever may be the matter and whatever may be her position whether employed or unemployed. It is the Cultural framework of our patriarchal society which makes housework as women's work and outside work as men's work. Further opined that women contribute a lion's share of household work but still are not recognised and goes unreported. Hence women are deprived of their rights leading to scarcity and poverty.

Neyer G., Lappegard T. and Vignoli D. (2013, b) on the basis of empirical studies it has been proved that women employment has a bearing on fertility. Women's participation in paid work provides the monetary basis which enables to set up household to ensure her own and her family set up which grants economic independence and welfare protection over the course of life. It shows that women's paid work has a negative impact on child bearing.

Pines, Anna Gassman (2013) observed that the increased daily work load of low income working mothers had resulted in harsh mother child interaction due to their negative and tired moods.

Bhaswati Das and Dipika Subba (2015) revealed that wealth index played an important role in determining the nutritional status of both scheduled

tribe and non scheduled tribe children. Mother's economic participation in the case of schedule tribe children failed to ensure good nutritional status to their child as most of them worked in subsistence economy. While in the case of non scheduled tribe children there has been a significant relation with regard to both wealth index and mother's work participation in improving their material well being.

Afshin Zilanawala (2016) investigated the time poverty rates by family structure for women in combination of two social roles namely as worker and as a parent. The never married women had significantly lower time poverty rate compared to married women. There are no family structure differences in time poverty among the married employed mother's living with other employed adults that significantly reduced the odds of time poverty for never married women. And found that time deficits was the result of disproportionate amount of time spent in paid and unpaid work. Such time deficits are related to negative health outcomes.

The labour force participation of women has a potential impact not only on the individual but also on the household behavior including women's participation in household chores, resource allocation decisions, marriage, fertility, education of children, buying provisions and house maintenance activities .

2.4 Problems of Working Women

The problems and difficulties of working women and non working women are multidimensional. It varies from women to women at personal level and at general levels. They have been subject to discrimination at various levels be it at home or at the work places. Juggling with work at home as well as at work place pressurizes them along with it; strict deadlines many a times affect their health and well being. Some of the findings of research focusing on problems encountered by women are outlined here in ,

Unwalla (1977) studied 50 married and 50 unmarried women executives from banking, marketing and advertising industry and 50 housewives in

Mumbai. She attempted to assess if work interfered with the family lives of women executives. According to the study work did not directly affect marital relationship. It is individual specific attitude that explained marital adjustments. Women who had social adjustment problems before marriage continued to have adjustment problems later thus reported marital disharmony. All three categories of women opined that family roles were more important than their work role. Family factors such as ill health of family members or inability to perform household duties were seen as stressful or problematic by married as well as unmarried working women. Non working wives were stronger in their opinion that children and family get neglected at the expense of work.

Eleanor R Fapohunda (1983) investigated whether the pattern on sexual wage differentials among academicians of the university of Lagos in 1980 was primarily due to overt sex discrimination on the part of university authorities or rather was it a reflection of academic productivity differentials. A sample of the 36 women staff of the faculties of science, social science and arts and education and 82 males were interviewed. The academic rank differentials because of gender attributed to 89 percent and only 11percent to employer discrimination. Analysis of the quantitative data revealed the social definition of women's role and structure of families had affected the productivity of the female.

Usha Samba Moorthi (1984) attempted to measure the magnitude of discrimination against women employees in an urban labour market in India. Findings showed that the average earnings of the women were lower than those of men for equal qualification and efficiency. Women wage differentials were due to deliberate discrimination against women in the labour market. The findings indicated unequal distribution of education and other economic characteristics which influence earnings cause substantial wage difference between the sexes.

Raghuradha, R.C (1986) found that 42 percent of the working women took decisions in family matters but not on major issues. Most of the sample

women reported that they were discriminated while being allotted work. And they were held accountable when the assigned was not completed within the time though they were allotted more work.

Abusalah Shariff (1989) investigated the nature of relationship between work and child care among mothers working in both organized and unorganized sectors and the problems faced by them. All except female self employed workers experienced problems combining work and child care. Since the casual workers in the city and in villages lacked child care facilities their children were most affected.

Anitha Sharma (1990) opined that various restrictions imposed on women on the role of women in the domestic and social spheres have been greatly influenced by religious conceptions substantiated by various legends and myths. Economic deprivation led to more direct form of social oppression for which she had to pay a heavy price at the cost of their self dignity and independence. Their role in cultural development of a society was under estimated and under scored.

Basheer, A Dabla (1991) reported that working women enjoyed the benefits of independence, salary, mobility and exposure but suffered from conflicts, crisis, strains and tensions in their personal lives.

ShamemAleem (1991) pointed out that the spread of education and economic compulsions have made women come out of the confines of their home. Women had to struggle hard in order to make a breakthrough in the police service. Men were not prepared to induct women into police force. The discrimination against women continued. They were not given equal treatment in many respects including salaries. Though there are no legal barriers yet male chauvinists do not give equal treatment to women in their employment for different police positions. The reasons for women not joining the IPS was found in their lack of interest in the police service which was considered a men's domain. The reason for women preferring other central

services to IPS included the hazardous nature of police work, strenuous physical activity and uncertain duty hours.

Joseph Raj (1996) in his study on women's work participation in India found that majority of the urban women workers of developing countries were employed in the informal sector. There are high concentrations of women in occupations characterized by low skill requirement, low productivity, meager income, less stability and less security. Half of the women in the urban in formal sector were home based workers.

Geetha Gandhi Kingdom (1997) tested empirically 1000 members of sample households between 15-59 years of age in urban agglomeration in Lucknow district of Uttar Pradesh. The results revealed that there was substantial bias in the estimates of the rates of return to education. Women endure lower returns to education than men. She suggested that policies have to be framed to discourage sex discrimination in the labour market to raise the rate of return to women's education and enhance women's incentive to invest in education.

Sudha Deshpande and Lalit K. Deshpande (1997) presented an overview of the phenomenon of gender based discrimination in India's urban labour market distinguishing between four aspects of the problem namely employment discrimination, occupational segregation, wage discrimination and human capital discrimination. Women faced employment discrimination in the labour market. Results show that unemployment rates declined for rural and urban men. But unemployment was higher for women in urban than rural India, by usual and current weekly status between 1983 and 1993-94. However increase in the share of wage employment for women implied improvement in their employment situations. Though women could get work still their economic conditions have not improved. They also reported that work availability was limited. This made them to enter low paid jobs. Women were also overcrowded in a few occupations such as teaching, domestic and clerical work. The index of female concentration for occupational divisions show that in

1983, women workers in urban India were concentrated in three occupations namely,

1. professional, technical and related occupation such as teachers and nurses
2. in service occupations such as maids, cooks, and sweepers
3. as farmers

Kalpagam, U (1999) observed that women's bargaining position can be strengthened only if patriarchal dominance in households is countered. And suggest for efforts to be taken to bring women to the main stream. It was observed that women preferred flexible schedules and job assignments. Such dimensions of work cause new new patterns of women's work.

