

**FACTORS DETERMINING LABOUR SUPPLY AMONG URBAN WOMEN IN
COIMBATORE**

BY

SUBBULAKSHMI.J (16PEC003)

**A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE
AVINASHILINGAM INSTITUTE FOR HOME SCIENCE AND HIGHER
EDUCATION FOR WOMEN
COIMBATORE – 641043**

**IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE DEGREE OF
MASTER OF ARTS IN ECONOMICS**

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I.INTRODUCTION

Women make up a little more than half of the world's population, but their contribution to measured economic activity, economic growth and well-being is way below its potential. According to the World Bank (2013) women represent around 40 percent of the global labor force and more precisely on a country level, women constitute around half of any country's human endowment. However, in most countries women labor force participation is much less than that of men. According to the IMF report (2013), the average gender participation gap - which is the difference between male and female labor force participation rates - has been falling since 1990. However, it seems that this is due to a worldwide decline in male labor force participation rates rather than an increase in female labor participation rate, thus male-female differences still remain substantial.

Our late prime minister Jawaharlal Nehru once remarked, "I have long been convinced that a nation's progress is intimately connected with the status of its women" (Parthasarathi, 1985). In the wake of successive waves of economic liberalization, the 'condition' of India, when thought of in terms of economic and human development has improved dramatically. Yet, while the status of women has arguably improved in both the public and private spheres, their ability to access opportunities in this newly liberalized economy remains precarious.

Female labor force participation (FLFP) is important for the enhancement and socio-economic development of a nation because it promotes efficiency and equity. Generally, high female participation in the labor market implies two things; advancement in the economic and social position, and empowerment of women. This promotes equity and increases utilization of human potential, which can help in building a higher capacity for economic growth and poverty reduction (Mujahid 2014; Fatima and Sultana 2009). Understanding women's decision to supply labor to the market, as well as the factors that can encourage them to either participate in or opt out from the workforce, is vital for policy makers in order to efficiently help any economy develop and remain healthy. The clear understanding of such factors and their effect on women's propensity to participate plays a very important role in determining prospective growth and development of countries.

Sher verick (2014) examined “**Female labour force participation in developing countries**”; women’s labor force participation tends to increase with economic development, the relationship is not straightforward or consistent at the country level. There is considerably more variation across developing countries in labor force participation by women than by men. Women earn less than men and are more likely to be engaged in unprotected jobs, such as domestic work. Education raises the reservation wage and expectations of women, but it needs to be matched by job creation. Underreporting is common, so data on women’s participation rates do not accurately reflect women’s work. The study finding was female laborers force participation is an important driver (and outcome) of growth and development. Women join the workforce in developing countries as a coping mechanism in response to shocks. The participation of women is the outcome of various macro and individual factors. Access to quality education (beyond secondary) is critical to improve employment outcomes for women. Women’s participation in the labor market varies greatly across countries, reflecting differences in economic development, social norms, education levels, fertility rates, and access to childcare and other supportive services. The relationship between female labor force participation and these factors is complex. Focusing on these issues is critical because female labor force participation is a driver of growth, and thus participation rates indicate a country’s potential to grow more rapidly.

Female labour force participation (FLFP) has been defined as the women’s decision to be part of the economically active population: employed or unemployed population as compared to being part of the economically inactive population of the economy – those not working nor seeking work. The standard measure for FLFP is FLFPR. FLFPR is the proportion of the working age population that is economically active. It precisely measures the share of a country’s female population aged 15-64 that engages actively in the labor market, either by working or looking for work. In measuring FLFPR, the number of females in the labor force is divided by the number of females in the working age population. This rate indicates the size of the female labor supply available to be engaged in the production of goods and services during a specified period. FLFP is an important indicator of women’s status and benchmark of female empowerment in society (Silberman and Bourmpoula 2014).

Factors determining the employment of women are extremely complex. At the individual level, women's decision to work is subject to such factors as the availability of jobs, and their own education level and skills. At the aggregate level, FLFP rate is largely determined by factors that in one form or the other are indicative of economic, social and demographic circumstances. Neoclassical economists consider education to be one of the key determinants of women's entering the labor market. The higher the education level, the greater is women's participation in the labor market. However, Benham (1980) remarked that, there are many other factors (for example household income) besides education, which induce women to participate in the labor market. Demographic factors like age, family size and household structure are also considered to be important in affecting the FLFP rate.

Education is usually considered to be the incentive for a better employment, which therefore from a supply-side perspective should influence any individual's decision on whether to join the labor market or not. Consequently, it has been found that educational attainment is the most effective determinant of labor force participation rate in both developing and developed economies. Particularly, studies of female's labor force participation suggest that the most important personal variable influencing FLFPR is education.

The importance and effect of education on FLFP cannot be neglected, but it cannot be the sole factor being looked upon if changes in FLFP are to be understood. Looking into international evidence for different countries, Psacharopoulos and Tzannatos (1989) found that aside from education, factors such as age and fertility and religion affect the FLFPR irrespective of the country under investigation. In addition, Uwakwe (2004) agreed on most of the factors already stated and added that in Nigeria family responsibilities, pregnancy, and physical factors; nutrition, water and health services as well affect the FLFPR. Moreover, the State and Planning Organization of Turkey and the World Bank (2010) pointed out that the FLFP in Turkey is multidimensional and is affected by both socioeconomic and cultural factors including; house responsibilities and childcare/eldercare, urbanization, marital status. Faridi, Chaudhry and Anwar (2009) further added that close relatives' educational status, household assets, spouse participation in economic activities, number of children, age of children and husband's salary influence the female's decision on whether to participate or not participate in the labor market. As related to a study undertaken in Pakistan, Khadim and Akram (2013) broadly listed three

categories of factors that explain female participation in economic activity; individual and demographic factors (age, education, marital status), socio economic condition factors (per capita income of the household, number of dependents, household type), geographic location factors (urban and rural residence).

While women's labor force participation tends to increase with economic development, the relationship is not straightforward or consistent at the country level. Through the economic analysis of FLFP, it was clear that women's full integration into the economy was and still is a desirable goal for equity and efficiency. However, international comparisons show that FLFP is high in low-income countries and in highly developed countries, and comparatively low in middle-income countries, creating a U-shaped relationship between national income – GDP and FLFP. Sinha (1967) first suggested the U-shaped female participation curve in the late 1960s in his study entitled, "Dynamics of Female Participation in Economic Activity in Developing Economy". It was observed that female's participation tend to change with the growth stages of an economy. Very poor countries tend to have high female participation, which then fall at the early stages of economic growth and then increase back at later stages. More precisely Sinha's study proved that female participation rate tends to decline at early stages of industrialization but later as the economy grows, it begins to rise. The rationale behind this was that during the primary stages of industrialization, agriculture loses its importance as the main employer of women. The growth of industry is usually slower than the shrinkage of agriculture. These opposite, but not necessarily offsetting, movements usually result in an initial decline of female employment. When the governmental and service sectors expand, women are drawn back into the labor market. These conditions give rise to a U-shaped pattern of female employment in the process of development (Fatima and Sultana 2009; Psacharopoulos and Tzannatos 1989; Sackey 2005; Schultz 1961; Goldin 1994; Mammen and Paxson 2000).

Sarah Bradshaw (2013) assessed **"Women's role in economic development"**: In his research study the author aimed to highlight the important role women have and can play in economic development. It addresses three questions: what is the evidence base to support investing in women? What are the current constraints on realising the full potential of women in

the process of economic development? What are the priority areas of intervention necessary to unblock these constraints? It is focused on women and on economic development, rather than on the wider issue of gender and development. However, before looking at the evidence base, constraints, and interventions, it will provide a brief context of the evolution of thinking around women and development. In the 1980s, the Gender and Development (GAD) approach arose out of the critique of women in development. GAD recognized that gender roles and relations are key to improving women's lives, with the term 'gender' suggesting that a focus on both women and men is needed. More recently, the need to understand how gender intersects with other characteristics such as age, ethnicity and sexuality has been noted. The GAD approach recognises that it is not sufficient to add women and girls into existing processes of development but there is also a need to problematise why they are excluded, advocating that the focus should be on addressing the imbalances of power at the basis of that exclusion. GAD also questions the notion of 'development' and its benign nature, implying a need to shift from a narrow understanding of development as economic growth, to a more social or human centered development.

Against this background the current study on "Factors determining labour supply among urban women in coimbatore" has been undertaken with the following objectives:

1. To study the social and demographic status of women.
2. To examine their working conditions.
3. To study the factors influencing labour force participation among women.
4. To identify the problems faced by them.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The literature for the current research study on “Factors Determining Labour Supply among Urban Women in Coimbatore” is presented under the following heads.

- I. Meaning of Female Labour Force Participation
- II. Theories on Female Labour Force Participation
- III. Factors related to Female Labour Force Participation Rate
- IV. Studies on Women Labour Force Participation

I. Meaning of Female Labour Force Participation

Women are productive agents who possess equal productivity as men. This means that they have the potential to contribute as much as men do to any economy. That is why several economic gains can be made from the productivity of women through their participation in the labor force. According to Mujahid (2014) and Sultana (2009) the labor force participation rate plays an essential role in determining economic development and growth. Particularly FLFP is important for the enhancement and socio-economic development of a nation because it promotes efficiency and equity. Generally, high female participation in the labor market implies two things; advancement in the economic and social position and empowerment of women and hence promoting equity and increased utilization of human potential, which can help in building a higher capacity for economic growth and poverty reduction.

Female Labour Force Participation was defined as the women’s decision to be part of the economically active population: employed or unemployed population as compared to being part of the economically inactive population of the economy – those not working nor seeking work. The standard measure for Female Labour Force Participation is FLFPR. FLFPR is the proportion of the working age population that is economically active. It precisely measures the share of a country’s female population aged 15-64 that engages actively in the labor market, either by working or looking for work. In measuring FLFPR, the number of females in the labor force is divided by the number of females in the working age population. This rate indicates the size of the female labor supply available to engage in the production of goods and services

during a specified period. FLFP is an important indicator of women's status and benchmark of female empowerment in society (Kapsos, Silberman and Bourmpoula 2014).

