

WOMEN AND EMPLOYMENT

A Study of the Employment of Women in

Selected Industries in the Industrial Estates of Goa

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in

ECONOMICS

By

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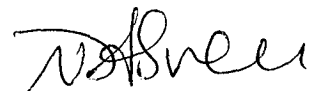
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DECLARATION

I, Nirmala Dominica Joanita De Abreu, hereby declare that this thesis for the Ph.D. Degree in Economics titled "*WOMEN AND EMPLOYMENT: A Study of the Employment of Women in Selected Industries in the Industrial Estates of Goa*" is a bona-fide record of the independent research work done by me under the guidance and supervision of **Dr. Silvia M. De Mendonca e Noronha**, Department of Economics, Goa University. I also declare that, this thesis or part thereof, has not previously formed the basis of award for any Degree or Diploma, Associateship, Fellowship or any other similar title.



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CERTIFICATE

I hereby certify that, this thesis for the Ph.D. degree in Economics titled "*WOMEN AND EMPLOYMENT: A Study of the Employment of Women in Selected Industries in the Industrial Estates of Goa*" is a bona-fide record of the independent research work done by Miss Nirmala Dominica Joanita De Abreu, Research scholar, Goa university, under my guidance and supervision. I hereby certify that, this thesis or part thereof, has not previously formed the basis of award for any Degree or Diploma, Associateship, Fellowship or any other similar title.



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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter covers the following:

A brief introduction to Goa - Scope and relevance of the study - Objectives of the study – Methodology - Limitations of the study.

1.1 A Brief Introduction To Goa

Goa is geographically situated between 15⁰ 48' N and 14⁰ 53' N latitude and 74⁰ 20' E and 73⁰ 40' E longitude. It has a length of 105 km from north to south and a maximum width of 60 km from east to west. Its total area of 3701 square km is divided into 2 districts and further subdivided into 11 talukas. It has the state of Maharashtra as its neighbour in the north, while on the east and south it shares its boundaries with Karnataka. The west coast is bordered by the Arabian Sea. The climate of Goa is generally humid due to its proximity to the sea. The temperature varies between 20⁰ C and 34⁰ C, and the average rainfall is around 350 cms. The rainfall bursts over the territory begin in early June and withdraw by early September.

The techno-economic survey of Goa (1964) had described the union territory of Goa, Daman and Diu as “a hilly county full of lush green valleys and mountains, quick flowing streams, forests, coconut groves and rice fields.”

This can be seen from the fact that Goa is famous for its natural beauty, which, along with its ancient temples and churches, has made it a preferred tourist destination not just in India, but also across the world. According to Richards, J. M. (1995) the

Chandernath temple near Quepem in Goa, dates from the Kadamba period and that was about two centuries before the Portuguese came to Goa. Besides, Mangueshi, Mardol, and Saptakoteshwar temples are also very famous all over the world.

Its mountains peaks such as Sosogad, Vagheri, Dudsagar etc, are full of flora and fauna. A number of rivers criss-cross the state, making Goa verdant and beautiful. Some of the minor rivers are Terekhol, Colvale, Sal, Talpona, and Galjibag. Besides, there are the two major rivers Mandovi and Zuari. These abundant waterways facilitate the carrying of ore by flat-bottomed barges and have thus helped the state to retain its competitive edge in mining, by reducing the distance between the mining pitheads and the Marmagoa harbour. According to Gune, V.T. (1979) the major mining deposits in Goa are iron, manganese, bauxite, high magnesia, limestone and clay. But at present, iron and manganese mining are the only major extractive industries.

Goa is particularly known for its beaches, such as Calangute, Baga, Harmal, Colva, etc which entice the tourists with their white sands and palm trees. Some of the lakes such as Karmali, Mayem, Benaullim, etc, are also famous; these attract birds from all over the world, much to the delight of ornithologists. The state also boasts of the Salim Ali Bird Sanctuary, which is on the island of Chorao.

Goa is internally well connected by road and it is connected to the neighbouring states through the national highways, NH 4A and NH 17. The commencement of the Konkan railway in recent years, has expedited transport of passengers and goods all over the country.

As per the results of the population census 2001, discussed in the Economic survey 2003-04, Goa has a population of 13,43,998 inhabitants and the literacy rate of the state is 82.32 %. Konkani is the official language of the state, while Marathi and English are also widely spoken. Goa is also the only state in the country to have a uniform civil code. This was introduced by the Portuguese and is in force even today in the state.

Goa has emerged as one of the leading progressive states in the country and many agencies such as the Eleventh Finance Commission, National Population Commission, and a recent study commissioned by 'India Today' Magazine, have ranked Goa as the number one state in the country with regard to infrastructure and all around development.

Tourism is one of the key contributors towards foreign exchange. Over 10% of the foreign tourists visiting India have Goa as their destination, besides the host of domestic tourists who descend on the state every year. Goa is also an important exporter of iron ore and around 60% of India's iron ore exports come from Goa. Thus, though Goa is a small state, its contribution to the national exchequer is significant.

The techno-economic survey (1964) found that the industrial structure was weak; and that apart from a few export oriented industries (such as cashew processing and fish canning) and consumer goods industries (such as rice milling, manufacturing ice, matches, tiles etc) there was no other important industrial activity in the state. They found that "barring mining and other related industries, all other sectors of the economy were sadly neglected under the Portuguese rule."

According to Noronha, S. M. (1990), prior to liberation, the industrial sector in Goa comprised of a few traditional industries such as, basket making, bamboo mats, coconut/ cashew distillation, sugarcane juice extraction, solvent extraction of oil cake, salt extraction, rice milling, coir industry, canning and cashew nut industry. In the 50's, the mining industry was the only large-scale industry in Goa.

During the last four decades, the industrial sector has grown rapidly. At the time of independence, the industries in Goa were limited to cashew processing, fruit and fish canning, laundry soap making, and the like.

Today Goa has over 6000 small-scale units and 154 medium- and large-scale units in the organised sector. Prior to liberation uneducated women were mainly employed in menial jobs like domestic servants or in agriculture and educated women worked as nurses and teachers. With the establishment of industries it would be interesting to know if women could find gainful employment in industry.

1.2 Scope And Relevance Of The Study

This study has examined the employment of women in some industries in selected industrial estates in Goa. Goa is divided into two districts; North Goa and South Goa. The industrial estates selected cover both the districts.

The study examines whether, women in Goa, have benefited from industrialisation and whether they have succeeded, in finding good jobs, with decent salaries, in the industrial sector in Goa.

By highlighting the type of jobs women are employed in, at present, in the industries and also the type of jobs they can potentially be employed in, this study will make women aware of the type of job opportunities available for them.

The study will be of great use to the employers, as it will enlighten many of them regarding the problems women are facing in the work place; and may motivate some of them to improve the facilities in the work place.

The study will also help the Government to undertake appropriate policies regarding the welfare of the women workers in this sector. It will also help them to analyse the present policies regarding women workers and block the loopholes in them.

As of the present date, no study of this type has been conducted in Goa. This study seeks to fill this gap.

1.3 Objectives Of The Study

The following are the objectives of the study:

- 1) To examine the socio-economic conditions of the working women in the selected industrial estates in Goa;
- 2) To examine the types of jobs in which women are employed in these industries;
- 3) To analyse the conditions of work in the workplace;
- 4) To examine the problems faced by working women in the workplace and at home;

- 5) Based on the findings, to draw relevant conclusions and make appropriate recommendations to ameliorate the lot of the women workers in this sector.

1.4 Methodology Of The Study

Data for this study was collected from both primary and secondary sources. The primary data was collected through interview schedules. Since the universe for the sampling was not available, two non-probability methods, namely the convenience sampling and snowball sampling methods, were used. The secondary data was collected from books and journals. The data has been classified as per the industrial estates and gender and tabulated for facilitating the analysis.

For this study, 25 percent of the industrial estates were selected. Goa has 18 industrial estates, two of which were not functioning at the time of data collection. A functioning industrial estate, for the purpose of the present study, has been defined as one in which the industries were set up and actually producing the products. Hence, four out of the 16 functioning industrial estates were chosen for the study. These were Tivim industrial estate, Verna industrial estate, Corlim industrial estate and Mapusa industrial estate. From these industrial estates, five percent of the functioning industries in each of them were chosen. A functioning industry, for the purpose of the present study, has been defined as, an industry, which is set up and is actually producing the products. These industries have comparable proportions of male and female workers. The Tivim industrial estate had 88 functioning industries, and four were selected from them. The Verna industrial estate had 104 functioning industries,

and five were selected from them. The Corlim industrial estate had 60 functioning industries, and three were selected from them. The Mapusa industrial estate had 26 functioning industries, and two were selected from them for the study. From each of the selected industries, a ten percent sample of the males and females were considered.

The data with regard to the total number of workers in the various industries selected for the study in the industrial estate was collected from the Industrial Development Office and from the respondents. From this total, a ten percent sample was selected. In Tivim, 34 out of the 336 males and 31 out of the 311 females were chosen. In Verna, 17 out of the 169 males and 21 out of the 213 females were chosen. In Corlim, 9 out of the 90 males and 7 out of the 69 females were chosen. In Mapusa, 15 out of the 153 males and 16 out of the 159 females were chosen.

The respondents were interviewed during their free hours and not in the factory premises. They were contacted at the bus stops, on the buses, at tea stalls and at their homes wherever possible, so that they were able to give a clear and unbiased picture of their working conditions and the problems faced by them.

1.5 Limitations Of The Study

The conclusions arrived at are based on the findings in the chosen industries in the industrial estates, thus they may not apply to all industries. In addition, the survey was contingent upon the willingness of the respondents to answer. However, a fair sample was chosen and based on that, the conclusions were drawn.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of literature in this chapter has been classified as per:

Status of women – Theories of women’s employment - Reasons for the employment of women - Working conditions - Problems of working women - Legislative reforms for women – Summary.

2.1 Status Of Women

Women’s status and position in the Indian society has not been static through the ages. Various studies conducted in India have shown that, the status of women has been fluctuating over the past centuries.

In Raju, R. (1988:4) Sacchidananda is quoted to have believed that, “Women’s role and status all over the world are generally determined by social institutions and norms, religious ideologies, economic systems and class positions.”

Raju, R. (1988) in his book, *Status of Women*, has conducted the survey in Bhatkal taluka in Karnataka state. Data was collected from 400 households, 200 were from the tribal and 200 were from the various caste Hindus in the rural areas. Besides the interview schedule, the case study method was also used to elicit the required information. The study was carried out for 13 months and some of the conclusions arrived at were: -

- 1) The birth of the female child is considered a burden;
- 2) Women lag behind in education;
- 3) Woman has no choice to choose her partner;
- 4) Women are strictly controlled by men;
- 5) Economically a woman has no choice in the family;
- 6) The position of women is ideologically meant to be inferior to men in these societies.

Singhal, T. (2003:2) in her book, *Working Women and Family*, opines, “ Role of women has been traditionally confined to family. In most societies of the world women have been largely defined largely in terms of their function as wives and mothers.” She conducted her study in Jaipur where, by random selection, a sample of 300 working women was interviewed, with the help of a structured interview schedule.

Kakar, S. (1988:45) sums up the social realities of a woman’s life into three stages. These are “ First, she is a daughter to her parents. Second, she is wife to her husband (and daughter- in law to his parents.) Third, she is a mother to her sons (and daughters.)” Therefore, he believes that, a woman does not have an independent identity of her own and her identity is wholly defined by her relations to other people.

Chattopadhyay, K. (1987) is of the opinion that, the status of women in India is poor even today. He believes that, few women have gained the benefits of

development while, the rest have been bypassed. For majority of the women, economic, social and political rights have remained on paper only.

Tewari, A. (1988) in his study, *Economic Status and Socio-Religious Attitude of Indian Women*, conducted a study of 50 female respondents in Allahabad. The data was collected through specifically prepared pre-tested questionnaire. He tested two hypotheses: a) economic status influences the social attitude of women in India and b) economic status influences the religious attitude of women in India. He concluded that, while economic status does influence the social attitude of Indian women, it does not affect their religious attitude largely.

While describing the status of women in underdeveloped countries, Emadi, H. (1992:999), finds that, "the situation of women in most underdeveloped countries is deplorable. They are deprived of their basic rights and suffer from both societal injustice and male oppression. Their sufferings range from physical abuse to immolation. Although governments of these countries claim to support the cause of women's liberation and have involved a limited number of women in the decision making apparatus, no significant changes or improvements have occurred regarding the elimination of women's oppression."

But, this has not been the situation of women in India from the ancient times as, has been shown by Jain, S. (1988) in her study titled, *Status And Role Perception Of Middle Class Women*. She studied the Hindu married women spread over four major cities of Uttar Pradesh. A sample of 400 respondents was selected for the study and the interview schedule was the main technique used to get the required

information from the respondents. According to her, the position of women in society during the Rig Vedic era was quite satisfactory. She had the right to education and to choose her own life partner. During the later Vedic age, although the position of women has deteriorated, it improved under Buddhism and Jainism. However, she finds that, during the Smiriti and Pre-Moughal period the position of women had deteriorated completely. Manu, the lawgiver, made women very dependent and subjugated to men all her life. During the Moughal age, the purdah system, which was introduced for women's protection, only succeeded in pushing, the Indian women, further into the background.

At the time of the British arrival in India, women's status had reached its lowest ebb. It was only in the 19th century that, for the first time, some reforms were undertaken to improve the position of women in India and, it was only after independence, that, the position of Indian women has improved to a considerable extent due to the efforts made by the government as well as various other agencies.

Even though the reforms for women began in the 19th century, Raka, S. (1985) in her book, *Indian Women Today*, believes that, these reforms were mainly within the family domain and the education provided to women only gave them respectability but not equality with men. She conducted a study of women working in the industrial and non-industrial organisations in Kanpur city. The sample covered included 200 women workers. 100 were from the manufacturing industries and 100 were employed as nurses, teachers, telephone exchange operators, etc. A structured interview schedule was used to elicit the information and the respondents were interviewed at

the place of work after prior approval was granted by the management. The fieldwork was conducted from March 1977 to October 1977 and some of the major findings were:

1. Most of the respondents were found in the younger age group;
2. Women workers were almost equally distributed between the married and the unmarried categories;
3. Most of the respondents were local residents;
4. Working conditions of the respondents were not very satisfactory;
5. Most of the workers received inadequate wages and benefits, yet the women accept these jobs due to lack of better alternatives.

Supporting the above view, Devi, L.U. (1982:10), in her study, on, *The Status and Employment of Women in India*, has concluded that, "The Indian woman was treated as an appendage of men with a distinct and meekly accepted conception of her family duties and obligations." She conducted her study in Trivandrum city in Kerala state and a sample of 300 working women and a control group of 100 non-working women was selected for the study by the method of random sampling. The main method to elicit the data was interviews with a pre-tested questionnaire. The key hypotheses put forward by her was that; employment contributes to increase a woman's status in the society.

Shah, M. (1992), in her study, has carried the above point further, by concluding that, despite women's involvement in various activities, proper recognition has not been given to their work. She has attributed this to the patriarchal

ideology in which gender roles are strictly defined and men are dominant over women at all levels.

Khanna, G. and M.A. Varghese (1978), in their book, *Indian Women Today*, have divided the states, in the country, into five different zones and then selected a sample of 1000 women from all over the country. Two hundred women were randomly selected from each of the zones and the interview schedule was used to elicit the required information.

They, endorsing the views given above, have concluded that, even after social stagnation, due to many factors-social, economic, political--the Indian woman has shown a sudden urge to come back into the mainstream of social life. The impetus given by the freedom movement, according to them, marked the beginning, of a new era for the Indian woman.

Women's position in the world has always been subordinate to men. Traditionally, women's status and role has always been considered lower than men. (Agarwal, K. 1988)

Ramu, G.N. (1989:32) believes that, there are at least four conditions, which have combined to keep the women dependent upon the men. "First, the value system extolling the domestic role of women and their dependence on men is legitimised by religious traditions and reinforced by custom and folklore. Second, the benefits of the numerous social and legal reforms aimed at the improvement of the status of women have yet to be universally realised. Although women have become equal to men in law, such equality has a superficial value for most women because most laws are

either irrelevant or not uniformly implemented. Third, the economic and industrial modernisation of India during the post- independence period has proved to be disadvantageous to the working women, especially those in the rural areas. While the employment of married women is now accepted as legitimate (as long as it is meant to supplement man's income and not for self – fulfilment), the opportunities are dwindling. Finally, the educational system does not provide equal opportunities to women, thus precluding them from successfully competing with men in the labour market.”

Sathy, G. (1991) has opined that, men have always been considered as the breadwinners, which mean that, in terms of cash, training and promotion-employers rarely take women seriously. He has also found that, the jobs accepted by women are generally an extension of domestic work.

In Dak, T. (1988) Patel, V. opines that, women are considered to be secondary citizens and have no independence. They have to perform all the duties without any rights and he concludes that, women are oppressed and exploited to a great extent.

Shah, V. (1997:3), while discussing, the subordinate status of women in society, opines that, “ the functions of women have become subsidiary, secondary and at best complementary and only the functions of men are seen as crucial and dominating- for it is they, men, who it is believed, run the houses, sustain it, earn its means of livelihood and it is again men who ordain and order the working of society.”

Lindsay, M. and P. Pattullo (1977:39), also adds that, "men have always been considered the breadwinners, which has meant that, - in terms of cash, training and promotion- employers have rarely taken women's work as seriously as men's."

There are two major views, regarding the reasons, for women's lowered status. On one hand, Devi, L. U. (1982), believes that, the ascription of the lowered status to women could have been the result of the grading of social functions. While, on the other hand, authors such as Khanna, G. and M.A. Varghese (1978), and Agarwal, B. (1995), opine that, since men are the breadwinners in the family, they obviously have a higher status.

Debi, B. (1988) considers status to be a composite concept and an indicator of the position of an individual or group in terms of several values in society.

Maurya, S.D. (1988), in her study, *Women in India: An Overview*, stresses the fact that, even though the status and economic position of Indian women have changed to a considerable extent, their conditions are not yet satisfactory. There are still many social and religious customs, taboos and rituals, which come in the way of women's freedom. But, Debi, B. (1988), in her study on a sample of 424 working women in Calcutta, puts forth a contrasting view, by stating that, women's status has improved to a certain extent as the women's contribution to the family purse has helped them in earning both power and authority. Her inference is that, the position of women in the home has improved and elevated in recent years.

2.2 Theories Of Women's Employment

Majority of the theories of women's employment are general theories being equally applicable to blacks and to females. These discrimination models, explain the reason, for the difference in the wage rates of the whites or the blacks or males and females.

Some of the important theories of discrimination examined are: Pre - Becker literature on discrimination, Neo-classical model of discrimination, Human capital model, Labour market segmentation model, Statistical discrimination model and Feminist or gender theories.

Discrimination is an important concept in majority of the theories of women's employment. Discrimination is a social problem, which has been observed in all societies and at all times. (Shah, M. 1992)

Discrimination is a complex, multifaceted and deeply ingrained behaviour, which is very difficult to measure or quantify. McConnell, C.R. and S. L. Brue (1995:402-403) have defined economic discrimination as, "Economic discrimination exists when female or minority workers ---- who have the same ability, education, training and experience as white male workers---- are accorded inferior treatment with respect to hiring, occupational access, promotions wage rates or working conditions."

According to them, the labour market discrimination can be classified into four general types:

1. 'Wage discrimination' where the female workers are paid less than the male workers for doing the same work;
2. 'Employment discrimination' occurs where other things being equal, women bear the disproportionate share of the burden of unemployment;
3. 'Occupational' or 'job discrimination' where the females have been restricted or prohibited from entering into certain occupations, even though they are equally capable as men to perform these jobs, and so they are "crowded" into other occupations for which they are frequently overqualified;
4. 'Human capital discrimination' is in evidence when the female have less access to productivity increasing opportunities, such as, formal schooling or on- the - job training.

In Shah, M. (1992: 83). Stiglitz, J. has defined wage discrimination as, "there is wage discrimination if individuals with the same economic characteristics receive different wages and the differences are systematically correlated with certain non-economic (racial or religious) characteristics of the individual."

➤ *Pre - Becker Debate On Discrimination Of Wages*

Prior to Becker, G. there was a debate regarding the reasons for the differences between male and female wages and it was wholly confined to Britain. In 1891, Webb, S. analysed the causes of wage differentials between the male and the female wages for similar work. For this he collected information about the wages, nature of

work etc., and he classified the workers into four categories such as manual, routine mental, artistic and intellectual. (Nalla Gounden, A. M. 1992)

Webb, S. puts forth the following reasons for the discrimination between male and female wages.

- 1) Customs and public opinion;
 - 2) Lower demands from women (either due to low standards of living, or due to the fact that, they are being economically supported by family or husbands);
 - 3) Lower productivity by women caused by factors such as insufficient training, lack of strength or institutional restrictions;
 - 4) Lack of protective power, through failure to combine want and adaptability, limited number of alternatives and greater immobility.
- (Lundhal, M. and E. Wadensjo, 1984:9)

Therefore, Lundhal, M. and E. Wadensjo (1984) feel that, Webb, S. had gone beyond the labour market, by examining various institutional factors such as legislation, traditions, educational systems, etc.

In Nalla Gounden, A.M. (1992: 52) Rathbone had explained that, women get lower wages due to factors like: a) lack of unions for women workers, b) the belief that, a women's wage is a supplement to the family, c) low standard of living of women, and d) low subsistence requirements of women.

In Lundhal, M. and E. Wadensjo, (1984) Fawcett, M. has put forth the view that, lack of entry for women in the male dominated trade unions have led to

discrimination. This has led to occupational segregation confining women to certain jobs and leading to higher wages in male than female jobs.

The discrimination in wages question was also important, during the First World War period, when, women increasingly entered into the various occupations traditionally reserved for men. Although the "War Cabinet Committee on Women in Industry" recommended the principle of equal pay for equal work, it was never acted upon. (Lundhal, M. and E. Wadensjo, 1984:10)

In Lundhal, M. and E. Wadensjo (1984:10). Cannan, also tried to analyse, why women received lower wages for the same work. He believed that, due to different types of restrictions, women were concentrated into few occupations, and as supply of women was large, the wages were low in those occupations where they could get work. Along with Webb and Rathbone, he believed that, it was the low standard of living of women, which resulted in low productivity, as a reason, for the differences in the wages.

In Lundhal, M. and E. Wadensjo, (1984:11) Edgeworth too, supported Fawcett, M. and he believed that, the male trade unions excluded women from certain occupations leaving them fewer job opportunities. He believed that, the wage difference far exceeded productivity differences and he gave the reasons as:

- a) Labour market not being in a state of perfect competition;
- b) Trade unions being dominated by male workers;
- c) Female workers being crowded into low paying occupations; and

d) Women's lesser burden of supporting the family. (Nalla Gounden, A.M. 1992: 53)

Florence, S. explains the wage differences with relevance to:

- 1) That, the firms have a monopsonistic position in the market;
- 2) That, women are less mobile in the labour market;
- 3) That, a certain type of indivisibility exists concerning decisions to employ female labour. (Lundhal, M. and E. Wadensjo, 1984:12)

The above analyses shows that, prior to Becker, G., there were several explanations given to understand the concept of discrimination in the male and female wages. However, the major explanation was given by Becker, G.

➤ *Neo - Classical Model Of Discrimination*

This approach was propounded by Edgeworth in 1922, Becker, G. refined it and the most complete statement of the model was formulated by Arrow, K. (Marshall, R. 1974)

Beckerian theory is one of the major theories of discrimination. Becker, G. in his model envisaged discrimination as a preference or a "taste" for which the discriminator is willing to pay. According to Becker, G., "if an individual has a 'taste for discrimination', he must act *as if* he were willing to pay something, either directly or in the form of reduced incomes, to be associated with some persons instead of others." (Marshall, R. 1974:850)

In order to analyse the effects of the taste of discrimination; Becker, G. uses a concept called discrimination coefficient, to analyse the discrimination of a certain group from other factors of production, the employers or the consumers.

In order to measure the effects of discrimination on wages Becker, G. uses a concept called "market discrimination coefficient," which can be defined as, the difference in the wage rate between the discriminated and the non-discriminated groups divided by the wage rates of the discriminated groups. (Lundhal, M. and E. Wadensjo, 1984)

In order to analyse the effects of discrimination Becker, G. works with two different approaches - macro economic and micro economic.

The first is the type commonly used in the international trade theories. In this model, there are two 'societies'- [N and W], two-production factors- [labour and capital], but only one commodity. These societies do not trade commodities but export the production factor that is abundantly available with it. Society W exports capital and society N exports labour. In a state of equilibrium without discrimination, the reward to a particular production factor is not dependent on whether it is exported in community N or W. Becker, G. believes that, if the members of W then develop a taste for discrimination, this will lead to lower capital exports from W which results in lower labour exports from N. (Lundhal, M. and E. Wadensjo, 1984:22)

Krueger, A. expands the international trade model to find the optimum level of discrimination. She also, discusses ways in which, exporting white capital to blacks might be curtailed, even if, the white capitalists themselves have no taste for

discrimination. For e.g., if the capitalists were interested in maximising the income of all whites, rather than their own incomes, the resultant welfare function would be very similar to Becker's except that, discrimination would take the form of maximising the white (male) real income rather than, avoiding working with blacks (females). This concept departs from the usual neo-classical assumption of individual decision-making process and assumes that, employer racial or gender interests might modify their profit motives. (Marshall, R. 1974:851)

In Marshall, R. (1974:857) Alexis, M. extends the neo-classical analysis, especially the motivations based on race developed by Krueger, to deal with the problems involved with Becker's assumption that, whites are motivated by a desire to avoid associating with blacks. This assumption makes it difficult for him to explain discrimination by the capitalists, who do not physically associate with blacks. Alexis believes that, envy-malice might prompt discrimination in this case.

While, these models developed by Alexis, M. and A. Krueger, are closer to reality, than the aversion model given by Becker, G., they contain no convincing explanations as to why the white employer should want to maximise the white workers income, and exhibit envy or malice towards the blacks. However, Alexis recognises that, his model could also be formulated in terms of benevolence towards white workers by the white capitalists, which seems even more realistic than the other approach. However, status is an even more convincing explanation for white capitalist motive for discrimination. Discriminators object to discriminates, partly because, the

latter are generally regarded as 'inferior' people, who would lower the status of the discriminators. (Marshall, R. 1974:859)

Becker, G., in his micro economic model, uses the discrimination coefficient in order to derive a measure of intensity of the taste of discrimination, and the market discrimination coefficient to measure the effects of discrimination on wages. First, he treats the different types of discrimination by employees, employers, consumer's, etc, separately and then later, merges their effects. (Lundhal, M. and E. Wadensjo, 1984:23)

With respect to employer's discrimination, Becker, G. believes that, where all the employers have the same discrimination coefficient, with perfect substitutability between discriminated and non- discriminated labour, the market discrimination coefficient becomes equal to the discrimination coefficient regardless of the discriminated group and the degree of competition in the commodity market.

However, the situation becomes even more interesting when the discrimination coefficient varies among different employers. The employers with the lowest discrimination coefficient will then employ the discriminated group. Discrimination leads to segregation. The market discrimination coefficient, in this case, is determined by the distribution of the discrimination coefficient and by the size of the discrimination group: the larger the group the higher the market discrimination coefficient.

Becker, G. also stressed on the problem of the stability of this form of discrimination. According to him, firms with low or no discrimination coefficient will

produce more due to the lower labour costs, and receive higher profits than the firms with high coefficient. This will lead to a further expansion of the firms with the low coefficient and to a gradual elimination of the firms with a strong taste for discrimination.

Economists have attempted to modify Becker's model to make it conform with the reality, where wage differentials and employment patterns are perceived to be relatively stable.

In Marshall, R. (1974) Freeman, R. suggests that, discriminated employees might survive because of limited supplies of non-discriminated employers or workers with complementary skills. However, these are not convincing arguments for the long run equilibrium. Under competitive conditions, there need be only one non-discriminating employer, who could drive all others out of business in the end. The effects of employee discrimination depend on the extent to which the discriminated and the discriminating groups can be substituted for one another in production. If they are perfect substitutes, segregation will be the result. Each firm that chooses to have a work force consisting of people from both the discriminated and the discriminating groups will have higher costs, than firms whose employees are from a single group. With non-discriminating employers, the wage rate will be the same for both groups and the market discrimination coefficient will be zero.

If the groups are not perfect substitutes, the results will differ. In this case, one group will be paid lower wages than the other group, and the market discrimination coefficient will be greater than zero.

Consumers too, discriminate against commodities and services, which are produced or handled by certain groups. They may refuse to buy commodities where the sales staff, belongs to this group [blacks, women]. Sloane, P.J. (1980) believes that, as many females are employed in areas where contact with the public is important, such as retail trading, it is quite unlikely that, women as a group suffer much from consumer discrimination. The size of the market discrimination coefficient is then, determined by the discrimination coefficient, and the relative importance of the discriminated group in the production process.

Becker, G. believes that, all the above types of discrimination are not independent of each other. According to him, the combined effects of all the above, i.e. the market discrimination coefficient will be equal to the sum of the different discrimination coefficient, multiplied by the relative importance of the group in the production process.

The following are the conclusions of Becker's micro economic analysis:

- Discrimination does not only lead to wage discrimination but also to segregation;
- Different types of discrimination can have additive effects; and
- There are forces in the economic system, which tend to reduce wage differential among employers, if the preferences vary between different employers and the commodity markets are competitive. (Lundhal, M. and E. Wadensjo, 1984)

However, this theory is not free from problems as can be seen from the basic problems given below:

- 1) It fails to present a convincing definition of discrimination;
- 2) It treats discrimination, (which should be central to a theory of discrimination), as an exogenous factor and therefore not subject to analysis;
- 3) It produces mechanical results, which follow the way the model is specified and therefore adds little to the understanding of discrimination.

These problems can be elaborated as follows: -

1. *The concept of discrimination:* The definition of discrimination as a 'taste for discrimination' itself creates a number of conceptual problems. This definition assumes discrimination to be a 'physical' phenomenon – a desire by whites not to associate with blacks, but it does not conform to the reality where the white have been in close physical association with the blacks. Thus, discrimination is more a status or class phenomena, a concept, which ultimately makes the theory more general, as it cannot be applied to gender discrimination.

2. *Motives of the economic agents:* Any economic theory of discrimination should try to show how the discrimination interacts with the motives of certain economic factors. The neo- classical model partly succeeds in doing this. The model assumes that, employees are motivated mainly by profits but a 'taste of discrimination' motivates employers or a 'perception of reality' modifies this motive. If the model assumes "physical association" to be the problem, it is difficult to see

why, the employers in the large firms would discriminate against the blue-collar workers with whom the top management would have the least association or in fact no association.

As has been explained above, Alexis, M. and A. Krueger, attempt to overcome this difficulty by assuming that, the employers are motivated by the desire to maximise the incomes of the white workers or by envy-malice towards blacks, both of which are quite unrealistic.

However, in Marshall, R. (1974). Arrow, K. believes that, it is possible that, the discrimination coefficient of the employees could be transmitted to the employer causing him to behave as if he had a discrimination coefficient.

In Marshall, R. (1974: 860) Bergmann, B. R. also implies that, if the employer has a status motive for discrimination there would be no objection in hiring discriminatees for 'inferior' jobs, but employers would object in hiring them for higher status jobs.

This model also makes unrealistic assumptions about the white workers, who probably are more responsible than the employers for discrimination in blue-collar jobs. The neo- classicists assume white workers with discrimination coefficient to be mainly motivated by wage rates, but their basic motivation is more likely to be job control rather than wage rates. The wage rate is an important part of the job, but the job status, opportunity for advancement and the extent to which the workers participate in the formation of the job rules are also important considerations.

Discriminators are likely to want to monopolise the better jobs for themselves and will use race, gender, etc. as a means of doing so.

3. *Power relations among the agents:* A theory of discrimination should also be able to explain what factors give the discriminators the power to exclude the discriminatees. The neo-classical model of discrimination fails to explain this because it does not deal with the bargaining between groups and assumes that, wages are the worker's only objective and wage differential and wage changes are the basic causal forces.

This model is also silent with respect to the motives of the black workers, and the determinants of their power to overcome discrimination by white workers and employers.

Despite the many problems, Becker's work is still very important. According to Lundhal, M. and E. Wadensjo (1984:26) "there are two elements in Becker's analysis which can be viewed as theoretical innovations. One is the use of the theory of international trade in the analysis of the effects of discrimination. The other is the discrimination coefficient as a measure of the taste of discrimination."

One of the major problems with Becker's theory of discrimination, according to Lundhal, M. and E. Wadensjo (1984:27) is that, "it cannot explain why wage differences between the discriminated groups remain in the long run, when the commodity and labour markets are characterised by competition. In this case the firms that, have the lowest discrimination coefficient will hire all the members of the

discriminated group.” They also believe that, free entry may put an end to discrimination

Thus, Lundhal, M. and E. Wadensjo (1984:27) believe that, “ Becker’s results are thus contrary to the empirical picture which shows permanent wage differences in competitive industries between blacks and whites in United States and between women in many countries.”

Hence, Arrow, K. tried to reconcile the above observation with Becker’s theoretical point of departure. Arrow, K. started his analysis by assuming that, all employees belong initially to a single group (e.g. white). A new group (blacks) then, enter the labour market. The former group prefers discriminating against the later. (Lundhal, M. and E. Wadensjo, 1984:27)

Becker’s analysis says that, this will lead to a segregated labour market, but Arrow, K. assumes that, there are adjustment costs, which can be partly of an administrative character, partly connected with training expenses. He believes that, it may be extremely costly to substitute quickly one group of workers for another.

