

STATUS OF LABOUR ACCESSED BY WOMEN EMPLOYEES IN PRIVATE SHOPS AND BUSINESS ENTERPRISES IN KERALA

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Dr.P.Saleel Kumar

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Census 2011 reports the work participation rate as 402,234,724 (39.1%) among which there are 275,014,476 (51.7%) male and 127,220,248 (25.6%) female (Census, 2011). Statistical data regarding the population of people working in the unregistered private shops and business enterprises is unavailable. Women employed in these private shops and business enterprises encounter issues around their labour such as wages, working conditions, safety measures, retirement benefits and social security measures. This present study signifies in terms of bringing to light the reality behind the labour shed by women employees in the private shops and business enterprises in the state of Kerala.

Labour is the amount of physical, mental and social effort used to produce goods and services in an economy. Labour supplies the expertise, manpower and service needed to turn raw materials into finished products and services. In return labourers receive a wage to buy the goods and services they don't produce themselves. Labour in the private shops and business enterprises in this study refers to manufacturing enterprise or service enterprises that may be small (Less than 5 employees), medium (6 – 20 employees) or big (more than 20 employees) which is not registered under any of the legal entities such as the Kerala Shops and Commercial Establishments Act (1960) or Sole Proprietorship Firm, Partnership Firm, Limited Liability Partnership, Private Limited Company and Public Limited Company and located within the state of Kerala. They are managed only with the license issued by the panchayat or municipality. There are several thousands of such shops existing and it is a potential source of employment in the informal sector to both women and men in rural and urban limits.

The study provides the scope for evaluating the enforcement of the legislations especially in the area of labour accessed by the women employees in the private shops and business enterprises in the state of Kerala. The study also provides the scope for understanding the discrimination and violence taking place within their work place. The study also provides scope for identifying the different categories of trade in the unorganized or informal sector providing employment opportunity for women from the rural and urban localities.

The overall objective of the study is to describe the status of labour accessed by the women employees employed in unregistered private shops and business enterprises in Kerala. The specific objectives of the study are:

1. To examine the socio-economic status of women employees in private shops and business enterprises.
2. To review the various category of trades and size of enterprises offering labour opportunity to women in the rural and urban limits.
3. To analyze the working conditions, protective measures, wages, retirement benefits, social security measures, union affiliation, skill development and training accessible to the women employees in private shops and business enterprises.
4. To appraise on the discrimination and harassment women employee encounter in their work place.
5. To ascertain the factors influencing motivation and job satisfaction.
6. To assess the knowledge possessed by women employees in private shops and business enterprises around constitutional provisions, policies, programme and legislations for protecting their rights as women employee.

The approach adopted to fulfil the objectives of this research is quantitative research approach. The purpose of this research is description and it aims at describing the labour status accessed by women employees in private shops and business enterprises as reported by them. The universe of the study comprises of all women employees aged between 20 – 40 years and employed in private shops and business enterprises in the state of Kerala that are not legally registered under the acts such as the Kerala Shops and Commercial Establishments Act (1960) or Sole Proprietorship Firm, Partnership Firm, Limited Liability Partnership, Private Limited Company and Public Limited Company and located within the state of Kerala but only run on license issued by the panchayat or municipality. The study includes all 14 districts in the state of Kerala as universe. The unit of the study comprise of a single women aged between 20 – 40 years and employed shops mentioned earlier.

In order to draw samples from the universe, the researcher used purposive sampling method. A sample of 6 districts namely Thrissur, Ernakulam, Kollam, Allappuzha, Idukki and Thiruvananthapuram are selected using random sampling method. Among the

six chosen districts the urban strata comprises of Thrissur, Ernakulam, Kollam, Allappuzha and the rural strata comprises of Idukki and Thiruvananthapuram. In every district 60 samples are collected thus the total size of the sample is 360. Thus there are 4 urban and 2 rural districts. Hence the urban data was 240 and rural was 120 thus totaling 360. The tool for data collection used in this study is self structured interview schedule. Reliability testing was done to assess the scales internal consistency. Parametric and non parametric tests were determined based on normal distribution of the samples and accordingly tests were applied. Statistical test such as chi-square, t test, ANOVA, Karl Pearson's co-efficient of correlation, Wilcoxon signed rank test, Kruskal Wallis test was applied to interpret the data and to draw meaningful inferences.

The study concludes with the important findings that sexual division of labour prevails and professionally qualified women is very less and it means that the majority of the women are used as helpers in conducting the day to day business. Women join the labour force only to meet out the economic demands of their family. Wage wise the women employees in private shops and business enterprises are paid above the minimum wage level fixed for workers of shops and commercial establishment in Kerala. The study identifies 84 different trades that provide employment opportunity to women in rural and urban. Small shops employing less than five employees are found to be more. Most of the enterprises are managed by proprietors. Few respondents have reported of not having adequate working conditions such as clean and safe drinking water, separate toilet facility, crèche, rest room, washing and dining facility, first aid, work beyond 9 hours, lack of rest during duty and absence of leave during week in their work place.

From the field experience of the researchers it is found that most of the women employees in private shops and business enterprises do not have membership in welfare fund, association and labour identity card. There is no clear statistics about the number of women employees employed in unregistered private shops and business enterprises in Kerala and their whereabouts. This reveals that they are in the informal or unorganized sector. Moreover, the employers are highly fearful of their existence as unregistered shops. Because of this it is very difficult to conduct a study among them and also it becomes difficult to intervene into their problems. Therefore all the women employees and other employees in the private shops and business enterprises should be organized, registered and be enrolled in the welfare scheme for issuing them the labour identity

card. The main hurdle in issuing the identity card is the contractors' signature in the application form. Usually the contractors are not willing to register the labourers working under them. An authorized labour identity card will give them a sense of security and identity so that they do not feel alienated. The card is also helpful at times when police interfere with these employees. The card also can help them in improving upon their self esteem.

Field experiences unveils that the private shops and business enterprises is one important source with potentiality to generate employment to several thousands of women employees in the state. This informal sector undergoes major threat and challenges. The study reveals that most of the type of employers are proprietors which means a single person or family is managing the enterprise and all resources in the form of investment is made by a single person. The person is responsible for all risks that may or may not harm the enterprise well being. Uncertainty among the employers prevails as it is managed as one man show and possibility of having second line leader may not possible. Hence there is a danger of closure at any point of time due to risks affecting the enterprise. Since this sector is proving to be a highly potential one for generating employment, it is important that the Government needs to take formal measures to organize this sector. In the effort of organizing consideration need to be given to develop common funds, credit facilities for improving the enterprise, insurance to enterprises, fixation of minimum requirements and standards to be upheld in the form of legal entities governing the enterprises and it should be enforced through the government institutional mechanisms. Regular support, encouragement, benefits to employers as a token of encouragement, benefits to employees, issuance of identity cards, linking the employers and employees with the schemes of government needs to be ensured. The savings and credit facilities made available to the employers can help them in avoiding money lenders who lend at exorbitant rate of interest. This can further steer up in the upcoming of many such units enhancing the opportunity for employment and also make these units a self sustainable one for future generations.

Women employed in the private shops and business enterprises have qualified basic education such as high school and higher secondary. This may not be sufficient to provide neither the entrepreneurship skills nor the professional skills. It is suggested that in addition to the regular academic foundation programme of study the government

schools may also add entrepreneurial skills and professional skill as a subject that may aid the students who are likely to drop out from higher education to be employed in their own profession taught to them at school level.

All the private shops and business enterprises need to be registered under the Kerala shops and commercial establishment act. The Kerala shops and commercial establishment act prescribes standard rules around key areas such as hours of work, holidays and leave, wages, health and safety and these are very minimal. It may also prescribe about minimum standards in a firm such as sanitation facilities, crèche facility (attachment with the local Anganwadi), womens' grievance cell, payment of wages regulated through bank accounts and provisions applicable to women employees. Although it is understood that the minimum requirements should be made available enforcement will not be possible unless it is clearly indicated in the act. Propaganda and awareness about the act needs to be given to both employers and employees. Non-governmental organization in the local regions may be used to disseminate awareness and accordingly the all private shops and commercial establishments may be brought under one fold. All shops and enterprises that remain unregistered should come under this act so that it will be carefully monitored to ensure enforcement of the labour laws applicable to the women employees such as wage, working conditions, leave, maternity benefits and so on.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

APA	-	American Psychological Association
ASI	-	Annual Survey of Industries
BRICS	-	Association of five major emerging national economies: Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa.
DGET	-	Directorate General of Employment and Training
FLFP	-	Female Labor Force Participation
GDP	-	Gross Domestic Product
ICLS	-	International Conference of Labour Statisticians
IDS	-	Institute of Development Studies
ILO	-	International Labour Organization
NCCUSW	-	National Campaign Committee for Unorganised Sector Workers
NCWUS	-	National Commission for Enterprises in the Unorganized Sector
NSSO	-	National Sample Survey Organisation
NWC	-	National Women's Commission
SEWA	-	Self employed Women's Association
SNA	-	System of National Account
UNSC	-	United Nations Statistical Commission

CHAPTER – I: INTRODUCTION

Jawaharlal Nehru remarked, “One can tell the condition of a nation by looking at the status of its women”. In the wake of successive waves of economic liberalization, the ‘condition’ of India, when thought of in terms of economic and human development, has improved dramatically. Yet, while the status of women has arguably improved both in the public and private spheres, their ability to access opportunities in this newly liberalized economy remains precarious.

According to International Labour Organisation (2013), India’s female labor force participation rate has remained visibly low in the world. The World Bank (2017) after analyzing the government data from 2004 to 2014 reported that as many as 19.6 million women dropped out of work force during this period of which rural accounted for 53 percent (Luis., et. al., 2017). NITI Aayog (2017) a government think tank stressed the importance of equal participation of women in the Indian economy. The report also highlights that only 27 percent of Indian women are in the labour force which is the lowest among BRICS countries (NITI Aayog, 2017). The labour force does not include women who do unpaid care work, which refers to all unpaid services within a household including care of people, housework and voluntary community work. However the reports reveal that female labour force participation is low in India.

Labour is the amount of physical, mental and social effort used to produce goods and services in an economy. Labour supplies the expertise, manpower and service needed to turn raw materials into finished products and services. In return labourers receive a wage to buy the goods and services they don’t produce themselves. Those without desired skills or abilities often do not even get paid a living wage. In order to ensure the labourers make enough to cover the costs of living many countries have a minimum wage. The economy runs most efficiently when all members are working at a job that uses their best skills and are paid according to the value of the work produced. Labour can be categorized as unskilled labour, skilled labour and semi-skilled labour. Labour is also categorized by the nature of the relationship with the employer.

In the Indian scenario employment is offered to women in both organized and unorganized sector. The organized sector or formal sector in India refers to licensed

organization who are legally registered and pay sales tax, income tax and registered their employees under provisions of certain given acts. These include the publicly traded companies, incorporated or formally registered entities, corporations, factories, shopping malls, hotels, and large businesses.

Unorganised or informal sector is also known as own account enterprises, that refers to all unlicensed, self employed or unregistered economic activity such as owner manned general stores, handicrafts and handloom workers, rural traders, farmers and so on. The Indian Economy is characterized by the existence of a vast majority of informal or unorganized labour employment. As per the Economic Survey 2007-08, 93% of India's workforce include the self employed and employed in unorganized sector. The Ministry of Labour, Government of India, has categorized the unorganized labour force under four groups in terms of Occupation, nature of employment, the specially distressed categories and service categories (Nurul, 2002; Stephen, 2010).

i. In terms of Occupation:

Small and marginal farmers, landless agricultural labourers, share croppers, fishermen, those engaged in animal husbandry, beedi rolling, labeling and packing, building and construction workers, leather workers, weavers, artisans, salt workers, workers in brick kilns and stone quarries, workers in saw mills, oil mills etc. come under this category .

ii. In terms of Nature of Employment:

Attached agricultural labourers, bonded labourers, migrant workers, contract and casual labourers come under this.

iii. In terms of Specially distressed categories:

Toddy tappers, scavengers, carriers of head loads, drivers of animal driven vehicles, loaders and unloaders come under this category.

iv. In terms of Service categories:

Midwives, domestic workers, fishermen and women, barbers, vegetable and fruit vendors, news paper vendors etc. belong to this category.

In addition to these four categories, there exists a large section of unorganized labour force such as cobblers, handicraft artisans, handloom weavers, lady tailors, physically handicapped self employed persons, rikshaw pullers, auto drivers, sericulture workers, carpenters, tannery workers, power loom workers and urban poor.

The unorganised sector has low productivity and offers lower wages. Even though it accounted for over 94 percent of workers, India's unorganised sector created just 57 percent of India's national domestic product in 2006, or about 9 fold less per worker than the organised sector (Kulshreshtha, 2011). According to Bhalla, the productivity gap sharply worsens when rural unorganised sector is compared to urban unorganised sector, with gross value added productivity gap spiking an additional 2 to 4 fold depending on occupation. Some of lowest income jobs are in the rural unorganised sectors. Poverty rates are reported to be significantly higher in families where all working age members have only worked the unorganised sector throughout their lives (Sheila Bhalla, 2003; Kalpana, et.al., 2012). Agriculture, dairy, horticulture and related occupations alone employ 52 percent of labour in India. About 30 million workers are migrant workers, most in agriculture, and local stable employment is unavailable for them.

Given its natural rate of population growth and aging characteristics, India is adding about 13 million new workers every year to its labour pool. India's economy has been adding about 8 million new jobs every year predominantly in low paying, unorganised sector (Tripti, 2011). The remaining 5 million youth joining the ranks of poorly paid partial employment, casual labour pool for temporary infrastructure and real estate construction jobs, or in many cases, being unemployed. Contribution of women in the unorganized sector many times goes without documentation. Women employed in the private shops and business enterprises are also a section of the population who may be or may not be covered under the unorganized sector.

Amartya Sen argued that 'if Indian women did not think about equality, then they should be given an opportunity to think about equality'. The International Labour Organisation says that women represent 50 percent of the population, while 30 percent of them are constituted in the labour force and perform 60 percent of all working hours and receive 10 percent of the world's income and own less than 1 percent of the world's

property. Thus female work participation has always been low when compared with men. The problem is that women have always been at work and only definitions of work and work plan have never been defined or realistic to include their contribution to the economy and the society. Work and work plans of women engaged into work force in the unorganized private shops and business enterprises are never defined. It is significant that the various trades that provide women with employment in the rural and urban needs to be identified and the enforced labour laws and the status of labour accessed by the women in the private shops and business enterprises in Kerala need to be analysed to gain in depth knowledge for possible inclusion. The intention of this present study is to measure the status of labour accessed by the women employees in the private shops and business enterprises in the state of Kerala.

1.1. Statement of the Problem:

Census 2011 reports the work participation rate as 402,234,724 (39.1%) among which there are 275,014,476 (51.7%) male and 127,220,248 (25.6%) female (Census, 2011). According to the Statistical Profile on Women Labour Report 2009 – 2011, during the year, 2010 total number of women applicants on live register was reported at 129.24 lakh which constituted 33.3 per cent of the total number of applicants on live register. Proportion of educated women job-seekers to total women on live register was reported at 78.1 percent during the year 2009. Percentage of women is highest in communications and IT sector with 15.75%. Percentage of placement to registration of women job-seekers has increased from 2.7 per cent in 2009 to 5.3 per cent in 2010. Among major states, Tamil Nadu reported the highest number of women jobseekers (467.4 thousand), followed by Kerala (255.3 thousand) whereas, the lowest number was reported from Arunachal Pradesh (2.3 thousand) at the end of 2010 (Statistical Profile on Women Labour Report, 2009 – 2011). This reveals the increasing trend of women job seekers in the formal sector. The number of total live register in the national employment service in the state of Kerala is 34,93,822 among which the male registrants are 13,70,846 and female registrants are 21,22,976. This reveals that the female job seekers size is more than the male job seekers in the state of Kerala. As job seekers in the formal sector, most of them when the opportunity for getting employed is limited, they enter the labour force in the private sector due to a variety of reasons ranging from poverty to economic independence.

Role performed by women in society is a significant indicator of the country's overall progress. Irrespective of their important role in human reproduction, upbringing of responsible children and managing household women are driven to work due to many reasons and problems. Some of the problems that drives women to depend on the work force are increasing financial demands of the family such as cost of living, expenses on education of the children, cost of housing properties forces every family in Kerala to look for ways and means of increasing the household income. As a result women who were mostly homemakers are forced to go for jobs and take up even careers that are considered only suitable for men such as working in night shift and standing over long hours during work timings. Many times women are exposed to unequal wages. According to United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) report, women are involved in doing 67% work of world, still they are socially and economically deprived. They are receiving only 10% of the universal income and have 1% part in global assets. Discrimination persists in their work place in unorganized sector (UNDP, 2015).

In the informal sector, women workers do not get same wages for same nature of work for same hours done by men. They are exploited at work place. Although there are legislations made available to protect the rights of women workers such as Employee State Insurance Act, Maternity Benefit Act, Equal Remuneration Act, Minimal Wages Act, Kerala Shops and Commercial Establishment Act, due to poor enforcement and lack of monitoring mechanisms of these legislations women workers are forced to work and live in miserable conditions in unorganized as well as in informal sector. Women workers have to handle persecutions at their work place, sometimes just over look things to ensure that their job is not jeopardized in any way. Overall, majority of women look towards or live in the hope that things will change. Women working in the private shops and business enterprises are exposed to many forms of exploitation, violence and abuse. This present study is an attempt to understand the labour status the working women experience while working in private shops and commercial establishments in the state of Kerala.

1.2. Context and Significance of the Study:

Women's rights in India are protected through the constitutional rights and legal rights. The constitutional rights are those which are provided in the various provisions of

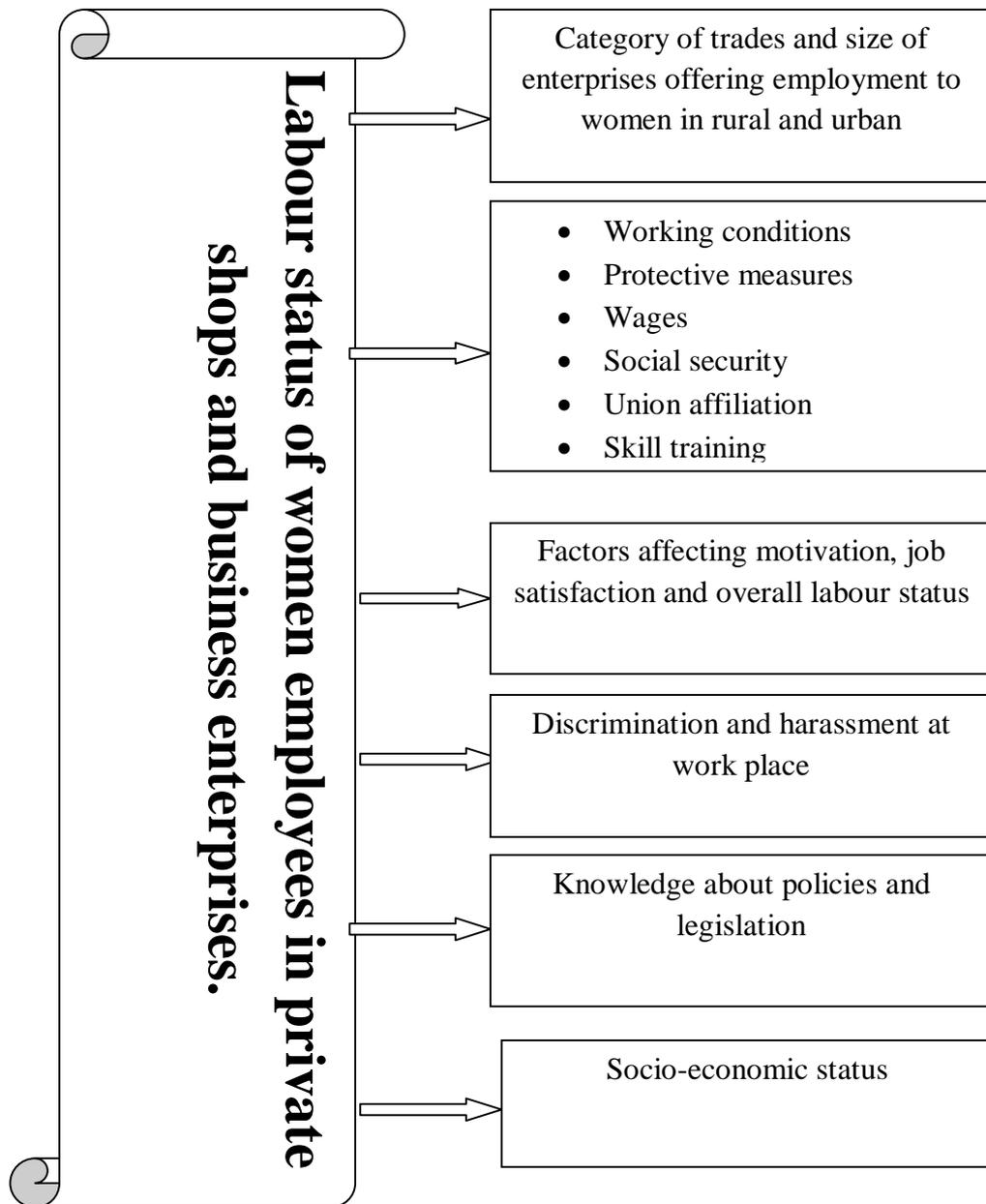
the constitutions such as Article 15(1) state shall not discriminate against any citizen of India on the ground of sex, Article 15(3) state is empowered to make any special provisions for women, Article 16(2) no citizen shall be discriminated against or be ineligible for any employment or office under the state on the ground of sex, Article 23(1) prohibits human trafficking and forced labour, Article 39(a) secures for men and women equally the right to an adequate means of livelihood, Article 39(d) secures equal pay for equal work for both men and women, Article 39(e) ensures that the health and strength of women workers are not abused and that they are not forced economic necessity to enter a vocation unsuited to their strength, Article 42 secures just and humane conditions of work and maternity relief and Article 51A(e) prescribes duty of every citizen of India to renounce practices derogatory to the dignity of women. The legal rights are those which are provided in the form of various legislation or laws or acts of the Parliament and State Legislatures. Some of the legislations are Maternity Benefit Act (1961), Equal Remuneration Act (1976), Employees State Insurance Act (1948), Plantation Labour Act (1951), National Commission for Women Act (1990) and Sexual Harassment of Women at Work place Act (2013). Although deliberate efforts have been made by the Government to protect the rights of women at their work place and labour, many time these provisions are ignored and women especially those working in the private shops and business enterprises tend to experience exploitation, abuse and discrimination. Even though most of the shops and business enterprises are registered under the Kerala Shops and Business Establishment Act (1960) it is often found to be technically formal or organized but practically informal or unorganized owing to the reasons that the employees do not have union, absence of recognition, low income and wages, no job security and no fringe benefits from institutional sources. Women employed in these private shops and business enterprises access issues around their labour such as wages, perks, working conditions, safety measures, retirement benefits and social security measures. This present study signifies in terms of bringing to light the reality behind the labour shed by women employees in the private shops and business enterprises in the state of Kerala.

1.3. Scope of the Study:

The present study emphasizes the labour accessed by women employees in the private shops and business enterprises in the state of Kerala. This present study extends

its scope in terms of understanding the labour status accessed by the women employees such as wages, perks, working conditions, safety measures, retirement benefits and social security measures.

Figure 1.3.1: Scope of the study



It also provides the scope for evaluating the enforcement of the legislations especially in the area of labour accessed by the women employees in the private shops and business enterprises in the state of Kerala. The study has the scope for understanding the discrimination and violence taking place within their work place. The study also provides scope for identifying the different categories of trade in the unorganized or

informal sector providing employment opportunity for women from the rural and urban localities.

1.4. Objectives of the Study:

1.4.1. General Objectives:

To describe the status of labour accessed by the women employees employed in private shops and business enterprises in Kerala.

1.4.2. Specific Objectives:

The study is an empirical investigation into the description of labour status accessed by women employees in the private shops and business enterprises. Specifically the objectives are:

1. To examine the socio-economic status of women employees in private shops and business enterprises.
2. To review the various category of trades and size of enterprises offering labour opportunity to women in the rural and urban limits.
3. To analyze the working conditions, protective measures, wages, retirement benefits, social security measures, union affiliation, skill development and training accessible to the women employees in private shops and business enterprises.
4. To appraise on the discrimination and harassment women employee encounter in their work place.
5. To ascertain the factors influencing motivation and job satisfaction.
6. To assess the knowledge possessed by women employees in private shops and business enterprises around constitutional provisions, policies, programme and legislations for protecting their rights as women employee.

1.5. Research Questions:

1. What are the different category and size trades that provides employment opportunity for women in the rural and urban areas in Kerala?
2. What access the women employees in private shops and business enterprises exercise with regard to the different dimensions of labour such as working conditions, protective measures, wages, retirement benefits, social security measures, union affiliation, skill development and training accessible to the women employees?
7. Does the women employee in the private shops and business enterprise encounter discrimination and harassment at their work place?
8. What are the factors that influence motivation and job satisfaction?
9. What is the knowledge available with women employees employed in private shops and business enterprises on constitutional provisions, legislations. policies and programme.

1.6. Definition of Key Terms

1.6.1. Conceptual Definitions:

1.6.1.1. Labour:

Kimberly Amadeo (2017) defines labour as the amount of physical, mental and social effort used to produce goods and services in an economy. It is one of the four factors of production that drive supply. The other three are natural resources or the raw materials, capital or the amount of money in the society and entrepreneurship or the drive to profit from innovation. In a market economy, these components of supply are provided to meet demand from consumers. Labour supplies the expertise, manpower and service needed to turn raw materials into finished products and services. In return, labourers receive a wage to buy the goods and services they do not produce themselves. Those without desired skills or abilities often do not even get paid a living wage. Enforcement of legislations around labour makes sure they make enough to cover the costs of living and also exercise rights prescribed in the constitution to its citizens.

1.6.1.2. Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises:

According to the Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises Development (MSMED) Act, 2006 the micro, small and medium enterprises are classified in two classes, namely, the manufacturing enterprises and service enterprise.

The manufacturing enterprises are those engaged in the manufacture or production of goods pertaining to any industry and it is defined in terms of investment in plant and machinery. Micro enterprises in this category refer to all manufacturing enterprises with an investment in plant and machinery not exceeding twenty five lakh rupees. Small enterprises in this category refer to all manufacturing enterprises with an investment in plant and machinery more than twenty five lakh rupees but not exceeding five crore rupees. Medium enterprises in this category refer to all manufacturing enterprises with an investment in plant and machinery more than five crore rupees but not exceeding ten crore rupees.

The service enterprises are those engaged in providing or rendering of services and are defined in terms of investment in equipment. Micro enterprises in this category refer to all service enterprises with an investment in equipment not exceeding ten lakh rupees. Small enterprises in this category refer to all service enterprises with an investment in equipment more than ten lakh rupees but not exceeding two crore rupees. Medium enterprises in this category refer to all service enterprises with an investment in equipments more than two crore rupees but not exceeding five crore rupees.

1.6.1.3. Big Medium and Small Establishment:

According to The Kerala Shops and Commercial Establishments Act (1960) big establishment is defined as a shop or commercial establishment which employs twenty or more employees. Medium establishment is a shop or commercial establishment which employs six or more, but less than twenty employees. Small establishment is a shop or commercial establishment where the strength of employees ranges from zero to five.

1.6.1.4. Establishment:

The Kerala Shops and Commercial Establishments Act (1960) define establishment means a shop or commercial establishment which may be a small establishment, a medium establishment or a big establishment.

1.6.1.5. Employee:

The Kerala Shops and Commercial Establishments Act (1960) define employee as a person wholly or principally employed in, and in connection with, any establishment and includes an apprentices.

1.6.1.6. Employer:

The Kerala Shops and Commercial Establishments Act (1960) define employer as a person owning, or having ultimate control over the affairs of, an establishment and includes the manager, agent or other person acting in the general management or control of an establishment.

1.6.1.7. Shop:

The Kerala Shops and Commercial Establishments Act (1960) define shop as any premises where any trade or business is carried on or where services are rendered to customers, and includes offices, store-rooms, godowns or warehouses, whether in the same premises or otherwise, used in connection with such trade or business but does not include a commercial establishment or a shop attached to a factory where the persons employed in the shop are allowed the benefits provided for workers under the Factories Act, 1948 (Central Act 63 of 1948).

1.6.1.8. Social Security:

Social Security is defined by the International Labour Organization (ILO) as “The protection which society provides for its members through a series of public measures against the economic and social distress that otherwise would be caused by the stoppage or substantial reduction of earnings resulting from sickness, maternity, employment injury, invalidity and death; the provision of medical care; and the provision

of subsidies for families with children” (1984). The security which society furnishes through appropriate organizations against certain risks to which its members are perennially exposed is social security.

1.6.1.9. Job Satisfaction:

Moreover, Weiss, H.M. (2002) defined job satisfaction is a pleasurable emotional state of the appraisal of one’s job; an effective reaction and an attitude towards one’s job. No doubt job satisfaction is an attitude but one should clearly distinguish the objects of cognitive evaluation which are affect (emotion), beliefs and behaviours.

1.6.2. Operational definitions

1.6.2.1. Private Shops and Business Enterprises:

Private shops and business enterprises in this study refers to manufacturing enterprise or service enterprises that may be small (Less than 5 employees), medium (6 – 20 employees) or big (more than 20 employees) which is not registered under any of the legal entities such as the Kerala Shops and Commercial Establishments Act (1960) or Sole Proprietorship Firm, Partnership Firm, Limited Liability Partnership, Private Limited Company and Public Limited Company and located within the state of Kerala.

1.6.2.2. Big Establishment:

Big establishment in this study refers to shop or commercial establishment which employs twenty or more employees.

1.6.2.3. Medium Establishment:

Medium establishment in this study refers to shop or commercial establishment which employs six or more, but less than twenty employees.

