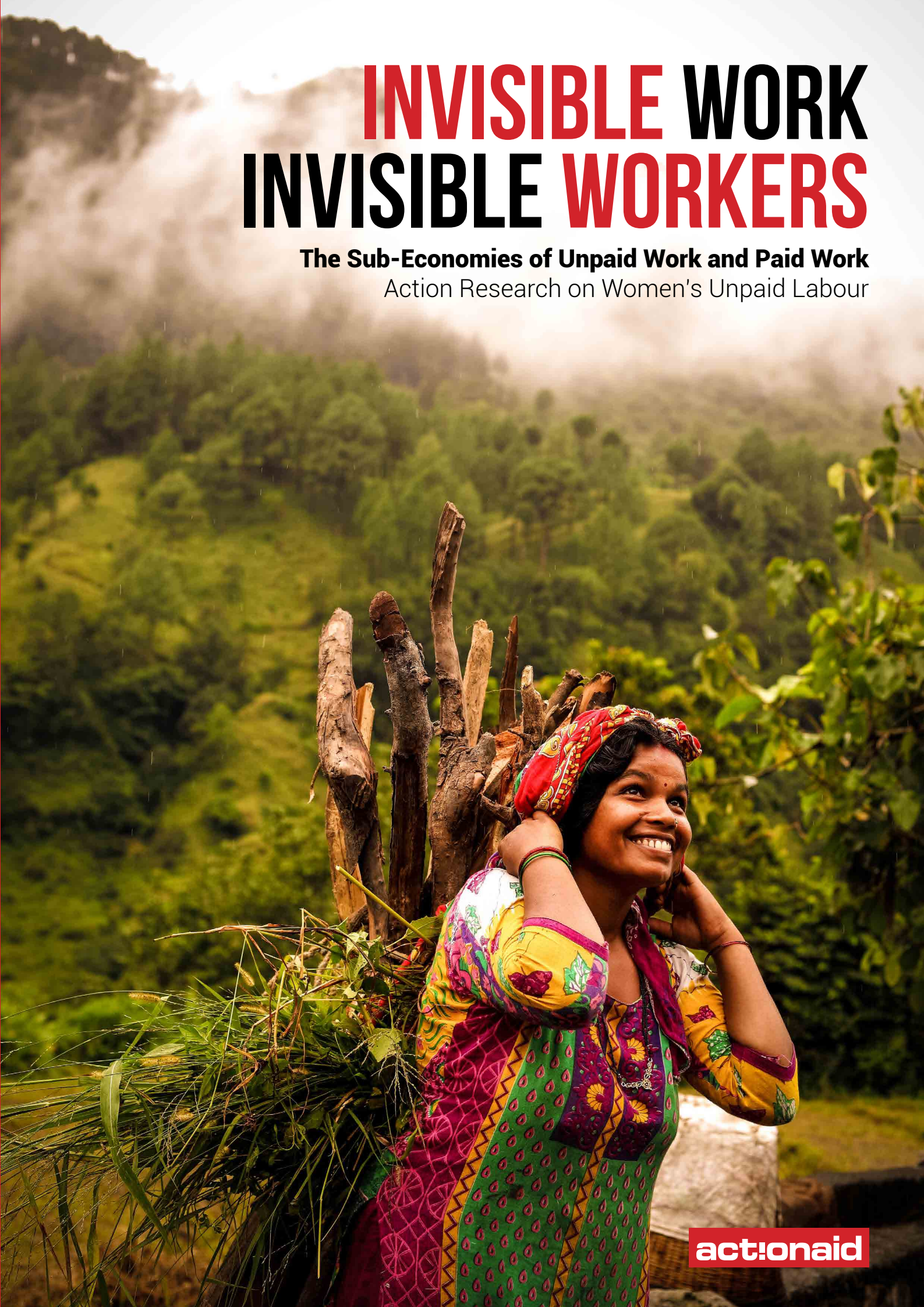
INVISIBLE WORK
INVISIBLE WORKERS

The Sub-Economies of Unpaid Work and Paid Work

Action Research on Women's Unpaid Labour



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Cover Photograph: Basanti, of Kalika village, Dharchula tehsil, Pithoragarh district, Uttarakhand, aspires to become a farm owner. Photo Credit: Soumi Das | ActionAid

Title Page Photograph: Marigi Durgamma with her daughter Bharathi and her grandchildren in Kadapalem, Vishakapatnam, Andhra Pradesh. Photo Credit: Poulomi Basu | ActionAid

First Published 2017

Published by
actionaid
www.actionaidindia.org
actionaidindia

ActionAid Association,
R - 7, Hauz Khas Enclave,
New Delhi - 110016
Phone: 91-11-4064 0500

Produced by
BfC An Imprint of action enterprise
139, Richmond Road
Bangalore - 560025
Phone: +91-80-25580346, 25321747
Telefax: +91-80-25586284
e-mail: bfc@booksforchange.info

Copyediting: Punam Thakur
Cover Design: Nabajit Malakar
Layout: MV Rajeevan and Prahlad Yadav

Printed by
3P Solutions
B-186, Okhla Industrial Area Phase-1
New Delhi-110 020.

Dedicated to the memory of Prof. Preet Rustagi and her tireless efforts for the cause of women's and girls' rights in the arena of work.

CONTENTS

FOREWORD

It is an unequal world for women. Women's inequality is perpetuated by a number of obstacles, and among them the most insidious and universal of these is their economic disenfranchisement. Across the world the overwhelming majority of women own minimal property, receive unequal wages, face unequal conditions at work and the labour they do is un-recognized and rendered invisible. Economic vulnerabilities of women are often the basis for other forms of discrimination and oppression, including violence.

In India, despite the quest for equality in property ownership and in wages, as seen in advances made in law and jurisprudence on the issue, the actual dispossession of women and the wide spread prevalence of unequal wages is several times justified in society. In contrast to other "re-emerging" economies the participation of women in the workforce, which was low to begin with, has been declining. In the last decade, 21 million women have exited the workforce in India. Unpaid, unrecognized drudgery in domestic and other spheres continues to be justified through tired tropes of 'feminine work'.

Invisible Work, Invisible Workers - The Sub-Economies of Unpaid Work and Paid Work has emerged from action research across rural and urban contexts on the issue of women's unpaid labour in three states of India – Maharashtra, Telangana and Uttarakhand. Working with women engaged in the informal sector, we have tried to locate women's work within the overall macroeconomic scenario, and tried to explore the linkages between paid and unpaid economies.

The gendered work continuum is comprised of a deeply complex interplay of structures. In the context of unpaid work, there are a number of issues surrounding the calculation and collection of data. *Invisible Work, Invisible Workers* is somewhat of an exploratory attempt at unravelling the structures at play. We hope that its findings, both based on analysis of secondary data and primary field-based surveys, can provide a strong foundation and a bank of material for future debates and action surrounding gendered work. *Invisible Work, Invisible Workers* is an attempt not only to understand the dimensions of women's work, but also to assist and spur discourse and discussion to bring to light areas of policy that will lead to societal advance and help build equality for women in spheres of work.

The research demonstrates the need to recognize and understand the multiplicity and simultaneity of women's work, and move towards creating grass-roots based systems of recognising, reducing and redistributing unpaid work that falls on women and restricts their participation in society and the economy, as un-recognized and unpaid drudgery infringes on time that could be dedicated to education, leisure and rest. It was found that 80% of the women surveyed expressed the simple desire for sleep.

We are extremely grateful to all the people associated with this report. To Prof. Ritu Dewan, the lead researcher of this effort, we express our deep appreciation for the insightful hard work she has put in to the research project and the preparation of this report. This research would not have been possible without the support of UN Women, we thank our colleagues from UN Women for their contributions to the research.

I would like to thank express gratitude to the great efforts of Dr. Ambedkar Sheti Vikas Va Sanshodhan Sanstha (ASVSS), Solapur; Social Action for Literacy & Health (SALAH), Thane in Maharashtra, Informal Workers' Mobilization Initiative (IWMI), Greater Hyderabad region, Telangana and Association for Rural Planning & Action (ARPAN), Pithoragarh, Uttarakhand for participating in this action research, facilitating the interaction with women in the informal sector and for their commitment to use the findings to enhance their interventions in the cause of women's rights in the arena of work.

I would like to express my pride and gratitude to my colleagues in ActionAid for their efforts on this project and for bringing this much-needed report into circulation.

We are deeply saddened at the tragic demise of Prof. Preet Rustagi, who has contributed so much to the study of women's work and also helped us in this report. We are proud to dedicate this report to her memory and as tribute to her contributions to the cause of women and women workers.

We look forward to hearing comments, suggestions and feedback from all of our readers.

In solidarity,

Sandeep Chachra
Executive Director
ActionAid India

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We are grateful to the women of Sonand and Dongargaon villages in Sangola taluka, Solapur district and the localities of Ramabai Nagar, in Ulhasnagar Taluka and Shailesh Nagar and Uday Nagar, in Mumbra Taluka, both in Thane District coming under the Greater Mumbai area, in Maharashtra; the women belonging to Toli, Kimkhola and Baluwakot villages in Dharchula block, Pithoragarh district, Uttarakhand and the women from the localities of Karmika Nagar, Rahmath Nagar, Ward 102, Yousufguda, Circle 10, Khairatabad Mandal and Mudfort Basti, Mallapur Ward 3, Cantonment area, Secunderabad, Tirumalagiri Mandal, of the Hyderabad district, Telangana. These sisters are engaged in the informal workforce in agriculture and construction and they welcomed us into their lives and helped us understand their existential reality, especially in the arena of work – the continuum of paid and unpaid labour.

We are also grateful to our allies for enabling our interaction with women in the informal workforce and for participating enthusiastically in this research contributing with insights and inputs. Thanks go to:

E. Anitha, P. Ramakrishna, S.V. Lakshmi and V.Parvatalu from **Informal Workers' Mobilization Initiative (IWMI)**, Greater Hyderabad region, Telangana. Lalit Babar, PrabhaYadav, Nandkumar Shankar More, Kalpana Shrirang Mohite from **Dr. Ambedkar Sheti Vikas Va Sanshodhan Sanstha (ASVSS)** , Solapur, Maharashtra.

Abhishek Kamath, Laxmi Nayak, Madhukant Patharia, Mahesh Kakde, Raghunath Mukhane and Sunita Bansode from **Social Action for Literacy & Health (SALAH)**, Thane, Greater Mumbai, Maharashtra.

Asha Pal, Ganga Basera, Kheema Jethi, Manoj Negi, Rajkumari Chand, Renu Thakur from **Association for Rural Planning & Action (ARPAN)**, Askot, Pithoragarh, Uttarakhand.

We are grateful to Prof. Ritu Dewan, Director, **Centre for Development Research and Action**, for her invaluable contribution in leading the research, conceptualizing the research, training field staff for the study, reporting, analyzing and drafting the report. We also profusely acknowledge the contributions to the implementation of this research by Radha Sehgal, Research Associate, Centre for Development Research and Action, Dr. Aruna Kanchi, Consultant, Centre for Development Research and Action and Dr. Swati Raju, Faculty, **Department of Economics, University of Mumbai**.

We immensely value the review of the methodology of this research and the research report by eminent academics and policy thinkers. The late Prof. Preet Rustagi, **Institute of Human Development**, New Delhi contributed at various stages of this work. She is remembered with gratefulness and affection. We also thank Prof. Jayati Ghosh, **Jawaharlal Nehru University**, New Delhi, Prof. Indira Hirway, **Centre for Development Alternatives**, Ahmedabad, Sona Mitra, **Centre for Budget and Governance**, New Delhi and Dr. Dipa Sinha, Assistant Professor, **Ambedkar University**, Delhi, for all their inputs.

Sudeshna Sengupta, an informal sector labour rights activist supported us in critical stages of the research and we acknowledge her support and readiness to be part of all activities of this project and expressing her solidarity with the mission for women's rights.

We deeply appreciate the partnership we had with **UN Women** and also for the support received for this research. We acknowledge colleagues at UN Women especially, Bhumika Jhamb, Isha Chaudhry, Nagalakshmi Jaishankar, Nishtha Satyam, Rebecca Reichmann Tavares, Sanya Seth, Shahra Razavi, Shrijna Dixon and Subhalakshmi Nandi.

We acknowledge the support received from officials of the **Labour**, **Rural Development** and **Women and Child Development Departments** at the block, district and state levels in Telangana, Maharashtra and Uttarakhand.

Their support has played a pivotal role in sensitizing the officials and systems in building understanding of unpaid work discourse and its implications on public services especially for women.

Books for Change has edited, laid out and produced the report bringing to their work both professional excellence and social commitment. Punam Thakur copy-edited the text and M V Rajeevan and Prahlad Yadav laid out the pages.

Within **ActionAid India** the regional offices looking after our work in Maharashtra, Uttar Pradesh & Uttarakhand and Andhra Pradesh & Telangana, took on the responsibility of facilitating the research in the states falling under their operational areas. Amongst our colleagues special mention needs to be made of Abhisikta Dasgupta, Anjaneyulu Madduluri, Dr. Indira Rani, Dr. Irfan Mohammed, Khalid Chaudhry, KumKum Kumar, Maneesha Bhatia, Manu Bhuwan Sharma, Nirja Bhatnagar, Shalini Garg, Shweta Karkera, Varshalata Rohida and Vijay Raju who actively contributed to the action research in more than one ways and served as fulcrum of research coordination. The research would not have been possible without their unstinted support for the last two years. Joseph Mathai, Lalit Dabral, Nabajit Malakar, Tabitha Hutchison and Varsha Tirkey of our Communications Unit provided valuable support in editing, designing and publishing this report and preparing summary reports for state consultations. Sehjo Singh and Ravi SK deserve special mention as they have provided support to this initiative in myriad of ways - in building this initiative, harnessing ActionAid India's previous work on unpaid care work, and ensuring that the discourse on women and work comes to centre stage of politics on women's economic and political rights. They also carried the load of all the administrative tasks of the project from beginning to end of this research, which has made the operation of the research possible.

ABBREVIATIONS

ADB	: Asian Development Bank
AE	: Actual Expenditure
AICSS	: All India Civil Service Rules
APBOCWWB	: Andhra Pradesh Building and Other Construction Workers Welfare Board
APR	: Activity Participation Ratio
ARPAN	: Association for Rural Planning & Action
ASHA	: Accredited Social Health Activists
ASVSS	: Dr Ambedkar Sheti Vikas Va Sanshodhan Sanstha
AWC	: Anganwadi Center
AWH	: Anganwadi Helper
AWW	: Anganwadi Worker
BAJSS	: Bhartiya Adim Jati Sewak Sangh
BE	: Budget Expenditure
BIA	: Benefit Incidence Analysis
BOCW	: Builders and Other Construction Works
BOCWA	: Builders and Other Construction Workers Act
BOCWW	: Builders and Other Construction Workers Welfare
BPL	: Below Poverty Line
CAG	: Comptroller and Auditor General
CBGA	: Centre for Budget and Governance Accountability
CCS	: Central Civil Service
CEDAW	: Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women
CRGGE	: Collaborative Research Group on Gender and Energy
CSE	: Center for Science and Environment
CSO	: Central Statistical Organization
CSS	: Centrally Sponsored Schemes
CSWB	: Central Social Welfare Board
DBT	: Direct Benefit Transfer
DBTK	: Direct Benefit Transfer for Kerosene
DBTL	: Direct Benefit Transfer for LPG Consumer Scheme
ECCE	: Early Childhood Care and Education
ECD	: Early Childhood Development
ECI	: Elderly Care Insurance
EECC	: Early Education and Childhood Care

ESIC : Employees State Insurance Corporation
ESNA : Extended System of National Accounts
EUS : Employment and Unemployment Surveys
FAPR : Female Activity Participation Ratio
FGDs : Focused Group Discussions
FHH : Female-headed Household
FRWPR : Female Rural Work Participation Rate
FUWPR : Female Urban Work Participation Rate
GAPR : Gendered Activity Participation Ratio
GDP : Gross Domestic Product
GNP : Gross National Product
GoI : Government of India
GoM : Government of Maharashtra
GPWSC : Gram Panchayat Water and Sanitation Committees
GSDP : Gross State Domestic Product
GSPPA : Gender Sensitive Public Provisioning Appraisal
GTBR : Gendered Time Burden Range
HCB : Hogares Cumunitarios de Bienestar
HH : Household
HRW : Human Rights Watch
IATUR : International Association for Time Use Research
ICCW : Indian Council for Child Welfare
ICDS : Integrated Child Development Scheme
ICLS : International Conference of Labor Statisticians
ICPD : International Conference on Population and Development
IEBR : Internal and Extra Budgetary Resource
IGMSY : Indira Gandhi Matritva Sahyog Yojana
IHD : Institute for Human Development
IHHL : Individual Household Latrine
ILO : International Labor Organization
IMF : International Monetary Fund
IPTUS : Indian Pilot Time Use Survey
ISST : Institute of Social Studies Trust
IZA : Institute of Labor Economics
KIIs : Key Informant Interviews
LFPR : Labor Force Participation Rates
LPCD : Liters Per Capita Per Day
LPG : Liquefied Petroleum Gas
MAPR : Male Activity Participation Ratio

MBA : Maternity Benefit Act
MBOCWWB : Maharashtra Building and Other Construction Workers' Welfare Board
MBP : Maternity Benefit Program
MBS : Maternity Benefit Scheme
MDM : Mid-day Meal
MDWS : Ministry of Drinking Water and Sanitation
MGNREGA : Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act
MGNREGS : Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme
MIS : Management Information System
MNRE : Ministry of Non-Conventional and Renewable Energy
MOSPI : Ministry of Statistics and Program Implementation
MWCD : Ministry of Women and Child Development
NA : Not Available
NAP : Not Applicable
NCATUS : National Classification of Activities on Time Use Survey
NCW : National Commission for Women
NFSA : National Food Security Act
NGO : Non-Governmental Organization
NIC : National Industrial Classification
NIPCCD : National Institute of Public Cooperation and Child Development
NPEGEL : National Program for Education of Girls at the Elementary Level
NPF : Nation Policy on Farmers
NRDWP : National Rural Drinking Water Program
NRHM : National Rural Health Mission
NRLM : National Rural Livelihood Mission
NRM : Natural Resource Management
NSS : National Sample Survey
NSSO : National Sample Survey Organization
NT : Nomadic Tribe
NWP : National Water Policy
OBC : Other Backward Class
OECD : Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
OF : Other Female
OM : Other Male
PAHAL : Pratyaksh Hanstantarit Scheme
PDS : Public Distribution System
PEIMT : Programa de Estancias Infantiles para Apoyar a Madres Trabajadoras
PHC : Public Health Center
PIB : Press Information Bureau

PMGSY : Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojana
PMUY : Pradhan Mantri Ujjwala Yojana
PPF : Public Provident Fund
PRF : Primary Respondent Female
PRI : Primary Rate Interface
PSE : Pre-school Education
PVTG : Particularly Vulnerable Tribal Group
RE : Revised Estimates
RGNCS : Rajiv Gandhi National Crèche Scheme
RGSEAG : Rajiv Gandhi Scheme for Empowerment of Adolescent Girls aka SABLA
RTE : Right to Education
SALAH : Social Action for Literacy and Health
SAM : Social Accounting Matrix
SBA : Swachh Bharat Abhiyan
SBM : Swachh Bharat Mission
SC : Scheduled Caste
SDGs : Sustainable Development Goals
SEDESOL : Subsecretaría de Desarrollo Social
SEWA : Self-Employed Women's Association
SHG : Self-Help Group
SNA : System of National Accounts
SNE : Special Needs Education
SNP : Supplementary Nutrition Program
SPNRE : Strategic Plan for New and Renewable Energy Sector
SPV : Solar Photovoltaic
SRHR : Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights
SRM : Secondary Respondent Male
SSA : Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan
ST : Scheduled Tribe
TBOCWWB : Telangana Building and Other Construction Workers Welfare Board
TDM : Time Distribution Method
TUS : Time Use Survey
UN : United Nations
UNDP : United Nations Development Program
UNRISD : United Nations Research Institute for Social Development
UNW : United Nations Women
VAT : Value Added Tax

1 INTRODUCTION AND RESEARCH DESIGN

1.1: Introduction

The UN Special Rapporteur on extreme poverty and human rights in her report to the 68th Session of the General Assembly in 2013 termed the unequal burden of unpaid and care work borne by women as a major human rights issue as it restricts women, especially poor women, from enjoying a whole gamut of basic rights – the right to health, education and training, public participation and in the labor market to paid, decent work and social security. The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), approved at the highest level by heads of States at the UN General Assembly held in New York in September 2015 advocated public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and shared responsibilities within households and families as nationally appropriate (Target 5.4) as a critical way forward in achieving gender equality and empowering women and girls (Goal 5).

It is well-recognized today that unpaid work is an extremely important aspect of economic activity, indispensable to the well-being of individuals, households and in fact, of society as a whole. Yet unpaid work whether in the form of economic production of goods by a household for self-consumption or services rendered by some members to others in the household has generally been neglected in economic analyses and policy formulations. It has also been neglected in the measurement of the labor force and calculation of Gross Domestic Product. This neglect is in part due to the difficulties in valuation of work, the products and services of which are not traded in the market, but mostly because it is considered 'women's work'. Not only do significantly more women compared to men engage in unpaid work, they spend two to ten times more time on unpaid work. In addition to their paid activities, this creates a double burden for them with implications for numerous facets of their life cycle – on their health, on their ability to acquire education, skills, a paid job and an independent income as well as a voice and social status. This unequal gender distribution of the unpaid work burden is recognized by the UN (2013) as an infringement of women's rights and a serious obstacle to empowerment and hence economic development.

In India, women are employed primarily in the informal sector which accounts for 93 per cent of the national workforce (NSS, 2009-10). With merely 22 per cent of them recorded as workers, four-fifth of the women are associated with the farm economy which has little or no economic or social recognition and limited access to social protection. By and large women's work is characterized by informality, invisibility, vulnerability and drudgery. Even when they are remunerated, the conditions of work and wages remain grossly exploitative and in contravention of international and national labor standards. The marginalization of women is further exacerbated due to their socioeconomic position in society. Moreover, entering the labor market does not mean that women abandon their unpaid and care work. Instead, the expectation is that they will continue with multiple activities.

Further, the burden of unpaid work is intensified by the lack of adequate public provisioning in critical sectors such as energy, health, water and sanitation, food security and livelihoods. Intensifying the burden and increasing it manifold is the huge vacuum created by macroeconomic policies and strategies that do not take cognizance of its existence, aggravated even more by the continuous and consistent withdrawal of whatever little State support exists in the eternal hunt for capital accumulation.

The discourse on women's unpaid work is especially relevant in the Indian context because women's labor force participation has seen a declining trend over the last decade, with 21 million women exiting the workforce and a large majority moving into what is termed as the realm of 'domestic responsibilities'. So far, there has been a two-fold effort in India to draw attention to these issues: (a) research and advocacy on time use and on engendering data systems; and (b) grassroots mobilization for legal and policy reforms in the area of 'care' with a focus on childcare, maternity and health rights. While one stream of work is generally undertaken by feminist economists, statisticians, etc., the other stream is dominated by campaigns and grassroots activists working on early childhood care and development, right to food, public health and labour organising.

Over the last two years, UN Women has played a significant role in getting together these diverse stakeholders (including the government, researchers, practitioners and activists) concerned with child rights, women's rights and labor rights, to converge the discussion on women's unpaid work in line with emerging global paradigms such as the Social Protection Floors and more recently the Sustainable Development Agenda with a special focus on Goal 5. A loose alliance called the Collective on Women's Unpaid Work has also been formed to support the development of a common roadmap for policy and action.

This research sponsored by UN Women, anchored by ActionAid India and conducted with women from the community, partner organizations and a team of researchers led by Prof. Ritu Dewan generates evidence on the continuum of women's paid-unpaid work in the specific context of both urban and rural constituencies, combined with building capacities of grassroots women's collectives and gender equality activists to take up the ensuing recommendations for policy advocacy for creating a gender-responsive legal, policy and programmatic framework that can effectively contribute towards creating an enabling environment for women's work, both paid and unpaid, and specifically ensure the recognition, reduction and redistribution of women's unpaid work, as is also recommended by UN Women's Progress of the World's Women Report, 2015.

1.2: Diacritic Intensification of the Gendered Work Continuum: Conceptual Situating of Approaches and Estimators

This evidence based research takes forward, both vertically and horizontally, the analysis of the continuum of women's work, involving several conceptual redefinitions. Women's work is conceptualized as a single continuum in all its elements: paid work – underpaid work – unpaid work – unpaid care work. In a major departure from current convention, the definition of unpaid work is expanded to include unpaid care work. The extent, distribution and intensity of unpaid work which subsumes unpaid care work are closely linked to macroeconomic policies.

The definition of macroeconomic policies goes beyond the predictable and somewhat facile sectoral-social perspective; in the classic sense of the term, macroeconomic policies include fiscal and monetary policies and this is precisely what is sought to be examined in the gendered work continuum. In the wake of reforms carried out over the last two decades in India, the macroeconomic structures have undergone fundamental changes particularly in relation to Plan and non-Plan demarcations; definitions of revenue and capital expenditure; the devolution of funds between the Centre and states, and especially taxation patterns and subsidy levels. The argument here is that there is no policy that does not impact women's work. Hence, the purpose is to unravel these impacts and provide visibility to all these connects at all levels.

The three basic levels at which the entire analysis is conducted are macro, meso and micro, often combined with and equated to the three scenarios of the nation, the region and the field. The basis is the fundamental two-way interlinkage between the macro, the meso, and the micro, in terms of structures, policies, analyses, advocacy and action. This approach thus also spans across and extends to various levels, sectors and constituencies incorporating either individually or collectively the main components that constitute each level of analysis.

The understanding of women's unpaid work in developing countries therefore requires analysis of the complex paid-unpaid continuum at several

interconnected levels perceived in the presence or absence of enabling conditions – work duration in terms of time; distribution of time between paid and unpaid work; and the allocation of unpaid time among a range of activities. This is essential to not only recognize but also to examine the nature of agglomeration, aggregation, and synchronicity that characterize women's work across the continuum. It is in this context that this study has formulated new conceptual-based methodological approaches and estimators:

One, a new estimation of the unpaid burden has been created which we term as Time Distribution. This Time Distribution Method (TDM) should not be perceived as a time use study, per se. TDM departs conceptually from the diary method, and uses calculations of average time spent in an average week. This approach has been created to capture the multiplicity and simultaneity of women's work, both paid and unpaid, focusing as it does on macroeconomic linkages to the gendered continuum for recognizing, reducing and redistributing women's work.

Two, the Gendered Activity Participation Rate (GAPR) which consists of: a) the Female Activity Participation Ratio and b) the Male Activity Participation Ratio. This gives an indication of the extent of males and females' engagement in a given activity – economic as well as extra economic both recognized and unrecognized. Seemingly somewhat similar to the work participation ratio in standard NSS analyses, GAPR goes beyond it to capture the degree of gendered involvement and is computed as:

Activity Participation Ratio (for a given study site) = Number of participants in a select activity/total number of respondents aged 14 to 60 years where the numerator for a given activity is with reference to that sub-activity with the maximum number of participants.

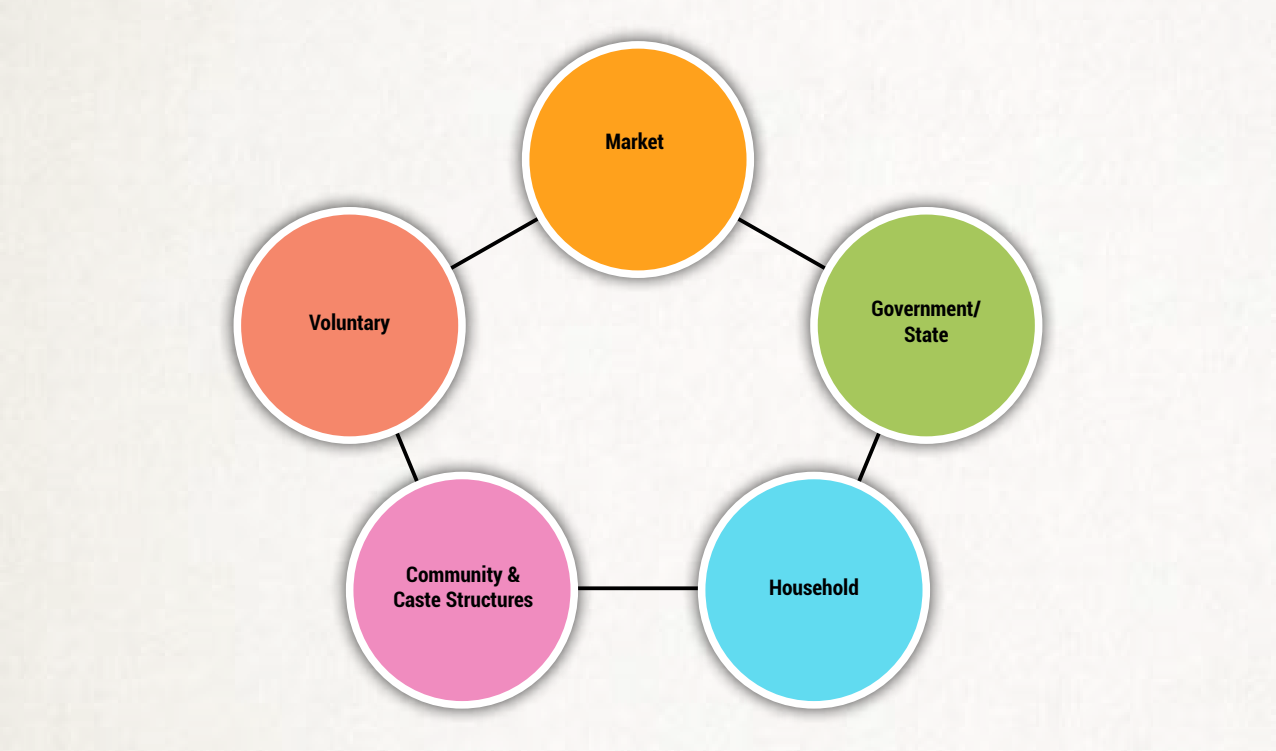
Three, the Gendered Time Burden Range (GTBR). The intricate functioning of the gendered work continuum cannot be unraveled by calculating intensity of involvement alone; an essential added component is the range of hours that women and also men expend at a minimum as well as at a maximum on the various activities that constitute the basis of lives and livelihoods especially within a marginalized household generally characterized by gendered conflict and also probably by lack of cooperation. Therefore, estimation of time disbursed on each activity and each sub-activity of all categories of paid and unpaid work including care is specified in the GTBR.

Four, Gender Sensitive Public Provisioning Appraisal (GSPPA). This method has been created especially for this study. Its fundamental objective is to unravel the relatively unexplored connection between fiscal policies and women's unpaid work, both work that has a shadow value and lies at the threshold of the public and private domains and also that which is termed as 'care'. As an illustration of usage in this study, two are rather apparent in their impact on women's time allocation and work burden – the removal of subsidies on cooking energy particularly kerosene that forces women to expend more time and labor on collecting alternate fuel and the imposition of VAT on processed food items particularly ground wheat which compels especially poorer women to purchase whole grains and then spend time and effort in grinding them for household consumption.

Additionally, in view of the changed and changing dynamics of prevailing social realities in the context of a changing macroeconomic architecture, a new element was identified and incorporated as an essential factor that impacts the gendered work continuum – the role of community and caste structures that are increasingly influencing the central issue of women and work. The Care Diamond has been consequently expanded to include this crucial component. *(See Figure 1.1)*

Finally, the gendered work continuum has been sharpened and reformulated in the context of the altered and altering fundamentals at the three interconnected levels of macro, meso and micro structures that impact the recognition, reduction and redistribution of women's unpaid work. These 3 R's have been developed particularly and specifically for unpaid care work. With our study extending the very basis of unpaid work to encompass all forms of unpaid work including but also going beyond care, it becomes necessary to expand the framework and redefine the concept of unpaid work itself. Therefore, is introduced the fourth R of Redefinition which we believe is essential for understanding the nature of the gendered work continuum especially in the context of the dramatic changes in global and macroeconomic architecture, policies and strategies.

Figure 1.1. **Care Diamond**



1.3: Research Design

The fundamental purpose of this research is to unfold and visibilize the gendered continuum of both paid and unpaid work in terms of duration, distribution and intensity undertaken by those working in the unorganized sector in India, with a special focus on construction workers and agricultural workers including subsistence farmers. This is done by integrating primary and secondary data. The macroeconomic policies that this research focuses on for their impact on women's unpaid work and creating enabling conditions are related to energy, water and care, located in the specific context of the two most heavily feminized constituencies of construction representing the urban scenario and agriculture representing the rural situation. The policy analysis includes a gender appraisal of the programs and schemes that are relevant to women's unpaid work. The fundamental objective of doing this is recognizing and incorporating it as an integral part of policies, laws and programs for reducing and redistributing women's work and time burden.

The research questions addressed are therefore:

a) What is the pattern of duration and distribution of the gendered continuum between paid and unpaid work especially among the most marginalized communities in the two livelihood constituencies of agriculture and construction?

b) What are the linkages of women's unpaid work with macroeconomic policies, laws and programs/schemes in the three selected sectors?

c) To what extent do the designs of select sectoral programs and policies recognize women's unpaid work?

d) To what extent have allocations for public provisioning in the three sectors over a period of time taken women's unpaid work into account?

The analytical methods and tools used represent the character of women's work – which is a continuum and an interlinkage – that is essential for capturing the concrete reality. Given this objective it is thus rather problematic to separate what tool should be used for secondary research and which for primary research; just as the issue of where does women's unpaid work begin and where does it end. The research structural matrix identifies the basic research questions, the methods and tools with which these questions are answered, along with primary and secondary sources of

information. The issues of debate are rather complex and therefore require a judicious mix of appropriate methodological approaches and tools *(see Table 1.1).*

The research uses several approaches and tools at different levels and different stages of the analysis often integrating the quantitative and the qualitative. Overlapping sometimes takes place, keeping in mind the intricate interlinkages between research questions and research approaches, as well as the continuum between paid and unpaid work. Boundaries are often crossed and analytical divides broken, conforming to and in consonance with the gendered continuum of work. Apart from those created specifically for this study, four standard and internationally recognized methods are also integrated in the analysis:

- *Gender Aware Sectoral Policy Evaluation:* This is arguably the most scientific approach for carrying out a gender sensitive budgetary analysis. It is used for a systematic evaluation of the selected schemes/policies/laws perceived through the lens of unpaid work.

- *Focused Group Discussions:* Group interviews capture nuanced qualitative aspects that go beyond the quantitative. They also strengthen social interaction and knowledge relevant to specific regional and geographical group settings and develop community support for what is in the ultimate analysis a sensitive issue.

- *Case Study Method:* This qualitative research method is used primarily to capture instances of the kind of work especially the issues of continuum that need to be highlighted. Focusing not only on individuals but also on situations, this method has proven to be successful in identifying what are termed as exceptions in real-life contexts. An issue that immediately comes to mind but on which there is no research is that of the unpaid work done by deserted and single women who are compelled to live with their maternal families.

- *Key Informant Interviews:* Information that knowledgeable persons have attained as a result of their involvement in the issues at the field sites and in the region has greatly enriched this analysis besides helping significantly in developing insights into existing problems and also getting suggestions for resolving the issues.

The household questionnaire which provides the basic quantitative evidence on the gendered work continuum was canvased over seven months beginning in May 2016. As a methodological practice, pilot surveys were conducted in all the field sites and the responses of local partners and other knowledgeable persons were also incorporated. It needs to be specified here that the entire process followed by this research is dynamic and fluid. While the household questionnaire was being designed and finalized, the literature review and policy analysis were done simultaneously to identify the existing gaps. This non-linear and concurrent strategy underlying this action research, we believe, is rather innovative and it will hopefully contribute significantly to other research methodologies.

1.4: Literature and Policy Evaluation

One of the fundamental components of this study is the deconstructing and therefore also the reconstructing of the concept of paid and unpaid work. This is done by reassessing the work continuum rather than a predictable review of literature. The objective of the literature review is not to recapture and summarize the major work done so far on the fundamental issues, but rather to critique and thereby re-examine the very concept of unpaid work.

The desk review of laws/policies and programs/ schemes responds to the research questions on policy analysis which are appropriate for selected sectors from the point of view of incorporating women's unpaid work. Integrated into this analysis is their location in the context of macro-economic policies particularly those related to public provisioning.

One of the most fascinating analytical journeys is from the macro to the micro, and then its tracing back in reverse – the dialectical path between policy conceptualization and formulation and its articulation in the highly gendered reality of women and their work. For this a framework was designed within which State intervention is evaluated on the basis of common parameters that extend from the macro to the micro. Identified below are questions, both individual and collective, on which the critical

Table: 1.1. **Research Structural Matrix**

SR. NO.	RESEARCH QUESTIONS	METHODS & TOOLS	SOURCE OF INFORMATION
1.	a) What are the linkages of women's unpaid work with macroeconomic policies, laws and programs/schemes in select sectors (care, water and energy)? b) To what extent have allocations for public provisioning in the three sectors over a period of time taken women's unpaid work into account?	(a) Gender Aware Sectoral Policy Evaluation. (b) Budgetary Analysis.	(a) Analysis using desk reviews based on secondary data at national and state level (see Appendix I: Sources of Data for Macro and Meso Schemes). (b) Interviews with state-level officials. (c) Key informants: wards and panchayats.
2.	a) What is the pattern of duration and distribution of the gendered continuum between paid and unpaid work (in the selected sectors) especially among the most marginalized communities in the two livelihood constituencies of agriculture and construction?	(a) Time Distribution Method. (b) Gendered Activity Participation Rates. (c) Gendered Time Burden Range.	(a) Household questionnaires. (b) Primary level interviews with local officials and panchayat/ward committees. (c) Focused group discussions at the field level. (d) Case studies.
3.	a) What are the linkages of women's unpaid work with macroeconomic policies, laws, and programs/schemes in selected sectors (care, water and energy)?	(a) Time Distribution Method. (b) Gendered Activity Participation Rates. (c) Gendered Time Burden Range.	(a) Household questionnaires. (b) Focused group discussions at the field level. (c) Case studies. (d) Key informants.
4.	a) To what extent have allocations for public provisioning in the three sectors over a period of time taken women's unpaid work into account?	a) Gender Sensitive Public Provisioning Appraisal.	(a) Household questionnaires. (b) Focused group discussions at the field level. (c) Case studies. (d) Key informants.

analysis of schemes and policies is based. The tool for analysis used is Gender Aware Policy Appraisal.

- Is gender equality and women's empowerment a stated objective and goal?
- Is the issue of women's unpaid work given any form of recognition and resolution?
- What are the overt and also underlying gendered assumptions relating particularly to women's unpaid work?
- Is there recognition and provision for the special needs of women arising out of their responsibility for reproduction and care?
- Are women acknowledged as individual entities with individual entitlements to claim the rights/ services mandated, or are they subsumed within the household?
- What provisions are made for women in terms of access mechanisms, enforcement and redressal?
- What positive discrimination measures have been built in for gender equality and empowerment?
- At what levels and at which entry points can these policies and schemes be amended to address women's unpaid work?

The central theme of this study is rather complex, given that there is no policy or scheme or factor that does not impact all categories of the work of women, including their entitlements especially as single women and primary breadwinners. Consequently, it was necessary to identify which of these were relevant in the specific context of the three sectors of energy, water and care, linking these to the two research constituencies of construction and agricultural workers. In view of the large number of schemes/laws/programs/policies

involved and to avoid meandering, the first step was the categorization and identification of relevant schemes. Several problematic issues had to be addressed, including:

- The hierarchy of a program-scheme is no longer as well defined as it used to be once. Under the mission mode which is now commonly followed, schemes are offered on a cafeteria basis so that state governments or any other implementing authority is able to put together different components according to respective needs/ goals to make up a scheme.

- Several laws and acts have been incorporated into missions such as the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) under the National Rural Livelihoods Mission (NRLM).

- A few formerly 'stand-alone' schemes have been either converted into or subsumed by the mission mode.

- Schemes mentioned on the website of a particular ministry/mission/department are sometimes not identified distinctly in the budget and schemes which are mentioned in the budget do not find a place in the scheme and program list of the ministry/department.

- Unlike MGNREGS, there are only a few schemes which have their origins in an act.

The next step after this sectoral listing was identifying the policies that needed to be examined; not doing so would have resulted in loss of sharpness of analysis as well as estimation. Four laws, four policies and ten schemes which have a direct connect with women's unpaid work were identified *(Table 1.2)*.

Each of the ten schemes/programs selected for gendered analysis is subject to a budgetary evaluation over the last four years; this is in keeping with the changes that have been witnessed in the recent past, especially in terms of the Centre-state sharing of funds and responsibilities introduced by the 14th Finance Commission. Budget analysis has therefore been conducted for the post-mission mode years of 2014-15, 2015-16, 2016-17, and 2017-18, depending on data availability. Recent changes in the policy architecture have a deep impact on the pattern of analysis. For example, some schemes operate at only the regional level and hence they cannot be evaluated at the macro level; for instance, water is technically a state subject as are the building and other construction workers acts and schemes.

These fundamentals of policy evaluation form the basis of the analytical continuum of the gendered concatenation; that is, the intent, application and implementation of the gendered focus at all levels. The macro issues as identified are adjuncted to not only implementation but the very gendered nature of implementation, as is the utilization of the same analytical tools: for example, the interlinking of gender appraisal along with beneficiary assessment and prioritization. This analytical structure proved to be particularly useful in understanding the needs as well as the level of fulfillment of these needs as articulated through the primary surveys of both agricultural workers and construction workers via a consistent two-way perspective of MGNREGS and the Building and Construction Workers (BOCW) schemes. This also applied to all the three selected sectors and their joint impact on the patterns of work burden and time poverty.

1.5: Selection of the Study Regions

Three states have been chosen for this research in relation to the three sectors that were selected for analysis in view of their undisputed impact on the labor and livelihood especially of women's unpaid work. Each of these affect women's existing and potential time distribution as well as their laboring capacity in both rural and urban scenarios. The selection of the regions therefore represents several variations combined with the conceptual and gendered basis of comprehensive commonalty.

The selection of focus states and districts for field-based research is based not only on conceptual underpinnings, but also to capture heterogeneous variations and differentials in both women and men's unpaid work. Two constituencies across distinct geographical and historical specificities were selected: construction workers and agricultural workers, the former representing urban unpaid work patterns and the latter representing the rural ones; 1,560 households have been surveyed covering both women and men, with a special focus on female-headed households. The primary survey

Table 1.2 : **Matrix of Acts, Policies and Programs Selected for Analysis at the Macro, Meso and Micro Levels**

NO.	SECTOR/ CONSTITUENCY	LAW	POLICY	MISSION/PROGRAM/SCHEME
1	**Energy**		Strategic Plan for New and Renewable Energy Sector, 2011-17.	PAHAL – Direct Benefits Transfer for LPG (DBTL) Pradhan Mantri Ujjwala Yojana (PMUY) DPTK - Kerosene
2	**Water**		National Water Rules, 2012.	National Rural Drinking Water Program (NRDWP) (erstwhile Rajiv Gandhi Drinking Water Mission)
3	**Care**	National Food Security Act, 2013 (maternity entitlements only). Maternity Benefit Act.	Early Childhood Care & Development.	ICDS with focus on Anganwadis IGMSY RGNCS
4	**Specifically for Agricultural Workers**	Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act, 2005.	National Policy on Farmers, 2007.	Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme 2006.
5	**Specifically for Construction Workers**	Building & Other Construction Workers Act, 1996; Maharashtra Building & Other Construction Rules, 2007.		Welfare Schemes of the Building & Other Construction Workers Welfare Boards (Maharashtra & Telangana).
Total		**4 Laws**	**4 Policies**	**10 Schemes**

is based on a detailed questionnaire running into more than 20 pages detailing all economic and extra-economic activities including care.

The selection of the areas for the field investigation was determined by several factors including consultations with ActionAid Association India's ground partners who canvassed household questionnaires and conducted FGDs and key informant interviews (KIIs), apart from being part of advocacy and action. These local partners are:

- Construction Workers in Maharashtra: Social Action for Literacy and Health, (SALAH)
- Construction Workers in Telangana: Informal Workers' Mobilization Initiative (IWMI)
- Agricultural Workers in Maharashtra: Dr Ambedkar Sheti Vikas Va Sanshodhan Sanstha (ASVSS)
- Agricultural Workers in Uttarakhand: Association for Rural Planning and Action (ARPAN).

A: Maharashtra

Over the last decade, Maharashtra has found a place in the very high human development quartile among the Indian states with its Human Development Index showing a rather sharp improvement from 0.666 to 0.752. It is considered one of the most 'advanced' states in that its per capita income is Rs. 117,091, which is much higher than the national figure of Rs. 74,380. Its rural monthly per capita expenditure was Rs 967 in 2011-12, which was significantly higher than that of India at Rs. 816.

It is generally perceived that the status of women in Maharashtra is somewhat better than their counterparts in other states. It must be noted that the Bombay Presidency was the first to witness industrialization via the textile mills, women forming more than one-third of the workforce well into the 1920s. However, the gender reality today appears to be rather bleak if judged by the single most basic indicator of the status of women – sex ratio. Maharashtra has a sex ratio of 929, much lower than the national average of an already low 943. What is worse is that the future of women in Maharashtra

seems to be somewhat dismal, with the child sex ratio being at a shocking low of 894.

Maharashtra has a long historical tradition of women being involved in livelihood activities in both rural and urban areas. Today, even though there appears to be a secular decline in work participation rates (SNA data), the share of both main and marginal working women in the state stands at 11.22 per cent, which is significantly higher by 2 per cent points than their share of the country's female population of 9.2 per cent as per the 2011 Census. Accordingly, the total work participation rates stand at 56 per cent for men and 31.06 per cent for women, higher by 2.74 per cent points for the former and remarkably more significantly higher at 5.55 per cent for women as compared to the all-India figures. This differential holds true for Maharashtra's women in both rural and urban areas; the female urban work participation rate (FUWPR) in the state is 1.4 per cent points more than the national average and the female rural work participation rate (FRWPR) is 12.5 per cent points higher than that of India (NSSO, 2011-12).

The Gross State Domestic Product (GSDP) at constant prices (2004-05) in construction was Rs 76,414 crore in 2012-13 for which data is available accounting for almost 6 per cent of the Rs 13,57,116 crore which constituted Maharashtra's total GSDP. There is extremely limited sex disaggregated information available for employment. As per NSS data, the proportion of usually working persons as employed in the construction industry rose steadily in Maharashtra from 4.6 per cent to 6 per cent to over 7 per cent from 2005 to 2010 to 2012 respectively. Yet, despite this upsurge, Maharashtra topped all the states in non-compliance in the payment of minimum wages to its construction workers (90 per cent).

The advancement of the state on the path of human development is accompanied by the process of marginalization. The Agricultural Census 2010-11 indicates that an overwhelming majority of the rural cultivators at 78.6 per cent were marginal and small farmers; the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes being the most marginalized with the smallest area of operational holdings. Gendered marginalization in the rural sector too appears to have risen rather dramatically; of the total working women, almost two-fifth are landless at 39.92 per cent, the implication being that gender equality in land rights emerges as an urgent issue, given that Maharashtra records 29.61 per cent as 'Female Cultivators'.

Maharashtra accounted for 9.9 per cent of all landholdings in India in 2011, down from the 10.11 per cent reported in the 2000-01 Agricultural Census. However, while men's share rose a little during the last decade, that of women actually declined from a rather high 14.47 per cent to 11.6 per cent. The implication of this is that the process of attaining land rights has been slower for women in Maharashtra than in the rest of India. However, it is rather surprising that the share of land held by them in 2010-11 was 15.66 per cent of all land held by all women all over India while this proportion was 20.22 per cent barely a decade ago.

B: Uttarakhand

Ecologically fragile and susceptible to earthquakes and landslides, natural disasters in the state have increased in intensity as a result of deforestation and a destabilized geology, particularly in the hill regions which account for over 92 per cent of the state's geographical area. The extensive forest cover with its rich variety of medicinal, aromatic and herbal plant species provides sustenance either fully or partially to about seven-tenth of the state's population. Historical dependence on what is considered a life giver and livelihood supporter by the Uttarakhandis gave rise to the world famous Chipko movement in the 1970s when women in particular resisted the proposed forest policy by literally hugging the trees and daring the State to kill them before touching their forests.

Agriculture accounts for over 55 per cent of the employment in the state with the gendered rural work participation rates being differentiated in a manner opposite to what it is in the rest of the country. The work participation rate for rural women in Uttarakhand is 3 per cent points higher than the national average; that of men is 3 per cent points lower. This gendered division provides a rather fascinating opportunity to study the impact on paid and unpaid work patterns in an agricultural economy that is quite feminized. Combined with the issue of feminization is the preponderance of marginal farmers with tiny holdings; the average landholding of 0.68 hectares in the state is much smaller than the national average of 1.16 hectares.

Added to the fairly advanced process of gendered marginalization is social exclusion. With an almost

one-fifth tribal population accompanied by a much smaller proportion of Scheduled Castes about 3 per cent, poverty levels in the state are quite high; as per the NSS 61st Round, almost two-fifth of rural Uttarakhand was defined as below the then-defined poverty level.

There is yet another unique characteristic of Uttarakhand, if such a word could be used – that almost one-tenth of the 16,793 villages in Uttarakhand are either uninhabited or have a total population of less than ten persons; reports give higher figures of these 'ghost villages'. Environmental degradation appears to have a two-way connect with migration: the former compelling villagers to migrate, the abandonment of villages resulting in increased degradation of land and making villages unlivable accompanied by decline in livelihood creation thus reinforcing the push factors.

C: Telangana

Telangana, the newly formed 29th state of India appears to be on an upswing in relation to its GSDP rate which rose by a per cent point within a short period of a year. The per capita income also rose by 4.4 per cent, up from Rs 48,881 to Rs 51,017 during the same year.

An overwhelming proportion of the state's population belongs to the socially excluded; 80 per cent Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, Other Backward Castes and Minorities, the second highest after Tamil Nadu which has 89 per cent. What is also interesting is that the process of urbanization has emerged as an important background within which to locate issues of exclusion. The growth rate of the state's urban population has been much higher and faster than the all-India average of 31.15 per cent. Telangana's urban population grew by 38.12 per cent between 2001 and 2011 as compared to 25.13 per cent in the preceding decade. The implication is rather clear: prioritization of infrastructure in state development plans leading to an expansion in construction activities. Construction is the second major contributor to the industry sector in the state. When the shares of different industries and sectors to GSDP are compared only construction has recorded an increase, its proportion was 8.6 per cent in 2014-15, up quite significantly from the 7.5 per cent reported in 2004-05. The joint share of Andhra Pradesh and Telangana's construction sector to GSDP is over 13 per cent, much higher than the country's proportion of 8 per cent; however, despite its increasing importance, non-compliance in the payment of minimum wages in the construction sector is 67 per cent in the state. In this context, it is surprising that only 11.6 per cent of urban and 3.6 per cent of rural workers in Telangana are reported as being employed in the construction industry in 2013-14.

Although no sex disaggregated data is available in relation to the selected constituency, a rather high degree of gender differentiation exists in the urban labor market in the state. The urban male work participation rate in 2011-12 was 54.14, the female equivalent being 19.1 per cent. Yet, inexplicably the share of Telangana to all-India's women workers is a rather high 10.17 per cent, the region's share in all male workers being a significantly lower 7.29; this gender differential reduces in urban areas, Telangana urban women accounting for 9.57 per cent of the nation's total, more than two per cent points higher than that of their male counterparts. *(See Appendix II: Selection of States and Districts)*

1.6: Primary Data Analysis: Sample Design and Interpretation

The analysis of women's work in the context of recognition and non-recognition that is focused on is not only multi-layered but also requires various methods to unravel the interconnections with the three selected sectors and that too in different scenarios and geographical settings. Consequently, an intermix of several sampling techniques have been used, ranging from the random to the purposive; this intermix, to a large extent, also represents the continuum of women's work which extends into and beyond myriad definitions and forms.

The purposive sampling technique and judgmental sampling is a method of non-probability sampling, and proved to be most useful especially in examining extra-economic domains. There may of course be a certain bias contained in the sample selection, but then this study is overtly partisan, focusing as it does on a wide variety of factors that impact women's time and work burden. It uses another useful technique at least partially-chain-referral sampling, more popularly known as snowball sampling. This technique helped to access respondents who are literally on the margins of the production-reproduction syndrome; illustrations of these 'hidden' categories include sex workers and other genders.

The sample design, at the most basic level, is totally integrated with the priority given to marginalized groups. In keeping with this fundamental, the study presents information in a manner that precludes an obvious and verbose description of what is essentially a statistical exercise, based though it is on a theoretical foundation. All efforts have been made to incorporate a representative proportion of all social groups both horizontally and vertically. This design is certainly not linear, in that it does not perceive social inclusion in a static form, but instead does so in a manner that ensures almost equal representation.

This rather intricate and many-layered study involving a large primary dataset has been analyzed and deconstructed using appropriate statistical tools. This is particularly so in relation to the fact that there are several dependent variables being utilized for data analysis, if the conceptual focus on social and economic groups is to be maintained as being central to the entire issue of women's unpaid work. Therefore is utilized the statistical package of R which is an independent platform of open source software.

R is a leading tool for statistics, data analysis and machine learning. It is more than a statistical package and is in fact a programming language. R algorithms document the steps of the analysis. Hence, reproducing, updating and experimenting with new ideas becomes more efficient and understandable. It leads to a better understanding of the workforce, the nature of work, the stereotypical roles played by men and women, the time distribution pattern in relation to unpaid work, the impact of workforce participation rates on women conditional on age, social conditions and educational qualifications, and additionally an alternative computation of the activity levels and rates of both men and women taking into consideration the time spent on unpaid work.

The analysis of these results is enriched by the findings of the FGDs and case studies which provided insights into how women cope with existing economic and social norms and the trade-offs between seeking recognition for their work vis-a-vis the expansion of their decision-making powers within the household and the prevailing exclusionary class and caste frameworks.

1.7: Limitations

A study that examines the rather understudied and relatively unexplored theme of the gendered work continuum is bound to face certain constraints and limitations; this research may therefore need to be perceived as a nascent attempt to unravel what is a deeply complex as well as complicated interplay of macro structures that cannot survive unless they are based on patriarchy with all its inherent and stultified rigidities. That these interdependent foundations operate at all levels of State, Market, Community and Family and thereby reinforce each other is a given, as is the fact none can exist without the other, whether in relation to the system of production, re-production and reproduction, or to the distribution of resources that are both individual and community controlled.

The limitations – for want of a more appropriate word – are several and applicable to all levels of macro, meso, and micro. The analysis would have been enriched if it had been possible within the restricted timespan and the tightly focused context to examine the interlinkages between all the schemes and policies that impact women's recognized and unrecognized work. This limitation is also due to the fundamental changes that macro and also meso policies have been undergoing for the last few years whereby comparative and time series analyses has been constrained. These changes include reorganization of schemes; conversion; subsuming them under missions; renaming and reclassifying them; uncertainty over continuation especially of the 12th Plan programs; and the absence of a common identity for the meso schemes. The problem is rather acute at the regional level post the 14th Finance Commission's recommendations and the change in devolution of funds with the states still in the process of formulating their schemes and hence not sending in demands-in-grants for funds.

At the micro level too there are several limitations related primarily to the process of data collection. The dependence on enumerators who were not formally skilled proved to be a partial deterrent, although all efforts were made to train them. However, what worked favorably in this dependence on local enumerators is that they were closely linked to the community, apart from being aware of the major issues that characterized these regions. This

'technical' limitation can in fact be converted into a major strength by stressing strongly on the in-built components of training workshops and the pilot study. Familiarity with the field area can sometimes be double-edged in the sense that while sensitivity levels are high so are subjectivity levels. Consistent and careful attempts have been made to overcome these challenges during the entire process of training, data collection and data monitoring. An essential element was the meticulous coding of the questions in the household schedule.

An additional constraint was that of not being able to combine the use of the household questionnaires with the diary method of data collection primarily due to time constraints. Related to the time factor was the added difficulty of not being able to re-canvas the household questionnaire over time and over seasons. Since seasonality could not be integrated into the household questionnaires, care was taken not to neglect this crucial aspect. This gap has been partially covered by using the averaging method and partially by depending on the recall method as well as FGDs.

An unforeseen limitation, if it can be termed that, is that the fieldwork had to be conducted in extremely stressful situations in both the urban and rural regions. The ongoing drought is probably one of the worst in recent times, and has affected both constituencies selected for this project. Construction activity and the work that it provides has declined dramatically in the past year following a series of droughts, floods and of course demonetization. Consequently, construction workers particularly women have been compelled to eke their livelihoods by becoming waste pickers, especially in view of the fact that few men take up what is considered as 'low' employment. In the rural areas the situation is even worse, with entire families migrating from villages in desperate search for livelihood. The impact extends over all aspects – health, nutrition, education and loss of livestock - affecting both the present and the future workforce and work patterns. The forest fires raging in Uttarakhand further compounded the climatic status striking most strongly at the fundamental dependency of tribals and other vulnerable groups on common property resources. In all the cases, the deleterious and disastrous effects on women's work continuum are direct, immediate, immense and probably incalculable.

1.8: Conclusion

It is hoped that this action research will conceptually and analytically contribute to knowledge generation and the creation of the largely unexplored gendered work continuum between paid, unpaid and care work and that the evidence so created both through secondary data and primary field-based surveys will advance and enrich the debates and action on what constitutes women's work as perceived in the concrete reality of women in a developing country, specifically in the context of unexamined sectors that constitute a part of macroeconomic policy in an increasingly globalized scenario that sustains itself on the withdrawal of the State from the public sphere. Demystifying and demythifying the gendered concatenation is indeed a major and exciting challenge particularly in a context that links the macro, meso and micro structures, policies and realities within a sustainable inclusionary framework.

2 REVISITING THE UNPAID WORK DISCOURSE

2.1: Introduction

One of the fundamental components of this research is deconstructing and hence also reconstructing of the concept of work, paid and unpaid. To this end are set out here the main arguments of the unpaid work discourse: defining the concept of unpaid work, understanding the impact of its inequitable gender distribution on women as well as the economy particularly in terms of women's labor market engagement and finally, exploring policy prescriptions of the 3R strategy for restoring gender balance, drawing upon a few best practices from across the world, including India.

2.2: Defining Unpaid Work

Work can be interpreted in several ways. It may be defined as any purposeful activity undertaken to produce a valued good or service and which can, in principle, be delegated to someone else (Kabeer, 2008). Work that is remunerated in cash or kind (in the shape of wages, salaries and profit) is paid work while tasks performed without any direct remuneration are unpaid work. Globally, on average, 35 to 50 per cent of the total work time in all societies is spent on unpaid work (Antonopoulos, 2009), the bulk of it being performed by women. Unpaid work can be distinguished into a range of activities:

A. Unremunerated activities resulting in the production of goods and services for the market or for subsistence (work carried out by family helpers on the family farm or enterprise, for instance).

B. Processing of agricultural products for self-consumption (milling of flour, preservation of fruits and vegetables, weaving etc).

C. Activities such as collection of free goods like water, fuel and fodder for consumption and production.

D. Unpaid production of services that go into the maintenance and care of households hereafter, unpaid care work. Unpaid care work has three components: i) household maintenance including cooking, cleaning and shopping; ii) care of persons of own household such as looking after children, the elderly, sick, disabled or simply other adults requiring care; and iii) voluntary services or services rendered free to other households or the community.

The UN System of National Accounts (SNA) (1993), the internationally agreed-upon set of accounting conventions for compiling measures of economic activity, labels groups A, B and C as SNA Work, to be counted along with paid work, in the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Individuals engaged in these activities are deemed to be part of the workforce. Despite its critical role in the sustenance of society, unpaid care work (group D) is considered non-SNA or Extended SNA (ESNA) work. Unpaid care work and unpaid care workers, overwhelmingly women, are thus rendered invisible in official statistical systems and, consequently out of the ambit, until recently, of national and international development policy. For this reason, international discourse on women has focused chiefly on unpaid care work/ workers, often using the terms unpaid work and unpaid care work/ESNA work interchangeably.

The Indian scenario is somewhat different. The Indian Central Statistical Organization (CSO), does not include processing of primary goods and collection of free goods (groups B and C) in the computation of India's GDP. This means that

workers engaged in these activities, again mostly women, are excluded from the workforce estimates of the National Sample Survey Organization (NSSO) and the Population Census. The NSSO places them under Code 93 - engaged in domestic duty and allied activities. Clubbed with unpaid care workers and thus denied official recognition as workers, these SNA women workers have also remained invisible and excluded from Indian development policy.

In recognition of the Indian situation, this report includes unpaid SNA as well as unpaid care work/ workers, in its ambit, treating both as part of the continuum of women's work. Where necessary, the unpaid care discourse is extended to include unpaid SNA work/workers.

2.3: Gender Dimensions of Unpaid Work

All work is highly gendered, unpaid work especially so, much of it viewed universally as 'women's work'. Cross-country analyses of national level Time Use Surveys (TUS), increasingly undertaken since the 1990s (Budlender, 2010; Charmes, 2015; Miranda, 2011; UN, 2015), demonstrate that as a group, men dominate paid work and women dominate unpaid work in terms of both participation and time spent. Further, the gender gap in unpaid work is greater than the gender gap in paid work. This is the combined effect of two factors: 1) women spend considerably more time than men on unpaid work and a higher proportion of women than men engage in both paid and unpaid work; 2) when a woman enters the labor market or when her paid work increases, the time spent on unpaid work declines but less than proportionally, the shortfall often coming out of time formerly spent on leisure including sleep, personal care, social activities or education. A recent ActionAid report (ActionAid, 2016) comparing the total amount of both paid and unpaid work undertaken by men and women estimated that globally, 'a young woman entering the job market today can expect to work for the equivalent of an average of four years more than her male peers over her lifetime, as she is balancing both paid and unpaid care work' (p. 3), the equivalent of one month's additional work for every woman, every year of her life.