II. Theories of Female Labour Force Participation

The theoretical framework on FLFP basically reflects the female's decision to be an active participant versus being an inactive participant in the labor market. Economists have tried to explain female's propensity to decide on one choice over another through analyzing the impact of certain economic and demographic factors, which they believed would affect female's tendency to participate or opt out of the labor market. The main theories that have been used to analyze the labor supply of women emerged in the 1960s. These include

- Mincer's "Work- Leisure Choice Theory",
- "Bread Winner Theory"
- "Household Production Theory"
- "Human Capital Theory" by Schultz and Becker.

1. Mincer's "Work- Leisure Choice Theory"

The simplest analysis of women's choice goes back to the early 1960s to Mincer (1962) and the neoclassical microeconomic model known as; Work-Leisure Choice model, which assumed that households suppliers of labor in an economy are rational and seek to maximize their utility; deciding on how much time to devote to work and how much time to devote for leisure. The trade-off happens when the female chooses how to allocate time between both alternatives. The trade-off is related to the opportunity cost associated with choosing one alternative over the other, in that the consumption of more leisure – less work results in less income and the opposite is true. The decision is then simply based upon the amount of income the market is willing to pay the female for the work devoted time relative to the value this female's time generates when consumed as leisure – assuming leisure is a normal good.

2. Bread Winner Theory

Breadwinner theory is related to the work-family arrangement that reached its peak in the mid twentieth century (Lyonette et al., 2007). During this time the two spheres structure was accepted as the model foundation for society. The ‘ideal’ and ‘natural’ family arrangement in the eyes of society and sociologist alike were that of a breadwinner husband and a wife carer, where both women and children were seen as a responsibility and dependants of a man. The male breadwinner of the family gradually demerged in the second half of the twentieth century, and was replaced by the model of family that has been known as the dual earner household (Lewis and Campbell, 2007). However, as argued by O’Connor et al., the influence of the traditional male breadwinner model is still very much pervasive. This is particularly evident in the UK in that women conduct exceptionally high level of part-time work (in comparison to other countries), and mostly they work very few hours (O’connor et al., 1999).

3. Household Production Theory

Household Production theory is simply the study of household production, consumption and household time allocation. The theory states that families are both producers and consumers of goods. In an effort to maximize their utility, families attempt to efficiently allocate not only time but also income and the collection of goods and services they both use and produce. This theory defines household production as the production of goods and services by the household members, using their own capital and their own unpaid labor, all for their own consumption (Ehrenberg and Smith 2012). Ehrenberg and Smith (2012) added that three different models were used to analyze the household theory. Model one assumes that household production and market production are the same. Thus work is defined in terms of both household and market production, and the choice is just between work and leisure. Model two considers that part of the time spent at home is not used in leisure only but rather household production activities as cooking, cleaning and childcare. Upon such consideration, work is said to differ on whether it is related to household production or market production. The third model defined work as a choice between three alternatives; household work, market work and leisure.

4. Human Capital Theory

According to Becker (1975) human capital can be defined as the productive investments embodied in individuals, including skills, abilities, knowledge, habits, and social attributes often resulting from expenditures on education, on-the-job training programs, and medical care. The basic concepts of human capital suggested that individuals develop their capacities to improve career prospects and thus generate income through investment in education and on-the-job training as well as health care. The theory stresses the significance of education and training as the key to participation in the labor market. This is because based on the human capital theory, education and training are regarded as investments that increase individual's productivity and improve the individual's chances of gaining a higher occupational status and hence higher earnings. The theory further illustrates that the more educated individuals are the more they will be willing to participate in the labor market so that they can take advantage of the positive relationship between education and wage rates.

III. Factors related to Female Labour Force Participation Rate

Relationship between working hours and female labor force participation was one of the first study (Mincer, 1962) who analyzed labor force participation of women over lifetime. He tried to find the relationship between working hours and female labor force participation. He found that there is a negative relationship between the lifetime wealth (the family income) and number of children. An increase in family income and number of children decreases women labor force participation. However education, experience, and tenure have a positive relationship with female labor force participation rate.

Manohar (1983) discussed the exploitation of women in unorganised sector with reference to male dominance. He stated that women were dependent and subservient, which forced them to live under miserable social and economic conditions. Poverty and other economic difficulties forced them to take up menial jobs where education is not essential e.g. maximum women workers were employed in bidi industry, cotton textiles, domestic servants and weaving etc

According to an ILO estimate, the value of unpaid household work constitutes 25 to 39 percent of GNP. Women's contribution to the economy by and large remains unrecognized. Yet, their services are valuable. The World Bank in its Annual Report in 1989 observed that 35 per cent of Indian households below the poverty line are headed by women, and in most cases, are thus, dependent exclusively on female income (Soni 2001). The Census of 1991 shows that number of women workers in India is 91 million out of a total workforce of about 315 million. Majority of these women are engaged in the occupations of unorganised sector such as agriculture, cotton and tea plucking, pottery, handloom, construction and domestic services. Women workers in domestic services in 1999-2000 constituted 3.2% of the workforce and this comprised 39, 25,000 workers. The services provided include cooking, cleaning utensils, washing, and babysitting amongst other responsibilities. In the 'global economy' there has been an emergence of a new professional class of workers that include well educated women. With this there has been a need for domestic servants to help the professionals in their daily chores (Padma 2002).

Sinha (2003) was of the opinion that the chances of maternal mortality would be higher among poor women facing the additional burden of economic activity in the informal sector where the conditions of work are strenuous. Another concern of the poor informal women workers is the loss of income during the advanced period of maternity and immediately after child birth when they are not able to work for some time. Maternity and child birth also result into a lot of risks and expenses. It leads to financial crisis among the poor household due to borrowing and high interest expenditure. This would inevitably result in reduction in income of the poor household.

Mukerji (2003) evaluated the socio economic condition of women with the help of a number of indicators like social, economic, and educational and the like. It has been observed that the socio-economic condition of women belonging to the lower strata was rather miserable. This is partly due to the social system and partly due to the women themselves in the society. Indian society is primarily a male dominated society where little or no change is expected or

allowed. Even if a change is introduced women show their inability to adjust to such changes. The lack of clarity in women about their status leads to exploitation and economic deprivation.

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

The family institution affects women's participation in the labour market in two ways. First, family drives women's economic activity in society. For much of history, men have had more economic independence than women. Although feminist movements around the world have aimed to achieve economic independence for women, many women worldwide are involved in the labour force because of economic need rather than for economic independence (Arun, Arun & Borooh, 2004; Eggebeen & Hawkins, 1990). Global economic changes have resulted in increased living expenses (e.g. health care, education, food, and utilities). As a result, in many countries the economic motive for women's work has changed from providing basic necessities for the family to covering the increased expectations of a higher standard-of-living. Therefore, economic pressures on dual-earner families may continue to increase the rate of women's participation in the labour market (Arun et al., 2004; Eggebeen & Hawkins, 1990). Second, family often supports women's participation in the labour market. In many countries that have experienced declining birth rates or the movement of populations, the absence of the extended family negatively influences women's participation in the labour market. The extended family generally provides social support for women. For example, women may need less

maternity and sick leave when an extended family member such as a grandmother, can provide childcare. In the nuclear family, working mothers tend to use childcare centers, more maternity leave and more sick leave so they can simultaneously manage work and family (Sullivan & Hodson, 2002, Arun 2004).

Rajasekhar, et. al. (2005) conducted study in Karnataka and used a participatory method to derive the perceived “**social security needs of unorganised sector workers**”. Among the workers surveyed, 92.3 percent felt that benefits towards old age, unemployment, death, sickness and employment injury were relevant for them. Women in the reproductive age groups also felt that maternity benefits were important. Each respondent was shown various pictures of these six types of needs and asked to assign priority to these needs. Workers in the informal sector were not homogenous and various segments among them had different priorities. Among the informal workers, agricultural labourers felt that old age was a major concern followed by unemployment. Among construction workers, unemployment followed by old age and employment injury was assigned priority. Among domestic workers, too, old age security was the major concern followed by unemployment and sickness. An interesting aspect of this study was that about 7.7 percent of the sample workers were unwilling to rank their priorities for security. It was found that these included the highly vulnerable category of households for whom all these insecurities were obviously not important enough since their basic entitlement had not been met.

Sharan (2005) conducted a survey on “**women workers employed in industrial and non-industrial organizations in Kanpur city**”. The main objectives of the study were to analyze the working conditions of women workers to measure their socio-conditions states and to study their participation in trade union activities. She had selected 100 samples in the industrial sector and 100 samples in the non-industrial sector and collected the necessary data from them. Socio-economic status of women workers were measured with the help of Kappasamy’s method of rating scale. Various economic and social indicators were used to measure the socio-economic status. The study revealed some important aspects of women labor. Among the industrial and non-industrial women workers 80 percent were from the young category that is between 20 and 35 years. The non-industrial workers were more qualified than the industrial workers. The working conditions of the women workers were far from satisfactory.

According to Ahmad and Hafeez (2007) the two main “**Factors that influence female labor force participation**” are that of education and economic conditions of a country. By using data of married women from the city of Mani Bahauddin (district of Punjab, Pakistan) they found that human capital variable is the fundamental determinant of women earning

Ahmad and Aminah (2007) examined the “**work-family conflict**” experienced by 239 married female production operators in dual-career families, the social support they received and the coping strategies used to manage the conflict. “The women experienced more work interference with family than family interference with work. The intensity of work interference with family was significantly higher in the earlier life-cycle stage than in the later stage. About two thirds of the women indicated that they intended to leave their job upon having another child, mainly due to the rising cost of child-care services. They received the least social support from their supervisors compared to other sources, and tended to cope with conflict using reactive role behavior and personal role redefinition strategies.

Gunavathy and Suganya (2007) in their study among married women employees of BPO companies traced the causes, consequences of work-life imbalance and interventions for worklife balance. More than two-third of the respondents stated the experienced work-life imbalance primarily on account of work interference with personal life. The causes for work-life imbalance were classified as organizational and personal factors. The organizational factors included workrelated factors, time-related factors and relationship-related factors. The personal factors included lack of family support, marital conflicts and frequent change in sleeping patterns. According to the study, the three main consequences of work-life imbalance were stress and burnout, ill-health and poor work performance. The respondents also experienced guilt of not being able to spend time with family, anxiety about poor performance, displacement of negative emotions on family members and on co-workers.