Hence, instead of segregation with equal wages, the result is partial segregation with wage differentials. The newly arrived group will be hired by certain firms, which will also retain employees from the previous group. Those members of the discriminating group who are employed in the integrated firms will receive higher wages and the employees from the new, discriminated groups, will receive less wages than those paid by the firms that, are still segregated.

Thus, Arrow, K. shows how adjustment costs along with employee discrimination can lead to persistent wage differences for certain time period.

➤ *Human Capital Model*

There is a large amount of disagreement over the major determinants of the gender wage differentials. While, some researchers such as Bergmann, B. R. argue that, it is primarily demand driven, other economists, more notably Mincer, J. Polacheck, S.W. and Fuchs, V. attribute it to the cultural attitudes, that, influence female market work commitment, through her perceptions of the traditional gender roles. (Vella, F. 1994:191)

The economists who believe in the latter view have developed human capital theory. According to this approach, it is hypothesised that, women prefer certain stereotype occupations and therefore they do not require much investment in acquiring special skills. Hence, they also receive lower wages.

This view argues that, many females anticipate short and interrupted spells of market employment, because of their traditionally greater commitment to home-related activities. Males, on the other hand, expect long-term involvement in the labour market work and, accordingly invest in qualitative and quantitatively different human capital. Furthermore, they believe that, the typical female human capital depreciates relatively quickly to market place absences.

Mincer, J. (1994:112) believes that, “accumulated human work capacity qualifies as a capital asset in the same sense that, physical capital does, even if it

cannot be bought and sold (it is, of course, rented) and even though investment in such capital often involves non market activities, such as education.” Fisher, I. defined capital as an asset that gives rise to an income stream. (Kerr, C and P.O. Staudohar).

Human capital theory is concerned with the extent to which human capital is accumulated, through education, training and work experience and how it is used and rewarded. (Fine, B. 1998)

Thus, according to this theory, an individual makes a conscious or unconscious decision to invest in their productive capacity. First, they invest in the length and the type of schooling and after entering the labour market; they make additional investments in training, health care, and possible additional formal schooling. These human capital investments and their rates of return are important determinants of individual earning profiles.

Consequently, human capital treats education, training, etc. as a stream of costs and provisions, which are to be set against the stream of benefits, which accrue. (Fine, B. 1998) The theory also points out that, men and women are not perfect substitutes for one another although, they may be similarly distributed across the levels of education, women accumulate less human capital through wage experience because, they spend relatively fewer years as compared to men in the labour market. This results in productivity differences between the two.

Various economic theories focus on the different aspects of demand and supply of labour. Labour supply side approaches have been influenced quite heavily by the sociological and economic explanations.

Within the family, women are considered to be the best suited for carrying out 'expressive' roles such as caring, while men focus on 'instrumental' roles such as bread winning. This division of labour was considered functional for both the family and society.

Women, having a comparative advantage in the biological and the traditional roles performed by them, have a different labour force attachment compared to men, and as they spend relatively shorter period in the labour market, their human capital is less.

This analysis calls attention to the traditional division of labour within the family, under which, women can expect shorter and more discontinuous involvement in the labour market work as compared to men. Their returns are low, as they spent a shorter period in the labour market. Similarly, employers are also reluctant to invest in firm specific training for women workers.

As a result of, the shorter job tenure for women, the overhead costs in training sets of persons quite frequently will be higher, and hence, the employers are likely to discount it from the wages of women. Since women are more likely to leave their jobs in the middle, some employers may be reluctant even to employ them in the first place.

Becker, G. has argued that, even when men and women spend the same amount of time on market jobs, women will be offered a lower wage. Women have more of house keeping responsibilities. Becker, G. points out that, housekeeping being more effort intensive, women could therefore, spend more efforts on housekeeping and less on the market job even if they spend the same amount of time on the market jobs as men. This, too, accounts for their lower earnings. He further believes that, men spend their off-the-job hours in rest and recreation and hence as they come to the job fresh and with more energy, they should be paid a higher wage.

Thus, the division of labour has clear ramifications for men and women's relative marketability. As men have more experience in the place of work, they develop a competitive edge. As women concentrate on nurturing and have more time out of the labour market, they amass fewer skills and therefore, the jobs, which they acquire, are poorly paid ones.

According to Bergmann, B.R. (1989), there is a vast difference in the pay between men and women in the American economy. Underlying these large pay differences, are the continuing segregation of work by sex, a scarcity of promotions for women and a difference given to men and women. She also believes that, due to the lack of access to all the jobs on an equal basis, women have a disproportionately small share of the interesting jobs that, allow a person to grow and advance.

Some economists believe that, the inferior labour market position is something women have freely chosen as a normal and generally benign adaptation to "their responsibilities" for housework and child rearing. Thus, they believe in the

specialisation of women in such tasks. However, Owen has argued that, the demands of the economic efficiency at the household levels no longer require specialisation in such tasks. According to him, as, the elements of housework become less complex, due to changing technology, it no longer makes sense for one partner to specialise.

There is also evidence that, widespread severe ongoing discrimination by employers and fellow workers continue to hamper women. Polacheck, S. W. (1998) believes that, the wage gap is due to women's deliberate choice of certain jobs that are easy to leave and re-enter. The jobs they choose which meet their criteria happen to be low paying. However, this view does not help in explaining the differences in pay between men and women in the same occupation. (Bergmann, B. R. 1989:47)

Fuchs, V. also believes that, unfairness in the labour market has only a minor effect on wages. Rather, according to him, wage difference between the sexes are almost entirely from women's child care activities which require them to do different kinds of jobs than men, and to do more part-time work. (Bergmann, B. R. 1989:48). However, this also does not explain cases where men and women are full time workers and have the same kinds of jobs. Therefore, an alternative explanation of why men get more pay than women, even when they have similar human capital, and similar jobs, is that, both are not competing in the same market. Here, we come across labour market segmentation by sex, where many jobs are earmarked for one sex or the other. Thus, men and women are selling themselves and their human capital in segregated markets. This segmentation is less than perfect and it diminishes

especially in the lower level managerial and professional jobs. However, segmentation of sexes remains the dominant mode in many establishments.

While, earmarking jobs by sexes causes a wage gap, the existence of such a wage gap strengthens the desire of a firm to keep groups of employees who do the same work all males or all females. Firms are not willing to pay a man's wage to females when they know that, they can get them for less. Yet, paying women lower wages than men doing the same work in the same establishment is likely to cause discontent and create problems.

Occupational segregation within each firm effectively avoids such problems. Mincer, J. (1994:116) believes that, " investment in human capital does not terminate with the completion of schooling. They continue at a diminishing rate between entry in the labour market and retirement."

Fine, B. (1998) believes that, the main purpose of the human capital theory is to be able to explain why there should be differences in wages for different workers. If the workers have different productive capacities, they should receive different rewards. Fine, B. is of the opinion that, these capacities might arise from the innate abilities or upbringing, or they might have been positively pursued in order to get economic advantage. Thus, all abilities constitute human capital, but education and training build it up deliberately through the use of economic resources. Human capital can also be gained through work experience.

But, this argument does not effectively go beyond a situation in which there is a single job at which some workers are more productive than others. There are two

other issues to address. First, who gets what education and training and, second, who is allocated to which jobs. Considering work experience, these two questions are not necessarily independent of one another. For a perfectly functioning economy, free of market imperfections, individual workers would be allocated to appropriate jobs, and efficient levels and types of education and training would also be distributed across the workforce equating marginal products, costs and benefits in the human capital in the same way as supply and demand are equalized for a general economic equilibrium across goods and services.

This model sets out to explain the skill and occupational distribution of the workforce as well as the corresponding rewards. To this basic model, further angles are added to distinguish it from the market for other commodities. Labour is produced in a very different way from other commodities, and it has a will of its own and can decide whether to work or not.

Whether by virtue, culture, or innate biological differences, men and women have to allocate their time between work and leisure, and between working in the domestic and the commercial sphere. It is, argued that, it makes sense to men and women to specialize in paid and unpaid work, respectively, based on the initial talents that, are consolidated over a lifetime.

These differences will be modified by the shifting productivities of the commercial and domestic spheres and by the rise in real wages, which may induce women to participate more in the labour market. These factors will also influence the quantity and quality of children.

Besides, other variables, such as gender, can be added and these can be interpreted as reflecting differences in productivity due to the innate or acquired capabilities. This interpretation is correct only if the labour market is working perfectly, else a significant coefficient for gender differentials may be interpreted as reflecting sexism in the labour market in one form or the other.

➤ *Labour Market Segmentation Models*

Some economists such as Reich, M., Loveridge, R. and A. K. Mok, define labour market segmentation as, “ the historical process whereby political economic forces encourage the division of the labour market into separate sub-markets, or segments, distinguished by different labour market characteristics and behavioural rules.” (Biswal, K. 1995:25)

In brief, labour market segmentation, has the following characteristics:

1. Labour market segmentation is a ‘process’ in particular, implying that, it is a dynamic concept;
2. This continuous historical ‘process’ groups workers into compartmentalised, non competing labour markets;
3. Each sub-market is then distinguished by different labour market characteristics and behavioural rules; and
4. Economic opportunities and rewards are different among objectively comparable individuals participating in the different segments of the labour market.

A number of labour market segmentation models have been evolved since the late 1960's. One of them, the Dual Labour Market Theory, will be analysed here, followed by the Segmented Labour Market model.

A} Dual Labour Market Theory

One approach, which has specifically challenged the neo - classical model, is the dual labour market hypothesis. The two economists most often associated with the dual labour market theory are Doring, P. and Piore, M.

According to this theory, the entire labour market can be divided into the primary and secondary sectors or segments. The variables mainly used by the 'dualists' to divide the labour market into primary and secondary segments, are "job contents", "circumstances of employment" "average earnings", level of different groups of workers and the degree of 'mobility' between the segments. The dualists see the primary labour market as a series of internal labour markets in which there are stable employment opportunities and regularised lines of advancement.

The dual labour market approach relies on four related hypothesis, which are given by Mumford. K.A. (1989:80) in her book, *Women Working: Economics and Reality*.

1. It is useful to divide the economy into a primary and secondary sector;
2. Wages and working conditions will be determined by different factors in the two sectors;
3. Labour mobility between the two sectors will be highly limited;

4. The secondary sector is marked by poor working conditions and levels of unemployment.

In Marshall, R. (1974) Doringer, P. and M. Piore define a primary labour market as, one composed of jobs in large firms and unionised jobs which tend to be better jobs- high paying more promotion possibilities, better working conditions and more stable work. On the contrary, the secondary segment of the labour market contains low paid jobs that, are held by workers who are discriminated against, and who have unstable working patterns. Thus, the secondary labour market is characterised by bad 'job contents' and poor 'circumstances of employment' relative to that, of the primary segment.

Piore, M. has explained this separation of markets by a number of specific arguments:

1. Secondary market are distinguished from the primary markets by the behaviour patterns especially, unstable unemployment, which they impose on the workers in those markets. Employers and workers adapt to unstable conditions, and labour market institutions contribute to the perpetuation of these conditions.
2. Discrimination perpetuates segmentation by restricting certain workers to the secondary market, not because of their education and skills, but because they have the superficial characteristics resembling most workers in the secondary market. Doringer, P. and M. Piore. have emphasised that, many workers in

the secondary market have stable employment, even though their jobs encourage instability.

3. While, technology influences the allocation of jobs between the primary and secondary segments, many kinds of work can be performed in either segment, but they fall where they are because of historical discussions to locate them there.
4. Class association jobs in the various sectors tend to be filled by people from particular classes reinforces the behavioural traits of workers in the various labour markets. Piore, M. defines 'mobility chains' through which people pass. Workers enter these chains from a limited and distinct number of points, which have economic and social significance.
5. A number of institutions and historical forces strengthen the labour market segmentation. The importance of on-the-job training as the means of acquiring skills has increased the employer's incentives to hold some workers in more stable jobs, whereas other institutions have perpetuated instability. (Marshall, R. 1974).

Various demand side factors affecting inter-segmental mobility have also been specified. Some of them are:

1. Credentials for job access, which are based on some fixed characteristics of the individual such as: gender, race, age, etc.;
2. Credentials for job access, which are based on some obtainable characteristics such as: education, skill, qualifications, mode of dress, etc.;

3. General factors imposing costs or impeding movements such as: distance, information costs, etc.;
4. Social mechanisms for restricting or controlling job access such as: personal networks control over capital and market, etc. (Biswal, K 1995:36)

A 'vicious circle of poverty' in the secondary segment, perpetuates low wages and unfavourable behavioural traits of the worker, which in turn, limit the degree of inter-segmental mobility.

Doringer, P. and M. Piore. argue that, the primary sector jobs are rationed, and that, in particular, women, blacks and other minorities find it difficult to obtain primary employment.

The dual labour market theorists argue that, women mostly fill the secondary slots, which are characterised by low pay and instability. There is also little scope of mobility from the secondary sector jobs to the primary sector jobs. The dualists argue that, women are generally found concentrated in secondary sector jobs primarily due to five characteristics—dispensability, clearly visible social differences, little interest in acquiring training, low economism and lack of solidarity, which they exhibit.

The various characteristics of women can be attributed partly to the labour market experiences of women and partly because of various aspects of social structure existing outside the labour market. Moreover, employers perceive women as different from men in the sense that, they are relatively less committed towards

advancement of work, because of their orientation towards domestic situation and their socialisation.

Women are also reluctant to struggle for their rights in the labour market, and are less interested in seeking high monetary rewards. Perhaps these are the characteristics required from secondary workers.

However, the dual labour market theory mainly emphasises on the description of the characteristics women bring into the labour market and hence fail to explain the structuring process of the labour market in relation to gender. Therefore, Walby, S. believes that, dualism is not the best way to characterise the institutional rigidities of the labour market in relation to gender. (Rees, T. 1992)

B} Segmented Labour Market Theory

These theories were first designed to explain the problem of “ghetto labour markets” in the 1960’s and 1970’s in the USA. (Arputhamurthy, S.1990: 51) They believed that, the racial discrimination perpetuated the segmentation of the labour markets into the primary and the secondary sector by restricting certain workers to the latter. (Arputhamurthy, S. 1990)

The criteria used for discriminating them were the fact that, they were blacks or women and not the lack of education and skill. The segmented labour market suggests that, the labour market has been divided into the primary and the secondary sector in which different values apply.

Arputhamurthy, S. (1990) believes that, the competitive orthodox model concerns mainly with the external labour market i.e. the factors of demand and supply, while the internal labour market concerns itself with the rules made within the firm to fix the wages or to allocate labour among the alternate uses. Thus, “ the internal labour market is controlled more by institutional rules that, are not always compatible with the assumption of the competitive labour market.” (Arputhamurthy, S. 1990:52)

In Arputhamurthy, S. (1990), Kerr, C. refers to the process of establishing institutional rules that, structure labour markets as balkanisation. He believes that, institutional rules are one of the factors that cause labour markets to be structured. These rules are an important way of establishing “control over the job territory for the people who are already in the market.” (Arputhamurthy, S. 1990:53)

According to Arputhamurthy, S. (1990:53), “the labour market segmentation is defined as the historical process whereby political and economic forces encourage the division of labour market into separate sub markets, or segments distinguished by different labour market characteristics and behavioural rules.”

He further says, (1990:56) “ this segmentation served two purposes. Firstly, the existence of the lower stratum of workers increases the status of those in the higher strata. Secondly, workers are unlikely to identify with the interest of the other race or sex (women) concentrated in the menial occupations, and thus low wages can be paid to those workers without the risk of class opposition.”

The dual labour market theory suffered from many inconsistencies, and this led to a more elaborate and dynamic theory being developed by Edwards, Reich, M and D. Gordon in the early 1970's. This theory was later modified by economists like Rumberger, R. Carnoy, M. Loveridge R. and A.K. Mok, Rosenberg, Rogers, etc. (Biswal, K. 1995)

The radical theory of segmented labour market expresses a more explicit critique of capitalism, acknowledges its ties with Marxian dialectical analysis and emphasises class conflicts.

Although this theory is similar to the dual labour market theory in drawing upon sociological analysis of institutional change, the radicals emphasise the historical rooted class based motivation of behaviour by employers and workers. The radicals view technology, as an endogenous variable that, is manipulated by employers to further class interest rather than profits. There is a lot of similarity between the issues raised by the radical theorists and the dual labour market theorists. Nevertheless, the difference lies in the division of the labour market into various segments and the explanation of the segmentation process.

Radical labour market economists divide the labour market into multiple segments, mainly into three segments – “primary independent”, “primary subordinate” and “secondary.” (Biswal, K. 1995:43)

Biswal, K. (1995) has examined the three segments as follows:

Primary creative independent segment: This segment retains most of the characteristics of the primary segment defined by the dual labour market theory.

However, the terms used are different in defining this segment. According to the radical economists, this segment of the labour market consists of jobs, which require creativity and self-initiating action, on the part of the workers. In this segment, individual motivation and achievements are highly rewarded and work is judged and regulated by professional standards.

Primary subordinate/routinised segment: Jobs in this segment are characterised by relative (to secondary jobs) stability, high wages, rising with age (seniority). It is implicit in the radical segmentation literature that, the blue-collar workers constituting the primary subordinate segment have, to a large extent, similar qualifications and skills (productivity) of the secondary segment workers of the Dual labour market theory. The important variable separating them, from the secondary labour market workers are their relative job stability and high wages.

Both these segments together constitute the primary segment. Jobs in the primary segment tend to be full time and full year employment and are marked by promotions and wage patterns, which are set internal to the firm. There are well-defined promotional ladders. Access to entry-level jobs is determined by schooling, race and sex, which are seen as convenient indices of "stability" and other desired workers attributes. Jobs are often unionised and the unions are frequently allowed to determine their relative wage structure in return for the cooperation with management in disciplining and stabilising the workforce.

Secondary segment: Jobs in this segment of the labour market require the least on the job training and the minimum of general skills. Jobs in this segment do not lead

to promotional ladders, usually are not unionised and offer low wages and poor “circumstances of employment.” (Biswal, K. 1995:45) Supervision and firing criteria are arbitrary and vary with the whims of the manager or the boss. It is the lack of stability or continuity of work which distinguishes the workers of this segment from that of the other segments.

➤ *Theory Of Statistical Discrimination*

This theory has been propounded by Thurow, L. in his book, “*Generating Inequality*.” According to him, statistical discrimination, “occurs whenever an individual is judged on the basis of the average characteristics of the group, or groups, to which he or she belongs rather than upon his or her own personal characteristics. The judgements are correct, factual and objective in the sense that, the group actually has the characteristics that, are ascribed to it, but the judgements are incorrect with respect to many individuals within the group.” (McConnell, C.R. and S. L. Brue, 1995: 412-413)

In the labour market, statistical discrimination functions largely. Employers with job vacancies would like to hire the most productive workers available. Therefore, they collect a variety of information concerning each applicant, especially the age, education and the prior work experience. This information is then supplemented with scores on the pre-employment tests, which they feel, are helpful indicators of the potential performance. There are two characteristics that, the employer has to keep in mind: (a) collection of detailed information about all the job

applicants is expensive, hence only limited information is collected; and (b) the limited information available to the employers from the job application form and test scores do not permit the employer to predict with perfect certainty the most productive worker.

Therefore, it is common for the employers to use various subjective considerations such as age, race, or gender in determining who is finally hired. Here the employer is not satisfying a taste for discrimination, but rather is using gender as a proxy for the production-related attributes of the workers, which are not easily discernible. Thus, gender may be used as a proxy for physical strength or job commitment.

For example, the employer may assume that, on an average the young married women are more likely to quit their jobs than the males. Hence, when confronted with a married female or a male applicant, the employer will hire the male. In such types of discrimination, characteristics, which apply to the group, are being applied to the individuals. In the above example, each married woman is expected to behave like the average women. Even if the married woman does not plan to quit the job after a few years, she is still discriminated against.

➤ *Feminist Or Gender Theories*

Anker, R. (1997) in his article on, *Theories of Occupational Segregation by Sex: An Overview*, believes that, the feminist or gender theories are basically

concerned with non labour market variables which are taken by the economist as given.

He believes that, (Anker, R. 1997: 324) “ a basic premise of gender theories is that, women's disadvantaged position in the labour market is caused by, and is a reflection of, patriarchy and women's subordinate position in society and the family.” He further says that, in all societies, breadwinning is the chief occupation of the males while; the women's main responsibility is household work and childcare.

Gender theory makes a valuable contribution in explaining occupational segregation by sex by examining the characteristics of female occupations and showing how closely they mirror the common stereotypes of women and their abilities. (Anker, R. 1997) Anker, R. has examined five positive and five negative stereotypes, which either assist or hinder the women from accepting a particular position.

According to him, (Anker, R. 1997:324) the positive stereotypes are, “a caring nature; skill and experience in household related work; greater manual dexterity; greater honesty; and attractive physical appearance” which helps a woman to take up occupations such as teacher, doctor, social worker, maid, nurse, hairdresser, receptionist, etc. The five negative stereotypes presented by him (1997:327), include, “ disinclination to supervise others; lesser physical strength; lesser ability in science and mathematics; lesser willingness to travel; and lesser willingness to face physical danger and to use physical force.” These affect women's acceptance of jobs leading them to become male dominated occupations.

Feminist perspective: Feminist perspective differs from traditional economics in three ways. (Rees, T. 1992:25)

- 1) Gender is given a much higher priority in the feminist perspective;
- 2) Feminists have examined the power relations between men and women;
- 3) Feminists have been concerned with the practical applications along with theoretical explanations.

The different types of feminism have been examined as follows:

Liberal feminism: According to Rees, T. (1992:25), "liberal feminist approaches to work has essentially focused on explaining inequalities through the identification of barriers to women's full access to opportunities in the labour market." They do not advocate fundamental changes but tries to secure equal access for women in the existing system.

Marxist feminism: Marx, K. did not specially include women when he developed his theories. However, Engels, F. argued that, women would need to engage fully in the labour market in order to escape domination of men at home. (Rees, T. 1992) Rees, T. (1992:26) believes that, "Marxist feminists see patriarchy, the oppression of women by men, as closely linked to, or indeed a by-product of the capitalist mode of production." She has discussed two aspects: a) reserve army of labour and b) deskilling and the labour process.

a) Reserve army of labour: The reserve army of labour is a devise to suppress wages through the availability of a surplus pool of workers. The reserve army was necessary for capital accumulation. Capital would both discard workers into the

reserve, and then recruit them as and when the need arose. This ensures that, the workers are not successful to demand the high wages in time of high labour demand. The reserve army consists of three main groups i.e. the floating reserve (which includes the recently employed unemployed); the latent reserve (consisting of those workers whose skills have become redundant due to industrial restructuring) and the stagnant (which consist of the unemployed and seasonal workers).

In Rees, T. (1992: 27) Power believes that, women are a part of the latent reserve, while Beechey is of the opinion that, married women can be considered as a flexible reserve army of labour, i.e. they are brought into the workforce when the supply of labour is short and then shed again when their demand dries up. Nevertheless, Bruegel's study has found that, in the service, sector women are not the first to be laid off during recession, nor do they replace males as cheap labour. (Rees, T. 1992:27)

b) Deskilling and the labour process: Although Marx, K. spoke of the concepts of deskilling and labour process, the writings of Taylor have explained these concepts in detail. Taylor believes that, "the scientific management of the work and reduction of the skill component of the jobs as a mechanism of control over the labour force could increase productivity, keep the wages low, and so maximise profits." He believed that, by breaking the labour process into smaller unskilled tasks, the workers could be replaced easily and thus, they would lose their bargaining power. (Rees, T. 1992:28)

In Rees, T. (1992:28) Braveman, H. tried to include women in the analysis. He predicts that, women would take up majority of the unskilled work. He also expected that, the private sector would take over the household tasks, leaving women free to enter the labour market.

Radical feminist theory: Radicalists, unlike the Marxist and Marxist feminists, focus on the concept of patriarchy to explain all the aspects of women's lives. They highlight the power relations between men and women. (Rees, T .1992) In Rees, T. (1992:32) Walby, S. has defined patriarchy as, " a system of social structures and practices in which men dominate, oppress and exploit women."

Rees, T. (1992:31) believes that, "the main focus of patriarchal relations, however, is the family, which is regarded as the key instrument of oppression and the site of its cultural reproduction."

This concept has been criticised by many. Walby, S. describes the changing nature of patriarchy and argues that, it has shifted from the private to the public sphere. (Rees, T .1992) According to Walby, S. "whereas in the nineteenth century women were simply excluded from public life, in the twentieth century they are merely segregated." (Rees, T. 1992:32)

2.3 Reasons For Employment of Women

The concept of working women is not new to India. For centuries, women have been working alongside men, but, only recently, have they been entering the labour force, in search of waged work, in large numbers.

Singhal, T. (2003:21) has put it very eloquently when she says, “ men and women both have always worked. The differences were only in the areas of work, the location of the work, execution and performance, tools, technology and motivating factors for work.”

Bullock, S. (1994:1) has emphasised the role played by women, in her book, *Women and Work*, and has opined that, “ women have always worked and their labour plays a key role in the survival of millions of families. They work longer hours than men and have a greater range of responsibilities, but the work they do is often neither publicly nor privately acknowledged.”

To emphasize the importance of work for a woman, a quote of Jawaharlal Nehru is very important. He believes that, “ the habit of looking upon marriage as a profession almost and as the sole economic refuge for women will have to go before we can have any freedom. Freedom depends on economic conditions even more than the political ones and if the woman is not economically free and self earning she will have to depend on her husband or someone else and dependents are never free.” (Chatterjee, S. A. 1988:146)

Devi, L.U. (1982) has opined that, throughout the history of mankind, women have been engaged in economic activity alongside men. In fact, the economic functions have been the joint responsibility of both of them. She also believes that, the ranking of jobs, was not done based on importance, since all the functions were considered equally important.

Mamoria, C. B. (1981:627), in his book, *Social Problems and Social Organisation in India*, states, " Ever since the evolution of human species women have been entrusted to certain types of work. In the primitive society men fought, hunted and went to sea, while women engaged in less dangerous and more circumscribed operations." He further, goes on to say that, women have always worked and have been active workers, having distinct economic functions to perform. As they were usually undertaking the household tasks, they were not directly competing with the males.

Thus though the woman worked, she did so within the four walls of her home, as, in the past, it was neither necessary nor advisable for her to leave her home. Desai, N. and A. Sharayu have supported the above statement, by concluding that, the middle class, urban educated, upper caste woman started to work only after 1940's. (Saradmoni, K.1985). Till then, there was no need for her to work outside her home.

Altekar, A. S. (1959) is of the opinion that, although in the past women were not allowed to work or get higher education, in 1942 the high level of inflation in the country made it impossible for the middle classes to manage their budgets with the earnings of a single member. Therefore economic necessity forced the women to take up a job, this has also contributed to increasing the level of education among the women.

Eapen, M. (1992:2179) opines that, " since the burden of the family building activities is by and large accepted as the woman's primary domain, her participation

in economic activity is largely determined by the nature and degree of domestic obligations.”

Various factors have contributed in pulling the woman out of her home into the labour market. Mathur, D. (1992), in his study, has identified six motivational factors for work, which include: 1) economic necessity; 2) security; 3) improvement in the standard of living; 4) social affiliations; 5) self-esteem and 6) self-fulfilment.

Mehta, A. *et al.* (1988), have found that, some of the factors responsible for the evolving role of housewives into a dual role of working women and housewives are better education, changing socio- cultural values and the need for supplementary income caused by inflation.

Chauhan, I. (1986:189), in her study, *The Dilemma of Working Women Hostellers*, has studied the life of the working women living in hostels in Nagpur. In her study, she interviewed 50 women living in eight hostels and she has examined the various advantages of working for women. According to her, “employment offers several advantages to women depending on the education, temperament, upbringing and training of each of them. To the majority of the middle class Indian women in the rural areas, it provides a measure of social freedom and economic independence. For others, it improves the standard of living. Their employment enhances the importance of some women in society and accords them a social status. Employment keeps the talented and skilled women busy and occupied fruitfully.”

Schenk-Sandbergen, L. in his essay titled, *Married Women in the Labour Force in the Netherlands: Changing Patterns of Participation*, has identified some of

the factors, leading to an increase in the participation of married women in the labour force from 1960-71. He has identified the following factors: "a) decline in the average age of marrying; b) the decline in the number of children in the family; [voluntary childlessness, family planning, etc.]; c) the level of education and the income of the husband; d) part time jobs and the mechanisation of the household work; e) changing patterns towards working mothers" (Saradmoni, K. 1985:189).

Ramu, G. N. (1989) in his book, *Women Work and Marriage in Urban India*, has studied the women workers in Bangalore (Karnataka). The data collection was done in two phases 1979 and 1984. The final sample consisted of 245 single and 245 dual earning couples and these were chosen from the three major public sector industries where there was a heavy concentration of women workers. The interview technique was used to elicit the required information. He believes that, the approach of the Indian society, to women's employment, throughout history, has been dualistic in nature. Among the lower caste, tribes and under privileged groups, the woman was expected to work and support herself, her dependent children and even, her husband, at times. On the other hand, the upper caste women were discouraged from working outside the home, as, it would cast doubt on the character of the women.

Yet, today, women from all the classes have come out into the labour market and this has been considered a sign of progress and a silent revolution within the industrial sector.

Sengupta, P. (1960) too, believed that, the women were pushed into the labour market and they were not lured by the factory employment. The various factors

facilitating the increase in the female employment are economic necessity (Chauhan, I. 1986; Vohra, R. and A. K. Sen, 1989), independence (Mathur, D. 1992), ambition for a higher standard of living (Mathew, E. 1990), and changing socio-cultural values (Mehta, A. *et al.*, 1988).

Tiwari, K. (1997), in her study, *Structural Changes and the Status of Women*, has specified some, push and pull factors, causing migration of women in search of jobs. Some of the pull factors include good employment opportunities, better facilities of health, housing, high urban life, opportunities to increase income, and availability of employment according to educational qualifications and training.

The push factors, specified by her, include social boycott, religious fundamentalism, and dacoit terror, terror of police, religious and caste disparities, political terrorism, and lack of facilities for a better living.

Singhal, T. (2003:25) opines that, "as more and more devices are invented the work load of a woman has been reduced considerably and the housewife finds some freedom which the educated housewives prefer to utilise by taking up gainful employment to add to her family income."

Ramanamma, A. (1979) in her book, *Graduate Employed Women in an Urban Setting*, has limited her study to the graduate working women in Poona and its suburbs. She chose a sample of 505 educated women and administered an anonymous questionnaire to them. She has examined the causes, which motivate unmarried women to take up employment. Some of the causes given by her are: 1) to earn money to give dowry; 2) cost of living has increased; 3) as the age of marriage has

increased, work is used to fill time; 4) girls who find it impossible to get husbands, work to occupy themselves advantageously.

Some of the reasons compelling the married women to work are also examined by her. These include: aspirations for better standard of living, spiralling prices of essential goods, education of children, presence of gadgets which reduce drudgery in the home, smaller families, low mortality rate of children, etc.

Patel, V. (1988), in her study, has also specified various factors responsible for the growth of working women, which include the socio- economic changes in the country, western education, use of education, economic self sufficiency, improving the standard of living, etc.

Gupta, M. (2000) in his book, *Economic Participation of Women*, has examined the various determinants of woman's work decisions, and he concludes that, there is a lot of influence of socio-cultural and demographic variables such as literacy, caste, land holdings, household incomes, age, marital status, rural urban residence, technological change, etc. on woman's work participation.

Chatterjee, S. A. (1988), in his study, *The Indian Women's Search for an Identity*, has examined various factors leading to an increase in women's employment. These include: economic necessity, fear of having to face stagnation—either professionally or intellectually - in the event of becoming a full time housewife, personal desire for continuing employment to realise professional ambitions, attainment of status in the family, achieve and maintain total economic independence, etc.

Singh, H. and M. K. Dhillon (2001), have also given some reasons for the women working as industrial labour. They believe that, besides economic necessity, other reasons such as large family size, lack of other sources of income, undesirable habits of the husbands, and the need to pass time were some of the other reasons that, prompted a woman to work.

Singhal, T. (2003:2) also believes that, “ employment of women belonging to the middle and the upper middle classes in urban areas, is only a twentieth century phenomenon in India. The contemporary position of women’s employment has significantly changed today, not only those women who are under economic pressure but also those who wish to lead a socially useful life and want to add to the family finances have engaged themselves in paid jobs. They are realising that, work gives them separate social identity.”

Nagaich, S. (2001: 152) in her study on 200 working women from Punjab, finds that, “ due to the economic strains posed by the present day life, societies attitudes towards married women’s employment is changed. Now even the attitude of men who considered it below their prestige to send his wife to work outside their home, under conditions of rising costs of living do not mind their wives taking up jobs or to continue to be in jobs after marriage mainly because of the economic gains it entails.”

Singh, M.K. (1987:95), has found that, “women’s work participation in the economic activities is increasing faster than the increase in female population

indicating a positivistic attitude of female population towards work, their inclination and attempt for integration, in the economic development of the nation.”

Most of the studies have analysed that, economic necessity is one of the main cause that has pushed and pulled the women in the waged labour market. Jain, S. (1988), in her study, finds that, many of the middle class women work, as their husband's incomes are insufficient to meet more than the bare necessities. This reason has also been put forth by Chopra, V. (2001) in her study, regarding the employment and the occupational structure of women in India.

Thus, through the various studies, we find that, although in the beginning, it was considered unsuitable and undesirable to have the women working for wages outside the homes, later, many factors combined, to increase their employment, as now, employment of women is not only desirable, but, in many ways it is a necessity.

