CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter focuses on findings pertaining to various objectives of the study presented in various sections as follows:

1. Description of the Sample
2. Occupational Profile of Women Workers
3. Suitability of Occupational Environment to Women Workers
4. Occupational Health Problems of Women Workers
5. Employers' View Points
6. Output of Women Workers
7. Household Development of Women Workers
8. Testing of Hypotheses
9. Discussion of Findings

1. Description of the Sample

This section of the study deals with the description of the demographic information : personal and family characteristics of the respondents. The women workers were the key respondents and the data reported are according to location of the industries i.e., rural and urban.

1a. Personal Characteristics of Respondents

1a. (i) Age

The mean age of the respondents was 44.05 years (Table 1). Maximum number of respondents belonged to the age group

of 36 to 51 years. There was not much difference between mean age of urban and rural workers.

1a. (ii) Educational Level

On the whole, nearly 43 per cent of respondents were illiterate. About one-third of respondents from urban sample and more than one-half of rural sample were illiterate. About 18 per cent had education level upto matric. On the whole, it can be said that higher education was conspicuously absent among the respondents.

Table 1 : Personal Characteristics of Respondents

Personal Characteristics	Rural (N=126)		Urban (N=126)		Total (N=252)	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Age (Years)						
20-35	19	15.07	24	19.04	43	17.06
36-51	78	61.90	76	60.31	154	61.11
52-67	29	23.01	26	20.63	55	21.82
Mean	44.43		43.65		44.05	
S.D.	10.42		9.93		10.15	
Educational Level						
Illiterate	69	54.76	39	30.95	108	42.85
Primary school	20	15.87	28	22.22	48	19.04
Middle school	20	15.87	31	24.00	51	20.23
Matric	17	13.49	28	22.22	45	17.85

1b. Family Characteristics of Respondents

Several family characteristics of respondents were studied.

1b. (i) Migration Background

Nearly 46 per cent of respondents' families were migrants (Table 2). Percentage of migrants was more in urban sample (56.34 per cent) than in rural sample (34.92 per cent).

Table 2 : Migration Background of Respondents' Families

Migration Background	Rural (N=126) F	%	Urban (N=126) F	%	Total (N=252) F	%
Migration						
Migrants	44	34.92	71	56.34	115	45.63
Non-migrants	82	65.07	55	43.65	137	54.36
Native State of Migrants						
Uttar Pradesh	29	23.01	52	41.26	81	32.14
Madhya Pradesh	6	4.76	8	6.34	14	5.55
Bihar	7	13.49	6	12.69	13	5.15
Bengal	2	1.58	5	3.96	7	2.77
Reasons for Migration*						
Lack of employment	22	17.46	45	35.71	67	26.58
Poverty	24	19.04	38	30.15	62	24.60
Charm of other cities	3	2.38	2	1.58	5	1.98
Better social treatment in migrated state	1	0.79	2	1.58	3	1.19
Family quarrels	4	3.17	2	1.58	6	2.38

* Multiple response

About one-third of respondents' families had migrated from Uttar Pradesh and others i.e., about 5 per cent or less came from Madhya Pradesh, Bihar and Bengal. About one-fourth of the families had migrated due to lack of employment and poverty in their native place.

1b. (ii) Religion and Caste

More than two-thirds of respondents' families belonged to Hindu religion and the rest belonged to Muslim and Sikh religion (Table 3).

Table 3 : Religion and Caste of Respondents' Families

Family Characteristics	Rural (N=126) F	%	Urban (N=126) F	%	Total (N=252) F	%
Religion						
Hindu	93	73.80	81	64.28	174	69.04
Muslim	22	17.46	30	23.80	52	20.63
Sikh	11	8.73	15	11.90	26	10.31
Caste						
Schedule caste	86	68.25	62	49.20	148	58.73
General	40	31.74	64	50.79	104	41.26

Data further showed that schedule caste families were dominant among the sample with significantly higher percentage from rural group (68.25 per cent) than the urban group (49.20 per cent).

1b. (iii) Family Type and Family Size

On the whole 79.36 per cent of respondents had nuclear families (Table 4). Percentage of nuclear families was more in urban sample (84.12 per cent) than in rural sample (74.60 percent).

Table 4 : Family Type and Family Size

Family Characteristics	Rural (N=126) F	%	Urban (N=126) F	%	Total (N=252) F	%
Family Type						
Nuclear	94	74.60	106	84.12	200	79.36
Joint	32	25.39	20	15.87	52	20.63
Family Size (Members)						
2-4	40	31.74	57	45.23	97	38.49
5-7	75	59.52	66	52.38	141	55.95
8-10	11	8.73	3	2.38	14	5.55
Mean	5.30		4.71		5.01	
S.D.	1.78		1.62		1.73	

The mean family size of the sample was 5.01 members. The range of family members was from 2 to 10 members. The mean size of rural families was larger (5.30, members) than the urban families (4.71 members).

1b. (iv) Occupation of the Head and Family Income

Nearly 74 per cent of heads of the family were labourers (Table 5). Percentage of labourer heads in rural group was more (80.15 per cent) than in urban group (67.46 per cent).

Table 5 : Occupation of the Head of the Family and Family Income

Family Characteristics	Rural (N=126) F	%	Urban (N=126) F	%	Total (N=252) F	%
Occupation of Head of the Family						
Service	15	11.90	26	20.63	41	16.26
Business	10	8.73	15	11.90	25	9.92
Labourers	101	80.15	85	67.46	186	73.80
Family Income (Rupees)						
1000-2200	40	31.74	30	23.80	70	27.77
2201-3400	60	47.61	58	46.03	118	46.82
3401-4600	26	20.63	38	30.15	64	25.39
Mean	2755.03		2931.98		2820.53	
S.D.	865.29		894.20		902.85	

Data further showed that mean monthly income of the family was Rs. 2820.53. Most of the respondents had family income between Rs. 2201 and Rs. 3400. Mean monthly income of urban families was more (Rs. 2931.98) than that of rural families (Rs. 2755.03).

2. Occupational Profile of Women Workers

To understand the occupational aspects of health, it is necessary to have a detailed examination of women's occupation.

2a. Nature of Occupation, Type of Work, Duration of Employment and Work Hours

An overwhelming majority of the women workers had temporary jobs (Table 6). Though a few workers considered themselves to be

permanent but it was clear that industry did not provide them any job security.

Table 6 : Nature of Occupation and Type of Work of Women Workers

Occupational Details	Rural (N=126)		Urban (N=126)		Total (N=252)	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Nature of Occupation						
Temporary	117	92.85	107	84.92	224	88.88
Permanent	9	7.14	19	15.07	28	11.11
Type of Work						
Skilled	21	16.66	21	16.66	42	16.66
Semi-skilled	63	50.00	63	50.00	126	50.00
Unskilled	42	33.33	42	33.33	84	33.33

Data further showed that half the number of workers were engaged in semi-skilled work, 33.33 per cent in unskilled work and only 16.66 per cent were engaged in skilled work. Semi-skilled and unskilled workers were always under tension of losing their jobs as they could not get any experience or training in skilled work.

The mean duration of employment of total sample was 13.66 years (Table 7). Many of the workers had been working for the last 8 to 14 years.

Table 7 : Duration of Employment, Work Hours and Duration of Rest Interval

Job Aspects	Rural (N=126) F	%	Urban (N=126) F	%	Total (N=252) F	%
Duration of Employment (Years)						
1-7	5	3.96	15	11.90	20	7.93
8-14	55	43.65	70	55.55	125	49.60
15-21	66	52.38	41	32.53	107	42.46
Mean	14.41		12.79		13.66	
S.D.	3.82		4.14		4.10	
Daily Hours of Work						
9	126	100.00	126	100.00	252	100.00
Duration of Rest Interval (Hours)						
1/2	27	21.42	31	24.60	58	23.01
1	99	78.57	95	75.39	194	76.98

All the women workers in the total sample worked for 9 hours per day i.e., from 8.30 a.m. to 5.30 pm. It was reported by many workers that many times they had to work after 5.30 p.m. so as to pack the sorted material in gunny bags, stitch the bags properly and had to weigh the bags to sell these to customers (Plate 1). This work was additional one without payment. Such winding up procedure took additional time before workers could walk 2 to 3 kilometers to reach their homes.

About 77 per cent of workers had only one break for an hour and about one-fourth used to take two breaks of half an hour.

PLATE 1. BIG GUNNY BAGS PACKED AND STITCHED BY WOMEN WORKERS

PLATE 2. PROVISION OF TABLE FOR CLIPPING THE CARPETS IN STANDING POSTURE

2b. Earnings of Women Workers

Mean monthly earnings of women workers were Rs. 862.99 (Table 8). About 56 per cent of workers had their wage range between Rs. 600 to Rs. 875 per month. The break up showed that mean income of urban sample (Rs. 919.84) was more than that of rural sample (Rs. 806.15).

Table 8 : Earnings of Women Workers

Earnings/Month (Rupees)	Rural (N=126)		Urban (N=126)		Total (N=252)	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
600-875	81	64.28	60	47.61	141	55.95
875-1150	45	35.71	57	45.23	102	40.47
1150-1425			9	7.14	9	3.57
Mean	806.15		919.84		862.99	
S.D.	137.97		168.14		163.72	

Mode of payment of wages was monthly. If a worker needed more money, she could ask for an advance. Wages were paid on piece rated basis and not on time basis. Payment was made after checking the product for quality of work done. In case of work of unsatisfactory quality, some amount from wages was deducted from their already low wages.

As workers would get less pay for less work done, there was crushing incentive to do overwork. Moreover workers were also expected by the employers to do definite work everyday. Data

showed that women workers were concentrated in low end jobs and they performed the lowest paid tasks. Conditions regarding wages were pitiable and sorrowful. Minimum wages were never paid and unauthorized deductions were very common.

3. Suitability of Occupational Environment to Women Workers

To understand the issues pertaining to women workers' occupation, it was necessary to analyse the extent of suitability of occupational environment which included work factors, work place factors and organisational factors. In addition, awareness level of workers about sources of occupational health problems and satisfaction level of the workers with occupational environment were also assessed.

3a. Work Factors

Overwork was reported to a great extent by 62.30 per cent of women workers (Table 9). Strenuous work posture was reported to a great extent by 53.17 per cent of workers. Repetitious work movements were felt to a great extent by 40.47 per cent of workers. Recognition of job was reported to a less extent by 57.53 per cent but it was never felt by 21.03 per cent. Feedback regarding performance of work was experienced to a less extent by 51.19 per cent but it was never felt by 28.17 per cent of workers. Nearly 49 per cent felt that there was job security to a less extent, whereas 26.19 per cent never felt it. Long work duration was felt to a less extent by 48.01 per cent of workers

but about 31 per cent felt to a great extent. Prospects for promotion were reported to a less extent by 41.66 per cent, whereas 14.28 per cent of workers never felt it.

Percentage of women workers who reported unsuitable work factors was more in rural group than in urban group.

Table 9 : Extent of Suitability of Work Factors to Women Workers

Characteristics of Work Factors	Rural (N=126)						Urban (N=126)						Total (N=252)			
	G		L		N		G		L		N		G		L	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Strenuous work posture	80	63.49	41	32.53	5	3.96	54	42.85	51	40.47	21	16.66	134	53.17	92	36.50
Long work duration	45	35.71	61	48.41	20	15.87	33	26.19	60	47.61	33	26.19	78	30.95	121	48.01
Repetitious work movements	63	50.00	43	34.12	20	15.87	39	30.95	47	37.30	40	31.74	102	40.47	90	35.71
Security of job	23	18.25	61	48.41	42	33.33	40	31.74	62	69.20	24	19.04	63	25.00	123	48.80
Overwork	87	69.04	30	23.80	9	7.14	70	55.55	39	30.95	17	13.49	157	62.30	69	27.38
Job recognition	17	13.49	73	57.93	36	28.57	37	29.39	72	57.14	17	13.49	54	21.42	145	57.53
Feedback regarding performance	19	15.07	62	49.20	45	35.71	33	26.19	67	53.17	26	20.63	52	20.63	129	51.19
Experience increases prospects for promotion	45	35.71	60	47.61	21	16.66	66	52.38	45	35.71	15	11.90	111	44.04	105	41.66

G = To a great extent, L = To a less extent, N = Not at all

Many workers who reported strenuous work posture were of the view that they were not being provided proper work design and facilities for efficient performance of work. In few industries, workers were provided table for clipping the carpets in standing

posture (Plate 2), whereas in others workers had to sit on the floor in bending posture (Plate 3). Many workers were of the view that they worked all the time but they were denied work status and their work was unrecorded. Prospects for advancement were limited for them. Less degree of skills and low education were the major factors that accounted for their less job recognition and lower wages as reported by employers.

3b. Work Place Factors

Adequate work place factors provide protection against dangers at work place and its immediate environment. Findings of work place factors were based on investigator's observations as well as data reported by the respondents.

It was observed that 66.66 per cent of industries were noisy and 61 per cent had very damp floor (Table 10). In case of 66.66 per cent of industries, work place was hot to a less extent and in 33.33 per cent it was hot to a great extent during summer. Ventilation was adequate to some extent in 66.66 per cent of industry but it was inadequate in 33.33 per cent of industry. Cleanliness of ceilings and walls was observed to a less extent in 61.11 per cent but in 38.88 per cent, ceilings and walls were found to be dirty. Stagnant water was observed to a less extent in 61.11 per cent, but it was observed to a great extent in 38.88 per cent of industries. Adequacy of lighting was observed to a less extent in 55.55 per cent but in 22.22 per cent of industries lighting was inadequate. Work place temperature was low to some

PLATE 3. BENDING WHILE IN SITTING POSITION IN CARPET CLIPPING

PLATE 4. INADEQUATE SPACE FOR THE WORKER TO SIT AND WORK

extent in 55.55 per cent of industries but it was low to a great extent in 44.44 per cent during winter. Presence of particulate matter was observed to a less extent in 55.55 per cent of industry but it was to a great extent in 44.44 per cent of industries. Some growth of fungus was observed in 50 per cent but in 44.44 per cent of industries, the growth was to a great extent.

Table 10 : Extent of Suitability of Observed Work Place Factors to Women Workers

Characteristics of Work Place Factors	Industries: Rural (N=9) G F	G %	L F	L %	N F	N %	Urban (N=9) G F	G %	L F	L %	N F	N %	Total (N=18) G F	G %	L F	L %	N F	N %
Extent of noise	7	77.77	2	22.22	-	-	5	55.55	4	44.44	-	-	12	66.66	6	33.33		
Extent of adequacy of lighting	3	33.33	3	33.33	3	33.33	1	11.11	7	77.77	1	11.11	4	22.22	10	55.55	4	22.22
Extent of adequacy of ventilation	-	-	5	55.55	4	44.44	-	-	7	77.77	2	22.22	-	-	12	66.66	6	33.33
Extent of stagnant water	4	44.44	5	55.55	-	-	3	33.33	6	66.66	-	-	7	38.88	11	61.11	-	-
Cleanliness of ceilings & walls	-	-	3	33.33	6	66.66	-	-	8	88.88	1	11.11	-	-	11	61.11	7	38.88
Extent of heat	3	33.33	6	66.66	-	-	3	33.33	6	66.66	-	-	6	33.33	12	66.66	-	-
Extent of cold	4	44.44	5	55.55	-	-	4	44.44	5	55.55	-	-	8	44.44	10	55.55	-	-
Presence of particulate matter	5	55.55	4	44.44	-	-	3	33.33	6	66.66	-	-	8	44.44	10	55.55	-	-
Extent of dampness of floor	7	77.77	2	22.22	-	-	4	44.44	5	55.55	-	-	11	61.11	7	38.88	-	-
Extent of fungal growth	5	55.55	3	33.33	1	11.11	3	33.33	6	66.66	-	-	8	44.44	9	50.00	1	5.55

G = To a great extent, L = To a less extent, N = Not at all.

Dustbins were not provided in 55.55 per cent of industries (Table 11). Handpump drinking water facility was provided by 66.66 per cent, whereas 16.66 per cent did not provide any drinking water facility. Half the number of industries provided toilet facility, whereas 27.77 per cent of industries did not provide any.

Table 11 : Facilities at the Work Place

Type of Facilities	Industries					
	Rural (N = 9)		Urban (N = 9)		Total (N=18)	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Drinking Water Facility						
Tap	-	-	3	33.33	3	16.66
Handpump	6	66.66	6	66.66	12	66.66
No water facility	3	33.33	-	-	3	16.66
Toilets						
Separate	-	-	4	44.44	4	22.22
Combined	5	55.55	4	44.44	9	50.00
No Toilet	4	44.44	1	11.11	5	27.77
Dust Bins						
With lid	-	-	1	11.11	1	5.55
Without lid	2	22.22	5	55.55	7	38.88
No	7	77.77	3	33.33	10	55.55

Half the percentage of women workers reported that it was to some extent that their tools/equipments were easy to handle, whereas 16.66 per cent reported that it was not easy to handle (Table 12). The working material was reported to be clean to a less extent by 46.82 per cent, but it was reported to be dirty by

34.12 per cent of workers. Adequacy of tools/equipments was reported to a less extent by 44.44 per cent but 20.23 per cent reported their tools to be inadequate.

Table 12: Extent of Suitability of Work Place Factors to Women Workers According to Workers' Views

Characteristics of Work Place Factors	RURAL (N=126)						URBAN (N=126)						TOTAL (N=252)					
	G		L		N		G		L		N		G		L		N	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Adequacy of tool/ equipment	43	34.12	53	42.06	30	23.80	46	36.50	59	46.82	21	16.66	89	35.31	112	44.44	51	20.23
Easy handling of tool/equipment	37	29.36	62	49.20	27	21.42	46	36.50	65	51.58	15	11.90	83	32.93	127	50.39	42	16.66
Cleanliness of working material	19	15.07	54	42.85	53	42.06	29	23.01	64	50.79	33	26.19	48	19.04	118	46.82	86	34.12

G = To a great extent, L = To a less extent, N = Not at all

It was observed that condition of work place factors was comparatively bad in rural industries than in urban industries.

At a few places, leakage of rain water during rainy season was observed. Women workers used to keep water tubs under the roof so as to avoid spillage of rain water over them. In some industries women workers were given gunny bags or dhurries to sit on so that they were not affected by dampness of floor. But in others, worker had to sit on bare and moreover 'kaccha' floor for the whole day. In many industries, space alloted to

workers was inadequate and dimly lit (Plate 4 and 5). On the other hand, many workers (especially in drying of yarn) had to work in the open uncomfortable and uneasy work environment for the whole day (Plate 6).

In factories where there was no water facility, workers themselves used to fill up earthen pots before starting their work. Sometimes they went to nearby houses to drink water. In the absence of toilet facility, workers used to go out in the field for toilet which wasted their work time.

At many places, women workers reported that their working tools were out of order but their employers did not pay attention to their complaints and they had to sit without doing work. Many times workers themselves sharpened/repaired their tools at work place (Plate 7). Working material at many places was found to be so dirty that sometimes it had thorns, wires, small fragmented sharp edged stones which got stuck into workers' fingers and many times they had bleeding (Plate 8).

Findings also showed the poor conditions of sanitation at work place. In half the number of industries, cleaning was done once in a month (Table 13). Weekly cleaning was done in 44.44 per cent and only 5.55 per cent of industries did the cleaning of the work place daily. Cleanliness was found to be comparatively better in urban than in rural industries.

PLATE 5. DIRTY AND DARK WORK PLACE

PLATE 6. WORKERS WORKING IN THE OPEN FOR YARN DRYING

PLATE 7. SHARPENING OF TOOL BY THE WORKER

PLATE 8. SORTING OF DIRTY WOOL

Table 13 : Frequency of Cleaning of the Work Place

Frequency of Cleaning	Industries: Rural (N=9) F	%	Urban (N=9) F	%	Total (N=18) F	%
Everyday	-	-	1	11.11	1	5.55
Weekly	3	33.33	5	55.55	8	44.44
Monthly	6	66.66	3	33.33	9	50.00

The workers worked for long hours in unsanitary, unhygienic and subhuman conditions in order to earn money. In many units women workers themselves were seen cleaning their work space before starting and after completing their work. The employers should understand the fact that in dirty work places, a worker can not work properly and it may also become the cause of many disease. Hence, the cleanliness of the work surroundings is absolutely essential.

3c. Organisational Factors

Organisational factors have much influence on workers. As such an attempt has been made to examine the organisational set up in terms of relations at work place and labour welfare benefits.

3c. (i) Relations at Work Place

Healthy and congenial relations are important for industrial development. In the absence of good industrial relations, the production is bound to suffer adversely

thereby, affecting the entire economy. So, relationships (in the form of behaviour) between worker and employer, worker and supervisor, worker and colleagues were assessed.

Behaviour of the Employers : It was felt by 42 to 43 per cent of workers that their employers always discriminated between male and female workers in terms of wages and kind of work (Table 14). Discrimination in training facility was felt sometimes by 46.03 per cent, whereas it was felt always by 38.49 per cent. Almost 41 per cent experienced discrimination sometimes in labour welfare facilities, whereas it was felt always by 31.74 per cent of workers. Nearly 39 per cent of workers reported that it was sometimes that their employers interfered in their work but 34.12 per cent reported the interference as always. Politeness by employers was sometimes felt by 37.69 per cent, whereas 37.30 per cent of workers never felt it.

Behaviour of the Supervisors : More than half the percentage of women workers reported that it was sometimes that their supervisors had understanding of their problems but one-third never felt it. Supervisors were reported as sometimes helpful by 50.39 per cent of workers but 30.15 per cent never felt it. Supervisors were reported as sometimes egoistic by 46.03 per cent, whereas 32.93 per cent reported them always egoistic.

Forty-four per cent of workers reported their supervisors sometimes demanding, whereas 37.49 per cent reported them always demanding. Kindness to female workers was sometimes experienced by 44.04 per cent, whereas 31.74 per cent never felt it. Ill-

treatment by supervisors was sometimes felt by 43.25 per cent, whereas 23.80 per cent felt it always. Forty-two percent of workers reported that it was sometimes that their supervisors gave them opportunity for participation, whereas 36.50 per cent never felt it.

Table 14: Extent of Suitability of Organisational Factors to Women Workers

Characteristics of Relationships	Rural (N=126)						Urban (N=126)						Total (N=252)					
	A		S		N		A		S		N		A		S		N	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Behaviour of the Employers																		
Interfering	50	39.68	48	38.09	28	22.22	36	28.57	50	39.68	40	31.74	86	34.12	98	38.88	68	26.98
Polite	25	19.84	52	41.26	49	38.88	38	30.15	43	34.12	45	35.71	63	25.00	95	37.69	94	37.30
Discriminate Between Male & Female Workers in Terms of																		
Wages	59	46.82	45	35.71	22	17.46	48	38.09	45	35.71	33	26.19	107	42.46	90	35.71	55	21.82
Kind of work	64	50.79	44	34.92	18	14.28	45	35.71	57	45.23	24	19.04	109	43.25	101	40.07	42	16.66
Training facilities	55	43.65	58	46.03	13	10.31	42	33.33	58	46.03	26	20.63	97	38.49	116	46.03	39	15.47
Labour welfare facilities	48	38.09	52	41.26	26	20.63	32	25.39	51	40.47	43	34.12	80	31.74	103	40.87	69	27.38
Behaviour of the Supervisors																		
Kind to female workers	19	15.07	54	42.85	53	42.06	42	33.33	57	45.23	27	21.42	61	24.20	111	44.04	80	31.74
Give opportunity for participation	20	15.87	50	39.68	56	44.44	33	26.19	57	45.23	36	28.57	53	21.03	107	42.46	92	36.50
Understanding of problems	16	12.69	65	51.58	45	35.71	23	18.25	64	50.79	39	30.95	39	15.47	129	51.19	84	33.33
Egoistic	45	35.71	61	48.41	20	15.87	38	30.15	55	43.65	33	26.19	83	32.93	116	46.03	53	21.03
Ill treat the women	35	27.77	60	47.61	31	24.60	25	19.84	49	38.88	52	41.26	60	23.80	109	43.25	83	32.93

contd...

Characteristics of Relationships	Rural (N=126)						Urban (N=126)						Total (N=252)					
	A		S		N		A		S		N		A		S		N	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Helpful	18	14.28	60	47.61	48	38.00	31	24.60	67	53.17	28	22.22	49	19.44	127	50.39	76	30.15
Demanding	51	40.47	56	44.44	19	15.07	44	34.92	56	44.44	26	20.63	95	37.69	112	44.44	45	17.85
Behaviour of the Male Colleagues																		
Co-operative	39	30.95	37	29.36	50	39.68	44	34.92	51	40.47	31	24.60	83	32.93	88	34.92	81	32.14
Create unnecessary tension	51	40.47	34	26.98	41	32.53	33	26.19	37	29.36	56	44.44	84	33.33	71	28.17	97	38.49
Harsh	49	38.88	46	36.50	31	24.60	30	23.80	72	57.14	24	19.04	79	31.34	118	46.82	55	21.82
Not talking respectfully to females	34	26.98	70	55.55	22	17.46	33	26.19	49	38.88	44	34.92	67	26.58	119	47.22	66	26.19
Jealous of Females	62	49.20	58	46.03	6	4.76	42	33.33	62	49.20	22	17.46	104	41.26	120	47.61	28	11.11
Suspicious of movements	58	46.03	40	31.74	28	22.22	40	31.74	45	35.71	41	32.53	98	38.88	85	33.73	69	27.38
Tarnish image in the society	40	31.74	37	29.36	49	38.88	26	20.63	30	23.80	70	55.55	66	26.19	67	26.58	119	47.22
Pass comments	48	38.09	44	34.92	34	26.98	32	25.39	52	41.26	42	33.33	80	31.74	96	38.09	76	30.15
Behaviour of the female colleagues																		
Unhelpful	27	21.42	74	58.73	25	19.84	16	12.69	71	56.34	39	30.95	43	17.06	145	57.53	64	25.39
Criticizing	43	34.12	52	41.26	31	24.60	27	21.42	48	38.09	51	40.47	70	27.77	100	39.68	82	32.53
Envious of relations with bosses	67	53.17	46	36.50	13	10.31	46	36.50	60	47.61	20	15.87	113	44.84	106	42.06	33	13.09
Sympathetic	33	26.19	42	33.33	51	40.47	51	40.47	44	34.92	31	24.60	84	33.33	86	34.12	82	32.53

A = Always, S = Sometimes, N = Never

Behaviour of the Male Colleagues : Almost 39 per cent of women felt that their male colleagues were always suspicious of their movements, whereas 33.73 per cent reported it as sometimes. One-third felt that their male colleagues always created unnecessary tensions, whereas 38.49 per cent never felt it. Jealousy of male colleagues was sometimes felt by 47.61 per cent of women workers, whereas 41.26 per cent felt it always. Forty-seven per cent reported that it was sometimes their male colleagues did not talk respectfully to them but 26.58 per cent reported it always.

Almost 47 per cent reported the behaviour of the male colleagues as sometimes harsh, whereas 31.34 per cent felt it always. Passing of comments by male colleagues was sometimes felt by 38.09 per cent of workers, whereas 31.74 per cent felt it always. About 35 per cent of workers reported their male colleagues as sometimes co-operative, whereas 32.14 per cent never felt it.

At some places, male and female workers had more understanding among each other. Many migrant male workers used to request female workers to prepare lunch for them in their rooms everyday during lunch time. In return free lunch to female workers was offered by them.

Behaviour of the Female Colleagues : Almost 45 per cent of women workers opined that it was always that their female colleagues were envious of their relations with bosses, whereas 42.06 per cent reported it as sometimes. Female colleagues were

reported as sometimes unhelpful by 57.53 per cent, whereas 25.39 per cent never felt it. Criticism by female colleagues was sometimes felt by 39.68 per cent, whereas 32.53 per cent never felt it. Sympathy of female colleagues was sometimes experienced by 34.12 per cent, whereas 32.53 per cent never felt it.

Female workers were loyal to their employers as they were of the view that their employers provided them wages for their survival. They kept their work place related things like their own things. They did not want their employers to suffer any loss.

Data also indicated that behaviour of the employers, supervisors, male and female workers was somewhat better in urban industries than in rural industries. Findings reflected that discrimination and exploitation by the employers were covert. Many times it posed difficulties for women workers.

3c. (ii) Labour Welfare Benefits

Labour welfare benefits help in the attainment of bliss and well-being of the workers. These enable the worker to enjoy a richer and fuller life. These improve the efficiency of labour, increase the output and keep the worker contented. A sense of belonging can be generated in the minds of workers through welfare measures.