Lawanson (2008) stated that women constitute more or less, half of any country’s population. The author notes that in most countries, women contribute much less than men towards the value of recorded production both quantitatively in labour force participation and qualitatively in educational achievement and skilled manpower. He stated that under-utilization of female labour has obvious implications for economic welfare and growth. He noted several

factors, both economic and non-economic responsible for this. He concluded that the participation of women in the labour force appears to depend much more on the social environment than in the case for men.

Mumtaz (2009) found that education is one of the most fundamental determinant of female labor force participation. He found that as the educational level of female's increase their participation also increases. He also found that the presence of children in early age is also a determinant FLFP. If women had children at an early age it was less likely to participate in the labor market. In his conclusion he said that education also results in better employment for the person as it is the most necessary condition for female labor force participation.

Women in our society have so far had only a secondary status and the economic dependence of women upon men is one of the primary reasons which has pushed them into the background and resulted into their secondary status both within and outside the family (Wadhwa 1976). In spite of the fact that the women have proved their mettle in every walk of life, their contribution is not given due credit in most cases. In India women constitute nearly half of the total population and they play a vital role in domestic sphere, in the rural field and also in urban economy. Yet, their economic status is still low as it reflects from the census data, particularly of those who are engaged in the informal sector of urban economy (Tripathy and Das 1991). For women the domestic work has emerged as a key urban livelihood strategy to allow them to cope with their current economic scenario of agrarian decline, increase in commodity prices, and user-fees for essential infrastructure and services such as water and electricity (Sharma 2009).

Dayioglu (2010) on “**Determinants of and trends in labor force participation in Turkey**” found that an important factor in the low female labor force participation rate for is mainly urbanization process. This is also confirmed by many other studies (Tsani et al., 2012; Tanaka, 1986). They stated that as urbanization increases female labor force participation rate decreases until the economy reaches a certain GDP level after which the female labor force participation rate increases. This is known as the U-shaped relationship between GDP and female labor force participation.

Domestic service is emerging as the largest segment of female employment in India's service sector. Yet, the exact number of domestic workers is difficult to estimate because many of these workers are often not captured by existent macro-data sources or are spread across fluid categories that are not well-defined (Neetha 2005). Not only is it one of the main employment avenues available to poor uneducated women but it also offers to the women from more upwardly- mobile and endowed socio-economic classes with services that assist, enable and further their work –life balance, and increase their leisure time and market engagement (Bhattacharya 2010).

Faridi et al (2011) investigated the “**Factors which influence women's participation in self employment in Pakistan**”. The study used primary source of data for empirical analysis. They employed Logistic regression technique to estimate the women self-employment model. The study found that age and experience positively affects women's self employment. They also concluded that education, location and number of dependents significantly reduce the women's work participation as self-employed worker. The study suggested that the government should provide technical and vocational education to women just to minimize the dependency burden.

Sophia (2011) investigated the “**challenges facing women in career development**”. She found that most of the women employees were dissatisfied with career development programmers and women were discriminated against in career development opportunities. The study recommended that organizations should strive to ensure that career development programmers were set to enhance career development amongst women employees. Top management should also be committed to the career development of women, and organizations should also introduce affirmative action to urgently address career development of women.

In a study by Cipollone, 2013 looking at the macro determinants of female labor force participation on the European labor market found positive relationship between Female LFP and social policies and institutional factors. Labor market reforms explain almost 25% of the actual increase in labor force participation for young women and over 30% for more skilled women (highly educated women). However interestingly they found that the effect the market reforms on low skilled female workers was low.

The low and declining female labour force participation rate in India despite strong growth over the past decade is puzzling and stands out among emerging markets. At the same time greater economic participation of women can be a source of inclusive growth, and wellbeing. Assessing determinants of the labour force participation of women in India can open important policy insights. The paper first describes key employment trends in India by gender. Then the potential determinants of female labour force participation are identified based on literature, basic statistics and econometric techniques. Given the large regional differences in India the analysis is also conducted by region and between rural and urban areas. In contrast to other BRIICs or OECD countries, education and incomes are negatively correlated with female labour force participation in India. Apart from lack of jobs, social and cultural factors keep women outside the labour force. Other determinants relate to infrastructure, access to finance, labour laws and rural employment programmes. (OECD 2014)

In 2005 the Confederation of Indian Industries (CII) commissioned a study titled **“Understanding the Levels of Women’s Empowerment in the Work Place”** revealed that women constitute only 6 percent of total workforce in corporate houses. The percentage of women in leading managerial positions is abysmally low. Only 7 percent labour force is in the organized sector and 9 percent work in unorganized or informal sector. The reason for the employment of women in such large numbers in the informal sector is women’s weaker bargaining power, low skilled labour, generally lower wages than men and lack of unionization. The precise effects of women's participation in wage work on the family-based household have received little detailed attention until recently. This is particularly the case in the urban context of many developing countries where female labour force participation is low. Despite the existence of various constitutional and legal provisions safeguarding women’s employment a large number of women workers, particularly in the unorganized sector suffer from various disadvantages relating to their working place as well at home. The coverage of labour laws has not benefited these women workers in many crucial area, especially health, maternal and social security. A striking feature of most unorganized sector employment is that workers are employed largely through unorganized contractors or subcontractors (Sankaran Kamala and Roopa Madhav 2011).

Zohrabyan (2013) estimated a logit model to determine female respondents' socioeconomic factors that influenced their labor force participation in the South Caucasus region. The employed data were collected within the framework of the CRRC's Caucasus Barometer program for 2010. The sample size for Armenia consisted of 842 female respondents above 18. The results showed that living in the capital city decreased the odds of being employed in Armenia, other things held constant. The odds of being employed in Armenia decreased for females who rather agreed with the statement that men should have more right to a job when jobs are scarce, other things held constant. In addition, age negatively affected the odds of being employed in Armenia, other things held constant. Conversely, in Armenia, the odds of being employed increased for females who have at least higher education, secondary technical education, were divorced, or separated, or widowed, and had a monthly household income of \$401 or more, other things held constant. The effects of the sex of the household decision-maker and household size were statistically insignificant.

Rashid (2015) has found the “**Factors affecting the rural women labour supply in agriculture sector**” which is an attempt to find out factors affecting the rural women labour supply in agriculture sector in District Rajanpur. Out of 44 Union councils (UCs), 06 UCs have been selected randomly for this study. Out of each UC two villages were selected and from each village 25 women above 18 years have been selected randomly. The collected data was analyzed using multiple regressions. Variables such as women age, family type, family size, husband health status, purdah observed, source of income and number of children were found statistically significant. From the results of the study it was be concluded that economic constraints due to number of factors forced the women in the study area to work outside home. However, due to religious nature of the area, mostly women were not allowed to participate in economic activities outside their homes.

Blundell (2016) in their study found that women with partners may reduce their labor supply in response to tax credits, because their earnings could reduce the family's entitlement to a tax credit. In contrast, tax credits positively affect labor force participation of single mothers, especially for part-time work, though this penalizes hourly earnings because of low returns to experience. Thus, the choices made by married and single people have different economic effects, and models should account for the changes of choices made by the women.

Nikulin (2017) assessed the “**Impact of ICTs on Women’s Economic Empowerment**”. It was widely argued that ICTs enable the inclusion of low-skilled and traditionally marginalized groups, such as women, people with disabilities, and workers at the base of the pyramid (BOP), in the labor market. In this paper, they investigated the determinants of female participation in the labor market in developing countries with a focus on the impact of the use of ICTs on female labor force participation. They conducted a panel study analysis for 60 developing countries in the time period 2000–2014. One of the important effects of the proliferation of ICTs is the influence on the labor market, both through the creation of new jobs (ICTs as a sector) and making labor markets more inclusive, innovative, flexible, and transparent (ICTs as a tool). Their data set contains panel data from 2000 to 2014 for 60 developing countries, which are strongly balanced. As a response variable, a female labor force participation rate was used, which is calculated as the proportion of female aged 15 and older who is economically active. The study found that women labour were economically active with their literacy, Whereas the educational attainment plays an important role in the job opportunity of the women labourers.

IV. Studies on Women Labour Force Participation

Das , jain-chandra et.al (2015) examined women workers in India: why so few among so many? The paper examined the determinants of female labor force participation in India, against the backdrop of India having one of the lowest participation rates for women among peer countries. Using extensive Indian household survey data, model the labor force participation choices of women, conditional on demographic characteristics and education, as well as looking at the influence of state-level labor market flexibility and other state policies. The main finding was that a number of policy initiatives can help boost female economic participation in the states of India, including increased labor market flexibility, investment in infrastructure, and enhanced social spending. The literature on female labor force participation in India has traditionally focused on how demographic characteristics and educational attainment affect the labor force participation decisions of women.

Teigner (2014) examined the “**Quantitative effects of gender gaps in labor force participation on productivity and living standards**”. They simulated an occupational choice model with heterogeneous agents that imposes several frictions on female economic participation and their wages, and showed that gender gaps in entrepreneurship and in labor force participation significantly reduce per capita income.

Adib J. Rahman (2013) did “**An econometric analysis of the “backward- bending” labour supply of Canadian women**” The econometric study investigated the labour supply behaviour of Canadian women at different composite hourly wages of all paid jobs. The objectives of the study were to test the canonical model of labour supply and to observe women's responsiveness to changes in the wage rate by using 2009 cross-sectional data. The focus on the female supply side in Canada has been motivated by two major issues. In 2006, Canada’s population consisted of 49% males (15.5 million) and 51% females (16.1 million), a sex ratio of 96 males per hundred females. Females outnumbered males in every province except for Alberta and the three territories. However, the labour force participation rates are generally higher among men than women in Canada. In 2006, the participation rate for Canadian men was 72.5% and 62.1% for Canadian women.

The analysis in the study focused on Canadian women in ten provinces with ages between 24 and 60. The objective of this paper was to test the assumption that the canonical model of labour supply is backward-bending for Canadian women. The second objective is to test if factors that determine labour supply decisions differ according to the economic well-being of the household where the female worker lives.