1.6.2.4. Small Establishment:

Small establishment in this study refers to shop or commercial establishment where the strength of employees ranges from zero to five.

1.6.2.5. Labour Status:

Labour status in this study refers to the working conditions, protective measures, wages, perks, retirement benefits, social security measures, skill enhancement and training, union affiliation, motivation in job, labour efficiency, work hour productivity, job satisfaction and overall satisfaction with the employer.

1.6.2.6. Private Shops:

Private shop in this study refers to all premises where goods are sold either retail or wholesale or services rendered to customers. It has an office, store room, godown and a work place. It is licensed by panchayat and may not have registered under the Kerala Shops and Commercial Establishment Act or any other acts to which labour of the employees are monitored against all forms of violations of labour laws.

1.6.2.7. Women Employees:

Women employees in this study refer to all women working in the private shops and business enterprises and are in the young adulthood ages 20 – 40 years.

1.7. Theoretical Base of the Study:

Women's participation in the unorganized or informal sector has been studied under the conceptual framework of labour market theory. As per standard theory of labour, labour is a positive function of real wages. But the standard labour supply theory has certain limitations and is not applicable in case of labour supply in the rural economies and in urban informal sector. Supply of women labour is influenced by certain societal and institutional factors. Women's participation in the labour market depends more on some facilitating factors rather than wage rates. These facilitating conditions would include several factors like number of dependent children, their age, type of family, size of the family, health of family members, nature and type of the job, distance from the workplace and so on. If these factors are favorable the level of wage rate is almost irrelevant for the decision to enter the labour market in the sense that minor variations in wage rate are not likely to affect the decision (Dholakia 1992). Human capital theory suggests that women are equipped with low level of education and technology and so they are found to concentrate in the unorganised sector. Institutional

theorists (Doeringer and Piore, 1971) held the view that labour market is stratified by institutional barriers and it is segmented as primary and secondary sector. Institutional theorists consider women as the minority group among workers and hence are found more in the unorganised sector. Feminist theorists (Bhasin 2003) have found gender stereotyping and patriarchal norms as the basic cause of discrimination against women in the labour market. Patriarchal exploitation prevents women to work outside even when real wage rate increases. Sexual division of labour gives importance to women's domestic role in terms of housework and child care. Familial patriarchal interests profoundly affect women's access to education. The inferior educational achievement of women is rationalized in terms of their future domestic carriers as wives and mothers. As a result women face discrimination in the labour market and they have found their appropriate jobs in the unorganised sector. Even for the literate or educated women such patriarchal belief is applicable. Lack of socially desirable work for women restricted mobility and high status work for educated women. Lack of socially desirable, high status work for educated women and then restricted mobility confines them in unorganised sector. Again, the poor women, who are not in a position to refrain themselves from working have to counted with larger structure of patriarchy in discriminatory wages and occupational segregation (Lindberg 2001). So segmented labour market theory is applicable for women and they are concentrated in the low paying secondary sector. With this theoretical and conceptual background the study attempts to understand the status of labour accessed by the women employees in private shops and business enterprises that are in the informal sector despite the fact that many labour laws are enforced towards ensuring better labour and upholding of their rights.

1.8. Research Approach and Design:

The epistemological position used in this research is objectivism. By using objectivism as the way to generate the theory of knowledge, the researcher intends to make predictions and test theories and hypothesis concerned with women employees employed in private shops and business enterprises.

The theoretical perspective of this present study is positivism. Positivism adheres to the view that only factual knowledge gained through observation including

measurement is trustworthy. The research intends to collect data and interpret those data objectively and the findings are observable and quantifiable adopting statistical analysis.

The study employs deductive approach which is concerned with developing hypotheses based on existing theory and tests the formulated hypothesis. The nature of this present research is quantitative. The research methodology employed is survey and the research purpose is descriptive. By adopting the descriptive research purpose the researcher intends to describe and provide a picture of labour status accessed by women employees in private shops and business enterprises and generating knowledge around it by testing statistically the hypothesis specified in this research.

1.9. Expected Outcome:

The study provides a dependable understanding of the status of labour accessed by women employees in private shops and business enterprises in Kerala against the enforced labour laws. A clear understanding of the deficiency in the enforcement of labour laws is revealed through this study. Easy understanding around the variables concerned with labour such as the working conditions, protective measures, wages, retirement benefits, social security measures, union affiliation, skill development and training accessible to the women employees is compared against the labour laws enforced in the present context. The study also aims at the identification of various categories of trades and size of enterprises in the informal or unorganized sector offering labour opportunity to women in the rural and urban localities in Kerala. It also appraises the discrimination and harassment women employee encounter in their work place. Attempts are made to ascertain the factors influencing motivation and job satisfaction. The study also focus on assessing the knowledge possessed by women employees in private shops and business enterprises around constitutional provisions, policies, programme and legislations for protecting their rights as women employee. All together the findings of the study will help to formulate appropriate support systems and policies to aid women employees have the access to better labour as enforced by the labour laws.

CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Review of literature in this chapter mainly focuses on the concepts and theories of labour status in private shops and business enterprises and previous research studies on the labour status of women. It is estimated that less than 12 percent of the work force in India belongs to the formal sector, leaving more than 90 percent over 447 million people in a labour force of almost 500 million in the informal sector. Women constitute the largest segment of India's unorganised workforce. According to National council for Applied Economic Research (NCAER), almost 97 percent female workers are involved in the unorganised or informal sector (Nath and Anna, 2009). They are from the poorest households and very often from socially disadvantaged and vulnerable families. A sizable population in the informal sector is employed in different categories of trades. Constitutional provisions applicable to all citizens are applicable to this chunk of population also. Enforcement of labour laws such as employees compensation act (1923), employees provident fund and miscellaneous provisions act (1952), employees state insurance act (1948), equal remuneration act (1976), maternity benefit act (1961), minimum wages act (1948), payment of bonus act (1965), payment of gratuity act (1972), payment of wages act (1936), trade unions act (1926) and weekly holidays act (1942) are all applicable to all employees respective of their purpose. Research and documentation made available to the existing body of knowledge around labour status of women in private shops and business enterprises are focused and shortcomings to augment through this existing research are arrived in this chapter.

2.1. Concepts and theories of labour in private shops and business enterprises:

It is well known that a major part of the workforce in India and other developing countries work in informal sector. Informal sector has become an increasingly popular subject of study, not just in economics, but also in sociology and anthropology. Keith Hart was the first person to introduce the term 'Informal Sector'. He introduced it while making a presentation on 'Informal income opportunities and urban employment in Ghana' in Institute of Development Studies (IDS) in September 1971 at a conference co-organized by Rita Cruise O' Brien and Richard Jolly on urban employment in Africa months before International Labour Organisation (ILO) employment mission to Kenya came with its report 'Employment Incomes and Equality' (Jolly, 2006).

Hart distinguished formal and informal (both legitimate and illegitimate) income opportunities on the basis of whether the activity entailed wage or self-employment (Hart, 1973). Therefore the concept of informal sector used by Hart was limited to small self-employed individual workers. Although Hart's concept of informal sector had some limitations, the introduction of this concept made it possible to incorporate activities that were previously ignored in theoretical models of development and in national economic accounts (Swaminathan, 1991). The term informal sector came in a broader sense in the academic literature only after the visit of an International Labour Organization (ILO) employment mission to Kenya in 1972. The ILO then evolved a conceptual framework and guidelines for the collection of statistics on informal sector and presented the same in the Fifteenth International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS) held in February, 1993 in the form of a resolution. The resolution was then endorsed by the United Nations Statistical Commission (UNSC) and made a part of the 'System of National Account (SNA) 1993' by the United Nations Economic and Social Council. Though the term 'informal sector' gained currency after ILO evolved a conceptual framework and guidelines for the collection of statistics on informal sector, there has not been any single definition of informal or unorganised sector in India. Informal sector is a matter of discussion among the academics and the policy makers from the beginning as a large chunk of workforce employed in this sector.

Different criteria are used to identify the informal sector but none of them was universally applicable in different empirical situations (Papola, 1981). A study by Mitra (2001) based on fourth economic census of India took the criteria of own account enterprises and employment establishments employing one to nine workers to identify the informal sector. The different organizations of India like National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO), Directorate General of Employment and Training (DGET) etc used varying definitions of informal or unorganised sector depending on the specific requirements of each organisation. Keeping in view the absence of a uniform definition of informal or unorganised sector in India the National Commission for Enterprises in the Unorganised Sector (NCEUS) set-up a Task Force to review the existing definitions and formulated harmonized definitions of informal or unorganised sector employment and informal or unorganised employment.

As per SNA (1993), the informal sector consists of units engaged in the production of goods or services with the primary objective of generating employment and income to the persons concerned. These units typically operate at a low level of organization, with little or no division between labour and capital as factors of production and on a small scale. Labour relations where they exist are based mostly on casual employment, kinship or personal and social relations rather than contractual arrangements with formal guarantees. The informal sector forms part of the household sector as household enterprises or equivalently, unincorporated enterprises owned by households.

The First Indian National Commission on Labour (1966-69) defined ‘unorganised sector workforce’ as those workers who have not been able to organize themselves in pursuit of their common interest due to certain constraints like casual nature of employment, ignorance and illiteracy, small and scattered size of establishments.

The National Sample Survey Organization (NSSO), which has been conducting surveys of un-organized enterprises at periodical intervals, generally adopted the following criteria for the identification un-organized sector:

- i. In the case of manufacturing industries, the enterprises not covered under the Annual Survey of Industries (ASI) are taken to constitute the un-organized sector.
- ii. In the case of service industries, all enterprises, except those run by the Government (Central, State and Local Body) and in the corporate sector were regarded as un-organized.

The NSSO also conducted a separate informal sector survey in 1999-2000 and ‘all non-agricultural enterprises, excluding those covered under the ASI, with type of ownership as either proprietary or partnership’ were treated as informal nonagricultural enterprises for the purpose of the survey.

In the compilation of National Accounts, the term un-organized sector is used to represent the residual enterprises, which are not included in the ‘organized sector’.

The coverage under 'organizational sector', however, differed across different segments of the economy depending on regular data availability from various administrative sources.

The Directorate General of Employment and Training (DGET) considers all establishments employing ten workers or more as organized sector, though Employment Exchange (Compulsory Notification of Vacancies) Act, 1959[□], makes it mandatory to submit employment returns only for those units ordinarily employing twenty five or more persons.

According to National Commission for Enterprises in the Unorganised Sector (NCEUS), the informal sector enterprises are owned by individuals or households that are not constituted as separate legal entities independent of their owners. In the Indian context, the enterprises can be of ownership categories of (i) proprietary (ii) partnership (iii) registered under Companies Act as Companies (iv) Co-operative societies registered under Societies Registration Act and (v) Government or Public Sector Undertakings. Out of these ownership categories, the enterprises operated on proprietary and partnership basis do not constitute as separate legal entities independent of their owners i.e., the liabilities of the enterprise fall entirely on the owners

Another important characteristic in the international definition is that the employment size has to be below a specific threshold to be determined according to national circumstances. It has been seen by the Task Force that the appropriate employment size in the context of India is nine workers.

Non-registration under specific forms of national legislation is another characteristic which can be used for identifying informal enterprises as per international guidelines. However, in the case of India, there is no unique form of registration which can be used for such identification though there are several voluntary and mandatory registration systems for specific segments of industrial units.

The non-maintenance of complete accounts that would permit a financial separation of production activities of the enterprise is generally satisfied in the case of proprietary and partnership enterprises employing less than ten workers as those enterprises are not under any legal obligation to maintain separate accounts. In view of the above, the

definition of unorganized or informal sector recommended is that the informal sector consists of all unincorporated private enterprises owned by individuals or households engaged in the sale and production of goods and services operated on a proprietary or partnership basis and with less than ten total workers.

The word enterprise in the above definition has the same meaning as defined in the SNA (1993) and refers to an institutional unit in its capacity as a producer of goods and services. An enterprise is classified as proprietary if an individual is its sole owner and as partnership if there are two or more owners on a partnership basis with or without formal registration. It excludes all corporate entities, registered co-operatives, trusts and other legal entities.

Though the above definition does not make any distinction between agricultural and non-agricultural enterprises, the concept of enterprise is so far being used in India only in the context of non-agricultural sector. The use of such a restrictive meaning of enterprise would lead to the exclusion of a large number of workers in the agricultural sector, unless a corresponding unit of enterprise in agriculture is specified and used. It is, therefore, recommended that each operational holding in the crop production, plantation, forestry, animal husbandry and fishing activities may be considered as an enterprise for the purpose of applying the definition of unorganized or informal sector.

In the absence of identification of operational holdings in agriculture as enterprises and collection of the relevant details in the labour force surveys in India, it has not been possible to apply the above definition of informal sector in the field of agriculture so far. Nevertheless, the size of employment in the un-organized informal sector and its distribution need to be estimated and as such all workers in the agricultural sector except those in plantations have been regarded as informal sector workers in agriculture. This approximation has been made on the basis of the following assumptions:

- i) Plantations are generally large in size and the workers in the sector are protected under Plantations Labour Act, 1951;
- ii) Organized farming is very rare in India and crop cultivation and other agricultural activities are primarily carried out by private households possessing small pieces of land or holdings.

To estimate the contribution of Informal sector to gross domestic product the definition of informal sector was included in the System of National Accounts (SNA), 1993. The definition is, therefore, in terms of characteristics of the enterprise rather than in terms of the characteristics of the worker. Thus a large number of workers with informal job status were excluded. Some of the reasons for the exclusion are.

- (i) The persons engaged in very small-scale or casual self-employment activities may not report in statistical surveys that they are self employed, or employed at all, although their activity falls within the enterprise-based definition.
- (ii) Certain groups of persons such as out-workers, sub-contractors, freelancers or other workers whose activity is at the borderline between self-employment and wage employment are likely to be missed or wrongly classified.
- (iii) An enterprise based definition of the informal sector will not be able to capture all aspects of the increasing “informalisation” of employment, leading to various forms of informal employment even in the formal sector.
- (iv) Persons employed in private households as domestic servants, gardeners, are likely to be left out in an enterprise based definition.

The Employment relationship even in the so called organized sector is not formal in a good percentage of cases and many workers working in the formal sector without any protection and social security. At the same time, there are at least a few employees in the unorganized or informal sector that enjoys formal employment relationship. The National Commission for Enterprises in the Unorganized Sector (NCEUS) took note of these aspects and decided to complement the definitions of unorganized or informal sector with a definition of informal employment.

Informal workers consists of those working in the informal sector or households, excluding regular workers with social security benefits provided by the employers and the workers in the formal sector without any employment and social security benefits provided by the employers. The private shops and business enterprises in this study also come under the category of informal sector.

2.2. Labour Market Theory and Women Workers in informal Sector:

People whom society holds in an inferior status are denied an equal opportunity to develop their potential capability, to use that capability in its most advantageous employment, and to earn a wage that is equal to what others of the same capability are paid. More or less in every society, women hold such inferior status and they are considered as minority group. The lack of equal opportunity especially affects members of this minority group, that is, women, to whom certain market opportunities are denied that are open to men. So, women often face 'discrimination'. Women face both premarket and market discrimination. Premarket discrimination denies to those who are discriminated against an equal opportunity to develop their natural abilities and talents during their formative, pre-employment years. Women face such discrimination as they are provided inferior schooling or poorer health services compared to men. Market discrimination takes place when people of equal capabilities who are competing on the labour market are given unequal job assignments, promotions, or rates of pay solely on the basis of some characteristic unrelated to their performance. Women in the labour market face such market discrimination. Thus, discrimination affects women at two separate points: in the premarket acquisition of income-generating characteristics, such as education and good health, and second, in the rewards given to these characteristics within the market itself (Kaufman et. al., 2003).

There are three general theoretical approaches which seek to explain the causal relationships for the disadvantageous position of women in the labour market. These theories are: (a) The neo-classical theory. (b) The Institutional theories of segmentation and (c) The gender or feminist theories.

2.2.1. Neo-classical Theory:

Neo-classical theory, which is also known as human capital theory, explains the sex inequalities in terms of differences in human capital. Differences in human capital, like domestic responsibility, differences in physical endurance, education and training, hours of work and turn-over etc. influence productivity and labour supply conditions which lead to inequalities in sex. Thus, the lower level of earnings of women is due to the lower level of human capital, which in turn leads to lower level of productivity. Thus, the earning differentials between male and female is explained by neo-classical theory.

Though the productivity differentials may only partially explained in terms of male-female differences in human capital as far as the capitalist countries are concerned, this factor assumes greater importance in case of developing countries. A number of country case studies reveal that in those developing countries where the educational levels of women are lower than those of men, earning differentials between the two sexes have been observed. Marginal earning differentials have also been noticed at identical levels of education of men and women (Anker et. al., 1986). It is also found from empirical literature that formal education is a prerequisite for modern sector employment. In countries where educational level of women is on an average low, the chances of securing jobs in the modern or formal or organized sector by them have very low (Chandola, 1995).

2.2.2. Institutional Theories:

The institutional theories of labour market segmentation relate sex differences in the labour market to the structure of the labour market. The institutional theories relating to female labour market developed by Piore and Doeringer (1971) state that labour market consists of two main sectors, namely, primary and secondary. The segmented labour market theory focuses on discrimination based on sex in the labour market. Segmented labour market theorists have argued that the minority groups which include women are concentrated in the low paying secondary sector.

According to the institutional theories labour market is stratified by institutional barriers. The different segments function as independent market having their own demand and supply schedules, indicating the imperfections of their market, differing consumer tastes and preferences and varying responses to changes in price. It means the supplier faces an imperfect market rather than the perfectly competitive market, as visualized in the neo-classical models. The wage rates are determined not by the overall demand and supply functions, but on the basis of demand and supply functions prevalent in the sub-markets or within the specific segments of the labour markets.

2.2.3. Dual Labour Market Theory:

The dual labour market theory is extremely useful for the analysis of sexual division of labour. The basic premises of this theory is that it assume the labour market

as segmented into two sectors, namely, primary and secondary. The dual labour market theory presented by Piore and Doeringer (1971) provides a sound theoretical base to the theories of labour market segmentation. Piore and Doeringer stated that labour market consists of two main sectors: primary and secondary. The primary sector consists of large firms all displaying a degree of market power. Employees in this sector enjoy relatively high quality of working conditions; including high wage, stable employment, established promotion opportunities and participation in establishing the administrative rules governing their work environment.

The secondary sector generally consists of small peripheral firms that typically perform lowly skilled works and are constantly threatened by potential competitors. Low wage, less security and little scope for advancement are the features of jobs in secondary sector. These features of primary and secondary sector are clearly distinct in the organized and unorganised sector of the developing countries. Since men are perceived as more stable, they find their employment in primary sector and women in secondary sector. So, the dual labour market theoretical approach can very well be applied to the organized and unorganized sector of the developing economies (David, 1996).

The segmented labour market approach argues that minority groups and women are proportionally distributed into secondary jobs at the beginning of their careers. This is not due to lack of demand for labour and deficiencies in skills or motivation but due to such institutional processes as systematic discrimination by employers and labour unions.

Marxian economists use historical approach to explain labour market discrimination. They relate this discrimination to the “power and domination theory” and view this discrimination as the result of capitalist mode of production. It emphasizes the role of women as producer in partnership with men on equitable and non-exploitative basis during the pre-capitalist form of production. This relationship vanished with the emergence of the capitalist form of production governed by men and women were relegated to constitute the ‘Industrial Reserve Army’. In this process, the labour market got segmented into two relatively separate markets for men and women. Women thus got crowded into those occupations with-low income, insecure and less stable jobs. According to the overcrowding approach, women have to compete for limited ‘women

specific' jobs within themselves in the overcrowded segment of the labour market. This depresses their wages. On the other hand, women have no competition with men in a large number of 'male specific' jobs. This helps in maintaining higher level of wages for men. Even if there are no restrictions to the entry of women to certain jobs, they unconsciously feel that only certain specific jobs are meant for them. Thus, on the one hand, because of women's belief that their choices are restricted, and, on the other hand, discriminatory practices of the employers, women are thrown to the peripheral jobs (Papola et. al., 1982).

According to the Marxists, capitalism needs an oppressed group of labourers to perform its menial, low paying tasks and women are considered such an oppressed group. So, using 'occupation' as the unit of analysis, some economists assumed that markets are segmented along occupational lines. The segmented labour market theory offers a better explanation of poverty and women. The poor women are confined to the secondary labour market. So, elimination of poverty requires that they gain access to primary employment.

Labour market segmentation theory held the view that increase in intelligence quotient or educational attainment does not reduce the inequality of income between various groups. Evidence from developed and developing countries also suggests that the equal access of education of men and women takes no cognizance of the sex segmentation of the labour market which in one of the assumption of human or capital theory. Segmented labour market theorists have argued that education and training programmes had failed to deliver their promised cure of economic inequality. Sustained discrimination against minorities is viewed in segmented labour market theories as evidence against the neo-classical theory of competition. The large and persisting differentials in earning between the groups (males and females) challenge the orthodox theory of competition (Chandola 1995).

2.2.4. The Gender or Feminist Theories:

According to the gender or feminist theories cultural factors are basically responsible for the discrimination of women in the labour market. The position of women in relation to their familial roles has been discussed for long by many scholars. Boserup (1970) first questioned about the sex specificity of jobs based on empirical

evidence. The responsibility of domestic work, particularly child care attributed women subordinate position in the labour market. The characteristics of the occupations women tend to perform are also shaped by their domestic roles. The problem is accentuated when one considers the long-term effect of women's double burden on their psychological built and physique, resulting in loss of productivity. Therefore, the changes in the structure of the labour market will not bring about an improvement in the position of women unless it is accompanied by a shift in their position in the households, otherwise women will continue to be crowded in the secondary sector (Jelin, 1982).

Feminist theories also stress that women's occupations tend to be extensions of domestic roles such as teaching children, cleaning and servicing. Moreover, just as women's domestic work is devalued within most societies so are these occupations and skills.

Thus, it is observed that for the neo-classical theorists the crucial factor responsible for lower levels of earnings of women is the lower level of productivity. The labour market segmentation theories, on the other hand, view that labour market is stratified by institutional barriers and explain how men and women get slotted into separate segments. The different segments function as an independent market. As a result the wage rates are determined by the demand and supply functions prevalent in the sub-markets or the specific segments of the labour markets. The gender theorists find that cultural factors are mainly responsible for women's discrimination in the labour market.

2.2.5. Marx's Analysis of the Labour Process:

Marx believed that there is division of labour among workers and the different functions are arranged according to a hierarchy. At the bottom of this hierarchy are unskilled labourers. With the advancement of technology, technical division of labour took place and there emerged two groups of workers - Skilled and unskilled. Modern industry substitute unskilled labour for skilled labour, female labours for male, young labour for mature. Modern industry also gives rise to intensified production outside factories in the domestic industry which employ women and children (Beachy, 1978).

Women were considered as subsidiary workers. So, they were paid lower wages than male. Women are also paid less because of the assumptions that women are partly

dependent on their husband's wages. There is always a tendency to pay women wages below the value of their labour power.

2.2.6. Women as a Reserve Army of Labour:

The economic role or status of women is traditionally determined by their dual role, their role in labour market and in home. That is, women's work in the labour force and their work in the home determine their economic roles. According to Marx and Engels: "Factory production and the introduction of machinery draw women into production and this substitutes female labour for male labour. This substitution has effects on the family. Machinery provides the capitalist greater control over the labour process and by drawing all members of the family irrespective of sex and age; it depreciates the value of male labour power. By transferring the expenditure of more and more motive power to the machine, transforms work itself and brings about changes both in the labour used and in wages. Capitalists could now employ labourers with slight muscular strength. Consequently, the labour of women and children was used."

According to Marx's theory of capitalists' development, the growing organic composition of capital results in a greater quantity of labour being continuously set 'free' than is required for the expansion of capital into reserve. As total capital increases, the demand for labour falls. Thus, labourers are continuously being 'freed' either by actually losing their jobs or simply not being absorbed into the spheres.

Women as part of this reserve army of labour are paid very low wages that not only ensures a discounted rate of female labour power but also reproduces forms of dependence and subordination found within the family. It should be noted that Marx did not mention aspects of the reserve army of labour in a gender specific way. However, the specific position of women as part of the industrial reserve army can be explained in terms of their labour being paid for at a price below its value; of women's dependency within the family and the ideological assumptions which surrounds this, which enter into the determination of the value of female labour power (Beachy, 1977). Whenever female labour power has a different value from that of male labour power, their distinctive position within production has to be understood with reference to the family and the role of women within it and in terms of patriarchal ideology (Widge, 1995).

From Marxian theory it is derived that women serve as a 'reserve army of labour' for capital in advanced capitalist countries. Kalpagam (1994) believed that reserve army is a result of a process of capital accumulation. The development of capitalism releases labour in one sector but increases the demand for labour in other sectors. Capitalism's demand for labour also type specific. Women as a group play a particular role in the reserve army in terms of availability, disposability and cheapness.

Kalpagam has taken the example of India where there has been a shift in the manufacturing sector from household to non-household production. The growth of non-household manufacturing sector is not accompanied by absorption of women displaced from the household manufacturing sector. The growth of the organized sector has been very sluggish especially that of female employment which led to the emergence of the urban informal sector. The urban informal sector constitutes a pool of stagnant labour reserve for the capitalist sectors of the economy. The formal capitalist sector uses a number of means for extracting surplus value from the informal sector through a set of linkages.

According to Kalpagam, the introduction of machinery was not female labour displacing in India because of its labour surplus. But women do constitute a cheap labour reserve. The tasks that women perform are generally unskilled and there have been instances where women have been pushed out from skilled tasks to unskilled ones. The process of informalisation or disorganisation of production unit is done with a view to exploit the cheap labour (female labour) that is available. If the structure of wages is analysed it reflects the social attitudes prevailing (Kalpagam, 1994).

The theory of women as a reserve army of labour is the single most popular explanation for women's subordinate status in the labour force. The descriptive strength of the reserve army concept as applied to women arises from the fact that women have been available as a reserve in a way that men have not. The theory provides explanation why women are concentrated in the informal sector jobs.

2.2.7. Sexual Division of Labour and Unorganised Women Labour:

“Gender division of labour or sexual division of labour, refers to the allocation of different roles, responsibilities, and tasks to women and men based on societal ideas of

what men and women should do and are capable of doing. Different tasks and responsibilities are assigned to girls and boys, women and men according to their sex - gender roles, and not necessarily according to their individual preferences or capabilities” (Bhasin, 2003). The division between production and reproduction the bearing and care of children plus the general management of the household is the basis of what is known as the sexual division of labour. Reproduction may be considered to include the maintenance of community as well as family life. A division exists not only between domestic and productive work, but also within each category. Why women are concentrated in certain specific jobs such as cleaning, caring, teaching and food processing is explained by the fact women’s primary role is reproduction (Bullock, 1994). The integration of women’s subsistence production into the process of commodity production and capital accumulation would not have been possible if these processes had not been based on a particular division of labour between the sexes. Patriarchal man-woman relations have existed in the labour market for at least 3,000 years. Long before the advent of capitalism, brahmanical Hinduism had institutionalized the devaluation of women in general and of their work in particular. What is happening today under the impact of ‘modernisation’ is not a weakening of this patriarchal order but rather a strengthening of it. This is contrary to what most analysts had predicted who saw patriarchy as part of ‘backward’, ‘feudal’ relations which would disappear with the advent of market economy (Mies, 1986)

Biological explanations treat sexual division of labour as a natural division rooted in reproductive functions. This result in women’s labour being undermined in the family and the wage sector because both are characterized by sex specific tasks and job allocation. Thus, tasks are considered ‘feminine’ and ‘masculine’ by direct reference to biology or making analogies between biologically determined activities. Social inequalities are considered ‘natural’ or ‘inborn’ and hence beyond the scope of social change. This concept has led to the dominance of male over female. Thus, a women’s work in giving birth and raising children as well as domestic work does not appear as work or labour. Women are often defined as housewives or as non- workers.

Another explanation for sexual division of labour is that it is socially determined. Here, the concept ‘patriarchy’ is important. Patriarchy designates male - female relations as social relations who, among other things, organize biological reproduction rather than

being themselves determined by biology. Patriarchy as an analytical category inscribes the sexual division of labour as a social division and not a natural one. Thus, the unequal, hierarchical and exploitative relationships between men and women are due to social and not biological factors. The sexual division of labour is also an ideological representation of work distribution in society. It extends patriarchal relations into the non-familial labour process.

The sexual division of labour theory explains that the patriarchal exploitation of women by men is located within the family. The implication of domestic mode of work and task allocation lies in its emphasis on sex-differences rather than on human similarities and this provides logic behind hierarchical differences between men and women (Widge et. al., 1995,). Women became confined to subsistence production and men became in charge of commodity production which was considered superior (Mies, et al, 1988).

Thus, the sexual division of labour considers all women as a separate category of workers and divides all 'works' into 'male work' and 'female work'. The subordinate tasks are defined as 'female' (e.g. secretarial work, nursing, low paid work in the formal and informal sector). As development proceeds, women are also integrated into the process but they are used as a cheap, docile and manipulable labour for the capitalist production process specially in the less developed and developing countries. This is especially true for the unorganized sector.

The sexual division of labour also applies to the organization of the household. Household is not a homogeneous unit but as Amartya Sen calls it a scene of 'Cooperative conflict', where there are different interests, expectations, contribution, needs, and degrees of control. The weaker bargaining position of women - wives and daughters - is demonstrated in many ways including the poorer health and nutrition of women and girls, and their lower levels of schooling. Most accounts of expenditure emphasize the very small amounts of cash that women can raise and therefore dispose of, and how little they spend on themselves, even if in need of, say, medical care (Bullock 1994).