More than three-fourths of the industries provided loans to their workers (Table 15). About two-thirds provided tips at the time of festival. More than half the number of industries provided sickness benefits. About one-third of industries

provided bonus and more than one-fourth of industries distributed gifts once or twice a year to their workers.

Insurance, old age benefits, provident fund, leave with pay and workers' unions were totally absent.

Table 15 : Labour Welfare Benefits Offered by the Employers

Labour Welfare Benefits	Industries					
	Rural (N=9)		Urban (N=9)		Total (N=18)	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Bonus	1	11.11	5	55.55	6	33.33
Loans	6	66.66	8	88.88	14	72.72
Sickness benefits	4	44.44	6	66.66	10	55.55
Tips at the time of festival	5	55.55	7	77.77	12	66.66
Distribution of gifts	1	11.11	4	44.44	5	27.77

Percentage of industries who provided labour welfare benefits to their workers was more in urban sample than in rural sample.

Few industries had labour incentive schemes. A worker was paid Rs. 1 to Rs. 2 extra/day after completion of certain amount of work. If for the whole month, a worker's output had remained more, then he was given an item of her/his interest.

Few employers gave free food once in a month especially on Tuesday. On every Thursday, they were served boiled bengal grams. Workers were also given blankets once in a year.

On the whole, overall suitability of work factors, work place factors, organisational factors and all factors of occupational environment was observed to a less extent in maximum percentage of women workers (Table 16).

Table 16 : Extent of Overall Suitability of Various Factors of Occupational Environment to Women Workers

Extent of Suitability	Rural (N=126)		Urban (N=126)		Total (N=252)	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Work Factors						
To a great extent (20-24)	5	3.96	21	16.66	26	10.31
To a less extent (14-19)	59	46.82	74	58.73	133	52.77
Not at all (8-13)	62	49.20	31	24.60	93	36.90
Work Place Factors						
To a great extent (35-45)	-	-	12	9.52	12	4.76
To a less extent (25-34)	73	57.93	98	77.77	171	67.85
Not at all (15-24)	53	42.06	16	12.69	69	27.38
Organisational Factors						
To a great extent (85-107)	6	4.76	26	20.63	32	12.69
To a less extent (63-84)	77	61.11	68	53.93	145	57.53
Not at all (41-62)	43	34.12	32	25.39	75	29.76
All Factors						
To a great extent (140-176)	2	1.58	18	14.28	20	9.93
To a less extent (102-139)	79	62.69	78	61.90	157	62.30
Not at all (64-101)	45	35.71	30	23.80	75	29.76

An overview of the findings of occupational environment showed that it was not satisfactory in all the industries. This indicated the need to improve the existing work environment and some stringent measures for protection of women workers.

3d. Level of Awareness of Women Workers about Sources of Occupational Health Problems

Awareness here deals with the understanding and consciousness of the factors responsible for occupational health problems. An examination of occupational environment leads to the crucial question : are the women workers aware of their oppressed conditions ? Hence, awareness of workers was assessed.

Nearly 78 per cent of women workers had average level of awareness (Table 17). Only 14.28 per cent had good awareness level. Mean scores of urban workers (91.74) were more than the rural workers (87.04) indicating that urban workers had better awareness level.

Table 17 : Level of Awareness of Women Workers About Sources of Occupational Health Problems

Level of Awareness	Rural (N=126) F	%	Urban (N=126) F	%	Total (N=252) F	%
Poor (44-73)	14	11.11	6	4.76	20	7.93
Fair (74-103)	105	83.33	91	72.22	196	77.77
Good (104-132)	7	5.55	29	23.01	36	14.28
Mean Scores	87.04		91.74		89.39	
S.D.	9.06		10.89		10.56	

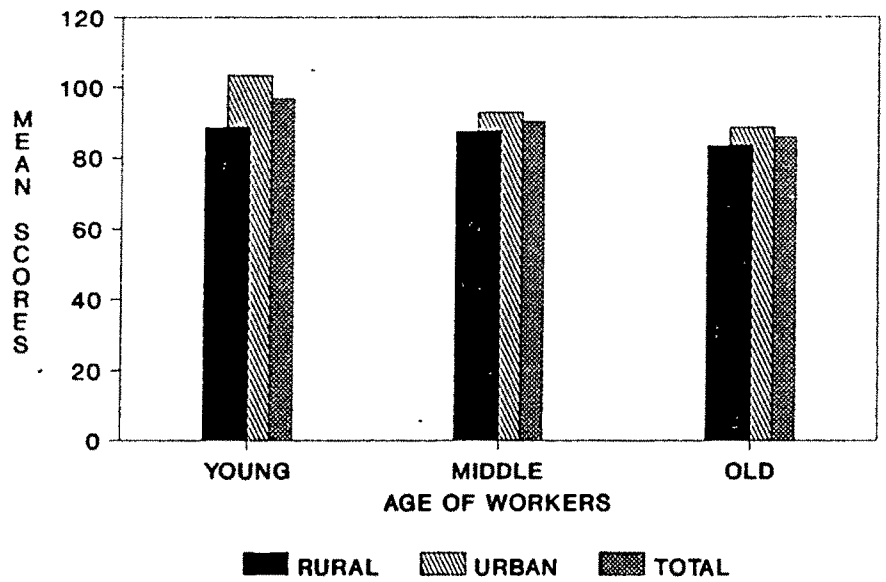
A further probe showed that age and education had some influence on awareness level i.e., young workers had better awareness than old ones and also awareness level was increased with the increased level of education (Figure 4).

Data showed that women workers were very well aware about the sources which caused occupational health problems but they were unable to do anything. They had no control over their occupational environment and being unorganised they could not revolt against their unhealthy and undesirable work environment.

3e. Degree of Satisfaction of Women Workers with Various Factors of Occupational Environment

Data showed that 47.61 per cent of women workers were dissatisfied with safety measures, whereas 24.60 per cent were satisfied with this factor (Table 18). Dissatisfaction with wages was expressed by 44.44 per cent, whereas satisfaction was expressed by only 19.84 per cent. Almost 41 per cent of workers were dissatisfied with their job, whereas 26.58 per cent were satisfied. Dissatisfaction with relations at work place and facilities and benefits was expressed by 40.47 per cent, whereas 29.76 per cent and 15.87 per cent of workers were satisfied with these factors respectively. Nearly 31 to 32 per cent expressed dissatisfaction with work duration and physical work conditions, whereas satisfaction was expressed by only 21 per cent of women workers.

MEAN AWARENESS SCORES OF WOMEN WORKERS
ACCORDING TO AGE AND EDUCATION LEVEL



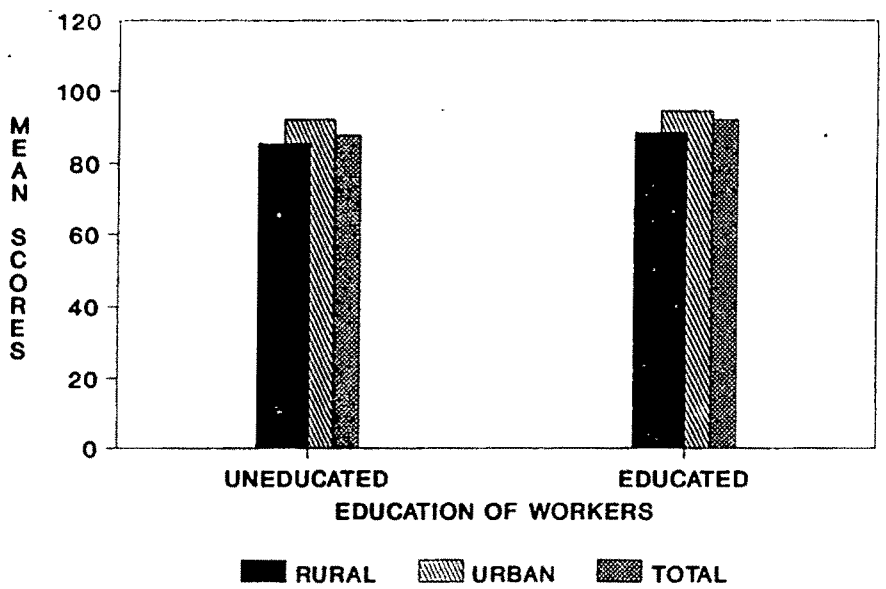


FIGURE 4

Table 18: Degree of Satisfaction of Women Workers with Various Factors of Occupational Environment

Types of Occupational Environment Factors	Rural (N=126)						Urban (N=126)						Total (N=252)					
	S		FS		DS		S		FS		DS		S		FS		DS	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Wages	23	18.25	36	28.57	67	53.17	27	21.42	54	42.85	45	35.71	50	19.84	90	35.71	112	44.44
Job	31	24.60	36	28.57	59	46.82	36	28.57	46	36.50	44	34.92	67	26.58	82	32.53	103	40.87
Work duration	20	15.57	61	48.41	45	35.71	33	26.19	60	47.61	33	26.19	53	21.03	121	48.01	78	30.95
Physical conditions at work place	19	15.07	61	48.41	46	36.50	34	26.98	56	44.44	36	28.57	53	21.03	117	46.42	82	32.53
Relations at work place	35	27.77	36	28.57	55	43.65	40	31.74	40	31.74	46	36.50	75	29.76	76	30.15	101	40.07
Facilities and benefits	18	14.28	52	41.26	56	44.44	22	17.46	58	46.03	46	36.50	40	15.87	110	43.65	102	40.47
Safety measures	22	17.46	38	30.15	66	52.38	40	31.74	32	25.39	54	42.85	62	24.60	70	27.77	120	47.61

S = Satisfied, FS = Fairly satisfied, DS = Dissatisfied

More number of rural women workers than urban women workers expressed dissatisfaction with occupational factors.

Satisfaction level in the total sample was found to be very low as the workers were deprived of even the fundamental conditions and facilities of their employment.

4. Occupational Health Problems of Women Workers

This section indicates the multitude of problems faced by women workers. Findings pertaining to medical facility, use of medical facility, treatment taken and steps taken by workers to overcome their problems are also presented in this section.

4a. Problems Due to Work Factors

4a. (i) Posture at Work

Seventy per cent of women workers always experienced strain on shoulders due to strenuous posture at work and 45.23 per cent reported severe strain (Table 19). The next most frequent problem faced was pain in the hips by about 60 per cent and 42.46 per cent reported it be severe. More than half the number of workers always had neck and back discomforts and about 43 per cent felt it to be severe. More than half the number of workers always reported pain in the knees and more than one-third felt it to be severe. Pain in the abdomen was always experienced by 45.23 per cent of workers and 30.55 per cent reported it to be severe. Postural defects were found to be in negligible percentage.

Comparison of postural problems of urban and rural women workers showed that relatively less percentage of urban workers than rural workers had experienced these problems.

It was observed that swelling in ankle joints was more prevalent in workers engaged in drying of yarn and carpet weaving due to prolonged standing posture (Plate 9). Workers in drying of yarn also felt more of neck and back discomforts as they had to take out and carry heavy hanks of wool from one place to another (Plate 10 and 11). Wool sorters and rag rippers felt more of abdominal and hips pain due to prolonged sitting posture.

Table 19 : Frequency of Occurrence and Extent of Severity of Occupational Health Problems of Women Workers due to Posture at Work

Problems due to Posture at Work	Rural (N=126)						Urban (N=126)						Total (N=252)					
	Frequency of Occurrence			Extent of Severity			Frequency of Occurrence			Extent of Severity			Frequency of Occurrence			Extent of Severity		
	A	S	N	S	L	N	A	S	N	S	L	N	A	S	N	S	L	N
	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F
Neck & back discomfort	76 (60.31)	40 (31.74)	10 (7.93)	64 (50.79)	35 (27.77)	27 (21.42)	65 (51.58)	44 (34.92)	17 (13.49)	44 (34.92)	53 (42.06)	29 (23.01)	141 (55.95)	84 (33.33)	27 (10.71)	108 (42.85)	88 (34.92)	56 (22.22)
Postural defects	5 (3.96)	- -	121 (96.03)	- -	5 (3.93)	121 (96.03)	2 (1.58)	- -	124 (98.41)	- -	2 (1.58)	124 (98.41)	7 (2.77)	- -	245 (97.22)	- -	7 (2.77)	245 (97.22)
Swelling in ankle joints	54 (42.85)	65 (51.58)	7 (5.55)	43 (34.12)	66 (52.38)	17 (13.49)	55 (43.65)	44 (34.92)	27 (21.42)	41 (32.53)	50 (39.68)	35 (27.77)	109 (43.25)	109 (43.25)	34 (13.49)	84 (33.33)	116 (46.03)	52 (20.63)
Abdominal pain	66 (52.38)	49 (38.88)	11 (8.73)	45 (35.71)	50 (39.68)	31 (24.60)	48 (38.09)	52 (41.26)	26 (20.63)	32 (25.39)	52 (41.26)	42 (33.33)	114 (45.23)	101 (40.07)	37 (14.68)	77 (30.55)	102 (40.47)	73 (28.96)
Pain in the hips	83 (65.87)	39 (30.95)	4 (3.17)	51 (40.47)	58 (46.03)	17 (13.49)	68 (53.96)	44 (34.92)	14 (11.11)	56 (44.44)	49 (38.88)	21 (16.66)	151 (59.92)	83 (32.93)	18 (7.14)	107 (42.46)	107 (42.46)	38 (15.07)
Pain in the knees	65 (51.58)	60 (47.61)	1 (0.79)	51 (40.47)	70 (55.55)	5 (3.96)	67 (53.17)	51 (40.47)	8 (6.34)	39 (30.95)	74 (58.73)	13 (10.31)	132 (52.38)	111 (44.04)	9 (3.57)	90 (35.71)	144 (57.14)	18 (7.14)
Strain on shoulders	93 (73.80)	30 (23.80)	3 (2.38)	57 (45.23)	64 (50.79)	5 (3.96)	84 (66.66)	35 (27.77)	7 (5.55)	57 (45.23)	60 (47.61)	9 (7.14)	177 (70.23)	65 (25.79)	10 (3.96)	114 (45.23)	124 (49.20)	14 (5.55)

A = Always, S = Sometimes, N = Never, S = Severe, L = Less severe N = Not severe.

(Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

PLATE 9. BENDING WHILE IN STANDING POSTURE IN CARPET WEAVING

PLATE 10. TAKING OUT YARN HANKS FROM WASHER FOR DRYING

PLATE 11. CARRYING HEAVY YARN HANKS OF WOOL AT THE BACK FOR DRYING

PLATE 12. STITCHING THE TORN CARPET IN BETWEEN CLIPPING

4a. (ii) Work Duration

More than half the number of women workers had always experienced headache due to long work duration and 46.03 per cent reported it to be severe (Table 20). Drowsiness was the next most frequent problem felt by 42.85 per cent and 23.80 per cent reported it as severe. Frustration was always felt by almost 38 per cent and 35.31 per cent reported it as severe. Lack of sleep was always experienced by 33.33 per cent and 26.58 per cent reported the problem as severe.

Watering of eyes was always experienced by 32.14 per cent and 31.74 per cent felt it to be severe. Boredom was always felt by 31.34 per cent and 26.58 per cent found it to be severe. About one-fourth always suffered from blurred vision and an equal number reported it to be severe. Inability to concentrate on work was always felt by 21.82 per cent, and 17.46 reported the problem as severe.

Frequency and severity of occupational health problems due to work duration was comparatively more in rural sample than in urban sample.

The problem of headache was more frequently experienced by wool sorters. Carpet clippers felt frequently the problem of watering of eyes as they had to do the minute work of sewing of torn carpet along with its clipping (Plate 12).

Table 20 : Frequency of Occurrence and Extent of Severity of Occupational Healt' Problems of Women Workers due to Work Duration

Problems due to Work Duration	Rural (N=126)						Urban (N=126)						Total (N=252)					
	Frequency of Occurrence			Extent of Severity			Frequency of Occurrence			Extent of Severity			Frequency of Occurrence			Extent of Severity		
	A F	S F	N F	S F	L F	N F	A F	S F	N F	S F	L F	N F	A F	S F	N F	S F	L F	N F
Headache	74 (58.73)	49 (38.88)	3 (2.38)	70 (55.55)	46 (36.50)	10 (7.93)	59 (46.82)	46 (36.50)	21 (16.66)	46 (36.50)	59 (46.82)	21 (16.66)	133 (52.77)	95 (37.69)	24 (9.52)	116 (46.03)	105 (41.66)	31 (12.30)
Lack of sleep	46 (36.50)	51 (40.47)	29 (23.01)	38 (30.15)	49 (38.88)	39 (30.95)	38 (30.15)	49 (38.88)	39 (30.95)	29 (23.01)	44 (34.92)	53 (42.06)	84 (33.33)	100 (39.68)	68 (26.98)	67 (26.58)	93 (36.90)	92 (36.50)
Drowsiness	65 (51.58)	50 (39.68)	11 (8.73)	32 (25.39)	61 (48.41)	33 (26.60)	43 (34.12)	60 (47.61)	23 (18.25)	28 (22.22)	59 (46.82)	39 (30.95)	108 (42.85)	110 (43.65)	34 (13.49)	60 (23.80)	120 (47.61)	72 (28.57)
Blurred vision	35 (27.77)	45 (35.71)	46 (36.50)	35 (27.77)	31 (24.60)	60 (47.61)	27 (21.42)	35 (27.77)	64 (50.79)	27 (21.42)	31 (24.60)	68 (53.96)	62 (24.60)	80 (31.74)	110 (43.65)	62 (24.60)	62 (24.60)	128 (50.79)
Watering of eyes	41 (32.53)	70 (55.55)	15 (11.90)	46 (36.50)	53 (42.06)	27 (21.42)	40 (31.74)	61 (48.41)	25 (19.84)	34 (26.98)	57 (45.23)	35 (27.77)	81 (32.14)	131 (51.98)	40 (15.87)	80 (31.74)	110 (43.65)	62 (24.60)
Frustration	55 (43.65)	61 (48.41)	10 (7.93)	49 (38.88)	51 (40.47)	26 (20.63)	40 (31.74)	62 (49.20)	24 (19.04)	40 (31.74)	40 (31.74)	46 (36.50)	95 (37.69)	123 (48.80)	34 (13.49)	89 (35.31)	91 (36.11)	72 (28.57)
Boredom	48 (38.09)	60 (47.61)	18 (14.28)	43 (34.12)	48 (38.09)	35 (27.77)	31 (24.60)	57 (45.23)	38 (30.15)	24 (19.04)	43 (34.12)	59 (44.82)	79 (31.34)	117 (46.42)	56 (22.22)	67 (26.58)	91 (36.11)	94 (37.30)
Inability to concentrate on work	35 (27.77)	61 (48.41)	30 (23.80)	27 (21.42)	42 (33.33)	57 (45.23)	20 (15.87)	65 (51.58)	41 (32.53)	17 (13.49)	44 (34.92)	65 (51.58)	55 (21.82)	126 (50.00)	71 (28.17)	44 (17.46)	86 (34.12)	122 (48.45)

A = Always, S = Sometimes, N = Never, S = Severe, L = Less severe, N = Not severe.

(Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

4a. (iii) Work Movements

Nearly two-thirds of women workers always experienced pain in shoulders due to repetitious work movements and 41.66 per cent reported it severe. About 61 per cent reported always pain in hands and fingers and arms and 42 to 45 per cent reported these problems as severe (Table 21). Nearly 56 per cent always experienced stiffness of hand joints and 34.12 per cent found this as severe. Half the number of workers always experienced numbness of fingers and 39.28 per cent reported it as severe problem. Dullness was felt by least number of workers.

Incidence of occupational health problems due to work movements was relatively more in rural group than in urban group.

It was observed that workers engaged in wool sorting, rag ripping, winding of yarn and carpet weaving reported more frequent pain in shoulders and arms due to prolonged repetitious work movements.

4a. (iv) Lack of Job Security

Due to lack of job security 59.12 per cent of women workers always felt that their self-esteem was hurted and 23.41 per cent reported the problem as severe (Table 22). About 48 to 50 per cent of workers always felt frustrated and depressed and 22 to 23 per cent reported the problems to be severe. Thirty-eight per cent of workers always felt despaired and 14.28 per cent reported the problem as severe. More than one-fourth always felt worried and only 15.07 per cent reported the problem to be severe.

Table 21 : Frequency of Occurrence and Extent of Severity of Occupational Health Problems of Women Workers due to Work Movements

Problems due to Work Movements	Rural (N=126)						Urban (N=126)						Total (N=252)					
	Frequency of Occurrence			Extent of Severity			Frequency of Occurrence			Extent of Severity			Frequency of Occurrence			Extent of Severity		
	A F	S F	N F	S F	L F	N F	A F	S F	N F	S F	L F	N F	A F	S F	N F	S F	L F	N F
Pain in hands	85 (67.46)	40 (31.74)	1 (0.79)	60 (47.61)	58 (46.03)	8 (6.34)	68 (53.96)	52 (41.26)	6 (4.76)	46 (36.50)	72 (57.14)	8 (6.34)	153 (60.71)	92 (36.50)	7 (2.77)	106 (42.06)	130 (51.58)	16 (6.34)
Pain in shoulders	85 (67.46)	40 (31.74)	1 (0.79)	66 (52.38)	57 (45.23)	3 (2.38)	81 (64.28)	43 (34.12)	2 (1.58)	39 (30.95)	85 (67.46)	2 (1.58)	66 (65.87)	83 (32.93)	3 (1.19)	105 (41.66)	142 (56.34)	5 (1.98)
Aches in arms	84 (66.66)	41 (32.53)	1 (0.79)	66 (52.38)	55 (43.65)	5 (3.96)	69 (54.76)	56 (44.44)	1 (0.79)	49 (38.88)	76 (60.31)	1 (0.79)	153 (60.71)	97 (38.49)	2 (0.79)	115 (45.63)	131 (51.98)	6 (2.38)
Stiffness of hand joints	78 (61.90)	42 (33.33)	6 (4.76)	51 (40.47)	57 (45.23)	18 (14.28)	63 (50.00)	48 (38.09)	15 (11.90)	35 (27.77)	69 (54.36)	22 (17.46)	141 (55.95)	90 (35.71)	21 (8.33)	86 (34.12)	126 (50.00)	40 (15.87)
Numbness of fingers	68 (53.96)	52 (41.26)	6 (4.76)	60 (47.61)	53 (42.06)	13 (10.31)	58 (46.03)	46 (36.50)	22 (17.46)	39 (30.95)	63 (50.00)	24 (19.04)	126 (50.00)	98 (38.88)	28 (11.11)	99 (39.28)	116 (46.03)	37 (14.68)
Dullness	38 (30.15)	64 (50.79)	24 (19.04)	25 (19.84)	62 (49.20)	39 (30.95)	26 (20.63)	58 (46.03)	42 (33.33)	15 (...90)	60 (47.61)	51 (40.47)	64 (25.39)	122 (48.41)	66 (26.19)	40 (15.87)	122 (48.41)	90 (35.71)

A = Always, S = Sometimes, N = Never, S = Severe, L = Less severe, N = Not severe

(Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 22 : Frequency of Occurrence and Extent of Severity of Occupational Health Problems of Women Workers due to Lack of Job Security

Problems due to Lack of Job Security	Rural (N=126)						Urban (N=126)						Total (N=252)					
	Frequency of Occurrence			Extent of Severity			Frequency of Occurrence			Extent of Severity			Frequency of Occurrence			Extent of Severity		
	A F	S F	N F	S F	L F	N F	A F	S F	N F	S F	L F	N F	A F	S F	N F	S F	L F	N F
Depression	72 (57.14)	41 (32.53)	13 (10.31)	30 (23.80)	66 (52.38)	30 (23.80)	55 (43.65)	45 (35.71)	26 (20.63)	27 (21.42)	61 (48.41)	38 (30.15)	127 (50.39)	86 (34.12)	39 (15.47)	57 (22.61)	127 (50.39)	68 (26.98)
Frustration	71 (56.34)	38 (30.15)	17 (13.49)	29 (23.01)	61 (48.41)	36 (28.57)	49 (38.88)	51 (40.47)	26 (20.63)	27 (21.42)	63 (50.00)	36 (28.57)	120 (47.61)	89 (35.31)	43 (17.06)	56 (22.22)	124 (49.20)	72 (28.57)
Despair	52 (41.26)	30 (23.80)	44 (34.92)	19 (15.07)	54 (42.85)	53 (42.06)	44 (34.92)	36 (28.57)	46 (36.50)	17 (13.49)	47 (37.30)	62 (49.20)	96 (38.09)	66 (26.19)	90 (35.71)	36 (14.28)	101 (40.07)	115 (45.63)
Worry	40 (31.74)	52 (41.26)	34 (26.98)	22 (17.46)	60 (47.61)	44 (34.92)	31 (24.60)	40 (31.74)	55 (43.65)	16 (12.69)	50 (39.68)	60 (47.61)	71 (28.17)	92 (36.50)	89 (35.31)	38 (15.07)	110 (43.65)	104 (41.26)
Low self-esteem	80 (63.49)	24 (19.04)	22 (17.46)	28 (22.22)	61 (48.41)	37 (29.36)	69 (54.76)	29 (23.01)	28	31	63 (22.22)	32 (24.60)	149 (50.00)	53 (25.39)	50 (59.12)	59 (21.03)	124 (19.84)	69 (23.41) (49.20) (27.38)

A = Always, S = Sometimes, N = Never, S = Severe, L = Less severe N = Not severe.

(Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Percentage of women workers who suffered from more frequent problems due to lack of job security was more in rural sample than in urban sample.

4a. (v) Overwork

Physical fatigue due to overwork was always felt by 61.50 per cent of women workers and almost 34 per cent reported the problem to be severe (Table 23). Almost 58 per cent always experienced lack of rest and relaxation and 30.15 per cent reported the problem to be severe. Disruption of normal routine was always reported by 48.01 per cent and 28.58 per cent reported the problem as severe.

Percentage of women workers facing frequent health problems due to overwork was slightly less in urban sample than in rural sample.

4a. (vi) Lack of Job Recognition

Inefficiency due to lack of job recognition was always felt by 49.20 per cent of women workers and 30.15 per cent reported the problem as severe (Table 24). About 45 per cent always felt unenthusiastic and 19.04 per cent reported the problem as severe. Lack of confidence in their capacities to work was reported as always by almost 34 per cent of workers and 23.41 per cent reported the problem as severe.

Incidence of health problems due to lack of job recognition was more in rural women workers than in urban women workers.

Table 23 : Frequency of Occurrence and Extent of Severity of Occupational Health Problems of Women Workers due to Overwork

Problems due to Overwork	Rural (N=126)						Urban (N=126)						Total (N=252)					
	Frequency of Occurrence			Extent of Severity			Frequency of Occurrence			Extent of Severity			Frequency of Occurrence			Extent of Severity		
	A	S	N	S	L	N	A	S	N	S	L	N	A	S	N	S	L	N
	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F
Disruption of normal routine	64 (50.79)	57 (45.23)	5 (3.96)	34 (26.98)	77 (61.11)	15 (11.90)	57 (45.23)	52 (41.26)	17 (13.49)	33 (26.19)	72 (57.14)	21 (16.66)	121 (48.01)	109 (43.25)	22 (8.73)	67 (26.58)	149 (59.12)	36 (14.28)
Lack of rest & relaxation	80 (63.49)	43 (34.12)	3 (2.38)	38 (30.15)	78 (61.90)	10 (7.93)	66 (52.38)	50 (39.68)	10 (7.93)	38 (30.15)	73 (57.93)	15 (11.90)	146 (57.93)	93 (36.90)	13 (5.15)	76 (30.15)	151 (59.92)	25 (9.92)
Physical fatigue	79 (62.69)	43 (34.12)	4 (3.12)	40 (31.74)	77 (61.11)	9 (7.14)	76 (60.31)	40 (31.74)	10 (7.93)	45 (35.71)	64 (50.79)	17 (13.49)	155 (61.50)	83 (32.93)	14 (5.55)	85 (33.73)	141 (55.95)	26 (10.31)

A = Always, S = Sometimes, N = Never, S = Severe, L = Less severe, N = Not severe

(Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 24 : Frequency of Occurence and Extent of Severity of Occupational Health Problems of Women Workers due to Lack of Job Recognition

Problems due to Lack of Job Recognition	Rural (N=126)						Urban (N=126)						Total (N=252)					
	Frequency of Occurrence			Extent of Severity			Frequency of Occurrence			Extent of Severity			Frequency of Occurrence			Extent of Severity		
	A	S	N	S	L	N	A	S	N	S	L	N	A	S	N	S	L	N
	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F
Inefficiency	73 (57.93)	43 (34.12)	10 (7.93)	47 (37.30)	50 (39.68)	29 (23.01)	51 (40.47)	44 (34.92)	31 (24.60)	29 (23.01)	52 (41.26)	45 (35.71)	124 (49.20)	87 (34.52)	41 (16.26)	76 (30.15)	102 (40.47)	74 (29.36)
Unenthusiasm	61 (48.41)	43 (34.12)	22 (17.46)	24 (19.04)	63 (50.00)	39 (30.95)	52 (41.26)	47 (37.30)	27 (21.42)	24 (19.04)	55 (43.65)	47 (37.30)	113 (44.84)	90 (35.71)	49 (19.44)	48 (19.04)	118 (46.82)	86 (34.12)
Lack of confidence in capacity to work	47 (37.30)	44 (34.92)	35 (27.77)	29 (23.01)	50 (39.68)	47 (37.30)	38 (30.15)	40 (31.74)	48 (38.09)	30 (23.80)	45 (35.71)	51 (40.47)	85 (33.73)	84 (33.33)	83 (32.93)	59 (23.41)	95 (37.69)	98 (38.88)

A = Always, S = Sometimes, N = Never, S = Severe, L = Less severe, N = Not severe

(Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Data on the whole showed that problems caused by posture at work, work movements, overwork and some of the problems of work duration and lack of job recognition were physical in nature. Problems due to lack of job security and some of the problems due to work duration and lack of job recognition were mental in nature.