Agarwal and Malhotra (2016) examined “**Women and access to ICT**”. Women account for a sizeable number of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) workforce in India. This paper makes an attempt to find out women’s status in emerging areas of IT in India. This paper firstly tries to find out factors affecting women’s access to ICT education in India. It also tries to find out factors affecting participation in ICT employment. The paper addresses issues regarding IT education availability for all women. Policy recommendations were given regarding women participation in IT sector. The Information and Communication Technologies (ICT and IT can be used interchangeably). ICT includes all aspects of Information Technology and Business Process Management (IT-BPM) firms. Since 2013, Information Technology and

Business Process Outsourcing (IT-BPO) has been renamed as IT-BPM drives growth in the present era. These technologies have created new opportunities for scientific progress, economic development, education and social change. The ICTs are a significant factor in performance and growth of economies and also help advance sustainable human development. In 2014, world-wide IT-BPM spending was 2.3 trillion US\$, a growth of 4.6% over 2013. The largest market in BPM services is America with 5.1% growth.

Santosh kumari sharma (1995) has studied “**occupational health problems: Impact on output and household development**” of women workers of rural and urban handloom industries of Panipat Occupational health is comprised of measures for protecting the workers against any health hazards arising out of their work or conditions under which it is carried on. It should aim at the promotion and maintenance of the highest degree of physical, mental and social well-being of the workers It is the basis of efficiency of workers and lies at the very foundation of industry. Occupational health is of special importance from the point of view of a worker's life as an average adult spends 1/3rd of her/his life at some occupation (Purdom, 1980). People are industry's major resource and an industry whose policies recognise the importance of human sustenance, conservation of manpower energy and prevention of personnel breakdown.

Pillai (1999) assessed “**Female labour force participation**” and reported that it has many positive impacts on life of women as improvement in status, economic freedom, empowerment, greater role in decision-making including fertility decisions and household consumption decisions. But during the last decade of the twentieth century female labour is being eliminated from their work. This has drastically affected the income of female labourers and thereby the family consumption pattern of female labour families. Cropping pattern of Kerala changed in favour of perennial commercial crops from seasonal food crops and paddy. This has changed the structure of labour use in agriculture of the state. Female labour saving cropping pattern has released female labourers from their traditional employment. Due to the already remaining reserve army of labour, the female labourers eliminated from their work found it difficult to get a new employment have permanently been evacuated.

Sandra Vogel (2012) examined “**Factors influencing women's decision to return to work**”. Improved possibilities to combine family and working life are cited as the most important precondition for the successful return of women to the workforce. Generally speaking,

most female returners (84%) belonged to the 25–44 year-old age group. However, differences between the eastern and western German states still existed. In eastern Germany, female returners tended to be younger, 47% being between 25 and 34 years of age. In contrast, the largest age groups among female returners in western Germany were the 35–44 year-olds (48%). Women in the hidden reserve tended to be older in both parts of Germany, that is, 55–64 years-old. In addition, most were married but had no children below the age of 15 living in their households. The IBA analysts suggest that married women in the hidden reserve may rely more on their husband's income and not need to return to the labour market. Traditional role models might also play a role in this context, with the responsibility for child raising and caring for sick relatives still mainly being borne by women. In contrast, many of the registered female returners were single parents, a group that might have a greater need to secure the family income. Income concerns might also explain the striking differences concerning the working time preferences within the group of female returners. In eastern Germany, female returners were mostly looking for a full-time job (81%). This compares to only 28% of their western German counterparts, who preferred part-time employment when returning to work. Information on the qualification structure of female returners and the hidden reserve in Germany is given in the table below. A high proportion of women in the hidden reserve in 2008 were well-educated and had a university or similar degree or vocational training.

Harutyunyan (2007) surveyed 94 respondents to examine rural women's participation in the federation of agricultural associations. The study revealed that among the most important factors impacting women's participation were family members' negative attitude towards women's participation and the lack of skills. European Commission's work (2011) represents a synthesis report on a number of socio-economic issues present in the countries of the Southern Caucasus region. The report discusses female labor force participation highlighting the lowest female employment rate (42%) and the highest gap (11%-13%) to male employment observed in Armenia. This situation was explained by a tradition that women are expected to stay at home and take care of the children. In addition, this situation was aggravated by the withdrawal of women from the labor market due to limited job opportunities, discouragement, and migration.

III. METHODOLOGY

The methodology adopted in the current study on “**Factors Determining Labour Supply among Urban Women in Coimbatore**” is discussed in this chapter under the following heads.

1. Selection of the problem
2. Selection of the area
3. Selection of the sample respondents
4. Sources of data
5. Period of study
6. Quantitative techniques and
7. Limitations.

1. Selection of the problem

The persistent decline in female labour force participation rate (LFPR) in India in the face of consistent economic growth is a puzzling phenomenon. While this declining trend has been discernible for a while, it was brought sharply into focus with the results of the latest Employment and Unemployment Survey which showed that in the period 2004-05 to 2009-10 women’s labour force participation declined from 33.3 per cent to 26.5 per cent in rural areas and from 17.8 per cent to 14.6 per cent in urban areas (NSSO 2011). According to the International Labour Organization’s Global Employment Trends 2013 report, India is placed at 120th position out of 131 countries in women’s labour force participation.

The decline in women’s economic activity is cause for concern to those who are interested in women’s well being as well as those who believe that women are valuable resources and must be utilised efficiently. Women’s employment is a critical factor in their progress towards economic independence and is also considered as an indicator of their overall status in society (Mammen and Paxson 2008). The gender gap in employment has macroeconomic implications as well. Based on data from 2000-2004, the United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and Pacific (ESCAP) estimates

that if India's female labour force participation reached parity with that of United States (86 percent), its gross domestic product (GDP) would increase by 4.2 per cent a year and growth rate by 1.08 per cent representing an annual gain of \$19 billion. A 10 per cent permanent increase in female labour force participation would lead to increase in growth rates by 0.3 per cent (UNESCAP 2007).

With this background, the investigator has chosen the study of female labour and to find the factors that affect their work participation.

2. Selection of the Area

The area selected for carrying out the research was Coimbatore.

TABLE - I
COIMBATORE AREA PROFILE

S.No	Coimbatore area Profile	Number
I	AREA AND POPULATION	
	Geographical Area (Sq.Km.)(as per village Records)	3671 1052
	Reserve Forest (Sq. Km.)	4723
	Total Area (Sq. Km.)	
II	CENSUS 2011	
	I. Population	
	a) Total Population	3458045
	b) Male Population	1729297
	c) Female Population	1728748
	II. Literates	
	a) Total Literates	2635907
	b) Male	1394790
	c) Female	1241117
	III. Main Workers	
	a) Total Workers	1567950
	b) Male Workers	1083125
	c) Female Workers	484825
d) Cultivators	75411	
e) Agricultural Labourers	201351	
f) Other Workers	1291188	

Source: Census 2011

3. Selection of sample respondents

The present study is confined to a selected group of 80 women labours who are working in unorganised sector, in various activities

4. Sources of data

Data pertaining to the study were collected by personal interview method. The interview schedule consisted of questions relating to the socio-economic profile, living conditions; reasons for working, problems faced at work place and at family were asked to the women workers. Secondary data were collected using Census India, NSSO Report, journals and other articles.

5. Period of study

The data for the study were collected from the sample units in the month of December 2017.

6. Quantitative techniques

The various tools and techniques used in this study are briefly described.

a. Garrett`s ranking technique

Garrett`s ranking technique was used to rank the preference indicated by the respondents on different factors. As per this method, respondents have been asked to assign rank for all the problems that they faced. And the outcomes of such ranking have been converted into score values using formula:

$$\text{Percent Position} = 100 (R-0.5) / N$$

where,

R= Rank given for the problems by the respondents

N= number of items ranked by the respondents.

Using Garrett's table, the percent position estimated was converted into scores. Then for each factor, the scores of each individual were added and then value of scores and mean values of scores were calculated. The factors having highest mean value was considered to be the most severe problem faced by the women at household and at workplace.

b. Multiple regression model

To find out the determinants of the days worked by the women respondents, multiple regression model was estimated using the ordinary least squares technique. The estimated model was of form,

$$Y_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i X_i + U_i$$

where,

Y_i = Number of days employed

X_i = explanatory variables

U_i = error term

c. Averages and percentages

Average and percentages were the other tools used in the study.

d. Graphs

To represent the findings, bar and pie diagrams were drawn.

Statistical Package

To carry out the analysis IBM 24.0 version was used.

7. Limitations

1. The limitations pertaining to primary data are applicable to this study. The respondents have to give details based on recall method; which could not be 100 percent accurate.
2. This study can be viewed as a micro study of women workers in select few informal sector and it cannot be taken as a representation of all the sectors.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of the study on “Factors Determining Labour Supply among Urban Women in Coimbatore” are presented under the following heads.

- I. Social Characteristics of the Respondents
- II. Demographic Characteristics of Respondents
- III. Financial Status of the Respondents
- IV. Household Background of the Respondents
- V. Work Profile of the Respondents
- VI. Factors determining the labourer supply by women
- VII. Problems faced by Women Labourers

I. Social Characteristic of the Respondents

Information about the characteristics of women labors is essential for any study on women, as profile of women helps to identify the factors affecting their labourers force, which also helps to understand the life process of women. This section presents the social profile of women labourers based on the field survey conducted. It presents certain key characteristics of the women regarding their religion and community.