Pestonjee D.M, Bhardwaj Gopa, Kapoor Jaya (1999) provided an insight into the various facets of women's career. The sample consisted of 30 women executives and 30 women non-executives from a private sector organization. Their results showed that women employees resembled one another closely on intrinsic value of having a reputation for extreme competence in their chosen fields. Women employees felt that their social circles tended to favour women who are able to work but does not allow to be interfered with home and family obligations. Family was perceived as a barrier to a married women's career commitment and most of them agreed that husband's career plans interfered with their career commitments.

Rehana Qureshi (2000) investigated the different problems faced by working women residing in a working women hostel in Faisabad. Women belonged to different professional categories namely teaching, health and others. More than half of the respondents considered that they were unable to give proper time to their family members. Some others felt that health of their family members suffered greatly due to their jobs A few others stated that they were unable to attend their family functions. Respondents from all professions placed the common utility problems on priority one, while conveyance was placed on priority second. Many others were home sick.

Azeem Syed Mohammed Pestonjee, D.M. (2001), investigated the relationship between organizational role stress and job burnout among university teachers. A sample consisting of 300 university teachers were surveyed and were classified into 3 groups of 100 each. The results indicated that the organizational role stress is highly correlated with job burnout among all three groups of teachers (lecturers, readers and professors). Lecturers have the higher levels of role stress compared to other two counterparts and were found to be significantly different from readers and professors on demographic variables and in their level of role stress and emotional exhaustion. Readers were found to be significantly different on role erosion, role overload, and self role distance. Resource inadequacy and total organizational role stress from the professors but were not found to be significantly different on the level of job burnout. Professors were found to have least amount of the level of stress and burn out as compared to readers and lecturers. Stepwise multiple regression analysis suggested that the total organizational role stress, role erosion, role ambiguity are common and significant predictors of job burnout among all these three groups.

Kaila, H.L (2002) provides an insight into the psychological problems faced by female working population in Mumbai. Most of the health problems faced by the women were between 22 and 58 years of age. Psychosomatic problems like backaches, eye problems, fatigue, chest pain, loss of appetite and insomnia are the result of conditions surrounding them at work. Doctors say female executives and welfare personnel face depression, anemia, miscarriage and other gynecological complications. Marriage and family support also seemed to influence their lives.

Sanjay Kumar (2002) A quantitative study conducted in 8 centers across India looked at 179 women aged 18-60 years with a male relative who misused drugs. Women bore a major blame. They are accused by male family members of being responsible for drug abuse of hiding the issue and not getting timely treatment. Women reported of respiratory, gastro intestinal, genitor urinary and liver problems and sexually transmitted infections. Their

psychological problems included insomnia, depression and anxiety about their current and future lives.

Vineeta Bal (2004) pointed out that the increase in the number of women scientists in biology, gender based disadvantages in the patriarchal culture continued to be the order of the day. One such factor common in many professions affecting women adversely is the long working hours. Many loose out in the pursuit of their profession in their early phase. Even for those who cross this hurdle successfully, the profession can make them invisible and not get recognition in the careers.

Martha Mac Donald, Shelley Phipp and Lynn Lethbridge (2005) examined the time spent by prime age women and men on paid work, child care, elder's care, household work, volunteering and education and assessed its impact on stress and work life balance. Results showed that women experienced more stress than men because they spent greater hours on unpaid work. And hours spent on elderly care and household work was more stressful than those spent on child care. It was also found that neither spouse unpaid work nor job characteristics alleviated stress. So strategies such as self-employment were used to improve work life balance.

Assocham (2007) a social development foundation, carried out an assessment revealing that 53percent of working women in India feared for their safety, most of them being employed in software companies, civil aviation, medical and textile industries.

Jeyaseelan L, etal (2007) in their work on "A multivariable analyses of cross-sectional data from seven rural and urban sites across India", reported that violence were two times greater among employed women whose husbands were unemployed in comparison to unemployed women whose husbands were employed. A slightly more odds of violence were also observed when both women and their husbands were employed.

Noamy kirson (2007) document a correlation between female labour force participation rate and mortality rate both at aggregate and individual level. Accordingly an increase in the female labour force participation coincided with extraordinary technological progress which improved the ability to prevent and treat diseases. There is a strong positive correlation between changes in female labour force participation rate and changes in age adjusted death rates among middle aged women and men controlling for other important determinants of health. And the probability of death of middle aged married men is higher among whose spouses work compared to employed men whose spouses are unemployed. Women participation in labour force is higher among the younger age group but is lower in the low child care benefits countries than in high child care benefits countries. The paper presented a consistent picture of female participation in labour force associated with negative health outcomes for hypertension or self reported health , men in their 50's or at a younger age across countries or within countries cross sectional data or longitudinal data. The health patterns revealed that stress at household level play a mediating role between female labour force participation and male health.

Assocham (2008) opined that there was unanimous dejection and despondence in the working women as the real challenge in their professional development came from within their families but they were not supported by their husbands so family responsibilities stopped them from entering into jobs. They felt that the organizational culture was exclusionary and did not support women's advancement and faced an increasing bias at work place. Many others felt that better economic conditions of the families were preventing them from entering in the job market.

Arun Chander et al; (2009) conducted a study on married women in the age group of 15-45 years. Out of 276 women interviewed 147 (53.3percent) reported domestic violence. It was found to be higher in those who (68.4percent) were working compared to house wives. The predominant cause of domestic violence was observed to be stress in the family.

Ians (2009) pointed out that more than 2/3rd of working women in India suffer from life style disease. Sixty eight percent of the working women in the age group 21-52 years were found to be affected with lifestyle ailments such as obesity, depression, chronic backache, diabetics and hyper tension. Long hours of working under strict deadlines came to 75percent of working women who suffered from depression or general anxiety disorders compared to women with more psychological demand at work. Women play vital and multiple roles especially those who are employed, as there needs a balance to be maintained by them, both at home and work place. Being ignorant about their health disorders can have multiple implications in her surroundings such as her family, workplace and social network.

Suneeta Krishnan, Corinne H Rocca, Alan E Hubbard, Kalyani Subbiah, Jeffrey Edmeades, and Nancy S Padian (2009) examined the prospective association between women's employment status, their perceptions of their husband's employment stability, and domestic violence. Women who were unemployed at one visit and began employment by the next visit had 80 percent higher odds of violence, as compared to women who maintained their unemployed status. Similarly, women whose husbands had stable employment at one visit and newly had difficulty with employment had 1.7 times the odds of violence, as compared to women whose husbands maintained their stable employment. This study is the first of its kind in a developing country which confirms that changes in spousal employment status are associated with subsequent changes in violence risk. It points to the complex challenges of violence prevention, including the need for interventions among men and gender transformative approaches to promote gender-equitable attitudes, practices and norms among men and women.

Deepa Ghosh (2010) investigated the occupational locking in and organizational stress of part time contract teachers working in the government degree colleges of Tripura. A group of hundred college teachers were selected as sample between ages 35-50 years. They found that part time contract teachers significantly had more locked in feelings in comparison to

regular teachers. They also experienced organizational role stress especially in terms of role stagnation, role expectation, conflict role, erosion role overload, role ambiguity and resource inadequacy.