4b. Problems due to Work Place Factors

4b. (i) Physical Work Conditions

Half the number of women workers suffered from frequent cold due to poor physical work conditions and about one-third reported it to be severe (Table 25). About 50 per cent always felt uneasiness and 25 per cent reported the problem as severe. About 48 per cent felt frequent splitting headache and about 37 per cent reported it to be severe. The problem of coughing was always experienced by about 47 per cent and it was reported to be severe in 29.36 percent.

Almost 39 per cent always suffered from problem of shivering in winter and about 29 per cent reported it to be severe. Nearly 30 per cent always reported hinderance in hearing ability and 23.01 reported it as severe. Poor vision was always experienced by 25.39 per cent and almost 22 per cent reported it to be severe.

Data also showed that relatively more percentage of rural women workers than urban women workers reported more frequent problems due to physical work conditions.

Table 25 : Frequency of Occurrence and Extent of Severity of Occupational Health Problems of Women Workers due to Physical Work Conditions

Problems due to Physical Work Conditions	Rural (N=126)						Urban (N=126)						Total (N=252)					
	Frequency of Occurrence			Extent of Severity			Frequency of Occurrence			Extent of Severity			Frequency of Occurrence			Extent of Severity		
	A	S	N	S	L	N	A	S	N	S	L	N	A	S	N	S	L	N
	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F
Uneasiness	74 (58.73)	38 (30.15)	14 (11.11)	33 (26.19)	63 (50.00)	30 (23.80)	51 (40.47)	48 (38.09)	27 (21.42)	30 (23.80)	56 (44.44)	40 (31.74)	125 (49.60)	86 (34.12)	41 (16.26)	63 (25.00)	119 (47.22)	70 (27.77)
Shivering	58 (46.03)	46 (36.50)	22 (17.46)	38 (30.15)	57 (45.23)	31 (24.60)	40 (31.74)	54 (42.85)	32 (25.39)	35 (27.77)	53 (42.68)	38 (30.15)	98 (38.88)	100 (39.68)	54 (21.42)	73 (28.96)	110 (43.65)	69 (27.38)
Hinderance in hearing ability	39 (30.95)	64 (50.79)	23 (18.25)	30 (23.80)	48 (38.09)	48 (38.09)	36 (28.57)	45 (35.71)	45 (35.71)	28 (22.22)	40 (31.74)	58 (46.03)	75 (29.76)	109 (43.25)	68 (26.98)	58 (23.01)	88 (34.97)	106 (42.06)
Poor vision	36 (28.57)	41 (32.53)	49 (38.88)	31 (24.60)	42 (33.33)	53 (42.06)	28 (22.22)	35 (27.77)	63 (50.00)	24 (19.04)	22 (17.46)	80 (63.49)	64 (25.39)	76 (30.15)	112 (44.44)	55 (21.82)	64 (25.39)	133 (52.77)
Cold	71 (56.34)	53 (42.06)	2 (1.58)	51 (40.47)	64 (50.79)	11 (8.73)	55 (43.65)	65 (51.58)	6 (4.76)	33 (26.19)	72 (57.14)	21 (16.66)	126 (50.00)	118 (46.82)	8 (3.17)	84 (33.33)	136 (53.96)	32 (12.69)
Splitting Headache	70 (55.55)	51 (40.47)	5 (3.96)	53 (42.06)	59 (46.82)	14 (11.11)	50 (39.68)	70 (55.55)	6 (4.76)	40 (31.74)	64 (50.79)	22 (17.46)	120 (47.61)	121 (48.01)	11 (4.36)	93 (36.90)	123 (48.80)	36 (14.28)
Coughing	68 (53.96)	45 (35.71)	13 (10.31)	40 (31.74)	61 (48.41)	25 (19.84)	50 (39.68)	64 (50.79)	12 (9.52)	34 (26.98)	65 (51.58)	27 (21.42)	118 (46.82)	109 (43.25)	25 (9.92)	74 (29.36)	126 (50.00)	52 (20.63)

A = Always, S = Sometimes, N = Never, S = Severe, L = Less severe, N = Not severe

(Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

4b. (ii) Mechanical Factors

Hardening of skin due to working with tools mostly inadequate was reported always by 58.33 per cent of women workers and 39.28 per cent reported the problem as severe (Table 26). Almost 52 per cent always suffered from abrasions and nearly 27 per cent expressed the problem as severe. Redness of skin of hand was always reported by 50.39 per cent and 25.79 per cent stated the problem as severe.

Nearly 49 per cent always experienced the problem of dents and 35.71 per cent reported it as severe. Cuts were always reported by 44.84 per cent and 28.57 per cent stated the problem as severe. Pricking of fingers was always experienced by 34.12 per cent of workers and 28.17 per cent reported it as severe. Nearly 30 per cent always experienced the problem of bleeding of fingers and 26.19 per cent stated it to be severe. The problem of formation of patches was always suffered by 29.36 per cent and 16.66 per cent reported it as severe.

Percentage of rural women workers was more than urban women workers in all types of problems due to mechanical factors except in case of redness of skin of hand and pricking of fingers.

4b. (iii) Particulate Matter

Nausea was always reported by 52.38 per cent of the women workers due to contact with particulate matter and almost 33 per cent reported the problem as severe (Table 27). Irritation in throat and nose was always experienced by 48.01 per cent and

Table 26 : Frequency of Occurrence and Extent of Severity of Occupational Health Problems of Women Workers due to Mechanical Factors

Problems due to Mechanical Factors	Rural (N=126)						Urban (N=126)						Total (N=252)					
	Frequency of Occurrence			Extent of Severity			Frequency of Occurrence			Extent of Severity			Frequency of Occurrence			Extent of Severity		
	A	S	N	S	L	N	A	S	N	S	L	N	A	S	N	S	L	N
	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F
Dents	62	50	14	46	51	29	61	36	29	44	42	40	123	86	43	90	93	69
	(49.20)	(39.68)	(11.11)	(36.50)	(40.47)	(23.01)	(48.41)	(28.57)	(23.01)	(34.92)	(33.33)	(31.74)	(48.80)	(34.12)	(17.06)	(35.71)	(36.90)	(27.38)
Cuts	70	38	18	43	53	30	43	52	31	29	50	47	113	90	49	72	103	77
	(55.55)	(30.15)	(14.28)	(34.12)	(42.06)	(23.80)	(34.12)	(41.26)	(26.60)	(23.01)	(39.68)	(37.30)	(44.84)	(35.71)	(19.44)	(28.57)	(40.87)	(30.55)
Abrasions	74	36	16	36	57	33	57	49	20	32	54	40	131	85	36	68	111	73
	(58.73)	(28.57)	(12.69)	(28.57)	(45.23)	(26.19)	(45.23)	(38.88)	(15.87)	(25.39)	(42.85)	(31.74)	(51.98)	(33.37)	(14.28)	(26.98)	(44.04)	(28.96)
Redness of skin of hand	62	56	8	31	72	23	65	40	21	34	59	33	127	96	29	65	131	56
	(49.20)	(44.44)	(6.34)	(24.60)	(57.14)	(18.25)	(51.58)	(31.74)	(16.66)	(26.98)	(46.82)	(26.19)	(50.39)	(38.09)	(11.50)	(25.79)	(51.98)	(22.22)
Hardening of skin of hand	83	37	6	54	62	10	64	52	10	45	57	24	147	89	16	99	119	34
	(65.87)	(29.36)	(4.76)	(42.85)	(49.20)	(7.93)	(50.79)	(41.26)	(7.93)	(35.71)	(45.23)	(19.04)	(58.33)	(35.31)	(6.34)	(39.28)	(47.22)	(13.49)
Pricking of fingers	42	69	15	37	59	30	44	58	24	34	57	35	86	127	39	71	116	65
	(33.33)	(54.76)	(11.90)	(29.36)	(46.82)	(23.83)	(34.92)	(46.03)	(19.04)	(26.98)	(45.23)	(27.77)	(34.12)	(50.39)	(15.47)	(28.17)	(46.03)	(25.79)
Bleeding of fingers	43	56	27	35	39	52	32	56	38	31	38	57	75	112	65	66	77	109
	(34.12)	(44.44)	(21.42)	(27.77)	(30.95)	(41.26)	(25.39)	(44.44)	(30.15)	(24.60)	(30.15)	(45.23)	(29.76)	(44.44)	(25.79)	(26.79)	(30.55)	(43.25)
Formation of patches	42	48	36	22	47	57	32	51	43	20	44	62	74	99	79	42	91	119
	(33.33)	(38.09)	(28.57)	(17.46)	(37.30)	(45.23)	(25.39)	(40.47)	(34.12)	(15.87)	(34.92)	(49.20)	(29.36)	(39.28)	(31.34)	(16.66)	(38.11)	(47.22)

A = Always, S = Sometimes, N = Never, S = Severe, L = Less severe, N = Not severe

(Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 27 : Frequency of Occurrence and Extent of Severity of Occupational Health Problems of Women Workers due to Particulate Matter at Work Place

Problems due to Particulate Matter	Rural (N=126)						Urban (N=126)						Total (N=252)					
	Frequency of Occurrence				Extent of Severity		Frequency of Occurrence				Extent of Severity		Frequency of Occurrence				Extent of Severity	
	A	S	N	S	L	N	A	S	N	S	L	N	A	S	N	S	L	N
	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F
Nausea	68	49	9	42	62	22	64	42	20	41	60	25	132	91	29	83	122	47
	(53.96)	(38.88)	(7.14)	(33.33)	(49.20)	(17.46)	(50.7	(33.33)	(15.87)	(32.53)	(47.61)	(19.84)	(52.38)	(36.11)	(11.50)	(32.93)	(48.41)	(18.65)
Irritation in throat & nose	71	44	11	43	57	26	50	56	20	32	67	27	121	100	31	75	124	53
	(56.34)	(34.92)	(8.73)	(34.12)	(45.23)	(20.63)	(39.68)	(44.44)	(15.87)	(25.39)	(53.17)	(21.42)	(48.01)	(39.68)	(12.30)	(29.76)	(49.20)	(21.03)
Burning sensation in fingers	67	47	12	53	45	28	53	51	22	39	54	33	120	98	34	92	99	61
	(53.17)	(37.30)	(9.52)	(42.06)	(35.71)	(22.22)	(42.06)	(40.47)	(17.46)	(30.95)	(42.85)	(26.19)	(47.61)	(38.88)	(13.49)	(36.50)	(39.28)	(24.20)
Coughing	36	62	28	36	53	37	27	55	44	22	47	57	63	117	72	58	100	94
	(28.57)	(49.20)	(22.22)	(28.57)	(42.06)	(29.36)	(21.42)	(43.65)	(34.92)	(17.46)	(37.30)	(45.23)	(25.00)	(46.42)	(28.57)	(23.01)	(39.68)	(37.30)
Anorexia	16	53	57	12	45	69	5	46	75	14	26	86	21	99	132	26	71	155
	(12.69)	(42.06)	(45.23)	(9.52)	(35.71)	(54.76)	(3.96)	(36.50)	(59.52)	(11.11)	(20.83)	(68.25)	(8.33)	(39.28)	(52.38)	(10.31)	(28.17)	(61.50)
Expectoration	59	46	21	44	42	40	55	39	32	36	28	62	114	85	53	80	70	102
	(46.82)	(36.50)	(16.66)	(34.92)	(33.33)	(31.74)	(43.65)	(30.95)	(25.39)	(28.57)	(22.22)	(49.20)	(45.23)	(33.73)	(21.03)	(31.74)	(27.77)	(40.47)
Breathlessness	49	41	36	48	22	56	18	57	51	25	38	63	67	98	87	73	60	119
	(38.88)	(32.53)	(28.57)	(38.09)	(17.46)	(44.44)	(14.28)	(45.23)	(40.47)	(19.84)	(30.15)	(50.00)	(26.58)	(38.88)	(34.52)	(28.96)	(23.80)	(47.22)
Chest tightness	54	43	29	40	26	60	32	50	44	29	36	61	86	93	73	69	62	121
	(42.85)	(34.12)	(23.01)	(31.74)	(20.63)	(47.61)	(25.39)	(39.68)	(34.92)	(23.01)	(28.57)	(48.47)	(34.12)	(36.90)	(28.96)	(27.38)	(24.60)	(48.01)

A = Always, S = Sometimes, N = Never, S = Severe, L = Less severe, N = Not severe

(Figures in parentheses indicat percentages)

29.76 per cent reported it as severe. Burning sensation in fingers was always reported by 47.61 per cent and 36.50 per cent experienced it as severe. Expectoration was always experienced by 45.23 per cent and 31.74 per cent felt it as severe. Chest tightness was always felt by 34.12 per cent and 27.38 per cent reported the problem as severe.

Almost 25 to 26 per cent reported the problems of coughing and breathlessness and 23 to 29 per cent complained these to be severe. Anorexia was reported by least number of workers.

Percentage of women workers who reported frequent problems due to particulate matter was more in rural sample than in urban sample.

4b. (iv) Biological Factors

Almost 37 per cent of women workers always felt irritation of skin due to biological factors and 16.66 per cent reported it as severe (Table 28). Redness of skin was always experienced by 28.17 per cent and 12 per cent reported this problem as severe. Skin rashes and cold were felt by least number of workers.

Problems due to biological factors were reported by less number of urban women workers than rural women workers.

Overview of the findings showed that all the problems resulting from work place factors were physical in nature.

Table 28 : Frequency of Occurrence and Extent of Severity of Occupational Health Problems of Women Workers due to Biological Factors at Work Place

Problems due to Biological Factors	Rural (N=126)						Urban (N=126)						Total (N=252)					
	Frequency of Occurrence				Extent of Severity		Frequency of Occurrence				Extent of Severity		Frequency of Occurrence				Extent of Severity	
	A	S	N	S	L	N	A	S	N	S	L	N	A	S	N	S	L	N
	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F
Irritation of skin	54 (42.85)	51 (40.47)	21 (16.66)	26 (20.63)	49 (38.88)	51 (40.47)	39 (30.95)	59 (46.82)	28 (22.22)	16 (12.69)	55 (43.65)	55 (43.65)	93 (36.90)	110 (43.65)	49 (19.44)	42 (16.66)	104 (41.26)	106 (42.06)
Redness of skin	43 (34.12)	57 (45.23)	26 (20.63)	15 (11.90)	59 (46.82)	52 (41.26)	28 (22.22)	64 (50.79)	34 (26.98)	15 (11.90)	54 (42.85)	57 (45.23)	71 (28.17)	121 (48.01)	60 (23.80)	30 (11.90)	113 (44.84)	109 (43.25)
Skin rashes	31 (24.60)	48 (38.09)	47 (37.30)	7 (5.55)	55 (43.65)	64 (50.79)	18 (14.28)	47 (37.30)	61 (48.41)	5 (3.96)	43 (34.12)	78 (61.90)	49 (19.44)	95 (37.69)	108 (42.85)	12 (4.76)	98 (38.88)	142 (56.34)
Cold	16 (12.69)	37 (29.36)	73 (57.93)	14 (11.11)	18 (14.28)	94 (74.60)	7 (5.55)	47 (37.30)	72 (57.14)	2 (1.58)	32 (25.39)	92 (73.01)	23 (9.12)	84 (33.33)	145 (57.53)	16 (6.34)	50 (19.84)	186 (73.80)

A = Always, S = Sometimes, N = Never, S = Severe, L = Less severe, N = Not severe

(Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

4c. Problems Due to Organisational Factors

Organisational factors influence the health of workers especially mental health. These included relations at work place and labour welfare benefits.

4c. (i) Relations at Work Place

Almost 35 per cent of women workers always experienced conflicts due to poor relations at work place and 14.25 per cent perceived the problem as severe (Table 29). One-fourth always suffered from tension and 10.71 per cent reported it to be severe. Social isolation and unhappiness was felt by least number of workers.

Rural and urban variations can also be seen with more percentage of rural women workers than urban women workers who suffered from problems due to poor relations at work place except in case of problem of unhappiness.

4c. (ii) Lack of Labour Welfare Benefits

Due to lack of labour welfare benefits, 46.42 per cent of women workers always felt discontented and 25 per cent reported it to be severe (Table 30). Disappointment was always experienced by 40 per cent and 17.46 percent reported it as severe. Sadness was always reported by 30.15 per cent and 18 per cent perceived it to be severe.

Table 29 : Frequency of Occurrence and Extent of Severity of Occupational Health Problems of Women Workers due to Relations at Work Place

Problems due to Relations at work place	Rural (N=126)						Urban (N=126)						Total (N=252)					
	Frequency of Occurrence			Extent of Severity			Frequency of Occurrence			Extent of Severity			Frequency of Occurrence			Extent of Severity		
	A F	S F	N F	S F	L F	N F	A F	S F	N F	S F	L F	N F	A F	S F	N F	S F	L F	N F
Conflicts	58 (46.03)	56 (44.44)	12 (9.52)	19 (15.07)	75 (59.52)	32 (25.39)	30 (23.80)	70 (55.55)	26 (20.63)	17 (13.49)	59 (46.82)	50 (39.68)	88 (34.92)	126 (50.00)	38 (15.07)	36 (14.25)	134 (53.17)	82 (32.53)
Social isolation	30 (23.80)	57 (45.23)	39 (30.95)	17 (13.49)	53 (42.06)	56 (44.44)	14 (11.11)	58 (46.03)	54 (42.85)	13 (10.31)	46 (36.50)	67 (53.17)	44 (17.46)	115 (45.63)	93 (36.90)	30 (11.90)	99 (39.28)	123 (48.80)
Tension	40 (31.74)	66 (52.38)	20 (15.87)	18 (14.28)	58 (46.03)	50 (39.68)	24 (19.04)	63 (50.00)	39 (30.95)	9 (7.14)	52 (41.26)	65 (51.58)	64 (25.39)	129 (51.19)	59 (23.41)	27 (10 71)	110 (43.65)	115 (45.63)
Unhappiness	17 (13.49)	71 (56.34)	38 (30.15)	10 (7.93)	49 (38.68)	67 (53.17)	18 (14.28)	51 (40.47)	57 (45.23)	13 (10.39)	39 (30.95)	74 (58.73)	35 (13.88)	122 (48.41)	95 (37.69)	23 (9.12)	88 (34.92)	141 (55.95)

A = Always, S = Sometimes, N = Never, S = Severe, L = Less severe, N = Not severe

(Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Table 30 : Frequency of Occurrence and Extent of Severity of Occupational Health Problems of Women Workers due to Lack of Labour Welfare Benefits

Problems due to Lack of Labour Welfare Benefits	Rural (N=126)						Urban (N=126)						Total (N=252)					
	Frequency of Occurrence			Extent of Severity			Frequency of Occurrence			Extent of Severity			Frequency of Occurrence			Extent of Severity		
	A F	S F	N F	S F	L F	N F	A F	S F	N F	S F	L F	N F	A F	S F	N F	S F	L F	N F
Discontentment	69 (54.76)	53 (42.06)	4 (3.17)	33 (26.19)	63 (50.00)	30 (23.80)	48 (38.09)	58 (46.03)	20 (15.87)	30 (23.80)	62 (49.60)	34 (26.98)	117 (46.42)	111 (44.04)	24 (9.52)	63 (25.00)	125 (49.60)	64 (25.39)
Sadness	46 (36.50)	70 (55.55)	10 (7.93)	24 (19.04)	71 (56.34)	31 (24.60)	30 (23.80)	64 (50.79)	32 (25.39)	21 (16.66)	65 (51.58)	40 (31.74)	76 (30.15)	134 (53.17)	42 (16.66)	45 (17.85)	136 (53.96)	71 (28.17)
Disappointment	59 (46.82)	50 (39.68)	17 (13.49)	25 (19.84)	66 (52.38)	35 (27.77)	41 (32.53)	57 (45.23)	28 (22.22)	19 (15.07)	68 (53.96)	39 (30.95)	100 (39.68)	107 (42.46)	45 (17.85)	44 (17.46)	134 (53.17)	74 (29.36)

A = Always, S = Sometimes, N = Never, S = Severe, L = Less severe, N = Not severe

(Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Percentage of women workers who frequently felt problems due to lack of labour welfare benefits was less in urban sample than in rural sample.

It can be observed from the data that organisational factors caused only mental health problems.

Data also showed (Table 31) that maximum percentage of women workers suffered from too many number of both physical (60.71 per cent) and mental health problems (53.57 per cent). The mean number of physical problems was 39.82 and mental health problems was 14.05. The rural and urban sample also showed somewhat variation in the mean number of physical and mental health problems experienced by them.

Table 31 : Extent of Number of Physical and Mental Health Problems of Women Workers

Extent of Problems	Rural (N=126) F	%	Urban (N=126) F	%	Total (N=252) F	%
Physical Health Problems						
Too many (above 39)	82	65.07	71	56.34	153	60.71
Many (below 39)	44	34.92	55	43.65	99	39.28
Mean	41.58		38.10		39.82	
S.D.	4.69		8.05		6.82	
Mental Health Problems						
Too many (above 14)	79	62.69	56	44.44	135	53.57
Many (below 14)	47	37.30	70	55.55	117	46.42
Mean	14.79		13.31		14.05	
S.D.	3.14		3.62		3.46	

Data further showed that maximum percentage of women workers suffered between 29 to 32 problems due to work factors (Figure 5), between 24 to 27 problems due to work place factors (Figure 6), upto 7 due to organisational factors (Figure 7) and between 52 to 66 due to all factors of occupational environment (Figure 8). Percentage of workers who suffered from more number of occupational problems was more in rural sample than in urban sample.

The mean number of problems suffered by women workers due to work factors was 26.86 (rural = 28.03, urban = 25.59), due to work place factors was 21.31 (rural = 22.26, urban = 20.26), due to organisational factors was 5.66 (rural = 6.00, urban = 5.33) and due to all factors was 53.84 (rural = 56.30, urban = 51.25).

4d. Observed Symptoms of Occupational Health Problems of Women Workers

The problems of hardness of skin of hand, abrasions, coughing, dents, swelling in ankle joints and problem of cuts on hands were observed in more percentage of women workers (Figure 9). The problems of formation of patches, poor vision, breathlessness, hearing loss and postural defects were observed in less number of workers. The symptoms of occupational health problems were observed in less percentage of urban workers than of rural workers.

4e. Clinical Examination of Chest Problems of Women Workers

Those women workers who reported to be suffering from frequent chest problems underwent clinical examination. It was done with the help of doctor on a sub-sample of 60 workers.

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF WORKERS ACCORDING TO NUMBER OF OCCUPATIONAL HEALTH PROBLEMS DUE TO WORK FACTORS

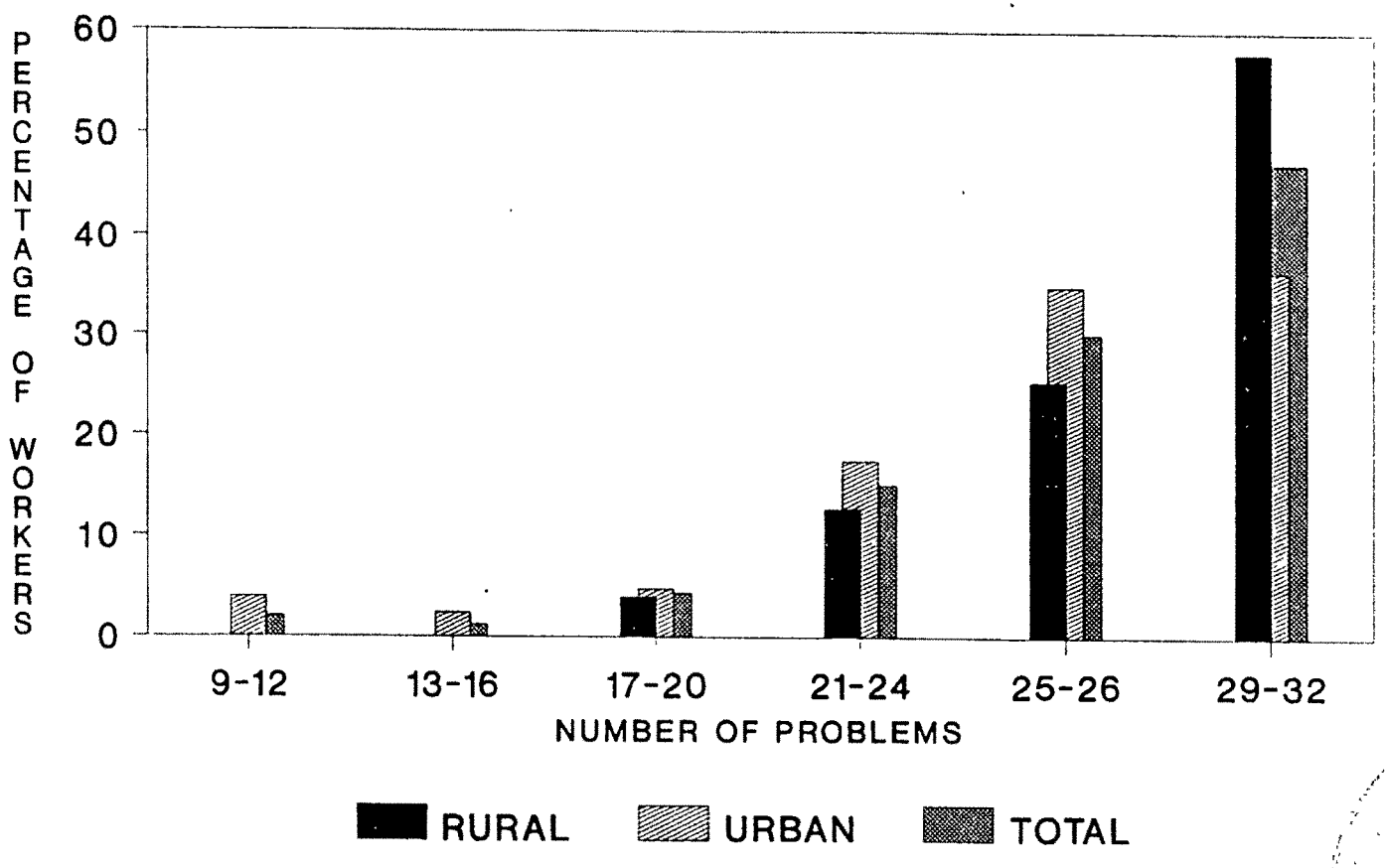


FIGURE 5

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF WORKERS ACCO-
RDING TO OCCUPATIONAL HEALTH PROBLEMS
DUE TO WORK PLACE FACTORS