Mamoria, C.B. (1981:629), has expressed, the above viewpoint, very eloquently in his study. He says that, “during the 19th century it was considered derogatory for a woman to take up outside work as a means of earning even though she had no other means of subsistence. But under the pressure of economic necessity, the rising cost of living and the insufficient income of the family, this contempt for work rampant among some sections of the Indian society has been steadily diminishing.”

2.4 Working Conditions

The conditions, under which, the workers perform their task, have, a great bearing on their general health and efficiency. It has been said that, environment creates a man, and if the environment improves, the man's ability to work improves. It is not possible to carry on hard work under unhealthy surroundings.

In the absence of desirable working condition, the worker feels that, his job is a very tough one. He becomes sluggish and it becomes difficult for him to work well. With good working condition, not only does the worker remain happy, but the employer also gains, because of increased production, owing to greater efficiency.

Singh, B. N. (1989) opines that, woman's role, as an active worker i.e. the producer of goods and services has not been duly recognised by the male dominated society. Saxena, S. (1993:17) has also found that, "women are predominantly employed in consumption linked services and not in production linked industrial occupations."

Women are, usually found employed in traditionally low paying jobs, which are located at the bottom of the occupational ladder. In part, this is due to the lack of training and educational facilities provided to them. Dahlstrom, E and L. Lilgestrom (1962), also, see technological changes, acting as a constraint on the economic options and opportunities available to women.

Choudhury, R. K. (1989), too, believes that, technological changes are generally biased against women workers, and, he concludes, by stating that, training can lead to an improvement in their employment.

Desai, K. G. (1969:35) has defined the term training as being , “restricted to formalised learning. Learning refers to changes in behaviour as a result of past experiences.” He further says that, learning can be intentional or unintentional and according to him, learning can be called as training.

Martin, J. and C. Roberts (1984) in their study, *Women and Employment: A Lifetime Perspective*, conducted in Great Britain included all the women of the working age from 16 to 59 irrespective of their current work status. The sample of 5588 women and 799 husbands were interviewed with the help of a questionnaire. They have distinguished between formal and informal training. By formal training, is meant the courses and on the job training and by informal training is meant showing what is to be done either by the supervisor or other employees.

MacLennan’s study of *Women And Work In Britain* shows that, even in Europe, women played a secondary position in the labour market and she concluded that, “women’s occupations are still marked by low wages, less security of employment, low levels of skills, reduces opportunities for training and limited chances of advancement.” (Saradamoni, K.1985: 197)

In Kalbagh, C. (1991) Heggade, O. argues that, poverty, ignorance, ill treatment, insecurity of jobs etc., all impose the inevitability of accepting low wages and unhealthy working conditions for women.

Hussain, S. and V. R. Rao (1981), in their study, have found that, the public sector industries are capital intensive and require highly skilled labour. According to them, women are not being able to find employment in such industries due to reasons

such as: Poor access to training; Protective labour legislations, which in fact reduce their employability; Prejudice against women going for work particularly in industries; Reservations of a smaller number of jobs considered suitable for them; and trade unions acting as barriers to women entering into new work areas. Thus, in the long run there has been an overall decline both in the percentage of workers to female population and in their percentage to the total labour force.

Kapur, P. (1974), in her study on, *The Changing Status of Working Women in India*, has specified, many of the factors, contributing to hamper the careers of women, some of which include: lack of specialised education and training, lack of ambition, employers attitudes towards the female employees, working women's attitudes and prejudices, non- working women's prejudices, etc.

Raka, S. (1985) has analysed the objective working conditions in the following terms: 1) wages 2) benefits 3) job security 4) promotional prospects 5) physical atmosphere at the work place and 6) social relations with the supervisors or immediate bosses. The following were the main conclusions of her study. According to her, a large number of women receive very low wages and there was a great difference in the wages in the public and private sectors. Although in theory, women were entitled to all the benefits, in reality, they did not receive any tangible benefits. Most of the women felt that, their jobs were insecure and that, they did not have any promotional prospects. Physical conditions of work were also deplorable and the women, very often, did not realise that, they were being exploited.

Stokes, J. *et al.* (1995), in their study, found that, there are five dimensions of work organisation, which contribute, to a supportive or hostile environment for women. These are dual standards and opportunities, sexist attitudes and comments, informal socialisation, balancing work and personal obligations, remediation policy and practices. From the study, they concluded that, in all the five dimensions, women perceived, their work environment, to be more hostile than men did.

Khwaja, R.C. and S.K. Chandra (1999) have concluded that, the working conditions were far from satisfactory. Sitting arrangements, ventilation and light were inadequate. Toilet facilities were not hygienic and canteen and day care facilities were lacking.

Rao, V.R. and S. Hussain (1991:162) in their study conducted in the garment industries in New Delhi, find that, “workers complained of extreme tiredness and spells of nausea, dizziness and headache. Some fainted due to the heat and stress, especially during the summer.”

In contrast, to the above studies, which speaks of woman’s exploitation and miserable conditions of work, Desai, K.G. (1969), in his study, *Human Problems in Indian Industries*, has highlighted the fact that, the working conditions in today’s industries have improved tremendously. The workers have an eight-hour working day. Besides, they get reasonably high wages, decent working conditions and various other benefits.

Martin, J. and C. Roberts, (1984), have also supported the above view, by concluding that, the range of facilities and provisions offered to the employees in the form of 'fringe benefits' have increased in the past few years.

The working conditions also affected the roles played by the working women. While, the working conditions, by themselves, are not all-important factors causing role conflicts, they play an important role, as, they are supported by many contributing factors.

Chakraborty, K. (1978) has stressed the fact that, the congenial working conditions (including hours of work, nature and pressure of work, pay scales, atmosphere at the work place, scope for promotion and recognition) make it easier to achieve reconciliation between the two roles.

Ganjewar, M. C. *et al.* (1998), in their study, on job satisfaction has found that, satisfaction of the employees is of prime importance for the success of any organisation. They believe that, the job satisfaction of the women is dependent on many intrinsic and extrinsic characteristics such as working hours, overtime, transportation problems and convenience dimensions of the job, which help to facilitate the dual roles. They also concluded that, women face many difficulties in trying to combine home and work roles and, this often leads to frustration, which can have a dangerous effect on the family life of the person.

Antony, M. J. (1989), has discussed, the working conditions in the factories. He has also analysed the role played by the Factories Act in improving the working conditions and in providing facilities for the welfare of the workers. Some of the

provisions of the Factories Act include: standard of cleanliness inside the factory, ventilation, temperature, control of dust and fumes, lighting, overcrowding, drinking water supply, separate toilets, fencing of dangerous machinery, precautions in case of fire, first aid facilities, etc.

Sengupta, P. (1960), in her study, also analysed the Factories Act 1948, and believes that, it covers diverse and pressing problems and insists on better working conditions, canteens, good latrines, welfare centre, crèches, ambulance facilities, dispensaries, etc.

Dhara, S. (1990) has found that, a large number of the Indian labour force remains uncovered by safety regulations. Many factories, use over aged and poorly maintained equipment, and the management are not willing to make even the smallest investment to increase the plant safety.

Thus, there are divergent views, regarding the working conditions in factories. Some studies, show that, the conditions of work are still deplorable and women workers face a lot of hardships and problems especially due to the lack of basic facilities, while others, show that, working conditions have improved to a great extent and today, the workers, have a more decent factory to work in.

The Factories Act 1948 has many provisions; yet, most of them are not implemented in all factories. Some of the provisions relate to the number of women working in the factories for example, crèche facilities. This gives the employer ample scope to escape from providing this benefit, by just limiting the number of women in the factories to less than the minimum number prescribed.

Lim, L.L. (1996:9) in her book, *More and Better Jobs for Women: An Action Guide*, has concluded, "women are playing increasing indispensable roles in international, national, and household economies, but they still have a disadvantaged economic position relative to men and also face serious discrimination. Although women are no longer a reserve force, equality of opportunity and treatment is still an elusive goal. Women are constrained both from realising their full human potential and from contributing to and benefiting fully from economic growth and development."

2.5 Problems Of Working Women

There are multiple problems faced by working women, including dual roles, physical problems in the work place, discrimination, harassment, etc. Various studies have been conducted, on these problems faced by working women.

In Kalbagh, C. (1991) Heggade, O. has shown that, the problems of the women workers are multi-dimensional, ranging from economic, social environmental to psychological. These problems differ, to a considerable extent, depending in the levels of education, kinds of jobs, social equity, place of work, etc.

Kumari, K.D. and D. R. Ramanna (2001) in their study, have given many problems of the growth of women's employment. Some of them include: low earnings, sex, job, and wage discrimination, displacement of women due to mechanisation, lack of unionisation, lack of access to resources, non application of industrial and labour laws, lack of job security and training, etc.

Mishra, R. (1989:326), in her study, has found that, "females already in the workforce are also facing grave obstacles in the form of gender discrimination, exploitative working conditions, sexual harassment, etc, which discourage other women to enter the labour market."

A major problem, faced by working women, is reconciliation of the two roles played by them: one at the home and the other at the place of work. Numerous studies have been conducted highlighting this problem of women's work.

According to Bullock, S. (1994:30), "the entry of women into the labour market has not yet had the effect of relieving them of a share of housework and childcare-either through an increase in public or company provisions, or through men taking more responsibilities." Women are found to work longer hours, to fit all their work in, leading to a double shift.

Joshi, A. and N. Sastry (1995) in their study, found that, females spend more time on family work and, equal time as males, on paid work and that, they also experience a higher level of work interference with family. They also found that, the sex role conflicts were more prevalent for females. They have concluded their study, by suggesting that, the organisation must expand their abilities, to assist employers, with such conflicts and understand that, the males and females have different gender role identifications and expectations and require different accommodation.

Deaux, K. and J.C. Villman (1983) in their study, have highlighted this problem, and, they have concluded that, as, women have traditionally been vested with the responsibility of taking care of the house and rearing children, working

women are often faced with the issue of combining the two roles in a manageable way.

Dual roles lead to role conflicts, and Desai, N. and A. Sharayu (1985) in their study, have analysed this problem. They concluded that, whether, the working women, feels overburdened by the multiple demands of the various roles played by her, does not entirely depend, on the objective situations, but, also, to a great extent on her subjective evaluation and interpretation of the situation. (Saradmoni, K.)

Maitra- Sinha, A. (1993) in her book, *Women in a Changing Society*, has very vividly put forth the confusion faced by the working women due to her expectations vis-à-vis her family. She feels that, a working woman has to play manifold roles of cook, accountant, cleaner, teacher and banker—all rolled into one and very often she is looked upon with resentment and misgivings by her kith and kin and neighbours.

Upreti, N. (1988) believes that, role conflict emerges only when the woman puts her other roles above the family role. As long as all the other roles played by the woman are subordinate to the primary family role she does not face any conflict.”

Desai, K. G. (1969) opines that, the dual role, overburdens the woman both physically and psychologically. Agarwal, V. (1994), in her study supports the above view and she reviewed the relationship between multiple role conflicts and stress, and she concluded that, the two major stressors for women are marital relationships and work overload. She feels that, these women are driven by guilt to simultaneously fulfil their duties at home while, pursuing increasing responsibilities at work..

Gangewar, M. C. *et al.* (1998) in their study titled, *Job Satisfaction of Working women*, have analysed a sample of 200 women, working in various offices, schools and hospitals of Marathwada region of Maharashtra state, and they found that, all the working women encountered problems due to the dual roles played by them. They found that, the woman is torn between these two commitments, and, she is forced to either sacrifice certain aspects of home or job responsibilities. This has a bad impact on the happiness of the family. From their study, they have concluded that, majority of the women were highly satisfied with the occupational status and work schedules, while moderately satisfied with the work autonomy aspects and least satisfied with the work environment aspects of their job.

Ramanamma, A. (1979:126), in her study, concluded, “ The employed women are performing two full time jobs-the house and the office work which are not always complementary but sometimes conflicting.” Thus, women experience stress and strains, and a lower amount of leisure time is available to them, due to the dual roles they have to play.

Pant, S. and P. Kumar (1992) in their paper titled, *Problems of Woman Workers in Public Sector*, had conducted a survey of 168 women working in the Indian Telephone Industries in Allahabad. They have found that, despite the various facilities such as crèche and day shifts being provided, women workers still face many problems at the domestic level and hence they cannot fully concentrate on their work.

Even though, women face conflicting demands, from the home and office, they are not prepared to leave their office, to become full time housewives. Jain, S. (1988) has also examined this aspect in his study.

Khanna, G. and M.A. Varghese (1978:39) in their study, have concluded that, "Nowadays many qualified women want to combine the two roles rather than give up one for the other. A woman's position in and outside the home is so closely linked that, it is very difficult to separate the two."

Soba, I. (1992), in her study, has found that, the result of employment of women has been that, many adjustments have to be made in the family and as a result, society itself has undergone a transformation. She also found that, marriage no longer, puts an end, to the career of the woman but she has to bear a dual role.

Custers, P. (1991) in his article, *Women Labour in Japanese Economy*, puts forth the dual role played by the women, who besides working in the factory for eight hours, has to put in many hours of work at home too.

Ramu, G.N. (1989:192) has concluded, " Women who work for pay are experiencing competing pressures from cultural prescriptions of gender roles and the changing economic and legal status of women. They are faced with the dilemma of accommodating the old and the new patterns of behaviour. They are called upon to assume new co-provider roles as a part of their duty, while simultaneously pressurised not to abdicate custom and practice."

In conclusion, the study, shows that, woman's education, employment and consequent dual roles as a housewife and career woman, has brought in certain

changes and adjustments in family life, kinship relationships and role interactions, however keeping continuity with the traditional beliefs and practices in certain areas by giving a portrait of continuity in certain aspects and change in many other aspects.

Supporting this view, Shanmugasundaram, Y. (1989), says that, running the home is by itself a career and if the woman chooses another career, then she has to reconcile between the two roles.

Mathew, E. (1990:7) has found that, women perform dual roles and she is constantly torn between the two roles played by her. Thus, it is the working woman's lot to do her duties amidst humiliation and frustrations. He, further concludes, by saying, "the exhausted and frustrated women employees can give very little devotion to the work at hand and more so to the demands or duties as a mother or a wife." Singhal, S. (1995) and Sinha, P. (1987) have also conducted studies supporting the above findings.

Bhoite, A. (1987:114) in her book, *Women Employees and Rural Development*, has also examined the dual role problem faced by working women. She conducted her study in Parbhani district of Maharashtra state, where from October 1969 to October 1971 she conducted her field survey with the help of a structured questionnaire. 163 respondents were interviewed and among them were nurses, teachers, and gramsevikas.

She has concluded, "The kitchen is not at all modernised as to save time and labour of the employed women. There is no significant attitudinal change in her husband, relatives and the villagers so as to accommodate her as a woman playing

dual roles. The result is that, the Indian working woman, has to bear the entire domestic work load along with the sole responsibility of caring her young ones.”

Another major problem, faced by the working women is that, of discrimination. In Bannerji, A. and R. K. Sen (2000:311) Reynolds, L. G. has defined discrimination as, “Discrimination occurs when female worker equal to a male worker in objective measures of ability and experience, receives poorer treatment in regard to training opportunities, recruitment, living, promotion or wage rate. Discrimination appears, not only in different treatment alone but in fact that, this treatment is based on sex rather than ability and productivity.”

Visvanathan, A. (1992:935) has defined discrimination, as, “ a failure to hire or to discharge or to limit, segregate, or classify employees or applicants for employment in any way which would deprive an individual of employment opportunities or otherwise adversely affect his or her status as an employee.”

In Bannerji, A. and R. K. Sen (2000) Sathe has specified various forms of discrimination. These include unequal opportunities to enrol in training programmes, adverse selection at the point of hiring, adverse treatment regarding on - the- job training and promotions and lower level of compensation for women performing identical work to men.

Sen, R. (1989) believes that, many forms of discrimination, in terms of pay, job turnover, employment rates, etc., persist against women in many countries.

According to Devendra, K. (1985), discrimination can be seen in offices and factories where women are employed in either low paying jobs or are paid fewer

wage. In Kaushik, V. and B. R. Sharma, (1998:193) Cohen has defined wage discrimination as, “ the payment of higher wages to men than to equally qualified women holding (or performing) the same job.”

In Dahlstrom, E. and L. Dahlstrom (1962) Thorsel, undertook an exploratory study, partly to discover whether, the firms consciously pursue discriminatory recruitment and personnel policies, with respect to male and female employees and partly to clarify the predominant motives prompting such policies, and, he concluded that, when men and women have worked together in the same firm or branch, men almost entirely dominated the highly skilled and supervisory positions while the women were usually relegated to unskilled and low skilled positions.

Swarajyalaxmi, C. (1992), in her study, has found that, compared to their male colleagues, Indian women workers do not enjoy equal status in matters of payment of remuneration, assignment of various tasks and various other matters.

Chandnani, L.R. (1998:57), in her study, opines, “ Though things are moving faster, yet, in the service sector and in our society, prejudices against women die hard. They are still considered to be the weaker sex and are not provided with enough opportunities to render the most effective and efficient services.”

Another important problem, faced by the working women, is segregation in a narrow range of occupations. Buddhapriya, S. and P. Khandelwal (1995), believe that, women, are generally stereotyped, into certain occupations and they found that, the three main factors for sex stereotyping are biological, environmental and

cognitive. They also believe that, institutions such as family, school and mass media have contributed to this sex role typing.

The type of industries a woman is found working too, is examined by the UNIDO report in 1981 and it found that, “ for the most part, women’s participation in industrial production is confined to: a) industries with low technology, low capital requirements and low productivity b) industries that, inspite of high capital requirements and sophisticated technologies, are highly labour intensive. In both these types of industries women derive low wages and have poor working conditions” (Pore, K. 1991:202)

According to Ray, B. and A. Basu (1999:71), “women's placement generally follows a well defined hierarchical pattern in that, within a given enterprise women are typically found as unskilled production workers with little access to skill up gradation or positions of authority and decision making.”

But, Knights, D. and H. Willmott (1986:117-118), are of the opinion that, “job segregation in the workplace is derived from the organisation of domestic life, job segregation was an expression of the ideology of female domesticity. Women workers were confined to low paid jobs, forced to depend on men and fulfil the role of unpaid domestic workers.”

Bullock, S. (1994:2) also supports the above opinion, when she says that, women’s primary role of reproduction helps to explain why, “women’s jobs corner a small range of occupations than men’s and echoes women’s reproductive responsibilities: service job’s, in particular such as cleaning, caring, teaching and food

processing.” She further says that, “ pay tends to be low in occupations dominated by women because of their association with the domestic sphere and because women are still widely considered to be ‘secondary’ wage earners.”

Mathur, D. (1992), in her study, stresses the fact that, women tend to conglomerate at the lower end of the occupational spectrum. Singh, S. (1995), in his study, has also concluded that, women are mostly employed at the secondary levels of organisation and that, they are considered fit to do certain jobs only because of stereotyping.

Lindsay, M. and P. Pattullo (1977) support the above view and opine that, women are generally concentrated in a smaller number of industries. They are usually found holding positions, having lower responsibilities and performing less skilled tasks, especially in industries, where they are employed alongside men.

In Dex, S. (1987:10) Hakim, C. has made a distinction between horizontal and vertical segregations. According to him, “horizontal segregation occurs if women and men are working in different types of occupations, whereas vertical segregation exists if men are mostly working in higher grade occupations and women in lower grade occupations.”

Kaushik, V. and B. R. Sharma (1998), too, have highlighted this problem, in their study, and, they believe that, even today, a large number of jobs still appear to be considered either “men’s work” or “ women's work.”

Swaminathan, P. (1987) has found two visible trends in the organised sector:

1) High concentration of women in the professions of teaching and medicine,

especially as nurses; and 2) Recognition of some low prestige jobs in the clerical services as particularly suitable for women and hence a concentration of women in such occupations.

But the UNIDO 1981 report finds that, "irrespective of the state of economic development and the pattern of industrialisation, most women workers in industry are employed within a limited range of low income, low skilled and low-productivity jobs; particularly in sectors that, are labour intensive and sensitive to market fluctuations and also have low levels of technology, poor safety measures and little security of employment." (Pore, K. 1991:203)

Some of the major economic problems faced by women are discrimination, lack of opportunity and exploitation.

In Kalbagh, C. (1971:78) Heggade, O. believes that, "the economic problems of women labour range from rising unemployment, low wages, long duration of work hours, stagnant and deteriorating working conditions, sex wise distribution of wages between male and female workers, absence of job security and irregularly implemented protective legislations like social security, minimum wages, social insurance, etc."

In Saradmoni, K. (1985) Kosak, M. has highlighted, some physical problems, faced by women in certain industries. Eye complaints, burns, cancer, stomach problems, nervous disorders and hearing impairments are some of them.

Lim, L.L. (1996) has also put forth the view that, the female workers tend to be exposed to a range of physical, safety and health problems in the work place, along

with psychological stress which are related to exposure to hazardous chemicals and a variety of physical and biological agents used in the place of work, excessive noise, vibration of machines, heat, cold, poor lighting and ventilation, especially in smaller firms, rotating shift work, very long hours of work, tension or stress, etc.

Some of the problems the women industrial workers, are likely to suffer from, are also listed by her. These include: temporary hearing loss which could eventually become permanent, eye strain and irritation, exposure to various types of toxic substances and hazardous chemicals, chronic disorders such as stomach pains, lower back pains, coughs, headache and dizziness among others.

As early as 1926, Hamilton, A. (1926) in her study, on, *Women Workers and Industrial Poisons*, had discussed, the physical problems, faced by women, while working with chemicals and poisonous materials and has concluded that, problems like anaemia, haemorrhages, blindness, delirium, convulsions and even death can result from exposure to harmful substances.

Raka, S. (1985) has highlighted that, the physical atmosphere at the work place was quite unhealthy and causing physical problems to the working women. According to her, women had to work, for long hours, either standing, or sitting on un-cushioned stools. Besides, stuffy rooms, lack of proper lighting and ventilation made, the conditions worse.

Sengupta, P. (1960), in her study, concluded that, in the factories, there are problems, such as monotony of work, long hours of standing, dust, and noise and lack

of proper restrooms. Not only, do women face problems, at the place of work, but they also face many problems at home.

Patel, V. (1988), in her study, has highlighted some of them, which include, dual roles, unsympathetic husbands, multiple role responsibilities, guilt feelings, neglect of children, lack of control on the pay packet, misunderstanding in the family, etc.

Ramanamma, A. and U. Bambawale (1987: 128) have concluded that, “in spite of considerable handicaps such as lack of time to attend to children, a dull monotonous tedious lifestyle, some compunction about ability to perform dual role efficiently, women continue to work. This is because the salary they earn is all-important. This not only helps the family to lead a better life but to some extent makes women confident in themselves.” The hypothesis for the study included: -

1) Women’s employment is an extension of household work. 2) Women’s employment increased in industries where the ‘job fit’ is of a routine monotonous and repetitive nature. 3) Women take up this type of job due to economic necessity. 4) Women who take up these types of jobs have to perform dual duties at home and the factory. (Ramanamma, A. and U. Bambawale, 1987)

In their book, *Women in Indian Industry*, they have studied women workers in electronic factories in Pune and Bombay. They elicited the required information both with the help of a scheduled questionnaire and non-participant observation. The sample of industries included two major and twenty-four small-scale industries in

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Bombay and two major and eighteen small-scale industries. Nearly twenty- five percent of the women respondents was chosen from each of the factory.

2.6 Legislative Reforms For Women

Many studies have been conducted in India on the pros and cons of legislative measures for the protection of women workers. This situation is not unique for India, as can be seen from the conclusion of Yadav, R. (1999) who, in his article, points out that discrimination against women in terms of employment opportunities, wages, working conditions, and promotion avenues is a common phenomenon worldwide.

As the status of women in India was very low, before independence, the government felt that, unless the legal protection is provided, women's status will not improve and they will not be able to compete equally in the labour market.

Baud, I. (1992:76) in her book, *Forms of Production and Women's Labour*, has shown that, the plans in India, especially the sixth and the seventh plans have included women's aspects. She finds that, " the sixth five year plan focused not only on education and health for women but also included employment as a separate aspect." While in the seventh plan, "women's role as a worker is acknowledged and special attention is focused on protecting this role."

Nayar, U. (1997:13-14), opines that, " India has one of the most impressive set of laws for women and children / girls and little is known about them either by women themselves or by men."

Kulshrestha, I. (1993), has opined that, the preamble to the constitution, resolved to secure for all its citizens justice- social, economic and political; liberty for thought, expression, faith and worship, equality of status and opportunity to promote fraternity among all, assuring dignity of the individual and unity of the nation.

Maurya, S.D. (1988), in her study, has discussed the various Acts passed after independence for the benefit of the women, including the Equal Remuneration Act 1976, Sati Prevention Bill of 1987, Hindu Marriage Act of 1955 and Marriage Laws (Amendment) Act 1976, Dowry Prohibition (Amendment) Act 1986, etc.

Devendra, K. (1985:47-48), opines that, “ the constitution guarantees equality of opportunities in employment and directs the state to secure equal rights to an adequate means of livelihood, equal pay for equal work and just and humane conditions of work.” Yet, even though, the constitution provides all these rights, the principle of equality is far from reality. This has been put forth by Chopra, V. (2001:19) who concluded, “ Though several laws have been passed for the benefit of women since independence-- there exists a lot of loopholes and ambiguities.” Hence she believes that, women’s empowerment in all fields, socially, politically and economically, is very important as, the lack of this, is an important impediment for the implementation of the laws.

According to Swarajyalaxmi, C. (1992:20), all the effects made by planners, social agencies, women’s organisations, etc., have failed to give women their rightful place in the society. She believes that, “In spite of some of the constitutional guarantees and directive principles which enshrine the principles of equal

opportunities to women, our women have not been able to secure for themselves all those rights and privileges which legitimately belong to them. They are either denied these opportunities through the bias of the society or because of their lack of awareness of what is due to them as citizens.”

Sengupta, P. (1960), is of the opinion that, many of the special provisions, set up for women, are, actually necessitated, for many reasons, such as, the delicate health which the women possess and their inability to perform the arduous and difficult tasks. They also have to look after their hearths and homes. However, according to her, there is a paradoxical situation as the very laws enacted for the protection of the women labour, have ended up acting against their interests.

Chatterjee, S. A. (1988), has endorsed the above view, as he believes that, today's modern, aware and enlightened women feel that, the protective legislation is more a means of protecting the male workers from female competition rather than to protect the female workers from the dangerous work.

Dhagamwar, V. (1995), says that, the constitution itself, stresses the need for special protective acts for women, but she finds that, most of the laws are only applicable to women working in the organised sector.

Chattopadhyay, K. (1987:495) believes that, “ even though equal wage for equal work is compulsory in India, in the absence of any machinery or agency to enforce this, it tends to be violated with impunity.”

Balasubrahmanyam, V. (1985: 877), in his study, has discussed, the various articles, in the constitution, which are meant to protect women, and confer on them

equality, but he finds that, the reality is quite different. He opines that, even though, the women employees have been victimised, they have not sort legal action, and this suggests two things: 1) very often, women workers, are unaware of the provisions in the constitution; and 2) even, if they are aware, it is very difficult for them to get involved in prolonged court battles. Hence, he believes that, women should be made fully aware of the various provisions relating to them and they must demand appropriate machinery for redressal when their rights are violated. He concluded that, “women must first become fully aware of their legal, constitutional and human rights at the workplace. They must work to get these incorporated into and protected by their service conditions and they must demand an appropriate machinery for redressal when these rights are violated.”

Maitra–Sinha, A. (1993) also supports the above view, as she finds that, in spite of, various Acts being passed for women workers benefits, yet, they are full of loopholes and ambiguities, making it easier for employers to take advantage of them. She further believes that, many of the women workers, even in the urban areas, are not aware of their rights under the various Acts.

Many studies have shown that, the most controversial area of protective legislation is the restriction or total prohibition of night work by women.

Prasad, M. (1989), in her study, found that, with regard to wages and earnings, a lot of discrimination exists, and sometimes, the minimum wage legislations and equal pay for equal work, results into retrenchment of women workers.

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The Federal Republic of Germany, in its report, in 1972, found that, many of the restrictions imposed on women were outdated and, they believed that, what was deemed as protective was in reality 1) an exclusion of women from certain jobs/responsibilities; 2) an interference with the freedom of women to decide on the type of jobs and the hours of work; and 3) narrowing down the employment opportunities available for women. (Chatterjee, S. A. 1988).

Despite the above defects, protective legislation had been accepted by Chatterjee, S. A. (1988: 77), on the following grounds. According to her: "1) the woman is a reproductive human being and is subject to child bearing and child rearing, so she should be protected from night work; 2) women working outside the home still bear the primary burden of the household chores and the burden of night work would make their lives even more strenuous and their health more susceptible to risks; 3) child care facilities and other social services are neither adequate nor available around the clock to enable women to engage in night shift ; 4) the potential adverse effects of night work on the health, welfare, social and family life of both men and women are undesirable and therefore, night work is not recommended for the greater needs of community life."

Pillai, J. K. (1995) believes that, the various constitutional directives of non-discrimination in employment and specific directives to promote the educational and economic interests of the people had a direct impact on the employment of the middle class women and their employment had increased considerably.

In contrast, to the above view, Devendra, K. (1985) believes that, the declining trend of women's employment in industries can be attributed to the adverse effects of protective legislations for women, the policy of equalising wages and structural changes in the economy and nationalisation of methods of production.

She further says that, despite the fact that, the various acts have been passed; women workers are still exploited by their employers. Tiwari, K. (1997) believes that, the various labour laws enacted for the protection of women make women more expensive from the employer's point of view and this leads to a decline in women's employment.

Sengupta, P. (1960), in her study, too, supports the view that, the legislation pertaining to employment of women from 6 p.m. to 7 a.m. has been disastrous for women's employment.

She, further opines that, "the main causes for the elimination of women are prohibition of women from working in certain places and between certain hours, payment of maternity benefits and other statutory obligations to women, prohibition of women carrying heavy loads and working in night shifts." (Sengupta, P. 1960:41)

However we find that, Rao, V. R. and S. Hussain (1991:148) in their study titled, *Invisible Hands- The Women Behind India's Export Earnings*, studied a sample of 134 women workers, 19 supervisors and executives in garment industry in Delhi area with the help of the interview schedule. They found that, " companies freely flouted all existing legislations regarding women. In almost all factories, women had worked late in the night wherever necessary in contravention of all existing laws. In

many companies, there were no separate toilets for women which is a statutory requirement. And inspite of large numbers of women being employed not a single company provided a crèche.”

Thus, we find that, the very laws, which were meant for, the protection of women workers and to improve the working conditions, have actually worked against them and have succeeded in reducing their employment in most of the fields.

Naidu, K. M. and K.S. Naidu (1999) have concluded that, in India, labour standards are unfavourable to women to overcome market failure and exploitation.

Singh, M.K. (1987), believes that, the violence against women is wide spread throughout the life, be it home, workplace or public life. Today, violence against women has become a common phenomenon. He believes that, the males in India, to keep the women at lower and subordinate levels, are deliberately using violence.

The studies cited above have covered the various aspects of the working women, right from her social conditions, working conditions, problems faced by her at home and the place of work, and the legislative reforms undertaken for women.

2.7 Conclusions

The following are the conclusions drawn from the above review of literature: The status of women in India is low. Women's work is largely marginalized. The various theories have not succeeded in giving a clear reason for the discrimination of working women. Economic necessity is an important factor that, leads to women's employment. Women are employed at the bottom of the occupational hierarchy.

Women are employed in limited number of occupations. Many prejudices against women exist even today. Role conflict is an important problem women face in their lives. The physical conditions of work are not attractive. Technological development has resulted in women's unemployment. Discrimination exists in the Indian society. Occupational segregation exists in the country. The wage rates of women are considerably lower than that of men. Legal protection is inadequate and there are a number of loopholes in the law.

Chapter 3

SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROFILE OF WORKING WOMEN

This chapter has been divided into two broad sub topics: 1) Social profile 2) Economic profile.

The social profile includes: Age - Qualifications - Marital status - Social background - Religion of the respondents- Transit time - Family structure - Family educational background - Reaction to the women's decision to work.

The economic profile includes: Prior work experience - Current position and tenure - Job compatibility - Recruitment methods - Remuneration - Control over earnings - Parents' occupations - Family income – Summary - Conclusion.

The socio-economic profile of the workers is very important in a study, as it shows the status of the respondent in the society. Hence, the first aim of the study is to develop such a socio-economic profile.

3.1 Social Profile

3.1.1 Age of the Respondents

The age of the respondent is an important aspect of the study since, it is necessary to find the economically active population. It is imperative to study

whether; it is the younger age group who is working or the older population who is in the labour market.

Raka, S. (1985) has observed that, "women coming to the workforce particularly in urban areas, is relatively a recent development in India and a bulk of them come from the younger age group." This is borne out in this study by table 3.1, which shows the age composition of the male and female respondents in the industrial sector.

Table 3.1 Age Of The Respondents

Age	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
20-24	5 (23.8)	8 (33.3)	5 (14.7)	10 (32.2)	4 (44.4)	3 (42.9)	0	1 (7.7)	36 (24.0)
25-29	13 (61.9)	10 (41.8)	25 (73.5)	14 (45.2)	5 (55.6)	4 (57.1)	11 (100)	12 (92.3)	94 (62.7)
30-34	3 (14.3)	4 (16.7)	4 (11.8)	5 (16.1)	0	0	0	0	16 (10.7)
35-39	0	1 (4.1)	0	0	0	0	0	0	1 (0.6)
40-44	0	1 (4.1)	0	2 (6.5)	0	0	0	0	3 (2.0)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

The data in table 3.1 indicates the distribution of the male and female respondents across various age groups. When we analyse the data, we find that, the majority of the male and female respondents are in the age group of 25-29, and the next most populous group is the age group 20-24. These two age groups account for 86.7 % of the sample. This shows that, the majority of the male and female respondents are in the young age group.

