

GENDER DISPARITY IN UTILISATION PATTERN OF TIME - A STUDY IN THIRUVANANTHAPURAM DISTRICT OF KERALA

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CDS	Current Daily Status
CSO	Central Statistical Organisation
CWS	Current Weekly Status
EUS	Employment and Unemployment Survey
GCI	Galvanised Corrugated Iron
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
ILO	International Labour Organisation
LFPR	Labour Force Participation Rate
LIC	Life Insurance Corporation of India
NFHS	National Family Health Survey
NSS	National Sample Survey
NSSO	National Sample Survey Organisation
OBC	Other Backward Caste
PS	Principal Status
RBC	Reinforced Brick Concrete
RCC	Reinforced Cement Concrete
SC	Scheduled Caste
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
SHG	Self Help Group
SNA	System of National Accounts
SS	Subsidiary Status
ST	Scheduled Tribe
TUS	Time Use Survey
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
US	Usual Status
WPR	Work Participation Rate

Section I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction to the Study

Gender inequality is a serious concern around the world. From womb to tomb, women suffer a series of discrimination- inside and outside their house. The historical legacy of gender inequality provides evidence that development is not gender neutral, and benefits of development programmes are spread unevenly between both women and men. To quote the words of Mahbub ul Haq, “Development, if not engendered, is endangered.” Gender inequality can take different forms, and cover a considerable range of interlinked issues.

An important dimension of gender inequality is with respect to the family arrangements which make sharing the burden of housework and child care quite unequal. Women predominate in caring and domestic service, and bear most of the burden. Gender is socially constructed (as opposed to being biologically determined); men are perceived as workers and earners and therefore head of the household and women are primarily seen as home makers, and care providers largely unremunerated. These domestic tasks are considered as their primary responsibility under the extant patriarchal norms. These social norms and practices are shaped by history, custom and law- and constrain women in many ways denying them equal access to opportunities being opened up in the process of development. The myths and stories are also associated with these norms. For instance, the story of Sathyavan Savithri, Ahalya, Sita, and terms like ‘pathivrutha’ etc indirectly points to the ‘moral duty’ of a perfect woman which encompasses chastity, loyalty, altruism, love and care giver, performing household duty without any failure, etc. It is generally considered that the welfare and happiness of a family depends upon the performance of domestic duties by women, so these structures should not be shaken or ignored. So women are expected to perform the household errands even if time is limited as they enter the labour market - attaining a job outside the home does not necessarily make women better off. Indeed, women strive with what Hochschild called the “second shift” impact, in which they reach home after tedious official work and take on the unpaid labour of housework and care. As stated in the Human Development Report of UNDP 1999, “Families, nations and corporations have been free-riding on caring labour provided mostly by women, unpaid or underpaid”. Thus women are treated as an instrument for the needs of other family members, like as a mere cook, cleaner, care taker, reproducer, sexual outlet, rather than what Nussbaum said “as a source of agency and worth in her own right”.

The dimension of invisibilisation of these chores performed by women has great significance. While society recognises women's role in the economy when they participate in paid labour force, women particularly home makers, remain hidden and unacknowledged when they do not, and the Government, society and women themselves fail to acknowledge their contribution to the household and the country as a whole. There exists an artificially created separation between waged and unwaged labour.

The concept of economic activity defined by both the Census of India and the National Sample Survey Organisation is quite restrictive. It does not include the full spectrum of economic activities used in the United Nations System of National Accounts. This contributes to an underestimation of economic activity and work participation rate. Since unpaid work is primarily a feminine task, their contribution remains invisible. The double burden of working women is also not acknowledged.

Besides that, women usually think of themselves as workers only when they work outside home. The household duties are deemed as natural, and as their duty. Thus the hardcore work performed by women remains invisible and unrecognized socially and in public policy.

In 2015, United Nations member states adopted the Sustainable Development Agenda for 2030. The fifth goal calls for gender equality. Interestingly, the Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 5.4 states to "Recognize and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies, and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate." While it is claimed that in each of the SDGs gender is recognized implicitly, there is no concrete suggestion on how to attain this target. The question now is what can actually be done to meet this objective.

The United Nations conducted a survey to look into the progress towards the SDGs from eighty countries in 2017. It was found that on an average, a female spent three fold more time than male in doing unpaid domestic and care work. It is also accounted that about 11 trillion US dollars, left outside the global output came from the invisible work of woman. The data indicate that gender gap continues to be high in unpaid work. The inequalities between female and male in the time use pattern influence almost all SDGs. So it is imperative to make all SDGs gender sensitive, especially in case of unfair sharing of unpaid work between female and male.

The reach of this inequality incorporates not only unequal relations within the family, but have far reaching effects on women in acquiring skills, and in professional circles. As

Amartya Sen rightly pointed out in his magnum opus ‘Development as Freedom’, the well being of a person can be determined by evaluating the capabilities and entitlements pursued by a person. While analysing under this framework, a mismatch between capabilities and entitlements is observed in case of women in this patriarchal society. These unpaid activities are one of the key factors for this mismatch, and thus women fails to get recognition for their abilities. Women’s unequal failure to attain a higher level of capability, at which the choice of central functions is really open to them, is therefore a problem of justice (Nussbaum, 2000).

In this regard, it is important to know about the time utilisation pattern of individuals, and the extent of unpaid work performed by both women and men. It is also imperative to analyse the gender disparity in allocation of time for various activities, particularly the extended SNA activities which include household and care activities etc., and non SNA activities which include personal care and self maintenance, learning etc. The present study is an attempt in the above direction.

1.2. Objectives of the Study

The specific objectives of the present study are the following:

- To analyse the time utilisation pattern of individuals, women and men, in the study area
- To study gender disparity in time utilisation pattern in the study area.

1.3. Methodology of the Study

The study is empirical in nature, and is carried out based on random sampling method. The study proceeds to examine the time use pattern of the population in Thiruvananthapuram Corporation and Kadinamkulam Grama Panchayat using Time Use Survey method. The study also focuses on differentials in time utilisation pattern by region and gender. It tries to figure out the type of unpaid activities in which they are mainly involved.

1.3.1. Concepts and Definitions

Certain concepts and definitions are used in the present study. They are given below:

Work: It includes all those activities which are carried out for self benefit or for other’s benefit.

Unpaid work: It can be defined as that work which does not receive direct remuneration. According to Miranda (2011), unpaid work is the production of goods and services by household members that are not sold on the market.

System of National Accounts (SNA) activities: According to System of National Accounts report 2008, SNA is the internationally agreed standard set of recommendations on how to compile measures of economic activity in accordance with strict accounting conventions based on economic principles. Primary production, secondary and tertiary activities are included in SNA.

Extended SNA activities: The activities associated with household maintenance, management and shopping, and care for children, the sick, elderly and disabled for own household, and community services and help to other households falls under Extended SNA activities.

Non SNA activities: The Non SNA activities are those activities which are meant for personal care and self maintenance, learning, and social and cultural activities.

1.3.2 Area of the Study

Thiruvananthapuram, the administrative capital of the state of Kerala is selected as the study area. The study is confined to Thiruvananthapuram Corporation and Kadinamkulam Grama Panchayat of the district to represent an urban and a rural setting respectively.

- ❖ Thiruvananthapuram Municipal Corporation, an urban body of the district is the sample area in the present study to represent urban setting. As per Census 2011, the population of the corporation is 9,57,730. The population growth rate of the corporation (3.25%) is greater than the district (2.25%) in 2001-2011. There are 100 wards in the corporation. Two wards - Vanchiyoore and Nettiayam, from Thiruvananthapuram corporation are selected randomly for conducting the study.
- ❖ Kadinamkulam Grama Panchayat, an area adjoining the coastal belt is selected as sample area. It is basically rural in character. The total population in the Panchayat is 46,476. The sample panchayat is selected through simple random sampling method. Vettuthura ward of Kadinamkulam panchayat has been selected randomly to conduct the study.

1.3.3. Sampling Framework and Unit of Enquiry

In the present study, the population consists of all individuals in Thiruvananthapuram District. According to the Census 2011, 46.34 percent and 53.66 percent of total population in Thiruvananthapuram District are residing at rural and urban areas respectively. Thus on the

basis of 2011 census, and as part of Proportionate Stratified Random Sampling method, Thiruvananthapuram District is divided into two strata - rural and urban. Four stage random sampling method is used for selecting study area.

- First stage – Thiruvananthapuram District
- Second stage – Panchayats/Corporation
- Third stage – Wards
- Fourth stage - Households

The total sample size of the study is 120. It is determined on the basis of the formula, which is described below.

$$\text{Sample size} = \frac{\frac{z^2 \times p(1-p)}{e^2}}{1 + \left(\frac{z^2 \times p(1-p)}{e^2 N} \right)}$$

Where,

z = z score

p = Sample proportion

e = Margin of error

N = Population size

In the present study,

$z = 1.96$

$p = 50\%$

$e = 8.95$

Out of 120 samples, 56 households are selected from Kadinamkulam Grama Panchayat and 64 from Thiruvananthapuram Corporation to represent rural and urban areas respectively. Since the data about household details in Vanchiyoore ward are not available, the households are identified using Google maps, and are given number. The sample households are determined using Stat Trek's random number generator. All members of household who are 15 years and above are surveyed for the study. So the primary data is collected from 359 people, of which -193 are from rural and 166 from urban area. Among total respondents, there are 191 females and 168 males.

1.3.4. Interview Schedule

The data for the socio economic profile and time use pattern of work done by samples is collected mainly through primary survey in Thiruvananthapuram corporation and Kadinamkulam panchayat. The primary survey was conducted during August, September and October, 2018. Interview schedule is the tool used for collecting primary data. The schedule consists of three parts. First part is for collecting data on household characteristics, the second on individual characteristics, and the third on the time utilisation pattern of individuals. The Interview schedule used for the present study is presented in the Appendix I section.

1.3.5. Quantitative Techniques

To capture the time use pattern of respondents, a detailed activity classification used in the Report of the Time use survey, 1999 by Central Statistical Organisation is adopted in this study. All activities are classified into following categories:

1. Primary production activities
2. Secondary activities
3. Trade, business and services
4. Household maintenance, management and shopping for own households
5. Care for children, the sick, elderly and disabled for own households
6. Community services and help to other households
7. Learning
8. Social and cultural activities, mass media etc
9. Personal care and self maintenance

The first three categories pertain to System of National Accounts (SNA) activities which fall within the production boundary. The next three categories are Extended SNA activities which fall under the general production boundary and the last three are Non-SNA activities

The established system of data collection in time use methodology is Diary system. Since it is difficult in practice to systematically maintain a work diary even by the literates, it is impractical to use this approach in the study area. So stylised approach or time sampling method, where respondents have to state how long they spent on each pre listed activities over a given period, is used for collecting time use pattern of persons in the study area.

1.3.6. Secondary Data

The published study materials in the form of books, journals, seminar papers and report from newspapers about related topics is used as secondary sources of data.

1.4. Limitations of the Study

The following are the limitations of the study.

- The study totally depends upon the information provided by respondents. The probability of subjective bias exists.
- Due to limited time period, seasonal variations in working hours are unable to adapt in the study.
- There is limitation in measuring exact time of occurrence of various activities. So the researcher has to depend on broad sense of time.

1.5. Design of the Study

In the first section, an introduction to the concerned subject is given, followed by the objectives, methodology and limitations of the study. The second section examines the situation of unpaid labour force in India with the help of secondary data and - a review of some other studies. The third section is purely devoted to primary data analysis. The conclusion is presented in the fourth section.

Section II

UNPAID LABOUR: THE INDIAN SCENARIO

Conventional figures on workforce and national income provide data only in association with market or remunerated activities. Since market is believed to be the hub of productive work, some important works, which are unpaid, get invisible or under estimated in the national statistics. Unpaid labour force are those who are outside the realm of labour legislation (Swaminathan, 2009). Since unpaid activities contribute on enhancing over all welfare of people, the statistics should reflect it. Ignoring unpaid activities may lead to incorrect inferences about levels and changes in well-being. A more complete measurement and imputation of GDP provides an indicator of how much a country produces not just for the market, but for the sustenance of the society (Hirway, 2000). The under estimation of these figures have adverse implications on policy making and planning. Since women traditionally do much of the unpaid work, neglecting to include it underestimates women's contribution to the economy. Thus most of the work performed by women in household is often undervalued or invisible, and larger rewards for market work accrue to men. To a large extent, the career model of employment is mostly biased in favour of males who have less household responsibilities (Sirianni and Negrey, 2000).

The exclusion of unpaid work from the boundary of national income accounts seems to be illogical or invalid (Hirway, 2015). Because the unpaid work, performed mainly by women, helps in the maintenance of whole family members, and thus contributes to the socialisation process. They produce goods and services such as food, health care etc, that otherwise have to be purchased from the market. So the domestic labour generates surplus value (Charles, 1993). Charles (Ibid) suggests four sociological reasons for females having disproportionately major responsibilities of family care in the society. They are industrialisation, capitalist mode of production, patriarchy and social reproduction. Prior to industrialisation, families used to work collectively in home premises, and industrialisation has removed the location of economic activity to factories. It made difficult for females to combine paid work with domestic care work. Thus the capitalist mode of production resulted in the separation of paid and unpaid labour, and females are mainly vested with responsibilities for unpaid work. The patriarchal structure bolsters the dependence of females on male partner (Hughes, 2002). The females take up more burden of unpaid work than males. This unequal distribution of work is unjust, and is a violation of the fundamental human rights of females. The exclusion of unpaid work from the boundary of national

income accounts is a reflection of patriarchal character and brings male bias into macro economics (Hirway, 2015). Davies (1990) refers to clock and linear time as “male time” to draw attention to the patriarchal influence in defining the very concept and measurement of time. The linear analysis of time is limited to understand the multiplicity of work undertaken by females (Edwards, 1993). Knights and Odih (1995) refer to the “cyclical and reproductive time as ‘female time’..... Since it is mediated through the needs of others, unlike the commodified, female time is a controlled and decontextualised linear time”. Thus it is the counter part of male, commodified, linear and clock time. The female time exists in relation to the demand of time by others, and because of this women’s lives are characterised by the “overlapping temporalities of simultaneous actions” (Hughes, 2002). This most exploitative and tedious work which is done for free is invisible to the anti-capitalists too (Costa, 1971). Women who provide all this free labour in a capitalist system in which nothing else is free must stop being so nice (L’Hirondelle, 2004). Rather, this free work only strengthens the patriarchal values and system.

2.1. Labour Force Participation Rate

In the report published by International Labour Organisation on World Employment Social Outlooks – Trends 2018, it is stated that “Of notable concern are gender disparities in labour market opportunities, which cut across and persist in all dimensions of the labour market, and which are rooted in the complex interplay of gender roles, socio-economic constraints and personal preferences, such as unequal care responsibilities and discrimination”. According to the report, gender gap in work participation rate is about 50% points in Northern Africa, Southern Asia and Arab States, which is nearly double the global average. In many instances, participation rates among women remain well below those for men. At 53 percentage points, India has one of the worst gender gaps in work participation.

According to the India Development Report published by the World Bank in 2017, India ranks 120 among 131 countries in female labour force participation rate (LFPR), even behind Pakistan and Bangladesh. As per the report, only 27% of adult Indian women had an occupation, or were actively looking for one, compared to 79% of men. It is stated that there are about 20 million women who had dropped out of the workforce between 2005 and 2012, which is equivalent to the total population of Sri Lanka.

Employment and Unemployment Surveys (EUS) are quinquennial survey conducted regularly by National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO). It is the major source of data on employment and unemployment situation of various states and India as a whole. The Table

2.1 gives a detailed picture about LFPR in India according to various approaches of NSSO. A decline in the LFPR in urban areas has been witnessed in 2009-2010 period. It is mainly due to adverse effect on job market during economic recession. The female LFPR is much below than that of their counterparts during all periods whatever be the approach followed. It is lower in urban areas as compared to rural areas. The sex ratio in the labour force also reflects their lower participation.

Table 2.1: Labour Force Participation Rate according to US (Usual Status), CWS (Current Weekly Status) and CDS (Current Daily Status) in NSS 50th, 55th, 61st, 66th and 68th rounds

(Number of persons / person days in labour force per 1000 persons / person days)

Approach	Male					Female					All India Sex ratio in labour force 2011-12
	50 th Round 1993-1994	55 th Round 1999-2000	61 st Round 2004-2005	66 th Round 2009-2010	68 th Round 2011-2012	50 th Round 1993-1994	55 th Round 1999-2000	61 st Round 2004-2005	66 th Round 2009-2010	68 th Round 2011-2012	
Rural											
Usual (PS)	549	533	546	548	547	237	235	249	208	181	317
Usual (PS+SS)	561	540	555	556	553	330	302	333	265	253	437
CWS	547	531	545	545	545	276	263	287	231	215	377
CDS	534	515	531	536	534	232	220	237	197	180	323
Urban											
Usual (PS)	538	539	566	556	560	132	126	148	128	134	221
Usual (PS+SS)	543	542	570	559	563	165	147	178	146	155	253
CWS	538	539	566	556	561	152	138	168	141	148	243
CDS	532	528	561	550	555	132	123	150	129	136	226

(Note: US (PS) indicates usual status including principal status and, US (PS+SS) indicates usual status including both principal and subsidiary status)

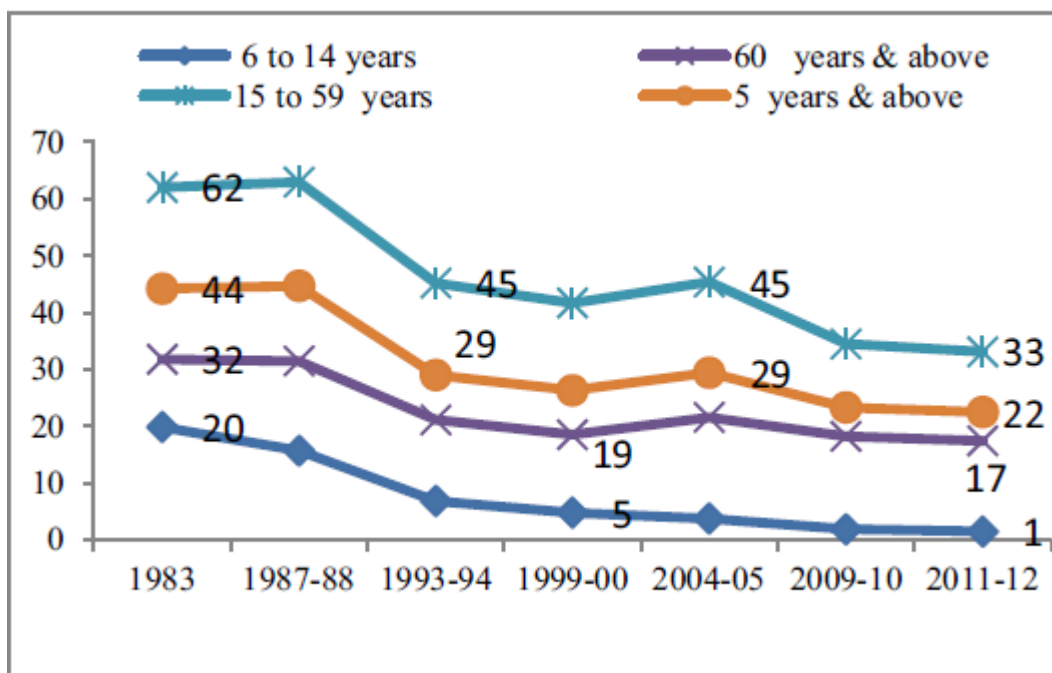
Source: *Employment and Unemployment Situation in India - July 2011-June 2012* . NSS Report No. 554(68/10/1), National Sample Survey Office, Ministry of Statistics & Programme Implementation, Government of India, January 2014.

Interestingly, positive trend in the female labour force participation in urban areas is visible in 2011-2012. The sex ratio in the labour force according to usual- principal status + subsidiary status (PS+SS) is found to be higher because of higher participation of women in subsidiary economic activities. The reason for pushing out more females out of labour market than males attributed to multiple socio economic and socio cultural factors (ILO, 2018). Low

employment generating potential of the economy, social restrictions, low level of education, early marriage and subsequent inability to perform full time paid work along with their heavy household work make women confine themselves to unemployed or low paid subsidiary activities.

Female LFPR in India has been declining for the last three decades showing a systematic pattern (Mehrotra and Parida, 2017). From the Figure 2.1, it is clear that during 1983 and 1987-88 the female LFPR was quite high (about 44% overall and about 62% among working age women). It started declining, but remained almost constant during the post liberalisation period (1993–94 and 2004–05), and it declined further during the post second generation reforms period to reach a very low level, about 22% for all females and about 33% among working age women. Interestingly, the female LFPR among the age group 6–14 years has declined considerably, from about 20% in 1983 to 1% during 2011-2012.

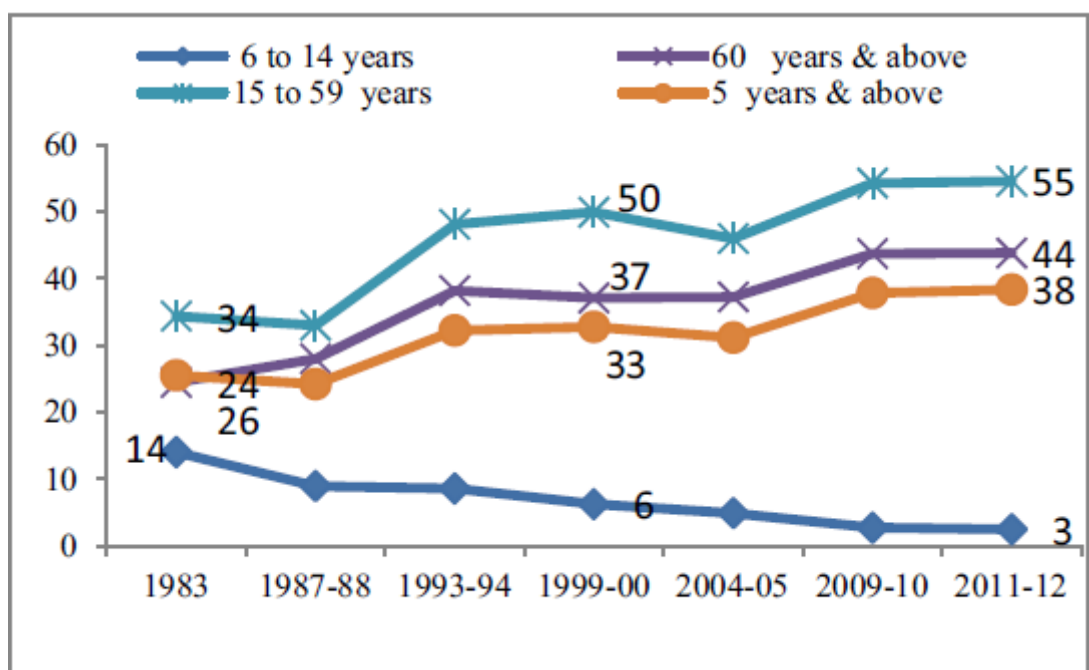
Figure 2.1: Female Labour Force Participation Rate, 1983 to 2011-12



Source: Santhosh Mehrotra, Jajaji K Parida. “Why is the Labour Force Participation of Women Declining in India?” *World Development* (Elsevier) 98 (2017): 360–380.

The Figure 2.2 depicts the female domestic duty participation rate. It is evident that the domestic duty participation among working age women is quite high (above 50%), and it is increasing over the years. The data point to the fact that patriarchal norms restrict women to perform specific domestic activities, and that they are often discouraged from going out of the home alone, especially to take up gainful employment (Ibid).

Figure 2.2: Female Domestic Duty Participation Rate, 1983 to 2011-12



Source: Santhosh Mehrotra, Jajaji K Parida. “Why is the Labour Force Participation of Women Declining in India?” *World Development* (Elsevier) 98 (2017): 360–380.

While examining the determinants of female labour force participation decision, the study (Ibid) found negative coefficients for the presence of number of children up to 5 years (-0.2 in rural area and -0.02 in urban area), and the number of elderly, 65 years and above (-0.1 in rural area and 0.1 in urban area). The figures clearly reflect that married women’s LFPR is restricted due to the responsibilities of child care in both rural and urban areas, and care of the elderly in rural area. In urban areas, the presence of elderly and adult females in the family seems to be an added advantage for working mothers who would help in looking after children.

The employment scenario in Kerala, particularly with respect to females, also presents a bleak picture. It demonstrates a paradox with regard to female LFPR, where the achievements in human development have failed to get translated into employment gains for women. While analysing various reports of NSSO, a wide gap between female and male is witnessed in LFPR. A comparison of female and male LFPRs in Kerala is presented in the Table 2.2. According to the 68th Round of NSSO, while the LFPR in Kerala is 40.3%, female LFPR in the State is very low (24.8%). The LFPR of male is 57.8%. Thus the disparity between female and male LFPR is high.

Table 2.2: Labour Force Participation Rate (PS+SS) for Kerala, 1987-88 to 2011-12 (in percent)

Year	Rural		Urban	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
1987-1988	55.8	33.6	59	26.1
1993-1994	56.8	26.4	59.9	25
1999-2000	58.7	27.3	59.1	25.4
2004-2005	58.9	32.1	58.3	30.1
2009-2010	58.3	26	56.4	23.3
2011-2012	58.3	25.8	56.7	22.2

Source: Various Reports of NSSO

The Table 2.3 shows the district wise details about LFPR. Kozhikode recorded highest gender gap in LFPR both in rural and urban areas with 43.6% and 44.5% respectively. The gender disparity in LFPR both in rural and urban areas is lowest in Kasargod and Idukki.