India is an extreme case of this global pattern and is closer to Mongolia, Turkey, Mexico and Pakistan. Indian men and women spend, on average, longer duration on paid and unpaid work and less on so-called leisure. On average, men daily spend around two and a half times more time than women on SNA work; in contrast, women spend ten times as much time in unpaid care work as men. The gender differences hold for participation as well: 90 per cent men and 71 per cent women participate in SNA work; in ESNA work the proportion of men and women is 52 per cent and 90 per cent respectively (Budlender, 2010). This means that with a large proportion of women active in both SNA and ESNA, the relative work burden is significantly bigger for women. In fact, a comparison of the results of the Indian Pilot Time Use Survey (IPTUS) (1998-99) with the results from 28 other countries (OECD, 2011) revealed that gender gap in time spent on unpaid care work was the highest in India.

Further, even within SNA work, gender differentials are large in relation to participation as well as the proportion of time spent on unpaid work as women are invested more in subsistence work mostly as family help, free collection of goods, especially water and fuel (mospi.nic.in). Considerable variations in time use patterns do exist between rural and urban areas; between states and regions; across income classes; and across social groups. Yet what stands out is women's higher burden of work as a result of their predominance in all unpaid activities whether SNA or ESNA, irrespective of their location in any category.

Gender imbalance in the sharing of unpaid work has a marked adverse impact on gender equality as well as on economic development. While the unequal burden of unpaid work on women has been deplored as an infringement of women's basic rights to education, healthcare, decent work and leisure (ActionAid, 2013; United Nations, 2013) and a road-block in their empowerment, a restoration of the balance is being recommended as a strategy to promote economic growth (Mckinsey Global Institute, 2016; UNDP, 2015).

2.4: Implications of Unpaid Work on Women

The impact of the unequal burden of unpaid work on women is multi-dimensional, layered and complex and touches every facet of a woman's life. Much of

the unpaid work including SNA work such as work on the family farm or enterprise is not a matter of choice for women, determined as it is by norms governing the gender division of labor which characterizes the male as the breadwinner and the woman as the home-maker, mother and dependent. Labelled as housework, women's unpaid work is thus unacknowledged and therefore unquantified and undervalued in the family, community and the market, despite the benefits it confers on all these institutions. This lack of recognition in turn determines the hierarchy in gender relations within the family and acts as the mainspring of gender inequalities.

Even though women themselves may sometimes perceive this work as a source of immense 'satisfaction', the heavy and unremitting pressure of unpaid work and its sheer drudgery can have adverse effects on physical and mental health; increase financial dependence; heighten the risk of falling into poverty in old age especially in the absence of social security and property rights (Mckinsey Global Institute, 2016); expose women and girls to gender-based violence; and incapacitate them from leaving abusive partners (Esplen, 2009). Particular tasks such as nursing the sick could also pose higher risks for women (Langer, 2015).

Most important of all, unpaid work imposes costs in terms of missed opportunities for education, skill acquisition or improvement and public participation; it impedes entry into the labor market and restricts women's income earning potential. These costs can be in terms of loss of income and financial independence for a woman, as well as the loss of her investments in her children's education and health, especially of girls. Further, low female participation in and low returns from paid work act as disincentives for uptake of education and skill acquisition amongst girls and young women, especially in countries with a strong gendered division of labor thereby maintaining or augmenting their disadvantages in the labor market and reinforcing the gender division of labor (Kingdon, 2007). Despite its many attractions, paid employment can be truly empowering but only when it is 'decent' and does not increase time stress and time poverty.

The unpaid work load for working women means that they must endure longer work hours and double or triple work burdens, leading to time stress and time poverty. Further, their socially ascribed roles in unpaid work largely dictate their choice of work: self-employment, home-based or part time; casual, irregular, seasonal and in the informal sector – types of work that are compatible with the discharge of their responsibilities but are inferior in quality and offer poor remuneration (Budlender, 2004; Kabeer, 2012; Maloney, 2004; Razavi, 2007). For obvious reasons, chances of falling out of the labor market increase and that of getting a good job decline on marriage (Das, 2015; Neff, 2012) and motherhood (Aguirre, 2012; Grimshaw and Rubery, 2015). These life-course events also diminish opportunities for career advancement. In a 2015 ILO survey of 1,300 private sector companies in 39 developing countries the greater burden of family responsibilities borne by women compared to men was ranked as the number one barrier to women's leadership (ILO, 2015).

For Indian women, marriage is almost universal and reduces participation in paid work with the husband's income having a significant and negative effect (Das, 2006), additionally mediated through religion and caste (Easwaran, 2010; Pillai, 2008). Children less than 3 years old also appear to dampen women's labor market engagement (ISST, 2015).

The level and quality of basic infrastructure especially safe water, sanitation, energy for lighting and fuel, transport and childcare also have a strong influence on the time spent on unpaid work since women and girls are typically the primary collectors of water and fuel (ADB, 2015; Budlender, 2010; Razavi, 2007) and main care givers. Easy access to water reduces the time and work burden for women and frees them to move from unpaid economic activities to overt income earning in the paid labor market (Dewan, 2012a), reduces drudgery and increases attendance of girls in school (ADB, 2009, 2015). Similarly, time saved by shifting to superior fuels may translate into greater participation of women in the workforce (Dewan, 2012a).

Public provisioning of these services is important for poor women who cannot afford private alternatives. Poverty exacerbates the adverse impact of lack of basic infrastructure, often transmitting it to the next generation while intensifying the care deficiencies in such households. In the absence of childcare services, for instance, poor women are likely to seek assistance from daughters who pay the penalty of dropping out of school. Those without family support are often obliged to take their

children with them to work or leave them at home unsupervized with negative consequences. Low wage employment also intensifies care deficiency by making it necessary for mothers to work long hours to make ends meet (Samman, 2016). Similarly, lack of easy access to water has been indicted in high school drop-out rates for girls not only because their responsibility for fetching water takes priority over schooling but also because lack of water in school toilets discourages them from attending school during menstruation.

Finally, lack of recognition for and the undervaluation of care provided by women in households is reflected in the market for paid care workers in the form of lack of recognition, low status, low wages and the absence of social security arrangements. The case of domestic workers everywhere provides the perfect illustration: they are among workers with the longest working hours and lowest pay in any economy. Abuse against domestic workers is also reported to be widespread (HRW, 2006).

2.5: Unpaid Labor and the Economy: The Unpaid-Paid Work Link

Indispensable for the well-being of individuals, households and the community, unpaid work is also critical for the functioning of the economy. It is in fact the enabler and foundation of paid work. The products and services produced by unpaid work maintain workers, compensating for wear and tear or depreciation enabling them to get to work every morning. The household sector and the women in it thus subsidize the market by making it possible for other sectors of the economy to pay much less for a worker than is necessary to maintain the same standard of living. Similarly, by providing many services that governments are expected to provide to citizens such as childcare, care of the sick and elderly, supplying drinking water, fuel and so on, households and women also reduce the burden of the State (Hirway, 2014). Interestingly, women's unequal share of unpaid work also restricts the size of the potential workforce and distorts the labor market.

Countries with high average unpaid working time for women or a large gender gap in unpaid work are seen to have labor markets characterized not only by a low female presence in paid work (Budlender, 2010; Charmes, 2015; Miranda, 2011) but also gender-based segmentation and low and gender discriminated wages (Gaelle, 2014). In such economies, women are under-represented in decision-making positions such as corporate executives, managers, technocrats, senior officials and legislators.

Higher female labor force participation is known to boost economic growth and alleviate poverty (Dollar, 1999; IMF, 2013; The World Bank, 2011; UNDP, 2015). The loss to the economy of keeping half the population out of the labor force is enormous. Boosting gender parity in the labor market is estimated to increase global GDP between $12 trillion and $28 trillion in the next decade. In India's case, the potential annual addition to the country's GDP from raising women's employment is estimated between $0.7 trillion and $ 2.9 trillion – the largest gain in the ten regions analyzed. About 70 per cent of this increase is expected to come from a 10 per cent increase in women's labor force participation rates (Mckinsey Global Institute, 2016).

Women's income contributes directly to poverty reduction by augmenting household incomes. More importantly, it triggers an intergenerational virtuous cycle and reduces non-income poverty in the long term because of women's propensity to invest a larger proportion of their incomes on improving nutrition, health and education of household members, including girls (The World Bank, 2011). Latin American and the Caribbean experiences validate this (The World Bank, 2012). However, advocating reduction of the unpaid work burdens for women will increase their labor market participation should not be taken to imply that all women must seek paid employment. The ultimate aim is to widen choices for women on par with men in the labor market and in the economy.

To the extent that the household sector is a legitimate and integral part of the economy, unpaid work, particularly care work, that originates in this sector, is part of the continuum of work. This is borne out by the shift of activities from paid to unpaid status and from the market (SNA) to the household (non-SNA) status and vice versa not only in response to different household characteristics but also in response to economic cycles. In Latin America and Asia, there is evidence of a strong counter-cyclical pattern to women's employment: poor households particularly in agriculture seek to compensate falling incomes by mobilizing family women and

children as 'added workers' or as replacement for paid labor on their own farms or enterprises (The World Bank, 2012). The Indian (Abraham, 2009; Unni, 2007) and Indonesian (Bhalotra, 2010; Posadas, 2010) experiences of crises also illustrate this phenomenon.

Austerity measures following crises increase the pressure on women's unpaid work burden. Existing evidence from developing economies shows that cuts in critical public investments following the 2007-08 global financial crisis added to shrinking of household budgets due to rising prices while dwindling job opportunities led to the intensification of unpaid work burdens for women (UN Women, 2014). Women are also likely to cut their demand for paid labor such as domestics and care workers in a bid to control household expenses, assuming these burdens increase during such periods. Poor households supplying such services are impacted, in turn reinforcing and perhaps prolonging the downward spiral. The opposite can be expected in the upward stage of the cycle: many services performed normally in the confines of the home such as childcare and food processing enter the market and boost economic activity. Emerging challenges such as demographic changes, health shocks such as the AIDS epidemic and climate change especially water shortages are also expected to alter the mix of paid-unpaid work in the economy (ILO, 2016).

Feminist economists argue that the systematic transfer of hidden subsidies to the economy in the form of women's unpaid work also works as a time-tax on women throughout their life cycles (Antonopoulos and Hirway, 2010; Hirway, 2015). Macro structural adjustments and neo-liberal policies formulated without regard to unpaid work in the economy not only increase the penalty on women but ultimately also have an adverse impact on the economy (Elson, 2008; Folbre and Yoon, 2008; Hirway 2005). An important illustration of this pertains to the impact of austerity measures such as those that have been implemented across the world since the global economic crisis of 2008, taking the form of massive cuts in public expenditure on health, education and public services. Such policies have increased the burden of unpaid work on women who can no longer depend on free or low-cost public goods (UN, 2013; UN Women, 2014), reducing their well-being, human capital and productivity on the one hand and creating a care deficiency in the economy on the other.

These negative consequences, however, go unnoticed due to the invisibility of unpaid work and workers and are therefore not addressed by suitable compensating policies. In fact, economists point out that in developing countries, GDP and growth rate may lead to incorrect inferences about levels and changes in well-being by masking the substitution between paid and unpaid work (Weinrobe, 2005). In fact, policies which have a blind spot for women's unpaid work are partial macroeconomic policymaking, attributable to a fragmentary view of the macroeconomy (Hirway, 2015). Resolving gender disparities in paid and unpaid work calls for macro policy attention not only as a goal in its own right, but also as a pathway to gender equality, pro-poor growth, social cohesion and improvements in overall human development.

2.6: Macroeconomic Policy for Unpaid-Paid Work Balance: the 3 R's

As argued so far, unpaid work and the commodities and services it produces for the household are indispensable for maintaining and improving the well-being of households and communities and is essential for the functioning of the economy. However, in the absence of State-provided alternatives for care in developing countries the burden of unpaid work leads to limiting women's choices as they are expected to provide this unpaid work. Expanding women's opportunities, choices and freedoms requires a range of actions that on the one hand remove barriers to their full and equal participation in the realm of paid work and on the other require the recognition, reduction and redistribution of the unpaid care burden that they disproportionately carry. That is, a move towards a world in which individuals and society recognize and value the importance of different forms of unpaid work including care work, without reinforcing such work as something that only women can or should do (Razavi, 2007). This argument of course applies equally to other forms of unpaid work that women do – unpaid SNA work that supports and is often indistinguishable from care work.

The "3 R" approach for a more equitable sharing of the unpaid care burden by integrating it into macroeconomic policies, which was first suggested by Diane Elson in 2008, is easily extended to other forms of unpaid work as well. The 3 R's stand for Recognize, Reduce and Redistribute.

2.6.1: Recognition

Recognizing the importance of unpaid work including unpaid care work to the economy implies making it a core development issue in national policy and addressing women's unpaid work in all development interventions across sectors in a gender sensitive manner. Social protection measures for unpaid workers should be an important element of gender-sensitive macroeconomic policies as they can help alleviate women's care burden by offering care for older and younger family members. Paid maternity leave is a good example of social protection that directly addresses working women's care responsibilities by offering income and job security to mothers and allowing them time to recover and rest from the effects of pregnancy and childbirth. Equally relevant is the provision of information, training and domain knowledge to women through government, private and voluntary sectors to reduce drudgery and improve efficiency and productivity in both unpaid SNA and care work.

A broad and effective gender sensitive macroeconomic policy with a focus on unpaid work presupposes a strong database – a statistical system that can provide the requisite information on the multiple facets of unpaid work and workers. Such a system can inform macro policy by pushing governments to rethink how they visualize the economy and how they prioritize the allocation of public resources (ActionAid, 2013). The Time Use Survey, in use since the 1990s, is a proven tool that needs to be mainstreamed in national statistical systems. Also required is the linking of Gender Budget Analysis to TUS; setting up of strong monitoring and evaluation systems that use gender-disaggregated and unpaid work-related information to routinely assess and modify interventions; and the identification and analysis of best practices to upgrade current ones.

At another level, policies and programs need to address the challenges of breaking gender stereotyping and thereby expanding women's choices and opportunities. This can involve not only identifying and affirming the unpaid work especially care work that men carry out, but also finding ways of actively involving men in breaking down entrenched cultural norms regarding the gender division of labor. NGOs have a critical role to play in this regard. The 'Entre Nos (Between Us') campaign in Brazil, which uses soap operas to encourage young people to think about the rigid division of labor in society and the mobilization of home-based carers in Africa to get decision makers to recognize their needs and priorities are two examples ready for wider adoption (Esplen, 2009). The education system can be another powerful entry point for breaking down gender-based norms and promoting gender equality.

Initiatives that seek to promote women's employment must be built on an understanding of the inter-relationship between paid work, unpaid SNA work and unpaid care work, as also between unpaid work and time and material poverty. Policies and systems that protect and promote the rights to decent work need to be extended to unpaid SNA workers – the self-employed, particularly unpaid family workers as well as to paid care workers. Initiatives that will narrow down the gender-based segmentation of professions originating in care are also needed. In Argentina, Chile and South Africa gender advocates have been successful in convincing governments to implement measures to protect the rights of paid care workers, for example, by ensuring they have access to the same basic labor protections that are available to other workers (Esplen, 2009). In India gender advocates have been organizing domestic workers as well as anganwadi workers to secure rights under conditions of decent work.

2.6.2: Reduction

This refers to seeking ways to reduce drudgery and time stress of unpaid work including housework and at the same time increase productivity of unpaid work. Improving infrastructure and basic service delivery is an important way of achieving this. Some of the ways of reducing workload and time stress are:

- expanding, improving or making basic infrastructural support more accessible to reduce drudgery, for example, providing clean and safe water and toilets within the household or clean and affordable source of fuel.
- making basic services accessible by improving connectivity such as reliable electricity supply, good roads and transportation services.
- improving technology, making it user friendly particularly women-friendly; making available fuel-efficient stoves for cooking in place of primitive stoves which use inferior fuels such as wood

and kerosene; and replacing heavy agricultural equipment with women-friendly ones.

To encourage women to use technology, the Ministry of Agriculture, Government of India, subsidizes the purchase by women of agricultural machinery and equipment such as tractors, tillers and sprayers and offers training programs on gender friendly equipment to women farmers. Although the objectives of the program do not include reduction of the care burden, it is likely that by saving time and energy these initiatives will help lighten the total work burden on women farmers.

In an attempt to infuse a gender perspective within all energy development programs the Working Group on Women's Agency and Empowerment, XII Plan, recommended among other measures, research and development with a focus on meeting women's energy needs; encouraging women's groups to undertake smaller power production units; and providing them seed capital and training for the management of energy programs and developing expertise in the renewable energy sector.

2.6.3: Redistribution

Redistribution refers to seeking ways of a more equitable sharing of unpaid work, particularly unpaid care work, between men and women within the household as also between the other four institutions that together with households, form the care diamond: State, market, caste and community structures and community organizations or the voluntary sector. It is possible to shift unpaid work to the mainstream economy because of the existence of what Antonopoulos and Fontana (2006) term as hidden vacancies, defined as vacancies or job opportunities which ought to have existed in the mainstream economy but are hidden as they are inadequately filled by unpaid work in the household. These mainly exist in the area of childcare and care of elderly, sick and disabled and may sometimes be provided by the market, State or the voluntary sector with the last two expected to cater to the poor but not necessarily exclusively. According to a UN policy brief, investing 2 per cent of GDP in the care sector could increase employment rates by 4 to 7 per cent points with women filling between 59 to 70 per cent of the newly created jobs (UN, 2017).

Provision of reliable and affordable childcare, specifically Early Education and Child Care (EECC), can have double benefits: give a great deal of relief to young mothers and thus boost their participation in the labor market and simultaneously contribute to the early development of children. Public provision of childcare can be funded fully or partially either through the government's tax revenues and social insurance or through subsidies. A variety of approaches are possible (Esplen, 2009; ILO, 2015) as illustrated by Colombia's Hogares Cumunitarios de Bienestar (HCB) program and Mexico's Federal program for day-care, Programa de Estancias Infantiles para Apoyar a Madres Trabajadoras (PEIMT).

HCB creates 'community nurseries' run by a 'community mother'. While the local parents' association elects and pays her, the government provides food and nutritional supplements (ILO, 2012). PEIMT specifically targets poor mothers who work, are seeking work or are enrolled in education or training. The government provides financial support to both individuals and public organizations interested in starting nurseries and a subsidy to low-income mothers (SEDESOL, 2011, quoted in ILO, 2012). The Chile Crece Contigo (Chile Grows with You) program goes a step further by combining childcare with support for fathers' roles in care and promoting women's access to paid work (ILO, 2016).

In India too several examples can be found: the Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS), a globally renowned program for promoting early childhood care for survival, growth and development, holistically addresses the inter-related needs of young children, adolescent girls and women; the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (MGNREGS), a public works program in which crèches for children of participating women is mandated; crèches provided by the Self Employed Women's Association (SEWA) and Mobile Crèches are voluntary sector initiatives for women working in the informal sector.

With regard to elderly care, the Elderly Care Insurance (ECI) of the Republic of Korea is held as an example of innovation in public provision of care. ECI entitles all citizens over the age of 65 years to public care services, ranging from help with domestic work and delivery of prepared meals, to full institutional care in nursing homes. It claims to have reduced the share of care that family members, predominantly women, provide on an unpaid basis by 15 per cent (UN Women, not dated).

Legislative measures offer an alternative avenue for sharing parental responsibilities. Maternity leave is important as it promotes sharing of childcare where some paternity leave is built into it. Paternity leave helps increase fathers' involvement with small children and overturns gender stereotyping (UN, 2016). European, particularly Scandinavian countries are models in this respect. In Iceland, no distinction is made between paternity and maternity leave, but a nine-months paid leave after childbirth at 80 per cent of salary is granted instead (ILO, 2014). This leave is split into three equal parts between the mother and father (both shares being non-transferable) and the couple (which can be taken by either the mother or the father) (Esplen, 2009).

Other measures embedded in the labor market which recognize the disadvantages of workers with family responsibilities, some of which are being tried in developing countries are: 1) flexi-timing (part-time/compressed jobs and staggered timings); 2) job sharing involving arrangements to share a full-time job between two people; and 3) reducing the distance or travel time between home and work (home-based work). However, these measures come with a few disadvantages (Hirway, 2008) and need to be designed carefully. They can be used to maintain low and gender differentiated wages for women and reinforce gender-based division of labor. Unless they are accompanied by other decent work conditions like equal pay for equal work and enabling conditions like infrastructure and childcare, they may neither be effective in lightening women's work burden nor in promoting gender equality. Strategies such as incentives to employers for employing women and special retraining programs for women are also being tried out. These policies lighten the unpaid work burden of employed women to some extent.

Other measures being tried out with mixed results across the world include:

- Cash Compensation or Wages for Housework.
- Conditional Cash Transfers, for example, Mexico's Oportunidades program, South Africa's Child Support Grant and the Maternity Benefit Scheme in India (MBS).
- Pensions for Housewives. Argentina, Ecuador and Venezuela have innovative pension plans for unpaid carers.

Of these the conditional cash transfers have become quite popular. Such programs have many problems of which the most important are exclusion and inclusion errors, inadequacy of compensation and difficulties in fulfilling conditions due to non-availability of public services. Reviewing Mexico's Opportunidades, Molyneux (2007) observes that child support programs based on conditional cash transfers often end up reinforcing women's responsibility for childcare.

The various legislative and other measures discussed in this chapter will go a long way in reducing women's unpaid work. However, some care work will always remain within the household and unless prevailing patriarchal norms and customs change, women will continue to perform most of it. Gender norms can take a long time to change but the process can be accelerated by advocacy, especially if targeted at young people and through a well-thought out system of incentives. Redistribution, especially between men and women is essential for gender equality. The voluntary sector can play an active part in this regard. A good example is the Program H Alliance in Brazil which promotes critical discussions of traditional gender norms in a variety of ways including use of training manuals, educational videos and the popular soap opera, Entre Nos (Esplen, 2009).

2.7: Conclusion

Of the many actors involved – individuals, households, communities, employers, government – the State clearly has a critical role in moderating gender relations and practices especially in the case of poor women. This can be done in several ways through policies and laws. But State intervention alone may not lead to desired changes within a desired timeframe; nevertheless they can serve as crucial first steps towards genuine change for women and a means of institutionalizing a gender-equitable mindset. Personal empowerment and changing social norms need to be combined with macroeconomic and social policy measures, legal frameworks and social mobilization to achieve gender equality. NGOs have a critical role to play here. Their contribution could be valuable in: a) mobilizing women and disseminating information regarding their rights and entitlements, especially in terms of government interventions; b) creating awareness amongst men about women's unpaid work and its impact and actively involving them in breaking down cultural mores pertaining to the

gender division of labor and in other ways executing the 3R measures; c) liaising with the authorities to ensure that the benefits of government policies and schemes reach those who require them the most; and d) engaging with the government at all levels – planning, program design, implementation, evaluating and monitoring.

3

CONCEPTUAL UNDERPINNINGS OF UNPAID WORK

OVERVIEW OF INDIAN LITERATURE

3.1: Introduction

This chapter does not present a predictable review of literature on women's unpaid work in India, nor does it recapture and summarize the major work done so far on the fundamental issues. Instead, it provides a critique to re-examine the concept of unpaid work as an important element of the gendered work continuum. The focus of the chapter is on the post Indian Pilot Time Use Survey (IPTUS) literature.

Interest in women's unpaid work and its connection to the labor market in India predates the recent surge in global interest in the care economy and extends beyond care to encompass unpaid SNA work. The reasons for this interest in unpaid work and the time use survey (TUS) as a technique for measuring it are also distinct. Here, the initial stimulus came from the urge to demonstrate under-enumeration, inadequate attention to unpaid family labor, home production and household work and the relationships between these in the national statistical system (Jain, 2007). This was also the raison d'etre of the country's first TUS by Jain and Chand in 1982. Despite decades of feminist advocacy and constant efforts by the Census and NSS organizations, accurate estimation of women workers, especially those engaged in unpaid work in 'difficult to measure' sectors, continues to remain a challenge.

IPTUS was initiated in 1998-99 and subsequent efforts at refining the TUS methodology opened up opportunities for more focused and precise empirical exploration of women's unpaid work including unpaid care work by making available nationally representative time use data for the first time. This also generated considerable information on the technical aspects of such surveys. This in turn encouraged a large number of attempts, especially in universities on a small scale, localized TUS. Forays into policy evaluations through the lens of women's unpaid work burden and the directions of and motivations for public investments in basic infrastructure are still rare and merit much more attention. Time poverty as an explanation for and indicator of material poverty and the Social Accounting Matrix (SAM) as a way of incorporating unpaid work in the economic calculus are other potential areas for research.

We broadly divide the more than 100 items of post-IPTUS literature – books, monographs, chapters in books, articles, papers presented in conferences, working papers/reports of institutions, university theses and papers published on the web – for review into three categories: theoretical and conceptual discussions, attempts at measuring and valuation and studies exploring the unpaid work, macroeconomy and policy connect. Under the last, seven studies are singled out for their special relevance to the central issue of debate.

3.2: Theoretical and Conceptual Discussion

One question that has piqued feminist economists is why unpaid work including care work is missing from mainstream economics and praxis. Dewan (2015) points to the tight integration between patriarchy, production and reproduction and the collusion between the State, the market and family, while Ghosh (2014) attributes it to the poverty of economics as a discipline. Some like Sen (2015), Pradeep and Adaina (2015) and Kakade (2015) look for answers in different mainstream frameworks – Classical, Neo-classical, Marxist, Feminist and New Home Economics. Others search history (Das Gupta, 2015) or data (Prasad, 2015) for an explanation.

Chakraborty (2007) examines various theories of allocation of time. She charges mainstream economists of ignoring the role of unpaid (care) work by clubbing it with leisure in defining non-market time, despite the greater importance of unpaid care work for well-being as highlighted by Gary Becker as far back as in 1965. Research on time use has since proved that socioeconomic changes have completely different effects on unpaid care work and leisure and that unpaid work at home influences important household behavior such as participation in the labor market.

The Report on the International Seminar on TUS (GoI, 1999) notes the failure of extant theoretical frameworks including the Neo-classical and Marxian paradigms to provide tools for valuation in an internally consistent manner. Most of the papers in this seminar contain a section on the definition of work in the UN system and related concepts (Hirway, 2000, 2005; Pandey, 1999; Pillai, 2008) – unpaid work, unpaid SNA work, care work, unpaid care work – the last also variously referred to as non-SNA work, extended SNA (ESNA) or often simply as unpaid work by different writers, leading to lack of uniformity and clarity. Sen (2015) clears the confusion by distinguishing between alternate definitions, explaining the overlaps and inconsistencies in their application.

Hirway (2014) points to the arbitrariness in the division of SNA and non-SNA work and the resultant exclusion of unpaid household services (unpaid care work) from the production boundary rejecting the justification provided by the UN. Ghosh (2014) and Dewan (2015) redefine work using NSS data on the lines of the logically more consistent and precise definition recently provided by the 19th International Conference of Labor Statisticians (ICLS) which makes a clear distinction between work and employment. While work comprises any activity performed by persons of any sex and age to produce goods or to provide services for use by others or for their own use, employment is work for pay or profit. These fresh estimates reveal dramatically different trends from those delineated by mainstream analysts: 1) many more women than men are and have been consistently involved in paid and unpaid activities across the various NSS rounds; 2) women seem to be increasingly shifting from Codes 11-81 to Code 93, that is, from paid/recognized work (employment) to unpaid/unrecognized work.

Nandi (2015) and Sethia (2016) bring in the Rights perspective and the Decent Work framework. They argue for looking at women's unpaid work as part of the continuum of women's work. This view is reflected by many others (see ISST, 2015). Ghosh (2014) and Hirway (2010, 2014) establish the critical links between unpaid work, the market economy and poverty, elucidating the concepts of time stress and time poverty and the role of the State in providing relief via public provision of basic services particularly water, sanitation and fuel.

In addition to discussions on the definition of work, IPTUS (1998-99) also generated a great deal of attention on the practical and technical aspects such as classification of activities, modes of data collection and basis of valuing unpaid care work. Hirway's first hand experiences (not dated, 1999, 2000, 2005) and Pandey's experiences (1999) in conducting the IPTUS makes their work particularly relevant. The latter's discussions on the limitations of using TUS data for valuation of unpaid care work and the relative merits of alternate methods of valuation of unpaid work – input vis-à-vis output method, and of the first, the advantages of the replacement cost method (specialist and generalist) over the opportunity cost method are important contributions to literature. The most recommended and popular choice amongst researchers conducting small scale TUS is the replacement cost method. Besides the technical issues mentioned earlier, two papers that provide inputs on the multiple uses of TUS in the context of developing countries (Hirway, 2007d; Ironmonger, 2007) also merit mention here.

The long delay in holding the second Indian pilot TUS (SEPTUS, 2015) compelled fresh calls for

mainstreaming TUS and fresh discussions on its advantages in measuring women's work (Hirway, 2009; Hirway and Jeyalakshmi, 2007b). This period also saw several attempts at reviewing and critiquing the IPTUS methodology and its comparison to TUS in other countries (Budlender, 2007; Hirway, 2007a, 2009; Jain, 2007; Neetha, 2010; Pandey, 2007; Samantroy, not dated). The lessons drawn and the recommendations offered in these works are important inputs for the design and implementation of future national and smaller local surveys.

The report of the Expert Group (GoI, 2013) presents the results of SEPTUS, which covered Gujarat and Bihar. It attempted a fresh classification of activities based on the National Industrial Classification (NIC) and matching the conventional surveys on labor and employment. Surprisingly, besides this official report, little has been written about this exercise or its lessons except by Samantroy (not dated). She compares the methodological issues in the two pilot surveys (1998-99 and 2012) and highlights ways of improving future TUS including advance publicity, deployment of female investigators along with male ones with both drawn from the local population and the translation of the questionnaire into the local language to improve accuracy of returns. She also recommends the inclusion of context variables in TUS to better capture reality.

3.3: Measurement and Valuation of Women's Unpaid Work

Prior to IPTUS, empirical research on women's work was limited by the data available in the Population Census or the Employment and Unemployment Surveys (EUS) of the National Sample Survey Organization (NSSO) and was hence focused mainly on women's labor force engagement albeit post-scripted with comments on women's unpaid (SNA) work and the consequent undercounting of the female workforce. Post IPTUS there has been a surge of work on women's unpaid work that is based not only on IPTUS but also on small-scale TUS as well as on NSS data.

Studies based on IPTUS

Initial studies of IPTUS data focused on improving on the NSS and Census estimates of the labor force, particularly women's labor force as this was one of the major and explicit objectives of the pilot survey. A prime example of this is Hirway (1999, 2002) who argues for the superiority of TUS estimates of the women's workforce due to its several inherent advantages, primarily the absence of investigator and respondent bias and the ability to capture non-remunerative or unpaid work. Similar exercises can also be found following subsequent NSS rounds. These (Hirway, 2007, 2010, 2011 and 2012) seek to explain the sudden and significant rise in women's labor force participation in the NSS EUS of 2004-05 and the substantial subsequent decline in the 2009-10 EUS.

The report of the International Seminar on TUS (GoI, 1999) contains many of the papers written during the early years which provided the basis for much of the work on IPTUS. In particular, Baskaran (1999); Chandra (1999); Hirway (1999); Kulshreshtha (1999); Lyngdoh (1999); Narasimhan (1999); Pandey (1999, 1999a, 1999b); Rajivan (1999); Raut (1999) and Thaker (1999), did yeoman service to those who could not access the raw data by explaining IPTUS' concepts and methodology putting the results in scores of easily understandable tables and analyzing them. Some of these also undertook valuation of women's unpaid work in money terms.

Three other papers that merit a mention here are Pillai (2008) which explores the many dimensions of unpaid work, especially that related to childcare in detail; Samantroy (2012), which places the time use pattern of the women in Meghalaya as evidenced in IPTUS in the socioeconomic and cultural context of the North East; and Samantroy (2015), which examines the various challenges that women face in balancing paid and care work using IPTUS data; it also reviews the implications of extant social policies in terms of their impact on women's choices regarding work.

Cross-country Studies based on IPTUS

One of earliest cross-country studies involving developing countries including India is by Budlender (2010). A part of the United Nations Research Institute for Social Development (UNRISD) project on Political and Social Economy of Care, the paper explores the way in which care and in particular care of persons is provided by the institutions of family/household, the State, market and community and by the people within these institutions by comparing TUS conducted at various periods in six countries – Argentina and Nicaragua in Latin America, India and the Republic of Korea in Asia and South Africa and Tanzania in Africa.

Other similar studies involving different numbers and combinations of countries and including India are – Charmes (2015) based on 102 TUS carried out in 65 countries, results of which were used in the World Development Report (2015); Miranda (2011) featuring 26 OECD member countries and 3 emerging economies of China, India and South Africa the results of which were used in OECD (2011); and the Institute of Political Studies Paris (2005) which features India, Benin and Mexico. These cross-country studies serve to place Indian women's role in unpaid work against their counterparts elsewhere in the world including in other developing countries. They clearly show that gender skewed distribution of unpaid work is a universal phenomenon but within that India is an extreme case with the highest gender gap in time spent on unpaid care work.

Studies based on Micro TUS

These studies are mostly university theses and projects which acquire significance for their ability to throw light on periods and regions not covered by the official surveys, representing areas of the country with widely differing socioeconomic conditions.

Most of the studies mentioned here were presented during the 57th Annual Conference of the Indian Society of Labor Economics. They analyze the gender distribution of time on SNA, ESNA and non-SNA work with special attention on women's unpaid care work. Almost all of them also attempt to place a monetary value on women's unpaid work, using the replacement cost method. The distinctiveness of these studies arises from the variety of regions and constituencies that they cover, the sample sizes that they use and in the case of a few, the small innovations that they introduce in survey techniques, methods of data collection or construction of indices.

Some studies confine themselves to women in the rural economy - Agarwal's (2015) is anchored in Uttar Pradesh; Kaur and Harvinder's (2015a) in Punjab; Dutt's (2015) in Andhra Pradesh; Skariah's (2014) in Kerala; and Sardana's (2007) in Haryana; or to the urban milieu - Lahiri-Dutt (2014). A few select their samples from both rural and urban areas, for example, Sengupta (2015) (W. Bengal) and Aara and Dhindsa (2015) (Punjab). In terms of constituency, the focus groups range from poor women, women of female-headed households, tribal women and even middle-class women. While Upadhyay and Gurung (2015) look at women in the tribal economy (Arunachal Pradesh), Lahiri-Dutt (2014) explores issues related to middle-class urban women. In terms of employment status, both housewives and working women are covered by Aara and Dhindsa (2015) and Raju (2015). Several studies also try to explore differences across age, marital status, education, class and caste hierarchies.

Other studies using small, localized TUS are those by the Equity Foundation India (not dated) in Bihar; Sidh (not dated) in Garhwal; Choudhary (2015) in Maharashtra; and Devi (not dated) in Coimbatore, Tamil Nadu. Examples of studies that introduce some variation are Kaur and Harvinder (2015a), who construct a well-being index incorporating the respondents' work intensity in addition to their personal incomes and education levels; Sardana (2007) incorporates respondent women's perceived monetary value for various chores in the valuation of unpaid work. Raju (2015) supplements the TUS results with an analysis of NSS data and Sarker and Mukherjee (2015) use a combination of household survey and case study methods.

Choudhary (2009) and Singla and Miglani (2015) device a short-cut to the classical TUS: each respondent is asked only whether they performed (Yes) or not (No/Occasionally) each of the selected activities, classified into 'domestic work', 'caring for family members' and so on. The value of unpaid work is calculated by using replacement values at current wages for each task.

Studies based on NSS Employment and Unemployment Situation Reports

Unpaid workers in the NSS Employment and Unemployment reports are classified under three categories: unpaid family labor (Code 21); attending to domestic duties only (Code 92) and attending to domestic duties with other activities of benefit to the household (Code 93). Since the last decade or so, researchers are increasingly paying attention to unpaid work in the NSS Employment and Unemployment Surveys, analyzing differences in women's participation in unpaid work across different socioeconomic variables or explaining trends in women's employment via their participation in unpaid work. A definite propensity to view paid and unpaid work as a continuum is emerging even with data that has severe limitations in measuring unpaid work.

Neetha (2010) establishes the links between women's paid and unpaid work through a disaggregate analysis of three rounds of NSS data (1993-94, 1999-00 and 2004-05). This analysis is taken further in Mazumdar (2011) to show how specific attention to unpaid work in NSS EUS data can overturn standard assumptions regarding women's employment. Olsen (2006) uses retroduction to interpret regression equations of labor force participation (1999-00), thereby tracing the plurality of causal mechanisms that explain patterns in both women's employment and 'housewifization'. Tripathi (2015) finds that unpaid women workers (NSS Codes 21, 92 and 93) continue to either work in a subsidiary capacity in low paying jobs or they look for jobs establishing low-paid jobs as an element of women's work continuum.

Abraham (2009), Sanghi (2015) and Zakaria's (2017) analyses differ only in detail while explaining the temporary rise in women's employment in 2004-05 and/or its subsequent decline in 2009-10 and 2011-12 in terms of the switch from paid to unpaid work. Bhaduri (2015) uses logistic regression for the same end in the case of land-owning class women across regions and socioeconomic groups.

Tomar and Mustafi (2015) analyze data on the responses of women engaged in domestic duties in rural Uttar Pradesh to a set of probing questions addressed in the NSSO survey to show that 50 per cent of the women in domestic work were doing this work because of lack of paid opportunities. They also examine the impact of caste, education, age and marital status on unpaid work. Other papers that explore various facets and determinants of women's unpaid work across regions and states are Dutta (2015), Mukherjee (2015), Shankaranand (2015) and Sinha (2015). Kumar (2015) uses a multinomial choice model for the same purpose.

Somewhat different from the other papers, Naidu (2016) establishes the link between women and land by uncovering the non-linear relationship between women's participation in 'domestic and allied' activities and land ownership and thereby posits gender equity as a contemporary and unresolved question in the midst of India's agrarian transition.

Studies based on Other Techniques

Dhingra (2015) uses the narratives of young to middle aged housewives to capture the experiences of paid and unpaid work. The study argues that the policies of liberalization and processes accompanying globalization interacted in multiple ways to create and reinforce domesticities, increasing and intensifying women's share of unpaid work particularly with respect to child care. Jha (2015) offers a concrete illustration of Dhingra's argument by examining the gender dynamics of unpaid care work and violence in the information technology (IT) industry in India, which is touted as one of the most important sources of white-collar employment opportunities for women, characterized by flexibility and absence of occupational segregation between men and women.

3.4: Unpaid Work, the Macroeconomy and Policy

In India, feminist economists have led the crusade for unpaid work to be counted in the national statistical systems with some measure of success. Their attention is now increasingly turning to having unpaid care work incorporated in the formulation and monitoring of macroeconomic policy (Hirway, 2005) by highlighting the pathways through which well-being particularly of women is affected via their unpaid non-SNA work (Hirway, 2007, 2010). They emphasize the importance of a strong national statistical paradigm that includes unpaid work and the suitability of TUS (2008, 2014). Sethia (2016) adopts the 'Rights' and 'Decent Work' perspectives in a discussion of State provisions for unpaid workers, 'those engaged in domestic work' and other women excluded from just conditions of work. She contends that not only have care workers been largely ignored in policy, they have also been exploited by being treated as 'honorary workers' by the State who are not entitled to standard minimum wages, pensions or insurance. She recommends better public provisioning to help free time for women in low income household to pursue education or skill development to improve labor market outcomes and social security coverage for unpaid family workers.

Swaminathan (2009) traces the trajectory of simultaneous exclusion and inclusion of women in policy through a critical reading of some of the seminal reports of officially constituted commissions and committees and revisiting their arguments and recommendations. It discusses the larger implications of the continued expansion in the numbers of, and time involved in, 'unpaid labor,' the ineffectiveness of protective labor laws for

women and the continued denial of worker status to women.

Chakraborty (2007, 2013) analyses IPTUS data to highlight the significant role of time in an analysis of gender-specific public expenditure by identifying points of intervention and the groups that require public provisioning. For her, despite gender budgeting being used as a significant socioeconomic tool for an analysis of fiscal policies, time use statistics have hardly been integrated. Gender budgeting often rests on the assumption that mainstream expenditure such as public infrastructure is non-rival in nature and thus avoids the use of a gender lens. She uses examples of roads and water supply to show that there is an intrinsic gender dimension to the outcomes of even non-rival expenditure. She also recommends a relook at the construction of the gender equality index in this context.

Drawing lessons from ActionAid's Young Urban Women's Project (involving 6,465 women aged 15-25 years in seven poor urban and peri-urban areas across India, Ghana and South Africa) ActionAid (2017) demonstrates how personal empowerment and changing social norms need to be combined with macroeconomic and social policy measures, legal frameworks and social mobilization to achieve the ambitions of international instruments such as CEDAW, ILO Conventions and the ICPD Program of Action. While there is some headway in this respect at the international level, national governments need to be more assertive in centering sexual and reproductive health and rights (SRHR) and unpaid care work and linking them with development frameworks both at the national and regional levels.

3.5: Selected Studies of Special Relevance

Although not exclusively centered on India, ADB's *Desk Review of Studies on Infrastructure and Time Use* sheds light on the link between women's time poverty and infrastructure – water and sanitation, energy and transport – in Asia and the Pacific, is an invaluable addition to the literature on women's time use in India because of the numerous examples it provides of the role that infrastructure plays in women's work burden (ADB, 2015). For each of the four kinds of infrastructure considered in the review, evidence is collected where available for: i) time use related to that service; and ii) the impact of its improved provision. Due to constraints of space only the salient conclusions on water supply and energy for lighting and cooking in the Indian context are highlighted in this chapter.

Although improved access to water has demonstrable effects on health outcomes of children and school attendance of girls, the report concedes that contradictory conclusions have emerged on whether time saved by improved water supply leads to more time spent on market work. It notes the possibility that time saved in collecting water is reallocated to improving family welfare. More studies are clearly required before generalizations can be made and regional differences can be understood.

Despite the many benefits that electrification is expected to bring, the report notes that globally, including in India, households show a reluctance to use electricity for cooking. In terms of lighting, two caveats regarding the benefits of electrification are noted: One, merely living in a village that is connected does not entitle a household to the benefits of electrification (applies equally to roads and water supply) unless the household gets a connection. This implies that subsidies and pricing policies are important to ensure that poor women, including poor households headed by women, have access to and can utilize affordable infrastructure facilities and services. Second, more can be done to increase time saving benefits by introducing time-saving equipment. However, the chances of women acquiring time saving equipment is reduced because of their low status and the vesting of financial decision making in men's hands.

Lekha S. Chakraborty's two articles *Time Use and Investment in Water Infrastructure* (2005) and *Improved Access to Water and Market Work: Fresh Evidence* (2008) examine the link between investments in public infrastructure in water and time allocation across genders in the context of the six states that feature in IPTUS (Haryana, Madhya Pradesh, Gujarat, Odisha, Tamil Nadu and Meghalaya). Investments in water infrastructure in rural and urban areas of each state collected from budget documents is regressed against the number of persons involved in fetching water and time spent in: 1) fetching water (travel time), 2) SNA, 3) ESNA, and 4) non-SNA activities for males and females. The results imply that though infrastructure investment lessens the time stress in unpaid SNA activity, complementary employment policies are required along with infrastructure investments to ensure the substitution effect of unpaid work with

market work, which in turn can impact household poverty. The analysis is refined in the second study by defining time allocation in SNA activities as a function of the log of public investments in infrastructure across states and the distance travelled to fetch water, captured through the time-use budget of travel. The results reveal that: 1) worsening public infrastructure affects market work with evident gender differentials; and 2) access to public infrastructure can lead to substitution effects in time allocation between unpaid work and market work. The policy implication of this is that the public investment policy needs to redress intra-household inequalities in terms of labor-supply decisions by supporting initiatives that reduce the allocation of time in non-market work. (Chakraborty, 2005, 2008)

Sonali Das, Sonali Jain-Chandra, Kalpana Kochhar, and Naresh Kumar paper *Women Workers: Why So Few Among So Many?* (2015) focuses on the impact of roads and power (electricity) supply on women's labor force participation. A regression analysis across states shows that women living in states with greater access to roads are more likely to be in the labor force and those in states with higher transmission and distribution losses of State power utilities are less likely to be in the labor force. (Das et al, 2015)

Ritu Dewan and Swati Raju's paper *Impacts of Physical Infrastructure on Women's Workforce Participation Rates in Rural and Urban India* (2012a) focuses on five gendered infrastructural issues: 1) reduction of time and drudgery through improvements in water supply, sanitation, energy and transport; 2) enhancing community planning, construction and maintenance by increasing investments in drainage, water supply, tertiary irrigation canals, transport and sanitation; 3) ways to increase income earning opportunities as well as economic and societal empowerment both horizontally and vertically; 4) expansion of efficiency and productivity through improvements in several forms of infrastructure especially that related to markets and transport; and 5) the nature of policy design, planning and implementation that more often than not remains insulated from gender concerns. It considers the effect of physical infrastructure indicators on men and women's work participation rates for major states over a period spanning two decades using regression analysis. The results indicate that reducing the time spent on fuel wood collection or alternatively increasing access to cleaner sources of fuel like kerosene and LPG translates into a greater participation of women in the workforce and that the most significant and positive correlations exist between water within the premises, hand pumps, roads and paid work especially for rural women casual workers.

Ritu Dewan's paper *Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojana: Visibilising Gender in Rural Road Connectivity* (2012b) debates gender sensitive infrastructural development and gender mainstreaming of physical infrastructure in India and applies gender responsive budgeting to physical infrastructure projects. The focus is on the Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojana (PMGSY), a centrally sponsored road project with a potentially encompassing impact. It identifies gender differentials and gender needs in the context of rural roads arising from women's location in the process of production and reproduction in a patriarchal society. The results reveal that: 1) a much larger share of women's journeys, as compared to men's, are for household and family needs including trips to collect water and fuel wood, visits to health centers and community and social interactions; 2) a majority of such trips are relatively short or local but are undertaken frequently thus absorbing considerable time and effort which directly impact work burdens and the time available for economic activities; and 3) women's journeys often tend to combine several stops to meet various purposes. The policy lesson underlines the importance of ensuring that roads and transport services connect the destinations that are important for women and that the fare structures facilitate short journeys with multiple stops.

R. Palriwala and R.N. Pillai's report *India: Research Report 3: The Care Diamond: State Social Policy and the Market* (2009) makes a significant contribution to an analysis of Indian policy by examining the State social policy on childcare and its interface with the market and 'community' organizations in depth. It traces the history, framework and motivations of public policy addressing childcare. It lists and reviews the various arrangements (like laws and schemes) in India for the provision of maternity benefits to formal and informal workers, and creche and daycare facilities (in the government, non-government and private sector). The report concludes that State policy in the context of care has been piece-meal, haphazard and reactive rather than proactive with links between gender, care and welfare of citizens remaining a blind spot.

3.6: Conclusion

This review of post Indian Pilot Time Use Survey (IPTUS) literature as evidence of the burgeoning interest in the subject in India, is set within a framework that recognizes the interconnects between paid and unpaid work. Current discussions reveal that much has been achieved in terms of understanding the conceptual construction of unpaid work, its measurement and valuation and its links with various aspects of women's lives including employment. Some beginnings have been made on the work continuum-macro policy connect but much more remains to be done. There is greater realization today that not only the quantum of benefits but the ways in which they are delivered significantly affect women and men, and that involving men in what is usually considered women's work is critical for improving the quality of women's lives and the ultimate ushering in of gender equality. However, much more work is needed to sharpen our understanding of the impact of the design and implementation of State interventions in women's work continuum and its translation into gender-sensitive, evidence-based policymaking.

4 THROUGH THE UNPAID WORK LENS

DESK REVIEW OF LAWS, POLICIES AND SCHEMES AT NATIONAL AND REGIONAL LEVELS

4.1: Introduction

Of the five institutions that impact women's work especially that which is unpaid – households, community and caste structures, non-government actors, markets and the State – the State, with its reach, financial strength and tools, is in a prime position to wield a critical influence over the other institutions in moderating gender roles and relations. Macroeconomic policies governing social protection, public provision of basic infrastructure, taxes and subsidies can have a significant enabling or disabling impact on the unpaid and unrecognized economy. The State's role is especially significant in developing countries, more so in the case of women in poor and vulnerable households.

In India, articulation of women's unpaid work including care or discussions of related issues like time stress or time poverty are rarely found in public policy. This, despite the strong welfare tilt that Indian policy has had from the very beginning and the evolving Rights perspective and the gender tint that it has acquired in the last decade or so. The socioeconomic policy discourse on poverty alleviation, inclusion and gender equity also does not pay attention to unpaid work. For the first time, the Draft Policy for Women 2016 (GoI, 2016a) dedicates a single paragraph to the subject, promising to hold household surveys to assess 'gender inequality in the household work and undertake suitable strategies to integrate unpaid work with major programmes' (pp. 7-8). Measures such as time-saving technologies, infrastructure, child/parental care leave and services are also promised. Unpaid work is also mentioned in the context of social security measures for women. Apparent in this scant regard to unpaid work in policy, are four underlying implicit assumptions:

- that the unpaid work that all households require for their daily lives is private, familial and in line with social beliefs, especially regarding division of labor;
- that even the unpaid SNA work that women do on family farms and in enterprises is part of 'housework';
- that men are the breadwinners while women are dependents and/or mothers; and
- that intra-household (gender) balance is outside the obligations of the State or the remit of policy.

Interventions are considered justified only in response to family-based failures (single women, widows, orphans) or where conditions such as poverty, ignorance and illiteracy are perceived as the reasons for societal malaises such as high infant/child/maternal mortality and undernutrition. This chapter uses the unpaid work lens to assess whether and how far women's work burden informs policy initiatives primarily examining whether and to what extent policy – in its intent, design, implementation, budgetary outlays and outcomes – incorporates unpaid work and its recognition, reduction and redistribution.

Since in the Indian federal fiscal system, responsibility for policy formulation (Center) is generally separated from implementation (state) and funding is shared between the two, both macro (central government) and meso (state level) analyses of the working of select programs/schemes become essential. Regional assessment has acquired added significance due to the implementation of the 14th Finance Commission's recommendations which have substantially increased the states' responsibility for the implementation of central projects since 2015-16 (CBGA, 2015), at the same time, slashing in most cases the share of central funding from 90 per cent to 60 per cent. Hence, we track the budgets separately for the center and the study states.

In the analysis that follows, principal features of specific acts/policies/programs or schemes are briefly stated and this is followed by a discussion of their links with or implications for women's unpaid work. This is followed by an analysis of the budgetary outlays and outcomes (budget tracking) where both Estimated and Revised Budget allocations (BE/RE) as well as actual expenditure (AE) are examined. Each section ends with a set of recommendations.

4.2: Energy

4.2.1: Strategic Plan for the New and Renewable Energy Sector (2011-17/22) (SPNRE)

SPNRE (GoI, 2011b) is an articulation of the goals, strategy and action plan of the Ministry of New and Renewable Energy covering the period 2011 to 2017 and extending the perspective up to 2022. Its vision is upscaling and mainstreaming the use of new and renewable energy sources for attaining national energy security and independence through grid-interactive and off-grid projects (especially for rural applications), promoting research and encouraging a robust manufacturing industry. It also discusses targets, strategies and programs for the 12th Plan. Despite this increasing policy attention to the development and promotion of alternative energy, gross budgetary allocations remain small in the central budget – between Rs 50 crore (2017-18) and Rs 100 crore (2016-17).

SPNRE and Unpaid Work

The focus of this review is on SPNRE's contents as relevant to women's lighting and cooking needs. Energy needs of Indian households are generally met from a variety of sources: electricity or kerosene and candles for lighting and kerosene, LPG and coal or firewood for cooking. Renewable energy systems based on solar photovoltaic (SPV) and biogas plants are alternative sources for both lighting (electricity) and cooking.

There are no real references to women in the policy document. Gender concerns are not addressed either in its vision or in its objectives, process, strategy, plans or programs. Women and children do not find a mention under stakeholders or 'end users' (implicitly households rather than women), even in the context of cooking stoves and anganwadis. Hence, it is not surprising that there is no recognition or discussion of women's unpaid work. In fact, the document is completely blind to gender issues including women's unpaid work. This despite the strong and specific recommendations of the Working Group on Women's Agency and Empowerment, XII Plan (GoI, not dated) to incorporate a gender perspective within all energy development programs. A later report by the Ministry (GoI, n.d. b) however acknowledges the implications of the use of renewable energy for lighting and cooking for women: '(t)he social and economic benefits include reduction in drudgery among rural women and girls engaged in the collection of fuel wood from long distances and cooking in smoky kitchens, minimization of the risks of contracting lung and eye ailments' (p.2). One possible reason for the absence of a gender interface in policy is possibly the increasingly heavy dependence on private players for infrastructure provisioning which is heavily subsidized and incentivized by the government.

Typically, cooking, heating and even lighting are the responsibilities of women and girls including fetching and preparing fuel which may range from coal, firewood, dung patties, waste paper and even plastic. This is a time-consuming job which sometimes involves long trips with heavy head loads and often exposes women, especially single women, to violence. Thus, as a group, women are most affected by energy scarcity and related environmental degradation; they are economically affected in terms of time spent on subsistence activities, including unpaid work and this work also has negative health impacts (Balakrishnan, n.d.)

Women respond differently from men to incentives and options for renewable energy consumption, showing greater readiness for energy conservation

efforts. They are also more willing to change their everyday behavior to save energy (UN Women, n.d.) They also perceive risks differently, rejecting environmentally destructive production processes and purely technological solutions involving large-scale technologies, preferring decentralized solutions (see Women in Europe for Common Future, n.d). Women's involvement in the design of sustainable energy solutions is hence critical for ensuring that the solutions are tailored to their needs and priorities. Their engagement in distribution and marketing helps encourage the use of sustainable energy services by providing other women with comfortable spaces as well as the confidence to learn and apply new technologies (Gill et al., 2012 cited in UN Women, n.d.)

To be successful, strategies for promoting renewable energy appliances like cook stoves in households need to recognize the gender dynamics involved: women often fail to reap advantages of new and improved technologies only partly because of lack of information and awareness. However, of greater significance is the fact that due to their inferior status and lack of a voice in household and community decisions, appliances or systems that save their time or drudgery are given low priority with male household members showing no interest in buying, repairing or replacing such appliances.

Affordability and connectivity can also play an important role in the choices made. Disappointingly, the ministry's allocation for such appliances, labelled '30 per cent women-specific,' has declined sharply from 28 per cent in 2014-15 to a virtually non-existent 2 per cent in 2017-18; second, SPNRE suggests counter-productive strategies like reduction in gas subsidy (p. 26) or gender blind ones like identifying business models (p. 45) to promote large scale adoption of renewable energy cook stoves.

Women are not just consumers of energy, they are also potential workers and entrepreneurs of the renewable energy sector and/or sectors using renewable energy. Taking their needs into account in energy interventions makes it more likely that energy will have a significant impact on household and community poverty and on gender equality (Collaborative Research Group on Gender and Energy (CRGGE), 2006). Involving women in renewable energy plans and initiatives is crucial, particularly because this is a relatively young sector, suitably placed for a break from traditional non-inclusive and gender-blind approaches.

Budget Tracking: Outlay and Outcome: National and Study States

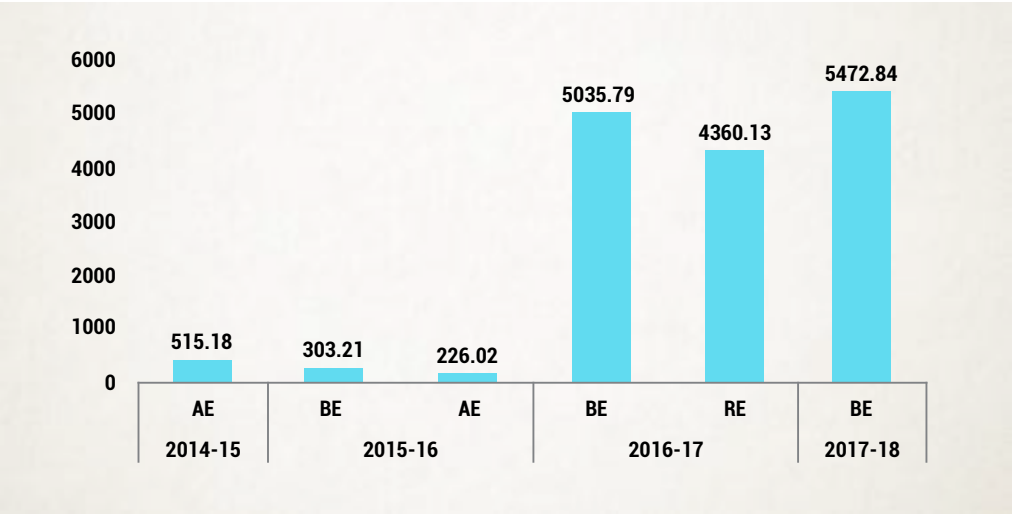
In contrast to the trends in other ministries, the Ministry of New and Renewable Energy (MNRE) received a dramatic boost in budget allocations in 2016-17. From only Rs 515 crore in 2014-15 (AE) it grew eight-fold to Rs 4,360 crore in 2016-17 (RE) and to Rs 5,473 crore in 2017-18 *(Figure 4.1; Appendix III)*. However, of this the gross budgetary outlay for 2017-18 is only Rs 50 crore the balance comprising Internal and Extra Budgetary Resource (IEBR) constituting incentives provided by the Government of India (GoI) to private players which may be realized based on private participation and incomes from government bonds etc. The gross budgetary outlay for 2017-18 has in fact declined from Rs 92 crore in 2015-16 and Rs 100 crore in 2016-17. *(See Figure 4.1)*

The Gender Budget Statement of the Union Budget reveals that the MNRE does not have a single 100 per cent women specific program. However, the Biogas Program, Cook Stove and Solar Cooker are listed under the 30 per cent allocation for women *(Table 4.1)* of which biogas is the largest recipient. The outlay of these programs has declined in the latest year to a pathetic 3 per cent from a robust 28 per cent and 40 per cent of the MNRE budget in 2014-15 and 2015-16 respectively, signaling the failure of allocations to women specific programs.

Study States

In Maharashtra, both BE and AE grew between 2014-15 and 2016-17 with AE almost doubling between 2014-15 and 2015-16. In fact, the absolute amount spent on non-conventional and renewable energy in the post-14th Finance Commission year exceeded BE by almost Rs 40 crore; subsequently, the 2016-17 budget recognized this demand and increased allocations accordingly even though the absolute amount was only Rs 171 crore. BE and AE in Telangana fluctuated wildly: AE in 2015-16 was not even Rs 1 crore, yet BE for the succeeding year increased rather dramatically to over Rs 241 crore. However, as not even 10 per cent of this was used, both BE and RE were reduced to just about Rs 1 crore, though the current financial data reveals a sharp increase to almost Rs 73 crore *(Figure 4.2; Appendix III)*. Data is not available for Uttarakhand despite consistent and continuous efforts to mine information from all possible sources including relevant offices and officials.

Figure 4.1. **Central Budget Outlay on New & Renewable Energy 2014-15 to 2017-18 (in Rs. crore)**



Source: Demand for Grants, MNRE, Union Budget (2016-17 & 2017-18).

Table 4.1. **Allocation of MNRE Budget to 30 per cent Women Specific Schemes: 2014-15 to 2017-18 (in Rs. crore)**

	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17		2017-18
Program	**BE**	**RE**	**BE**	**RE**	**BE**
Biogas	129.50	96.93	142.00	100.00	134.00
Cook Stove/Solar Cooker etc.	14.00	7.28	16.00	15.50	1.00
Total	143.50	104.21	158.00	115.50	135.00
Total MNRE Budget	515.18	262.07	5035.79	4360.13	5472.84
Women Specific Allocation as per cent of total MNRE Budget	27.85	39.76	3.14	2.65	2.47

Note: AE figures are not given in Gender Budget Statements.
Source: Statement 20, Union Budget 2016-17; Statement 13, Union Budget 2017-18.

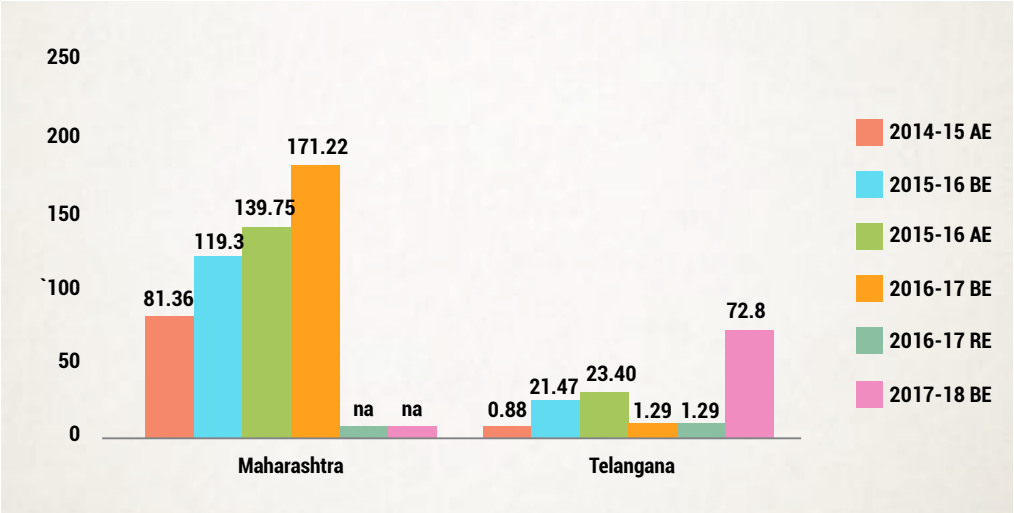
4.2.2: PAHAL or Direct Benefit Transfers for the LPG (DBTL) Consumer Scheme; the Pradhan Mantri Ujjwala Yojana (PMUY); and Direct Benefit Transfers for Kerosene (DBTK)

These three schemes are evaluated together as they all deal with cooking fuel and are hence closely related.