From the table 3.1, the male female break-up of the respondents reveal that, there are 22 female respondents in the age group 20-24 while there are 14 male respondents in that age group. Further, it is noted in the age group 25-29, there are 54 males as compared to only 40 females. From this we can conclude that either the women are joining the workforce at a lower age due to their need to supplement their family income or to earn money to provide for a dowry, or it could be that more males are sent for higher education as compared to females. In the 25-29 age group the males are in larger numbers as compared to the females probably due to the fact that this is the age when the females get married and opt not to work at least initially.

Ramanamma, A. and U. Bambawale (1987), in their study, have also found that, the majority of the women working in the factories are below 35 years of age. Gathoskar, S. (1986) too, in her study found that, majority of the women workers working in the export-processing zone at Santacruz in Bombay, were between the age of 18 and 27. Rao, V. R. and S. Hussain (1991) in their study have commented, "The majority of the women were below the age of twenty five. The common reason for the

preference for younger women was that, they were physically more fit and therefore able to cope with more intensity." It is evident that, the firms are showing a trend of employing younger people.

One important reason for this trend is the fact that, as unemployment is on the increase, people are willing to accept jobs at a younger age. They are not interested in pursuing higher education, as they may feel that, even with a higher degree, they may not succeed in getting a better job. There are only four female respondents above the age group of 35, which is just 2.6 % of the total interviewed.

The ILO (1987) study also brings out the fact that, "in plants located in several industrial estates and export processing zones, young inexperienced rural women are considered to be the best choice, since they are believed to be more patient and diligent and to have keener eyesight and more nimble fingers than men."

The ILO study (1988) of, *Women Workers in Multinational Enterprises in Underdeveloped Countries*, has found that, in general, most employers prefer younger women.

Some of the reasons given by them were:

1. The firms were reluctant to pay maternity benefits;
2. Single women are more reliable, flexible and are willing to work in shifts;
3. Younger unmarried women are more efficient as they do not face the dual burden of housework and factory work. They also have better health, eyesight and physical reflexes;

- 4. Married women belong more to the family and some industrialist do not wish to disrupt their family life by employing them;
- 5. It ensures a rate of natural or voluntary turnover of labour, thus keeping the average labour costs low.

Ramanamma, A. (1979) has examined the causes, which motivate unmarried women to take up employment. Some of the causes given by her are:

- 1. To earn money to give dowry;
- 2. Cost of living has increased;
- 3. The age of marriage has increased and work is used to fill time;
- 4. Girls, who find it impossible to get husbands, work to occupy themselves advantageously.

Some of these causes also apply to the women working in the industrial estates in Goa. Since the family income is low, as can be seen in table 3.26, girls are forced to work, as the cost of living is rising very fast, due to the fact that, Goa is a tourist destination. Besides, the low earning of the family makes it imperative for the girl to work hard and collect her own dowry, as her family is in no position to do the same. In Goa, there is also a trend of late marriages, as women prefer to spend some time in the labour market before they get married. A working woman is also considered an asset in the marriage market.

3.1.2 Educational Qualifications

Education is an important indicator to estimate the progress of the society. It is generally noted that a developed society will have a greater percentage of its population educated.

Sharma, I (1998) believes that, it is only through the development of education among the women, their exploitation can be avoided and the process of social, economic and political change in their status can be enhanced.

Vohra, R. and A.K. Sen (1989), are of the opinion that, education is a double edged instrument, which can, "on one hand, eliminate the effects of socio economic inequalities whereas, on the other hand, introduce a new kind of inequality between those who have it and those who do not have it."

They further go on to say that, in India, the socio economic conditions and structure of the educational system do not provide a congenial atmosphere for the education of girls.

This has also been shown by Sharma, I. (1998) who finds that, " due to the impact of modernisation, most of the people of well to do families want to send their girls to schools but they have certain reservations: a) they do not want to send their girls to schools which are located away from their own village; b) they want separate courses of study for boys and girls; and c) they want separate schools for girls and boys." This is not the case in Goa, since co - education is very popular and most of the respondents have at least completed their basic schooling.

The ILO study (1988) has found that, employers prefer women with more education, since education was regarded as a proxy for other derived workforce

characteristics, such as hard work, perseverance, ability to perform repetitive tasks, tolerance of authority and discipline, etc.

Vohra, R. and A.K. Sen (1989), believe that, “the demand for educated wives, the growing economic crises and the realisation that, education builds up personality and various other factors have encouraged the spread of women’s education”

Table 3.2 Educational Qualifications Of The Respondents

Education	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Below SSC	1 (4.8)	0	1 (2.9)	3 (9.7)	0	0	0	0	5 (3.3)
SSC	0	4 (16.7)	2 (5.9)	8 (25.8)	0	0	0	0	14 (9.3)
HSSC	6 (28.6)	9 (37.5)	9 (26.5)	11 (35.5)	4 (44.5)	4 (57.2)	9 (81.8)	10 (76.9)	62 (41.3)
Graduation	14 (66.6)	10 (41.7)	10 (29.4)	9 (29.0)	1 (11.1)	3 (42.8)	1 (9.1)	3 (23.1)	51 (34.0)
Post-Grad	0	1 (4.1)	0	0	0	0	0	0	1 (0.7)
Technical	0	0	8 (23.5)	0	1 (11.1)	0	0	0	9 (6.0)
ITI	0	0	4 (11.8)	0	3 (33.3)	0	1 (9.1)	0	8 (5.4)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 3.2 shows the educational qualifications of the male and female respondents. From the table it can be noted that:

1. The education level of the respondents is low. More than 50 % of the respondents are HSSC or below. One reason for this trend can be the lower age of the respondents. As they join the job at a younger age, they find it difficult to acquire higher education.
2. Majority of the male and female respondents (41.3%) are HSSC while 34.0% are graduates. A male female break up of the table reveals that, 15 female respondents are SSC and below, while there are only 4 males in that category. Similarly, 34 female respondents have completed HSSC as compared to 28 males. This shows that a greater number of females have lower qualifications in the industrial estates in Goa. Males, on the other hand, go in either for technical education or for further education as can be seen from the fact that there are many technically qualified males.
3. Only 17 respondents have undergone technical training. All the technically trained respondents are male. The fact that not a single female respondent is technically qualified points to the type of the employment favoured by women or by the industries for the working women. Women are generally employed in the clerical or administrative fields and hence they need not be technically qualified for performing those jobs.

Devi, L.U. (1982) is of the opinion that, "women who aspire for a career have sufficient opportunities for higher education, for professional or technical training.

However, although they are given equal opportunities they still lag behind in availing them and in catching up with men in the field of education." This is partly true, in case of the women workers in industrial estates in Goa, as we find that, although Goa has many institutes catering to higher education, women and even men, to some extent, have not been able to take advantage of them. Some of the reasons for the low level of education are: lack of finance, family pressure, rural background of the respondents, low income of the family, etc. which force the women to seek a job instead of acquiring higher education.

3.1.3 Additional Qualifications

Additional qualifications play an important role in getting a job. This is especially so, for a clerical job; since knowledge of computers, typing and shorthand is very important.

In Loveridge, R and A. L. Mok (1978) Oppenheimer, V. has noted the extent to which typical female occupations require pre-employment of a specific nature. In her study of women between the ages 30 and 40, she noted that, 90 % of her sample had received only specific training in clerical and service activities, which meant permanent typecasting in the labour market.

Table 3.3 shows the additional qualifications, which the various respondents have undergone.

Table 3.3 Additional Qualifications Of The Respondents

Qualification	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Typing	2 (9.5)	16 (66.6)	1 (2.9)	23 (74.2)	4 (44.4)	2 (28.6)	8 (72.7)	9 (69.2)	65 (43.3)
Computers	6 (28.6)	17 (70.8)	14 (41.2)	23 (74.2)	7 (77.7)	6 (85.7)	8 (72.7)	12 (92.3)	93 (62.0)
Shorthand	0	10 (41.6)	0	12 (38.7)	0	0	0	4 (30.8)	26 (17.3)
No response	14 (66.6)	1 (4.2)	20 (58.8)	2 (6.5)	0	0	2 (18.2)	0	39 (26.0)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

(Percentage figures may add up to more than 100 as multiple answers were permitted to this question)

From the table, the following points may be noted:

1. 62.0 % of the male and female respondents completed a computer course, while 43.3 % of the male and female respondents have completed typing, and a smaller number of 17.3 % have studied shorthand. Some have done all three, while others have a diploma in one or two of them. Most of the firms

prefer to employ a computer literate person on the job, hence many of the respondents preferred to do computers as an additional course.

2. 26 % of the respondents do not have any other qualification, besides basic education. If we compare the male and female respondents, we find that, in all the industrial estates, the females have done additional courses, while the males have not. This is also a reason why more females are employed in clerical posts as compared to males. Besides, many of the males are employed in manual category, where there is no need to be computer literate.
3. A male female comparison of the table 3.3 reveals the fact that women outnumber males with respect to acquiring the additional qualifications. 50 female respondents have completed a typing course as compared to only 15 males. Similarly, 58 female respondents have a computer certificate, as compared to 35 males, while, it is noted that 26 females have completed a shorthand course. Hence, this too points out to the fact that, women are more selective in their approach to acquiring additional courses as they are aiming for the clerical and administrative jobs. It is also seen (from table 3.18) that women are also employed in the manual category in large numbers. However monetary and prestige wise the clerical and administrative jobs are more attractive.

3.1.4 Marital Status

Marital status of the male and female respondents is also of importance as; it helps us to understand the type of problems the female respondents could face both at home and at the place of work. If the female respondent is married, and has to take care of young children, she would be facing a dual role; hence, the tensions and problems in the home and the place of work will be greater.

Rao, V.R. and S. Hussain (1991) in their study, have opined that, "another reason given for the industries preference for unmarried women is their relative freedom from family burden. Married women were already overworked due to their household responsibilities and therefore were not considered suitable for certain jobs."

Table 3.4 Marital Status Of Respondents

Marital Status	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Married	1 (4.8)	7 (29.2)	4 (11.8)	7 (22.6)	0	0	0	0	19 (12.7)
Single	20 (95.2)	17 (70.8)	30 (88.2)	23 (74.2)	9 (100)	7 (100)	11 (100)	13 (100)	130 (86.7)
Widowed	0	0	0	1 (3.2)	0	0	0	0	1 (0.6)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

From table 3.4 it can be noted that, 12.7 % of the male and female respondents are married, while the majority of the male and female respondents (86.7 %) are unmarried or single. The study reveals that 14 females and 5 male respondents are married. The industrial estates employ unmarried people, as they are more flexible and can work harder. Besides, maternity leave is also not provided to women workers by the firms. The majority of the respondents being in the young age group, they also prefer to settle down before getting married. Only one respondent was found to be widowed among those surveyed.

The ILO study (1988) gave the following reasons why the industries employ younger women. These reasons (some of which have been enumerated earlier in section 3.1.1) also tell us that, the firms in the industrial estates in Goa too, prefer to appoint unmarried women:

1. The firms were reluctant to pay maternity benefits;
2. Single women are more reliable, flexible and are willing to work in shifts;
3. Married women belong more to the family and some industrialists do not wish to disrupt their family life by employing them.

3.1.5 Type of Social Background

The urban or the rural background of the respondent will have a bearing on the type of education acquired by the respondent and the type of jobs they are qualified to hold.

Devi, L.U. (1982) is of the opinion that, the early socialisation of the child will have a bearing on the child's outlook, attitudes and values, and she believes that, the rural background reinforces the traditional values towards the division of labour and authority while the urban influence exposes the individual to the forces of change.

Table 3.5 Social Background Of Respondents

Background	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Urban	8 (38.1)	7 (29.2)	4 (11.8)	7 (22.6)	0	4 (57.1)	0	4 (30.8)	34 (22.7)
Rural	13 (61.9)	17 (70.8)	30 (88.2)	24 (77.4)	9 (100)	3 (42.9)	11 (100)	9 (69.2)	116 (77.3)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

From the table 3.5, we find that, 22.7 % of the male and female respondents were from the urban areas, while 77.3% were from the rural areas. This is only to be expected; as the industrial estates are located in the sub-urban areas, more of the employees are from the rural areas. The study reveals that 16 male and 18 female respondents live in the urban areas, while 53 female and 63 male respondents lived in the rural areas. Hence when we see the male female break up of the respondents, we find that, majority of both the male and the female respondents are from the rural areas. This has many implications.

Rural background is one of the reasons why the educational level of the respondents is low. In the rural areas, in Goa, educational facilities are lacking and the people find it difficult to get higher education. Another reason is the high cost of higher education. Many of the people cannot afford to get higher education and so they prefer to take up some job and add to the income of the families. Some of the low-income families prefer to send their children to work after some basic education, instead of continuing their education.

3.1.6 Religion of the Respondents

Segregation of the respondent by religion will give us an idea whether it is the minority or the majority religious section of the society who have received the major employment benefits in the industrial estate.

Table 3.6 Religion Of The Respondents

Religion	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Hindu	20 (95.2)	17 (70.8)	29 (85.3)	25 (80.6)	9 (100)	7 (100)	11 (100)	13 (100)	131 (87.3)
Christian	1 (4.8)	7 (29.2)	5 (14.7)	6 (19.4)	0	0	0	0	19 (12.7)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 3.6 shows the religions followed by the various respondents. 87.3 % of the male and female respondents followed the Hindu faith and 12.7 % were Christians. From the table we find that 62 females and 69 males profess the Hindu religion, while there are only 13 Christian females and 6 males. A large majority of these Hindu women are unmarried and they are working in the clerical, manual and administrative jobs in the industrial estates. As noted earlier some of them are working to support their families. The Christian male and female respondents were concentrated in the Verna and Tivim industrial estates.

The high percentage of Hindus among the workers is largely to be ascribed to the fact that, the population of Goa is predominantly Hindu. But another important factor is that the Goan Catholic youth prefer jobs abroad (for example in the Gulf countries), and hence, they do not like to work in the local firms, for the low salary paid.

3.1.7 Distance between Home and Workplace

Travelling long distances is particularly difficult for the married female respondents, as they generally have to go home and work another shift. The dual burden faced by them, generally, creates many problems for the respondents.

Jain, S. (1988) believes that, "the distance between an employees home and the place of work very much affects the efficiency and the successful performance of the occupational roles. In the case of women such distance is of utmost importance as women have to look after their home which needs a lot of time, so the distance from

home to office is very significant for working women.” She further says that, a woman spends a lot of time and energy in her back and forth journey.

However, in the study, since the majority of the respondents are unmarried, they may not be facing any major difficulties, since they will have other people at home, to do part of the work. Even though most of the respondents are earning a relatively low salary, some of them are working for the sake of experience, while others might be working for the salary, which though small, will help to make them independent.

Table 3.7 Distance Between Home And Workplace

Distance	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
< 2 km	4 (19.1)	6 (25.0)	4 (11.8)	5 (16.2)	0	1 (14.3)	1 (9.1)	1 (7.7)	22 (14.7)
3-5 km	16 (76.2)	14 (58.3)	28 (82.2)	16 (51.6)	9 (100)	6 (85.7)	10 (90.9)	12 (92.3)	111 (74.0)
6-10 km	1 (4.7)	3 (12.5)	1 (3.0)	6 (19.3)	0	0	0	0	11 (7.3)
> 10 km	0	1 (4.2)	1 (3.0)	4 (12.9)	0	0	0	0	6 (4.0)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

74 % of the male and female respondents travel a distance of 3–5 km everyday while only 4 % of the respondents travel more than 10 km every day as shown in table 3.7. The table also reveals that 13 female respondents and 9 male respondents travel a distance of less than 2 km daily. Similarly, it is noted that 48 females and 63 male respondents travel between 3-5 km daily. But the interesting fact is that 14 females are travelling a distance of more than 6 km daily as compared to only 3 males who travel such distances. This could be due to the public mode of transport used by these respondents. Most of the respondents have to travel quite a long time and the transport facilities in the rural areas are not very frequent.

3.1.8 Time spent on travel to the workplace

The time spent on travelling is naturally related to the distance of the workplace from the home. Travelling is very tiring for women workers, especially if they have to attend to the chores at home as well, either before or after office work. Table 3.8 below indicates the transit time, that is, the time taken by the workers to travel daily to and from their place of work. 65.3 % of the male and female respondents spend 1- 2 hours travelling daily, while 2 % of the male and female respondents travel more than 3 hours daily. The male female break up of the table reveals that 20 females and 18 male respondents travel less than an hour daily, while 55 male respondents travel for 1-2 hours as compared to 43 females. It was also noted that 12 female respondents travel more than 2 hours daily compared to only 2 male

respondents. The respondents have to travel more if they are residing in the rural areas and the transportation facilities are very irregular.

Table 3.8 Transit Times While Traveling To The Workplace

Travel Time	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
< 1 hour	7 (33.3)	7 (29.2)	10 (29.4)	8 (25.8)	0	3 (42.8)	1 (9.1)	2 (15.4)	38 (25.3)
1-2 hours	14 (66.7)	13 (54.1)	23 (67.5)	16 (51.6)	9 (100)	4 (57.2)	9 (81.8)	10 (76.9)	98 (65.3)
2-3 hours	0	3 (12.5)	1 (2.9)	5 (16.2)	0	0	1 (9.1)	1 (7.7)	11 (7.4)
> 3 hours	0	1 (4.2)	0	2 (6.4)	0	0	0	0	3 (2.0)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

It was noted by the present study that some of the female respondents reside in remote areas; hence, they end up having to travel more than the males because the transport facilities in the rural areas are very limited. Besides the males, having the advantage of own vehicles or "lifts" can cut their travelling time as compared to the females who have to travel by the local public transportation, which is very time consuming.

3.1.9 Means of transportation

Most of the respondents, being poor and earning low incomes, have to depend on the local bus service, to get to the place of work. They cannot afford to travel by their own vehicles. Other means of transport such as rickshaws, taxis and motorcycles are also beyond the reach of these workers. Travelling by local bus is the only alternative for them and it is very tiring, as, the buses are often crowded during the office hours.

Table 3.9 reveals that, 78 % of the male and female respondents travel by the local bus. 12 % of the male and female respondents have the facility of their own vehicle while 8.7 % of the male and female respondents go walking to the place of work as they stay within 2 km of the place of work. (as shown in table 3.7) Only two female respondents have the facility of the office bus. A male female comparison of the table shows that 8 female respondents and 5 male respondents walk to the place of work. It was also noted that while 14 male respondents take their own vehicles to the factories, only 4 female respondents do so. This is either due to the lack of finances to purchase their own vehicles or fear of driving them on the roads: 56 males and 61 females travel by the public transport to the place of work. It was noted in table 3.8 that most of the respondents have to travel for one to two hours daily. Travelling by private vehicles might be expensive; hence the cheaper alternative of the public transport was preferred by many of the respondents.

Table 3.9 Means Of Transportation

Transport	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Walking	2 (9.5)	4 (16.6)	3 (8.8)	2 (6.5)	0	1 (14.3)	0	1 (7.7)	13 (8.7)
Own vehicle	6 (28.6)	1 (4.2)	8 (23.5)	2 (6.5)	0	0	0	1 (7.7)	18 (12.0)
Local bus	13 (61.9)	19 (79.2)	23 (67.7)	25 (80.6)	9 (100)	6 (85.7)	11 (100)	11 (84.6)	117 (78.0)
Office bus	0	0	0	2 (6.4)	0	0	0	0	2 (1.3)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

3.1.10 Family Background

Parental background plays a very important role in the education and occupation of their children. Sharma, U. (1986) in her book, *Women's Work, Class, and the Urban Household*, opines that, "On the whole, it appears that, women's preparedness to enter the labour market depends as much on the attitude of the parents as those of the husbands. It is parents, who encourage daughters to think of themselves as potential workers or primarily as dependents. Husbands are then chosen

whose attitudes are consistent with the choices already made or orientation already established.”

From the above statement, we find that, the attitudes of the parents play a major role in instilling the attitudes of work culture in their children. If the parents are supportive, we find that, the women enter into the labour market in larger numbers and if they are not, then the labour market shrinks.

The ILO (1987) report believes that, “the attitudes of the parents, teachers, employers and workers concerning education play an important role in influencing educational and occupational choices by young women.”

Hence it is imperative to study the family background of the respondents to find out whether the parents are educated or not, whether they are working, if so, in what types of occupations. The annual income of the parents has also been analysed, as a part of the economic profile, to get an understanding of the reasons why the woman has to work.

Srivastava, V. (1978) in her book, *Employment of Educated Married Women in India*, has defined a joint family as, “two or more married couples besides other relatives living together under the same roof and sharing a common kitchen,” while a nuclear family has been defined by her as, “a household consisting of only husband, wife and their offspring.”

Jain, D. (1995), in her study has pointed out that, the number of nuclear families has increased, and that, there has been migration of women to the urban areas, due to industrialisation and urbanisation, in search of employment. This has led

to the predominance of the nuclear type of family, consisting of husband, wife and unmarried children. Jain, S. (1988) in her study has concluded that, the occupational career of a woman is to a very large extent influenced by her family structure. In joint families, it is generally difficult for a woman to enter into an occupation though the economic needs may be very pressing. Yet, the family norms do not permit such participations. On the other hand, in a nuclear family the women's work career is welcomed by her husband and other family members.

This study, conducted in the industrial estates in Goa, has indicated similar results. Table 3.10 reveals that, 92.7 % of the male and female respondents belong to nuclear families, while only 7.3 % come from joint families. A few of the respondents, from Verna and Tivim industrial estates, came from joint families.

Table 3.10 Family Structure

Family Structure	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Joint	0	7 (29.2)	3 (8.8)	1 (3.2)	0	0	0	0	11 (7.3)
Nuclear	21 (100)	17 (70.8)	31 (91.2)	30 (96.8)	9 (100)	7 (100)	11 (100)	13 (100)	139 (92.7)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

The type of family, whether joint or nuclear, will influence whether or not the woman will work. The lack of childcare facilities in the area makes it imperative, that, the family of a woman with children should play an important role in looking after the children, while the woman is at work. However, this may be relatively unimportant in the context of this study, as most of the respondents are unmarried.

The predominance of nuclear families is also a reason why the majority of the respondents are in the younger age group. As inflation is rising, the family income may not be sufficient to meet all the needs; hence making it imperative that, the children go out to work as soon as possible. This is also another reason for the lower educational qualifications acquired by them.

3.1.11 Family Educational Background

The largest sub-group (34 % of the respondents) stated that, their father was educated and in the group eighth to SSC. Only 2.6 % of the fathers were graduates. 14.7 % of the respondents said that, their fathers were uneducated while 33.4 % of the respondents did not provide any information regarding the educational qualifications of their father. Since most of the respondents' fathers had relatively low education, as shown in table 3.11, they might not have chosen to send their children for higher education.

Table 3.11 Education Qualification Of Father

Father's Education	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
None	4 (19.0)	0	3 (8.8)	8 (25.8)	3 (33.3)	0	3 (27.3)	1 (7.7)	22 (14.7)
Upto 4 th	2 (9.5)	1 (4.2)	4 (11.8)	1 (3.2)	0	0	0	0	8 (5.3)
5 th to 7 th	0	4 (16.7)	0	3 (9.6)	0	0	1 (9.1)	0	8 (5.3)
8 th to SSC	8 (38.1)	7 (29.2)	5 (14.7)	4 (12.9)	5 (55.6)	5 (71.5)	7 (63.6)	10 (76.9)	51 (34.0)
12 th	2 (9.5)	1 (4.1)	2 (5.9)	2 (6.5)	0	0	0	0	7 (4.7)
Graduation	0	1 (4.1)	0	2 (6.5)	0	0	0	1 (7.7)	4 (2.6)
No response	5 (23.9)	10 (41.7)	20 (58.8)	11 (35.5)	1 (11.1)	2 (28.5)	0	1 (7.7)	50 (33.4)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 3.12 Educational Qualification Of Mother

Mother's Education	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
None	4 (19.0)	5 (20.8)	2 (5.9)	7 (22.5)	2 (22.2)	0	6 (54.5)	2 (15.3)	28 (18.7)
Upto 4 th	1 (4.8)	2 (8.3)	0	1 (3.2)	1 (11.1)	0	0	0	5 (3.3)
5 th to 7 th	1 (4.8)	2 (8.3)	2 (5.9)	2 (6.5)	3 (33.4)	1 (14.2)	1 (9.1)	5 (38.5)	17 (11.3)
8 th to SSC	10 (47.6)	3 (12.6)	5 (14.7)	5 (16.2)	1 (11.1)	4 (57.2)	4 (36.4)	4 (30.8)	36 (24.0)
12 th	0	0	2 (5.9)	0	0	0	0	0	2 (1.3)
Graduation	0	1 (4.2)	1 (2.9)	1 (3.2)	0	0	0	1 (7.7)	4 (2.7)
No response	5 (19.0)	11 (45.8)	22 (64.7)	15 (48.4)	2 (22.2)	2 (28.6)	0	1 (7.7)	58 (38.7)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Similarly, when we analyse the data for the educational levels of the mothers of the male and female respondents in table 3.12, we see that, 18.7 % of the respondents replied that, their mother's were uneducated, 24 % of the mothers were in the group eighth to SSC, and 2.7 % were graduates. 38.7 % of the male and female respondents did not provide any information regarding the educational qualifications of their mother.

Although the education level of the parents is low, yet most of the respondents were motivated to study upto HSSC. One important reason for this is the provision of free education by the Government.

Parents' education plays an important role in deciding whether or not the child should be sent for higher education. There is a correlation present between the educational level of parents and that, of children as the educated parents are more likely to value education. However, some uneducated parents too, knowing the worth of a good education, have sent their children to school and so their children have obtained at least an HSSC education. This has also been seen in the present study.

3.1.12 Reaction of the family to the woman's decision to work

The sweeping changes in social and cultural factors have radically altered the responses of the families to the woman's decision to work. In the past, educated women from upper or middle class families did not venture to take up jobs, as working outside the home was looked down upon. Yet, today, with the huge changes

in the attitudes of society, it is considered acceptable, and often even desirable, that, women should work outside their homes, in a variety of jobs. (Rao, U.1985)

Most of the respondents, in Goa, being young and unmarried, have to work to prepare for the future as well as contribute to the family budget at present. This helps to reduce the burden on the family. The rising cost of living, the need for improving the standard of living of the family and the desire to have a working wife has changed the attitude of the society towards working women.

Table 3.13 Response Of Female Workers' Families

Family	Verna	Tivim	Corlim	Mapusa	Total
Response	F	F	F	F	
Positive	24 (100)	30 (96.8)	7 (100)	13 (100)	74 (98.7)
Negative	0	1 (3.2)	0	0	1 (1.3)
Total	24	31	7	13	75

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Banerjee, N. (1991) in her study believes that, "a girl finding work may have a negative impact on her marriage prospects at least in the perception of her family."

This is not true with regard to Goa, as here, a working woman is considered as an asset.

This has also been found by Rawat, B. D. (1988). In his book, *Labour Welfarism in India*, he comments that, "for many years, it was not considered respectable to allow female members of the family to work to contribute to family income, but in recent times, employed women have better prospects in the marriage market and do not carry any social stigma."

Reddy, C. R. (1986) in his study conducted in Andhra Pradesh has found that, more and more women are taking up jobs to escape the dowry problem. He believes that, "nowadays the bridegrooms are opting for the working women rather than dowry, for having continuous income for the family."

Table 3.13 reveals that, 98.7 % of the female respondents say that their families are happy that, they are working, while only a single respondent has indicated that, her family is not happy that, she is going out to work. Majority of the respondents are from the families with a very low annual income as has been shown in table 3.26. Hence, the families of the respondents are very happy that, they are working, as now they can contribute to the family budget and help to raise the standard of living of their families. The rising aspirations of the people and the spiralling costs of living have helped to increase the female employment.

Ramanamma, A. (1979) in her study has also found that, "the women are proud that, they have become additional bread winners of the family and thus in some respects equal partners in marriage. Majority of the women expressed that they are

treated as individuals in society by their own right. The family members give them status in the house hold as they are wage earners.”

Besides, the unmarried women will arrange for their own dowry, lessening the burden on their parents. This, too, is another cause of satisfaction for the family.

3.1.13 Married Women

It was found that, there were relatively few married women in the sample. However, since they are the ones most likely to face problems at work some additional data was collected about them. The salient features observed were:

1. The majority of the married respondents had two children.
2. Only one respondent had a child below the age of five years, while the other children were in the age group 11-20. Having younger children in the family is a great burden for a working woman, especially in a nuclear family, as she has no facilities to keep the child, while she is at the work place.
3. 80 % of the respondents' husbands were graduates, while the rest were technically educated.
4. 60 % of the respondents' husbands were in service, while the rest were employed in a variety of occupations such as dentists, packers, and administrators.
5. Majority of the respondent's husbands were earning an annual salary of more than Rs. 80,000. An important reason for the high salary earned by them was the level of education, which was high.

3.2 Economic Profile

3.2.1 Prior Work Experience

An employer finds it more profitable to hire fresh hands, as the wage rate can be kept low and maximum work can be extracted from these workers. If the workers have previous work experience, they would expect a higher salary or some benefits, which the employer may not be willing to pay.

Table 3.14 Prior Work Experience

Prior Experience	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Yes	2 (9.5)	1 (4.2)	4 (11.8)	3 (9.7)	0	0	0	0	10 (6.7)
No	19 (90.5)	23 (95.8)	30 (88.2)	28 (90.3)	9 (100)	7 (100)	11 (100)	13 (100)	140 (93.3)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

From table 3.14 we find that, 93.3 % of the male and female respondents do not have any previous work experience. Only 6.7 % of the male and female respondents have previous work experience. The male and female break up reveals that there were 6 males and 4 females working in the industries with prior work

experience. They have left the earlier job, due to, either the low salaries, or the distance from the home. Jain, S. (1988) has shown that, "better conditions of work, permanency of employment, high salary and dignified jobs might have attracted the respondents to change their previous vocations." This has not been reflected in the present study, as most of the male and female respondents do not have any previous experience.

3.2.2 Tenure in current job

This subtopic examines how long the respondent has been working in the current job as the number of years a person has put in the work place determines his increments, his job satisfaction, and the other benefits gained by him.

Table 3.15 Tenure In Current Job

Tenure	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
< One year	3 (14.3)	2 (8.3)	24 (70.6)	2 (6.4)	0	1 (14.3)	0	1 (7.7)	33 (22.0)
1-3 years	12 (57.2)	15 (62.5)	10 (29.4)	15 (48.4)	8 (88.9)	6 (85.7)	11 (100)	12 (92.3)	89 (59.3)
> 3 years	6 (28.6)	7 (29.2)	0	14 (45.2)	1 (11.1)	0	0	0	28 (18.7)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Fine, B. (1998) opines that, human capital can be gained through work experience. Most of the respondents can be seen to have been working for less than three years, leading to the conclusion that, as their work experience is meagre, their human capital accumulation is lower, leading to correspondingly lower wages.

As can be seen from table 3.15, 59.3 % of the workers have been working from one to three years, while 22 % of the workers have been working for less than a year. We observe that, only 18.7 % of the people have been working for more than three years. The male female analysis of the table reveals that 27 males and 6 female respondents are working on the current job for less than a year. An important cause for this is the high male turnover in search of better opportunities. It was also noted that there were 41 males and 48 females in the job for one to three years. For more than 3 years in the same post, there were 21 females as compared to only 7 male respondents. Greater job satisfaction among the female respondents, as shown in table 4.15 (a), could also contribute to the less number of female respondents quitting their jobs. On the other hand males might be in constant search of better job opportunities as they are the bread winners in the family. This has also been reflected in table 3.1 where it was noted that in the older age groups there were greater number of female respondents as compared to the male respondents.

Since these workers have very little experience, they command a very low salary and the levels of increments are also very low.

To get a more accurate idea of the accumulated human capital, the survey also looked at the total (cumulative) work experience of the respondents in all jobs, as the data of the current job alone would not be sufficiently representative.

3.2.3 Cumulative work experience in all jobs

This is an important aspect, as we would like to see whether, the respondents have been working for a long period of time or whether they have just started their working career. This will also depend on the age of the respondents that is whether they are in the younger or the older age groups

Table 3.16 shows the cumulative work experience of the respondents. The study shows that, 87.3 % of the workers have been employed for less than 5 years in all their jobs. The male female break up shows that 68 males and 63 females have less than 5 years cumulative working experience. They have just started their working career and they do not have any previous work experience, as in almost every case, this is their first job. 2 % of the respondents (two females and one male) have been working for more than 10 years, and they are permanent in the post.

In the present study, since the majority of the respondents have been employed for a relatively short period, they have accumulated less human capital leading to correspondingly lower salaries being earned by them. This is commensurate with the observations in the previous subsection and fortifies the conclusions drawn therein.

Table 3.16 Cumulative Work Experience In All Jobs

Cumulative Experience	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
< 5 yrs	18 (85.7)	21 (87.5)	30 (88.2)	22 (70.9)	9 (100)	7 (100)	11 (100)	13 (100)	131 (87.3)
5-10 yrs	3 (14.3)	3 (12.5)	3 (8.9)	7 (22.6)	0	0	0	0	16 (10.7)
> 10 yrs	0	0	1 (2.9)	2 (6.5)	0	0	0	0	3 (2.0)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

3.2.4 Employment status of the workers

The types of jobs the respondents are employed in are also of importance as they reveal the educational qualifications and the income of the respondents.