Ravinder Kaur et al (2010) found significant mean difference in the psycho social problems of women school teachers of age less than 35 years and more than 35 years. They found significant mean difference in the psycho social problems among the less than 35 years age group of women school teachers, whereas for college women teachers aged above 35 years no significant difference existed. This is due to the fact that women teachers of less than 35 years are in the most productive period of their life. They are forced to juggle with the demands of career, spouse, children and aging parents. The years of experience could be directly proportional to the chronological age of an individual. By the time, women reaches 35 years of age, they have a better understanding of their family life, career and ageing parents. This is because, the more one stays at a position, the more one grows older and the better one learns to cope with psycho-social problems. Psycho - social problems have adverse effects on the physical and mental health consequences on women. This reduces her energy and makes it difficult to deal with others and also has a feeling of low control, helplessness and powerlessness.

Padmini Desikachar and Brinda Viswanathan (2011) observed that labour market insecurity was pervasive in rural India. It was found that insecurity was more pervasive among women than men. Amongst the self employed, insecurity was less severe compared to casual labourers and women who were illiterate agricultural labourers and belonged to SC/ST were at heightened risk of labour market insecurity. Factoring in selectivity bias showed that for men self selection into higher levels of insecurity was at the cost of human capital acquisition while self selection of women into different levels of insecurity was effected by their socio- cultural and economic status.

Sherly Thomas (2011) focused on the study of women workers in a textile industry which is the only industry to have employed women workers since long time. Women workers unlike majority in the informal sector have been exposed to rigorous work, discipline, fixed working hours, specific production norms etc. The garment industry in Tamil Nadu is dominated by females. There are many health problems to which they are exposed. Sixty women were taken for the study. She found that many of them suffered from back ache, joint pains, headaches and general tiredness. Women do not give much importance to their health. They tried to work even when they are sick and weak just to supplement their family income.

Anbaraya, Gundappa and Rathod (2012), opined that violence against women is endemic in India. The reasons being poor quality of life indicated by rampant poverty, lack of education, high under 5 mortality, maternal mortality etc. Violence is rampant on women both inside and outside her home proving that societal mindset has not changed.

Anna Reva (2012) presented a broad overview of labor market indicators in Serbia with a focus on career advancement employment patterns, entrepreneurship and earnings. The findings showed women are much more disadvantageous than men. They are less represented in the business world and there are significant wage gap especially with the low educated women who are particularly disadvantaged. The reasons pointed out were disproportionate share of household responsibilities including childcare, lack of flexible work arrangement, stereotype traditional roles of men and women, low market demand for female labor. So the significant and large, untapped economic potential represented by women either do not enter labour force or do not have the opportunities to advance in their business and political careers.

Devaki Jain (2012) pointed out that housewives work for approximately 15 unpaid working hours a day. These overworked and unpaid women have neither the money to spent nor time to spend. As a result of dual deprivation they were neglected were subjected to injustice and injuries in the form of

domestic violence. In spite of the fact that the UN Charter of Human Rights and various provisions the Constitution, women continued to be victims of violence.

National Crime Records Bureau (2012) reported an increase in cases against cruelty by husbands or relatives which doubled from 49237 during 2002 to 99135 during 2011. In Odisha context 2638 cases and 178 cases in Khordha have been filed against cruelty by husband or his relatives. Financial and social insecurity attached with the household works performed by the housewives was stated to have been the reason for the cruelty to them.

Rathi Mamta (2012) pointed out that stress at work is a relatively new phenomenon of modern lifestyles. Job stress poses a threat to physical health. Work related stress in the life of organized workers affects the health of organizations. Women suffer from mental and physical harassment at work place. Sexual harassment in work place has been a major source of worry. They suffer from tremendous stress such as hostile work environment and harassment in work place which consist of unwelcomed verbal and physical conduct. These can be a constant source of tension for women in job sectors along with subtle discrimination at work places. Family pressures and societal demand add to these stress factors.

Vikas Pawar (2012) attempted a review of the effect of growing socio-economic and cultural inequality in Indian women and its effects on their health care system due to globalization and liberalization in the patriarchal Indian culture. It points out that the most common occupational hazard for women is overwork. The various forms of violence that women face have a major stake in their ill health which ranges from physical and mental problems. Domestic violence is a significant cause for disability in their reproductive age.

Chant, S (2013) revealed that urban women enjoyed some advantages over their rural counterparts yet there were barriers to their empowerment in towns and cities of the Global south especially among the urban poor. There is sharp contrasts between women's contribution to wealth in cities through paid and unpaid labour, through their endeavours in building and consolidating

shelter and in their efforts to work amidst of shortcomings in infrastructure and essential services yet they reaped limited rewards with respect to decent work and living standards, human capital acquisition, physical and financial assets, personal safety and security and representations in formal structures of urban governance.

Christina Bernado, Rajesh Paleti, Megan Hoklas and Chandra Bhat (2014) offered insights into the determinants of activity time use decisions in dual earned households. Demographic factors such as age, race, ethnicity, employment status and immigration status were found to influence their time use patterns. There is difference in the impact of variables such as presence of children by activity purpose which led to substantially large decrease in out of home activity participation of women. Women in dual earner household with children face a substantial work-family conflict situation.

Deepta Chopra (2015) stated that women's economic empowerment is not just labour force participation but also about their choice to work, the choice of sector, location and working hours. There is a strong and an inverse relation between spending time on unpaid care work and their economic empowerment. Discrimination in the labour market and drudgery involved in carrying out domestic responsibilities had impacts on their health and well being. Formal sector jobs found in large cities and towns away from residence created barriers to their participation in labour markets because of high cost and time for transport. Time poverty faced by them resulted in difficulty to find better paid jobs. Their livelihood strategies to enter paid jobs depended on the stage of their lifecycle.

Peter Hancock, Geoff Carastathis, Jonathan Georgia, Hossein Adibi (2015) brought out a quantitative comparison of workers who had ordinary level secondary education with those who had advanced level secondary education. They found that the higher educated women reported more positive socio- economic outcomes than their lower educated counterparts. The higher educated women had greater earning capacities and were more

likely to receive promotion than their counterparts. Although harassment was low among them, the lower educated female EPZ workers experienced verbal abuse, sexual harassment and public humiliation. However they felt empowered as a result of their time disposal in formal employment.

Assocham (2016) disclosed that nearly one fourth of the working women in the private sector wanted to quit their job due to reasons such as inconvenient working hours, gender bias, safety issue, work place harassment. Among the other reasons that they stated was that there is no redressal mechanism while others pointed out that they wanted to raise their kids hence wanted to quit the job.

The earlier studies on women brings out the hard reality that the women of today still face problems from family, society and in working place.

2.5 General studies on female labour force participation

Radha, D and Ravindran, M (1985), in their study showed that working women spent less time in household work and utilized the time spent in household work more efficiently when compared to their non-working counterparts.

Ashok Kumar (1989), made a case study of female labour force participation in household and non household industry in India. He pointed out that a significant number of women participated in limited number of industries. Activities engaging high rates of female participation in household industries were industries related to textiles, tobacco products or forestry or logging characterized by high labour intensity, tediousness, less mobility, less skill and less remuneration. On the other hand major groups of non-household industries are commanding higher female participation rates.