PAHAL(http://petroleum.nic.in/dbt/whatisdbtl.html), launched in 2013 and extended to whole of India in 2015, aims to rectify two ills that afflict the distribution of LPG to domestic consumers in India: a heavy and growing burden of subsidies and lack of transparency and accountability in LPG distribution which diverts fuel meant for domestic to commercial users. Consumers registered under this scheme have the LPG subsidy credited directly to their accounts for every cylinder consumed with an annual cap (currently 12) determined by the government per consumer (Economic Times, 2016). Cylinders consumed in excess of the cap must be bought at the market price and are not eligible for subsidy. The consumer also receives a permanent advance on the first cylinder booked, ensuring that consumers have extra cash to pay the market price for the first cylinder. For every consumer who gives up subsidy under the Give Back Scheme, one BPL household is to be given a security-deposit-free connection. PAHAL has been called the largest direct benefit transfer program in the world.

PMUY(http://www.pmujjwalayojana.com/about.html) was launched on the back of PAHAL on 1 May 2016. While PAHAL directly transfers the subsidy to

Figure 4.2. **Budget Outlay: Non-conventional & Renewable Energy—Study States 2014-15 to 2017-18 (Rs. crore)**



Source: Annual Financial Statement, 2016-17, 2017-18, State Budgets.

existing gas users, PMUY increases the number of gas users especially amongst below poverty level (BPL) households by giving gas connections free of cost. This scheme aims to universalize use of clean cooking fuel by providing 5 crore connections to BPL families within 3 years with financial support of Rs 1,600 per connection. The connections are issued in the names of the women in the households with the identification of BPL families done through data from the Socio-Economic Caste Census.

DBTK (PIB, GoI, 2016) was launched on 1 April 2016 to improve targeting of kerosene subsidies. Applied to 33 districts identified by the nine state governments of Chhattisgarh, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Punjab, Rajasthan and Gujarat, the consumer pays the non-subsidized price of kerosene at the time of purchase with the subsidy being directly transferred to the beneficiary's bank account. To avoid any inconvenience during the initial purchase through payment of the non-subsidized price, an initial amount of subsidy is credited to the beneficiary's bank account. The implementing states are given fiscal incentives equivalent to 75 per cent of the subsidy saved in the first two years, 50 per cent in the third year and the remaining in the fourth year. Aadhaar is mandatory to avail the benefits under all three schemes.

PAHAL, PMUY, DBTK and Unpaid Work

These schemes have a huge potential to save time spent on cooking, collection of bio and other fuels, reducing drudgery and bringing in health benefits of smokeless cooking: PMUY by promoting a switch to gas from other inferior fuels; PAHAL by plugging leakages and augmenting supply to households; and DBTK by making kerosene available to those who depend on it.

Although all the three schemes impact time use and drudgery and women's health, PMUY is the only scheme which explicitly states its aim in gender and care sensitive terms: the aim is to safeguard the health of women and children by providing them with a clean cooking fuel so that they do not have to compromise their health in smoky kitchens or wander in unsafe areas collecting firewood. The website of the Ministry of Petroleum and Natural Gas estimates that 10 crore households currently rely on firewood, coal and dung-cakes as the primary fuel for cooking and are thus subject to the adverse health effects of burning such fuel. However, figures are not available for how many households have switched from kerosene/wood/dung or other inferior fuels to gas. Performance indicators do not attempt to measure outcomes in terms of savings in time or drudgery, but instead do it in terms of the number of connections/beneficiaries, savings in subsidy and the amount transferred as direct benefit. Further, a CAG audit has found substantial systemic problems with PAHAL including the continued diversion of domestic cylinders to commercial use and domestic subsidy to commercial use.

Budget Tracking: Outlay and Outcome—National and Study States

PAHAL is a huge scheme with an allocation that at one point accounted for two-third of the budget of the Ministry of Petroleum and Natural Gas. The allocation was Rs 22,660 crore in its debut year, but has since declined, almost halving to Rs 13,097 crore in 2017-18. The possible reasons for this are a decline in the ministry's budget and the plateauing of customers switching over to DBT. However, users especially in rural areas could also have been deterred from joining the scheme due to several reasons – digital illiteracy, lack of knowledge, lengthy process, low process clarity, time taken for processing or problems of receiving the permanent advance (GoI, 2016e).

Compared to PAHAL, PMUY and DBTK are miniscule schemes that account for no more than 1.5 per cent and 0.5 per cent of the ministry's budget (2017-18) respectively. The allocations for PMUY declined drastically from Rs 3,178 crore (RE) in 2016-17 to Rs 454 crore (BE) in 2017-18. On the other hand, although DBTK has tripled its allocation in the current financial, it stands at a mere Rs 150 crore today. Unfortunately, with no data available yet on annual physical progress, it is difficult to explain the impact of this decline *(Figure 4.3; Appendix IV)*.

The Annual Report (2016-17) of the Ministry of Petroleum (GoI, n.d. c) records cumulative outcomes since the launch of the schemes: 17.36 crore households joined PAHAL, DBT amounting to Rs 40,446 crore. Also, 3.6 crore duplicate/inactive/ ghost accounts were detected and closed and 1.05 crore persons gave up subsidies under the Give Back Scheme, from which 69 lakh households benefitted. Under PMUY, 694 districts have been covered and more than 1.55 crore LPG connections released as of December 2016, achieving the target for the entire year. Regional analysis is not possible as state-wise figures are not available.

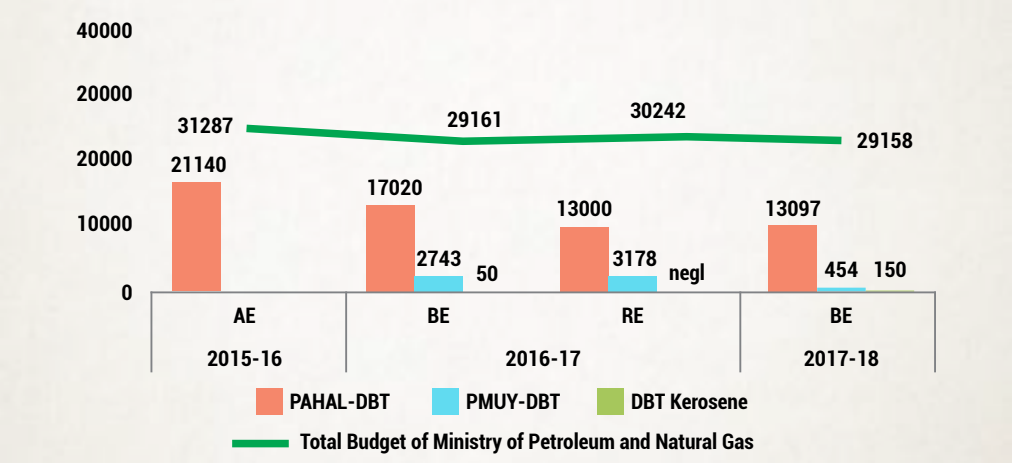
Recommendations:

>> Incorporate a gender perspective with special attention to unpaid work. This is essential for the energy policy to be an effective vehicle for a switch to cleaner energy as well as for gender equality. SPNRE needs to be reformulated taking into account gendered needs, preferences, access and capacities in the appraisal of projects and in assessing their impact; dissemination of information; capacity building and gender sensitization; and in the design of products and their marketing. Budget allocations to women-specific schemes are meaningless unless RE goals, strategies and schemes are informed by the gender-unpaid work perspectives.

>> Make affordable smokeless stoves and other time-saving clean energy technology available. Despite many years of funding research and prototypes, these have not reached the masses.

>> In the case of PAHAL and similar schemes consider the price of LPG while fixing

Figure 4.3. **India: Allocations/Expenditure on PAHAL, PMUY & DBTK 2015-16 to 2017-18 (Rs. crore)**



Source: Demand 72: Ministry of Petroleum & Natural Gas, 2017-18.

subsidies especially during periods of rising prices. The impact of the limit of 12 cylinders may also need to be re-examined.

>> Extend extra support in the form of connectivity, especially in hilly and inaccessible habitations where costs of transport may prove prohibitive for sustained consumption of LPG.

>> Increase availability of kerosene in the market as it is widely used for cooking to start woodfires and for lighting. In recent years the supply of kerosene, particularly via the public distribution system (PDS) has been cut and households with LPG connections are being denied their quota. The alternative for women who cannot afford LPG or are unable to get a refill is to go back to inferior fuels such as wood.

>> Design appropriate strategies to support buying, repairing and replacing appliances.

>> Provide support for accessing digital processes for the illiterate and poor.

>> Institutionalize arrangements for collection of gender disaggregated data for appraisal, monitoring and evaluation of the impact for all energy interventions – conventional as well as NRE.

>> Initiate/encourage a social audit of PAHAL, PMUY and DBTK schemes to help plug leakages.

4.3: Water

4.3.1: The National Water Policy (NWP), 2012

The NWP 2012 (GoI, n.d. a) of the Ministry of Water Resources laments the lack of consciousness relating to water scarcity and raises several concerns including ecological overexploitation, pollution, and inequitable distribution. It focuses on evolving a system of laws and institutions as well as the implementation of a plan of action with a unified national perspective. It lists in detail the various concerns and the basic principles that should govern public policies for water, including those related to climate change; water supply; sanitation; demand management; water use efficiency; pricing; conservation of river corridors; floods and droughts; institutional arrangements; and database and information systems. The National Water Board is given the responsibility of preparing a plan of action, with emphasis also being given to drafting water policies at the regional level. The only reference to women's link with water is in the context of project planning and implementation, where the policy notes the necessity to consider 'the needs and aspirations of the Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribes, women and other weaker sections of society' (GoI, n.d g, p. 9).

4.3.2: The National Rural Drinking Water Policy (NRDWP), 2013

NRDWP (GoI, 2013d; GoI, 2013) is a flagship program of the Government of India launched in April 2009 for assisting states in providing drinking water. It has incorporated lessons on collective management from the Swajaldhara Yojana of 2002 including source security, conjoint treatment of water supply, quality assurance, sanitation, and the decentralization of planning and management of water supply systems by communities at the village level with representation of women, SC and ST members. The goal is to provide every rural individual, anganwadi and school at least 55 liters per capita daily (lpcd) of piped and safe drinking water of a minimum quality for drinking, cooking and other domestic needs within household premises or within a 100m radius on a sustainable basis at all times and in all situations. At least 50 per cent of rural households are to be covered by 2017, with at least 30 per cent having individual household connections, as against 13 per cent in 2013. By 2022 at least nine-tenth of rural households are to be provisioned with piped water supply and at least 80 per cent rural households are to have a household connection.

NRDWP and Unpaid Work

Almost one-fifth of the households collect water from sources outside their homes (IPTUS, Central Statistical Organization, 2000). Within households, collection of water is a heavily gendered task in both rural and urban India with (adult) women doing 87 per cent of this work (Motiram, 2006). The 5.11 hours per week in rural and 4.63 hours in urban India that women expend on this activity does not include the time spent in walking increasingly long distances to a clean water source and waiting in queues. According to Census 2011, only 30.80

per cent of the rural households had access to piped water supply while 22.11 per cent collected drinking water from a distance of more than 500 m. According to the Ministry of Drinking Water and Sanitation, access to safe and adequate water is available in only 77.8 per cent of the rural habitations.

The necessity of a gender interface, including women's unpaid work issues, in water policy cannot be overemphasized. NRDWP recognizes that provision of piped water is necessary 'to relieve women and girls from drudgery of fetching water, address malnutrition and increase time available for education and leisure while preventing contamination likely while fetching water from a distant source' (GoI, 2013d p.5). Besides quantity, quality and access parameters envisaged in the policy, other measures like establishing a 24x7 supply; inclusion of schools and anganwadis under coverage and importance of source security and traditional methods of conservation are conducive for the reduction of women's unpaid work time and drudgery. The introduction of participative management with the involvement of women signals women's recognition as both users and managers and introduces opportunities for their technical and managerial training.

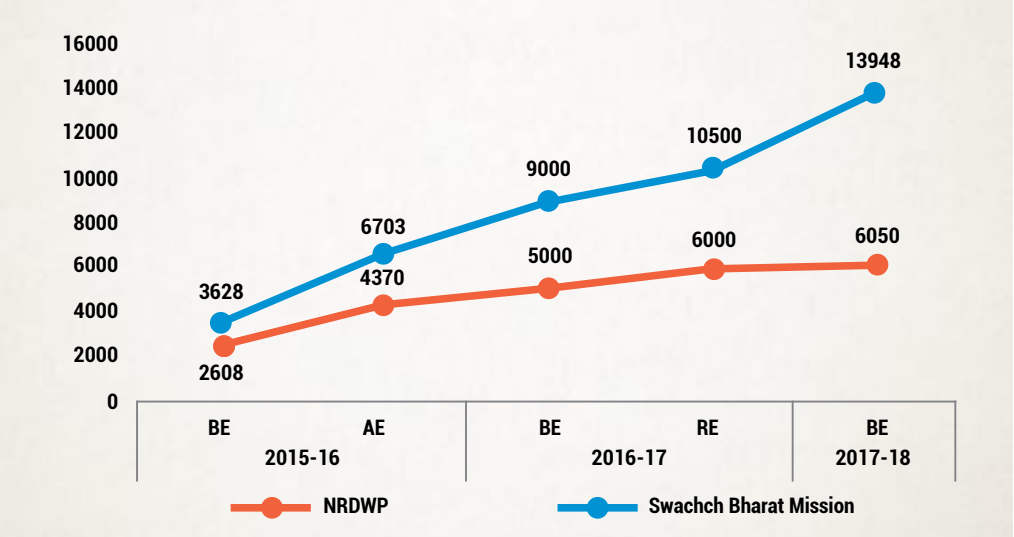
Unfortunately, many of NRDWP's women-centric components have remained on paper. All new interventions are being managed by the government with no active ground participation except in villages that had been covered under the Swajaldhara Yojana. The result is poor ownership of water supply systems and sources by communities (Mankad 2013). Possible reasons for the absence of community participation include any or a mix of several factors – cultural resistance, lack of enthusiasm amongst households particularly women possibly due to time stress or the unwillingness or inability of government cadres/ NGOs to put in the time and effort required to prepare the communities and women for participation.

Budget Tracking: Outlay and Outcome: National and Study States

The BE for NRDWP increased from Rs 2,608 crore (2015-16) by more than two-and-half times to Rs 6,050 crore (2017-18); however, the BE for Swachh Bharat Abhiyan (SBA) increased much more steeply by 3.84 times in the corresponding period. Further, while the allocations for NRDWP plateaued after 2016-17, those for SBA grew sharply, even though both AE/RE for NRDWP have exceeded BE in the past three years. The issue therefore is not that of low allocations, but of a clear shift in State priorities and an increasing and therefore worrying disconnect between water and sanitation *(Figure 4.4; Appendix V)*.

As of December 2015, 12.9 lakh rural habitations and a population of 65.94 crore was getting 40 lpcd or more of potable drinking water, constituting 72.95 per cent of the total rural population. Of these

Figure 4.4. **India Budgets: NRDWP & SBM 2015-16 to 2017-18 (Rs. crore)**



Source: Demand for Funds – NRDWP, GoI 2017-18.

only 7.8 lakh rural habitations and a population of 37.79 crore, constituting merely two-fifth of the rural populace were getting the target 55 lcpd. Implementation therefore leaves much to be desired. Some major problems with NRDWP include a gap between the designed service level and actual delivery that is traceable to consistent slippages of water supply targets over the years; overdependence on and consequent decline in supply of ground water due to overexploitation, contamination and inadequate recharge; and a water grid based design that requires a massive injection of funds.

In line with the 14th Finance Commission's recommendations, the center and the states' share of resources is now 60:40. Between 2014-15 and 2016-17, the total expenditure on NRDWP declined in Maharashtra and Uttarakhand both in relation to the center and the states' shares. *(Figure 4.5; Appendix V)*. This decrease was the most severe in Maharashtra, from Rs. 1,566 crore (2014-15) to a mere Rs. 547 crore (2016-17). Utilization of central funds hovered between 50 per cent (2016-17) and 76 per cent (2015-16). Uttarakhand's utilization of central funds was lower, ranging between 46 and 69 per cent. However, the state's share increased over the period from Rs. 74 crore to Rs. 92 crore, exceeding the center's share in total expenditure. The utilization of central funds appears to be a common problem.

Although high levels of achievement are reported in 2014-15 and 2015-16 and with only five months left in 2016-17, Maharashtra shows low achievements in terms of coverage of quality affected and partially covered habitations/ population, with less than 5 per cent of the targets being met. Uttarakhand has performed well in terms of partial coverage targets but has failed to make any headway in terms of the quality affected habitations/population.

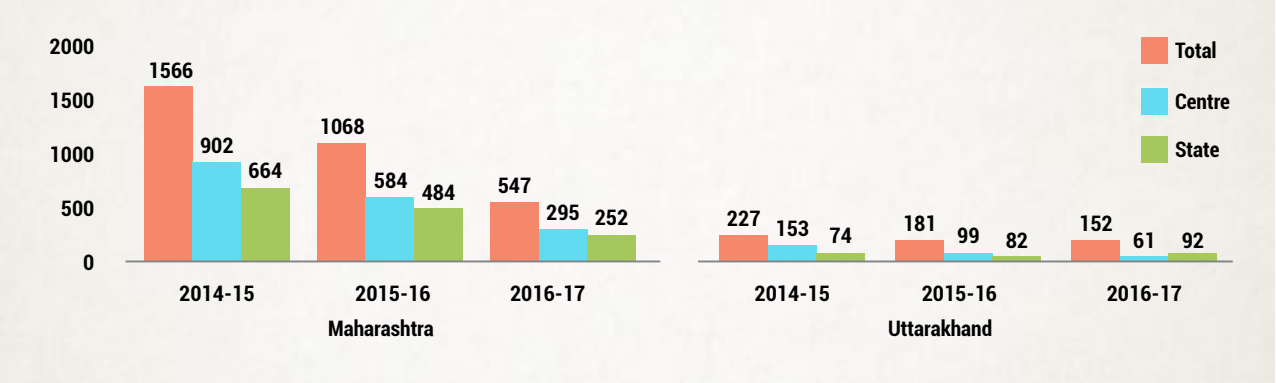
Recommendations:

>> Sustained and rapid progress in attaining norms built into NRDWP in terms of quantity, quality and access is the single most important factor for reducing the time spent, and drudgery involved in fetching water.

>> Rejuvenate community participation in water management as per policy commitments recognizing and integrating the additional demands on women's time and work burden that their participation in water management would entail and proactively design appropriate processes.

>> Make gender sensitization with a focus on women's unpaid work burden a critical part of the training envisaged for all cadres in the State machinery and the community – men as well as women. Such an exercise is crucial for equipping functionaries and the men in households to appreciate the needs, role and problems of women pertaining to water and related issues and designing responsive

Figure 4.5. **Centre-State Share of Expenditure on NRDWP : 2014-15 to 2016-17 (Rs. crore)**



Source: http://indiawater.gov.in/imisreports/Reports/Financial/rpt_RWS_StatewiseAllocationReleaseExpenditure_S.aspx?Rep=0&RP=Y

systems, processes and procedures.

>> Strengthen processes for identifying and facilitating the participation of NGOs.

>> Induct female technical experts and gender experts at the project level who can better relate to issues involved and communicate with the women participants.

>> Institutionalize the collection of sex-disaggregated data required for appraisal, planning, monitoring, evaluation and course correction and TUS in appraisal and impact evaluation of projects.

>> Define targets/outcomes in terms of the number of households provisioned in addition to the number of existing habitations and populations.

>> Improve accuracy and timeliness of on-line reporting of targets and outcomes by line agencies.

4.4: Care

IPTUS reveals that on average, childcare accounts for a small proportion of a woman's unpaid work. However, this can be misleading as time spent in childcare is exceptionally difficult to capture. Typically, mothers, especially with small children are obliged to spend a great deal of time at home being actively engaged in childcare tasks such as feeding and bathing the child and also in supervision and in just 'being there'. Much of the time spent in passive care is combined with other household tasks and is not reflected in regular TUS. Further, child birth and childcare lead to interruptions in and absorb a significant part of a woman's time during what is potentially her economically most productive years. On the birth of a child young women are forced to pay what has come to be known as motherhood penalty, by having to give up opportunities for education, training and paid employment. Childcare responsibilities also tend to push women into the informal sector with its highly exploitative work conditions and low and gender differentiated wages. It is well-established that this results in all-round loss at four levels – for the woman, her household, the community and the economy.

Further, the responsibility for the well-being of children is not limited to mothers or parents. The modern State has a major share and it must play an active role if the full potential of its present and future generations is to be achieved. While doing so, the State needs to not only take cognizance of women's role in and contribution to unpaid work but also fulfill its obligations in ways that support and lighten women's unpaid childcare burdens especially where mothers and parents endure time stress and time poverty and where care deficiency exists due to material poverty, illiteracy, poor health and social discrimination. Maternity benefits and public childcare institutions serve to redistribute unpaid childcare responsibilities.

4.4.1: The Maternity Benefit Act (MBA), (1961) (Amended by Act No. 15 of 2008 dated 1 April 2008; and Act No.6 of 2017 – The Maternity Benefit (Amendment) Act 2017, dated 27 March 2017)

MBA's explicit objective is to regulate women's employment in factories, plantations, mines and shops and establishments with ten or more workers for certain periods before and after child birth and to provide for maternity benefits not only in the form of paid maternity leave and cash benefits but also other equally important entitlements such as exemption from arduous work, protection from dismissal and provision of nursing breaks until the child attains the age of 15 months. Also included are provisions for leave and compensation for a miscarriage, illness arising out of pregnancy/delivery or premature birth. A woman needs to have worked for at least 80 days in a year before becoming eligible for coverage under this act.

Following the 2017 Amendments, the entitlements (GoI, 2017) under MBA comprise of:

1) Maximum leave of 26 weeks with full pay for the first two children; of 12 weeks for the third child onwards and for adopting and 'commissioning' mothers.

2) An employer may permit a woman to work from home after the completion of maternity leave if the nature of work so permits.

3) Childcare leave for a maximum of 2 years during their entire service for women having minor children below 18 years of age.

4) Establishments with more than 50 employees

to provide for crèche facilities, mothers being entitled to four visits to the crèche during working hours to look after and feed the child.

5) Establishments covered under the act are obliged to intimate every woman employee in writing and electronically regarding the benefits available under the act.

Because of the conditions of eligibility specified under MBA, only formal sector employees (18 lakh or 5 per cent of employed women) are covered. The 95 per cent who toil in the informal sector are as of now excluded from any maternity protection under this act. Poor enforcement further restricts the act's reach to only a fraction of the eligible. In 2014, at the national level, only 35,035 women availed of maternity benefits amounting to Rs 60.63 crore. At the level of individual states, the payments and beneficiary numbers were miniscule: Maharashtra, with its larger female workforce in the formal sector, paid out Rs 28 crore to 2,078 women; Telangana, around Rs 3 crore (GoI, n.d. i) to 604 women; and Uttarakhand Rs 0.02 crore to 2 women (2013) (GoI, 2013e). An important point to be remembered while interpreting these figures is that no part of the amount given under Maternity Benefit Act comes from the government's budget; maternity benefits are essentially a payout by private sector enterprises falling under the purview of the act.

The Maternity Benefit Act and Unpaid Work

The International Labor Organization (ILO) looks at maternity benefits as a measure to protect women against discrimination, income loss and job security while they are given sufficient time to give birth, recover and nurse their children. MBA's stated objective is regulating women's conditions of employment during the period of pregnancy and lactation. In addition, it also seeks to reduce her on-the-job drudgery. Although there is no explicit or implicit recognition in the act of a working woman's double burden of unpaid work, the stipulation in the latest amendment for crèche facilities with entitlement to visits for feeding and caring for the child does serve to offer some support. This provision redistributes childcare work with employers. However, despite these positives, several glaring omissions mar the act.

The onus for payment of maternity benefits is on employers; this has been built into the act which together with the rather long leave prescribed may act as a disincentive for hiring women by increasing employers' financial and other costs in terms of the salary/wage for a replacement and the price of retraining of the beneficiary. Small firms may in fact find the additional costs prohibitive. The act does not offer any solution to this problem. Offering maternity benefits together with paternity leave may partially resolve this problem. A more generic solution may lie in finding an alternative to the present employer liability mode of funding. As far back as in 1988, while strongly recommending maternity benefits for women in the informal sector, the Shram Shakti report suggested that all employers, irrespective of whether they employed women or not should contribute a per cent of their wage bill to a maternity fund to which the state would also contribute. This suggestion marks one of the best ways of dealing with the disincentive effect of maternity benefits on women's employment and deserves to be explored seriously. The advantage of such a mechanism is that it does not discourage women's employment or impose a heavy burden on small informal establishments. The ESIC and PPF models are alternate approaches.

4.4.2: Maternity Entitlements in the National Food Security Act (NFSA) 2013 (passed on 10 September 2013 with retrospective effect from 5 July 2013): The Maternity Benefit Program (MBP)

NFSA is the first national-level legislation to recognize the right of all women to maternity benefits (Sinha et al., 2016) through MBP, formerly known as the Indira Gandhi Matritva Sahayog Yojana (IGMSY/ MBP). MBP involves conditional cash transfers of Rs 6,000 in three installments to pregnant and lactating women not receiving maternity benefits from any other source. The cash incentive is provided: (i) for wage loss so that adequate rest is possible before and after delivery; (ii) to improve the mother's health and nutrition during pregnancy and lactation; and (iii) to breastfeed the child during the first six months of birth. The conditions specified under MBP are: (i) registration of pregnancy; (ii) completion of ante-natal and post-natal check-ups and immunization for mother and child; and (iii) institutional delivery (PIB, GoI, Ministry of Women and Child Development, 2017). Aadhaar has been made mandatory for enrolment. These maternity benefits are available for one live birth only. Payments are made directly to the beneficiary in DBT mode through Aadhaar linked bank/post office accounts.

MBP/IGMSY and Unpaid Work

The availability of maternity benefits as an entitlement to all women, employed or not, and its definition as a 'wage compensation' may suggest that the scheme recognizes that all women work and deserve to be supported during pregnancy and childbirth. However, a closer examination leaves little room for this view: there is no explicit reference to women's unpaid work burden; it neither has specific provisions to reduce their unpaid work load or its drudgery, nor to distribute it either to the State or to other members of the household. In fact, the conditions imposed diminish its reach to the women who need it the most – the poor, the marginalized and the geographically remote (Sinha et al., 2016). Field studies (Falcao, 2015, p. 27) as well as studies based on secondary data (Lingam and Yellamachili, 2011) of IGMSY show huge exclusions especially of vulnerable sections of women.

Interestingly, maternity benefits based on conditional cash transfers do not appear to reduce women's work – paid, unpaid, under paid or care work. In IGMSY pilot districts, maternity benefits were never seen as compensation to allow a woman to rest, nurse and rear her baby but were instead spent on food, medicines and household expenses. Also, the beneficiaries did agricultural work till the time of delivery and resumed work within a month of delivery. Other beneficiaries who stayed home began doing household work including strenuous work such as fetching water and firewood within 7 to 30 days of delivery. For rural women pregnancy makes little change to the kind and amount of work that they must perform. Some blamed their mothers-in-law but most women simply had nobody to share their house work. This is a telling comment on women's inferior status, resilience of gender norms pertaining to the gender division of labor and the absence of support structures to reduce women's work, which MBA as much as IGMSY/MBP appear powerless to tackle (see Mander, 2017; Sinha et al., 2016).

Budget Tracking (IGMSY): Outlay and Outcome—National and Study States

An amount of Rs 2,700 crore has been allocated in the 2017-18 Union Budget to MBP for an estimated 53 lakh beneficiaries. This is purported to meet 60 per cent of the MBP's budget, with states expected to find the remaining 40 per cent. As this allocation was found to be insufficient to reach all eligible women with up to two children, eligibility was restricted to one child.

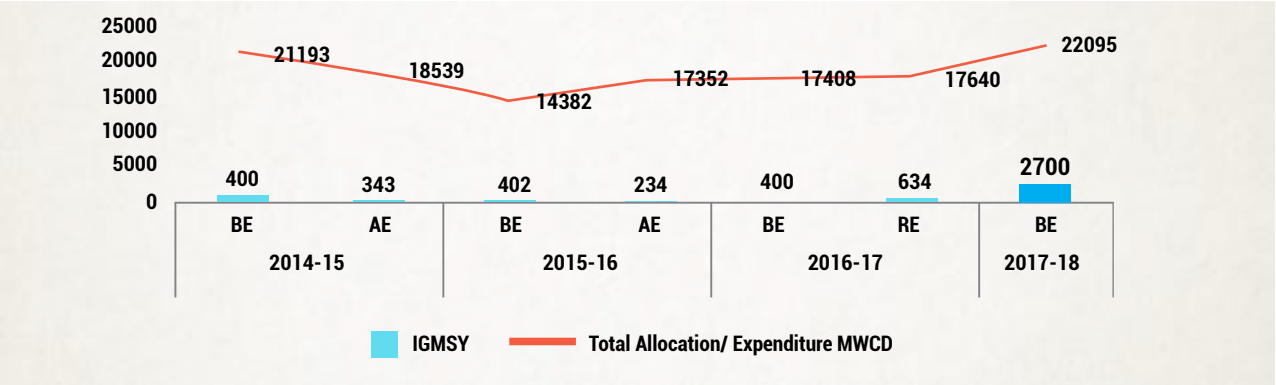
Trends show that AE fell short of the budgeted provisions even when the entire bill was footed by the Government of India. Compared to the BE of around Rs 400 crore in 2014-15 and 2015-16, AE was Rs 343 crore and Rs 233 crore respectively. Only in 2016-17 did AE (Rs 634 crore) exceed BE (Rs 400 crore) *(Figure 4.6; Appendix VI)*. With the states now having to fund part of the expenditure, implementation especially in the poorer states is likely to suffer further. MWCD budget utilization data for 2013-14 shows that only 28 per cent of targeted women at the national level had been covered since 2010 while other studies report delays in payment of up to two years.

No funds have been released so far to the states under MBP and the guidelines for this are yet to be released; the figures shown here pertain to IGMSY. Maharashtra, with two districts of Bhandara and Amravati under the pilot phase of IGMSY, spent Rs 27 crore in 2014-15; allocations for 2015-16 rose to Rs 30 crore , before falling drastically to Rs 5 crore in 2016-17 *(Figure 4.7; Appendix VI)*. There were around 50,000 beneficiary women in 2014-15, 62,000 in 2015-16 and 59,000 (up to December) in 2016-17.

Telangana, with only district Nalgonda covered, spent a little less than Rs 14 crore in 2014-15; the budget allocation for 2015-16 was Rs 30 crore with 74,925 expected beneficiaries (http://wdcw.tg.nic.in/scheme_IGMSY.html#). Telangana is apparently giving around Rs 15,000 as maternity benefits in four installments to BPL women with institutional deliveries at a total cost of Rs 500 crore (Balakrishna, 2017). In Uttarakhand, with only Dehradun being covered, the expenditure on the scheme was around Rs 5 crore in 2014-15, the latest year for which data is available. However, the MWCD's annual report shows that Rs 11 crore was released in 2015-16 of which Rs 3 crore was utilized.

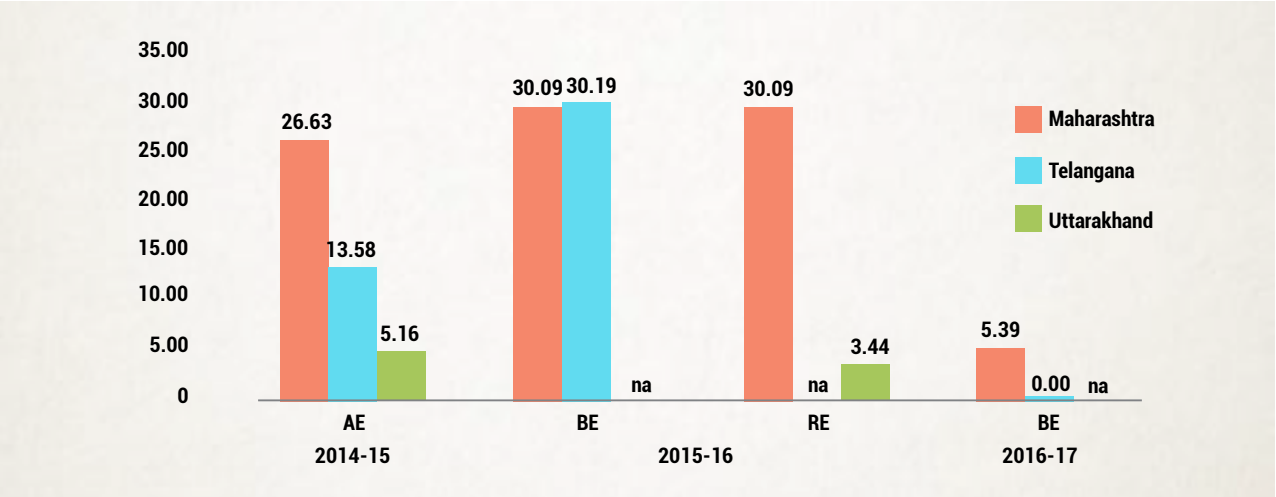
Based on IGMSY's experience, combined with a narrowed eligibility criteria, MBP is likely to suffer from low coverage. The arbitrary period of coverage and inadequate and discriminatory compensation are also problematic. As partial wage compensation, the benefit of Rs 6,000 is totally out of line with prevailing wage rates.

Figure 4.6. **Central Budget Allocation/Expenditure on IGMSY/MBP & Total Budget of the MWCD 2014-15 to 2017-18 (Rs. crore)**



Source: Expenditure Budget 2016-17 & 2017-18: Ministry of Women and Child Development, Government of India. www. Indiabudget.nic.in; accessed on 4 April 2017.

Figure 4.7. **IGMSY - Budget Allocation/Expenditure 2014-15 to 2016-17: Study States (Rs. crore)**



Source: Allocation/Expenditure: Demand for Funds Department of WCD - 2016-17, Maharashtra, Telangana & Uttarakhand - figures refer to Central Funds utilized from Annual Report MWCD, GoI 2016-17.

Recommendations:

General

>> Universal coverage under maternity benefits is a real and urgent need in India (GoI, 2013c; Lingam and Kanchi, 2013; http:/www.righttofoodcampaign.in). All women deserve maternity benefits; the employed, regardless of the kind of work they do or the kind of establishment they work in, are entitled under labor rights. For them, fresh ways of funding and delivering maternity benefits that do not disadvantage women in the labor market need to be explored; those who are not employed merit it on account of the unpaid–SNA and care work that they do. A conditional cash transfer program for maternity benefits is an oxymoron and alternatives need to be explored.

>> The recommendations of the Shram Shakti report (1988) offer an alternative ways of financing maternity benefits for informal sector employees by creating a maternity fund to which all employers as well as the State would contribute. ESIC and PPF are other models that can be considered.

>> Limits on the number of children as an eligibility condition is punitive and needs to be abandoned as women have little control over their bodies or reproductive decisions. Further such limits may have a potential impact on the sex ratio.

>> In order to redistribute the childcare burden to men, interventions for maternity benefits need to involve fathers as well. Most interventions including MBA and MBP put the onus of childcare entirely on the woman.

>> Improvements in data collection, implementation, monitoring and the redressal system and most important of all, an understanding of women's unpaid work, are also required to make the current maternity benefit system an effective tool for gender equality.

Specific to MBA

>> Childcare arrangements need to be flexible. For instance, women in large Indian cities may find it impracticable to carry babies to their place of work due to the length of the commute and/or crowded means of transport, preferring institutions closer home.

>> MBA must recognize the other elements of care that a child needs besides breast feeding and extend the same benefits to adoptive and commissioning mothers as is done to normal mothers.

>> Paternity leave needs to be a part of the maternity benefit package. A combination of maternity and paternity leave has been successfully used in the developed world and in Latin America to promote sharing of childcare. Paternity leave also serves, to some extent, as an antidote to the negative effect of maternity benefits on women's employment.

Specific to MBP

i. Evidence based modification of the period of coverage and the amount of compensation (wage-linked) is required.

ii. Quality of service in government hospitals needs to be improved drastically if institutional deliveries are to be encouraged.

iii. Geographical and procedural barriers such as difficult physical access to anganwadi centers (AWCs) in hilly areas; shortage of essential supplies, infrastructure and staff; and delays in payment must be removed. These issues which are beyond the control of women prevent fulfillment of scheme conditionalities and thereby deny women their entitlements.

iv. Fathers need to be involved in the fulfilment of MBP's conditions. Training in childcare and nutrition must involve both parents equally.

4.4.3: The Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS): Anganwadis and Care Delivery

ICDS, recognized as the world's largest community based outreach program for early child development, is today the most important program of the Ministry of Women and Child Development (MWCD), Government of India. Its coverage is universal and self-selecting (GoI, n.d. d): all children below 6 years and all pregnant and lactating women are eligible with no restricting conditions. It offers a package of six services – supplementary nutrition, pre-school non-formal education for 3 to 6-year olds, nutrition and health education for mothers, immunization, health check-up and referral services, delivered on site at the anganwadi centers (AWCs). The last three services are provided by the Ministry/Department of Health and Family Welfare through the National Rural Health Mission (NRHM) and the public health network. Aadhaar has been made compulsory for availing supplementary nutrition. The current norm is one AWC for a population of 400 to 800 and thereafter one for every 800 persons. A mini-AWC can be set up in areas where the population is between 150 to 400 persons; also, any habitation with at least 40 children can demand an anganwadi as a matter of right. In addition, AWCs are also being built under the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (MGNREGS).

The programs are implemented by anganwadi workers – local women trained for four months, assisted by an anganwadi helper (AWH). Thus, the AWC links children and women with the primary healthcare and elementary education systems and represents the last mile connectivity of almost all the child and maternal care schemes. Also provided is a protective environment for young children including care and protection of young and adolescent girls. The AWC is open every day for four hours in the morning though working hours vary across states.

ICDS has witnessed unparalleled expansion over the last three decades, especially since 2005

(GoI, 2011a; 2011). The central government is strengthening and restructuring ICDS since 2012 with the objective of repositioning the AWC as crèche cum ECCE center, to become the first village outpost for health, nutrition and early learning. The reforms include implementing ICDS in a mission mode, construction of premises, strengthening the package of services, training, capacity building and management information systems and planning.

Anganwadis and Unpaid Work

An AWC contributes significantly in the care of lactating mothers and children up to 6 years through its nutrition, supplementary nutrition and immunization components and pre-school sessions in a protective environment for the duration of a child's stay in the AWC. ICDS lists five objectives of which four pertain to child development and one to mothers, that is, enhancing mothers' capabilities, through education to look after a child's normal health and nutritional needs. The objectives thus place the onus of childcare squarely on the woman, while at the same time ignoring her care work burden or the impact that it has on her.

For the four hours that an AWC is open, it functions as a crèche cum education center and a safe place for children and adolescent girls. In particular, pre-school sessions for 3 to 6 year-old children and the newly introduced ECCE program for those younger than 3 years, take children off the hands of their mothers and thus transfer part of the care burden to the public domain. Supplementary nutrition and immunization could potentially improve children's health and thus reduce women's time spent on caring for sick children. The extent to which AWCs provide relief to mothers depends on the coverage of children in need and the ability of AWCs to retain them in the system.

AWCs limited working hours is a problem, especially for working women. That they are ill-equipped to take care of the children is another: nearly 0.12 crore AWCs function from rented premises, from community buildings, temples and so on; most are also poorly equipped to accommodate children and educate them. A study by the Government of Maharashtra revealed that 46 per cent of the AWCs surveyed lacked a usable toilet facility, half did not have a separate kitchen and one-fourth depended on hand-pumps as the main source of drinking water. Requisite medicines were found missing in 56 per cent of the AWCs and an equal proportion were found to have inadequate basic education facilities (Singh, 2017).

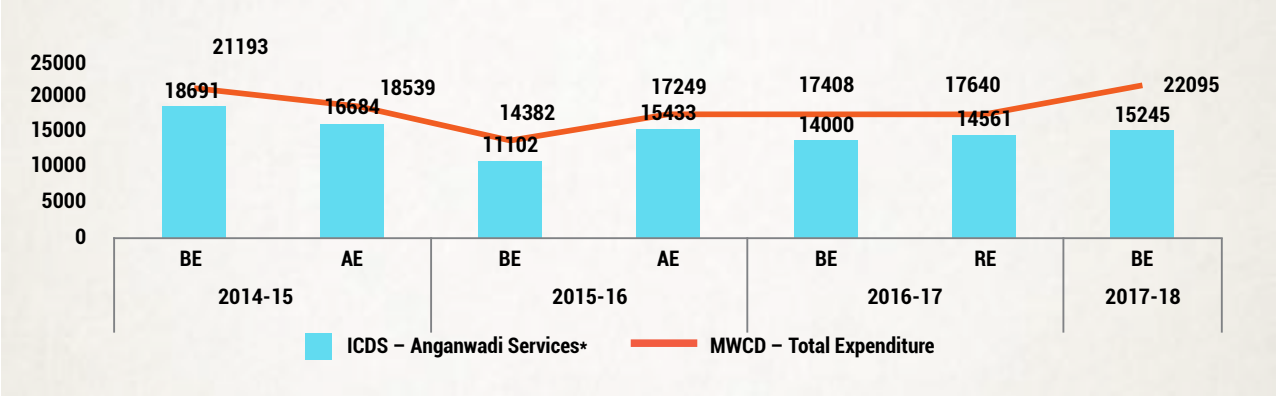
Another contentious issue related to women's care burden is the exclusive recruitment of women as AWWs/AWHs and the low payments made to these critical workers despite the varied responsibilities imposed on them and the level of skills required to fulfill their remit. AWWs are a mere 3,000 per month and AWHs are even less at 1,500 per month,supplemented to varying extents by the state governments. The recent offer by the center of maternity leave of 180 days, insurance cover and scholarship benefits makes for poor compensation in comparison to the salary and other entitlements of government employees. This is one more effect of the State's perception of care as an overwhelmingly feminine obligation and as something 'natural' to women and therefore not deserving either of recognition or of fair wages.

Budget Tracking: Outlay and Outcome: National and Study States

From a fully centrally funded program, ICDS has transformed into one with funding shared between the center and the states. Between 2010 and 2016, their relative shares were 90:10 in general ICDS with equal shares in the supplementary nutrition program (SNP). In 2016, this was changed to 60:40 for general ICDS and 50:50 for SNP. For the North Eastern states, the respective shares are 90:10 and in union territories without legislature ICDS is fully funded by the center.

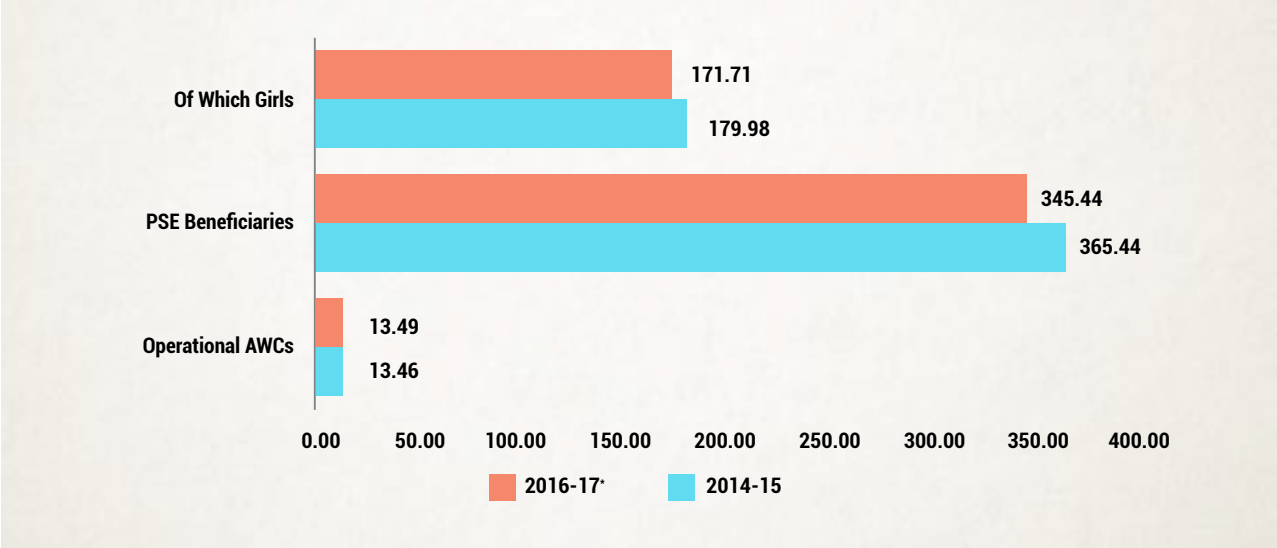
The BE and AE on ICDS – core as well as umbrella programs – have been declining over the last three years. Central BE on core ICDS, which constitutes the bulk of the MWCD budget, was Rs 18,691 crore in 2014-15. This declined to Rs 11,102 crore in 2015-16 and further to Rs 14,000 crore in 2016-17. The current budget (2017-18) however has stepped up the allocations to Rs 15,245 crore *(See Figure 4.8; Appendix VII)*. As a proportion of the total MWCD budget, ICDS allocation declined from 88 per cent in 2014-15 to 77 per cent in 2015-16 and to 69 per cent in 2017-18 although it had increased temporarily to 80 per cent in 2016-17. Its AE has also been falling *(Figure 4.9)*. If ICDS is to function as the ECCE center-cum-crèche as visualized under its restructuring program, more funds are clearly required. The Report of the Working Group on Child Rights (XII Five-year Plan) estimated an annual resource requirement of Rs 1,000 crore for the ECCE

Figure 4.8. **Central Allocation & Expenditure on ICDS Compared to Total MWCD Budget: 2014-15 to 2017-18 (Rs. crore)**



Source: MWCD Annual Report (2016-17).

Figure 4.9. **India: Operational AWCs & PSE Beneficiaries by Gender (lakhs) 2014-15 & 2016-17**



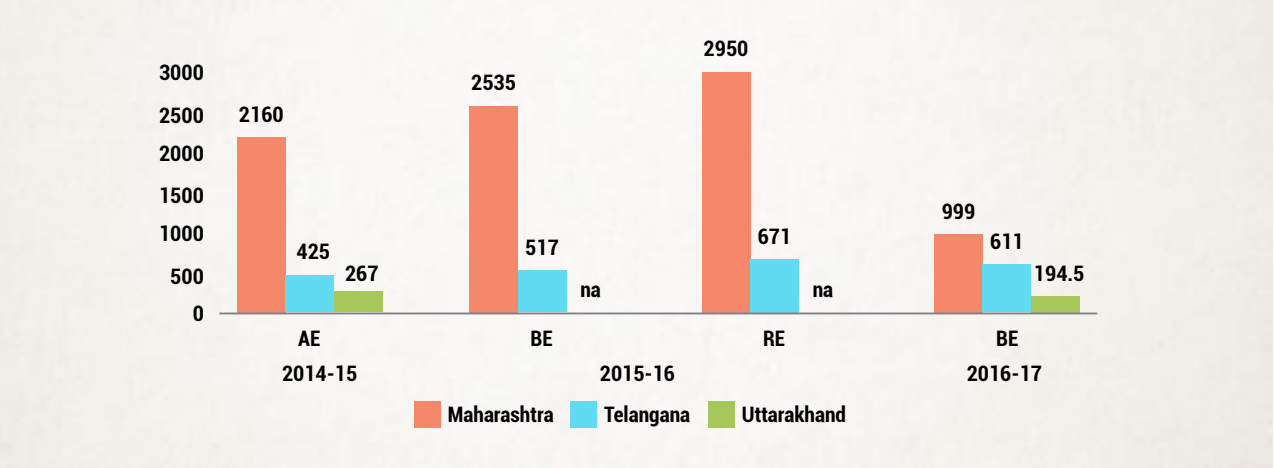
Note: *As of December 2016.
Source: MWCD Annual Report (2016-17).

segment alone; for all programs under the ICDS umbrella, the fund requirement is pitched to be over Rs 55,000 crore compared to the budget allocation of around Rs 15,000 crore.

As of 2014-15, there were 13.46 lakh operational AWCs providing pre-school education (PSE) to 365 lakh children of whom 180 lakh or around 49.25 per cent were girls. Two years later, although the number of operational AWCs had increased marginally by around 3,000, children in PSE declined by 5 per cent *(Figure 4.9; Appendix VII)*.

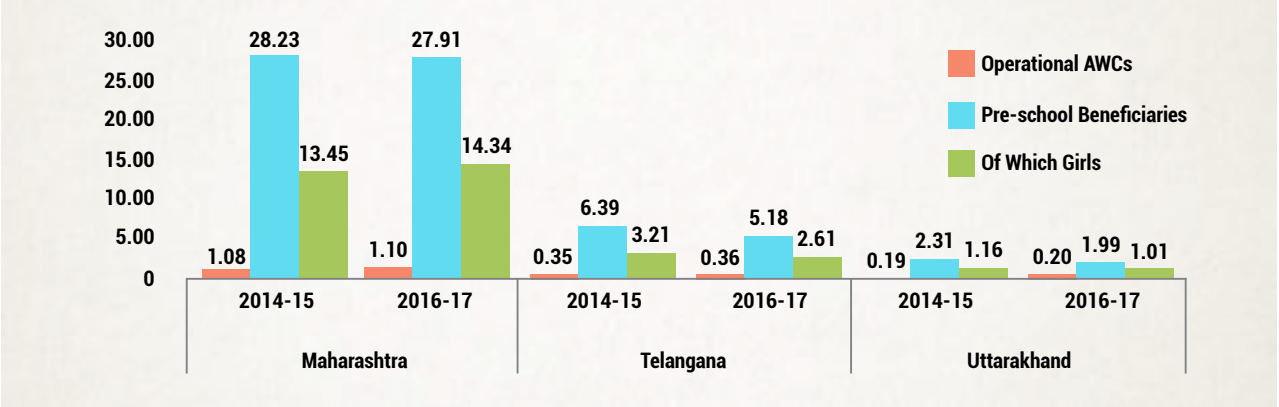
In 2014-15, Maharashtra's expenditure amounted to Rs 2,160 crore which increased to Rs 2,950 crore (RE) in 2015-16, but declined drastically to Rs 999 crore in 2016-17 (up to December.) As against an expenditure of Rs 425 crore in 2014-15, Telangana allocated Rs 671 crore (RE) in 2015-16 and Rs 611 crore in 2016-17 but only Rs 0.99 crore in 2017-18. Uttarakhand spent Rs 267 crore in 2014-15 but the central funds released in 2016-17 were almost halved to Rs 194 crore *(Figure 4.10)*. Given the population-based norms for setting up AWCs, it is not surprising that as of December 2016-17, Maharashtra had the highest number of AWCs (1.10 lakh) and Uttarakhand the smallest number (20,000) among the study states. In line with the situation at the national level, these three states showed a marginal increase in the number of AWCs accompanied by declines in PSE beneficiaries between 2014-15 and 2016-17 *(Figure 4.11; Appendix VII)*.

Figure 4.10. **Budget Provision & Outlay on ICDS 2014-15 to 2016-17: Study States (Rs. crore)**



Source: Demand for Grants, Maharashtra, Telangana and Uttarakhand (various years).

Figure 4.11. **Operational AWCs, Beneficiaries of PSE in Study States: 2014-15 & 2016-17 (lakhs)**



Source: Annexure XII, MWCD Annual Report 2016-17.

4.4.4: Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE)

The State is the largest provider of ECCE services in India through the network of AWCs under ICDS and crèches under the Rajiv Gandhi National Crèche Scheme (RGNCS). However, the focus on pre-school education in AWCs has so far been limited to children between 3 and 6 years. In this scenario, the National ECCE Policy of 2013 is an effort to extend early care and education to children below three years and to bring all such institutional providers (public, private and NGOs) on to a single platform (GoI, 2015 , p. 27). The policy vision is 'to achieve holistic development and active learning capacity of all children below 6 years of age by promoting free, universal, inclusive, equitable, joyful and contextualized opportunities for laying foundation and attaining full potential' (GoI, 2013a, p. 8). The uneven quality and coverage of ECCE through multiple providers and inadequate institutional capacity in the system, combined with the absence of standards, regulatory norms and mechanisms were identified as the major problem areas to be addressed through reforms and corrective action through this policy.

Public provision of ECCE aims at universal access, primarily through ICDS' AWCs supplemented by the NGO sector. The AWC cum creche is being repositioned 'as a vibrant and child-friendly ECD Centre' (GoI, 2013a, p. 11) with a full range of services including care, a planned early stimulation component, health, nutrition and an interactive environment for children below 3 years to be developed, piloted and scaled up in response to community needs. ECCE centers are to be located within 500 meters of a habitation and area/town planning rules are to be amended where necessary to provide more space for centers in urban slums. Disaggregated child budgeting exercises will help

assess the adequacy of the investments and identify gaps. This policy is also the government's commitment to increase aggregate spending on quality ECCE interventions although no norms per child or floor are mentioned.

The ECCE Policy and Unpaid Work

The primary aim of the ECCE policy is the care and education of pre-school children rather than the redistribution of women's childcare burden. The policy document emphasizes the importance and major role that parents and families play in caring for young children (pp. 2, 8), justifying public provision of ECCE as a 'supportive measure' for families in an environment of diversity and stratification. The document also speaks of 'including inputs from fathers, mothers and other caregivers…' (p.2) and of informing and educating 'parents and family members…about good child care practices...' (p.19). However, the generalized use of 'parents' and 'family' without a discussion of gender roles in childcare in the Indian context invisibilizes women's and girls' roles. Opportunities for including provisions for relief and support tailored to women are thus lost. One such is the failure to recognize the childcare support that working women require beyond the hours that children will stay in an AWC. Further, no concrete action for dissemination of information on child education to mothers and fathers or training sessions are envisaged in the policy, thus rendering the concerns cited earlier a mere token.

The policy document discusses neither the gender balance nor the remuneration for ECCE staff, particularly in the private sector. It also does not recognize the effect that this added responsibility will have on the work burden of 'volunteer' AWWs/ AWHs and/or care deficiency in AWW families. Further, the demands of ECCE duties and the increase in official responsibilities are likely to require significant skill acquisition/upgradation and fair remuneration packages for the overworked AWWs and AWHs. ECCE centers are not yet functioning as requisite preparations are still underway; ECCE cells are being set up, curricula in the state languages being prepared and submitted to the central government for approval and so on (GoI, n.d.d).

4.4.5: The Rajiv Gandhi National Crèche Scheme (RGNCS) (revised 2006, 2016)

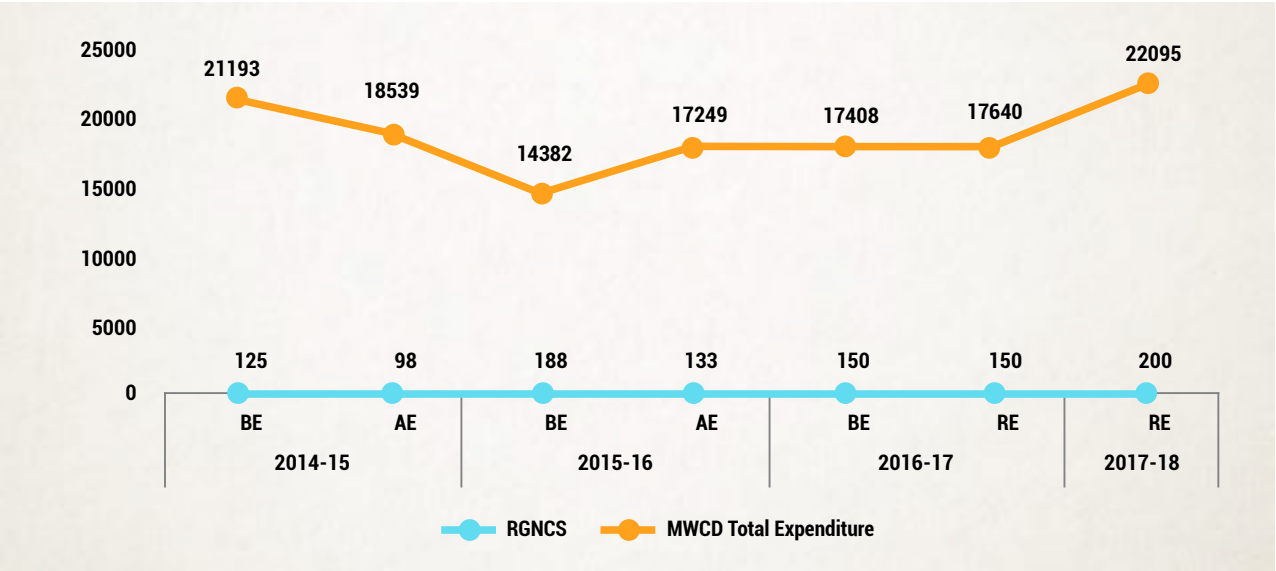
RGNCS (GoI, n.d. g) is a pan-India, centrally funded scheme under MWCD with the responsibility of its effective implementation entrusted to the Central Social Welfare Board (CSWB) along with two other nodal agencies, the Indian Council for Child Welfare (ICCW) and the Bhartiya Adim Jati Sewak Sangh (BAJSS). Each of these agencies is to act as the mother NGO, delegating the actual running of the crèches to NGOs including corporate agencies. The changes introduced in 2016 include increased recurring grant incorporating an honorarium for two workers per crèche and directives for improved monitoring including the introduction of mobile or web-based monitoring on a pilot basis. Priority is to be given to new crèches in 87 uncovered districts. Concurrent with these positive steps, the 2016 version has also introduced conditions that severely restrict eligibility. Aadhaar is now mandatory for enrolling under RGNCS.

The crèches provide sleeping facilities, healthcare, weekly supplementary nutrition and immunization. Each crèche accommodates 25 children and is open for eight hours from 9.00 am to 5.00 pm (revised to 7 1/2 hours). Poor children and children with special nutritional needs are given preference. User charges of Rs 20 per month per child for BPL and Rs 60 per month for non-BPL families are levied. The guidelines also specify norms for physical infrastructure and equipment, service delivery, training of personnel, review and monitoring. Implementing agencies and crèche workers are required to maintain links with primary and sub-primary health centers and tie up with anganwadis for immunization.

RGNCS and Unpaid Work

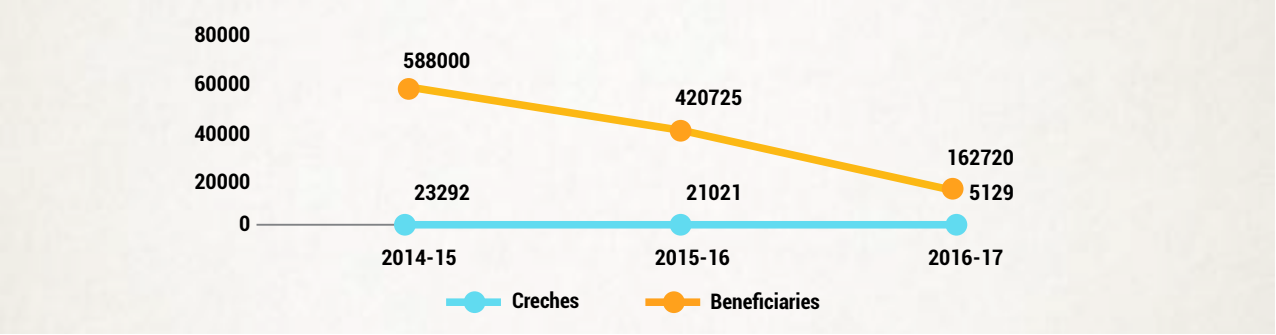
RGNCS guidelines justify investments in crèches in terms of growth of employed women, urbanization, migration and the changing family system. The earlier (2006) version admitted that crèches and daycare facilities, 'are not only required by working mothers but also women belonging to poor families, who require support and relief from childcare as they struggle to cope with burden of activities, within and outside the home' (GoI, n.d. g, p. 1). However, this recognition of women's childcare burden has been lost over time. As of 1 January 2016 (revised norms), crèches are open only to children aged 6 months up

Figure 4.12. **RGNCS: Central Allocation/Expenditure & Total Budget of MWCD: 2014-15 to 2017-18 (Rs. crore)**



Source: Demand for Funds - MWCD, GoI 2017-18.