Sudan, F. K. and N. K. Gupta (1998) in their book, *Women and Work*, have surveyed the industrial areas of Jammu district and with the help of random sampling technique; they selected 50 working women from two industrial estates. An interview schedule was used to elicit the required data. They have defined a permanent worker as one, "who has been confirmed in the service of the employer and who is expected to work with the same employer," while a temporary worker was, "one who was

given employment for a definite period by the employer with whom an agreement whether expressed or implied had already been reached to this effect.”

Since the firms are employing young workers, they are not interested in granting them permanent status. This has also been brought out by Rao, V. R. and S. Hussain (1991) in their study, where they found that, most of the women workers are recruited informally and without an appointment letter. The workers are under the impression that, they are permanent in the post, but in reality, they are temporary workers, with little or no benefits paid to them.

Table 3.17 Worker Status

Status	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Permanent	6 (28.6)	9 (37.5)	10 (29.4)	10 (32.3)	0	2 (28.6)	0	1 (7.7)	38 (25.3)
Part-time	0	1 (4.2)	3 (9.0)	2 (6.4)	0	0	0	0	6 (4.0)
Temporary	13 (61.9)	11 (45.8)	21 (61.6)	12 (38.7)	9 (100)	5 (71.4)	11 (100)	12 (92.3)	94 (62.7)
Daily Wage	2 (9.5)	3 (12.5)	0	7 (22.6)	0	0	0	0	12 (8.0)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

In addition, firms do not want to have permanent workers on a large scale, since the demand for the products fluctuates. When the demand rises, daily wage and temporary workers are employed in larger number to increase the production; else, the work is undertaken by the small number of regular staff.

Table 3.17 shows that, 62.7 % of the male and female respondents are in the firms as temporary workers, while 25.3 % of the workers are in the permanent category. The table reveal that 27 female respondents are permanent in the posts while there are only 16 males in permanent posts. A reason could be the number of years put in by the female respondents. Table 3.15 reveals that 21 female respondents are working for more than 3 years in the firms and hence they are made permanent by the employers. 54 males and 40 females are temporary workers. The number daily wage females workers are 10 compared to 2 males working on daily wages. An important reason, for most of the workers being in the temporary category, is the low level of skills and training of the respondents. The firms, as they are employing young workers, they are not willing to grant them permanent status, as, if the workers are made permanent, they will have to be provided various facilities, such as bonus, provident fund, maternity benefits, etc., which the firm is not willing to pay. Hence, the firms employ a larger number of workers on temporary basis or casual basis.

Banerjee, N (1991) in her study concluded that, majority of the workers were casual workers. She found that, "even when she (the woman worker) had worked for the same employer for several years, a woman worker did not get the status of a regular employee."

3.2.5 Current job profile

The capacity, in which the respondents are working at present, depends on the qualification of the respondents and the additional skills possessed by them. In Arputhamurthy, S. (1990) Bergman, B. has been quoted as saying that, "the exclusion of women from certain jobs forced women to get crowded in a few women specific jobs."

Table 3.18 Current Job Profile

Job Profile	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Clerical	3 (14.3)	5 (20.8)	5 (14.8)	9 (29.1)	1 (11.1)	3 (42.9)	1 (9.1)	7 (53.8)	34 (22.7)
Administrative	1 (4.7)	2 (8.3)	2 (5.7)	5 (16.1)	0	1 (14.3)	0	0	11 (7.3)
Manual	13 (62.0)	13 (54.2)	19 (55.9)	12 (38.7)	7 (77.8)	2 (28.5)	8 (72.7)	4 (30.8)	78 (52.0)
Supervisory	3 (14.3)	3 (12.5)	5 (14.8)	4 (12.9)	1 (11.1)	1 (14.3)	2 (18.2)	2 (15.4)	21 (14.0)
Managerial	1 (4.7)	1 (4.2)	3 (8.8)	1 (3.2)	0	0	0	0	6 (4.0)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 3.18 reveals that 52 % of the respondents are working in the manual category, followed by 22.7 % in the clerical category. However, it is more pertinent to note that, most of the males are found to be working in the manual category and the majority of the females are found to be in the clerical category and that, 66 % of the managerial cadre is male. The male female break up points to the fact that the females are in majority in the clerical and the administrative sections. In the clerical section there are 24 females as compared to 10 males, while the administrative section has 8 females and only 3 males. Females have completed additional courses in computers and typing, hence they get a preference in clerical jobs.

In the manual category there are 47 males and 31 females. Males having better physique would be naturally preferred for manual jobs. It was noted that there were 11 males and 10 females in the supervisory category, while there were 4 males and only 2 females in the managerial category. Hence we find that in the top most category the number of females occupying the posts are less and it was noted that the two female respondents in the managerial category had better education, were in the older age group and they had worked for a number of years in that factory. The segmentation of the labour market can also be considered as an important cause of the occupational division of labour.

3.2.6 *Job compatibility among female workers*

In this subsection we try to find out whether women feel that the jobs they are doing are suited to their qualifications or not. Vohra, R. and A. K. Sen (1989) opine that, there are many reasons besides economic necessity, which prompt a woman to work. "A woman may work to raise the standard of living of her household or to have an independent income which she can spend as she likes. In addition, she may work because she feels that, she cannot do without the intellectual stimulus and the social contact she is deprived of, if she confines herself to home. She may work because she finds time hanging heavily on her hands after the household chores have been taken care of, or just to escape from the drudgery of life."

Many of the women in the study are working due to economic necessity and need the job; they have no option and are working out of sheer compulsion. Hence, they might be forced to accept whatever job they receive, whether or not they feel it suitable to their qualifications. Since most of the respondents belong to the low-income groups, as has been shown in table 3.26, the other reasons might not matter very much to them. Therefore the respondents were questioned whether they felt that, the job was suited to the qualifications they had.

From the table 3.19, it was found that, 85.3 % of the female respondents said that, the job is quite suitable for them, as their qualifications and skill levels were low. Yet, 14.7 % of the respondents felt that, the job was not suited for them and they aspired for better prospects.

Since, in the present study, most of the women have completed courses in typing and computers, they feel that, they are best suited for clerical jobs. The few respondents who are not happy with their jobs are better educated than their counterparts, and hence feel that, they should get higher paid jobs.

Table 3.19 Job Compatibility For Female Workers

Job Compatibility	Verna	Tivim	Corlim	Mapusa	Total
	F	F	F	F	
Yes	20 (83.3)	29 (93.5)	4 (57.1)	11 (84.6)	64 (85.3)
No	4 (16.7)	2 (6.5)	3 (42.9)	2 (15.4)	11 (14.7)
Total	24	31	7	13	75

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

3.2.7 Recruitment methods

This subsection deals with how the respondents have secured their present jobs. Interviews, relatives and friends are ways through which the doors of employment are opened to the people. Another important door is the employment

exchange, but in the present study none of the respondents have used it to secure jobs in the industrial estates.

The ILO study (1988) opines that, "the most common way women in developing countries find employment in multinational manufacturing enterprises is through network of kinship and friendship ties." Kinship and friendship ties, similarly, play an important role in securing of the job in the selected industrial estates in Goa.

Table 3.20 Recruitment Methods

Recruitment Methods	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Interview	13 (62.0)	13 (54.2)	20 (58.8)	10 (32.3)	2 (22.2)	5 (71.4)	1 (9.1)	1 (7.7)	65 (43.3)
Relatives	1 (4.7)	6 (25.0)	4 (11.8)	9 (29.0)	6 (66.7)	2 (28.6)	10 (90.9)	8 (61.5)	46 (30.7)
Friends	7 (33.3)	5 (20.8)	10 (29.4)	12 (38.7)	1 (11.1)	0	0	4 (30.8)	39 (26.0)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 3.20 reveals that, 43.3 % of the male and female respondents have secured the jobs through interviews, while the rest have secured it, either through friends or relatives. Since the firms are small, the role of friends and relatives in securing the jobs becomes very important. None of the respondents was selected

through the employment exchange. A male female comparison of the table reveals that, 36 males and 29 females have secured the jobs through interviews. 21 males and 25 females have secured the employment through the channel of relatives, while 21 females and 18 males have secured their jobs through friends. This shows that majority of the females have secured employment through the social routes.

Interviews were predominant in the selection process in Verna and Tivim, while in Mapusa and Corlim; the relatives played a more important role in securing the jobs. In the Tivim industrial estate, the role of friends in the selection process is also to be noted.

3.2.8 Remuneration

This subtopic deals with the amount of money earned by the respondents. Singh, B. N. (1989) opines that, "due to the lack of education, training and technological knowledge, the women workers even in the field of industry and mines have got the lower level of jobs which are low paid."

Neetha, N. (2000) has attributed the low wages earned by women, to the human capital they have accumulated. She says that, "the human capital theory assumes that, women's prior commitment is to the home and because of long and hard work at home, women are seen as less committed to work in the labour market, and hence they are less rewarded."

The low level of education of the women workers and the lack of training has contributed to the low level of income earned by them.

Table 3.21 Monthly Remuneration

Monthly Remuneration	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
< Rs 1000	5 (22.8)	4 (16.6)	1 (2.9)	8 (25.8)	0	2 (28.5)	0	1 (7.7)	21 (14.0)
Rs 1001-3000	11 (52.4)	9 (37.5)	26 (76.5)	12 (38.7)	9 (100)	3 (42.9)	11 (100)	11 (84.6)	92 (61.3)
Rs 3001-5000	3 (14.3)	10 (41.7)	4 (11.8)	6 (19.3)	0	1 (14.3)	0	1 (7.7)	25 (16.7)
Rs 5000-10000	2 (9.5)	1 (4.2)	3 (8.8)	5 (16.2)	0	1 (14.3)	0	0	12 (8.0)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 3.21 reveals that, 61.3 % of the workers earn between Rs 1001-3000 per month while, 16.7 % of the workers earn between Rs 3001- 5000 per month. The table also shows that 15 female and 6 male respondents get a salary below Rs 1000 per month, while 57 males and 35 females draw a monthly salary between 1001-3000. The table revealed that 18 females got a monthly salary between 3001-5000, while only 7 males got a monthly salary in that range. Some of the reasons for the slightly higher salary of the females is the permanency of the jobs, greater number of working years and the type of jobs performed by them.

Raka, S. (1985) in her study too, concludes that, women get very low wages. In this study, the difference in wage is less pronounced.

In Loveridge, R. and A.L. Mok, (1979) Metcalf has been quoted as saying that, "the reason women are paid less than men in each occupation is mainly because *within* each group they tend to be crowded into the lower paying segments..." (Emphasis in the original)

The low wages earned by the women could also be examined in the light of the Compensating Differential Model, which examines the low pay in typical female jobs. Anker, R. (1997) has explained the model thus: "According to this model, women prefer occupations with good working conditions as they wish to avoid unpleasant and dangerous working conditions, and/or to have jobs with good fringe benefits, e.g. health, insurance and crèches. The avoidance of unpleasant and dangerous conditions could be especially significant in cases where men are the chief breadwinners and women are secondary earners. In these circumstances, the lower monetary rewards in the typical 'female' occupations are said to be partly explained by some "pay" being taken in 'non-wage' forms."

Although this model tries to explain the low wages as the result of some other benefits given to the respondents, this explanation fails to hold water in the case of the selected industries in the industrial estates of Goa, as the respondents are not compensated in any other way for their low wages.

3.2.9 Respondent's control over salary

Today, women are also earners and the way they spend the income they earn is an important consideration. Hence, the present study tries to find out whether the women have the freedom to spend their income, as they like or whether they are bound by the dictates of the family and especially the males in the family.

In Neetha, N. (2000) Fawcell, Edgeworth and Sergeant Florence have put forth the view that, women earn less than men do, as their relative needs are fewer, since they have fewer dependents than men do. However, this theory ignores, the possibility of women being, the sole wage earner, in the family and having to take care of a number of dependents.

Regarding the use of money earned by the respondents, table 3.22 reveals that, 60 % of the respondents say that, they occasionally hand over partial salary to the family. 10 % of the respondents keep the entire salary for themselves and 9.4 % hand over the entire salary to the family. As most, of the respondents, are young, they may keep a part of the salary for them to spend as they wish, but majority contribute to the family budget. Thus, there is largely freedom with regard to the use of money.

The above would indicate that, working women often do not have control over their own salary. Jain, S. (1988) is of the opinion that, "in India where the male members have always dominated, any income or property of the woman has been shared by the men folk. Even at the present time, the income of the working women is controlled by her husband or other family members. However, a change is occurring and some of the working women are asserting their own right in controlling their

earnings." In her study, she found that, the head of the family controlled the earnings of the majority of women she had interviewed.

Table 3.22 Handing Over Of Salary To The Family

Hand Over to	Verna	Tivim	Corlim	Mapusa	Total
Family	F	F	F	F	
<i>Full Salary</i>					
Always	3 (12.4)	3 (9.7)	1 (14.3)	0	7 (9.4)
Occasionally	4 (16.7)	5 (16.1)	0	0	9 (12.0)
Never	1 (4.2)	3 (9.7)	0	0	4 (5.3)
<i>Partial Salary</i>					
Always	1 (4.2)	5 (16.1)	0	0	6 (8.0)
Occasionally	14 (58.3)	12 (38.7)	6 (85.7)	13 (100)	45 (60.0)
Never	1 (4.2)	3 (9.7)	0	0	4 (5.3)
Total	24	31	7	13	75

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Pore, K. (1991) too in his article, *Women at Work – A Secondary Line of Operation*, has found that, “the majority of the interviewees handed over their earning either to their husbands or to their parents or to their parent - in - laws”

Therefore, the study tried to examine whether the women in the industrial estates have control over their own finance, or whether they have to hand over their pay packet to the family.

Dak, T. (1988) believes that, “the majority of the working women have to hand over their salary to their husbands or in-laws. They are not supposed to manage their own incomes”

Table 3.23 revealed that, almost half of the female respondents (49.3 %) reply that, they can always spend their money without restrictions, while 41.3 % say that, they can occasionally spend the money without restrictions. Only 9.4 % of the respondents replied that, they have absolutely no freedom to spend the money, as they have to hand over the entire salary to the head of the family. Hence, this shows that the women workers in the industrial estates have a lot of freedom to spend their incomes, as they desire.

Studies conducted by Devi, L.U. (1982), Agarwal, K. (1988), Sathy, G. (1991), Rao, V. R. and S. Hussain(1991) and Shah, K.(1992), have shown that, women are still not treated as equal to men and they do not have financial freedom. However, the case is different among the respondents, in the present study, as, only 9.4 % of the respondents have no freedom and control over their finance, while the majority of them have freedom to spend their incomes. This has also been found by

Shirwadkar, S. (1998) in her study of the middle class women in Marathwada when She interviewed 283 women above the age of 18 years. In her study, she found that, majority of the women had control over their own salary.

Table 3.23 Control Over How The Salary Is Spent

Control over	Verna	Tivim	Corlim	Mapusa	Total
Salary	F	F	F	F	
Always	9 (37.5)	16 (51.6)	0	12 (92.3)	37 (49.3)
Occasionally	12 (50.0)	12 (38.7)	6 (85.7)	1 (7.7)	31 (41.3)
Never	3 (12.5)	3 (9.7)	1 (14.3)	0	7 (9.4)
Total	24	31	7	13	75

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Most of the women are working to contribute to the family budget, yet they have their own needs. Hence, a part of the salary is kept back by them to spend as they wish. Devi U.L. (1982), while analysing the Marxist approach, has put forth the view that, “during the 19th century, working women contributed to the family earnings. But gradually over time, single working girls started keeping their wages for themselves.”

3.2.10 Occupation of the Parents

The occupation of the parents was studied, as it could provide a clue as to the background in which the respondents have grown up.

Table 3.24 Occupation Of Father

Father's Occupation	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Not working	1 (4.7)	0	0	0	3 (33.4)	1 (14.3)	0	1 (7.7)	6 (4.0)
Running a shop	3 (14.3)	2 (8.3)	2 (5.9)	5 (16.1)	1 (11.1)	0	1 (9.0)	2 (15.2)	16 (10.7)
Farming	3 (14.3)	3 (12.5)	3 (8.8)	6 (19.3)	2 (22.2)	0	5 (45.5)	4 (30.7)	26 (17.3)
Fishing	0	1 (4.2)	0	1 (3.2)	0	1 (14.3)	0	1 (7.7)	4 (2.7)
Service	5 (23.9)	5 (20.8)	7 (20.6)	6 (19.3)	2 (22.2)	3 (42.8)	0	0	28 (18.6)
Mason	2 (9.5)	0	0	2 (6.5)	1 (11.1)	0	0	1 (7.7)	6 (4.0)
Factory	0	0	0	0	0	0	5 (45.5)	3 (23.3)	8 (5.3)
Painter	1 (4.7)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1 (0.7)
No response	6 (28.6)	13 (54.0)	22 (64.7)	11 (35.6)	0	2 (28.6)	0	1 (7.7)	55 (36.7)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 3.25 Occupation Of Mother

Mother's Occupation	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
House wife	10 (47.6)	6 (25.0)	0	13 (41.9)	5 (55.6)	2 (28.6)	5 (45.5)	7 (53.8)	48 (32.0)
Shop	0	2 (8.3)	1 (2.9)	1 (3.2)	0	0	0	0	4 (2.7)
Farming	0	0	0	1 (3.2)	0	0	0	0	1 (0.7)
Nursing	0	0	2 (5.9)	0	0	0	0	0	2 (1.3)
Service	2 (9.5)	1 (4.2)	5 (14.7)	2 (6.5)	1 (11.1)	2 (28.6)	0	1 (7.7)	14 (9.3)
Servant	2 (9.5)	2 (8.3)	2 (5.9)	2 (6.5)	1 (11.1)	1 (14.2)	1 (9.1)	2 (15.4)	13 (8.7)
Factory	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3 (23.1)	3 (2.0)
No response	7 (33.4)	13 (54.2)	24 (70.6)	12 (38.7)	2 (22.2)	2 (28.6)	5 (45.5)	0	65 (43.3)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 3.24 indicates that, the fathers of the respondents are employed in a wide variety of occupations. 4 % of the respondents said that, their father was not working, while 36.7 % of the respondents, did not provide any information, regarding their father's occupation. Among the rest, 18.6 % were employed in service, 17.3 % were farmers, 10.7 % were shop keepers, 5.3 % worked in factory, and the others were engaged in occupations such as fishing, masonry, painting, etc.

Table 3.25 reveals that 32 % of the respondents said that, their mothers were housewives. 9.3 % of the respondents' mothers were in service, 8.7 % were working as servants, while others were employed in occupations such as factories, farming, nursing, etc. 43.3 % of the respondents did not provide any information regarding the occupation of their mother. The male female break-up also shows that there is not much difference in the occupation of the parents of the male and female respondents. 43.3 % of the respondents replied that, their mother is not working; yet, many of the female respondents have taken to factory employment, even though their mother was a housewife. This shows that, today, economic necessity, combined with freedom, has brought the woman out of the house, into the labour market.

3.2.11 Annual Family Income

Table 3.26 below shows the family income statistics of the respondents.

Table 3.26 Annual Family Income

Annual Income (Rs)	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
<1,0000	4 (19.0)	9 (37.5)	16 (47.1)	10 (32.4)	6 (66.7)	3 (42.8)	4 (36.4)	3 (23.1)	55 (36.7)
10001- 20000	14 (66.7)	7 (29.2)	15 (44.2)	6 (19.3)	2 (22.2)	1 (14.3)	7 (63.6)	7 (53.8)	59 (39.3)
20001- 40000	3 (14.3)	1 (4.2)	1 (2.9)	3 (9.7)	1 (11.1)	0	0	3 (23.1)	12 (8.0)
40001- 60000	0	1 (4.2)	0	2 (6.4)	0	1 (14.3)	0	0	4 (2.7)
60001- 80000	0	1 (4.2)	1 (2.9)	2 (6.4)	0	2 (28.6)	0	0	6 (4.0)
80001-1 Lakh	0	1 (4.2)	0	4 (12.9)	0	0	0	0	5 (3.3)
> 1 Lakh	0	4 (16.5)	1 (2.9)	4 (12.9)	0	0	0	0	9 (6.0)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

From table 3.26 the following points can be noted:

1. Majority of the male and female respondents' families are in the income group of between 10,000-20,000 per annum. This low annual income of the family forces the male and female respondents to go out to work instead of acquiring higher educational qualifications.
2. Only nine respondents are in the group with a family income of over one lakh per annum. The family background of these respondents is good, as their parents are educated.
3. 36.7 % of the respondents are in the income group of less than 10,000 per annum. These respondents are poor and they have to work to supplement the family income. The low annual income of the families, has forced the respondents to take up employment, without acquiring higher education. Economic necessity and the spiralling prices of essential commodities have forced these families into a lower standard of living bracket, and to increase their standard of living the female respondents are forced to work in order to contribute to the family budget.

3.3 Summary

The main findings of this chapter can be summarised as follows: -

1. Majority of the respondents, both male and female, are in the young age group of 20 -24. A greater percentage of them have completed their HSSC

and some males have technical education. A majority of the females have grounding in computers.

2. Most of the respondents are unmarried, Hindus, from nuclear families and are from the rural background, with little or no prior work experience.
3. Many of the respondents have to travel a distance of more than 3 km and they spend around an hour and a half daily travelling by the local buses.
4. The parents of the respondents have lower educational levels. The parents of the respondents are employed in a wide range of occupations, but the annual family income is very low. However, the family reactions to women working are positive in practically every case.
5. The married respondents have one or two children, and spend considerable time (two-three hours daily) looking after them.
6. Most of the females are found working in the clerical posts, while the males, depending on their level of education, are employed in manual or managerial capacities.
7. Although a majority of the respondents have secured jobs through interviews, in some of the industrial estates, relatives and friends have also played an important role.
8. A majority of the respondents are employed in a temporary capacity with a monthly salary between Rs. 1000-3000.

9. Most of the female respondents have control over their earnings, although they usually contribute partially towards the family budget. They are of the opinion that, the job they are doing is suited to their qualifications.

3.4 Conclusions

Some of the salient features which, need to be taken into account while analysing the workforce the selected industries in Goa are: majority of the workforce is single, educated only through basic schooling and with little or no prior experience. In addition, most of them come from the poorer section of society. There are a significant number of women employees in many of the industries; many of them seek jobs in order to supplement their family incomes. Although most of the available jobs offer relatively lower pay, there are also quite a few women who take up a job of their own volition; unlike in many other developing areas. Thus, most of them are encouraged by their families if they desire to take up a job.

From the findings, it is evident that, females generally tend to be concentrated at the lower rungs of the occupational ladder. This is partly because of the lack of ambition among the women who are satisfied with their work, and partly due to the distinctive additional qualifications such as computer literacy or typing and shorthand, of the women in the workforce, which suit clerical professions.

Chapter 4

WORKING CONDITIONS OF THE RESPONDENTS

This chapter has been divided into two broad sub topics: tangible features and intangible features of work.

Tangible features of work include: Facilities at the work place - Promotion avenues - Incentives - Training and indoctrination - Shifts and transfers - Holidays - Leave facilities - Increments - Work allotment across genders - Overtime and additional workload - Accident compensation.

Intangible features include: Motives for taking up work - Job satisfaction - Exhaustion due to job - Appreciation of efforts - Expectations from male co-workers - Adverse remarks from management.

Bhagoliwal, T. N. (1973) believes that, "the conditions under which workers perform their tasks have a great bearing on their general health and efficiency." She further, goes on to say, "In the absence of desirable working conditions, the worker feels his job is a very tough one, he becomes sluggish and it becomes difficult for him to work well. With good working conditions not only do the workers remain happy, but the employer also gains because of the increased production owing to greater efficiency." Thus, working conditions are very important for the efficiency and satisfaction of the workers.

ILO (1987) in their study, conducted in the developed and the developing countries found that, "many workers are ignorant of the hazards in their work places

and the means to protect themselves from those hazards. Illiteracy and inefficient familiarity with industrial work compounds the problem. The weak financial position of the workers prompts them to accept hazardous jobs and poor working conditions.”

In a study conducted by the ILO (1988) on, *Working Women in Multinational Enterprises in Developing Countries*, three reasons were found why poor women were prepared to accept the poor working conditions, without protest.

- 1) Poor wages were responsible for the workers tolerance of the poor working conditions;
- 2) Women, as they expect to work for a short time period and having fewer job opportunities may put up with poor working conditions;
- 3) Working conditions are a reflector of the local labour market. In a slack labour market, working conditions will be ignored, as there are many contenders for the job; while in a tight labour market, working conditions will be improved to attract the labour.

4.1 Tangible Features

4.1.1 Facilities available at the workplace

Facilities and conditions of work play an important role in determining the productivity of the worker. If the facilities are good the worker feels motivated, hence there is less absenteeism and greater work satisfaction among the employees.

Mamoria, C. B. (1996) in his study has found that, "irritating and intolerable working conditions existed in the factories. Heat and moisture (which rapidly exhaust the worker), noise and vibration in the factory (which affect his hearing), bad lighting conditions (which cause eye strain), dust, fumes and overcrowding – all of this affect the worker's health, causing him to remain absent for a long time."

Rao, V. R. and S. Hussain, (1991) in their study, of women workers in the garment industry found that, "working conditions were poor, with hot stuffy rooms, poor lighting, and inadequate ventilation in the fabrications units."

The respondents were asked whether, they were satisfied, with the various conditions, provided in the place of work and the facilities provided in the factory.

From table 4.1, the following points, can be noted:

- 1) Majority of the male and female respondents, were happy with the facilities, such as, lighting, ventilation and temperature, provided in the factories. Bhagoliwal, T.N. (1973) believes that, "adequate and suitable lighting in the place of work protects the eyesight of the employees and increases their output." Majority of the male and female respondents surveyed, have replied that they are satisfied with the lighting facilities provided in the place of work.
- 2) Majority of the male and female respondents were satisfied, with the working conditions provided and they find that, the level of dust, noise and smoke, was tolerable in the factory.
- 3) The office place and the working space were also considered satisfactory by most of the male and female respondents.

- 4) Majority of the male and female respondents were unhappy with the provisions of drinking water and a large number of the male and female respondents were not satisfied with the level of safety provided in the factories.
- 5) All the male and female respondents replied that, in the factory the crèche facility was lacking. Crèche facilities are very important when the working woman has a small child to take care of, and when she does not have a support system in the home to take care of the child. Majority of the male and female respondents being young and unmarried, were not affected by the absence of crèches.

These problems have also been highlighted by the following studies:

Rao, V. R. and S. Hussain, (1991) in their study about the working conditions in the fabrication units in Delhi have commented that, "the working conditions were poor, with hot stuffy rooms, poor lighting and inadequate ventilation."

Khwaja, R. C. and S. K. Chandra (1999) in their study, have found that, the working conditions are far from satisfactory. They find that, the seating arrangements, ventilation and hygiene were far from adequate. Toilet facilities were lacking and canteen and day care facilities were not available. This was also found to some extent in the industrial estates, which were surveyed. Bhat, B.R and S. Bhat (1989) in their article, *Problems of Working Women*, have studied 100 working women from various groups using the questionnaire technique and they found that, "the facilities at the work spot are inadequate."

Table 4.1 Facilities Available At The Workplace

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Lighting	21 (100)	24 (100)	34 (100)	30 (96.8)	9 (100)	6 (85.7)	11 (100)	13 (100)	148 (98.7)
Ventilation	21 (100)	24 (100)	34 (100)	28 (90.3)	8 (88.8)	6 (85.7)	11 (100)	12 (92.3)	144 (96.0)
Temperature	21 (100)	22 (91.7)	32 (94.1)	26 (83.9)	7 (77.8)	5 (71.4)	11 (100)	10 (76.9)	134 (89.3)
Dust	20 (95.2)	22 (91.7)	28 (82.3)	26 (83.9)	6 (66.6)	5 (71.4)	11 (100)	9 (69.2)	127 (84.7)
Smoke	20 (95.2)	22 (91.7)	27 (79.4)	28 (90.3)	6 (66.6)	5 (71.4)	11 (100)	9 (69.2)	128 (85.3)
Noise	20 (95.2)	22 (91.7)	24 (70.6)	23 (74.2)	7 (77.8)	5 (71.4)	11 (100)	10 (76.9)	122 (81.3)
Cleanliness	20 (95.2)	21 (87.5)	27 (79.4)	24 (77.4)	7 (77.8)	5 (71.4)	11 (100)	10 (76.9)	125 (83.3)
Over-crowding	20 (95.2)	19 (79.2)	27 (79.4)	23 (74.2)	9 (100)	6 (85.7)	11 (100)	10 (76.9)	125 (83.3)
Working place	20 (95.2)	20 (83.3)	27 (79.4)	25 (80.6)	8 (88.9)	5 (71.4)	11 (100)	10 (76.9)	126 (84.0)
Office accommodation	20 (95.2)	17 (70.8)	28 (82.3)	25 (80.6)	8 (88.9)	6 (85.7)	11 (100)	11 (84.6)	126 (84.0)
Safety	20 (95.2)	15 (62.5)	24 (70.6)	16 (51.6)	8 (88.9)	6 (85.7)	9 (81.8)	11 (84.6)	109 (72.7)
Drinking water	13 (61.9)	5 (20.8)	9 (26.5)	13 (41.9)	3 (33.3)	2 (28.6)	2 (18.2)	6 (46.1)	53 (35.3)
Restroom	0	2 (8.3)	0	1 (3.2)	0	0	0	0	3 (2.0)
Refreshments	0	3 (12.5)	0	1 (3.2)	0	0	0	0	4 (2.7)
Crèche	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

(Percentage figures may add up to more than 100 as multiple answers were permitted to this question)

4.1.2 Promotion Avenues

Promotions are important in a factory as they help to put the competent people in the right jobs. They also lead to job satisfaction as a person's merit and hard work is acknowledged.

In Mamoria, C.B. (1996) Scott and Clothier believe that, "a promotion is the transfer of an employee to a job which pays more money or one which carries some preferred status." in other words, not just a transfer at the same level.

Aurora, A. (1990) in her study, *The Women Elite in India*, undertook her study in the Punjab, Haryana and the union territory of Chandigarh. 200 women workers were interviewed by adopting systematic random sampling procedure. Interview schedule having both structured and unstructured questions were used to elicit the required information. She believes that, "promotion to a better scale and higher status in jobs within a reasonable time gives rise to a sense of satisfaction, recognition and achievement."

Mamoria, C. B. (1996) has put forward several reasons for the importance of promotions. According to him, promotions are made either to put a person in a key position where he can increase his personal satisfaction, or to recognise an individual's ability, or to build up morale, loyalty and a sense of belonging on the part of the employee, or to attract suitably competent workers to the organisations.

As far as women are concerned, the ILO study (1988) believes that, "internal labour ladders are short and are blocked at the upper levels by women's lack of education and technical qualifications and also at times by sex discrimination."

Table 4.2 (a) Promotion Of The Respondents

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Yes	1 (4.7)	0	1 (2.9)	0	0	0	0	0	2 (1.3)
No	20 (95.3)	24 (100)	33 (97.1)	31 (100)	9 (100)	7 (100)	11 (100)	13 (100)	148 (98.7)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 4.2 (b) Satisfied With The Promotion

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Yes	1 (4.7)	0	1 (2.9)	0	0	0	0	0	2 (1.3)
No response	20 (95.3)	24 (100)	33 (97.1)	31 (100)	9 (100)	7 (100)	11 (100)	13 (100)	148 (98.7)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 4.2 (c) Difficulties Faced In Getting Promotion

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
No	1 (4.7)	0	1 (2.9)	0	0	0	0	0	2 (1.3)
No response	20 (95.3)	24 (100)	33 (97.1)	31 (100)	9 (100)	7 (100)	11 (100)	13 (100)	148 (98.7)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

From the above set of tables, the following can be concluded:

- 1) From the sampled male and female respondents, only two male respondents were promoted. Majority of the male and female respondents were denied promotions, due to either, their low educational skills, lack of training, youth, or the dead end type of jobs they were employed in. Many of the industries, lacked promotional prospects, and even, if the male and female respondents worked hard, they could not get promotion. (Table 4.2 (a))
- 2) Both the male respondents, who were promoted, replied that, they were satisfied with the procedure and the policies and that, they did not face any difficulties, while being promoted. (Table 4.2(b) and 4.2 (c))
- 3) Both the promoted male respondents were graduates, in the age group of 30-34, and were working for more than five years in the industry. Both were permanent and had been promoted to the managerial category.

From the above analysis, it can be seen that, although promotion is an important aspect of the job, majority of the male and female respondents in the industrial estates in Goa have not been promoted.

4.1.3 Incentives

Incentives are provided by the firms to motivate the workers to give their best to the job. Desai, K. G. (1969) has defined incentives as, "inducements (i.e. rewards and punishments), which may do good to the worker to excel." He further says that, most of the jobs are such that, the worker cannot derive any satisfaction either psychologically or socially and hence the worker cannot contribute his best to the organisation.

From the table 4.3 given below, the following points, can be noted:

1. 72.7 % of the male and female respondents were not provided with any incentives. They were young workers, at the beginning of their working career and majority were temporary workers.
2. 26.7 % of the male and female respondents were given bonus. 25.3 % of the male and female respondents got the facility of provident fund while only 2.7 % of the male and female respondents got the benefit of medical facilities.
3. In the present study since, most of the male and female respondents worked at the lower rung of the occupational ladder, they did not get a high salary and their educational qualifications being low, they did not receive any incentives

from the firm. This being their first job, awareness of these facilities was also minimal and the means to get these facilities was lacking.