TABLE- II

SOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RESPONDENTS

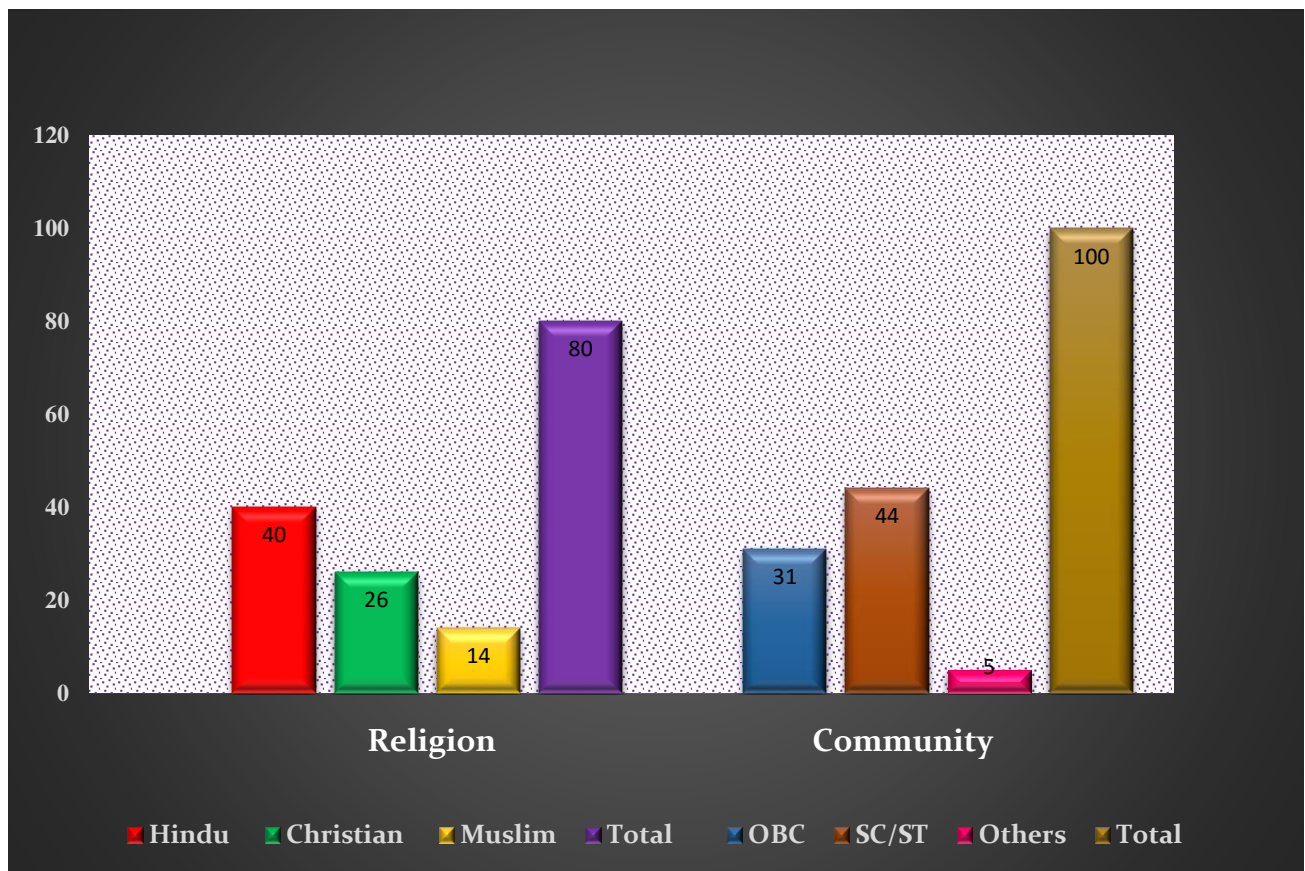
S.No	Social characteristics	Number	Percent
1	Religion		
	Hindu	40	50.0
	Christian	26	32.5
	Muslim	14	17.5
	Total	80	100.0
2	Community		
	Other Backward Community	31	38.8
	SC/ST	44	55.0
	Others	05	06.2
	Total	80	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2017.

Religion and caste are considered to be the two important factors which not only explain the composition of the population but also have a bearing on the socio-economic structure. Data pertaining to religion of the respondents reveal the fact that an overwhelming majority (50 percent) of the respondents were Hindus followed by Christians (32.5 percent) and Muslims (17.5 percent).

Community has been the peculiar feature of Indian society determining the status of its members on the basis of birth as also prescribing the corresponding roles. Mukherjee (1975), Kothari (1980), and Yadav (1989) reported large scale women workers among upper caste were Hindus. In the present study, caste wise analysis reveals that the largest single groups (55 percent) were from Scheduled caste/ Scheduled in tribe and, 38.8 percent from OBC and 6.2 percent were from other castes prevailing in India.

FIGURE-1
SOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS



II. Demographic characteristics of respondents

The demographic characteristics of the respondents are a factor which pushes the women workers to enter into labor force. This study has made an attempt to seek the demographic characteristics of the women in the study area.

TABLE- III
DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONANTANTS

S.No	Demographic characteristics	Number	Percent
1	Age of the respondent (in years)		
	21-30	06	38.0
	30-40	40	44.0
	40-50	20	13.0
	50-60	14	05.0
	Above60	00	00.0
	Total	80	100.0
2	Education level		
	Illiterate	35	43.7
	Primary	25	31.3
	Matriculation	09	11.3
	Degree	05	06.2
	Technical Education	06	06.5
	Total	80	100.0
3	Marital status		
	Married	66	82.5
	Unmarried	12	15.0
	Widow	02	02.5
	Total	80	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2017.

Age is an important indicator in assessing the working capacity of an individual. From the table of the current study on the basis of age it can be noted that majority of the respondents (44 percent) were from the age group of 30-40 years. It was followed by 38 percent of the sample respondents being in the age group of 21 to 30 years, 13 percent of the respondents from the age group of 40-50years and only five percent of the respondents were from the age group between 50-60 years of age.

Education is one of the important factor which affects the labour participation of women. In the current study, information relating to educational attainment of the respondents indicates that 43.7 percent were illiterate, 31.3 percent had attained primary education, 11.3 percent have completed matriculation, and 6.5 percent of the respondents have attended technical education.

Marital status of women is important factor which is associated with women labourers participation. Data relating to marital status of the members in the current study highlights that 82.5 percent stated that they are married, 15 percent were unmarried and only about 2.5 percent were widowed.

Family in India has been changing very fast in terms of its structure and functions due to multiplicity of factors. Joint family system, which used to characterize the urban society, is gradually replaced by nuclear families consisting of husband, wife and unmarried children. The current study has found that 95 percent of the sample respondents were from joint family and only 05 percent were from nuclear family.

FIGURE – 2
AGE OF THE RESPONDENTS (IN YEARS)