Table 2.3: Labour Force Participation Rates in the Districts of Kerala (in percent)

District	Rural		Urban	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Thiruvananthapuram	54.4	23.9	53	20.6
Kollam	53.3	21.6	54.2	28
Pathanamthitta	62.6	25.7	56.7	15.6
Alappuzha	58.9	24.8	56.4	22.2
Kottayam	61.9	26.2	52.1	18.7
Idukki	60.7	38.5	47.7	19.3
Ernakulam	58.9	25.9	56.9	22.2
Thrissur	56	20.3	54.5	20.9
Palakkad	51.9	20.9	53.9	16.8
Malappuram	48.9	11.6	42.4	7.6
Kozhikode	56.2	12.6	55.3	10.8
Wayanad	61.4	22.3	56.1	27.9
Kannur	57.7	22	52.1	14.5
Kasargod	51.6	31.8	43.1	18.9
All	55.6	21.4	53.7	17.7

Source: *Economic Review 2017*. State Planning Board , Thiruvananthapuram: Government of Kerala, 2018.

The gender disparity in level of employment can be examined by the female work participation rates (WPR). The Table 2.4 presents the WPR of females and males in India and

Kerala. It can be seen that male WPR show constancy or a mild upward tendency in the state as well as in the country. However, female WPR shows a declining trend.

Table 2.4: Work Participation Rates of Females and Males in India and Kerala (in percent)

Year	Rural				Urban			
	India		Kerala		India		Kerala	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1987-1988	53.9	32.3	56.7	31.6	50.6	15.2	59.2	21.8
1993-1994	55.3	32.8	53.7	23.8	52	15.4	56	20.3
1999-2000	53.1	29.9	55.3	23.8	51.8	13.9	55.8	20.3
2004-2005	54.6	32.7	55.9	25.6	54.9	16.6	54.7	20
2009-2010	54.7	26.1	56.4	21.8	54.3	13.8	54.7	19.4
2011-2012	54.3	24.8	56.5	22.1	54.6	14.7	55.2	19.1

Source: Various Reports of NSSO

The Table 2.5 shows the district wise details about WPR. In both rural and urban areas, female WPR is considerably lower than male WPR. Idukki recorded highest female WPR in rural areas (35%) and Wayanad in urban areas (23%).

Table 2.5: Work Participation Rates in the Districts of Kerala (in percent)

District	Rural		Urban	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Thiruvananthapuram	53.2	20	51.4	17.1
Kollam	51.3	19	52.9	14.3
Pathanamthitta	58.8	20.6	52.4	13.1
Alappuzha	57	19.1	52.2	16
Kottayam	60.4	22.7	48.3	14.1
Idukki	58.8	34.6	45.6	19.3
Ernakulam	56.8	22.5	56.1	18.4
Thrissur	55.1	18.4	52	18.8
Palakkad	50.6	18.1	52.6	15.9
Malappuram	47.4	6.5	41.2	5
Kozhikode	84.9	10.3	53.2	9.2
Wayanad	58.8	20.5	55.8	22.8
Kannur	54.4	18.7	51.4	12
Kasargod	50.3	31.2	42.8	17.6
All	53.9	18	52.1	14.7

Source: *Economic Review 2017*. State Planning Board , Thiruvananthapuram: Government of Kerala, 2018.

Thus the statistics depict a dismal picture of low female LFPR and WPR in India and Kerala. However, these figures do not mean that females are not working in the economy. The actual WPR of female is much higher than what is estimated. The Government, society or women themselves fail to perceive the work status of home based women workers (Kerala Economic Review, 2017). The Table 2.6 shows the percentage of females engaged in specific domestic activities in India and Kerala.

Table 2.6: Percentage of Females (5 years and above) Usually Engaged in Specified Domestic Duties in Usual Principal Status, 2011-2012

Activity	India		Kerala	
	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban
Maintenance of kitchen garden	23.3	7.8	16.5	11.3
Maintenance of animal resources	21.5	2.4	14.2	5.3
Free collection of fuel/ cattle feed	43.5	5.3	16.5	3.6
Preparation of cow dung cake	40.9	4.6	0.7	0.1
Fetching water from outside	30.6	9.6	7.7	6
Sewing/ tailoring etc	27.3	23.5	10	11.7
Tutoring own children or other children for free	6.8	12	12.2	13.7

Source: *Participation of Women in Specified Activities along with Domestic Duties*. NSS Report No. 559(68/10/3), National Sample Survey Office, Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, Government of India, September 2014.

The percentage of females engaged in domestic duties is higher in India as a whole compared to Kerala. The figures also points to the fact that rural females are doing more domestic tasks than those in urban area, both in India and Kerala. The females in Kerala are engaged in tutoring own children or other children for free. The figure for maintenance of kitchen garden and animal resources is more in urban Kerala than in urban India. The table however indicates that a there is under reporting of women's work. As Hirway (2012) noted, 'a large part of missing labour is missing only from the National Sample Survey data, but is very much there in the labour force- though a small part may be due to withdrawal'. The issue is whether the existing data structures and systems visibilise her unpaid work, recognise it and quantify it, and in the ultimate, include her contribution to the national economy (Dewan, n.d.). Thus the NSSO and Census data are unable to adequately capture it. The Time Use Survey (TUS) has the potential to overwhelm the limitations of NSSO (Hirway, 2009). It helps in estimating all forms of work and makes the unpaid work visible.

The Time Use Survey in India is the first survey of its kind conducted on a pilot basis in over 18,600 households spread over six selected states namely, Haryana, Madhya Pradesh, Gujarat, Meghalaya, Orissa and Tamil Nadu. The activities included in the Indian Activity Classification were divided into three categories, namely, System of National Accounts (SNA) activities, Extended SNA activities and Non-SNA activities. The SNA activities consist of primary production, secondary, and trade, business and service activities. Extended SNA activities include household maintenance, care for children, sick and elderly, and community services and help to other households. The activities related to learning, social and cultural activities, mass media, and personal care and self- maintenance are categorised as Non-SNA activities. The major findings of the TUS are shown in the tables 2.7 and 2.8.

Table 2.7: Weekly average time spent on SNA, Extended SNA and Non SNA activities by sex and region, 1998-1999 (in hours)

Activities	Rural			Urban			Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
SNA	42.31	22.53	32.72	41.06	9.16	25.77	41.96	18.72	30.75
Extended SNA	3.74	33.95	18.40	3.44	36.44	19.26	3.65	34.63	18.69
Non SNA	121.98	111.50	116.89	123.47	122.44	123.03	122.42	114.58	118.62
Total	168.03	167.98	168.01	167.97	168.04	168.06	168.03	167.93	168.06
Total persons	22285	21130	43415	10305	9549	19854	32590	30679	63269

(Note: The figure of total time for each may not be exactly equal to 168 due to effect of rounding)

Source: *Report of the Time Use Survey*. Central Statistical Organisation, Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, New Delhi: Government of India, 2000.

The Table 2.7 gives the weekly average time spent on various activities assuming that all individuals participate in various activities. On the average male spent about 41.96 hours in SNA activities as compared to only about 18.72 hours by females. In case of extended SNA activities, men spent only about 3.65 hours as compared to 34.63 hours by women. Therefore, women spend about ten times more time in extended activities than men. In Non-SNA activities male spent about 8 hours more as compared to females.

On the average 70.61 % of the time is spent in Non SNA activities by total persons. The SNA and extended SNA contribute for 18.30% and 11.13 % respectively (Table 2.8). Time use differences for men are not found to be significantly different in rural and urban areas. However, the participation of women in SNA activities (5.45 %) in urban areas is much lower as compared to 13.41 % in rural areas. It is due to the participation of rural

females in agricultural activities which is treated as SNA activities. There is large variation in time spent on extended SNA activities between females and males.

Table 2.8: Percentage of weekly average time spent on SNA, Extended SNA and Non SNA activities by sex and region, 1998-1999

Activities	Rural			Urban			Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
SNA	25.18	13.41	19.48	24.44	5.45	15.34	24.98	11.14	18.30
Extended SNA	2.23	20.21	10.95	2.05	21.69	11.46	2.17	20.61	11.13
Non SNA	72.61	66.37	69.58	73.49	72.88	73.23	72.87	68.20	70.61
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

(Note: Total may not tally due to rounding error)

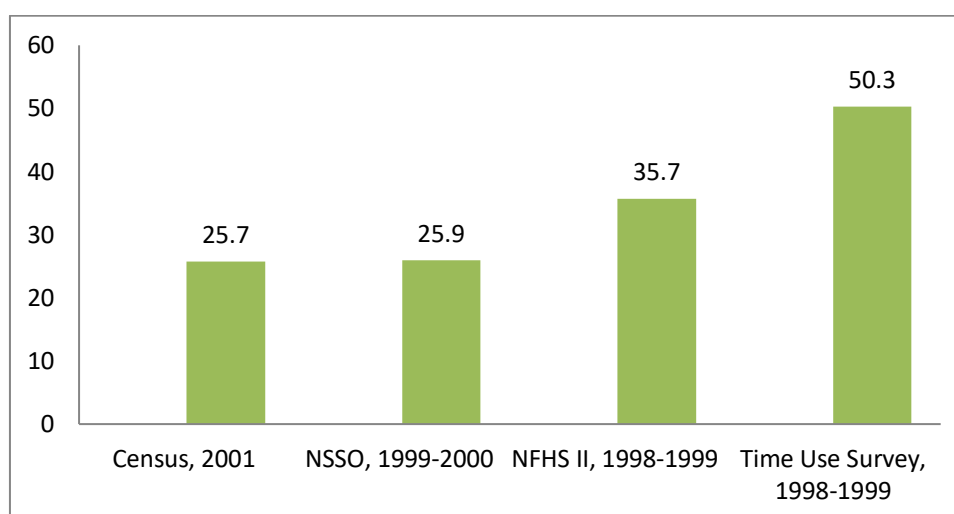
Source: *Report of the Time Use Survey*. Central Statistical Organisation, Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, New Delhi: Government of India, 2000.

Thus in case of non SNA activities like leisure, learning, personal care and socio cultural activities, which are conceived to be the crux of holistic development of an individual, men get more time. The human capabilities could not be used for productive purposes unless both females and males get equal opportunity to spend time on various activities (Bhatia, 2002).

2.2 Comparison of Different Surveys

The Figure 2.3 reveals the estimates of female WPR by different surveys. According to the estimates of Time Use Survey, the female WPR is 50.3%. From the figure, it is understood that the Time Use Survey conducted in 1998-1999 captures the WPR much better than the National Sample Survey of 1999-2000. The highest female WPR is given by the Time Use Survey. The estimates of National Family Health Survey II (NFHS II) of 1998-1999 and National Sample Survey (NSS) of 1999-2000 come second and third respectively. The NFHS and NSS estimates are 35.7% and 25.9% respectively. The lowest rate (25.7%) in this respect is reported by the Census.

Figure 2.3: Female Work Participation Rates in India: Varying Estimates



Source: Sircar, Jyotirmoy. “Women's work participation since the 1990s in India: some theoretical and empirical issues.” Munich Personal RePEc Archive, 15 October 2010.

The Table 2.9 presents the difference in work participation rates in the NSS data and Time Use Survey data. The difference in WPR for males in Haryana is 11.1%, and that for females is astonishing as 38.46%. As far as Odisha is concerned, it is 7.18% for males and high as 32.17% for females. In Madhya Pradesh it is 9.27% for males and nearly double (18.73%) of that for females. The trend is similar for other states also. The table shows that the Time Use Survey captures the trend much better than NSSO data.

Table 2.9: Differences in Work Participation Rates (WPR)

States	NSSO 1999-2000		Time Use Survey 1998-1999		Differences in WPR	
	Male (Rural)	Female (Rural)	Male	Female	Male	Female
Haryana	46.2	17.7	57.3	56.16	11.1	38.46
Madhya Pradesh	51.2	50.7	60.5	49.43	9.27	18.73
Gujarat	57.1	35.5	60	44.17	2.92	8.67
Odisha	52.7	23.3	59.9	55.47	7.18	32.17
Tamil Nadu	56.6	38.1	66.1	50.25	9.5	12.15
Meghalaya	56.6	42	56.2	52.445	0.62	10.45

Source: Hirway, Indira. “Employment and unemployment situation in the 1990s – How good is the NSS data?.” *Economic and Political Weekly* Vol 37, no. 21 (2002): 2027-36.

2.3. Estimates of Actual Workforce Participation Rates: Making the Invisible Hands Visible

According to the Employment and Unemployment Survey of NSS 68th round, those outside the labour force, i.e., neither working nor available for work, are classified under the below categories. The codes and respective categories are listed below.

91 - Attended educational institutions

92 - Attended to domestic duties only

93 - Attended to domestic duties and was also engaged in free collection of goods (vegetables, roots, firewood, cattle feed, etc.), sewing, tailoring, weaving, etc. for household use

94 - Rentiers, pensioners, remittance recipients, etc.

95 - Not able to work owing to disability

97 - Others (including beggars, sex workers, etc.)

98 - Did not work owing to sickness (for casual workers only)

99 - Children of age 0-4 years

The persons covered under these categories are treated as ‘non-workers’. It is noteworthy that those engaged in ‘93’ are excluded, because their number is found to be negligible. The question arises whether they are really negligible in number or the Employment and Unemployment surveys of the NSSO are unable to capture their strength correctly (Hirway, 2012).

The Table 2.10 presents the revised Work Participation Rate (WPR) for 2011-2012 taking into account the codes 92, 93 and 97. Eventhough the official statistics exclude the persons doing the works categorised under above codes, those works are significant. So an attempt has been made to estimate the revised work participation rate in the table below.

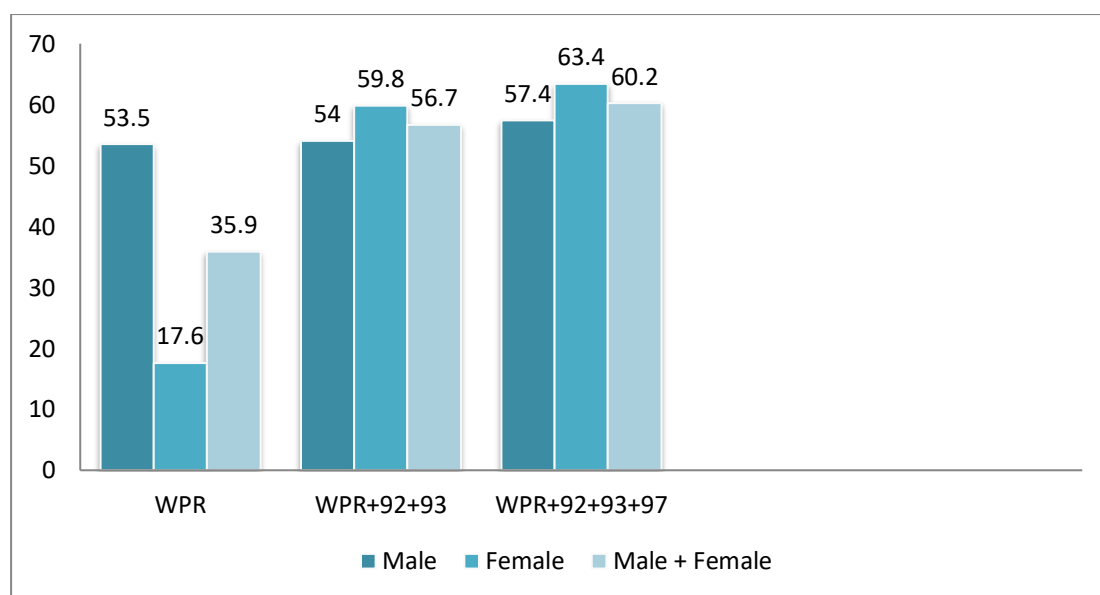
Table 2.10: Revised Work Participation Rates in India, 2011-2012 (in percent)

Code	Rural			Urban			Rural+ Urban		
	Male	Female	Male + Female	Male	Female	Male + Female	Male	Female	Male+ Female
WPR	53.5	17.6	35.9	54.2	12.5	34.2	53.7	16.1	35.4
WPR+92	53.7	36.1	45	54.4	48.9	51.8	53.9	39.7	47
WPR+93	53.8	41.3	47.6	54.3	24.1	39.8	53.9	36.4	45.4
WPR+97	56.9	21.2	39.4	56.5	15.2	36.7	56.8	19.5	38.6
WPR+92+93	54	59.8	56.7	54.5	60.5	57.4	54.1	60	57
WPR+92+93+97	57.4	63.4	60.2	56.8	63.2	59.9	57.2	63.4	60.2

Source: Compiled by the author from NSS Report no.554 (68/10/1)

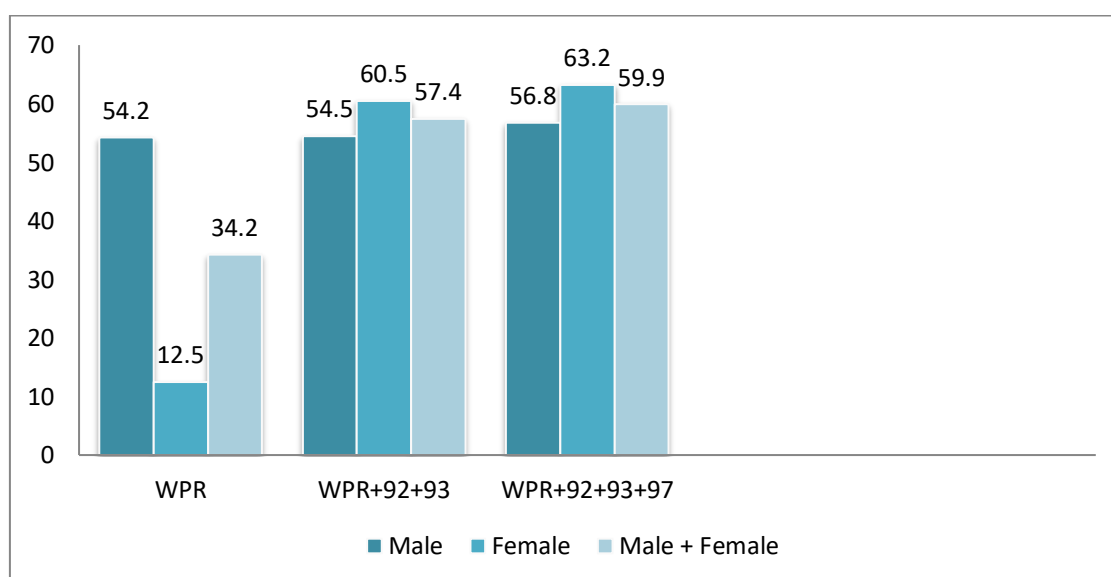
The data in the table is depicted lucidly in the Figures 2.4, 2.5 and 2.6. From the figure 2.4, it is clear that the work participation rate before and after taking into account the codes has remained more or less same for males in the rural area. However a significant jump i.e., from 17.6% to 63.4%, in the work participation rate is witnessed for females. The increase is mainly because of the share of domestic duties and free collection of goods, sewing etc. for household use.

Figure 2.4: Revised Work Participation Rates in Rural India, 2011-2012



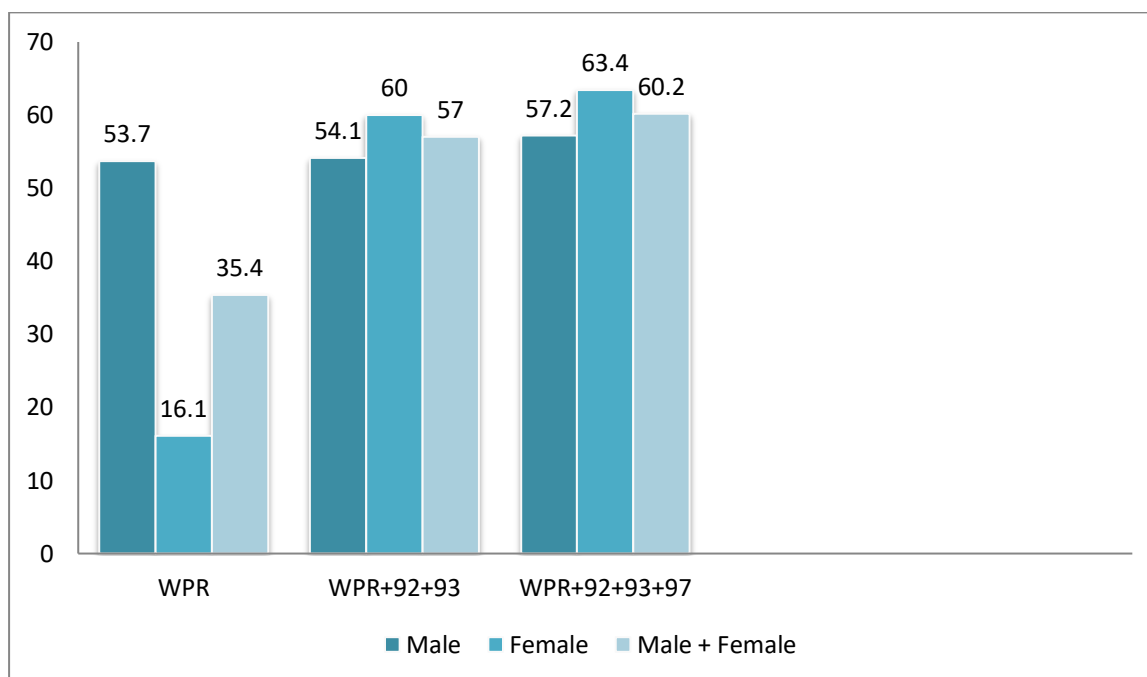
Source: Compiled by the author from NSS Report no.554 (68/10/1)

Figure 2.5: Revised Work Participation Rates in Urban India, 2011-2012



Source: Compiled by the author from NSS Report no.554 (68/10/1)

Figure 2.6: Revised Work Participation Rates in India, 2011-2012



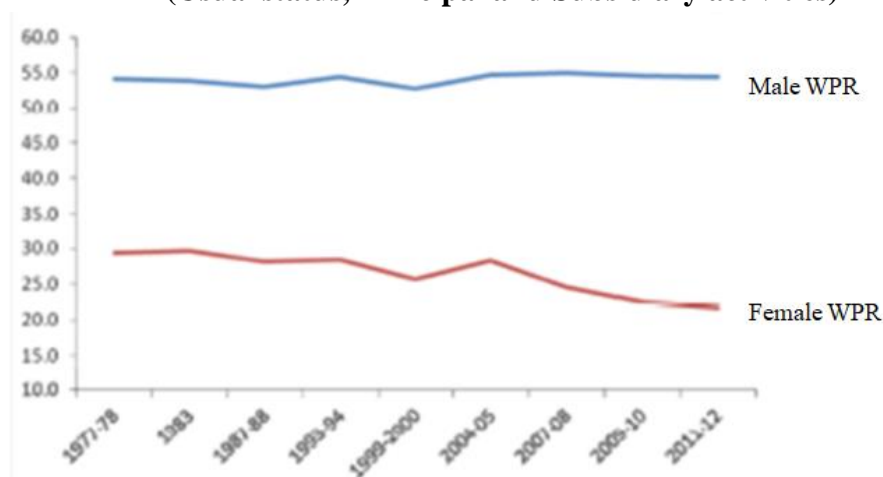
Source: Compiled by the author from NSS Report no.554 (68/10/1)

The Figure 2.5 portrays the revised work participation rates in urban India. Similar to that in rural area, there is not much difference in the work participation rate of men by adding the domestic duties which shows that their participation in domestic duties is meagre. However, the female work participation rate has increased five times when the activities under codes 92, 93 and 97 are added to the official work participation rate. The figures depict the clear picture of the patriarchal nature of the society where the domestic duties are confined only to females. The situation is similar irrespective of regional differences. Although, the female work participation rate according to NSSO is lower in urban area compared to rural area, the revised estimates is about 63% in both regions.

The Figure 2.6 depicts the revised work participation rate in India. Similar to the above situations, the female work participation rate has increased substantially when the conventional work participation rate is added to the works associated with codes 92, 93 and 97. The major contributing element in the increase is the domestic work. The figures corresponding to males have no difference between the conventional and revised estimates. The work participation rate of males and total persons is about 57% and 60% respectively in rural, urban and all India.

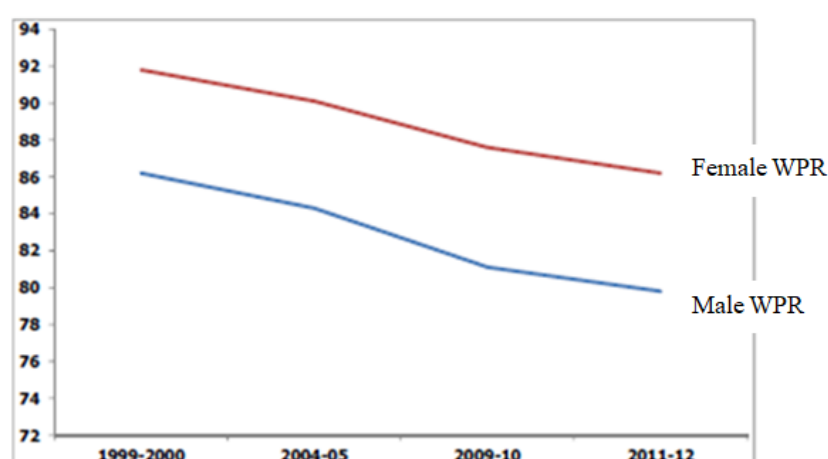
The all India work participation rate from 1977 to 2012 is depicted in the Figure 2.7. From the graph, it is understood that the male work participation rate is much higher than their counterparts from 1977-1978 to 2011-2012. It is based on the data on work participation rate published by the NSSO which take into account only paid SNA activities.