Raka, S. (1985) in her study observed that, the women workers did not get any tangible benefits. She found that, although in theory the women were entitled for the various benefits, in reality the women do not receive them. However, the present study reveals that overall more females have received these benefits. The male female comparison of the table 4.3 reveals that 24 females have received bonus while only 16 males have received this. Similarly, 22 females and 16 males are entitled for provident fund benefits. Three female and one male respondent were eligible for medical benefits provided by the firms.

Table 4.3 Incentives Provided By The Firm

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Bonus	5 (23.8)	7 (29.2)	11 (32.3)	14 (45.2)	0	2 (28.6)	0	1 (7.7)	40 (26.7)
Provident	5 (23.8)	6 (25.0)	11 (32.3)	13 (41.9)	0	2 (28.6)	0	1 (7.7)	38 (25.3)
Medical	0	1 (4.2)	1 (2.9)	2 (6.4)	0	0	0	0	4 (2.7)
No incentives	16 (76.2)	17 (70.8)	24 (70.6)	16 (51.6)	9 (100)	4 (57.1)	11 (100)	12 (92.3)	109 (72.7)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

(Percentage figures may add up to more than 100 as multiple answers were permitted to this question)

4.1.4 Training and Indoctrination

Training helps employees to familiarise themselves with the work to be performed. It also helps to improve the productivity of the worker, since now the correct techniques to perform the job are known to the worker and hence the chances of mistakes being made are reduced.

Mamoria, C. B. (1996) has defined training as, “a process of learning a sequence of programmed behaviour.” Training is required for various reasons, as has been elucidated by Mamoria: to 1) increase productivity, 2) improve quality, 3) help the company to fulfil its personnel needs, 4) improve organisational climate 5) improve health and safety 6) personal growth, etc.

Martin, J. and C. Roberts (1994) have opined that, “jobs differ in the amount of training they require and in the way these training needs are met.” They have further distinguished between formal and informal training. By formal training, they mean the various courses and formal on-the-job training; while by informal training is meant, being shown what to do, either by a supervisor or by the other employees.

ILO (1987) report has opined that, in developing countries “women have few training opportunities and have difficulty in qualifying for jobs in the more modern sectors of the economy.” Goel, A. (2004) believes that, “training, capacity building and awareness of economic activities among women are a great necessity for their employment and absorption in the industrial enterprises or self- income generating programmes.”

Table 4.4 (a) Training Provided To The Respondents

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Yes	0	5 (20.8)	6 (17.6)	3 (9.7)	0	0	0	0	14 (9.3)
No	21 (100)	19 (79.2)	28 (82.4)	28 (90.3)	9 (100)	7 (100)	11 (100)	13 (100)	136 (90.7)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 4.4 (b) Time When The Training Was Provided

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Before joining	0	4 (16.6)	4 (11.8)	3 (9.7)	0	0	0	0	11 (7.3)
After joining	0	1 (4.2)	2 (5.8)	0	0	0	0	0	3 (2.0)
No response	21 (100)	19 (79.2)	28 (82.4)	28 (90.3)	9 (100)	7 (100)	11 (100)	13 (100)	136 (90.7)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 4.4 (c) Place Where The Training Was Provided

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Factory	0	5 (20.8)	6 (17.6)	3 (9.7)	0	0	0	0	14 (9.3)
No response	21 (100)	19 (79.2)	28 (82.4)	28 (90.3)	9 (100)	7 (100)	11 (100)	13 (100)	136 (90.7)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 4.4 (d) Wages Paid During That Period

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Yes	0	4 (16.6)	4 (11.8)	3 (9.7)	0	0	0	0	11 (7.3)
No	0	1 (4.2)	2 (5.8)	0	0	0	0	0	3 (2.0)
No response	21 (100)	19 (79.2)	28 (82.4)	28 (90.3)	9 (100)	7 (100)	11 (100)	13 (100)	136 (90.7)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 4.4 (e) Charges Of Training

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Factory	0	5 (20.8)	6 (17.6)	3 (9.7)	0	0	0	0	14 (9.3)
No response	21 (100)	19 (79.2)	28 (82.4)	28 (90.3)	9 (100)	7 (100)	11 (100)	13 (100)	136 (90.7)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 4.4 (f) Benefit Of The Training

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Yes	0	5 (20.8)	6 (17.6)	3 (9.7)	0	0	0	0	14 (9.3)
No response	21 (100)	19 (79.2)	28 (82.4)	28 (90.3)	9 (100)	7 (100)	11 (100)	13 (100)	136 (90.7)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

From the above set of tables, the following points can be concluded:

- 1) 90.7 % of the male and female respondents have received no formal training, while, 9.3 % of the male and female respondents have undergone training to improve their productivity and skills. (Table 4.4 (a))
- 2) It was found that, the number of trained females was greater than that of the trained males. The break up shows that six males and eight females received training. (Table 4.4 (a)) Jain, S. (1988) believes that, "a trained woman is more likely to get a job than an untrained woman. The chances of trained women securing a well-paid job are also brighter. Nowadays, generally the parents encourage their daughters to go in for some training to equip themselves for a job so that, in times of need they can easily get work. Moreover, it is widely accepted that, training is essential for efficient working." Women in Goa go in for various courses in which they become computer literate or get typing and shorthand skills in order to improve their chances to get a job.
- 3) 7.3 % of the male and female respondents have undergone training at the time of joining, while 2 % of the male and female respondents, were given training after they had worked for sometime in the factory. (Table 4.4(b)). The table also shows that four males and seven females had received training at the time of joining the factory, while two males and one female had received training after they had joined the factory.

- 4) All the six male and eight female respondents, who underwent training, were trained at the factory premises. They were not sent for any course or outside training to any other place. (Table 4.4(c))
- 5) 7.3 % of the trained male and female respondents were paid during the training period, while 2 % of the male and female respondents (one male and two females), replied that, they were not given any wages during that, period. However, they underwent the training as higher wages were expected at the end of the period. (Table 4.4(d))
- 6) All the trained male and female respondents confirmed that, the factory had paid their training charges and that they did not have to spend personally to get the training. (Table 4.4(e))
- 7) All the trained male and female respondents replied that, they benefited from the training provided, as they were now aware of the correct procedure to do the assigned work. (Table 4.4(f))

From the data, therefore, it is clear that, in the industrial estates in Goa, formal on-the-job training was not provided to many workers. However, a few workers did get the benefit of such a programme. The rest of the workers had to be satisfied with the informal training they received.

4.1.5 Shifts and transfers

Shift work was analysed in the study, as it has an important influence on the woman worker, (especially if she is a married woman with small children) as it disrupts her family life and causes hardship to her and her family.

Table 4.5 Required To Work In Shifts

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Yes	0	1 (4.2)	0	0	0	0	0	0	1 (0.7)
No	21 (100)	23 (95.8)	34 (100)	31 (100)	9 (100)	7 (100)	11 (100)	13 (100)	149 (99.3)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

The above table 4.5 shows that, only one of the female respondents, in the industrial estates was required to work in shifts as, she was employed by a pharmaceutical company, which had more than one shift. An important reason for the lack of shift work was that, majority of the industries in the industrial estates, being small, ran only one shift.

Mamoria, C.B. (1996) has defined transfer as, "a horizontal or lateral movement of an employee from one job, section, department, shift, plant or position to another at the same or to another place where his salary, status and responsibilities are the same."

Transfer is harmful to the well being of the working women, especially if they are married and having small children.

Table 4.6 Transfer Of The Respondents

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Yes	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
No	21 (100)	24 (100)	34 (100)	31 (100)	9 (100)	7 (100)	11 (100)	13 (100)	150 (100)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

The table 4.6 reveals that, none of the male and female respondents had been transferred. This is not too surprising given that, in the industrial estates in Goa, the firms are practically all single units leading to no place for the transfer of the workers.

4.1.6 Holidays

Holidays are important as they give the workers a break from monotony and refresh them. They also contribute to job satisfaction.

From the table 4.7, the following points, can be analysed:

1. 94.7 % of the male and female respondents replied that, they get only Sundays off as a holiday, while 42.7 % of the male and female respondents get festivals along with Sunday off.
2. 5.3% of the male and female respondents get national holidays such as Independence Day, Republic Day, etc. Most of the male and female respondents are expected to work even on such days.

Table 4.7 Holidays

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
National	0	1 (4.2)	2 (5.9)	3 (9.7)	0	1 (14.3)	0	1 (7.7)	8 (5.3)
Festival	4 (19.1)	17 (70.8)	14 (41.1)	26 (83.9)	0	2 (28.6)	0	1 (7.7)	64 (42.7)
Sundays	17 (80.9)	24 (100)	34 (100)	27 (87.1)	9 (100)	7 (100)	11 (100)	13 (100)	142 (94.7)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

(Percentage figures may add up to more than 100 as multiple answers were permitted to this question)

Rao, V. R. and S. Hussain, (1991) in their study have pointed out that the workers were not even allowed a weekly off. On the weekly holiday, the factory was locked on the outside while the workers carried on the production work behind the closed doors. But the present study shows that this is not the case in Goa as the workers receive the holidays they are entitled to. Besides, other leave facilities are also given to them as shown in table 4.8.

4.1.7 Leave Facilities

The Factories Act is very important as it lays down the rules for the factories to follow with respect to the working conditions of the workers.

The Factories Act 1948 also has a provision that, every adult worker is entitled to 15 days leave with pay. The majority of the respondents are either not aware of this Act, or are not able to demand such leave as, they are young and freshly joined as workers or are temporary workers in most of the cases as shown in table 3.17 .

There is also a school of thought, which says that males find it easier to get leave than females. This is examined in table 4.8 (d) below.

Table 4.8 (a) Leave Facilities Enjoyed By The Respondents

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Casual leave	5 (23.8)	8 (33.3)	10 (29.4)	14 (45.2)	0	2 (28.6)	1 (9.1)	1 (7.7)	41 (27.3)
Earned leave	5 (23.8)	7 (29.2)	10 (29.4)	13 (41.9)	0	2 (28.6)	1 (9.1)	1 (7.7)	39 (26.0)
Without pay	16 (76.2)	16 (66.7)	24 (70.6)	17 (54.8)	9 (100)	5 (71.4)	10 (90.9)	12 (92.3)	109 (72.7)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

(Percentage figures may add up to more than 100 as multiple answers were permitted to this question)

Table 4.8 (b) Advance Notice To Be Given While Taking Leave

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Yes	21 (100)	21 (87.5)	33 (97.1)	27 (87.1)	5 (55.6)	7 (100)	8 (72.7)	11 (84.6)	133 (88.7)
No	0	3 (12.5)	1 (2.9)	4 (12.9)	4 (44.4)	0	3 (27.3)	2 (15.4)	17 (11.3)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 4.8 (c) Difficulties In Getting The Leave Sanctioned

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Yes	1 (4.8)	2 (8.3)	6 (17.7)	8 (25.8)	0	1 (14.3)	0	2 (15.4)	20 (13.3)
No	20 (95.2)	22 (91.7)	28 (82.3)	23 (74.2)	9 (100)	6 (85.7)	11 (100)	11 (84.6)	130 (86.7)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 4.8 (d) Males Find It Easier To Get Leave Sanctioned

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Yes	2 (9.5)	8 (33.3)	9 (26.5)	10 (32.3)	1 (11.1)	2 (28.6)	1 (9.1)	4 (30.8)	37 (24.7)
No	19 (90.5)	16 (66.7)	25 (73.5)	21 (67.7)	8 (88.9)	5 (71.4)	10 (90.9)	9 (69.2)	113 (75.3)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

The following are the main findings from the preceding tables

1. From the table 4.8 (a), it is clear that, most of the male and female respondents are denied leave facilities, and their wages are cut, if they take leave. 72.7 % of the male and female respondents have to take leave without pay, if they require.
2. 27.3 % of the respondents have the facility of casual leave, while, 26.0 % have the benefit of earned leave. However, this benefit is confined to the permanent workers. (Table 4.8 (a))
3. Majority of the workers do not get either casual or earned leave since, they are either temporary or they have newly joined the firm.
4. Table 4.8 (b) shows that 88.7 % of the respondents (66 female and 67 male) have to give advanced notice while taking leave. An important reason for this policy is the fact that the factories have to make alternative arrangements such as hiring of casual or daily wage workers for the completion of the production schedule or redistributing the work among the available workers.
5. 13 female respondents found that it is difficult for them to get their leave sanctioned while only 7 males faced this type of a problem. Paucity of staff to undertake the work lead to such a problem in the industrial estates under study. (Table 4.8 (c))
6. Table 4.8 (d) reveals that 24 females and 13 male respondents feel that males find it easier to get their leave sanctioned while the rest, comprising 75.3 % of the respondents, are of the opinion that it is not so .

In Goa, denial of leave facilities, to female respondents as compared to male respondents could lead to perceived discrimination. This problem is faced by the regular or permanent staff of the industrial estates, as they have to depend on permission to take leave. The temporary and casual workers can easily avail of the leave without pay facility as shown in table 4.8 (a).

Rao, V.R and S. Hussain (1991) in their study have brought out the fact that, the workers are not allowed any leave facilities and if a worker was absent from the work for two days at a stretch, she could be dismissed.

4.1.8 Increments

Increments are given to the worker as a incentive to increase their production. They also depend on the number of years the employee has worked in the firm.

Table 4.9 (a) Increments Received By The Respondents

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Yes	6 (28.6)	11 (45.8)	8 (23.5)	13 (41.9)	0	2 (28.6)	0	1 (7.7)	41 (27.3)
No	15 (71.4)	13 (54.2)	26 (76.5)	18 (58.1)	9 (100)	5 (71.4)	11 (100)	12 (92.3)	109 (72.7)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 4.9 (b) Amount Of Increment

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Upto 300	5 (23.8)	9 (37.5)	5 (14.7)	10 (32.3)	0	2 (28.6)	0	1 (7.7)	32 (21.3)
301-500	1 (4.8)	1 (4.2)	1 (2.9)	1 (3.2)	0	0	0	0	4 (2.7)
Above 500	0	1 (4.2)	2 (5.9)	2 (6.4)	0	0	0	0	5 (3.3)
No response	15 (71.4)	13 (54.1)	26 (76.5)	18 (58.1)	9 (100)	5 (71.4)	11 (100)	12 (92.3)	109 (72.7)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 4.9 (c) Time Of Increment

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Every year	5 (23.8)	11 (45.8)	6 (17.7)	12 (38.7)	0	2 (28.6)	0	1 (7.7)	37 (24.7)
Festivals	1 (4.8)	0	2 (5.8)	1 (3.2)	0	0	0	0	4 (2.6)
No response	15 (71.4)	13 (54.2)	26 (76.5)	18 (58.1)	9 (100)	5 (71.4)	11 (100)	12 (92.3)	109 (72.7)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

From the above set of tables, the following can be analysed:

- 1) 27.3 % of the male and female respondents received increments while, 72.7 % of the respondents did not receive any increments. As, increments are generally based on factors such as period of employment and the position of the firm; many of the freshly joined respondents are excluded from getting increments. Some of the units are also sick units, and hence their capacity to pay increments is less. (Table 4.9 (a))
- 2) 21.3 % of the male and female respondents, who had received increments, replied that, the amount they received varied between Rs 100- 300 per annum, while only 5 respondents, received more than Rs 500 as increments per year. (Table 4.9 (b)) The low level of increments is also a result of the low wages of the workers and the lower number of years of service put in by them. Table 4.9 (b) reveals that 22 females and 10 males received an increment of less than Rs 300 a year. This shows that the amount of increment received by a number of female respondents was very low. A total of 27 female and 14 male respondents received increments as shown by table 4.9 (a)
- 3) Most of the male and female respondents, received their increments every year during the month of their joining, while 2.6% of the male and female respondents received their increments especially for festivals. (Table 4.9 (c))
- 4) It was noticed that, male and female respondents from Verna and Tivim industrial estates received increments while the other two industrial estates did not give increments to their workers as can be seen from the table. A reason is

the larger number of workers in Verna and Tivim industrial estates, and the higher level of productivity in these industries.

4.1.9 Work Allotment across Genders

Table 4.10 Allotment Of Work Across Genders

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Yes	18 (85.7)	15 (62.5)	27 (79.4)	21 (67.7)	8 (88.9)	5 (71.4)	6 (54.5)	13 (100)	113 (75.3)
No	3 (14.3)	9 (37.5)	7 (20.6)	10 (32.3)	1 (11.1)	2 (28.6)	5 (45.5)	0	37 (24.7)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

4.1.10 Overtime and additional workload

Overtime is used by the firm to extract more work from its employees. Overtime can be harmful to the morale of the workers, if it is not compensated properly, as, it will give the workers the impression that, they are being exploited, by the management.

According to the Factories Act 1948, a worker doing overtime was required to be paid twice the normal rate of wage.

Table 4.11 (a) Overtime Work Done By The Respondents

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Yes	0	11 (45.8)	4 (11.8)	14 (45.2)	1 (11.1)	3 (42.9)	0	1 (7.7)	34 (22.7)
No	21 (100)	13 (54.2)	30 (88.2)	17 (54.8)	8 (88.9)	4 (57.1)	11 (100)	12 (92.3)	116 (77.3)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 4.11 (b) Overtime Paid Or Not

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
With payment	0	5 (20.8)	3 (8.9)	8 (25.8)	0	0	0	1 (7.7)	17 (11.3)
Without payment	0	6 (25.0)	1 (2.9)	6 (19.3)	1 (11.1)	3 (42.9)	0	0	17 (11.3)
No response	21 (100)	13 (54.2)	30 (88.2)	17 (54.9)	8 (88.9)	4 (57.1)	11 (100)	12 (92.3)	116 (77.4)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 4.11 (c) Reasons For Overtime Work

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Compulsory	0	7 (29.2)	3 (8.8)	7 (22.6)	1 (11.1)	3 (42.9)	0	1 (7.7)	22 (14.7)
To earn extra	0	4 (16.6)	1 (2.9)	7 (22.6)	0	0	0	0	12 (8.0)
No response	21 (100)	13 (54.2)	30 (88.3)	17 (54.8)	8 (88.9)	4 (57.1)	11 (100)	12 (92.3)	116 (77.3)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 4.11 (d) Frequency Of Overtime

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Depends	0	5 (20.8)	1 (2.9)	0	0	0	0	0	6 (4.0)
One day	0	0	2 (5.9)	3 (9.7)	0	0	0	1 (7.7)	6 (4.0)
Two days	0	5 (20.8)	0	5 (16.1)	0	3 (42.9)	0	0	13 (8.7)
> Two days	0	1 (4.2)	1 (2.9)	6 (19.3)	1 (11.1)	0	0	0	9 (6.0)
No response	21 (100)	13 (54.2)	30 (88.3)	17 (54.9)	8 (88.9)	4 (57.1)	11 (100)	12 (92.3)	116 (77.3)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

The following points, can be analysed, from the tables, given above:

1. 22.7 % of the male and female respondents had to put in overtime, while the rest of the male and female respondents replied that, they were neither expected nor required to work overtime (Table 4.11 (a)). The male-female break-up shows that 29 female and 5 male respondents were required to work overtime.
2. 11.3 % of the male and female respondents worked overtime with payment while, 11.3 % of the workers worked without any financial remuneration given to them, for the extra work, put in by them. This is against the Factory Act. (Table 4.11 (b))
3. 14.7 % of the workers cited compulsion, as, the main reason for their working overtime, while 8.0 % of the workers felt that, the monetary incentive given to them, led them to work extra. (Table 4.11 (c)) Rao, V. R. and S. Hussain, (1991) in their study, about the garment industry in Delhi, found that, women were forced to work overtime especially during the peak season. These were cases of compulsory overtime with no additional financial remuneration paid for the extra work put in by them.
4. 4 % of the workers worked extra, depending upon the production schedule, while 4 % replied that, they worked extra, one day a month, while 6 % were found to be working overtime, more than 2 days a month. (Table 4.11 (d))
5. The table shows that, the males in Verna, did not work overtime, reason being that, they had neither the need nor the compulsion to put in overtime work.

Some of the females worked overtime, as, it was compulsory to put in overtime work, as and when, there was an increase in demand.

Rao, V. R. and S. Hussain(1991) have found that, compulsory overtime was a common feature in the garment factories in Delhi. The workers had to work for four hours extra without any monetary benefit for the extra work put in by them.

In Goa, since majority of the workers are in the young category, and since this is their first employment, in many of the cases, the workers work extra for the money, or due to compulsion or to the fact that, they need the experience.

The male and female respondents were questioned as to whether they had to work over and above the required quantity and time.

Table 4.12 (a) Additional Workload Handled By The Respondents

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Frequently	0	0	0	2 (6.4)	0	0	0	0	2 (1.3)
Occasionally	13 (61.9)	9 (37.5)	13 (38.2)	16 (51.6)	9 (100)	6 (85.7)	2 (18.2)	10 (76.9)	78 (52.0)
Never	8 (38.1)	15 (62.5)	21 (61.8)	13 (42.0)	0	1 (14.3)	9 (81.8)	3 (23.1)	70 (46.7)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 4.12 (a) shows that, 52 % of the male and female respondents replied that, they had to work extra on occasions when the workload increased due to additional demand. 46.7 % of the male and female respondents replied that, they never had to work extra. Two of the female respondents replied that they were frequently asked to put in extra work. 41 female respondents were occasionally asked to work extra as compared to 37 male respondents a reason for this is the fact that women are comparatively more docile and hence acquiesce to extra work more easily.

This study shows that, in Goa, some workers were asked to accept additional workload, whenever the factory required it. As, the workers were young, temporary and in their first job, refusal to do the work, might have led them to lose the job. Rao, V. R and S. Hussain (1991) in their study, have pointed out that, the workers were forced to work extra and when the work orders with the firms were large, the workers were harassed to increase their productivity.

Table 4.12 (b) Respondents Paid Extra For Additional Work Done By Them

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Yes	0	1 (4.2)	0	3 (9.7)	0	0	0	0	4 (2.7)
No	21 (100)	23 (95.8)	34 (100)	28 (90.3)	9 (100)	7 (100)	11 (100)	13 (100)	146 (97.3)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

The earlier table 4.12 (a) was regarding the question whether the workers were made to work extra. Table 4.12 (b) analyses whether they are paid extra for the extra work put in by them.

97.3 % of the male and female respondents replied that even though they were made to put in extra hours of work they were not paid extra for that. 2.7 % of the male and female respondents replied that they were paid extra for the extra work put in by them. This clearly indicates that most of the firms exploited the workers by making them work extra occasionally without compensating them for the extra time they work. As the workers were young, temporary and often in their first job, refusal to do the work, might have led them to lose the job.

4.1.11 Accident Compensation

Accidents in the workplace can lead to injury to the worker or damage to the property or both and it can be caused by factors such as faulty machinery or error or negligence on the part of the workers.

Mamoria, C. B. (1996) has defined an industrial accident as, "an occurrence, which interrupts or interferes with the orderly progress of work in an industrial establishment," while the ILO (1987) report has defined an accident as, "an unforeseen event that, may cause personal injury or property damage or both." Both these definitions find that there is a tremendous cost, for the individual and the

establishment, after an accident, and often the factors causing accidents, are not singular factors but multiple factors.

Table 4.13 Compensation Paid In Case Of Accidents

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Yes	4 (19.1)	15 (62.5)	19 (55.9)	22 (70.9)	0	0	0	1 (7.7)	61 (40.7)
No	17 (80.9)	9 (37.5)	15 (44.1)	9 (29.1)	9 (100)	7 (100)	11 (100)	12 (92.3)	89 (59.3)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

From the above table 4.13, the following can be analysed:

- 1) Majority of the male and female respondents have claimed that, they do not receive any accident benefit, while only 40.7 % of the male and female respondents have agreed that, the firm pays them compensation in case of accidents. 38 female and 23 male respondents have replied that accident compensation scheme exists in their factories.
- 2) Since, most of the jobs are low paid, low status type of jobs, the firm may not feel the need, to provide compensation, to the workers, in fact they often shift the blame of the accident on to the workers.

- 3) As the workers are young, and this being their first job, many of them may not even be in a position to protest and ask for compensation.

The ILO report (1987) further goes on to say that, it may not always be the firm, which may be at fault but the workers, too might be responsible for the accidents and hence it is not very easy to find out the main cause of the accidents always.

They have put it very powerfully; "it is not always easy to determine to what extent accidents are the direct consequence of the working environment and the working environment alone. Many accidents occur at the workplace. Safety equipment is lacking or the factory and its machinery are poorly designed. The working environment may be so noisy that, it may be impossible to hear the warning signals. The temperature may be such that, the workers easily become tired and are unable to concentrate on the task in hand, or, inadequate ventilation may result in the build up of toxic fumes and again lead to accidents. Also, the workers themselves may be a contributing factor in some of the accidents if they have not received adequate training or have little experience of the task."

4.2 Intangible features

4.2.1 Motives for taking up work

There are many motives for the women to enter the labour market as workers. Many studies have been conducted to find out the main reasons why women work.

Table 4.14 Motives For Taking Up The Job

	Verna	Tivim	Corlim	Mapusa	Total
	F	F	F	F	
Economic	21 (87.5)	28 (90.3)	7 (100)	13 (100)	69 (92.0)
Career	1 (4.2)	8 (25.8)	0	0	9 (12.0)
Knowledge	1 (4.2)	5 (16.1)	0	0	6 (8.0)
Independent	20 (83.3)	23 (74.2)	6 (85.7)	13 (100)	62 (82.7)
Future	17 (70.8)	16 (51.6)	2 (28.6)	13 (100)	48 (64.0)
Family	3 (12.5)	1 (3.2)	0	0	4 (5.3)
Education	2 (8.3)	4 (12.9)	0	0	6 (8.0)
Total	24	31	7	13	75

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

(Percentage figures may add up to more than 100 as multiple answers were permitted to this question)

Due to the low skilled type of work, and poor educational qualifications, of the respondents, the majority of them were of the opinion that, the wages received by them were necessary to become independent. Since, majority of the female respondents were young and unmarried, they were working to save for their marriage, so as to reduce, the burden of their marriage expenditure, on the family.

Khanna, G. and M.A. Varghese (1978) have concluded, "Every woman must be a worker, contributing to society in a large or small measure. Women have to psychologically prepare themselves to be more effective members of society. Every woman who has the privilege of education must be willing to rough it out if necessary, to share with man the task of shaping society. This alone will remove the stigma of dependency attached to her and ensure respect and dignity."

4.2.2 Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is an important indicator of whether or not a person will be happy with the job. Job satisfaction leads to lower absenteeism, higher productivity, and better employer and employee relations in the place of work.

Singh, V. B. (1973) believes that, the term job satisfaction, "refers to the way a worker feels about his job." According to him, this would include various aspects such as, "the feelings of the workers about the men, material and environment connected with his job." He further says that, job satisfaction is related to productivity, labour turnover and commitment of the workers to the job. A worker

who is satisfied in the job has lower rate of absenteeism, high turnover, high commitment and high productivity.

Jain, S. (1988) believes that, “for working women the conditions in which they work is an important area to be explained for a clear understanding of their commitment to the work and home responsibilities. The situation of work, the working hours, and the service conditions go a long way in determining not only the job satisfaction of these working women but also determines the nature and extent of participation in their family and social life.”

The next set of tables, examines, whether the respondents, are satisfied or dissatisfied, with the present job and the reasons, for their satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Table 4.15 (a) analyses the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of the worker with his/ her job and tables 4.15 (b) and (c) analyse the causes for the satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

Table 4.15 (a) Job Satisfaction

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Yes	5 (23.8)	18 (75.0)	15 (44.1)	23 (74.2)	0	4 (57.1)	1 (9.1)	9 (69.2)	75 (50.0)
No	16 (76.2)	6 (25.0)	19 (55.9)	8 (25.8)	9 (100)	3 (42.9)	10 (90.9)	4 (30.8)	75 (50.0)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 4.15 (b) Reasons For Satisfaction

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Good salary	5 (23.8)	4 (16.7)	3 (8.8)	11 (35.5)	0	2 (28.6)	0	1 (7.7)	26 (17.3)
Good administration	5 (23.8)	8 (33.3)	13 (38.2)	5 (16.1)	0	2 (28.6)	1 (9.1)	9 (69.2)	43 (28.7)
Pleasant atmosphere	4 (19.0)	13 (54.2)	11 (32.3)	16 (51.6)	0	3 (42.9)	1 (9.1)	9 (69.2)	57 (38.0)
Convenient hours	2 (9.5)	18 (75.0)	10 (29.4)	20 (64.5)	0	3 (42.9)	0	4 (30.8)	57 (38.0)
Suited to interest	1 (4.8)	6 (25.0)	4 (11.8)	8 (25.8)	0	1 (14.3)	0	0	20 (13.3)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

(Percentage figures may add up to more than 100 as multiple answers were permitted to this question)

Table 4.15 (c) Reasons For Dissatisfaction

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Insufficient salary	16 (76.2)	3 (12.5)	19 (55.9)	7 (22.6)	9 (100)	3 (42.9)	10 (90.9)	4 (30.8)	71 (47.3)
Poor admin	5 (23.8)	2 (8.3)	10 (29.4)	2 (6.4)	9 (100)	0	10 (90.9)	4 (30.8)	42 (28.0)
Unfriendly	1 (4.8)	5 (20.8)	9 (26.5)	4 (12.9)	3 (33.3)	1 (14.3)	2 (18.2)	3 (23.1)	28 (18.7)
Inconvenient hours	3 (14.2)	5 (20.8)	7 (20.6)	4 (12.9)	0	0	0	0	19 (12.7)
Unsuited	1 (4.8)	0	4 (11.8)	0	1 (11.1)	0	1 (9.1)	1 (7.7)	8 (5.3)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

(Percentage figures may add up to more than 100 as multiple answers were permitted to this question)

The following points, can be analysed, from the tables given above:

1. Table 4.15 (a), shows that, 54 females and 21 males were satisfied with their jobs while the rest were not. A major reason for male dissatisfaction in the job is the fact that males aspire for higher jobs with better salaries, as they are to be the major breadwinners for the family. On the other hand, female respondents are aware of the fact that with their lower levels of qualifications,

the type of avenues open to them are limited and hence they have greater job satisfaction.

2. From the table 4.15 (a), it is clear that, majority of the females, were satisfied with the jobs while, majority of the males were, unsatisfied with their jobs. An important reason, for the female satisfaction, with the job is that, the level of education of the female workers is low and they are aware that, they cannot get a better job with a higher wage, with such low qualifications. The females also needed the job, as they had to supplement the meagre income of their families. The males, on the other hand, know that, they in the future will have to support a family (if they are unmarried) or at present (if they are married) and hence they are dissatisfied, with the low level of wages, they earn in their present job. Devi, L. U. (1982) in her study also finds that, the women interviewed by her have a high degree of job satisfaction.
3. Table 4.15 (b), analyses the reasons, for satisfaction, and it is seen that, pleasant atmosphere and convenient hours, are seen as the great satisfiers, followed by good administration, in the factory.
4. Table 4.15 (c), reveals that, 47.3 % of the male and female respondents were unhappy, due to the low wages earned by them. 28.0% of the male and female respondents blame the poor administration, in the place of work, while 18.7% blame unfriendly atmosphere, in the place of work, for their lack of satisfaction in the job. 12.7 % have claimed that, inconvenient hours have led to their job dissatisfaction.

Singh, V. B. (1973) in his study, *Wage Patterns, Mobility And Savings Of The Workers In India*, further says that, although job satisfaction is important in itself, "is a result of a complex set of factors like wages, security of job, supervision, communication responsibility, job status and prestige, level of aspirations and working conditions." Besides these internal factors, other external factors too may affect the job satisfaction of the workers. The study was conducted in the Kanpur cotton textile industry and he interviewed a sample of 1913 workers.

4.2.3 Exhaustion due to the job

The type of employment performed by a person may lead to their being exhausted as a result of too much overwork or work without a break or standing for long time periods. Hence, the present study attempts to find out whether the respondents are suffering from exhaustion due to such conditions in the place of work.

Table 4.16 Job Exhausting For The Respondents

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Yes	0	3 (12.5)	2 (5.9)	3 (9.7)	0	2 (28.6)	0	2 (15.4)	12 (8.0)
No	21 (100)	21 (87.5)	32 (94.1)	28 (90.3)	9 (100)	5 (71.4)	11 (100)	11 (84.6)	138 (92.0)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

From the table 4.16 we find that majority of the male and female respondents replied that, they do not find the job exhausting. Only two male and ten female respondents replied that, the job they do exhausts them.

In Goa, since majority of the male and female respondents are happy with the working conditions provided to them, it is natural that they are less likely to feel exhausted in the place of work. Majority of the workers are young and unmarried and hence, they do not have to go home and work a second shift alone. This is an important reason for the lack of exhaustion among the respondents. As, this is the beginning of the working career of the many of the male and female respondents; the feeling of exhaustion may not set in so early. Exhaustion sets in later in the working career due to the monotony of the work and the lack of benefits and incentives provided.

4.2.4 Appreciation of efforts

Praise is very important as it makes the person feel good and he is motivated to work harder. Hence, a question was put to the male and female respondents whether they had ever been praised for doing their work well. Table 4.17 shows the results. From the table it was noted that, 68.0% of the male and female respondents replied that, they had not been praised even if they had done the work exceptionally well, while 32.0% of the male and female respondents replied in the positive. Lack of praise can also be a dissatisfier and in the long run lead to dissatisfaction with the working conditions.