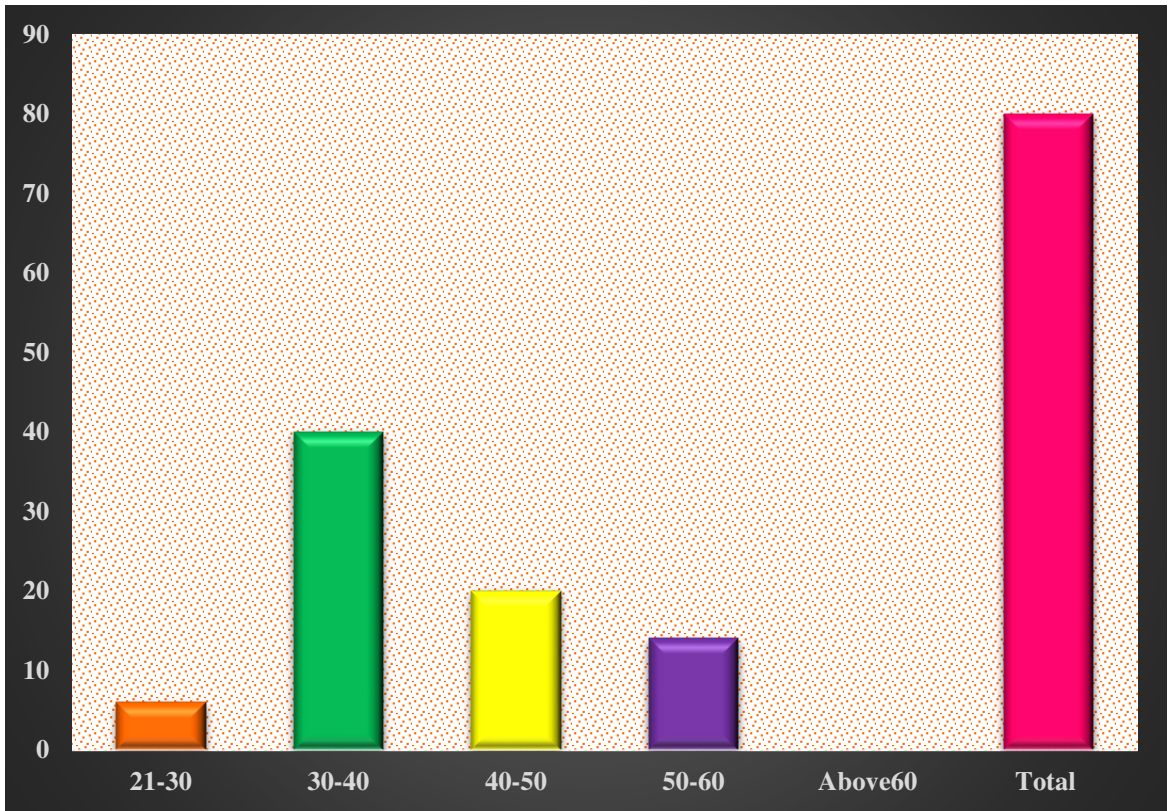


FIGURE – 3
EDUCATION LEVEL

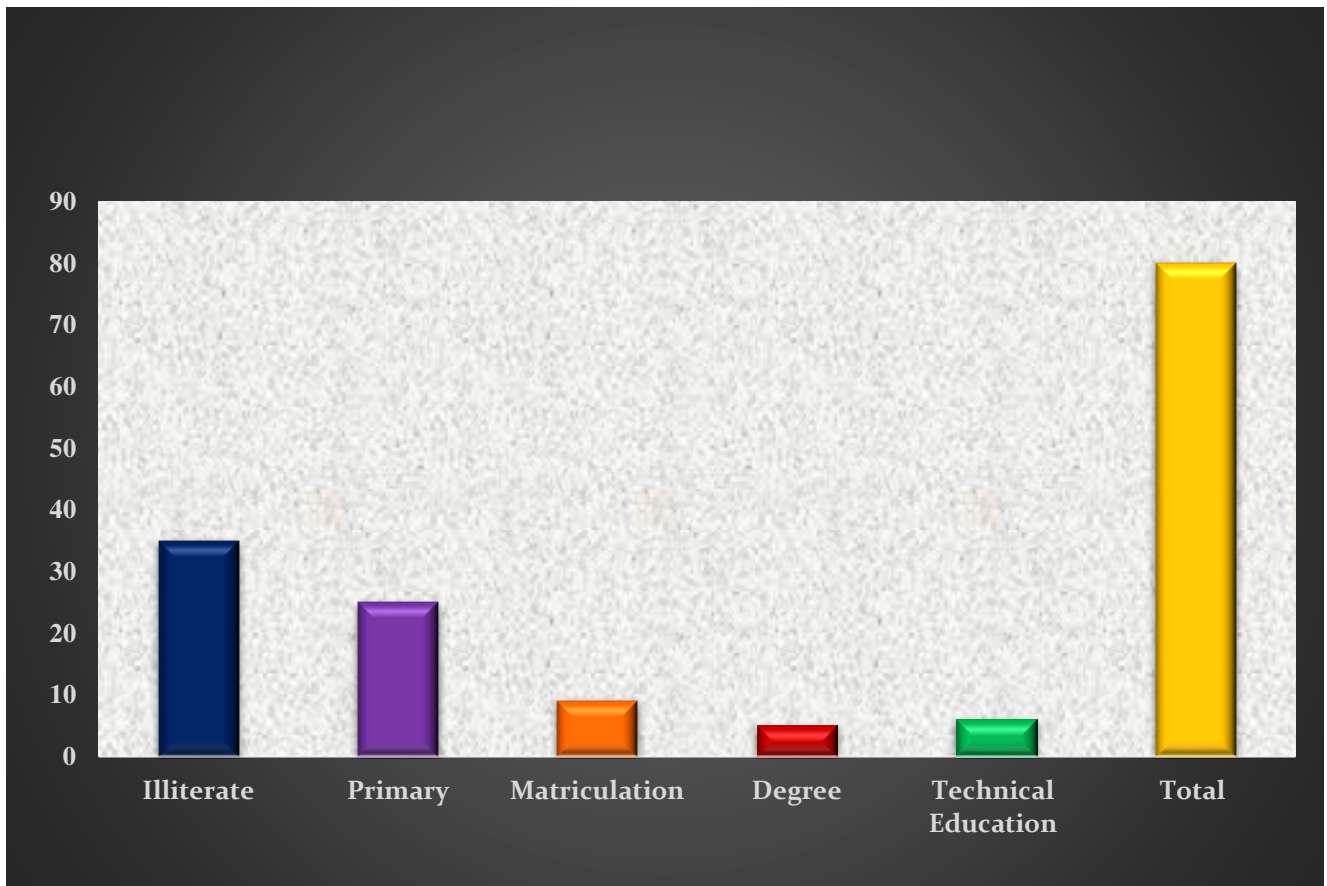
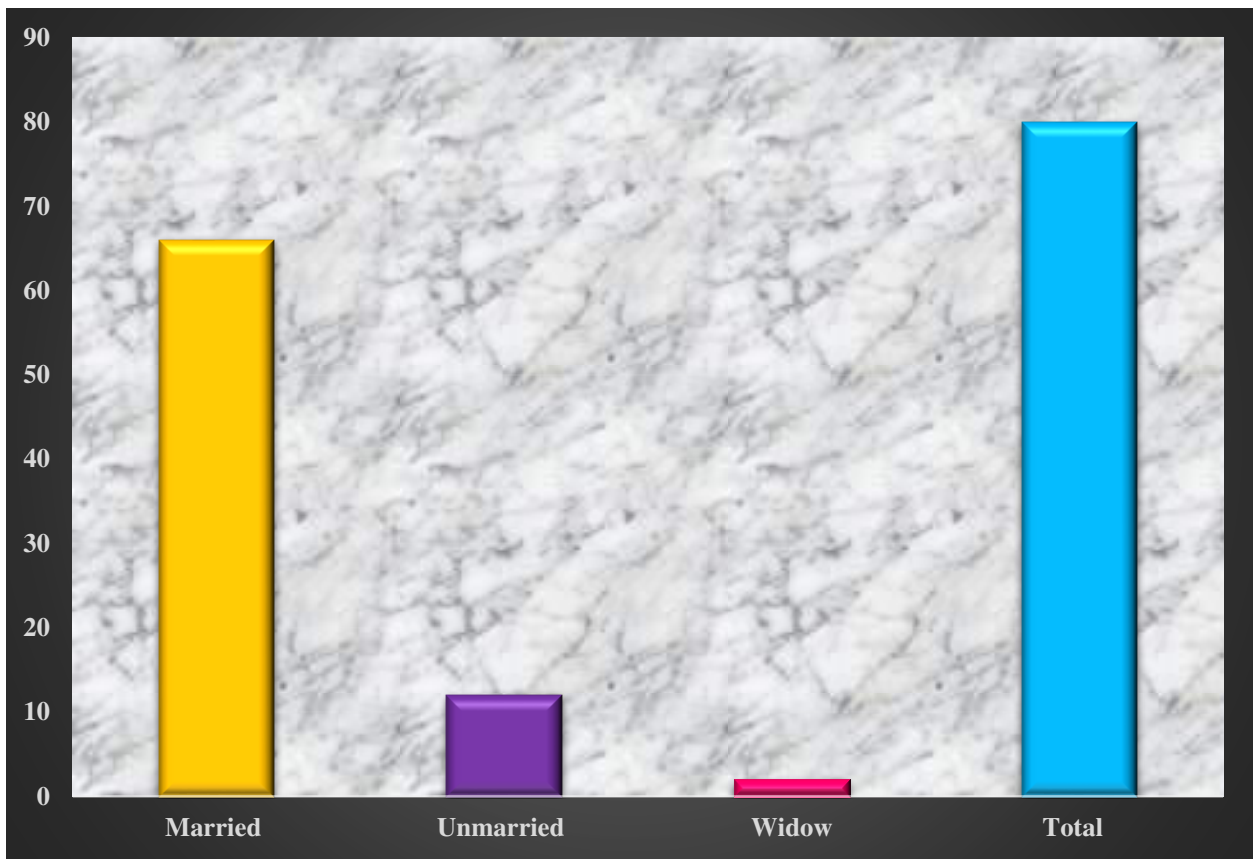


FIGURE – 4

MARITAL STATUS



III. Financial status of the respondents

The financial conditions of the women laborers are one of the factors which push them to work. This section discusses the financial conditions of women respondents in terms of their savings, reasons for savings, their debt and reasons for debt.

SAVINGS

Women are known for their saving habits. In the current study it was found out that only 38 percent of the population had some mode of savings and other 62 percent did not have any savings.

Table- IV
DETAILS ON SAVING

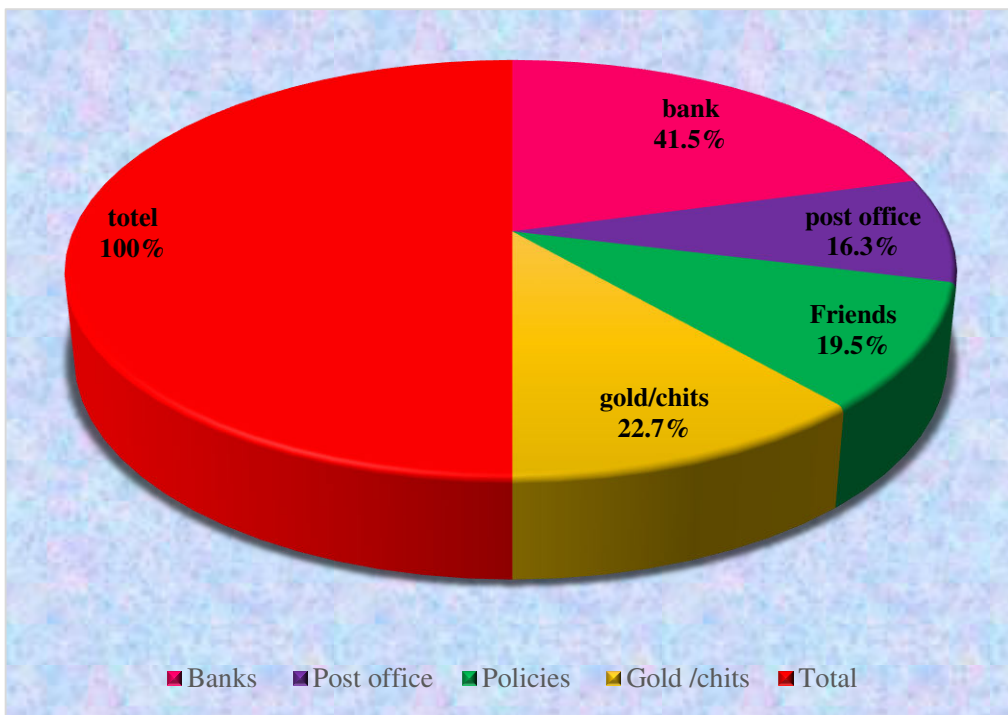
S.No	Particulars	Percent
SOURCES OF SAVINGS		
1	Banks	41.5
2	Post Office	16.3
3	Friends/Relatives	19.5
4	Gold and Chits	22.7
	Total	100.0
REASONS FOR SAVING		
1	To conduct marriage	15.5
2	To meet educational expenses	56.3
3	To face emergency	06.1
4	To attend family needs	22.1
	Total	100

Source: Filed Survey 2017

The table shows that among the 38 percent of the women workers who save, the sources of savings was enquired. About 41.5 percent of them preferred saving in banks, 22.7 were saving through gold and chits, 19.5 percent were saving through Friends and relatives and 16.3 percent were saving through post office.

The details on reasons for savings by the women labourers revealed that out of 38 percent of respondents who have savings, 56.3 percent were saving for education of family members, 22.1 percent were saving for family need, 15.5 percent were saving for marriage purpose and 06.1 percent were saving for emergency purpose.

FIGURE – 5
MODE OF SAVINGS



Debt Position

Debt condition is one of the important factors that is associated with the women labours participation in the work. The current study has made an attempt to find out the condition of the selected women labourers.

It was observed from the below table that, more than half of the selected sample respondents were found to be in debt. On an average, constraints 70 percent of the respondents reported that they have been indebted due to resource and the remaining 30 percent stated that they have not incurred any form of debt

TABLE- V
DEBT POSITION

S.No	Debt	Number	Percent
1	Yes	56	70.0
2	No	24	30.0
	Total	80	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2017

The different sources of getting loans by the respondents are shown in table – IV

TABLE- VI
SOURCES OF DEBT

S.No	Reasons	Number	Percent
1	Money lenders	19	34.0
2	Relatives/friends	12	21.4
3	Banks	15	26.8
4	Post office	10	17.8
	Total	56	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2017

Of these indebted women, 34 percent approached money lenders for getting their loan. Next to it, 26.8 percent of the borrowers were heavily depending on banks. It is been followed by 21.4 percent of the respondents approaching friends/relatives for getting loans and 17.8 approaching post office for paying loans.