**Figure 2.7: All India Work Participation Rates, 1977-78 to 2011-12
(Usual status, Principal and Subsidiary activities)**



Source : Dewan, Ritu. “Contextualising and visibilising gender and work in Rural India: Economic Contribution of Women in Agriculture.” *Keynote address*. Indian Society of Agricultural Economics.

**Figure 2.8: All India Work Participation Rates taking into account codes 92+93+97,
1999-2000 to 2011-2012**



Source: Dewan, Ritu. “Contextualising and visibilising gender and work in Rural India: Economic Contribution of Women in Agriculture.” *Keynote address*. Indian Society of Agricultural Economics.

In the Figure 2.8, the all India work participation rate taking into account the codes 92, 93 and 97 are portrayed. A noteworthy feature evident from the graph is the dramatically upward movement of work participation rate of both females and males over the years. Interestingly, the female work participation rates overtake that of males by six percentage points. It confirms the often discussed but little researched issue that females work much longer hours than males, and that the burden of time poverty impacts women much more (Dewan, n.d?). Working women are found to be more time poorer than those not working. Men who have a female partner working in the home have an unfair advantage over women in the workplace, who do not have a free labour at home tending to their needs. Thus women accepting a job had to make a trade off between time poverty and monetary poverty (Arif and Saqib, 2012). Females who are employed for cheap wage rate thus suffer from double jeopardy of financially poor as well as time poor at the same time.

2.4. Revised Estimates of Labour Force and Unemployment Rate

A large number of women principally engaged in household work also perform unremunerated activities for family and, are not regarded as labour force in the official employment statistics in India. As pointed earlier, it gives wrong estimates of the size of total labour force and of the extent of underemployment that exists in the country. The official record of labour force rate in India which is mainly based on the NSSO Employment Unemployment Surveys excludes those persons engaged in unpaid work. It also excludes specified unpaid activities which come within the production boundary of United Nations System of National Accounts. According to NSSO 68th round, 61% of rural working age females and 65% of urban working age females are principally engaged in household work. 17 % of rural females and 4.2 % of urban females who are principally engaged in household work are engaged in subsidiary status activity. The remaining women who are principally engaged in household work are classified as non workers or out of the labour force.

The Table 2.11 shows that there are 55 crores persons aged 15-59 years in the labour force in 2011-12. Inclusion of persons engaged in specified unpaid activities resulted in a 28% increase in number of persons who were in the labour force.

Table 2.11: Number of persons in the labour force, aged 15 to 59 years, by sex and region, 2011-12 (in crores)

Sector	Male	Female	All
Rural	21.5 (0.4)	19 (99.1)	40.5 (30.8)
Urban	9.5 (0.1)	4.9 (104.8)	14.4 (21.4)
Total	31 (0.3)	23.9 (100.3)	55 (28.2)

(Note: Figures in parentheses show the percentage change in the number of persons on account of inclusion of women only engaged in specified unremunerated economic activities for household use.)

Source: Vikas Rawal, Partha Saha. "Women's Employment in India - What do Recent NSS Surveys of Employment and Unemployment show?" New Delhi: Society for Social and Economic Research, 2015.

So it is important to recognise the persons doing unpaid work as labour force. According to Rawal and Saha (2015), "While it is important to include this economically-active population in the labour force, it is also important to recognise that such work is unremunerated and is minimally productive. Given that such work remains unremunerated and minimally productive, persons engaged in these activities should be considered a part of the labour force but treated as unemployed". It can provide more meaningful figures of the open unemployment rate than the current official statistics do.

Table 2.12: Estimates of unemployment rate among men and women aged 15 to 59 years, without and after taking into account unremunerated home based work, rural, urban and total, 1999-2000 and 2011-12 (in percent)

Sector	Male		Female		All	
	1999-2000	2011-2012	1999-2000	2011-2012	1999-2000	2011-2012
Conventional: Excluding persons engaged in unremunerated specified activities						
Rural	1.9	1.9	1.1	1.7	1.6	1.8
Urban	4.7	3.1	6.1	5.5	4.9	3.6
Total	2.6	2.2	1.8	2.5	2.4	2.3
Revised: Including persons engaged in unremunerated specified activities						
Rural	1.9	2.2	43.7	50.7	22.4	24.9
Urban	4.7	3.2	61.7	53.9	26	20.6
Total	2.6	2.5	47.1	51.3	23.2	23.8

Source: Vikas Rawal, Partha Saha. "Women's Employment in India - What do Recent NSS Surveys of Employment and Unemployment show?" New Delhi: Society for Social and Economic Research, 2015.

The Table 2.12 presents that in 2011-12, the unemployment rate among working age group is as high as 23.8%. It is about 20% points higher than the official estimates based on conventional methodology. Revised estimates of unemployment show that rural unemployment rate is lower than urban unemployment rate. But there is a huge increase in rural and urban unemployment rate in the revised estimate. According to the revised estimates, about 50% of women are unemployed in 2011-12. Corresponding estimate of

unemployment among men is only 2.5%. Also, there is not much difference between conventional and revised estimates of unemployment rate among men. For women, the difference is huge in case of rural, urban and as a whole.

This section intended to analyse the unpaid labour force in India and in Kerala to the extent possible. As it is found that longer hours are spent on unpaid work by females, it is essential to recognise this, reduce the discrimination on sharing household work by redistributing it to other members of the household, in particular, the male members. Also it is necessary to sensitise people to the value of unpaid work, particularly among females themselves, who consider themselves primarily engaged in household duties even when they perform economic activity within the household. An overall realisation has to be developed in the society that unremunerated activities are nothing short of remunerated activities, and household duties are equally productive and important for sustaining the paid labour force. It is necessary to expand the boundary of conventional macro economics to incorporate unpaid work. It will help to frame policies that will promote the status of women and thereby the efficiency of our nation.

Section III

OBSERVATIONS AND DISCUSSION

The section is devoted to analyse the results of primary data. Before going into the details of time utilisation pattern of respondents, a detailed examination of both household characteristics and socio economic profile of the sample respondents is presented in the first and second part of this section respectively. The time utilisation pattern of the respondents is analysed in the third part of the section. As pointed out in the methodology, for the purpose of the study, 120 sample households are selected. Out of 120 samples, 56 are selected from rural and 64 from urban area within the District. All members of the family who are 15 years and above are surveyed for the study. So the primary data is collected from 359 people for the study.

3.1. Household Characteristics of Sample Respondents

3.1.1. Gender of the Head of the Household

The distribution of households according to gender of the head of the household is presented in Table 3.1. Female headed household constituted twenty five percent of total households. Seventy five percent of households are headed by male.

Table 3.1: Gender of the Head of the Household

Head of the Household	Number of Households	Percentage
Female	30	25
Male	90	75
Total	120	100

Source: Field survey, August and September 2018

It is generally recognised that female headed households face a lot of social and economic problems. The proportion of such households is highest in rural area. 32.14% of households in rural area and 18.75% of households in urban area are female headed. This is close to the figures seen at the state level as per Census 2011 data (23%) the highest in the country.

3.1.2. Family Size and Age Composition

The size of the family shows the availability of workforce in the family that influences the earning capacity and related economic aspects of the family. It also determines

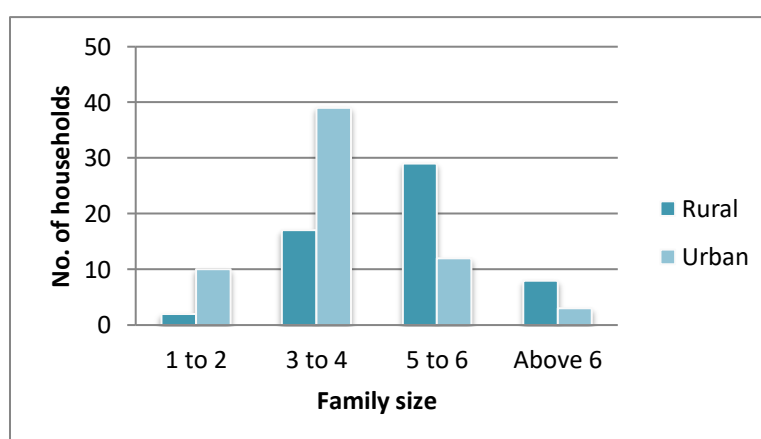
the work burden of family members. The family size of the selected households in the study area is given in the Table 3.2. About 46.67% of the total households have family size between 3 to 4 and 34% belong to the range 5-6. Only 3.34% have a family size greater than 6 members. There are marginally higher females (53.16%) as compared to males (46.84%). Among the total households, 44.16% are joint families and 55.83% are nuclear families. The Figure 3.1 reflects that the small families are more in urban area due to the practice of small family norm, awareness and realisation of the importance of family planning, health consciousness of the children, economical status of family and, break down of joint families. From the graph, it is clear that the households with size between 1 to 4 is higher in urban region, and those above 5 is higher in rural region.

Table 3.2: Household Distribution by Size of the Household

Family Size	Number of Households	Percentage
1-2	12	10
3-4	56	46.67
5-6	41	34.1
Above 6	11	9.16
Total	120	100

Source: Field survey, August and September 2018

**Figure 3.1: Region wise Distribution of Household by Household Size
(in absolute number)**



Source: Field survey, August and September 2018

3.1.2. Characteristics of House

The type of structure of houses in which respondents reside is an important variable of the socio economic well being of the families. There are basically three types of structures of house. The NSSO 2016 defines Katcha house as one where the walls and/or roof of which are

made of material like bamboos, unburnt bricks, mud, reeds, grass, thatch, loosely packed stones, etc. A house which has walls made of burnt bricks, stones (packed with cement or lime), timber, cement concrete, ekra etc and roof made of tiles, asbestos cement sheet, Galvanised Corrugated Iron (GCI) sheets, Reinforced Brick Concrete (RBC), Reinforced Cement Concrete (RCC) and timber etc is treated as Pucca house. A semi-pucca house is one that has fixed walls made up of pucca material but roof made up of the material other than those used for pucca house. The distribution of households by type of structure is presented in Table 3.3 and Figure 3.2.

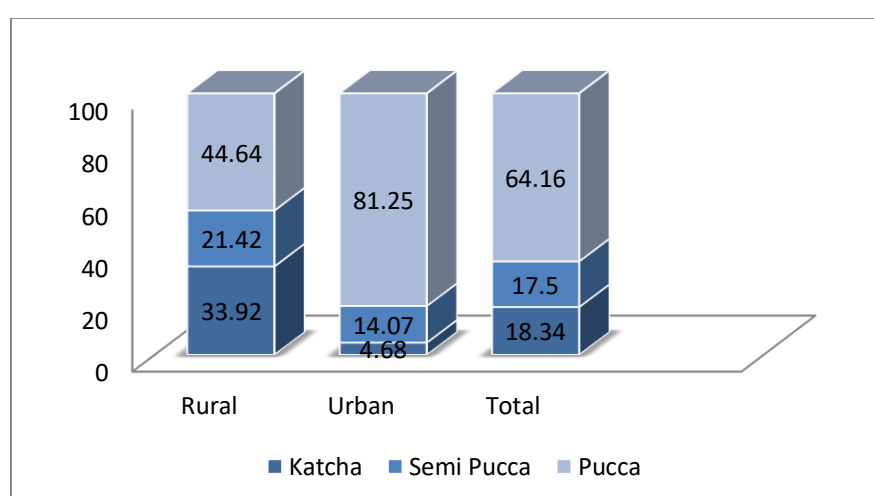
Table 3.3: Distribution of Households by Type of Structure (in absolute number)

Type of Structure	Rural	Urban	Total
Katcha	19	3	22
Semi pucca	12	9	21
Pucca	25	52	77
Total	56	64	120

Source: Field survey, August and September 2018

In all about 33.92% of households in rural areas and 4.68% in urban areas are living in Katcha houses. More than half of the families in urban area are living in pucca house, whereas in rural area it is only 44.64%. The use of semi-pucca houses is also higher in rural region than urban area.

Figure 3.2: Distribution of Households by Type of Structure (in percentage)



Source: Field survey, August and September 2018

The Table 3.4 provides data on the distribution of households with respect to the ownership of house. From the table, it is clear that proportion of respondents who own house is higher in rural region (85.71%) as compared to urban region (73.43%). In urban area, 26.57% are residing at rented house. Of total households, 33.34% are living in houses which they have self constructed/bought, 26.67% have inherited house and 19.17% have Government provided house. The percentage of households with Government provided houses is higher in rural region. However, those with self constructed/ bought and inherited is higher in urban region.

Table 3.4: Distribution of Households by Ownership of House (in absolute number)

Region	Owned				Rented
	Self Constructed/Bought	Inherited	Govt. Provided	Total	
Rural	19	14	15	48	8
Urban	21	18	8	47	17
Total	40	32	23	95	25

Source: Field survey, August and September 2018

3.1.3. Economic Status

The quality of life is measured directly with the help of the family income. The Table 3.5 reveals the monthly income of the households. The study shows that almost a quarter (24.16%) of households reported an income between Rs.20,000 and 30,000 per month. In urban area it was slightly higher (28.12%). The figure for below Rs.10,000 class is marginally lower than Rs.20,000 to Rs.30,000 figure. However in rural area, 33.92% have income below Rs.10,000 and 26.78% falls in the income class between Rs.10,000 and Rs.20,000. Of all 7.5% of total households received an income above Rs.50,000. In contrast to 10.93% of households in urban region receiving income of Rs.50,000 and above, it is only 3.57% in rural area. The data reveals that economically poor, middle class and rich households are covered in the survey which makes the results representative.

Table 3.5: Monthly Family Income of Households

Level of Monthly Income (in Rs.)	Rural		Urban		Total	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Below 10,000	19	33.92	8	12.5	27	22.5
10,000-20,000	15	26.78	9	14.06	24	20
20,000-30,000	11	19.64	18	28.12	29	24.16
30,000-40,000	5	8.92	14	21.87	19	15.84

40,000-50,000	4	7.14	8	12.5	12	10
50,000 and above	2	3.57	7	10.93	9	7.5
Total	56	100	64	100	120	100

Source: Field survey, August and September 2018

A glance at the monthly expenditure and its utilisation pattern of the respondent households would enable us to comprehend the economic standard of individuals. It can be seen from Table 3.6 that the monthly expenditure of a majority (32.5%) of respondents' family was found to be between the expenditure slab of Rs.20,000 to Rs.30,000 per month, followed by 25% of the respondents having family monthly expenditure between Rs.30,000 and Rs.40,000, followed by 18.34% of the respondents having family monthly expenditure between Rs.10,000 and Rs.20,000 and a small segment of respondents 6.67% and 5.83% are having family monthly expenditure of Rs.50,000 and above, and less than Rs.10,000 respectively. It is noteworthy that in rural area, none of them reported family expenditure of Rs.50,000 and above. Moreover about 78% of respondents said that they are not able to meet their family expenses with the current family income.

Table 3.6: Monthly Expenditure of the Households

Monthly Expenditure (in Rs.)	Rural		Urban		Total	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Below 10,000	5	8.92	2	3.12	7	5.83
10,000- 20,000	12	21.42	10	15.62	22	18.34
20,000- 30,000	23	41.07	16	25	39	32.5
30,000- 40,000	13	23.21	17	26.56	30	25
40,000- 50,000	3	5.35	11	17.18	14	11.67
50,000 and above	0	0	8	12.5	8	6.67
Total	56	100	64	100	120	100

Source: Field survey, August and September 2018

The field survey reveals that majority of the respondents' family income is spent for food. 44% of the respondents spend a larger share for education purposes. Comparatively less amount is spent for clothing and entertainment activities. 66% spend a huge portion for repayment of borrowings. 78% of households spend a large share of their income for meeting medical expenses. Thus they can save little.

Table 3.7 gives data relating to the monthly savings of total family members. The data shows that majority (30.25%) have monthly savings between Rs.1000 and Rs.3000. Only 5% have monthly savings of Rs.7000 and above. Unfortunately, 24.17% of households reported

no savings. The percentage of no savings class in rural households is as high as 37.5% while it is lower at 12.5% in urban households. So the proportion of savers is more in urban area as compared to rural area. The data on economic status reveals that the selected rural area is economically backward than the urban region.

Table 3.7: Monthly Savings of the Households

Monthly Savings (in Rs.)	Rural		Urban		Total	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Below 1000	14	25	14	21.87	28	23.34
1000- 3000	12	21.42	18	28.12	30	25
3000-5000	7	12.5	10	15.62	17	14.17
5000-7000	2	3.57	8	12.5	10	8.34
7000 and above	0	0	6	9.37	6	5
No savings	21	37.5	8	12.5	29	24.17
Total	56	100	64	100	120	100

Source: Field survey, August and September 2018

From the survey, it is found that majority of the household (55.84%) had a semi formal saving scheme (Kudumbasree). 88.34% of household had bank or post office saving account. But very few persons (50.8%) had a bank or post office savings. A meagre 15% of sample households have savings in Life Insurance Corporation. Savings in the form of chitty funds and co-operative banks are 21.67% and 31.67% respectively.

Most of the respondent households (81.67%) are debtors. Only 55.84% depend on formal sources of borrowing such as banks, co operatives and self help groups. 12.5% of the sample households depend on neighbours or relatives, and 15.84% on money lenders for meeting their needs. The families had to depend on money lenders , friends, neighbours and relatives for meeting emergency needs . The main reason for few respondents still depending on informal borrowing even after becoming bank account holders or members of self help groups is that they would not get sufficient money from these formal financial institutions for meeting their needs. However, they said that after becoming members of self help groups, their dependency on money lenders has come down drastically.

3.1.4. Living Conditions

As far as living condition of respondent households are concerned, land holding, ownership of house, area of land, type of housing, electrification of house, availability of sanitary latrine and safe drinking water etc. are taken into consideration. The Table 3.8

present the relevant results of the survey. The study reveals that the living conditions of majority of respondents is satisfactory.

Table 3.8: Living Condition of the Respondents

Facilities	Rural		Urban		Total	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Own land	49	87.5	58	90.62	107	89.16
Own house	49	87.5	53	82.81	102	85
Electricity	56	100	64	100	120	100
Toilet	31	55.35	59	92.18	90	75
Fan	56	100	64	100	120	100
Radio	28	50	39	60.9	67	55.84
T.V	52	92.85	59	92.18	111	92.5
Computer/Laptop	9	16.07	42	65.62	51	42.5
Other electronic devices	41	73.21	59	92.18	100	83.34
Mobile phone	56	100	64	100	120	100
Well/Tap	38	67.85	59	92.18	97	80.84
Vehicle	32	57.14	48	75	80	66.67

Source: Field survey, August and September 2018

For the facilities like own land, own house, electricity, fan, TV and mobile phone, there is almost no urban-rural difference. 85% of all households have own house in the current or in their native place. Interestingly, every household is electrified and 100% of the households have at least one mobile phone and fan. Unfortunately, only 75% are provided with an attached toilet in house. Nearly half of the rural households are using public toilet. While only 9% of the rural households have computer or laptop, the figure is significantly higher in urban area. Other electronic devices like fridge or mixie or grinder etc are possessed by 83.34%. A larger proportion of families have television. The availability and accessibility of clean drinking water is very important as it is the basic necessity. 80.84% of respondents have own tap in their home and 19.16% use public tap for daily needs.

3.2. Socio economic Profile of the Respondents

3.2.1. Age Composition

The age composition of the respondents is given in Table 3.9. About 21.45% of all belongs to age group of 35-45. In rural area also the majority (21.76%) belongs to the age group 35-45. In urban area, the proportion of respondents in the age group 45-55 years

(22.89%) is marginally higher than those in the age group 35-45 years (21.08%). Percentage of respondents aged 65 years and above is 8.80% in rural and 4.21% in urban areas. Out of total females, majority belongs to the age group 35-45 years (21.98%), whereas majority of male respondents belong to the age group 25-35 years (22.61). It is also clear that out of total primary respondents, 53.2% are females and 46.8% are males.

Table 3.9: Age Composition of the Respondents

Age Group	Rural				Urban			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
15-25	13	14.29	18	17.64	10	12.98	9	10.11
25-35	17	18.68	22	21.56	17	22.07	20	22.47
35-45	22	24.17	20	19.60	16	20.77	19	21.35
45-55	17	18.68	16	15.68	19	24.67	19	21.35
55-65	17	18.68	14	13.72	12	15.58	18	20.22
65 and above	5	5.50	12	11.76	3	3.89	4	4.49
Total	91	100	102	100	77	100	89	100

Source: Field survey, August and September 2018

3.2.2. Religion and Caste status

There are three prominent religious groups in the area namely, Hindus, Christians and Muslims. The distribution of respondents by religion and place of residence are presented in Table 3.10. The table shows that surveyed respondents in rural area are predominantly Christians constituting about 69.43% of total respondents whereas Hindus constitute 3.62%. In urban area, 63.86% are Hindus and 21.68% are Christians. The Muslims constitute 26.95% in rural area and 14.46% in urban area.

Table 3.10: Religious Status of the Respondents

Religion	Rural				Urban			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Hindu	3	3.29	4	3.93	49	63.63	57	64.05
Christian	63	69.24	71	69.60	17	22.07	19	21.35
Muslim	25	27.47	27	26.47	11	14.30	13	14.60
Total	91	100	102	100	77	100	89	100

Source: Field survey, August and September 2018

Other Backward Caste (OBC) accounted for the major community (58.77%) while taking both regions. They are the largest caste community in the rural area. General category constitutes only 4.67% in rural area and 28.41% as a whole. The Scheduled Tribe (ST) category was of 2.07% in rural and 6.62% in urban area. The share of Scheduled Caste (SC) category respondents comes about 7.78% and 9.63% in rural and urban areas respectively. The distribution of respondents by caste and place of residence are presented in Table 3.11.

Table 3.11: Caste Status of the Respondents

Caste	Rural				Urban			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
General	4	4.39	5	4.90	43	55.84	50	56.17
OBC	78	85.72	87	85.29	22	28.57	24	26.97
SC	6	6.59	9	8.82	7	9.09	9	10.12
ST	3	3.30	1	0.98	5	6.49	6	6.74
Total	91	100	102	100	77	100	89	100

Source: Field survey, August and September 2018

3.2.3. Marital Status

Marriage is generally considered as an important event in an individual's life. An attempt has been made to know the marital status of the respondents. Table 3.12 presents the distribution of the sampled persons according to their marital status. The proportion of currently married persons is marginally higher in urban area (60.24%) than rural (59.58%). The incidence of abandonment especially females is high in rural area. The proportion of single status is almost similar in both study areas. 10.84% of the females are separated from their spouse as a whole. It can be seen from the table that the incidence of divorce is high in urban area (9.63%), and that of desertion is higher in rural area (9.84%). Even then, it appears that stability of marriage relations is present in the study areas. From the conversation with respondents it is understood that the incidence of domestic violence from spouses is almost absent in urban area, and has substantially reduced in the rural region. Earlier in the rural study area, it was said that the domestic violence from spouse was frequent.

Table 3.12: Marital Status of the Respondents

Marital Status	Rural				Urban			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Single	13	14.28	16	15.68	14	18.18	12	13.48
Currently married	55	60.45	60	58.82	47	61.03	53	59.55
Divorced/ Seperated	9	9.89	8	7.84	7	9.09	9	10.12
Widowed	6	6.59	7	6.86	6	7.79	10	11.23
Deserted	8	8.79	11	10.78	3	3.89	5	5.61
Total	91	100	102	100	77	100	89	100

Source: Field survey, August and September 2018

3.2.4. Educational Background

Education is one of the most pertinent factors that affect human behaviour and occupational status. Educational status of an individual thus facilitates rational thinking and helps in economic well being of self and other members of the households. It is generally said that if a girl is educated, then the whole family is educated. The literacy level of the respondents is depicted in Table 3.13. Interestingly, there is no significant gender disparity with in each region. But region wise disparity is evident. It is observed from the table that 86.81% of rural persons and 95.78% of urban area are literate, which is quite close to the state average. Among them, majority (34.17%) have graduate education. However, this large figure is due to the proportion of graduates in urban area which is 31.32%, whereas it is 8.8% in rural area. The proportion of those who pursued higher secondary education is also high, the percentage being 12.43% for rural area and 16.26% for urban area. It is noteworthy that illiterates is substantially higher in rural area (13.47%) compared to urban area (4.2%). About 2.59% and 1.03% are found to have qualification of post graduation and above, and professional degree respectively in rural area. Those figures are 10.84% and 7.22% respectively in urban area. The table depicts regional disparity in the level of education attained. None of the female in rural area has reported attainment of professional degree.