Table 4.17 Respondents Praised For Doing The Work Well

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Yes	3 (14.3)	14 (58.3)	11 (32.3)	16 (51.6)	3 (33.4)	0	0	1 (7.7)	48 (32.0)
No	18 (85.7)	10 (41.7)	23 (67.7)	15 (48.4)	6 (66.6)	9 (100)	11 (100)	12 (92.3)	104 (68.0)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

4.2.5 Cross-Gender Perceptions

In the survey, a question was put to the female workers, whether they felt that, the males expected them to do a part of their work as well.

Table 4.18 reveals that, 84 % of the females felt that males did not have such expectations; while 16 % of the female respondents replied that the males in their factories expected them to do a part of their work too.

Table 4.18 Expectations From Male Co-Workers

	Verna	Tivim	Corlim	Mapusa	Total
	F	F	F	F	
Yes	3 (12.5)	6 (19.3)	2 (28.6)	1 (7.7)	12 (16.0)
No	21 (87.5)	25 (80.7)	5 (71.4)	12 (92.3)	63 (84.0)
Total	24	31	7	13	75

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 4.19 Males Are More Likely To Secure Jobs

	Verna	Tivim	Corlim	Mapusa	Total
	F	F	F	F	
Yes	16 (66.7)	23 (74.2)	2 (28.6)	8 (61.5)	49 (65.3)
No	8 (33.3)	8 (25.8)	5 (71.4)	5 (38.5)	26 (34.7)
Total	24	31	7	13	75

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Regarding the question, whether males in the factory are more likely to secure jobs, as per their qualifications, than their female counterparts, table 4.19 shows that,

65.3 % of the females feel that, this hypothesis is true. While 34.7 % are of the opinion that, even the males find it difficult to secure jobs as per their qualifications hence, they are forced to accept whatever they get.

This question was asked to find out whether the women perceive any discrimination made while the respondents were being selected for the job. The survey shows that, in Goa, the majority of the women feel that there is some discrimination made in the selection process.

4.2.6 Adverse remarks from the management

Adverse remarks by the employers can have a demoralising effect on the performance of the worker if the worker is overburdened with the work or is being exploited to work overtime.

Table 4.20 shows that, 82.7 % of the female respondents revealed that, they did not receive any adverse remark, if the work had not been completed on time. While 17.3 % of the female respondents replied that, an adverse remark was put in their file in case of non-completion of the assigned work.

In the present study, it is seen that, since most of the workers are young and untrained, they would find it difficult to finish all the work, especially if additional work is assigned, on time. Besides, majority of the workers being in the temporary category, an adverse remark will not affect their future career prospects.

Table 4.20 Adverse Remark Given To The Respondents

	Verna	Tivim	Corlim	Mapusa	Total
	F	F	F	F	
Yes	4 (16.7)	7 (22.6)	1 (14.3)	1 (7.7)	13 (17.3)
No	20 (83.3)	24 (77.4)	6 (85.7)	12 (92.3)	62 (82.7)
Total	24	31	7	13	75

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

4.2.7 Absenteeism

Absenteeism can be a result of lack of job satisfaction or due to sickness or religious reasons. It can be a problem for the firms who have to recruit new workers or have to reshuffle the work schedule to complete the production on time.

Webster's dictionary has defined absenteeism as, "the practise or habit of being an 'absentee' " and an absentee as, "one who habitually stays away." (Mamoria, C.B. 1996)

According to the Labour Bureau, Shimla, "absenteeism is the total man shifts lost because of absentees as a percentage of the total number of man shifts scheduled to work.." (Mamoria, C.B. 1996)

Singh, V.B. (1973) has found that, job dissatisfaction leads to a higher rate of absenteeism among the workers. Therefore, the satisfaction of the workers too, has to be taken into account while looking into the aspect of absenteeism.

The male and female respondents were questioned as, to the factors, which led them to remain absent from the place of work.

Table 4.21 Causes Of Absenteeism Of The Respondents

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Own	21	18	34	23	9	7	11	13	136
Illness	(100)	(75.0)	(100)	(74.2)	(100)	(100)	(100)	(100)	(90.7)
Family	15	18	28	27	9	6	11	13	127
Illness	(71.4)	(75.0)	(82.4)	(87.1)	(100)	(85.7)	(100)	(100)	(84.7)
Transport	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	2
		(4.2)		(3.2)					(1.3)
Family	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	1	4
Problem		(4.2)		(6.4)				(7.7)	(2.7)
Religious	2	18	8	23	1	2	0	3	57
	(9.5)	(75.0)	(23.5)	(74.2)	(11.1)	(28.6)		(23.1)	(38.0)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

(Percentage figures may add up to more than 100 as multiple answers were permitted to this question)

From the table 4.21 the following points, were noted:

1. Majority of the male and female respondents (90.7 %) replied that, it was their own sickness, which kept them away from the place of work. The working conditions, being bad in many industries, made the workers sick. Even though the workers were satisfied with the working conditions, the fact that, they fell ill could be the result of some problems in the working conditions.
2. 84.7 % of the male and female respondents, believed that, sickness of the family members, led to their absence from work. This was important, as many of the male and female respondents were from nuclear families and in case of a sickness, in the family, they were forced to stay at home and care for the sick members. Ramanamma, A. and U. Bambawale (1987) too believe that, "sickness of family members is also a prime reason for taking casual leave."
3. 38.0 % of the male and female respondents attributed their absenteeism to the social and religious duties that were performed by them. Mamoria, C. B. (1996) in his study too, has found out that, social and religious reasons, led to absenteeism, from the place of work. Sudan, F. K. and N. K. Gupta (1998) have also found that, "on festival days, it was left to the discretion of the unskilled or the manual workers to work or not to work. If they were absent, they were to lose their wages for the day."
4. A male female comparison of the table reveals that, 75 males and 61 females have reported that their own sickness is the cause of their remaining absent. Less number of females remain absent when they are sick, as they would

prefer to use their leave facilities for other purposes such as during festivals or family problems. 63 males and 64 females take leave when their family members are ill. It was noted that only 11 males take leave during religious festivals whereas the 46 female respondents did so. Goa is a land having a number of festivals involving a lot of preparatory work and many of the religious ceremonies are female oriented. This leads to a greater amount of female absenteeism for religious reasons.

4.3 Summary

The main findings in this chapter can be summarised as follows:-

- 1) It was noted that, the allotment of work between the male and female respondents was similar in the industries.
- 2) A majority of the respondents were satisfied with the lighting and ventilation facilities available in the industries but the major sources of dissatisfaction were the lack of potable drinking water, sanitation facilities, safety measures and crèche facilities.
- 3) It was seen that, most of the respondents had not received formal training at the time of joining the industry.
- 4) The overwhelming majority of the workers did not have to work in shifts.
- 5) Promotional avenues were lacking for the workers in the factories.
- 6) Increments were either not forthcoming or else negligible in most cases.
- 7) Sundays and festivals were the major holidays enjoyed by the respondents.

- 8) Other facilities such as bonus, provident fund and medical facilities were also lacking in most of the industries surveyed.
- 9) Most respondents reported that, they were not taken to task severely for non-completion or late completion of the work.

4.4 Conclusions

The industrial estates in Goa are still relatively small and hence many of the problems peculiar to these types of working environments are not found here. For example, the typical industry has only a single shift and a single location so the problems of working in shifts and of transfers have relatively little relevance in the scenario. Also since a large percentage of the female workforce is young, single and inexperienced, they are more easily satisfied with the available facilities on most counts. However, there is a pressing need to improve on certain facilities at least, notable among which are sanitation and provision of drinking water. Other factors like provision of crèche facilities and special concessions (maternity leave etc) for women have not been emphasised by the current workforce, since most of them are young and engaged on a temporary basis. However, these facilities too need to be provided, as their lack constitutes a deterrent for many married women to take up jobs.

Awareness about leave facilities and holidays is very low, and this often leads to some amount of exploitation of the workers. In addition, the opportunities for advancement are very limited, especially for the women. These needs have to be addressed because as awareness increases, such practices will lead to dissatisfaction in the workforce.

Chapter 5

PROBLEMS FACED BY WORKING WOMEN

This chapter has been divided into two subtopics: problems faced by the women in the place of work and problems faced by the women at home.

Problems faced by women in the workplace include the following: Problems with co-workers - Adverse health effects - Transportation difficulties - Grievance redressal system - Other workplace related issues.

Problems faced by women at home include the following: The dual role problem - Tension due to role conflict - Time spent on managing home/children - some other miscellaneous problems.

Working women, today, face many problems in the place of work and at home. These problems differ for the married and unmarried women workers and it is seen that, these problems are more pronounced in the case of the married workers, most of whom, are burdened with, the dual roles of housekeeper and factory worker.

Working women, according to Vohra, R and S. K. Sen (1985) are that, "large group of people who have a certain amount of education and are in gainful employment in various kinds of offices."

5.1 Problems faced in the workplace

5.1.1 Problems with co-workers

Table 5.1 (a) Problems Faced By Respondents With Male Colleagues

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
No Difficulty	14 (66.7)	13 (54.2)	18 (52.9)	18 (58.1)	4 (44.4)	3 (42.9)	1 (9.1)	1 (7.7)	72 (48.0)
Cooperation	4 (19.0)	7 (29.2)	13 (38.2)	10 (32.3)	5 (55.6)	2 (28.6)	7 (63.6)	7 (53.8)	55 (36.7)
Much advantage	3 (14.3)	2 (8.3)	8 (23.5)	2 (6.4)	4 (44.4)	3 (42.9)	7 (63.6)	9 (69.2)	38 (25.3)
Respect	4 (19.0)	2 (8.3)	8 (23.5)	9 (29.0)	3 (33.3)	3 (42.9)	5 (45.4)	9 (69.2)	43 (28.7)
Harassment seniors	3 (14.3)	9 (37.5)	15 (44.1)	9 (29.0)	2 (22.2)	2 (28.6)	6 (54.5)	8 (61.5)	54 (36.0)
Harassment workers	0	2 (8.3)	6 (17.6)	6 (19.3)	1 (11.1)	2 (28.6)	6 (54.5)	4 (30.8)	27 (18.0)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

(Percentage figures may add up to more than 100 as multiple answers were permitted to this question)

Table 5.1 (b) Problems Faced By Respondents With Female Colleagues

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
No Difficulty	14 (66.7)	13 (54.2)	19 (55.9)	17 (54.8)	4 (44.4)	3 (42.9)	1 (9.1)	1 (7.7)	72 (48.0)
Cooperation	2 (9.5)	8 (33.3)	9 (26.5)	10 (32.3)	3 (33.3)	1 (14.3)	7 (63.6)	2 (15.4)	42 (28.0)
Much advantage	5 (23.8)	1 (4.2)	10 (29.4)	1 (3.2)	3 (33.3)	1 (14.3)	6 (54.5)	8 (61.5)	35 (23.3)
Respect	6 (28.6)	1 (4.2)	6 (17.6)	4 (12.9)	3 (33.3)	1 (14.3)	8 (72.7)	12 (92.3)	41 (27.3)
Harassment seniors	3 (14.3)	5 (20.8)	6 (17.6)	10 (32.3)	4 (44.4)	4 (57.1)	6 (54.5)	7 (53.8)	45 (30.0)
Harassment workers	3 (14.3)	9 (37.5)	5 (14.7)	6 (19.3)	2 (22.2)	2 (28.6)	3 (27.2)	4 (30.8)	34 (22.7)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

(Percentage figures may add up to more than 100 as multiple answers were permitted to this question)

The relationship of the male and female respondents with the rest of the workers and staff also plays an important role in generating job satisfaction. If the

relationship is exploitative and not healthy, the worker will not be satisfied with his work and the quality of the work will suffer.

From the above set of tables the following points emerge:

- 1) 48.0 % of the male and female respondents (37 males and 35 females) did not face any problems with the male workers (Table 5.1 (a))
- 2) 36.7 % of the male and female respondents have cited lack of cooperation as one of the main difficulties faced by them followed by harassment from senior male officers. (Table 5.1 (a)) 26 females and 29 males face the problem of lack of cooperation while 26 males and 28 females have cited harassment from seniors as a major problem.
- 3) 39 males and 42 female respondents face the harassment problem hence it was noted that majority of the female respondents face this problem. (Table 5.1 (a))
- 4) 18.0 % of the male and female respondents faced harassment from co-workers. (Table 5.1 (a))
- 5) 48.0 % of the male and female respondents (38 males and 34 females) did not face any problems with the female workers (Table 5.1 (b))
- 6) Harassment from seniors was one of the major problems faced by female workers followed by lack of cooperation. (Table 5.1 (b))
- 7) Around 25% of the workers complained that, both the males and females took advantage of them. (Table 5.1 (a) and 5.1 (b))

5.1.2 Adverse effects on health

Working conditions in the factories are far from satisfactory and it is seen that, even the basic facilities are lacking in many cases. Although the respondents seem satisfied with the working conditions, lack of control over these factors and lack of means to change these conditions, might have led to their response that, they are satisfied with them.

Rao, V. R. and S. Hussain(1991) in their study, analysed the effect of the working conditions on the women workers and they have pointed out that, “ many of the workers complained of extreme tiredness and spells of nausea, dizziness and headaches. Some fainted due to the heat and stress, especially in summer.”

To find out whether the respondents have suffered any adverse effects after working in the factory this query was put to them.

Table 5.2 Adverse Effects Of Working In The Firm

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Yes	0	0	2 (5.9)	0	0	0	0	0	2 (1.3)
No	21 (100)	24 (100)	32 (94.2)	31 (100)	9 (100)	7 (100)	11 (100)	13 (100)	148 (98.7)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 5.2 shows that, only two male respondents from Tivim industrial estate replied that, they were adversely affected by working in the factory. These two respondents suffered from weaknesses and allergies, but whether these were work related or not, the male respondents could not reply with certainty.

Choudhury, S. N. (1994) in her book, *Employment of Women with special reference to Embroidery Work*, studied a sample of 250 women from Bhopal with the help of a semi structured interview schedule and case studies. She found that, various types of problems such as pain in the eyes, neck ache, back ache, head ache and the like were experienced by the women workers.

Gathoskar, S. (1986) too has found that, "the most common problems were severe eye sprain and back strain, constant headaches and a general feeling of weakness and ill health." She had conducted her study in the Electronics Export Processing Zone in Santacruz Bombay.

98.7 % of the male and female respondents replied that, their health was not adversely affected. Since the workers, in the industrial estates in Goa , were found to be in the younger age group and working in the factory for a short time period, the adverse effects on health, by working in these factories might not be felt by them.

An ILO (1988) study has also found that, " factory working conditions may aggravate, but not cause, basic health problems among the women workers."

5.1.3 Difficulties in arriving punctually for work

Most of the male and female respondents are from rural areas and travelling by the local bus. In addition, some of them would have to do household chores before coming to the workplace. Hence, it was necessary to find out whether they faced any problem and difficulties to reach the work place on time, and which were the major contributory factors.

From the table 5.3 the following points can be noted:

- 1) 40 % of the female respondents replied that, they did not face any problems to reach the place of work on time. Majority of the female respondents, being unmarried and young, do not face the problem of dual duties at home before leaving for work. Hence, they reached the place of work on time.
- 2) 36 % of the female respondents replied that, it was the lack of transport facilities, which delayed them. Majority of the female respondents came from the rural areas and they did not have regular transport facilities.
- 3) Around 25% of the workers cited distance as the major problem to reach the work place. Since frequent transport facilities directly to the place of work are lacking, the female respondents have to travel by a longer route to the workplace.

Table 5.3 Difficulties Faced To Reach The Workplace On Time

	Verna	Tivim	Corlim	Mapusa	Total
	F	F	F	F	
Distance	4 (16.7)	12 (38.7)	2 (28.6)	1 (7.7)	19 (25.3)
Lack of help	2 (8.3)	7 (22.6)	2 (28.6)	1 (7.7)	12 (16.0)
Inadequate transport	14 (58.3)	10 (32.3)	2 (28.6)	1 (7.7)	27 (36.0)
No difficulties	7 (29.2)	10 (32.3)	2 (28.6)	11 (84.6)	30 (40.0)
Total	24	31	7	13	75

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

(Percentage figures may add up to more than 100 as multiple answers were permitted to this question)

5.1.4 Authority to be approached in case of grievance

Every workplace has some grievance, big or small, and every worker faces some grievance with management, food, workplace, workload, etc. This leads to unhappiness, frustration and lack of concentration on the part of the worker.

Arya, R. (1990) has defined grievance as, "the representation by the worker, group of workers or their unions to the management reflecting the discontent arising out of the treatment accorded to him or them, breach of provisions of standing orders

or any other legislation relating to terms of service, working conditions, freedom of association, non implementation of government orders, conciliation, agreements or adjudication awards.”

Table 5.4 Authority To Be Approached In Case Of Grievance

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Management	5 (23.8)	13 (54.2)	13 (38.2)	16 (51.6)	0	4 (57.1)	1 (9.1)	2 (15.4)	54 (36.0)
Supervisor	13 (61.9)	11 (45.8)	21 (61.8)	12 (38.7)	9 (100)	3 (42.9)	10 (90.9)	11 (84.6)	90 (60.0)
No response	3 (14.3)	0	0	3 (9.7)	0	0	0	0	6 (4.0)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

60 % of the respondents replied that, they approached the supervisor when they faced any problems, while, 36 % of the respondents approached the management for solving their grievances.

In Goa, it was found that, since the workers faced many problems, major and minor, a hearing of these problems by the right person was very important as, later on these problems could lead to major grievances. Job dissatisfaction is often a result of the non-solving of the problems at the minor scale.

5.1.5 Management prompt in redressing grievances

Along with the right hearing of the problems it is also of equal importance that, the grievance be promptly solved, else it leads to complications later on.

Table 5.5 Management Prompt In Solving The Problems

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Yes	16 (76.2)	18 (75.0)	29 (85.3)	24 (77.4)	9 (100)	4 (57.1)	10 (90.9)	9 (69.2)	119 (79.3)
No	5 (23.8)	6 (25.0)	5 (14.7)	7 (22.6)	0	3 (42.9)	1 (9.1)	4 (30.8)	31 (20.7)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 5.5 reveals that, 79.3 % of the respondents were of the opinion that, the grievances were settled promptly. This was also refuted by the fact that, most of the respondents were satisfied with their jobs and the place of work. The young age of the workers coupled with the lack of prior experience and lack of job opportunities could result in their replying that, they were satisfied with the type of jobs they were working in and the conditions in the place of work. 20.7 % of the respondents replied in the negative. Such neglect of the problems leads to dissatisfaction of the respondents and low levels of productivity and motivation.

5.1.6 Other workplace related issues

The workplace is very important as the worker spends one third of the day there. If there are problems in the workplace, the worker will not be happy and it will lead to dissatisfaction, and will have a major impact on his personal life too.

Table 5.6 Other Workplace Related Issues

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Promotions	6 (28.6)	9 (37.5)	19 (55.9)	17 (54.8)	3 (33.3)	3 (42.9)	8 (72.7)	9 (69.2)	74 (49.3)
Training facilities	4 (19.0)	10 (41.7)	14 (41.2)	14 (45.2)	3 (33.3)	3 (42.9)	6 (54.5)	6 (46.1)	60 (40.0)
Wages	0	6 (25.0)	1 (2.9)	3 (9.7)	0	0	0	0	10 (6.7)
Facilities	0	4 (16.7)	11 (32.3)	5 (16.1)	0	1 (14.3)	0	4 (30.8)	25 (16.7)
Over work	2 (9.5)	2 (8.3)	7 (20.6)	8 (25.8)	2 (22.2)	0	6 (54.5)	1 (7.7)	28 (18.6)
No problems	15 (71.4)	13 (54.2)	12 (35.3)	12 (38.7)	5 (55.6)	4 (57.1)	3 (27.2)	4 (30.8)	68 (45.3)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

(Percentage figures may add up to more than 100 as multiple answers were permitted to this question)

From table 5.6 the following points are noted

- 1) 45.3 % of the male and female respondents (35 males and 33 females) did not face any problems in the place of work. They found all the facilities satisfactory and did not complain of any lacuna in the working of the factory.
- 2) Around 50 % of the male and female respondents revealed that, they were denied promotions. This includes 36 males and 38 female respondents. An important factor, which has to be taken into account here, is that, many of them are employed in dead end jobs where there are no promotional possibilities. Majority of the male and female respondents are young, with low educational and training levels, hence it may be difficult for the firms to promote them even if there are promotional avenues.
- 3) 27 male and 33 female respondents have cited lack of training as another important problem faced by them in the work place. Although majority of them did not receive formal training, most of them have been informally trained. Yet, majority of the male and female respondents are of the opinion that, they should receive formal training, as; it would have a positive impact on the quality of their work.
- 4) 18.6 % of the male and female respondents cited overwork as a problem faced by them in the place of work. Overwork was due to frequent or occasional additional workload, which was given to the male and female respondents, often without additional monetary compensation.

5.2 Problems faced at home

5.2.1 The Dual Role Problem

Working women play a dual role and hence they often find it difficult to manage both the housework and the factory work.

Nagaich, S. (2001) in her study found that, majority of the women do not have much difficulty in managing dual roles, as they spend less time on household duties, since they buy gadgets and have help in performing their house duties. She also finds that, “the employed women plan their day more carefully so that, they are able to combine their household chores with their outdoor activities in an efficient way.”

Table 5.7 Difficulty In Managing Both Home And Work

	Verna	Tivim	Corlim	Mapusa	Total
	F	F	F	F	
Yes	5 (20.8)	5 (16.1)	0	3 (23.1)	13 (17.3)
No	19 (79.2)	26 (83.9)	7 (100)	10 (76.9)	62 (82.7)
Total	24	31	7	13	75

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

In the present study, it was found that, majority of the female respondents did not face any difficulties, while only 17.3 % of the female respondents found it difficult to manage both the home and the work. This has been shown in Table 5.7. The unmarried status of majority of the female respondents have resulted in them not facing any difficulty as they do not face the dual burden married women suffer from.

5.2.2 Tensions due to role conflict

Tensions in the place of work and home are common problems faced by the women workers, especially if they have young children.

Table 5.8 Tensions Faced By The Women Taking Up Jobs

	Verna	Tivim	Corlim	Mapusa	Total
	F	F	F	F	
Yes	5 (20.8)	10 (32.3)	0	1 (7.7)	16 (21.3)
No	19 (79.2)	21 (67.7)	7 (100)	12 (92.3)	59 (78.7)
Total	24	31	7	13	75

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 5.8 shows that, 78.7 % of the respondents do not face any tensions, while performing their dual roles in the home and the factory as they have help from the family members. Besides, being young and unmarried, majority of them do not

have the burden of looking after the young children. The presence of time saving gadgets, too, is very important in saving the women from the kitchen drudgery. 21.3% of the female respondents, who have replied that, they are facing tensions while performing the dual role, do not have any help in the housework or are married with children.

5.2.3 Time spent on managing home and children

Table 5.9 (a) Time Devoted To Looking After The Children

	Verna	Tivim	Corlim	Mapusa	Total
	F	F	F	F	
< 2 Hours	1 (4.2)	0	0	0	1 (1.3)
2-3 hours	4 (16.7)	3 (9.7)	0	0	7 (9.3)
> 3 hours	1 (4.2)	3 (9.7)	0	0	4 (5.3)
No response	18 (75.0)	25 (80.6)	7 (100)	13 (100)	63 (84.0)
Total	24	31	7	13	75

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Time spent on managing the home and children is an important subtopic for the study, as women have to perform dual roles. A woman is responsible for her home and children. Even when there is additional help available the major responsibility is hers. Since the majority of the female respondents are unmarried, they have not replied to this question.

Table 5.9 (a) shows that the majority of the married female respondents replied that, they spend more than three hours looking after the children. Since most of the children are more than five years, there is no need for anyone to be looking after them the whole day, yet the female respondents have to take care of the studies of the school going children.

Table 5.9 (b) Additional Help In Looking After The Children

	Verna	Tivim	Corlim	Mapusa	Total
	F	F	F	F	
Nobody	2 (8.3)	3 (9.7)	0	0	5 (6.7)
Servant	1 (4.2)	2 (6.4)	0	0	3 (4.0)
Family	3 (12.5)	1 (3.2)	0	0	4 (5.3)
No response	18 (75.0)	25 (80.6)	7 (100)	13 (100)	63 (84.0)
Total	24	31	7	13	75

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Since the majority of the children were in the age group 5-29 and were going to school or college, there was no need to look after them full time. Table 5.9 (b) reveals that, 6.7 % of the female respondents replied that, besides them nobody looked after the children, while in the case of 5.3 % of the female respondents, family members looked after the children. Only three female respondents had the facility of a servant to look after the children when the respondents were out at work.

5.2.4 Chores performed in the house

Working women have to handle both work and home simultaneously. The fact that they are responsible for bringing home the much-needed income does not release them from performing the household tasks. They now have to find time to fit all their previous tasks in the new schedule. This often leads them to start their housework early in the morning or continue the work late at night.

In Fine, B. (1998) Braveman, H. had expected that, many of the household tasks would be taken over by the private sector, thus freeing the women, to participate in the economic activities, to a much larger extent. Yet, economists such as, Morris and Cowan have pointed out that, the time spent by women on domestic labour has not reduced significantly. (Fine, B. 1998) The present study too finds that women have to perform multiple chores in the home.

Table 5.10 (a) Chores Performed In The Home

	Verna	Tivim	Corlim	Mapusa	Total
	F	F	F	F	
Cooking	18 (75.0)	30 (96.8)	6 (85.7)	11 (84.6)	65 (86.7)
Clothes	15 (62.5)	25 (80.6)	5 (71.4)	11 (84.6)	56 (74.7)
Utensils	14 (58.3)	24 (77.4)	3 (42.9)	10 (76.9)	51 (68.0)
Shopping	22 (91.7)	25 (80.6)	4 (57.1)	9 (69.2)	60 (80.0)
House	14 (58.3)	20 (64.5)	5 (71.4)	4 (30.8)	43 (57.3)
Others	1 (4.2)	1 (3.2)	0	0	2 (2.7)
Total	24	31	7	13	75

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

(Percentage figures may add up to more than 100 as multiple answers were permitted to this question)

Sharma, I. P. (1999) believes that women, irrespective of the class to which they belong, face some common problems. She finds that, "at the family level, women are expected to do their daily routine domestic chores, along with their jobs. Even the educated and professionally qualified women in India often found it difficult to escape the disadvantages of womanhood at the place of work."

The above table 5.10 (a) shows that, some of the respondents do the entire domestic work as well as the outside factory work. From the table we find that, 86.7 % of the female respondents do the cooking, while 74.7 % wash the clothes and 80 % do the shopping. This has been put forth very clearly by Maitra- Sinha, A. (1993), where she feels that, a working woman has to play manifold roles of cook, accountant, cleaner, teacher and banker all rolled into one. Thus, we find that, taking a job outside the home sphere does not exempt the women, from performing the household chores in the family, which are traditionally associated with women.

Ramanamma, A. (1979) too argues that, "it was believed that, household work is considered an obligatory duty of a woman, women also took this maxim to heart and performed it without any hesitation." In her study, she found that, all the women have to perform some type of household work.

Supporting the above views, Rao, V.R. and S. Hussain (1991) in their study have found that, "the major tasks of cooking, washing utensils and dishes were done by women. In addition they were also responsible for outside work such as purchase of rations and other daily necessities."

5.2.5 Other help in household chores

Working women are already doing eight hours work and they are also expected to put in some hours contributing to the work in the home. Rao, V.R. and S. Hussain (1991) have found that, "housework was particularly burdensome in the

absence of cooperation from other family members, except in families where other women lived and helped with the house work, very little help was available to them.”

Here, an attempt was made to find out whether, the working women were expected to work all by themselves without any help from family members or a servant (full- time or part time) or whether they had people at home to help them with the house work.

Table 5.10 (b) Other Help In Household Chores

	Verna	Tivim	Corlim	Mapusa	Total
	F	F	F	F	
No-one else	3 (12.5)	7 (22.6)	1 (14.3)	2 (15.4)	13 (17.3)
Family	20 (83.3)	22 (71.0)	6 (85.7)	11 (84.6)	59 (78.7)
Full-time servant	0	1 (3.2)	0	0	1 (1.3)
Part-time servant	1 (4.2)	1 (3.2)	0	0	2 (2.7)
Total	24	31	7	13	75

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 5.10 (b) reveals that, 17.3 % of the respondents replied that they do the work alone. Only three respondents had the facility of a servant out of which one

respondent had a full time servant. The women who were employed in better paying jobs were in a position to hire servants to help them in household chores and looking after the children. 78.7 % of the respondents had help from their families in doing the household chores.

5.2.6 Sufficient time devoted for all the work

Since the respondents were women, who worked in the home and in the place of work, analysis was made, whether; the woman felt that, she devoted sufficient time for her house hold chores.

Table 5.11 Sufficient Time Devoted For All The Work

	Verna	Tivim	Corlim	Mapusa	Total
	F	F	F	F	
Always	10 (41.7)	17 (54.8)	0	7 (53.8)	34 (45.3)
Occasionally	11 (45.8)	11 (35.5)	6 (85.7)	6 (46.2)	34 (45.3)
Never	3 (12.5)	3 (9.7)	1 (14.3)	0	7 (9.4)
Total	24	31	7	13	75

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

The above table 5.11 shows that, 45.3 % of the female respondents replied that, they always had enough time and that they did not face any pressure for completing the work on time. While 45.3 % replied that, occasionally, they found it difficult to devote enough time for their entire house hold duties. Only 9.4 % of the female respondents replied that, they did not find sufficient time for household activities. Since majority of the women are young, and have help in the household chores, they do not feel much pressure and tension of completing their work schedule on time.

But, Murty, S. (2001) in her study on 100 working women in Ujjain city in Madhya Pradesh found that, majority of the women feel that, they are not able to pay enough attention to all the household tasks. About 97% of her sample feels that, "they are overburdened due to their double responsibilities at home and at job. They cannot get out or be relieved of their household work and responsibilities even if they are working women. This results in too much strain on them."

Long distance travelling to the place of work and lack of transport facilities has led to time scarcity in the case of women working in Goa. Srivastava, V. (1978) too believes that, "women's employment in full time jobs outside their homes naturally means that, most of the day is spent in work. As a consequence of this working women will have less time in their household chores as compared to those who are full time housekeepers." Her study included 150 educated working women from Chandigarh and a control sample of 150 non working women. The field study took eight months to complete.

5.2.7 Satisfied with the amount of time devoted to housework

Women, who work a double shift, have to find time to fit in all their household chores and very often, the woman might feel that the housework is suffering due to the jobs she holds out of home.

Majority of the respondents, replied that, they were happy with the amount of time they put in daily to complete their household chores. 32.0 % felt that, the time devoted by them was not enough and that, the household suffered because of their working in the factory. Married women faced this problem. This has been shown in table 5.12.

Table 5.12 Satisfied With The Amount Of Time Devoted To House Work

	Verna	Tivim	Corlim	Mapusa	Total
	F	F	F	F	
Yes	12 (50.0)	25 (80.6)	6 (85.7)	8 (61.5)	51 (68.0)
No	12 (50.0)	6 (19.4)	1 (14.3)	5 (38.5)	24 (32.0)
Total	24	31	7	13	75

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Economic compulsions in many cases contributed to their working in factories, even though they were feeling guilty about neglecting their home. This has also been supported by Srivastava, V. (1978) who in her study has found that, “employed women buy more labour saving devices and also hire more domestic help to ease the burden of the household work. Nevertheless, there is a feeling among educated women that, they are not able to do justice to their family.”

5.2.8 Gadgets in the home

Working women have to do a lot of drudgery work at home and if they do not have some modern gadgets to help them in the work it is very difficult for them to manage the home and work. This has been shown by Pore (1991). In her study she found that, around half of her sample of women workers, in the garment and electronics industry in Thane and Pune, did not have kitchen aids such as cooking gas, pressure cooker, mixers or refrigerators. More than a quarter of the women workers did all the domestic work without help from servants or relatives.

From table 5.13 below, the following can be noted:

- 1) 88.0 % of the female respondents have a pressure cooker. This is important as it saves time for cooking.
- 2) 84.7 % of the female respondents had gas facilities. Even in the rural areas, people prefer to use gas as it aids in cooking the food much faster, leaving the working women with more leisure time, or time which she can devote for some other activities.

Table 5.13 Gadgets In The Home

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Refrigerator	4 (19.0)	6 (25.0)	15 (44.1)	12 (38.7)	3 (33.3)	6 (85.7)	1 (9.1)	9 (69.2)	56 (37.3)
Electric stove	0	2 (8.3)	2 (5.8)	5 (16.1)	0	0	0	0	9 (6.0)
Gas	19 (90.4)	19 (79.2)	31 (91.2)	18 (58.1)	9 (100)	7 (100)	11 (100)	13 (100)	127 (84.7)
Mixer/Grinder	17 (80.9)	18 (75.0)	23 (67.6)	23 (74.2)	7 (77.8)	2 (28.6)	9 (81.8)	13 (100)	112 (74.7)
Pressure cooker	21 (100)	22 (91.7)	33 (97.1)	29 (93.5)	3 (33.3)	6 (85.7)	10 (90.9)	8 (61.5)	132 (88.0)
Washing machine	6 (28.6)	1 (4.1)	10 (29.4)	5 (16.1)	1 (11.1)	0	0	2 (15.3)	25 (16.7)
Electric iron	12 (57.1)	18 (75.0)	22 (64.7)	26 (83.9)	6 (66.7)	6 (85.7)	9 (81.8)	12 (92.3)	111 (74.0)
Others	0	1 (4.1)	0	1 (3.2)	0	0	0	0	2 (1.3)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

(Percentage figures may add up to more than 100 as multiple answers were permitted to this question)

- 3) Mixer /grinder and iron were the next set of items owned by majority of them.
- 4) All the above items were cheap, so the respondents, even with poor backgrounds could afford them. 37.3 % of the female respondents had a refrigerator, while the number of female respondents with a washing machine was 16.7 %. These items being expensive were not affordable to majority of the respondents.