The sexual division of labour confines women in domestic work. Familial patriarchal interests profoundly affect women's access to education. As a result women face discrimination in the labour market and they have found their 'appropriate' jobs in

the unorganized sector. Even for the literate or educated women such patriarchal belief is applicable. Because of the non-availability of desirable jobs, women may keep themselves away from labour market. But the poor women, who are not in a position to refrain themselves from working have to suffer from wage discrimination and occupational segregation with the structure of patriarchy (Lindberg, 2001).

From the above theoretical analysis we can come to the conclusion that women are discriminated because of the social attitudes and the psychological and cultural climates of societies. For the same reasons they are basically concentrated in the informal jobs. Some theorists look women as a pure home worker. Keep them within the family network and ignore their role in the labour force. The segmented labour market theory which distinguishes between occupations based on the concept of race and sex locates most working women at the bottom of the secondary job sector. According to Marxist, division of labour is based on the nature of occupation where unskilled labourers, namely, women, are at the bottom of the occupational hierarchy and are paid lower wages. Women, if considered as part of the reserve army of labour which is the result of the process of capital accumulation are paid very low wages and are disposed very easily. The sexual division of labour keeps women in family work and low paid jobs and also extends patriarchal relation in non domestics sectors.

2.3. Magnitude of workforce engaged in the informal sector:

India is an emerging economy with 457.46 million workers in 2004-05. The size of workforce was 396.76 million in 1999-2000. A large chunk of the workforce was engaged in the informal sector. The estimated number of informal sector workers in 2004-05 was 394.90 million in India contributing 86 percent of total workers. In rural areas the share of informal sector workers in each population segment recorded more than 90 percent and the share of female workers (94.50 percent) is more than male workers (90.34 percent) in 2004-05. In 1999-00 the situation was same for rural area but over the years the percentage share declined in rural areas. Contrast to rural areas, in urban areas around 70 percent of workers worked in the informal sector but between the study period the share of informal workers in urban areas increased.

2.4. Studies on women employees in private shops and business enterprises:

Varshney Shweta (2011) states that Rural women share abundant responsibilities and perform a wide spectrum of duties in running the families, maintaining the households, attending to farm operations, tending domestic animals and engaging in rural artisan work and handicrafts. But female labour engaged in such activities is usually not measure in economic terms. An implicit assumption is made that women is basically a mother and house wife; any productive work she carries out is considered socially secondary, an extension of her primary function, thus it has tended to unnoticed, more so in case of rural women. Varshney Shweta also discusses that a better balance has to be achieved between women and men in making decisions that affect the life and economy of rural society, through the active encouragement and involve men of women's associations and networks and the promotion of women into planning and managerial posts for the complete empowerment of women.

Anvita Gupta, Geetika and Tripti Singh (2011) states that the women workers do not have a choice to work, or not to work, due to desire need of income. The limited opportunities available to women are mostly low paid, low-status jobs in the informal sector, jobs which do not have any possibilities of betterment, advancement of efficiency or training, to enable them to enter better jobs at a later stage. In the overall state of unemployment and lack of opportunities, women hold a secondary place to men in the race of employment. It has been observed that women find it difficult to enter the structured system of organized sector. It is also found, that there is no economic reason for paying lower wages or giving only a particular type of work to women workers. When they work for themselves, their wages and work is quite comparable with those of male workers such as vendors. There is discrimination in wages, nature of work, availability of work, on the basis of sex. Bargaining power is mostly with the employers, so exploitation is naturally the fate of these poor workers. They come from that section of the society which must work to earn their livelihood and which is socially, economically and traditionally backward and least privileged. There is diversity in the nature of work. Some of them are construction workers, some are domestic servants, and some others are garment workers while few are petty traders in miscellany of goods. But

there is little or no variation in terms of job like wage discrimination, job insecurity, leave or holidays and other benefits.

Fapohunda Tinuke (2012) states that Employment opportunities in the formal sector are often denied women because of family responsibilities, lack of skills, social and cultural barriers, the informal sector is often the only possibility for women to get access to employment and to earn an income. Consequently women dominate the informal sector. Policies and developments affecting the informal economy thus have a distinctly gendered effect. The informal sector has a high labour-absorption capacity and there is the need to increase the level of stimulation of employment opportunities. His paper is based on a desk and literature review, a web-based research and a field survey using 150 women in the Mushin, Agege and Lagos Island Areas of Lagos Nigeria. He concludes that although the informal sector has its challenges especially for women, such as inaccessibility of credit, the women's role in the informal finance sector is significant. Partnerships must be built with the emerging associations of women to create an enabling environment which should include making credit available to women at affordable rates, with the private sector assisting government efforts to get credit to women. A more enlightened, more participatory, and more equitable form of intervention that provides a more appropriate and flexible regulatory framework is needed.

Bairagya Indrajits (2010) Show that as trade liberalization or country's openness increases the size informal sector also increases in absolute terms, while the relative size of the informal sector decreases. During this study period there has been a decreasing trend in the unorganized sectors share. In spite of that decreasing trend, still it accounts for a large share (almost 60%) in total NDP. Informal employment increases overtime along with the estimated population and labour force, while the formal employment decreases in recent years. In this context, it is very important to note that though the size of unorganized sector in terms of its percentage shares in NDP decreases overtime, in terms of informal employment it is increasing overtime. In the initial years of our study period, labour income was more than 70% both in total unorganized and unorganized sectors. Still now the share of labour income remains same in the unorganized sector as it was earlier. This may be due to the fact that the informal sector uses labour intensive technology and this high labour intensity of production is the main reason for huge

employment generation and, thereby increasing the labour income. But, the share of labour income decreases in the organized sector from 70% in 1980-81 to 55% in 2005-06. It can be seen that the share of labour income started decreasing significantly immediately just after liberalization (i.e., after 1991). Moreover, it shows a diminishing trend over time in the organized manufacturing sector from about 52% in 1980-81 to 30% in 2005-06. The possible reason could be that liberalization exposed all the industrial units in an inherent risk of free market competition. It increases the use of modern capital intensive technology in the organized sector thereby enhancing the share of capital income overtime which ultimately reduces the share of labour income.

Bandopadhyay, Kumar Titas (2006) has examined the impact of output subsidy given to the informal sector on urban unemployment, informal sector's employment and on the domestic factor income of a small open economy where capital is perfectly mobile among the three sectors. The simultaneous existence of urban informal sector and urban unemployment has been explained in terms of efficiency wage theory which is applicable to the low wage informal sector. Informal sector also produces traded goods and the presence of trade union in the urban formal sector makes the formal wage endogenous. This is highly observed in many developing countries like India where handloom and handicraft products are internationally traded and the trade union activities are flashing. Output subsidy given to the urban informal sector lowers urban unemployment and raises domestic factor income provided that the rural sector is sufficiently labour intensive.

Chaudhuri, S., D. Banerjee (2007) states the theoretical possibility that recession in the skilled sector might even raise the wage of the informal workers appears quite robust. Developing and transition countries are repositories of large unorganized and or informal sectors that deal largely with non-traded commodities and services and in some cases tradable goods as well, the global recession may not be able to penetrate very far into these economies. They establish that a fall in the price of those commodities and services that employ white collared workers may in fact turn out to be favorable for the purveyors of non-traded goods in general and the informal sector in particular.

Given the disadvantaged position of women in the labor market in most parts of the developing world, the result of long-standing societal norms which discourage the

social and economic integration and advancement of women, the majority of female workers are engaged in the informal sector. This is especially true for sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia (UN, 2000). It is also evident that female workers rely more on the informal sector than men the shares of female non-agricultural employment in the informal sector are generally and often substantially higher than those for male workers. But women's participation in terms of their share of informal sector employment is more mixed. Recent evidence shows extremely low shares in North Africa (for example, Tunisia: 18.1 percent) and South Asia (for example, India: 22.7 percent). An estimate by the World Bank shows that 90% of the women working in the informal sector are not included in the official statistics and their work is undocumented and considered as disguised wage work, unskilled, low paying and do not provide benefits to the workers.

In India, almost 94% of total women workers are engaged in informal sector, of which about 20% work in the urban centres. Majority of women workers in informal sector come from those sections of the society which need income at any cost. Nearly 50 per cent of these women workers are sole supporters of their families. Another startling fact is that out of all women workers a mere 7.5% are availing the membership of authentic registered trade unions. Yet another fact to cause concern is that women have to work, unpaid, even outside home, for some 5-8 hours to help their other family members. This fact has to be considered alongside the fact that an average woman has to work at home for some 7 - 8 hours doing household chores including upbringing the children. Most of the women workers lack proper training. They have very few options to avail as far as gainful jobs are concerned. The quiet contributors to the effortless movement of the social carriage, the women workers engaged in informal sector are poor, perhaps poorest amongst poor, uneducated and weak.

Studies by Papola (1982), clearly and emphatically show another amazing fact that, the urban labour market discriminates against women much more than the rural labour market. This discrimination results in decline in the participation of women in economic activities.

The biggest problem with the informal sector in India is that there is no precise information about the total number of workers what to say of women engaged in this sector and also their respective ratios in various diversified occupations. The Report of

the National Commission on for Enterprises in the Unorganised Sector highlights the existence and qualification of unorganized or informal workers, defined as those who do not have employed security, work security and social security. This universe of informal workers now constitutes 92 percent of the total workforce.

Whatever data is available is from Census 2001 Report and from National Perspective Plan for Women, 2000. Although there is no precise and authentic information about the total number of woman workers engaged in informal sector, still an estimate is drawn on the basis of available information. As per census reports of 2001 regarding workers and their distribution there are some 60 thousand women workers under the categories of main workers, marginal workers and those engaged in household industries. According to another estimate, almost 90 percent of total women work force is engaged in the informal sector in India (National Perspective Plan for Women, 2000).

Informal wage employment is comprised of employees of informal enterprises as well as various types of informal wage workers who work for formal enterprises, households, or who have no fixed employer. These include casual day laborers, domestic workers, industrial outworkers (notably home workers), undeclared workers, and part-time or temporary workers without secure contracts, workers benefits, or social protection. Home-based workers and street vendors are two of the largest sub-groups of the informal workforce: with home-based workers the more numerous but street vendors the more visible of the two. Taken together they represent an estimated 10-25 per cent of the nonagricultural workforce in developing countries and over 5 per cent of the total workforce in developed countries (World Bank, 2000).

On basis of previous researches and other reports, following categories of women workers in the informal sector have been identified (Anvita Gupta, 2011):

- i. Construction labour: women labour have to work always as unskilled labour carrying construction material on their heads to the construction site, while the skilled / semi-skilled work is done by men.
- ii. Domestic workers: this category of employment goes mainly to women, especially young girls. In 1997-98, there were some 1.68 million female domestic

workers, while the number of male workers was only 0.62 million. The household workers include part-time and full-time workers.

iii. Garment workers: these women work with some big drapers, boutiques and stores; here too same bias is evident that the women work as helpers to male tailors (called as masters). These workers include those involved in knitting woolens.

iv. Vendor: this is the most scattered category, which includes women engaged in selling different types of commodities, like broomsticks, cane baskets, utensils, petty cosmetics, bangles, vegetables and those running roadside tea stalls, etc. Nearly 40% of total vendors are women and 30% of these women are the sole earning members in their families.

v. Sales girls: these workers are further divided in two categories, one, those moving from door to door and place to place, other, those working in shops (mostly women related items like jewelry, garments and cosmetics etc).

The survey conducted by Anvita Gupta, Geetika and Tripti Singh (2011) on women working in informal sector in India concluded with the findings that, women included the sales girls at various showrooms and shops as also those engaged for direct sales. The job of sales girls moving from door to door is very tedious and also involves risks of personal assaults. They prefer to visit the targets during day time when they can be sure of their safety. The mode of payment in this profession is mainly work based, which they call commission. This commission is unbelievably low and arbitrary. These workers have to contact a certain minimum number of persons per day to secure that commission. The commission varies from product to product. There are no uniform norms of commission rates it is unusually in absolute terms and not in proportion of sales. This commission could be range from a meager Rs. 1 per person contacted to 5% of total sales. Those working on shops earn on monthly basis with better emoluments and greater job security. All of these workers were educated till secondary or higher. All of these women reported the need to earn to support family needs such children's education and daughters' marriage. The survey also revealed that among the women engaged into petty trades such as vegetable vendors, basket weavers, broomsticks makers, or as owners of road side food joints. They are in better condition than their counterparts in other professions due to self employment nature of their profession. They can work on

their own terms without fear of exploitation by employer or middlemen. The monthly earning in this case was found to be reasonable as compared to other job categories. There was a special sense of pride among these workers which was completely lacking in all other categories. They even indicated that they would never work for others for whatever reason.

2.5. Research Studies on Labour Status of Women:

According to Singh et. al., (2002), women workers suffer vital disadvantages comparative to men in their search for employment opportunities, lower real wages, increased uncertainties and irregularities of employment. They do not possess much of skill, training and education for the type of work they perform. Thus, women in the unorganised sector are oppressed sections of the society as they live under subdued conditions with family and children, devoid of proper living and working conditions, even they receive humiliating treatment from the contractor.

In a study of the garment industry in Tiruppur, Vijayabhaskar (2002) noted that women workers in Tiruppur were concentrated in the lowest paid category of workers receiving substantially lower wages than men. Women were concentrated in embroidery, cleaning, finishing, tagging and packaging. Most recently, women are entering into stitching in large numbers. There is a clear sexual division of labour and with the introduction of machines this had further been augmented and facilitated. The fashion masters are the most skilled and this category is exclusively reserved for male workers. Machine attendants carry out the actual process of knitting, control, adjust and monitor units and their chance of moving from helpers. Female workers are mostly helpers in these units and the chance of moving from helpers to attendants is nil, while the male workers are able to make this vertical movement. This very clear sexual division of labour has implications for the wages earned, permanency in the job and the possibilities for upward mobility in the industry. Neetha (2002) also observed that women receive lower wages and have limited job mobility in the hierarchy of the knitwear industry.

Rao and Hussain (1997) also observed sexual division of labour in garment export industry in Delhi where the hierarchy was such that men were the supervisors since men tailors 'do not like orders from women'. In the supervisory category usually

women supervised only women, men tended to be placed in all the critical skilled jobs and were consequently paid higher wages. Hand embroidery done by women was the most skilled and time intensive, but pays the lowest wages, i.e., women's skills were systematically undervalued. Studies have brought out that women also did the most monotonous jobs, such as, checking, button stitching and thread cutting, the drudgery was greater and the wages were lower.

Eapen and Mridul (2001) listed that in the unorganised sector women are engaged in almost all kinds of activities such as livestock, forestry, fishing, plantation, construction, retailing, beedi making, bangle making, pottery, embroidery, stitching and so on. Most of the women work as casual labourers in agricultural, construction, brick-making, coir, or as own account workers in handloom weaving, basket weaving and vending fish or vegetables. Some of the newer activities are floriculture, poultry and livestock rearing, garment making, food processing and fish processing.

Jhabvala and Renana (2003) revealed that beedi rolling is a major source of employment for women which, however, remains low paid, insecure and has health implications. It is estimated that there are 4.5 million beedi workers in India of whom, 80 percent are women.

Jhabvala and Renana (2003) finds that a large proportion of food processing in the unorganised sector is carried out by women using the traditional skills in many primary food processing areas. The informal or unorganised service sector is expanding too, generating large scale openings of opportunities for 'women. The largest increase in employment opportunities come from domestic service, education including home tuition, childcare and health services. Unfortunately, these women workers have received little attention with the result that their earnings remain low and their employment insecure.

Krishnamoorthy (1999) observed that agarbatti rollers whether home or factory based are paid in a piece-rate basis. Earnings vary across states with workers in Karnataka appearing to be somewhat better placed in contrast to their counterparts in Gujarat and Andhra Pradesh, the other two states for which estimates are available. Workers here are paid at a rate of Rs. 9 per 1000 sticks and at an average productivity of

4000 sticks per full working day manage an effective wage rate of Rs. 36 per day. The average worker manages to earn about Rs 1000 per month. In Gujrat, the rate is much lower at Rs 5 per 1000 sticks and combined with lower productivity rates yields the workers incomes in the range of Rs. 325 per month, payment in both these states is reported to be on a monthly basis. In Andhra Pradesh a rate of Rs. 6 per kilo of masala processed is reported. Earnings for a family of six were reported in the range of Rs 400 to 800 for a six day week implying an effective wage of Rs. 13 to 20 per day. Further, if the product is rejected for quality reasons the loss has to be borne by the workers lowering earnings further.

Sengupta (2005) also detected that women working in mining industry of Rajasthan are deprived of even the minimum wages, what to talk of welfare measures. They are deprived of even the minimum wages, what to talk of welfare measures. They are never employed on permanent basis. The basis nature of their work requires strenuous physical labour in heat and dust. Women are employed both on daily wages as well as on piece rate. In a daily wage system a woman gets a minimum of Rs. 400 and a maximum of Rs. 60 per day, with working hours starting at 8:00 am in the morning and ending during the sunset. There is no concept of paid maternity or medical leave.

The working conditions are another important aspect of the unorganised sector, and are of particular importance to the women workers. The assessment of working conditions of women labour is also important to have a deep 'understanding of their life. The working conditions imply the duration of working hours, nature of work, terms and conditions of payment and overtime payment and so on. Hanumappa (1996) observed the working conditions of the home-based workers engaged in agarbatti making in Bangalore and found that the worker roll agarbattis on the payment and lanes around homes in urban slums. They sit on the floor and roll the agarbattis hunched over low tables bought out of their own resources and their legs are stretched under low tables.

According to Chatterjee (2009), the reasons for vulnerability of the unorganised women workers are irregular work, low economic status, little or no bargaining power, lack of control over earnings, need to balance paid work with care for children and home, little or no access to institutional credit, training and information, and lack of assets. Unequal gender relations assume a very important role in defining their insecurities.

Sengupta (2010) observed that the tasks performed by women are usually those that require them to be in one position for long periods of time, which can adversely affect their reproductive health. A study in a rice-growing belt of coastal Maharashtra found that 40 percent of all infant deaths occurred in the months of July to October. The study also found that a majority of births were either premature or stillbirths. Women in gold mines handle mercury and cyanide with their bare hands. Women have to work beyond working hours, even in advanced stages of pregnancy, and there is no leave facility. In some quarries in Orissa, women have to work at night and are sexually abused. Acquired immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS), Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV), other sexually transmitted diseases, respiratory problems, silicosis, tuberculosis, leukemia, arthritis and reproductive problems are more prevalent among women working in mines.

Rajalakshmi (2005) observed through a study that women work as hard as men, perhaps even more, considering the burden of household duties and rearing children. They work mainly in the textiles, garments and carpets clusters. More women than men report injuries at work. Two-thirds of the women say that the average duration of maternity leave is 90 days, but without remuneration.

Farooqui (2009) found that the overall condition of work for home-based women workers is extremely exploitation with no legal recognition as workers, no job security, no social security like old age pension, health insurance or provident fund, long hours of work and no implementation of the minimum wage norm, women who do home-based work regularly suffer from health hazards like backaches and failing eyesight. Since they work from their homes, they often do not perceive themselves as workers but as mothers and wives, while the employer ends up making more profits by paying lower wages as well as saving the cost of operating a workplace like rent, electricity, water, equipment and other maintenance costs.

Usha (2005) in her study about the woman in the textiles shops of Trivandrum found that women are not provided with adequate space for taking food and rest. Women in this field are not getting a nominal increment as per the whims and fancies of the owner. The facility of provident fund and insurance is limited to only two per cent workers. Most of them lived in the suburbs and reached home after work only by 11 p.m.

Several had to face sexual harassment in public transport buses and also at work from customers, employers and male colleagues. Despite putting in 11 to 14 hours of work, many did not even earn minimum wages. Sales girls in small shops had scarce access to secure toilet facilities.

Due to diversified nature of the work in various kinds of unorganised activities, the health problems become constraints for women workers. Nath (2009) highlighted in selected districts and blocks in Uttar Pradesh, Uttarakhand and Chattisgarh the poor access to health services for women wage labourers in the informal sector. In all these three states a large population of female workers was found to be engaged in agricultural, forestry and stone quarrying. These women started working as early as 18 years or even earlier, and continued until past 55 years. Working in extreme conditions has led to a number of health risks both due to the heavy work burden and nature of their work. Sufferings from muscular aches and pains, injuries, exhaustion, weakness, fever and swelling of feet were quite common and went untreated. Nath observed that lack of health benefits, high infertility rate, poor and unequal wages, improper sanitation and childcare facilities were becoming major concerns with these working women. Public spending on the health in all the three regions was found to be inadequate. Irregular growth and poverty were seen to be major bottlenecks. In Uttar Pradesh Uttarakhand, lack of money was reported as a barrier in accessing maternal healthcare, and women in Chattisgarh needed to take loans for childbirth expenses. In Uttar Pradesh working conditions were gruesome even after childbirth, the women got only 6 - 12 days off from work. No work means no money, which put their survival at stake.

According to Das (2006), the presence of a vast multitude of women as workers and producers in the unorganized sector, where earnings are low, employment seasonal and insecure, supportive services woefully inadequate or even non-existent, growth opportunities few and collective organization weak, has brought into sharp focus with the failure of the mainstream to alleviate their predicament workers, irrespective of sex, are exploited in the unorganised sector but women suffer more by the fact of their gender. In case of construction work, Das observed that women are mostly exploited. They are employed on casual basis. Unstable employment earnings and shifting of workplaces are the bare characteristics of work for construction workers. In most cases safety norms are violated. They are often not given maternity benefits, though obligatory.

According to Paul and Agarwal (1997) as per the definition of sexual harassment made by a supreme Court in India in 1997 includes physical contact and advances, sexual favours, sexually coloured remarks, showing of pornography, and any other verbal or nonverbal conduct of sexual nature that is unwelcome or humiliating to the women.

According to the National 'Campaign Committee for Unorganised Sector workers (NCCUSW) (2006), women workers get the work through middlemen or agents who pay them at times as little as Rs 10 a day. Women who work on worksites like construction work or brick kilns face problems of childcare, have no toilet or drinking water facilities and are vulnerable to sexual exploitation. Women face lack of sanitation facilities and crèches at the workplace.

Deshingkar (2009) observed that the sexual exploitation of tribal construction women workers by masons, contractors, the police and others is routine but unreported by women, for fear of the consequences (loss of employment, violence). He pointed out that in Orissa, women are forced to work at night and are exposed to the exploitation, physical and sexual, of the mine-owners, contractors and other men so much so that young girls from these regions are branded as 'spoilt' and not respectable for marriage. Because of this sexual humiliation the women mine works are vulnerable to diseases like HIV, AIDS and sexually transmitted diseases. There is a humiliated and forced into giving into the demands of the males in order to retain their wage labour in the mines and to bring up their offsprings.

Rekha Pande (2008) pointed out that the harsh physical conditions of the bangle and agarbatti trades, the social environment, long hours, and the general stresses and strains of poverty all affect women's health adversely. In spite of their illhealth and their aversion to the work, they believed they have no option but to continue in these trades.

Usha (2006) observed that many women are exploited by the fellow male workers, owners as well as by the customers. The women are not ready to complain with any of their colleagues or their friends and family members will not support them in such a critical situation. So, they do not lodge complaint in any of the available forums. It is

reported that some of them leave the job due to the exploitative behavior of the shop owner and join another shop with much lower wage. If some customers go without buying from the shop that blame falls upon the woman incharge whereas if the business goes very well no credit is given to her. She is never considered as potential worker.

The basic idea of social security is to use social means to prevalent deprivation and vulnerability to deprivation. Jean Dreze and Amartya Sen (2002) distinguish between two aspects of social security: 'protection' and 'promotion'. The former is concerned with preventing a decline in living standards in general and in the basic conditions and helping people overcome regular and persistent deprivation.

Kumar and Shiv (2006) observed that women workers in the unorganized sector have little or no social security. Absence of protection against occupational and health hazards is creating vulnerable situations for women workers in the unorganised sector. Unorganised workers in India face three major threats to human security such as poor health, shrinking livelihoods and muted voice. Health is among the leading causes of both impoverishment and vulnerability of workers in the unorganised sector.

Many laws have been provided to ensure a safe and healthy working environment for the female workers. The trade Union Act (1926), the Minimum Wages Act (1948), the Maternity Benefits Act (1961), etc. The most recent is the Unorganized Workers Social Security Act of 2008, which provides benefits to workers registered with the 'District Administration, including some health insurance and maternity benefits. Despite these laws, health and health services remain disheartening.

Chatterjee and Macwan (1988) revealed that agarbatti workers are especially vulnerable to postural and locomotive system problems due to highly confined and repetitious nature of their work as well as to skin problems due to exposure to phthalic acid esters used in the production of agarbattis. They found a number of health problems among women engaged in agarbatti and masala making in Ahmedabad including back pain, blisters on hands, body ache, chest pain, dizziness and exhaustion, eye problems, headache, nausea, neck pain, pain in abdomen, pain in limbs, shoulders pain, white discharge, heavy bleeding, early periods, drying of breast milk and itching or burning

while urinating. In such kind of health conditions no protective or preventive measures were taken by the agarbatti workers as it hampers speed and hence earning.

Deshingkar (2009) studied that a number of trade unions across the country continue to fight for the rights of construction works. Self employed Women's Association (SEWA) has succeeded in extending social security coverage to many women workers in informal occupations, and as engaged in collective bargaining with employers.

According to Roy Chaudhary (2005), where women's rights organizations have been involved in campaigns more tangible results have been attained. In Bangalore for example, intervention by the National Women's Commission (NWC) resulted in improved toilet facilities, a limit on working hours and reduced harassment by the management.

NCEUS (2006) argues that although a number of schemes have been introduced, only about 6 percent of the unorganized workers in the country is covered under any of the social security measures. It is further estimated that small and large NGOs in the country provide some social security cover to about 2 per cent of the workforce in the unorganized sector. The historical experience suggests that there is hardly any effective alternative to the role of the state in providing a modicum of social security, especially to the poorer sections of the population.

According to the estimates of the Garment and Fashion Workers Union in Tamil Nadu state that, employment in the sector is formally covered by labour legislation that guarantees tenure of employment and rights of minimum wages, regulated hours of work and social security, in reality workers are found without any of these rights.

Chen and others (2006) observed in their study that employers understand that the feminisation of labour enables them to reduce compliance with the formal regulation of employment relations. Feminisation of labour also enables employers to keep wages low.

Discussions with union activists at Penn Thozhilalargal Sangam and Garments and Fashion Workers Union opined that many of the women sought employment in retail

stores because they were close to home and required minimum travel. Four of the workers had been forced to discontinue school, or college midway, because financial problems in the family such as death of father or the breadwinner of the family and had forced them to find work. Many saw retail work as a temporary form of employment. It was difficult to find women workers in retail stores who had more than 2-3 years' experience. Older women were typically employed in packing work and not directly in sales in the retail area. The oldest worker in the sample was 56 years old, employed in a packing section, and earned only Rs.3400 per month which was significantly lower than wages in all three levels of retail work in the shop. In the case of medium size stores we found that older women usually sat in a separate room or outside the shop on the pavement to carry out packing activity. This indicates a progressive degradation of tasks performed by women workers.

2.6. Shortcomings in the body of knowledge:

The review on available literature reveals that research around the concepts of informal sector have been conducted but research on specific theme of private shops and business enterprises in the state of Kerala remains unavailable. Theories around the reasons for discrimination faced by women and their roles that are associated with the patriarchal culture associated with the domestic roles resulting into exploitation, under paid, long hours of work with low wages and so on are available in the body of knowledge. Surveys targeting women's participation in work force is available and still this knowledge is not available in the state of Kerala. Research studies on construction workers, domestic servants, garment workers, petty traders, sales girls, agarbathi workers and their working conditions, wage, job security and benefits is available but studies targeting women employees in the private shops and business enterprises is not available. Sources reveals that women are not offered skill training, poorly paid, work in poor working conditions, maternity leave without remuneration, poor health care and discrimination at workplace and while travelling to and fro is also observed from the literature. Study conducted in Kerala is around migrant construction workers and textile shops reveals that the employees are deprived of space for consuming food, provident fund and incentive, long hours of work with low wages, sexual harassment, turn over, problem of child care, no drinking water and no secure toilets and yet they do not complain. Although the labour department is concerned with strict enforcement of labour

laws in India, still the critical need for stricter labour standards in the enforcement is required. Research need to point out the key areas where enforcement needs to be stricter. Hence this present study is an attempt to understand the labour status accessed by women employees in the unregistered private shops and business enterprises in the state of Kerala and recommend the areas where stricter enforcement needs to be focused. Considering the non-availability of data in the existing literature this present research covers the key areas of socio-economic status, various category of trades and size of enterprises offering labour opportunity to women in the rural and urban limits, working conditions, protective measures, wages, retirement benefits, social security measures, union affiliation, skill development and training accessible to the women employees, discrimination and harassment at work place, factors influencing motivation and job satisfaction, knowledge possessed on policies and legislations protecting the labour rights among women employed in the unregistered private shops and business enterprises in the state of Kerala.

Chapter 3: Methodology

This chapter deals with the research methodology adopted to fulfill the objectives spelled out in this research. The research methodology stated is very systematic, logical in nature, purely scientific and absolutely bias free. It includes the variables, hypothesis, pilot study, research approach, research design, universe, unit, sampling, tool for data collection, pre-test, data collection, data analysis, limitations and chapter wise arrangement of the research report. All the above mentioned contents are clearly explained in this chapter.

3.1. Variables of the study:

Variable in research is a concept that varies or changes in values. There are two types of concepts such as those that refer to a fixed phenomenon and those that vary in quantity, intensity or amount. Variables take on two or more values. Because variable represents a quality that can exhibit differences in value, usually magnitude or strength it may be said that a variable generally is anything that may assume different numerical or categorical values.

3.1.1. Independent Variables:

The cause variable or the one that identifies forces or conditions that act on something else is the independent variable. The independent variable includes the labour laws enforced by the labour department in Kerala.