Table 3.13: Level of Education of the Respondents

Level of Education	Rural				Urban			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Literate but below primary	10	10.98	9	8.82	4	5.19	3	3.37
Primary	9	9.89	13	12.74	3	3.89	2	2.24
Upper Primary	18	19.78	14	13.72	6	7.79	7	7.86
High School	17	18.68	19	18.62	12	15.58	13	14.60
Higher Secondary	14	15.38	20	19.60	10	12.98	17	19.10
Graduation	7	7.69	10	9.80	23	29.87	29	32.58
Post Graduation and above	2	2.19	3	2.94	9	11.68	9	10.11
Professional degree	2	2.19	0	0	7	9.09	5	5.61
Illiterate	12	13.18	14	13.72	3	3.89	4	4.49
Total	91	100	102	100	77	100	89	100

Source: Field survey, August and September 2018

3.2.5. Occupational Status

Occupation status of the respondent influences the family income and its sources, the social and economic conditions of the family, standard of living of family members. Thus the employment status is a basic indicator of economic well being of an individual. All individuals are put in one of the four categories, namely student, employed, retired and unemployed. Unlike NSSO definition, the study includes homemakers under the purview of labour force. The Table 3.14 presents the relevant information. It shows that about 55.71% are employed, 10.30% are student, 8.63% are retired, 7.79% are unemployed and 32.98% are fully engaged in household tasks. High percentage of employed is observed in rural area (60.10%) compared to urban (50.60%). Even though 90.80% are literate, only 64.34% are employed or retired in total. Thus an increase in employment percentages with education level is not observed in both study areas, particularly among females. It is observed that even though the highly educated females are more in urban area, the number of those engaged in household tasks and unemployed is higher among urban females as compared to rural. It is evident that gender disparity is present within the region. Out of total employed in rural, 61.21% constitute males. Similarly, in urban area, 60.71% constitute males. None of the male respondents are fully engaged in household tasks.

Table 3.14: Occupational Status of the Respondents

Occupational Status	Rural				Urban			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Student	9	9.89	13	12.74	7	9.09	8	8.98
Employed	71	78.02	45	44.12	51	66.23	33	37.07
Retired	2	2.19	4	3.92	13	16.89	12	13.48
Unemployed	9	9.89	7	6.86	6	7.79	6	6.74
Fully engaged in household tasks	0	0	33	32.35	0	0	30	33.70
Total	91	100	102	100	77	100	89	100

Source: Field survey, August and September 2018

Among all employed, 80% are engaged in service sector. 13% and 7% are engaged in primary and secondary sector respectively. In rural area, 18.1% are engaged in agriculture and allied activities, the percentage being 80.96% for males and 19.04% for females. For females, the agricultural activities mainly include those works done as part of Kudumbasree program. All men categorised under primary sector in rural area are engaged in fishing as main occupation. 9.48% are engaged in secondary activities like food processing. A significant share (72.42%) is engaged in tertiary activities, primarily in fish marketing, coolie and paid domestic works. Similar trend can be witnessed in urban area where majority (90.47%) are engaged in service sector. However, a large proportion is engaged in organised sector like government and private sectors. Some are engaged in business activities. 5.95% and 3.58% are engaged in primary and secondary sector respectively. No males in urban area have reported engaged in secondary sector activities.

The Table 3.15 presents the nature of employment of respondents. 33% of the employed persons are self employed and are casual labourers respectively in the study area. The figure for casual labour is significantly highest (60.34%) in rural area. So most of them have an employment which is seasonal in nature and face an uncertainty in income. In urban area, it constitutes only 16.67%. The domination of seasonal work among the fisher community of study area reflects uncertainty of income on their part. It is noteworthy that 29.76% of urban employed are engaged in salaried work which is permanent. However, it is merely 4.31% in rural area.

Table 3.15: Nature of Employment of the Respondents

Nature of Employment	Rural				Urban			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Self employed	24	33.80	21	46.67	13	25.49	8	24.24
Regular/ Salaried (Permanent)	3	4.23	2	4.45	11	21.56	14	42.42
Regular/ Salaried (Temporary)	5	7.04	9	20.00	18	35.29	6	18.18
Casual labour	39	54.92	13	28.89	9	17.64	5	15.15
Total	71	100	45	100	51	100	33	100

Source: Field survey, August and September 20180000000

The Table 3.16 gives a picture about the reasons for being unemployed or fully engaged in household work by the respondents. It is evident from the table that men do not counter with family restrictions or indifference towards job. About 66.67% of all men have reported that they were interested to work, but unable to find a job. It is noteworthy that a significant share (35.52%) of females is not interested to work. The main reason cited by them for the indifferent attitude is the burden of household work. The figure is higher in urban area. Family restrictions are a major reason for about 25% of female respondents to be unemployed. One of the respondent said that her in-laws do not like her to work outside. But she refused their opinion, and work as an Assistant Professor in a Government Engineering College. She says “I got this job after studying so hardly for years, and my parents have invested so much of money for my studies. This job is a luck that one in thousands gets. Then how can I resign this job. If any unfortunate event happens in my marital relation, then what would I do if I resign my job now.” She also states that her in-laws wanted her to resign the job to look after her children who are 6 and 8 years old. Her parents are willing to look after the children. But in-laws do not allow her to send children to her parents. Such types of problems exist in several homes. It is also observed that 16.48% are disabled and unable to work as a whole, the percentage being 33.33% for men and 13.15% for women.

Table 3.16: Reason for being Unemployed or Fully Engaged in Household Tasks by the Respondents

Reason	Rural				Urban			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Interested to work, but unable to find a job	6	66.67	9	22.5	4	66.67	11	30.55
Family restrictions	0	0	11	27.5	0	0	8	22.22
Disabled and unable to work	3	33.33	6	15	2	33.33	4	11.11
Not interested to work	0	0	14	35	0	0	13	36.12
Total	9	100	40	100	6	100	36	100

Source: Field survey, August and September 2018

3.2.6. Level of Income

The quality of life is measured directly with the help of the level of income. The Table 3.17 reveals the monthly income of the respondents. The study shows that majority (28.03%) of respondents reported an income between Rs.5000 to Rs.10,000 per month. In rural area also majority (41.73%) fall in the above income slab and 31.22% below Rs.5000. It indicates that even though the rate of employment is higher in rural area, they are engaged in marginal jobs with low income. Their low monthly income reveals the economic deprivation among them which reflects in their living standard. Whereas in urban area, 24.12% fall in the class between Rs.20,000 -Rs.25,000 and 21.42% in the class of Rs. 15,000- Rs.20,000, and only 13.39% fall in the class below Rs.5000. It is noteworthy that none of the samples in rural area reported monthly income above Rs.25,000. So the respondents from selected urban region is economically sound than those in selected rural area. The females in rural area are in miserable state while considering financial level. About 61.12% of females in rural area have income below Rs.5000. None of the females in the region reported income above Rs.20,000, and only two persons have income between Rs.15,000 to Rs. 20,000. However males are in much more financially sound in rural area. In urban area, the female samples are distributed almost equally in all income slabs, and the male samples are concentrated mainly between Rs. 10,000 to Rs. 25,000.

Table 3.17: Monthly Income of the Respondents

Level of Monthly Income (in Rs.)	Rural				Urban			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Below 5000	12	16.43	33	61.12	7	10.93	8	16.67
5000-10,000	39	53.43	14	25.92	5	7.82	9	18.75
10,000-15,000	11	15.07	5	9.25	13	20.32	7	14.58
15,000-20,000	8	10.96	2	3.70	15	23.43	9	18.75
20,000-25,000	3	4.10	0	0	17	26.57	10	20.83
25,000 and above	0	0	0	0	7	10.93	5	10.42
Total	73	100	54	100	64	100	48	100

Source: Field survey, August and September 2018

3.2.7. Participation of Females in Family Decision Making

To have an idea about the status of females in the family, a question was asked to sample females whether they were participating in family decision making in different aspects of everyday living. Participation in decision making was judged by the extent of consultation with women at the time of purchase of day to day items like groceries, vegetables etc., purchase of durable consumer items like fridge, TV, jewellery etc., purchase of properties and construction of house, education and marital matters of children. The Table 3.18 presents a picture about the participation of respondents in family decision making.

Table 3.18: Participation of Female Respondents in Family Decision Making

Subject	Rural		Urban		Total	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Purchase of day to day items	87	85.29	75	84.26	162	84.81
Purchase of durable consumer items	74	72.54	68	76.40	142	74.34
Purchase of properties and construction of house	85	83.34	73	82.02	158	82.72
Education and marital matters of children	80	78.43	70	78.65	150	78.53

Source: Field survey, August and September 2018

From the table, it is clear that a large proportion of females participate in decision making. There is almost no rural-urban difference. About 84.41% and 74.34% of females participate in the decision about purchasing day to day items and durable consumer items respectively. It is reported that their decisions are accepted often with respect to the above mentioned matters. With regard to the matters like purchase of properties or construction of house, and education and marriage of children, their participation in decision making is significantly high, but the acceptance of decisions is generally low (56%). Many respondents have reported that they are involved in decision making to get their share of money in purchasing land or house. It shows that the role of females is restricted to take decisions regarding cooking or household maintenance, which is an evidence of clear discrimination.

3.3. Time Utilisation Pattern of Respondents

The section examines the time utilisation pattern of both females and males in sample households. It also sheds light on the gender disparity in time devoted on various activities. To capture the time use pattern of respondents, a detailed activity classification used in the Report of the Time use survey, 1999 by Central Statistical Organisation is adopted in this study (See Appendix II). All activities carried out by the respondents are classified into following nine categories.

1. Primary production activities
2. Secondary activities
3. Trade, Business and Services
4. Household maintenance, management and shopping for own households
5. Care for children, the sick, elderly and disabled for own households
6. Community services and help to other households
7. Learning
8. Social and cultural activities, mass media etc
9. Personal care and self maintenance

The first three categories pertain to System of National Accounts (SNA) activities which fall within the production boundary. The next three categories are Extended SNA activities which fall under the general production boundary and the last three are Non-SNA activities.

3.3.1. System of National Accounts (SNA) Activities

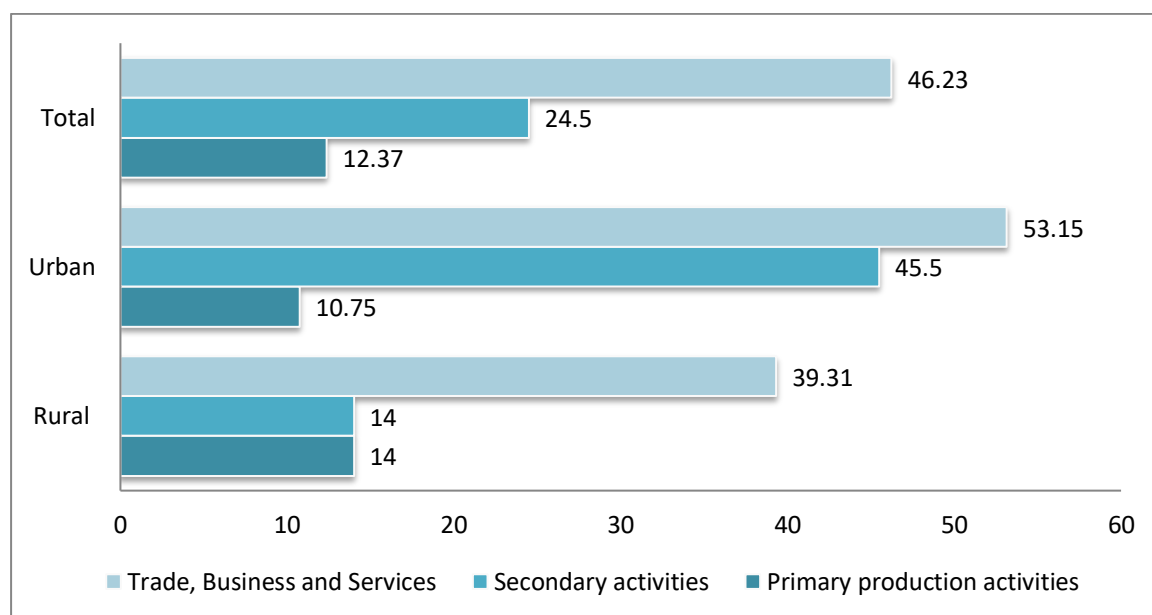
SNA is the internationally agreed standard set of recommendations on how to compile measures of economic activity in accordance with strict accounting conventions based on economic principles (System of National Accounts Report, 2008). The activities associated with primary production, secondary and tertiary sectors are involved in SNA activities. Voluntary work which results in the production of goods and services is included in the arena of SNA. The primary production activities mainly include crop farming, kitchen farming, animal husbandry, fishing, forestry, horticulture, gardening, mining, quarrying, digging, cutting etc. The secondary activities mainly include construction and manufacturing activities. Activities like trade, business and services comprises of the third category under SNA activities.

The Figures 3.3 and 3.4 shows the weekly average time expended by per female and male respondent respectively on paid SNA activities. The figure depicts the clear picture about the average time for various activities for the participants only. Women in rural area are engaged in a slightly larger range of primary production activities than those in urban area. Farming as a part of Kudumbasree work is the agricultural activity done primarily in rural area. Primary activities done exclusively by women in urban area is floriculture and supervision of farm activities in their own fields. The involvement in secondary and, trade, business and service activities is much higher in urban area than in rural area- 45.5 and 53.15 hours/week in the former, 14 and 39.31 hours/ week in the latter. Given its coastal nature, women in rural region are mainly engaged in food processing (dry fish) and selling fish. A significant number is also engaged in marginal jobs such as domestic workers. In urban area, on the contrary women are mostly engaged in regular jobs. Well established self employed women who are running beauty parlour, tailoring shop are present in the urban study area.

The participation of men in primary production activities in rural area is much higher. Prominent primary production activities in rural area which witness a large participation of males both in terms of numbers and hours per week are fishing, given its coastal nature. But in urban area, the participation in primary activities is miniscule, and it is mainly supervising their farm fields. In a tourist spot, 4.39% of rural male respondents are engaged in selling processed mango and peanuts. They spend 98 hours per week in the job. None of the urban male respondents are engaged in secondary activities. As mentioned in 3.2.5, majority of rural males are engaged as coolie workers. Urban males are mainly engaged in regular/

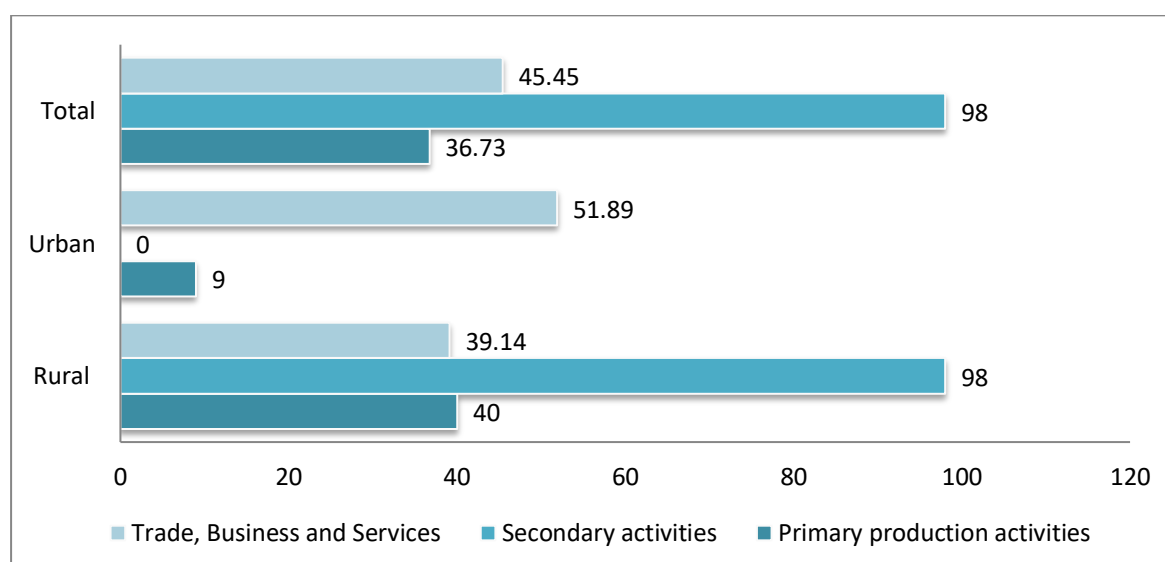
salaried jobs. In both regions some men are running roadside eatery shop. As a whole the male respondents spend 45.45 hours in business and service related activities.

Figure 3.3: Weekly average time spent by per female respondent on paid SNA activities (Participants only) – in hours



Source: Field survey, August and September, 2018

Figure 3.4: Weekly average time spent by per male respondent on paid SNA activities (Participants only) – in hours

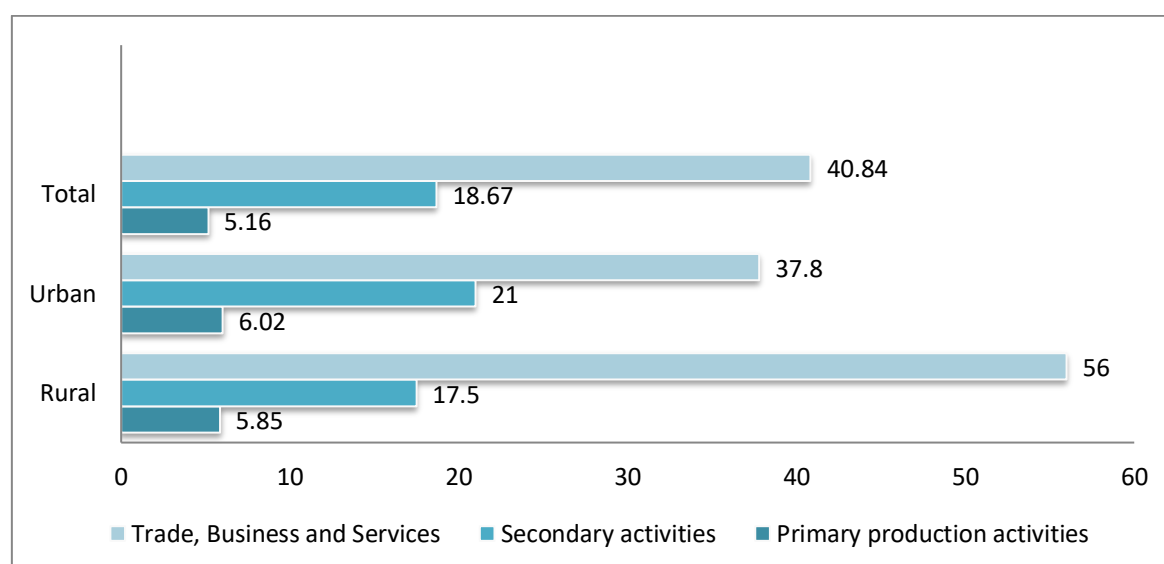


Source: Field survey, August and September, 2018

From the Figures 3.3 and 3.4, gender-based division of labour is witnessed in both regions. Primary activities are done largely by men in rural area, whereas in urban area the figure is almost similar. With regard to secondary activities, men expend more time than women in rural area. There is not much difference in time spend on paid business and service activities.

For an array of activities, no payment is made to the participants. Such activities are performed either by family labour or through exchange labour. So it will be good to study the sex wise details of the unpaid work in the SNA activities.

Figure 3.5: Weekly average time spent by per female respondent on unpaid SNA activities (Participants only) – in hours



Source: Field survey, August and September, 2018

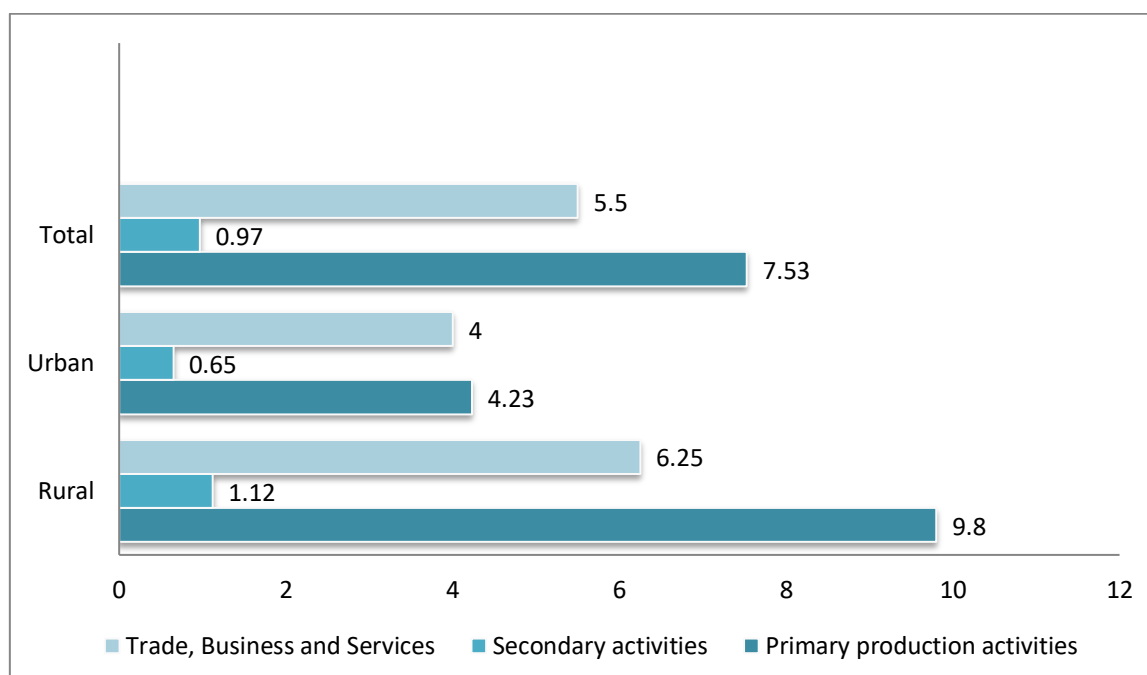
The Figure 3.5 show the weekly average time spent by per female respondent on unpaid SNA activities. It is clear that a similarity in the average time spent per week on unpaid primary production activities exist in both regions – 5.85 hours/week in rural and 6.02 hours/week in urban area. These activities mainly include homestead farming and fetching water for domestic use in both rural and urban areas. Besides that, in rural area, 1.96% of respondents are engaged in helping male members of the family in aquaculture business. In urban area, 1.12% of respondents are engaged in taking care of animals to help spouse in running pet business.

Female respondents did unpaid secondary activities for about 17.5 hours a week and 21 hours per week on an average in rural and urban area respectively. The secondary

activities done by women are cooking for sale like processed mangoes or in road side eatery shops or hotels which is run by their spouse or father.

The unpaid service activities include running the shops owned by their spouse. It is noteworthy that the hours spend on unpaid service activities was for a long time, implying that participant women often spent 7 to 8 hours per day on this activity in a week without any remuneration.

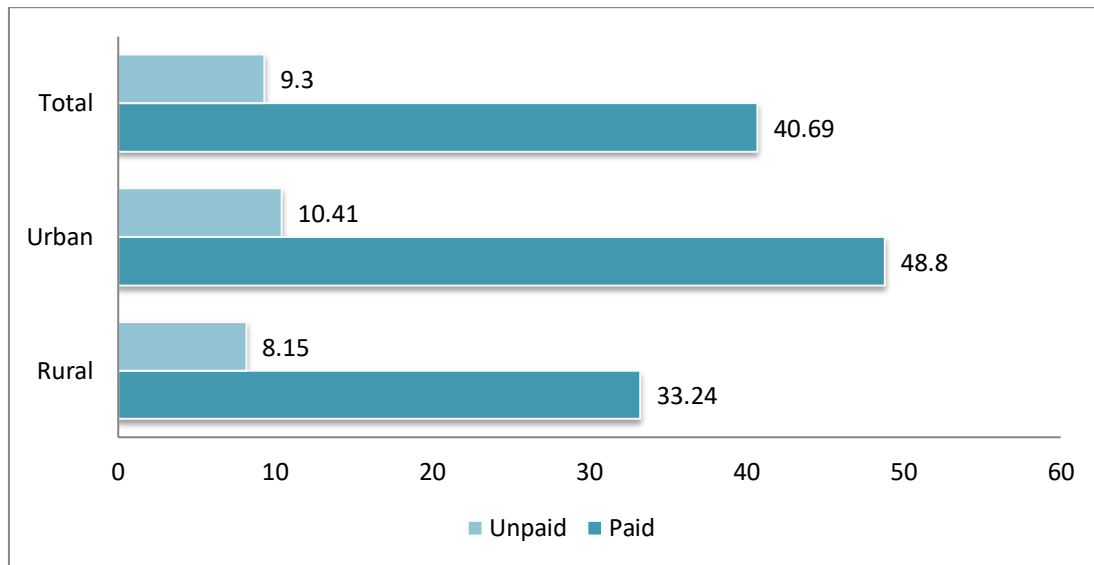
Figure 3.6: Weekly average time spent by per male respondent on unpaid SNA activities (Participants only) – in hours



Source: Field survey, August and September, 2018

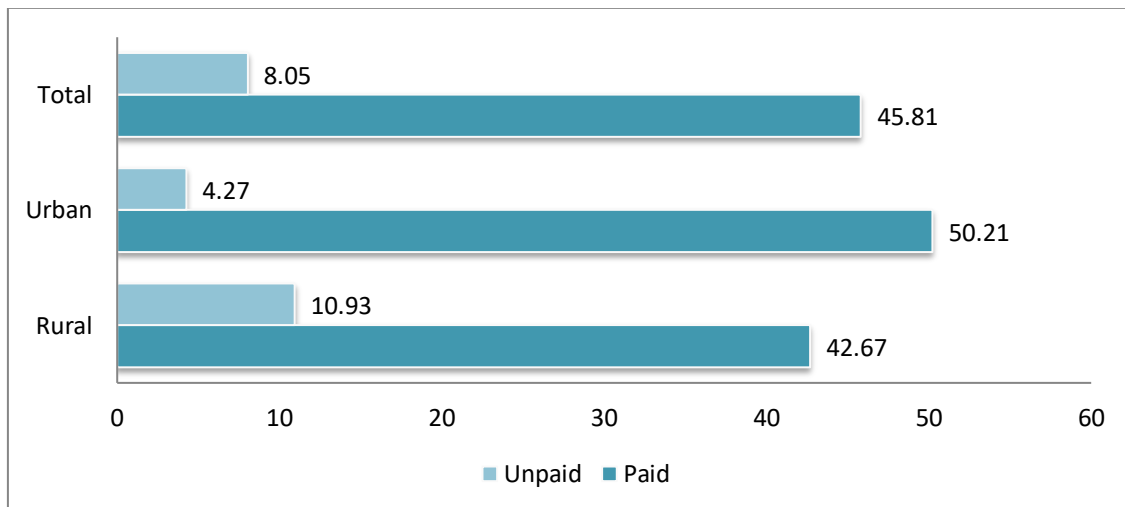
The hour spent on primary activities is slightly higher for men in rural area because the number of male respondents engaged in fetching water is high. Although men in both regions are engaged in a number of activities like construction and repair of animal shed, moulding, welding or assembling machines, the time spent on these activities is diminutive. In rural area, men are also engaged in net weaving for own purposes with respect to secondary activities, and transporting fish to selling spot for helping female members in their household with respect to services. While comparing the Figures 3.5 and 3.6, wide gender disparity is witnessed in time expended in unpaid SNA activities.