Figure 4.13. **RGNCS: Crèches & Beneficiaries 2014-15 to 2016-17 (number)**



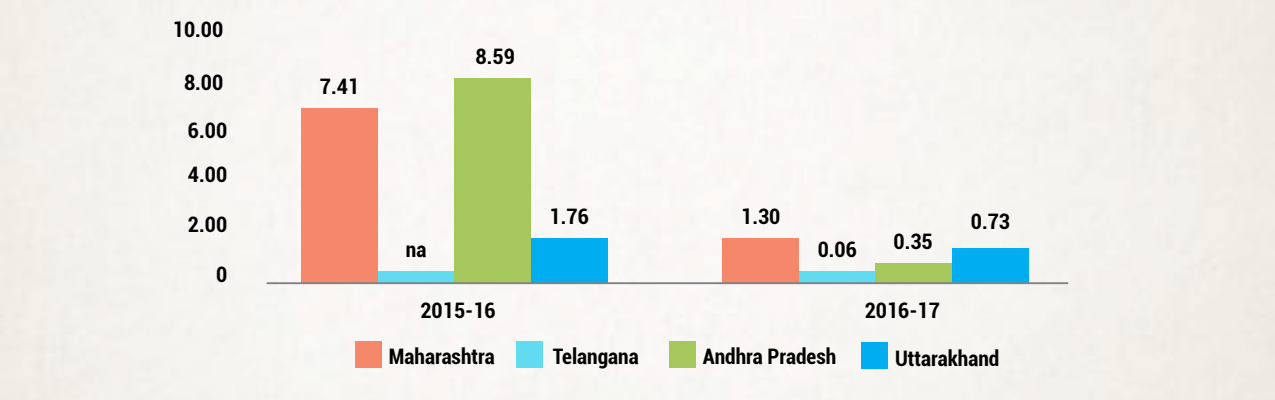
Source: MWCD Annual Reports - 2014-15, 2015-16 and 2016-17.

to 6 years (40 per cent of the places reserved for children aged 3 years or less) of working women, employed for a minimum of 15 days a month or six months in a year. Under the earlier version facilities were open to 'children aged 0 to 6 years of working mothers and other deserving women belonging to families whose monthly income is not more than Rs. 12000' (GoI, n.d. d). Current conditions restrict the number of women who can avail of the public facility and serve as a justification for the low allocations. Working hours of the crèches is another factor that generally inhibits use. To overcome this limitation, the revised scheme has shortened the hours from 8 to 7 1/2 but allows some flexibility in opening and closing timings. It also permits extension through extra payment for additional time at reasonable rates by agreement with the crèche functionary. Swaminathan (n.d.) notes several problems related to the functioning of creches: inadequate funding, lack of guidelines, training and supervision.

Budget Tracking: Outlay and Outcome: National and Study States

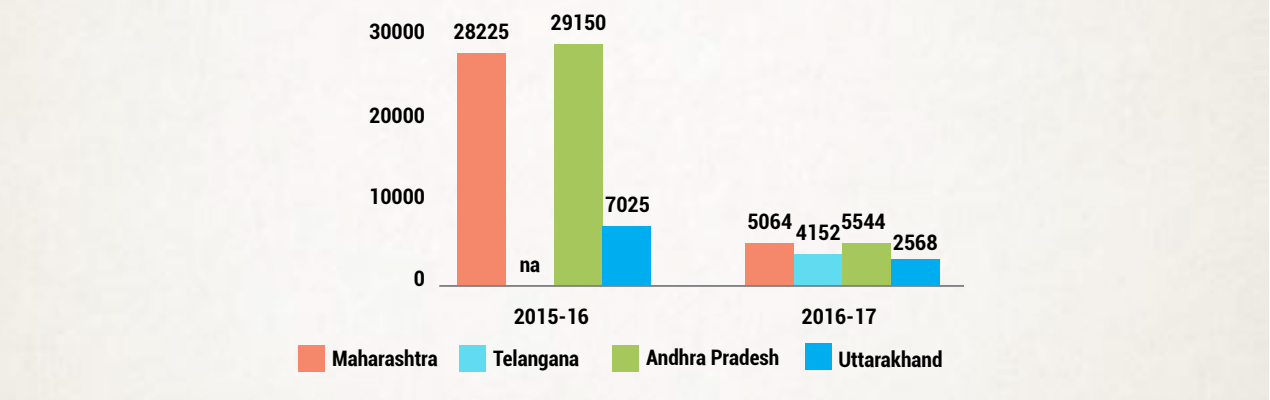
Budget provisions for RGNCS have remained consistently below 1 per cent of the MWCD budget – 0.6 per cent to 0.91 per cent between 2014-15 and 2017-18. Functioning crèches and beneficiaries have in fact declined *(Figure 4.12 and 4.13; Appendix VIII).* As of December 2016, there were only 5,129 functional crèches in the country, a steep fall from 21,021 creches just one year earlier. By 2016-17, 4,056 ICCW crèches that were under RGNCS in 2015-16 had disappeared. No explanation is given for this but a note in the Annual Report (2016-17) hints at one possible reason: 'no funds were released in 2016-17 to ICCW during 2016-17 for want of documentary proof in r/o all the crèches' (GoI, n.d.f, p. 62). However, this provides only a partial explanation since ICCW is responsible only for around 20 per cent of the crèches. Crèches

Figure 4.14. **Central Funds Released for RGNCS 2015-16 & 2016-17 (Rs cr)**



Source: Annual Report, MWCD (2016-17, pp.254, 256).

Figure 4.15. **RGNCS: Beneficiaries in Study States 2015-16 to 2016-17**



Source: Annual Report, MWCD (2016-17, pp.254, 256).

run by the Central Social Welfare Board (CSWB), the major mother NGO including those taken over from the Bhartiya Adim Jati Sewak Sangh (BAJSS) also dropped precipitously from 16,853 to 5,129.

The decline in beneficiaries from 6 lakh to 1.6 lakh in the same period has been even sharper. How much of the problem is due to the restriction of demand via narrowing of the eligibility conditions and how much due to supply related factors can only be revealed by a detailed study. The slight increase in beneficiaries per crèche from 25 in 2014-15 to 32 in 2016-17 was utterly inadequate to compensate for the fall in the number of crèches. This model based on a partnership with NGOs and the private sector does not appear to be working well.

The macro scenario is replicated at the meso level: there has been a precipitous decline in funding in all the three regions: from Rs 7.41 crore in 2015-16 to Rs 1.3 crore in 2015-16; in the case of Uttarakhand the decline was from Rs 1.76 crore to Rs. 0.73 crore *(Figure 4.14; Appendix VIII)*. A corresponding decline in beneficiaries can be seen where in Maharashtra, the number of those benefiting from RGNCS dropped from over 28,000 in 2015-16 to 5,000 in 2016-17 and from 7,000 to 2,600 in Uttarakhand. In 2016-17, there were 4,152 beneficiaries in Telangana *(Figure 4.15; Appendix VIII)*. These high annual variations signal a rather casual attitude of the government towards this scheme. With its narrow eligibility criteria, miniscule funding and high variations in the number of crèches, RGNCS in its current avatar provides little relief for poorer working women.

Recommendations

>> Redefine the role of childcare policy and institutions particularly in the public sector from the perspective of women's unpaid work dynamics.

>> Universalize access to public childcare institutions. Although AWCs offer access to all, certain social groups such as migrants are often kept out. In the case of RGNCS, women who are not employed must be allowed to enroll. Access is also a matter of location – these services must be located in a place that is easily accessible to a majority of the clientele.

>> Supplement redistribution of childcare to the State with measures to encourage participation of men in childcare. Training of parents in children's nutritional and other needs envisaged in the policy must actively involve fathers and mothers. The ECCE policy as well as the two childcare schemes place the onus of childcare solely on women – mothers and the largely female AWWs and AWHs.

>> Transform AWCs to function as full-time crèches as well as early education centers with flexibility in timings like RGNCS to accommodate working women's special requirements.

>> Equip and upgrade AWCs to improve the quality of care and thus retain children: own premises, safe drinking water, functioning toilets, kitchens, safe play areas and medical and basic educational supplies are minimum requirements.

>> Recognize AWWs and AWHs not just as regular employees also for the unpaid work that they do in their households and the community. As employees, they merit decent work conditions and as unpaid workers they require support to relieve time stress and fill the care deficiencies in their own households.

>> Initiate/encourage research on the impact of the job on the well-being of AWWs/AWHs and their households based on TUS. Build in gender sensitization of childcare personnel delivering ECCE both in the government and private sectors.

>> With regard to RGNCS, clearly redefine its role and pay serious attention to the functioning of the public-private partnership pattern.

4.5: Interventions Specific to Agricultural Workers

4.5.1: National Policy on Farmers 2007 (NPF 2007)

NPF 2007 (GoI, 2007c), the extant policy document of the Indian government on the agricultural sector is significant for the change in focus that it introduced: first, progress in agriculture was redefined as the economic well-being of farmers rather than in terms of agricultural production; second, it mainstreamed gender within the policy.

It adopts a very broad definition of the farmer to include all agricultural operational holders, cultivators, agricultural laborers, sharecroppers, tenants, poultry and livestock rearers, fishers, beekeepers, gardeners, pastoralists, non-corporate planters and planting laborers, as well as persons engaged in various farming related occupations such as sericulture, vermiculture, and agro-forestry (see GoI, 2007c p.4). Although the definition of the farmer avoids mentioning women, in pursuance of its goal of gender mainstreaming, the NPF recognizes the role of women as producers, workers and input users and makes specific recommendations for women farmers under every aspect of farming that it considers. In January 2016, the Agricultural Ministry informed the Supreme Court that a panel would be set up to re-examine the policy for farmers (Correspondent, 2016). The panel is awaited.

NPF and Unpaid Work

Although NPF 2007 is by far the most gender sensitive agricultural policy to date, its perspective on women's unpaid work is somewhat limited. It does not contain any explicit articulation or discussion on the unpaid work that women do or about the need to reduce the drudgery or time stress involved in this work. However, many of the National Commission on Farmers' recommendations are informed by women's unpaid SNA work and care work traceable mainly to the extensive notes containing gender inputs submitted by a sub-committee set up by the National Commission of Women (NCW) (2008). The following recommendations are in recognition of women's role in agriculture particularly their status as unpaid workers: joint pattas for agricultural land and homestead; kisan credit cards for women; involvement of women in access and management of water; setting up of community bio-diversity registers; development of seed villages; and

training to fisher-women. Their care burden and the impact it has on their livelihood is recognized by recommending public provisioning of support services like crèches, childcare centers, nutrition, health and training.

Recommendations:

>> Integrate women's unpaid work and its implications within the gender perspective in future agriculture/farmer policies. This will help make the plans and programs/schemes more nuanced towards women's roles, needs, capabilities and time use and thus more in line with ground realities. For instance, extension and training as also community activities such as seed villages and water management can be designed so that women's time stress does not increase. Similarly, support services such as childcare or women friendly equipment should consider gender sensitization and participation of men as part of information dissemination and advocacy.

>> Extend maternity benefits and other social security measures such as unemployment insurance to women in the agriculture sector. This has acquired greater significance in view of the increasing incidence of farmer suicides in the country.

>> Implement measures for the protection of common property resources such as water bodies and pastures from degradation or acquisition as women are increasingly forced to spend more time and effort to fetch free goods such as water, fodder, firewood, food and medicines, customarily sourced from such areas.

4.5.2: The Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act 2005 (MNREGA)

The most well-known workfare program in the world and held up as a best practice for its Rights-based and women friendly design, MGNREGA aims at enhancing livelihood security of people in rural areas by guaranteeing a minimum 100 days of wage employment in a financial year to every rural household whose adult members volunteer to do unskilled manual work. Employment is to be provided within 15 days of the registration of the demand failing which the State is obligated to pay an unemployment allowance (GoI, 2016d). It has been hailed as a gender sensitive program because of its many women-friendly provisions including reservation of one-third of the jobs and seats in the administrative bodies for women; preference given to single and physically challenged women; application of the Equal Remuneration Act, 1976; wage rates fixed with respect to gender capabilities; and direct payment of wages to women rather than to their spouses.

MGNREGA and Unpaid Work

There is no explicit recognition or articulation of women's unpaid work burden or the impact of their unpaid responsibilities on their participation in paid work, health, care deficiency and related issues either in the act or in the operational guidelines. The latter merely talks about 'empowerment of socially disadvantaged, especially women' (GoI, 2013b, p. 3) as a goal. Nevertheless, included in the list of gender-friendly provisions mandated under the act are several entitlements that have direct relevance to women's unpaid work burden:

i. Provision of employment within 5 km of residence or within the block with payment of transportation and living expenses; flexible work hours not extending beyond 12 hours per day.

ii. Work site facilities of safe drinking water, shade for children and periods of rest, first-aid box with adequate material for emergency treatment for minor injuries and other health hazards connected with the work being performed.

iii. Deputation of a woman worker on site to take care of children below the age of 6 years, provided there are at least five or more women workers. The most marginalized in the locality, women in exploitative conditions or bonded labor or those vulnerable to being trafficked or liberated manual scavengers are to be given preference for providing childcare services.

iv. Creation of productive assets of prescribed quality and durability under the scheme to strengthen livelihood resources of the poor and ensure inclusion. Assets include public works that promote natural resource management (reforestation and desilting of water bodies), individual assets such as household latrines for vulnerable sections and community assets such as school/anganwadi toilets.

The provision of work close to the habitation makes the scheme particularly attractive for women easing the transition between paid work and unpaid work by cutting commuting time and enabling women to combine household, childcare and/or unpaid farm work with paid work on MGNREGS sites. The crèche facility serves to distribute childcare responsibilities between the woman and the State. In addition, the operational guidelines attempt to reduce drudgery for pregnant and lactating women by directing that they should also be treated as a special category and, '(s)pecial works which require less effort and are close to their house should be identified and implemented for them' (GoI, 2013b, p. 79). In this context, one of the serious lapses in MGNREGA is the absence of any provision for maternity leave. Chhattisgarh is the only state that has introduced maternity leave for MGNREGS workers (Reporter, The Pioneer, 2014).

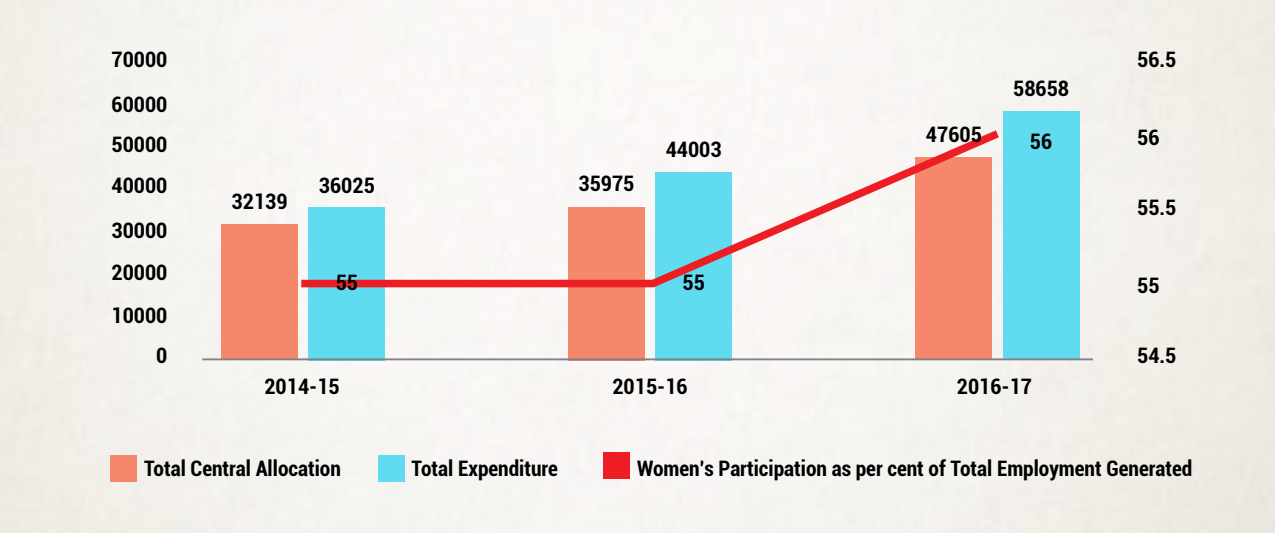
Works involving natural resource management such as deepening of ponds or preventive works against erosion, reforestation, rain-water conservation and so on can be expected to significantly reduce women's unpaid work by decreasing the time and effort spent on and the drudgery involved in fetching water, firewood and other free goods. On this issue, Kelkar (2011) observes that women's role in planning assets under MGNREGA or conducting social audits of the implementation is not visible. A survey of states (CSE, 2008) reveals that auditing processes have been mostly focused on issues such as registration of families, checking muster rolls for preventing forgeries, timely payment of wages and payment of unemployment allowances and not women-related or asset-related issues. It is likely therefore that assets that fulfill women's needs are not given priority. Holmes et al., (2011) argue for 'public works activities to reduce women's time poverty, such as: improving fuel-wood and water collection sources, or, more broadly, addressing discriminatory access to common property resources and sources of drinking water for SC/ST women; healthcare, nutrition and literacy/ skills programmes; improving market access and infrastructure for women; and supporting investments and training in other agricultural activities' (p.4). However, implementational drawbacks inhibit the potential impact of many of these provisions on women's care work and in practice drinking water appears to be the only facility available on most sites with first aid, shade for periods of rest and most importantly crèches reported to be largely absent (Kelkar, 2011).

A study based on a survey of crèche facilities and childcare practices of working women in Viluppuram district in Tamil Nadu, one of the better performing states, on the sidelines of a social audit of MGNREGA (Narayanan, 2008), found that childcare was a significant problem for many of the women workers, particularly for mothers of children below the age of 3 years. Around 65 per cent of the respondents were unaware of their entitlement to childcare facilities; 70 per cent found none at the worksite and of the remaining 30 per cent, many were unsure if the 'shed' at the worksite was really meant to be a crèche. Only a few worksites were seen to have some arrangement, with one or two elderly women taking care of the children brought to the worksite. So, while they worked on the MGNREGS sites, 19 per cent had their children with them at the worksite; half had left their children at home; 12 per cent had left them at the balwadi or anganwadi and around 11 per cent had left them in school. Most of the children on site were either left in the shade nearby or kept near the spot where the mother was working. One child was found following the mother around. The children who were not breast fed ate what the mother did – 'simply rice, sometimes cooked the previous day' (p. 11), some with sambar while others ate koozhu, a kind of porridge.

More critically, Narayanan's study indicates that women were in general dissuaded from bringing children along to the worksite, some by being turned away, some having to take a cut in their wages and others by being harassed by co-workers or the supervisor. Half the women who reported harassment linked it to childcare. Women thus had no choice but to leave their children at home with relatives, neighbors, older children or even alone. Women with children 3 years or older did not appear to have difficulties – they were sent to the anganwadi or school. This may have only been possible because Tamil Nadu is a state with well-functioning anganwadis and schools.

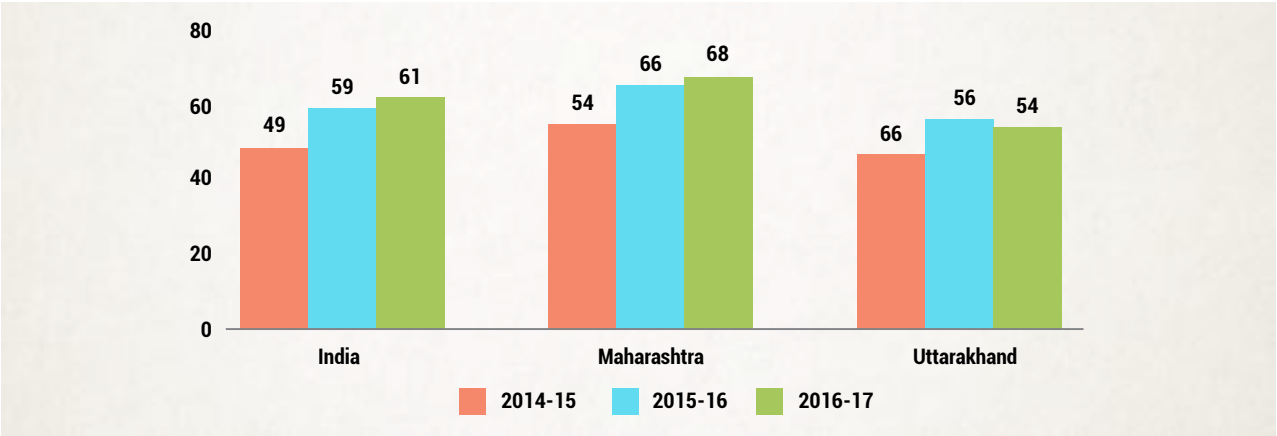
Perversely, the major problem was the condition of a required minimum number of children on site for availing childcare facilities; women were not likely to bring their children unless childcare facilities were available at the worksites in the first place. Narayanan (2008) suggests that the provision should be amended – a crèche to be provided if at least five children are present or at least five workers (male or female) demand one.

Figure 4.16. **MGNREGS: Central Allocation & Expenditure (Rs. crore) & Per cent Participation of Women 2014-15 to 2016-17**



Source: http://mnregaweb4.nic.in/netnrega/all_lvl_details_dashboard_new.aspx (accessed on 6 May 2017).

Figure 4.17. **MGNREGS: Per cent of Natural Resource Management Works (NRM) in Total Works 2014-15 to 2016-17**



Source: http://mnregaweb4.nic.in/netnrega/all_lvl_details_dashboard_new.aspx.

Budget Tracking: Outlay and Outcome: National and Study States

Between 2014-15 and 2016-17 total central allocation to MGNREGS increased from Rs 32,139 crore to Rs 47,605 crore, more or less consistently at a rate of 22 per cent per year. Expenditure increased faster from Rs 36,025 crore in 2014-15 to Rs 58,658 crore in 2016-17, growing at nearly 28 per cent *(Figure 4.16; Appendix IX)*. As of 5 May 2017, Rs 12,873 crore had been released for 2017-18 (http://nrega.nic.in, 2017).

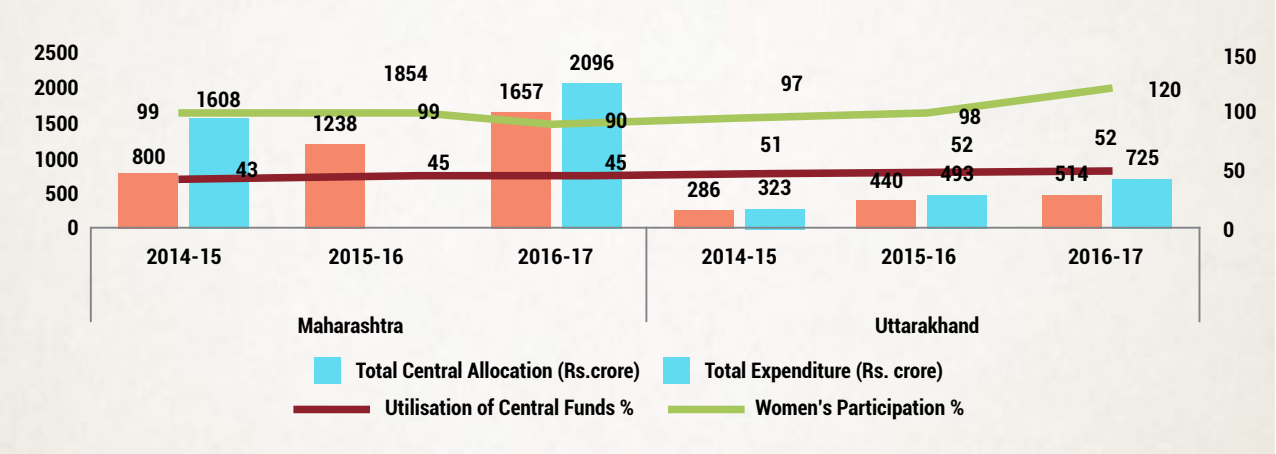
During this period, many states suffered a drought, creating a demand for jobs under MGNREGS. At the all-India level jobs provided under the scheme increased from a little over 4 crore to 5 crore between 2014-15 and 2016-17. Person days generated rose sharply from 166 crore in 2014-15 to 235 crore in 2016-17 fulfilling 75 per cent, 98 per cent and 107 per cent of the annual targets. Women's participation remained constant, hovering between 55 and 56 per cent in these three years. The scheme performed best in 2016-17 when it breached 100 per cent utilization of funds. Of special relevance here is the importance given to natural resource management (NRM) works *(Figure 4.17; Appendix IX)* and the addition that the scheme will make to the stock of AWCs and individual household latrines (IHHLs): a target of building 4 lakh AWCs up to 2019

(GoI, 2016c, p. 5) and 33 lakh IHHLs in 2016-17 (GoI, 2016d, p. 8) in convergence with the respective ministries.

The sharing of funds between the centre and the states is in the ratio of 90:10. State governments have some room to customize the program to their context while abiding by the basic minimum as laid out by the MGNREG Act and guidelines. For example, 140 types of works are permissible under the scheme and each state can select works that suit local needs. At the national level, works related to agriculture and allied activities with focus on water conservation have been given priority with states required to spend at least 60 per cent of MGNREGS funds on such works. Building of IHHLs and AWCs is also being given priority. Consequently, what needs to be analyzed is not only budgetary allocations and expenditure, but also the study states' choice of these care related works.

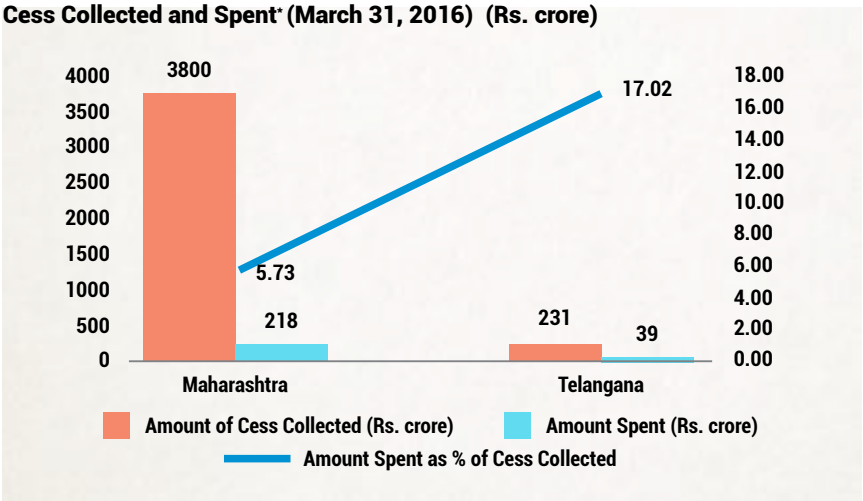
Maharashtra spent increasing amounts over the last three years: Rs 1,608 crore in 2014-15, Rs 1,854 crore in 2015-16 and Rs 2,096 crore in 2016-17, substantially more than the central allocations, reflecting the significant contribution of the state. Utilization of central funds was high at 99 per cent in two of the three years. Participation of women as a proportion of total employment (person days) was at a modest 45 per cent stayed throughout the

Figure 4.18. **MGNREGS: Central Allocation & Expenditure (Rs.crore) Utilisation & Women's Participation in Study States (%)**



Source: http://mnregaweb4.nic.in/netnrega/all_lvl_details_dashboard_new.aspx.

Figure 4.19. **Building & Other Construction Workers Welfare Cess Act: Cess Collected and Spent* (March 31, 2016) (Rs. crore)**



Note: *Provisional.
Source: http://pib.nic.in/newsite/mbErel.aspx?relid=147333.

period which is lower than the all-India average and lower than corresponding figures for Uttarakhand, though much higher than the mandated 33 per cent *(Figure 4.18; Appendix IX)*.

Maharashtra was permitted to give more than 100 days of employment to households in a year in view of the drought like situation in much of the last three years; it provided employment to about 12 to 14 lakh households, generating between 6.1 crore (2014-15) and 7.6 crore (2015-16) person days with a slight decline to 7 crore person days in 2016-17. However, while the average days of work per household increased from 53 (2014-15) to 60 (2015-16), the fall has been the steepest in the last financial year to a low of 49 days. NRM focused on water conservation works like wells, farm ponds, bunding and desilting in addition to drought proofing with afforestation, road side plantations, vermicomposting pits and building of IHHLs (GoI, 2016d). These works went up steadily from 54 per cent of total works in 2014-15 to around 66 per cent in 2015-16 to 68 per cent in 2016-17. Sericulture and horticulture are also being encouraged as alternatives to crop cultivation *(Figure 4.19; Appendix IX)*.

Uttarakhand has a low outlay, with its contribution being only marginally higher than the mandated 10 per cent. However, outlays have been growing steadily from Rs 323 crore in 2014-15 to Rs 725 crore in 2016-17. Also, at between 97 and 120 per cent, the utilization of central funds was consistently high. Women's share in employment created was around 51 per cent (Figure 4.18). However, employment provided was rather abysmal, the maximum being 43 person days in 2015-16; total employment generation ranged from 1.5 crore to 2.4 crore person days (http://nrega.nic.in as on May 7, 2017). In the current year, the state is prioritizing IHHLs, farm ponds, anganwadi centers, vermicomposting tanks and roadside plantations (GoI, 2016d). NRM works as a proportion of total works was somewhat low in Uttarakhand, ranging between 46 and 56 per cent *(Figure 4.17)*.

Recommendations

>> Increase efforts and improve arrangements for dissemination of information on entitlements such as creche facilities especially to women.

>> Improve implementation of creches on site. Eligibility conditions need to be made more attractive for women. Alternative arrangements for childcare can also be explored including care of children in one of the laborer's home with payment of wage to the carers; mobile creches; and ideally, well run AWCs which also function as creches. Alternatively make available better facilities such as sheds or portable tents for use as creches.

>> Ensure participation of women in asset planning and in social audits especially of the natural resource assets created.

>> Initiate/encourage impact assessment of natural resource assets created through time based studies.

>> Include maternity benefits as an entitlement.

4.6: Interventions Specific to Construction Workers

4.6.1: The Building and Other Construction Workers (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Act 1996 and Rules (1998)

The Building and Other Construction Workers Act (BOCWA) came into force on 1 March 1996. The objective of the act and the rules based on it, is to regulate employment and conditions of service of building and other construction workers and to provide for their safety, health and welfare measures and other related matters (GoI, 1996a). The provisions and welfare functions mandated are administered by the Building and Other Construction Workers Welfare Board (BOCWWB) constituted by each state government which also frames the rules, under the supervision of Central and State Advisory and Expert Committees. At least one member of the board has to be a woman. Each state BOCWWB constitutes a welfare fund, to initiate welfare schemes funded by member subscriptions, collection of cess under the Building and Other Construction Workers Welfare Cess Act (1996) (GoI, 1996b), grants and loans from the central government and other permitted sources.

Workers between 18 and 60 years engaged in any building or other construction work for at least 90 days in the past year are eligible for registration as

beneficiaries of BOCWWB. He/she is required to contribute a sum prescribed by the state government every month, which they may also authorize the employer to deduct from their wages and remit it within a fortnight.

A worker ceases to be a beneficiary in two situations –

- On attainment of 60 years of age or when not engaged in building and construction activity for 90 or more days in a year. However, a person registered as a worker for at least three years continuously before attaining 60 years is eligible for the benefits.

- When the registered worker fails to pay the prescribed contribution to the Welfare Board/ Fund for a continuous period of not less than one year.

Every registered worker is given an identity card with her/his photograph affixed, with the employer being obliged to enter the details of work done. The central act and rules and state acts and rules prescribe in detail the various provisions for the safety, health and welfare of the workers with the responsibility being divided between the employer and the board with the state having the role of funder (central government) and overseer (state government) enabling and monitoring implementation.

Besides complying with the state government's rules regarding working hours, wages, overtime, compensation, maintenance of registers, safety and health measures an employer is obligated to provide specific facilities including the following:

1) Drinking water
2) Toilet facilities
3) Accommodation
4) Crèches
5) First aid

The benefits from the board are:

1) Accident assistance
2) Pension to those who have completed the age of 60 years
3) Loans and advances for house construction
4) Contribution towards premia for a group insurance scheme
5) Financial assistance for children's education
6) Medical expenses for treatment of major ailments of beneficiary/specified dependent
7) Payment of maternity benefits to female beneficiaries
8) Other welfare measures and facilities

The board is also allowed to grant a loan or subsidy to a local authority or an employer in aid of any scheme approved by the state government for purposes connected with the welfare of building workers and their family members within the limits set by the act.

BOCWA and Unpaid Work

Even a quick perusal of the act reveals that a worker for whom the provisions have been defined is principally male. Provisions for women appear to be more in the nature of an after-thought. There is no recognition of the existing segregation of tasks between men and women in the industry or the wage discrimination that follows from such a segregation. Similarly, there is no sexual harassment and grievance redressal mechanism in the act.

Of the provisions listed in the act, two have a direct connect to women's unpaid care work:

i. Crèches. Crèches for children under 6 years are to be provided by the employer wherever a minimum of 50 female workers are employed. Minimum standards are specified including that the rooms should (a) provide adequate accommodation; (b) be adequately lighted and ventilated; (c) be maintained in a clean and sanitary condition; and (d) be under the charge of women trained in the care of children and infants.

The number of women required to be eligible for a crèche is very high on two counts: first, the minimum number of workers required for an establishment to be eligible is limited to ten. Yet 50 women workers are required for providing a crèche facility. Second, it is much higher than required by other acts pertaining to other workers – in the Factories Act, for example, 20 women are sufficient for the provision of a crèche. Considering conditions and safety pertaining to construction sites, the minimum number of women ought to be much lower. In fact, childcare provision is merited even if there is only one child on site. Specification of a minimum number of women workers as a precondition for provision of a facility usually encourages employers to avoid their responsibilities with impunity in various ways such as hiring one female worker less than the minimum

number; refusing to hire women with children; and harassing women with children so that they avoid bringing them to work. Alternate ways of childcare provision and ways of making employers comply with them without jeopardizing recruitment of women need to be explored. The recommendation of the Shram Shakti Report mentioned earlier needs to be seriously examined.

ii. Maternity benefits. Maternity benefits are envisaged as a monetary payment to be made to women workers, spouses of workers and daughters of workers.

The act lists maternity benefits clearly referring only to a monetary compensation as one of the benefits to be provided by the board/fund. The act does not elucidate on this matter; it does not specify a formula, eligibility or the terms and conditions determining the payment. Nor does it talk about the leave component, guarantee of employment, medical expenses, hazardous jobs or nursing breaks all of which go together in making up the concept of maternity benefits.

As of 31 December 2014, a total of 2.15 crore construction workers were registered across the country with these boards estimated to be no more than 25 per cent of the total workers in the industry (Dubbudu, 2016), primarily due to a combination of factors including lack of awareness amongst workers, their migratory nature, lack of drive on the part of the board to recruit workers, the predominance of petty contractors and sub-contractors as employers and the lackadaisical attitude of state governments. Further expenditure on welfare by the boards has been dismal: as of 31 March 2016, the expenditure amounted to Rs 5,685 crore or 21 per cent of the total cess collected of Rs 26,962 crore. Bigger states such as Maharashtra are found to be especially poor performers both with respect to registration of workers and expenditure on their welfare *(Figure 4.19; Appendix X)*.

4.6.2: The Maharashtra Building and Other Construction Workers' Welfare Board (MBCWWB)

MBCWWB was constituted in May 2011 (CAG, 2015), 11 years after the enactment of the central act. The Maharashtra Building and Other Construction Workers (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Rules, 2007 were notified in February 2011. The constitution and appointment of the Advisory Committee (June 2012) and the Expert Committee (March 2013) were also tardy. In 2010, the state government started levying a 1 per cent cess on the construction cost of projects costing more than Rs 10 lakh.

MBCWWB gives 16 types of benefits under as many schemes for education, disability, medical treatment and death of registered workers, their spouses and children (https://mahakamgar.maharashtra.gov.in). Educational assistance is available to a worker's spouse and up to two children; medical assistance, in most cases covers the worker. Assistance on the death of a worker is given to the legal heir or to the widow/widower (Appendix X). Maternity benefits of Rs 10,000 for normal and Rs 15,000 for Cesarean delivery are available to a registered worker or the wife of a registered worker.

For its size and level of activity, Maharashtra has only 3.3 lakh registered construction workers. The CAG Report (2015) criticizes every possible aspect of the functioning of the state board: delay in the constitution of committees; tardy establishment of a mechanism for linking the government with local bodies and prospective employers; low registration of establishments and beneficiaries; non-issue of identity cards to beneficiaries; and delayed or no assessment, collection and remittance of cess as well as disbursement of benefits. The expenditure incurred by the board on welfare schemes was Rs 218 crore as against the total receipt of Rs 3,800 crore, or around 6 per cent till 31 March 2016 *(Figure 4.19)*.

CAG's (2015) scrutiny of MCOBWWB's accounts revealed that the maternity benefit scheme was riddled by disbursement to non-registered workers, lack of documentary records and delay in payments ranging from '22 days to nine months from the date of receipt of applications, thereby depriving the beneficiaries of timely assistance.' The other difficulties that it highlighted are lack of awareness of the fund amongst workers; the complexity of the registration process which inhibits workers from joining the board; lack of portability from one district to another; and diversion of labor cess to other uses. The Bombay High Court was forced to direct the Maharashtra government not to divert labor cess for any other purpose other than for construction workers' welfare (CAG, 2015). The system also makes it difficult for seasonal and migrant laborers to register and to avail of benefits.

4.6.3: The Telangana Building and Other Construction Workers Welfare Board (TBOCWWB)

The first TBOCWWB was constituted on 17 September 2014 (vide G.O.Ms.No.6 of LET & F (Labor) Dept., Ts, Dt.17-09-2014). Before this, the board had been in existence as the Andhra Pradesh Building and Other Construction Workers Welfare Board (APBOCWWB) since April 2007, which had 20 lakh workers registered under it. The official site of the Telangana board lists 54 categories of construction workers who are entitled to the benefits. The site also gives detailed information regarding benefits under the act (Appendix X), the conditions and procedures for registration and renewal, procedure for application for benefits under the various schemes and the process for sanction of benefits. The Telangana government levies a cess on construction establishments at 1 per cent of the cost of construction.

The board has two women specific schemes: 1) the Marriage Gift Scheme which offers financial assistance of Rs 20,000 on marriage to an unmarried woman registered worker and to two daughters of a registered worker, and 2) the Maternity Benefit Scheme, which offers financial assistance of Rs 20,000 to a woman registered worker, the wife of a male registered worker and to two daughters of either a male or female registered worker, limited to two deliveries each.

The Telangana board offers more than Maharashtra (Rs 20,000) in terms of maternity benefits. However, as in the case of Maharashtra in Telangana also the maternity scheme is merely a cash benefit. TBOCWWB has been criticized for not having any representatives of workers and therefore ignorant of the issues faced by workers (Rajita, 2016). Further, contractors who hire workers are short on resources and are also corrupt. Added to this is the fact that most workers are migrants.

Recommendations

>> Expand coverage and reach of welfare measures under COBWWBs. Special efforts must be made to increase awareness about the boards and the welfare schemes/benefits available through them. Procedures for registration, application for and collection of benefits need to be simplified. Portability is important for benefits to reach the footloose labor in this industry. NGOs can contribute significantly to this process through advocacy by creating awareness of entitlements as well mobilizing registrations; helping workers complete procedures; giving feedback to government functionaries at all levels; and participating in the planning and designing of schemes.

>> Actively encourage workers to bring children to creches on site. The offer of creche facility should not be dictated by the number of women workers or children on site. Where the viability of offering a creche on site is in question, alternative arrangements such as mobile creches need to be explored.

>> Redefine maternity benefits to go beyond monetary compensation to include other constituents such as leave, including for a miscarriage, illness connected to childbirth, protection from dismissal during pregnancy and childbirth, exemption from hazardous tasks during a pregnancy and nursing breaks. The boards also need to lay down unambiguous terms and conditions for availing such benefits and avoiding inclusion and exclusion errors.

4.7. Policy Recommendations

This chapter reviewed four laws, four policy documents and ten schemes through the unpaid work lens. It also tracked central and state budget allocations as part of the exercise. Budgetary allocations of both the center and the states for the programs and schemes reviewed have largely remained inelastic and unresponsive to the growing population on the one hand and income inequalities on the other. In most cases these allocations declined during the study period. Summarized here are the salient policy recommendations emerging from an assessment of selected interventions by sectors and constituencies.

Energy. The complete lack of gender and unpaid work perspectives in both the renewable energy policy (SPNRE) and the three household fuel supply schemes, PAHAL, PMUY and DBTL/K not only make them ill-equipped to reduce women's work burden and drudgery but also impede the fulfillment of their aim of shifting the country to cleaner energy. Recommendations, apart from the obvious

need to incorporate gender and unpaid work perspectives into policy and interventions include making available time saving appliances such as smokeless stoves with support to households for buying, repairing and replacing them; extending extra connectivity support to LPG consumers in hilly and inaccessible places; linking subsidies to LPG/kerosene prices; and increasing the supply of kerosene to poor households regardless of whether or not they are registered LPG consumers.

Water. In contrast to energy, the water policy and the national rural program for supplying drinking water (NRDWP) explicitly recognize the links between water and women's work burden and have embedded features that promote reduction of unpaid work burden and drudgery such as 24X7, easily accessible water outlets and water quality norms. The problem here is one of slippages in service delivery in terms of both quantum and quality as well as of course allocations. Thus, the most urgent need is to improve delivery arrangements to achieve sustained coverage and expedite attainment of targets. The other major change required is rejuvenating community participation with active roles for women in water management with processes suitably designed to avoid additional demands on women's time.

Care. Like the childcare interventions, the Maternity Benefit Act (MBA) and Program (MBP) are both gender specific and address women's role as care givers but they suffer from limitations that prevent them from impacting women's unpaid care work. The limit on the number of children for eligibility and other conditions need to be scrapped for maternity benefits, which are an entitlement under the National Food Security Act, to reach women in need. Ways of involving fathers in childcare such as paternity leave and training also need to be introduced. Universalization of maternity benefits is the need of the hour. Public provision of childcare - the Early Care and Child Education Policy (ECCE) and institutions such as anganwadi centers (AWCs) and creches under the Rajiv Gandhi National Creche Scheme (RGNCS) also persist in putting the onus of childcare squarely on women by not providing for the participation of fathers. Upgradation of physical facilities including educational supplies, sensitization and training of staff and working hours tailored to women's needs are only some of the operational reforms required to increase retention of children and reduce women's work burden. An anganwadi worker and her helper also deserve recognition as government employees (rather than volunteers) and the administration of their rights.

Agricultural workers. Awareness about women's unpaid work and its implications need to be incorporated in the new agricultural policy since a majority of the female unpaid workers are in agriculture. All future design and execution of interventions that involve women in agriculture such as community management of water, extension and training must figure in their unpaid work burden.

Two measures that will make the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Gandhi Act and Scheme (MGNREGA/S) more unpaid work compliant are better dissemination of information on entitlements, inclusion of provision for maternity benefits and drastic improvements in the childcare provisions that will encourage women to use it.

Construction workers. The Building and Other Construction Workers Welfare Act (BOCWW) Act which lays down the entitlements of workers and the state boards that implement them implicitly defines the worker as male. The two provisions for women – maternity benefits and creche provision suffer from many limitations that prevent women from benefitting despite the huge financial resources of the boards. Procedures for registration and application/collection of benefits need to be eased taking into account the marginal status of such workers who are mostly migrants and often illiterate. Maternity benefits must be expanded to include other standard features of such measures such as protection from dismissal, linking compensation with wage, protection from hazardous tasks, medical aid and providing nursing breaks. Eligibility criteria for creche provision need to be made more flexible.

In general, government programs, especially those targeting the poor, require the following measures to serve as effective vehicles for recognizing, reducing and redistributing women's unpaid work:

- Sensitization of government cadres to gender and unpaid work issues.
- Support to access digital processes in view of the low literacy levels in the country.
- Creation of awareness amongst men, including government functionaries, regarding women's work burden and its implications.

5 CAPTURING THE GENDERED WORK CONTINUUM

5.1: Introduction

This field-based research is based on the conceptualization of the fundamentals of paid and unpaid work which includes care and the continuum between the two which also relates at least partially to work that is underpaid. The gendered continuum, which comprises of these four elements, is a departure from perceiving each aspect in isolation. The focus of this research therefore is on the distribution of time spent on the various and detailed activities as identified in the household questionnaire that was used for the field-based research. The time distribution method captures the multiplicity and simultaneity of women's work, while at the same time examining activity distribution rather than the mere duration of the work. It is for this reason that the research formulated the gendered activity participation ratio (GAPR) and the gendered time burden range (GTBR). GAPR calculates the extent of gendered engagement in a given activity – economic as well as extra-economic. GTBR estimates the minimum and maximum time spent by men and women on each activity and sub-activity in all the categories of paid and unpaid work including care. Additionally, such an approach reveals and brings to the fore the intensity of work which is often determined by the gender-based division of labor.

Further, an understanding of work extends beyond the gender divide and hence the analysis relates to all forms of unpaid work for both women and men. This field-based research also gives special emphasis to the most vulnerable of the marginalized groups – female-headed households. Consequently, it does the analysis at two levels – all households and female-headed households. Findings under each activity for both sets of households are intertwined where necessary and separated where essential to highlight similarities and differences. In addition, the focus of this research is specifically on those who are marginalized in terms of economic and extra-economic factors; in this sense, the research is clearly partisan. The major social groups that were interviewed are Scheduled Castes (SCs), Other Backward Castes (OBCs), Minorities, Scheduled Tribes (STs), Nomadic Tribes (NTs) and Particularly Vulnerable Tribal Groups (PVTGs).

Consequently, the data is not 'presented' but analyzed in the context of women and men in relation to the nature of their labor and livelihoods which are focalized around their work and time burden and located within the state of poverty and marginalization that they subsist in, connecting to both the causes and effects of well-being and ill-being.

The essence of this chapter is centered around the results of the primary field survey conducted through the canvassing of 1,560 questionnaires at the household level: 402 in Solapur, 393 in Pithoragarh, 373 in Hyderabad and 392 in Thane. Of these, 259 were specifically female-headed households divided almost equally in the four survey areas.

The household questionnaire was canvassed over seven months from May 2016 to November 2016 to average out lean and peak seasons. Before the finalization of the questionnaire its draft was circulated among all field partners and enumerators for suggestions; pilot surveys were also conducted and training workshops held as were repeated visits for monitoring data collection. The final survey was

conducted in several challenging circumstances including a drought, floods and landslides *(see Appendix XI: Household questionnaire)*. Purely quantitative data does not capture all the nuances and subtleties of the reality and so the 'results' of the case studies, focused group discussions, interviews with key informants and personal field observations are integrated at all levels.

This is divided into seven major sections, some of them containing several sub-sections. Section 5.2 gives a brief account of how the data that was collected was studied and what kind of gaps exists. Sections 5.3 to 5.6 cover the major findings. Section 5.3 is a crucial precursor to understanding the 'study findings': it focuses on the demographics of all the households in the context of their concrete developmental realities and lays the ground for understanding both the issues of work burden and time poverty located within and determined by macroeconomic policies. Section 5.4 deals with the time distribution pattern of all households in terms of the time spent on economic activities, associated economic activities and time spent on water, energy and care. Further, the time spent on each activity is nuanced to take into consideration and highlight the roles and contribution of women {primary respondent female (PRF) and other females (OFs)} and men (secondary respondent male (SRM) and other males (OMs)) of the household for each group of activities. Section 5.5 compares the pattern of time distribution across activities of general and female-headed households while Section 5.6 discusses the activity participation ratios in both general and female-headed households. Section 5.7 gives a conclusion. It should be noted that there is no predictable summary of the so-called major findings as the crucial takeaways must be perceived in the context of a theoretical and empirical understanding based on the integration of secondary and primary analyses.

The study areas selected for the primary field investigation are:

Maharashtra: for Construction Workers –

- Ramabai Nagar, Ward 37, Ulhasnagar Taluka, Thane District
- Shailesh Nagar and Uday Nagar, Ward 56, Mumbra Taluka, Thane District

Telangana: for Construction Workers –

- Karmika Nagar, Ward 102, Yousufguda, Circle 10, Khairatabad Mandal, Hyderabad District
- Mudfort Basti, Mallapur Ward 3 Cantonment area, Secunderabad, Tirumalagiri Mandal, Hyderabad District

Maharashtra: for Agriculture Workers –

- Dongargaon village in Sangola (Sangole) Taluka, Solapur District
- Sonand village in Sangola (Sangole) Taluka, Solapur District

Uttarakhand: for Agriculture Workers –

- Toli village in Dharchula block, Pithoragarh District
- Kimkhola village in Dharchula block, Pithoragarh District
- Baluwakot village in Dharchula block, Pithoragarh District

(for more details see Appendix XII: Selection of villages/wards).

5.2: Data Interpretation and Gaps

Two clarifications are essential before proceeding with the analysis – the issue of data gaps and how to perceive the quantitative results. There are several data gaps that had to be contended with; these do not detract from the main findings, but need to be identified for purposes of clarity of quantification in. One, several households in rural Solapur did not report their caste affiliations because community identification is a political issue at several levels, especially among Scheduled Castes who sometimes consider themselves Buddhists. Two, as the household questionnaire was canvassed by ground-level activists, a few blanks remained in aspects such as whether the house was *kutcha* or *pucca.* Three, not all respondents gave information under the categories of 'other females' and 'other males' partly because they were unavailable in spite of repeated visits or they found it difficult to demarcate the work as most work was done jointly and sometimes even collectively.

The second issue is how to interpret the quantitative results. One, the analysis of time disbursed is described in terms of average hours per week. An average week is taken to mean seven full days without holidays and any 'off'. This was calculated in the statistical package R and in Excel. It is important to note that in keeping with the accepted norms at the international and national levels, the numbers reported for hours of time expended on

any activity as well as the average time spent have to be interpreted as follows:

0.25 would mean 15 minutes
0.50 would mean 30 minutes
0.75 would mean 45 minutes

Thus, for instance, if the time disbursed on any activity is 8.25, it should be read as 8 hours and 15 minutes. Likewise, if the time expended is 8.13, it should be interpreted as 8 hours and less than 15 minutes.

An analysis of the time distributed is described in average hours per week in the case of all households and was undertaken for those activities where the number of respondents exceeds 5 per cent of the sample (a minimum of 20 respondents and above) and for female-headed households only where the number of respondents was greater than 7 per cent of the sample of FHHs (a minimum of 5 respondents *{see Table 5.1(a)}*.

Additionally, while the details of the range of time spent by respondents on an activity is captured under min-max in the tables in Appendix XIV, several crucial ranges have been integrated into the analysis. Min means the least value or the minimum amount of time spent on an activity and max refers to the highest value or the maximum amount of time spent on an activity.

Besides, a comparative assessment of economic activities in Solapur and Pithoragarh (for agriculture) and Hyderabad and Thane (for construction) was also undertaken. For all other activities, a joint comparative analysis for all regions together was carried out to bring out the locational and geographical differences that can influence the pattern of time spent on different activities. For this, contrasting geographical terrains were deliberately chosen for their differential impact on women's work, both paid and unpaid. Plains generally reflected more visibility of women's work, while regions that are forested and hilly tended to relatively de-visibilize women's contribution to the family's well-being. This analysis is obviously conducted separately for females and males to understand gender differences and similarities in time disbursement patterns. For purposes of readability, all detailed tables are appended ***(****see Appendix XIV: Time Distribution Patterns of Solapur, Pithoragarh, Hyderabad, Thane (General and Female-headed Households))*, with only the essential ones being discussed in the text.

5.3: Demographics and Development

A total of 2,861 respondents were interviewed from a total of 1,560 households (HH) including from 259 female-headed households (FHH); one of the major decisions taken before canvassing was that at least 60 households per area must necessarily be female headed. One PRF from each household was interviewed along with the SRM, except in the case of almost all FHHs. To capture the sharing and distribution of unpaid work between and within families, OFs and OMs were also interviewed.

The basic sample profile along with the demographic characteristics are presented in Tables 5.1(a) and 5.1(b). The levels of illiteracy emerge as a major factor across gender, particularly and surprisingly more in urban than in rural areas. Predictably, FHHs reported significantly lower levels of literacy

Table 5.1(a) **Basic Sample Profile of Field Sites**

	SOLAPUR	PITHORAGARH	HYDERABAD	THANE
Sample Size (HH)	402	393	373	392
No. of FHHs	61	66	61	71
5% of Sample	20.1	19.7	18.7	19.6
No. of HH Involved in Agriculture/ Construction	398	302	373	392
Landed HHs	284 (70.6)	323 (82.2)	NAP	NAP
Landless HHs	110 (27.4)	25 (6.3)	NAP	NAP
Landed + Landless	394 (98)	348 (88.5)	NAP	NAP
Land Ownership Not Specified	8 (2)	45 (11.5)	NAP	NAP
Registered Workers	NAP	NAP	19	13

Note: Figures in parentheses refer to percentage of households. The percentages and number of households may not add up to 100 per cent and the sample size respectively given the lack of response from respondents.
NA: Not Applicable.

Table 5.1(b) **Basic Sample Profile of Field Sites**

		SOLAPUR		PITHORAGARH		HYDERABAD		THANE	
		General	FHHs	General	FHHs	General	FHHs	General	FHHs
1.	**Illiteracy**								
	Females	210 (52.2)	41(66.13)	148(37.7)	44(66.6)	327(87.7)	56(91.8)	311(79.3)	55(78.6)
	Males	99 (24.6)	0 (0)	41(10.4)	1(1.5)	233(62.5)	10((16.4)	170(43.4)	1(1.4)

	MGNREGS/BOCWA	MGNREGS								BOCWA							
		Single	Joint	Single	Joint	Single	Joint	Single	Joint								
2.	Females	11(2.7)	50(80.6)	6(9.7)	0 (0)	45 (11.5)	261 (66.4)	18 (27.3)	29 (43.9)	105(28.2)		14(23)		7(1.8)		1(1.4)	
	Males	3(0.7)	46(74.2)	0 (0)	0 (0)	11 (2.8)	252 (64.1)	1(1.5)	21 (31.8)	94(25.2)		4(6.6)		6(1.5)		0 (0)	

	Bank A/C																
		Single	Joint	Single	Joint	Single	Joint	Single	Joint	Single	Joint	Single	Joint	Single	Joint	Single	Joint
3.	Females	78(19.4)	247 (61.4)	40 (64.5)	4 (6.5)	248 (63.1)	88 (22.4)	54 (81.8)	2(3)	168 (45)	2 (0.5)	33 (54.1)	1 (1.6)	74 (18.9)	28 (7.1)	20 (28.6)	3 (4.3)
	Males	82(20.4)	237 (59)	1(1.6)	1 (1.6)	236 (60.1)	88 (22.4)	28 (42.4)	2(3)	153 (41)	0 (0)	4(6.6)	0 (0)	131 (33.4)	44 (11.2)	00 (0)	1 (1.4)

along with fewer holding bank accounts. Thus, there appears to be some positive connect between literacy and the level of financial inclusion.

Landlessness was more prevalent in Solapur as compared to Pithoragarh given that a little more than a quarter of the sample households responded landless in the former region as compared to 6 per cent in the latter. While landlessness is obviously not relevant in the urban constituency, the point of differentiation can be taken as being registered under BOCW or not; the number of registered workers was higher in Hyderabad at 199 as compared to 13 in Thane. Besides, of those registered in Hyderabad, women accounted for more than half (53 per cent). What is rather heartening is that the very process of data collection increased awareness amongst both the ground partners and the respondents themselves: in Thane SALAH undertook a campaign and the number of female registered workers rose from a one-digit figure to over 200.

Each region shows a considerable degree of homogeneity in terms of social groups *(Table 5.2)*, Hindus being the dominant religious group, Muslims existing only in Solapur (11 per cent). Buddhists accounted for more than one-fourth of all households in Thane, conforming to the data from Census 2011. Also corresponding to Census data, Ulhasnagar taluka had the highest proportion of Scheduled Caste population (17.3 per cent) which is also corroborated in the sample where almost 94.4 per cent of the respondents in Thane belonged to this category.

In the social structure, every region saw the presence of either one or two dominant social groups. While Scheduled Castes (SCs) were the dominant group in Thane, almost 63 per cent in Solapur belonged to Nomadic Tribes (NTs) and Other Backward Castes (OBCs) at 33.8 per cent and 29.1 per cent respectively. SCs constituted approximately two-third in of the sample households in Pithoragarh, apart from the 14.75 per cent who were PVTGs. On the other hand, STs at two-third and OBCs at about 28 per cent were the dominant social groups in Hyderabad. It is important that several marginalized and vulnerable groups comprised the households interviewed. The Raji tribe is rarely researched even in a gender-less context. Neither are the smaller social groups of Yerukula, Madiga, Vaddera, Lambada and Gavara in Hyderabad, a fact pointed out by Naresh, a local resident and leader of Karmika Nagar who was interviewed.

The average family size was 4 members *(see Table VC 1 in Appendix XXIII)* with the exception of Pithoragarh which averaged a little more at 5 with males out-numbering females; this is the opposite of what the Census recorded for Pithoragarh. Interestingly, this region also reported the largest proportion of population in the age group 0-6 years (36.4 per cent) as compared to about one-fourth in all the other areas; it would be interesting to link

***Table 5.2* Caste and Religion**

	SOLAPUR	PITHORAGARH	HYDERABAD	THANE
CASTE				
SC	68 (16.9)	251 (63.9)	23 (6.2)	370 (94.4)
ST	0	8 (2.04)	245 (65.7)	1 (0.25)
NT	136 (33.8)	0	0	1 (0.25)
PVTG	3 (0.01)	58 (14.75)	0	0
OBC	117 (29.1)	1 (0.25)	105 (28.2)	5 (1.3)
General	18 (4.5)	46 (11.7)	0	15 (3.8)
Total	**342**	**364**	**373**	**392**
RELIGION				
Hindu	347 (86.3)	363 (92.4)	371 (99.5)	276 (70.4)
Muslim	44 (10.9)	0	0	9 (2.3)
Christian	0	0	2 (0.01)	0
Buddhist	8 (0.02)	0	0	107 (27.3)
Total	**399**	**363**	**373**	**392**

Note: Figures in parentheses refer to percentage of HHs. The percentages and number of households may not add up to 100 per cent and the sample size respectively given the lack of response from respondents.

up this aspect with the utilization of crèches and anganwadis.

Gendered income distribution and deprivation were evaluated through average monthly income *(see Appendix XIII)*; the results are predictable with the average monthly income of women being lower than that of men. This gendered income gap was the widest in Pithoragarh and the least among the construction workers of Hyderabad. Also, rural income represented by Solapur and Pithoragarh was lower than the urban income in Hyderabad and Thane.

The least income as well as the highest gender gap was in Pithoragarh where women who reported earning Rs. 900 per month, that is, 30 per cent of male incomes. One possible reason for this could be their dependence on common property resources, the implication being that several of the households' maintenance and consumption needs are met outside the realm of exchange-value and hence is neither recognized nor recognizable, neither quantified nor quantifiable. Economic deprivation in the marginalized communities was seen in both the rural and urban settings, being more evident in the former. Not surprisingly, Pithoragarh had the highest proportion of households (36.6 per cent) with an income lower than Rs. 25,000 per annum, followed by Solapur at almost two-fifth. On the other hand, Thane reported not even 4 per cent and Hyderabad none at all. Another dimension to economic deprivation is prevailing inequalities in the distribution of income. Almost 93 per cent of Solapur households had an annual income of up to Rs. 1,00,000 compared to about 78 per cent in Pithoragarh. Huge differences were seen in the urban areas too; Hyderabad had only 37 per cent households with incomes of up to Rs.1,00,000 with Thane being much higher at over 84 per cent. Hyderabad also recorded the maximum share of households in the Rs. 1 to 2 lakh per annum bracket (60.3 per cent). Although Pithoragarh had the highest per cent of its households with income levels less than Rs. 25,000 per annum, it also had a substantial 13 per cent with incomes greater than Rs. 2,00,000 per annum. A possible reason for this is the larger number of males being employed both formally and informally in the army and border forces.

The ownership and size of land holdings is relevant only for Solapur and Pithoragarh. Appendix XIII indicates that land ownership was pre-dominantly male in both regions. Further, almost half of the holdings were in the marginal and small farmer category.

The Talathi of Dongargaon village in Solapur was quite open in her criticism of the patriarchal mindset which does not permit women to own land. The local authorities have apparently only recently started issuing ration cards with woman as a family head. In a FGD held in Sonand village in Solapur several single women complained that the few women who had land rights owned a maximum of an acre; also, the land was uncultivable and barren with land owners being compelled to eke sustenance as agricultural laborers.

The ownership of dwellings was pre-dominantly male in Solapur, Hyderabad and Thane. Pithoragarh was again different as it had substantial female ownership facilitated through access to the housing scheme Indira Awas Yojana; this however did not mean that they 'owned' the houses, but merely that they had been issued in their names. Pithoragarh also had the highest number of people living as tenants and even tenancy was female dominated. The main complaints were against the feudal mindsets and local socio-political structures which impeded the implementation of Indira Awas Yojana.

A majority of the 40-odd participants in a FGD in Sonand village in Solapur implored us to help them get ownership rights over their houses: as they put it, 'we just want to see our names on the doors of our homes.'

Decent housing and homelessness emerged as a major issue for female-headed households and especially so for single women. The rural-urban divide was stark in relation to the type of dwelling; 73 per cent in Solapur and 43 per cent in Pithoragarh lived in normal houses, while three-fourth in Thane and all but one single household in Hyderabad resided in normal houses (see Appendix XIII). The implication is clear: the character of cities today is overtly anti-poor and that the current process of urbanization negatively impacts the housing status of those who are marginalized and vulnerable.

40-year-old Laxmibai Vijay Thokle, a landless agricultural laborer of Sonand, lived with her three children in an utterly dilapidated room in the corner of a house that was virtually collapsing; she had applied several times for a house under the scheme, but her appeals were rejected on several grounds including the fact that she has two sons, even

though they are minors.