The women workers were asked to state the reasons for their borrowing. The reasons stated by the migrants are shown in the following table VII.

TABLE -VII
REASONS FOR DEBT

S.No	Reasons	Number	Percentage
1	For meeting health expenses	09	16.0
2	To Pay home loan	05	08.9
3	To conduct marriage	23	41.0
4	Educational expenses	07	12.7
5	Others	12	21.4
	Total	56	100

Source: Field survey, 2017

Loans are taken for meeting a variety of needs. About 41 percent got loan for marriage, 21 percent were in debt for working purpose, 16 percent of them borrowed for health issues, 12.7 percent got money for education and only 8.9 percent borrowed for paying home loan.

IV. Household Background of the Respondents

Household background is a major factor that is associated with the women work participation. These details had been tabulated as follows,

TABLE – VIII
HOUSEHOLD DETAILS OF RESPONDENTS

S.No	Household details	Number	Percentage
Income(Rs)			
1	Up to 5000	01	1.3
	5000-10000	19	23.7
	10000-20000	53	66.3
	Above 20000	07	8.7
	Total	80	100.0
Size of the family			
2	<5	39	49.0
	>5	41	51.0
	Total	80	100.0
Type Of Family			
3	Joint	62	77.5
	Nuclear	18	22.5

Source: Field Survey 2017

Information gathered regarding the size of the households of the respondents highlights that the households were following large family norms, the size of the family being either equal to or exceeding 5. In the current sample about 51 percent of the respondents have their family size exceeding five.

The family income of the respondents shows that 66.3 percent were earning income between Rs10,000 to Rs20,0000, 23.7 percent were earning income between Rs5000 to Rs 20,000, 8.7 percent received family income about above Rs 20,000. Since many belonged to joint family, many adult members worked to raise income of the family. Since the family income was not adequate, women in these families opted to work outside the households.

V. Work Profile of the Respondents

Women comprise a little over half of the world`s total population but their involvement to measured economic activity is far below the potential. Stepping out of home for work is a big challenge for women. In addition to the working in an environment which is not homely makes it more challenging for the women. Women have twofold responsibilities one that she has to give her best to her job and other she has to maintain her tradition. Women in our society have so far had only a secondary status and the economic dependence of women upon men is one of the primary reasons which has pushed them into the background and resulted into their secondary status both within and outside the family (Wadhera 1976). In spite of the fact that the women have proved their mettle in every walk of life, their contribution is not given due credit in most cases. In India women constitute nearly half of the total population and they play a vital role in domestic sphere, in the rural field and also in urban economy. Yet, their economic status is still low as it reflects from the census data, particularly of those who are engaged in the informal sector of urban economy (Tripathy and Das 1991).

Details on the work profile of the respondents are necessary for finding about their occupation related details. The below table shows the occupation pattern of the respondents.

TABLE – IX
OCCUPATION STATUS OF RESPONDENTS

Respondents Occupation		
Occupations	Numbers	Percentage
Daily wage earners	10	12.5
Domestic servants	34	42.5
Teacher in nursery school	3	3.75
House keeping	24	30
Tailor	5	6.3
Others	4	5
Total	80	100.0

Source: Field survey,2017

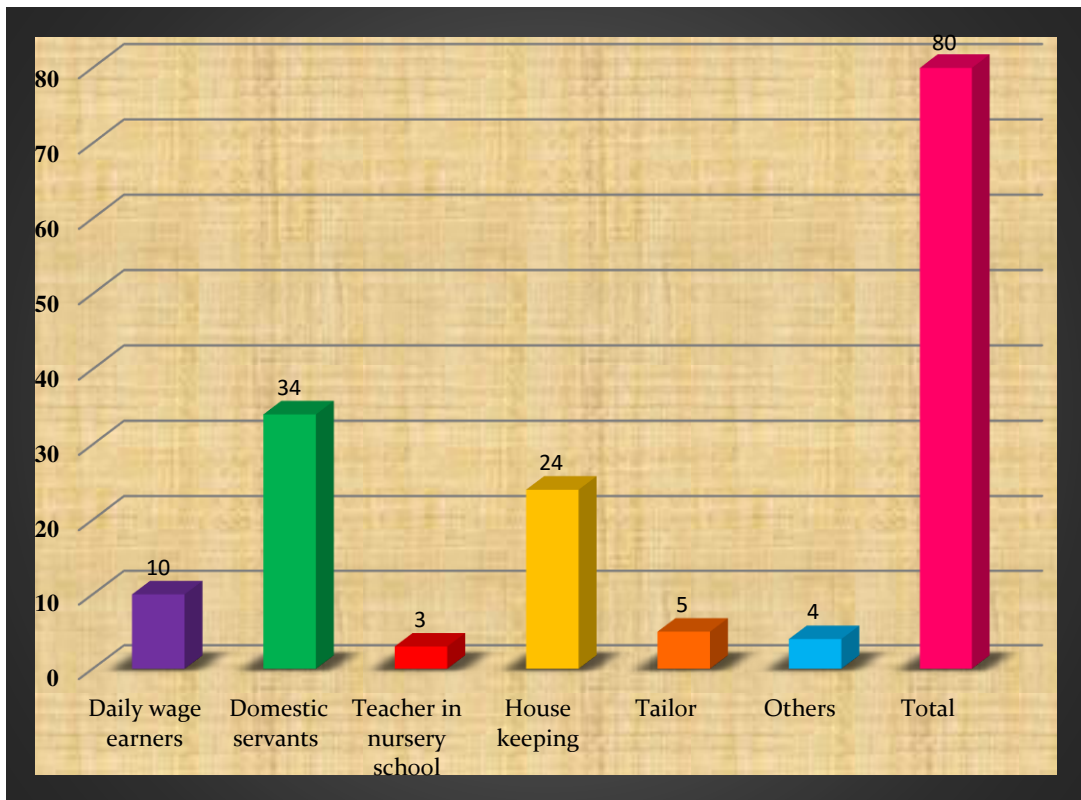
It is found that among all categories in the informal sector, domestic servants' income is the lowest and the problems are many (Sundaram 1996). They are engaged in household tasks, which include washing utensils, floor cleaning, washing of clothes, cooking as well as some outdoor tasks such as purchase of vegetables etc.

The type of work women engaged into is one of the important and core concept to study. The present study has made an attempt to find out the working pattern of the women labourers in the selected area. The study has found that majority of the women (42.5 percent) are found to be employed as domestic servants. As most of the women are illiterate or had been into primary education they find it difficult to get into organized sector. And domestic work is easily available in the labor market for the women labors. After domestic sector the next sector preferred by the selected women are housekeeping which was chosen by 30 percent of the women workers. Housekeeping is considered to be easy job for women as it is one of their daily activities. Most of the women know all the ways and means to maintain their house. Due to their low level of education they chose housekeeping jobs in order to support their family.

Next to housekeeping the other activity chosen by the selected women labourers are “Daily Wage Earners” where 12.5 percent stated this work. The daily wage earners refer to the workers who are employed on daily job basis. The earnings of the daily wage earners are mainly based on the actual working days. A daily wage earner performs both work for which the women is compensated daily on the basis of working days and work for which the women is compensated hourly on the basis of working hours. These daily wage women workers are enrolled in activities such as gardening, agriculture labours etc. In the study, there are 6.3 percent of the women who are found to be enrolled into tailoring field. A tailor is a person who makes, repairs, or alters clothing professionally especially suits and clothing of women. And women from historical time were found to be engaged in stitching activities. And only five percent of the women are found to be engaged in other activities like working in company, construction sites, and garment industries. The study has found that most of the women are found to be engaged in domestic activities and it is mainly because of their low educational situation.

FIGURE – 6

OCCUPATION OF THE RESPONDENTS



VI. Factors determining the labour supply by women- Multiple Regression Analysis

Multiple Regression Analysis attempts to model the relationship between two or more explanatory variables and a response variable by fitting a linear equation to observed data. Women are induced to participate in the labour market by the push and pull factors. The push factors mainly represent financial pressure. Women from the poorest families are pushed into the labour market due to severe economic necessity [Kazi and Raza (1986)]. Demographic factors like age and family size are also considered to be important in affecting the labour force participation rates of the women. It has been observed that large family size and dependency burden might push mothers into the labour force. Other variables like family structure and education level of husband and parents can also be considered as potential determinants constraints on women's work participation.

The current study has applied multiple regression analysis in order to find out the relationship between women's days of work and variables affecting their labour participation. The formula used for the study is,

$$Y_i = \sum_{i=0}^n \beta_i X_i + U_i$$

Where,

Y_i = Number of days employed

X_i = Explanatory variables

U_i = Error term

TABLE - X
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive Statistics			
	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Age	40.87	8.733	80
Size of family	3.72	1.617	80
Num of child	.56	.500	80
Debt	21544.30	21857.814	80
Husband income	6911.39	4310.660	80

Source: Estimate values 2017

The above table shows the descriptive statistics for the selected variables. The mean value of age is 40.87, mean size of family is 03.72 whereas the mean value for number of children at household is 0.56 and the mean value for debt is 21544.30. The standard deviation for age is 8.733, the for the size of family is 1.617 and for number of children at household is 0.500 and for debt, the standard deviation is 21857.814.

TABLE – XI

Determinants of labour supply among women – Multiple regression analysis

Variable	Unstandardized coefficients		“t” Value	Level of significance
	β	Std Error		
Age	48.762	1.923	25.359	.000 (sig at 1%)
Size of family	.267	.523	.510	.612
Number of child	-8.885	1.821	-4.879	.000
Debt	1.034E-005	.000	.210	.834
Husband Income	-.001	.000	-2.124	.037 (sig at 5%)
R²	.476	(Sig at 1%)		
F	16.79			

The multiple regression analysis indicated that 48 percent of the variables in labour supply of women were explained by the selected variables included in the study. At the family level, the female labour force participation induced by the push and pull factors. The push factors mainly represent financial pressure. Women from the poorest families are pushed in to labour market due to severe economic necessity. Demographic factors like age, family size are also considered to be important in affecting the labour force participation in the study, the variable age has emerged as the significant factor for women to enter into labour market. The size of the family consisting of number of small children came out with negative sign as the presence of children require women’s attention and care at home reducing their labour supply.