Figure 3.7: Weekly average time spent by per female respondent on both paid and unpaid SNA activities (Participants only) – in hours



Source: Field survey, August and September, 2018

Figure 3.8: Weekly average time spent by per male respondent on both paid and unpaid SNA activities (Participants only) – in hours



Source: Field survey, August and September, 2018

The Figures 3.7 and 3.8 presents the weekly average time spent by per female and male respondents on both paid and unpaid SNA activities. The figures give a lucid picture about the gender discrimination in unpaid SNA activities. It can be seen that payment was not made for about 29.16% of time spent by females in SNA activities, and 12.06% of time spent by males in rural area. Eventhough the hours spent for unpaid activities by men in rural area is high (10.93 hours/week), the proportion is comparatively lesser (12.06%) than that done by

females. About 28.53% of total SNA activities done by females and about 4.62% by males in urban area is unremunerated. The predominance of females in unpaid SNA work is visible in both study areas. The proportion of time spent by females in unpaid SNA activities is highest in service sector.

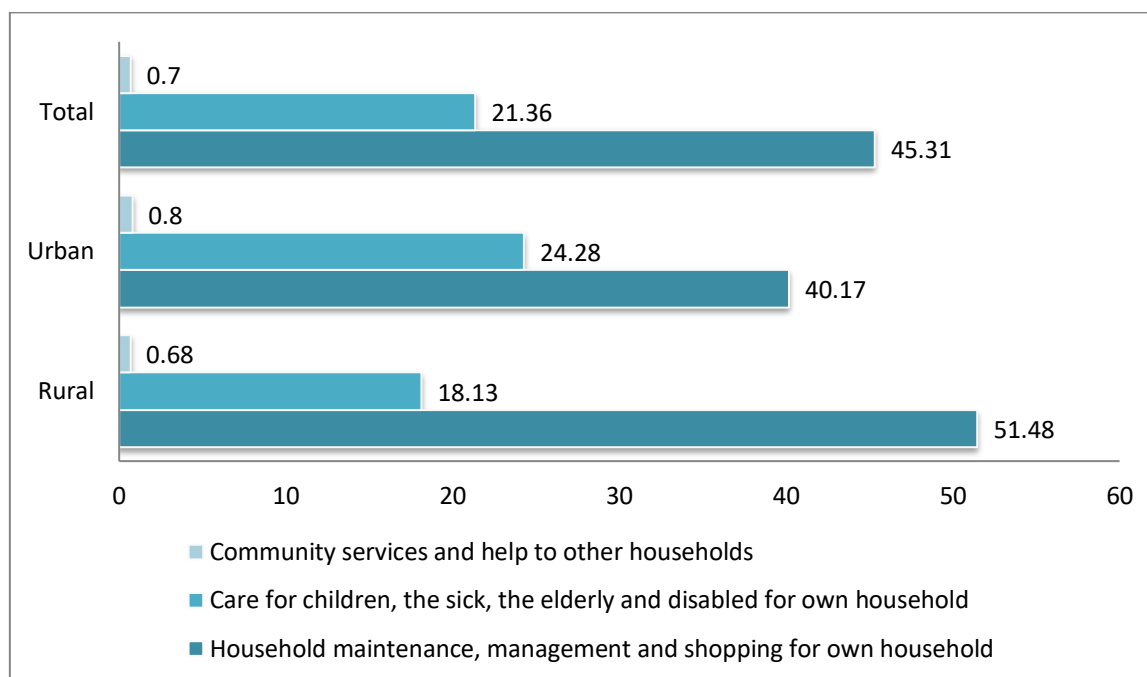
3.3.2. Extended SNA Activities

The Extended System of National Accounts (Extended SNA) activities include activities associated with household maintenance, care for children, sick, disabled and elderly, and community services and help to other households. These non marketed activities are excluded from the production boundary of SNA, but they are recognised as economic and are included in the general production boundary by the United Nations. According to the report of United Nations (1990), if the domestic activities like cooking, cleaning, child care etc. is valued and added to GDP, the national income would become double.

The weekly average time spent by per female and male respondents on Extended SNA activities are presented in the Figures 3.9 and 3.10 respectively. Both rural and urban females, bore the greatest burden of household maintenance, management and shopping for own household. It ranges between 6 to 7 hours/day. The contribution is higher in rural area than that of urban. However, the involvement in activities related to care of children, the sick, elderly and disabled for own household is somewhat different. The time expended by urban women is higher in these activities. The figure is higher in urban area because of larger time devoted on care of children. These figures for male counterparts are substantially lower. It points out the gender discrimination in the unpaid household tasks irrespective of region.

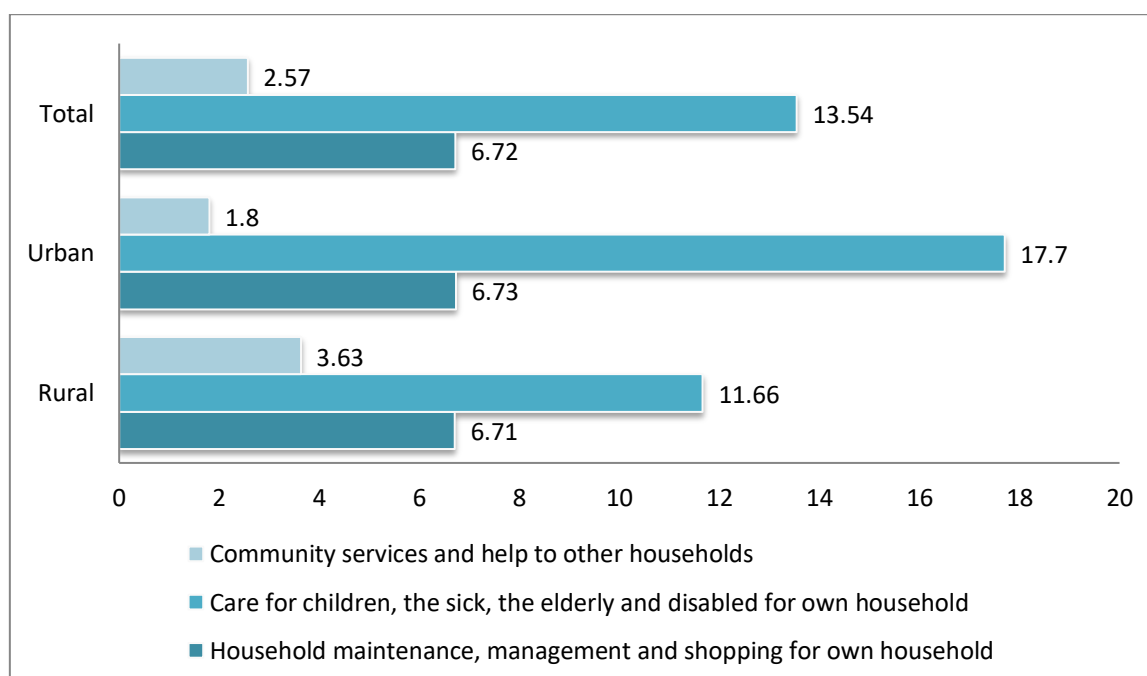
Besides that, both women and men are minimally involved in community services and help to other households. However, men's participation is marginally higher than that of women. The participation in the meetings of Kudumbasree is the major activity related to community services for females in the study areas. The participation in meetings of political organisation, professional and other associations or unions is also reported in both areas by both men and women. Both rural and urban men reported participation in rallies and volunteer work through organisations extended directly or indirectly to individuals and groups.

Figure 3.9: Weekly average time spent by per female respondent on Extended SNA activities (Participants only) – in hours



Source: Field survey, August and September, 2018

Figure 3.10: Weekly average time spent by per male respondent on Extended SNA activities (Participants only) – in hours



Source: Field survey, August and September, 2018

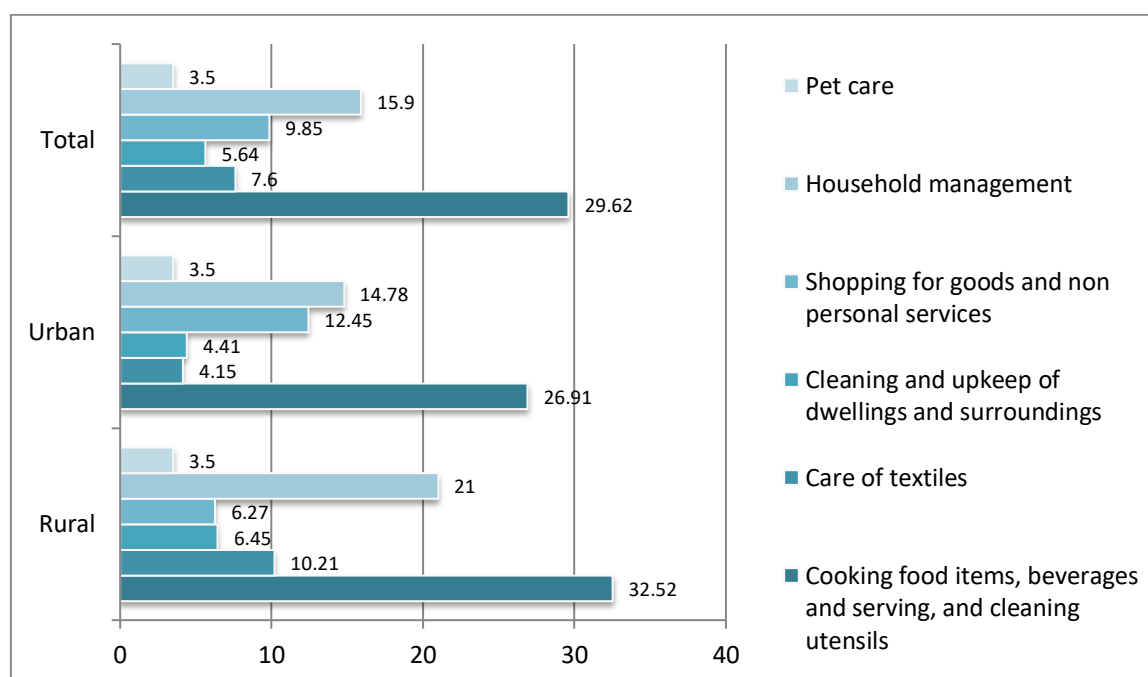
There is a clear gender-based division in the wide spectrum of activities covered under household maintenance, management and shopping for own household with females

dominating in both study areas. Interestingly, both regions recorded either minimal or an almost non-existent contribution of men in these activities.

From the Figure 3.11 and 3.12, it is evident that among various activities associated with household maintenance, management and shopping, the maximum time was spent on cooking food items, beverages, and serving and cleaning utensils by women whereas men spent more time in household management (planning, supervising, paying bills etc.) and shopping for household use. However, 21 hours/week and 14.78 hours/week are spent by rural and urban females in household management i.e., about 2 to 3 hours per day. For females, it mainly involves supervising the domestic workers inside and outside the kitchen. For men, it involves paying bills and other related activities. Since this figure is meagre for men on a weekly basis, two sub activities are clubbed together for preparing graph. Urban women spent about double time on shopping than rural women. Contrary to general beliefs, females spent more time in shopping for household use than males in urban study area. Cleaning and upkeep of dwellings and surroundings is considered solely a female activity. None of the males reported spending time in this activity. Equal time is spent for pet care by females and males in both regions. The time expended by females for activities like care of textiles, cooking food items, beverages, and serving and cleaning utensils is less in urban area than in rural area. It is due to the low household size and use of time saving devices like washing machine, mixer grinder etc in urban region. Rather, 9 households of urban study area and 2 households of rural study area have domestic helpers. For males, common to both regions is repair of personal and household goods (0.5 hours/week) and shopping for consumables (3.5 hours/week).

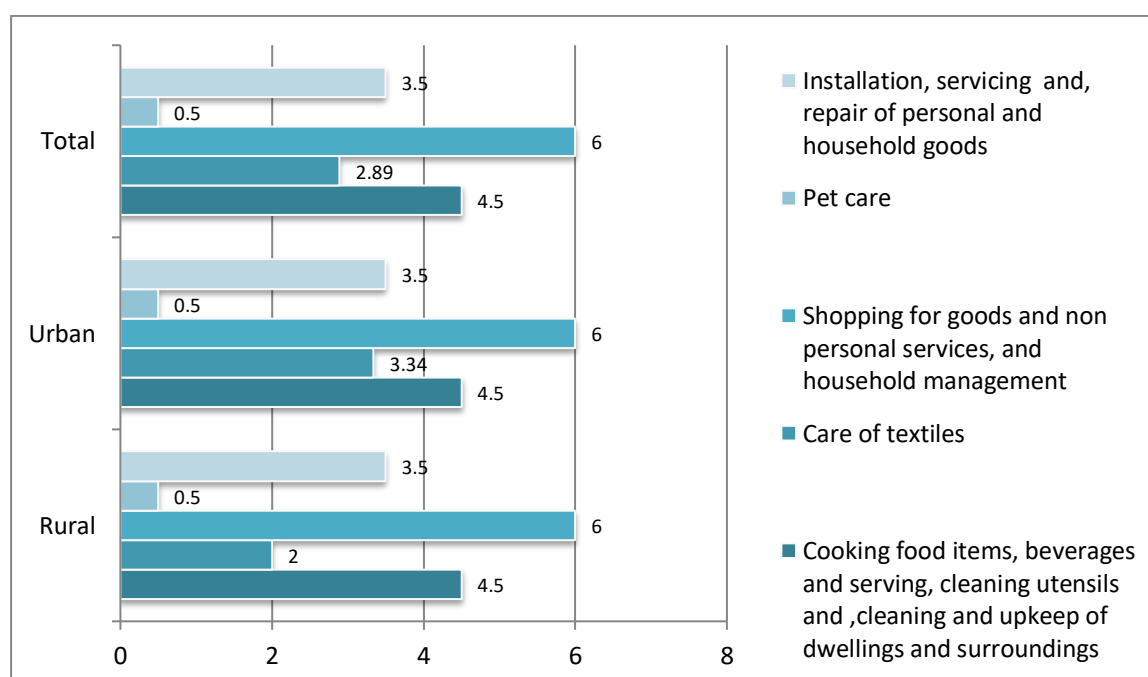
The percentage of participants in each activity presents an interesting case. The care of textiles involves sorting, mending, washing, ironing and ordering clothes. The participation of males in care of textiles is higher in urban area (22.07%) than in rural area (9.89%). In case of cooking food items, beverages, and serving and cleaning utensils, 84.81% of females participate, whereas the percentage is only 11.9% for males.

Figure 3.11: Weekly average time spent by per female respondent on activities related to household maintenance, management and shopping for own household (Participants only) – in hours



Source: Field survey, August and September, 2018

Figure 3.12: Weekly average time spent by per male respondent on activities related to household maintenance, management and shopping for own household (Participants only) – in hours



Source: Field survey, August and September, 2018

Care encompasses a wide gamut of activities from general to medical care of children, the sick, disabled and elderly. As in above extended activity, the involvement of women in providing care is much greater both in number of providers as well as in the spectrum of care-giving activities. Male contribution to care of children, the sick, elderly and disabled for own household is restricted to few activities in both regions.

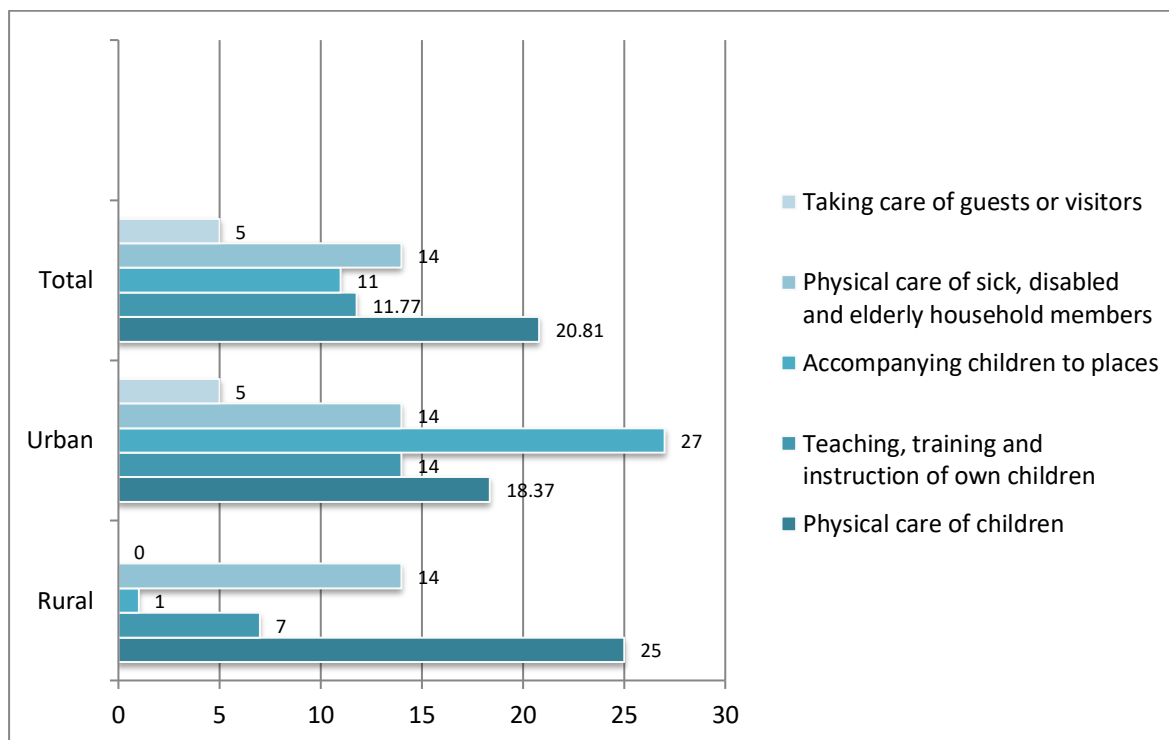
Among the various activities under care, physical care of children dominated with women spending 25 hours/week in rural and 18.37 hours/week in urban area. For men, the distribution varied between 6.02 hours/week in rural and 7.26 hours/week in urban area. Thus all major activities related to physical care of children, sick, elderly and disabled household members are in the exclusive domain of females: washing clothes, dressing, bathing and feeding them. Rural and urban females spent about 7 hours per week separately on washing clothes of children, and dressing and bathing them. Feeding them figure about 21 hours/week in both study areas. In rural and urban area, 10.71% (14.28% in rural and 11.68% in urban) of men reported spending an average of 3.5 hours/week only on dressing or bathing child. In both study areas, no men reported sharing the task of washing children's or adult's clothes.

Rural men are minimally involved in teaching, training and instruction with one's own children. In urban area, men did take some responsibility in teaching children even though for a short duration. This is one of the few categories in which more males are involved possibly because literacy levels among males is higher in urban region. Comparatively lower number of rural women and men in teaching can be directly linked to the fact that they are having low education level as mentioned in 3.2.4.

Physical care of household members across all regions is provided almost entirely by women. Under this category they spent about 14 hour/week in physical care of sick, elderly, disabled and elderly.

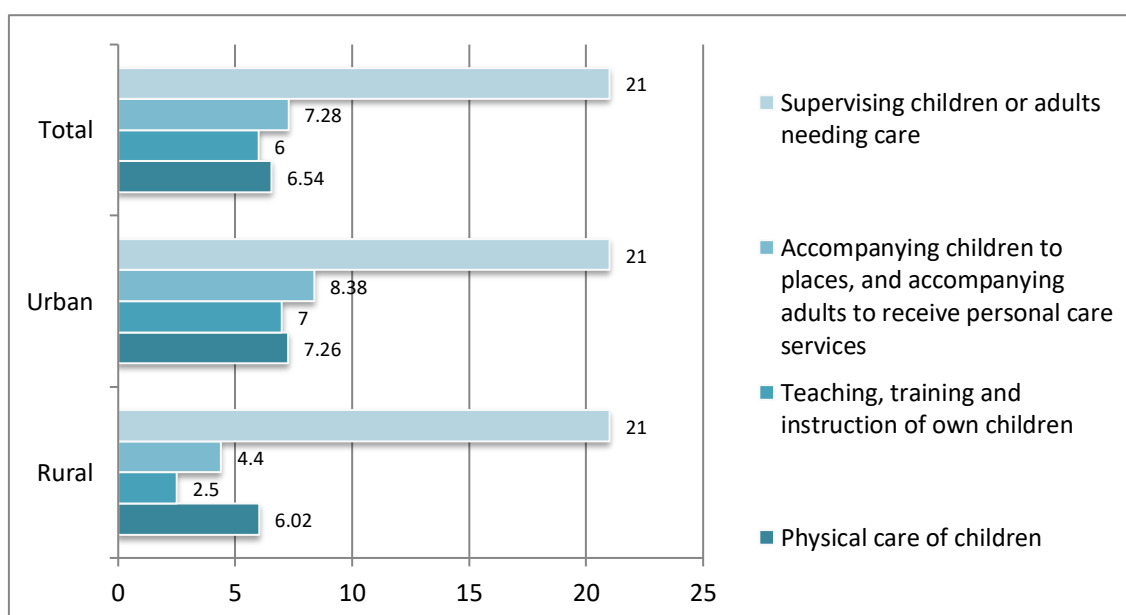
Large number of male respondents is engaged in accompanying their children to places, and adult members of their household to receive personal care. There is complete absence of rural women and men of both regions in activities related to taking care of guests. It does not imply that they hardly have any guests. But they treat their friends or relatives as one among the family members. So there was no need to devote extra time to take care of them. Besides that, 7.69% of men in rural and 16.88% of men in urban area devote 21 hours per week in supervising children needing care. In the study area, it mainly entails looking after babies when wives are involved in household duties. Two of the urban female respondents stated that whatever little was done by their spouse, it was a great relief to their burdensome task.

Figure 3.13: Weekly average time spent by per female respondent on specific activities related to care for children, sick, elderly and disabled for own household (Participants only) – in hours



Source: Field survey, August and September, 2018

Figure 3.14: Weekly average time spent by per male respondent on specific activities related to care for children, the sick, elderly and disabled for own household (Participants only) – in hours



Source: Field survey, August and September, 2018

3.3.3. Non SNA Activities

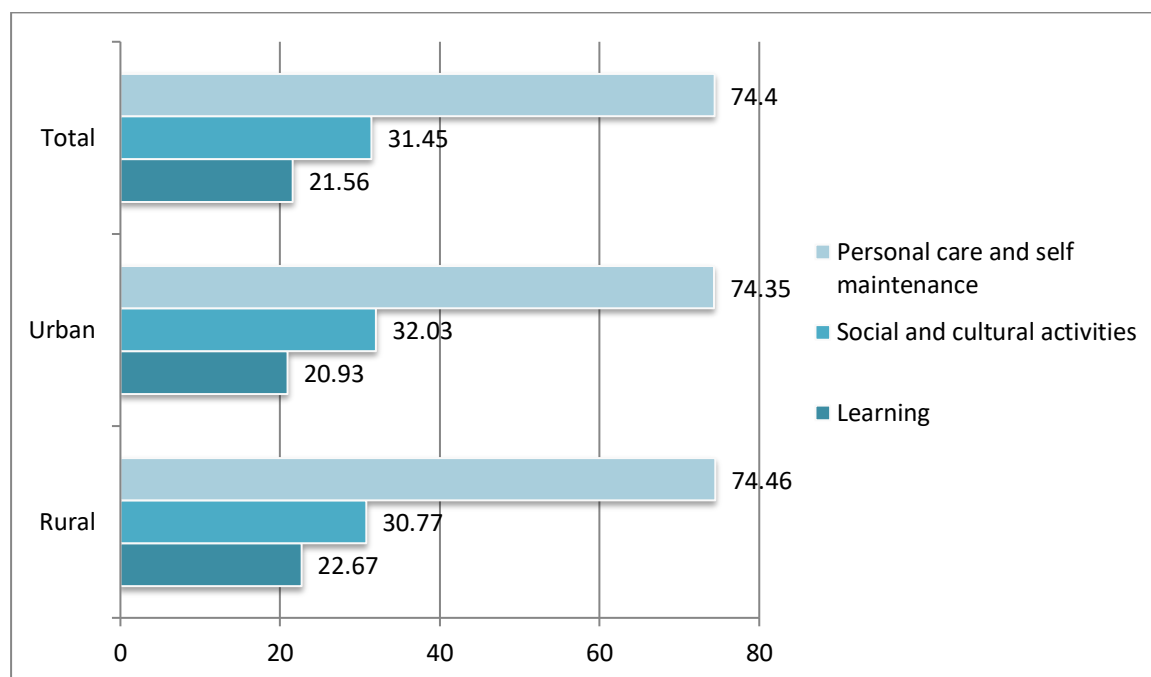
The Non-System of National Account (Non SNA) activities are those activities which are meant for personal maintenance and development. The activities related to learning, social and cultural activities, use of mass media, and personal care and self maintenance are categorised as Non SNA activities. The Figure 3.15 and 3.16 present the weekly average time spent by per person on Non SNA activities. The pattern of time devoted to these activities in rural area is almost identical to that in urban for both women and men respectively.