- Enforced Labour Laws
- Location of Enterprise (Urban / Rural)
- Economic Status (BPL / APL)
- Type of Family (2)
- Housing Status (2)
- Years of Experience in Same job
- Income Earned Per Month
- Reason for joining Labour Force
- Nature of Enterprise
- Size of Enterprise

- Nature of Wage
- Type of Employer

3.1.2. Dependent Variables

The variable that is the effect or is the result or outcome of another variable is the dependent variable. The dependent variables include the labour status accessed by women employees in the private shops and business enterprises in Kerala.

Labour status accessed by women employees

Working conditions

- Clean and Safe Drinking water
- Separate Toilet Facilities
- Creche Facilities
- Rest Room Facilities
- Personal Storage and Shelter in rest room
- Washing and Dining Facilities
- First Aid
- Associated Dangers at Workplace
- Number of hours of work in a day
- Rest intervals during work
- Week Days Holiday (Closure)
- Work on Government Holidays
- Compensation of Leave – Govt / Harthal
- Ventilation and Lighting
- Precautions for Fire and Safety

Protective measures

- Appointment Order
- Attendance Book
- Vouchers Signed for Salary
- Maternity Leave
- Equal Wage for Equal Work
- Notice Period for Termination

- Sensitizing Harassment at Workplace

Wages

- Punctuality in paying wages
- 12 Weeks Paid Maternity Leave
- One Month Paid Leave for Pregnancy complications
- Medical bonus for pre or post natal care
- 12 Days holidays for 12 Months Service or accumulated as 24 days.
- 12 Sick Leaves with Wage
- 12 Casual Leaves with wages
- Wage for work beyond 8 hours
- Bonus for Festivals

Retirement benefits

- Employee Provident Fund
- Employee Pension Scheme

Social security measures

- Employee State Insurance
- Workmen Compensation

Union affiliation

- Membership in Union / Association

Skill development and training

- Skill Up-gradation Training

Discrimination at work place

Harassment at work place

Motivation factors

Job satisfaction

Knowledge on constitutional provisions

Knowledge on policies

Knowledge on programme

Knowledge on legislations

Overall labour status

3.2. Hypothesis:

H₀₁ = There is no association between size of the shop and job satisfaction.

H₀₂ = There is no association between size of the enterprise and workers knowledge on
Legislations.

H₀₃ = There is no association between size of the enterprise and labour status.

H₀₄ = There is no association between income and labour status.

H₀₅ = There is no association between education and labour status.

3.3. Pilot study:

Pilot study was carried out in a small scale preliminarily by the researcher in order to assess the feasibility in terms of effort, cost, time and strategies for data collection. The pilot study aims to understand the field reality, sources of information and its availability. The pilot study clearly highlighted the logical strategy of data collection to be done only at the house of the respondents and not the work place, but taking their appointment, informed consent at their work place. The pilot study also enabled the researcher to determine the sample size, the right methodology to be adopted for fulfilling the objectives stated for the larger actually intended study.

3.4. Research Approach and Purpose:

The approach adopted to fulfil the objectives of this present research is quantitative research approach. By using this approach, the researcher has ensured that the data obtained within this research study around labour status accessed by women employees in the private shops and business enterprises is represented in the form of numbers and the study relies on quantification in collecting and analyzing data and used descriptive and inferential statistical analysis.

The purpose of this present research is description. It aims at describing the labour status accessed by women employees in private shops and business enterprises as reported by them. Hence this research is devised on the purpose of description in nature.

3.5. Universe of the study:

The universe of the study comprises of all women employees aged between 20 – 40 years and employed in private shops and business enterprises in the state of Kerala that are not legally registered under the acts such as the Kerala Shops and Commercial Establishments Act (1960) or Sole Proprietorship Firm, Partnership Firm, Limited Liability Partnership, Private Limited Company and Public Limited Company and located within the state of Kerala but only run on license issued by the panchayat or municipality. The state of Kerala has 14 districts which comprises vast uncountable units of unregistered private shops and business enterprises. These units provide employment opportunities to a large number of women employees. Women employed in all these private shops and business enterprises are included in this study as the universe.



3.6. Unit of the study:

The unit of the study comprise of a single women aged between 20 – 40 years and employed in private shops and business enterprises in the state of Kerala that are not registered under any of the legal entities, but operated with the license issued by the panchayat.

3.7. Sampling

In order to draw samples from the universe, the researcher used purposive sampling method. A sample of 6 districts namely Thrissur, Ernakulam, Kollam, Allappuzha, Idukki and Thiruvananthapuram are selected using random sampling method. From the mentioned districts 2 panchayats from each of the district was identified using random sampling. Enterprises that were not legally registered but only managed with the license issued by the panchayat were identified and purposively the enterprises were chosen and women employees desirous of participating in the study are purposively included as samples. Among the six chosen districts the urban strata comprises of Thrissur, Ernakulam, Kollam, Allappuzha and the rural strata comprises of Idukki and Thiruvananthapuram. This selection was done purposively based on the fact that the availability of private shops and business enterprises are more around urban than

rural. Hence purposive sampling method is used to draw samples from the universe. In every district 60 samples are collected thus the total size of the sample is 360. Thus there are 4 urban and 2 rural districts. Hence the urban data was 240 and rural was 120 thus totaling 360.

3.8. Tool for data collection:

The tool for data collection used in this study is as follows.

A self structured interview schedule comprising of scale to measure status of labour comprising of ten items was prepared and used.

In order to assess the knowledge of the women employees on various provisions to protect women rights, a self structured interview schedule comprising of scale with ten items was prepared and used.

For the purpose of assessing the job satisfaction a self structured interview schedule comprising of scale with eighteen items was prepared and used.

Factors affecting motivation was assessed using a self structured interview schedule comprising of scale with nineteen items was prepared and used.

There tools developed are given in the appendix.

3.9. Scaling and Scoring:

The status of labour accessed by the women employees in the private shops and business enterprises is measured using a scale consisting of 10 items with five choices.

The score ranges from 10 to 50. The reliability and validity of the scale is tested and the results are given below.

Table No: 3.9.1. Status of Labour – Reliability Test

RELIABILITY STATISTICS		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha based on Standardized Items	N of items
.913	.913	10

The scale is found reliable with a high Cronbach's Alpha of 0.94

Further the measured status of labour variable is subjected to normality test to check the nature of distribution so as to arrive at a decision on the application of parametric test or non parametric test.

Table No: 3.9.2. Status of Labour - Normality Test

Test of Normality						
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-wilk		
	Statistic	df	Significance	Statistic	df	Significance
Status of Labour	.236	360	.000	.862	360	.000

The distribution is not normal, since the Shapiro Wilk test, $p = .000$. It reveals that the sample is not normally shaped and the population from which it came is not normally distributed. Hence non- Parametric test is intended to be used.

The knowledge possessed by the women employees in the private shops and business enterprises is measured using a scale consisting of 10-items with two choices. The score ranges from 10 to 20. The reliability and validity of the scale is tested and the results are given below.

Table No: 3.9.3. Knowledge on Constitutional Provisions – Reliability Test

RELIABILITY STATISTICS		
Cronbach’s Alpha	Cronbach’s Alpha based on Standardized Items	N of items
.886	.893	10

The scale is found reliable with a high Cronbach’s Alpha of 0.88.

Further the measured knowledge possessed by women employees on the constitutional provisions variable is subjected to normality test to check the nature of distribution so as to arrive at a decision on the application of parametric test or non parametric test.

Table No: 3.9.4. Knowledge on Constitutional Provisions – Normality Test

Test of Normality						
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-wilk		
	Statistic	df	Significance	Statistic	df	Significance
Knowledge on Constitutional Provisions	.210	360	.000	.801	360	.000

The distribution is not normal, since the Shapiro Wilk test, $p = .000$. It reveals that the sample is not normally shaped and the population from which it came is not normally distributed. Hence non- parametric test is intended to be used.

The job satisfaction of women employees in the private shops and business enterprises is measured using a scale consisting of 18 items with five choices. The score ranges from 18 to 90. The reliability and validity of the scale is tested and the results are given below.

Table No: 3.9.5. Job Satisfaction – Reliability Test

RELIABILITY STATISTICS		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha based on Standardized Items	N of items
.861	.859	18

The scale is found reliable with a high Cronbach's Alpha of 0.86.

Further the measured job satisfaction variable is subjected to normality test to check the nature of distribution so as to arrive at a decision on the application of parametric test or non parametric test.

Table No: 3.9.6. Job Satisfaction – Normality Test

Test of Normality						
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-wilk		
	Statistic	df	Significance	Statistic	df	Significance
Job Satisfaction	.066	360	.001	.972	360	.000

The distribution is not normal, since the Shapiro Wilk test, $p = .000$. It reveals that the sample is not normally shaped and the population from which it came is not normally distributed. Hence non- parametric test is intended to be used.

The factors that affect motivation of women employees in the private shops and business enterprises is measured using a scale consisting of 19 items with five choices. The score ranges from 19 to 95. The reliability and validity of the scale is tested and the results are given below.

Table No: 3.9.7. Motivation – Reliability Test

RELIABILITY STATISTICS		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha based on Standardized Items	N of items
.801	.802	19

The scale is found reliable with a high Cronbach's Alpha of 0.80.

Further the measured motivation variable is subjected to normality test to check the nature of distribution so as to arrive at a decision on the application of parametric test or non parametric test.

Table No: 3.9.8. Motivation – Normality Test

Test of Normality						
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-wilk		
	Statistic	df	Significance	Statistic	df	Significance
Motivation	.066	360	.161	.972	360	.165

The distribution is normal, since the Shapiro Wilk test, $p = .165$. It reveals that the sample is normally shaped and the population from which it came is normally distributed. Hence parametric test is intended to be used.

3.10. Pre-test:

The researcher by performing field visits pre-tested the interview schedule that was developed for the purpose of data collection. Pre-testing involved 10 respondents and variables not having profound importance were eliminated. The pre-test enabled the researcher to finalise various important aspects which could be incorporated in the study. Respondents included in the pre-test were excluded from the study.

3.11. Data collection:

Data was collected from 360 respondents. Women employed in 60 enterprises in each district, thus having a total of six districts were met by field investigators and directly interviewed and data was collected. The field investigators appointed were post graduates in social work. They were also given training even prior to their entry into the data collection process.

3.12. Data processing, analysis and Interpretation:

The data was coded and tabulated. Analysis of the coded data was subject to both basic and advanced statistical procedures. The SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) licensed version 21 was used to analyse the collected data. Simple and cross tables were administered for the socio-economic, category and size of trades that offer women the opportunity for labour, working conditions, protective measures, wages, retirement benefits, social security measures, union affiliation, skill development and training accessible to women, discrimination and harassment encountered by women in work place. Statistical analysis was done to systematically analyse the variables evolved in this study.

Parametric and non parametric tests were determined based on normal distribution of the samples and accordingly tests were applied. Statistical test such as chi-square, t test, ANOVA, Karl Pearson's co-efficient of correlation, Wilcoxon signed rank test, Kruskal Wallis test was applied to interpret the data and to draw meaningful inferences.

3.13. Chapter wise scheme of arrangement of report:

This report consists of five chapters. The format of the report is depicted below.

Chapter one reveals the introduction for the study undertaken. This has been carefully portrayed to cover the theoretical background, conceptual understanding, labour laws that are concerned with this study and all the adequate information pertaining to the nature of the study that needs to be conveyed so as to introduce the present topic of research.

Chapter two highlights the review of background literature and previous studies with regard to the various instruments adopted for the study. The findings of previous research studies provided the baseline to proceed with the research work. It also enabled the researcher to identify the research gaps or shortcomings existing in the body of knowledge in relation to the earlier studies undertaken.

Chapter three describes the research methodology adopted. This serves as the backbone for the entire report. This chapter depicts the method of study, the description of the universe and sampling techniques adopted. The chapter also highlights the tools for data collection and the statistical techniques implemented.

Chapter four presents the analysis of the data. Data have been presented in the tabular format. Numerical data have been interpreted. The analysis and interpretation of the present data is also effectively revealed in accordance to the significant methodology adopted.

Chapter five illustrates the salient findings pertaining to the research undertaken. The implications for intervention and scope for future studies are also discussed in this chapter.

Chapter six outlines the summary recommendations that evolved from the study and conclusion.

End text reference as per the guidelines of the APA (American Psychological Association) sixth edition and the tools used in the study is appended at the end of this report.

CHAPTER IV: PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

This chapter presents the analysis of the data and its interpretation. The variables drawn are presented together with the low, high, medium values, differences, associations, relationships among the variables of the study. The hypotheses framed are also tested and appropriate interpretations are given based on the same. Various statistical tools such as correlation, t- test, ANOVA, Wilcoxon signed rank test, Kruskal Wallis test were employed to check the statistical significance between independent and dependent variables. All the tables are logically arranged under the respective themes and presented in the forms of sub headings as follows.

1. Socio-economic status of the women employees employed in private shops and business enterprises
2. Category and size of trade that provide employment opportunity to women in rural and urban.
3. Working conditions accessible to women employees
4. Protective measures accessible to women employees
5. Wages accessible to women employees
6. Retirement benefits accessible to women employees
7. Social security measures accessible to women employees
8. Union affiliation
9. Skill development opportunities for women employees
10. Discrimination and harassment at workplace
11. Factors influencing motivation
12. Job satisfaction
13. Knowledge on legislations, policies and programmes
14. Labour status.

The logical arrangements of the analysed and interpreted data reveal the analysis of all concepts specified in the specific objectives.

Socio-economic status is an important factor which carries a great value in labour related research. Many factors in socio-economic status can create effect on other

variables. The socio-economic standing also creates impacts on respondents' behavior and attitude.

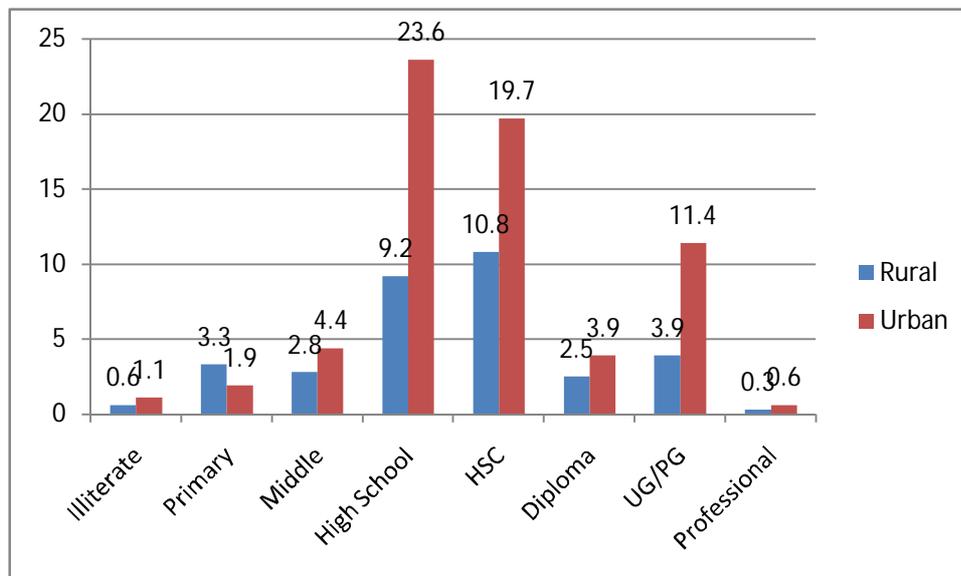
4.1. Socio-Economic Status:

Some of the dimensions included in the socio economic status are age, education, social group, economic status, religion, type of family, housing status, domicile, migration status, marital status, number of children, designation, number of years of experience in the same job, monthly income, reasons for joining labour force and membership in associations and other groups. The values for each of the variable are assigned as per the attributes under respective variables.

Cross tabulation between locality of the shop and education is seen in this graph. The locality of the shop has two attributes namely the rural and urban. The education of the respondents have eight attributes namely illiterate, primary, middle, high school, higher secondary school, diploma, Graduation at undergraduate and post graduate level and professional.

Figure No: 4.1.1

Distribution of respondents by their education and locality of shop



As presented in this graph the distribution of respondents by the education and location of the shop, it is revealed that among the women employees employed in shops

located within the rural area 10.8 percent of them qualified higher secondary and 9.2 percent of them qualified high school.

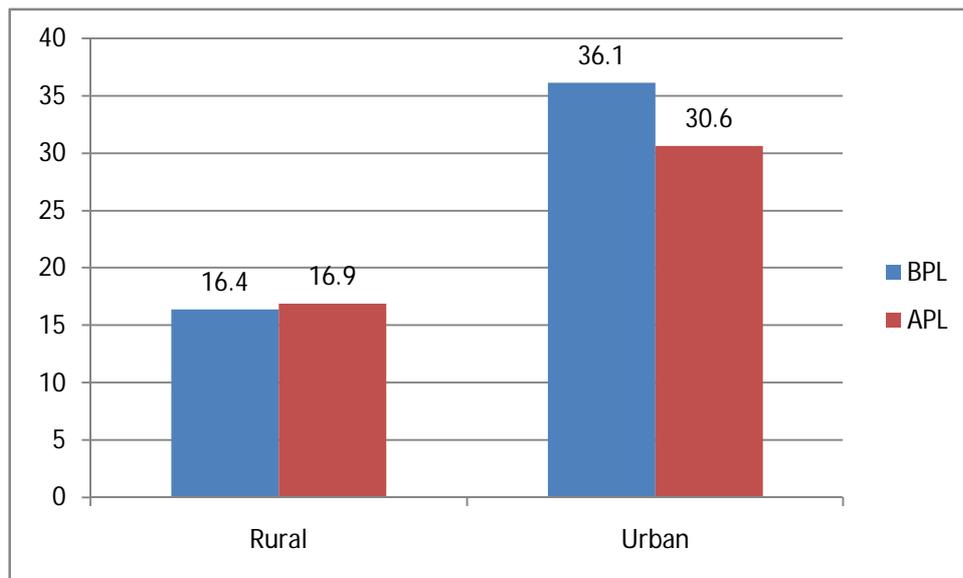
Among the women employees employed in shops located within the urban area 23.6 percent of them reported of having completed high school while 19.7 percent of them have completed higher secondary and 11.4 percent of them are graduates.

This reveals that of the women employees employed in the shops located within the rural 10.8 percent are higher secondary qualified and 9.2 percent are high school qualified and among those women employees employed in shops located within the urban 23.6 percent of them reported of having completed high school while 19.7 percent of them have completed higher secondary and 11.4 percent of them are graduates. This infers that most of the women employees in the private shops and business enterprises are educated above high school education.

The economic status of the respondents that consist of two attributes above poverty line and below poverty line is cross tabulated with the variable of locality of shops in the below table.

Figure No: 4.1.2

Distribution of respondents by the locality of shop and their economic status



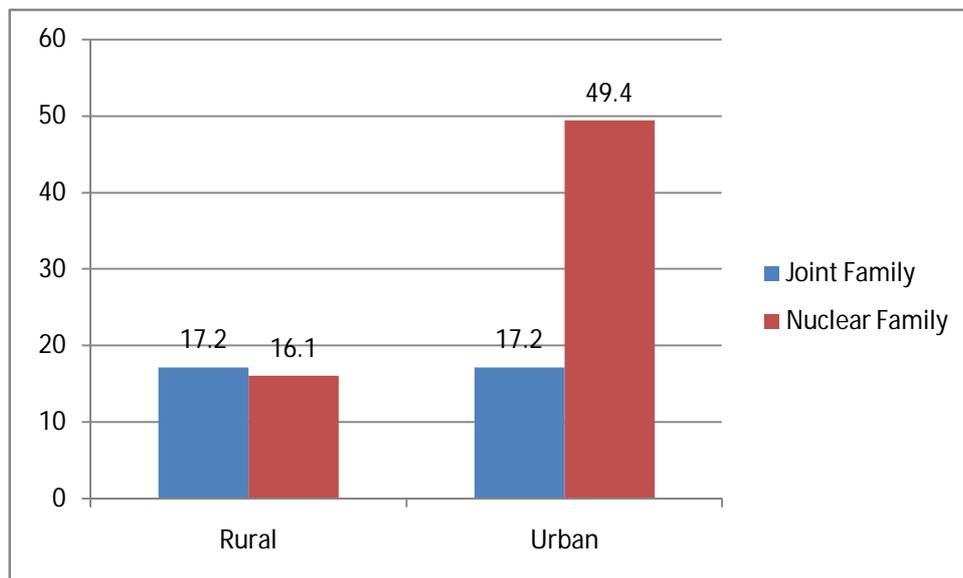
Pertaining to the distribution of respondents by the locality of shops and their economic status, it is seen that among the women employees employed in the shops located within the rural locality 16.9 percent of them are in the above poverty line category and 16.4 percent of them are in the below poverty line. Among the women employed in the shops located within the urban locality 36.1 percent of them are in the below poverty line and 30.6 percent of them are in the above poverty line.

This reveals that 16.9 percent of the women employed in shops located within the rural live above poverty line and 36.1 percent of the women employed in shops located within the urban live below poverty line. This infers that higher (36.1%) concentrations of women from below poverty line are employed in shops located within the urban than those in the rural.

Type of family as a variable consisting of two attributes namely joint family and nuclear family is cross tabulated against the locality of the shops is observed in this table.

Figure No: 4.1.3

Distribution of respondents by the locality of shop and their type of family



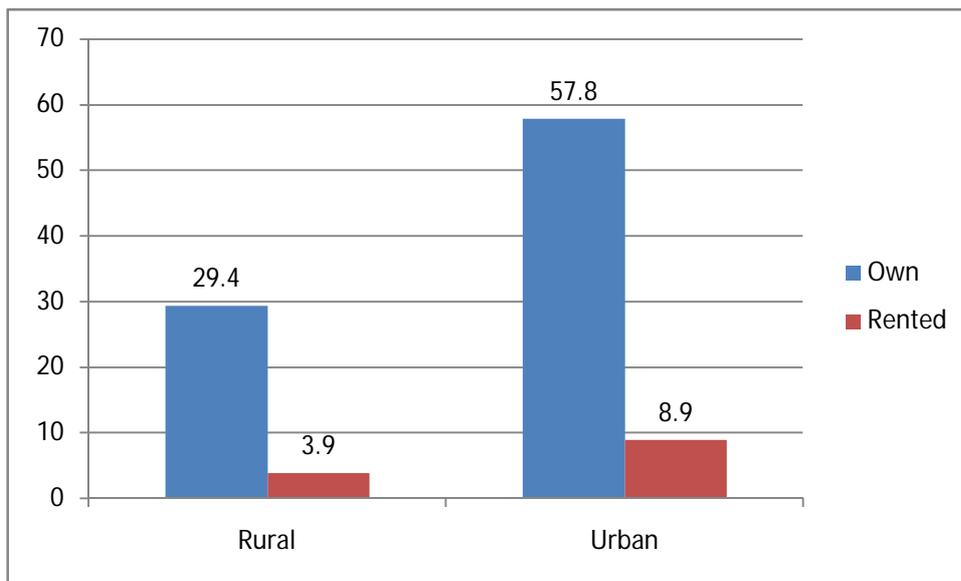
In relation to the distribution of respondents by the locality of shops and the type of family, it is observed that in the rural 17.2 percent of the women employees belong to joint family and in the urban 49.4 percent of the respondents belong to nuclear family.

This reveals that more number of women employed in the shops located within the urban is from the nuclear family.

Housing status if living in own house or in the rented house is cross tabulated with the locality of shops is presented in the following table.

Figure No: 4.1.4

Distribution of respondents by the locality of shop and their housing status

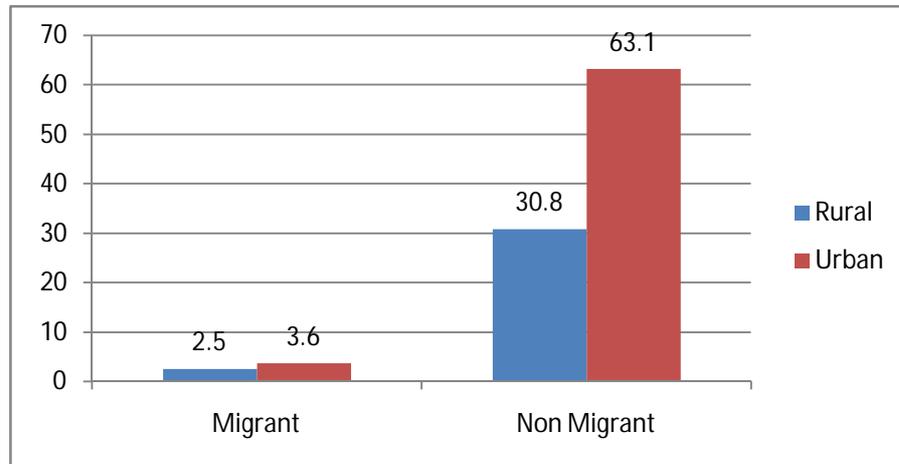


Among the women employees employed in the shops located in the rural 29.4 percent live in own house and in the shops located within the urban 57.8 percent of them live in own house. This reveals that majority of the respondents live in own house.

Nativity of the respondents is cross tabulated with locality of shops. Nativity has two dimensions such as migrant and non-migrant.

Figure No: 4.1.5

Distribution of respondents by the locality of shop and their nativity

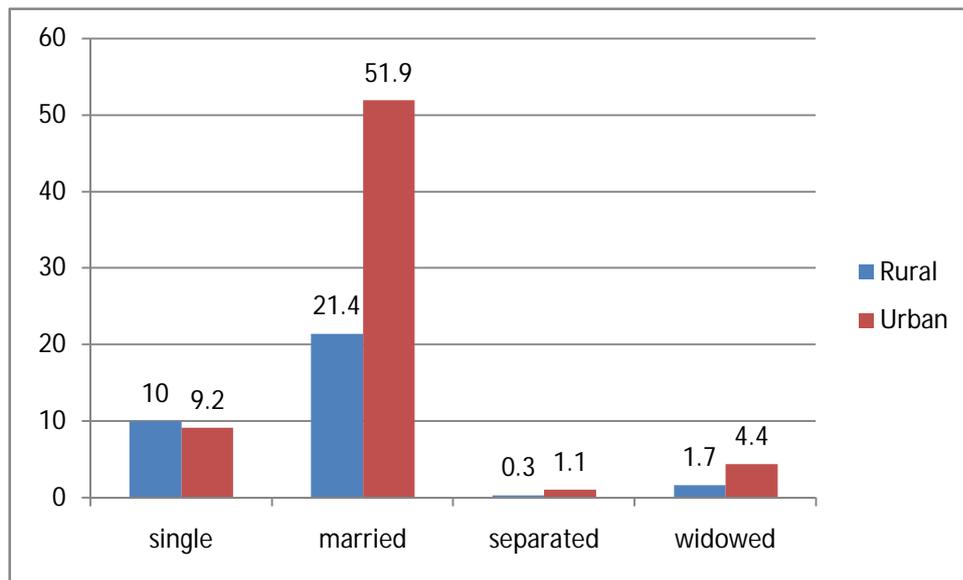


Based on the distribution of the respondents by the locality of the shop and their nativity, it is seen that a vast majority (93.3%) of the respondents are non migrants and belong to the native state among which a considerable majority (63.1%) of them are employed in shops located within the urban areas while less than one third (30.8%) of the women are employed in shops located within the rural areas. From this it shows that, vast majority (93.3%) of the respondents is non migrants and belongs to the native state among which women employed in shops located in the urban (63.1%) are higher than those employed in shops located within the rural (30.8%) areas.

Marital status of the respondents with its attributes single, married, separated and widowed is cross tabulated with the locality of shops and presented in the present graph.

Figure No: 4.1.6

Distribution of respondents by the locality of shop and their marital status



According to this table, it is evident that majority (73.3%) of the women employees are married among which more than half (51.9%) of the married women employees are employed in shops located within the urban limit. It is inferred that majority (73.3%) of the women employees employed in private shops and business enterprises are married.

Monthly income of the respondents with its attributes as given in the table is cross tabulated with the locality of shops and presented in the present table.

Table No: 4.1.1**Distribution of respondents by the locality of shop and their monthly income**

Sl. No.	Monthly income	Locality of the shop		Total
		Rural	Urban	
1	Less than 5000	19 (5.3%)	117 (32.5%)	136 (37.8%)
2	5001 to 10000	89 (24.7%)	113 (31.4%)	202 (56.1%)
3	10001 to 15000	12 (3.3%)	5 (1.4%)	17 (4.7%)
4	15001 to 20000	0 (0.0%)	3 (0.8%)	3 (0.8%)
5	20001 and above	0 (0.0%)	2 (0.6%)	2 (0.6%)
TOTAL		120 (33.3%)	240 (66.7%)	360 (100.0%)

From the presented table it is observed that more than half (56.1%) of the respondents obtain monthly salary between 5001 to 10000 rupees while little more than one third (37.8%) of the women employees reported of being paid monthly salary less than 5000 rupees. The government of Kerala has notified an upward revision of minimum wages for workers of shops and commercial establishments. As per the notification, the minimum wage will be Rs.4,104 for A Grade workers, Rs.3,954 for B Grade workers, Rs.3,877 for C Grade workers, Rs.3,800 for D grade workers and 3,727 for E grade workers (The Hindu, 2009). The data reveals that wage wise the women employees in private shops and business enterprises are paid above the minimum wage level fixed for workers of shops and commercial establishment in Kerala.

Reasons for joining the labour force having the attributes as given in the table is cross tabulated with the locality of the shop in the following table.

Table No: 4.1.2**Distribution of respondents by their reasons for joining labour force and locality of shop**

Sl. No.	Reason for joining the labour force	Locality of the shop		Total
		Rural	Urban	
1	Poverty in House	30 (8.3%)	77 (21.4%)	107 (29.7%)
2	Inability to manage with family income	43 (11.9%)	72 (20.0%)	115 (31.9%)
3	Exercise my worth and dignity	4 (1.1%)	39 (10.8%)	43 (11.9%)
4	Economic Independence	43 (11.9%)	52 (14.4%)	95 (26.4%)
TOTAL		120 (33.3%)	240 (66.7%)	360 (100.0%)

With regard to the respondents reasons for joining the labour force, it is inferred that little less than one third (31.9%) of the respondents reported of their inability to manage with family income while less than (29.7%) of the respondents reported of having poverty in their house as reasons for joining the labour force. Hence it is evident that women employed in private shops and business enterprises enter into labour force due to economic instability in the family.