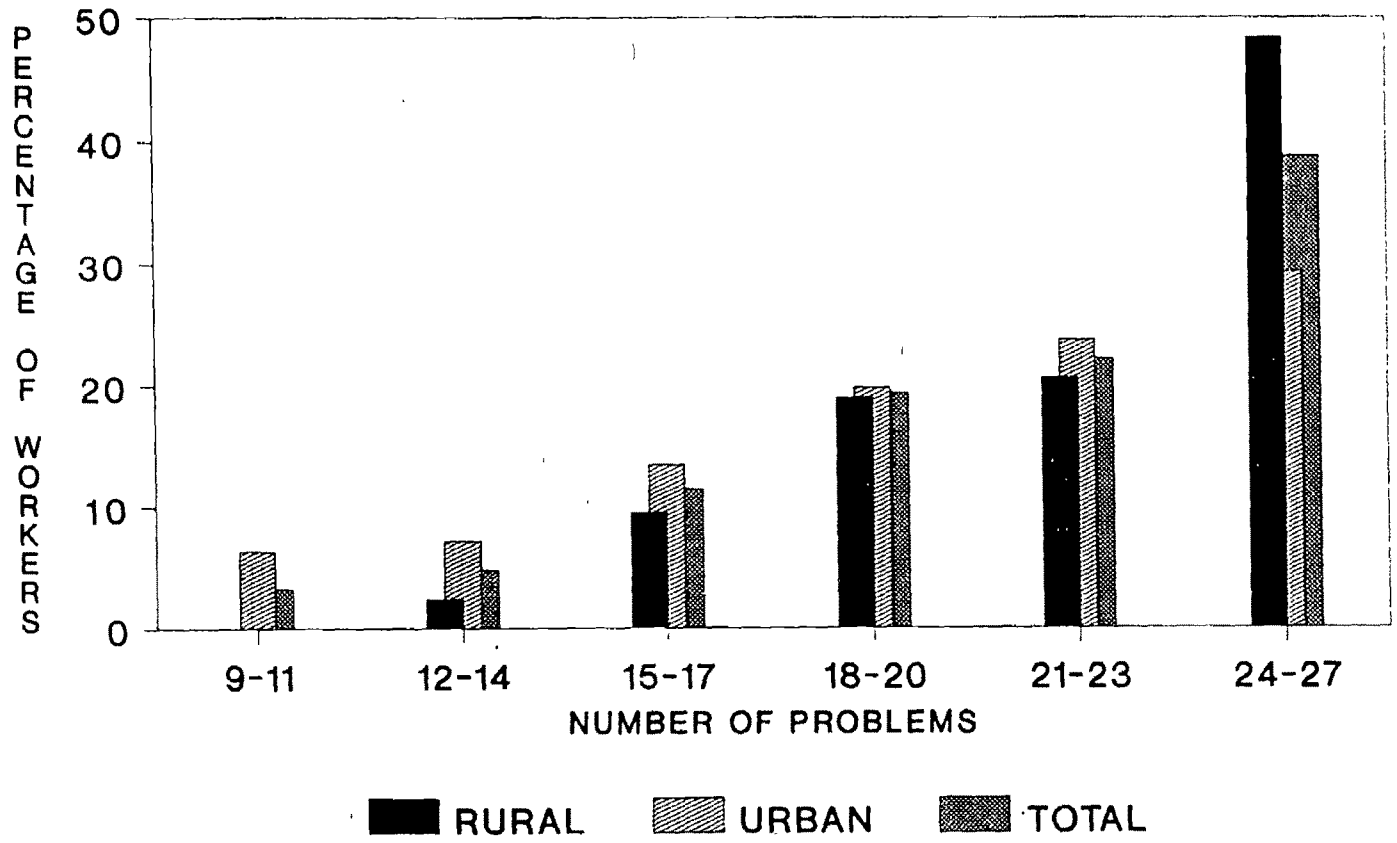


FIGURE 6

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF WORKERS ACCO-
RDING TO OCCUPATIONAL HEALTH PROBLEMS
DUE TO ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS

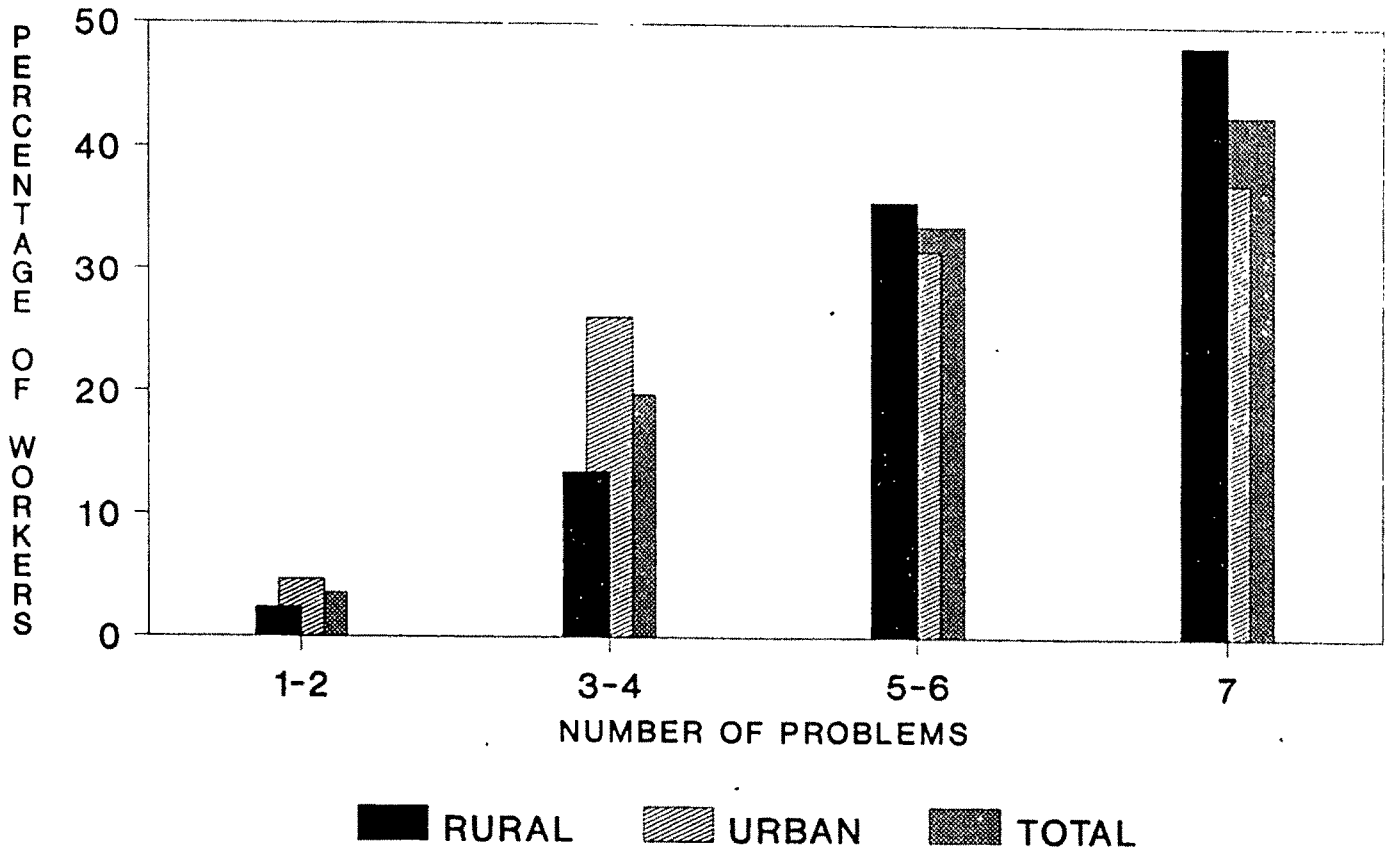


FIGURE 7

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF WORKERS
ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONAL HEALTH
PROBLEMS DUE TO ALL FACTORS

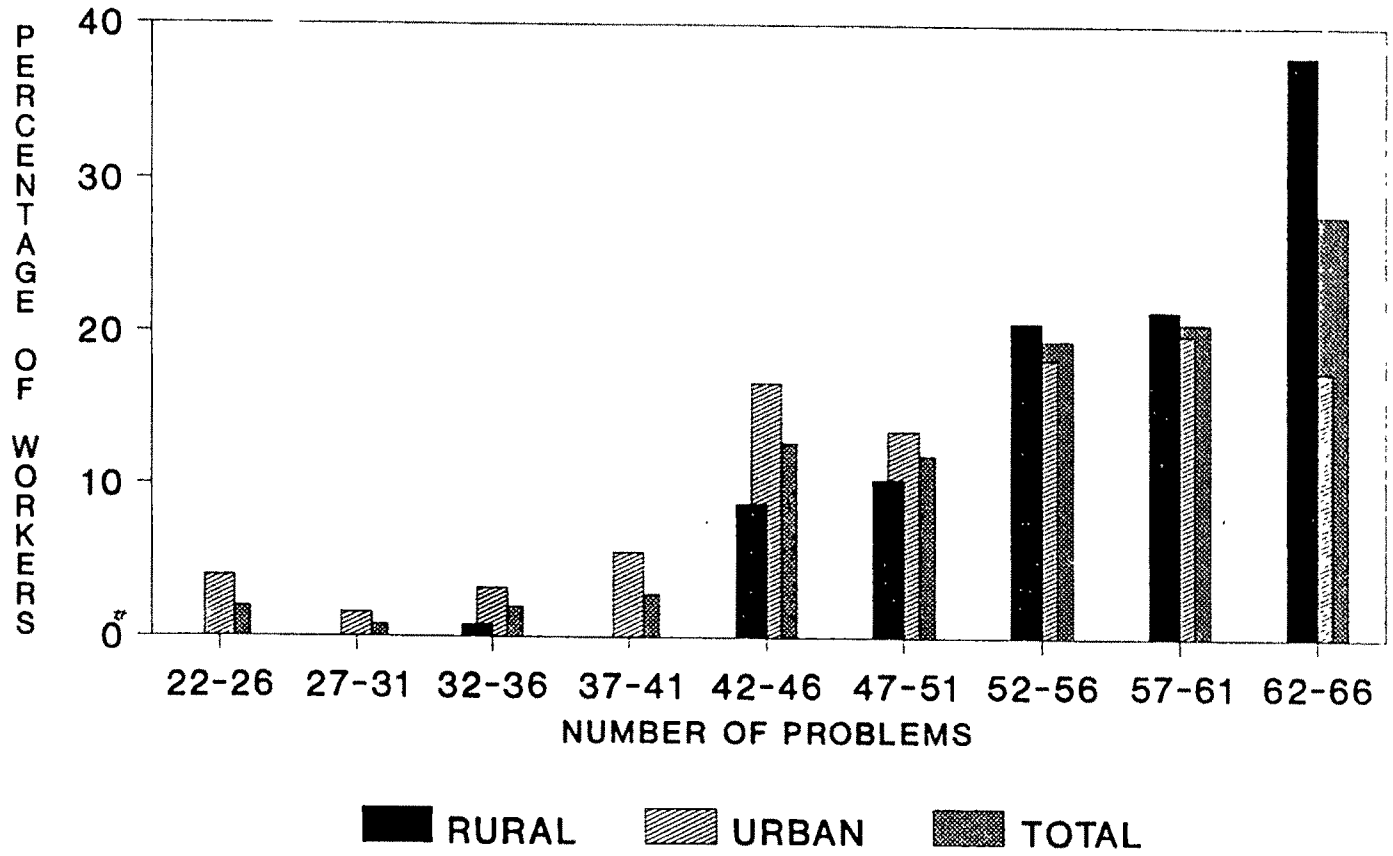


FIGURE 8

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF WORKERS ACCORDING TO OBSERVED SYMPTOMS OF OCCUPATIONAL HEALTH PROBLEMS

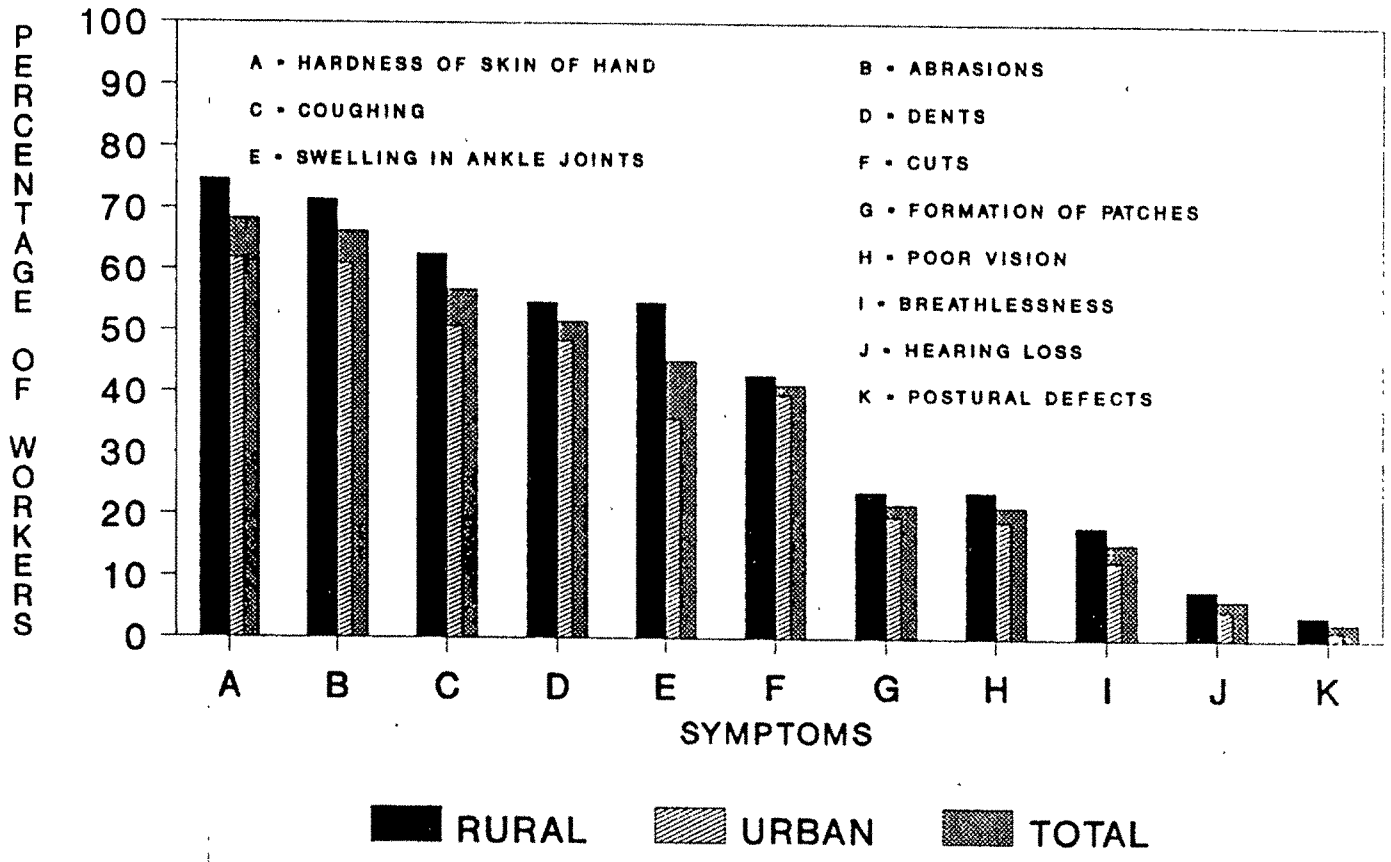


FIGURE 9

Chronic bronchitis (cough and expectoration) was diagnosed in nearly 37 per cent of women workers (Table 32). Bronchial asthma (cough, expectoration and breathlessness) was diagnosed in 23.33 per cent. Pulmonary tuberculosis (loss of appetite and weight, chest pain and haemoptysis) was found in 15 per cent of workers. One-fourth of workers had suffered from other respiratory symptoms (expectoration, coughing and chest tightness).

Table 32 : Chest Problems Suffered by Women Workers

Problems	Rural (N=30)		Urban (N=30)		Total (N=60)	
Bronchial asthma	8	26.66	6	20.00	14	23.33
Pulmonary tuberculosis	5	16.66	4	13.33	9	15.00
Chronic bronchitis	12	40.00	10	33.33	22	36.66
Other respiratory symptoms	5	16.66	10	33.33	15	25.00

Data also reflected that percentage of women workers who faced more number of problems was more in wool sorting process (Figure 10). The next in order were workers in rag ripping, winding of yarn, drying of yarn, clipping of carpet and weaving of carpet.

Findings on the whole pointed out a grim and disturbing picture of women workers occupational health problems. Due to lack of conducive, congenial, healthy and favourable work

EXTENT OF NUMBER OF OCCUPATIONAL HEALTH PROBLEMS IN DIFFERENT PRODUCTION PROCESSES

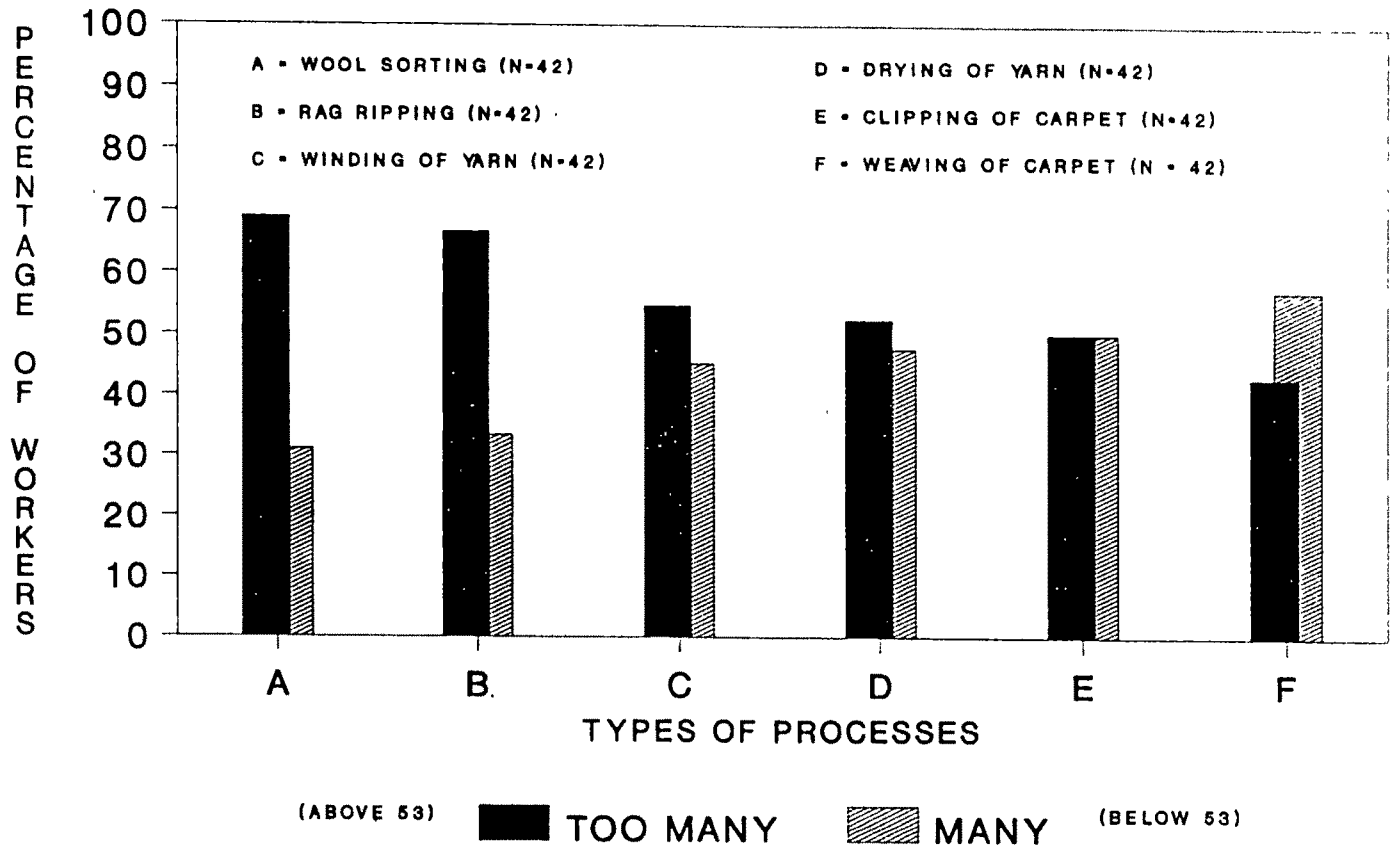


FIGURE 10

environment, workers reported multiple problems. Their physical and mental health were subjected to great jeopardy. This suggested serious thinking, proper notification of the problems and due compensation to the workers.

4f. Medical Facility and Use of Medical Facility and Treatment Taken

More than one-half of the industries provided medical facility to the workers in some form and 44.44 per cent did not provide any (Table 33). About 28 per cent provided both money and medical treatment, whereas 22.22 per cent provided money only. Not even a single industry provided medical leave to the workers. More of the urban industries than rural industries provided medical facility.

A few Industries reported of providing ESI benefits to permanent workers only, whereas others reported that they were in the process of registering themselves under ESI.

Table 33 : Medical Facility and its Type

Aspects	Industries					
	Rural (N=9)		Urban (N=9)		Total (N=18)	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Medical Facility						
Provided	4	44.44	6	66.66	10	55.55
Not provided	5	55.55	3	33.33	8	44.44
Type of Medical Facility						
Medical allowance	2	22.22	2	22.22	4	22.22
Medical treatment	1	11.11	-	-	1	5.55
Medical allowance & medical treatment	1	11.11	4	44.44	5	27.77

In many industries employers gave tetanus injection to workers after 6 months. Many employers adopted natural cure for the workers i.e., they gave jaggery water every day to workers as they believed this to be a natural cure for asthma.

The range of medical allowance provided by the employers was Rs. 20 to Rs. 30 as reported by 44.44 per cent of women workers and only 5.55 per cent of workers reported that they were paid between Rs. 30 to Rs. 40 (Table 34). The medical allowance was given only whenever they had any health problem. More of urban women workers than rural women workers reported of receiving medical allowances from employers.

Data further showed that 40.47 per cent of women workers felt that employer's medical allowance was sufficient to pay the bills. About 34 per cent paid the doctor's bills by themselves and 9.52 per cent had to spend over and above the allowance given by the employers.

More than one-half of the women workers' medical expenditure ranged between Rs.15 to Rs. 25, whenever they had health problem. Almost 4 per cent had their medical expenditure between Rs. 45 to Rs. 65.

Table 34 : Use of Medical Facilities by Women Workers and Expenditure for Medical Treatment

Aspects	Rural (N=126) F	%	Urban (N=126) F	%	Total (N=252) F	%
Amount of Medical Allowance Provided by the Employers						
Rs. 20-30	42	33.33	70	55.55	112	44.44
30-40		--	14	11.11	14	5.55
Payment of Doctor's Bill						
Employer	34	26.98	68	53.96	102	40.47
Self	55	43.65	30	23.80	85	33.73
Employer & Self	8	6.34	16	12.69	24	9.52
Amount of Money Spent on Medical Treatment						
15-25	65	51.58	75	59.52	140	55.55
25-35	10	7.90	20	15.87	30	11.90
35-45	15	11.90	16	12.69	31	12.30
45-65	7	5.55	3	2.38	10	3.96

About 84 per cent of women workers took treatment during illness (Table 35). More of urban women workers (90.47 per cent) than rural women workers (76.98 percent) had taken the treatment.

Allopathic treatment was more common. Lack of money was the main reason for those who did not take treatment. Women workers had the problem in taking treatment as civil hospital timings clashed with their work timings. They had to go early in the

Table 35 : Treatment Taken During Illness, Type of Treatment Taken and Reasons for not Taking Treatment

Aspects	Rural (N=126) F	%	Urban (N=126) F	%	Total (N=252) F	%
Taking of Treatment						
Taken	97	76.98	114	90.47	211	83.73
Not taken	29	23.01	12	9.52	41	16.26
Type of Treatment Taken						
Allopathic	40	31.74	59	46.82	99	39.28
Homeopathic	22	17.46	18	14.28	40	15.87
Ayurvedic	21	16.66	13	10.31	34	13.49
Allopathic & Homeopathic	7	5.55	14	11.11	21	8.33
Allopathic & Ayurvedic	4	3.17	8	6.34	12	4.76
Homeopathic & Ayurvedic	3	2.38	2	1.58	5	1.98
Reasons for not Taking Treatment						
Lack of money	16	12.69	4	3.17	20	7.93
Belief in fate	6	4.76	1	0.79	7	2.77
No help from employers	7	5.55	7	5.55	14	5.55

morning to hospital. If they got late for work, then they had to bear the scoldings of employers.

Work during illness was not done by 61.50 per cent of women workers (Table 36). More of the urban workers (68.25 per cent)

than the rural ones (54.76 per cent) did not work during illness.

Table 36 : Work Done During Illness and Leave Taken During Last 6 Months by Women Workers

Aspects	Rural (N=126) F	%	Urban (N=126) F	%	Total (N=252) F	%
Work Done During Illness						
Work done	57	45.23	40	31.74	97	38.49
Work not done	69	54.76	86	68.25	155	61.50
Leave Taken During Last 6 Months						
No leave taken	60	47.61	52	41.26	112	44.44
1-4 days	40	31.74	57	45.23	97	38.49
4-7 days	26	20.93	17	13.49	43	17.06

No leave was taken by 44.44 per cent of women workers during last 6 months (out of this percentage, 38.49 per cent were not in the habit of taking leave during illness). The range of leave taken was 1 to 4 days by 38.49 percent and 4 to 7 days by 17.06 percent.

Those who worked even during illness reported that "if they took leave during illness, then who would pay money to provide food to family ?" They could not afford to take leave at the cost of their wages. Many of them brought medicine at work place and were seen taking their medicine at work place.

4g. Steps Taken by Women Workers to Overcome their Occupational Health Problems

It is very important that workers should be conscious and should adopt ways to minimise their occupational health problems. Therefore, it was thought essential to confirm whether women workers were concerned about their occupational health problems or they just wanted to keep their plight unreported.

Perusal of the data revealed (Table 37) that 44.04 per cent of women workers presented their problems to the employers. Acquiring of better knowledge of effects of working conditions was reported by 35.31 per cent. One-third reported that they organised discussions to create awareness among workers. It was reported by 23.01 per cent of workers that they stopped the work if conditions were found unsafe. Nearly 14 per cent reported that they had come forward to lead the workers' group to represent their problems to the employers. About one-fourth reported of not lodging any complaint in case of any problem. Percentage of women workers who took steps to overcome their occupational health problems was more in urban sample than in rural sample.

Many workers opined that whenever they made any complaint, it was unheard by their employers. This made them accept poor work conditions rather than trying the difficult task of overcoming their occupational environment.

Table 37 : Steps Taken by Women Workers to Overcome Their Occupational Health Problems

Type of Steps Taken by Women Workers	Rural (N=126) F	%	Urban (N=126) F	%	Total (N=252) F	%
Represent to the employers	46	36.50	65	51.54	111	44.04
Acquire better knowledge of effects of working conditions	37	29.36	52	41.26	89	35.31
Stop work if conditions are found unsafe	26	20.63	32	25.39	58	23.01
Lead the workers' group	15	11.90	20	15.87	35	13.88
Organise discussions to create awareness among workers	37	29.15	48	38.09	85	33.73
Do not lodge any complaint	38	30.15	23	18.25	61	24.20

N = Multiple response

5. Employers' View Points

This section includes the employers' views about women workers' output, categories of jobs reserved for women, facilities provided at work place and improvements they wanted to make.

5a. Opinions of Employers About Women Workers' Output

Not even a single employer reported that women's output was more than the men's (Table 38). Women's output equal to men's was reported by 55.55 percent of employers. Women's output less than men's was reported by 44.44 per cent of employers.

Table 38 : Women Workers' Output According to Employers' View Points

Women's Output	Employers Rural (N=9) F	%	Urban (N=9) F	%	Total (N=18) F	%
Equal to men's	4	44.44	6	66.66	10	55.55
Less than men's	5	55.55	3	33.33	8	44.44

Percentage of employers who reported women's output less than men's was more in rural sample (55.55 per cent) than in urban sample (33.33 per cent).

5b. Jobs Reserved for Women Workers

Employers had a policy of reserving certain categories of jobs for women workers.

It was observed (Table 39) that 83.33 per cent of employers had reserved carpet weaving and carpet clipping for women.

Table 39 : Categories of Jobs Reserved for Women According to Employers

Categories of Jobs	Employers Rural (N=9) F	%	Urban (N=9) F	%	Total (N=18) F	%
Sorting	7	77.77	7	77.77	14	77.77
Drying of yarn	6	66.66	7	77.77	13	72.22
Hand winding	7	77.77	7	77.77	14	77.77
Electric winding	--		1	11.11	1	5.55
Carpet weaving	7	77.77	8	88.88	15	83.33
Carpet clipping	7	77.77	8	88.88	15	83.33

Hand winding and sorting processes were reserved for women by 77.77 per cent of employers. Drying of yarn was reported to be reserved by 72.22 per cent. Electric winding by women was performed in 5.55 per cent of industries (Plate 13). Hand spinning was replaced by machine spinning.