George Psacharopoulos and Zafiris Tzannatos (1989) opined that during the transformation from an agrarian subsistence economy, the participation of women in labour force initially decreased and then picked up later after a

critical level of development had been achieved. Hence education is a potential booster of female labour supply in developing countries.

Using aggregate data from the Registrar General of India's survey of infant and child mortality, Beenstark and Sturdy (1990) concluded that, controlling for other socio economic factors, the relative probability of infants dying was 27percentage higher for working mothers than for nonworking mothers.

Bimlesh Kumar Misra (1990) analysed the changes in the industrial distribution of the Indian female workforce during 1961-1981. He suggested for more educational facilities for women to make them aware of their rights to fight social factors that are largely responsible for their neglect. Enforcement of legal rights and extension facilities were the need of the hour.

Using Census data of 1981, Yearbook of Ministry of Health and Family Planning 1987 and Registrar General of India 1988, Basu and Basu (1991) concluded that women's employment, in spite of other benefits, has a crucial adverse consequence on child survival. By examining various immediate relationships, they concluded that shortage of time is one of the main reasons for this negative relation between maternal employment and child survival. However, this study does not have adequate evidence on the distribution of women's work by kinds of employment. Again, like nonworking women, working women are also heterogeneous in terms of their characteristics. It is possible that they share a common disadvantage which predisposes them to greater child loss, may be low income. The authors argue that the employed women are forced to work because of their poverty. The additional income from their working has reduced their deficiency in income. Whether her income is supplementing or substituting the male income of the household and the non availability of such information from macro data like the Census makes the analysis inconclusive.

Pradeep Kumar Saxena (1991) based the paper profile of urban women workers on the basis of 1971 and 1981 census. He examined the urban work participation rate in various states of India. The main findings were:

1. Low work participation rate among urban women and wide interstate variation
2. Tertiary sector continued to be the major employer of the urban women workers followed by secondary sector and then the primary sector

Regarding the occupational composition of urban workers, manual occupation dominated but during 1971-1981, there has been a remarkable increase in the relative proportion of non-manual occupation. This is attributed to the significant increase in the relative proportion of literate urban women workers.

Gillepsie and McNeil (1992) studied on the dynamics of the food system in South Indian village society and its relation to agriculture, social organisation, physical work, nutrition, health and survival has analysed the impact of maternal work on child health and nutrition. It was found that the net effect of maternal labour force participation and time allocated to activities of household work are incompatible with childcare using correlation analysis. They argued that the adverse effect of high maternal labour participation on child nutritional status is likely to have impact on both quantitative and qualitative aspects of childcare and feeding. Infants tended to be 'opportunity-fed' as opposed to 'demand-fed', i.e. they were fed whenever the mother had a chance. The correlation results showed a high degree of association between maternal labour force participation and child malnutrition but it did not prove to be the cause.

Anupama Shah and Surya Ratna (1993) conducted a study on women labourers in unorganized sectors in the district of Jodhpur in Rajasthan. They revealed that the awareness of women workers were very low regarding finding solutions to problems and stressed on voluntary organizations and

street plays to educate and create awareness to workers about various government acts.

Desai and Jain (1994) examined the role of gender inequality within the context of the political economy of rural production relations in shaping intra-family dynamics associated with women's employment and in particular, the relationship between maternal employment and child welfare in the context of gender inequality in the labour market , poverty and lack of access to infrastructure in rural South India They argued that in many developing countries, women's domestic burden poses a great impediment to their participation in those economic activities that yields higher incomes.

Gopal Singh et al; (1994) pointed that the economic scenario in the post second world war period had witnessed noticeable change in work participation rate of female workers. The paper concluded that present scenario in India is that structural adjustment program will result in reduction of employment opportunities for female workers, exclude female workers in the production process and reduce wages for women and casualize female workers in future. Overall the process of marginalization of female workers would accelerate more and more in India. Hence appropriate policies are to be taken to curb the evil trend.

Krishnaji (1995) analysed the impact of female work status on child survival using 1981 Census data and found that in all the states of India, working mothers experienced greater child loss than non-working mothers. He examined that in India, work among women was closely identified with poverty, resulting in poor nutritional status and health care among their children.

Amitabh Kundu (1997), discussed trends and patterns of work force among Indian women on the basis of the Census and NSSO data. It indicated a declining trend in the work participation rate for men by usual status in the age group of 15-59 years in 1980's and 90's. This was not so for women although NSS data showed a slight fall in the rural areas. For urban women

there was an increase in the work participation rate. As a consequence, a process of feminization of work force in urban area was noticed. As women workers have less staying power, and often accept lesser remuneration and inferior working conditions, one could find an increase in the work participation of women. The decrease in the work participation rate of men was due to increased attendance in schools and colleges resulting in their withdrawal from work force. Work participation rate by daily status had increased indicating increase in demand for part time and sub contractual jobs. Unemployment rate was sharper in rural compared to urban areas except for daily status. Increase in the work participation rate for women by weekly and daily status along with high rate of employment reflect the fact that urban labour market had created high expectations for women and drawn a large number of job seekers. It indicated a process of organized informalization of labour market. The system of contract labour and sub contractual employment on regular basis in low productive tertiary activities was the other manifestation of the process.

Jeemol Unni (1997) discussed the trends in the structure of rural force with special attention to patterns of female labour force participation and trends in real wages. He pointed out that there has been increasing casualization of work force in both men and women in the rural areas. The nature of employment undertaken by men and women in these households were also undergoing change. In the labour households, while the total number of days of employment in the year per worker increased over time the wages declined. Though this trend was true for adult men and women yet the number of days of employment available to women was lower at every point of time indicating that the option of diversification for non agricultural employment was increasingly limited for women. This together with continued increase in casualization of female work force, declining real wages and rising rural poverty did not augur well for women workers.

Parthasarathy, G and Annie Nirmala, K (1997) examined the issue of female marginalization in the labour market. Four manifestations of

marginalization were examined. They include low work participation rates, higher unemployment rates; casualization of female labours and shift to low paid occupations. Time series analysis at the All India level, cross sectional analysis and comparative approach were mainly used to study the effects of technology. Regression analysis was used to identify the relative importance of factors explaining marginalization. Time trends showed a steady decline in the ratio of female to male work participation rates in the period of internationalization. The ratio of casual to regular employees was much more in the case of rural females compared to rural males. Cultural factors were much more dominant in explaining low female work participation rates than technology. Daily status unemployment rate was not influenced by technology. Most dominant association was found between unemployment and non agricultural workers which reported that with rise in non agricultural workers unemployment also rose. Unless women were socially and economically empowered, they will continue to be marginalized.

Xin Ming (1998) identified an inverse U shaped relationship between female labour force participation and economic development. This implied that female labour force participation will increase with economic growth until a point where negative income effects on labour supply will dominate. At the same time changing technologies and world trade patterns also effects women's economy in Asia. Hence Asian women participate more in non-agricultural sector especially in labour intensive textile and garment sector.