The variable husband's income also was found to be significantly related to female labour force participation because as husband's income is significant enough for the family, women could refrain from entering into labour market.

VII.A, Problems faced by Women labourers in their Work

To find out the severity of selected problems that selected women in the current study faced in their Work, Garrett's scaling technique was used. From the ranks given for each factor, percent positions were calculated by using the formula.

$$\text{Percent position} = 100 (R-0.5)/N$$

Where R is the rank assigned and N is the number of items ranked, the percent position was then converted into scores using Garrett's Score table.

TABLE – XII
PROBLEMS FACED BY WOMEN LABOURERS IN THEIR WORK

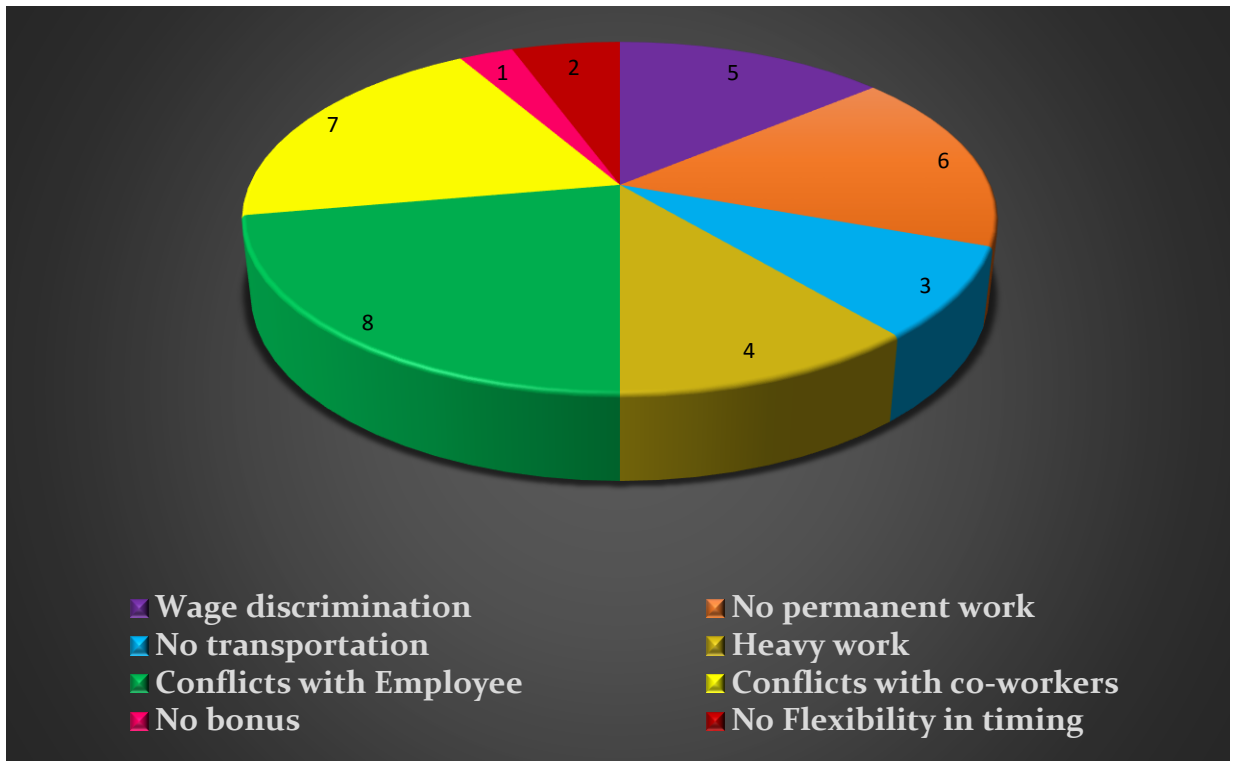
S. No	Problems	Score	Rank
1	Wage discrimination	92.84	5
2	No permanent work	89.13	6
3	No transportation	95.81	3
4	Heavy work	94.28	4
5	Conflicts with owner	87.45	8
6	Conflicts with co-workers	88.34	7
7	Traditional bound	96.80	1
8	Time bounded	96.21	2

Source: Primary Survey 2017

The highest rank I has been assigned to the problem traditional bounded as women has so many traditional restriction by the society and it affects them in their working. Rank II has been assigned to the problem “Time bounded” as mostly women are supposed to be back to their home before 6 p.m. in evening due to which most of the women find it difficult to work for long hours in their work place. Rank III has been assigned to the problem like “No transportation” as urban women lack facility of transportation and it is also a big problem for them to get bus to reach their workplace. The last rank has been assigned to the problem “Conflicts with owner”, Conflicts with co workers. Thus the study has found the most common problems faced by women and it can be understood from the table that women face problem that are created by the society.

FIGURE – 7

PROBLEMS FACED BY WOMEN LABOURS IN THEIR WORK



B. Problems at household for Women Labourers:

TABLE-XIII

PROBLEMS AT HOUSEHOLD FOR WOMEN LABOURERS

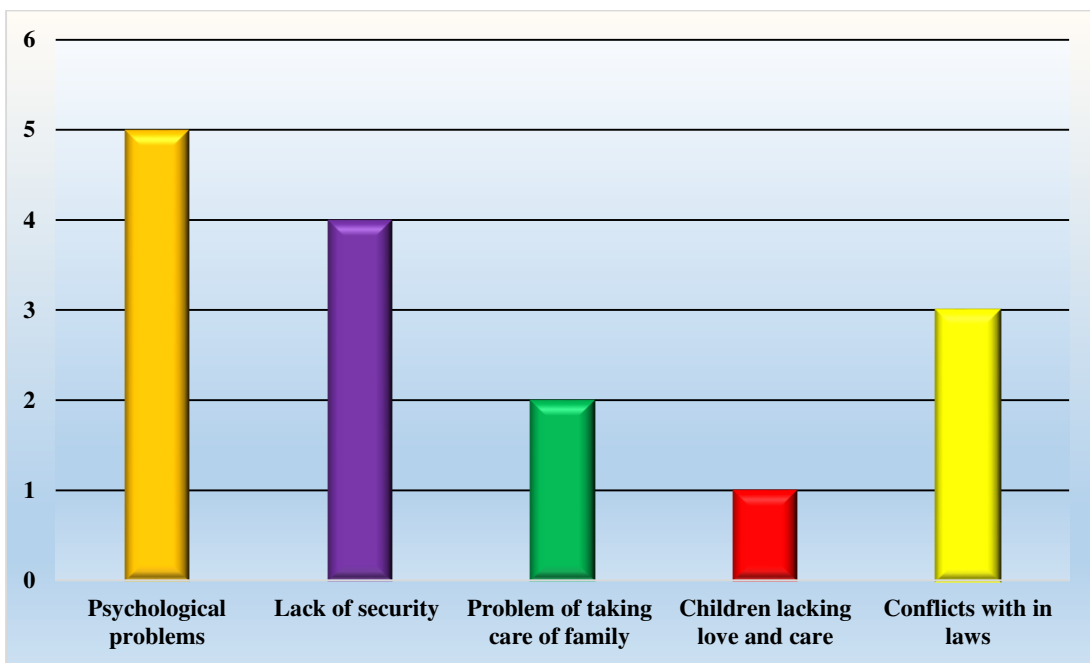
S. No	Problems	Mean	Rank
1	Psychological problems	57.00	5
2	Lack of security	63.25	4
3	Problem of taking care of family	78.34	2
4	Children lacking love and care	89.49	1
5	Conflicts with in laws	67.39	3

Source: Primary Survey 2017

The above table shows the problems faced by Women at household level. Their main and first problem is “lack of love and care for their children” for which Rank one has been assigned as women find it difficult to cope up with their work at work place and work at household it affects their time spending with their children. It is been followed by problem in “taking care of family” as they find it difficult to manage their life between work and family; they don’t get sufficient time in providing full care for the family so rank second has been assigned for this problem, third rank is assigned for the conflicts with in laws as this is one the main problem faced by most of the women, and the last problem they faced is “psychological problem” as women faced burden of maintaining family and working and women easily get psychologically affected.

FIGURE- 8

PROBLEMS AT HOUSEHOLD FOR WOMEN LABOURERS



V. SUMMERY AND CONCLUSION

The women labour constitutes an important segment of labour force in India and their participation in the labour force is gradually increasing. The current study has been undertaken to explore, examine and analyze the issue of labour supply, its determinants, conditions of work and problems and challenges faced by women.

The main findings emerged out of the study were

I. Social and demographic characteristic of the respondents

- Majority of the respondents were Hindus followed by Christians
- Forty four percent of women respondents were from the age group 30-40 years
- Many were illiterates and little around seven percent of women respondents had obtained technical education .
- 83 percent of women respondents were married .

II. Financial status of respondents

- Only 42.5 percent of the respondents had the habit of saving
- They developed the habit of saving mainly to meet educational expenses followed by reason of meeting family needs
- 40 percent of respondents reported having debt at the time of interview
- They obtained loans from money lenders and banks
- Debt amounts were obtained to conduct marriage of their children

III. Work profile of the respondents

- Women were found to be employed in the informal sector mainly as daily wage earners and domestic servants.
- Only five percent of women were found to be in construction work, and garments industries

IV. Problems faced by women

- Problems such as wage discrimination time bound nature , lack of transport facilities, nature of work, conflicts with co- works were expressed as problems faced by the women
- The major significant problem faced by them has been lack of love care for their children;
- Meeting the burden of family responsibilities and working outside made women to get psychologically affected.

V. The Multiple Regression analysis:

The multiple regression analysis indicated that 48 percent of variations in the days of work by women were influenced by select variable included in the study such as age, size of family, number of children, husband income etc. The number of children present in age group below five and five to ten years of age demanded more time spent at home then working outside. The high amount of income earned by husbands in the family also reduced the women labour supply in the market

CONCLUSION

The study revealed that among the most important factors impacting women's participation in the labour market were attitude of family members, and physical condition prevailing at household level. So, proper efforts and awareness should be created to women to avail financial assistance through banks to promote self employment among women. NGOs and other voluntary organizations can organize suitable training programme and also initiate and enthuse women to form self help groups to achieve women empowerment. Required motivation should also be given to family members to extent proper positive attitude towards women who are working in the labour market.

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