5c. Facilities Provided to the Workers According to Employers

Facilities if provided at work place improve the condition of work and life for the workers. These lead to increasing adaptation of worker to her/his task and make her/him feel contented, lessen her/his desire to leave the job and reduce the incidence of absenteeism.

Almost 78 per cent of employers provided training facilities (Table 40). Canteen facility was provided by 72.22 per cent and recreation facility was provided by 50 per cent. Almost 39 per cent provided housing facility and conveyance facility was provided by 33.33 per cent.

Table 40 : Facilities Provided to the Workers According to Employers

Types of Facilities	Employers					
	Rural (N=9)		Urban (N=9)		Total (N=18)	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Housing	2	22.22	5	55.55	7	38.88
Training	6	66.66	8	88.88	14	77.77
Canteen facility	6	66.66	7	77.77	13	72.22
Recreation facility	3	33.33	6	66.66	9	50.00
Conveyance	3	33.33	3	33.33	6	33.33

PLATE 13. ELECTRIC WINDING

PLATE 14. TAKING CARE OF CHILD WHILE RIPPING THE RAGS

Only those industries which were located far away from rural/urban areas provided the conveyance facility. In the absence of factory vehicle, workers were paid Rs. 3 to Rs. 4 per day for conveyance. Not even a single employer provided creche facility and maternity benefits. Women workers looked after their children along with their work at work place (Plate 14 and 15). There was also no provision for sitting and rest rooms. Workers took rest on their working material only (Plate 16).

Percentage of urban employers was somewhat more than that of rural employers in providing all the facilities except conveyance facility.

5d. Improvements to be Made by the Employers

Opinions of employers were also obtained about the improvements which they wanted to make since it is essential to know whether the employers fulfil any responsibility to improve health and safety of workers.

All the employers reported that they wanted to provide more of medical facilities and also wanted to improve the existing medical facilities (Table 41).

They also wanted to develop abilities and work competence of workers especially male workers and wanted to keep up workers'

PLATE 15. TAKING CARE OF CHILD WHILE WINDING THE YARN

PLATE 16. WORKERS TAKING REST ON THE WORKING MATERIAL DURING LUNCH TIME

Table 41 : Improvements to be Made by the Employers

Type of Improvements	Employers: Rural (N=9) F	%	Urban (N=9) F	%	Total (N=18) F	%
To Provide more of medical facilities	9	100.00	9	100.00	18	100.00
To develop abilities & work competence of workers	9	100.00	9	100.00	18	100.00
To keep up workers' benefits with time	9	100.00	9	100.00	18	100.00
To employ more number of women workers	3	33.33	3	33.33	6	33.33

benefit with time. Only one-third of employers reported that they wanted to employ more number of women workers.

5d. (i) Reasons Given by Employers for Employing and Not Employing Women workers

The employers who wanted to employ women were of the view that women workers were docile, submissive and sincere and paid more attention to their work.

The reasons given by employers for not hiring women fell into three broad categories. The first related to the influence of traditional attitude according to which the universe of job had been divided into men's and women's jobs. Certain categories of jobs were closed to women because they were physically weak and it was taken for granted that these should be held by men only and women should be given easier and lighter jobs.

The second category of reasons offered by employers for not hiring women related to the characteristics of women workers as they were described as lacking in interest and initiative and they had substantially higher rates of absenteeism due to household chores and therefore, more likely to be unstable members of the labour force.

The third category of reasons advanced by employers as affecting their hiring policies was comparative labour costs. It was expensive to employ women because of special working conditions and facilities they required (providing creche and maternity benefits).

Other reasons forwarded by employers for not employing women were non-availability of women workers during night shift, inability to detain them for overtime work during busy season and also due to the reason that if there were more of women around, then men were lured by them and they did not finish their own work.

6. Output of Women Workers

6a. Mean Actual Output and Mean Expected Output of Women Workers in Different Production Processes

An attempt was made to compare the mean actual output and mean expected output of women workers per day.

Mean actual output per day in rag ripping was 59.97 kilograms, whereas expected output per day was reported as 67.38 kilograms (Table 42). In wool sorting, mean actual output per day

was 51.47 kilograms, whereas expected output was 67.14 kilograms. In drying of yarn, mean actual output per day was 71.50 kilograms, whereas expected output was 79.50 kilograms.

Table 42 : Mean Actual Output and Mean Expected Output per day in Different Production Processes as Perceived by Women Workers

Type of Production Processes	Rural		Urban		Total	
	Mean Actual Output	Mean Expected Output	Mean Actual Output	Mean Expected Output	Mean Actual Output	Mean Expected Output
Rag ripping (kgs) (N = 42)	50.23	66.42	55.71	68.33	52.97	67.38
Sorting of wool (kgs) (N = 42)	49.33	65.95	53.61	68.33	51.47	67.14
Drying of yarn (kgs) (N = 42)	68.95	78.50	73.57	80.50	71.50	79.50
Winding of yarn (kgs) (N = 42)	10.58	14.16	12.62	15.11	11.60	14.64
Weaving of carpet (mts) (N = 42)	0.97	1.77	1.18	1.79	1.07	1.78
Clipping of carpet (nos) (N = 42)	141.04	179.76	161.52	184.52	148.54	182.14

Mean actual output per day in winding of yarn was 11.60 kilograms, whereas expected output was 14.64 kilograms. In carpet weaving, mean actual output per day was 1.01 meters and expected output was 1.78 meters. Mean actual output per day in carpet clipping was 148.54 carpets, whereas expected output was 182.14 carpets per day.

Data indicated that mean actual output of the women workers was less than expected output which indicated the need for improving the occupational environment of the women workers.

6a. (i) Mean Income Earned by Women Workers in Different Production Processes

Mean income earned by women workers in weaving of carpet was Rs. 972.02 per month and in clipping it was Rs. 906.54 per month. (Table 43). In winding of yarn and in drying of yarn mean income was Rs. 870.23 per month and Rs. 856.54 per month. Mean income per month in rag ripping was Rs. 795.83 and in sorting of wool it was Rs. 776.19 per month.

Table 43 : Mean Monthly Income Earned by Women Workers in Different Production Processes

Types of Production Processes	Rural Mean Income per Month (Rs.)	Urban Mean Income per Month (Rs.)	Total Mean Income per Month (Rs.)
Rag ripping (N=42)	755.95	835.71	795.83
Sorting of wool (N=42)	742.85	809.52	776.19
Drying of yarn (N=42)	826.19	886.90	856.54
Winding of yarn (N=42)	791.66	948.80	870.23
Weaving of carpet (N=42)	873.80	1070.23	972.02
Clipping of carpet (N=42)	845.23	967.85	906.54

Data showed that maximum percentage of carpet weavers earned the most and wool sorters the least (Figure 11). The reason for this may be that carpet weaving was equally done by males also and the minimum rate per piece was more as compared to other processes.

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF WORKERS ACCORDING TO EXTENT OF OUTPUT IN DIFFERENT PRODUCTION PROCESSES

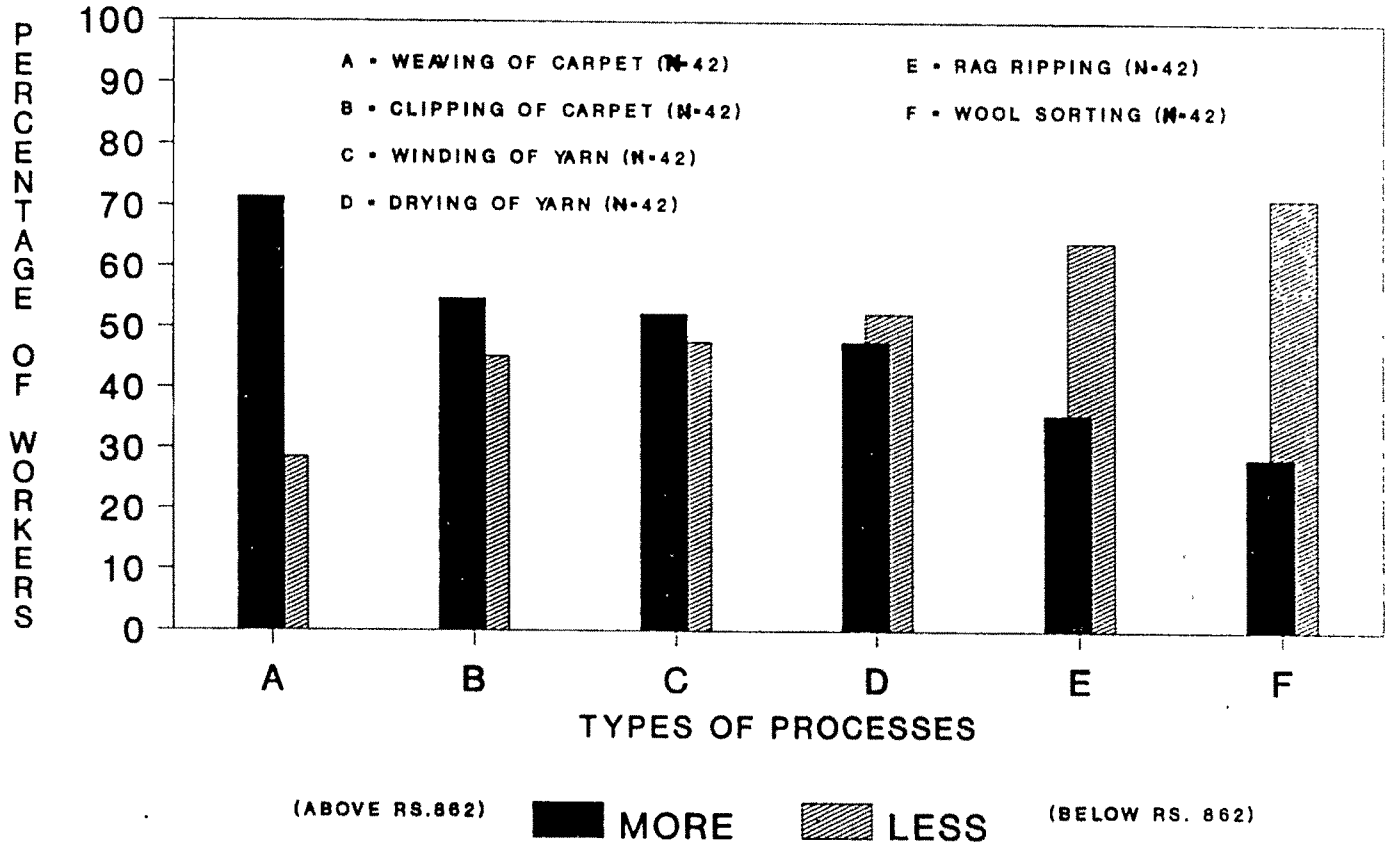


FIGURE 11

6b. Extent of Physical and Mental Health Problems and Extent of Output of Women Workers

Findings revealed that both physical as well as mental health problems influenced the output of the women workers. It can be seen (Table 44) that the maximum percentage of workers who suffered from more number of physical health problems (46.42 per cent) and mental health problems (42.85 per cent) had less output. Similarly, the maximum percentage of those who suffered

Table 44 : Extent of Physical and Mental Health Problems and Extent of Output of the Women Workers

Problems	Output											
	Rural (N=126)				Urban (N=126)				Total (N=252)			
	More		Less		More		Less		More		Less	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Physical Health Problems												
Too many (above 39)	18	14.28	64	50.79	18	14.28	53	42.06	36	14.28	117	46.42
Many (below 39)	33	26.19	11	8.73	52	41.26	3	2.38	85	33.73	14	5.55
Mental Health Problems												
Too many (above 14)	17	13.49	62	49.20	10	7.93	46	36.50	27	10.71	108	42.85
Many (below 14)	34	26.98	13	10.31	60	47.61	10	7.93	94	37.30	23	9.12

from somewhat less number of physical health problems (33.77 per cent) and mental health problems (37.33 per cent) had more output.

It can be said that occupational health problems of any type influenced the output of the women workers.

7. Household Development of Respondents

In this section, findings pertinent to type of impact of occupational health problems on household work and household development are presented.

7a. Impact of Occupational Health Problems of Women Workers on Household Work

It is quite natural that women workers have strong commitment both at their work and at home. Their problems concerned with the job will naturally affect other areas of life particularly household work.

It was revealed that due to occupational health problems almost 83 per cent of respondents felt tired and were unable to use finger and palm strength while doing household work (Table 45). About 76 per cent felt that they were unable to finish household work, their family members and they themselves were dissatisfied with their performance of household chores.

Variations in the impact of occupational health problems on household work between rural and urban respondents were noticed. Slightly less percentage of urban respondents than rural respondents felt this impact.

Many respondents reported that they had to leave the home early so as to reach the work place in time and they returned home late at night. The result was that household work was left half done. Moreover they did not have the necessary time and

Table 45 : Type of Impact of Occupational Health Problems of Women Workers on Household Work

Type of Impact	Rural (N=126) F	%	Urban (N=126) F	%	Total (N=252) F	%
Feel tired doing household work	108	85.71	101	80.15	209	82.93
Not feel tired doing household work	18	14.28	25	19.84	43	17.06
Unable to use finger and palm strength while doing household work	107	84.92	101	80.15	208	82.53
Able to use finger and palm strength while doing household work	19	15.07	25	19.84	44	17.46
Unable to finish household work	102	80.95	89	70.63	191	75.79
Able to finish household work	24	19.04	37	29.36	61	24.20
Family members dissatisfied with performance of household work	103	81.74	88	69.84	191	75.79
Family members satisfied with performance of household work	23	18.25	38	30.15	61	24.20
Respondents dissatisfied with performance of household work	100	79.36	92	73.01	192	76.19
Respondents satisfied with performance of household work	26	20.63	34	26.98	60	23.80

labour saving equipments at home and they were unable to buy these due to less wages. Many reported their life at home as miserable.

7b. Household Development : Impact of Respondents' Earnings On Quality of Life

In recent decades, the role of wife's earnings in keeping many families out of poverty and in the increases in family income experienced by families has been recognised. So an attempt was made to assess the impact of respondents' earnings on development of respondents, development of family members and level of living of family.

7b. (i) Development of the Respondents

Findings pertinent to percentage contribution of respondents' income to family income, respondents' control over family finances, role played in household decisions, social/ community participation and sharing of household work are presented below :

Percentage Contribution of Respondents' Income to Family Income : The income earned by poor women constitute a substantial contribution to family income. This income makes up for a deficit in family level of income which is already very low.

Nearly 79 per cent of the respondents contributed between 15 to 39 per cent to family income per month (Table 46). The mean percentage share was 32.51 per cent. The mean percentage contribution of rural and urban respondents to family income did not show much variation.

Table 46 : Contribution of Respondents' Income to Family Income.

Percentage Share of Respondents	Rural (N=126) F	%	Urban (N=126) F	%	Total (N=252) F	%
15-39	100	79.36	98	77.77	198	78.57
39-63	25	19.84	27	21.42	52	20.63
63-87	1	00.79	1	00.79	2	00.79
Mean	33.23		32.01		32.51	
S.D	10.36		10.36		10.38	

Control over Family Finances : Before employment, only 12.69 per cent of respondents had control over family finances but after employment about 28 per cent had this type of control (Table 47).

Table 47 : Control Over Family Finances by the Respondents

Type of Control	Rural (N=126) B.E	A.E	Urban (N=126) B.E	A.E	Total (N=252) B.E	A.E
Husband	109 (86.50)	49 (38.88)	105 (83.33)	25 (19.84)	214 (84.92)	74 (29.36)
Respondent	14 (11.11)	20 (15.87)	18 (14.28)	50 (39.68)	32 (12.64)	70 (27.77)
Joint	3 (2.38)	57 (45.23)	3 (2.38)	51 (40.47)	6 (2.38)	108 (42.85)

B.E. : Before employment, A.E. = After employment

(Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Further break up showed that percentage of respondents who had control over family finances was more in urban sample (39.68 per cent) than in rural sample (15.87 per cent). In rural areas, men claimed more control over money even in those cases where bulk of money was earned by women.

Role Played in Different Household Decisions : Before employment, only 14.28 per cent of respondents played dominant role in expenditure of daily necessities and nearly 8 per cent played in deciding family size (Table 48). In other activities their role was negligible. Husbands played dominant role in all categories of household decisions.

After employment, there was remarkable increase in percentage of respondents who played dominant role in decision making. The increase varied from almost 12 to 42 per cent of respondents.

After employment, 45.23 per cent played dominant role in decisions about recreation of family, 43.25 per cent in spending money on festivals and 40.07 per cent in expenditure on daily necessities.

Dominant role in decisions related to health of children was played by 29.36 per cent, to education of children by 28.17 per cent and to size of the family was played by 24.20 per cent of respondents. The decisions of children's marriage were made by 19.04 per cent and decisions related to purchasing of housing and jewellery were made by 15 per cent to 19 per cent. The joint decision making had increased after employment in all the household activities.

Table 48 : Role Played by Respondents in Different Household Decisions

Decisions Related to	Rural (N=126)												Urban (N=126)								Total (N=252)							
	B.E.				A.E.				B.E.				A.E.				B.E.				A.E.							
	H	R	J	N	H	R	J	N	H	R	J	N	H	R	J	N	H	R	J	N	H	R	J	N	H	R	J	N
	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F
Expenditure of daily necessities	98 (77.77)	12 (9.52)	16 (12.69)	-	10 (7.93)	40 (31.74)	76 (60.31)	-	95 (75.39)	24 (19.04)	7 (5.55)	-	14 (11.11)	61 (48.41)	51 (40.47)	-	193 (76.58)	36 (14.28)	23 (9.12)	-	24 (9.52)	101 (40.07)	127 (50.39)	-				
Education of children	92 (73.01)	2 (1.58)	5 (3.96)	27 (21.42)	31 (24.60)	27 (21.42)	59 (46.82)	9 (7.14)	90 (71.42)	4 (3.47)	11 (8.73)	21 (16.66)	24 (19.04)	44 (34.92)	53 (42.06)	5 (3.96)	182 (72.22)	6 (2.38)	16 (6.34)	48 (19.04)	55 (21.82)	71 (28.17)	112 (44.44)	14 (5.55)				
Marriage of children	85 (67.46)	3 (2.38)	22 (17.46)	16 (4.76)	30 (23.80)	25 (19.84)	55 (43.65)	16 (4.76)	81 (64.28)	2 (1.58)	24 (19.04)	19 (15.07)	18 (14.28)	23 (18.25)	66 (52.38)	19 (15.07)	166 (65.87)	5 (1.98)	46 (18.25)	35 (13.88)	48 (19.04)	48 (19.04)	121 (48.01)	35 (13.88)				
Health of children	93 (73.80)	2 (1.58)	31 (24.60)	-	22 (17.46)	30 (23.80)	74 (58.73)	-	90 (71.42)	3 (2.38)	33 (26.19)	-	17 (13.49)	44 (34.92)	65 (51.58)	-	183 (72.61)	5 (1.98)	64 (25.39)	-	39 (15.47)	74 (29.36)	139 (55.15)	-				
Purchasing of house of Jewellery	104 (82.53)	2 (1.58)	20 (15.87)	-	51 (40.47)	11 (8.73)	64 (50.79)	-	100 (79.36)	6 (4.76)	20 (15.87)	-	28 (22.22)	28 (22.22)	70 (55.55)	-	204 (80.95)	8 (3.17)	40 (15.87)	-	79 (31.34)	38 (15.07)	135 (53.57)	-				
Spending money on festivals	96 (76.19)	4 (3.17)	26 (20.63)	-	22 (17.46)	50 (39.68)	54 (42.65)	-	83 (65.87)	3 (2.38)	40 (31.74)		13 (10.31)	59 (46.82)	54 (42.85)	-	179 (71.03)	7 (2.77)	66 (26.19)	-	35 (13.88)	109 (43.25)	108 (42.85)	-				
Recreation of the family	83 (65.87)	4 (3.17)	39 (30.95)	-	33 (26.19)	50 (39.68)	43 (34.12)	-	96 (76.19)	4 (3.17)	26 (20.63)		22 (17.46)	64 (50.79)	40 (31.74)	-	179 (71.03)	8 (3.17)	65 (25.76)	-	55 (21.82)	114 (45.23)	83 (32.93)	-				
Size of the family	95 (75.39)	10 (7.93)	21 (16.66)	-	32 (25.39)	31 (23.80)	63 (50.79)	-	103 (81.74)	10 93)	13 (10.31)		26 (20.63)	31 (24.60)	69 (54.76)	-	198 (78.57)	20 (7.93)	34 (13.49)	-	58 (23.01)	61 (24.20)	133 (52.77)	-				

B.E. = Before employment, A.E. = After employment,

H = Husband, R = Respondent, J = Joint, N = Not applicable

(figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Percentage of respondents who played dominant role in household decisions after employment was somewhat more in urban sample than in rural sample in all the household activities except in case of decisions about size of family and children's marriage.

Participation in Social/Community Activities : Before employment, only 4 to 5 per cent of respondents attended marriages and religious ceremonies independently and 15 per cent visited their friends independently (Table 49).

After employment, there was an overwhelming increase in percentage of respondents who attended social/community activities independently. The increase varied from about 19 to 49 per cent of respondents.

After employment, nearly 53 per cent of respondents attended religious ceremonies independently. Nearly 51 per cent visited their friends' houses independently and 24 per cent attended marriages independently.

More percentage of rural respondents (28.57 per cent) than urban respondents (19.84 per cent) attended marriages independently after employment.

Findings reflected that joint participation in community activities had increased after the respondents took the employment.

Sharing of Household Work : Apart from work outside the home, women also perform their normal domestic work. Household is

Table 49 : Respondents' Participation in Social/Community Activities

Types of Activities	Rural (N=126)						Urban (N=126)						Total (N=252)					
	B.E.			A.E.			B.E.			A.E.			B.E.			A.E.		
	H	R	J	H	R	J	H	R	J	H	R	J	H	R	J	H	R	J
	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F
Visiting friends	81 (64.28)	16 (12.69)	29 (23.01)	18 (14.28)	65 (51.58)	43 (34.12)	84 (66.66)	23 (18.25)	19 (15.07)	9 (7.14)	63 (50.00)	54 (42.85)	165 (65.47)	39 (15.47)	48 (19.04)	27 (10.71)	128 (50.79)	97 (38.49)
Attending religious ceremonies	83 (65.87)	4 (3.17)	39 (30.95)	15 (11.90)	65 (51.58)	46 (36.50)	92 (73.01)	6 (4.76)	28 (22.22)	10 (7.93)	68 (53.96)	48 (33.09)	175 (69.44)	10 (3.96)	67 (26.58)	25 (9 92)	133 (52.77)	94 (37.30)
Attending marriages	74 (58.73)	4 (3.17)	48 (38.09)	29 (23.01)	36 (28.57)	61 (48.41)	62 (49.20)	9 (7.14)	55 (43.65)	15 (11.90)	25 (19.84)	86 (68.25)	136 (53.96)	13 (5.15)	103 (40.87)	44 (12.46)	61 (24.20)	147 (58.33)

B.E. = Before employment, A.E. = After employment

H = Husband, R = Respondent, J = Joint

(Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

a major centre of work for women and they retain the primary responsibility for this. The division of labour between men and women in this matter is less rigid. The work which women do within the home is crucial to their family living.

Before employment, cent percent of respondents performed the task of cooking, dishwashing, washing of clothes cleaning of house and looking after their children (Table 50). About 93.25 per cent performed the task of fetching/storing water and 78.57 per cent fetching fuel. Help received was negligible except in activities of fetching fuel and fetching/storing water.

After employment, cent per cent performed the task of cooking and dish washing. Washing of clothes and cleaning of house was done by 90 to 92 per cent. The tasks of looking after the children and fetching/storing water were performed by 60 to 61 per cent. The task of fetching fuel was done by about 38 per cent and about 14 per cent of respondents helped their children in doing home work.

After employment, there was remarkable increase in percentage of respondents (between 13 to 53 per cent) who received help from family members in household work.

Nearly 74 to 76 of respondents received help in tasks of fetching/storing water and fetching fuel. Tasks of cleaning of house and looking after children were shared by 57.14 per cent and 54.76 per cent of respondents' family members respectively. Tasks of washing of clothes and helping children in doing

Table 50 : Sharing of Household Work

Types of Household Work	Rural (N=126)				Urban (N=126)				Total (N=252)			
	B.E.		A.E.		B.E.		A.E.		B.E.		A.E.	
	R F	S F	R F	S F	R F	S F	R F	S F	R F	S F	R F	S F
Cooking of food	126 (100.00)	3 (2.38)	126 (100.00)	21 (16.66)	126 (100.00)	6 (4.76)	126 (100.00)	21 (16.66)	252 (100.00)	9 (3.57)	252 (100.00)	42 (16.66)
Dish washing	126 (100.00)	1 (0.79)	126 (100.00)	37 (29.36)	126 (100.00)	3 (2.38)	126 (100.00)	50 (39.68)	252 (100.00)	4 (1.58)	252 (100.00)	87 (34.52)
Washing of clothes	126 (100.00)	4 (3.17)	116 (92.06)	55 (43.65)	126 (100.00)	7 (5.55)	112 (88.88)	72 (57.14)	252 (100.00)	11 (4.36)	228 (90.47)	127 (50.39)
Cleaning of house	126 (100.00)	7 (5.55)	117 (98.85)	63 (50.00)	126 (100.00)	10 (7.93)	115 (91.26)	81 (64.28)	252 (100.00)	17 (6.74)	232 (92.06)	144 (57.14)
Looking after children	126 (100.00)	11 (8.73)	80 (63.49)	64 (50.79)	126 (100.00)	8 (6.34)	70 (55.55)	74 (58.73)	252 (100.00)	19 (7.53)	150 (59.50)	138 (54.76)
Helping children in doing home work	12 (9.52)	18 (14.28)	12 (9.52)	56 (44.44)	23 (18.25)	20 (15.87)	23 (18.25)	58 (46.03)	35 (13.88)	38 (15.07)	35 (13.88)	114 (45.23)
Fetching/storing water	120 (95.23)	26 (20.63)	82 (65.07)	92 (73.01)	115 (91.26)	26 (20.63)	71 (56.34)	95 (75.39)	235 (93.25)	52 (20.63)	153 (60.71)	187 (74.20)
Fetching fuel	108 (85.71)	38 (30.15)	56 (44.44)	93 (73.80)	90 (71.42)	49 (38.88)	39 (30.95)	98 (77.77)	198 (78.57)	87 (34.52)	95 (37.69)	191 (75.79)

B.E. = Before Employment, A.E. = After Employment

R = Respondent, S = Shared by Family Members

(Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

homework were shared by 50.39 per cent and 45.23 per cent of respondents' family members respectively. About 35 per cent received help in dishwashing and 16.66 per cent received help in cooking of food.

The percentage of respondents who received help after employment was more in urban than in rural sample in all activities except in fetching fuel and cooking of food. Most of the help was from husbands and daughters but they did not take the independent responsibility of doing work.

Data showed that women did the bulk of household chores and assumed primary responsibility even after they took the employment (Plate 17). They could not afford to get paid help. Their family members did not take the full responsibility of any work. So they spent most of their time working i.e., a daily working day of 14 to 15 hours. Many of them had to get up between 4.30 to 5 a.m. so as to finish up their household work before going to work place. Some of the respondents reported that at the close of the day they found themselves too tired to do anything. Very old women reported of sleeping without dinner as they were unable to do the cooking due to tiredness as well as due to absence of electricity facility at home.

Many respondents wept while interviewing as they had to bear the scoldings of their husbands along with these heavy household chores. Their husbands were drunkard and did not own any household responsibility. This showed their miserable life at home. Above all, these miseries and sorrows were aggravated more by their occupational health problems.

PLATE 17. RESPONDENT WORKING AT HOME

PLATE 18. KITCHEN IN THE CORNER OF THE ROOM

Findings on the whole reflected that since respondents contributed a substantial portion to family income, there was some improvement in their control over family finances, decision making role, social/community participation and in sharing of work.

7b. (ii) Development of Family Members

An attempt was also made to get an insight into the influence of women's earnings on family members' health, education, acquiring of skills.

Health Status of Respondents Family Members : Health is an important indicator of physical quality of life. Good health is a primary resource for development and without it life is more painful, slower and happiness more elusive.

Almost 52 per cent of respondents rated their family members health as normal and 48.41 per cent as deteriorated before their employment (Table 51).