Ram Naresh Thakur (2000) Opined that the development process marginalized women in inferior jobs. As labour market behavior had segmented with sex /gender as the most important criteria, women had restricted access to employment and were self disposed. Women belonging to the upper castes and more affluent families normally did not like to work. Only women belonging to the economically and socially weaker communities went to work.

Kristi Mamman and Christina Paxson (2000) pointed out that women's work status changed with economic development. With vast variations across

countries and areas and within countries and individual levels indicated that women's participation in labour force first declined and then rose with development. The work status of women of developing countries differed from that of women in richer countries. Lower Mortality rates and education levels indicated wellbeing of women improved in absolute and relative terms in relation to men.

Murthy and Gaur (2002), analyzed the factors affecting female work participation rates in India for 1981 and 1991 pertaining to 15 states in India. The variables selected were state wise female work participation rate in percentage, per capita state domestic product in rupees, female life expectancy in years, female literacy rate in percentage, nonfarm employment in percentage, percent of households having sanitation, electricity and individual water facilities, retention rate after VIII class in percentage, enrollment rate in percentage, share of agriculture in net state domestic product in percentage, share of industry in net state domestic product in percentage and the percent of population below the poverty line. Principal component analysis technique was applied. The findings of the study were

- a) Were to diversify employment opportunities in order to enlarge the base of employment avenues.
- b) To ensure involvement in private sectors. To promote wage employment among women
- c) To adopt relevant technology in the light of modernization in farm and non-farm sectors to promote employment of women
- d) To re-orient self employment programs for sustained increase in self employment especially in rural areas
- e) Sectors for increased employability of women and to promote new social attitudes towards working women.

Vipla Chopra (2002) based her paper on the 1981 and 1991 census taking into account main workers and examined the trend of women employment in India, its decadal variation in female work participation. It has been observed that there is an upswing in employment for women in the unorganized sector than the organized sector. Any change in occupational

structure of the workers are due to the structure of the economy , level of education, attitude of women to jobs of different kinds and various social and economic factors. However the direction of change may be different among females than among males. She presented the sectoral distribution of workers showing a drop in the proportion of main workers in the secondary section and increase of main workers in the secondary sector and increased proportion of female workers in the tertiary sector with almost no change in the primary sector. In the case of female main workers the proportion has declined in the secondary sector where as their proportion in primarily and tertiary sector have shown an upswing in 1991 as compared to 1981. In urban areas the proportion of female and male workers in the primary sector has contracted and the proportion of workers in the secondary sector has dropped in 1991 as compared to 1981. The proportion of female main workers in the tertiary sector has increased drastically in 1991 as compared to 1981. A shift away from primary to tertiary sector is taking place. The increase is not taking place in the secondary sector. Taking the areas wise occupational distribution of female workers both in rural as well as urban areas there has been an increase in the proportion of female cultivations and decline in the proportion of agricultural labour in 1991. In the case of household industry there is a reduction in the proportion of female main workers. In the case of other workers the proportion of female main workers went up in 1991 in both rural and urban areas. Thus there is a slight shift in the occupation of female workers from agricultural labourers and household industry to the caregivers of cultivators and other workers. Thus a part from agricultural sector it is high time to give attention to the service sector as it has large potential for employment generation. As education plays a vital role in raising the level of social consciousness and political awareness, it is education alone that can empower women to large extent.

Barnarda Zamora (2004) analyzed the influence of female labour force participation in the decision between consumption and female leisure. The theoretical framework is a collective model in which the agents are the man and the women and is assumed that the results of their decisions are

pareto-efficient. Female labor force participation is considered as a program and the impact on the consumption of various goods is evaluated through four parameters. The estimation of the model allows for the ordering of the commodities to whether their consumption is positively affected by female bargaining power or not or according to whether they are substitutes or complements to female leisure.

Iyyampillai, S (2006) argued how women are becoming invisible in terms of their distribution across occupations and wage growth rate. Markets will maintain perennial excess supply of labour which will ensure a situation of constant unemployment in the labour market that in turn promises an automatic space for exploitation in different forms such as increases stress and pain in the working place without joy, unending requirement of skill updating to be in the job requiring a huge cost on the self, permanency in temporary workers, unorganised working hours pattern within the organised sector in the name of a flexible timings being prepared for any kind of job at any time in any part of the world with any kind of co-workers bearing a huge psychological cost and social adjustments. Such consistent creations of inconsistencies in the labour market imposes and promotes a new corporate work culture which ultimately results in submission of themselves to their boss or volunteering themselves just to please their boss. This is the pathetic plight of women in the so called market driven corporate work culture which is just a mirage to escape from sexual exploitation and harassment. Hence the government has to redeem women not only from the market exploitation but also from social exclusions.

Linda Mc Dowell, Kevin Ward, Colette Fagan, Diane Perrons and Kath Ray (2006) Examined that there has been a growing number of women with children living in western cities entering the labour market raising the question of changes in the allocation of tasks of social reproduction between household members and others as well as about the affects of increasing time that women spend in their work place. There has been a concomitant decline of the old breadwinner family. There has been a growth in workforce policies for waged

work and rise in commodification of care work as a consequence of growth of women's employment in Britain.

International Labour Organisation (2011) presented an overview of the trend analysis on women's work under different conditions. They pointed out that Asian women fared relatively better than women in many other regions of the world and still their full potential remained untapped and left them disadvantaged and vulnerable compared to men. Women were more concentrated in low productive agricultural employment and in vulnerable and low paid informal jobs.

Rahul Lahoti and Hema Swaminathan (2013) investigated the relationship between economic development, composition of economic growth and employment of women. They pointed out that growth by itself is not sufficient for increasing women's economic activity. The process of growth is important. So policies that incentivise growth in sectors that are women friendly are critical to women participation in labour markets. They are influenced by market as well as household and family to a large extent. They suggested that there is need for different set of policies in order to encourage them to join labour force.

Stella tsani, Leonidas Paroussos, Costas Fragidakis,Loannis Charal Amdidis, Pantelis Capros (2013) investigated the relationship between female labour force participation and economic growth in the South Mediterranean countries with a two step methodology of econometric exercise and general equilibrium modeling. Estimation confirms the U shaped function and the presence of region specific barriers. And its implications suggest policies to remove region specific barriers to female labour force participation because it has a growth enhancing effect. And also opts for policies that promote modernisation of cultural norms and legal codes. These include reform of legislation, change of curriculum in the education system, support and encouragement of female school enrolment and cultural exchange and cooperation programmes with developed countries.

Paolo Verme (2014) observed that the Middle East and North Africa region have low female labour market participation rates compared to their level of economic development. These countries find themselves at the turning point of the U shaped hypothesis when countries transit from declining to rising female participation rates. The women in this region exited from labour force in the age of 25 which coincides with the average marriage age in the region. This makes female participation rate curve by cohorts downwards sloped rather than hump shaped.

Sherverick (2014) Cited that female labour force participation was driven by a range of multifaceted factors such as education, fertility rates, social norms and the nature of job creation. Also opined that female labour force participation reflected poverty in developing countries and they join work force as a coping mechanisms due to shocks. Hence they engage in unprotected jobs.