Membership in association or in groups with its attributes is cross tabulated with locality of shops is presented in this table.

Table No: 4.1.3**Distribution of respondents by their membership in associations / groups**

Sl. No.	Membership in Association / Groups	Locality of the shop		Total
		Rural	Urban	
1	No membership	15 (4.2%)	26 (7.2%)	41 (11.4%)
2	Self help group	103 (28.6%)	205 (56.9%)	308 (85.6%)
3	Others association	2 (0.6%)	9 (2.5%)	11 (3.1%)
TOTAL		120 (33.3%)	240 (66.7%)	360 (100.0%)

This table illustrates that majority (85.6%) of the women employees in the private shops and business enterprises are members of self help groups. According to Myrada (2001) an organization promoting Self Help Group states that Self Help Groups are small informal association of the poor created at the grass root level for the purpose of enabling members to reap economic benefits out of mutual help solitarily and joint responsibility. Self-help groups are formed voluntarily by the rural and urban poor to save and contribute to a common fund to be lent to its members as per group decision and for working together for social and economic uplift of their families and community. Hence women employees in private shops and business enterprises thrive for economic independence even by joining member in Self Help Group in addition to their employment in private shops and business enterprises.

4.2. Category and Size of Trade:**4.2.1. Category of Trade:**

Respondents in this study reported being engaged in labour belonging to the following categories of trade. The various categories of trade that provide women opportunity for gaining employment in the rural and urban along with the data showing the number of women working and their percent is presented.

- Textile shop – 21 (5.8%)
- Bakery - 9 (2.5%)
- Spices shop - 2 (0.6%)
- Construction units - 2 (0.6%)
- Hotel - 17 (4.7%)
- Gold Jewelers - 2 (0.6%)
- Two wheeler resale shop - 1 (0.3%)
- Four wheeler resale shop - 2 (0.6%)
- Lens cum optical shop - 3 (0.8%)
- Flower shop - 13 (3.6%)
- Coffee cum tea shop – 6 (1.7%)
- Laundry - 7 (1.9%)
- Gardener - 7 (1.9%)
- Departmental stores - 7 (1.9%)
- Two wheeler show room - 3 (0.8%)
- Pawn broker - 23 (6.4%)
- Stationery shop - 9 (2.5%)
- Electronics shop - 10 (2.8%)
- Sea food processing unit - 8 (2.2%)
- Mobile shop - 6 (1.7%)
- Vegetable shop - 5 (1.4%)
- Pets and aquarium - 1 (0.3%)
- Internet Café - 4 (1.1%)
- Beauty parlor - 17 (4.7%)
- Computer education centre - 2 (0.6%)
- Cake and sweet production unit - 4 (1.1%)
- Poultry farm - 1 (0.3%)
- Desk Top Publishing centre - 3 (0.8%)
- Lottery agencies - 6 (1.7%)
- Bed making units - 4 (1.1%)
- Masala grinding unit - 3 (0.8%)

- Appalam production unit - 3 (0.8%)
- Shoe and Bag production unit - 2 (0.6%)
- Umbrella production unit - 2 (0.6%)
- Document writing units - 2 (0.6%)
- Tailor shop - 21 (5.8%)
- Paint shop - 2 (0.6%)
- Wedding card shop - 1 (0.3%)
- Book shop - 4 (1.1%)
- Note binding unit - 2 (0.6%)
- Marriage hall - 6 (1.7%)
- Areca nut agencies - 1 (0.3%)
- Cashew nut segregation unit - 1 (0.3%)
- Readymade garments - 3 (0.8%)
- Photo studio - 6 (1.7%)
- Milk agencies - 3 (0.8%)
- Fruit sales shop - 4 (1.1%)
- Fast food shop - 2 (0.6%)
- Chit fund shop - 2 (0.6%)
- Grocery shop - 2 (0.6%)
- Silver shop - 1 (0.3%)
- Oil mill - 1 (0.3%)
- Catering Service - 1 (0.3%)
- Blood test centre - 5 (1.4%)
- Stall fed goat farming - 5 (1.4%)
- Pot production and selling unit - 4 (1.1%)
- Medical shop - 8 (2.2%)
- Bamboo craft work - 1 (0.3%)
- Dairy farm - 4 (1.1%)
- Street vendor - 1 (0.3%)
- Agriculture sector - 1 (0.3%)
- Nursing - 1 (0.3%)

- Fancy store - 5 (1.4%)
- Rubber collection shop - 2 (0.6%)
- Groundnut sweets sales agencies - 2 (0.6%)
- LIC agent office - 1 (0.3%)
- Tiles production and sales - 2 (0.6%)
- Flour grinding unit - 1 (0.3%)
- Super market - 4 (1.1%)
- Candle production unit - 2 (0.6%)
- Chips production unit - 1 (0.3%)
- Fish commission agencies - 1 (0.3%)
- Soap production unit - 1(0.3%)
- Computer sales and service - 2 (0.6%)
- Driving practice centre -2 (0.6%)
- Cycle mart - 1 (0.3%)
- Match box production unit - 1 (0.3%)
- Gold covering jewel shop - 1 (0.3%)
- Bricks production unit - 1 (0.3%)
- Tuition center - 10 (2.8%)
- Ply wood shop - 1 (0.3%)
- Waste paper mart - 1 (0.3%)
- Ayurveda vaithiya sala - 1 (0.3%)
- Garments whole sale shop - 1 (0.3%)
- Orchestra unit - 1 (0.3%)
- Xerox shop - 5 (1.4%)

Hence this reveals that the above mentioned categories of trade have obtained permission from the panchayats and are providing employment opportunity to women from rural and urban areas.

Size of the enterprises with three attributes and locality of the shops is cross tabled and presented in the following table.

Table No: 4.2.2**Distribution of respondents by the locality of shop and size of the enterprises**

Sl. No.	Size of the enterprise	Locality of the shop		Total
		Rural	Urban	
1	Employees Less than 5 (Small)	89 (24.7%)	198 (55.0%)	287 (79.7%)
2	Employees between 6 - 20 (Medium)	29 (8.1%)	25 (6.9%)	54 (15.0%)
3	Employees above 20 (Big)	2 (0.6%)	17 (4.7%)	19 (5.3%)
TOTAL		120 (33.3%)	240 (66.7%)	360 (100%)

With regard to the locality of shop and size of enterprise distribution of respondents by the locality of the shop and size of enterprises majority (79.7%) of the women are employed in small shops where the employees are less than five, while little more than one tenth (15%) of the women are employed in medium shops where there are employees between 6 to 20 people are employed and much less than one tenth (5.3%) of them work in big shops where there are employees more than 20 are available. The table reveals that majority (79.7%) of the women employees are employed in small shops where there are employees less than five. According to The Kerala Shops and Commercial Establishments Act (1960) big establishment is defined as a shop or commercial establishment which employs twenty or more employees. Medium establishment is a shop or commercial establishment which employs six or more, but less than twenty employees. Small establishment is a shop or commercial establishment where the strength of employees ranges from zero to five. Hence majority of the private shops and business enterprises have their employees less than five and are small sized shops.

Nature of wage given by the employers to their women employees is cross tabulated with the locality of shops and it is presented in the following table.

Table No: 4.2.3

Distribution of respondents by the locality of shop and nature of wage

Sl. No.	Nature of wage	Locality of the shop		Total
		Rural	Urban	
1	Daily	30 (8.3%)	63 (17.5%)	93 (25.8%)
2	Weekly	12 (3.3%)	48 (13.3%)	60 (16.7%)
3	Monthly	72 (20.0%)	118 (32.8%)	190 (52.8%)
4	Wage for piece rate	6 (1.7%)	11 (3.1%)	17 (4.7%)
TOTAL		120 (33.3%)	240 (66.7%)	360 (100.0%)

It is inferred from this table that more than half (52.8%) of the respondents receive monthly salary while little more than one fourth (25.8%) of the women employees reported of obtaining daily wages. This reveals that more than half (52.8%) of the women employed in private shops and business enterprises obtain monthly salary. On probing into the aspect of nature of wage being paid by the employers, the employees opined that this wage arrangement is made upon mutual agreement between women employees and their employer.

Type of employer managing the enterprise with five different attributes namely partners, proprietor, director, SHG and JLG is cross tabulated with the locality of shops and it is presented in the following table.

Table No: 4.2.4**Distribution of respondents by their type of employer and locality of shop**

Sl. No.	Types of employer	Locality of the shop		Total
		Rural	Urban	
1	Partners	40 (11.1%)	55 (15.3%)	95 (26.4%)
2	Proprietor	72 (20.0%)	152 (42.2%)	224 (62.2%)
3	Director	2 (0.6%)	26 (7.2%)	28 (7.8%)
4	Self help Group	4 (1.1%)	6 (1.7%)	10 (2.8%)
5	Joint Liability Group	2 (0.6%)	1 (0.3%)	3 (0.8%)
TOTAL		120 (33.3%)	240 (66.7%)	360 (100.0%)

The above table reveals that more than two third (62.2%) of the private shops and business enterprises are managed through proprietors while little more than one fourth (26.4%) of the private shops and business are managed by partners. This reveals that considerable proportion (62.2%) of the private shops and business enterprises are managed by the proprietor where profit is not shared and all decisions about the enterprise is taken only by an individual.

4.3. Working Conditions:

Provision of clean and safe drinking water in shops is cross tabulated with size of enterprises and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.3.1

Association between size of the enterprises and availability of clean and safe drinking water

Sl. No.	Size of the Enterprises	Availability of clean and safe drinking water		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	5 (Small)	237 (65.8%)	50 (13.9%)	$X^2 = 5.907$ df = 2 P = .042 P < 0.05 Significant
2	6 - 20 (Medium)	37 (10.3%)	17 (4.7%)	
3	20 - (Big)	16 (4.4%)	3 (0.8%)	

This table reveals the association between size of the enterprise and availability of clean and safe drinking water to the employees. It is observed that among those women employees working in small shops more than half (65.8%) of them reported of the availability of clean and safe drinking water facility while little more than one tenth (13.9%) of the respondents reported of not having such facilities. However the chi square test reveals that there is a significant association between size of the enterprise and availability of clean and safe drinking water facility. The association is that clean and safe drinking water is provided to employees working in some small shops and few shops do not provided clean and safe drinking water.

Provision of separate toilet facilities in shops is cross tabulated with shop location and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.3.2

Association between shop location and availability of separate toilet facilities

Sl. No.	Shop Location	Availability of separate toilet		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Rural	37 (10.3%)	83 (23.1%)	$X^2 = 1.201$ df = 1 P = .273 P > 0.05 Not Significant
2	Urban	88 (24.4%)	152 (42.2%)	

This present table presents the association between the location of the shop and the availability of toilet facilities separate for women. It is observed that less than half

(42.2%) of the women employees employed in shops located within the urban reported of not having separate toilet facility at their work place. The table also illustrates that little less than one fourth (23.1%) of the women employees employed in shops located within the rural reported of not having separate toilet facility at their work place. It is inferred from the table that the private shops and business enterprises located in the urban (42.2%) and rural (23.1%) reported of not having the toilet facility separately for women at their work place. The chi square test reveals that the p value is greater than the level of significance and hence there is no significant association between location of shop and the availability of separate toilet facilities for women. Study conducted by P.E.Usha (2005) titled ‘Determinants and consequences of women’s work in the unorganised sector: A case study with reference to the women in the textile sales sector of Trivandrum corporation area. Centre for Development Studies, Thiruvananthapuram resulted with the findings that only 2% of the women workers are provided with the toilet facility in the textiles shops. However, the present study reveals that only 23.1 percent in rural and 42.2 percent in the urban have reported of not having separate toilet facility. This reveals that most of the private shops do not have separate toilet facility as a result woman has poor working condition at work place.

Provision of creche facilities in shops is cross tabulated with location of shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.3.3

Association between shop location and availability of creche facilities

Sl. No.	Shop Location	Availability of crèche facilities		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Rural	5 (1.4%)	115 (31.9%)	$X^2 = 12.529$ df = 1 P = .000 P < 0.05 Significant
2	Urban	42 (11.7%)	198 (55.0%)	

This present table presents the association between the location of the shop and the availability of creche facilities in support of women employees. It is observed that more than half (55 %) of the women employees employed in shops located within the urban reported of not having creche facility at their work place. The table also illustrates

that little more than one fourth (31.9%) of the women employees employed in shops located within the rural reported of not having creche facility at their work place. It is inferred from the table that the private shops and business enterprises located in the urban (55%) and rural (31.9%) reported of not having the creche facility for aiding women at their work place. The chi square test reveals that the p value is lesser than the level of significance and hence there is a significant association between location of shop and the availability of crèche facilities for aiding women.

Provision of rest room facilities in shops is cross tabulated with location of shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.3.4

Association between shop location and availability of restroom

Sl. No.	Shop Location	Availability of restroom		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Rural	14 (3.9%)	106 (29.4%)	X ² =55.133 df =1 P = .000 P < 0.05 Significant
2	Urban	125 (34.7%)	115 (31.9%)	

This present table presents the association between the location of the shop and the availability of restroom facilities in support of women employees. It is observed that little more than one third (34.7%) of the women employees employed in shops located within the urban reported of having restroom facility at their work place. The table also illustrates that little less than one third (29.4%) of the women employees employed in shops located within the rural reported of not having restroom facility at their work place. It is inferred from the table that the private shops and business enterprises located in the urban (34.7%) have restrooms and rural (29.4%) reported of not having the restroom facility for aiding women at their work place. The chi square test reveals that the p value is lesser than the level of significance and hence there is a significant association between location of shop and the availability of restroom facilities for aiding women.

Provision of personal storage and shelter facilities in shops is cross tabulated with location of shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.3.5

Association between location of shops and availability of personal storage and Shelter

Sl. No.	Shop location	Availability of personal storage and shelter in the restroom		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Rural	14 (3.9%)	106 (29.4%)	$X^2 = 55.133$ $df = 1$ $P = .000$ $P < 0.05$ Significant
2	Urban	125 (34.7%)	115 (31.9%)	

This above table illustrates the association between the location of the shop and the availability of personal storage and shelter facilities in support of women employees. It is observed that little more than one third (34.7%) of the women employees employed in shops located within the urban reported of having personal storage and shelter facility at their work place. The table also illustrates that little less than one third (29.4%) of the women employees employed in shops located within the rural reported of not having personal storage and shelter facility at their work place. It is inferred from the table that the private shops and business enterprises located in the urban (34.7%) have personal storage and shelter facility and rural (29.4%) reported of not having the personal storage and shelter facility for aiding women at their work place. The chi square test reveals that the p value is lesser than the level of significance and hence there is a significant association between location of shop and the availability of personal storage and shelter facility for aiding women.

Provision of washing and dining facilities in shops is cross tabulated with location of shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.3.6

Association between shop location and availability of washing and dining facilities for women

Sl. No.	Shop location	Availability of washing and dining facilities for women		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Rural	45 (12.5%)	75 (20.8%)	X ² =13.900 df =1 P =.000 P < 0.05 Significant
2	Urban	140 (38.9%)	100 (27.8%)	

This above table illustrates the association between the location of the shop and the availability of washing and dining facilities in support of women employees. It is observed that little more than one third (38.9%) of the women employees employed in shops located within the urban reported of having washing and dining facility at their work place. The table also illustrates that little less than one fourth (20.8%) of the women employees employed in shops located within the rural reported of not having washing and dining facility at their work place. It is inferred from the table that the private shops and business enterprises located in the urban (38.9%) have washing and dining facility and rural (20.8%) reported of not having the washing and dining facility for aiding women at their work place. The chi square test reveals that the p value is lesser than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is a significant association between location of shop and the availability of washing and dining facility for aiding women employees.

Provision of first aid facilities in shops is cross tabulated with location of shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.3.7

Association between shop location and availability of first aid

Sl. No.	Shop Location	Availability of first aid		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Rural	22 (6.1%)	98 (27.2%)	X ² =4.596 df =1 P =.032 P < 0.05 Significant
2	Urban	69 (19.2%)	171 (47.5%)	

This above table illustrates the association between the location of the shop and the availability of first aid facilities at private shop and business enterprise. It is observed that little less than half (47.5%) of the women employees employed in shops located within the urban reported of not having first aid facility at their work place. The table also illustrates that little less than one third (27.2%) of the women employees employed in shops located within the rural reported of not having first aid facility at their work place. It is inferred from the table that the private shops and business enterprises located in the urban (47.5%) and rural (27.2%) do not have first aid facility aiding their employees. The chi square test reveals that the p value is lesser than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is a significant association between location of shop and the availability of first aid facility for aiding women employees.

Exposure to dangerous substance in shops is cross tabulated with size of enterprises and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.3.8**Association between size of the enterprises and exposure to dangerous substance**

Sl. No.	Size of the Enterprises	Exposure to dangerous substance		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Small Size	19 (5.3%)	268 (74.4%)	$X^2 = 11.490$ $df = 2$ $P = .003$ $P < 0.05$ Significant
2	Medium Size	2 (0.6%)	52 (14.4%)	
3	Big Size	5 (1.4%)	14 (3.9%)	

This above table illustrates the association between the size of the shop and their exposure to dangerous substance. It is observed that majority (74.4%) of the women employees employed in small shops reported of not having exposure to dangerous substance at their work place. The chi square test reveals that the p value is lesser than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is a significant association between size of shop and their exposure to dangerous substances.

Exposure to the danger of heavy machineries in shops is cross tabulated with location of shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.3.9**Association between shop location and danger of heavy machineries**

Sl. No.	Shop Location	Danger of heavy machineries		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Rural	7 (1.9%)	113 (31.4%)	$X^2 = 13.507$ $df = 1$ $P = .000$ $P < 0.05$ Significant
2	Urban	50 (13.9%)	190 (52.8%)	

This earlier table reveals the association between the location of the shop and their exposure to the danger of heavy machineries. It is observed that more than half (52.8%) of the women employees employed in shops located in the urban area reported of not having the danger of heavy machineries at their work place, while little less than one third (31.4%) of the women employees employed in shops located in the rural area reported of not having the danger of heavy machineries at their work place. The chi square test reveals that the p value is lesser than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is a significant association between location of shop and their danger of heavy machineries. It infers that shops located in urban (52.8%) have higher danger of heavy machineries than those shops in the rural (31.4%).

Exposure to the danger of lifting heavy loads in shops is cross tabulated with location of shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.3.10

Association between shop location and lifting heavy loads

Sl. No.	Shop Location	Lifting heavy loads		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Rural	40 (11.1%)	80 (22.2%)	$X^2 = 1.965$ $df = 1$ $P = .161$ $P > 0.05$ Not Significant
2	Urban	63 (17.5%)	177 (49.2%)	

This above table reveals the association between the location of the shop and their job involved with lifting heavy loads. It is observed that little less than half (49.2%) of the women employees employed in shops located in the urban area reported of not having the job involved with lifting heavy loads at their work place, while little less than one fourth (22.2%) of the women employees employed in shops located in the rural area reported of not having the job involved with lifting heavy loads at their work place. The chi square test reveals that the p value is greater than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is no significant association between location of shop and their job involved with lifting heavy loads. It infers that shops located in urban and rural do not have any association with regard to the job involved with lifting heavy loads.

Exposure to the danger of excessive noise in shops is cross tabulated with location of shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.3.11

Association between shop location and excessive noise

Sl. No.	Shop Location	Excessive Noise		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Rural	33 (9.2%)	87 (24.2%)	$X^2 = 19.632$ $df = 1$ $P = .000$ $P < 0.05$ Significant
2	Urban	125 (34.7%)	115 (31.9%)	

This table reveals the association between the location of the shop and their exposure to excessive noise. It is observed that more than one third (34.7%) of the women employees employed in shops located in the urban area reported of having excessive noise at their work place, while little less than one fourth (24.2%) of the women employees employed in shops located in the rural area reported of not having the exposure to excessive noise at their work place. The chi square test reveals that the p value is lesser than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is a significant association between location of shop and their exposure to excessive noise. It infers that shops located in urban (34.7%) have higher exposure to excessive noise than those shops in the rural.

Exposure to the danger of long hours of standing in shops is cross tabulated with location of shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.3.12

Association between shop location and long hours of standing

Sl. No.	Shop Location	Long hours of standing		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Rural	56 (15.6%)	64 (17.8%)	$X^2 = .200$ $df = 1$ $P = .655$ $P > 0.05$ Not Significant
2	Urban	118 (32.8%)	122 (33.9%)	

Earlier table illustrates the association between the location of the shop and their exposure to long hours of standing at work place. The table reveals that 15.6 percent in rural and 32.8 percent in urban reported of long hours of standing in their work. The chi square test reveals that the p value is greater than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is no significant association between location of shop and their exposure to long hours of standing at work place. It infers that shops located in urban (32.8%) have the work load of long hours of standing than the respondents working in rural (15.6%) locality.

Exposure to poor lighting and ventilation in shops is cross tabulated with location of shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.3.13

Association between shop location and poor lighting and ventilation

Sl. No.	Shop Location	Lighting and ventilation		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Rural	10 (2.8%)	110 (30.6%)	$X^2 = .941$ df= 1 P = .332 P > 0.05 Not Significant
2	Urban	28 (7.8%)	212 (58.9%)	

Above table highlights the association between the location of the shop and their lighting and ventilation at work place. The chi square test reveals that the p value is greater than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is no significant association between location of shop and their status of lighting and ventilation at work place. It infers that shops located in urban (58.9%) and rural (30.6%) do not have adequate lighting and ventilation at their work place.

Working hours in shops is cross tabulated with location of shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.3.14**Association between shop location and working hours**

Sl. No.	Working hours in a day	Shop Location		Statistical Significance
		Rural	Urban	
1	8 Hours	46 (22.8%)	149 (41.4%)	$X^2 = 16.809$ $df = 7$ $P = .019$ $P < 0.05$ Significant
2	More than 9 Hours	38 (10.5%)	91 (25.3%)	

Association between shop location and working hours in a day is observed in this table. Among those women employees employed in the shops located in the rural little less than one fourth (22.8%) work eight hours in a day, while little more than one tenth (10.5%) of the women reported of working beyond nine hours in a day. Among those women employees employed in the shops located in the urban less than half (41.4%) work eight hours in a day, while little more than one fourth (25.3%) of the women reported of working beyond nine hours in a day. The chi square test reveals that the p value is lesser than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is a significant association between location of shop and their hours of work in each day. It reveals that women employed in urban (25.3%) is higher than those in rural (10.5%) in terms of working beyond nine hours in each day.

Rest in duty in shops is cross tabulated with location of shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.3.15**Association between shop location and rest in duty**

Sl. No.	Shop location	Rest in duty			Statistical Significance
		No Rest	Relaxingly Work	1 Hour rest for 8 hour	
1	Rural	38 (10.6%)	77 (21.4%)	5 (1.4%)	$X^2 = 2.311$ $df = 2$ $P = .315$ $P > 0.05$ Not Significant
2	Urban	68 (18.9%)	152 (42.2%)	20 (5.6%)	

Above table reveals the association between shop location and rest in duty. Among the women employed in shops located in rural little more than one fifth (21.4%)

of the respondents reported of working in a relaxing manner, while little more than one tenth (10.6%) reported of having no rest during duty hours. Among the women employed in shops located in urban little less than half (42.2%) of the respondents reported of working in a relaxing manner, while little less than one fifth (18.9%) reported of having no rest during duty hours. However, the chi square test reveals that the p value is greater than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is no significant association between location of shop and their accessibility to rest during work hours.

Weekly holidays in shops is cross tabulated with location of shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.3.16

Association between shop location and weekly holiday

Sl. No.	Shop location	Weekly holiday			Statistical Significance
		No Leave	Day is set but not followed	One day leave in a week	
1	Rural	54 (15.0%)	3 (0.8%)	63 (17.5%)	$X^2 = 6.990$ $df = 2$ $P = .030$ $P < 0.05$ Significant
2	Urban	99 (27.5%)	25 (6.9%)	116 (32.2%)	

Above table reveals the association between shop location and weekly holiday. Among the women employed in shops located in rural little less than one fifth (15%) of the respondents reported of having no leave during the week. Among the women employed in shops located in urban, little more than one fourth (27.5%) of the respondents reported of having no leave during the week. The table also reveals that less than one tenth (6.9%) of the respondents reported that a day is set to provide leave but it is not followed. The chi square test reveals that the p value is lesser than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is a significant association between location of shop and their weekly holidays.

4.4. Protective measures:

Precautions against fire accident in shops are cross tabulated with size of the shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.4.1

Association between size of the enterprises and precautions against fire accident

Sl. No.	Size of the Enterprises	Precautions against fire accident		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Small Size	54 (15.0%)	233 (64.7%)	X ² = 13.807 df = 2 P = .001 P < 0.05 Significant
2	Medium Size	16 (4.4%)	38 (10.6%)	
3	Big Size	10 (2.8%)	9 (2.5%)	

In this table, association between size of the enterprise and the availability of protective measure such as precaution against fire accident is observed. It is seen that majority (64.7%) in the small size shops do not have precaution against fire accident and in the medium size shops little more than one tenth (10.6%) reported of not having precaution against fire accident. The chi square test reveals that the p value is lesser than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is a significant association between size of shop and their protective measure of precaution against fire accident.

Appointment order issued to employees in shops is cross tabulated with location of the shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.4.2

Association between shop location and appointment order

Sl. No.	Shop location	Appointment order		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Rural	5 (1.4%)	115 (31.9%)	X ² = 3.272 df = 1 P= .030 P < 0.05 Significant
2	Urban	23 (6.4%)	217 (60.3%)	

In this table, association between location of the shop and the delivery of appointment order to employees is observed. It is seen that majority (60.3%) of the shops located in urban do not issue appointment order, while little less than one third (31.9%) of the shops located within the rural do not issue appointment order at times of recruitment. The chi square test reveals that the p value is lesser than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is a significant association between location of shop and their issue of appointment order. It is inferred that shops in urban (60.3%) are significantly higher than shops in rural (31.9%) with regard to not issuing appointment order to their employees.

Attendance maintenance in shops is cross tabulated with size of the shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.4.3

Association between size of enterprises and attendance

Sl. No.	Size of the enterprises	Attendance		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Small Size	34 (9.4%)	253 (70.3%)	$X^2 = 58.699$ $df = 2$ $P = .000$ $P < 0.05$ Significant
2	Medium Size	14 (3.9%)	40 (11.1%)	
3	Big Size	15 (23.8%)	4 (1.1)	

In this table, association between size of the enterprise and the attendance maintained in the shop is observed. It is seen that majority (70.3%) in the small size shops do not maintain attendance of their employees and in the medium size shops little more than one tenth (11.1%) reported of not maintaining attendance. The chi square test reveals that the p value is lesser than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is a significant association between size of shop and maintenance of attendance of their employees.

4.5. Wages:

Receipt for the salary provided to employees in shops is cross tabulated with size of the shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.5.1

Association between size of the enterprises and receipt for salary

Sl. No.	Size of the Enterprises	Receipt for salary		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Small	41(11.4%)	246 (68.3%)	$X^2 = 50.250$ df =2 P= .000 P < 0.05 Significant
2	Medium	16(4.4%)	38 (10.6%)	
3	Big	15(4.2%)	4 (1.1%)	

With regard to the receipt for the salary provided the table reveals that majority (68.3%) of the small size shops do not collect receipt for the salary being paid to their employee. It is also seen that little more than one tenth (10.6%) of the respondents employed in the medium enterprises reported that their employers do not collect receipt for the salary being paid to their employees.

Issuance of one months notice for termination in shops are cross tabulated with location of the shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.5.2

Association between shop location and one months notice for termination

Sl. No.	Shop location	Notice for termination		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Rural	3 (0.8%)	117 (32.5%)	$X^2 =7.501$ df = 1 P= .006 P < 0.05 Significant
2	Urban	26 (7.2%)	214 (59.4%)	

In this table, association between location of the shop and the notice issued for termination is observed. It is seen that majority (59.4%) in the shops located in the urban do not issue notice to their employees before termination from labour and in the shops located in the rural little more than one fourth (32.5%) reported of not issuing notice for termination. The chi square test reveals that the p value is lesser than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is a significant association between location of shop

and issue of one month notice to employees before termination. It is inferred that a higher proportion of shops in the urban (59.4%) and rural (32.5%) do not issue notice to their employees prior to their termination.

Equal pay for work provided to employees in shops are cross tabulated with location of the shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.5.3
Association between shop location and equal pay for work

Sl. No.	Shop location	Equal pay for work		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Rural	3 (0.8%)	117 (32.5%)	$X^2 = 61.016$ $df = 1$ $P = .000$ $P < 0.05$ Significant
2	Urban	101 (28.1%)	139 (38.6%)	

In this table, association between location of the shop and the equal pay for equal work is observed. It is seen that less than half (38.6%) in the shops located in the urban do not pay equal pay for equal work to their employees and in the shops located in the rural little more than one fourth (32.5%) reported of not paid equal pay for equal work. The chi square test reveals that the p value is lesser than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is a significant association between shop location and equal pay for equal work to their employees. It is inferred that a higher proportion of shops in the urban (38.6%) and rural (32.5%) do not provide equal pay for equal work to their employees.