After their employment, there was some improvement in health status of respondents' family members as they were able to afford money for better treatment of their family members in case of any health disorder.

Data showed that almost 61 per cent of respondents perceived their family members health status as normal, 28 per cent as good and 11.50 per cent as deteriorated after their employment.

Table 51 : Health Status of Respondents' Family Members as Perceived by the Respondents

Health Status	Rural (N=126)				Urban (N=126)				Total (N=252)			
	B.E.		A.E.		B.E.		A.E.		B.E.		A.E.	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Good	-	-	30	23.80	-	-	40	31.74	-	-	70	27.77
Normal	58	46.03	80	63.49	72	57.14	73	57.93	130	51.58	153	60.71
Deteriorated	68	53.96	16	12.69	54	42.52	13	10.31	122	48.41	29	11.50

B.E. = Before employment, A.E. = After employment

More percentage of urban respondents (31.74 per cent) than rural respondents (23.80 per cent) stated their family members health as good.

Improvement in Education of Children : Nearly 61 per cent of respondents opined that there was improvement in the education of their children after they took the employment (Table 52). Many of them were able to send more number of children to school, or they were able to continue the education of their older children.

More percentage of urban respondents (68.25 per cent) than rural respondents (51.58 per cent) felt improvement in education of children.

Table 52 : Improvement in Education of Children

Improvement	Rural (N=126)		Urban (N=126)		Total (N=252)	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Improved	65	51.58	86	68.25	151	59.95
No Change	61	48.41	40	31.74	101	40.07

Imparting of Skills : Almost 43 per cent of respondents were of the view that they were able to spare some money to teach skills to their children after employment (Table 53). About 13 to 16 per cent stated that they were able to impart weaving and stitching skills to their family members. Food preservation, carpentary and mechanical skills were being imparted by 4 to 5 per cent of respondents.

Percentage of respondents who reported of imparting skills to their family members was more in urban sample than in rural sample.

Table 53 : Imparting of Skills and Type of Skills Acquired by the Family Members

Aspects	Rural (N=126)		Urban (N=126)		Total (N=252)	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Imparting of Skills						
Able to Impart	45	35.74	63	50.00	108	42.85
Not able to Impart	81	64.28	63	50.00	144	57.14
Type of Skills						
Stitching	16	12.69	25	19.84	12	16.26
Weaving	15	11.90	17	13.46	32	12.69
Carpentary	4	3.17	8	6.34	12	3.96
Food preservation	4	3.17	6	4.76	10	3.95
Mechanical Work	6	4.76	7	5.55	13	5.15

Data also showed 6.34 per cent of respondents' families were able to start self help work in carpentary and tailoring after their employment (Table 54). About 2 per cent to 4 per cent were

able to start self help work in chair weaving, food preservation, pottery work and shop keeping after the employment of respondents.

Table 54 : Self Help Work in the Family

Type of Work	Rural (N=126) F	%	Urban (N=126) F	%	Total (N=252) F	%
Shop Keeping	3	2.38	7	5.55	10	3.96
Chair weaving	1	0.79	3	2.38	4	1.58
Carpet Weaving		--	2	1.58	2	0.79
Carpentary work	9	7.14	7	13.49	16	6.34
Pottery work	5	3.96	3	2.38	8	3.17
Tailoring	4	3.17	12	9.52	16	6.34
Food preservation	1	0.79	4	3.17	5	1.98

It can be observed that respondents' earnings did help them to improve the health and education of their children. It helped them to impart skills to their family members but skills imparted were not of the type which could enable the family members to earn more money. Respondents reported that their limited earning did not allow them to help their family members to learn better skilled work.

7b. (iii) Level of Living of Family

Level of living of the family depends upon the income. Women's income in poor households not only increases the

aggregate income levels of their families but they also contribute a much larger share to basic family maintenance. Level of living of family was assessed in terms of housing conditions, savings, possession of consumer durable items, consumption of food and non food items and dietary pattern.

Housing Conditions : Housing conditions included the characteristics of housing and facilities provided in the house.

Before employment, 59.12 per cent of respondents' families had rented houses and about 41 per cent had owned houses (Table 55). After employment, nearly 54 per cent had owned houses, 34.12 had rented houses and 11.90 per cent availed the housing facility provided by the employers.

The break up showed that more percentage of urban respondents (19.84 per cent) than rural respondents (3.96 per cent) availed the housing facility provided by their employers.

Before employment, 50.39 per cent of respondents' family stayed in 'kaccha' houses, 45.23 per cent in 'semi-pacca' and only 4.36 per cent stayed in 'pacca' houses.

After employment, 53.57 per cent stayed in 'semi-pacca' houses, 27.38 per cent in 'pacca' and 19.04 per cent in 'kaccha' houses.

Table 55 : Characteristics of Housing of the Respondents' Family

Characteristics of Housing	Rural (N=126)				Urban (N=126)				Total (N=252)			
	B.E.		A.E.		B.E.		A.E.		B.E.		A.E.	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Occupancy of House												
Owned	55	43.65	72	57.14	48	38.09	64	50.79	103	40.87	136	53.96
Rented	71	56.34	49	38.86	78	61.90	37	29.36	149	59.12	86	34.12
Provided by the employer	-	-	5	3.96	-	-	25	19.84	-	-	30	11.90
Type of House												
Kaccha	65	51.58	27	21.42	62	49.02	21	16.66	127	50.39	48	19.04
Semi-pacca	56	44.44	72	57.14	58	46.03	63	50.00	114	45.23	135	53.57
Pacca	5	3.96	27	21.42	6	4.76	42	33.33	11	4.36	69	27.38
Number of Rooms												
One	78	61.90	66	52.38	93	73.80	69	54.76	171	67.85	135	53.57
Two	43	34.12	50	39.68	30	23.80	49	38.88	73	28.96	99	39.28
Three	5	3.96	10	3.93	3	2.38	8	6.34	8	3.17	18	7.14
Kitchen facility												
Corner of the room	70	55.55	41	32.53	74	58.73	66	52.38	114	57.14	107	42.46
Outdoor area	51	40.47	67	53.17	44	34.92	36	28.57	95	37.69	103	40.87
Separate Room	5	3.96	18	14.28	8	6.34	24	19.04	13	5.15	42	16.66

B.E. = Before employment, A.E. = After employment

Percentage of families with 'pacca' houses was more in urban sample (33.33 per cent) than in rural sample (21.24 percent).

Nearly 68 per cent of respondents' families had one room, about 29 per cent had two rooms and only 3.17 per cent had three rooms before they took the employment. After the employment, 53.57 per cent of respondents' families had one room, 39.28 had

two rooms and 7.14 had three rooms. Urban and rural sample did not show much variation regarding the number of rooms.

Corner of the room was used as kitchen by 57.14 per cent of respondents before their employment. About 38 per cent had kitchen in the outdoor area and only 5.15 per cent had a separate kitchen. After employment, about 43 per cent of families had kitchen in the corner of the room (Plate 18). Almost 41 per cent had kitchen in outdoor area. Only 17 per cent had separate kitchen.

Percentage of respondents who had kitchen in the corner of the room was more in urban sample (52.38 per cent) than in rural sample (32.53 per cent).

Table 56 : Facilities Available in the House

Facilities in the House	Rural (N=126)				Urban (N=126)				Total (N=252)			
	B.E.		A.E.		B.E.		A.E.		B.E.		A.E.	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Toilet facility	19	15.07	46	36.50	27	21.42	60	47.61	46	18.25	106	42.06
Bathroom facility	29	23.01	68	53.96	37	29.36	84	66.66	66	26.19	152	60.31
Water facility	43	34.12	63	50.00	57	45.23	89	70.69	100	39.68	152	60.31
Electrification of the House	69	54.76	88	69.84	80	63.49	106	84.10	149	59.12	194	76.98

B.E. = Before employment, A.E. = After employment

Before employment, 59.12 per cent of respondents' houses had electricity connections, 39.68 per cent had water facility, 26.19

per cent had bathroom facility and 18.25 per cent had toilet facility (Table 56).

After the employment of respondents, there was somewhat increase in percentage of respondents who had different facilities in their houses. This increase varied from nearly 18 to 34 per cent of respondents. After employment, about 77 per cent had electricity connections, 60.31 per cent had water and bathroom facility and 42.06 per cent had lavatory facility.

More number of urban families than rural families had different facilities in their houses.

Data revealed that no doubt women's households had somewhat better housing conditions after they took the employment, but on the whole their housing conditions were not satisfactory. As still, many of them stayed in rented houses, 'semi-pacca' houses and in one room only which was being used as multipurpose room (Plate 19). Only few respondents had separate bed room facility in their houses (Plate 20). Kitchen facility was only in the form of corner of room or outdoor area which created difficulties in cooking during rainy season. Other necessary facilities were also lacking in majority of the households.

Saving : Every family should have some saving. The savings in the poor families can be made certain when women take up jobs.

Nearly 81 per cent of the respondents felt that they were able to save more after their employment, whereas only 19.44 felt that there was no increase in their savings (Table 57).

PLATE 19. CORNER OF THE ROOM USED FOR STORING FUEL AND CLOTHES

PLATE 20. SEPARATE BED ROOM OF THE WORKER

Table 57 : Status of Saving

Aspects	Rural (N=126) F	%	Urban (N=126) F	%	Total (N=252) F	%
Able to save more	101	80.15	102	80.95	203	80.55
No change	25	19.84	24	19.04	49	19.44
Mean saving per month (Rupees)	201.58		225.79		213.69	
S. D.	78.72		79.68		79.97	

Mean saving per month was Rs. 213.69. Mean saving of urban sample was somewhat more (Rs. 225.79 per month) than that of rural sample (Rs. 201.58). Many of them utilized their savings for buying durable items and for repaying loans.

Borrowing : Its Purpose and Repayment : Finance is the life blood for any transaction. Loans can be taken for productive and non-productive purposes.

Before employment, 73.01 per cent of respondents took the loan (Table 58). After employment, 63.49 per cent took the loan.

The main purpose of taking loan before the employment of respondents was for getting food. After employment, the purpose was to buy durables as well as food. Thirty-nine per cent of respondents who took loan before employment were able to repay it after they took the employment. Loan taken after the employment was repaid by about 45 per cent and 18.68 per cent were still in the process of repaying.

Table 58 : Loan Taken, Purpose of Taking Loan and Repayment of Loan

Particulars of Loan	Rural (N=126)				Urban (N=126)				Total (N=252)			
	B.E.		A.E.		B.E.		A.E.		B.E.		A.E.	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Taking of Loan												
Taken	94	74.60	84	66.66	90	71.42	76	60.31	184	73.01	160	63.49
Not taken	32	25.39	42	33.33	36	28.57	50	39.68	68	26.98	92	36.50
Purpose of Taking Loan*												
Food	66	52.38	19	15.07	56	44.44	17	13.49	122	48.41	36	14.28
Illness	15	11.90	20	15.87	22	17.46	15	11.90	37	14.68	35	13.88
Marriage of child	9	7.14	16	12.69	9	7.14	13	10.31	18	7.14	29	11.50
Housing purpose	5	3.96	15	11.90	5	3.96	8	6.34	10	3.96	23	9.12
Buying of durable assets	8	6.34	18	14.28	12	9.57	25	19.84	20	7.93	43	17.06
Business	1	0.79	2	1.58	1	0.79	1	0.79	2	0.79	3	1.19
Education of children	1	0.79	-		1	0.79	2	1.58	2	0.79	2	0.79
Repayment of Loan												
Repayment of before employment loan	39	30.95	55	43.65	46	36.50	44	34.92	85	33.73	99	39.28
Repayment of After Employment Loan												
Repaid	-	-	60	47.61	-	-	53	42.06	-	-	113	44.84
Unpaid	-	-	24	19.04	-	-	23	18.25	-	-	47	18.68

B.E. = Before employment, A.E. = After employment

* Multiple response

Findings indicated that respondents' wages were not sufficient to fulfil their family needs, that's why they felt the need of taking loan.

Possession of Consumer Durable Items : Findings showed (Table 59) that before employment, 87.30 per cent of respondents' families had charpoy, 56.74 per cent had radio, 50.79 per cent had folding bed, 47.61 per cent had fan, 37.69 per cent had nivar bed, 31.34 per cent had sewing machine, 24.20 per cent had television, 21.42 per cent had bicycle and least percentage had chair and table, double bed, sofa, cupboard, iron and luna.

There was an increase in percentage of respondents who possessed different durable items after their employment. This increase varied from nearly 17 to 64 per cent of respondents. It was found that after employment, cent per cent of respondents' families were able to get charpoy, 84.92 per cent fans, 82.52 per cent folding bed and 78.17 per cent were able to get television (mostly black and white), radio and bicycle. Almost 77 per cent were able to get chair and table. Almost 57 to 58 per cent were able to get cupboard and double bed. Nearly 50 per cent were able to possess nivar bed, 48.01 per cent sofa, 35.31 per cent iron and nearly 20 per cent were able to enjoy luna facility.

More number of urban respondents than rural respondents possessed consumer durable items. It can be seen from the data that respondents' families were able to buy more number of consumer durable items after the employment. But still many were deprived of these basic consumer durable items (Plate 21). The reason for this may be low level of earning of respondents.

Table 59 : Possession of Consumer Durable Items by the Respondents' Families

Types of Consumer Durable Items	Rural (N=126)				Urban (N=126)				Total (N=252)			
	B.E.		A.E.		B.E.		A.E.		B.E.		A.E.	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Sewing machine	35	27.77	57	45.23	44	34.92	77	61.11	79	31.34	134	53.17
T.V.	30	23.80	91	72.22	31	24.60	106	84.12	61	24.20	197	78.17
Radio	69	54.76	97	76.98	74	58.73	100	79.36	143	56.74	197	78.17
Fan	56	44.44	101	80.15	64	50.79	113	89.68	120	47.61	214	84.92
Bicycle	25	19.84	94	74.60	29	23.01	103	81.74	54	21.42	197	78.17
Luna	4	3.17	20	15.87	4	3.17	28	22.22	8	3.17	48	19.04
Iron	6	4.76	37	29.36	5	3.96	52	41.26	11	4.36	89	35.31
Folding bed	65	51.58	98	77.77	63	50.00	110	87.30	128	50.79	208	82.53
Nivar bed	53	42.06	65	51.58	42	33.33	60	47.61	95	37.69	125	49.60
Charpoy	112	88.88	126	100.00	108	85.17	126	100.00	220	87.30	252	100.00
Double bed	16	12.69	63	50.00	12	9.52	83	65.87	28	11.11	146	57.93
Sofa	11	8.73	57	45.23	10	7.93	64	50.79	21	8.33	121	48.01
Chair and table	15	11.90	99	78.57	16	12.69	95	75.39	31	12.30	194	76.98
Steel/Wooden cupboard	7	5.55	68	53.96	12	9.52	76	60.31	19	7.53	144	57.14

B.E. = Before employment , A.E. = After employment

Consumption Expenditure Pattern : Consumption expenditure is another important indicator of level of living. Therefore, information was sought from the respondents regarding their consumption expenditure pattern their employment.

Data revealed that there was much change in consumption expenditure pattern of 42.06 per cent of families and in 55.55 per

PLATE 21. FEW CONSUMER DURABLE ITEMS IN POOR WORKER'S HOUSE

cent of families, the change was observed to be little. Percentage of families with much improvement in consumption expenditure pattern was more in urban sample (50 per cent) than in rural sample (34.12 per cent).

Table 60 : Extent of Change in Consumption Expenditure Pattern of Respondents' Families

Extent of Change	Rural (N=126)		Urban (N=126)		Total (N=252)	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Much	43	34.12	63	50.00	106	42.06
Little	78	61.90	62	49.20	140	55.55
No change	5	3.96	1	0.79	6	2.38

It was reported by many respondents that after employment, they were able to buy clothes for their family members twice or thrice a year but before employment they used to buy only once. Their housing expenditure had also increased as many of them were able to shift to better houses and were able to spend more so as to improve their housing conditions. There was also some increase in expenditure on education as they were able to send more number of children to schools and also to better schools. Increase in transportation expenditure was also reported as for reaching the work place, they had to pay for autorickshaw or for local bus. Many respondents reported that there was also some increase in their recreation expenditure as they could afford to see movie in a theatre once or twice a month. Respondents also admitted increase in medical expenditure as they were able to get better

treatment for their family members. Moreover there was also increase in their miscellaneous expenditure i.e., spending money on religious ceremonies, pocket money to children and also sending money to their elders staying away from them.

It can be said that there was increase in consumption expenditure pattern of respondents' families after their employment. The reason for this may be that respondents spent their earnings not for themselves but for the maintenance of their family members.

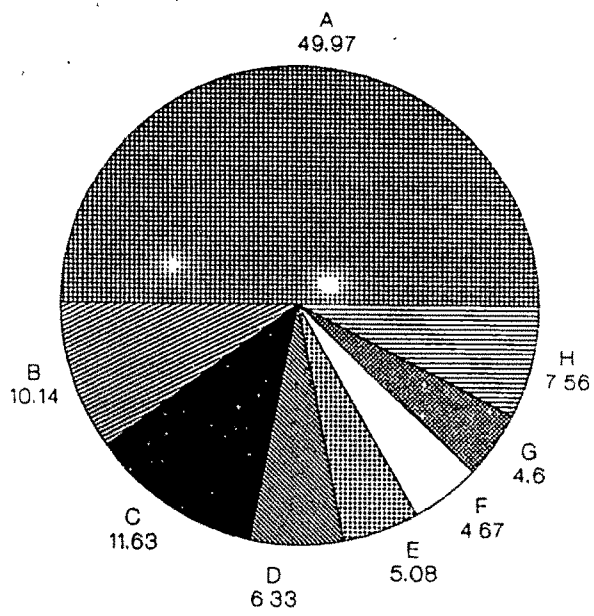
The respondents were unable to provide exact figures for consumption expenditure pattern before employment so the mean percentage expenditure on current living was only assessed.

The mean percentage expenditure per household on food and non food items was about 50 per cent (Figure 12). Percentage expenditure on food items was less in urban households (48.35 per cent) than in rural households (51.82 per cent). Percentage expenditure on non food items was more in urban households than in rural households.

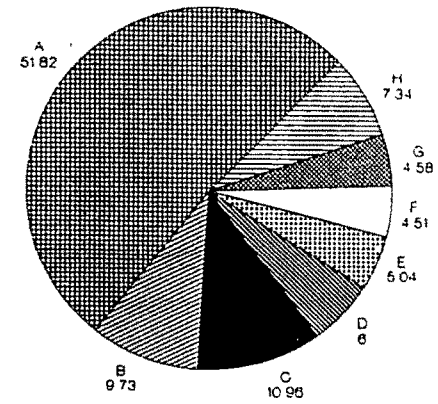
Dietary Pattern : Diet is one of the mainsprings of man's health, work capacity, enjoyment of life and longevity. Without food or with food that is insufficient either in quality or in quantity, one soon loses the ability to withstand physical exertion.

It can be seen from the data (Table 61) that respondents' families consumed daily cereals, fat and oil and sugar before and

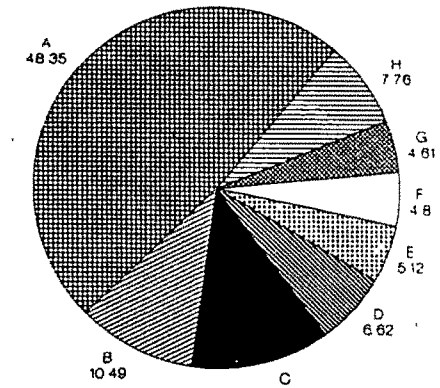
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF EXPENDITURE ON FOOD & NON-FOOD ITEMS



TOTAL



RURAL



URBAN

A • FOOD
B • CLOTHING
C • HOUSING
D • EDUCATION
E • TRANSPORT
F • RECREATION
G • MEDICAL
H • MISCELLANEOUS

FIGURE 12

Table 61 . Dietary Pattern of the Respondents' Families

Food Items	Rural (N=126)								Urban (N=126)								Total (N=252)							
	B.E.				A.E.				B.E.				A.E.				B.E.				A.E.			
	D F	F F	O F	N F	D F	F F	O F	N F	D F	F F	O F	N F	D F	F F	O F	N F	D F	F F	O F	N F	D F	F F	O F	N F
Cereals	126 (100.00)	-	-	-	126 (100.00)	- -	-	-	126 (100.00)	-	-	-	126 (100.00)	-	-	-	252 (100.00)	-	-	-	252 (100 00)			
Pulses	25 (19.84)	39 (30.95)	62 (49 20)	-	68 (53 96)	46 (36.50)	12 (9.52)	-	20 (15 87)	42 (33.33)	64 (50 79)	-	73 (57.93)	48 (38.09)	5 (3.96)	-	45 (17.85)	81 (32.14)	126 (50.00)	-	141 (5.95)	94 (37 30)	17 (6 74)	
Green leafy vegetables	- -	16 (12.69)	110 (87.30)	-	34 (26.98)	57 (45.23)	35 (27.77)	-	1 (0.79)	24 (19 04)	101 (80.15)	-	52 (41.26)	54 (42.85)	20 (15.87)		1 (0.39)	40 (15.87)	211 (87.73)	-	86 (34.12)	111 (44 04)	55 (21.82)	-
Roots & tubers	5 (3.96)	17 (13.49)	104 (82.53)	-	42 (33.33)	52 (41.26)	32 (25.39)	-	4 (3 17)	24 (19.04)	98 (77.77)	-	47 (37.30)	59 (46.82)	20 (15.87)	-	9 (3.57)	41 (16.26)	202 (80.15)	-	89 (35.31)	111 (44 04)	52 (20.62)	-
Other vegetables	5 (3.96)	24 (19.04)	97 (76.98)	-	11 (8.73)	75 (59.52)	40 (31.74)	-	3 (2.38)	24 (19.04)	99 (78.57)	-	27 (21.42)	59 (46.82)	40 (31.74)	-	8 (3.17)	48 (19.04)	196 (77.38)	-	38 (15.07)	134 (53 17)	80 (31.74)	-
Fats & oil	126 (100.00)	- -	- -	- -	126 (100.00)	- -	-	-	126 (100.00)	- -	-	-	126 (100.00)	-		-	252 (100.00)	- -	- -	- -	252 (100 00)		-	-
Milk & milk products	1 (0.79)	2 (1 58)	77 (61.11)	46 (36.50)	6 (4 76)	42 (33.33)	55 (43.65)	23 (18.25)	-	12 (9 52)	75 (59 52)	39 (30.95)	8 (6.34)	66 (52.38)	36 (28.57)	16 (14.76)	1 (0.39)	14 (5.55)	152 (60.31)	85 (33.73)	14 (5 55)	108 (42 85)	91 (36.11)	39 (15.47
Meat	- -	- -	17 (13 49)	109 (86 50)		16 (12 69)	47 (37.30)	63 (50.00)	-	2 (1 58)	21 (16 66)	103 (81.74)	-	21 (16.66)	48 (38.09)	57 (45.23)	-	2 (0.79)	38 (15.07)	212 (84.12)		37 (14 68)	95 (37 69)	120 (47.61

contd...

Food Items	Rural (N=126)								Urban (N=126)								Total (N=252)							
	B.E.				A.E.				B.E.				A.E.				B.E.				A.E.			
	D	F	O	N	D	F	O	N	D	F	O	N	D	F	O	N	D	F	O	N	D	F	O	N
	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F
Fish	-	-	6	120	-	8	37	81	-		8	118	-	13	45	68	-		14	238		21	82	149
		-	- 76)	(95 23)	-	(6.34)	(29.36)	(64.28)	-		(6 34)	(93 65)	-	(10.31)	(35.71)	(53.96)	-		(5 55)	(94 44)		(8 33)	(32 53)	(59.12
Egg		2	23	101	-	16	58	52	-	2	28	96	-	23	47	56	-	4	51	197		39	105	108
		(1 58)	(18 25)	(80.15)	-	(12.69)	(46.03)	(41.26)	-	(1.58)	(22 22)	(76.19)	-	(18.25)	(27.30)	(44.44)	-	(1.58)	(20.23)	(78.17)		(15 47)	(41.66)	(42.85
Fruits	-	8	47	71	-	35	54	37	-	14	48	64	15	45	38	28	-	22	95	135	15	80	92	65
		(6.34)	(37.30)	(56 34)	-	(27.77)	(42.85)	(29.36)	-	(11.11)	(38.09)	(50.79)	(11.90)	(35.71)	(30.15)	(22.22)	-	(8.73)	(37.69)	(53 57)	(5 95)	(31 74)	(36.50)	(25.79
Sugar	126	-	-		126	-	-	-	126	-	-	-	126	-	-	-	252	-	-		252			
	(100.00)	-	-	-	(100.00)	-	-		(100.00)	-		-	(100.00)	-	-	-	(100.00)	-	-		(100 00)			-
Jaggery	2	12	31	81	5	38	37	46	-	10	42	74	8	45	31	42	2	22	73	155	13	83	68	88
	(1.58)	(9.52)	(24.60)	(64 28)	(3.96)	(30.15)	(29.36)	(36.50)	-	(7.93)	(33 33)	(58.73)	(6.34)	(35.71)	(24.60)	(33.33)	(0.79)	(8.73)	(28.96)	(61.50)	(5 15)	(32 93)	(26.98)	(34.92
Dry fruits	-	-	-	-	-	3	15	108	-	-		-	-	6	23	97	-	-				9	38	205
		-	-			(2.38)	(11.90)	(85.71)	-	-		-	-	(4.76)	(18.25)	(76.98)	-		-			(3 57)	(15.07)	(81.34

B.E. = Before employment, A.E. = After employment

D = Daily, F = Frequently, O = Occassionally, N = Never

(Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

after the employment of respondents. Before employment, daily/ frequent consumption of pulses, vegetables, fruits and milk was in negligible percentage. But after employment, there was some improvement in daily/frequent consumption of these items.

After employment, almost 56 per cent of respondents stated that they were able to consume pulses daily. Green leafy vegetables, roots and tubers were consumed daily by 34 to 35 per cent, whereas 44.04 per cent reported the frequent consumption of these vegetables. Daily consumption of other vegetables was by only 15.07 per cent of respondents' families, whereas 53.17 per cent frequently consumed these vegetables. Jaggery, milk and milk products and fruits were consumed daily by 5 to 6 per cent. But nearly 43 per cent of respondents reported that they were able to consume frequently milk and milk products. Almost 32 to 33 per cent reported that they were able to consume frequently fruits and jaggery. Daily consumption of meat, fish, egg and dry fruits was nil. But almost 15 per cent of respondents reported that they were able to consume frequently meat and egg. Frequent consumption of fish and dry fruits was reported by 8.33 per cent and 3.57 per cent of respondents' families respectively.

It was pointed out by many respondents that before employment, their family members used to take one full meal a day but after employment, they could afford to take at least two full meals a day. Many of them used to eat chapaties with salt, chillies, chutney, pickle or onions only before their employment

but after taking employment, they could afford to have vegetable or dal at least once in a day. Now many of them could afford to buy cheap and seasonal fruits for their families. They also reported an increase in quantity of food consumed.

The scrutiny of data showed that percentage of families who were able to consume daily/frequently pulses, vegetables, milk and milk products, meat fish, egg and fruits was somewhat more in urban sample than in rural sample.

An attempt was also made to evaluate the quality of food intake of respondents in terms of adequacy of calories and protein in the diet. The calorie and protein intake were compared with recommended dietary allowances (ICMR, 1993) per respondent.

Calories and protein intake was adequate in 44.84 per cent of respondents' diets (Table 62). Calories adequate and protein were inadequate in diet of 31 per cent of respondents diet. Calorie and protein were inadequate in the diet of 19.44 per cent of respondents. Calories inadequate and protein were adequate in diet of about 5 per cent.

Adequacy of diet was somewhat better in urban sample than in rural sample. Data indicated that although there was improvement in dietary pattern after the employment of respondents but still their diet was inadequate. Many respondents felt that nutritious diet was not within their reach.

Table 62 : Adequacy of Respondents' Diet with Respect to Calories and Protein

Adequacy of Diet	Rural (N=126) F	%	Urban (N=126) F	%	Total (N=252) F	%
Calorie adequate & protein inadequate	42	33.33	36	28.57	78	30.95
Calorie inadequate and protein adequate	4	3.17	8	6.34	12	4.76
Calorie and protein inadequate	50	39.68	63	50.00	113	44.84
Calorie and protein inadequate	30	23.80	19	15.07	49	19.44

7b. (iv) Relationship Between Output (Income) and Household Development of Respondents

Data showed that output (income) of the respondents influenced the development of their households. Maximum percentage of respondents (Table 63) who had more output (income) at work place were able to enhance their own development (46.03 per cent), their family members' development (36.50 per cent), level of living of their families (42.46 per cent) and overall household development (45.23 per cent).