Reshma and her two minor children moved to her widowed mother's house after being deserted; both are landless laborers and have to subsist on whatever this irregular work fetches them in an area that is perpetually drought prone. The house they lived in was in a shockingly decaying state, so much so that they had pleaded with community members to permit them to stay in Dongargaon's Samaj Mandir (community center).

Most households in each of the regions were dependent on multiple sources of water and energy, even though a single source may be 'major' *(Table 5.3)*; 44 per cent of the households in Solapur depended largely on taps in the dwelling yard, followed by common wells (27.9 per cent) and hand pumps (13.7 per cent). Pithoragarh was again different, with 92.4 per cent of the respondents depending on flowing water from streams and rivers; the benefits of having unlimited and fully accessible water –though not located close by – was a boon for the women in the region, added to the fact that it was, as of now at least, quite clean and unpolluted. Closeness to a water source was obviously a major issue; 42.5 per cent used public taps located closer to their homes and one-third accessed taps in dwelling yards.

In Thane the water authorities of Ward 37 informed us that water was released twice a day; women in our FGD did not deny this but questioned the timings – at 2 am in the middle of the night. This resulted not only in sleeplessness but also raises issues of gender safety.

The non-accessibility of water in Karmika Nagar posed a serious problem and a major dilemma for 55-year-old Venkatamma. The choice before her, as before many other women, was either to collect the water herself and thus not enter the labor market, or to go to work and earn but only by denying education to her granddaughter who had to replace her as the water provider.

The trade-off between paid and unpaid work is thus clear, as is the rather direct interconnect between macroeconomic policies, the withdrawal of the state from the public sphere and the gendered continuum, combined with the issue of the well-being of the girl child and the worker of tomorrow. given that water collection is historically perceived as 'woman's work' proximity to a source of water, accessibility, full-time availability and its purity are critical factors that determine the extent and amount of burden that women have to additionally bear as part of their unpaid work.

A public tap was the foremost source of water in Hyderabad for 99 per cent of the households, followed by the use of hand pump at a little above one-fifth. A tap in the dwelling yard was a major source of water (56.1 per cent) in Thane, tap inside the dwelling and public tap being almost equal at a little above one-fifth. It is pertinent to note that access to water through a tap inside the dwelling was the highest in Thane (22.4 per cent), followed by Pithoragarh (16.8 per cent) and the least in Hyderabad (a mere half per cent). Interestingly, the 'others' category which accounted for almost 15 per cent of Solapur includes the 'borrowing' of water from neighbors.

These results relating to water source must be viewed in the context of the level of infrastructural development priorities and allocations, or the lack of them, to fulfil the needs of urban marginalized sections. Little investment in the water needs of slum dwellers has taken place; most of what

Table 5.3 **Major Sources of Water (Per cent of Households)**

	SOLAPUR	PITHORAGARH	HYDERABAD	THANE
Tap Inside Dwelling	6.0	16.8	0.5	22.4
Tap in Dwelling Yard	44.0	33.3	0.3	56.1
Public Tap	9.7	42.5	98.9	21.2
Common Well	27.9	2.3	0.27	0.5
Hand Pump	13.7	8.4	21.2	2.3
Flowing Water/Stream/River	1.2	92.4	NAP	NAP
Purchase from Shops/Vendor	0	0.25	4.3	0.25
Water Carrier/Tanker	2.2	0.25	0.5	0
Others	**14.7**	**0**	**0**	**0.8**

Note: Percentages may add up to more than 100 percent as a result of dependence on more than one source of water.

is available has been 'informally' created by the residents themselves. In Thane, small plastic pipe connections have been made to the main water pipes and the water so accessed is then diverted to common spaces and sometimes also houses. This form of infrastructural development appears to be in keeping with the on-going massive decrease in public investment in formal structures at varying levels across both time and space: we term this 'infrastructural informality'.

Mudfort hutment in Hyderabad is an interesting case reflecting typical urban contradictions. Built on defense land and therefore categorized as irregular and illegal, a few of the middle and upper-class residents including officers residing in nearby apartment blocks are interested in its demolition or eviction, primarily because this slum fulfils their requirements of domestic workers. There are no minimum basic facilities like provision of drinking water, electricity line connections, sanitation and toilets. Huts are made of asbestos and cardboard sheets, which sometimes have tin roofs. Toilets have been created by putting up bamboos and hanging old saris and dhotis as walls.

Chittemma's house is probably the worst in the entire basti; a widow at 20 with a toddler to support, she barely ekes out a living as a construction worker and has no money to replace her plastic sheet walls and roof with asbestos or aluminum. 'Permanently unsafe' is how she describes her status.

What is shocking is that these houses have no windows. As electricity is not legally provided, the residents have cut connections from existing street light cables and put up one single light in the house. They use minimal voltage bulbs and all the walls are sealed so that no light filters out of the house; being caught 'stealing' would imply eviction and demolition of these tiny holes that are euphemistically called 'houses'. The impact of these windowless homes is the worst for women and children: children cannot study and women cough incessantly having to cook in smoke-choked hovels.

We interviewed some members of the Secunderabad Cantonment Board AND corporators of the ward; the answers were predictable and condescending: 'We will give these poor people water and electricity connections after we are elected again'; 'this is defense land and they are encroachers, so what if they have lived here for over two decades, and so what if more than half of them have ration cards?'

Information related to energy was collected for different purposes -- lighting, cooking and for heating during winters in Solapur and especially Pithoragarh during the freezing winter when snow covers the entire region *(Table 5.4)*. Only about half of the households in each region had access to electricity. Even in Thane where over 84 per cent used electricity for lighting, the supply was so erratic that more than two-third of them had to

Table 5.4 **Major Sources of Water (Per cent of Households)**

	SOLAPUR	PITHORAGARH	HYDERABAD	THANE
Fuel – Lighting & Heating				
Electricity	52.0	56.0	56.8	84.2
Coal	0	62.6	0.5	0
Kerosene	1.9	8.8	28.7	0
Wood / Residue	0	23.9	4.56	0
Wood / Residue (Heating)	0	75.6	1.34	0
Candles	89.6	39.7	64.08	67.3
Solar (Lighting)	0	26.6	11.26	0
Fuel – Cooking				
Cylinder Gas	35.3	68.6	12.3	27.8
Coal	0	20.1	1.9	12
Kerosene	26.4	13.3	3.2	61.0
Animal Dung	1.5	4.3	1.34	0
Wood / Residue	80.1	75.9	94.37	50.5
Solar	0	0	0.54	0

Note: (i) Percentages may add up to more than 100 per cent as a result of dependence on more than one source of energy.
(ii) Percentages may not add up to 100 per cent given the lack of response.

depend on candles; a situation that exists in other urban regions of Hyderabad.

Motibai Bhim Chavan is a single woman working in the construction sector in Thane; with no financial support from her married children, she supplemented her income by stitching. However, irregular electricity supply compelled her to give up this source of livelihood: Motibai says, 'I cannot take orders for stitching petticoats and blouses anymore. My old eyes do not cooperate with the dim light of candles and kerosene lamps.'

Irregular electricity is also a problem in rural areas. Ninety 90 per cent of Solapur homes were forced to resort to candles. In Pithoragarh, two-fifth of the households used candles and 63 per cent used coal. Wood and residue was used in Pithoragarh at almost one-fourth households, with Hyderabad also reporting using this source though at a low of 5 per cent.

Households used more than one source of fuel for cooking such as cylinder gas, coal, kerosene and wood and residue. Not surprisingly, use of cylinder gas was the lowest in Hyderabad at barely 12.3 per cent, with an overwhelming majority of over 94 per cent using wood and residue from plastic and other waste. Thane, on the other hand, depended largely on kerosene (61 per cent of the households) followed by wood and residue (50.5 per cent), cylinder gas (27.8 per cent) and coal (12 per cent). Pithoragarh had the highest access to cooking gas at 68.6 per cent. In addition, more than three-fourth of the households also used wood and residue, followed by coal at 20.1 per cent and kerosene at 13.3 per cent. The pattern was quite similar in Solapur – cylinder gas (35.3 per cent) and wood and residue (four-fifth of the households) and a rather high dependence on kerosene at 26.4 per cent.

In Pithoragarh LPG was used either during an emergency or when less cooking had to be done, for example, for preparing tea or cooking for two people. Several reasons were put forward for this during the FGDs – the cost is high; the cylinders are too heavy to carry up hill; that there is no certainty of refill; that digitalization is difficult for them to understand; and that they get messages regarding refilling on their cell phones but that they cannot read them due to illiteracy.

Surmati from Kimkhola says, 'The price of kerosene has been increasing. Earlier we used to get 5 liters per family per month, now its 1 liter and that too not regularly. It was easy to kindle the wood but now as kerosene is expensive villagers use a pine tree's inner bark called chilka/shula. The wood burns easily but emits a lot of smoke and also turns the cooking vessel black. If chilka is not readily available, then polythene paper and wrappers are kept to light wood.' Polythene catches fire easily but emits toxic gases; its impact on health is deep and long-lasting.

During the FGDs held in several places the women complained that with the withdrawal of subsidies on kerosene, its price had risen from Rs 18 to 25 per liter thus forcing them to use polythene. An important issue raised was that single women were often unable to collect kerosene from the PDS centers because the timing of their work and the shop's timing clashed and because as single women they generally had no family support and so had no option but to use firewood to light the *choolah*. Additionally, collection of firewood, apart from entailing long walks on difficult terrains, made the women susceptible to violence. This was particularly so for single women who had to earn a living and hence were compelled to gather fuel in the early mornings or late at night. Also, kerosene had become inaccessible and unaffordable due to change in rules and the removal of subsidies.

Several care and health amenities of concern to the households such as anganwadis, crèches, primary and secondary schools, primary health centers and government/municipal dispensaries along with sanitation facilities are considered in terms of their availability, accessibility and utilization in Table 5.5; the former meaning availability of the facility to the respondents whereas its applicability is indicative of the extent to which the facility is being used by the respondents.

Knowledge among households about the availability of anganwadis was over 90 per cent in Solapur and Pithoragarh, it was marginally less in Hyderabad (85.1 per cent) and a surprising low of 68 per cent in Thane. With such high awareness, it appears contradictory that the applicability of this facility was quite low, with only about a fifth using it.

The apparent contradiction between availability and applicability of anganwadis within the sample households is resolved if the data in *Table 5.5* is correlated with that of the number of households

with a 0-6 years age population (Appendix XIII). On an average about 20 per cent of the households reported using anganwadis; this needs to be seen in the context of the fact that again on an average less than 30 per cent of the households had children below the age of 6 years. In this sense the usage of anganwadis was fairly high in the four field sites, the difference being barely 5 per cent points in all regions except Pithoragarh. In Pithoragarh, although 36.4 per cent of the households reported having 0-6-year-old children, only 20.6 per cent reported usage of anganwadis. It also needs to be mentioned here that the urban areas reported lower levels of availability with Thane at a low of 68.1 per cent. On the other hand, crèches were virtually non-existent in terms of availability and applicability.

There are several reasons for the non-optimal utilization of anganwadis and creches:

One, non-access is due to non-availability.

Two, migrants are generally, whether deliberately or unconsciously, kept out of amenities and benefits.

Three, single parent households especially those that are female headed do not have family members to take the children to the center and sometimes even to school. As single mother Rama put it, 'our children grow up unsupervised.'

Four, the problem of lack of proximity; the ICDS in Hyderabad and Thane are located at quite a distance from the slums. Crèches do not exist anywhere, except for a single one in Thane and that too is located at some distance and reachable only by crossing roads with heavy traffic.

Five, the centers are open only between 10 am and 3 pm, while parents' work hours are 8 am to 6 pm, not including travel time.

Mudavath Khali, a single woman from Mudfort,

***Table 5.5* Care and Health Amenities: Availability and Applicability**

	SOLAPUR	PITHORAGARH	HYDERABAD	THANE
Anganwadi				
Available	91.54	95.5	85.25	68.1
Applicable	19.40	20.6	20.91	20.9
Crèche				
Available	17.16	0.8	0.54	3.6
Applicable	0.25	0.0	0.27	0.5
Primary School				
Available	93.28	96.0	92.76	69.1
Applicable	28.86	28.1	45.04	39.3
Secondary School				
Available	91.29	91.5	88.20	57.1
Applicable	29.60	31.4	38.07	25.0
Health Centre/ PHC				
Available	76.62	94.5	72.12	51.5
Applicable	38.81	87.9	45.58	26.5
Private Bath				
Available	56.72	42.2	4.56	69.1
Applicable	53.23	34.2	3.75	67.9
Private Toilet				
Available	31.1	55.5	2.9	24.5
Applicable	21.4	45.0	1.9	24.0
Public Toilet				
Available	2.5	2.5	31.9	71.9
Applicable	1.0	2.0	24.9	69.9
Open Defecation	**66.42**	**41.95**	**65.15**	**3.57**

is not able to avail of either the anganwadi or the crèche facility for her two sons, primarily because her work and travel hours at the construction sites extend late into the evening.

As a result of inaccessibility and non-availability of crèches, women have evolved structures of what are often termed as 'social capital' but are in fact a strategy for survival in the face of a state that does not care about care work.

Shantibai Rathod is a young widow with a 3-year-old daughter living in Thane. She has no access to a crèche and does not want to take her child to work due to issues of safety. She feels it is better to leave her in the slum where elderly people and homemakers can keep an eye on her.

Pithoragarh had the highest awareness and also utilization levels of health facilities like primary health centers and government dispensaries at 94.5 per cent and 87.9 per cent respectively. Thane represented the other end of the spectrum, the lowest level of availability at just a little above half with barely 26.5 per cent of the households able to access these facilities. It would be interesting to examine the gap between availability and applicability or use of such an essential service as it indicates both the accessibility and dependence on public healthcare. The two rural areas show diametrically opposite results: the gap is the least in Pithoragarh at 6.6 per cent and the highest in Solapur at 37.8 per cent. The two urban areas of Hyderabad and Thane average around 35 per cent. The gap clearly indicates the sizable dependence on the public healthcare system in Pithoragarh, while in Solapur, Hyderabad and Thane there is a substantial reliance on private healthcare.

In the two Solapur villages, the health centers are managed by untrained staff that does not have the expertise to even give injections. There is thus no treatment possible for pregnant women or children requiring vaccinations. In Hyderabad, the respondents have not been given *Aarogyasri* cards as most are migrants. ASHA workers have not been appointed and hence the children are not immunized. Among the more important reasons for reduction in dependence on public healthcare as pointed out in the FGDs are distance, rise in user fees, shortage of staff, inconvenient timings, outdated equipment and rude attitude towards migrants. The first and immediate impact is on the health status of girls and women as priority is given to the males in the household whether adults or boys. The existence of this gap between availability and accessibility is thus additionally widened by issues of affordability and highlights clearly the urgent need to improve public healthcare facilities from the view of public policy.

Another important dimension from a gendered public policy perspective concerns sanitation and its intricate relation with open defecation. Intriguingly, the findings reveal that open defecation and the existence of toilets both private and public can exist simultaneously. The availability and use of public toilets was rather inconsequential in the rural areas of Solapur and Pithoragarh. Households in Pithoragarh were divided equally between use of private toilets and open defecation. In Solapur while about 30 per cent of the households reported availability of private toilets, usage was much lower at 21 per cent primarily due to lack of water; consequently, two-third of the households were condemned to open defecation.

Two-third of the households in Hyderabad defecated in the open. Even this open space was under threat now as the defense personnel have fenced off the ground that was used for open defecation. Almost all the residents complained of the shame they felt at open defecation; timings have now been fixed, gender differentiated of course. Men go during daylight hours and women only in the darkness.

Rathamma, a single woman, complained bitterly of the sexual harassment that she and other women faced during open defecation by men from their own slums.

Thane, reporting the least open defecation at not even 4 per cent, is an interesting instance of how the private sector has filled the vacuum caused by the withdrawal of the state in providing decent living to its citizens. Ward officials informed us that they had applied for funds under Swachh Bharat Abhiyan and the Municipal Corporation constructed common toilets; the residents however complained that their local corporator made them fill forms under the Abhiyan, but nothing had come of it. Meanwhile, several enterprising individuals with both money and clout have constructed toilets in the common spaces for which they charge user fees and thus a new category has emerged – privately owned public toilets. The monthly usage charges range between Rs 150 and Rs 250, with an extra Rs 10 for second usage. Gendered differentiation of course is

maintained, women being charged more than men on the pretext of them having to use more water, or because women tend to sneakily wash clothes inside toilets.

Availability and applicability of private baths was the least in Hyderabad which is not surprising given that 98.7 per cent of the households had *kutcha* houses. It was the highest in Thane where households used the private *mori* which is the norm among the slums in the region. More than half the households in Solapur reported having a private bath, which in reality is a *mori*: a *mori* is a small corner of the room which is walled up to a height of about 2 feet to provide privacy for bathing and which is also used for washing vessels and clothes. Pithoragarh is a different issue as the streams and rivers with tree cover permitted open bathing for both women and men.

5.4: Gendered Time Spent Pattern

This section examines the time disbursement and distribution patterns of females and males in all households, inclusive of female-headed house holds, from the lens of unpaid work in the focus areas of energy, water and care in the four regions where the primary field survey was conducted. All activities carried out by women and men are classified into the following categories which incorporate travel time *(for specifics of activities see Appendix XI: Household questionnaire).*

5.4.1 Economic Activity

(a) Cultivation

Figures 5.1 and 5.2 and Appendix XIV show the time expended by all women in the household (PRFs and OFs) and all men in the household (SRMs and OMs) on various activities associated with cultivation.

Women in Pithoragarh were engaged in a slightly wider range of activities than those in Solapur, despite a similarity in the average time expended per week on cultivation – 25 hours/week in Solapur and 27.9 hours/week in Pithoragarh. The involvement of OFs was much higher in Pithoragarh than in Solapur; 24.9 hours/week in the former, 1.8 hours/week in the latter. Further, the participation of OFs in several activities under cultivation in Solapur was miniscule and less than 5 per cent of the sample.

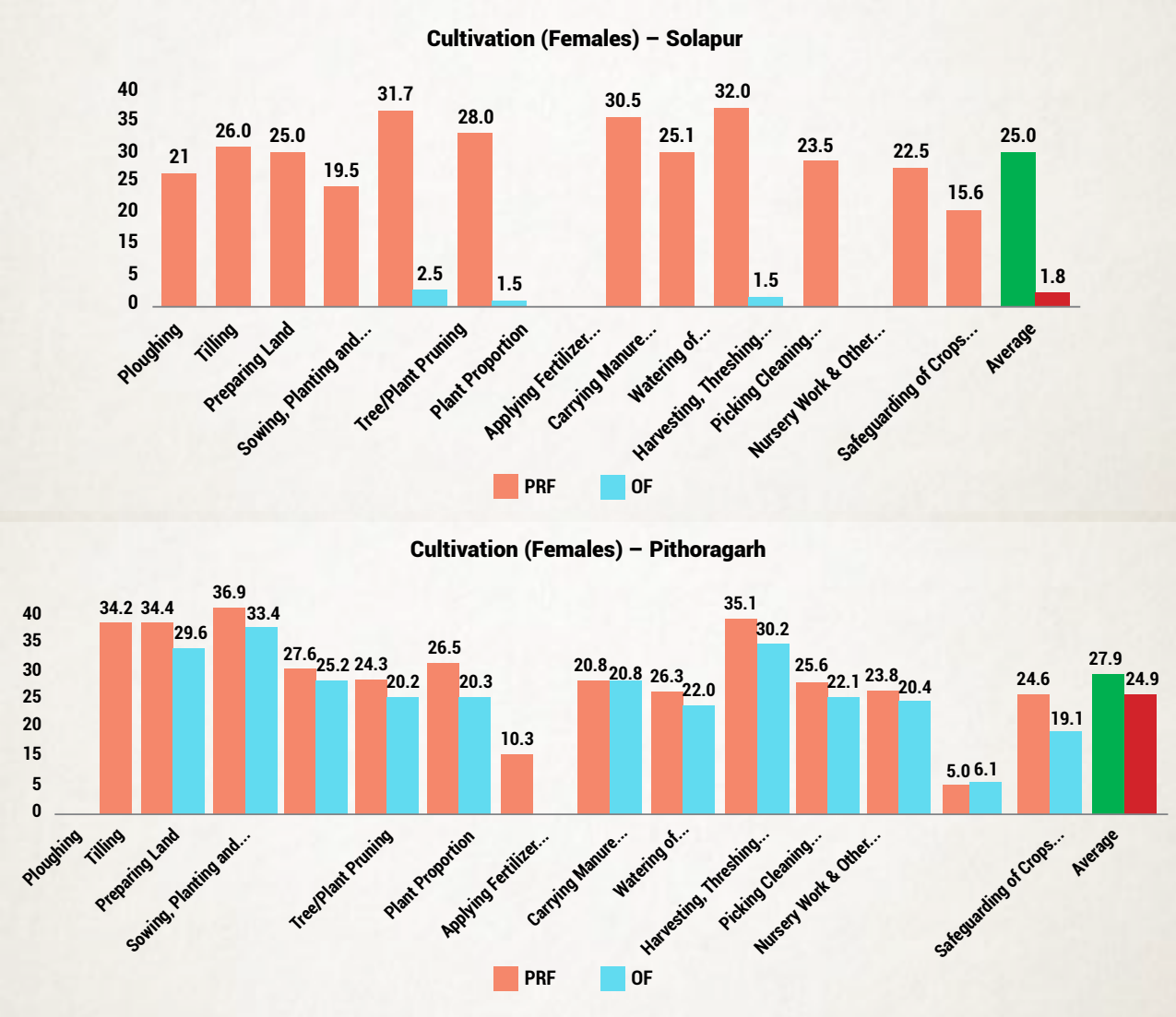
Regional variations in the gender-based division of labor are interesting: ploughing in Pithoragarh was done only by men, whereas in Solapur 48 women did ploughing for about 21 hours a week; the hours however ranged between a minimum of 10 hours to a maximum of 35 hours, implying that women who did the ploughing often spent at least 5 hours per day on this activity in an average week. On the other hand, in Pithoragarh women undertook fertilizer application, plant propagation and nursery work and that too in substantial numbers.

Prominent activities in cultivation which witness a large participation of women both in terms of hours per week as well as in terms of numbers are weeding and cutting of undergrowth (women spent between a minimum of 7 hours/week and a maximum of 70 hours/week in Solapur and between 7 and 56 hours/week in Pithoragarh), carrying manure, cow dung etc. to the fields (7 to 49 hours/week in Solapur and 3.5 to 63 hours/week in Pithoragarh) and harvesting, threshing, winnowing and stalk clearing (7 to 56 hours/week in Solapur and between 7 to 63 hours/week in Pithoragarh).

Although the average time spent per week by males in cultivation was marginally higher than that spent by females in both Solapur and Pithoragarh, the difference was in the nature of activity that they were engaged in and therefore the time expended on various activities. For instance, males spent an almost equal amount of time in ploughing in both Solapur and Pithoragarh, averaging 29 to 30 hours per week, while women in Solapur averaged much less at 21 hours/week. As another illustration, tilling in Pithoragarh was solely a female activity.

Preparing land was done by both men and women in both the regions. However, in Pithoragarh the OFs also actively participated in it (averaging 29 hours/week). Other cultivation activities done exclusively by women in both areas were household orchards and kitchen gardening. While safeguarding of crops from wild boars was purely a female activity in Solapur, PRFs and OFs in Pithoragarh put in almost double the time taken by SRMs. OMs seemed to be missing in a majority of the activities in both regions

Figure 5.1.



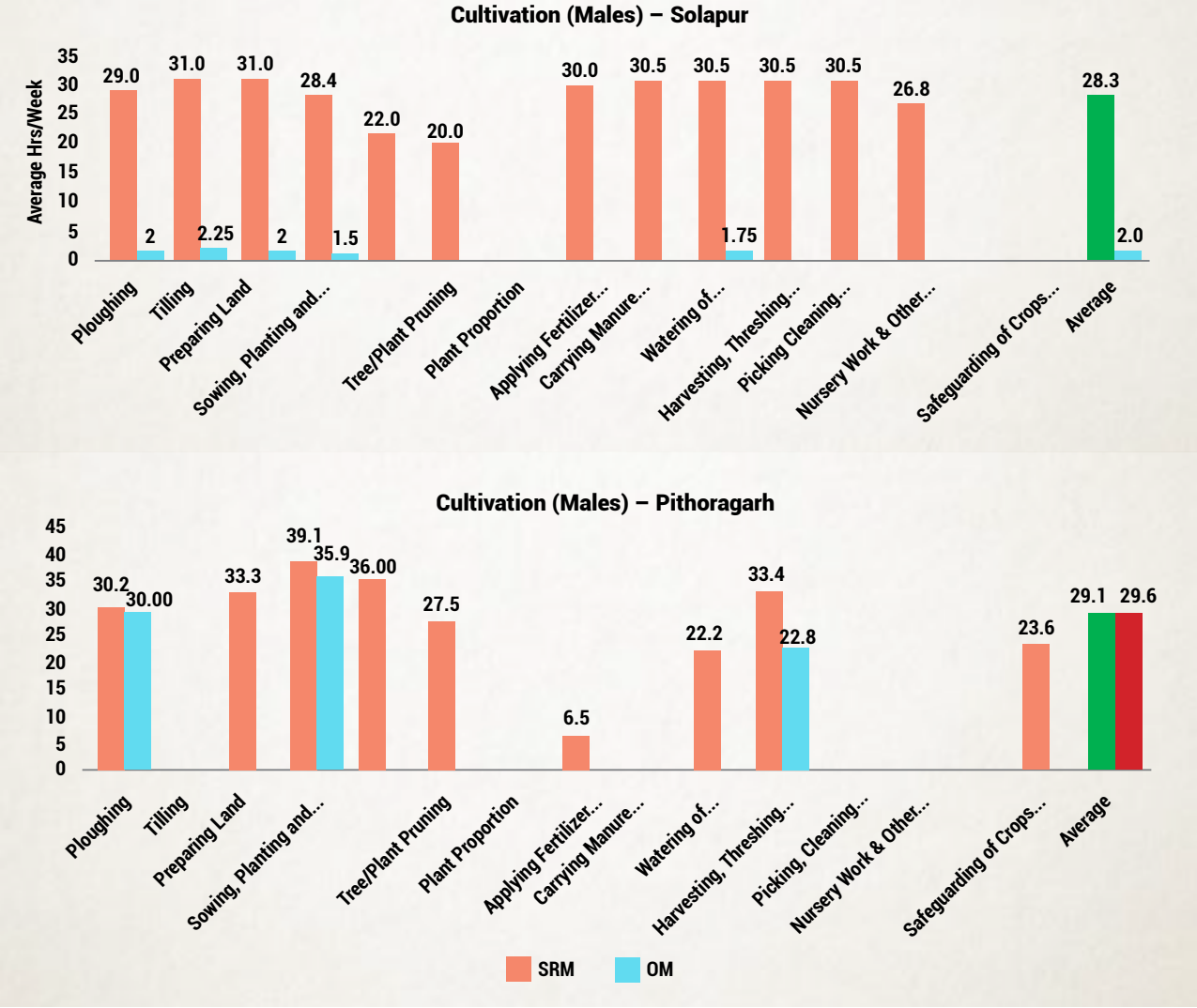
except during pre-cultivation and harvesting.

The larger number of OFs helping out PRFs can be explained by a rather unique form of work culture that exists in most of the villages in the hilly region of Pithoragarh. *Alta-palta*, literally meaning give and take, is a form of collective sharing and exchange of work exclusively carried out by women and appears to both empower them as well as subvert their exploitation in the open labor market. The sharing of work and exchange of labor-power is carried out by one woman from each family who goes to the other family's field to help. The plan is made jointly and rotation of work is carried out; it is applicable to cultivation, firewood collection, grazing and fodder gathering.

Women who practice *alta-palta* told us that the tedious and back-breaking work of continuously sowing and transplanting paddy for hours at a stretch while standing in knee deep water was made somewhat more bearable under this arrangement. They gathered at the home of the pre-specified family of the day early in the morning and then set off for work. They ate millet bread, vegetables and buttermilk which the women of the host household prepared for the group. The group returned several hours later, 'our work completed faster, more easily, and with at least some enjoyment.' For those who could not join the group on any particular day due to family and health constraints, the group collected enough firewood and fodder to help out, having full confidence that there would be an equivalent return.

This practice appeared to be devoid of caste and class divisions in a broader context, exchange of labor-power being carried out across communities and size group of holdings. The 'only' differentiation that existed is that while the upper castes also went to work in the fields of Dalits and other lower castes,

Figure 5.2.



they brought their own food. Landless women too participated in *alta-palta* and were given the prevailing market wages as they did not own any land for the landed women to return the labor that had been put in. Songs were sung, news exchanged, counselling conducted, support given and as they explained, 'our ties remain strong both to our land and between us women.'

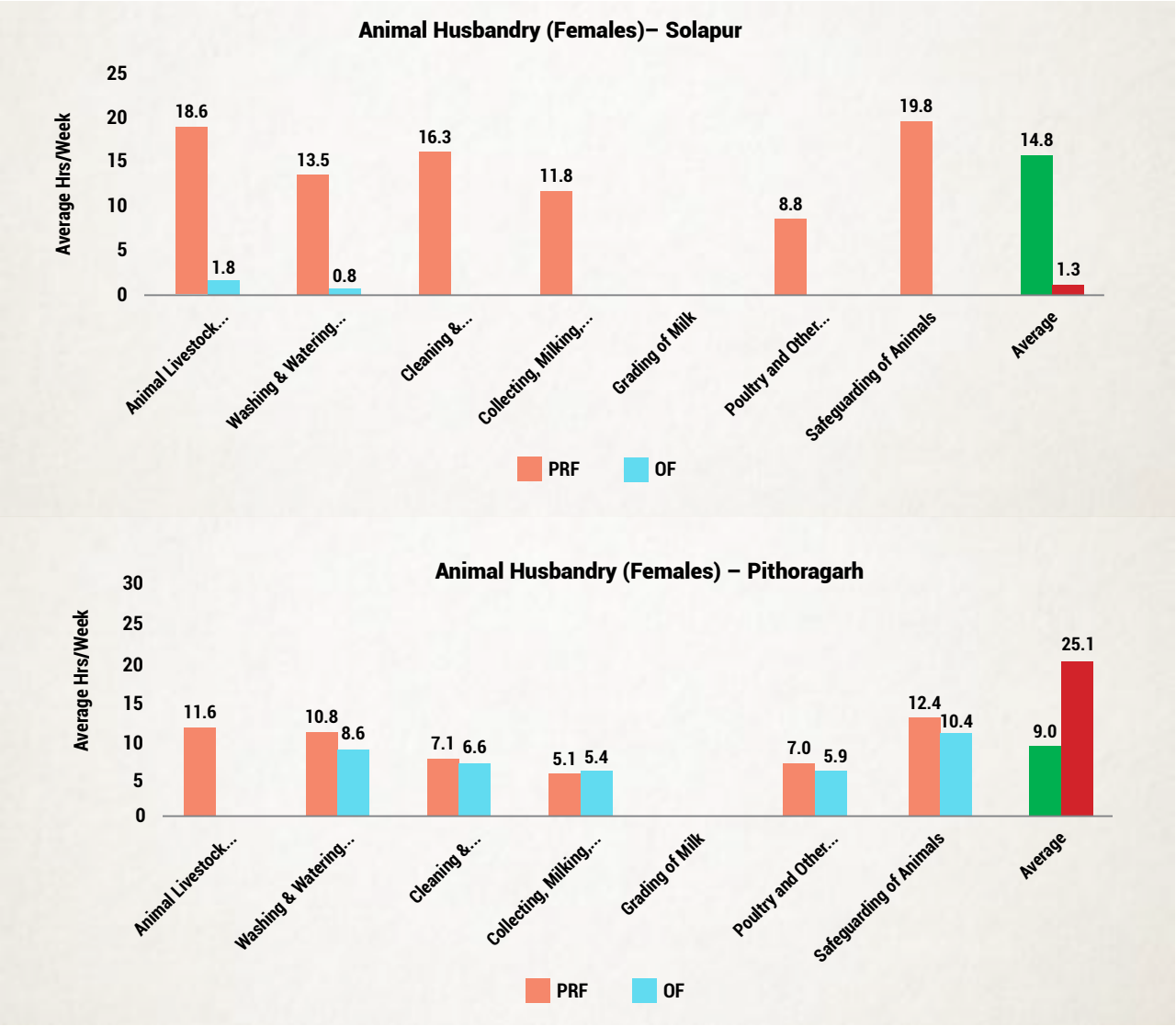
The prevalence of marginal holdings and the dominance of landlessness results in subsistence being sought in the open labor market. In Dongargaon in Solapur, farm labor was a major source of livelihood especially for women. They were involved in multiple tasks including planting, transplanting, weeding, cutting of undergrowth/shrub trees, plant pruning, applying fertilizers and manure, applying both organic and inorganic pesticides, watering the plants, harvesting, threshing, winnowing, threshing, stalk clearing and preparing of crops, fruits and vegetables. However, livelihoods within the village were available only for two to three months twice in the year. The mode of employment was peer to peer reach out.

(b) Animal Husbandry

Animal husbandry is another major economic activity that concerns both women and men. It was pre-dominant in Solapur as more than a third of the respondents belonged to the nomadic *dhangar* community which is traditionally associated with goat and sheep rearing. Figures 5.3 and 5.4 along with Appendix XIV show the time expended on this activity in Solapur and Pithoragarh respectively.

Livestock husbandry is a heavily feminized activity. In both regions, in all the six activities that constitute animal husbandry -- grazing, feeding, shelter cleaning, collecting, storing and safeguarding the range of time that the PRFs spent

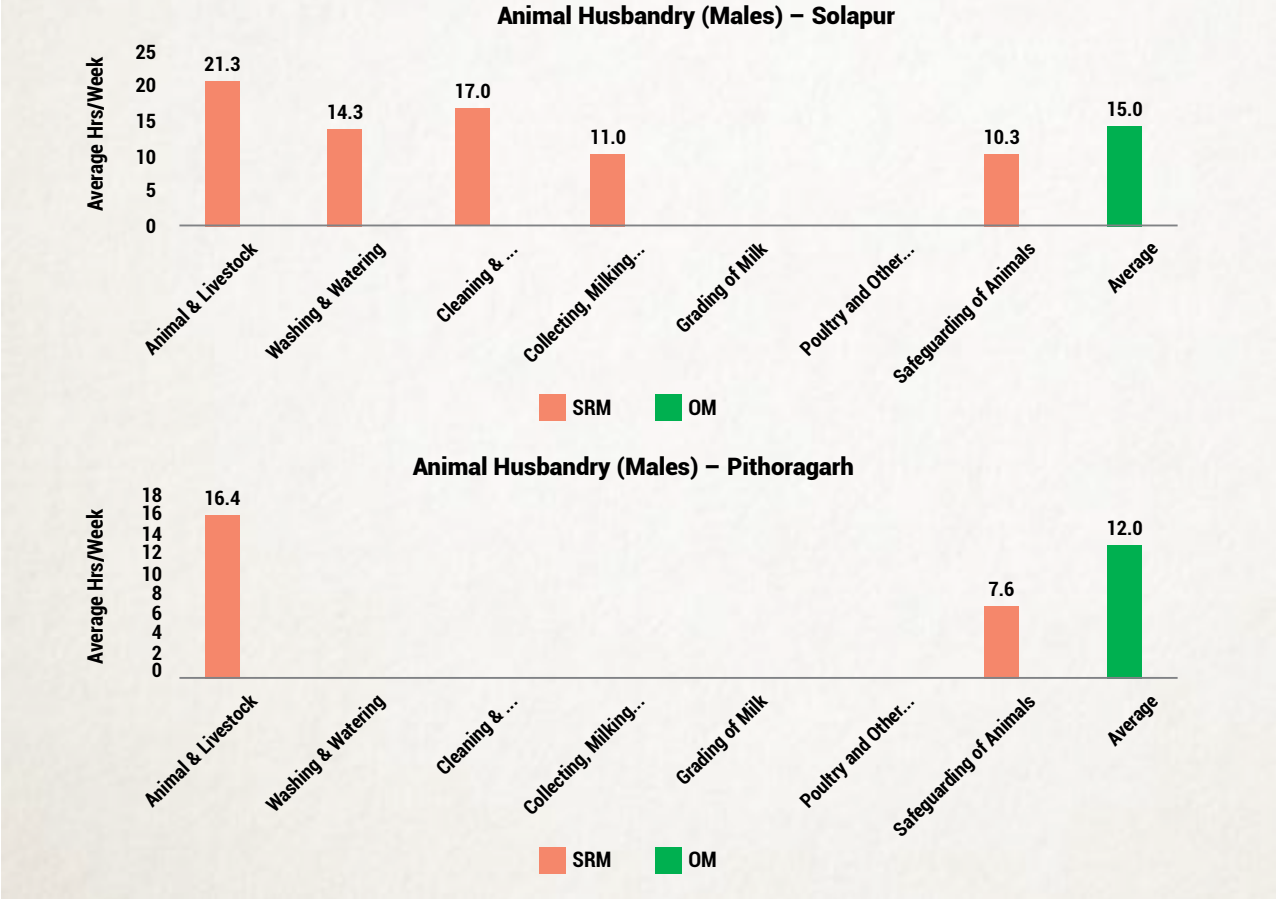
Figure 5.3.



on this consistently exceeded that spent by SRMs. This was especially in Pithoragarh where the PRFs and OFs put in an average of more than 16 hours/ week compared to 12 hours by SRMs; also to be noted is that just 61 SRMs reported involvement in livestock compared to 379 women. Interestingly, both regions recorded either minimal or an almost non-existent contribution of other males. Women (PRFs and OFs) spent marginally longer hours/ week as compared to males in Solapur whereas in Pithoragarh females spent substantially longer hours/week as compared to the males.

Among the various sub-activities associated with animal husbandry, the maximum time was spent on grazing of animals and livestock: PRFs at 18.8 hours/week in Solapur ranging between a minimum of 1 to 49 hours per week; PRFs in Pithoragarh expended an average of 11.6 hours per week, varying between 2.1 hours/week to 35 hours/week. The other major sub-activities were washing and watering of animals (women in Solapur spent an average of 13.5 hours/week with the range extending between 2 to 35 hours/week while in Pithoragarh, averaging at nearly 10 hours and 45 minutes/week and fluctuating between 1 hour and 45 minute to 42 hours/week); cleaning and maintenance of sheds (average 16.25 hours/ week in Solapur and spanning between 4 to 35 hours/week, and averaging about 7.12 hours/week in Pithoragarh and extending between 2.1 and 35 hours/week). Safeguarding of animals also saw a substantial involvement of women both in terms of numbers and hours: in Solapur, the 235 PRFs devoted 19.75 hours/week safeguarding animals from jackals and wolves from a minimum of 2 and

Figure 5.4.



maximum of 42 hours/week, while the 317 PRFs in Pithoragarh spent a lower average of 12.4 hours/ week reporting a huge variation in the time spent from 2.1 to 75 hours/week.

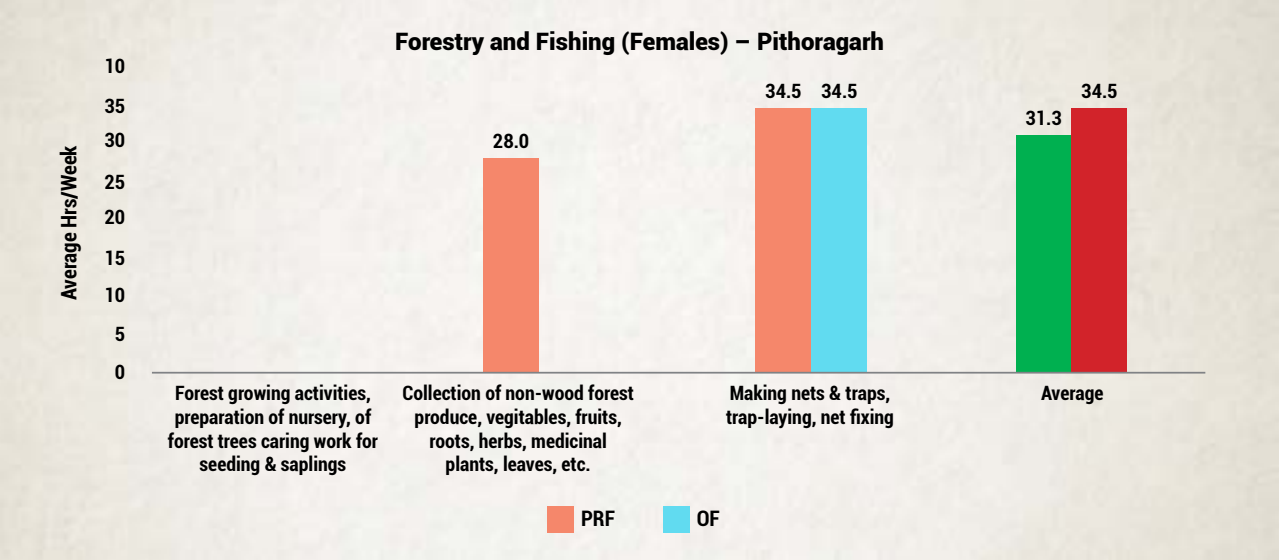
Figure 5.4 presents the association of males with animal husbandry. Like Solapur women, the men here too were involved in a wide range of sub-activities while in Pithoragarh the males were involved in only two major activities of grazing and safeguarding of animals. SRMs in Solapur spent 21.3 hours/week (ranging between 7 to 42 hours/ week) as against 16.4 hours/week (spanning between 2.1 to 42 hours/week) in Pithoragarh. In poultry too, women dominated in both Solapur and Pithoragarh in terms of numbers as well as time strengthening the assertion that livestock in all forms and activities was essentially a female centric activity.

(c) Forests and Fishing

This activity was undertaken only in Pithoragarh given its hilly location; however, neither fishing nor forestry appeared to be a prime economic activity as less than 60 respondents (both men and women) were involved in it. Within forestry and fishing, PRFs were engaged in only two activities of collection of non-wood forest produce and making of net and traps; the time spent on each of these activities was approximately 28 hours/week and 35 hours/ week ranging from 3.5 to 42 hours/ week and 14 to 56 hours respectively. Men's participation, mainly SRMs, was solely in the making of nets and traps where they spent about 26.5 hours/week ranging from 7 to 63 hours/week. The involvement of OFs and OMs was almost non-existent *(Figure 5.5 and Appendix XIV)*.

The low level of involvement in both forestry and fishing appears contradictory in the context of the fact that the field villages in Pithoragarh are located amidst forests. As the FGDs and discussions revealed, there were several reasons for this apparent non-involvement. One, the extremely problematic issue of roads that have begun entering higher parts of the hills; as some said, 'roads are both our enemies and our friends.' Two, the technology being used for construction. It is surprising that blasting is still the major method used in an area which is known to be landslide prone. Three, the fear of forest and other officials as well as the rumors that abound that all those who practice their age-old forest rights now

Figure 5.5.



stand to lose them due to on-going amendments in forest laws.

(d) Construction

Although construction encompasses a wide spectrum of sub-activities, our analysis reveals that both men and women in both Hyderabad and Thane were employed in only a few construction activities *(see Figures 5.6 and 5.7 and Appendix XIV)*.

Women construction workers in Hyderabad were associated with a wider set of sub-activities than their counterparts in Thane. In the latter, women workers were employed only for one activity, as head loaders, helpers and coolies; yet they spent substantially higher time on construction activities than their counterparts in Hyderabad: an average 25.8 hours/week as against 15.8 hours/week by the women in Thane. However, women construction workers in Hyderabad were not constrained to work only as helpers; they spent between 5 to 63 hours/week mixing and straining mud; 4 to 45 hours/week as head loaders; and 1.5 hours to 32 hours/week on earth digging. Water collection and watering of walls, floor etc. was solely women's work, taking up 1 to 16 hours/week. Interestingly, in both the regions there was no involvement of other women household members in construction activity.

The pattern of male involvement in activities under construction was similar to the involvement of female workers in both the regions. SRMs on an average worked for 18.9 hours/week which was slightly higher than that of female workers. Figure 5.7 graphs the time distribution of the male construction workers on economic activities in Hyderabad and Thane. It is important to note that OM workers engaged in construction only in Hyderabad, the time expended by them being much higher than SRMs. Like women construction workers, male workers in Thane were pre-dominantly engaged as head load workers/helpers/coolies. The average was 32 hours/week ranging from 4 to 70 hours/week, which was almost 1.6 times higher than the average hours put in by their counterparts in Hyderabad (12.8 ranging from 2 to 30 hours/week).

Though both genders did head loading, the number of women was much higher in both areas; women in Hyderabad spent 15.4 hours compared to 12.8 hours spent by their male counterparts. Also, both their minimum and maximum range of hours per week was higher (4 to 45 for women and 2 to 40 for men). The same pattern existed in Thane with more female head loaders reporting the upper range, that is, a difference of 7 hours. It is necessary to note that the hours/week indicated for the Hyderabad workers are possibly somewhat understated given that a substantial number of responses in Hyderabad were qualitative.

Most women in Hyderabad did only mauling, that is, mixing cement, sand and concrete and carrying brick head loads. They, and a substantial number of men too, helped the masons; all of them were treated and considered unskilled workers. Yet gender-based wage differentials were quite high: women received a maximum of Rs 300 for a 10-

Figure 5.6.

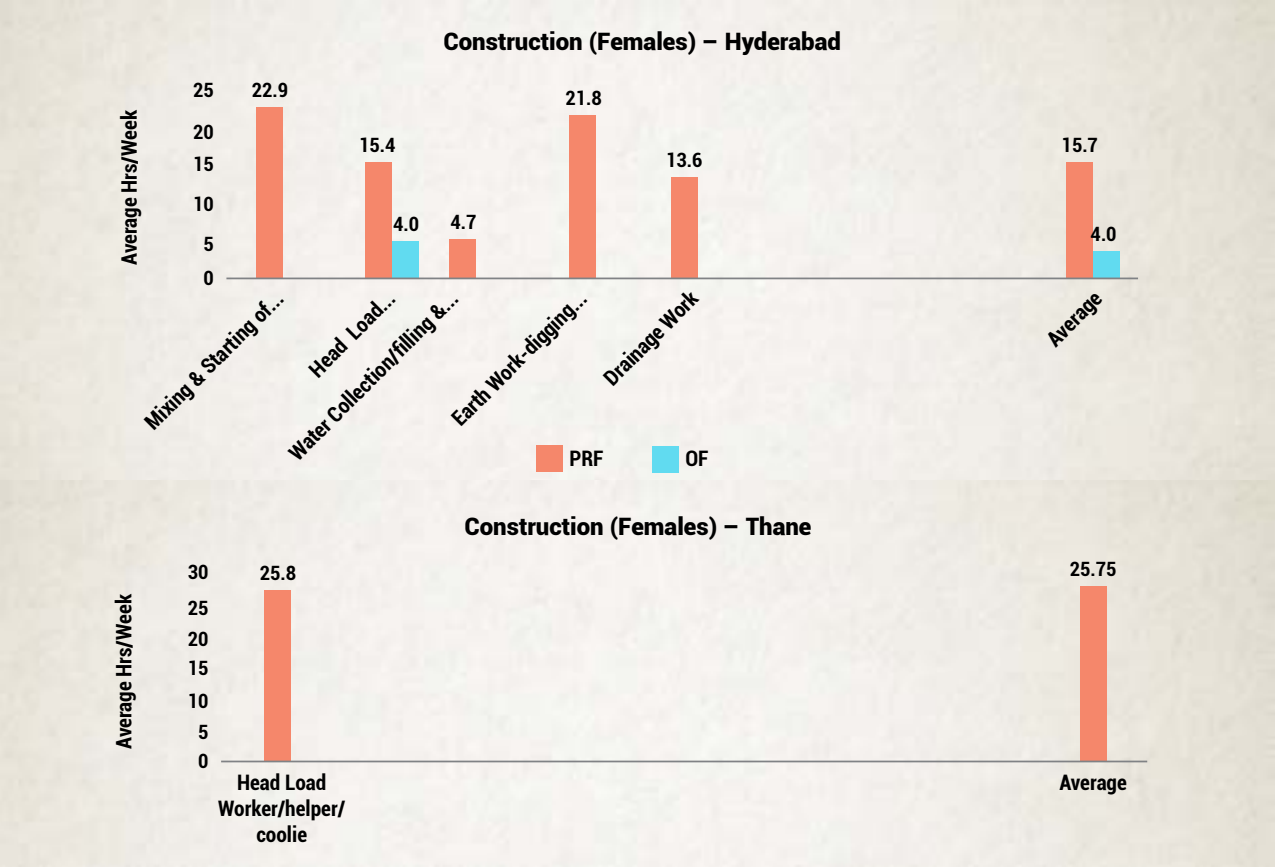
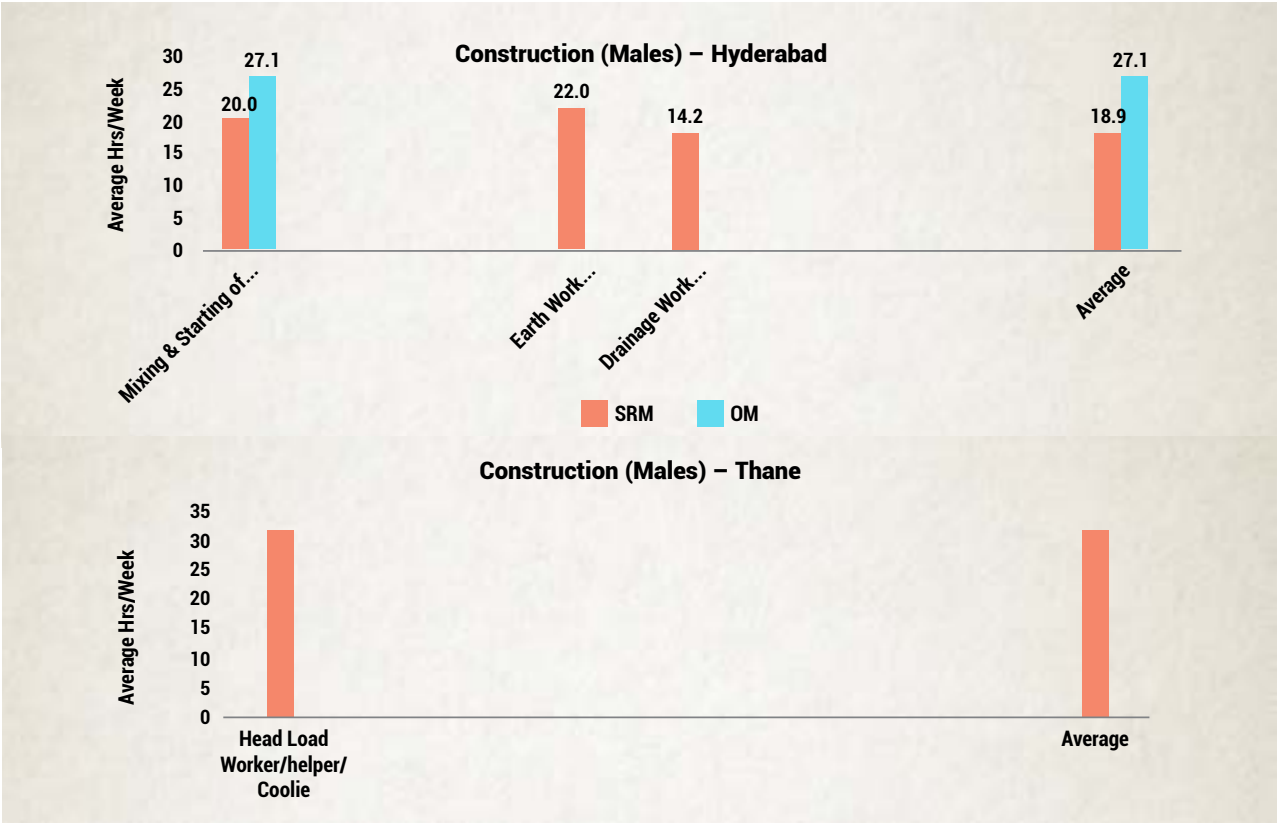


Figure 5.7.



hour day and men about Rs 500 in Hyderabad, and at Rs 150 per women received much less than men at Rs 250 to 300 in Thane.

The 'dying dynamics' of the construction sector need to be linked to the larger context and the irony of its decline given that infrastructural development is so central to growth today. The demand for construction workers has reduced rather sharply due to several reasons: mechanization of labor-intensive jobs; lack of water due to droughts; untimely rains; over-supply of labor; increased migration from rural and peri-urban areas; agrarian distress; declining employment rates; and increased informalization. Consequently, job opportunities in this sector have fallen much more sharply in the post-demonetization phase and the large crowds of men and women clamoring for work at *addas* and *nakas* have increased and also become somewhat more desperate, often resulting in not only lesser days when work is available but also a reduction in absolute wages for both men and women.

Both men and women construction workers throng the *addas* and *nakas* from early morning in the hope that some contractor will employ them even if only for a day. The men tend to return home after an hour or two of waiting, while the women who are relatively poorer and in more urgent need hang around for a little longer. Women have also started accepting what they call 'half-work', meaning that they will accept employment even if for only part of the day or even for a few hours; most of them are single women and female heads of households.

There are two important issues that need to be emphasized here. Fundamental to both is that women's multiple recognized and unrecognized responsibilities in a patriarchal economy and society intertwine production, consumption, distribution and maintenance.

One, that women more than men appear to bank on construction work as a source of livelihood. Therefore, even this sector appears to have embarked on the process of becoming feminized in terms of both numbers and hours spent at least in our research. This is not to say that men have voluntarily moved out due to better job opportunities in other sectors via 'pull' factors, but that few other job opportunities are open to women, and therefore they are compelled to hang on, so to say.

Two, the insidious and simultaneously overt inclusion of sexual exploitation into labor contracts. We were repeatedly told that 'now days only the younger and healthier women are hired by the contractors.' This insistence on sexual subordination is apparently becoming increasingly rampant and forms part of the unwritten contract. This 'conditionality' is not discussed behind closed doors but is now openly talked about, but certainly not condemned. Women and the community at large have apparently come to terms with this new proviso and do not denounce either the new clause or the woman. This unquestioning internalization of gender violence speaks volumes for the very fundamentals of economic and social structures that characterize the on-going nature and process of development and growth.

(e) Non-Agricultural and Non-Construction Earning Activities

As activities under this head are normally undertaken by both men and women, this analysis extends to all the regions covered in the research. Interestingly, most respondents in Solapur and Hyderabad were not engaged in substantial numbers in non-agricultural and non-construction earning activities (Appendix XIV). In Solapur, only 35 men reported working as casual labor, averaging 25.5 hours/week, spending a minimum of 5 and a maximum of 49 hours per week; most of them were employed in the bigger village centers while a few were employed as drivers.

In Pithoragarh, a little more than one-third of the PRF workers (136 respondents) worked as casual labor averaging 48 hours/week with min-max of 3.5 to 56 hours/week. Pithoragarh's women, as probably women in most hilly regions, worked in substantial numbers as loaders and head carriers, apart from vending. A sizeable number of male workers (228 SRMs and 26 OMs) were also involved in casual non-agricultural activities and on an average spent 50 hours/week on such activities. The main areas of non-agricultural economic activities for men were as coolies for the defense forces, in shops and stores in the village and the taluka center of Dharchula and marketing, hawking and tailoring.

40-year-old Sundari Devi lives in the hamlet of Balmara, Gram Sabha Toli. She owns a tiny plot of land on which she managed to eke a living, growing crops which fulfilled her consumption needs for barely 3 months. Though she received a widow's pension of Rs 800 per month, it was highly irreg-

ular. She had taken up a job in the village primary school as a Bojan Mata (food mother) where she cooked for 3 hours every day for 10 months in a year and got paid Rs 1,500 per month. Though she is a Dalit, she did not face any problems because, as she put it, "We are in a majority in Balmara.'

Less than 5 per cent of men and women together were engaged in non-construction activities in Hyderabad. While the men worked in the tiny cigarette kiosks that dot the main road, women were employed as domestic workers. Several single women had left the construction sector due to sexual harassment and become domestic workers in the newly constructed apartment blocks in the neighborhood.

Being illiterate and single, Sreejana faced the usual constraints in the job opportunities open to her. After the death of her husband, she decided to take up the same work that he had done and became a construction worker. However, she has since given up her job and taken up employment as a domestic worker. She said bitterly, 'It's a curse to be young and single. I will not work with contractors anymore.'

For Sheela, the reason for joining domestic service was simple and a clear indictment of the prevailing gender-blind macroeconomic policies relating to water and care – 'my madam lets me bring my baby to work, and she also allows me to take 2 cans of drinking water from her house every day.'

In Thane 55 PRFs (14 per cent) respondents were involved in casual work and spent an average of 22 hours/week ranging from 2 to 32 hours/week. There were also 22 home based women workers and eight women domestic workers. Apart from carrying loads and digging roads a new source of employment has opened up for women. The quality of rice coming to the public distribution shops had been bad in recent times and cleaning it at home was not enough. The rice had to be cleaned, washed, dried, cleaned again and then sold. In keeping with gender stereotyping, women were employed for a few hours twice or thrice a week for which they were paid about Rs 150 a day.

A major home based economic activity was that of making plugs and fuses. Contractors came directly to the homes of the women and delivered the raw material: plastic boxes, wires, nuts etc. All the women in the family were involved in assembling, including girls below 7 years of age – the standard argument of sharp eyes, nimble fingers and historical gender expertise. A few women also reported sewing and gumming sparkles on sarees and suits.

(f) Travel and Waiting Related to Economic Activities

In Pithoragarh fishing, fodder and collection of non-wood forest produce were heavily feminized, with men playing a negligible role both as SRMs and as OMs. The longest amount of time taken was to reach the grounds for fodder in both Solapur and Pithoragarh (an average of 10 hours/week in the former and expectedly a much longer average of 22.5 hours/week in the latter). Forty OFs in Solapur also participated in this activity spending a not un-similar time of 9.3 average hours/week, though their maximum range of 28 hours was significantly less than PRFs' 42 hours/week maximum time spent. The pattern of OFs in Pithoragarh was almost identical to that in Solapur. The other major time consuming sub-activities particularly relevant for Pithoragarh was reaching the forest for collection (average of 24.7 hours/week) and fishing (average of 10.3 hours/week), the maximum for both being 42 hours/week. Around 30 OFs also reported spending an average of 9 hours/week on fishing activity *(see Figures 5.8 and 5.9 and Appendix XIV)*.

Time to reach the worksite was almost four times longer in Pithoragarh (9.4 hours/week) as compared to 2.5 hours/week in Solapur. Also, waiting for work in the labor market especially as agricultural and casual workers was almost 10 times more in the former. In the urban areas of Hyderabad and Thane, the travel time related to OFs' economic activities was negligible at below 5 per cent, probably because they provided care support to their families, especially to primary women earners.

PRFs in Hyderabad spent a higher average time of 13 hours/week waiting for work and about 4.4 hours/week to reach the site, whilst in Thane both the wait for work (average of 5.1 hours/week) and travel time to the worksite (2.5 hours/week) was much lower. Women in Thane told us that they waited for work on an average for about an hour and a half every day at the *naka*, while men tended to leave a little earlier. The results appear to be on the higher side in Hyderabad. The maximum time to reach the worksite for PRFs and SRMs was up to 60 hours a week; also, the maximum range of waiting time was reported at 150 hours/week for SRMs. It is possible

Figure 5.8.

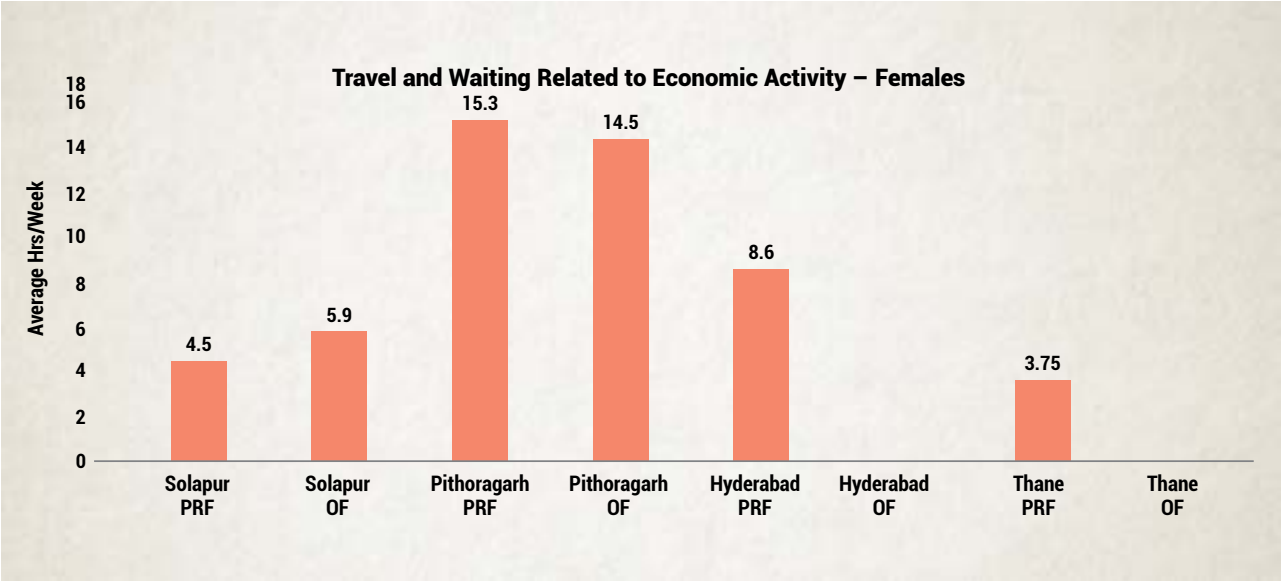
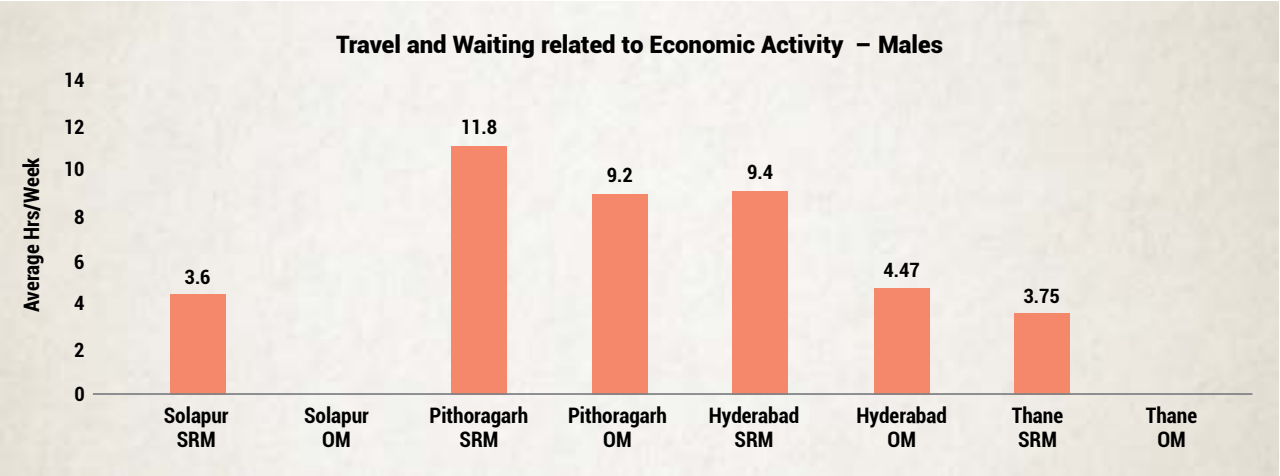


Figure 5.9.



that these figures are somewhat exaggerated and this is precisely why the average per week should be taken as a better indicator.