The fairness witnessed in educating children irrespective of gender is clear from the graph. The time devoted to learning reported a somewhat similar pattern for both genders – ranging between 20 to 23 hours/week. The major contributor to this figure is young respondents attending schools, colleges and tuition classes. In rural area, a large number of young respondents attends Sunday catechism classes. Some adult persons attend the training classes like tailoring, ornament making etc offered by the church situated in their region. In urban area, a few elder women respondents participate in the classes on religious texts, bhajan and thiruvathira organised by their caste organisation every week.

Participation in social and cultural activities or use of mass media etc saw a substantial involvement of men both in terms of numbers and hours. Men spent about double the time spent by women in these activities. While females devoted 31.45 hours/week, males spent 57 hours/week.

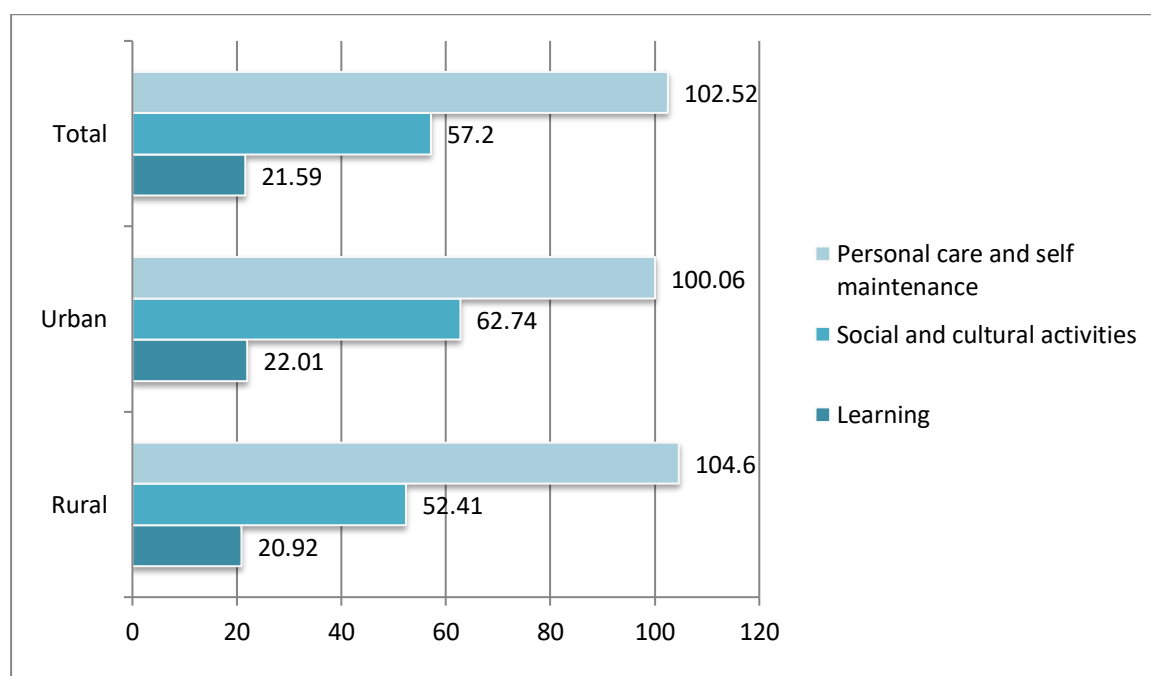
Irrespective of regional differences, women devote significantly less time for personal care averaging 74.4 hours/week whereas men spent 102.52 hours/week. It means that while men get 14.64 hours per day for personal enhancement, women get only 10.62 hours per day. Thus women sacrifices time for their self development and, other household members seems to be free riding on unpaid labour provided by women.

**Figure 3.15: Weekly average time spent by per female respondent on Non SNA activities
(Participants only) – in hours**



Source: Field survey, August and September, 2018

**Figure 3.16: Weekly average time spent by per male respondent on Non SNA activities
(Participants only) – in hours**



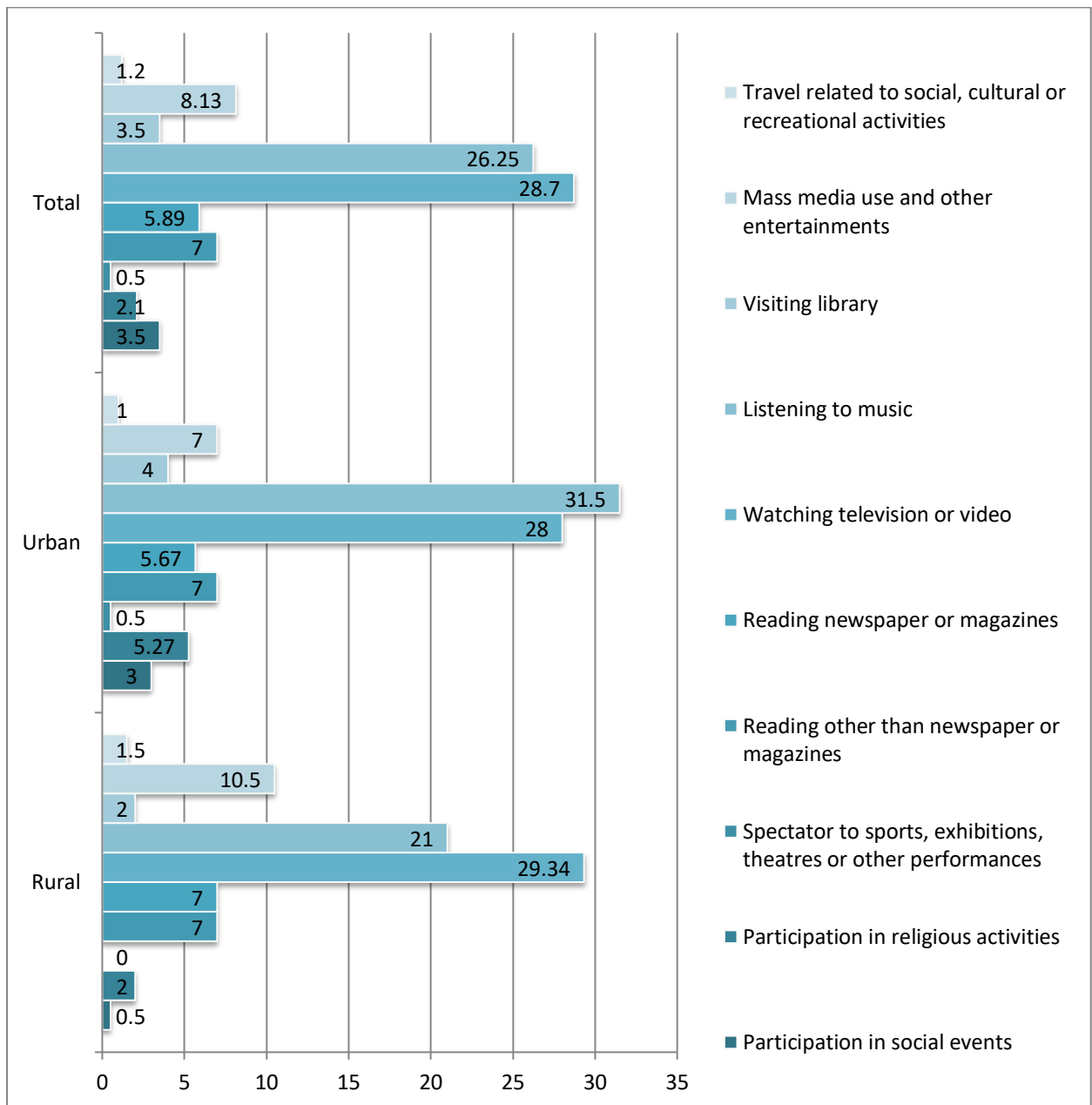
Source: Field survey, August and September, 2018

From the Figure 3.17, it is clear that within social and cultural activities, women are engaged mainly in two activities of watching television and listening to music; the time spent

on each of these activities is 28.7 hours/week and 26.25 hours/ week respectively. It is noteworthy that 89.52% of females reported watching television and only 6.8% to listening music. 53.84% of those who reported listening music said reported that the duration was long because it was played in the shops - which they own or are working (paid or unpaid) from morning to evening. In urban area, 12.35% of females reported the participation in social events particularly marriage functions at least three hours per week. Females engage 8.13 hours/week in using mass media. In all other activities, their participation is marginally low. During survey, 18.84% of females reported that the only entertainment that they have in life is watching television.

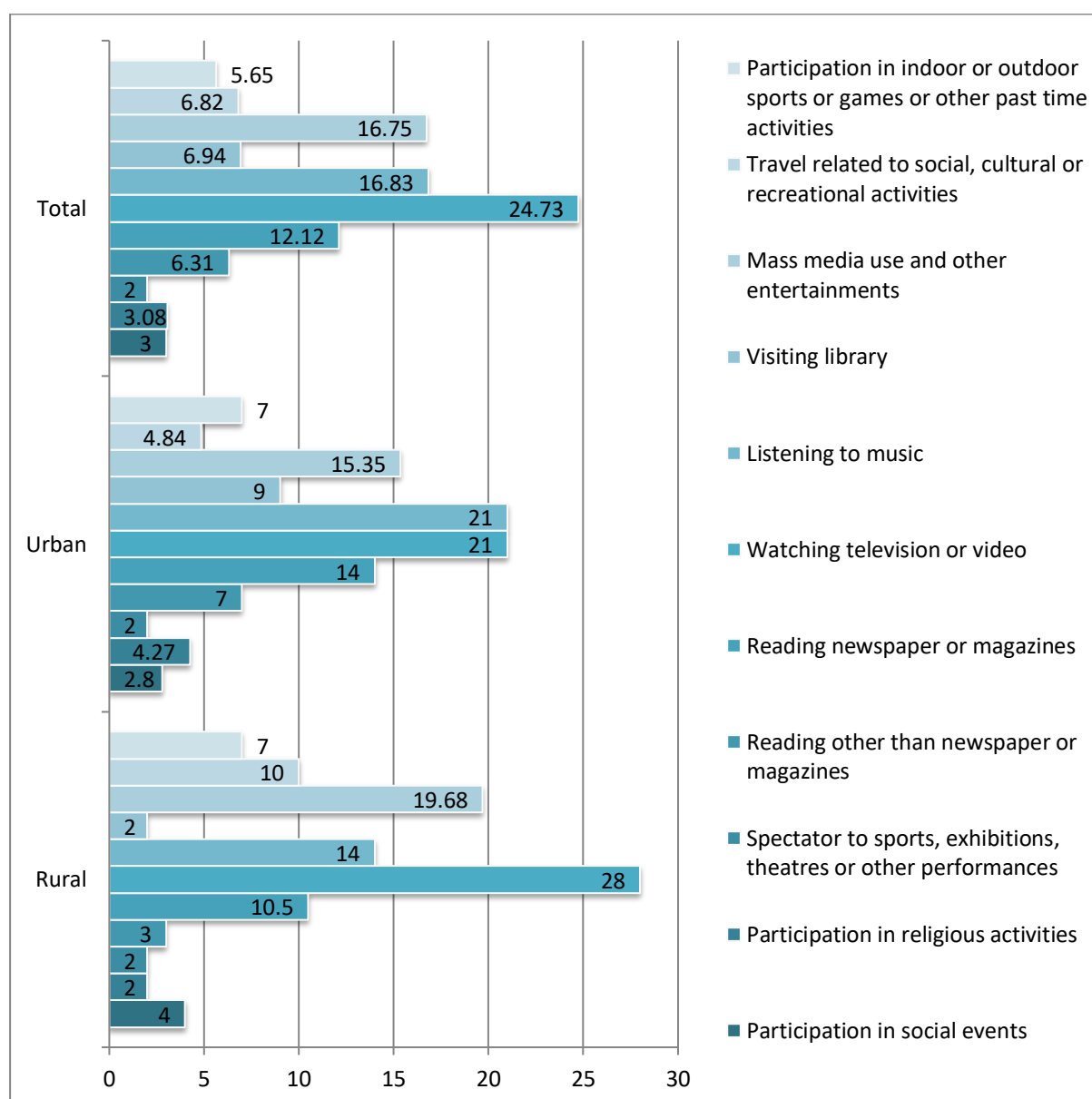
While comparing the Figure 3.17 with the Figure 3.18, in all activities the participation of men is substantially high or almost same. Also, the involvement of rural males is higher than urban males in all activities except participation in religious activities, listening to music, reading and visiting library. Data from the survey also brings out the fact that reading habits are not deep rooted in the study areas, particularly among rural. Although there is any much variation in the hours spent per week in reading, the number of women who spent time for reading newspaper or other materials is minimally low in rural area. In urban area, 60.67% of women reported reading newspaper or magazines at least half an hour per day, whereas only 10.78% reported in rural region. In case of reading other than newspaper or magazines, the figure comes out to 4.9% in rural area and 12.35% in urban area.

Figure 3.17: Weekly average time spent by per female respondent on specific activities related to social and cultural activities, mass media etc (Participants only) – in hours



Source: Field survey, August and September, 2018

Figure 3.18: Weekly average time spent by per male respondent on specific activities related to social and cultural activities, mass media etc (Participants only) – in hours



Source: Field survey, August and September, 2018

Personal care and self maintenance is necessary for healthy life and individual's wellbeing. It is an umbrella activity and spans a wide spectrum: sleeping, eating, drinking, personal hygiene, medical care, individual religious practices, walking or exercise, rest and relaxation etc. From the study, it is found that women get less time for these activities as compared to men. Analyzing this across regions rural women spent the least amount of time on personal care and self maintenance activities. The single most crucial indicator as well as the result of huge burden of paid and unpaid work that a woman bore is lack of sleep. This cut through in both regions. From the graph 3.19, it is clear that women sleep 44.1

hours/week. The study also found that employed (regular) women sleep for the least amount of time, averaging merely 5.5 hours per day, largely because they have to finish household chores before going out to work. The Figure 3.20 depicts that male on average sleep for about 57.38 hours/week in rural and 49.53 hours/week in urban area.

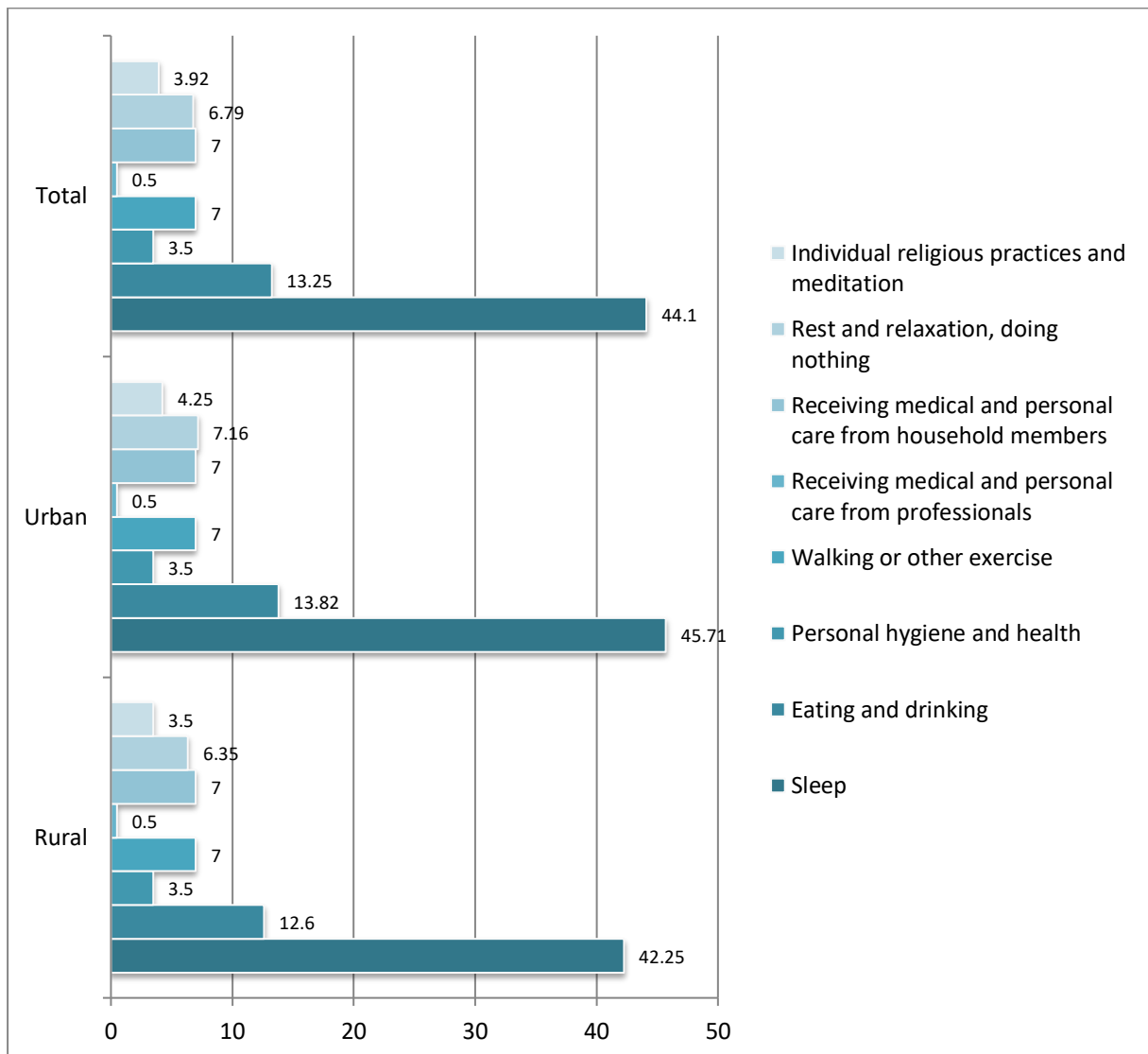
The other major concern under personal care is the amount of rest and relaxation. Women have 6.79 hours/week on an average to rest whereas men have 11.12 hours/week. Sixteen employed women in the study area complained that they do not get time to rest or relax during week days.

The high-low variations based on gender is also discernible in the time taken to eat and drink. At a broad average level women spent about 1 to 3 hours/day for drinking and eating meals and drinking. Some women also reported that they used to have meals within 5-10 minute during week days so that they could finish other household duties; wondering how anyone could manage in such little time. Men reported a high of 25.23 hours/week i.e., 3 to 4 hours per day for having meals. Several women in both the regions explained the issue of too little time spent on meals. One, that they often spent more time serving others than eating. Two, those having children below 6 years of age had to feed children along with themselves. Three, that they had no time to sit down for having meal and combined eating with other activities particularly women who are self employed or those working (unpaid) in spouse's shop. They told that sometimes customers would come while they were having food.

3.5 hours per week is devoted to personal hygiene and health by females. However some women told that they had bath within 5 minutes, implying only the pouring of water without any time to apply soap and washing it off, due to the burden of other domestic tasks.

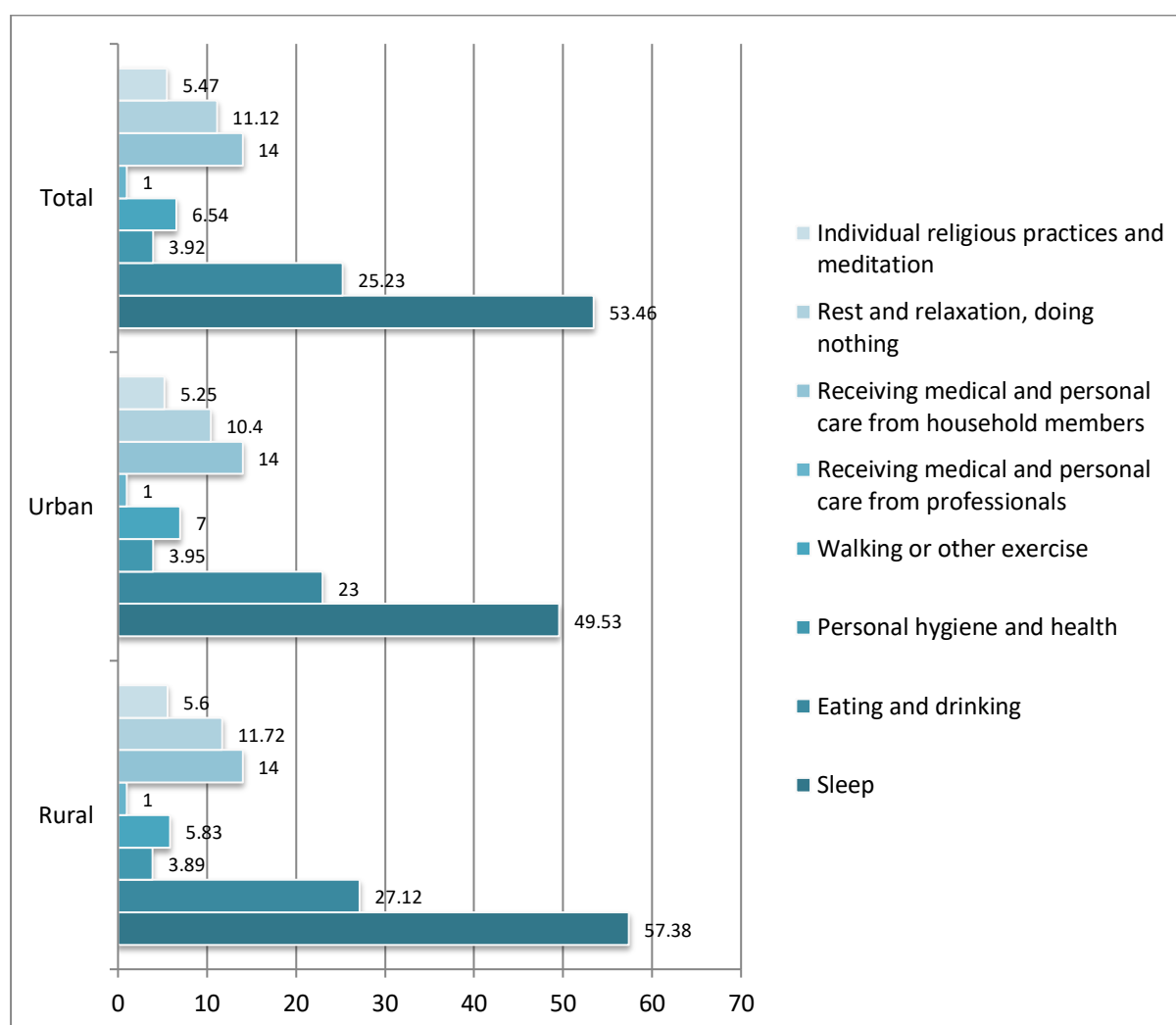
It is observed that participant women spent somewhat similar amounts of time in walking or other exercise, receiving personal and medical care from professionals and individual religious practices and meditation, albeit with some regional variations. The min-max range is also similar for each of these activities. Similarly, there is not much difference in time spent among males in the above mentioned activities.