Punctuality in paying wages to employees in shops are cross tabulated with location of the shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.5.4
Association between shop location and punctuality in paying wages

Sl. No.	Shop location	Punctuality in paying wages		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Rural	83 (23.1%)	37 (10.3%)	$X^2 = 7.722$ $df = 1$ $P = .005$ $P < 0.05$ Significant
2	Urban	197 (54.7%)	43 (11.9%)	

This table reveals the association between location of the shop and the punctuality in paying wages is observed. Among the women employees employed in shops located in the rural areas 23.1% of them reported about their employer's punctuality in paying wages and among those from urban (54.7%) reported of their employer in paying wages on right time. The chi square test reveals that the p value is lesser than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is a significant association between shop location and their employer's punctuality in paying wages. It is inferred that a higher proportion of employers from shops in the urban (54.7%) and rural (23.1%) are punctual in paying wages to their employees.

Maternity leave for women employees in shops are cross tabulated with location of the shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.5.5

Association between shop location and maternity leave

Sl. No.	Shop location	Maternity leave		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Rural	1 (0.3%)	119 (33.1%)	$X^2=6.579$ $df=1$ $P=.010$ $P < 0.05$ Significant
2	Urban	17 (4.7%)	223 (61.9%)	

The above table reveals the association between location of the shop and the accessibility to maternity leave is observed. Among the women employees employed in shops located in the urban areas 61.9% of them reported about not providing maternity leave and among those from rural (33.1%) reported of their employer in not giving the access to maternity leave. The chi square test reveals that the p value is lesser than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is a significant association between shop location and their employer's gesture towards providing maternity leave. It is inferred that a higher proportion of employers from shops in the urban (61.9%) and rural (33.1%) never provide maternity leave to their women employees.

Paid maternity leave provided to women employees in shops are cross tabulated with size of the shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.5.6

Association between size of the enterprises and paid maternity leave

Sl. No.	Size of the enterprises	Paid maternity leave		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Small	7 (1.9%)	280 (77.8%)	$X^2 = 14.127$ $df = 2$ $P = .001$ $P < 0.05$ Significant
2	Medium	6 (1.7%)	48 (13.3%)	
3	Big	3 (0.8%)	16 (4.4%)	

Association between size of the enterprise and maternity leave provided to their women employees with payment of salary is observed in this table. It is inferred that among the women employees employed in the small size enterprises a considerable majority (77.8%) reported of not being paid salary on occasion of maternity leave, while among the women employees employed in the medium size enterprises more than one tenth (13.3%) of them reported of not being paid salary on occasion of maternity leave and among the women employees employed in the big size enterprises much less than one tenth (4.4%) of the women employees reported not being paid salary on occasion of maternity leave. This reveals that majority of the women employees (77.8%) employed in the private shops and business enterprises reported of not being paid salary on occasion of maternity leave. The chi square test reveals that the p value is lesser than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is a significant association between size of the enterprise and their employer's gesture of providing maternity leave with wages. It is inferred that a considerable majority (77.8%) of the small size enterprises do not provide maternity leave with wages.

Medical bonus provided for pre and post natal care to women employees in shops are cross tabulated with size of the shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.5.7

Association between size of the enterprises and medical bonus for pre and postnatal care

Sl. No.	Size of the enterprises	Medical bonus for pre and postnatal		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Small	3 (0.8%)	284 (78.9%)	X ² = 12.848 df = 2 P = .002 P < 0.05 Significant
2	Medium	4 (1.1%)	50 (13.9%)	
3	Big	2(0.6%)	17(4.7%)	

Association between size of the enterprise and medical bonus paid for pre and post natal care provided to their women employees is observed in this table. It is inferred that among the women employees employed in the small size enterprises a considerable majority (78.9%) reported of not being provided medical bonus for pre and post natal care, while among the women employees employed in the medium size enterprises more than one tenth (13.9%) of them reported of not being provided medical bonus for pre and post natal care and among the women employees employed in the big size enterprises much less than one tenth (4.7%) of the women employees reported not being provided medical bonus for pre and post natal care. This reveals that majority of the women employees (78.9%) employed in the private shops and business enterprises reported of not being provided medical bonus for pre and post natal care. The chi square test reveals that the p value is lesser than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is a significant association between size of the enterprise and their employer's gesture of providing medical bonus for pre and post natal care. It is inferred that a considerable majority (78.9%) of the small size enterprises do not provide medical bonus for pre and post natal care.

Twelve days holidays in a year with wages to employees in shops are cross tabulated with size of the shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.5.8**Association between size of the enterprises and 12 days holidays with wages**

Sl. No.	Size of the enterprises	12 days holidays with wages		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Small	4 (1.1%)	283 (78.6%)	$X^2 = 15.490$ $df = 2$ $P = .000$ $P < 0.05$ Significant
2	Medium	3 (0.8%)	51 (14.2%)	
3	Big	3 (0.8%)	16 (4.4%)	

Association between size of the enterprise and 12 days holidays provided to their women employees with salary is observed in this table. It is inferred that among the women employees employed in the small size enterprises a considerable majority (78.6%) reported of not being provided 12 days holidays with wages, while among the women employees employed in the medium size enterprises more than one tenth (14.2%) of them reported of not being provided 12 days holidays with wages and among the women employees employed in the big size enterprises much less than one tenth (4.4%) of the women employees reported not being provided 12 days holidays with wages. This reveals that majority of the women employees (78.9%) employed in the private shops and business enterprises reported of not being provided 12 days holidays with wages. The chi square test reveals that the p value is lesser than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is a significant association between size of the enterprise and their employer's gesture of providing 12 days holidays with wages. It is inferred that a considerable majority (78.6%) of the small size enterprises do not provide 12 days holidays with wages.

Twelve days sick leaves in a year with wages to employees in shops are cross tabulated with size of the shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.5.9

Association between size of the enterprises and 12 sick leaves with wages

Sl. No.	Size of the enterprises	12 sick leaves with wages		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Small	13 (3.6%)	274 (76.1%)	X ² = 20.827 df = 2 P = .000 P < 0.05 Significant
2	Medium	11 (3.1%)	43 (11.9%)	
3	Big	4 (1.1%)	15 (4.2%)	

Association between size of the enterprise and 12 days of sick leave provided to their women employees with salary is observed in this table. It is inferred that among the women employees employed in the small size enterprises a considerable majority (76.1%) reported of not being provided 12 days of sick leaves with wages, while among the women employees employed in the medium size enterprises more than one tenth (11.9%) of them reported of not being provided 12 days of sick leaves with wages and among the women employees employed in the big size enterprises much less than one tenth (4.2%) of the women employees reported not being provided 12 days of sick leaves with wages. This reveals that majority of the women employees (76.1%) employed in the private shops and business enterprises reported of not being provided 12 days of sick leaves with wages. The chi square test reveals that the p value is lesser than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is a significant association between size of the enterprise and their employer's gesture of providing 12 days of sick leaves with wages. It is inferred that a considerable majority (76.1%) of the small size enterprises do not provide 12 days of sick leave with wages.

Twelve days casual leaves in a year with wages to employees in shops are cross tabulated with size of the shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.5.10

Association between size of the enterprises and 12 casual leaves with wages

Sl. No.	Size of the enterprises	12 casual leaves with wages		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Small	19 (5.3%)	268 (74.4%)	X ² = 10.313 df = 2 P= .006 P < 0.05 Significant
2	Medium	7 (1.9%)	47 (13.1%)	
3	Big	5 (1.4%)	14 (3.9%)	

Association between size of the enterprise and 12 days of casual leave provided to their women employees with salary is observed in this table. It is inferred that among the women employees employed in the small size enterprises a considerable majority (74.4%) reported of not being provided 12 days of casual leave with wages, while among the women employees employed in the medium size enterprises more than one tenth (13.1%) of them reported of not being provided 12 days of casual leave with wages and among the women employees employed in the big size enterprises much less than one tenth (3.9%) of the women employees reported not being provided 12 days of casual leave with wages. This reveals that majority of the women employees (76.1%) employed in the private shops and business enterprises reported of not being provided 12 days of casual leave with wages. The chi square test reveals that the p value is lesser than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is a significant association between size of the enterprise and their employer's gesture of providing 12 days of casual leaves with wages. It is inferred that a considerable majority (74.4%) of the small size enterprises do not provide 12 days of casual leaves with wages.

Wages for work beyond eight hours of work in a day to employees in shops are cross tabulated with size of the shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.5.11**Association between size of enterprises and wages for work beyond 8 hours**

Sl. No.	Size of the enterprises	Wages for work beyond 8 hours			Statistical Significance
		No extra wage	A small amount mutually agreed	Double the wages for every hour work	
1	Small	134 (37.2%)	148 (41.1%)	5 (1.4%)	$X^2 = 25.129$ $df = 4$ $P = .000$ $P < 0.05$ Significant
2	Medium	40 (11.1%)	14 (3.9%)	0 (0.0%)	
3	Big	13 (3.6%)	4 (1.1%)	2 (0.6%)	

Above table reveals the association between size of the enterprises and wages for working beyond 8 hours of work. It is seen that among the small size enterprises less than half (41.1%) of the women employees reported of getting a small mutually agreed amount as wage for working beyond 8 hours of work, while little more than one third (37.2%) of the respondents reported of not getting wages for work beyond 8 hours. The chi square test result shows that the p value is less than the alpha value at 0.05 level of significance and hence there is a significant association between size of the enterprises and wages paid for work beyond 8 hours. It is inferred that most of the employees in private shops and business enterprises do not pay double the wages for work beyond 8 hours.

Bonus for festival to employees in shops is cross tabulated with location of the shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.5.12**Association between shop location and bonus for festival**

Sl. No.	Shop location	Bonus for festival		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Rural	54 (15.0%)	66 (18.3%)	$X^2 = 5.367$ $df = 1$ $P = .021$ $P < 0.05$ Significant
2	Urban	139 (38.6%)	101 (28.1%)	

The earlier table reveals the association between location of the shop and the accessibility to bonus for festival is observed. Among the women employees employed in shops located in the urban areas 38.6% of them reported about their employer providing bonus for festivals and among those from rural (15%) reported of their employer in providing bonus for festivals. The chi square test reveals that the p value is lesser than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is a significant association between shop location and their employer's gesture towards providing bonus festivals. It is inferred that a higher proportion of employers from shops in the urban (61.9%) and rural (15%) provide bonus for festivals to their women employees.

4.6. Retirement benefits:

Provident fund to employees in shops are cross tabulated with size of the shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.6.1

Association between location of the enterprises and provident fund

Sl. No.	Size of the enterprises	Provident fund		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Rural	3 (0.8%)	117 (32.5%)	$X^2 = .388$ df = 1 P = .533 P > 0.05 Not Significant
2	Urban	9 (2.5%)	231 (64.2%)	

The above table reveals the association between location of the shop and the accessibility to provident fund is observed. Among the women employees employed in shops located in the urban areas (64.2%) of them reported about their employer not providing the provision of provident fund and among those from rural (32.5%) reported of their employer in not providing the provision of provident fund. The chi square test reveals that the p value is greater than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is no significant association between shop location and their employer's gesture towards

providing provident fund. It is inferred that a employers from shops in the urban (64.2%) and rural (32.5%) do not provide provision of provident fund to their women employees.

4.7. Social security measures:

Employee state insurance to employees in shops are cross tabulated with location of the shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.7.1

Association between shop location and employee state insurance

Sl. No.	Shop location	Employee state insurance		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Rural	0 (0.0%)	120 (33.3%)	$X^2=2.535$ df = 1 P = .111 P > 0.05 Not Significant
2	Urban	5 (1.4%)	235 (65.3%)	

The above table reveals the association between location of the shop and the accessibility to employee state insurance is observed. Among the women employees employed in shops located in the urban areas (65.3%) of them reported about their employer not providing the provision of employee state insurance and among those from rural (33.3%) reported of their employer in not providing the provision of employee state insurance. The chi square test reveals that the p value is greater than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is no significant association between shop location and their employer's gesture towards providing employee state insurance. It is inferred that employers from shops in the urban (65.3%) and rural (33.3%) do not provide provision of employee state insurance to their women employees.

Work men's compensation to employees in shops is cross tabulated with location of the shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.7.2

Association between shop location and work men's compensation

Sl. No.	Shop location	Work men's compensation		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Rural	2 (0.6%)	119 (32.8%)	X ² = 1.552 df = 1 P = .213 P > 0.05 Not Significant
2	Urban	10 (2.8%)	230 (63.9%)	

The above table reveals the association between location of the shop and the accessibility to workmen's compensation is observed. Among the women employees employed in shops located in the urban areas (63.9%) of them reported about their employer not providing the provision of workmen's compensation and among those from rural (32.8%) reported of their employer in not providing the provision of workmen's compensation. The chi square test reveals that the p value is greater than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is no significant association between shop location and their employer's gesture towards providing workmen's compensation. It is inferred that employers from shops in the urban (63.9%) and rural (32.8%) do not provide provision of workmen's compensation to their women employees.

4.8. Union affiliation:

Provision for membership in union to employees in shops is cross tabulated with location of the shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.8.
Association between shop location and membership union

Sl. No.	Shop location	Membership union		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Rural	5 (1.4%)	115 (31.9%)	X ² = 2.883 df = 1 P = .090 P > 0.05 Not Significant
2	urban	22 (6.1%)	218 (60.6%)	

The earlier table reveals the association between location of the shop and the accessibility to be part of union is observed. Among the women employees employed in shops located in the urban areas (60.6%) of them reported about their employer not providing the provision of having membership with union and among those from rural (31.9%) reported of their employer in not providing the provision of having membership in union. The chi square test reveals that the p value is greater than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is no significant association between shop location and their employer's gesture towards providing opportunity to have membership in union. It is inferred that employers from shops in the urban (60.6%) and rural (31.9%) do not provide provision for having membership in union to their women employees.

4.9. Skill development:

Skill enhancement training provided to women employees in shops is cross tabulated with location of the shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.9.1

Association between shop location and skill enhancement training

Sl. No.	Shop location	Skill enhancement training		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Rural	2(0.3%)	118(32.8%)	$X^2 = 1.552$ $df = 1$ $P = .231$ $P > 0.05$ Not Significant
2	Urban	10(2.8%)	230(63.9%)	

The above table reveals the association between location of the shop and the accessibility to be part of skill enhancement training is observed. Among the women employees employed in shops located in the urban areas (63.9%) of them reported about their employer not providing the provision of skill enhancement training and among those from rural (32.8%) reported of their employer in not providing the provision of having skill enhancement training. The chi square test reveals that the p value is greater than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is no significant association between shop location and their employer's gesture towards providing opportunity to

have skill enhancement training. It is inferred that employers from shops in the urban (63.9%) and rural (32.8%) do not provide provision for having skill enhancement training to their women employees.

4.10. Discrimination and Harassment:

Harassment at workplace to women employees in shops is cross tabulated with location of the shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.10.1

Association between shop location and harassment at work place

Sl. No.	Shop location	Harassment at work place					Statistical Significance
		Very Often	Often	Never	Rarely	Very Rarely	
1	Rural	0(0.0%)	23(6.4%)	48(13.3%)	44(12.2%)	5(1.4%)	X ² = 60.253 df = 4 P= .000 P < 0.05 Significant
2	Urban	4(1.1%)	34(9.4%)	180(50.0%)	18(5.0%)	4(1.1%)	

Association between shop location and harassment at work place is observed in this table. It is seen that among the respondents employed in shops located within the rural locality 13.3 percent of them reported of never experiencing harassment at the work place, while 12.2 percent of the respondents reported of rarely experiencing harassment at work place. Among the women employed in shops located in the urban locality 50 percent of them reported of never experiencing harassment at work place while 9.4 percent of the women employees reported of often experiencing harassment at work place. The chi square test result reveals that the p value is less than the alpha value at 0.05 level of significance and hence there is a significant association between location of the shop and harassment at work place. This reveals that women employees employed in shops located within the urban (50%) reported of never experiencing harassment at work place is higher than those women employed in shops located within the rural (13.3%) reported of never experiencing harassment at work place.

Workshop to sensitize employees in shops on the effects of harassment at work place is cross tabulated with location of the shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.10.2

Association between shop location and workshop to sensitize employees

Sl. No.	Shop location	Workshop to sensitize employees					Statistical Significance
		Very often	often	never	rarely	Very rarely	
1	Rural	3(0.8%)	11(3.1%)	67(18.6%)	27(7.5%)	12(3.3%)	$X^2 = 58.023$ $df = 4$ $P = .000$ $P < 0.05$ Significant
2	Urban	5(1.4%)	28(7.8%)	198(55.0%)	7(1.9%)	2(0.6%)	

Association between shop location and workshop conducted so as to sensitize employees on harassment at work place is observed in this table. It is seen that among the respondents employed in shops located within the rural locality 18.6 percent of them reported of never having workshop to sensitize employees on harassment, while 7.5 percent of the respondents reported of rarely having workshop to sensitize employees on harassment. Among the women employed in shops located in the urban locality 55 per cent of them reported of never having workshop to sensitize employees on harassment while 7.8 per cent of the women employees reported of often having workshop to sensitize employees on harassment. The chi square test result reveals that the p value is less than the alpha valve at 0.05 level of significance and hence there is a significant association between location of the shop and having workshop to sensitize employees on harassment. This reveals that women employees employed in shops located within the urban (55%) reported of never having workshop to sensitize employees on harassment is higher than those women employed in shops located within the rural (13.3%) reported of never having workshop to sensitize employees on harassment.

Sexual harassment to women employees in shops being treated as misconduct by employers is cross tabulated with location of the shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.10.3**Association between shop location and sexual harassment as misconduct**

Sl. No.	Shop location	Sexual harassment as misconduct		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Rural	40 (11.1%)	80 (22.2%)	X ² = 28.929 df = 1 P = .000 P < 0.05 Significant
2	Urban	152 (42.2%)	88 (24.4%)	

The above table reveals the association between location of the shop and treating sexual harassment at work place as misconduct is observed. Among the women employees employed in shops located in the urban areas (42.2%) of them reported about their employer treating sexual harassment at work place as misconduct. The chi square test reveals that the p value is lesser than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is a significant association between shop location and their employer's gesture towards treating sexual harassment at work place as misconduct. It is inferred that employers from shops in the urban (42.2%) treat sexual harassment at work place as misconduct and in shops located in rural (22.2%) do not treat sexual harassment at work place as misconduct.

Discrimination on the basis of equal pay to women employees in shops is cross tabulated with location of the shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.10.4**Association between shop location and discrimination on the basis of equal pay**

Sl. No.	Shop location	Discrimination on the basis of equal pay		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Rural	101(28.1%)	19 (5.3%)	X ² = 162.354 df = 1 P = .000 P < 0.05 Significant
2	Urban	36 (10.0%)	204 (56.7%)	

Association between location of the shop and discrimination on the basis of equal pay for equal work is observed in this table. Among the women employed in the shops located within the rural locality 28.1 per cent of them reported of having discrimination on the basis of equal pay for equal work while 56.7 per cent of the women employed in shops located in the urban locality reported of not having discrimination on the basis of equal pay for equal work. The chi square test reveals that the p value is lesser than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is a significant association between shop location and discrimination on the basis of equal pay for equal work at work place. Shops located in the rural locality have higher (28.1%) practices of discrimination on the basis of equal pay for equal work.

Sexual harassment encountered by women employees in shops is cross tabulated with location of the shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.10.5

Association between shop location and sexual harassment

Sl. No.	Shop location	Sexual harassment		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Rural	21 (5.8%)	99 (27.5%)	$X^2 = 9.194$ $df = 1$ $P = .002$ $P < 0.05$ Significant
2	Urban	17 (4.7%)	223 (61.9%)	

Association between location of the shop and encountered sexual harassment is observed in this table. Among the women employed in the shops located within the rural locality 27.5 per cent of them reported of not having sexual discrimination while 61.9 per cent of the women employed in shops located in the urban locality reported of not having sexual discrimination. However, 5.8 per cent in the rural and 4.7 per cent in the urban reported of having encountered sexual discrimination. The chi square test reveals that the p value is lesser than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is a significant association between shop location and sexual discrimination. Shops located in the rural locality have higher (5.8%) practices of sexual discrimination than those in the urban.

Sexually coloured remarks to women employees in shops are cross tabulated with location of the shop and it is presented in the table that follows.

Table No: 4.10.6
Association between shop location and sexually colored remarks

Sl. No.	Shop location	Sexually colored remarks		Statistical Significance
		Yes	No	
1	Rural	43 (11.9%)	77 (21.4%)	$X^2 = 26.943$ $df = 1$ $P = .000$ $P < 0.05$ Significant
2	Urban	30 (8.3%)	210 (58.3%)	

Association between location of the shop and encountered sexually colored remarks is observed in this table. Among the women employed in the shops located within the rural locality 21.4 per cent of them reported of not having encountered sexually colored remarks while 58.3 per cent of the women employed in shops located in the urban locality reported of not having encountered sexually colored remarks. However, 11.9 per cent in the rural and 8.3 per cent in the urban reported of having encountered sexually colored remarks. The chi square test reveals that the p value is lesser than the level of significance at 0.05 and hence there is a significant association between shop location and encountered sexually colored remarks. Shops located in the rural locality have higher (11.9%) practices of sexually colored remarks than those in the urban.

4.11. Factors Influencing Motivation:

Table No: 4.11.1
Comparison between size of the enterprises and motivation

Sl. No.	Motivation	Mean	SD	SS	df	f	Statistical Significance
1	Between group	G1=65.87	7.87	1047.59	2	8.430	$P = .000$ $P < 0.05$ Significant
2	Within group	G2=65.18	6.86	22181.73			
		G3=73.31	10.36				

G1 = Small, G2 = Medium, G3 =Big

The earlier table compares the difference between size of the enterprise which is the independent variable and motivation which is the dependent variable.

The test of one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) reveals the p value less than the alpha value at 0.01 level of significance, indicating that there is a precise presence of difference between the size of enterprise and motivation level between the groups.

The groups in this case indicates G1 as small enterprise, G2 as medium enterprise and G3 as big enterprise. The mean score of small sized enterprise (G1) = 65.87, medium sized enterprise (G2) = 65.18 and big sized enterprise (G3) = 73.31.

The standard deviation that indicates the tendency of dispersion of the variable from the mean at the highest level (10.36) is seen in G3, which indicates a high level of motivation already present among the women employees employed in big sized enterprises. Whereas medium sized enterprise G2 reveals the lowest level (6.86) of dispersion indicating the lowest level of motivation present in women employees employed in medium sized enterprises. Moderate level of motivation is seen in small sized enterprises G1 with a dispersion / variance of 7.87.

Degree of freedom is 2 indicating a close significance between the groups revealing the test's preciseness. This clearly indicates that priority for motivation needs to be given to women employees in medium sized enterprise who are found to be the need for motivation the most.

Table No: 4.11.2

Difference between shop location and motivation

Sl. No.	Shop location	Mean	SD	t	df	Statistical Significance
1	Rural	66.41	6.816	.421	358	P= .674 P > 0.05 Not Significant
2	Urban	66.03	8.602			

Difference between location of the shop and motivation of the women employees is observed in the earlier table.

The p value is greater than the alpha value at 0.05 level of significance and hence there is no difference between location of the shop and motivation of the respondents.

The mean score of women employed in the shops located within the rural is 66.41 and the women employed in the urban is 66.03. This reveals that there is not much difference between the mean scores obtained by the both group.

The standard deviation value that indicates the tendency of dispersion of the variable from the mean is low in rural (6.81) and slightly higher in urban (8.6) and it is closer to the mean score in both groups.

Hence locality of the shop does not affect women employees motivation.

Table No: 4.11.3

Difference between economic status and motivation

Sl. No.	Economic status	Mean	SD	t	df	Statistical Significance
1	BPL	66.33	8.92	.420	358	P= .675 P > 0.05 Not Significant
2	APL	65.97	6.96			

Difference between economic status and motivation of the women employees is observed in this table.

The p value is greater than the alpha value at 0.05 level of significance and hence there is no difference between location of the shop and motivation of the respondents.

The mean score of women employees belonging to the below poverty line is 66.33 and the women employees belonging to the above poverty line is 65.97. This

reveals that there is not much difference between the mean scores obtained by the both group.

The standard deviation value that indicates the tendency of dispersion of the variable from the mean is low in the group of above poverty line (6.96) and slightly higher in group below poverty line (8.92) and it is closer to the mean score in both groups.

Hence economic category does not affect women employees' motivation.

Table No: 4.11.4

Difference between type of family and motivation

Sl. No.	Type of family	Mean	SD	t	df	Statistical Significance
1	Joint family	65.88	7.662	.473	358	P= .637 P > 0.05 Not Significant
2	Nuclear family	66.30	8.249			

Difference between type of family and motivation of the women employees is observed in this table.

The p value is greater than the alpha value at 0.05 level of significance and hence there is no difference between type of family and motivation of the respondents.

The mean score of women employees belonging to the nuclear family is 66.30 and the women employees belonging to the joint family is 65.88. This reveals that there is not much difference between the mean scores obtained by the both group.

The standard deviation value that indicates the tendency of dispersion of the variable from the mean is low in the group of joint family (7.66) and slightly higher in group nuclear family (8.24) and it is closer to the mean score in both groups. Hence type of family does not affect women employees' motivation.

Table No: 4.11.5

Comparison between type of employer and motivation

Sl. No.	Motivation	Mean	SS	SD	df	f	Statistical Significance
1	Between group	G1=64.305	917.563	7.988	4	2.812	P= .025 P < 0.05 Significant
		G2=67.294		8.052			
2	Within group	G3=63.000	22311.768	6.705			
		G4=67.600		7.351			
		G5=65.333		8.736			

G1 = Partners, G2 = Proprietor, G3 = Director, G4 = Self help group, G5 = Joint liability group.

Comparison between type of employer and women employees' motivation is seen in this table. Type of employer is the independent variable and motivation is the dependent variable. Five different groups in type of employer such as G1=Partner, G2 = Proprietor, G3 = Director, G4 = Self help group, G5 = Joint liability group is seen.

The mean score obtained by the employer type self help group has higher (67.60) score is slightly higher than all other groups such as sole proprietorship (67.29), joint liability group (65.33), partnership (64.30) and director (63.00). This reveals that motivation is higher in women employed under the self help group.

The p value is less than the alpha value at 0.05 level of significance and hence there is a significant difference between type of employer and motivation of women employees. It indicates that women employed in business enterprises managed by the self help group have higher level of motivation.

Table No: 4.11.6

Comparison between income and motivation

Sl. No.	Motivation	Mean	SD	SS	df	f	Statistical Significance
1	Between group	G1=64.882	8.662	713.408	4	2.812	P= .025 P < 0.05 Significant
		G2=66.584	7.607				
2	Within group	G3=70.470	6.063	22515.922			
		G4=66.000	8.717				
		G5=74.500	8.535				

G1 = Less than Rs.5000, G2 = Rs.5001 to Rs.10000, G3 = Rs.10001 to Rs.15000, G4 = Rs.15001 to Rs.20000, G5 = Rs. 20001 to Rs.25000.

Comparison between income and women employees' motivation is seen in this table. Income is the independent variable and motivation is the dependent variable. Five different groups in income such as G1 = Less than Rs.5000, G2 = Rs.5001 to Rs.10000, G3 = Rs.10001 to Rs.15000, G4 = Rs.15001 to Rs.20000, G5 = Rs. 20001 to Rs.25000 is seen.

The mean score obtained by the income group 20001 to 25000 has higher (74.50) score is slightly higher than all other groups such as 10001 to 15000 (70.47), 5001 to 10000 (66.58), 15001 to 20000 (66.00) and less than 5000 (64.88). This reveals that motivation is higher in women earning a monthly income 20001 to 25000 than all other groups.

The p value is less than the alpha value at 0.05 level of significance and hence there is a significant difference between income and motivation of women employees. It indicates that women earning a monthly income of 20001 to 25000 have higher level of motivation when compared to all other income groups.

Table No: 4.11.7

Comparison between years of experience and motivation

Sl. No.	Motivation	Mean	SD	SS	df	f	Statistical Significance
1	Between group	G1=44.41	9.563	1483.839	5	2.516	P = .030 P < 0.05 Significant
2	Within group	G2=45.60	11.284				
		G3=49.18	13.823	39509.211			
		G4=46.03	13.108				
		G5=49.05	11.903				
		G6=50.55	11.274				

G1: Less than 3 Years; G2: 4 – 6 years; G3: 7 – 9 years; G4: 10 – 12 years; G5: 13 – 15 years; G6: 16 and above years

Comparison between years of experience and women employees' motivation is seen in this table. Years of experience are the independent variable and motivation is the dependent variable. Six different groups in years of experience such as G1: Less than 3 Years; G2: 4 – 6 years; G3: 7 – 9 years; G4: 10 – 12 years; G5: 13 – 15 years; G6: 16 and above years is seen.

The mean score obtained by the years of experience group 16 years and above has higher (50.55) score is slightly higher than all other groups such as 7 to 9 years (49.18), 13 to 15 years (49.05), 10 to 12 years (46.03), 4 to 6 years (45.60), and less than 3 years (44.41). This reveals that motivation is higher in women possessing 16 and above years of experience than all other groups.

The p value is less than the alpha value at 0.05 level of significance and hence there is a significant difference between years of experience and motivation of women employees. It indicates that women possessing 16 and above years of experience have higher level of motivation than all other groups.

Table No: 4.11.8**Association between education and motivation**

Sl. No.	Education	Motivation			Statistical Significance
		Low	Medium	High	
1	Illiterate	1(0.3%)	4(1.1%)	1(0.3%)	$X^2=12.062$ df = 14 P = .601 P > 0.05 Not Significant
2	1 to 5 th class	5(1.4%)	10(2.8%)	4(1.1%)	
3	6 th to 7 th class	3(0.8%)	17(4.7%)	6(1.7%)	
4	8 th to 10 th class	23(6.4%)	72(20.0%)	23(6.4%)	
5	11 th to +2 class	18(5.0%)	78(21.7%)	14(3.9%)	
6	Diploma	1(0.3%)	15(4.2%)	7(1.9%)	
7	UG / Pg	12(3.3%)	34(9.4%)	9(2.5%)	
8	Professional	0(0.0%)	3(0.8%)	0(0.0%)	

Association between educational qualification of the women employees and their motivation is seen in this table. The chi square results reveal that the p value is greater than the level of significance at 0.05 level and hence there is no significant association between education and motivation. Education does not affect respondents' motivation.