The time spent on travel and waiting related to economic activities by males (SRMs and OMs) followed a pattern similar to that of female workers but the average time was lower in Pithoragarh (11.9 hours/week by SRMs and 9.2 hours/week by OMs) and Solapur (4.8 hours/week), while it was marginally higher (9.4 hours/week) in Hyderabad and identical (3.75 hours/week) in Thane. A comparison of the male construction workers revealed that their time spent waiting for work was three times higher in Hyderabad as compared to Thane, and the time to reach the worksite was also longer (4.5 hours/week in Hyderabad as compared 2.75 hours/week in Thane).

The issues of time spent waiting for work and travelling to the worksite are complicated and the results can be perceived in a distinctly opposite and contradictory manner. The time spent depended on where the worksite was and if work was available. A worker could wait for hours for work located close by. Alternatively, less work availability could imply less waiting time. The worker can also leave earlier without waiting for too long for work. As noted earlier, women waited longer than men in the hope of getting some work given that they had consumption and maintenance roles to perform. Generally, the workers selected by the contractor were transported to the worksite; more often than not, they were left to fend for themselves when the work was over and they had to return home on their own. This obviously impacted the time that these workers spent on traveling to work and back, thus

extending their working day, though this component is termed as 'unpaid work' and is applicable to both men and women.

5.4.2 Associated Economic Activities

The System of National Accounts extends the normal definition of work and includes several activities within the production boundary, most of which have been classified under the head 'Household Processing and Repair of Self-Created Goods.' While the average time spent by the female and male cohorts might be similar or only marginally different, the former were involved in a much wider range of activities with rural women expending more time than their urban counterparts on these activities *(Figure 5.10 and Appendix XIV)*.

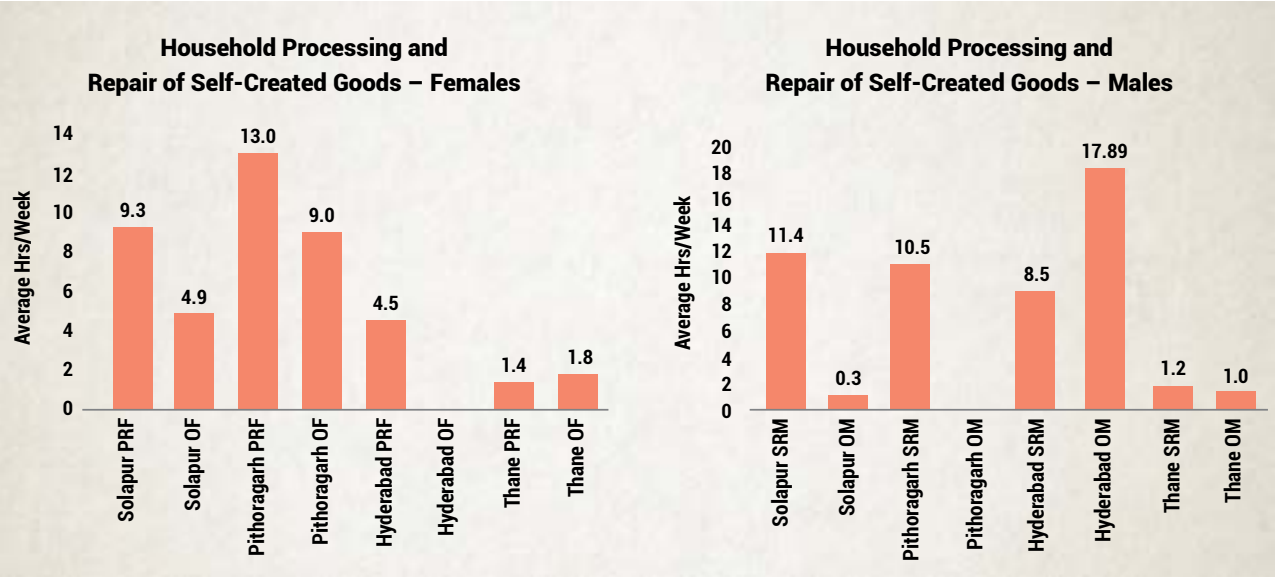
Women were heavily involved in the processing, cleaning, washing and drying of grains (an average of 16 hours/week in Solapur, 23.9 hours/week in Pithoragarh and less than 2 hours/week in Hyderabad and Thane). The maximum hours/week spent on processing of food grains was highest in Pithoragarh at 63 probably because it is from own farm, 35 in Solapur but much lower at 3.5 in Hyderabad and 12.5 in Thane. Women in Dongargaon in Solapur complained that they spent at least half a day cleaning 5 kg of wheat. The processing and preserving of milk, meat, fish etc. was the next major processing activity and the time taken varied from a high of 13.76 hours/week in Pithoragarh to 3 hours/week in Solapur to 2.6 hours/week in Hyderabad to the least 1.2 hours/week in Thane. This aspect of time again can be impacted by two opposite situations – that either the quality was so good that there was no need to spend time cleaning it, or that they could afford to eat meat and fish and hence did not spend any time on it.

Contrary to popular belief, a substantial number of women were also involved in the maintenance and repair of dwellings in all regions except Thane, averaging 12.23 hours/week in Pithoragarh to 15.3 hours/week in Hyderabad and barely 2 hours/week and 1.2 hours/week in Solapur and Thane. Many women also took care of the homesteads, kitchen gardens and yards especially in Solapur and Pithoragarh where they spent 1.75 hours/week and 5.5 hours/week on these activities respectively. Urban women predictably reported spending 2 hours/week in Hyderabad and 1.1 hour/week in Thane on this work.

Again, contrary to popular belief, women had a major role to play in technology. A huge number of women (259 respondents) in Pithoragarh repaired their self-owned agricultural tools on which they spent close to 9.81 hours/week. In fact, the women were more responsible than men, with only 78 males being involved in this activity.

In other regions, however, a majority of the male respondents were involved in the repair of self-owned agricultural and construction tools with the time spent varying between 21 hours/week in Solapur, 1.2 hours/week in Hyderabad (276 SRMs) and 1.3 hours/week in Thane. The least time spent on maintenance and repair of dwellings was in Thane (1.1 hours), on account of the semi-*pucca*

Figure 5.10.



nature of the dwellings as well as the fact that most of the respondents were tenants. In the other regions, the average time spent on these activities was 2.3 hours/week in Solapur, 16 hours/week in Hyderabad and 14.6 hours/week in Pithoragarh. However, in Pithoragarh double the number of women than men were involved in these activities. The long hours in Hyderabad can be attributed to the existence of *kutcha* houses which required frequent repairs. Men and women were both equally involved spending almost identical time. In Pithoragarh too men spent almost 15 hours/week on repairs and maintenance which could be on account of the weather conditions and the semi-*kutcha* nature of the houses.

5.4.3 Energy

Energy covers a wide range of activities from collecting firewood and animal dung to the time taken to light a *choolah* and the time spent to obtain kerosene and a personal gas cylinder. Since waiting in queues for kerosene and collecting gas cylinders is not a daily activity and the frequency is less, these two activities are excluded from a calculation of the average time spent on energy needs.

Although on average both women and men spent similar hours on energy collection, the gender centricity of the engagement can be seen in the number of respondents and the time associated with each activity under energy collection (*Figure 5.11 and Appendix XIV*).

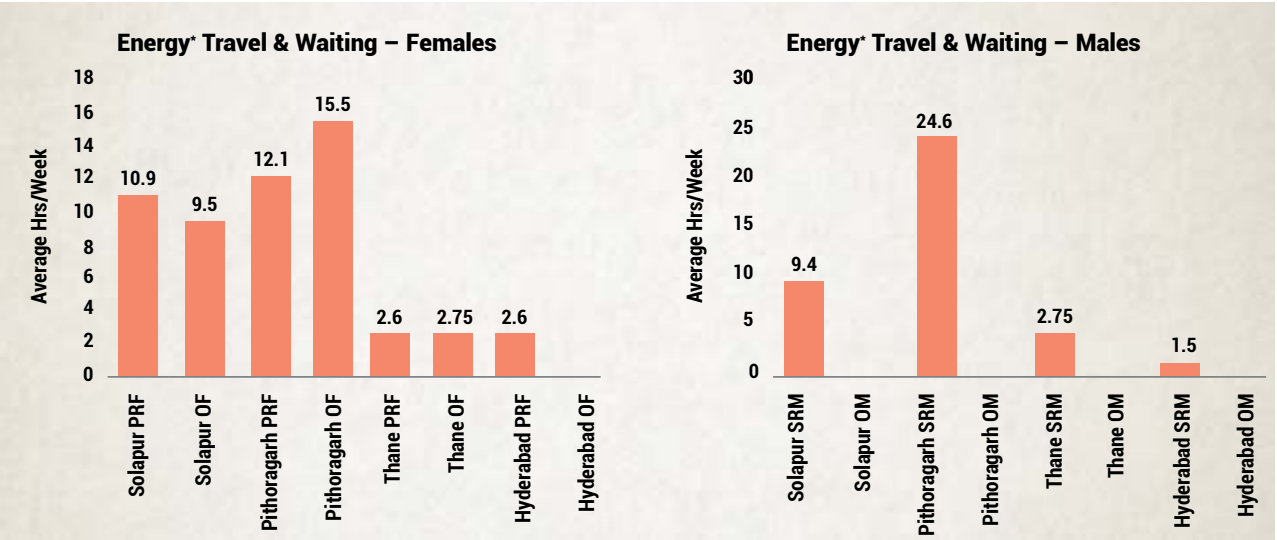
As is well documented firewood collection is perceived primarily as a woman's job. Hence our results are not surprising, with more than 70 per cent of the female respondents in each of the four areas reporting being engaged in the collection of firewood, rural women predictably spending longer hours than urban women on this activity. In Solapur and Pithoragarh, women contributed 20 hours/week and 27.6 hours/week respectively to collecting firewood with the OFs in both the areas helping substantially. The situation was quite different in Hyderabad and Thane which reported 2.6 hours/week of work. Both in Solapur and Pithoragarh only about one-third of the male respondents were involved in this work, those engaged spending marginally less time (17.2 hours/week in Solapur and 24.6 hours/week in Pithoragarh). Animal dung was largely used in Pithoragarh, the PRFs reporting 4.3 hours/week on this. Again, not surprisingly, lighting of a *choolah* was perceived as a woman's work. They spent approximately 2 hours/week on this activity in Thane and Solapur and a little more at 3 hours/week on an average in Hyderabad and Pithoragarh where paper and plastic were used.

Sonabai Nagappa Torne, a 48-year-old widow from Sonand works as an agricultural laborer. She did not have cooking gas and could not always afford to purchase kerosene, and so had to collect firewood for cooking and heating. She recently lost her left eye when she fell off a babul tree while trying to reach the higher branches after which she applied and managed to get a gas connection, but cannot always afford to refill it as the price keeps increasing. She is now back to collecting firewood.

5.4.4 Water

The results of our study break at least partially from the standard gendered distribution pattern of

Figure 5.11.



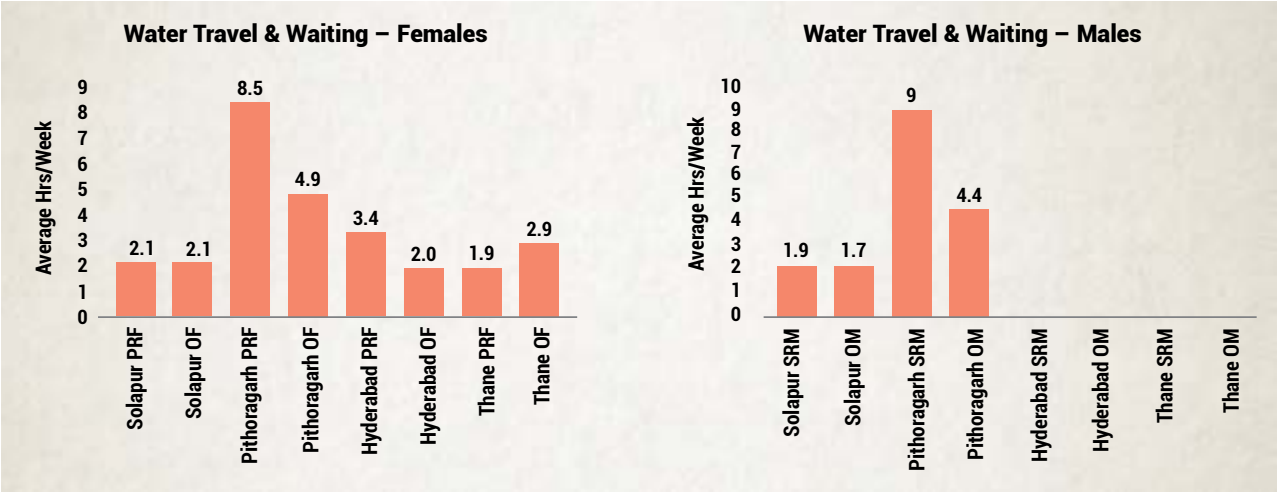
collection of water where it is generally presumed that only women are involved in this activity. Our findings reveal that a considerable number of male respondents were also involved in varying degrees in the collection of water both for irrigation and domestic use, although regional differences did exist. *Figure 5.12* shows the average gendered distribution pattern which was predictably the maximum in Pithoragarh due to the area's extensive reliance on streams as a source of water *(see Table 5.3).*

Women and men in urban areas collected water solely for domestic use including bathing/washing, cooking and drinking (see Appendix XIV). Although more than 80 per cent of the women (PRFs and OFs) spent between 2 to 4 hours/week on this activity, one-third of the men in Hyderabad, mainly SRMs, were also active in the ratio of 1 to 3 spending 1-3 hours/week on collecting water. In Thane, however, one could see the complete absence of men perhaps because in Hyderabad there was a substantial dependence on public taps and hand pumps whereas in Thane water was on tap in the dwelling yard which was much closer in distance as compared to the public tap.

Availability of sufficient water is a perennial issue in the urban areas. The stress and burden on women is best exemplified by the experience of Rathlavath Lachali, a young a widow living in Mudfort, Hyderabad. With two children in school, her water requirement is high primarily because, as she puts it, 'Uniforms have to be regularly clean and washed.' As water is released only three days in the week, she has to abstain from her income-earning activities for these days and stay at home. Precautions are taken in advance for fetching water; she has to keep her bucket in a queue the night before and gets her number in the queue only the next evening. All women in the slum are permitted to collect only 4 buckets at a time, and if more water is required, the queue has to be joined again. Water cannot be stored as it often gets stolen when family members are away. Rathlavath has recently made an exchange arrangement with her neighbor who is also a construction worker. They now go to work on alternate days, so that the other can stay home and thus not only collect water for each other but also safeguard it.

In rural areas water was also collected for irrigation and for livestock. Solapur witnessed a substantive participation by both women and men, although the number of men was half that of women. In terms of time too, though women spent marginally more, men did not report spending significantly less time: together they averaged between 1 to 3 hours/week (maximum 14 hours/week for all categories of water collection, except for the predictable cooking and drinking water where the range for women was double that for men). In Pithoragarh water collection was pre-dominantly a women oriented activity and both PRFs and OFs, spent about 20 hours/week collecting water for irrigation and about 4-5 hours/week collecting water for other purposes such as livestock, drinking, cooking and washing. Women in Pithoragarh took their livestock along with them and combined collection of firewood, washing and cleaning of livestock. All this was done near the many streams which reduced the demand for water within households. The distance to these streams,

Figure 5.12.



however, was rather long.

The problem in Pithoragarh related mainly to drinking water, especially in the summer months. The water supply did not reach the houses built on the upper side of hills and was in any case very irregular. Also, the water pipes were not maintained or covered and there had been several cases of these bursting both in the summer and also in winter when the pipes froze.

Non-availability of water was a major issue in the drought prone region of the plains, especially as the common property resources have been severely depleted; well water has turned salty and the water table is very low. Water tankers came every five days during the summer due to the huge demand in this region. Even when there was no drought, fetching water took 2 hours including walking and filling pots. The one single hand pump in Sonand village was very tight and required the combined strength of three persons to make it work. A major problem was that of fodder and water for the livestock. A major community here is the nomadic tribe which depends for its livelihood on animals and so water scarcity severely impacts their income levels.

The issue of water scarcity therefore needs to be perceived in multiple ways: availability, accessibility, timings, distance and the impact on women's paid work and time burden as well as the drudgery involved that especially keeps the marginalized in a state of continuous dependency and deprivation.

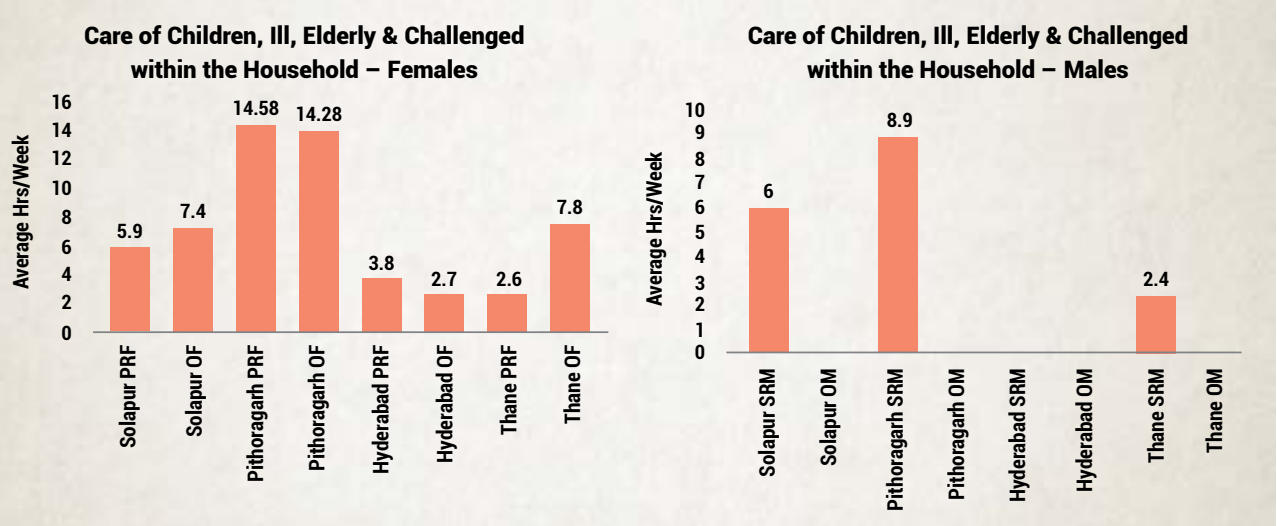
5.4.5 Care of Children, Ill, the Elderly and Challenged

Care encompasses a wide spectrum of activities from general childcare to medical care of children, the sick and the elderly. As in every other activity, the involvement of women in providing care is much greater both in number of providers as well as in the range of care-giving activities.

Both PRFs and OFs, bore the greatest burden of care activities of more than 14 hours/week. OFs' contribution was higher than that of PRFs in Solapur and Thane (about 8 hours for both). However, the number of OFs was much less in Thane, as the major responsibility for all care activities had been taken by PRFs. The situation in Solapur was somewhat different; medical and healthcare for children was the primary responsibility of OFs while all other care was provided by PRFs who spent about 6 hours per week on this *(Figure 5.13)*.

There was complete absence of OMs in care related work in all regions. Whatever little was done by men was solely by SRMs and even though the time spent may be similar to that of women, there was a major difference in the number of respondents involved. For instance, in Pithoragarh 35 SRMs reported spending an average of 8.9 hours/week only on a single activity of general childcare. As expected, the involvement of women was seen in almost all categories of care (Appendix XIV).

Figure 5.13.



Among the various activities under care, general childcare dominated with women spending 13.7 hours/week in Pithoragarh, 10.25 hours/week in Solapur and significantly lower in the urban areas at approximately 5 hours/week in Hyderabad and Thane. For men, the distribution varied between 9.3 hours/week in Solapur, 8.9 hours/week in Pithoragarh, 4 hours/week in Thane and 2.8 hours/week in Hyderabad.

Medical and healthcare across all categories was provided almost entirely by women. Under this category the largest demand was for children, though the pattern varied greatly from 15.4 hours/week in Pithoragarh to 3.5 hours/week in Hyderabad and was in the range of about 1-2 hours/week in Solapur and Thane. Except for Pithoragarh, men were also involved in the medical care of children and they spent between 1 hour/week in Solapur to a maximum of 3 hours/week in Hyderabad on this.

Medical care for the elderly was provided almost entirely by women in Solapur, Pithoragarh and Thane; in Hyderabad men did take some responsibility even though for a shorter duration. There were 25 cases recorded of physically and mentally challenged individuals who required medical and healthcare which too was a heavily gendered activity, with 18 women caregivers as against 7 male ones.

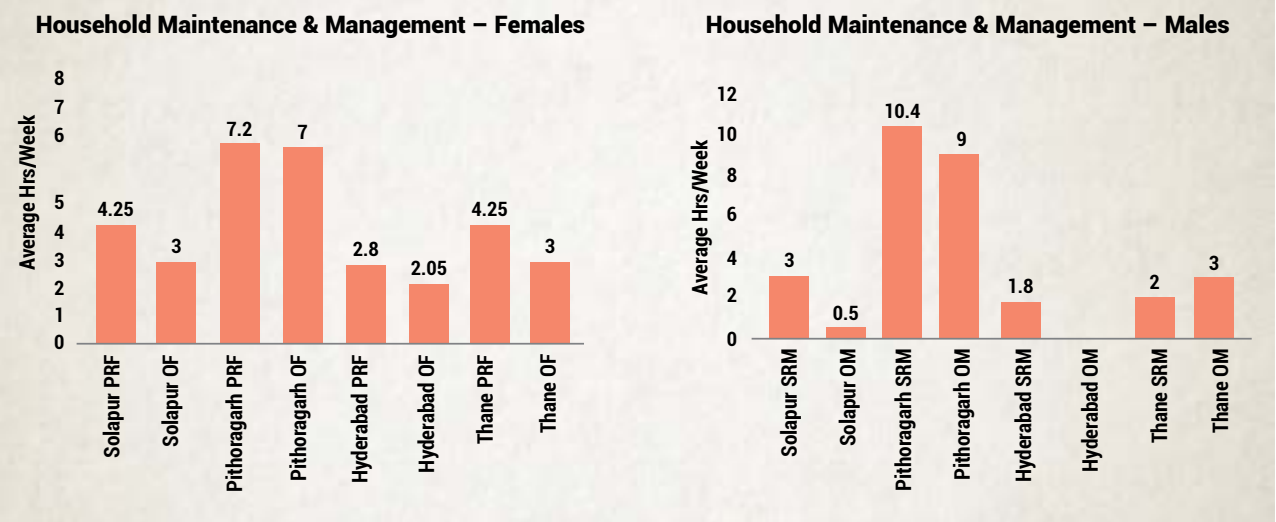
Further, with the exception of men in Pithoragarh men and women in Thane, both genders were involved in teaching and tuitions, and also homework for children, averaging 12.25 hours/week in Solapur to 2 hours/week in Hyderabad by SRMs. Both PRFs and OFs, took equal responsibility and spent 10.5 hours/week; the time spent in Hyderabad was the least at just about 1 hour/week. This is one of the few categories in which more men were involved possibly because literacy levels among men were higher in all the four regions. The low level of Hyderabad men in tuitions can be directly linked to the fact that two-third of them were illiterate.

5.4.6 Household Maintenance and Management

There was a clear gender-based division under the wide array of activities covered under household maintenance and management with women dominating in Solapur, Thane and Hyderabad *(see Appendix XIV and Figure 5.14).* Pithoragarh presented an interesting case: there was substantial participation of men even though their burden was less. However, this needs to be interpreted with caution. Apparently household work was done by men for a fixed number of days in a month given the strict cultural and religious milieu which cannot be reflected in quantitative data. It is a historical tradition in this region that women are not allowed to enter the kitchen during menstruation.

As expected, there was greater participation of women (PRFs and OFs) as they were involved in every activity and for longer durations. The largest proportion of time was spent in cooking, serving and cleaning up after meals; this was exclusively women's work done mainly by PRFs and supported by OFs though in smaller numbers. This activity

Figure 5.14.



took up more time in rural areas: 14-15 hours/week in Solapur and Pithoragarh, the maximum sometimes reaching 49 hours/week depending on the size of the family, the number of children and the number of times the food had to be cooked. Thane and Hyderabad averaged 9.2 hours/week.

In quantitative terms, the third highest burden was of washing and drying clothes, varying between 13.7 hours/week in Pithoragarh to 19.5 hours/week in Solapur and expectedly less at an average of 6 hours/week in urban areas. Washing and drying of vessels took the longest time at 7.7 hours/week in Pithoragarh and about half this time in the other three areas. Pithoragarh emerged as the region spending the most time in shopping for consumables: 17 hours/week, with Solapur recording the least at 2 hours/week. The long hours reported for Pithoragarh is not only because of the hilly terrain but also because of extremely poor roads and lack of transport. Women in Pithoragarh also spent a considerable amount of time in sewing, darning etc. (7 hours/week) and repair of household goods (10.9 hours/week). Women in Solapur and Pithoragarh spent an additional 5 hours/week on boiling and heating water.

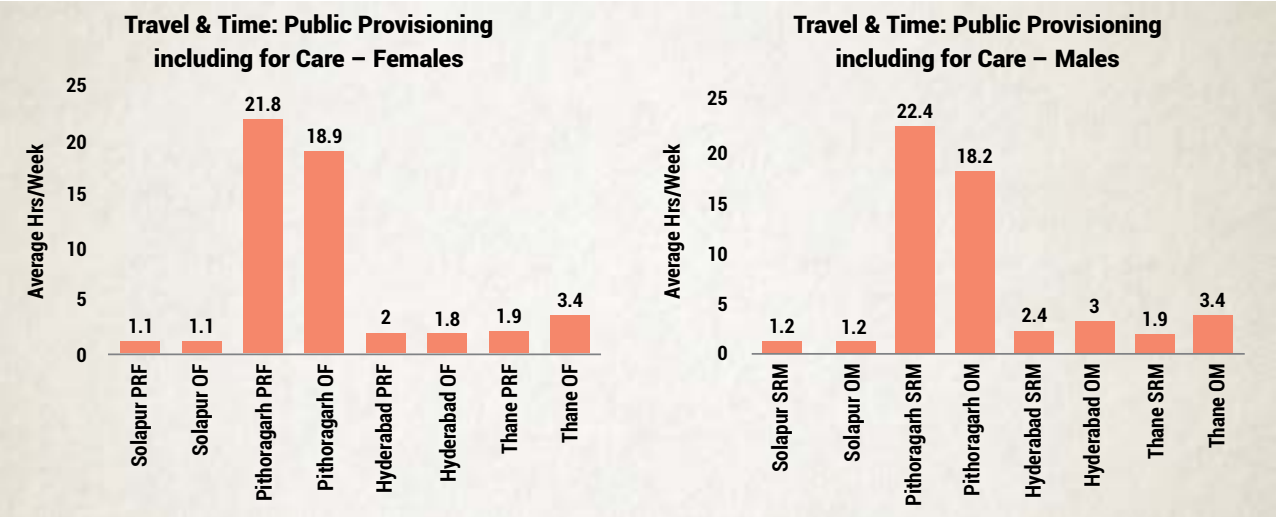
Male contribution to household maintenance and management was restricted to few activities in Pithoragarh and Solapur. Common to both regions was repair of personal and household goods (8.3 hours/week in Pithoragarh and 1.5 hours/week in Solapur) and shopping for consumables (16.25 hours/week in Pithoragarh and 2 hours/week in Solapur). Besides, in Pithoragarh about 60 men reported helping in washing clothes (18.4 hours/week) and boiling and heating water (6.7 hours/week). The largest number of male respondents contributed in making and picking up of beds.

Activities common to men in both urban regions include the boiling and heating of water (between 2-3 hours/week), recycling of garbage (1 hour/week), repair of household and personal goods (1.3 hours/week) and shopping for consumables (1.5 – 4 hours/week). Urban men were minimally involved in most other activities. All major household maintenance and management activities were in the exclusive domain of women: washing and drying of vessels; indoor cleaning; washing and drying of clothes; toilet and bathroom cleaning; recycling and disposing garbage; and sowing, stitching and darning.

5.4.7 Public Provisioning including Care

Several of the activities under public provisioning are occasional and hence the time spent on these activities, albeit important to the workload, cannot be included in the everyday or weekly time distribution pattern of respondents. It is apparent that women's involvement in occasional as well as daily activities under public provision was higher than that of men in all the four regions, especially Pithoragarh *(see Appendix XIV and Figure 5.15)*.

Figure 5.15.



Activities listed under public provisioning include access to toilet (with water), bathroom facility and visit to anganwadis, crèches and schools *(see Appendix XIV)*. Distribution patterns related to toilets and bathrooms for both men and women was identical, ranging between 1-3 hours/week in Solapur, Thane and Hyderabad. However, most houses had a bathroom facility or at least a *mori* within the premises and hence waiting for access was zero. In Pithoragarh a few households had toilets within the premises; there were no community or public toilets and most resorted to open defecation in the forest. Toilet and bathroom was a major issue for urban residents, both men and women. Predictably, women took longer, often spending an hour a day just for accessing toilet facilities or for hunting for a safe and secluded place for open defecation.

The issue of open defecation was taken up during the process of data collection by the local partner ARPAN in village Toli. An application was prepared; signatures of all families were taken and submitted to the panchayat. The budget has now been sanctioned and work is to begin after plot selection.

Travel time to visit an anganwadi, crèche and school was relevant only for Solapur PRFs, who spent about an hour/week on this. Occasional activities include visits to the health center/dispensaries, banks and post office for direct benefit transfer payments, access to the public distribution system, paying of bills and waiting for public transport, which ranged between 1 to 1.5 hours whenever undertaken for both men and women in Solapur, Thane and Hyderabad. In Pithoragarh, the time taken for each of these activities was much higher.

What is fascinating is the result relating to use of public transport, with more women than men using it breaking yet another myth. This was true of every area studied with women averaging a slightly higher time than men. Women were not necessarily constrained by local markets and situations and had begun widening their horizons probably at a rate faster than men. All participants in all the FGDs held across all the four regions raised issues of affordability and regularity of transport services. A critical infrastructural issue thus emerges – that of greater investments in more affordable and better transport and road systems that take into account gendered and differential needs.

Women from Toli village complained bitterly about unregulated fares and merely one daily service and that too erratic from Dharchula to the district headquarters in Pithoragarh. Women from Khimkola rued decreasing public transport and the undue dependency on private jeeps that charged exorbitant amounts.

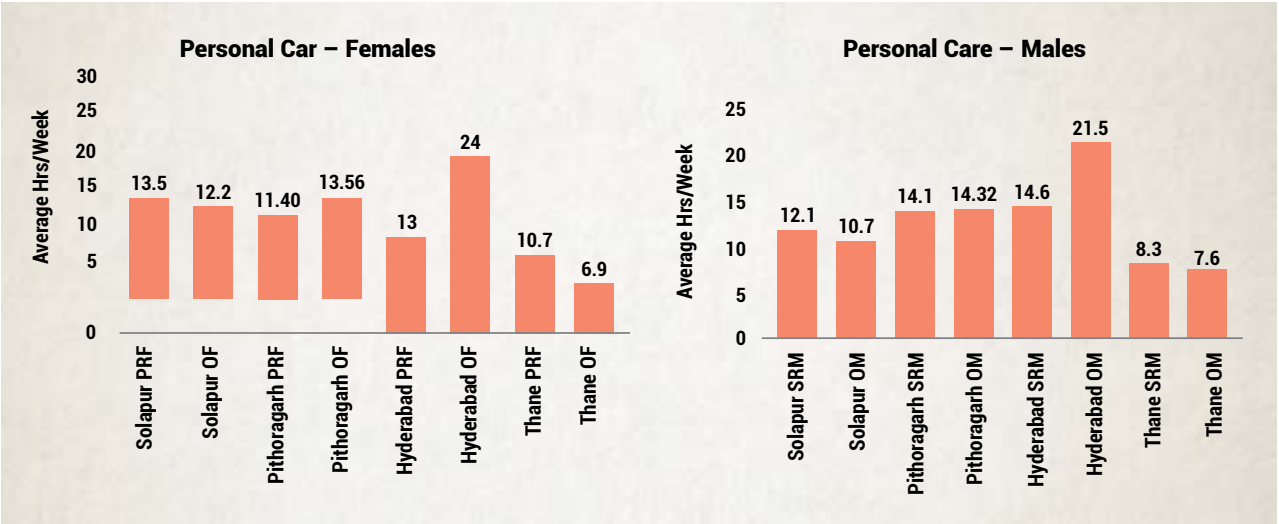
Direct benefit transfers (DBTs) was much more applicable in rural areas. Gendered patterns were extremely instructive: more women than men in all regions except Thane reported having a bank account. Also, more women in Pithoragarh received DBTs, while the opposite was true of Solapur. Also to be noted is that a significant proportion of DBTs came for post office accounts, signaling that this often ignored but ubiquitous facility can prove to be an asset in increasing financial inclusion rather than banks which are known to be unfriendly to women and insensitive to their needs especially if they come from marginalized sections.

5.4.8 Personal Care

Personal care is an umbrella activity and spans a wide spectrum: sleep, personal hygiene, medical care and rest and relaxation. PRFs gave relatively less importance to personal care than SRMs in Pithoragarh and Hyderabad, averaging 11.4 hours/week for PRFs and 14.1 hours/week for SRMs in the former and 13 hours/week and 14.6 hours/week respectively in in Hyderabad. The opposite was true in Solapur and Thane. In the former, PRFs spent 13.5 hours/week and the SRMs 12.1 hours/week, whereas in Thane PRFs and SRMs averaged 10.7 hours/week and 8.3 hours/week. Analyzing this across regions and for all women (PRFs and OFs), Thane women spent the least amount of time on personal care *(see Figure 5.16)*.

The single most crucial indicator as well as result of the huge burden of unpaid and paid work that a woman bore was lack of sleep. This cut through all regions and sectors. Pithoragarh PRFs slept for the least amount of time, averaging merely 5.5 hours per day. In other regions, the PRFs on average slept for about 46 to 50 hours/week. Solapur and Thane reported a somewhat similar pattern for both genders, while in the other two areas PRFs slept less than SRMs *(see Appendix XIV)*. The other major concern under personal care was the amount of rest and relaxation. In Solapur, Thane and Pithoragarh women and men spent somewhat similar amounts of time, albeit with some regional

Figure 5.16.



variations, whereas in Hyderabad there was a marked difference between PRF and SRM patterns, the former resting for not even half the time that SRMs did, the comparative average times being 7.2 hours/week and 15.2 hours/week.

An important activity was the time spent on personal hygiene and care where both PRFs and SRMs across regions spent between 4–5.5 hours/week. The min-max range was also similar, except for Pithoragarh where the upper range was significantly higher at 28 hours/week.

There were substantial differences in the time mentioned by several women in all areas, especially in relation to bathing. The longer time taken was basically due to distance and hunting for safe secluded spaces, as well as combining bathing of self with that of children and washing clothes. Some women also reported a 5-minute bath; wondering how anyone could manage in such little time. We were informed that many women, especially those with smaller children, had what is locally termed in Maharashtra as a *kauva-bath*, meaning literally a 'crow bath', implying only the pouring of water without any time to apply soap and washing it off.

These high-low variations are also discernable in the time taken to eat meals. At a broad average level women and men spent about 5 to 6 hours/week, except in Solapur which reported a high of 16 hours/week. Several women in all the regions explained the issue of either too much time or too little time spent on meals. One, that they often spent more time serving others than eating. Two, that they had to feed children along with themselves. Three, that they had no time to sit down for a meal and combined eating with other activities including looking after livestock and collecting water.

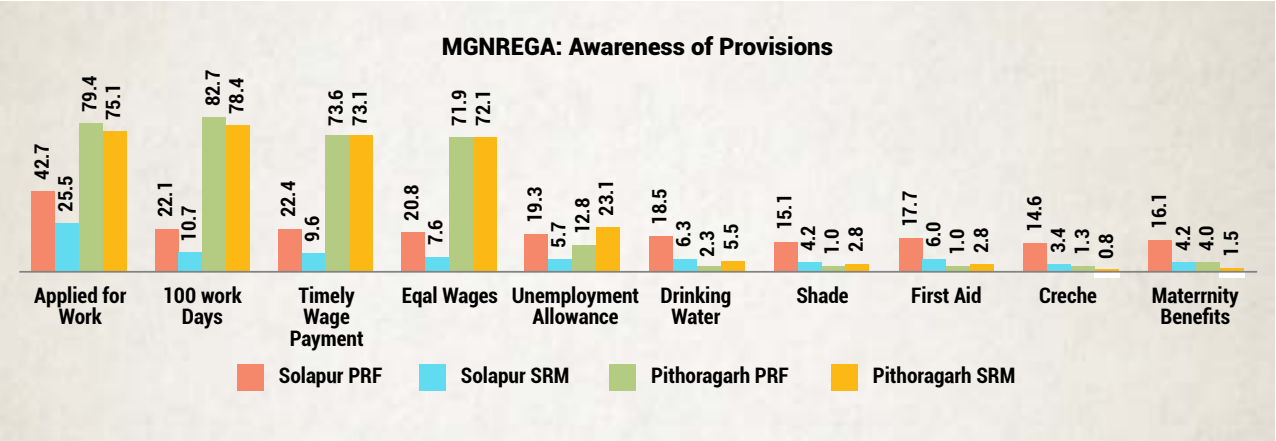
5.4.9 Government Schemes: Awareness and Beneficiaries

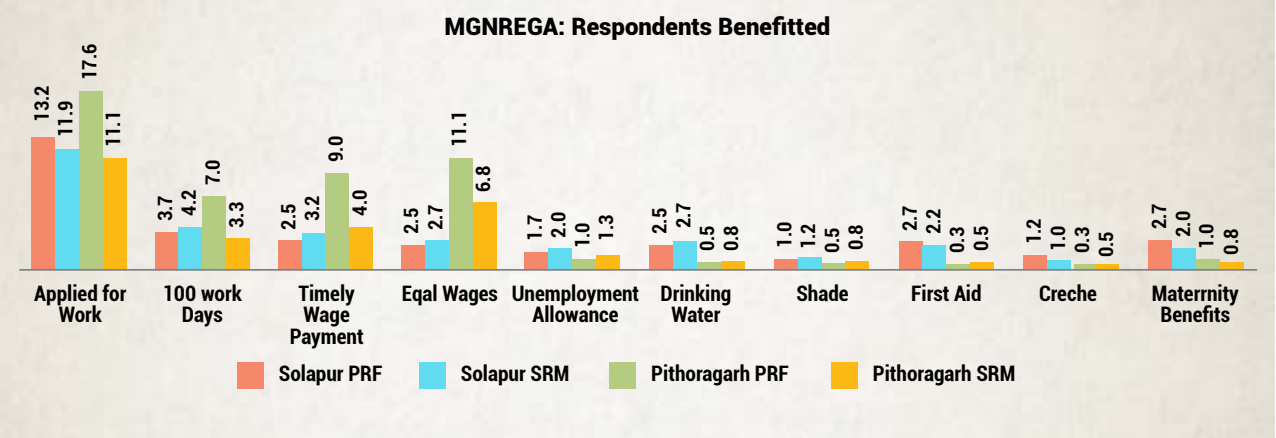
The two major schemes that impacted the two selected constituencies of agricultural and constructions workers are MGNREGS and BOCWA. After evaluating the implementation of these two we examine other specified government schemes which impact all, irrespective of constituency. The results are presented in actuals, proportions and ratios.

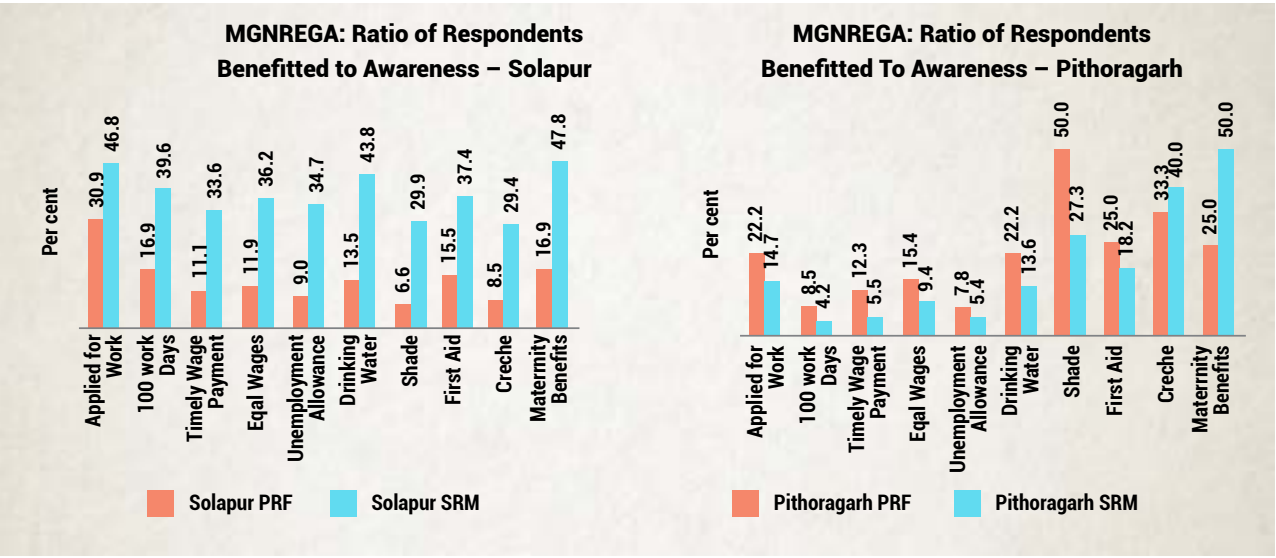
The gendered differences in the extent of awareness and benefits of MGNREGS are immediately apparent from *Figure 5.17* and Appendix XIV. Information about MGNREGS' provisions was higher among female workers in both the regions. However, awareness did not guarantee benefits. In terms of implementation, a greater per cent of males in Solapur and more women in Pithoragarh benefitted. The plotting of the benefits of awareness ratio highlights the wide gaps between male and female agricultural workers in Solapur and the greater benefits enjoyed by females in Pithoragarh (Figure 5.17).

That women in Pithoragarh and Solapur identified more closely with MGNREGS than men is clear from the fact that more of them had cards: 306 women in Pithoragarh as compared to 263 men; 61 women in Solapur as compared to 49 men. Ten provisions of MGNREGS were taken for special evaluation. Only about 15 per cent of all women and 5 per cent of men in Solapur and 5 per cent of women and 8 per cent of men in Pithoragarh were aware of six

Figure 5.17.







of these: Maternity Benefit, Crèche, First Aid, Shade, Drinking Water and Unemployment Allowance. The only somewhat well-known provision in Solapur was 'Applied for Work' amongst women (42.7 per cent) and one-fourth men. About one-fifth of the women and 7 per cent of the men know about Timely Wage Payment, 100 days' Work and Equal Wages. Beneficiaries, both men and women, did not cross the 10 per cent mark in terms of benefits of any of the provisions except 13.2 per cent 'aware' women and 11.9 per cent 'aware' men getting work under MGNREGS. In all other provisions, the proportion of men and women benefitting was 2 per cent who got Drinking Water, Shade, First Aid, etc. Crèche facilities and Maternity Benefits were accessed by only one woman.

Though awareness about the provisions was higher in Pithoragarh, the ratio of beneficiaries was lower. Almost 80 per cent of all PRFs and 75 per cent SRMs were aware that applying for work was necessary, but only 17 per cent women and 11 per cent men had benefitted. While awareness regarding 100 Days' Work was extremely high at about four-fifth for both men and women, barely 7 per cent women and 3 per cent men had received the full number of days of work. More than 72 per cent men and women knew about Timely Wage Payments and Equal Wages, but not even one-tenth had benefitted from this provision.

Implementation of MGNREGS in Solapur was 'controlled' and, as the Dongargaon village sarpanch put it, 'It is not required and therefore limited.' Solapur is among the largest suppliers of cane cutters to the numerous sugar factories that dot the entire region. An alternate source of employment would reduce the need of agricultural laborers migrating out; also not 'acceptable' to the village panchayat is the concept of equal wages; this, the sarpanch claims, is the major reason why men do not apply for work under MGNREGS.

Jayashree Gorakh Kutte, a single woman from Dongargaon, Solapur had a simple reply: 'Don't give us equal wages; give equal rice or wheat in kind.' She had been a MGNREGS worker two years ago when she got work for 15 days, at the rate of Rs 100 per day; since then she has been repeatedly asking for work but has not been given work even for a day, nor does she get the unemployment allowance.

The sabhapati of Sangola in Solapur admits that implementation of MGNREGS is poor, but puts the blame on the 'multiplicity of work,' and that village functionaries find it difficult to monitor the work. She is aware that few of the provisions are provided at a few sites where construction work has been carried out but certainly not women-specific ones such as crèches.

Apparently seven wells have been dug and a half-completed road constructed under this scheme in Sonand village since 2011. In all, 84 workers benefitted from this, though not necessarily one-third of them were women. The village functionaries insisted that all provisions were made including shade under trees, that all were given job cards and that bank accounts were opened for them, assertions which the women deny. Another problem focused on by the respondents and also village and taluka officials is that of musters, e-rolls and the insistence on Aadhaar cards instead of MGNREGS cards.

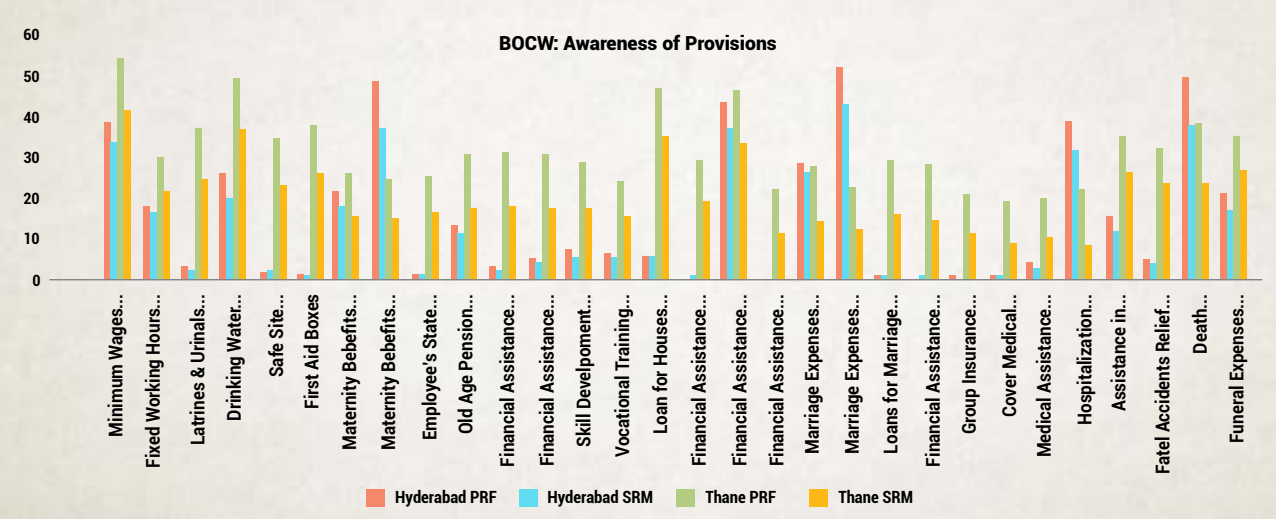
Beneficiaries of Toli village in Pithoragarh informed us that no provisions were made at the worksite, not even water. Contractors refused to employ women who brought their children along and the anganwadi centers were not useful because of their limited timings. Several complaints were also made in relation to the violence they faced especially from the contractors and demanded a sexual harassment cell as a MGNREGS provision, stating that these contractors should be barred from getting contracts in the future.

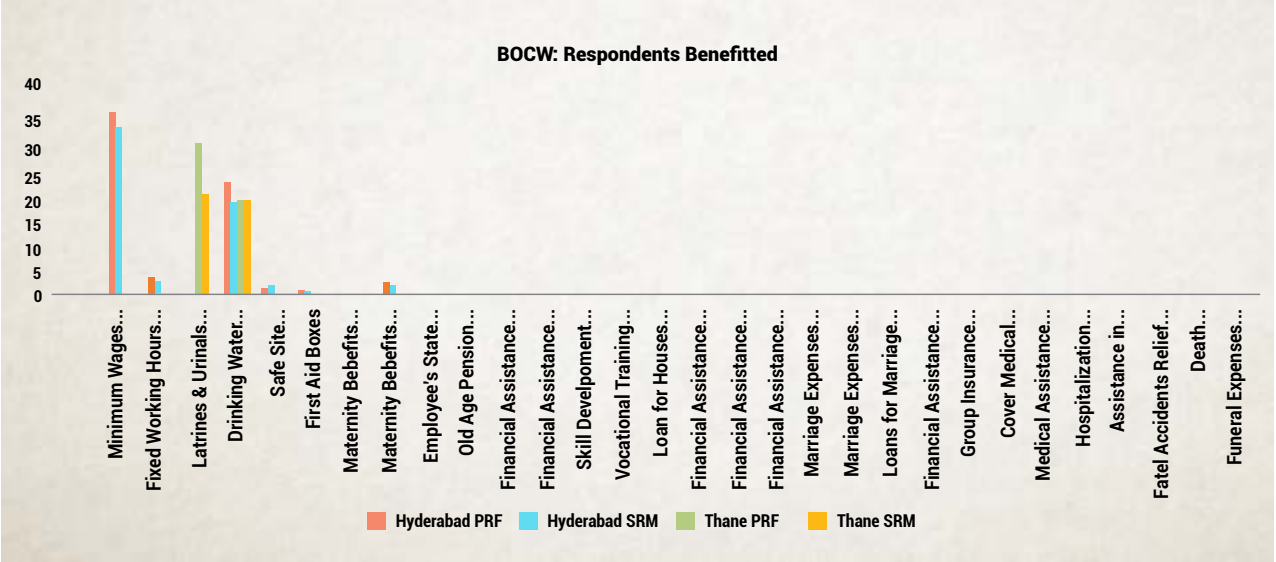
Construction workers are among the most vulnerable segments of unorganized labor in India. The nature of their work is temporary and mostly involves casual labor. Consequently, the relationship between the employer and the employee is temporary and working hours uncertain. Details of awareness and benefits in the study area are presented in *Figure 5.18 and Appendix XIV* .

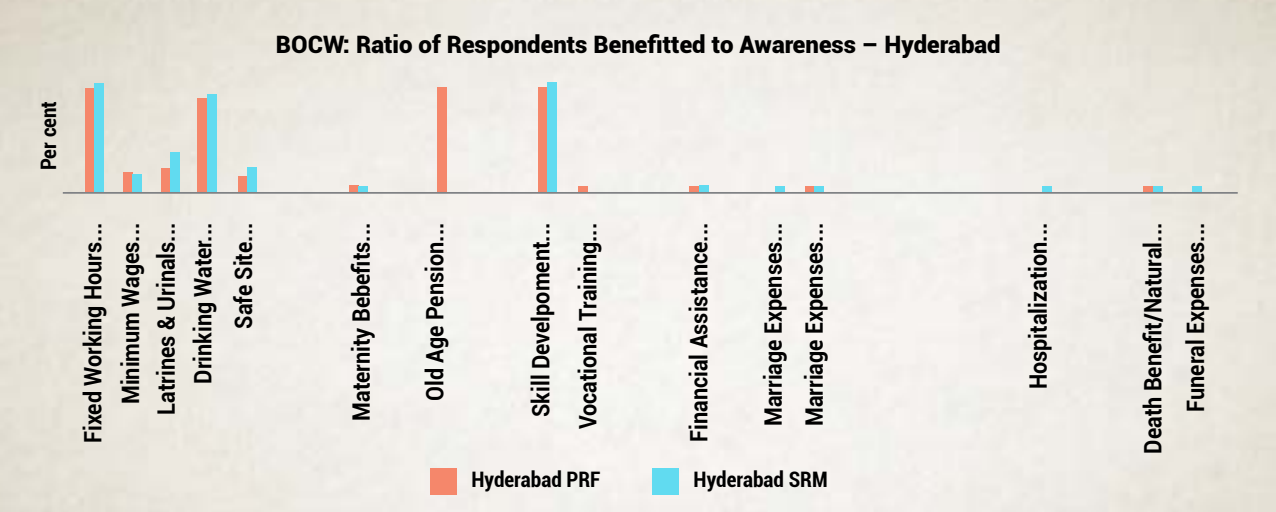
It is important to note that like in MGNERGS women construction workers were more aware of the provisions under BCOW than male workers especially in Thane. We listed 30 provisions in the household questionnaire – Thane women were aware of every one of them although in varying proportions from a minimum of 22 per cent to a maximum of about 54 per cent. In contrast, male construction workers knew of only that relating to drinking water and that too at a low of 20 per cent.

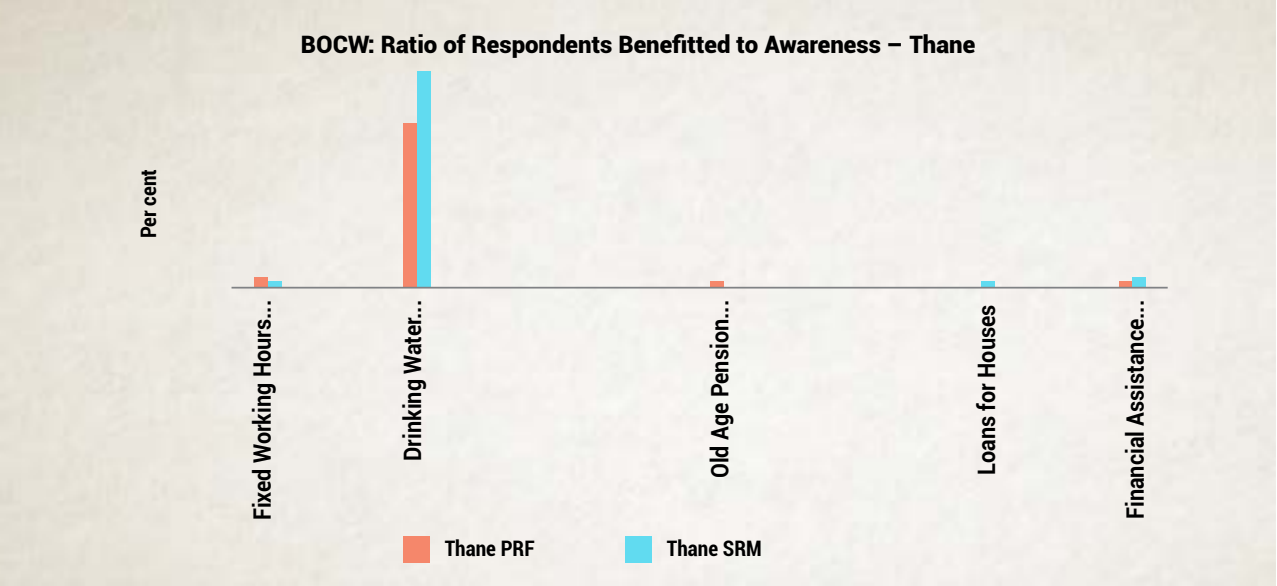
Awareness levels were comparatively lower in Hyderabad and also limited in terms of provisions. Further, this knowledge had a stronger patriarchal bias which also reflects women's reality than that of women construction workers in Thane. For instance, the highest proportion of awareness among women related to the provisions of Marriage Expenses for Daughters of Workers and Maternity Benefits for Daughters of Workers. Not even one worker, however, had benefited under these two categories. This contradiction is ironic: what is most desired by women workers is what is denied to them. Yet women workers in Hyderabad may have lost on marriage and maternity benefits, they have benefited not insignificantly from other provisions relating to implementation of minimum

Figure 5.18


BOCW: Awareness of Provisions
60
50
40
30
20
10
0
Minimum Wages...
Fixed Working Hours...
Latrines & Urinals...
Drinking Water...
Safe Site...
First Aid Boxes
Maternity Bebefits...
Maternity Bebefits...
Employee's State...
Old Age Pension...
Financial Assistance...
Financial Assistance...
Skill Develpoment...
Vocational Training...
Loan for Houses...
Financial Assistance...
Financial Assistance...
Financial Assistance...
Marriage Expenses...
Marriage Expenses...
Loans for Marriage...
Financial Assistance...
Group Insurance...
Cover Medical...
Medical Assistance...
Hospitalization...
Assistance in...
Fatel Accidents Relief...
Death...
Funeral Expenses...
Hyderabad PRF
Hyderabad SRM
Thane PRF
Thane SRM


BOCW: Respondents Benefitted
40
35
30
25
20
15
10
5
0
Minimum Wages...
Fixed Working Hours...
Latrines & Urinals...
Drinking Water...
Safe Site...
First Aid Boxes
Maternity Bebefits...
Maternity Bebefits...
Employee's State...
Old Age Pension...
Financial Assistance...
Financial Assistance...
Skill Develpoment...
Vocational Training...
Loan for Houses...
Financial Assistance...
Financial Assistance...
Financial Assistance...
Marriage Expenses...
Marriage Expenses...
Loans for Marriage...
Financial Assistance...
Group Insurance...
Cover Medical...
Medical Assistance...
Hospitalization...
Assistance in...
Fatel Accidents Relief...
Death...
Funeral Expenses...
Hyderabad PRF
Hyderabad SRM
Thane PRF
Thane SRM


BOCW: Ratio of Respondents Benefitted to Awareness – Hyderabad
Per cent
Fixed Working Hours...
Minimum Wages...
Latrines & Urinals...
Drinking Water...
Safe Site...
Maternity Bebefits...
Old Age Pension...
Skill Develpoment...
Vocational Training...
Financial Assistance...
Marriage Expenses...
Marriage Expenses...
Hospitalization...
Death Benefit/Natural...
Funeral Expenses...
Hyderabad PRF
Hyderabad SRM



wages, fixed working hours, availability of latrines and urinals, drinking water and safe sites.

There are several possible reasons for greater awareness among women workers. One, that women construction workers are generally more aware of their rights as workers – crossing the threshold between unpaid and paid work requires both urgency and desperation. Two, that these women are apprehensive that their life struggles will be extended beyond the household and therefore they need to be armed with knowledge. Three, that women have closer social ties and hence learn from the experiences of their peers. Four, that men generally tend to take workers' rights for granted and hence are blasé about complicated issues of awareness and benefits.

Predictably, the rather low level of fulfilment of BCOW provisions was blamed on the workers. Interviews with key functionaries and implementing authorities were full of blame, complaints and platitudes: the workers are illiterate; they drink too much; domestic violence is high; they cannot keep their surroundings clean and garbage free; they fight over water; they are undisciplined; they go beyond their given status – this last phrase confused us a bit till we realized that what was being referred to was caste and community affiliations.