Similarly, the maximum percentage of respondents who had less output (income) were not able to enhance much their own development (46.82 per cent), their family members development (35.71 per cent), level of living of their families (40.47 per cent) and overall household development (48.01 per cent).

Table 63 : Extent of Output (Income) and Extent of Household Development of Respondents

Development	Output (Income)											
	Rural (N=126)				Urban (N=126)				Total (N=252)			
	More		Less		More		Less		More		Less	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Respondents' Development												
More (above 14)	49	38.88	8	6.34	67	53.17	5	3.96	116	46.03	13	5.15
Less (below 14)	2	1.58	67	53.17	3	2.38	51	40.47	5	1.98	118	46.82
Family Members' Development												
More (above 1)	34	26.98	23	18.25	58	46.03	18	14.28	92	36.50	41	16.26
Less (below 1)	17	13.49	52	41.26	12	9.52	38	30.15	29	11.50	90	35.71
Development in Terms of Level of Living of Family												
More (above 17)	42	33.33	14	11.11	65	51.58	15	11.90	107	42.46	29	11.50
Less (below 17)	9	7.14	61	48.41	5	3.96	41	32.53	14	5.55	102	40.47
Overall Household Development												
More (above 33)	46	36.50	4	3.17	68	53.96	6	4.76	114	45.23	10	3.96
Less (below 33)	5	3.96	71	56.34	2	1.58	50	39.69	7	2.77	121	48.01

Correlation matrix (Table 64) showed a significant positive relationship between output (income) and individual development of the respondents ($r = 0.87$, Sig. at 0.01 level), development of family members ($r = 0.55$, Sig. at 0.01 level) and level of living

Table 64 : Correlation Matrix Values Showing Interrelationship Between Variables

Variables	Output (Income)	Development of Respondents	Development of Family Members	Level of Living of Family
Output (Income)	--	0.87**	0.55**	0.84**
Development		--	0.51**	0.71**
Development of family members			--	0.47**
Level of living of family				--

** Significant at 0.01 level.

of the family (r = 0.89 sig. at 0.01 level). It can be concluded that increase in output (income) enhanced the development and decrease in output (income) suppressed the development of households of respondents. It can be further explained that income earned by the respondents did have some impact on the development of their households. But still half the number of respondents had their households less developed.

7b. (v) Level of Satisfaction of Respondents with Family Living

Satisfaction level with family living was also assessed to find out if there was any change in the level after employment.

Before employment more than half the number of respondents were not at all satisfied with their family living, about 40 per cent were not much satisfied and only 4.76 were satisfied much with their family living (Table 65) After employment, half the number were not much satisfied, 39 per cent were not at all satisfied and only 11.11 per cent were satisfied.

Table 65 : Level of Satisfaction of the Respondents with Family Living

Level of Satisfaction	Rural (N=126)		Urban (N=126)		Total (N=252)	
	B.E. F	A.E. F	B.E. F	A.E. F	B.E. F	A.E. F
Much	8 (6.34)	12 (9.52)	4 (3.17)	16 (12.69)	12 (4.76)	28 (11.11)
Not much	46 (36.50)	56 (44.44)	54 (42.85)	70 (55.55)	100 (39.68)	126 (50.00)
Not at all	72 (57.14)	58 (46.03)	68 (53.96)	40 (31.74)	140 (55.55)	98 (38.88)

B.E. = Before employment, A.E. = After employment

(Figures in parentheses indicate percentages)

Satisfaction level was somewhat better in urban sample than in rural sample. Data showed that there was some improvement in satisfaction level with family living after the employment of the respondents. But still many respondents were not satisfied as they were not able to earn much to fulfil their family members needs.

7b. (vi) Future Goals of the Respondents

Goals play an important role in one's life and motivate the individual to earn more money.

Ninty-five per cent of respondents reported that they wanted to buy more number of durable items (Table 66). About 88 per cent wanted to marry their children. Providing higher education to children was depicted as goal by 70.20 per cent and 51.19 per cent reported construction of house as their goal.

Table 66 : Future Goals of the Respondents

Type of Goal	Rural (N=126)		Urban (N=126)		Total (N=252)	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Imparting higher education to children	87	69.04	90	71.42	117	70.23
Buying more number of durable goods	121	96.03	119	94.44	240	95.23
Construction of house	63	50.00	66	52.38	129	51.19
Marriage of children	116	91.26	105	83.33	221	87.69

The goal of marriage of children was reported by more number of rural respondents (91.26 per cent) than by urban respondents (83.33 per cent).

Findings on the whole indicated that women's earnings were needed in their poor families to meet basic household needs. Their earnings no doubt brought improvements in their quality of life but on the whole their quality of life was appallingly low. Their low earnings were reflected in their low levels of living. Their low incomes supported their poverty. They were dissatisfied because they were not able to contribute much money to their family welfare so as to enable their families to lead a comfortable life. Their low level of living was a reflection of their low output at work place. One way to raise their level of living is that we must change the unfavourable work place conditions within which they are trapped. Their occupational health conditions must be improved so that their output can be enhanced which in turn will raise the quality of life of women workers' families at least to a minimum standard.

8. TESTING OF HYPOTHESES

To test the hypotheses statistically, Chi-square test, t-test, linear stepwise multiple regression and Karl Pearson Product Moment Correlation were computed. For the purpose of testing the hypotheses, null hypotheses with sub-hypotheses were formulated.

H_o-1 There will be no significant association between number of occupational health problems of the women workers and each of the following selected variables :

Work Factors : (i) Posture at work (ii) Work duration (iii) Work movements (iv) Job security (v) Overwork (vi) Job recognition.

Work Place Factors : (i) Physical work conditions (ii) Mechanical factors (iii) Particulate matter (iv) Biological factors.

Organisational Factors : (i) Relations at work place (ii) Labour welfare benefits (Table 67).

The Chi-square test was applied and a significant association was found between number of occupational health problems of women workers and posture at work (Chi-square = 37.07, Sig. at 0.01 level); work duration (Chi-square = 20.25, Sig. at 0.01 level); work movements (Chi-square = 15.73, Sig. at 0.01 level); job security (Chi-square = 46.93, Sig. at 0.01 level); overwork (Chi-square = 23.79, Sig. at 0.01 level); job recognition (Chi-square = 9.49, Sig. at 0.01 level); physical work conditions (Chi-square = 42.83, Sig. at 0.01 level); mechanical factors (Chi-square = 13.65, Sig. at 0.01 level); particulate matter (Chi-square = 27.24, Sig. at 0.01 level);

Table 67 : Chi-square Values Showing the Association Between Number of Occupational Health Problems and Selected Variables

Independent Variables	Dependent Variable: Number of Occupational Health Problems — Chi-square Values	df
Posture at work	37.07**	2
Work duration	20.25**	2
Work movements	15.73**	2
Job security	46.93**	2
Overwork	23.79**	2
Job recognition	9.49**	2
Physical work conditions	42.83**	2
Mechanical factors	13.65**	2
Particulate matter	27.24**	2
Biological factors	3.61	2
Relations at work place	31.01**	2
Labour welfare benefits	74.25**	1

** Significant at 0.01 level

relations at work place (Chi-square = 31.01, Sig. at 0.01 level) and labour welfare benefits (Chi-square = 74.25, Sig. at 0.01 level).

There was no significant association between occupational health problems and biological factors.

Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected for all the variables but accepted for the biological variable. Therefore, it is

concluded that number of occupational health problems of women workers was influenced by work factors, organisational factors and work place factors except biological factors.

H_o-2a There will be no significant difference in occupational environment factors of rural and urban industries (Table 68).

Table 68 : t-values Showing Difference in Mean Scores Among Occupational Environment Factors of Rural and Urban Industries

Occupational Environment Factors	Industries: Rural Mean Scores	Rural S.D.	Urban Mean Scores	Urban S.D.	t-Values	df
Work factors	14.06	3.04	16.23	3.63	5.29**	250
Work place factor	25.58	3.98	29.30	4.02	7.44**	250
Organisational factors	66.49	12.31	74.21	12.66	4.91**	250
All factors	106.09	18.34	119.76	19.22	5.79**	250

** Significant at 0.01 level

t-test was applied and t-values showed significant difference of mean scores of work factors (t = 5.29, Sig. at 0.01 level); work place factors (t = 7.44, Sig. at 0.01 level); organisational factors (t = 4.91, Sig. at 0.01 level and all factors (t = 5.79, Sig. at 0.01 level) of occupational environment of rural and urban industries.

The null hypothesis was rejected. Therefore, it is concluded that occupational environment varied according to location of industries i.e., occupational environment was comparatively better in urban industries than in rural industries.

H_o-2b There will be no significant difference in frequency of occurrence of occupational health problems of women workers due to occupational environment factors of rural and urban industries (Table 69).

Table 69 : t-Values Showing Difference in Mean Scores of Frequency of Occurrence of Occupational Health Problems of Women Workers due to Occupational Environment Factors of Rural and Urban Industries

Frequency of Occurrence of Occupational Health Problems due to	Rural		Urban		t-Values	df
	Mean Scores	S.D.	Mean Scores	S.D.		
Work factors	74.42	10.15	69.04	11.92	3.87**	250
Work place factor	59.90	9.60	54.76	9.75	4.24**	250
Organisational factors	15.42	2.86	13.31	3.01	5.86**	250
All factors	149.47	20.69	137.03	22.61	4.57**	250

** Significant at 0.01 level

t-values showed difference in mean scores of frequency of occurrence of occupational health problems of women workers due to work factors (t = 3.87, Sig. at 0.01 level); work place factors (t = 4.24, Sig. at 0.01 level); organisational factors (t = 5.86, Sig. at 0.01 level) and all factors (t = 4.57, Sig. at 0.01 level) of occupational environment of rural and urban industries.

The null hypothesis was rejected. Therefore, it is concluded that frequency of occurrence of occupational health problems differed due to location of Industries i.e., women workers in urban industries had experienced relatively less frequent

occupational health problems than the women workers in rural industries.

H_o-2c There will be no significant difference in awareness level about sources of occupational health problems between rural and urban women workers (Table 70).

Table 70 : t-Value Showing Difference in Mean Scores of Awareness Level About Sources of Occupational Health Problems Between Rural and Urban Women Workers

Aspect	Rural		Urban		t-value	df
	Mean Scores	S.D.	Mean Scores	S.D.		
Awareness level	87.04	9.06	91.74	10.89	3.73**	250

** Significant at 0.01 level

t-value showed significant difference in mean scores of awareness level about sources of occupational health problems (t = 3.73, Sig. at 0.01 level) between rural and urban women workers.

The null hypothesis was thus rejected. Therefore, it is concluded that awareness level about sources of occupational health problems varied between rural and urban women workers. It was comparatively better in urban than in rural women workers.

H_o-3 There will be no significant association between awareness level of women workers about sources of occupational health problems and the following selected variables :

(i) Age of women workers (ii) Education of women workers (Table 71).

Table 71 : Chi-square Values Showing the Association Between Awareness Level and Selected Variables

Independent Variables	Dependent Variable Awareness Level Chi-square Values	df
Age of women workers	15.05**	4
Education of women workers	13.77**	4

** Significant at 0.01 level.

The Chi-square values showed significant association between level of awareness and age (Chi-square = 15.05, Sig. at 0.01 level) and education level of women workers (Chi-square = 13.77, Sig. at 0.01 level). Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected for the variables age and education level of workers. Therefore, it is concluded that awareness level of workers was influenced by their age and education i.e., younger and educated women workers had better awareness level.

H_o-4 There will be no significant association between number of occupational health problems and the following selected variables :

(i) Duration of employment of women workers (ii) Age of women workers (Table 72).

The Chi-square values showed that significant association existed between number of occupational health problems and duration of employment (Chi-square = 31.03, Sig. at 0.01 level) and age of women workers (Chi-square = 5.59, Sig. at 0.05 level).

Table 72 : Chi-square Values Showing the Association Between Occupational Health Problems and Selected Variables

Independent Variables	Dependent variable: Number of Occupational Health Problems — Chi-square Values	df
Duration of employment of women workers	31.03**	2
Age of women workers	5.59*	2

* Significant at 0.05 level
** Significant at 0.01 level

The null hypothesis was rejected. Therefore, it is concluded that number of occupational health problems was influenced by duration of employment and age of women workers i.e., women workers with long duration of employment and older workers had suffered more number of occupational health problems.

H_o-5 There will be no significant association between output of women workers and the following selected variables :

Work Factors : (i) Posture at work (ii) Work duration (iii) Work movements (iv) Job security (v) Overwork (vi) Job recognition.

Work Place Factors : (i) Physical work conditions (ii) Mechanical factors (iii) Particulate matter (iv) Biological factors.

Organisational Factors : (i) Relations at work place (ii) Labour welfare benefits (Table 73).

Table 73 : Chi-square Values Showing the Association Between Output and Selected Variables

Independent Variables	Dependent Variable: Output (Chi-square Values)	df
Posture at work	38.42**	2
Work duration	42.38**	2
Work movements	64.69**	2
Job security	50.23**	2
Overwork	31.39**	2
Job recognition	40.66**	2
Physical work conditions	69.93**	2
Mechanical factors	21.54**	2
Particulate matter	40.19**	2
Biological factors	87.27**	2
Relations at work place	92.01**	2
Labour welfare benefits	47.11**	1

** Significant at 0.01 level

The Chi-square test was applied and a significant association was observed between output of women workers and posture at work (Chi-square = 38.42 Sig. at 0.01 level); work duration (Chi-square = 42.38, Sig. at 0.01 level); work movements (Chi-square = 64.69, Sig. at 0.01 level); job security (Chi-square = 50.23, Sig. at 0.01 level); overwork (Chi-square = 31.39, Sig. at 0.01 level); job recognition (Chi-square =

40.66, Sig. at 0.01 level); physical work conditions (Chi-square = 69.93, Sig. at 0.01 level); mechanical factors (Chi-square = 21.54, Sig. at 0.01 level); particulate matter (Chi-square = 40.19, Sig. at 0.01 level); biological factors (Chi-square = 87.27, Sig. at 0.01 level); organisational factors (Chi-square = 92.01, Sig. at 0.01 level) and labour welfare benefits (Chi-square = 47.11, Sig. at 0.01 level).

Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected for all the variables and it is concluded that output of women workers was influenced by work factors, work place factors and organisational factors.

H_o-6 There will be no significant relationship between output of women workers and frequency of occurrence of occupational health problems due to occupational environment factors (Table 74).

Linear stepwise multiple regression was computed to study the impact of frequency of occurrence of occupational health problems resulting from various factors of occupational environment on output. The results revealed that problems due to contact with particulate matter emerged as the most important determinant causing 63.9 per cent variation in the output of women workers. Next factor was posture at work which caused about 12 per cent of variation. Problems due to lack of labour welfare benefits resulted in 5.8 per cent of variation. Problems due to work duration caused 3.5 per cent variation in output. Problems due to physical work conditions, lack of job recognition, biological factors, mechanical factors and lack of

Table 74 : Results of Linear Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis

Dependent Variable	Independent Variables ---------- Frequency of Occurrence of Problems due to	R-Square	F-Value	df
Output				
1	Particulate matter	0.639**	443.78	(1,250)
1+2	Posture at work	0.759**	339.32	(2,249)
1+2+3	Lack of labour welfare benefits	0.817**	369.73	(3,248)
1+2+3+4	Work duration	0.852**	356.91	(4,247)
1+2+3+4+5	Lack of job security	0.877**	353.12	(5,246)
1+2+3+4+5+6	Mechanical factors	0.894**	346.28	(6,245)
1+2+3+4+5+6+7	Biological factors	0.909**	349.88	(7,244)
1+2+3+4+5+6+7 +8	Lack of job recognition	0.915**	328.99	(8,243)
1+2+3+4+5+6+7 +8+9	Physical work conditions	0.920**	312.94	(9,242)
1+2+3+4+5+6+7 +8+9+10	Relations at work place	0.925**	297.60	(10,241)
1+2+3+4+5+6+7 8+9+10+11	Overwork	0.928**	282.32	(11,240)
	Work movements	-	-	-

** Significant at 0.01 level

job security resulted in 0.5 to 2.5 per cent of variation in output. Problems due to overwork and relations at work place caused only 0.3 per cent to 0.5 percent of variation. So, the problems due to all these factors resulted in 92.8 per cent of variation in output of women workers. Problems due to work movements did not cause any variation.

The null hypothesis was thus rejected for all the variables except for work movements. Therefore, it is inferred that frequency of occurrence of occupational health problems resulting from different occupational factors except problems due to work movements influenced the output of women workers.

H_o-6a There will be no significant relationship between output of women workers and frequency of occurrence of occupational health problems due to occupational environment factors in rag ripping (Table 75).

Table 75: Results of Linear Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis in Rag Ripping

Dependent Variable	Independent Variables ---------- Frequency of Occurrence of Problems due to	R-Square	F-Value	df
Output				
1	Particulate matter	0.750**	120.35	(1,40)
1+2	Physical work conditions	0.850**	111.04	(2,39)
1+2+3	Lack of job security	0.885**	97.73	(3,38)
1+2+3+4	Biological factors	0.903**	87.07	(4,37)
1+2+3+4+5	Lack of labour welfare benefits	0.918**	80.76	(5,36)
1+2+3+4+5+6	Work duration	0.927**	75.05	(6,35)
1+2+3+4+5+6+7	Posture at work	-	-	-
	Work movements	-	-	-
	Overwork	-	-	-
	Lack of job recognition	-	-	-
	Mechanical factors	-	-	-
	Relations at work place	-	-	-

** Significant at 0.01 level

Results of linear stepwise multiple regression showed that in rag ripping problems due to particulate matter caused 75 per cent of variation and problems due to physical work conditions resulted in 10 per cent of variation in output of women workers. Only 0.9 to 3.5 per cent of variation in output was caused by problems due to work duration, lack of labour welfare benefits, biological factors and lack of job security. So, total percentage of variation in output resulting from problems due to all these factors was 92.7 per cent.

Problems due to posture at work, work movements, overwork, lack of job recognition, mechanical factors and relations at work place did not cause any variation in output in rag ripping production process.

Hence, null hypothesis was accepted for these variable. But it was rejected for the variables particulate matter, physical work conditions, lack of job security, biological factors, lack of labour welfare benefits and work duration. Therefore, it is concluded that frequency of occurrence of problems due to above mentioned factors influenced the output of women workers in production process of rag ripping.

H_o-6b There will be no significant relationship between output of women workers and frequency of occurrence of occupational health problems due to occupational environment factors in wool sorting (Table 76).

In wool sorting problems due to particulate matter caused 63.2 per cent of variation, problems due to work duration caused 19.4 per cent of variation and problems due to lack of labour

welfare benefits caused 4.7 per cent variation in output of women workers. Problems due to mechanical factors and lack of job recognition caused only 2 to 2.6 per cent of variation in output. On the whole, problems due to all these factors resulted in 91.9 per cent of variation in output of women workers.

Table 76: Results of Linear Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis in Wool Sorting

Dependent Variable	Independent Variables Frequency of Occurrence of Problems due to	R-Square	F-Value	df
Output				
1	Particulate matter	0.632**	68.79	(1,40)
1+2	Work duration	0.826**	92.81	(2,39)
1+2+3	Lack of labour welfare benefits	0.873**	87.48	(3,38)
1+2+3+4	Lack of job recognition	0.899**	82.98	(4,37)
1+2+3+4+5	Mechanical factors	0.919**	81.68	(5,36)
	Posture at work	-	-	-
	Work movements	-	-	-
	Lack of job security	-	-	-
	Overwork	-	-	-
	Physical work conditions	-	-	-
	Biological factors	-	-	-
	Relations at work place	-	-	-

** Significant at 0.01 level

Problems due to posture at work, work movements, lack of job security, overwork, physical work conditions, biological factors and relations at work place did not cause any variation

in output. Hence, null hypothesis was accepted for these variables. It was rejected for particulate matter, work duration, lack of labour welfare benefits , lack of job recognition and mechanical factors. Therefore, it is concluded that output of women workers in wool sorting was influenced by frequency of occurrence of occupational health problems resulting from above mentioned variables.

H_o-6c There will be no significant relationship between output of women workers and frequency of occurrence of occupational health problems due to occupational environment factors in drying of yarn (Table 77).

Table 77: Results of Linear Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis in Drying of Yarn

Dependent Variable	Independent Variables ---------- Frequency of Occurrence of Problems due to	R-Square	F-Value	df
Output				
1	Physical work conditions	0.651**	74.92	(1,40)
1+2	Posture at work	0.753**	59.51	(2,39)
1+2+3	Work duration	0.810**	54.26	(3,38)
1+2+3+4	Lack of job security	0.859**	56.70	(4,37)
1+2+3+4+5	Particulate matter	0.894**	61.16	(5,36)
1+2+3+4+5+6	Lack of labour welfare benefits	0.915**	63.54	(6,35)
	Work movements	-	-	-
	Overwork	-	-	-
	Lack of job recognition	-	-	-
	Mechanical factors	-	-	-
	Biological factors	-	-	-
	Relations at work place	-	-	-

** Significant at 0.01 level

In drying of yarn, problems due to physical work conditions resulted in 65.1 percent of variation in output and problems due to posture at work caused 10.2 per cent of variation in output of women workers. Problems due to lack of labour welfare benefits, particulate matter, lack of job security and work duration resulted in 2.1 to 5.7 per cent of output variation. So, the total percentage of variation in output resulting from problems due to all these factors was 91.5 per cent.

Problems due to work movements, over work, lack of job recognition, mechanical factors, biological factors and relations at work place did not cause any variation in output. Hence, null hypothesis was accepted for these variables. It was rejected for the physical work conditions, posture at work, work duration, lack of job security, particulate matter and lack of labour welfare benefits and hence, it is concluded that output of women workers in production process of drying of yarn was influenced by the frequency of occurrence of problems due to above mentioned variables.

H_o-6d There will be no significant relationship between output of women workers and frequency of occurrence of occupational health problems due to occupational environment factors in winding of yarn (Table 78).

In winding of yarn, problems due to mechanical factors resulted in 64 per cent of variation. Biological factors caused 18.7 per cent of variation in output. Work duration caused 7.3 per cent of variation. Only 0.7 to 1.8 per cent of variation was caused by problems due to particulate matter, overwork and relations at work place relations. On the whole, the problems due to all these problems resulted in 95.2 per cent of variation in output of women workers.

Table 78: Results of Linear Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis in Winding of Yarn

Dependent Variable	Independent Variables ---------- Frequency of Occurrence of Problems due to	R-Square	F-Value	df
1	Mechanical factors	0.649**	74.13	(1,40)
1+2	Biological factors	0.836**	99.98	(2,39)
1+2+3	Work duration	0.909**	127.68	(3,38)
1+2+3+4	Relations at work place	0.927**	118.30	(4,37)
1+2+3+4+5	Overwork	0.945**	125.29	(5,36)
1+2+3+4+5+6	Particulate matter	0.952**	116.01	(6,35)
	Posture at work	-	-	-
	Work movements	-	-	-
	Lack of job security	-	-	-
	Lack of job recognition	-	-	-
	Physical work conditions	-	-	-
	Lack of labour welfare benefits	-	-	-

** Significant at 0.01 level

Problems due to posture at work, work movements, lack of job security, lack of job recognition, physical work conditions, lack of labour welfare benefits did not cause any variation in output in production process of winding of yarn and so null hypothesis was accepted for these variables. But it was rejected for the variables mechanical factors, biological factors, work duration, relations at work place, overwork and particulate matter. Thus, it is concluded that frequency of occurrence of problems due to these factors influenced the output of women workers.

H_o-6e There will be no significant relationship between output of women workers and frequency of occurrence of occupational health problems due to occupational environment factors in carpet weaving (Table 79).

Table 79: Results of Linear Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis in Carpet Weaving

Dependent Variable	Independent Variables ---------- Frequency of Occurrence of Problems due to	R-Square	F-Value	df
Output				
1	Particulate matter	0.662**	78.46	(1,40)
1+2	Posture at work	0.861**	121.02	(2,39)
1+2+3	Relations at work place	0.908**	125.75	(3,38)
1+2+3+4	Work duration	0.921**	108.14	(4,37)
1+2+3+4+5	Lack of labour welfare benefits	0.934**	102.26	(5,36)
	Work movements	-	-	-
	Lack of job security	-	-	-
	Overwork	-	-	-
	Lack of job recognition	-	-	-
	Physical work conditions	-	-	-
	Mechanical factors	-	-	-
	Biological factors	-	-	-

** Significant at 0.01 level

Problems due to particulate matter caused 66.2 per cent of variation in output of women workers in the process of carpet weaving. Problems due to posture at work resulted in 19.9 per cent of variation in output. Problems due to lack of labour welfare benefits, work duration and relations at work place

caused 1.3 to 4.7 per cent of variation in output. On the whole, the problems due to all these factors resulted in 93.4 per cent of variation in output of women workers.

Problems due to work movements, lack of job security, overwork, lack of job recognition, physical work conditions, mechanical factors and biological factors did not cause any variation in output, hence null hypothesis was accepted for these variables. It was rejected for the variables particulate matter posture at work, relations at work place, work duration and lack of labour welfare benefits. Hence, it is concluded that frequency of occurrence of occupational health problems due to these variables caused variation in output of women workers in carpet weaving.

H_o-6f There is no significant relationship between output of women workers and frequency of occurrence of occupational health problems due to occupational environment factors in carpet clipping (Table 80).

Problems due to lack of labour welfare benefits emerged as an important correlate of output variation in the clipping process causing about 54.3 per cent of variation. Problems due to mechanical factors resulted in 16.2 per cent of variation and problems due to lack of job security caused 10.1 per cent of variation. Problems due to lack of job recognition, biological factors, relations at work place and physical work conditions resulted in 1.7 to 4.5 per cent of variation in output of women workers. On the whole, problems due to all these factors resulted in 91.9 per cent of variation in output of women workers.

Table 80: Results of Linear Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis in Carpet clipping

Dependent Variable	Independent Variables ---------- Frequency of Occurrence of Problems due to	R-Square	F-Value	df
Output				
1	Lack of labour welfare benefits	0.543**	47.70	(1,40)
1+2	Machinery or tool	0.705**	46.74	(2,39)
1+2+3	Lack of job security	0.806**	52.89	(3,38)
1+2+3+4	Physical work conditions	0.851**	53.17	(4,37)
1+2+3+4+5	Relations at work place	0.881**	53.78	(5,36)
1+2+3+4+5+6	Biological factors	0.902**	53.78	(6,35)
1+2+3+4+5+6+7	Lack of job recognition	0.919**	51.96	(7,34)
	Posture at work	-	-	-
	Work duration	-	-	-
	Work movements	-	-	-
	Overwork	-	-	-
	Mechanical factors	-	-	-
	Particulate matter	-	-	-

** Significant at 0.01 level

Problems due to posture at work, work duration, work movements, overwork and particulate matter did not cause any variation in output in clipping of carpet. Thus, null hypothesis was accepted for these variables. But it was rejected for the variables lack of labour welfare benefits, mechanical factors, lack of job security, physical work conditions, relations at work place, biological factors and lack of job recognition.

Therefore, it is concluded that frequency of occurrence of problems due to above mentioned variables influenced the output of women workers in production process of clipping of carpet.

H_o-7a There will be no significant difference in income earned by rural and urban women workers (Table 81).

Table 81: t-Value Showing Difference in Mean Income Earned by Rural and Urban Women Workers

Aspects	Rural		Urban		t-Value	df
	Mean Income	S.D.	Mean	S.D.		
Income earned	806.15	137.97	919.84	168.14	5.86**	250

** = Significant at 0.01 level

t-value revealed that there was significant difference in mean income earned (t = 5.86, Sig. at 0.01 level) by rural and urban women workers. Thus, null hypothesis was rejected. It is inferred that income earned by rural and urban workers differed significantly which indicated that income of urban women workers was significantly more than that of rural women workers.