Table No: 4.11.9**Inter-correlation matrix between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation**

Sl. No.	Variables	Intrinsic motivation	Extrinsic motivation
1	Intrinsic motivation	1	.649**
2	Extrinsic motivation	.649**	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

The correlation is significant at 0.01 level of significance. Hence there is a strong positive relationship (.649**) between the intrinsic factors of motivation and the extrinsic factors of motivation is found in this inter correlation matrix table. This reveals that as the intrinsic motivation in respondents is higher, greater is the extrinsic motivation. This means as women employees who have better motivation stemming out from internal factors such as recognition and appreciation for contribution, trust, feedback from job and empowerment, the motivation stemming out from the extrinsic factors such as salary, leadership in organization, job enrichment, working environment, promotion opportunities and nature of job also add on to improve the overall motivation of the respondents.

4.12. Job Satisfaction:

Table No: 4.12.1

Comparison between size of the enterprises and job satisfaction

Sl. No.	Size of the enterprises	N	Mean rank	Statistical Significance
1	Small	287	186.73	$X^2 = 7.949$ $df = 2$ $P = .019$ $P < 0.05$ Significant
2	Medium	54	168.23	
3	Big	19	121.24	

Comparison between size of the enterprise and job satisfaction of the women employees is observed in this table.

Kruskal wallis a rank based non parametric test reveals that the p value is less than the alpha value at 0.05 level of significance and hence there is a difference between size of the enterprises and women employees job satisfaction.

The mean rank obtained by the small size enterprises is 186.73, while the mean rank of medium size enterprise is 168.23 and the mean rank of big size enterprise is 121.24. This reveals that the mean rank obtained by the small size enterprises (186.73) is

higher with regard to job satisfaction than all other group. Hence women employed in small size enterprises have better job satisfaction than all other groups.

Since the p value is less than the level of significance at 0.05, the null hypotheses stated as H0 = there is no association between size of the shop and job satisfaction is rejected and the alternate hypothesis stated as H1 = there is an association between size of the shop and job satisfaction is accepted. The association is that women employees in big shops have higher level of job satisfaction.

Table No: 4.12.2

Comparison between years of experience and job satisfaction

Sl. No.	Years of experience	N	Mean rank	Statistical Significance
1	Less than 3 years	160	159.69	$X^2 = 10.437$ df= 5 P = .064 P > 0.5 Not Significant
2	4 - 6	80	168.57	
3	7 - 9	16	195.25	
4	10 - 12	32	163.28	
5	13 - 15	17	194.18	
6	16 and above	36	194.62	

Comparison between years of experience and job satisfaction of the women employees is observed in this table.

Kruskal Wallis a rank based non parametric test reveals that the p value is greater than the alpha value at 0.05 level of significance and hence there is no difference between years of experience and women employees' job satisfaction. Years of experience do not affect job satisfaction of the respondents.

Table No: 4.12.3

Comparison between income and job-satisfaction

Sl. No.	Income	N	Mean rank	Statistical significance
1	Rs.3000 to Rs.5000	136	186.72	X ² = 18.016 df = 4 P = .001 P < 0.05 Significant
2	Rs.5001 to Rs.10000	202	168.94	
3	Rs.10001 to Rs.15000	17	219.53	
4	Rs.15001 to Rs.25000	3	350.00	
5	Rs.25001 to Rs.30000	2	339.50	

Mean rank obtained by the income group 25001 - 30000 (339.50) has higher job satisfaction than all other group. Kruskal Wallis a rank based non parametric test reveals that the p value is lesser than the alpha value at 0.05 level of significance and hence there is an association between different income groups and their job satisfaction. This reveals that higher the income greater is the job satisfaction.

Table No: 4.12.4

Comparison between type of employer and job-satisfaction

Sl. No.	Type of employer	N	Mean rank	Statistical Significance
1	Partners	95	176.91	X ² =16.405 df = 4 P = .003 P < 0.05 Significant
2	Proprietor	224	172.88	
3	Director	28	254.96	
4	Self help group	10	164.15	
5	Joint liability group	3	222.67	

Mean rank obtained by the women employees employed in shops managed by directors is higher (254.96) has higher job satisfaction than all other group. Kruskal Wallis a rank based non parametric test reveals that the p value is lesser than the alpha value at 0.05 level of significance and hence there is an association between types of employers and the women employees' job satisfaction. This reveals that women employees employed in shops managed by directors has higher job satisfaction.

Table No: 4.12.5

Comparison between education and job- satisfaction

Sl. No.	Education	N	Mean rank	Statistical Significance
1	Illiterate	6	158.50	$X^2 = 23.869$ $df = 7$ $P = .001$ $P < 0.05$ Significant
2	1 st to 5 th class	19	128.79	
3	6 th to 7 th class	26	154.62	
4	8 th to 10 th class	118	173.26	
5	11 th to +2 class	110	172.58	
6	Diploma	23	221.50	
7	UG/PG	55	220.30	
8	Professional	3	307.33	

Mean rank obtained by the professionally qualified women employees (307.33) has higher job satisfaction than all other group. Kruskal Wallis a rank based non parametric test reveals that the p value is lesser than the alpha value at 0.05 level of significance and hence there is an association between education and the women employees' job satisfaction. This reveals that women employees with professional qualification have higher job satisfaction.

Table No: 4.12.6

‘Z’ test between economic category with regard to the overall job satisfaction

Sl. No.	Economic category	N	Mean Rank	Statistical Significance
1	BPL	189	169.71	Z = 2.453 P = .014 P < 0.05 Significant
2	APL	171	194.64	

Mean rank obtained by the APL group (194.64) has higher job satisfaction than all other group.

Wilcoxon signed rank test a rank based non parametric test reveals that the p value is lesser than the alpha value at 0.05 level of significance and hence there is a difference between economic category and the women employees’ job satisfaction. This reveals that women employees from above poverty line of economic category have higher job satisfaction.

Table No: 4.12.7

‘Z’ test between type of family and job satisfaction

Sl. No.	Type of family	N	Mean Rank	Statistical Significance
1	Joint family	124	161.29	Z = 2.539 P = .011 P < 0.05 Significant
2	Nuclear family	236	190.59	

Mean rank obtained by the nuclear family (190.59) has higher job satisfaction than all other group. Wilcoxon signed rank test a rank based non parametric test reveals that the p value is lesser than the alpha value at 0.05 level of significance and hence there is a difference between type of family and the women employees’ job satisfaction. This reveals that women employees from nuclear family have higher job satisfaction.

Table No: 4.12.8

‘Z’ test between shop location and job - satisfaction

Sl. No.	Shop location	N	Mean rank	Statistical Significance
1	Rural	120	158.64	Z = 2.819 P = .005 P < 0.05 Significant
2	Urban	240	191.43	

Mean rank obtained by the shops in urban (191.43) has higher job satisfaction than all other group. Wilcoxon signed rank test a rank based non parametric test reveals that the p value is lesser than the alpha value at 0.05 level of significance and hence there is a difference between location of shop and the women employees’ job satisfaction. This reveals that women employees employed in shops located in the urban locality have higher job satisfaction.

4.13. Knowledge on Legislations and Policies:

Table No: 4.13.1

Comparison between size of the enterprises and knowledge

Sl. No.	Size of the enterprises	N	Mean rank	Statistical Significance
1	5 (Small)	287	187.84	X ² = 13.868 df = 2 P = .001 P < 0.05 Significant
2	6-20 (Medium)	54	134.01	
3	20 (Big)	19	201.74	

Mean rank obtained by the big (201.74) size enterprises has higher knowledge about policies, programmes and legislations than all other group. Kruskal Wallis a rank based non parametric test reveals that the p value is lesser than the alpha value at 0.05 level of significance and hence there is an association between size of shops and the women employees knowledge around policies, programmes and legislations. This

reveals that women employees employed in big sized shops has higher knowledge on policies, programmes and legislations around provisions for protecting women against labour issues and rights.

Since the p value is less than the level of significance at 0.05, the null hypotheses stated as H_0 = there is no association between size of the enterprise and workers knowledge on legislations is rejected and the alternate hypothesis stated as H_1 = there is an association between size of the enterprises and knowledge on legislations is accepted. The association is that women employees in big shops have higher level of knowledge on legislations.

Table No: 4.13.2

Comparison between years of experience and knowledge

Sl. No.	Years of experience	N	Mean rank	Statistical Significance
1	Less than - 3	160	156.45	$X^2 = 17.157$ $df = 5$ $P = .004$ $P < 0.05$ Significant
2	4 – 6	80	174.51	
3	7 – 9	16	179.88	
4	10 – 12	32	155.05	
5	13 – 15	17	220.50	
6	16 – and above	36	214.71	

Mean rank obtained by the 13-15 years of experience group (220.50) has higher knowledge than all other group. Kruskal Wallis a rank based non parametric test reveals that the p value is lesser than the alpha value at 0.05 level of significance and hence there is an association between years of experience of women employees and their knowledge around policies, programmes and legislations. This reveals that women employees having 13 to 14 years experience of work in the same shops has higher knowledge on policies, programmes and legislations around provisions for protecting women against labour issues and rights.

Table No: 4.13.3**Comparison between income and knowledge**

Sl. No.	Income	N	Mean rank	Statistical Significance
1	Rs.3000 to Rs.5000	136	205.35	$X^2 = 21.766$ $df = 4$ $P = .000$ $P < 0.05$ Significant
2	Rs.5001 to Rs.10000	202	163.96	
3	Rs.10001 to Rs.15000	17	145.68	
4	Rs.15001 to Rs.25000	3	291.00	
5	Rs.25001 to Rs.30000	2	291.00	

Mean rank obtained by the income groups 25,001 to 30000 (291.00) and 15001 – 25000 (291.00) has higher knowledge than all other group. Kruskal Wallis a rank based non parametric test reveals that the p value is lesser than the alpha value at 0.05 level of significance and hence there is an association between income to women employees and their knowledge around policies, programmes and legislations. This reveals that women employees having salary more than 15001 has higher level of knowledge on policies, programmes and legislations around provisions for protecting women against labour issues and rights.

4.14. Labour Status:**Table No: 4.14.1****Comparison between size of the enterprises and labour status**

Sl. No.	Size of the enterprises	N	Mean rank	Statistical Significance
1	5 - (Small)	287	175.48	$X^2 = 6.818$ $df = 2$ $P = .033$ $P < 0.05$ Significant
2	6 - 20 (Medium)	54	213.59	
3	20 - (Big)	19	162.29	

Mean rank obtained by the medium sized enterprises (213.59) has higher labour status than those women employees employed in small and big sized enterprises. Kruskal Wallis a rank based non parametric test reveals that the p value is lesser than the alpha value at 0.05 level of significance and hence there is an association between size of the enterprises and labour status accessed by women employees. This reveals that women employed in medium sized enterprises has higher labour status than those women employees employed in small and big sized enterprises.

Since the p value is less than the level of significance at 0.05, the null hypotheses stated as H_0 = there is no association between size of the enterprise and labour status is rejected and the alternate hypothesis stated as H_1 = there is an association between size of the enterprises and labour status is accepted. The association is that women employees in big shops have higher level of labour status.

Table No: 4.14.2
Comparison between number of years of experience and labour status

Sl. No.	Number of years of experience	N	Mean rank	Statistical Significance
1	Less than – 3	160	186.15	$X^2 = 10.579$ $df = 5$ $P = .060$ $P > 0.05$ Not Significant
2	4 – 6	80	166.96	
3	7 – 9	16	170.06	
4	10 – 12	32	159.28	
5	13 – 15	17	127.18	
6	16 and above	36	144.18	

Mean rank obtained by the women employees employed over the years of experience 0 – 3 years (186.15) has higher labour status than all other group. Kruskal Wallis a rank based non parametric test reveals that the p value is greater than the alpha value at 0.05 level of significance and hence there is an association between years of experience and labour status accessed by women employees. This reveals that the women employees employed over the years of experience 0 – 3 years (186.15) has higher labour status than all other group.

Table No: 4.14.3

Comparison between income and labour status

Sl. No.	Income	N	Mean rank	Statistical Significance
1	Rs.3000 to Rs.5000	136	158.92	$X^2 = 12.374$ df = 4 P = .015 P < 0.05 Significant
2	Rs.5000 to Rs.10000	202	191.77	
3	Rs.10001 to Rs.15000	17	213.09	
4	Rs.15001 to Rs.25000	3	256.33	
5	Rs.25001 to Rs.30000	2	119.00	

Mean rank obtained by the income group 15001 to 25000 (256.33) has higher labour status than all other group. Kruskal Wallis a rank based non parametric test reveals that the p value is lesser than the alpha value at 0.05 level of significance and hence there is an association between income and labour status accessed by women employees. This reveals that women employed in shops and belong to the income group 15001 to 25000 (256.33) has higher labour status than all other group.

Since the p value is less than the level of significance at 0.05, the null hypotheses stated as H_0 = there is no association between income and labour status is rejected and the alternate hypothesis stated as H_1 = there is an association between income and labour status is accepted. The association is that women employees having an income between 15001 to 25000 have higher level of labour status

Table No: 4.14.4
Comparison between type of employer and labour status

Sl. No.	Type of employer	N	Mean rank	Statistical Significance
1	Partners	95	197.62	$X^2 = 5.752$ $df = 4$ $P = .218$ $P > 0.05$ Not Significant
2	Proprietor	224	177.55	
3	Director	28	165.59	
4	Self help group	10	131.20	
5	Joint liability group	3	162.17	

Mean rank obtained by the women employees working in the enterprises managed by partners (197.62) has higher labour status than all other group. Kruskal Wallis a rank based non parametric test reveals that the p value is greater than the alpha value at 0.05 level of significance and hence there is no association between type of employer and labour status accessed by women employees. This reveals that women employed in shops managed by partners have slightly higher labour status than all other group.

Table No: 4.14.5
Comparison between education and labour status

Sl. No.	Education	N	Mean rank	Statistical Significance
1	Illiterate	6	164.17	$X^2 = 15.711$ $df = 7$ $P = .028$ $P < 0.05$ Significant
2	1 st to 5 th class	19	216.50	
3	6 th to 7 th class	26	169.25	
4	8 th to 10 th class	118	165.25	
5	11 th to +2 class	110	183.12	
6	Diploma	23	238.28	
7	UG /PG	55	173.04	
8	Professional	3	280.33	

Mean rank obtained by the professionally qualified women employees (280.33) has higher labour status than all other group. Kruskal Wallis a rank based non parametric test reveals that the p value is lesser than the alpha value at 0.05 level of significance and hence there is an association between education and labour status accessed by women employees. This reveals that women employees having professional qualification has higher labour status than all other group.

Since the p value is less than the level of significance at 0.05, the null hypotheses stated as H_0 = there is no association between education and labour status is rejected and the alternate hypothesis stated as H_1 = there is an association between education and labour status is accepted. The association is that women employees having a professional qualification have higher level of labour status.

Table No: 4.14.6

‘Z’ test between shop location and labour status.

Sl. No.	Shop location	N	Mean rank	Statistical Significance
1	Rural	120	229.33	Z = 6.345 P= .000 P < 0.05 Significant
2	Urban	240	156.09	

Mean rank obtained by the women employees employed in shops located within the rural (229.33) has higher labour status than all other group. Wilcoxon signed rank test a rank based non parametric test reveals that the p value is lesser than the alpha value at 0.05 level of significance and hence there is a difference between location of shop and the women employees’ labour status. This reveals that women employees employed in shops located in the rural locality have higher labour status.

CHAPTER V: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The major findings related to the labour status accessed by the women employees in the private shops and business enterprises are presented in this chapter as follows.

5.1. Findings Based on Socio-Economic Status:

- Among the women employees employed in the shops located within the rural 10.8 percent are higher secondary qualified and 9.2 percent are high school qualified and among those women employees employed in shops located within the urban 23.6 percent of them reported of having completed high school while 19.7 percent of them have completed higher secondary and 11.4 percent of them are graduates. Thus most of the women employees in the private shops and business enterprises are educated above high school education. Data reveals that women employees with professional qualification are very less. This means that the private shops and business enterprises does not expect professional education from women. According to Jawahar Lal Singh (2002) women workers suffer vital disadvantages comparative to men. They do not possess much of skill, training and education for the type of work they perform. Study on garment industry by Vijayabhaskar (2002) reveals that sexual division of labour exists as a result women are employed as helpers or in assisting men in the work. Thus in private shops and business enterprises also there is sexual division of labour and professionally qualified women is very less and it means that the majority of the women are used as helpers in conducting the day to day business.
- 16.9 percent of the women employed in shops located within the rural live above poverty line and 36.1 percent of the women employed in shops located within the urban live below poverty line. Higher (36.1%) concentrations of women from below poverty line are employed in shops located within the urban than those in the rural. Women join the labour force only to meet out the economic demands of their family.
- 17.2 percent of the women employees employed in shops located within the rural locality belong to joint family and in the urban 49.4 percent of the respondents belong to nuclear family. Thus more number of women employed in the shops located within the urban are from the nuclear family.

- Among the women employees employed in the shops located in the rural 29.4 percent live in own house and in the shops located within the urban 57.8 percent of them live in own house. Thus majority of the respondents live in own house.
- Vast majority (93.3%) of the respondents is non migrants and belongs to the native state among which women employed in shops located in the urban (63.1%) are higher than those employed in shops located within the rural (30.8%) areas.
- Majority (73.3%) of the women employees employed in private shops and business enterprises are married.
- More than half (56.1%) of the respondents obtain monthly salary between 5001 to 10000 rupees while little more than one third (37.8%) of the women employees reported of being paid monthly salary less than 5000 rupees. Wage wise the women employees in private shops and business enterprises are paid above the minimum wage level fixed for workers of shops and commercial establishment in Kerala.
- Little less than one third (31.9%) of the respondents reported of their inability to manage with family income while less than (29.7%) of the respondents reported of having poverty in their house as reasons for joining the labour force. Women employed in private shops and business enterprises enter into labour force due to economic instability in the family.
- Majority (85.6%) of the women employees in the private shops and business enterprises are members of self help groups. Women employees in private shops and business enterprises thrive for economic independence even by joining member in Self Help Group in addition to their employment in private shops and business enterprises.

5.2. Findings Based on Category and Size of Trade:

Category of Trade:

Respondents in this study reported being engaged in labour belonging to the following categories of trade. They are:

- Textile shop – 21 (5.8%)
- Bakery - 9 (2.5%)
- Spices shop - 2 (0.6%)

- Construction units - 2 (0.6%)
- Hotel - 17 (4.7%)
- Gold Jewelers - 2 (0.6%)
- Two wheeler resale shop - 1 (0.3%)
- Four wheeler resale shop - 2 (0.6%)
- Lens cum optical shop - 3 (0.8%)
- Flower shop - 13 (3.6%)
- Coffee cum tea shop – 6 (1.7%)
- Laundry - 7 (1.9%)
- Gardener - 7 (1.9%)
- Departmental stores - 7 (1.9%)
- Two wheeler show room - 3 (0.8%)
- Pawn broker - 23 (6.4%)
- Stationery shop - 9 (2.5%)
- Electronics shop -10 (2.8%)
- Sea food processing unit - 8 (2.2%)
- Mobile shop - 6 (1.7%)
- Vegetable shop - 5 (1.4%)
- Pets and aquarium - 1 (0.3%)
- Internet Café - 4 (1.1%)
- Beauty parlor - 17 (4.7%)
- Computer education centre - 2 (0.6%)
- Cake and sweet production unit - 4 (1.1%)
- Poultry farm - 1 (0.3%)
- Desk Top Publishing centre - 3 (0.8%)
- Lottery agencies - 6 (1.7%)
- Bed making units - 4 (1.1%)
- Masala grinding unit - 3 (0.8%)
- Appalam production unit - 3 (0.8%)
- Shoe and Bag production unit - 2 (0.6%)
- Umbrella production unit - 2 (0.6%)

- Document writing units - 2 (0.6%)
- Tailor shop - 21 (5.8%)
- Paint shop - 2 (0.6%)
- Wedding card shop - 1 (0.3%)
- Book shop - 4 (1.1%)
- Note binding unit - 2 (0.6%)
- Marriage hall - 6 (1.7%)
- Areca nut agencies - 1 (0.3%)
- Cashew nut segregation unit - 1 (0.3%)
- Readymade garments - 3 (0.8%)
- Photo studio - 6 (1.7%)
- Milk agencies - 3 (0.8%)
- Fruit sales shop - 4 (1.1%)
- Fast food shop - 2 (0.6%)
- Chit fund shop - 2 (0.6%)
- Grocery shop - 2 (0.6%)
- Silver shop - 1 (0.3%)
- Oil mill - 1 (0.3%)
- Catering Service - 1 (0.3%)
- Blood test centre - 5 (1.4%)
- Stall fed goat farming - 5 (1.4%)
- Pot production and selling unit - 4 (1.1%)
- Medical shop - 8 (2.2%)
- Bamboo craft work - 1 (0.3%)
- Dairy farm - 4 (1.1%)
- Street vendor - 1 (0.3%)
- Agriculture sector - 1 (0.3%)
- Nursing - 1 (0.3%)
- Fancy store - 5 (1.4%)
- Rubber collection shop - 2 (0.6%)
- Groundnut sweets sales agencies - 2 (0.6%)

- LIC agent office - 1 (0.3%)
- Tiles production and sales - 2 (0.6%)
- Flour grinding unit - 1 (0.3%)
- Super market - 4 (1.1%)
- Candle production unit - 2 (0.6%)
- Chips production unit - 1 (0.3%)
- Fish commission agencies - 1 (0.3%)
- Soap production unit - 1(0.3%)
- Computer sales and service - 2 (0.6%)
- Driving practice centre - 2 (0.6%)
- Cycle mart - 1 (0.3%)
- Match box production unit - 1 (0.3%)
- Gold covering jewel shop - 1 (0.3%)
- Bricks production unit - 1 (0.3%)
- Tuition center - 10 (2.8%)
- Ply wood shop - 1 (0.3%)
- Waste paper mart - 1 (0.3%)
- Ayurveda vaithiya sala - 1 (0.3%)
- Garments whole sale shop - 1 (0.3%)
- Orchestra unit - 1 (0.3%)
- Xerox shop - 5 (1.4%)

Hence this reveals that the above mentioned categories of trade have obtained permission from the panchayats and are providing employment opportunity to women from rural and urban areas.

- Majority (79.7%) of the women employees are employed in small shops where there are employees less than five. This means that the majority of the shops providing employment opportunity to women are small size enterprises.
- More than half (52.8%) of the women employed in private shops and business enterprises obtain monthly salary. Most of the women employees in the private shops and business enterprises reported that they agreed to have monthly salary

and according to the mutual agreement the employers provide. There are few women who received their salary on weekly basis too.

- Considerable proportions (62.2%) of the private shops and business enterprises are managed by the proprietors. Proprietors are the individuals or single family managing an enterprise with whatever resources they have. They are responsible for all risks in the enterprises.

5.3. Findings Based on Working Conditions:

- More than half (65.8%) of them reported of the availability of clean and safe drinking water facility while little more than one tenth (13.9%) of the respondents reported of not having such facilities in small shops. Employers need to provide clean and safe drinking water to their employees. However few employers do not provide clean and safe drinking water and as a result it may lead to health related complications and adversely affect the employer and employee. Hence adequate measure to enforce all work stations to have clean and safe drinking water facility.
- Less than half (42.2%) of the women employees employed in shops located within the urban reported of not having separate toilet facility at their work place. Little less than one fourth (23.1%) of the women employees employed in shops located within the rural reported of not having separate toilet facility at their work place. Employers need to provide separate toilet facility to their employees. However few employers do not provide separate toilet facility and as a result it may lead to health related complications and adversely affect the employer and employee. Hence adequate measure to enforce all work stations to have separate toilet facility for both men and women employees.
- Private shops and business enterprises located in the urban (55%) and rural (31.9%) reported of not having the creche facility for aiding women at their work place. Employers need to provide creche facility to engage the little children of their women employees. However few employers do not provide creche facility and as a result it may lead to frequent absenteeism and adversely affect the employer and employee. Hence adequate measure to enforce all work stations to provide crèche facilities to engage the little children of the women employees.

Networking with the local Anganwadi centre may also be helpful as they can be referred to their women employees whenever need emerges.

- More than one third (34.7%) of the women employees employed in shops located within the urban reported of having restroom facility at their work place. Little less than one third (29.4%) of the women employees employed in shops located within the rural reported of not having restroom facility at their work place.
- The private shops and business enterprises located in the urban (34.7%) have personal storage and shelter facility and rural (29.4%) reported of not having the personal storage and shelter facility for aiding women at their work place.
- Private shops and business enterprises located in the urban (38.9%) have washing and dining facility and rural (20.8%) reported of not having the washing and dining facility for aiding women at their work place.
- Private shops and business enterprises located in the urban (47.5%) and rural (27.2%) do not have first aid facility aiding their employees. First aid facility at work stations is very essential to their employees. It is important that awareness about its importance and ensuring that first aid facilities are made available in all private shops and business enterprises is the felt need.
- Majority (74.4%) of the women employees employed in small shops reported of not having exposure to dangerous substance at their work place.
- Shops located in urban (52.8%) have higher danger of heavy machineries than those shops in the rural (31.4%).
- Shops located in urban (34.7%) have higher exposure to excessive noise than those shops in the rural.
- Shops located in urban (58.9%) and rural (30.6%) do not have adequate lighting and ventilation at their work place. The Kerala Shops and Commercial Establishment Act (1960) too stress upon having a work station with adequate lighting and ventilation and this needs to be enforced strictly for which these enterprises should be directed to immediately register them under the act.
- Women employed in urban (25.3%) is higher than those in rural (10.5%) in terms of working beyond nine hours in each day. The Kerala Shops and Commercial Establishment Act (1960) specify forty eight hours of work in a week as working hours. However, the women employees have reported of working beyond nine

hours. As women they have more responsibilities at home rearing children and hence stricter enforcement of the provisions of the act need to be ensured for which registration under the act need to be made mandate for all enterprises.

- Little more than one tenth (10.6%) reported of having no rest during duty hours. Among the women employed in shops located in urban little less than half (42.2%) of the respondents reported of working in a relaxing manner, while little less than one fifth (18.9%) reported of having no rest during duty hours. The Kerala Shops and Commercial Establishment Act (1960) prescribe one hour of rest for every four hours of work. Data reveals that few employers do not comply with this. This may result into health related complications and affect the employer and employee. Hence stricter enforcement of the provisions of the act needs to be ensured for which registration of all enterprises under the act need to be made mandate.
- Among the women employed in shops located in rural little less than one fifth (15%) of the respondents reported of having no leave during the week. The Kerala Shops and Commercial Establishment Act (1960) prescribe one day of leave in every week. Data reveals that few employers do not comply with this. This may result into mental health related complications and affect their well being. It may also cause frustration and boredom in the job. Hence stricter enforcement of the provisions of the act needs to be ensured for which registration of all enterprises under the act need to be made mandate.
- Among the women employed in shops located in urban, little more than one fourth (27.5%) of the respondents reported of having no leave during the week. The Kerala Shops and Commercial Establishment Act (1960) prescribe one day of leave in every week. Data reveals that few employers do not comply with this. This may result into mental health related complications and affect their well being. It may also cause frustration and boredom in the job. Hence stricter enforcement of the provisions of the act needs to be ensured for which registration of all enterprises under the act need to be made mandate.

5.4. Findings Based on Protective Measures:

- Majority (64.7%) of the small size shops do not have precaution against fire accident and in the medium size shops little more than one tenth (10.6%) reported of not having precaution against fire accident. Data reveals that many enterprises do not have the provision of fire and safety. Provision for this sector to have fire and safety measures in the act need to be prescribed and accordingly enforced by directing them all to be registered under the act.
- Majority (60.3%) of the shops located in urban do not issue appointment order, while little less than one third (31.9%) of the shops located within the rural do not issue appointment order at times of recruitment. The Kerala Shops and Commercial Establishment Act (1960) prescribe to issue appointment order. Data reveals that most of the enterprises do not issue appointment order. This may keep the employee under insecure state about his or her existence in the job. Hence it is important to enforce in these enterprises the provisions in the act by directing them to be registered.
- Shops in urban (60.3%) are significantly higher than shops in rural (31.9%) with regard to not issuing appointment order to their employees. The Kerala Shops and Commercial Establishment Act (1960) prescribe to issue appointment order. Data reveals that most of the enterprises do not issue appointment order. This may keep the employee under insecure state about his or her existence in the job. Hence it is important to enforce in these enterprises the provisions in the act by directing them to be registered.
- Majority (70.3%) of the small size shops do not maintain attendance of their employees and in the medium size shops little more than one tenth (11.1%) reported of not maintaining attendance.

5.5. Findings Based on Wages:

- Majority (68.3%) of the small size shops do not collect receipt for the salary being paid to their employee. It is suggested that the wages to the employees may be paid in the bank account of respective employee.
- Higher proportion of shops in the urban (59.4%) and rural (32.5%) do not issue notice to their employees prior to their termination.

- Higher proportion of shops in the urban (38.6%) and rural (32.5%) do not provide equal pay for equal work to their employees.
- Higher proportion of employers from shops in the urban (54.7%) and rural (23.1%) are punctual in paying wages to their employees.
- Higher proportion of employers from shops in the urban (61.9%) and rural (33.1%) never provide maternity leave to their women employees.
- 77.8 per cent of the employers in small shops do not provide paid maternity leave.
- Majority of the women employees (77.8%) employed in the private shops and business enterprises reported of not being paid salary on occasion of maternity leave.
- 78.9 per cent of the employers in small shops do not provide medical bonus for pre and post natal risks to their women employees.
- 78.6 per cent of the employers in small shops do not provide twelve days holidays with wages in a year to their women employees.
- 76.1 per cent of the employers in small shops do not provide twelve days sick leaves with wages in a year to their women employees.
- 74.4 per cent of the employers in small shops do not provide twelve days casual leaves with wages in a year to their women employees.
- 41.1 per cent of the employers in small shops provide a small amount mutually agreed for working beyond eight hours
- 37.2 per cent reported that their employers do not provide any extra wage for working beyond eight hours in a day.
- Higher proportion of employers from shops in the urban (61.9%) and rural (15%) provide bonus for festivals to their women employees.