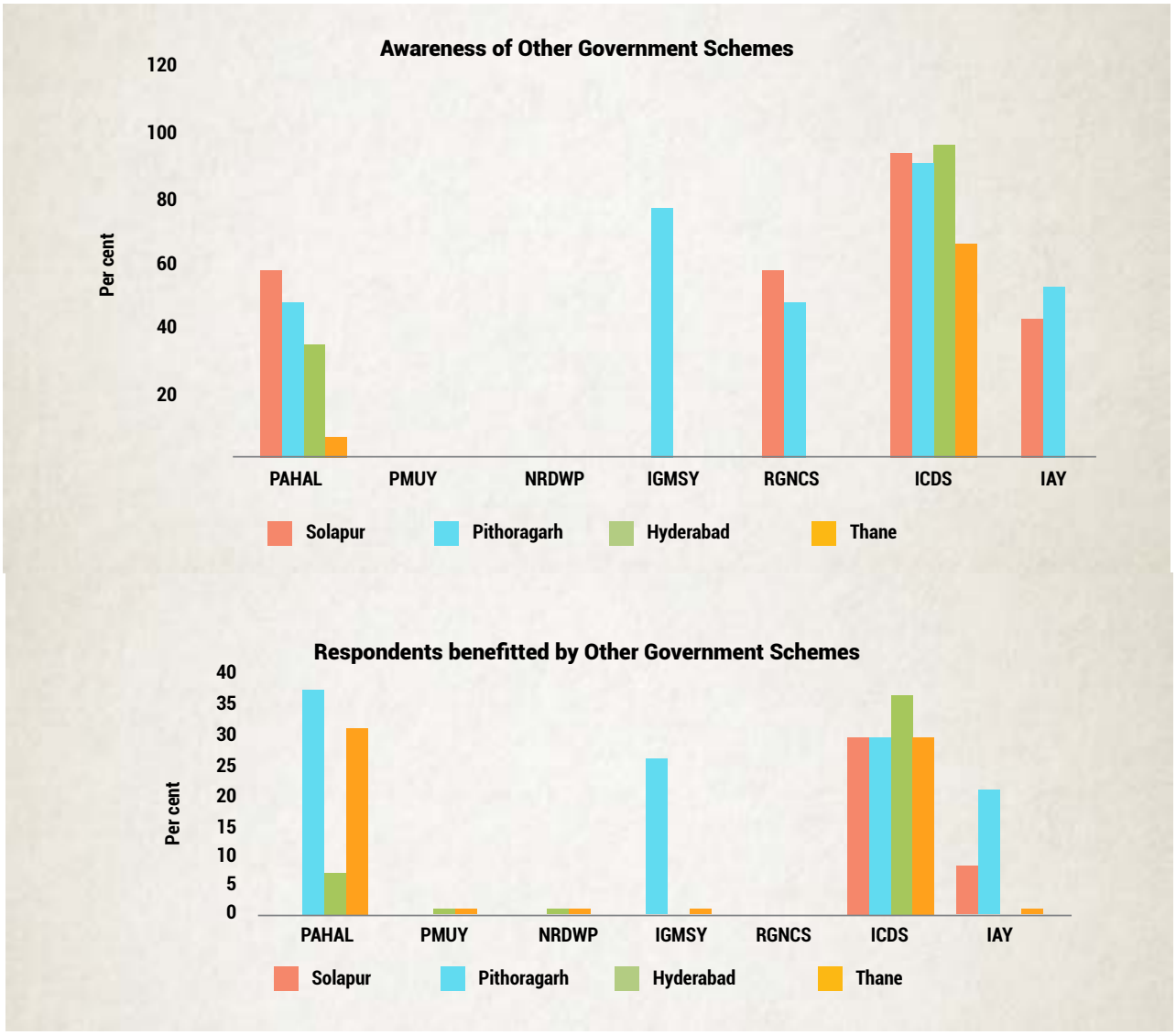
Several other schemes were also evaluated in the context of this research, the findings of which are given in *Figure 5.19* and *Appendix XIV.* Expectedly, the most widely known scheme was ICDS, averaging over 90 per cent awareness except in Thane where it was two-third. Benefits too were similar, 29 per cent in all regions except in Hyderabad where it was a bit higher at 36.5 per cent. These proportions of benefits relate somewhat directly to the respective proportion of children in the applicable age group in the family and mainly to issues of accessibility, availability timings and distance.

The Indira Awas Yojana (rural housing scheme) is not strictly part of the primary context of this research but it proved to be an extremely central component of women's perceptions: the right to a house of one's own. Though more women in Solapur stressed on this in the FGDs, more in Pithoragarh had succeeded in availing the provisions, the benefit ratio being almost 50 per cent. The benefits were the highest in Pithoragarh both in terms of knowledge about the scheme and about its benefits. PAHAL was known by its name in all regions except Solapur, even though about 12 women here had received the gas subsidy. The proportion of households getting this subsidy was the highest in Pithoragarh at 37 per cent followed by 35.5 per cent in Thane. As expected, only 7 per cent of the unauthorized residents in Hyderabad's slums had received the subsidy. Only one other scheme was recognized – IGMSY – and that too again in Pithoragarh, with three-fourth aware and about one-fourth benefitting from it. In other schemes such as PMUY, NRDWP and RGNCS the proportion of households aware as well as benefiting was insignificant.

5.4.10 Redistribution of Free Time

The issue of redistribution is central to this action

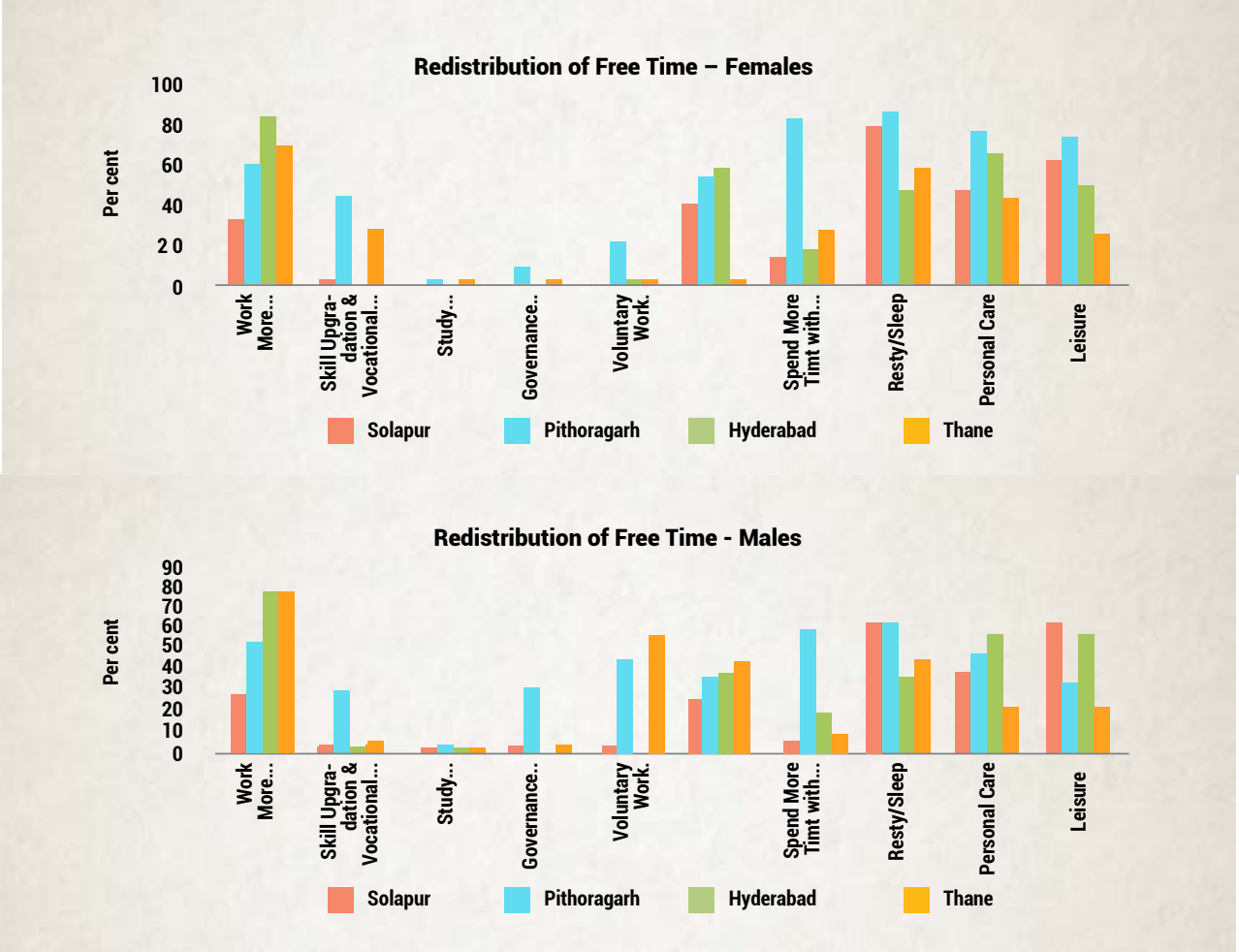
Figure 5.19.



research and this section was especially designed to capture the reality of these women and men in the context of the burden they face and the time poverty they experience, and to what extent and in which direction their desires can be translated into a more equitable pattern. The redistribution of free time addresses the normative goals and thoughts of the respondents. In other words, it concerns the activities on which time would be spent if the work burden was reduced or redistributed. Interestingly almost similar patterns emerged from both male and female respondents in each region albeit with variations in priorities across regions (Figure 5.20 and Appendix XIV).

The major activities that women and men would like to spend their time on encompass rest and sleep, leisure, work more and personal care; 80 per cent women and men in Hyderabad would prefer to work more while 80 per cent women and 60 per cent men in Solapur and Pithoragarh would prefer to rest/sleep; men also have to bear a part of the unpaid burden, even though to a lesser degree than women. More than 60 per cent of the respondents, male as well as female in Solapur would prefer to have more leisure. A sizeable per cent of female and male respondents preferred spending more time with their children and friends. A very miniscule per cent of both male and female respondents indicated their preference to study, be associated with governance and/or engage in voluntary work. Preference for skill upgradation was indicated only by women in Pithoragarh and by both men and women in Thane.

Figure 5.20.



Each of these figures has a story behind them and it would be fascinating to unravel them. The primary wish in terms of what they would do if they had more time is clearly more sleep for rural women – 80.5 per cent in Solapur and 88.4 per cent in Pithoragarh. For rural men too sleep is a priority as they also share the unpaid work burden, though significantly less by 20 per cent points. Solapur men were equally keen on sleep and leisure. This is interesting as several men told us that they wanted to spend more time in the saloon, a wish not one woman expressed, except for a teenager in Thane.

The priority for urban women and men was to work. This aspiration needs to be understood in relation to the conditions of work prevalent in the informal sector and the chronic insecurity of guaranteed employment. The correct interpretation of over 75 per cent of the respondents wanting to work more in reality means more remunerative work as it is not the hours of work but the payment of decent wages that keeps poverty entrenched. In the ultimate sense, wages are to be perceived in both absolute and relative terms and not only as factor-income but fundamentally as factor-share.

Social interaction emerged as an important component, especially if seen in simple terms, 'Spending Time with Friends'. Pithoragarh emerged as a truly distinct region; this category got a resounding yes from over 88 per cent women and 59 per cent men, the second most important priority for them after rest/sleep. Another crucial finding is that almost as many men as women wanted to spend more time with their children. In Thane in fact the proportion of men far outweighed that of women. This aspect needs to be more nuanced and clarified through appropriate strategies of advocacy and action.

5.5: Time Distribution Patterns: Women Workers in General and Female-headed Households

Among the most marginalized and vulnerable sections are female-headed households. Therefore, it would be instructive to understand whether and to what extent they face greater time poverty, whether they have to bear a greater burden of unpaid work, whether their work allocation patterns differ, whether they undertake unpaid work differently from 'general' households and whether their 'single-ness' is reflected in the nature and extent of work that they do as well as in the gendered continuum applicable to their reality. Consequently, we compared situations in general households vis-à-vis female-headed households (FHHs) *(see Table 5.6 and Appendix XIV)*.

There appears to be no major difference in cultivation patterns either in Solapur (24.5 hours/week in FHHs) or in Pithoragarh (28.4 hours/week in FHHs). The differences arise not in terms of time spent so much as in terms of the nature of agricultural activities that women from general and women from FHHs are involved in, or, possibly are permitted to do in a specific patriarchal-cultural milieu.

FHHs were not engaged in the ploughing of land. Likewise, women in FHHs were not engaged in sowing and carrying of manure to the field, whereas women in general households were not engaged in applying fertilizers and nursery work. The major work burden of women in both general and FHHs related to weeding and cutting undergrowth and harvesting and related activities where the time spent was more than 30 hours/week. Besides, women workers in FHHs like their counterparts in general households in Pithoragarh were engaged in a wider range of sub-activities under cultivation as compared to women workers in FHHs in Solapur. Similar to the pattern seen for general households in Pithoragarh, even in FHHs, the contribution of OFs was significant across all sub-activities under cultivation and on an average the time spent by the OFs matched that of PRFs in Pithoragarh. Intriguingly, in Solapur there was complete lack of involvement of OFs in activities under cultivation.

As in the case of cultivation, responsibilities of PRFs in FHHs in animal husbandry were not vastly different from their general household counterparts in both rural areas. There was , however, a substantially high and significant amount of time spent (14.6 hours/week) by the OFs in FHHs in Solapur although the only activity that the OFs was associated with was animal and livestock grazing. Even in Pithoragarh, among the FHHs the contribution of OFs was markedly higher in collecting and storing milk (10.5 hours/week) and safeguarding animals (16.3 hours/week). Only seven female respondents in FHHs in Pithoragarh were involved in forest and also fishing activities, engaged solely in making nets and traps which is similar to the activity undertaken by male respondents from general households. Like in general households, this activity was not undertaken by FHH respondents in Solapur.

Differential patterns of work burden and time distribution emerged in the construction constituency in both Hyderabad and Thane. The PRFs of FHHs in Hyderabad spent longer hours, 18.3 hours/week which is higher than that spent by PRFs (15.7 hour/week) in general households, but the range of activities under construction that the PRF workers (FHHs) were associated with – mixing/straining mud, head load and earth digging – was less as compared to their counterparts in general households. On the other hand, in Thane PRFs (FHHs) spent an average 17.3 hours/week which is much lower than female workers (25.75 hours/week) in general households. Also, the only activity PRFs in FHHs are associated with is being employed as a head load worker similar to that in general households. A feature common among FHHs in both the urban areas was the complete absence of OF workers.

The relatively lower amount of time spent on construction activities by women in FHHs can be explained by several factors:

One, sexual harassment at the workplace, which is built into the 'labor contracts'. A significantly large number of women complained repeatedly about the increase in sexual violence. Being single, they were considered as being available: several single women had started avoiding getting into construction work in both Hyderabad and Thane.

Two, lack of childcare support for single women who were the primary earners. A few households had other women to help out including older daughters, but few of even these OFs could afford not to earn.

Table 5.6 **Average Time Distribution Pattern of Women in General and female-headed Households (Hours/Week)**

ACTIVITY	SOLAPUR PRFS	SOLAPUR OFS	PITHORAGARH PRFS	PITHORAGARH OFS	HYDERABAD PRFS	HYDERABAD OFS	THANE PRFS	THANE OFS
General Households								
Cultivation/ Construction	25.0	1.8	27.9	25.2	15.7	4.0	25.75	
Animal Husbandry	14.75	1.25	9.0	7.4				
Forestry & Fishing			31.3	34.5				
Non-Agricultural &Non-Construction Earning Activities			48.1				22	
Travel & Waiting Time for Economic Activities	4.6	5.9	15.3	14.5	8.6		3.75	
Household Processing & Repair	9.25	4.9	13.0	9.1	4.5		1.4	1.8
Travel & Waiting Time for Energy*	10.9	9.5	12.0	13.0	2.6		2.6	2.75
Travel & Waiting Time for Water	2.1	2.1	8.5	4.9	3.4		1.9	2.9
Care of Children, Ill, Elderly & Challenged	5.9	7.5	14.6	14.3	3.8		2.6	7.8
Household Maintenance & Management	4.25	3.0	7.2	7.0	2.8	2.0	2.9	3.5
Travel & Time for Public Provisioning	1	1.1	21.8	18.9	2.0	2.4	1.9	3.5
Female-headed Households								
Cultivation/ Construction	24.5		28.4	28.1	18.33		17.25	
Animal Husbandry	12.3	14.60	9.7	10.3				
Forestry & Fishing			39.0	28.0				
Non-Agricultural &Non-Construction Earning Activities			46.25				17.75	
Travel & Waiting Time for Economic Activities	5.4	4.8	15.25	20.2	8.01		3.25	
Household Processing & Repair	4.75	3.0	12.9	13.0	4.58	10.67	1.1	2.0
Travel & Waiting Time for Energy*	5.11	7.8	10.6	9.9	2.13		1.75	0.3
Travel & Waiting Time for Water	8.5	4.9	9.5	4.8	3.60	2.17	1.1	0.5
Care of Children, Ill, Elderly & Challenged	3.5	12.3	15.8	16.5	3.71		1.5	
Household Maintenance & Management	3.3	3.2	6.7	7.3	2.71	2.87	1.0	1.0
Travel & Time for Public Provisioning	1.15	1	22.3	23.6	2.01	2.61	0.75	0.5

Three, there are relatively more opportunities for self-employment and home-based work in Thane so fewer preferred to go to work in construction on a daily basis. In Thane, a new job opportunity has opened up: that of washing and cleaning PDS rice. Similar to the situation observed in general households, even in FHHs there was not much participation of female workers in non-agricultural and non-construction earning activities. In Solapur and Hyderabad not even five women were involved in these activities. In Pithoragarh, half the FHH workers were engaged as casual workers and on an average spent 46.3 hours/week, while in Thane a substantial number were associated with home based enterprises spending 20.5 hours/week on an average with ten respondents working on an average of 15 hours/week as casual workers.

Travel and waiting time patterns related to economic activities among FHHs was very similar to that observed in general households for both men and women, this being the highest in Pithoragarh and the least in Thane. In Solapur, PRFs and OFs spent 7 hours/week an average on reaching the ground for fodder while it took 3.7 hours/week to reach the worksite. In associated economic activities such as household processing and repair, PRFs in FHHs reported 4.75 hours/week and OFs 3 hours/week in Solapur which is only about half of that in general households. In Pithoragarh, PRFs in both types of households recorded similar patterns; however, OFs in FHHs averaged 13 hours/week which is much higher than OFs' average of 9.1 hours/week in general households. The contribution of OFs in FHHs in Hyderabad was substantial, averaging 10.67 hours/week, while in general households the OFs were not engaged in this activity.

Interestingly the time distribution patterns for energy in FHHs, with the exception of Hyderabad, were lower than those in general households. The reasons for this are rather simple: one, there is no male demanding *chule ki roti* (bread cooked on firewood which apparently tastes best), and two, that FHHs tend to cook less often once a day. However, the patterns for water in both households were similar for Pithoragarh and Hyderabad. On the other hand, in Thane the water burden of FHH women was much lower, whereas in Solapur it was more than double compared to their counterparts in general households.

This apparent contradiction between women in FHHs expending double the time than women in general households on water in Solapur was explained in a FGD: a significant number of single women stay in their brothers' houses where they are given a place to sleep and also sometimes meals; in return, they have to pay with their labor-power by helping the women of the house to reduce their unpaid burden, especially the collection of water and also firewood.

The dependence on OFs for care work related to children, old and ill in FHHs was more than in general households in all regions. The care burden on PRFs ranged between a maximum of 15.8 hours/week in Pithoragarh to a minimum of 1.5 hours/week in Thane, that on the OFs was 16.5 hours/week in Pithoragarh and 12.3 hours/week in Solapur. In the urban areas, there was no substantive involvement of OFs in care activities. Further, of the various activities within care, the maximum time was spent on general childcare followed by medical care for the children and the elderly.

Additionally, OFs emerged as a strong support system for household maintenance and management headed by women. The burden of PRFs in FHHs was lower than that of PRFs in general households, that of OFs ranging from a maximum of 7.3 hours/week in Pithoragarh to an hour/week in Thane. Activities under household maintenance and management common to all four regions on which women spent most of their time include cookingand cleaning up after meals, washing and drying clothes, washing and drying vessels and shopping for consumables. No major difference was observed in public provisioning including care. Among FHHs the largest burden was on women in Pithoragarh at about 3 hours a day and the least in Thane. The pattern of time spent on overall personal care by women in FHHs was not significantly different from those in general households. Under personal care, the major concern was lack of sleep especially in Pithoragarh; PRFs in general households got an hour less of sleep per day than their counterparts in FHHs.

Like in the general households awareness about the various provisions under MGNREGS was higher in Pithoragarh than in Solapur, but this awareness was limited to only a few provisions in Pithoragarh for FHHs. For instance, women in Pithoragarh were not aware of provisions under MGNREGS such as drinking water, shade, first aid and crèche facilities whereas those in Solapur were aware of these provisions and had also benefitted from them,

albeit marginally. A major benefit denied to FHHs in Solapur was the payment of equal wages, which were received by FHHs in Pithoragarh. Likewise, awareness about the various provisions under BOCW were higher among the women of FHHs as in general households, while the benefits received like in the case of general households were few in both Hyderabad and Thane. A major difference in Hyderabad for women FHHs vis-à-vis general households was that women workers from FHHs were not paid minimum wages. The main benefit obtained by FHH women in Thane was that they were ensured fixed working hours apart from other benefits like old age pension and drinking water. With regard to other government schemes, the pattern of awareness and benefits in all the four regions for FHHs was similar to that observed in general households.

Like women in general households women in FHHs in all the four regions preferred to spend their free time on rest/sleep, leisure, socializing with friends, and in Hyderabad also working more. An interesting difference is that a sizeable per cent of FHH respondents both in urban and rural regions also desired to spend more time on personal care (Pithoragarh 72.7 per cent, Solapur 26.2 per cent, Thane 62 per cent and Hyderabad 68.9 per cent).

5.6: Gendered Activity Participation Ratios

In the final analysis of estimating the distribution patterns of women and men's paid and unpaid work to capture the gendered continuum, we constructed a gendered activity participation ratio (GAPR).

GAPR indicates the participation rate of males and females in each major activity, economic as well as extra-economic. This ratio is computed as: under any given major activity there are several sub-activities and the sub-activity in which the participation is the highest in terms of numbers of respondents is defined as the maximum. This maximum number is divided by the total respondents for that region in the age-group of 14-60 years to arrive at the activity participation ratios; this was done separately for females and males in order to obtain GAPRs. For instance, in Solapur there were seven sub-activities under animal husbandry. Of them, the maximum number of female respondents (235) was involved with safeguarding of animals. The GAPR of women who were involved in animal husbandry was computed as 235 female respondents divided by the total number of female respondents (589) in the age-group of 14-60 years, thus getting a GAPR of 39.9 per cent. This was done across all sub-activities for all major activities even if the number of respondents was less than 20 as the purpose was to determine the activity rate. Such an approach is suggestive of the intensity of participation of females and males in economic as well as extra-economic activities, paid as well as unpaid.

The single most important result is that the female activity participation ratio (FAPR) is much higher in all regions and in almost all activities. The male activity participation ratio (MAPR) in several activities is less than half FAPR. These huge gendered differentials also apply to what are considered as 'purely economic' categories. Under the classification of economic activities, the maximum intensity is in the main activity of cultivation and construction where FAPR is greater than MAPR across all regions *(see Table 5.7).* This implies that the number of women working under cultivation and construction is higher than the number of men participating. Consequently, there is a huge gender gap which can also be perceived and termed as a reverse gender gap in keeping with standard definitions of the sex ratio – in the activity participation ratio exceeding an average of 20 per cent points in cultivation in both rural areas as well as construction in Thane with only Hyderabad showing a relatively smaller gap of 8 per cent points. The (reverse) gender gap in APR is 50 per cent points for Pithoragarh and only a little lower in Solapur at 30 per cent points. The ostensibly intriguing results for Pithoragarh need to be viewed in the context of both situation and location. Less than one-third of those interviewed reported themselves as working, and that too earning extremely low incomes. There are several reasons for this. One, the fewer number of employed and self-employed women. Two, that women in this richly forested area derive sustenance and subsistence for their households from common property resources on which they are heavily dependent and that the very fact of non-ownership veils the work they do under communal ownership and community rather than private property. Three, the sale of labor-power in the labor market is open and visible, with immediate and tangible rewards even though in the form of extremely low wages. Four, community exchange of labor outside the market sphere.

Table 5.7 **Gendered Activity Participation Ratio: General Households (Per cent)**

	FEMALE RESPONDENTS				MALE RESPONDENTS			
	Solapur	Pithoragarh	Thane	Hyderabad	Solapur	Pithoragarh	Thane	Hyderabad
Cultivation/ Construction	78.1	60.7	74.7	41.2	58.5	37.2	55.8	34.2
Animal Husbandry	45.0	61.5	NA	NA	14.7	11.2	NA	NA
Forestry &Fishing	NA	10.4	NA	NA	NA	9.8	NA	NA
Non-Agricultural & Non-Construction Earning Activity	2.7	22.9	11.9	0.5	5.1	40.1	3.4	0.1
Household Processing & Repair	82.7	73.2	86.6	47.0	35.1	25.9	17.8	41.0
Travel & Waiting Time for Economic Activities	46.2	49.5	75.5	42.8	13.3	4.7	48.4	43.4
Travel & Waiting Time for Energy*	75.9	68.3	56.1	44.3	29.5	29.0	22.6	15.3
Travel & Waiting Time for Water	88.3	75.3	80.2	45.9	36.4	17.8	4.8	14.0
Care of Children, Ill, Elderly & Challenged	63.5	55.4	62.3	33.2	15.5	6.3	31.2	12.7
HH Maintenance & Management	86.9	79.4	92.3	70.1	44.4	42.7	61.2	21.9
Travel & Time for Public Provisioning	65.0	54.4	89.0	29.0	62.7	42.7	71.9	24.6

Note: N.A. – Not Applicable. *- excluding time spent on waiting for kerosene and a gas cylinder.

The gender gap in APR remained high even for associated economic activities in all areas without exception. For household processing and repair it is almost identical at 47 per cent points for both rural areas and even higher at 69 per cent points for Thane. Hyderabad remains an exception at 6 per cent points, probably due to quantitative data gaps. Travel and waiting time for economic activities reports a gender gap of 33 and 45 per cent points for Solapur and Pithoragarh respectively, and Thane at somewhat less at 27 per cent points. Travel and waiting time for energy too records a wide gender gap especially for rural areas at 46.4 per cent points in Solapur and 39.3 in Pithoragarh; the gender differential is slightly lower in urban areas, 33.5 in Thane and 29 per cent points in Hyderabad. Travel and waiting time for water too is heavily gendered towards women, the gap averaging 55 per cent points in rural areas and 75 per cent points for Thane. The gender gap in APR is almost identical at about 49 per cent points for both rural areas for care of children, ill, the elderly and challenged; urban areas report relatively low per cent (31 per cent points and 20 per cent points respectively for Thane and Hyderabad). FAPR is also higher than MAPR for household maintenance and management; the pattern here changing somewhat with Hyderabad reporting the highest gap at 48 per cent points, followed by Solapur at 42.5, Pithoragarh at 36 and Thane at 31 per cent points. Travel and time for public provisioning has the lowest gender gap amongst all categories of activities, lowest for Solapur at less than 3 and highest for Thane at 17 per cent points.

Thus, gender-based division of labor emerges strongly in all sectors of all activities, except in non-agricultural and non-construction activities in both rural areas and in Hyderabad where differences exist between FAPR and MAPR. Also, in Pithoragarh there are no major disparities in the activity participation ratio of males and females in forestry and fishing.

Importantly, variations emerge in the APR of female workers in FJJs and of women in General households *(see Tables 5.7 and 5.8)*. In Solapur, the former ratio is lower for most economic activities. However, the

Table 5.8 **Activity Participation Ratio of Women Workers in Female-headed Households (Per cent)**

ACTIVITY	SOLAPUR	PITHORAGARH	THANE	HYDERABAD
Cultivation/Construction	40.3	52.9	75.6	52.2
Animal Husbandry	41.7	52.9	N.A.	N.A.
Forestry & Fishing	N.A.	7.8	N.A.	N.A.
Non-Agricultural & Non-Construction Earning Activity	2.7	33.3	12.2	3.3
Travel & Waiting Time for Economic Activities	61.1	37.3	77.7	58.9
HH Processing & Repair	97.2	68.6	81.1	75.6
Travel & Waiting Time – Energy*	86.1	67.6	58.9	64.4
Travel & Waiting Time – Water	88.9	72.5	76.7	72.2
Care of Children, Ill, Elderly & Challenged	20.8	41.2	48.9	51.1
Household Maintenance & Management	98.6	79.4	97.7	77.8
Travel & Time for Public Provisioning	65.3	70.6	83.3	63.3

Note: N.A. – Not Applicable. * - excluding time spent on waiting for kerosene and a gas cylinder.

APR of women workers from FHHs is higher for travel and waiting time for economic activity where a greater per cent are associated with grazing and take longer hours to reach grazing lands. Their APR is much higher for household processing and repair, household management and maintenance, travel and waiting time for energy and travel and waiting time for water, crossing the 90 per cent threshold in most of these activities in Solapur.

APR of female workers in Pithoragarh in FHHs is either lower or comparable to their general household counterparts in most activities except in non-agricultural and non-construction earning activities where a substantial number of women participate as casual workers. An evaluation of the APR in the urban areas reveals major differences between these two regions. In Hyderabad, the APR of female workers from FHHs is much higher than their cohorts in general households. On the other hand, in Thane considerable equivalence can be observed in the APR in all economic activities; it is lower for household processing and repairs, travel and waiting time for water and in public provisioning, while it is higher in household maintenance and management and energy. Among the most significant difference that has fundamental policy implications is the lower intensity rate of female workers from FHHs in the care activity in Solapur, Pithoragarh and Thane. The lowest is in Solapur at not even 21 per cent, the other areas reporting more than double but still less than that in general households.

5.7: Conclusion

The focus of analysis of the data obtained from the primary survey was two-fold – one, to estimate the time distribution patterns of women and men on various economic as well as extra-economic activities and two, to study the extent and intensity of participation or involvement of men and women. Several activities undertaken by women workers in rural areas especially related to self-consumption in agriculture as well as the activities they undertake to fulfill the macroeconomic gaps ought to be considered as economic activities and within the production boundary as they add to the economic well–being of the households.

On an average, male and female workers in a given region spent almost similar amounts of time on an activity. Yet, gender gaps in activity participation rates cut across all categories of activities. Further, men and women spent almost 60 per cent or even more of their time on economic activities; and if the extended definition of economic activity is used to include household processing and repairs to compare with activities specified as economic activities under the System of National Accounts (SNA), then the time spent on this category of work rises to 70 per cent and above.

This needs to be perceived in the context of the fact that multiplicity and simultaneity dominate the pattern of women's work, unpaid, care and even paid. Additionally, women are engaged in a wide

range of sub-activities under every major category; men participate in fewer activities especially under care and household work but they spend longer hours on those activities. Consequently, the average hours spent for men and women tend to be similar. Also, the intensity of participation is not very high among males. For instance, although they do undertake some responsibilities for tasks that constitute household management and maintenance, their numbers are much less as compared to the female respondents. Differences also exist between the intensity of participation of urban and the rural males, the former engaged in a wider range of activities and at times spending as much time as urban female workers.

The major findings of this survey have to be perceived holistically within the broader context of marginalization and vulnerability, as well as in relation to prevailing patriarchal norms and structures. Integral is that the fundamentals of the gendered continuum between unpaid work and paid work are based on the multiple, intermixed and interconnected recognized and unrecognized roles that women perform in production, reproduction, maintenance, consumption and distribution..

6 A CONCLUSION IN CONTINUUM

6.1: Introduction

This evidence-based action research integrates the macro and micro via the meso at all levels using both a vast secondary database and a primary analysis undertaken at the level of the household with an analytically conscious comprehension of all inherent variations, contradictions and differentials. This study was perceived primarily as a process integrating research, advocacy and action located deliberately in the context of subsistence based livelihoods which are not only highly gendered, but are intrinsically interconnected especially to individual and common resource ownership and control patterns.

Hence, this conclusion is not a typical summary of results that lists out a series of recommendations; rather, it focuses on unraveling and making visible the fundamentals of the gendered continuum between the unpaid and paid work sub-economies that emerged from the analysis of both secondary and primary data in the concrete economic and extra-economic realities of women and men and the nature of their labor and livelihoods perceived through macro, meso and micro interconnects that often operate in a dialectical and also exploitative and oppressive manner.

We begin by locating the concept of women's work within the overall macroeconomic scenario, which is followed by a critique of identified policies and schemes via both secondary and primary information based evidence. The analysis then focuses on the feminization of the gendered continuum, issues of sustainability and sustenance and the linkages between paid and unpaid economies. The culmination of the study is the conceptual and methodological learnings.

6.2: Macroeconomic Context of Women's Work

The definition of unpaid work, which incorporates unpaid care work, extends beyond the domestic domain to unrecognized and hence unquantified work. It represents a continuum of work across various thresholds, and in the ultimate sense reinforces the patriarchal interlinks between the state, the market, the community, and the family particularly in nations that are in the process of attaining development. This process of development is often and increasingly characterized by multiple polarities both economic and extra-economic. These several contradistinctions operate across gender, class, social groups, communities, regions, sectors and sub-sectors. Integrated with the morphology of production and reproduction are the opposite yet apposite interconnects between various structures including the formal and the informal, the organized and the unorganized, the rural and the urban. Central to an understanding of the issues of the connects and disconnects between paid, underpaid, unpaid and care work is the location in the system of production, reproduction and ownership of resources and hence of an analysis of the gendered continuum and concatenation.

The gendered continuum between paid, underpaid, unpaid and care work in a developing and increasingly differentiated society must, of necessity, be examined in relation to the fact that the primary motive of entering the domain of production – whether recognized in all its forms or not – is subsistence and survival located within a sustainable economy and livelihood framework.

The concepts of production and of work that are central to this understanding therefore incorporate exchange-value as well as use-value including

the intermeshing of the two. This is so especially for women who work at the threshold which characterizes the space between the private and public domains. Therefore, women's work has to be perceived at three levels – that within the walls of the home, that outside the walls of the home and the shadow work which lies on the doorstep *(dehleez)* which has an exchange value and a use value. This conceptual approach critically and additionally underlies the gendered continuum between all the four categories of work and hence forms the fulcrum of the interconnects between recognizing, reducing and redistributing unpaid work, containing within itself the redefinition of work. Fundamental to this continuum is the economy of a country, particularly one that is developing and which rests on both paid and unpaid work with two simultaneously functioning interdependent sub-economies – the paid work economy and the unpaid work economy.

The very nature of women's work has undergone significant modifications in recent times particularly since the reshaping of the macroeconomic fundamentals of the economy. The last few years have witnessed rather dramatic changes in the nature of vulnerabilities characterizing the livelihoods and the labor of both poorer women and men. These transformations are closely connected to the several decisive and defining processes that have come to characterize the neo-liberal phase.

One, the withdrawal of the state from the public sphere especially that pertaining to where a majority of Indians and especially women live and labor.

Two, the macroeconomic context of declining investments in public provisioning of basic essential rights as well as welfare goods and services that have a direct impact on labor and labor-power, especially women's unpaid and paid work.

Three, the resultant creation of institutional and macroeconomic structures and policies including the privatization of public goods, which in fact violate civic and civil rights including the right to work, to safe water, clean energy, care and sanitation.

Four, that of the visibilization and de-visibilization of women's work in the context of their perceived decline in contributing to the nation's economy.

Five, the altered equation between capital and labor as well as the forms of surplus extraction with appropriation extending beyond individually 'owned' property to that which is 'collectively owned' and accessed.

The benefits to these colluding structures at the macro, meso and micro levels are many and myriad and operate through several interlinked ways and methods:

- By depending on women's underpaid and unpaid work to fill gaps in public expenditure and 'genderless' macroeconomic policies.
- By the subordination of women within the productive and reproductive processes
- via their non-empowerment in the sphere of production.
- By limiting the definition of production to that which is visible, recognizable and hence quantifiable.
- By neglecting to recognize the existence of unpaid work and hence the need to reduce and redistribute it.
- By upholding a particular form of family which ensures cheap reproduction of labor power with women as a reserve army.
- By extending the oppression of women via supporting a form of household in which they provide unpaid services.
- By taking advantage of gender norms that put the responsibility of both unpaid and unpaid care work on women.
- By remaining silent in the face of increasing gender violence in the economy as well as in society.

6.3: Policies: Evidence-based Critique, Evaluation and Articulation

The detailed evaluation of the four laws, four policies and ten schemes carried out reveals the almost total negation of the recognition of the unpaid work sub-economies perceiving women primarily as reproductive rather than economic agents. Before critiquing each policy individually, it must be stated that the lack of gendered disaggregated information permeates all layers across both time and space at both national and regional levels. There appears to be little concern regarding quantitative information especially in relation to gendered benefits. In spite of MIS, reporting especially by state departments

is not only low on accuracy but also considerably lagged with no perceptible effort to monitor data and to rectify lapses. Timely and accurate data is indispensable for the monitoring, utilization and reach of funds and benefits.

Energy:

There has been a dramatic boost in budget allocations in 2016-17; however, the gross budgetary outlay for 2017-18 is only Rs 15 crore. Further, women specific allocation as a per cent of the total MNRE budget has fallen from 27.85 per cent in 2014-15 to 2.47 per cent today. A state level analysis shows that while Maharashtra's outlays have increased, the total is a mere Rs 171 crore. In Telangana, not even 10 per cent of the Rs 241 crore has been utilized; no data exists for Uttarakhand. The original two-third of the Ministry of Petroleum and Natural Gas budget allocated to PAHAL has been halved. PMUY and the DBTK are miniscule schemes that account for no more than 1.5 per cent and 0.5 per cent of the budget respectively.

Water:

Allocations for Swach Bharat Abhiyan have exceeded that for NRDWP, reflecting a clear shift in the state's priorities and an increasing and worrying disconnect between water and sanitation. Maharashtra's outlay is now one-third of what it was three years ago, with Uttarakhand also reflecting a decrease. Both states also appear to have a common problem of utilization of central funds.

Care:

The implementation of the Maternity Benefit Act has been a failure throughout the country, with only 35,035 women benefitting from a total of Rs 60.63 crore as of 2014. Regional implementation is virtually non-existent: Maharashtra gave Rs 28 crore to 2,078 women, Telangana Rs 3 crore to 604 women and Uttarakhand Rs 0.02 crore to two women. The central allocation of Rs 2,700 crore to IGMSY in the 2017-18 budget was found insufficient for the estimated 53 lakh beneficiaries and hence eligibility has been restricted to one child. What this implies for the future child sex ratio is an issue of deep concern. No funds have been released so far to states under MBP. Maharashtra has slashed its budget estimate within the last one year from Rs 30.09 crore to Rs 5.39 crore. Telangana's BE was increased to Rs 30.19 crore in 2015-16, following a not too little AE of Rs 13.58 crore in the previous year; there is no data after that. Uttarakhand data varies between an expenditure of Rs 5 crore in 2014-15 and utilization of Rs 3 crore a year later.

Allocations to ICDS, one of the most renowned schemes that has a direct impact on women's paid and unpaid work, has been increased in the current budget after a three-year period of decline. Even so it has dropped as a proportion of the total MCWD budget from 88 per cent in 2014-15 to 80 per cent today. While the number of operational AWCs has increased by about 3,000, the number of children in PSE has fallen by 5 per cent. All the three states show a sharp fall: Maharashtra to 42 per cent of BE, Telangana to less than Rs 1 crore; and central funds to Uttarakhand have been halved.

RGNCS seems to be in a state of virtual collapse; its share of the MWCD budget has consistently been below 1 per cent; there has been a fall in the number of functioning creches by more than one-fourth; and a decline in beneficiaries from 6 lakh to 1.6 lakh. This model based on partnership with NGOs and the private sector does not appear to be working well. The state level scenario is equally alarming. The allocation in Maharashtra today is just about Rs 1 crore distributed to about 5,000 persons. Uttarakhand has sanctioned Rs 73 lakh benefitting 2,600 persons, with Telangana reporting 4,152 beneficiaries.

It is only in MGNREGA that women are recognized as individual farmers. Using this specific program, ASVSS in Solapur conducted a series of campaigns and street plays to make MGNREGS work more flexible and also to focus on asset creation that was more appropriate for women. ARPAN in Pithoragarh is also focusing on MGNREGS and has held a series of meetings to strengthen women's collectives and to demand a full 100 Days' Work.

Most schemes and programs have several eligibility conditions all of which contravene the very principle of benefits as rights and entitlements thereby further excluding a majority of the already excluded. Narrow and 'specified' definitions of beneficiaries go against the democratic concept of universalization. There are many illustrations of this – omission of rural women; one live-birth; visits to medical centers; counseling; and identification through the ubiquitous card culture. All these protocols put the onus on women when often material, financial, administrative and staff shortages prevent the fulfillment of conditions.

The success of a scheme and the reach of its benefits, no matter how limited and limiting they may be, are determined by availability, applicability, accessibility and affordability. The less than optimal utilization levels of anganwadi centers in all the four regions surveyed is explained by several factors: distance; timings that do not take account of the fact that especially poorer women are also workers and that the childcare support that they require extends beyond the standard 3 to 4 hours and the fact that the unpaid work burden is never taken into account. Other problems also exist: poor infrastructure; erratic electricity; no drinking water and toilet facilities; ineffective teacher training; irregular monitoring and supervision; low levels of community engagement; and lack of ownership. An additional concern is that of anganwadi and ASHA workers and their helpers being perceived as volunteers; they are overburdened with the numerous tasks that they are expected to perform. This gender stereotyping appears to have become even more widespread through the job titles used in schemes, extending to two new categories of 'women volunteers' we discovered during our fieldwork – *pashu sakhi* in Solapur (woman-friend of animals) and *bhojan mata* in Pithoragarh (food mother).

The facility of crèches under the BOCW Act is applicable to establishments that employ only ten workers; yet 50 women workers are required to get the benefits. Maternity benefits under this law provide for only monetary compensation. There is no clarification relating to the formula or to the eligibility criteria, nor are there any terms and conditions determining payment. Women beneficiaries do not get leave and nor is there any guarantee of employment on return. No medical expenses are given and neither are nursing breaks, while there is no clause relating to avoidance of hazardous jobs.

New concerns voiced by a majority of the respondents in all the four areas of research, both urban and rural, related to digitization, mobile banking, the linking of Aadhar cards with benefits and registration of construction workers. Several realities especially in the context of marginalized groups have been overlooked:

One, the high levels of illiteracy that exist, particularly among women. These proportions exceeded 87 per cent of the female respondents in Hyderabad, 79 per cent in Thane, 52 per cent in Solapur and 38 per cent in Pithoragarh. When asked what their biggest problem was in relation to schemes and DBT, women identified 'digitization'. SMS messages are sent on mobiles and illiteracy does not permit them to access the information; nor can they talk directly to anyone on the phone because of recorded messages; call centers keep them on hold for long; network connectivity is extremely poor; erratic electricity means that charging cell phones is not always possible; and their unpaid work often takes them into far-flung fields where there is no signal.

Two, the emergence of the ubiquitous 'card culture' and the linking of Aadhar cards to avail of most benefits including registration of construction workers under BOCWA. The IWMI in the Greater Hyderabad region, Telangana and SALAH in Thane, Maharashtra have begun a campaign for overcoming this challenge and consequently registration drives specifically for women construction workers have been conducted increasing the number by over 100 and from 11 registered workers to over 200 respectively. As a result, in Hyderabad 98 workers were facilitated in getting bank accounts opened while 10 women got maternity and marriage benefits. In Thane about 100 workers were supported in getting registered under the medical insurance scheme of Janshree Bima Yojana.

Three, the central issue of migration and the fact that portability of rights does not exist has deprived hundreds of migrant children from availing of basic benefits including food, mid-day meals, immunization and schooling. Also, with Aadhar cards dependent on 'proof of address', migrants are unable to get ration cards or evidence of their stay particularly in the so-called unauthorized slums.

Two urgent issues emerged from the evidence generated at the field level: though not within the 'scope' of the objectives identified in this research, both have a crucial bearing on the lives and labor especially of marginalized women. One, houselessness which goes beyond the pale of homelessness directly to destitution. This is the reality of a significantly large number of female-headed households with their 'illegally' deserted women members. Two, that of deserted parents. We confronted this 'new' phenomenon in the urban slums in Thane; old parents who had been left to fend for themselves after they had either been maimed in accidents at the worksite or had become too old to earn their keep, so to say. These two rather desperate issues are being raised here specifically

at the request of our 'respondents' in the hope that schemes relating to housing, pension and social security become more responsive and humane.

However, most of the scheme and program issues have to be perceived in the context of the on-going process of amalgamation of 44 labor laws into four labor codes. The first Labor Code on Wages covers existing laws including Payment of Wages Act and the Minimum Wages Act. The second Labor Code on Industrial Relations subsumes the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947; the Trade Unions Act, 1926; and the Industrial Employment Act, 1946 among others. The third Labor Code on Social Security and Welfare of 16 March 2017 is currently under debate: it subsumes 15 laws including the Maternity Benefit Act, Payment of Gratuity Act, Employees Compensation Act, Unorganized Social Security Act and Welfare Funds/Cess.

6.4: Feminization of Unpaid and Paid Work Activities

Probably the single most startling result of our research is the extent of advancement of the process of feminization of all activities in all sectors and sub-sectors as well as in constituencies. Feminization in terms of both numbers and time spent extends to all activities including construction, cultivation, animal husbandry, collection of non-wood forest produce, fishing, collection of fodder, energy, water, household management and maintenance, travel and time for public provisioning and care. This is not to say that men do much less work, but that in the main the number of men involved and as well as their share of the work burden is significantly less in terms of both hours and ranges as compared to women.

The number of hours that women spend and the maximum ranges they put in often go beyond the number of hours that a week contains. The gendered continuum between unpaid and paid work is therefore characterized by not only the multiplicity of women's work but also its simultaneity. For example, grazing and watering of livestock is combined with collection of firewood and cow dung and with cultivation activities. Similarly, personal care is combined with general care of children as is supervising children while carrying out not only unpaid but also paid activities.

FAPR is much higher than MAPR in all regions, the maximum intensity being in the two major activities of agriculture and construction. For women, GTBR in cultivation often extends beyond 55 hours for an average week. In animal husbandry, the difference in GAPR in Solapur is 30.3 per cent points, with Pithoragarh exceeding 50 per cent points. The travel and waiting time expended for fodder collection is about an average of 10 hours in the plains of Solapur more than doubling to 22.5 hours in the hilly regions.

The construction sector too appears to have embarked on the process of becoming feminized with the GAPR differentiation being 18.9 and 7 per cent points in Thane and Hyderabad respectively. The implication is not that men have voluntarily moved out due to better job opportunities in other sectors via 'pull' factors, but that few alternate job opportunities are open to women and therefore they are compelled to stay on even if for being employed for what we term 'half-work'. In this context GTBR becomes an important tool in which the min-max ranges between 4 to 77 hours.

Women, however, appear to have been kept out of non-agriculture and non-construction earning activities especially in rural areas with the male GAPR being 17.2 per cent points higher in Pithoragarh, even though one-third of the PRFs worked as casual labor with GTBR ranging between 3.5 and 56 hours. On the other hand, a little more than one-tenth of the PRFs in Thane were home-based and domestic workers both activities being predictably stereotyped.

Predictably, both GAPR and GTBR are much higher for women, although at varying levels in rural and urban areas, the former being almost identical at a little above 47 per cent points. The urban areas are a total contrast with the tenants in Thane reporting almost 70 per cent points GAPR for women and 6 per cent points for migrants in Hyderabad. Somewhat similar patterns prevail in most of the other activities and sub-activities. The female GAPR breaches the 80 per cent threshold for household maintenance and management as well as for water, the average being 3 hours/day in all the four regions. To this must be added the fact that an additional 5 hours per week are spent by rural women on heating and boiling water. The gender gap in GAPR for energy is the highest in Solapur at 46.4 and the lowest in Hyderabad.

GAPR relating to care for both urban and rural women is obviously higher. The gender gap is just

a little below 49 per cent in rural areas with the lowest being in Hyderabad at 20.5 per cent points. The issue here is not only the higher intensity of participation in activities and sub-activities relating to care, but also GTBR which appears to be lower than 'expected'. It must be remembered in this context that the marginalized, who can ill-afford to take off time to look after their children and provide the necessary quality and care particularly in the absence of state support are at the center of our enquiry.

The burden of both unpaid and paid work emerges as being at least partly more onerous for female-headed households. Their participation in the open labor market is determined even more by the gender-based division of labor and by inequalities. For instance, single women are culturally not permitted to do ploughing; the land is the feminine mother and the plough is the masculine father. They also do not do sowing and carrying of manure to the field, whereas women in general households are not engaged in applying fertilizers or doing nursery work.

Additionally, they are often not given either equal wages or even market wages in agriculture and in construction. Single women have begun accepting what they call 'half-work', meaning that they will accept employment even if only for part of the day or even for a few hours. 'Single-ness' and being out of a designated patriarchal slot is reflected in the nature and extent of work done as well as in the gendered continuum applicable to their reality.

6.5: The Stress Burden of Sustainability and Subsistence

The concept of livelihood is among the most textured and diverse, particularly if fused with it is, as it must be, sustainability. The most simplistic working definition for livelihoods comprises the capabilities, assets and activities required for a means of living even if at the subsistence level. Concomitantly, a livelihood becomes sustainable when it can combine three essential components – developing the capacity to manage 'stresses' and 'shocks'; when it can at the least maintain its assets; and when it does not degrade the natural resource base. Consequently, sustainable livelihoods in what we have termed as a primitive definition amalgamate the following five metaphors:

- Natural capital from which it is possible to derive resource flows and 'useful' services.
- Economic capital in all its manifestations which is essential for undertaking livelihood strategies.
- Human capital including capacity of labor-power in both quantitative and qualitative terms.
- Extra-economic capital which fills in macroeconomic policy gaps and simultaneously subverts the exchange value.
- Relational capital defined generally as network-resources from which people seek help in the process of pursuing livelihood strategies.

The rather erroneous dichotomy between private property ownership on which women have extremely limited control and access to common property resources and informal infrastructure on which they are hugely dependent determines to a large extent the division of women's labor-power and labor-time into work patterns and allocations that are separated into paid, unpaid and care work. This rather false separation of women's labor undermines their contribution to the two sub-economies of paid and unpaid work. For instance, the restriction and also denial of age-old forest rights due to on-going amendments in forest laws tend to increase a woman's unpaid work burden.

Deriving sustenance and subsistence from common property resources combined with non-ownership rights veils the work that women do under communal ownership and community. Non-recognition of women's dependence on informal infrastructure and common property resources consequently makes invisible their contribution to the family's well-being and to sustainable livelihoods in all forms and all ways. Disregarding the involvement of women in filling the vacuum created by the on-going process of increasing unsustainability reinforces patriarchal rigidities and structures at all levels of the state, the market, the community and the household.

We would like to add one major manifestation of the extent of stress and sustainability in a woman's life: lack of sleep. This is probably one of the most problematic impacts of a woman's time and work burden in that she does not have either the time or the peace of mind to sleep and which affects not only her as a woman and worker but also emerges as a major obstacle in the fulfillment of her fundamental human rights. There are other nuances to the overall impact including mental stress that requires a

different kind of research for its evaluation. We use the term 'sleeplessness' as a quantitative indicator to measure the gendered impact of a worker's burden: an overwhelming majority of women (80 per cent) in all areas categorically expressed their desire for sleep. For rural men too sleep was a priority though at 20 per cent points less as they too share the burden of paid and unpaid work though to a lesser degree than women.

6.6: The Unpaid Work and Paid Work Economies

India like possibly most developing countries is characterized by two simultaneously functioning sub-economies – the paid work sub-economy and the unpaid work sub-economy with the latter subsidizing the former in multiple and myriad ways which are not necessarily measurable and calculable. The nature of this subsidizing support structure has to be perceived in the context of the prevailing interdependence of macro, meso and micro factors and processes within the framework of the fundamental and on-going changes in the macroeconomic and financial architecture which question the very concept of a welfare state. An increasingly exclusive and exclusionary market and macroeconomic policies that are occlusive to the existence of unpaid work, combined with the non-fulfillment of the essential needs especially of the marginalized and the limited implementation of schemes at the ground level, have given rise to what we term extra-economic capital.

Extra-economic Capital incorporates several components that have emerged to at least partially cope with the non-attainment of specific essential needs required for at the least a subsistence level of survival. Extra-economic capital extends beyond coping and survival strategies and contains three core elements, each characterized by heavily gendered informality and de-development: the partial filling of the vacuum left by the withdrawal of the state from at least public provisioning; an escape from the market and subversion of market forces; and the staying out of the exchange-value conundrum. We illustrate these in the special context of the three identified sectors that impact women's paid and unpaid work and the continuum between the two.

Marginalized groups, especially women, are more often than not excluded from formal structures of infrastructural development and because of the livelihood constraints that they face they are compelled to opt out and create their own 'informal infrastructural alternatives'. In Thane water is not only restricted but also limited to three days a week. The residents have therefore taken illegal pipe connections from the main water pipes and the water so accessed has been diverted to common spaces. This form of infrastructural development appears to be in keeping with the on-going massive decrease in all formal structures at varying levels across both time and space: we term this 'infrastructural informality'. The argument put forward by the women is simple: 'The state does not invest the money it takes from us to fulfill our needs, so we are doing it ourselves and creating our own capital.'

'Informal infrastructure' has evolved in Hyderabad too. With no electricity connections on the grounds of its being an unauthorized slum, street lights have been tapped to provide at least some light in the homes. Zero-watt bulbs are used behind sealed doors and boarded windows for fear that they may be caught and possibly evicted from the tin hovels they call home. Cooking on firewood as most of them do, the impact is the worst on women.

The burden of unpaid work is made even more onerous because of the lack of gender-sensitive macroeconomic policies; the impact of this is directly on the extent and amount of paid work that a woman can do, *ceteris paribus*. Women have been compelled to stay back from work even in a situation of financial desperation to fill water; working outside the home in the sphere of recognized production does not reduce a woman's role in maintenance and consumption. These women have now created an alternate mode which cannot resolve the issue but it does help to at least partially fulfill their multiple roles: going for work on alternate days and filling water for each other on the days that they stay back.

The trade-off between paid and unpaid work is evident at all levels. It is thus strongly suggested that time surveys be carried out before and after the setting up of and investing in public provisioning. This form of gender budgeting, what we term Gender Sensitive Public Provisioning Appraisal, must be applied at all possible layers and points of time including pre- and post-project phases and also integrated in monitoring and evaluation systems.

There is an urgent need to implement energy policies sensitive to women's work; this is reflected in all the four field areas both urban and rural, given

that a minimum of 50 per cent of the households extending up to 80 per cent use wood for cooking, heating and lighting. The issue of energy is rather problematic, impacted as it has been in two ways: positively by new schemes, negatively by reduction in and the withdrawal of subsidies especially on kerosene. For one, LPG is not used for all meals all the time, or for heating and boiling water for fear of not getting refills easily. Firewood is used for part of the cooking and also for heating and boiling. Second, the permission to purchase kerosene is withdrawn from PDS shops once a consumer has been given a gas connection. However, the continued dependence on firewood and the rising price of LPG implies that kerosene continues to be required especially for lighting the *choolah*. In the wake of reduction in subsidies, women are now compelled to use plastic wrappers and waste to light the *choolah.* The impact of this highly toxic dioxine on the health of the women is already visible in all the regions. Women in Pithoragarh undertake what is called *alta-palta*, a form of exchange labor historically restricted to cultivation but now also extended to energy. For those women who cannot collect firewood due to either over-work or illness, firewood is gathered with the unspoken assurance that the labor-power expended will be returned in a similar form whenever required.

Schemes relating to energy have huge potential if properly implemented; they can help reduce the time burden at least partially. However, the complexities are huge: migration; portability; digitilization; 'card culture'; distance; availability; and cultural traditions that insist that bread tastes better if baked on firewood. Other specific impediments include the patriarchal practice of women often changing their names after marriage and thereby becoming non-recognized beneficiaries and non-identifiable bank account holders.

A large proportion of women's time is absorbed by what is called 'care', and yet few macroeconomic policies recognize this. Two areas of immediate and urgent concern are the increase in user fees in hospitals and the non-availability and non-accessibility of crèches. The non-affordability of public hospitals subsequent to the increase in user fees has led to two immediately apparent results: that of not taking the girl-child or the woman for treatment and that of turning to quacks. Yet another off-shoot is the increased burden of unpaid work that women now have to bear on the early discharge or even non-admittance of patients due to rising healthcare costs.

Among the most debated components of care work is that of looking after children. Several intriguing issues have emerged. It appears rather surprising that a relatively small proportion of a woman's day is devoted to childcare. Also interesting is that men did share child caring activities even though for a lesser period of time. An additional aspect is that of the limited benefits to children arising from the provisions of relevant schemes including those of non-availability, distance and timings. Yet again an alternate system of informal support has emerged. Women construction workers in Thane leave their children with elderly and often disabled neighbors, dropping the child off along with a lunch box so as not to add to the burden of the 'caretakers' who are as marginalized as they are. In Hyderabad, the women left their younger children under the supervision of unemployed youth. As the women in Solapur said, 'Our children grow up just like that, on the roads and the streets.' What this does to the quality of our future workforce is another issue altogether.

There are several major learnings. One, all women need crèches as all women are working; whether their work is recognized or not is a problem of the policy. Two, that men too share somewhat in childcare; hence the inclusion of paternity leave becomes essential in helping redistribute the care burden. Finally, the need to view childcare also from a class perspective based on issues of subsistence and survival rather than from an exclusive gender perspective thereby isolating and marginalizing women yet again.

There are two important myth that our research has broken. One, that women do not travel beyond their local horizons. Our study reveals that more women than men used public transport. A central infrastructural issue thus emerges – that of greater investments in more affordable and better transport and road systems that take into account gender differentiated needs. Two, that women do not have and do not want technological knowledge. The results of our study show that there is general non-recognition of this fact. In the main, households are perceived as basic production and consumption units with no recognition that women play important roles including in maintenance and distribution. Consequently, also ignored are gender dynamics within households that do not give women decision-making powers not even over their reproductive rights.

6.7: Conceptual and Methodological Learnings

The nature of functioning of the gendered work continuum in developing countries has to be evaluated at several interdependent levels as it reflects the interconnected components of what a woman's work is especially in a situation of marginalization; vulnerability; patriarchy and the norms and forms that it undertakes; the on-suing struggle between capital and labor; the 'integration' of the formal and informal economies under the impact of deeply penetrative global forces; and the extension of privatization. All these are located in the on-going process of the increasing abdication by the state of fulfilling its stated objective of a 'just and equal society' irrespective of gendered social and economic divides. We now identify the major methodological and conceptual learnings that at least partially explain how this research is different and distinctive in capturing the myriad nuances and the broad brush contours of time and labor structures.

One: Synchronicity of Research Methods and Analytical Tools

In keeping with the concept of a continuum, we also constructed knowledge collection and analysis as a continuum. Consequently, we used several simultaneous methodological 'tactics': literature critique feeding into a desk review of policies; pilot surveys reconfirming as well as refuting assertions; interviews with key informants who pinpointed administrative challenges in particular; labeling and listing methodological gaps with the purpose of overcoming statistical 'obstacles'; field discussions identifying ground-level urgencies; and a policy analysis resulting in the identification of gaps. Among the many challenges faced was gathering information related to the reality of the two selected constituencies of agricultural and construction workers. The household questionnaire thus had to be designed carefully and meticulously in keeping with the unchartered territory of viewing the linkage of macroeconomic policies with the unpaid and paid work sub-economies to unravel the gendered continuum. This challenge was overcome not only by wading through existing literature, but also because of the very nature of this study that is based on integrating academics, advocacy and action. The experiences of the ground partners enriched the sensitivity of the analysis in various ways: through responses, reactions, debates, arguments and consistent and committed connect with the areas and the people that they have been working with. Probably the greatest commendation to the designing of the household questionnaire came from an enumerator in ActionAid India's Andhra Pradesh & Telangana Regional Office who confided in us that he remembered his mother every single time he filled in a questionnaire. In all the four regions the ground partners organized a series of community meetings to popularize the concepts and the research over a period of several months, a process that continues even today to strengthen advocacy and action for reducing and redistributing unpaid work. This non-linear and concurrent strategy created for this action research will hopefully contribute significantly to further research methodologies.

Two: Methodological Approaches and Estimators

Our assertion that work is fundamentally a continuum implies that the existing methodologies were not sharp enough or deep enough to provide either a correct estimate or capture all the components of all forms of women's work. Methodological challenges emerged at every point and at every level of analysis and evaluation. The defining characteristics of the gendered work continuum are multiplicity, simultaneity, clustering, combining, agglomeration, aggregation, and synchronicity; the work continuum is multidimensional and hence the methods of estimation must be constructed to capture all the dimensions and dimensionality that constitutes the continuum.

It is in this context that we formulated new conceptual-based methodological approaches and estimators that go beyond perceiving any form of work especially including unpaid work as a category that is isolated, disassociated, individual and therefore to be estimated and measured 'separately':

- The construction of the ***Time Distribution Method (TDS)*** to estimate the unpaid burden and capture the multiplicity and simultaneity of women's work.
- The formulation of the ***Gendered Activity Participation Rate (GAPR)*** which indicates the extent and intensity of involvement of males and females in a given activity – economic and extra- economic; recognized and unrecognized.
- Creation of the ***Gendered Time Burden Range (GTBR)*** which estimates the range of hours that

women and men expend at a minimum as well as at a maximum on various activities and sub-activities.

- The formulation of ***Gender Sensitive Public Provisioning Appraisal (GSPPA)*** approach to unravel the relatively unexplored connection between fiscal policies and women's unpaid work, both that has a shadow value and also that which is termed as 'care'.