H_o-7b There will be no difference in household development of rural and urban women workers.

t-values indicated that there was significant difference in mean scores of development of respondents (t = 4.38, Sig. at 0.01 level); development of family members (t = 4.00,

Table 82 :t-Values Showing Difference in Mean Scores of Indicators of Household Development of Rural and Urban Women Workers

Indicators of Household Development	Rural		Urban		t-Values	df
	Mean Scores	S.D.	Mean Scores	S.D.		
Development of respondents	13.58	4.16	15.95	4.49	4.38**	250
Development of family members	1.53	0.46	1.85	0.77	4.00**	250
Level of living of family	15.46	4.35	18.71	4.18	6.13**	250
All household development indicators	30.69	8.05	36.57	8.72	5.6**	250

** = Significant at 0.01 level

Sig. at 0.01 level); level of living of family (t = 6.13, Sig. at 0.01 level) and all indicators of household development (t = 5.6, Sig. at 0.01 level) of rural and urban women workers.

Thus, null hypothesis was rejected and it is inferred that development of urban households was more than rural households.

H_o-8 There will be no significant relationship between frequency of occurrence of occupational health problems and output (income) and household development of women workers (Table 83).

To test this hypothesis, correlation was computed. A significant negative correlation resulted between frequency of occurrence of occupational health problems and output (income)

Table 83 : Correlation Matrix Values Showing Relationship Between Variables

Variables	Frequency of Occurrence of Occupational Health Problems	Output (Income)	Household Development	df
Frequency of occurrence of occupational health problems	-	-0.961**	-0.932**	250
Output (Income)	-	-	0.946**	250
Household development	-	-	-	-

** Significant at 0.01 level

r = -0.961, Sig. at 0.01 level) and household development (r = -0.932 Sig. at 0.01 level) of women workers. A significant positive relationship was found between output (income) and household development (r = 0.946, Sig. at 0.01 level) of women workers.

Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected in view of the r-values. Therefore, it is concluded that frequency of occurrence of occupational health problems influenced the output (income) and household development of women workers negatively. Output (Income) of women workers had positive relationship with the development of their households.

H_o-8a There will be no significant relationship between women workers' output (income) and the following selected variables :

Development of the Respondents : i) Control over family finances ii) Role played in household decisions iii) Social/Community participation (iv) Sharing of household work

Development of Family Members : i) Health status of family members ii) Education of family members iii) Acquiring of skill by family members

Level of Living of Family : i) Housing conditions ii) Saving iii) Durable items iv) Expenditure pattern v) Dietary pattern (Table 84).

Correlation matrix showed that a significant positive relationship existed between output (Income) and respondents' control over family finances (r = 0.463, Sig. at 0.01 level); role played in household decisions (r = 0.778, Sig. at 0.01 level); social/community participation (r = 0.347, Sig. at 0.01 level); sharing of household work (r = 0.540, Sig. at 0.01 level); health of family members (r = 0.194, Sig. at 0.01 level); education of family members (r = 0.239, Sig. at 0.01 level); acquiring of skills by family members (r = 0.393, Sig. at 0.01 level); housing conditions (r = 0.305, Sig. at 0.01 level); durable items (r = 0.366, Sig. at 0.01 level); expenditure pattern (r = 0.658, Sig. at 0.01 level) and dietary pattern (r = 0.607, Sig. at 0.01 level).

Table 84 : Correlation Matrix Values Showing Relationship Between Variables

Variables	Output (Income)	Development of Respondents: Control Over Family Finances	Role in Household Decisions	Social/ Community Participation	Sharing of Household Work	Development of Family Members: Health	Education	Acquiring of Skills	Housing	Level of Living of Family: Saving	Durable Items	Expenditure Pattern	Dietary Pattern
Output (Income)		0.463**	0.778**	0.347**	0.540**	0.194**	0.239**	0.393**	0.305**	0.071	0.366**	0.658**	0.607**
Development of Respondents													
Control over family finances		-	0.365**	0.096	0.213**	0.169**	0.019	0.159**	0.224**	0.109	0.217**	0.304**	0.274**
Role in household decisions		-	-	0.149**	0.301**	0.131	0.229**	0.277**	0.253**	0.073	0.289**	0.500**	0.467**
Social/Community participation		-	-	-	0.093	0.054	0.084	0.232**	0.091	0.073	0.080	0.129	0.227**
Sharing of household work	-	-	-	-	-	0.177**	0.074	0.263**	0.168**	0.038	0.177**	0.294**	0.361**
Development of Family Members													
Health		-	-	-	-	-	0.391**	0.101	0.143	0.142	0.026	0.184**	0.099
Education		-	-	-	-	-	-	0.109	0.086	0.137	0.168**	0.198**	0.103
Acquiring of skills	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.133	0.120	0.257**	0.234**	0.126
Level of Living of Family													
Housing		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.025	0.287**	0.129	0.10
Saving		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.098	0.050	0.108
Durable items		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.222**	0.109
Expenditure pattern		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.229**
Dietary pattern		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

** Significant at 0.01 level

No significant relationship was found between output (income) and saving. The null hypothesis was thus rejected for all the variables except for savings of families. It is inferred that output (income) of women workers influenced their household development.

9. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Findings in relation to interrelationships of the variables studied are discussed below. As very scant investigations in the field of occupational health problems, output and household development had been carried out in the past, there are very few supportive studies, that could be quoted to back the results of the study.

Occupational Environment, Occupational Health Problems and Output of the Women Workers

Various factors of occupational environment i.e., work factors, work place factors and organisational factors were studied in relation to occupational health problems. It was found that all the factors except biological factors significantly caused occupational health problems. Occupational health problems due to all the factors of occupational environment except problems due to work movements resulted in significant influence on output of the workers.

Findings revealed that strenuous work posture was felt by 53.17 per cent of women workers. Workers especially in carpet weaving had to maintain the posture that required bending and

stooping for a longer period. Prolonged static posture stops the flow of blood into muscles and leads to diminished supply of oxygen and a build up of waste products. In bending and stooping posture, ligaments and tendons undergo strain causing harmful effects to the workers.

Strenuous work posture caused severe strain on shoulders, pain in hips, neck and back discomforts and pain in the knees. The strenuous posture resulted in reduction in output of women workers. Problems due to strenuous work posture contributed to about 12 per cent reduction in the output of all the workers as was shown by regression analysis. Reduction in output due to problems of this factor was maximum in carpet weaving i.e., 19.9 percent and it was 10.2 per cent in drying of yarn. The reason for this was that women workers in carpet weaving and drying of yarn had to stand in uncomfortable position for performing their work. Corlett and Richardson (1981) and Ministry of Human Resource Development (1988) also reported that inadequate positions in welding machine operators and embroidery workers produced strain in neck and back muscles and reduced the performance of the workers.

Regarding work duration, about 31 percent of women workers felt it long to a great extent. These women workers were mostly from wool sorting, winding of yarn and rag ripping process. Long work duration caused frequent and severe problems of headache, drowsiness, frustration, lack of sleep, watering of eyes and blurred vision. Long work hours made the workers to produce less. It can be said that whatever extra work, the worker did, was

without payment and was sometimes done to seek the good-will of the employers. Problems arising from long work duration caused 3.5 per cent reduction in output of women workers. In wool sorting process, the reduction was maximum i.e., 19.4 per cent. As in wool sorting, women workers had to wind up the sorted material so as to make the material ready for selling it to the merchants. This made them work longer hours without actual addition to their expected output. Kogi (1976), Ministry of Human Resource Development (1988) and Mazumdar (1990) also found that workers in mines, slate pencil making industry, electronic and cashew industry worked for long periods in poor work environment which caused morbidity in workers. Long work hours also resulted in low productivity and low returns.

Regarding work movements, it was found that repetitious work movements were felt to a great extent by 40.47 per cent of women workers. These workers were mostly from wool sorting, rag ripping, winding of yarn and carpet weaving processes. Workers in carpet weaving had to move their hands and fingers up and down many times. Pain in shoulders, hands and arms, stiffness of hand joints and numbness of fingers were the frequent and severe problems that occurred from these movements. Women Workers also reported that their repetitious movements caused dulling of mind, which on the one hand caused extreme fatigue and on the other hand caused accidents. Prolonged repetitious work movements had some influence on output of the workers. But regression analysis showed that problems due to repetitious work movements did not cause any significant inlfuence on the output of women workers.

Sudhir (1992) also revealed that workers in electronic industry suffered from tenosynovitis condition due to repetitious work movements. In this, workers' fingers became numb and caused reduction in efficiency.

Data pertaining to job security showed that 26.19 per cent of women workers never felt their job as secured. Many women workers were found temporary even after putting many years of service (13.66 years). It was observed that employers made use of this sort of insecurity to exploit women workers with the notion that any job was better than none, however bad or unsafe the working conditions were. Low self esteem, depression and frustration were the frequent problems felt due to lack of job security. Due to lack of job security workers were not motivated to work efficiently, thus reducing their ouput. Regression analysis showed that problems due to lack of job security resulted in 2.5 per cent reduction in output of the workers. Further analysis showed that in clipping of carpet, the output reduction due to problems of this factor was maximum i.e., 10.1 per cent. The reason can be that carpet clippers always had a fear that their job would be replaced by men. So data showed that problems due to lack of job security did influence the output of women workers. Aggarwal (1975) and Selvarani (1990) also pointed out that workers in unorganised sector experienced stress due to job insecurity which influenced their output.

It was surprising to note that 62.30 per cent of women workers reported that they did overwork to a great extent. Due to

overwork, they suffered from problems of physical fatigue, lack of rest and relaxation and disruption of normal routine. Overwork resulted in decreased output. It was pointed out by many women workers, that whenever the quality of raw material was inferior, the work became more tedious and time consuming resulting in less output. Carpet weavers pointed out that sometimes tracing of design did not display properly the numbers representing the colours to be filled and if the workers had filled wrong colours in carpet design, they had to re-do the work. Many workers also reported that sometimes employers compelled them to do the work for which they were not authorized. Due to this, the time they would have spent in their productive work was being spent in other activities, thus reducing their expected work output. Occupational health problems due to overwork caused 0.3 per cent reduction in output of all women workers. In winding of yarn, the reduction was 1.8 per cent.

This showed that problems arising from overwork influenced the output of women workers. These findings were substantiated by Manimekalai and Sundari (1991) and Kogi (1976). It was found that accumulated fatigue of overwork in mat and printing industry made the workers more vulnerable to diseases which caused reduction in employee efficiency.

Recognition of job was never felt by 21.03 per cent of women workers. It was stated by many women workers that they were criticized for their mistakes, yet not complimented for accomplishments. Good work performance was unnoticed. Job advancements were not meant for them. They were given increment

between Rs. 3 to Rs. 4 per year and many times it was given only whenever the workers demanded and insisted. Due to lack of job recognition, workers suffered from problems of inefficiency, unenthusiasm and lack of confidence in their capacities to work. Less recognition of work was found to cause reduction in output of the workers. It may be perhaps due to the fact that workers were given no promotion and their experience made little difference to their wage level and hence output. Regression results depicted that 0.6 per cent reduction in output was the result of problems due to lack of job recognition. In carpet clipping and wool sorting, the reduction ranged between 1.7 per cent to 2.6 per cent. So, problems due to lack of job recognition also had bearing on output of women workers. These findings were substantiated by studies conducted by Pore and Mohite (1983) and Seguret (1983). The studies conducted on workers in garment industry and assembly line showed that when workers were denied work status and were not provided adequate opportunities for promotion, they felt frustrated, distressed, insecured and their self confidence was undermined and their wage levels were reduced.

Data pertaining to work place factors also presented a distressing picture. Maximum percentage of industries had less suitable physical work conditions. It was found that 66.66 per cent of industries were noisy and temperature was unsuitable in 33 to 44 per cent of industries. Many factories were housed in tiny sheds and women workers were made to sit in the open which made them shiver in winter and suffer great discomforts in

summer. Poor physical work environment resulted in problems of frequent and severe cold, uneasiness, splitting headache and coughing. Less suitable physical work conditions were found to cause reduction in output of women workers. Respondents reported that noisy and hot work conditions made them less efficient. Problems due to poor physical work conditions caused 0.5 per cent reduction in output. In drying of yarn, output reduction was maximum i.e., 65.1 per cent. It can be due to the reason that workers engaged in drying of yarn had to work in the open environment for a long period which made them bear the direct heat of the sun during summer and cold climate during winter. Hence, data showed that output of women workers was influenced by the problems due to physical work conditions. These findings were supported by a study conducted by Vimal (1992). It was found that poor physical work conditions in agricultural work caused headache, dizziness, eyestrain and chronic general fatigue. It was further pointed by Gilmer, Von and Edward (1977) that improvement in physical work conditions in weaving departments resulted in increase of 12 per cent in speed of production. Workers' efficiency was less in high temperature and was high when there was suitable temperature.

Working tools/equipments were reported to be inadequate by 20.23 per cent of women workers. Many women workers stated that there was no provision for repairing of their tools. Many times they themselves had to repair these. Continuous working with tools and moreover inadequate tools caused problems of hardening of skin of hand, dents, cuts and pricking of fingers. Many times

they had bleeding of fingers. Working with inadequate tools resulted in reduced output. Workers reported that their speed of working was reduced due to bad condition of their tools. Problems due to poor mechanical factors caused 1.7 per cent reduction in output of all the workers. Maximum reduction was observed in winding of yarn i.e., 64.9 percent. It can be stated that most of women workers worked with outmoded and unrepaired winders. They made complaints to the employers but in vain. Chakravarthy (1990) and Sudhir (1992) also found that outmoded and bad tools in agriculture workers caused muscle soreness and strain in muscles of back and legs and roughened palms and these problems had an impact on performance of the workers.

Materials handled by workers were reported to be dirty by 34.12 per cent of women workers. They reported that employers did nothing to provide better quality material. It was observed that small pieces of fibres flew around getting into the noses and clothes of the workers. The particulate matter/dust present at work place was mostly of wool fibres. It was generated into the atmosphere as a result of its processing. Workers reported frequent problems of nausea, irritation in throat and nose, burning sensation in fingers and problems of expectoration, chest tightness and breathlessness due to contact with particulate matter.

The wool dust had many of the foreign substances which entered into the respiratory tract of workers and it caused many of the respiratory diseases. It was reported that everday in ESI

hospital, Panipat, there were 30 to 32 cases of chest diseases. In another camp organised for chest patients, it was found that out of 170 patients examined, 35 had tuberculosis, 32 to 35 had bronchial asthma, 12 had pneumonia and others had chronic bronchitis and chest infection. Most of these patients were handloom workers.

Prolonged contact with particulate matter caused reduction in output. Problems due to contact with particulate matter emerged as an important determinant of output reduction. It caused 63.9 per cent of reduction in output on the whole. It can be due to the fact that material with which women workers worked was very dirty and surroundings at the work place had high dust concentration. The inhalation of this dust had harmful effect on respiratory tract of the workers which had reduced their work performance.

In rag ripping, reduction was 75 per cent, in carpet weaving, it was 66.2 per cent and in wool sorting it was 63.2 per cent. So, the results showed that maximum variation in output of women workers was caused by this single factor only. Drinker (1954), Ministry of Human Resource Development (1988) and Nair (1992) assessed that workers in silica, cotton and cane factory suffered from problems of upper respiratory tract and burning sensation of hands due to high concentration of dust at work place. These studies did not show impact of these problems on output of the workers.

Biological factors were also observed to be unsuitable. It was found that in 61.11 per cent of industries, the floors were observed to be damp and there was presence of fungal growth to some extent in 50 per cent of industries. It was seen that many women workers had to sit on the floor for the whole day especially in processes of wool sorting, rag ripping and winding of yarn. Contact with fungus/insect at work place did cause the problems of redness and irritation of skin and also skin rashes, however, statistical results were not significant. It can also be said that wool fibres also contained fungi and fungal spores which had caused these problems.

Due to poor condition of biological factors, women workers' output was found to be reduced. Regression results showed that problems due to biological factors caused on the whole 1.5 per cent reduction in output. Maximum reduction was caused in the process of winding of yarn i.e., 18.7 per cent. It may be due to the reason that fibres they had to wind was many times damp and also the place where they worked was damp and dirty and was store room for wasted material, hence affecting their output. So, data depicted that biological factors influenced the output of women workers to some extent. Cinkota (1979) and Jerath (1970) studied the impact of airborne bacteria in cotton and agriculture workers. Problems of phelgm, skin and parasitic infections were observed among workers. Impact of these problems on output was not studied by the researchers.

Suitability of relations at work place was observed to a less extent. The study revealed that about 42 to 43 per cent of

women workers felt that their employers' always discriminated between males and females in terms of wages and kind of work. Discrimination in training and labour welfare facility was always felt by 38.49 per cent and 31.74 per cent of workers respectively. It was observed that sex based discrimination was common. Women were given less wages. About 56 per cent of women workers had wages between Rs. 600 to Rs. 875 per month , which were far below the minimum prescribed by law(between Rs. 1046.50 to Rs. 1071.50 per month).

The rate of wages was inadequate and disproportionate to the work done. Workers never opposed this because of economic compulsion and fear of losing the job. They were not allowed to handle and operate machinery. Only 5.55 per cent of employers allowed them to operate electric winders. The reason given by employers for this was that women were unable to understand the functioning of machine operations. One or two employers allowed young girls to operate machines for some period of the day especially taking out the washed yarn from big electric washers before drying the yarn.

There were no facilities for female training and an overwhelming majority, i.e., 83 per cent of the sample was engaged in semi-skilled and unskilled work. The low skilled and less prestigious work provided opportunities to employers to exploit the workers. Many employers reported that the nature of women's job was such that it did not require any extensive training. Employers did not want to give training as women were

unable to devote overtime due to household chores and also used to leave the jobs any time. So, employers were of the view that it was pointless to waste money and other resources in imparting skills to them. Asian Employment Programme Committee (1981) also revealed that there was discrimination at work place and average earnings of women ranged between 65 per cent to 75 per cent of that of the males. Even where identical operations were involved, women got about 70 per cent of what the men earned. Minimum wages were fixed operation-wise and male dominated operations had higher minimum wages.

Due to poor relations at work place, women workers experienced conflicts, tensions and even social isolation. Poor relations were also found to reduce the output of the workers. Problems due to poor relations caused 0.5 per cent reduction in output of all women workers. In carpet weaving the reduction was more i.e., 4.7 per cent. It may be perhaps due to the fact that carpet weaving was male dominated production process. Males were given higher rate per piece i.e., between Rs. 35 to 45 per meter, whereas females were given Rs. 30 per meter. Thus the experiences of discrimination in this process were more which had repercussions on their output. So, findings showed that poor relations exerted some influence on the output of women workers. These findings were in congruence with findings reported by Sharma (1983) and Shephard (1986). It was reported that poor relations especially in unregulated industries were the main cause of dissatisfaction, mental sickness and tardiness. Depersonalized factory environment and the rigid discipline

caused psychological strains which had been manifested in mass hysteria. Satisfaction of the workers with behaviour of the employers at work place was found to raise the productivity of the workers.

Data in the present study indicated exploitation and harassment at work place. India has been advocating the idea of equality between the sexes since her liberation. It is stated in the constitution that women enjoy equal rights with men in all spheres of life but in reality inequality is enforced through sexual segregation in different aspects of occupational environment. This indicated the need for removing gender stereotyped views of members of opposite sex at work place. There is no discrimination in law but it exists in practice. It is further pointed out that society built on the inequality of men and women involves wastage of human resources which no country can afford.

It can be said that workers are not only wage earners but also co-partners of the employers in the total production process. Government policy on labour relations embodies the concept of partnership between employer and worker. This consideration calls for necessary steps to be taken for healthy and congenial relations at work place.

Labour welfare benefits were lacking at work place. According to Indian Factory Act (1948) employers are required to pay even to temporary workers, bonus @ 8.5 per cent, provident fund @ 8.5 per cent, 8 holidays on national festivals but in

reality these benefits were not provided to all the workers. Bonus was not provided to the respondent workers by all the employers. The employers argued "why to give benefits as workers were earning more than the employers due to piece rated work".

Sickness benefits were reported to have been given only whenever women workers had any health problem. At some places employers did not give any money if medical expenses were below Rs. 10 and if the amount was in the range of Rs. 40 to Rs. 50 the expenses were paid, but deducted from the wages afterwards.

Creche facility was altogether absent. Many employers allowed women workers to bring children at work place while others did not. No sitting and rest rooms which would enable the women workers to sit and recover had been provided. Women workers took lunch and rest at work place where they worked. Maternity benefits were not provided to women workers by any of the employers. According to Maternity Benefit Act (1961), a worker is entitled maternity benefit if she has worked under the same employer for a period of not less than 160 days in 12 months. This benefit is payable at the rate of average daily wages for a period of her actual absence and maximum period for this benefit is 12 weeks i.e., 6 weeks up to and including the day of her delivery and six weeks following that day. Workers were denied labour welfare benefits because of absence of labour unions as they were not permitted to form the unions.

Health problems faced by women workers due to lack of labour welfare benefits were in the form of discontentment and sadness.

Workers showed unhappiness with insufficent labour welfare benefits. Women workers' output was found to be less with lack of labour welfare benefits. Problems due to lack of labour welfare benefits resulted in 5.8 per cent of reduction in output of the workers. Maximum reduction was observed in output of carpet clippers i.e., 54.3 per cent. It can be due to the reason that carpet clippers were more dissatisfied with the availability of their benefits at work place. So, data indicated that availability of labour welfare benefits had an important bearing on output of women workers.

These findings are supported by studies conducted by Keenan and Newton (1984), Lin (1984) and White (1990). It was found that welfare services reduced the prevalence of headache, dizziness and fatigue of the workers. With more labour welfare benefits, workers were found to be more occupationally committed. It was also found that bonus, gifts, free trips, free meals raised the output of the workers to 10 per cent.

It has been known to all that during the period the worker is actively engaged in work, there is depreciation of her/his cells and loss of energy. This has to be built up and renewed for maintaining the continuity of production and assuring the tempo. Wages alone can not meet this requirement. It has to be supplemented by well thought out welfare programmes. The labour welfare measures will create an environment that may help the workers to give their best to their tasks and also help the workers to be physically, psychologically and morally tuned to their jobs.

It can be further explained that occupational health problems due to work factors and work place were more of physical in nature i.e., in the form of musculoskeletal disorders. Well (1983) also stated that musculoskeletal disorders were the more prevalent disease category among letter weight carriers and leading source of both acute and chronic impairments. These were the major causes of workers' absenteeism. These were found to be second only to cardio-vascular disorders as a cause of occupational disability. It can be said that implications of the musculoskeletal disorders are enormous, not only in degradation of life of those who suffer from these disorders but also in the strain they impose on social and health care resources. The findings also revealed that organisational factors caused only mental health problems.

Suitability of occupational environment was found to be comparatively more in urban sample than in rural sample (t= 5.79, Sig. at 0.01 level). The reason for this can be that urban industries were easily approachable by labour inspectors and due to fear of action taken by labour inspectors, the employers might have kept the environment somewhat congenial to workers. Frequency of occurrence of occupational health problems was more in rural sample than in urban sample (t = 4.57, Sig. at 0.01 level). The study also revealed that output of urban women workers was more than rural women workers (t = 5.86, Sig. at 0.01 level).

Number of occupational health problems was also found to increase with the increase of duration of employment (Chi-square

= 31.03, Sig. at 0.01 level) and age of women workers (Chi-Square = 5.59, Sig. at 0.05 level). These findings were supported by studies conducted by Pravizpoor (1977) and Cinkota (1979). It was identified that there was increase in prevalence of disease in cotton workers with the increase in length of employment. Occurrence of disease was highest in advanced age group than in younger group.

It was also found that women workers were aware about the sources of their occupational health problems i.e., about 78 per cent had average level of awareness. Awareness level was found to be better in urban workers (t = 3.73, Sig. at 0.01 level); younger (Chi-Square = 15.05 Sig. at 0.01 level) and educated workers (Chi-Square = 13.77, Sig. at 0.01 level). The women workers reported that they had the knowledge about the effects of their work conditions on their health but their employers did not care for their health.

On the whole significant negative correlation (r = -0.961, Sig. at 0.01 level) was also found between frequency of occurrence of occupational health problems and output of women workers. This means that with the increase in frequency of occurrence of occupational health problems, there was decrease in output of the workers. The percentage of reduction was 92.8 per cent as shown by regression analysis. So it can be said that occupational health had a considerable influence and important bearing on productive capacity and output of women workers. So greater efficiency could be derived only by improving the occupational environment conditions of women workers.

It can be said that workers enjoying good health will perform work more efficiently and will give good return, while an unhealthy worker will show low rate of production. So, it is in the interest of the employers to ensure good health to all workers in order to achieve optimum output. There should be minimum disruption of well-being and health of workers. We can not afford to ignore the maintenance of occupatioanl health, primarily to do so creates widespread misery, secondly because of the costs : both the social costs of unnecessary diseases and the direct costs in lost productivity are more than any modern industrial nation should be prepared to pay.

Output (Income) and Household Development

Income earned by the respondents showed significant bearing on the development of their households. A significant and positive correlation (r = 0.946, Sig. at 0.01 level) was found between output (income) and household development of women workers. This showed that with the increase in earnings of the respondents, there was increase in the development of their households.

A positive significant correlation (r= 0.87, Sig. at 0.01 level) was found between income earned and development of the respondents. Data showed that women's earnings enabled more number of respondents (additional 15.31 per cent) to enjoy independent control on family finances. More number of respondents were able to play dominant role in household decisions. The increase in percentage varied from almost 12 to 42

per cent of the respondents. There was also increase in percentage (about 19 to 48 per cent) of respondents who participated in social/community activities independently after their employment. More percentage of respondents (increase varied between 13 to 53 per cent) were able to receive help from family members in household work. Many respondents reported that their incomes had made them more independent and dominant. They were able to enjoy more privileges and their status has changed for the better. The data also showed that about more than three-fourths of the respondents contributed between 15 to 39 per cent to family income. These findings were in congruence with the findings of Kapur (1970) and Blau (1986). It was found by them that in many cases women were responsible for 74 per cent of total family income. Their income had influenced their authority in the family. Their economic contribution had modified their family and social roles. Husband's help and cooperation and sharing of family responsibilities were more due to her earnings. Khare (1963) also reported that employed women were found to take independent decisions and there was sharing of work especially by husbands by virtue of their contribution to family income.

Women's earnings also had positive correlation ($r = 0.55$, Sig. at 0.01 level) with the development of family members. The women were able to spend money to maintain the health of their family members. They were able to continue the education of their children. Many respondents reported that they were able to send them to better schools. Respondents were also able to spend some money on teaching skills to their children. These findings

corresponded to the findings of the study conducted by ILO (1974). It was found that employment of women brought improvements in health and education of children.

Significant correlation (r= 0.84, Sig. at 0.01 level) was also observed between income earned and level of living of the family. It was found that respondents were able to bring improvements in their housing conditions, i.e., additional 31.55 per cent of respondents were able to shift to 'semi-pacca' houses after employment.

Respondents' earnings also enabled them to buy additional durable items. The increase in percentage of respondents who possessed different durable items after employment varied from about 17 to 64 per cent of respondents' families. There was much change in consumption expenditure pattern as was observed in 42.06 percent of families. The respondents were also able to bring improvements in their dietary pattern. They were frequently able to consume seasonal fruits, vegetables and milk.

These findings were in congruence with the findings of several earlier studies. (Marull, 1966; Shrivastava 1970). It was reported that additional income earned by women enabled the family to consume more goods and services and helped in achieving better standard of living.

Data also revealed that household development of urban households was more than that of rural households (t = 5.68, Sig. at. 0.01 level). The reason for this can be that earnings of

urban respondents were comparatively more than that of rural respondents.

Thus findings showed that women's earnings benefitted their families. Their income had considerable impact on the development of their households. Findings also showed that due to less earnings, half the number of respondents' had their households less developed.

On the whole the findings indicated that at work place, workers are exposed to different types of health problems due to inhuman occupational environment. These problems reduce the efficiency of workers which in turn reduces their output and hence reduces earnings which are necessary for their household development. If their occupational health had been better, they would have been able to earn more. The earnings of women worker did have positive impact on their households. They were able to bring some improvements in their households even with their meagre wages. It was observed that the workers' overall quality of life was not at all satisfactory and a better quality of life would be possible only if they could earn more and their earnings in turn would depend upon their occupational health.

The study indicated that cooperation of employers and government is needed to improve occupational health conditions. An effort along these lines would bring benefits to a large group of workers. We all know that poverty anywhere constitutes a danger to prosperity everywhere. One of the root causes of poverty of workers is the intensity of occupational health

problems. Until these problems are irradicated, workers will continue to suffer and future of these workers will be bleak. In poor households, income of women is necessary for survival which is dependent upon their occupational health. So the enhancement of women's occupational health and output should be regarded as important strategy necessary for improving the quality of life of those in poverty.