5.6. Findings Based on Retirement Benefits:

- Employers from shops in the urban (64.2%) and rural (32.5%) do not provide provision of provident fund to their women employees.

5.7. Findings Based on Social Security Measures:

- Employers from shops in the urban (65.3%) and rural (33.3%) do not provide provision of employee state insurance to their women employees.
- Employers from shops in the urban (63.9%) and rural (32.8%) do not provide provision of workmen's compensation to their women employees.

5.8. Findings Based on Union Affiliation:

- Women employees from shops in the urban (60.6%) and rural (31.9%) do not have membership in union. Formation and being a member of association and union is the right of every employee. Formal associations or unions may not be available for these employees and employers. Encouragement need to be given to establish such provisions and thereby address issues violating their rights.

5.9. Findings Based on Skill Development:

- Women employees from shops in the urban (63.9%) and rural (32.8%) do not have opportunity for skill enhancement training.

5.10. Findings Based on Discrimination and Harassment:

- 50 per cent in urban and 13.3 per cent in rural reported of never having encountered harassment at work place.
- 55 per cent in urban and 18.6 per cent in rural reported of never having attended any workshop sensitizing employees on sexual discrimination at work place.
- Employers from shops in the urban (42.2%) treat sexual harassment at work place as misconduct and in shops located in rural (22.2%) do not treat sexual harassment at work place as misconduct.
- 28.1% of the women employees in shops located within the rural reported of being discriminated on the basis of equal pay for equal work.
- 61.9% of the women employees in shops located within the urban and 27.5% of the women employees in shops located within the rural reported of not being discriminated on the basis of sexual harassment.

- 58.3% of the women employees in shops located within the urban and 21.4% of the women employees in shops located within the rural reported of not being discriminated on the basis of sexually colored remarks.

5.11. Findings Based on Factors Influencing Motivation:

- Women employees working in the big (73.31) enterprises have higher level of motivation than those belong to small (65.87) and medium (65.18) size enterprises.
- Women employees in the rural (66.41) have higher motivation than the other group.
- Women employees belonging to the below poverty line (66.33) have higher motivation than the other group.
- Women employees belonging to the nuclear family (66.30) have higher motivation than the other group.
- Women employees working in the enterprises initiated by self help groups (67.60) have higher level of motivation than all other groups.
- Women employees drawing salary between 25001 to 30000 (74.50) have higher level of motivation than all other groups.
- Women employees possessing higher experience (50.50) have higher level of motivation than all other groups.
- There is no significant association between education and their motivation.
- Intrinsic factors of motivation and the extrinsic factors of motivation correlate with each other to bring in overall motivation among the women employees.

5.12. FINDINGS BASED On JOB SATISFACTION:

- Women employees employed in small (186.73) size enterprises has higher job satisfaction than all other group.
- Women employees with 7 – 9 years of experience (195.25) have higher job satisfaction than all other group.
- Women employees belonging to the income group 25001 - 30000 (339.50) has higher job satisfaction than all other group.

- Women employees employed in small (186.73) size enterprises has higher job satisfaction than all other group.
- Professionally qualified women employees (307.33) have higher job satisfaction than all other group.
- Women employees belonging to the APL group (194.64) has higher job satisfaction than all other group.
- Women employees belonging to the nuclear family (190.59) has higher job satisfaction than all other group.
- Women employees employed in the shops in urban (191.43) has higher job satisfaction than all other group.

5.13. Findings Based on Knowledge on Legislations and Policies:

- Women employees employed in big (201.74) size enterprises has higher knowledge than all other group.
- Women employees with 13-15 years of experience (220.50) have higher knowledge than all other group.
- Women employees earning an income 25,001 to 30000 (291.00) and 15001 – 25000 (291.00) has higher knowledge than all other group.

5.14. Findings Based on Labour Status:

- Women employees employed in the medium (213.59) size shops has higher labour status than all other group.
- Women employees with experience 0 – 3 years (186.15) has higher labour status than all other group.
- Women employees in the income group 15001 to 25000 (256.33) has higher labour status than all other group.
- Women employees working in the enterprises managed by partners (197.62) has higher labour status than all other group.
- Professionally qualified women employees (280.33) have higher labour status than all other group.
- Women employees employed in shops located within the rural (229.33) has higher labour status than all other group.

CHAPTER VI: CONCLUSION

6.1. Summary:

Labour is the amount of physical, mental and social effort used to produce goods and services in an economy. Labour supplies the expertise, manpower and service needed to turn raw materials into finished products and services. In return labourers receive a wage to buy the goods and services they don't produce themselves. Labour in the private shops and business enterprises in this study refers to manufacturing enterprise or service enterprises that may be small (Less than 5 employees), medium (6 – 20 employees) or big (more than 20 employees) which is not registered under any of the legal entities such as the Kerala Shops and Commercial Establishments Act (1960) or Sole Proprietorship Firm, Partnership Firm, Limited Liability Partnership, Private Limited Company and Public Limited Company and located within the state of Kerala. They are managed only with the license issued by the panchayat or municipality. There are several thousands of such shops existing and it is a potential source of employment in the informal sector to both women and men in rural and urban limits.

The study provides the scope for evaluating the enforcement of the legislations especially in the area of labour accessed by the women employees in the private shops and business enterprises in the state of Kerala. The study also provides the scope for understanding the discrimination and violence taking place within their work place. The study also provides scope for identifying the different categories of trade in the unorganized or informal sector providing employment opportunity for women from the rural and urban localities.

The overall objective of the study is to describe the status of labour accessed by the women employees employed in unregistered private shops and business enterprises in Kerala. The specific objectives of the study are:

1. To examine the socio-economic status of women employees in private shops and business enterprises.
2. To review the various category of trades and size of enterprises offering labour opportunity to women in the rural and urban limits.

3. To analyze the working conditions, protective measures, wages, retirement benefits, social security measures, union affiliation, skill development and training accessible to the women employees in private shops and business enterprises.
4. To appraise on the discrimination and harassment women employee encounter in their work place.
5. To ascertain the factors influencing motivation and job satisfaction.
6. To assess the knowledge possessed by women employees in private shops and business enterprises around constitutional provisions, policies, programme and legislations for protecting their rights as women employee.

The approach adopted to fulfil the objectives of this research is quantitative research approach. The purpose of this research is description and it aims at describing the labour status accessed by women employees in private shops and business enterprises as reported by them. The universe of the study comprises of all women employees aged between 20 – 40 years and employed in private shops and business enterprises in the state of Kerala that are not legally registered under the acts such as the Kerala Shops and Commercial Establishments Act (1960) or Sole Proprietorship Firm, Partnership Firm, Limited Liability Partnership, Private Limited Company and Public Limited Company and located within the state of Kerala but only run on license issued by the panchayat or municipality. The study includes all 14 districts in the state of Kerala as universe. The unit of the study comprise of a single women aged between 20 – 40 years and employed shops mentioned earlier.

In order to draw samples from the universe, the researcher used purposive sampling method. A sample of 6 districts namely Thrissur, Ernakulam, Kollam, Allappuzha, Idukki and Thiruvananthapuram are selected using random sampling method. Among the six chosen districts the urban strata comprises of Thrissur, Ernakulam, Kollam, Allappuzha and the rural strata comprises of Idukki and Thiruvananthapuram. In every district 60 samples are collected thus the total size of the sample is 360. Thus there are 4 urban and 2 rural districts. Hence the urban data was 240 and rural was 120 thus totaling 360. The tool for data collection used in this study is self structured interview schedule. Reliability testing was done to assess the scales internal consistency. Parametric and non parametric tests were determined based on normal distribution of the samples and

accordingly tests were applied. Statistical test such as chi-square, t test, ANOVA, Karl Pearson's co-efficient of correlation, Wilcoxon signed rank test, Kruskal Wallis test was applied to interpret the data and to draw meaningful inferences.

The study concludes with the important findings that sexual division of labour prevails and professionally qualified women is very less and it means that the majority of the women are used as helpers in conducting the day to day business. Women join the labour force only to meet out the economic demands of their family. Wage wise the women employees in private shops and business enterprises are paid above the minimum wage level fixed for workers of shops and commercial establishment in Kerala. The study identifies 84 different trades that provide employment opportunity to women in rural and urban. Small shops employing less than five employees are found to be more. Most of the enterprises are managed by proprietors. Few respondents have reported of not having adequate working conditions such as clean and safe drinking water, separate toilet facility, crèche, rest room, washing and dining facility, first aid, work beyond 9 hours, lack of rest during duty and absence of leave during week in their work place.

6.2. Recommendations:

The following recommendations are derived on the light of the observation, interactions with women employees, their employers, field experience, analyses of the data, inferences, and findings.

From the field experience of the researchers it is found that most of the women employees in private shops and business enterprises do not have membership in welfare fund, association and labour identity card. There is no clear statistics about the number of women employees employed in unregistered private shops and business enterprises in Kerala and their whereabouts. This reveals that they are in the informal or unorganized sector. Moreover, the employers are highly fearful of their existence as unregistered shops. Because of this it is very difficult to conduct a study among them and also it becomes difficult to intervene into their problems. Therefore all the women employees and other employees in the private shops and business enterprises should be organized, registered and be enrolled in the welfare scheme for issuing them the labour identity card. The main hurdle in issuing the identity card is the contractors' signature in the application form. Usually the contractors are not willing to register the labourers working

under them. An authorized labour identity card will give them a sense of security and identity so that they do not feel alienated. The card is also helpful at times when police interfere with these employees. The care also can help them in improving upon their self esteem.

Field experiences unveils that the private shops and business enterprises is one important source with potentiality to generate employment to several thousands of women employees in the state. This informal sector undergoes major threat and challenges. The study reveals that most of the type of employers are proprietors which means a single person or family is managing the enterprise and all resources in the form of investment is made by a single person. The person is responsible for all risks that may or may not harm the enterprise well being. Uncertainty among the employers prevails as it is managed as one man show and possibility of having second line leader may not possible. Hence there is a danger of closure at any point of time due to risks affecting the enterprise. Since this sector is proving to be a highly potential one for generating employment, it is important that the Government needs to take formal measures to organize this sector. In the effort of organizing consideration need to be given to develop common funds, credit facilities for improving the enterprise, insurance to enterprises, fixation of minimum requirements and standards to be upheld in the form of legal entities governing the enterprises and it should be enforced through the government institutional mechanisms. Regular support, encouragement, benefits to employers as a token of encouragement, benefits to employees, issuance of identity cards, linking the employers and employees with the schemes of government needs to be ensured. The savings and credit facilities made available to the employers can help them in avoiding money lenders who lend at exorbitant rate of interest. This can further steer up in the upcoming of many such units enhancing the opportunity for employment and also make these units a self sustainable one for future generations.

Women employed in the private shops and business enterprises have qualified basic education such as high school and higher secondary. This may not be sufficient to provide neither the entrepreneurship skills nor the professional skills. It is suggested that in addition to the regular academic foundation programme of study the government schools may also add entrepreneurial skills and professional skill as a subject that may

aid the students who are likely to drop out from higher education to be employed in their own profession taught to them at school level.

All the private shops and business enterprises need to be registered under the Kerala shops and commercial establishment act. The Kerala shops and commercial establishment act prescribes standard rules around key areas such as hours of work, holidays and leave, wages, health and safety and these are very minimal. It may also prescribe about minimum standards in a firm such as sanitation facilities, crèche facility (attachment with the local anganwadi), womens' grievance cell, payment of wages regulated through bank accounts and provisions applicable to women employees. Although it is understood that the minimum requirements should be made available enforcement will not be possible unless it is clearly indicated in the act. Propaganda and awareness about the act needs to be given to both employers and employees. Non-governmental organization in the local regions may be used to disseminate awareness and accordingly the all private shops and commercial establishments may be brought under one fold. All shops and enterprises that remain unregistered should come under this act so that it will be carefully monitored to ensure enforcement of the labour laws applicable to the women employees such as wage, working conditions, leave, maternity benefits and so on.

The women workers do not have a choice to work, or not to work, due to dire need of income. The limited opportunities available to women are mostly low paid, low status jobs in the informal sector, jobs which do not have any possibilities of betterment, advancement of efficiency or training, to enable them to enter better jobs at a later stage. In the overall state of unemployment and lack of opportunities, women hold a secondary place to men in the race of employment. This scenario needs to be changed. It is important to respect the worth and dignity of women. Hence awareness on the strengths of women, women rights, dealing with issues at workplace, working conditions, minimum wages, institutional mechanisms available for upholding their rights needs to be generated among all women through the units of Kudumbashree mission in every nook and corner of the state reaching to each women in the state.

Since women workers lack in skill, skill development programmes should be provided to them to enhance their skill level. It is very much essential to create

awareness among women workers about the institutional support available to them to protect their rights. Efforts shall be made to change social outlook towards women in general and women workers in particular. Mass media can play a great role to change social outlook towards women workers. A comprehensive law is needed to protect the rights of women workers. Any kind of exploitation including sexual harassment of women workers is to be prevented and stringent action needs to be taken against the wrong doer. Mass media should be used to communicate the social message relating to women's equality.

Criminal justice system should be more effective to deal with the cases relating to the exploitation of women workers and punishment should be very high in comparison to the degree of exploitation. Last but not the least a separate women grievance cell headed by a woman should be established in every organization employing women workers in the informal or unorganized sector women to form self-help groups for their protection. It is also suggested to appoint female social workers in every panchayat and municipality to help women deal with their issues related to labour and other issues stunting their development.

6.3. Conclusion:

Women in private shops and business enterprises are exposed to many challenges that need to be addressed by the society. The society has to meet this challenge in the interest of the country. A very large proportion of women workers admitted that if they were given support from the government in the form of micro credit facilities at less interest or training or machines they could also have a more honourable living. This indicates that the support mechanism the government has made available to the women is not accessible to them or they are unaware. A ray of hope has emerged in the form of Kudumbashree missions' self help groups that are targeting the socio-economic well being of women. It is strongly recommended that mere framing of policies and acts may not serve the purpose. Work has to be done at the grass root level with proper feedback system in place to ensure that policies are implemented in actual giving results. It is important to remember that 'by ignoring these women workers we are ignoring important contributors to national income of the country'.

The study reveals that the women private shops and business enterprises that are unregistered but licensed by the panchayats and municipalities often do not fall under the direct purview of the monitoring mechanism established by the government. Although the government is desirous of bringing about change in the lives of these women it is possible only when these shops are registered under the Kerala Shops and Commercial Establishment Act and undergoes regular monitoring. Without these initiatives, the rights of the women employed in these private shops and business enterprises will be exploited in one way or the other. Hence it is essential that these shops be registered under the Kerala Shops and Commercial Establishment Act so that it comes under the direct monitoring of the government institutional mechanism.

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Appendix II

Dear Participant,

I am a researcher engaged in a research project supported by the Kerala Institute of Labour and Employment and I am interested in studying the labour status of women employees in private shops and business enterprises. I would appreciate it if you would volunteer to be interviewed. All the information is confidential, and you have the right to withdraw from the interview at any time you wish to do so. I will be writing down notes while interviewing you, but if it makes you uncomfortable, please let me know, and I will stop. The interview will take approximately 20 minutes. Your responses are confidential, and your identity will remain anonymous for the whole of the study.

If you have any queries or suggestions please do not hesitate to ask me.

Thank you very much for your participation.

Dr.P.Saleel Kumar
Researcher

Thank you very much for agreeing to take part in an interview for my research. The purpose of this form is to make sure that you are happy to take part in the research and that you know what is involved.

Signature:

Date:

**STATUS OF LABOUR ACCESSED BY WOMEN EMPLOYEES IN PRIVATE
SHOPS AND BUSINESS ENTERPRISES IN KERALA**

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

i. Identification

Respondent No: _____

a. Name of the Village / Town

b. Name of the District

c. Name of Interviewer

d. Day/Month/Year

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I. SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS

1. Age in Years: _____

2. Education:

- Illiterate (cannot read and write)
- 1st -5th class
- 6th to 7th class
- 8th to 10th class
- 11th to +2 class
- Diploma
- UG / PG
- Professional

3. Social Group:

- SC
- ST
- OBC
- General
- OC
- Others, specify _____

4. Economic status:

- BPL
- APL

5. Religion:

- Hindu
- Christian
- Muslim
- Others, specify _____

6. Type of Family

- Joint Family
- Nuclear Family

7. Housing Status:

- Own
- Rented

8. Domicile:

- Rural
- Urban

9. Migration Status:

- Migrant
- Non-Migrant

10. Marital status:

- Single
- Married
- Separated
- Divorced
- Widowed

11. Number of children: Total :_____ Male:_____ Female_____

12. Designation:_____

13. Number of years of Experience in the same job: _____

14. Monthly Income Earned by You Per Month:_____

15. Specify the reasons for joining the labour force:

- Poverty in house
- Inability to manage with family income
- Exercise my worth and dignity
- Economic Independence

16. Do you have membership in any of the following:

- Self Help Group
- Other Association, Specify:_____

II. CATEGORY OF TRADE AND SIZE OFFERING LABOUR TO WOMEN

17. Nature of Enterprise:_____

18. Size of the Enterprise:

- Employees Less than 5 (Small)
- Employees between 6 – 20 (Medium)
- Employees above 20 (Big)

19. How many number of Women are employed? Specify:_____

20. Nature of Wage

- Daily
- Weekly
- Monthly
- Wage for piece work done

21. Type of Employer

- Partners
- Proprietor
- Director
- Self Help Group
- Joint Liability Group

22. Location of the Private Shop / Business Enterprise

- Rural
- Urban

III. WORKING CONDITION

23. Employment Status Accessed by You

- Worker
- Employee
- Self Employed

24. Nature of Employment

- Part Time
- Full Time

25. Does your employer has made provision for clean and safe drinking water facilities for all employees?

- Yes
- No

26. Does your employer has made provision for separate toilet facilities for women employees?

- Yes
- No

27. Does your employer has made provision for crèche facilities for women employees?

- Yes
- No

28. Does your employer has made provision for rest room facilities for women employees?

- Yes
- No

29. Does your employer has made provision for personal storage and shelter in the rest room facilities meant for women employees?

- Yes
- No

30. Does your employer has made provision for washing and dining facilities for women employees?

- Yes
- No

31. Does your employer has made provision for first aid facilities for all employees?

- Yes
- No

32. Specify the dangers that is associated with your employment
- Exposure to dangerous Substance
 - Danger of Heavy Machineries
 - Lifting Heavy Loads
 - Manual Handling
 - Excessive Noise
 - Fatigue caused by pace of work
 - Long Hours of Standing
 - Poor Lighting and Ventilation at Workplace
 - Remote and Isolated Work
 - Allergic to Skin
33. Number of hours you work in a day
- 6 Hours
 - 7 Hours
 - 8 Hours
 - 9 Hours
 - 10 Hours
 - 11 Hours
 - 12 Hours
 - More than 13 Hours
34. What is the frequency does your employer provide rest in your duty
- Never Provide Rest while on Duty
 - Permits to work in a Relaxed Manner
 - One Hour rest for every four hours of continuous work
35. Specify the week day does your shop or enterprise remain closed and you have full day holiday
- No such leave
 - Day is set, but it is not followed and we work half a day on this date
 - Day of leave in a week, Specify_____
36. How often you feel tired or stressed by doing repetitive job?
- Very Often
 - Often
 - Never
 - Rarely
 - Very Rarely
37. How often you feel tired or stressed by the speed of your work?
- Very Often
 - Often
 - Never
 - Rarely
 - Very Rarely
38. How often you encounter harassment at your workplace?
- Very Often
 - Often
 - Never
 - Rarely
 - Very Rarely

39. How often you encounter discrimination at your workplace?
- Very Often
 - Often
 - Never
 - Rarely
 - Very Rarely
40. How often you encounter health risk due to your stressful job at your workplace?
- Very Often
 - Often
 - Never
 - Rarely
 - Very Rarely
41. How often you absent yourself in the work due to stressful situation in your workplace?
- Very Often
 - Often
 - Never
 - Rarely
 - Very Rarely
42. Do you work on Government Holidays?
- Yes
 - No
43. Does your employer ask you to compensate the leaves generated out of government holidays / harthal on any other leave days?
- Yes
 - No
44. Is the work place kept clean with adequate ventilation and lighting?
- Yes
 - No
45. Is the work place have precautions against fire accidents?
- Yes
 - No

IV. PROTECTIVE MEASURES

46. Does your employer provide you an appointment order?
- Yes
 - No
47. Do you sign in an attendance book at your shop or business enterprise?
- Yes
 - No
48. Does your employer collect your signature at times he gives you salary / remuneration?
- Yes
 - No

49. Does your employer discourage you by attempting to terminate from service when a women in your establishment is on maternity leave?

- Yes
- No

50. Does your employer pay equal wage for the equal work done by both men and women in the workplace?

- Yes
- No

51. Does your employer provide one month's notice period for termination of employees?

- Yes
- No

52. What is the frequency of your employer organizing workshop and awareness programme to sensitize employees on issues and implications of workplace sexual harassment?

- Very Often
- Often
- Never
- Rarely
- Very Rarely

53. Does your employer treat sexual harassment as misconduct and initiate action for such misconduct

- Yes
- No

V. WAGES AND PERKS

54. Is your employer punctual in paying you the wages?

- Yes
- No

55. Does your employer provides 12 weeks paid maternity leave for any women employee who has worked for an employer more than 80 days in the 12 months (6 week preceding the date of delivery and 6 weeks after delivery)?

- Yes
- No

56. Does your employer provides one month paid leave on occasion when the women employee suffers from illness arising out of pregnancy, delivery or miscarriage?

- Yes
- No

57. Does your employer provides medical bonus Rs.2,500 to Rs.3,500 at times when no pre-natal confinement and post-natal care was provided by the employer?

- Yes
- No

58. Does your employer provide 12 days holidays with wages after 12 months continuous service or accumulated as 24 days?

- Yes
- No

59. Does your employer provide 12 sick leaves with wages on the ground of sickness?

- Yes
- No

60. Does your employer provide 12 casual leaves with wages on the ground of any reasons?

- Yes
- No

61. How much wages do you receive for working beyond 8 hours in a day?

- No Extra Wage
- A small amount as the employer decides agreeable to me
- Double the wages for every hour that I work as over time allowance

62. Does your employer provides bonus for festival or any other important days?

- Yes
- No

VI. RETIREMENT BENEFITS

63. Does your employer link you with Employee Provident Fund?

- Yes
- No

64. Does your employer link you with Employee Pension Scheme?

- Yes
- No

VII. SOCIAL SECURITY MEASURES

65. Are you covered under the employee State Insurance Act and eligible to benefits such as medical benefit, sickness benefit, maternity benefit, disablement benefit, dependents benefit, funeral expenses, rehabilitation allowances?

- Yes
- No

66. Are you covered under the workmen's compensation act and eligible to obtain compensation at times of occupational injury?

- Yes
- No

VIII. UNION AFFILIATION

67. Membership in Union / Association:

- Yes
- No

68. If Yes, Specify the Names of the Union / Association: _____

IX. SKILL ENHANCEMENT TRAINING

69. Does your employer encourage to upgrade your skills through giving you opportunity for skill enhancement training programmes?

- Yes
- No

70. If yes, Number of training programme attended by you in the last 12 months:_____

X. DISCRIMINATION AND HARASSMENT AT WORKPLACE

71. Have you encountered the following at your workplace?

- Discriminated on the basis of your age
- Discriminated on the basis of your sex
- Discriminated on the basis of your qualification
- Discriminated on the basis of disability
- Discriminated on the basis that you are pregnant
- Discriminated on the basis of your Religion
- Discriminated on the basis of equal pay or compensation
- Discriminated on the basis of caste
- Sexual Harassment
- Physical contact and Sexual Advances
- Demand or request for sexual favours
- Sexually coloured remarks
- Showing pornography
- Any other, Specify_____

XI. FACTORS AFFECTING MOTIVATION

72. Extrinsic Factors Affecting Motivation

S.No	Extrinsic Factors	SDA (1)	DA (2)	N (3)	A (4)	SA (5)
1	The monetary compensation/salary structure has an impact on my level of motivation.					
2	The style of leadership in the organization has an influence on my degree of motivation at work.					
3	The degree of job enrichment embraced by the organization has an influence on my motivation level.					
4	The effectiveness in which information is made available in the organization and communication is carried out has an influence on my motivation.					
5	The quality of working environment at the organization has an influence on my motivation level.					
6	The type of relationship between me and the managers of the organization has an impact on my motivation.					
7	The degree to which I believe promotion opportunities exist within the organization has an impact on my motivation.					
8	My level of motivation at my job is to an extent influenced by my co-workers.					
9	The nature of my job in itself influences my level of motivation at my job.					

73. Intrinsic Factors Affecting Motivation

S.No	Intrinsic Factors	SDA (1)	DA (2)	N (3)	A (4)	SA (5)
1	I am more motivated to do my job when I feel I am recognized and appreciated for my contribution to the organization.					
2	The degree of skill variety required to perform my job has an impact on my motivation.					
3	How meaningful I believe my work has influence on my motivation level.					
4	The degree of trust exhibited at my work place is a determinant of my level of motivation at work.					
5	Attaining constant job feedback on my level of performance influences how much I am motivated to perform my job.					
6	The amount of responsibility I possess within my job has had an impact on my overall motivation.					
7	I am more motivated to perform my job when I feel there is fairness of treatment at the workplace.					
8	The extent to which I feel I am being trained and developed at my job has an impact on my motivation.					
9	I am more motivated to carry out my job when I feel it has a significant contribution to the organization.					
10	The level of empowerment and employee autonomy at my organization has an impact on my motivation.					

XII. JOB SATISFACTION

Not at all Satisfied (1)	Little Satisfied (2)	Somewhat Satisfied (3)	Very Satisfied (4)	Extremely Satisfied (5)
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74. Using the scale shown above, rate your level of satisfaction with the following aspects of your job.

GENERAL WORKING CONDITIONS

- _____ Hours worked each week
- _____ Flexibility in scheduling
- _____ Location of work
- _____ Amount of paid vacation time/sick leave offered

PAY AND PROMOTION POTENTIAL

- _____ Salary
- _____ Opportunities for Promotion
- _____ Benefits (Health insurance, life insurance, etc.)
- _____ Job Security
- _____ Recognition for work accomplished

WORK RELATIONSHIPS

- _____ Relationships with your co-workers
- _____ Relationship(s) with your supervisor(s)
- _____ Relationships with your subordinates (if applicable)

USE OF SKILLS AND ABILITIES

- _____ Opportunity to utilize your skills and talents
- _____ Opportunity to learn new skills
- _____ Support for additional training and education

WORK ACTIVITIES

- _____ Variety of job responsibilities
- _____ Degree of independence associated with your work roles
- _____ Adequate opportunity for periodic changes in duties

XIII. KNOWLEDGE ON PROVISIONS TO PROTECT WOMEN RIGHTS

S.No	Knowledge on Protection of Women Employees Rights	Aware (1)	Not Aware (2)
1	Equal remuneration to both men and women workers for same work done		
2	Better working condition is my right		
3	Employer must serve one month's notice while terminating employees		
4	Employer must treat sexual harassment as misconduct and initiate action		
5	Employer must provide 12 weeks paid maternity leave for any women employee who has worked for an employer more than 80 days in the 12 months (6 week preceding the date of delivery and 6 weeks after delivery)		
6	Employer must provide one month paid leave on occasion when the women employee suffers from illness arising out of pregnancy, delivery or miscarriage.		
7	Employer provide 12 days holidays with wages after 12 months continuous service or accumulated as 24 days		
8	Employer provide 12 sick leaves with wages on the ground of sickness		
9	Employer provide 12 casual leaves with wages on the ground of any reasons		
10	Double the wages for every hour that I work as over time allowance		

XIV. Labour Status

S.No	Labour Status	SDA (1)	DA (2)	N (3)	A (4)	SA (5)
1	I enjoy the structure of the work place (Sector affiliation, employment status, size of the firm)					
2	Physical environment in my work place is very comfortable (Exposure to dangerous substances, heavy loads, corporal risks)					
3	Working time allotted to me is comfortable (weekly hours, commute time, shift of work, typical work pattern)					
4	Organizational environment is comfortable to me (repetitive task and pace of work)					
5	Social Environment and Psychosocial Aspects are comfortable (Harassment and Discrimination)					
6	Work related outcomes are perceived to be comfortable (health risk, work absence, job satisfaction)					
7	Employee Benefits are attractive to me (housing, insurance, disability income protection, retirement benefit, day care, tuition reimbursement, student loan contribution, sick leave, conveyance, vocation, social security (welfare fund), profit sharing)					
8	Perks Provided further motivates me to be involved in work (take home vehicle, hotel stay, free refreshment, leisure activities, stationery, priority in vocation planning, allowance for lunch, priority in job assignments, job promotion)					
9	Wages Provided by my employer is sufficient to me					
10	Occupational Safety and Health are Comfortable to me (Cleanliness, Waste Disposal Mechanisms, Ventilation, Comfortable temperature, overcrowding, adequate lighting, fire and safety, Clean eating area, first aid)					

Date:

Place:

Signature of the Interviewer

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Introduction

Chapter - 2

Review of Literature

Chapter - 3

Methodology

Chapter – 4
Presentation
and
Analysis of
Data

Chapter – 5

Results and Discussion

Chapter – 6

Conclusion

Appendix I

Bibliography

Appendix II

Interview

Schedule