Hemant Shivakumar and Shiva C. Sharma (2016) found that India is the only country among the south Asian nations that is experiencing a downward trend in female labour force participation. India needs to do more to engage its working age population in productive labour, especially women as they constitute half of the workforce but represented only 21 percent of the participating labour force.

Maitrayee Ghosh (2016) found gender discrimination in health care. Although e-health technology is tailored for specific needs of women yet the full potential needs to be explored. There is good scope of information and communication technology in health care but its usage and penetration level is low especially among women in developing countries.

2.6 Time use studies

Time use studies help to explore patterns in the time spent by women and to locate spheres of activities where their participation has been substantial particularly in household chores, child care activities and in elderly care. Various studies have been carried out to find the time allocation of paid

and unpaid work of women. The value of non-market activity is significantly larger than the value of market activity, which is probably best measured in terms of multiples of Gross Domestic Product (Barbara M. Fraumeni, 2005). Some of the recent contributions to be mentioned are as follows:

Birdsell, N, McGreevey, W (1978) highlighted the handicaps faced by poor women of 3rd world countries. Female poverty was viewed as a development issue. It was found that there were a large percentage of women working in the informal sector who had a distinct preference for flexible working hours as it facilitated household and childcare. When women went outside the home, there is an adverse impact on the nutrition and education of children affecting the quality of human capital. So it was argued that if the working mother was relieved of the pressure of work it would lead to better mothering and would be achieved if the productivity of men increased. This would increase income and also reduce the compulsions behind women's work. Time is the most important factor in the poorest households. Women in US worked for 6 hours on an average per day at home and outside the home. While women of Bangladesh worked for 11 hours. Women make an enormous contribution to real income and wellbeing.

Jain, D (1980) observed the time pattern of women's work in dairying households. Women from landless households worked for 10-11 hours per day on an average but landless women who combined agriculture worked for 2 hours more. These additional 2 hours was provided by cutting into time spent in domestic activity. This implied that dairying eroded time available for child care, cooking, etc. Yet it was possible that women of the non- dairying households extended their time in household chores because they lacked an alternative gainful occupation.

Ann Chadeau (1985) analysed the value of tasks performed by housewives if outsourced. Different tasks performed by housewives were assigned with estimated market costs of getting the service delivered and an

effort was made to estimate the economical value of the tasks performed by them and contributing to the household economy in Indian context.

Buvinic and Yudelman (1989) found that urban women spend less time on household production than their rural counterparts since they have more access to time saving technologies or services. Although an increase in women's market work participation tends to reduce their time for non-market family production, the rate of decrease is not necessarily in proportion to the rate of increase in participation.

Malathi, R (1994) made studies on urban Indian women which showed that a women's time for home production tends to fall when her wage increases. On the other hand, a husband's wage affects a women's home production time positively so suggested substitutability of spouse role in all activities. An increase in household assets leads to an increase in time spent teaching children at the expense of other non-market activity. Higher female education reduces the amount of time spent in all non-market activity except child education. This indicated that a mother will devote more time to her children's education as family income and her education increases.

Ghazi.M Tabatabaci, N.Mehri and M.Messkoub (2003) estimated the monetary value of unpaid domestic work of urban housewives using the market based approach. The survey recorded domestic work activities such as cooking and cleaning and general care of household members as well as care of children and their education. Their findings complemented other findings from around the world which confirmed that housewives contributed substantial amount to the economy. These contributions went unrecorded and not compensated in most countries.

Maria Sagrario Flora and Marjorie Miles (2003) examined the work dimension of overlapping activities. The overlapping activities intensified work and affected the persons level of stress and discretionary time including personal care and leisure whose omission lead to inaccurate assessment of individuals well being. Results showed significant influence of gender,

household lifecycle and composition, education, cultural norms, individual incomes as well as employment characteristics on the extent to which individuals perform overlapped work activities.

Ambiga Devi, P and Geetha, K.T (2004) estimated the labour force participation and time management of women in slums a Coimbatore district based on survey of 2000 households. They analysed the time allocation patterns in terms of socio-economic and other personal characteristics to understand the role of these characteristics in determining the time use pattern of the people. It has brought out the uneven sharing of SNA work as well as extended SNA work between males and females. The heavy responsibilities that females had to bear in terms of extended SNA activities revealed the sub-ordinate status of females in labour market. Also the invisible contribution of females if monetized would throw light on greater responsibilities that females share in maintaining their families were also observed. Gender discriminations in the hours spend by males and females on extended SNA activities was focused. They suggested the need for strengthening the time use survey to collect labour force statistics in order to incorporate contribution made by women through extended SNA activities as the conventional surveys were in adequate to bring out all market and non market activities undertaken by women and children as well as to develop statistical tools to measure them and establish linkage between SNA, extended SNA and NSNA activities.

Alfred A.R. Latigo and Mohammed (2005) pointed out that since women are responsible for most of the household production and services, they enter the labour market already overburdened with work. In African countries rural women are subject to heavy time burdens due to their needs to provide productive, social, reproductive and community roles. There is manifestation of time poverty as well as in terms of money. Hence Time Use Studies could help in correcting the deficiencies through better labour market policies by measuring the paid and unpaid work of women. This would help in reducing gender inequality.

Indira Hirway (2005) pointed out that women cannot devote much time and energy to paid work as men because of domestic responsibilities. So the labour market work has been considered as secondary. Women develop lower skills and lower human capital compared to men as a result of domestic responsibilities which leave them with less time. They are also constraint in their capacities to physical mobility and to take additional responsibilities. And their subordinate status in household puts psychological pressures on them which tend to prevent them from taking independent decisions. They are barriers to development in labour market. And their flexible labour supply have put them in part- time work, temporary and short term work which leads them to poor working conditions and low wage jobs with no social protection. Most of the cases they withdraw from labour market when children are small and find it difficult to re-enter labour market when children grow up. Family friendly work policies to be introduced, provision of compensations and incentives to women workers for their absence from work force for child care and creation of special opportunities for promoting skills and productivity to them were suggestions to the barriers. Also pointed that unpaid work need to be integrated in formulating and monitoring development related policies.

Lekha. S. Chakraborty (2005) examined the link between public infrastructure investment and time allocation across gender in the context of selected states in India. The direction of regression coefficients suggests that public infrastructure investment affects market work, non market work and leisure time in different ways with evident gender differentials. The time allocation in SNA activity of women was found significant and inversely related to the public infrastructure related to water supply. But there was no evidence on the release of time locked up in unpaid SNA work, though better infrastructure can have substitution effect towards market work. But this gets reinforced by significant positive link between infrastructure and time allocation in Non-SNA activity, manifesting forced leisure in India. She suggests that though infrastructure investments lessens the time stress in unpaid SNA activity, there is the need for complementary employment policies required

along with infrastructure investments to ensure substitution effect of unpaid work with market work which in turn would have an impact on poverty.

Liana, C. Sayer (2005) observed that women continued to do more household labour than men however men had substantially increased time for core household activities such as cooking, cleaning and daily child care. However there was a 30 minutes free time gap that existed. Women and men had been selective in investing unpaid time in tasks that construct family life and spend less time in routine tasks. There has been a shift in the symbolic meaning of unpaid work. Access to free time has become an arena of time inequality.