Figure 3.19: Weekly average time spent by per female respondent on specific activities related to personal care and self maintenance (Participants only) – in hours



Source: Field survey, August and September, 2018

Figure 3.20: Weekly average time spent by per male respondent on specific activities related to personal care and self maintenance (Participants only) – in hours



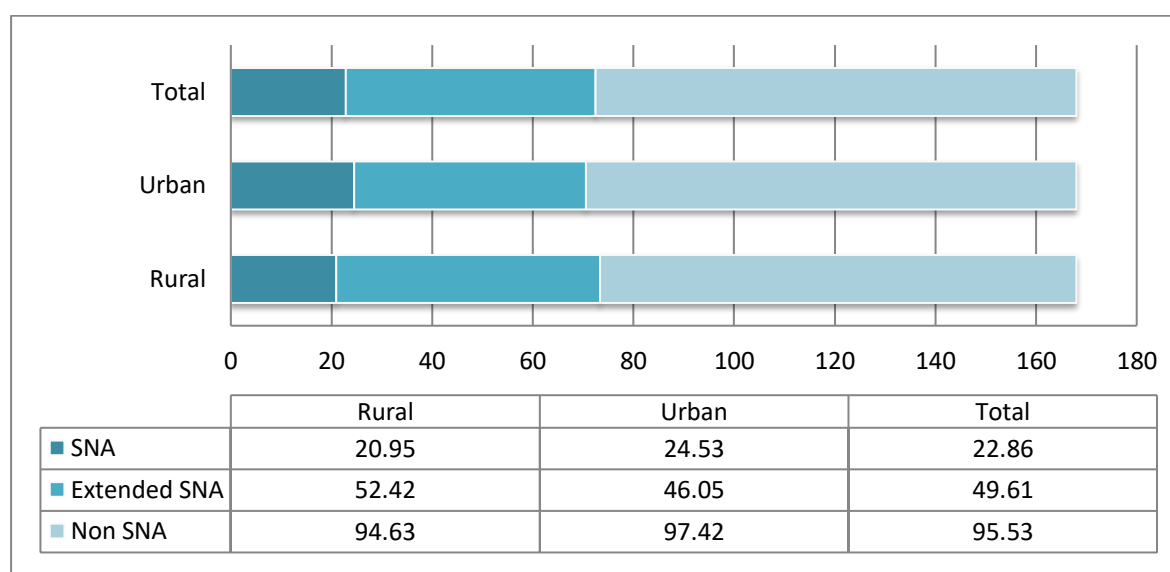
Source: Field survey, August and September, 2018

3.3.4. Comparison of SNA, Extended SNA and Non SNA Activities

The distribution of time on three types of activities – SNA, Extended SNA and Non SNA – by both women and men has been presented in the Figures 3.21 and 3.22. The figures give the weekly average time spent by per person in various activities assuming that all individuals participate in the activities. The advantage of this approach is that the total of average time on all activities will add to 168. On an average, females spent about 22.86 hours/week in SNA activities as compared to 36.48 hours/week by males. Thus the average time spent on SNA activities by females and males is different, the later are involved in a much wider range of activities with rural men expending more time than their urban counterparts on these activities. However, the situation completely changes when extended SNA activities are taken into account. In these activities, men spent only about 12.5

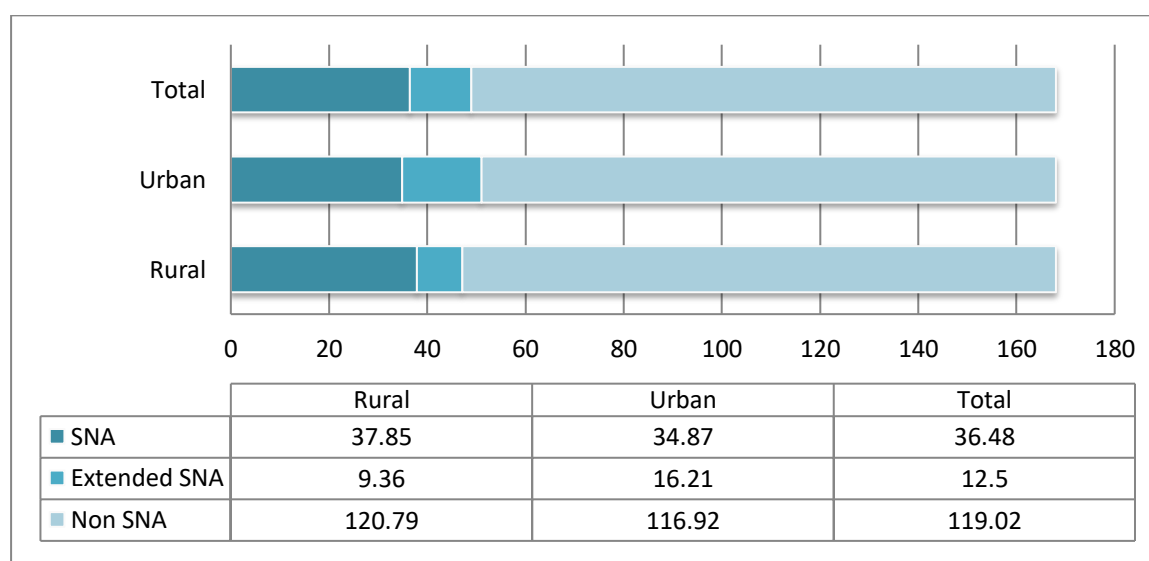
hours/week as compared to 49.61 hours/week by women. Therefore, women spent about five times more in extended activities as compared to male. The major time consuming activities is Non SNA, which pertains to learning, leisure and personal care, for both females and males. Men spent about 23.49 hours/week more as compared to women. On an average, 57.13% and 70.84% of the time is spent in Non SNA activities by females and males respectively (See Figure 3.23 and 3.24).

Figure 3.21: Weekly average time spent by per female respondent on various activities – in hours



Source: Field survey, August and September, 2018

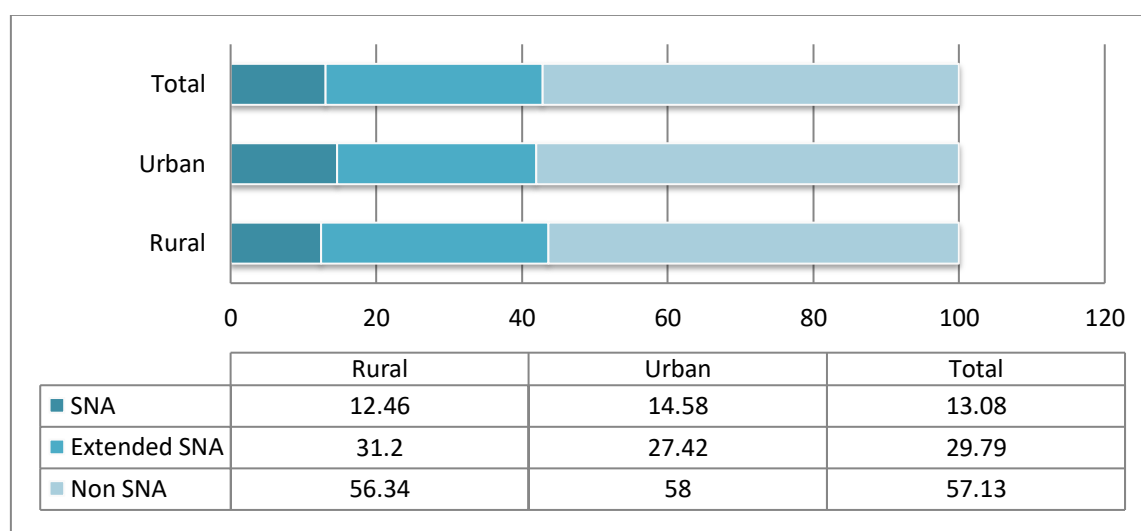
Figure 3.22: Weekly average time spent by per male respondent on various activities – in hours



Source: Field survey, August and September, 2018

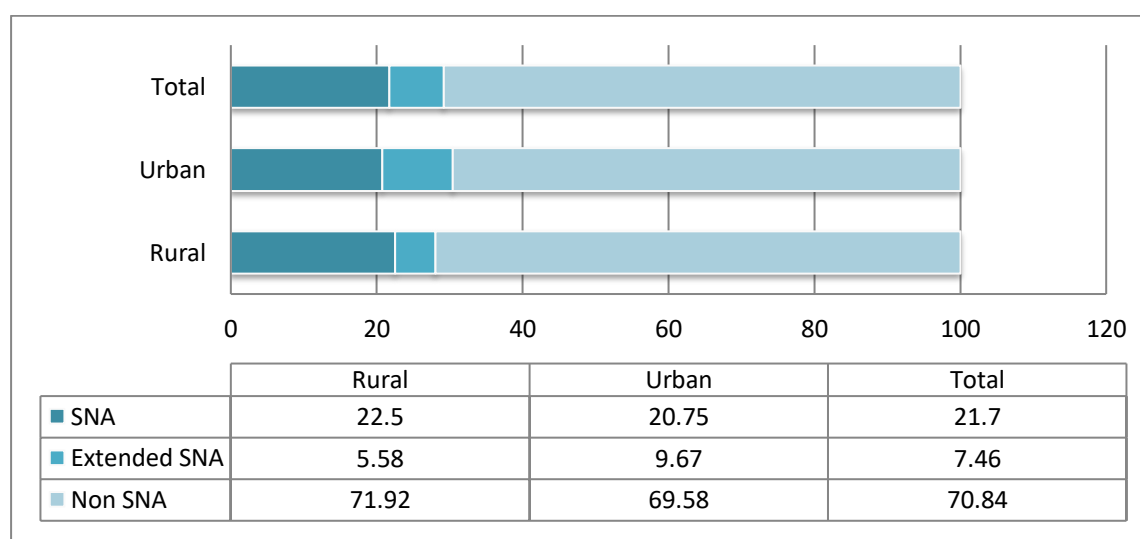
Time use variations between females and males are found to be significantly different in the study area. But there exists no significant disparity among females or males due to regional differences. The proportion of time spent by per female respondent on SNA, Extended SNA and Non SNA are 13.08%, 29.79% and 57.13% respectively. It is 21.7%, 7.46% and 70.84% respectively for males. The proportion of time spent on Non SNA is marginally higher for urban women than rural women, whereas the proportion on extended SNA is higher among rural females.

Figure 3.23: Proportion of time spent by per female respondent on various activities in a week – in percentage



Source: Field survey, August and September, 2018

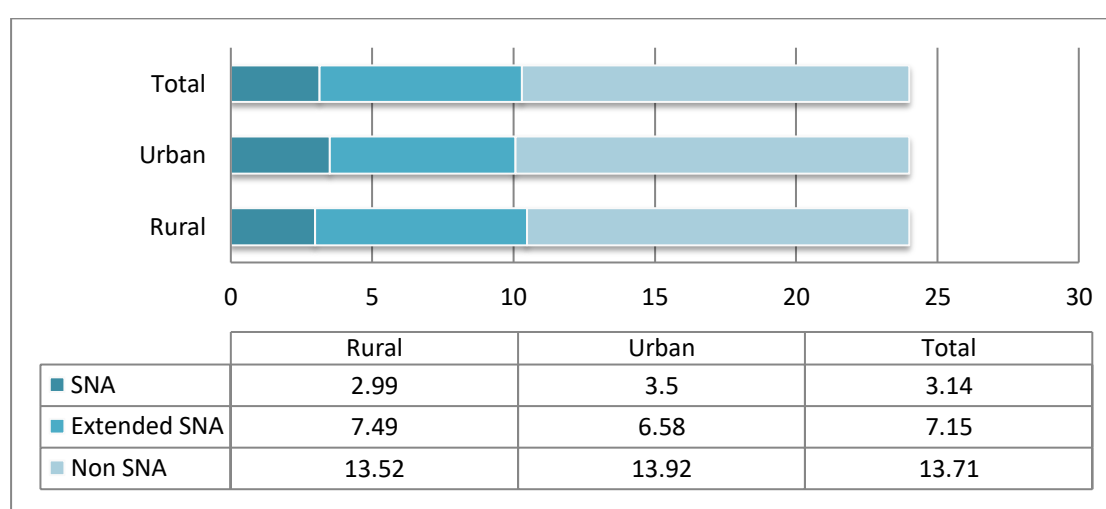
Figure 3.24: Proportion of time spent by per male respondent on various activities in a week – in percentage



Source: Field survey, August and September, 2018

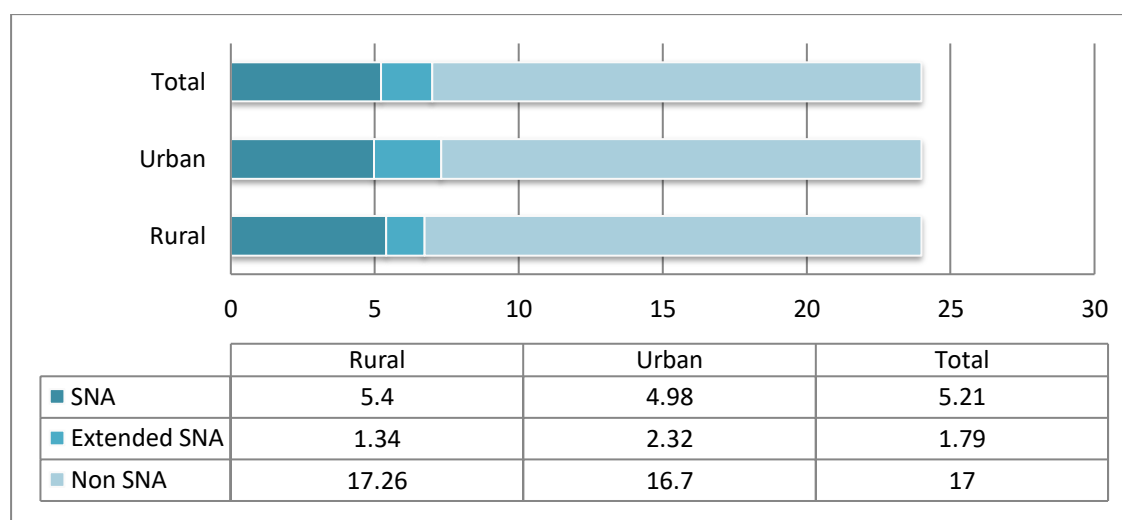
The daily average time spent by per person on various activities is presented in the Figure 3.25 and 3.26. Time spent on SNA activities is found to be highest for men. As explained above, the average time spent in a day on extended SNA activities which generally fall in the domain of women's life is 7.15 hours, which constitutes about one third of their whole day. Participation of men in these activities is just nominal. There is substantial difference in time spent on Non SNA activities by women and men. Men in both regions spent much more (i.e., about 4 hours) time than women in these activities.

Figure 3.25: Daily average time spent by per female respondents on various activities – in hours



Source: Field survey, August and September, 2018

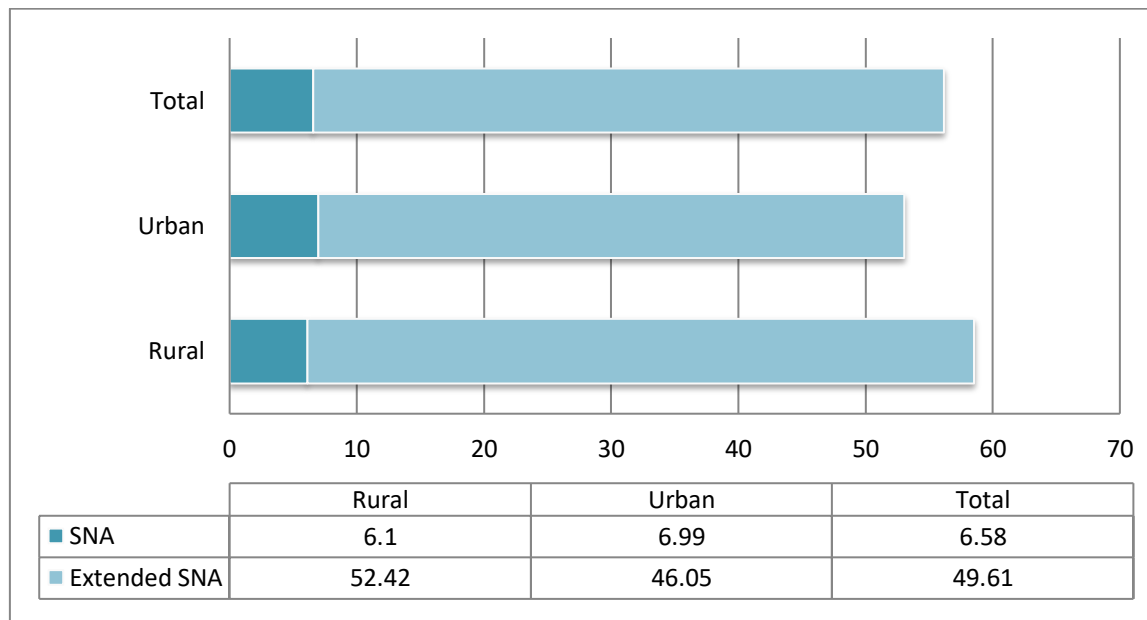
Figure 3.26: Daily average time spent by per male respondents on various activities – in hours



Source: Field survey, August and September, 2018

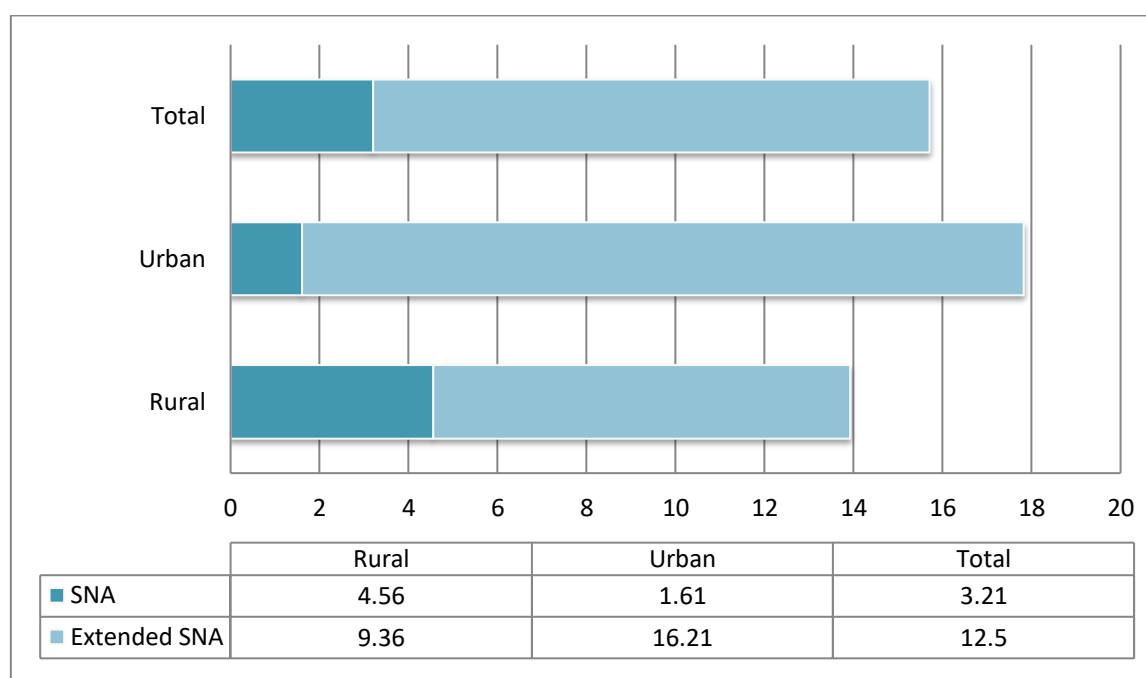
The Figures 3.27 and 3.28 shows the weekly average time spent on unpaid activities by per person. Women are heavily involved in unpaid activities (an average of 58.52 hours/week in rural and 53.04 hours/week in urban area). The maximum time spent on unpaid activities is marginally higher in rural area. As is well documented, unpaid activities particularly extended SNA activities are perceived primarily as a women's duty. Hence our results are not surprising, with the proportion of unpaid activities done by female respondents figuring out to 33.44 per cent and, rural women spending longer hours (34.84%) than urban women (31.57%) on unremunerated activity. For males, this figure comes out to be 8.28% in rural as compared to 10.6% in urban area. Females spent about 6.58 hours/week on unpaid SNA activities. 3.21 hours/week is expended on unpaid SNA activities by men as a whole, but much lower at 1.61 hours/week by urban males. If we take extended activities, the average time spent by females is as high as 49.61 hours/week. The situation is quite different for males which reported 12.5 hours/week. Thus women are found to be working for longer hours than men. Therefore, if extended activities are included in economic activities, the contribution of women will be higher as compared to men.

Figure 3.27: Weekly average time spent on unpaid activities by per female respondent – in hours



Source: Field survey, August and September, 2018

Figure 3.28: Weekly average time spent on unpaid activities by per male respondent – in hours



Source: Field survey, August and September, 2018

The opinion of respondents about receiving payment for unpaid domestic work is presented in the Table 3.19. Majority of the respondents opined that there was no need for payment for unpaid domestic work. They expressed that since it is the duty of family members to do household tasks, there is no need for any payment. When the question was asked I felt that some females felt the question as awkward and annoying. One of the female respondents asked me, if wife has been given payment, then what would be the difference between a wife and a domestic worker. None of the male respondents agreed to receive payment for unpaid domestic work.

4.18% of female respondents revealed the desire to receive a small payment for the unpaid domestic work. All of them except one are unemployed. Two of them said that if they would devote that time to do some other jobs, they would be able to earn more income and dignity. One respondent said that if she did all those jobs under some people as domestic worker, she would be earning a huge income. Now she had to depend on her husband even to buy a bindi. Another respondent stated that when her husband died eight years back, she was in the midst of poverty. She further remembered that once she even wished for a man to offer mere Rs.50 in return for sleeping with him, in order to purchase milk for her children. She says “Now I am earning a good sum by working as domestic worker” She then added that if

her husband had given some amount for all the domestic work she had done, then she would not have suffered so much.

Table 3.19: Opinion of respondents about receiving payment for unpaid domestic work

Region		Yes		No	
		Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Rural	Female	5	4.90	97	95.10
	Male	0	0	91	100
Urban	Female	3	3.37	86	96.63
	Male	0	0	77	100
Total	Female	8	4.18	183	95.82
	Male	0	0	168	168

Source: Field survey, August and September, 2018

The Table 3.20 and 3.21 gives a picture about the frequency of acknowledgement received for unpaid domestic work done by the respondents. The female respondents reported that they hardly get any acknowledgement, particularly from spouse. Only 5.3% of married women reported of getting acknowledgement from spouse frequently. 11.5% told that rather than acknowledging their work, their partners used to trivialise their work. From their responses, it is felt that majority of the respondents conceive household duties as the responsibility of women. One of the male respondents stated that women did not have any other job, and that men were the ones who was working and suffering hard for the family. So there is no need for acknowledging them. Other male respondent said that it would be good if you acknowledge the efforts of wife, but he hardly did it. Thirteen females from rural and twelve from urban area received acknowledgement from other household members. It mainly includes the appreciation received by children for doing domestic tasks. Also, they are acknowledged often.

Table 3.20: Acknowledgement received for unpaid domestic work done by female respondents

Source of Acknowledgement	Rural (in number)	Frequency		Urban (in number)	Frequency	
		Often	Rarely		Often	Rarely
Spouse	7	3	4	9	3	6
Children	8	5	3	9	4	5
Other household members	13	10	3	12	10	2

Source: Field survey, August and September, 2018

It is clear from the Table 3.21 that unlike for women, men receive acknowledgement frequently for doing domestic work, and their number is also high. But it does not mean that they do domestic tasks regularly. They stated that whatever little work they do it is appreciated both by wife and children often. Some reported that doing domestic work is not encouraged by their parents or their grandparents.

Table 3.21: Acknowledgement received for unpaid domestic work done by male respondents

Source of Acknowledgement	Rural (in number)	Frequency		Urban (in number)	Frequency	
		Often	Rarely		Often	Rarely
Spouse	39	37	2	35	31	4
Children	11	8	3	10	7	3
Other household members	4	1	3	8	4	4

Source: Field survey, August and September, 2018

The Table 3.22 gives the data on opinion of respondents about sharing unpaid domestic work with male members of the household. It is disheartening that above 50% of female members do not support sharing of work. Eventhough they claim it as burdensome or tedious, they consider it as the duty of females, particularly wife to do household work. One of the female respondents who is unemployed asked why males should share domestic work. Added to it, she said men in our home are working hard to earn, and are looking after the family. So females' duty is to work inside and it is men who should work outside.

42.93% of total females and 26.78% of total males support sharing unpaid domestic work with male members. The percentage of persons who support it is marginally higher in urban area. Another female respondent, who is employed, says "Both my husband and me are employed. Both of us would be equally tired when back home after work. But it is me who has to make tea always. He does not clean even a cup or glass, and will call me if he wants a glass of water. They do consider us as machines rather than human beings. I am so sad that even my boy is now becoming lazy to clean his glass or plates, who has started learning by seeing his father." She also asserts "Any way I have to do this since it is my duty. If my husband had helped, it would have been a great relief for me". The above case is a replication of many of the households. The statements have great implications. The patriarchal values are germinated in the basic unit of family, and it is passed on to the next generation. Moreover, the respondent does not understand that household and care work being socially regarded as her sole duty, constrains her from finding paid employment outside, impinges on her health

and makes her more vulnerable. It is the attitude possessed by each individual that have been imparted from the childhood itself. For instance, a good woman is defined by conservatives as one who looks after her family and one who does all household duties.

Table 3.22: Opinion of respondents about sharing unpaid domestic work with male members of household

Region		Yes		No	
		Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Rural	Female	43	42.15	59	57.85
	Male	24	26.37	69	73.63
Urban	Female	39	43.82	50	56.18
	Male	23	29.87	54	70.13
Total	Female	82	42.93	109	57.07
	Male	45	26.78	123	73.22

Source: Field survey, August and September, 2018

It is noteworthy that when the question about sharing work was asked, all respondents used the term ‘helping’ rather than ‘sharing’ the work. It implies the respondents’ belief that the unpaid domestic work is primarily the duty of female members.

Section IV

CONCLUSION

“The real wealth of a nation is its people. And the purpose of development is to create an enabling environment for people to enjoy long, healthy and creative lives. This simple but powerful truth is too often forgotten in the pursuit of material and financial wealth.” Those are the opening lines of the first Human Development Report, published in 1990.

In the pursuit of material wealth, less visible, and often neglected, is the impact of unpaid work which includes care and caring labour. The role of care in the formation of human capabilities and in human development is fundamental. Those activities related to household maintenance and care generally falls in the domain of women’s duty. These domestic tasks are summarily dismissed as women’s primary responsibility based on socially constructed gender roles as if they did not carry any value. Thus women are expected to serve as unremunerated care givers and home makers.