In Goa, the working women have the facility of gadgets as can be seen from table 5.13, and hence the drudgery of the work is considerably less. Besides, 78.7 % of the respondents have help from the family (shown in table 5.10 (b)) and this also helps to reduce the strain on the women.

5.2.9 Employment of women a right decision

Women work for many reasons, economic as well as non-economic. Yet, some of the respondents felt that, the decision of the women to work was not a correct one. According to them, a working women, tends to neglect her family and does not pay enough attention to the children. Table 5.14 shows that, 22.7 % of the respondents felt that a woman should not work out of the house but should stay at home and look after the well being of her family. 77.3 % of the respondents believe that, working is a right decision and that the woman should be allowed to work; as it makes her independent, gives her authority and puts money in her hands so that, she does not remain dependent on the rest of the family for her needs.

5.14 Employment A Right Decision

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Yes	19 (90.5)	20 (83.3)	21 (61.8)	26 (83.8)	6 (66.7)	7 (100)	7 (63.7)	10 (76.9)	116 (77.3)
No	2 (9.5)	4 (16.7)	13 (38.2)	5 (16.2)	3 (33.3)	0	4 (36.3)	3 (23.1)	34 (22.7)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Both the males and the female respondents were asked whether or not they felt that, the women should work and it was found that, majority of the respondents, both male and female, believe that, women should work and help to support the family. Since, majority of the respondents are in the young age group, they have the modern outlook, where women are considered largely as important.

This has been supported by Chaudhary, P.K (1988) who in her study titled, *Changing Values among Young Women*, conducted in Patna university, where a sample of 260 students were interviewed with the help of an interview schedule, finds that, her respondents believe that, a woman should work. In her study, she found that, "respondents were of the opinion that, if a girl was employed, she should remain in job even after her marriage."

Goa is a state, which had the Portuguese influence and so many of the males are prepared to accept females working out of the house. In fact, a working female is

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one of the criteria when looking for a bride. Hence, women, feel that, working is a right decision, as; it will be an additional qualification when they decide to get married. The rising cost of living too, has led to many families believing that, working female is a boon, as; it helps to reduce the burden of running the household, with the salary of the males only.

5.2.10 Participation in recreational activities

Recreation is important to keep the person healthy, motivated and happy. The table below analyses whether the respondents are participating in various recreational activities. Table 4.15 reveals that, 92 % of the female respondents did not take part in any recreational activity, while only 8 % of the female respondents took part in various activities such as drama, singing, reading, etc. This shows that, leisure activities are very low on the schedule of the workers. They feel guilty if they go home and spend their time on leisure activities when there are household chores to be done.

Ramanamma, A. (1979) in her study has concluded that, "the employed women are performing two full time jobs - the house and the office work which are not always complementary but sometimes conflicting. The women felt stresses and strains due to the dual role performances. The women experienced less leisure time due to these dual roles." This has also been borne out in the table 5.18 that, women have no leisure time due to the dual roles played by them.

Table 5.15 Participation In Recreational Activities

	Verna		Tivim		Corlim		Mapusa		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Yes	2 (9.5)	2 (8.3)	4 (11.8)	3 (9.7)	0	0	0	1 (7.7)	12 (8.0)
No	19 (90.5)	22 (91.7)	30 (88.2)	28 (90.3)	9 (100)	7 (100)	11 (100)	12 (92.3)	138 (92.0)
Total	21	24	34	31	9	7	11	13	150

Source: Field Survey (Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

5.3 Summary

This chapter analysed the problems faced by women in the place of work and in the home. Women are found to be burdened with multiple roles and problems and to make a study of the various problems, several questions were asked and analysed.

The main points are given below: -

1. Majority of the working women replied that, they were not adversely affected by working in the firm in the form of weaknesses or allergies suffered by them.
2. Majority of the respondents cited, lack of transport as one of their major problems to reach the workplace on time.

3. Lack of cooperation and harassment from seniors were found to be the main problems faced in the place of work with colleagues.
4. Lack of promotion, lack of training facilities and overwork were some of the major problems faced by them in the place of work.
5. Majority of the respondents could approach the supervisor in case of any grievance and majority of the respondents replied that, their grievances were promptly attended to.
6. Majority of the respondents are of the opinion that, a woman should work as it leads to financial independence for her.
7. Majority of the respondents did not face any difficulties and tensions while attending to their home and outside work.
8. Majority of the married respondents devoted around three hours for looking after their children and besides family members majority of them did not have anyone to attend to the work of the children.
9. Various household chores such as cooking, washing and shopping were performed by the working women and they had help in attending to these chores.
10. Variety of gadgets such as mixer, gas, iron and pressure cooker were owned by the respondents, to lighten the drudgery in the kitchen and the home.
11. Majority of the respondents are satisfied with the time devoted by them in the house for the household work and an overwhelming majority of the respondents are found not to be participating in any recreational activity.

From this chapter we can see that, the working women still is faced with many problems and in the selected industries in the industrial estates of Goa we find that, some of the problems are similar to those faced by women all over. Problems in the place of work are common and the women workers are hard hit as they have to do all the work without complaining.

5.4 Conclusions

The most important causes of concern for working women include problems at the workplace, primarily harassment, problems with seniors and overwork. Inadequate training and indoctrination is also a source of some dissatisfaction. Another factor, which needs to be addressed, is the paucity of adequate transportation facilities. Since many of the working women are dependent on public transport for their daily travel to and from the workplace, lack of proper transportation creates much inconvenience for them.

Turning to the scenario of problems faced at home, the study indicates that working women in Goa have experienced relatively few problems and tensions due to the dual responsibility of family and work. This is largely, due to the fact that, most of them are young and single. In the case of respondents with children, though, it was observed that, they have to spend a lot of time taking care of the children and thus they do carry a heavy burden. In most cases, the women also had help (mainly from family) in the daily chores, and consequently had little difficulty with time management to complete their duties.

Chapter 6

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter includes the summary of the chapters, conclusions and recommendations.

6.1 Chapter Summaries

The study was undertaken with a view to study the socio-economic profile, working conditions and problems faced by the women working in the selected industries in the industrial estates in Goa. The study consisted of six chapters, which have been summarised below.

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter covered the following:

A brief introduction to Goa - Scope and relevance of the study - Objectives of the study - Methodology - Limitations of the study

Chapter 2: Review of Literature

This chapter discussed the following points: Status of women – Theories of women's employment - Reasons for the employment of women - Working conditions - Problems of working women - Legislative reforms for women – Summary.

Some of the conclusions drawn from the chapter are:

- 1 The status of women in India is low.
- 2 Women's work is largely marginalized.
- 3 The various theories have not succeeded in giving a clear reason for the discrimination of working women.
- 4 Economic necessity is an important factor that, leads to women's employment.
- 5 Women are employed at the bottom of the occupational hierarchy.
- 6 Women are employed in limited number of occupations.
- 7 Many prejudices against women exist even today.
- 8 Role conflict is an important problem women face in their lives.
- 9 The physical conditions of work are not attractive.
- 10 Technological development has resulted in women's unemployment.
- 11 Discrimination exists in the Indian society.
- 12 Occupational segregation exists in the country.
- 13 The wage rates of women are considerably lower than that of men.
- 13 Legal protection is inadequate and there are a number of loopholes in the law.

Chapter 3: Socio-Economic Profile of Working Women

This chapter has been divided into two broad sub topics: 1) Social profile 2) Economic profile.

The social profile discusses Age - Qualifications - Marital status - Social background - Religion of the respondents- Transit time - Family structure - Family educational background - Reaction to the women's decision to work. While the economic profile includes: Prior work experience - Current position and tenure - Job compatibility - Recruitment methods - Remuneration - Control over earnings - Parents' occupations - Family income – Summary - Conclusion.

The main findings of the chapter are:

1. Majority of the respondents, both male and female, are in the young age group of 20 –24. A greater percentage of them have completed their HSSC and some males have technical education. A majority of the females have grounding in computers.
2. Most of the respondents are unmarried, Hindus, from nuclear families and are from the rural background, with little or no prior work experience.
3. Many of the respondents have to travel a distance of more than 3 km and they spend around an hour and a half daily travelling by the local buses.

4. The parents of the respondents have lower educational levels. The parents of the respondents are employed in a wide range of occupations, but the annual family income is very low. However, the family reactions to women working are positive in practically every case.
5. The married respondents have one or two children, and spend considerable time (two-three hours daily) looking after them.
6. Most of the females are found working in the clerical posts, while the males, depending on their level of education, are employed in manual or managerial capacities.
7. Although a majority of the respondents have secured jobs through interviews, in some of the industrial estates, relatives and friends have also played an important role.
8. A majority of the respondents are employed in a temporary capacity with a monthly salary between Rs. 1000-3000.
9. Most of the female respondents have control over their earnings, although they usually contribute partially towards the family budget. They are of the opinion that, the job they are doing is suited for their qualifications.

Chapter 4: Working Conditions of the Respondents

This chapter has been divided into two broad sub topics: tangible features and intangible features of work.

Tangible features of work include: Facilities at the work place - Promotion avenues - Incentives - Training and indoctrination - Shifts and transfers - Holidays - Leave facilities - Increments - Work allotment across genders - Overtime and additional workload - Accident compensation. While Intangible features include: Motives for taking up work - Job satisfaction - Exhaustion due to job - Appreciation of efforts - Expectations from male co-workers - Adverse remarks from management - Summary - Conclusion.

The main findings of the chapter are:

- 1) It was noted that, the allotment of work between the male and female respondents was similar in the industries.
- 2) A majority of the respondents were satisfied with the lighting and ventilation facilities available in the industries but the major sources of dissatisfaction were the lack of potable drinking water, sanitation facilities, safety measures and crèche facilities.
- 3) It was seen that, most of the respondents had not received formal training at the time of joining the industry.
- 4) The overwhelming majority of the workers did not have to work in shifts.

- 5) Promotional avenues were lacking for the workers in the factories.
- 6) Increments were either not forthcoming or else negligible in most cases.
- 7) Sundays and festivals were the major holidays enjoyed by the respondents.
- 8) Other facilities such as bonus, provident fund and medical facilities were also lacking in most of the industries surveyed.
- 9) Most respondents reported that, they were not taken to task severely for non-completion or late completion of the work.

Chapter 5: Problems faced by Working Women

This chapter has been divided into two subtopics: problems faced by the women in the place of work and problems faced by the women at home.

Problems faced by women in the workplace include the following: Problems with co-workers - Adverse health effects - Transportation difficulties - Grievance redressal system - Other workplace related issues. While problems faced by women at home include the following: The dual role problem - Tension due to role conflict - Time spent on managing home/children - Miscellaneous - Summary – Conclusion.

The following were the main findings of this chapter:

1. Majority of the working women not adversely affected by working in the firm in the form of weaknesses or allergies suffered.
2. Majority of the respondents cited, lack of transport as one of their major problems to reach the workplace on time.

3. Lack of cooperation and harassment from seniors were found to be the main problems faced in the place of work with colleagues.
4. Lack of promotion, lack of training facilities and overwork were some of the major problems faced by them in the place of work.
5. Majority of the respondents could approach the supervisor in case of any grievance and majority of the respondents replied that, their grievances were promptly attended to.
6. Majority of the respondents are of the opinion that, a woman should work as it leads to financial independence for her.
7. Majority of the respondents did not face any difficulties and tensions while attending to their home and outside work.
8. Majority of the married respondents devoted around three hours for looking after their children and besides family members majority of them did not have anyone to attend to the work of the children.
9. Various household chores such as cooking, washing and shopping were performed by the working women and they had help in attending to these chores.
10. Variety of gadgets such as mixer, gas, iron and pressure cooker were owned by the respondents, to lighten the drudgery in the kitchen and the home.
11. Majority of the respondents are satisfied with the time devoted by them in the house for the household work and an overwhelming majority of the respondents are found not to be participating in any recreational activity.

Chapter 6: Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

This chapter, that is the present chapter, gives a summary of all the other chapters and highlights their major findings. It also includes the conclusions and recommendations based on the findings.

6.2 Conclusions and Recommendations

Based on the above findings, the following conclusions have been drawn:

A majority of the women working in the industrial estates are relatively young, single, less educated with minimal work experience and from the lower economic strata of the society and hold jobs on the lower rungs of the occupational ladder. From this we can conclude that, the type of jobs available for women is on the lower rungs of the occupational ladder. The number of women employed at the higher levels is relatively low, and it is very rare that, women are found to be employed at the higher rungs. From this we can conclude that, in the industrial estates the jobs for women at the higher levels are relatively few.

From the findings, we can also conclude that, there is no upward mobility due to lack of opportunity for the women to improve their qualifications to rise to higher posts. The women also seem to be satisfied with their present position and there seems to be a lack of ambition to rise higher. This could also be due to the temporary nature of the jobs.

The findings also show that, the remuneration paid is low. This could be because of the type of jobs held by the women, the temporary nature of the jobs, and the readiness of the women to work for low wages due to economic necessity.

With regard to working conditions it was found that, other facilities such as drinking water, sanitation, crèche and maternity leave are lacking in the industrial estates. Although the working conditions are far from satisfactory, and there are many facilities lacking, the women respondents are forced to accept these jobs, and they did not seem much perturbed with the lack of facilities, due to the lack of alternative employment opportunities. There is also a lack of awareness among the workers. Raka, S. (1985) in her study on Indian Women Workers has come to the same conclusions.

With regard to the problems faced at the workplace, it has been found that, besides the problem of lack of promotional avenues, training, low wages, which have already been mentioned above, women workers felt that, they were overworked and sometimes harassed by co-workers.

It has also been found that, the women workers in these industrial estates being largely unmarried did not have the dual responsibility of looking after the family and work. However, the few married women that, are there, although they faced some problems on this front, the problem was not acute as their families supported them to balance the house and the work and they also had the help of labour saving gadgets with them. In this respect, Goa seems to be different from other states.

Studies conducted by Ramanamma, A and U. Bambawale. (1987) in Poona and Bombay, Bhoite, A. (1987) in the district of Parbhani in Maharashtra, Agarwal, K. (1988) in Meerut city of Uttar Pradesh, Neetha, N. (2001) in Tiruppur, on working women, have concluded that, women are overburdened by their dual responsibilities and they do not receive much help from family members and they did not have the facility of household gadgets to lighten the burden.

However, in Goa the situation is different. Since Goa was under the Portuguese rule for the last 450 years, this has had an important impact on the mind set of the males where they look upon the females in more equal terms than in the case of males in other parts of the country. Therefore, women receive more cooperation from them in managing the house and thus they can manage both the house and the work, without being overburdened. The literacy levels in Goa being high have also had an impact on the mindset of the people, and so their approach towards a working woman is positive.

Based on the conclusions drawn from the findings of chapters five and six, the following recommendations are made.

There is evidently a gap of understanding (communication) between the factory owners and the women workers. In Goa, due to the many unique factors pointed out in earlier chapters, the women are prepared to work sincerely and committedly at their jobs. They do not view a job as a stopgap arrangement to be cast aside upon marriage. On the other hand, the industrialists still subscribe to the ideology that, women workers are likely to be more family-oriented and less

committed to their work. This probably is one of the reasons why they are not employed at the higher levels. This misconception needs to be cleared.

More employment opportunities should be provided for women at the higher rungs of the occupational ladder.

The women employed in the lower rungs of the occupational ladder seem to lack the initiative to rise higher in their jobs. Adequate incentives should be provided to motivate them towards upward mobility in the form of regularising their employment, providing incentives for improving their qualifications like promoting the workers who attain a higher qualification, increase in their wages, and the like.

The women should be made aware of their rights, as it will help them to avoid exploitation, which may be unperceived by them currently. The Industrial Development Corporation and the labour department can organise programmes where such awareness is created among the women workers.

The provision of essential facilities should be made mandatory for each firm. Essential facilities such as transport, canteen, sanitation and crèche should be provided either by the individual firms or on an estate-wide basis by the government and Goa Industrial Development Corporation.

*ANNEXES**ANNEXURE I***QUESTIONNAIRE TO BE FILLED BY THE WORKING WOMEN IN THE
INDUSTRIAL ESTATES**

Code no _____

Date: _____

1. Age:

- a. Below 20
- b. 20-24
- c. 25-29
- d. 30-34
- e. 35-39
- f. 40-44
- g. 45-49
- h. Above 50

2. Educational Qualifications:

- a. Below SSC
- b. SSC
- c. HSSC
- d. Graduation
- e. Post Graduation
- f. Technical
- g. ITI
- h. Others

3. Additional Qualifications:

- a. Typing
- b. Computers

- c. Shorthand
- d. Any Other

4. Marital Status (Tick one):

- a. Married
- b. Single
- c. Divorced
- d. Widowed

5. Place of Residence:

- a. Urban
- b. Rural

6. Religion:

- a. Hindu
- b. Christian
- c. Muslim
- d. Others

7. Type of Family:

- a. Joint
- b. Nuclear

8. Members of the Family:

No	M/ F	Age (yrs)	Relation to Respondent	Level of Education	Occupation	Annual Income

9. Do you have any previous work experience? Yes / No

If yes, give details. _____

No	Skilled / unskilled	Type of firm	Duration	Reason for Quitting	Difficulties faced there

10. How long have you been working (all jobs)?

- a. Below 5 years
- b. 5-10 years
- c. More than 10 years

11. At present in which department do you work? _____

12. What type of work do you do?

- a. Clerical
- b. Administrative
- c. Manual
- d. Supervisory
- e. Managerial
- f. Others _____

13. Since how long have you been in your present job? _____

14. Do you feel that the job you are doing is suited to your qualifications? Yes /

No

If yes, why? _____

If no, why? _____

15. Do you feel that the males in your factory are more likely to get jobs as per their qualifications than females? Yes / No

16. How did you secure this job?

- a. Interview
- b. Employment Exchange
- c. Relatives
- d. Friends

e. Others

17. Did you receive any training before you were put on the job? Yes / No

When _____ Where _____

18. Were you paid wages and salary during this period? Yes / No

19. Who paid for your training charges? _____

20. Did you benefit from the training course? Yes / No

21. In which of the following capacities are you working?

- a. Permanent
- b. Part time
- c. Temporary
- d. Daily wage/ Casual
- e. Others

22. What is your monthly salary in your present job?

- a. Less than 1000
- b. 1001-3000
- c. 3001-5000
- d. 5001-10,000
- e. More than 10,000

23. Do you have to and over your salary to your parents/ husband/ brothers?

	Always	Occasionally	Never
a) Full salary			
b) Partial salary			

24. Are you allowed to spend your income without restrictions?

- a. Always
- b. Occasionally
- c. Never

25. How did your family feel about you taking up this job?

- a. Happy
- b. Unhappy
- c. Tense

- d. Any other _____
26. How far is your workplace from your home?
- About 1 Km
 - 2-4 km
 - 5-6 km
 - More than 6 kms.
27. How much time do you spend on travelling back and forth from work?
- Less than 1 hour
 - 1-2 hours
 - 2-3 hours
 - More than 3 hours.
28. What is your mode of transport?
- Walking
 - Own vehicle
 - Local bus
 - Office bus
 - Others
29. Do you have to work in shifts? Yes / No
30. Have you ever been promoted? Yes / No
31. Are you satisfied with the promotion procedure? Yes / No
32. Did you face any difficulty in getting the promotion? Yes / No
33. Do you get increments? Yes / No
- If yes, after how long and how much _____
34. Do you work overtime occasionally? Yes/ No
- If yes, overtime with payment / Overtime without payment
35. Why do you work overtime?
- Compulsory
 - To earn extra money
 - Others
36. How many times are you required to work overtime in a month? _____

37. Have you ever been transferred? Yes / No
38. Do you feel transfer a punishment? Yes / No
39. Are you satisfied with the transfer procedure in the factory? (If any) Yes / No
40. What are the types of holidays enjoyed by you in the year?
- National
 - Festival
 - Sundays
41. What are the leave facilities provided to you? (Tick all relevant)
- Casual Earned
 - Sick leave
 - Leave without pay
 - Accidental leave
 - Privileged leave
 - Maternity /Paternity leave
42. Which of the following reasons are responsible for your remaining absent from work? (Tick which are relevant)
- Nature of the job (heavy, monotonous, dirty, etc.)
 - Own sickness
 - Family sickness
 - Distant place of residence and lack of transport
 - Family troubles
 - Engaged in part-time or side business
 - Social or religious reasons
 - Any other reason _____
43. What incentives do you get from the company? (Tick all relevant)
- Bonus
 - Provident fund
 - Medical facilities
 - Any other _____

44. What is your attitude regarding the provision of the following in your factory?
(Tick which are relevant)

- | | |
|------------------------------|------------------------------|
| a. Lighting | Satisfactory/ unsatisfactory |
| b. Ventilation | Satisfactory/ unsatisfactory |
| c. Temperature | Satisfactory/ unsatisfactory |
| d. Dust | Satisfactory/ unsatisfactory |
| e. Smoke and fumes | Satisfactory/ unsatisfactory |
| f. Noise | Satisfactory/ unsatisfactory |
| g. Cleanliness | Satisfactory/ unsatisfactory |
| h. Over crowding | Satisfactory/ unsatisfactory |
| i. Working place | Satisfactory/ unsatisfactory |
| j. Office accommodation | Satisfactory/ unsatisfactory |
| k. Safety measures | Satisfactory/ unsatisfactory |
| l. Drinking water facilities | Satisfactory/ unsatisfactory |
| m. Restroom | Satisfactory/ unsatisfactory |
| n. Subsidised refreshments | Satisfactory/ unsatisfactory |
| o. Crèches | Satisfactory/ unsatisfactory |
| p. Others _____ | |

45. Are you satisfied with the welfare measures in the factory? Yes / No

46. Are you paid compensation for accidents? Yes / No

47. Why did you take up this job? (Tick all relevant reasons)

- a. For economic reasons
- b. To develop a career
- c. To obtain knowledge
- d. To be independent
- e. To provide for the future
- f. Because your family wishes it
- g. To be free from household work
- h. To make use of education

- i. Any other
- j. No particular reason

48. Do you find your job exhausting? Yes / No

49. Are you satisfied with the present job? Yes / No

If yes, why?

- a. Good salary
- b. Good administration
- c. Pleasant atmosphere
- d. Convenient hours
- e. Suited to qualifications and interest
- f. Others

If no, why?

- a. Insufficient salary
- b. Poor administration
- c. Unfriendly atmosphere
- d. Inconvenient hours
- e. Unsited to qualifications and interest
- f. Others

50. Do you feel that working here has adversely affected your health? Yes / No

If yes, in what way? (Tick all relevant reasons)

- a. Developing specific deformities
- b. Weaknesses
- c. Allergies
- d. Developing diseases (if yes, specify)
- e. Others

51. What difficulties do you face in attending office on time?

- a. Distance from home
- b. Lack of domestic help
- c. Inadequate transport
- d. Others

52. What is the type of work allotted to you? Skilled/ Unskilled
53. Are you given additional workload? Frequently/ Occasionally/ Never
54. Are you paid for the extra work allotted to you? Yes/ No
55. Have you been praised by the in charge for having performed your duties well? Yes/ No
56. Do the male employers expect you to do their share of the work? Yes/ No
57. If the work could not be completed on time, has there been an adverse remark against you? Yes/ No
58. Do you find that the work allotted to the males and females is similar in your department? Yes/ No

If no, how is it different? _____

59. If you intend to take leave, has any advance notice to be given? Yes / No
60. Do you find it difficult to avail of the leave facilities? Yes / No
61. Do you feel that the male workers find it easier to get leave sanctioned than the female workers? Yes / No
62. What problems do you face with your colleagues? (Tick all relevant)

	Male	Females
a. No difficulty		
b. Lack of cooperation		
c. Takes too much advantage with respect to work		
d. Lack of respect		
e. Harassment from seniors		
f. Harassment from co - workers		
g. Any other		

63. Do you face any of these problems in the workplace? (Tick all relevant)
- a. Denial of promotions
- b. Denial of training facilities

- c. Discrimination in wages
- d. Denial of leave facilities
- e. Overwork
- f. Any other

64. Are there any other problems related to your job not covered above? Yes / No

If yes, what?

- a. With management _____
- b. With colleagues _____
- c. With subordinates _____

65. Whom do you have to approach with your problems? _____

66. Is the management prompt in solving your problems? Yes / No

67. Do you think that joining an occupation is the right decision for a woman? Yes / No

Please state your reasons: _____

68. Of you find it difficult to manage the duties of both household and job simultaneously. Yes / No

69. Due to the above difficulties, do you suffer from any tensions at home or job? Yes / No

If yes, please specify. _____

70. Do you feel that special facilities should be given to married women? Yes / No

If yes, please specify the nature of the facilities. _____

71. How much time per day do you devote in looking after your children?

72. Besides you, who looks after the children?

- a. Nobody
- b. Servant
- c. Members of the family
- d. Members of the parents family
- e. Any other person

73. What chores of you perform in the home?

- a. Cooking
- b. Washing clothes
- c. Washing utensils
- d. Shopping
- e. Cleaning the house
- f. Any other

74. Besides you, who looks after the household chores?

- a. No one else
- b. Members of the family
- c. Full time servant
- d. Part time servant
- e. Any other

75. Do you have the following labour saving gadgets in your house?

- a. Refrigerator
- b. Electric stove
- c. Gas
- d. Cooking range
- e. Mixer
- f. Pressure cooker
- g. Washing machine
- h. Geyser
- i. Electric iron
- j. Others

76. Do you find sufficient time to pay attention to all your household duties?

Always/ Occasionally/ Never

77. Are you satisfied with the amount of time you devote to housework? Yes / No

78. Do you take part in recreational activities? Yes / No

*ANNEXURE II***QUESTIONNAIRE TO BE FILLED BY THE WORKING MALES IN THE
INDUSTRIAL ESTATES**

Code no _____

Date: _____

1. Age:

- a. Below 20
- b. 20-24
- c. 25-29
- d. 30-34
- e. 35-39
- f. 40-44
- g. 45-49
- h. Above 50

2. Educational Qualifications:

- a. Below SSC
- b. SSC
- c. HSSC
- d. Graduation
- e. Post Graduation
- f. Technical
- g. ITI
- h. Others

3. Additional Qualifications:

- a. Typing
- b. Computers
- c. Shorthand
- d. Any Other

4. Marital Status (Tick one):

- a. Married
 - b. Single
 - c. Divorced
 - d. Widowed
5. Place of Residence:
- a. Urban
 - b. Rural
6. Religion:
- a. Hindu
 - b. Christian
 - c. Muslim
 - d. Others
7. Type of Family:
- a. Joint
 - b. Nuclear
8. Members of the Family:

No	M/ F	Age (yrs)	Relation to Respondent	Level of Education	Occupation	Annual Income

9. Do you have any previous work experience? Yes / No
If yes, give details. _____

No	Skilled / unskilled	Type of firm	Duration	Reason for Quitting	Difficulties faced there

10. How long have you been working (all jobs)?

- a. Below 5 years
- b. 5-10 years
- c. More than 10 years

11. At present in which department do you work? _____

12. What type of work do you do?

- a. Clerical
- b. Administrative
- c. Manual
- d. Supervisory
- e. Managerial
- f. Others _____

13. Since how long have you been in your present job? _____

14. How did you secure this job?

- a. Interview
- b. Employment Exchange
- c. Relatives
- d. Friends
- e. Others

15. Did you receive any training before you were put on the job? Yes / No

When _____ Where _____

16. Were you paid wages and salary during this period? Yes / No

17. Who paid for your training charges? _____

18. Did you benefit from the training course? Yes / No

19. In which of the following capacities are you working?
- Permanent
 - Part time
 - Temporary
 - Daily wage/ Casual
 - Others
20. What is your monthly salary in your present job?
- Less than 1000
 - 1001-3000
 - 3001-5000
 - 5001-10,000
 - More than 10,000
21. How far is your workplace from your home?
- About 1 Km
 - 2-4 km
 - 5-6 km
 - More than 6 kms.
22. How much time do you spend on travelling back and forth from work?
- Less than 1 hour
 - 1-2 hours
 - 2-3 hours
 - More than 3 hours.
23. What is your mode of transport?
- Walking
 - Own vehicle
 - Local bus
 - Office bus
 - Others
24. Do you have to work in shifts? Yes / No
25. Have you ever been promoted? Yes / No

26. Are you satisfied with the promotion procedure? Yes / No
27. Did you face any difficulty in getting the promotion? Yes / No
28. Do you get increments? Yes / No
If yes, after how long and how much? _____
29. Do you work overtime occasionally? Yes / No
If yes, overtime with payment / Overtime without payment
30. Why do you work overtime?
- Compulsory
 - To earn extra money
 - Others
31. How many times are you required to work overtime in a month? _____
32. Have you ever been transferred? Yes / No
33. Do you feel transfer a punishment? Yes / No
34. Are you satisfied with the transfer procedure in the factory? (If any) Yes / No
35. What are the types of holidays enjoyed by you in the year?
- National
 - Festival
 - Sundays
36. What are the leave facilities provided to you? (Tick all relevant)
- Casual Earned
 - Sick leave
 - Leave without pay
 - Accidental leave
 - Privileged leave
 - Maternity /Paternity leave
37. Which of the following reasons are responsible for your remaining absent from work? (Tick which are relevant)

- a. Nature of the job (heavy, monotonous, dirty, etc.)
- b. Own sickness
- c. Family sickness
- d. Distant place of residence and lack of transport
- e. Family troubles
- f. Engaged in part-time or side business
- g. Social or religious reasons
- h. Any other reason _____

38. What incentives do you get from the company? (Tick all relevant)

- a. Bonus
- b. Provident fund
- c. Medical facilities
- d. Any other _____

39. What is your attitude regarding the provision of the following in your factory?

(Tick which are relevant)

- | | |
|------------------------------|------------------------------|
| a. Lighting | Satisfactory/ unsatisfactory |
| b. Ventilation | Satisfactory/ unsatisfactory |
| c. Temperature | Satisfactory/ unsatisfactory |
| d. Dust | Satisfactory/ unsatisfactory |
| e. Smoke and fumes | Satisfactory/ unsatisfactory |
| f. Noise | Satisfactory/ unsatisfactory |
| g. Cleanliness | Satisfactory/ unsatisfactory |
| h. Over crowding | Satisfactory/ unsatisfactory |
| i. Working place | Satisfactory/ unsatisfactory |
| j. Office accommodation | Satisfactory/ unsatisfactory |
| k. Safety measures | Satisfactory/ unsatisfactory |
| l. Drinking water facilities | Satisfactory/ unsatisfactory |
| m. Restroom | Satisfactory/ unsatisfactory |
| n. Subsidised refreshments | Satisfactory/ unsatisfactory |
| o. Crèches | Satisfactory/ unsatisfactory |

p. Others _____

40. Are you satisfied with the welfare measures in the factory? Yes / No

41. Are you paid compensation for accidents? Yes / No

42. Why did you take up this job? (Tick all relevant reasons)

- a. For economic reasons
- b. To develop a career
- c. To obtain knowledge
- d. To be independent
- e. To provide for the future
- f. Because your family wishes it
- g. To be free from household work
- h. To make use of education
- i. Any other
- j. No particular reason

43. Do you find your job exhausting? Yes / No

44. Are you satisfied with the present job? Yes / No

If yes, why?

- a. Good salary
- b. Good administration
- c. Pleasant atmosphere
- d. Convenient hours
- e. Suited to qualifications and interest
- f. Others

If no, why?

- a. Insufficient salary
- b. Poor administration
- c. Unfriendly atmosphere
- d. Inconvenient hours
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45. Do you feel that working here has adversely affected your health? Yes / No

If yes, in what way? (Tick all relevant reasons)

- a. Developing specific deformities
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47. Are you given additional workload? Frequently/ Occasionally/ Never

48. Are you paid for the extra work allotted to you? Yes / No

49. Have you been praised by the in charge for having performed your duties well? Yes / No

50. Do you find that the work allotted to the males and females is similar in your department? Yes / No

If no, how is it different? _____

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52. Do you find it difficult to avail of the leave facilities? Yes / No

53. Do you feel that the male workers find it easier to get leave sanctioned than the female workers? Yes / No

54. What problems do you face with your colleagues? (Tick all relevant)

	Male	Females
a. No difficulty		
b. Lack of cooperation		
c. Takes too much advantage with respect to work		
d. Lack of respect		
e. Harassment from seniors		
f. Harassment from co – workers		
g. Any other		

55. Do you face any of these problems in the workplace? (Tick all relevant)

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- b. Denial of training facilities
- c. Discrimination in wages
- d. Denial of leave facilities
- e. Overwork
- f. Any other

56. Are there any other problems related to your job not covered above? Yes / No

If yes, what?

- a. With management _____
- b. With colleagues _____
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57. Whom do you have to approach with your problems? _____

58. Is the management prompt in solving your problems? Yes / No

59. Do you think that joining an occupation is the right decision for a woman? Yes / No

Please state your reasons: _____

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- a. Refrigerator
- b. Electric stove
- c. Gas
- d. Cooking range
- e. Mixer
- f. Pressure cooker
- g. Washing machine
- h. Geyser
- i. Electric iron
- j. Others

61. Do you take part in recreational activities? Yes / No

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