Devaki Jain (2007) analysed the hours of work spend across different types of work showed that females whether in Rajasthan with a high female participation rate state or West Bengal, state with a low female participation rate reported at least 3 hours if not 6 hours per day in domestic work. In Rajasthan women engage more in outside home activities although there is strict age, sex segmentation of tasks were as in West Bengal they engage in more of home bound work. The ownership of assets played a significant role in determining participation. In Rajasthan the female participation rate is inversely related to land ownership. In Eastern region the dominant reason for low female participation rate is not the agronomy and other economic factors or measurement failure but some modes inhibiting against the working women. Relative lack of opportunity for employment existed in West Bengal villages compared to Rajasthan villages. They may not seek work or accept work except of certain kinds suitable to cultural inhibitions. But the more orthodox the inhibitions are then the more will be their invisibility in statistics.

Mary Dorinda Allard and Marianna Jane (2008) pointed out that the time spent by parents with children aged 12 or younger on child care varied by parents educational attainment. Those with bachelor's degree spent more time providing child care than those with high school or diploma while father's spent half an hour more on primary child care than those with diplomas. Mother's

spent more time than father's providing primary child care on both week days and weekends. Of the total 2 hours that mother's spent on household work they spent 1.5 hours in providing secondary child care while father's spent 0.8 hours in providing secondary child care out of 1.3 hours of household work.

Maria Fontana and Luisa natali (2008) viewed that there has been marked gender bias in unpaid work undertaken in Tanzania. Women of low income groups living with limited facilities spend lot of hours on water and fuel collection, food preparation and other domestic and core activities to compensate for poor infrastructure. Children are also heavily involved in unpaid work reproduced patterns followed by adult population. The pattern of time distribution varied across the different types of activities which also depended on other household characteristics such as monthly income or sex of the household head, both men and boys tend to participate in households managed by women.

Rachael Krantz- Kent (2009) showed the time individuals spent doing unpaid household work and quantified the labour time involved in household production. Data showed differences in age, gender, employment status and the number of own household children involved in the time that individuals spent doing the work. Women spent more hours per week doing unpaid household work than men did. However men spent more time doing paid work than women did. Overall the total time that both men and women spent either on paid or unpaid work was the same. The time individuals spent doing unpaid household work and type of household work varied by age. Time spent on unpaid activities increased with age for those who were 50 to 66 years old. The peak in unpaid household work time occurred for those in their mid 30's and largely was driven by the time they spent caring for and helping children. Mothers were less likely to be employed in paid jobs when more children were present in the household and spent more time doing unpaid work.

Treas and Drobnic (2010) set out the main factors that are likely to affect the number of hours of unpaid work for a household by type of unpaid

work, alongside with the main factors affecting the gendered share of unpaid hours by the type of unpaid work. Among the main factors affecting the amount of unpaid work belong the following: for child care unpaid work: number of children in the households, age of younger child, whether child is a teenager, class; for cleaning: the size of living space, the number of children, location (rural or urban), preferences of about standards of cleanliness and income level. For Maintenance (care of house, clean car, etc.) ownership of house/flat compared with renting, size of house, age of property, number of cars and similarly. Time devoted to gardening depend on whether person live in a house versus an apartment, the size of the garden and preferences about gardening; shopping to the number of adults and children in the households. Hours allocated to washing and ironing, cooking and preparing meals will depend on the number of adults and children in the households, preferences about fast food versus home-cooked meals, or ironed clothes.

Bútorová et al. (2008) and McCloughan et al. (2011) Observed that the So-called traditional women`s tasks (food preparation, household upkeep, child care, making and care of textiles, and shopping and services) are performed mostly by women. Men in Slovakia devoted more time to traditional masculine types of work than women: construction and repairs, repairs to dwelling, repairing equipment, furniture, vehicle maintenance, tending domestic animals and house construction and repair. Gender does not seem to be an important factor affecting the time spent on volunteering and pet care. The results confirmed that men in Slovakia spend more hours in paid jobs than women. Other observed determinants are significant only in some categories of unpaid work. The volume of unpaid work activities (to whom households devote the most time) is affected by other than economic and demographic factors. These non-economic aspects were examined by Kika, Martinkovičová (2012). Their main finding was that unpaid work is considered as strongly conservative part of family life in Slovakia

. Indira Hirway and Sunny Jose (2011) showed that there was much smaller gender gap and lower interstate disparities and lower diversification of

the workforce in terms of its share in the non primary sector. With regard to women's employment the TUS showed that the time women spend on SNA work on an average was almost half of what men spend. And work by women appeared to be more scattered and involved in multiple jobs and women's burden of unpaid work was a constraint on their access to opportunities in the labour market.

Jennifer Baxter (2011) Time Use Survey was used to examine the characteristic and pattern associated with spare time that was difficult to fill up. The findings indicated that a minority number of young men and women living with parents as well as living alone, those with limited commitments towards paid work and care work and with health problems of non English speaking backgrounds it was the lack of money which was the main reason for their unfilled spare time at their disposal that differed from each other. Apart from this they pointed out that lack of friends and lack of community facilities were the other reasons stated by them .

Shirasoffer and Barbara Schneider (2011) opined that mothers spend 10 more hours a week multitasking compared to fathers and that these additional hours are mainly related to time spent on household and childcare. For mothers multitasking activities at home and in public are associated with an increase in negative emotions, stress, and psychological distress and for fathers multitasking at home involves less household work and childcare and is not a negative experience.

Burda, Michael Hamermesh, Daniel.S.,Weil, Philippe (2012) pointed out that all household production increases with age for both sex except childcare. On an average, women spent 2 to 3 times per day in minutes on cooking, cleaning, and childcare. The estimates for shopping are similar and in gardening and construction men showed slightly higher returns than women. Overall the mean amount of time that women spent on unpaid home production across all age groups is 4 hours per day compared to 2.5 hours for men. Individuals under 50 years the gap was still wider with 3.6 hours for women and

1.7 hours for men. The decomposition of production by age and gender focusing in market production of men and women showed that the total number of working hours are slightly higher for women under 50 years of age. Men work more slightly more mainly until the transition to retirement. From age 65 onwards women work more hours exclusively due to household production. Thus suggests that there is no statistically significant difference in the amount of time spent working and not working.

Duflo (2012) observed that women's ability to participate in the labour market was constraint by their higher allocation of time to unpaid work. And on the average women spend twice as much time on household work as men and 4 times as much time on child care thereby freeing up time for male household members to participate in the formal labour force.

Alena Kaščáková, Gabriela Nedelová and Mariana Považanová (2013) examined categories of unpaid work (those in general production boundary of SNA) and concluded that in Slovakia gender segregation persists in performing unpaid work in households.