The present study primarily attempts an examination of the time utilisation pattern of persons in the study area, and sheds light on the gender disparity between allocation of time on various activities to the great disadvantage of women. Apart from that, the study engages in understanding the opinion of respondents in sharing of unpaid work and frequency of acknowledgement received on doing the same. The present study is distinct in its own right, as in the District, we hardly have data on this aspect.

From the analysis, it is found that on average, females spent about 22.86 hours/week in SNA activities as compared to about 36.48 hours/week by males. However, the situation completely changes when we consider extended SNA activities which include household maintenance, care and community services. In these activities, males spent about only 12.5 hours/week as compared to 49.61 hours/week by females. In non SNA activities, which pertains to leisure, personal care and learning, males spent about 23.49 hours more as compared to females. On average, 70.84% of the time is spent on non SNA activities by males. The SNA and extended SNA contribute for 21.7% and 7.46% respectively. The proportion on SNA, extended SNA and non SNA is 13.08%, 29.79% and 57.13% respectively for females. The analysis tends to reinforce the conservative perception that women have been responsible for unpaid work especially, housework and caring. Not only are females more involved in unpaid activities, also the kind of activities in which they

engage differs from their male counterparts. The most typical unpaid work performed by males in the household is accompanying children or adults to places, shopping and, installation and repair work. Men also devote slightly more time to pet care and supervision of children or adults needing care, but their participation rates in these activities are less equal to those of women. Tasks that have traditionally been thought of as feminine tasks like cooking, cleaning, washing, physical care of children and adults etc. continue to be primarily performed by women. Regarding social and cultural activities, large amount of time is spent on watching television by both females and males. From the study, it is found that women get less time for activities related to personal care and self maintenance. The result of huge burden of paid and unpaid work that a woman bore is lack of sleep averaging 44.1 hours/week. The employed (regular) women sleep for least amount of time. The high-low variations based on gender is also discernible in the time taken to eat and drink. At a broad average level women spent about 1 to 3 hours/week for eating meals. Men reported a high of 25.23 hours/week i.e., 3 to 4 hours per day for having meals. Women have 6.79 hours/week on an average to rest whereas men have 11.12 hours/week. It is disheartening that sixteen employed women in the study area complained that they do not get time to rest or relax during week days.

As a conclusion, four important issues need to be emphasised here. One, the society recognizes an individual's role in the economy when they participate in the paid labour force. They remain hidden and unacknowledged when they do not, and thus the contribution of this invisible labour is often not addressed. So women, particularly homemakers, who work from dawn to dark at their home, are commonly viewed as economically unproductive, thus underestimating the value of their unpaid work. Foremost, women themselves fail to perceive the value of their work. Majority of females consider it merely as their duty.

The Government also tend to underestimate the value of unpaid work performed mostly by women, by excluding most of these work from Gross Domestic Product and other measures of national wealth. The common distinction between "working women" and "housewives" in government classifications shows that such bigotry exists at all levels. As a result, females appear to be a net drain on the economy rather than serving as important contributors. Thus women's contribution to the large economic picture gets unnoticed.

Development can be defined as the process of expansion of choices in life through improved capabilities (Human Development Report, 1999). These capabilities such as education, nutrition, health etc are developed not only by economic activities, but also by

rendering attention in the form of cooking, serving, caring etc, which are unpaid. It thus supports paid economy too. As Miranda (2011) notes, unpaid activities contribute not only to current household consumption, but also to future well-being and to community well-being. So it is important to incorporate this unpaid work in the total welfare of the society.

Two, the failure of women to recognise the continuing gender inequality they continue to face due to the existing social division of labour. Even though Kerala is well acclaimed for its social achievements and for having favourable sex ratio, however, the social transformation of Kerala over a prolonged period, was highly uneven and a symptom of this unevenness is the survival of feudal-patriarchal attitudes and institutions, even though women's literacy, education and health care standards are much higher than elsewhere in the country. Patriarchy in contemporary Kerala is apparent in a generalised social commitment to women's domestic role. While decentralized governance with 50 percent reservation for women in local bodies and the growth of Kudumbashree, the largest SHG movement of women in Kerala has made women more visible in the public sphere, perception of male as head of household remains strongly entrenched in society, with women themselves internalising patriarchal values. High rates of literacy and impressive levels of female education did not translate into growth of paid employment for women nor into upward occupational mobility.

Women have to realize and acknowledge their own agency as agents of development rather than as recipients of welfare measures which is equally important as formal education. It is observed that women are themselves the carriers of age old patriarchal values. Generally it is women who advise their girl child to behave softly, or restricts boy child from doing household tasks. So enlightenment or self learning about their position in society and the need for gender equality and women empowerment is as important as formal education to bring a fair space for women in the society. Lack of one of these elements – education and enlightenment - will make it difficult to achieve the ends – empowerment and equality. To quote Harriet Tubman, “I freed thousand of slaves. I could have freed thousands more, if they had known they were slaves”, similar is the case of several women in our society.

Three, the unpaid daily tasks of women, which has been historically unrecognised and underestimated, consumes a substantial amount of time. It puts a ceiling on time that can be devoted for their personal care and development. The Government can play a substantial role to reduce the burden of household and care work for women by expanding the reach of

child/elderly care like setting up of crèche cum day care centre, day care centres for the old, community kitchens, access to transportation and so on. More policy suggestions are included to the final part of the section.

Finally, the burden of the unpaid work - largely dominated by household and caring activities- is distributed unfairly between women and men. Women perform and bear the burden of most of the unpaid activities especially caring and domestic work. While men receive the lion's share of income and recognition for their economic contribution, most of the women's domestic work, which have implications on their health, ability to acquire more education and skills, remains unpaid, unrecognized and undervalued. This unequal distribution of unpaid domestic work between women and men is significantly associated to the social construction of gender, and the dominance of patriarchal values in society. It is high time for the society, more importantly women themselves, to realise that household duties are not only a feminine task. It is essential to alter the age old social norm of feminisation of unpaid domestic work as well as the household power structure, and thereby to attain a better well being for females. It underlines the need for sharing unpaid work among household members irrespective of gender.

On the basis of the inferences, certain policies are suggested to solve the issues with respect to unpaid labour. The policies cannot be viewed as a charitable handout, rather an indirect payment on their contribution.

- The State should incorporate gender perspective in intervention programs with special attention to unpaid work like expansion of the reach of child and elderly care centres, measures to ease collecting fuels, water, access to transportation etc.
- A strong redistributive agenda which goes beyond visibility and recognition to find more just ways of distributing the costs and benefits of unpaid care work.
- In order to redistribute the responsibility of childcare to fathers, interventions for maternity benefits program need to involve men as well. Training in childcare and nutrition must involve both parents equally. Paternity leave can be availed to improve their participation in child care.
- Anganwadi Centers or Early Education Centres should be upgraded to function as full time creches and make flexibility in timing so that it can accommodate the requirements of working women according to their duty shifts.

- Equip and upgrade the quality of care in Anganwadi Centers to retain children by improving facilities such as safe drinking water, toilet, safe play areas, toys, medical and basic educational supplies.
- It is essential to inform the women about the schemes meant to reduce their burden of unpaid work, and the formalities to get access to those benefits for successful implementation of the programs.
- Awareness should be created amongst men, and society as a whole regarding the unpaid work burden of women - its implications and importance and the need for a gender conscious society. It can emphasise the importance of sharing domestic duties among the household members.
- Time use data collection can be used as an irreplaceable source of information for the design of policies that support the reduction and redistribution of unpaid care work, within a framework that recognises both care givers' contribution to well being and the costs of care giving.

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Appendix I

GENDER DISPARITY IN UTILISATION PATTERN OF TIME: A STUDY OF THIRUVANANTHAPURAM DISTRICT IN KERALA

(Interview Schedule)

Interview Schedule No:

Date of Interview:

1. Household characteristics

1.1. Name of the Household Head:

1.2. Address and Phone no:

1.3. Corporation/Panchayat:

1.4. Ward:

1.5. Nature of location: a) Rural b) Urban

1.6. Household size: a) Joint b) Nuclear

1.7. Details of family members:

1.7.1	1.7.2	1.7.3	1.7.4
Sl No.	Name	Relation to the Household Head	Age

1.8) Characteristics of House

1.8.1. Type of structure of dwelling: a) Katcha b) Semi Pucca c) Pucca

1.8.2. Whether your house is a) Owned b) Rented

1.8.3. If owned a) Self constructed/ bought
 b) Inherited
 c) Government provided

1.9. Monthly family income (in Rs.):

1.10. Monthly family expenditure (in Rs.):

1.11. Monthly family savings (in Rs.):

1.12. Facilities of house (Tick relevant options):

a) Electricity b) Fan c) Fridge d) Well/Tap

e) Toilet f) Radio g) Computer/Laptop

h) Bathroom i) Television j) Mobile

2. Socio economic profile of the respondent

2.1. Name of the respondent:

2.2. Gender: a) Female b) Male c) Transgender

2.3. Religion: a) Hindu b) Christian c) Muslim d) Others (Specify)

2.4. Caste: a) General b) OBC c) SC d) ST

2.5. Marital status: a) Single b) Currently married c) Widowed

d) Deserted e) Divorced/Seperated

2.6. Educational qualification:

a) Literate but below primary b) Primary c) Upper Primary d) High School

e) Higher Secondary f) Graduate g) PG and above h) Others (Specify)

2.7. Occupational status: a) Student b) Employed c) Home maker

d) Retired e) Unemployed f) Others (Specify)

2.8. Main occupation:

2.9. Kind of occupational industry (Tick relevant option):

a) Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing b) Mining and quarrying c) Manufacturing

d) Electricity, Gas, Steam or AC supply e) Construction

f) Wholesale and Retail trade g) Transportation and Storage

h) Water supply, Sewage, Waste management, Remediation activity

2.10. Nature of employment: a) Self employed b) Regular/Salaried (Permanent)

c) Casual labour d) Regular/Salaried (Non permanent)

2.11. If unemployed, reasons for being unemployed in official labour market:

- a) Interested to work, but unable to find a job b) Not interested to work
 c) Disabled and unable to work d) Family restrictions e) Others (Specify)

2.12. Wage pattern: a) Daily b) Weekly c) Monthly d) Quarterly e) Annually

2.13. Wage per day/week/month/quarter/year (in Rs.):

2.14. No. of days of work per month:

2.15. Monthly expenditure (in Rs.):

2.16. Monthly spending pattern:

Sl.No.	Items			Expenditure (in Rs)
1	2			3
2.16.1	Food expenditure	i	Food items excluding beverages	
		ii	Beverages	
2.16.2	Non Food expenditure	i	Education	
		ii	Clothing	
		iii	Household requisites	
		iv	Health	
		v	Repayments	
		vi	Transport and communication	
		vii	Electricity	
		viii	Recreation and amusement	
		ix	Others (Specify)	

2.17. Monthly savings (in Rs.):

2.18. Nature of monthly savings and amount:

Sl.No	Nature of monthly savings	Amount (in Rs.)
1	2	3
2.18.1	Bank deposit	
2.18.2	Chitty fund	
2.18.3	Post office	
2.18.4	LIC	
2.18.5	Self Help Group	
2.18.6	Co operatives	
2.18.7	Others (Specify)	

2.19. Indebtedness: a) Yes b) No

2.20. If Yes, source of borrowing and amount:

Sl.No.	Source of borrowing	Amount (in Rs.)
1	2	3
2.20.1	Bank	
2.20.2	Chitty fund	
2.20.3	Post office	
2.20.4	Self Help Group	
2.20.5	Co operatives	
2.20.6	Money lenders	
2.20.7	Friends/Neighbours	
2.20.8	Others (Specify)	

2.21. Assets (Tick relevant options you own): a) Land b) House c) Savings

d) Vehicle e) Electronic devices

2.22. Area of land possessed (in cent):

2.23. Participation in family decision making: a) Every time b) Often c) To some extent

d) Rarely e) Very rarely

2.24. Acceptance of your decisions:

a) Every time b) Often c) To some extent

d) Rarely e) Very rarely

3. Activity status

Sl.No.	Activity	Time spent per day (in hours/minutes)		Whether paid (in cash/kind/both) or unpaid	Location of work (Home/ Workplace / Other)	If unpaid, those activities are done for whom	Satisfaction regarding doing unpaid work (Yes/No)	Do you have paid domestic worker to assist? (Yes/No)	If Yes, how many and proportion of work done by them?
		Weekday	Weekend						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
3.1	Primary production activities (SNA activity)								
3.1.1	Crop farming, Kitchen gardening etc								
3.1.2	Animal husbandry								
3.1.3	Fishery, Forestry, Horticulture, Gardening								
3.1.4	Collection of fruit, water, plants etc, Storing, Hunting								
3.1.5	Processing and Storage								
3.1.6	Mining, Quarrying, Digging, Cutting etc								
3.2	Secondary activities (SNA activity)								

3.2.1	Construction activities								
3.2.2	Manufacturing activities								
3.3	Trade, Business and Services (SNA activity)								
3.3.1	Trade and Business								
3.3.2	Services								
Extended SNA activities									
3.4	Household maintenance, management and shopping for own household								
3.5	Care for children, the sick, the elderly and the disabled for own household								
3.6	Community services and help to other households								
Non SNA activities									
3.7	Learning								
3.8	Social and cultural activities, mass								

	media etc								
3.9	Personal care and self maintenance								

3.10. What is your opinion about sharing unpaid work with other family members in the case of the activities?

Sl.No.	Activity	Opinion
1	2	3
3.10.1	SNA activities	a) Yes b) No
3.10.2	Extended SNA activities	a) Yes b) No
3.10.3	Non SNA activities	a) Yes b) No

3.11. Do you get acknowledgement for unpaid work?

Sl.No.	Activity	Response	Sl.No.	If Yes, who all acknowledges you? (Spouse/Children/Other family members(Specify))	Sl.No.	Frequency of acknowledgement (Often/Rarely)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.11.1	SNA activities	a) Yes b) No	3.11.1.1		3.11.1.2	
3.11.2	Extended SNA activities	a) Yes b) No	3.11.2.1		3.11.2.2	
3.11.3	Non SNA activities	a) Yes b) No	3.11.3.1		3.11.3.2	

3.12. Do you prefer any payment for unpaid work? a) Yes b) No

3.13. If Yes, for what all activities? a) SNA activities

b) Extended SNA activities

c) Non SNA activities

3.14. Options for mode of payment: a) Payable in cash

b) Payable in kind

c) Just Acknowledgement

3.15. Daily time spent on the following household activities

Sl.No.	Activities	Weekday (in hours/minutes)	Weekend (in hours/minutes)
1	2	3	4
3.15.1	Cooking		
3.15.2	Cleaning household		
3.15.3	Cleaning utensils		
3.15.4	Washing and mending clothes		
3.15.5	Shopping		
3.15.6	Pet care		
3.15.7	Care of children		
3.15.8	Teaching own children		
3.15.9	Accompanying children to places		
3.15.10	Care of sick and elderly		
3.15.11	Supervising children		
3.15.12	Care of guests		

3.16. Daily time spent on the following activities

Sl no.	Activities	Weekday (in hours/minutes)	Weekend (in hours/minutes)
1	2	3	4
3.16.1	Participation in community functions		
3.16.2	Reading		
3.16.3	Watching TV		
3.16.4	Listening to music		
3.16.5	Reading newspaper		
3.16.6	Sleep		
3.16.7	Eating and drinking		
3.16.8	Smoking and drinking intoxicants		
3.16.9	Personal hygiene		
3.16.10	Physical exercise		
3.16.11	Talking		
3.16.12	Meditation		

3.17) Which of the following time saving household appliances do you use for work? (Tick relevant options)

- a) Fridge b) Micro wave oven c) Mixie
 d) Grinder e) Washing machine f) None g) Others (Specify)

Appendix II

ACTIVITY CLASSIFICATION

I PRIMARY PRODUCTION ACTIVITIES

11 Crop farming, kitchen gardening, etc.

- 111. Ploughing, preparing land, cleaning of land
- 112. Sewing, planting, transplanting
- 113. Application of manure, fertiliser, pesticides and watering, preparing organic manure, harvesting, threshing, picking and winnowing
- 114. Weeding
- 115. Supervision of work.
- 116. Kitchen gardening – backyard cultivation
- 117. Stocking, transporting to home, guarding or protection of crops.
- 118. Sale and purchase related activities
- 119. Travel to the work.

12. Animal husbandry

- 121. Grazing animals outside
- 122. Tending animals – cleaning, washing shed, feeding, watering, preparation of feed.
- 123. Caring for animals : breeding, shearing, medical treatment, grooming etc.
- 124. Milking and processing of milk, collecting and storing of poultry products.
- 125. Making dung cakes
- 126. Poultry rearing – feeding, cleaning.
- 127. Other related activities.
- 128. Sale and purchase related activities
- 129. Travel to the work.

13. Fishing, Forestry, Horticulture, Gardening

- 131. Nursery - seedlings
- 132. Planting, tending, processing of trees.
- 133. Collecting, storing & stocking of fruits etc.
- 134. Wood cutting, chopping & stocking firewood
- 135. Fish farming, cleaning sea-bed, feeding fish, catching fish, gathering other aquatic life
- 136. Care of house plants, indoor and outdoor garden work
- 137. Flower gardening – landscaping, maintenance, cutting, collecting, storing
- 138. Sale and purchase related activities.

139. Travelling to the work.

14. Collection of fruit, water, plants etc., storing and hunting.

140. Fetching of water

141. Collection of fruits, vegetables, berries, mushrooms and other edible goods

142. Collection of minor forest produce, leaves, bamboo etc.

143. Collection of fuel/fuel wood/twigs.

144. Collection of raw material for crafts.

145. Collection of building materials

146. Collection of fodder

147. Sale and purchase related activities

148. Collection of other items

149. Travel to work.

15. Processing and Storage

152. Milling, husking, pounding

153. Parboiling

154. Sorting, Grading

155. Grinding, crushing

156. Any other related activity

157. Sales and purchase related activities

159. Travel for the work

16. Mining, quarrying, digging, cutting, etc.

161. Mining/extraction of salt

162. Mining/digging/quarrying of stone or slabs, breaking of stones for construction of building road, bridges etc.

163. Digging out clay, gravel and sand

164. Digging out minerals – major and minor

165. Transporting in vehicles

166. Storing, stocking

167. Any other related activity

168. Sale and purchase related activity

169. Travel for the work

II. SECONDARY ACTIVITIES

21 Construction activities

- 211. Building and construction of dwelling (laying bricks, plastering, thatching, bamboo work, roofing) and maintenance and repairing of dwelling.
- 212. Construction and repair of animal shed, shelter for poultry etc.
- 213. Construction of wall, storage facility, fencing etc. for farms, irrigation work.
- 214. Construction of public works/common infrastructure – roads, buildings, bridges, etc.
- 217. Any other related activity
- 218. Sales and purchase related activity
- 219. Travel to the work.

22. Manufacturing activities

- 221. Food processing and cooking for sale – making pickles, spices and other products; canning fruits, jams & jellies; baking; beverage preparation, selling readymade food etc.
- 222. Butchering, curing, processing, drying storing etc. of meat, fish etc.
- 223. Manufacturing of textiles – spinning, weaving, processing of textiles; knitting, sewing, garment making of cotton, wool and other material.
- 224. Making handicrafts, pottery, printing and other crafts made primarily with hands.
- 225. Fitting, installing, tool setting, tool and machinery – moulding, welding, tool making
- 226. Assembling machines, equipment and other products,
- 227. Production related work in large and small factories in different industries – as production workers, maintenance workers, paid trainees and apprentices, sales, administration and management activities.
- 228. Sale and purchase related activity
- 229. Travel for the work.

III TRADE, BUSINESS AND SERVICES

31. Trade and business

- 311. Buying and selling goods – such as capital goods, intermediate goods, consumer durables, consumer goods – in the organised and formal sectors.
- 312. Petty trading, street and door to door vending, hawking, shoe cleaning etc.
- 313. Transporting goods in trucks, tempos and motor vehicles.
- 314. Transporting in hand carts, animal carts, cycle rickshaws etc. or manually
- 315. Transport of passenger by motorized and non- motorised transports
- 317. Any other activity.
- 319. Travel to work.

32. Services

- 321. Service in Government and semi government organisations (salaried)

- 322. Service in private organisations (salaried)
- 323. Petty service: domestic servants, sweepers, washers, pujari, barber, cobbler, mali massaging, prostitution, (wages) watching and guarding
- 324. Professional services: medical and educational services (private tuition, non formal teaching etc.), financial services and management and technical consultancy services
- 325. Professional services: computer services, xerox/photocopying services, beauty parlours, hair cutting saloons etc.
- 326. Technical services: plumbing, electrical and electronic repair and maintenance and other related services
- 327. Others
- 329. Travel to work.

IV. HOUSEHOLD MAINTENANCE, MANAGEMENT AND SHOPPING FOR OWN HOUSEHOLD

- 411. Cooking food items, beverages and serving.
- 421. Cleaning and upkeep of dwelling and surroundings
- 422. Cleaning of utensils
- 431. Care of textiles: sorting, mending, washing, ironing and ordering clothes and linen
- 441. Shopping for goods and non-personal services: capital goods, household appliances, equipment, food and various household supplies.
- 451. Household management: planning, supervising, paying bills, etc.
- 461. Do- it- yourself home improvements and maintenance, installation, servicing and repair of personal and household goods.
- 471. Pet care
- 481. Travel related to household maintenance, management and shopping
- 491. Household maintenance, management and shopping not elsewhere classified.

V CARE FOR CHILDREN, THE SICK, ELDERLY AND DISABLED FOR OWN HOUSEHOLD

- 511. Physical care of children: washing, dressing, feeding
- 521. Teaching, training and instruction of own children
- 531. Accompanying children to places: school, sports, lessons, etc./PHC/doctor
- 541. Physical care of the sick, disabled, elderly household members: washing, dressing, feeding, helping.
- 551. Accompanying adults to receive personal care services: such as hairdresser's therapy sessions, temple, religious places etc.

561. Supervising children needing care – with or without other activities

562. Supervising adults needing care – with or without other activities.

571. Travel related to care of children

572. Travel related to care of adults and others.

581. Taking care of guests/visitors

591. Any other activity not mentioned above

VI. COMMUNITY SERVICES AND HELP TO OTHER HOUSEHOLDS

611. Community organised construction and repairs: buildings, roads, dams, wells, ponds etc. community assets.

621. Community organised work: cooking for collective celebrations, etc.

631. Volunteering with for an organisation (which does not involve working directly for individuals)

641. Volunteer work through organisations extended directly to individuals and groups

651. Participation in meetings of local and informal groups/caste, tribes, professional associations, union, fraternal and political organisations

661 Involvement in civic and related responsibilities: voting, rallies, attending panchayat meetings

671. Informal help to other households

681. Community services not elsewhere classified

691 Travel related to community services

VII. LEARNING

711. General Education: Attending school/university/other educational institutions

721. Studies, homework and course review related to general education

731. Additional study, non- formal education under adult education programmes.

741. Non formal education by children

751. Work-related training

761. Training under government programmes such as TRYSEM, DWCRA and others.

771. Other training/education

781. Learning not elsewhere classified

791. Travel related to learning

VIII SOCIAL AND CULTURAL ACTIVITIES, MASS MEDIA, ETC.

811. Participating in social events: wedding, funerals, births, and other celebrations

812. Participating in religious activities: church services, religious ceremonies, practices, kirtans, singing, etc.

- 813. Participating in community functions in music, dance etc.
- 814. Socializing at home and outside the home.
- 821. Arts, making music, hobbies and related courses
- 822. Indoor and outdoor sports participation and related courses
- 831. Games and other past-time activities
- 832. Spectator to sports, exhibitions/museums, cinema/theatre/concerts and other performances and events
- 841. Other related activities.
- 851. Reading, other than newspaper and magazines.
- 852. Watching television and video
- 853. Listening to music/radio
- 861. Accessing information by computing
- 862. Visiting library
- 863. Reading newspaper, magazines
- 871. Mass media use and entertainment not classified elsewhere
- 891. Travel related to social, cultural and recreational activities and, social, cultural and recreational activities not elsewhere classified.
- 892 Travel relating to search of jobs.

IX. PERSONAL CARE AND SELF-MAINTENANCE

- 911. Sleep and related activities
- 921. Eating and drinking
- 922. Smoking, drinking alcohol and other intoxicants.
- 931. Personal hygiene and health
- 932. Walking, exercise, jogging, yoga, etc.
- 941. Receiving medical and personal care from professional
- 942. Receiving medical and personal care from household members.
- 951. Talking, gossiping and quarreling
- 961. Doing nothing, rest and relaxation
- 971. Individual religious practices and meditation
- 981. Other activities
- 982. Resting/convalescing due to physical illness and physically unwell persons.
- 992. Travel related to personal care and self- maintenance

Source: *Report of the Time Use Survey*. Central Statistical Organisation, Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, New Delhi: Government of India, 2000.

Appendix III

The Appendix III is intended to present the photographs of certain respondents engaged in various activities.



A respondent engaged in cooking in her home – an extended SNA activity which is unpaid



An elderly respondent engaged in engaged in cooking in her home – an extended SNA activity which is unpaid



A petty shop owned and maintained by a respondent – Engaged in a paid SNA activity



A respondent engaged in selling fish – a paid SNA activity



A respondent engaged in selling fish – a paid SNA activity



A respondent working in a shop, owned by her spouse– an unpaid SNA activity