Christina Bernado ,Rajesh paleti,Megan Hoklas and Chandra Bhat (2014) offered insights into the determinants of activity time use decisions in dual earned households. There are many demographic factors such as age, race,ethnicity,employment sector and immigration status that influence the time use patterns dual earner households. Adoption of the multivariate models which simultaneously examined the effect of multiple variables and found that there has been an interaction effect of variables such as age, gender and presence of children on time use pattern. There has been differences in the impact of variables including presence of children by activity purpose which leads to substantially large decrease in out of home activity participation suggesting a higher level of mobility related social exclusion relative to overall time use social exclusion. Women in dual earner households with children face a substantial work family conflict situation.

Sarah Nilang, Sarah J. Schoppe, Sullivan Letitia E.Kotila, Xin Feng, Claire M. Kamp Dush, Sussan C. Johnson (2014) examined the trajectories of father's and mother's in dual earner families. They explored the parental and maternal engagement patterns in infancy associated with children's later social emotional competence during toddlerhood. It was found that compared with mother's, father spend significantly less time engaging with their infants. Overtime both parents increased their engagement at relatively same rate. Father's rate of increase over time and mother's initial starting point of engagement on work days were associated with toddler's attention and mastery motivation. IT highlighted the father's investment in their offspring and about their second demographic transition and family functioning.

Ellina Samantroy (2015) pointed out that woman experienced lot of pressures and challenges in response to competing demands of work and family life. He pointed that some of them spent as high as 14 hours on household work. On an average working day, the women spent 7.29 hours on SNA activities, about 2.69 hours on ESNA and 11.5 hours on NSNA activities. This is in contrast to off days the women spent longer hours on both ESNA and NSNA activities. The average time spent on ESNA activities was 4.74 hours and 16.67 hours on NSNA activities. This reflects the social location of women within work and family highlighting the conflicting situation faced by women.

Jonatten Woetzel, Anu Madgaukar, Rajat Gupta, James Manyika, Kweilin Ellingrud, Shishir Gupta and Mekala Krishnan (2015) pointed out that the below potential contribution of the women to India's GDP today measured by their share of paid work in the market economy contrasted with their higher share of unpaid care work. They performed 9.8 times the amount of unpaid care work than men. Unpaid work if valued would contribute \$0.3 trillion to India's economic output. Social attitudes on the role of women were the biggest barriers they had to face.

Laura Gaghardone (2015) showed that women are predominant in subsistence production and in informal employment. They spend about

33 hours in SNA and 33 hours in ESNA activities in rural areas. While in urban areas they spend 27 hours in SNA work and 37 hours in ESNA activities. The Time Use Survey conducted in Punjab in 2011-2012 estimates the ESNA activities of women ranging between 1/4 to 1/3 of SDP and 29 percent of women were willing to join labour force. In Indonesia it was estimated that more than half of all males in the labour force (54%) and females (41%) worked long hours (45 hours per week or more). For China, the TUS conducted in 2008 demonstrated that if unpaid activities were valued then it would be 1/3rd of NDP and 70% of such activities were undertaken by women. Their daily allocation of time for paid work was about 4 hours and for their routine house work it was 3 hours.

Matthias Pollmann Schult (2015) examined whether the impact of parenthood on household division of paid work and housework was moderated by the gender of the child. Empirical results showed that fathers and mothers of boys spent more hours on paid work than parents of girls. The Child's gender was found stronger for women than for men. Results indicate that having daughters was associated with more traditional division of labour than having a son.

Mariana Povazonova, Anna Vallusova, Maria Uramova, Alena Kascakova (2015) Dealt with unpaid work in Slovakia input based approaches to assign a monetary value to unpaid work activities in Slovakia. Two input based market replacement cost approaches, namely generalized and specialized methods had been used to calculate the monetary value of unpaid work. The result showed that depending on the chosen wage concept and activities, the monetary value of unpaid work ranged from approximately 18 percent to 25 percent of GDP in Slovakia. And in comparison with the other traditional market economies the value is lower due to lower level of wages of corresponding market substitutes, since they are rarely used by Slovak households.

Meenakshi Bose Satua (2015) addressed the need for recognizing the tasks performed by house wives and to account their work in the SNA and pointed out that the recognition of their household work in economic terms would stand as a catalyst in betterment of their bargaining power position. The type of tasks and conditions under which they are performed by women at household level differed widely. The burden of paid and unpaid work had been distributed unequally among men and women. Most of their work remained unrecognised and under estimated which are often unpaid. And issues identified were the lack of knowledge on economic value of human rights amongst women and increase in vulnerabilities among this segment viz. social insecurity, financial insecurity, lack of recognition, domestic violence and other psychological problems.

Xiao-Yuan Dong and XinliAn (2015) examined gender patterns of time allocations over paid work, unpaid work and non-work activity and estimated the monetary value of unpaid care work. They estimated that the total work time of women is higher than that of men by 7 hours per week in the rural sector and by 10.5 hours per week in the urban sector. Value assigned to unpaid care work varied from 25 percent to 32 percent of China's GDP from 52 percent to 66 percent of final consumption and from 63 percent to 80 percent of the GDP.

Anindita Sengupta (2016) highlighted the results of the study that both rural and urban women spent less time on paid work than their male counterparts were as time spent on unpaid care work by rural and urban women is much higher than of their men. While variability of total time spent on paid work by men is higher than that of women both in rural and urban areas. For all the age groups, average work time of women on unpaid household activities is higher than those for men whereas average work time of men on paid activities is higher than those for women. There is no significant difference in average work time on unpaid family care activities by women due to difference in their educational qualifications. As household size increases average work time of women on unpaid household care work increases although finally it declines for

households with large family size. There is no significant difference in the average work time of women in household care activities for the low and medium monthly expenditure classes. However for higher monthly expenditure classes of women, spent fewer hours on household care activities.

Lisanne Jansen, Tigmen et al (2016) investigated the relationship between the division of household labour and individuals perceived fairness concerning the division. A multilevel multinomial logistic regression was applied to analyse data on both men and women across 29 countries using the international social survey programme from 2012. They found that people who performed a large share of household tasks are more likely to indicate that they will do a more fair share. It was also observed that in more gender egalitarian countries and in countries where women spend more time in the labour market, women and men are more likely to consider doing a larger share of house work to be unfair. When both country characteristics were included in the same model, it was found that for women the effect of country's female labour force participation lost statistical significance, while for men the country level gender ideology resulted in a non significant effect.

Maria, S. Flora and Hitomi Komatsu (Forthcoming) explored that there was a non trivial proportion of men and women who had been classified either as not in the labour force or unemployed who were actually in the labour market activities. The time related constraints faced by workers affected not only the availability for employment but also in their ability to find jobs. They found that regardless of their labour force status men's hours of unpaid work tend to vary less (between 136-200 minutes on average) than that of women's (between 245-406 minutes on average. Women's labour market work has been closely linked to the amount of unpaid household work that they performed.

Women are associated as care givers and providers of elderly care apart from their household chores on which they spend a lot of time and are held solely responsible for reconciling household responsibilities with paid

work. As a result of which most of the women withdraw from the labour force leading to a decline in the female labour force participation. Care has to be viewed as collective responsibility not only of family members but also of the government. Changes in the mindset of the people and recognition of women's contribution to her family and society at large by imputing value of her unpaid work would go a long way.