Three: Expansion of the Care Diamond

In another methodological departure, we expanded the Care Diamond to incorporate the role of caste and community that are increasingly influencing the central issue of women and work. In the context of the interdependence between the two sub-economies of paid and unpaid work we suggest a restructuring of the Care Diamond. For one, the community is not neutral; it is heavily partisan and increasingly so especially in the context of caste and religion which generally tend to impede support particularly to those who are already marginalized and vulnerable. Two, there is an urgent need to recognize and incorporate the informal support systems that have been created by those who are marginalized in an attempt to fill the vacuum created by gender-blind macroeconomic policies. Three, the need to examine the impact of the role and nature of non-governmental organizations that have been coopted to deliver public goods and public provisioning including via the implementation of schemes and programs which the state earlier provided directly.

Four: The Fourth R of Redefinition

Additionally and importantly, our analysis of the functioning of the gendered work continuum led us to add a fourth R to the 3 Rs (recognize, reduce, redistribute) that had been developed particularly for unpaid care work – that of a Redefinition of the concept of unpaid work.

Five: 'Undefinable' and 'Unquantifiable' Unpaid Work

Here we would like to raise several concerns and challenges relating to the calculation of unpaid work. We provide four illustrations. One, when the data shows that no time or less time is taken for say preserving meat and milk, it may be either because fresh items are bought every day or it may be because there is no money to afford meat and fish. Two, the issue of waiting time: the dying dynamics of the construction sector are such that when waiting time is recorded as being less, it could imply either there was no work and therefore there was no need to wait, or that work was found immediately and hence there was no waiting required. Three, the need to include boiling water to unpaid work in the specific context of the non-fulfillment of the guarantee for safe and clean drinking water. Four, and this is separately emphasized because it requires urgent and immediate intervention: sexual exploitation which goes beyond being a conditionality for obtaining work.

Several questions thus emerge on sexual exploitation: Is this an economic or allied economic activity? Is it located within the domain of time? Or should it be added also to the concept of burden? Is this paid work or unpaid work? This issue is being raised separately because it is becoming rampant, it is openly embedded within labor contracts and it is being unquestioningly internalized by women workers and also the men in their families.

Several critical factors emerge: that the paid work sub-economy especially in the context of the prevailing market systems and structures cannot sustain itself without the support of the unpaid work sub-economy; that the unpaid and paid work continuum cannot be understood in isolation from macroeconomic policies and strategies; that women are increasingly shouldering the responsibility of not only the proverbial double burden but also the macroeconomic vacuum burden; that the several gender differentials and similarities that have emerged need to be located in the concrete lived reality of marginalization and vulnerability; that women participate in and often dominate the three strategies of survival that determine an economy that is still developing – income earning, income augmenting and income saving; that women are increasingly responsible for sustainable subsistence-based livelihoods that go beyond the private property domain; that the multiplicity and simultaneity of women's work restricts their full participation in the economy and society in multiple and myriad ways and acts as constraints on their struggle for emancipation, equity, empowerment and equality.

APPENDICES

SOURCES OF DATA FOR MACRO AND MESO SCHEMES

Appendix I

General: Documents Consulted –

Acts/Legislations & Rules relevant to Schemes

Mission Statements

Scheme Details, Implementation Guidelines

Scheme Implementation Details at State level (for Maharashtra, Telangana or erstwhile Andhra Pradesh and Uttarakhand)

Annual Reports of Ministries, Departments and Public Sector Organisations where relevant.

Committee/Commission Reports

Budgets

Outcome Budgets

Performance Budgets

Evaluation Reports

News Paper Articles, Academic Papers

Gender Budgets

Acts/Programmes/Schemes Taken for Analysis through the Care Lens

1. **Energy**
   a. Strategic Plan for New and Renewable Energy Sector 2011-17.
   b. Guidelines for PAHAL Scheme, PAHAL – Direct Benefits Transfer for LPG (DBTL)
   c. Consumers Scheme, Ministry of Petroleum and Natural Gas.
   d. http://petroleum.nic.in/dbt/whatisdbtl.html
   e. Pradhan Mantri Ujjwala Yojana (PMUY)
   f. http://www.pmujjwalayojana.com/about.html
   g. Direct Benefit Transfer for Kerosene (DBTK)
   h. http://pib.nic.in/newsite/PrintRelease.aspx?relid=137552

2. **Water Supply – National Rural Drinking Water Programme (NRDWP) Guidelines 2013**
   a. Strategic Plan 2011-22
   b. National Rural Drinking Water Programme: Framework for Implementation
   c. http://www.mdws.gov.in/water-security-pilot-projects

3. **Care – Ministry of Women and Child Development**
   a. Early Childhood Care and Development Policy
   b. Maternity Benefit Act
   c. Food Security Act 2013
   d. IGMSY
   e. RGNCS
   f. ICDS Information: Link: http://icds-wcd.nic.in/icds/icds.aspx

4. **Agricultural Workers**
   a. National Policy on Farmers 2007
   b. Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act 2005 & Rules 2006, Ministry of Rural Development
      www.mnregaweb4.nic.in

5. **Construction Workers**

The Building & Other Construction Workers (Regulation of Employment & Conditions of Service Act 1996 (BOCW).

   a. The Maharashtra Building and Other Construction Workers Welfare Board (MBOCWWB)
      https://mahakamgar.maharashtra.gov.in
   b. Telangana Building and Other Construction Workers Welfare Board (MBOCWWB)
      https://tsbocwwboard.nic.in

SELECTION OF STATES AND DISTRICTS

Appendix II

1. Work Participation Rates: 2011

	Urban + Rural			Urban			Rural		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Maharashtra	56.00	31.06	43.99	55.16	16.8	36.95	56.7	42.5	49.8
Uttarakhand	49.67	26.68	38.39	50.98	11.3	32.36	49.1	32.9	41.0
Telangana	56.98	36.16	46.61	54.14	19.1	36.75	58.4	44.6	51.5
India	53.26	25.51	39.79	53.76	15.4	35.31	53.0	30.0	41.8

Source: NSSO Employment and Unemployment Report 2011-12

2. Contribution of Construction Sector to GDP and GSDP: 2012-13

State	GSDP at constant prices (2004-05) Construction (a)	Gross State Domestic Product (b)	Per centage (a) to (b)
Maharashtra	76414	1357116	5.63
Telangana	11461	197056	5.82
Andhra Pradesh	32320	426470	7.58
India	419795	5482111	7.66

Sources: Economic Survey of Maharashtra, 2015: Economic Survey of Telangana 2015; Economic Survey of Andhra Pradesh, 2014; India https://www.rbi.org.in/Scripts/PublicationsView.aspx?id=16444

3. Gendered Work Profile: 2011

1. Maharashtra

(in % and actuals)

		Thane	Solapur	Maharashtra	India
Workers	Male	3363123	1206933	32616875	331865930
	Per cent of Maharashtra	10.31	3.7	9.83 (% of India)	-
	Female	1129644	691462	16811003	149877381
	Per cent of Maharashtra	6.72	4.11	11.22 (% of India)	
	Total	4492767	1898395	49427878	481743311
	% of Maharashtra	9.09	3.84	10.26 (% of India)	-
Urban Workers (Main+Marginal)	Male	2633705	365490	14729804	105102862
	Per cent of Maharashtra	17.88	2.48	14.01 (% of India)	-
	Female	689333	137782	4047203	28042914
	Per cent of Maharashtra	17.03	3.40	14.43 (% of India)	
	Total	3323038	503272	18777007	133145776
	% of Maharashtra	17.70	2.68	14.10 (% of India)	
Agricultural Workers (Main+Marginal)	Male	-	687552	14366851	165447075
	Per cent of Maharashtra	-	4.79	8.68 (% of India)	-
	Female	-	508032	11688662	97575398
	Per cent of Maharashtra	-	4.35	11.98 (% of India)	-
	Total	-	1195584	26055513	263022473
	Per cent of Maharashtra	-	4.59	9.91 (% of India)	-

Source: Calculated on the basis of Census 2011

2. *Uttarakhand*

(in % and actuals)

	Total Workers						Agriculture Workers					
	Male	% of Uttarakhand	Female	% of Uttarakhand	Total	% of Uttarakhand	Male	% of Uttarakhand	Female	% of Uttarakhand	Total	% of Uttarakhand
Pithoragarh	113539	4.45	102951	7.80	216490	5.59	56053	5.48	86711	9.02	142764	7.20
Uttarakhand	2551921	0.77	1320354	0.88	3872275	0.80	1021952	0.61	961772	0.99	1983724	0.75
India	331865930	-	149877381	-	481743311	-	165447075	-	97575398	-	263022473	-

Source: Calculated on the basis of Census 2011

3. *Telangana*

(in % and actuals)

	Total Workers						Urban Workers					
	Male	% of Telangana	Female	% of Telangana	Total	% of Telangana	Male	% of Telangana	Female	% of Telangana	Total	% of Telangana
Hyderabad	1045585	4.32	367712	2.41	1413297	3.58	1045585	13.60	367712	13.70	1413297	13.62
Telangana	24185595	7.29	15237311	10.17	39422906	8.18	7687406	7.31	2683193	9.57	10370599	7.79
India	331865930	-	149877381	-	481743311	-	105102862	-	28042914	-	133145776	-

Source: Calculated on the basis of Census 2011

NON-CONVENTIONAL & RENEWABLE ENERGY PROGRAMME

Appendix III

1. India: Budget Outlay on Non-Conventional & Renewable Energy (Rs. crore)

	2014-15	2015-16		2016-17		2017-18
	AE	BE	AE	BE	RE	BE
NRE	515.18	303.21	226.02	5035.79	4360.13	5472.84
Total Expenditure GoI Budget	1663673	1777477	1790783	1978060	2014407	2146735

Source: Demand No. 67, indiabudget.nic.in 2017-18

2. Budget Outlay on Non-Conventional & Renewable Energy in Study States: 2014-15 to 2017-18 (Rs. crore)

	2014-15	2015-16		2016-17		2017-18
	AE	BE	AE	BE	RE	BE
Maharashtra	81.36	119.3	139.75	171.22	na	na
Telangana*	0.88	241.47	23.40	1.29	1.29	72.8
Uttarakhand	na	na	na	na	na	na

Note: * AE 2014-15 is na; Figs refer to RE
Source: Maharashtra -Financial Statement 2016-17; Telangana- Annual Financial Statement & Explanatory Memorandum 2016-17 p:12; 2017-18, p:14

PAHAL, PMUY & DBT KEROSENE

Appendix IV

1. India: Budget Outlay on Non-Conventional & Renewable Energy (Rs. crore)

	2015-16	2016-17		2017-18
	AE	BE	RE	BE
PAHAL DBT	21140	17020	13000	13097
PMUY DBT	–	2743	3178	454
Total LPG Subsidy	22660	21803	18678	16076
LPG DBT as Percentage of Total Subsidy	–	90.64	86.62	84.29
DBT Kerosene	–	50	0	150
Total Kerosene Subsidy	7339.00	7197.21	8853.71	8923.87
Kerosene DBT as Percentage Total Subsidy	–	0.69	neg	1.68
Total Budget of Ministry of Petroleum and Natural Gas	31287	29161	30242	29158
LPG DBT as % of Total Ministry Budget	67.57	67.77	53.50	46.48
Kerosene DBT as % of Total Ministry Budget	–	0.17	neg	0.51

Source: Demand 72: Ministry of Petroleum & Natural Gas, 2017-18

NATIONAL RURAL DRINKING WATER PROGRAMME

Appendix V

1. India: NRDWP Budget 2015-2016 to 2017-18 (Rs. crore)

	2015-16		2016-17		2017-18
	BE	AE	BE	RE	BE
NRDWP	2608	4370	5000	6000	6050
Total Budget Ministry of Drinking Water & Sanitation	6236	11081	14010	16512	20011
Swachch Bharat Mission	3628	6703	9000	10500	13948

Source: Demand No. 24, Ministry of Drinking Water & Sanitation
www.indiabudget.nic.in

2. Implementation of NRDWP 2014-2015 to 2016-17, India and Study States (Rs crore)

	Partially Covered						Fully Covered						Quality Affected					
	Habitations			Population			Habitations			Population			Habitations			Population		
Year	Target	Cover-age	% cov-erage	Target	Coverage	% cov-erage	Target	Cov-erage	% cov-erage	Target	Coverage	% cover-age	Target	Cover-age	% cov-erage	Target	Coverage	% cov-erage
India																		
2014-15	66869	61419	91.85	45891499	41767585	91.00	47824	59108	128.43	37217187	53458404	143.64	22562	15579	69.05	16008608	11609959	72.52
2015-16	36507	39399	107.92	26310550	27032965	102.75	27635	38364	142.57	25365041	39179492	154.46	11705	8125	69.41	8597023	6491689	75.51
2016-17 (upto Oct)	20879	12099	57.95	15258313	8913976	58.42	21302	15260	56.08	18942665	13102241	69.17	7988	2289	28.66	7573951	2374190	31.35
Maharashtra																		
2014-15	3694	3351	90.70	3.64	3.04	83.58	19	91	100	12475	31042	100	487	305	62.63	924214	503614	54.49
2015-16	1424	1405	98.67	1577833	1577041	99.95	0	17	0	0	21575	0	187	144	77.01	389099	323432	83.12
2016-17 (upto Oct)	1682	344	20.45	2352269	433800	18.44	79	30	37.97	58169	17571	30.21	130	6	4.62	323718	7564	2.34
Telangana																		
2014-15	1438	1133	78.79	1692478	1587694	93.81	419	779	100	498269	1050126	100	228	231	100.00	401257	530752	100.00
2015-16	442	890	100.00	747841	1416397	100	282	634	100	490611	1190525	100	94	145	100.00	1452246	1376265	94.77
2016-17 (upto Oct)	670	234	34.93	735007	381358	51.88	65	140	100	146345	161414	100	180	7	3.89	309592	12888	4.16
Uttarakhand																		
2014-15	772	725	93.91	127779	116583	91.24	256	244	95.31	36712	39189	100	28	7	25.00	113088	18953	16.76
2015-16	415	412	99.28	68850	52861	76.78	54	59	100	8439	7294	86.43	9	8	88.89	14042	11587	82.52
2016-17 (upto Oct)	442	298	67.42	103035	66965	64.99	47	36	76.6	9390	8264	88.01	6	0	0	22698	0	0

Source: http://indiawater.gov.in/imisreports/Report

3. Budget of NRDWP for Study States: 2014-15 to 2016-17 (Rs. crore)

	Allocation			Release			Expenditure			
	Total	Centre	State	Total	Centre	State	Total	Centre	State	%of Central Fund Spent
India										
2014-15	22486	8870	13617	19241	9056	10185	18873	9783	9090	81
2015-16	19119	4016	15103	12054	4105	7950	12010	5238	6772	80
2016-17	16787	4938	11849	13497	5682	7816	9320	3650	5670	53
Maharashtra										
2014-15	1643	780	863	1437	748	689	1566	902	664	68
2015-16	953	344	609	928	330	597	1068	584	484	76
2016-17 (upto Feb)	1090	360	731	923	404	519	547	295	252	50
Telangana										
2014-15	1111	201	911	668	212	456	632	189	443	89
2015-16	584	89	496	567	98	470	555	106	448	88
2016-17 (upto Feb)	333	101	232	361	133	228	318	97	221	66
Uttarakhand										
2014-15	266	135	131	243	111	131	227	153	74	65
2015-16	91	64	27	105	60	45	181	99	82	69
2016-17 (upto Jan)	226	86	140	174	88	86	152	61	92	46

Note: Budget (Programme Fund + Support Fund+ WQMSP Fund + Calamity)
Source:http://indiawater.gov.in/imisreports/Reports/Financial/rpt_RWS_StatewiseAllocationReleaseExpenditure_S.aspx?Rep=0&RP=Y

INDIRA GANDHI MATRITVA SAHYOG YOJANA

Appendix VI

1. India: Central Budget Allocation/ Expenditure on IGMSY/MBP & Total Budget of the MWCD 2014-2015 to 2017-18 (Rs. crore)

	2014-15		2015-16		2016-17		2017-18
	BE	AE	BE	AE	BE	RE	BE
IGMSY	400	343	402	234	400	634	2700
Total Allocation/ Expenditure: MWCD	21193	18539	14382	17352	17408	17640	22095
IGMSY as % of MWCD Total Expenditure	1.89	1.85	2.80	1.35	2.30	3.59	12.22

Source: Expenditure Budget 2016-17 & 2017-18: Ministry of Women and Child Development, Government of India. www. Indiabudget.nic.in accessed April 4, 2017.

2. MBS/IGMSY Budget Allocation/Expenditure in Study States – 2014-15 to 2016-17 (Rs. crore)

	2014-15	2015-16		2016-17
	AE	BE	RE	BE
Allocation/Expenditure (Rs. crore)				
Maharashtra	26.63	30.09	30.09	5.39
Telangana	13.58	30.19	na	0.00
Uttarakhand	5.16	na	3.44	na
Beneficiaries (number)				
Maharashtra	50238	62000**		59000**
Telangana	87141	na		na
Uttarakhand	9830	na		5213
Allocation/Expenditure per woman (Rs.)$				
Maharashtra	5301.23	-	-	na
Telangana	1558.39	-	-	na
Uttarakhand	5249.24	0.00	-	na

Note: * Figures refer to Central Funds utilized; ** Economic Survey of Maharashtra, various years $ calculated.
Source: Allocation/Expenditure: Demand for Funds Dept of WCD - 2016-17, Maharashtra, Telangana; Beneficiaries: Annual Report, Ministry of Women and Child Development, GoI (2016-17).

INTEGRATED CHILD DEVELOPMENT SCHEME: ECCE AND ANGANWADIS

Appendix VII

1. Central Outlays on ICDS:2014-15 to 2017-18 (Rs. crore)

	2014-15		2015-16		2016-17		2017-18
	BE	AE	BE	AE	BE	RE	BE
ICDS	18691	16684	11102	15433	14000	14561	15245
MWCD - Total Expenditure	21193	18539	14382	17249	17408	17640	22095
ICDS as % of Total MWCD Budget	88.19	89.99	77.19	89.47	80.42	82.54	69.00

Source: MWCD Annual Report, 2016-17

2. Operational AWCs, Beneficiaries of PSE in Study States: 2014-15 & 2016-17

	2014-15	2016-17*
Operational AWCs		
Maharashtra	108010	109779
Telangana	35338	35634
Uttarakhand	19360	20057
India	1346186	1349153
Pre-school Beneficiaries (3-6 years)		
Maharashtra	2822502	2791321
Telangana	639138	518374
Uttarakhand	230615	198621
India	36544000	34544192
Of which Girls		
Maharashtra	1344708	1434188
Telangana	320719	261248
Uttarakhand	116424	100797
India	17998156	17170510

* Up to Sept
Source: Annexure XII, MWCD Annual Report 2016-17.

RAJIV GANDHI NATIONAL CRÈCHE SCHEME

Appendix VIII

1. Central Outlays on Rajiv Gandhi National Crèche Scheme (RGNCS) and Total Budget of Ministry of Women & Child Development 2014-15 to 2017–2018

	2014-15		2015-16		2016-17		2017-18
	BE	AE	BE	AE	BE	RE	BE
Budget							
RGNCS	125	98	188	133	150	150	200
MWCD - Total Expenditure	21193	18539	14382	17249	17408	17640	22095
RGNCS as % of MWCD Expenditure	0.59	0.53	1.31	0.77	0.86	0.85	0.91
Outcome: Functioning Creches (as of Dec)							
Number	-	23293	-	21021	-	5129	-
CSWB & BAJSS	-	18132	-	16965	-	5129	-
ICCW	-	5161	-	4056	-	-*	-
Outcome: Beneficiaries (as of Dec)							
Number	-	588000	-	420725	-	162720	-
Beneficiaries per Creche (CSWB&BAJSS)	-	25	-	20	-	32	-
Expenditure (CSWB & BAJSS) (cr)	-	74.04*	-	111.41	-	10.72	-
Expenditure per beneficiary	-	1259	-	2648	-	659	-

Note: No funds were released by MWCD to ICCW due to non-reporting by ICCW
* Total amount sanctioned by MWCD for the scheme
Source: Demand for Funds - MCWD, GoI 2017-18; MWCD Annual Reports - 2014-15, 2015-16 & 2016-17

2. RGNCS - Funds Released & Beneficiaries in Study States 2015-2016 to 2016-17

	2015-16	2016-17
Funds Released (Rs. crore)*		
Maharashtra	7.41	1.3
Telangana	..	0.06
Andhra Pradesh	8.59	0.35
Uttarakhand	1.76	0.73
Beneficiaries (units)*		
Maharashtra	28225	5064
Telangana	-	4152
Andhra Pradesh	29150	5544
Uttarakhand	7025	2568

Note: * up to Dec
Source: Annual Report, MWCD 2016-17, GoI, p.254, 256

MAHATMA GANDHI NATIONAL RURAL EMPLOYMENT GUARANTEE SCHEME (MGNREGS)

Appendix IX

1. India: MGNREGS: Central Allocation/Expenditure (Rs. crore) & Women's Participation (%) 2014-15 to 2016-17

	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17
Total Central Allocation	32139	35975	47605
Total Expenditure	36025	44003	58658
Women's participation as % of Total employment generated	55	55	56

Source: http://nrega.nic.in/Netnrega/stHome.aspx, accessed on May 6, 2017

2. MGNREGS: Central Allocation/Expenditure (Rs. crore) & Women's Participation (%) 2014-15 to 2016-17: Study States

	Maharashtra			Uttarakhand		
	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17
Total Central Allocation (Rs cr)	800	1238	1657	286	440	514
Total Expenditure (Rs cr)	1608	1854	2096	323	493	725
Utilization of Central Funds %	99	99	90	97	98	120
Women's participation %	43	45	45	51	52	52

Source: http://nrega.nic.in/Netnrega/stHome.aspx, accessed on May 6, 2017

3. MGNREGS: Per centage of NRM Works (Public + Individual) 2014-15 to 2016–17

	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17
India	49	59	61
Maharashtra	54	66	68
Uttarakhand	46	56	54

Source: http://nrega.nic.in/Netnrega/stHome.aspx, accessed on May 6, 20

BUILDING & OTHER CONSTRUCTION WORKERS WELFARE ACT (BOCWA)

Appendix X

1. Building & Other Construction Workers Welfare Cess Act: Cess Collected & Spent March 31, 2016 (Rs. crore)

	Amount of Cess Collected	Amount Spent	Amount spent as % of Cess Collected
Maharashtra	3800	218	5.73
Karnataka	3388	205	6.05
Uttar Pradesh	2220	347	15.62
Madhya Pradesh	1576	552	35.04
Haryana	1547	116	7.49
Delhi	1536	175	11.37
Tamil Nadu	1411	507	35.90
Kerala	1265	1196	94.51
Andhra Pradesh	1154	205	17.81
West Bengal	1072	558	52.03
Telangana	231	39	17.02
Uttarakhand	129	14	10.90
All States	26962	5685	21.08

* Provisional

Source: http://pib.nic.in/newsite/mbErel.aspx?relid=1473

2. Maharashtra Building and Other Construction Workers Welfare Board: Benefits/Assistance

Maharashtra Building and Other Construction Workers Welfare Board: Benefits/Assistance			
	Scheme	Assistance	Eligible Person
1	Maternity Benefits		
	For normal delivery	10,000	To registered woman & registered worker's spouse. Upto 2 deliveries only
	Cesarean Section	15,000	
2	Educational Benefits		
	1st to 7th Standard	1200	to wife and up to 2 children of registered worker
	8th to 10th Standard	2400	
3	Scoring 50% or more in 10th and 12 standard examination	5000	
4	11th and 12th standard	5000	
5	1st, 2nd, 3rd, & 4th year (where applicable) of graduation	15000	
6	Medical and Engineering Courses in Government recognized colleges	50,000	
7	Reimbursement of MS-CIT course fees		To maximum of two children of registered workers

Contd...

	Scheme	Assistance	Eligible Person
8	Government recognized Diploma	10000	
	Medical Assistance		
9	Treatment of serious ailments	25000	To registered worker and family members.
	Others	-	-
10	Two Female Children each	(Fixed Deposit)25000	To 2 female children of registered worker,who or whose spouse has had family planning operation.
11	In case of 75% or more disability	100000	To Registered worker
12	Funeral Benefit	5000	To Nominate heir
13	On death of registered worker during course of employment	12000 p.a up to 5 years	Widow or widower of registered worker
14	Death of registered worker	200,000	To legal heir
15	Marriage Assistance	10000	To registered worker.
16	On hospitalization of registered worker	100 per day	To worker's spouse

Source: https://mahakamgar.maharashtra.gov.in/welfare-scheme-for-building-other-construction-workers.htm accessed on 15/12/2016.

3. Welfare Schemes Implemented by Telangana Building & Other Construction Worker's Welfare Board: Benefits/ Assistance

Details of welfare schemes which are being implemented by the Telangana Building & Other Construction Workers' Welfare Board, Hyderabad, for the benefit of construction workers in the state

Sl No.	Name of the Scheme	Details of Scheme	Amount of Benefit (in Rupees)
1	Marriage Gift	Financial Assistance to registered unmarried woman and to the two daughters a worker.	20,000/-
2	Maternity Benefit	Maternity benefit for women worker, wife of the male worker and two daughters of the either male or female worker limited to two deliveries each.	20,000/-
3	Fatal Accident Relief	Relief to the nominee / dependents / legal heir of a worker who dies on the spot or due to the injuries caused by the accident either on site or elsewhere.	6,00,000/-
4	Disability Relief	Relief to a worker sustaining injuries caused by an accident occurring either on site or elsewhere resulting in total permanent disability / partial permanent disability (The extent of disability is decided as per procedure under Employees' Compensation Act).	Rs.5,00,000/- Up to 4,00,000/-
		(a) Total permanent disability	
		(b) Partial permanent disability	
5	Disability aids and appliances	Provision of artificial limbs and wheel chair / tricycle to a worker who loses limbs in an accident either on site or elsewhere resulting in disability. Aids and appliances provided through M/s Artificial Limbs Manufacturing Corporation of India, Kanpur a Government of India organization.	Cost of the product depending upon the disability requirement
6	Natural Death Relief	Relief to the nominee / dependents / legal heir of the registered building & worker in case of natural death.	60,000/-
7	Hospitalization Relief	Financial assistance @ Rs.200/- per day and maximum Rs.3,000/-per month to worker for hospitalization due to accident or terminal disease	3,000/- per month upto 3 Months.

Contd...

Sl No.	Name of the Scheme	Details of Scheme	Amount of Benefit (in Rupees)
8	Funeral Expenses	Expenses for the funeral are provided in case of	20,000/-
		1. Fatal accident/Natural Death of Registered workers.	
		2. Accidental Death of un-registered worker in the course of employment; and	
		3. Charges for transportation of body of the deceased worker, who died in accident in the course of employment to his native place @ Rs.20/- per K.M.	
9	Skill Development Training	Training in safety and hygiene and skill up-gradation.	Training free of cost.
10	Vocational training to the dependents	Training in various trades and vocations to the spouse and adolescent children of the registered construction workers.	
11	Relief to the unregistered workers	1. Fatal Accidental Relief: Death occurred at work-site.	50,000/-
		2. Disability Relief:	20,000/-
		(i) 50% and above Partial Permanent Disability to the worker.	10,000/
		(ii) 50% below Partial Permanent Disability.	

Note: worker means worker registered on TCOBWWB
Source: http://tsbocwwboard.nic.in/welfare-schemes. Accessed on 15.12.2016

HOUSEHOLD QUESTIONNAIRE

Appendix XI

Date:

Name & Signature of Investigator:
District:
Ward/Mandal/Village Name:
Pada/Slum Name:
Name of Primary Respondent Female:

Constituency: Construction ☐ **Agriculture** ☐
Landless ☐ **Landed** ☐

Social Group	SC	ST	NT	PVTG	OBC	General	Others (specify)
Religion	Hindu	Muslim		Christian		Buddhist	Others (specify)

PART ONE

1. **Female-headed Household:** Yes ☐ No ☐
2. **Head of Household:** PRF ☐ SRM ☐ Other Male ☐ Other Female ☐
3. **BPL Household:** Yes ☐ No ☐
4. **Relationship of SRM with PRF:**
   Husband ☐ Son/Son-in-law ☐
   Father/Father-in-law ☐ Brother/Brother-in-law ☐
5. **Total Household Annual Income in ₹:**
   < 25,000 ☐ 25,000 to 50,000 ☐ 50,000 to 1,00,000 ☐ 1,00,000 to 2,00,000 ☐ > 2,00,000 ☐
   Total Male Income: ₹ _____
   Total Female Income: ₹ _____

6. Household Size (Actuals):

	TOTAL		Children (0-6 years)	Children (6+ to 14 years)		Adults (14 to 60 years)		Adults (60+ years)	
	Number	Self Employed/ Employed	Number	Number	Self Employed/ Employed	Number	Self Employed/ Employed	Number	Self Employed/ Employed
Female									
Male									
TOTAL									

7. House Ownership:

Owner – Female ☐ Male ☐

Tenant – Female ☐ Male ☐

Kutcha ☐ Pucca ☐ Semi – Pucca ☐

8. **Land Holding Operated/Cultivated: (acres)**

Owner – Female ☐ Male ☐

Owned – 0 ☐ 0.01 to 2.5 ☐ 2.5 to 5 ☐ 5 + ☐

Rented In – 0 ☐ 0.01 to 2.5 ☐ 2.5 to 5 ☐ 5 + ☐

Rented Out – 0 ☐ 0.01 to 2.5 ☐ 2.5 to 5 ☐ 5 + ☐

Total Cultivated – 0 ☐ 0.01 to 2.5 ☐ 2.5 to 5 ☐ 5 + ☐

9. Source of Water for Household Purposes:

	General Use	Adequate	Drinking Water	Adequate
Tap Inside Dwelling	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tap In Dwelling Yard	☐	☐	☐	☐
Public Tap	☐	☐	☐	☐
Well Common	☐	☐	☐	☐
Hand Pump	☐	☐	☐	☐
Flowing Water/Stream/River	☐	☐	☐	☐
Purchase from Shops/Vendor	☐	☐	☐	☐
Water Carrier/Tanker	☐	☐	☐	☐

Other (specify)

10. Source of Energy/Fuel for Household Purposes:

	Cooking	Heating Only	Lighting
Electricity	☐	☐	☐
Cylinder Gas	☐	☐	☐
Coal	☐	☐	☐
Kerosene	☐	☐	☐
Animal Dung	☐	☐	☐
Wood/Residue	☐	☐	☐
Candles	☐	☐	☐
Solar	☐	☐	☐
Other (specify)			

11. Care & Health Amenities:

	Available	Applicable	Accessible
Anganwadi	☐	☐	☐
Crèche	☐	☐	☐
Primary School	☐	☐	☐
Secondary School	☐	☐	☐
Health Centre PHC	☐		☐
Toilet (private: with water)	☐		☐
Toilet (private: without water)	☐		☐
Toilet (public: with water)	☐		☐
Toilet (public: without water)	☐		☐
Open Defecation	☐		☐
Bath (private)	☐		☐
Open Bath	☐		☐
Other (specify)			

12. Identification:

		Primary Respondent Female							Secondary Respondent Male						
1	Name														
2	Age														
3	Educational Qualification	Non -Literate	Primary			Secondary		>Secondary	Non -Literate	Primary			Secondary		>Secondary
4	Marital Status	Married	Unmarried			Widow		Separated	Married	Unmarried			Unmarried		Widow
5	Social Group	SC	ST	NT	PVTG	OBC	General	Others (Specify)	SC	ST	NT	PVTG	OBC	General	Others (Specify)
6	Religion	Hindu	Muslim	Christian		Buddhist		Others (Specify)	Hindu	Muslim	Christian		Buddhist		Others (Specify)
7	Card Holder	BPL Card	MGNREG Card		Registered CW	Bank A/C		BPL Card	MGNREGS Card			Registered CW	Bank A/C		
			Single	Joint		Single	Joint		Single	Joint			Single	Joint	
8	Work	Working		Not working	Studying	Seeking Work			Working		Not working	Studying	Seeking Work		
		Self-employed	Employed						Self-employed	Employed					
9	Average Monthly Income														

PART TWO
Minutes in an Average Week

1. Time Spent on Primary Sector Activities: (Agriculture, Horticulture, Forestry, Livestock, Fishing)

1.1	Cultivation:								
		PRF		SRM		Other Females		Other Males	
		Own field	Other's field	Own field	Other's field	Own field	Other's field	Own field	Other's field
1.1.1.	Ploughing.								
1.1.2.	Tilling.								
1.1.3.	Preparing Land.								
1.1.4.	Sowing, Planting, Transplanting.								
1.1.5.	Weeding, Cutting of Undergrowth/ Shrub.								
1.1.6.	Tree/Plant Pruning.								
1.1.7.	Plant Propagation.								
1.1.8.	Applying fertiliser, manure, pesticides etc. in the field.								
1.1.9.	Carrying manure, cow dung etc. to the field.								
1.1.10.	Watering of plants/irrigation operations in the field.								
1.1.11.	Harvesting, threshing, winnowing, stalk clearing.								
1.1.12.	Preparation of crops, fruits & vegetables i.e. cleaning, plucking, picking, trimming, grading, disinfecting, bailing, sorting, storing.								
1.1.13.	Nursery work & seed preservation for propagation, & other post-harvest crop activities such as drying, stocking & guarding of crops.								
1.1.14.	Household orchards, kitchen gardening & mushroom cultivation.								
1.1.15.	Safeguarding of crops.								
1.1.16.	Other (specify).								

1.2.	Animal Husbandry:								
		PRF		SRM		Other Females		Other Males	
		For self	For others	For self	For others	For self	For others	For self	For others
1.2.1.	Animal & livestock grazing.								
1.2.2.	Washing & watering animals & poultry, preparing food & feeding.								
1.2.3.	Cleaning & maintenance of animal & poultry shelters.								
1.2.4.	Collecting, milking, storing, etc. of milk.								
1.2.5.	Grading of milk.								
1.2.6.	Poultry & Other Animal Products.								
1.2.7.	Safeguarding of animals.								
1.2.8.	Other (specify).								

1.3.	Forest and Fishing:								
		PRF		SRM		Other Females		Other Males	
		For self	For others	For self	For others	For self	For others	For self	For others
1.3.1.	Forest growing activities, preparation of nursery of forest trees, caring work for seedlings & saplings.								
1.3.2.	Collection of Non-Wood Forest Produce, vegetables, fruits, roots, herbs, medicinal plants, leaves, etc.								
1.3.3.	Making nets & traps, trap-laying, net fixing.								
1.3.4.	Other (specify).								

2. Time Spent on Construction Sector Activities:

		PRF	SRM	Other Females	Other Males
2.1.	Brick making.				
2.2.	Mixing & straining of mud/sand/cement.				
2.3.	Filling tile gaps & cleaning of tiles/floor/paint.				
2.4.	Stone crushing.				
2.5.	Head load worker/helper/coolie.				
2.6.	Water collection/filling & watering of walls/floor/ columns/other structures.				
2.7.	Masonry/plastering.				
2.8.	Pre-fabrication of structure.				
2.9.	Head mazdoor/Supervisor.				
2.10.	Lift/Crane operator.				
2.11.	Earth work-digging, foundation laying.				
2.12.	Brick setting/wall making.				
2.13.	Well sinker.				
2.14.	Drainage work.				
2.15.	Slab work/Column making/centering.				
2.16.	Cutting of stone/Kaddapa/granite/marble.				
2.17.	Rock breaking.				
2.18.	Painting work/Putty work.				
2.19.	Carpentry.				
2.20.	Plumbing.				
2.21.	Fixing and polishing of tiles.				
2.22.	Electrical.				
2.23.	Rod bending, welding.				
2.24.	Demolition work.				
2.25.	Watchman/security.				
2.26.	Any other (specify).				

3. Time Spent on Non-Agricultural & Non-Construction Earning Activities:

		PRF	SRM	Other Females	Other Males
3.1.	Home-based/Family Enterprise.				
3.2.	Shops/Stores.				
3.3.	Casual Worker.				
3.4.	Salaried.				
3.5.	Anganwadi/Asha Workers.				
3.6.	Domestic Worker.				
3.7.	Other (specify).				

4. Time Spent on Household Processing and Repair of Self-Created Goods (whether for Sale or Self-consumption):

		PRF	SRM	Other Females	Other Males
4.1.	Processing of grains: cleaning, washing, drying, grinding.				
4.2.	Processing & preserving of milk, meat, fish, vegetables, fruits, spices, flour, oils, herbs, medicinal plants, roots, etc.				
4.3.	Repair of self-owned agricultural & construction tools, machines, etc.				
4.4.	Care of homestead, kitchen garden & yard.				
4.5.	Collection of raw material for making ropes, mats, brooms and baskets.				
4.6.	Maintenance & repair of dwellings.				
4.7.	Other (specify).				

5. Time Spent on Household Maintenance & Management:

		PRF	SRM	Other Females	Other Males
5.1.	Cooking/serving/cleaning up after meals.				
5.2.	Washing, drying vessels.				
5.3.	Boiling; heating of water.				
5.4.	Indoor cleaning.				
5.5.	Outdoor cleaning.				
5.6.	Washing clothes/drying/sorting/ folding/ storing/ ironing.				
5.7.	Making and picking of bed.				
5.8.	Toilet and Bathroom Cleaning.				
5.9.	Recycling; disposal of garbage.				
5.10.	Cleaning & upkeep of dwelling.				
5.11.	Daily care of pets.				
5.12.	Sewing, stitching, darning etc.				
5.13.	Repair of personal & household goods.				
5.14.	Shopping for purchasing of consumer goods, food items, milk, vegetables, etc.				
5.15.	Other (specify).				

6. Time Spent on Care Work of Children, Ill, Elderly, Challenged: Within Household:

		PRF	SRM	Other Females	Other Males
6.1.	General childcare.				
6.2.	Teaching/tuitions/homework.				
6.3.	Medical/health-care for children.				
6.4.	Giving personal care to elderly.				
6.5.	Giving medical/health-care to elderly.				
6.6.	Giving medical/health-care to the sick.				
6.7.	Giving medical/health-care to physically/mentally challenged.				
6.8.	Other (specify).				

7. Time Spent on Personal Care:

		PRF	SRM	Other Females	Other Males
7.1.	Sleep.				
7.2.	Sleeplessness.				
7.3.	Eating – meals & snacks.				
7.4.	Personal hygiene & care: toilet, bathing, brushing teeth etc.				
7.5.	Personal health/medical care.				
7.6.	Walking/running etc. as an exercise.				
7.7.	Parlour/Saloon.				
7.8.	Doing nothing, resting, relaxing.				
7.9.	Other (specify).				

8. Time Spent on Travel & Waiting Related to Economic Activities:

		PRF	SRM	Other Females	Other Males
8.1.	Time to reach river/stream/pond/waterfall for fishing.				
8.2.	Time to reach forest for collection of NWFP, herbs, plants etc.				
8.3.	Time to reach grounds for fodder & grass for livestock.				
8.4.	Time to reach work site (nakas/addas/fields).				
8.5.	Waiting for work at nakas/addas/MGNREGS.				
8.6.	Other (specify).				

9. Time Spent on Travel & Waiting for Energy:

		PRF	SRM	Other Female	Other Male
9.1.	Time spent on travel to collect firewood; time spent to chop wood/ branches/twigs.				
9.2.	Time spent to collect Animal dung; time spent to make & dry animal dung cakes.				
9.3.	Time spent to light choolah.				
9.4.	Time spent in queue to access kerosene.				
9.5.	Time spent on collecting of personal gas cylinder.				
9.6.	Other (specify).				

10. Travel & Waiting Time to Access Water:

		PRF	SRM	Other Females	Other Males
10.1.	Collecting water for irrigation.				
10.2.	Collecting water for livestock.				
10.3.	Collecting water for bathing/washing/household.				
10.4.	Collecting water for cooking & drinking.				
10.5.	Other (specify).				

11. Travel & Waiting Time to Access Public Provisioning including for Care:

		PRF	SRM	Other Females	Other Males
11.1.	Toilet (with water).				
11.2.	Bathroom.				
11.3.	Health centres, Dispensaries, Hospitals etc. for children, sick, elderly, specially-abled.				
11.4.	Public Distribution Shops PDS.				
11.5.	Anganwadis, Crèches, Schools.				
11.6.	Public transport.				
11.7.	Payments under Schemes, Direct Benefit Transfer in Banks.				
11.8.	Payments under Schemes, Direct Benefit Transfer in Postoffice.				
11.9.	Paying bills (utilities, etc.).				
11.10.	Other (specify).				

12. Time Spent in Voluntary & Community Activities:

		PRF	SRM	Other Females	Other Males
12.1.	Taking care of children of others in absence of Anganwadi.				
12.2.	Participating in community rites/events (religious).				
12.3.	Participating in community rites/events (non-religious).				
12.4.	SHG's activities.				
12.5.	Union activities.				
12.6.	Association/NGO activities.				
12.7.	Attending ward/village meetings.				
12.8.	Social work.				
12.9.	Taking care of forests & other commons.				
12.10.	Taking care of water bodies, both natural & created.				
12.11.	Other (specify).				

13. Activities & Tasks on which Time Would be Spent if Unpaid Work & Time Burden are Redistributed and Reduced: [Only (√)]

		PRF	SRM
13.1.	Work more.		
13.2.	Skill Upgradation & Vocational Training.		
13.3.	Study.		
13.4.	Governance.		
13.5.	Voluntary work.		
13.6.	Spend more time with children.		
13.7.	Spend more time with friends/socialise		
13.8.	Rest/Sleep.		
13.9.	Personal Care.		
13.10.	Leisure.		
13.11.	Other (specify).		

14. Benefits from Schemes/Programmes (In past one year):

14.1. MGNREGS

	Provisions	Aware				Benefitted			
		PRF		SRM		PRF		SRM	
		Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
14.1.1	Applied for work.								
14.1.2.	100 work days.								
14.1.3.	Timely wage payment.								
14.1.4.	Equal wages.								
14.1.5.	Unemployment allowance.								
14.1.6.	Drinking water.								
14.1.7.	Shade.								
14.1.8.	First Aid.								
14.1.9.	Crèche.								
14.1.10.	Maternity Benefit.								
14.1.11.	Other (specify).								

14.2. Building & Other Construction Workers Welfare Schemes

	Provisions	Aware				Benefitted			
		PRF		SRM		PRF		SRM	
		Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
14.2.1.	Fixed working hours.								
14.2.2.	Minimum Wages.								
14.2.3.	Latrines & Urinals.								
14.2.4.	Drinking water.								
14.2.5.	Safe site.								
14.2.6.	First Aid boxes.								
14.2.7.	Maternity benefits for self.								
14.2.8.	Maternity benefits for daughters of the worker.								
14.2.9.	Employee's State Insurance.								

Contd...

	Provisions	Aware				Benefitted			
		PRF		SRM		PRF		SRM	
		Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
14.2.10.	Old Age Pension.								
14.2.11.	Financial assistance for education.								
14.2.12.	Financial assistance for education of children of Beneficiaries.								
14.2.13.	Skill Development training.								
14.2.14.	Vocational Training to the dependents.								
14.2.15.	Loans for house construction.								
14.2.16.	Financial Assistance for tools and equipment's.								
14.2.17.	Financial Assistance for Disability due to accidents.								
14.2.18.	Financial Assistance for Family Planning.								
14.2.19.	Marriage expenses for female workers.								
14.2.20.	Marriage expenses for daughters of workers.								
14.2.21.	Loans for marriage.								
14.2.22.	Financial Assistance in case of widow headed households for 5 years.								
14.2.23.	Group insurance.								
14.2.24.	Cover medical expenses.								
14.2.25.	Medical Assistance for serious ailments.								
14.2.26.	Hospitalization allowance/relief.								
14.2.27.	Assistance in accidents								
14.2.28.	Fatal Accidents relief.								
14.2.29.	Death Benefit/Natural death relief.								
14.2.30.	Funeral expense.								
14.2.31.	Other (specify).								

14.3. Energy, Water, Care (for household)

	Schemes	Aware		Benefitted		How (specify)
		Yes	No	Yes	No	
14.3.1.	PAHAL					
14.3.2.	PMUY					
14.3.3.	NRDWP					
14.3.4.	IGMSY					
14.3.5.	RGNCS					
14.3.6.	ICDS					
14.3.7.	IAY					
14.3.8.	Any Other (specify)					

Additional Information

SELECTION OF VILLAGE/WARD

Appendix XII

Selection of Village/Ward

1. ***Maharashtra:***

a) Thane:

(in actuals)

District	Taluka	Ward No.	Slum	Total Population	CW HH	CW FHH	SC	ST	OBC (Muslim)
Thane	Ulhasnagar	37	Ramabai Nagar	6138	60	20	1680	123	798
	Mumbra	56	Shailesh Nagar and Uday Nagar	8000	250	40	3060	30	400

Source: SALAH, Partner Organization

b) Solapur:

(in actuals)

District	Taluka	Village	Total Population	HH	FHH	Total BPL HH	Total BPL FHH	SC	ST	OBC	NT
Solapur	Sangola	Dongargaon	2487 Male – 1233 Female – 1254	464	48	80	21	746	0	497	467
	Sangola	Sonand	5774 Male – 2969 Female – 2805	1066	158	223	46	1732	0	2020	1040

Source: ASVSS, Partner Organization

2. ***Uttarakhand:***

Pithoragarh:

(in actuals)

District	Taluka/Block	Village	Total Population	Total HH	SC population	SC HH	ST/PVTG population	ST HH
Pithoragarh	Dharchula	Toli	1911 Male – 847 Female – 854 Children – 210	392	666	133	50	10
	Dharchula	Baluakot	6098 Male – 2664 Female – 2791 Children – 643	1125	1378	275	0	0
	Dharchula	Kimkhola	298 Male – 116 Female – 136 Children – 46	84	35	10	196	59

Source: Arpan, Partner Organization

3. Telangana:

Hyderabad:

(in actuals)

District	Taluka/Block/ Mandal	Ward no.	Slum	Circle no.	Total Population			Total Households	SC Households	ST Households	OBC Households
					Male	Female	Total				
Hyderabad	Khairatabad	102	Karmika Nagar huts	10	511	541	1052	534	35	210	289
	Tirumalagiri	3	Mudfort basti	Cantonment-Secunderabad	453	419	872	486	86	204	183

Source: ActionAid Regional Office

STUDY ASSOCIATED GRAPHS

Appendix XIII

Table V.C.1

Family Size

	SOLAPUR	PITHORAGARH	HYDERABAD	THANE
Average Family size	4 members	5 members	4 members	4 members
HHs with > 4/5 members	186 HHs	110 HHs	90 HHs	176 HHs
Total Members	1871	1853	1327	1691
Total Female	934	915	658	834
Total Male	941	938	669	857
No of HHs (0-6 population)	100 (24.8)	143 (36.4)	99 (26.5)	108 (27.5)

Note: Figures in parentheses refer to per cent of HHs.

Table V.C.2

Income & Income Distribution

	SOLAPUR	PITHORAGARH	HYDERABAD	THANE
		Average Monthly Income		
Female	Rs.2000/-	Rs. 900/-	Rs. 4500/-	Rs.3000/-
Male	Rs.3000/-	Rs. 3000/-	Rs. 5000/-	Rs. 4000/-
Income Group		**Annual Income Distribution (Per cent of HHs)**		
< Rs. 25,000	19.7	36.6	NIL	3.8
25,000-50,000	40.3	21.1	6.7	14.3
50,000 – 1,00,000	32.8	20.4	30.3	66.3
1,00,000-2,00,000	5.2	7.9	60.3	15.3

Table V.C.3

Ownership & Size of Land Holdings

	SOLAPUR	PITHORAGARH	HYDERABAD	THANE
		Ownership		
Female	26 (6.5)	78 (19.6)	NAP	NAP
Male	262 (65.2)	234 (58.8)	NAP	NAP
		Size (Acres)		
0	12 (2.9)	9 (2.3)	NAP	NAP
0.01 – 2.5	197 (49.0)	180 (45.2)	NAP	NAP
2.5 – 5	34 (8.5)	75 (18.8)	NAP	NAP
5+	36 (9.0)	78 (19.6)	NAP	NAP

Note: Figures in parentheses refer to per cent of HHs. The per cent may not add up to 100 per cent given the lack of response from respon-dents.

Table V.C.4

Type of Dwelling & House Ownership

	SOLAPUR	PITHORAGARH	HYDERABAD	THANE
Pucca	278 (69.2)	172 (43.2)	1 (0.3)	42 (10.7)
Semi-Pucca	53 (13.2)	8 (2.0)	0	293 (74.7)
Kutcha	56 (13.9)	10 (2.5)	368 (98.7)	10 (2.6)
House Ownership				
Female Owner	55 (13.7)	105 (26.4)	103 (27.6)	36 (9.2)
Male Owner	312 (77.6)	2 (0.5)	270 (72.4)	255 (65.1)
Female Tenant	11 (2.7)	280 (70.4)	13 (3.5)	27 (6.9)
Male Tenant	22 (5.4)	4 (1.0)	68 (18.2)	37 (9.4)

Note: Figures in parentheses refer to per cent of HHs. The per cent and number of households may not add up to 100 per cent and the sample size respectively given the lack of response from respondents.

Table V.C.5

Proportion of Time Spent by Women & Men Workers (per cent)

Activities	Solapur PRF	Solapur SRM	Pithoragarh PRF	Pithoragarh SRM	Hyderabad PRF	Hyderabad SRM	Thane PRF	Thane SRM
Economic Activity	60.7	69.0	61.5	63.7	56.8	59.7	77.8	77.7
Household Processing & Repair	12.7	10.7	6.5	5.4	10.5	18.9	2.1	2.6
Travel & Waiting Time – Energy*	8.3	8.8	6.1	5.0	4.7	2.9	3.9	6.1
Travel & Waiting Time – Water	2.9	1.8	4.2	4.6	7.9	4.5	2.9	0.0
Care of Children, Ill, Elderly & Challenged	8.1	5.6	7.3	4.6	8.9	6.0	3.9	5.2
Household Maintenance & Management	5.9	2.8	3.6	5.3	6.5	4.0	6.5	4.3
Travel & Time for Public Provisioning	1.5	1.2	10.8	11.5	4.7	4.0	2.9	4.1

Note: '*' not including the time spent on waiting for kerosene and gas cylinder. Per cent calculated as time spent on a particular activity to total time spent on all activities.

TIME USE PATTERNS OF SOLAPUR, PITHORAGARH, HYDERABAD, THANE (GENERAL AND FEMALE HEADED HOUSEHOLDS)

Appendix XIV

V.D.1. Cultivation - Solapur

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
1.1	Ploughing	21	10	35	48	#	#	#	6	29	10	42	162	2	10	49	26
1.2	Tilling	26	9	35	54	#	#	#	7	31	9	49	170	2.3	7	49	28
1.3	Preparing Land	25	10	56	56	#	#	#	8	31	7	56	161	2	7	49	27
2	Sowing, Planting and Transplanting	19.5	10	35	43	#	#	#	11	28.4	7	49	122	1.5	10	35	22
3.1	Weeding, cutting of Undergrowth	31.7	7	70	235	2.5	13	42	31	21.5	7	35	51	#	#	#	7
3.2	Tree/Plant Pruning	28	7	56	170	1.5	7	49	25	20	14	56	48	#	#	#	8
3.3	Plant Propagation	#	#	#	16	#	#	#	2	#	#	#	9	#	#	#	1
4.1	Applying Fertiliser, Manure, Pesticide	27.9	7	56	120	#	#	#	13	30	7	56	144	#	#	#	17
4.2	Carrying Manure, Cowdung etc. to the field	30.5	7	49	147	#	#	#	15	30.5	7	56	140	#	#	#	18
4.3	Watering of Plants/irrigation in the field	25.1	7	49	73	#	#	#	7	30.5	2	56	149	1.8	7	42	23

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
5.1	Harvesting, threshing, Winnowing, stalk clearing	32	7	56	235	1.5	14	35	23	30.5	10	49	107	#	#	#	16
5.2	Picking, cleaning, sorting crops, fruits & vegeta-bles	23.5	7	56	204	#	#	#	10	30.5	10	42	47	#	#	#	6
5.3	Nursery Work & other post-har-vest activities	22.5	7	56	221	#	#	#	10	26.8	7	56	37	#	#	#	3
5.4	Household orchards, kitchen gardening	22.5	7	56	225	#	#	#	4	#	#	#	10	#	#	#	1
5.5	Safeguarding of Crops	15.6	3.5	49	195	#	#	#	14	#	#	#	10	#	#	#	5
	Average	**25.1**				**1.8**				**28.3**				**2**			

V.D.2. Cultivation - Pithoragarh

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
1.1	Ploughing	#	#	#	5	#	#	#	4	30.2	7	56	201	30	7	56	35
1.2	Tilling	34.2	7	49	116	#	#	#	12	#	#	#	13	#	#	#	2
1.3	Preparing Land	34.3	14	56	265	29	7	42	49	33.3	7	63	83	#	#	#	7
2	Sowing, Planting and Transplanting	36.8	7	63	298	33.3	1.75	56	68	39.1	14	56	70	#	#	#	15
3.1	Weeding, cutting of Undergrowth	27.6	7	56	280	25.2	7	42	61	36	7	42	21	#	#	#	6
3.2	Tree/Plant Pruning	24.2	7	63	174	20.2	1.75	42	23	#	#	#	3	#	#	#	3
3.3	Plant Propagation	26.5	7	56	191	20.3	1.75	49	29	27.5	7	63	31	#	#	#	4
4.1	Applying Fertilizer, Manure, Pesticide	10.3	3.5	63	108	#	#	#	7	6.5	3.5	49	30	#	#	#	6
4.2	Carrying Manure, Cow dung etc. to the field	20.8	1.75	56	281	20.7	1.75	42	67	#	#	#	16	#	#	#	3
4.3	Watering of Plants/irrigation in the field	26.2	7	56	124	22	7	42	22	22.2	7	42	30	#	#	#	7
5.1	Harvesting, threshing, Winnowing, stalk clearing	35.1	7	63	292	30.2	1.75	42	75	33.4	7	49	90	22.8	7	42	20
5.2	Picking, cleaning, sorting crops, fruits & vegetables	25	3.5	63	299	22.1	7	35	43	#	#	#	7	#	#	#	5
5.3	Nursery Work & other post-harvest activities	23.7	3.5	42	95	20.4	14	28	22	#	#	#	7	#	#	#	1
5.4	Household orchards, kitchen gardening	6	1.75	42	274	6.1	1.75	28	37	#	#	#	16	#	#	#	6
5.5	Safeguarding of Crops	24.6	3.5	42	218	19.1	3.5	42	38	23.6	3.5	63	38	#	#	#	17
	Average	*26*				*24.9*				*23.6*				*29.6*			

V.D.3. Animal Husbandry - Solapur

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
1.2.1	Animal & Livestock Grazing	18.8	1	49	220	1.8	7	49	30	21.3	7	42	83	#	#	#	17
1.2.2	Washing & Watering Animals & Poultry, preparing food & feeding	13.5	2	35	205	0.8	5	28	20	14.3	7	42	70	#	#	#	7
1.2.3.	Cleaning & maintenance of animal & poultry shelters	16.3	4	35	163	#	#	#	8	17	7	21	25	0	0	0	0
1.2.4	Collecting, milking, storing, grading etc. of milk, poultry & other animal products	11.8	3.5	42	160	#	#	#	2	11	3.5	35	67	#	#	#	4
1.2.5	Grading of Milk	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
1.2.6	Poultry and Other Animal Products	8.8	3.5	35	61	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	19	0	0	0	0
1.2.7	Safeguarding of Animals	19.8	2	42	235	0	0	0	0	10.3	7	42	58	#	#	#	1
	Average	14.8				1.3				**14.8**				**0**			

V.D.4. Animal Husbandry - Pithoragarh

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
1.2.1	Animal & Live-stock Grazing	11.6	2.1	35	79	#	#	#	14	16.4	2.1	42	48	#	#	#	10
1.2.2	Washing & Watering Animals &Poultry, preparing food & feeding	10.8	1.75	42	291	8.6	3.5	28	51	#	#	#	17	#	#	#	5
1.2.3.	Cleaning & maintenance of animal & poultry shelters	7.1	2.1	35	264	6.6	1.75	14	47	#	#	#	19	#	#	#	3
1.2.4	Collecting, milking, storing, grading etc. of milk, poultry & other animal products	5.1	1.75	28	265	5.4	2.1	14	32	#	#	#	6	#	#	#	1
1.2.5	Grading of Milk	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
1.2.6	Poultry and Other Animal Products	7	1.75	28	198	5.9	1.75	14	22	#	#	#	16	#	#	#	3
1.2.7	Safeguarding of Animals	12.4	2.1	75	317	10.4	1.75	28	62	8	1.75	35	61	#	#	#	7
	Average	**9**				**7.4**				**12**				**0**			

V.D.5. Forestry and Fishing - Pithoragarh

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
1.3.1	Forest grow-ing activities, preparation of nursery of forest trees, caring work for seedlings & saplings.	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	2	#	#	#	2
1.3.2	Collection of Non-Wood Forest Produce, vegeta-bles, fruits, roots, herbs, medicinal plants, leaves, etc.	28	3.5	42	33	#	#	#	4	#	#	#	10	#	#	#	1
1.3.3	Making nets & traps, trap-laying, net fixing.	34.6	14	56	31	#	#	#	1	26.5	7	63	52	#	#	#	10
	Average	**25.5**				**0**				**26.5**				**0**			

V.D.6. Construction – Hyderabad

		PRF					OF					SRM					OM				
	Activity	Average (hrs week)	Yes	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Yes	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Yes	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs week)	Yes	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
2.1	Brick making.	#	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0	0
2.2	Mixing & straining of mud/sand/ cement.	22.9	24	5	63	271	#	#	#	#	10	20.5	22	6	63	254	#	1	#	#	24
2.3	Filling tile gaps & cleaning of tiles/ floor/paint.	#	#	#	#	15	0	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	#	11
2.4	Stone crushing.	#	1	#	#	1	#	#	#	#	8	#	1	#	#	1	#	#	#	#	15
2.5	Head load worker/ helper/coolie.	15.4	88	4	45	119	#	4	#	#	2	12.8	45	2	40	64	#	#	#	#	5
2.6	Water collection/ filling & watering of walls/floor/ columns/other structures.	4.7	67	1	16	37	#	1	#	#	2	#	32	#	#	15	#	#	#	#	3
2.7	Masonry/plas-tering.	#	3	#	#	1	0	0	0	0	0	#	20	#	#	6	0	4	0	0	0
2.8	Pre-fabrication of structure.	#	56	#	#	18	0	0	0	0	0	#	50	#	#	17	#	#	#	#	1
2.9	Head mazdoor/ Supervisor.	#	1	#	#	1	0	0	0	0	0	#	2	#	#	3	0	0	0	0	0
2.10	Lift/Crane operator.	#	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	#	1
2.11	Earth work-digging, foundation laying.	21.8	53	1.5	32	81	#	1	#	#	1	22	54	8	32	74	#	3	#	#	7
2.12	Brick setting/wall making.	#	2	#	#	2	#	#	#	#	3	#	5	#	#	2	#	1	#	#	5
2.13	Well sinker.	#	3	#	#	5	#	#	#	#	5	#	6	#	#	9	#	#	#	#	10
2.14	Drainage work.	13.6	41	8	16	20	#	#	#	#	2	14.2	43	8	36	20	#	3	#	#	2
2.15	Slab work/Column making/centering.	#	#	#	#	3	0	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	#	2	0	0	0	0	0

Contd...

		PRF					OF					SRM					OM				
	Activity	Average (hrs week)	Yes	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Yes	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Yes	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs week)	Yes	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
2.16	Cutting of stone/ Kaddapa/granite/ marble.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.17	Rock breaking.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.18	Painting work/ Putty work.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	#	2	0	0	0	0	0
2.19	Carpentry.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.20	Plumbing.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.21	Fixing and polishing of tiles.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.22	Electrical.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.23	Rod bending, welding.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.24	Demolition work.	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	#	2	#	#	#	0	0	0	0	0
2.25	Watchman/ security.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Average	**15.7**					**0**					**18.9**					**27.1**				

V.D.7. Construction – Thane

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
2.1.	Brick making.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.2.	Mixing & straining of mud/sand/cement.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0
2.3.	Filling tile gaps & cleaning of tiles/ floor/paint.	#	#	#	6	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	2	0	0	0	0
2.4.	Stone crushing.	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.5.	Head load worker/ helper/coolie.	25.8	4	77	376	#	#	#	2	32	4	70	288	#	#	#	4
2.6.	Water collection/ filling & watering of walls/floor/columns/ other structures.	#	#	#	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.7.	Masonry/plastering.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	12	0	0	0	0
2.8.	Pre-fabrication of structure.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.9.	Head mazdoor/Su-pervisor.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0
2.10.	Lift/Crane operator.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.11.	Earth work-digging, foundation laying.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.12.	Brick setting/wall making.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0
2.13.	Well sinker.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.14.	Drainage work.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.15.	Slab work/Column making/centering.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.16.	Cutting of stone/ Kaddapa/granite/ marble.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Contd...

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
2.17.	Rock breaking.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.18.	Painting work/Putty work.	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0
2.19.	Carpentry.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.20.	Plumbing.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.21.	Fixing and polishing of tiles.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.22.	Electrical.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.23.	Rod bending, welding.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.24.	Demolition work.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.25.	Watchman/security.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Average	**25.8**				**0**				**32**				**0**			

V.D.8. Non-Agricultural & Non-Construction Earning Activities – Solapur

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
3.1	Home based/Family Enterprise	#	#	#	13	#	#	#	2	#	#	#	12	#	#	#	3
3.2	Shops/Stores	#	#	#	5	#	#	#	3	#	#	#	12	#	#	#	3
3.3	Casual Worker	#	#	#	3	#	#	#	2	25.5	5	49	35	#	#	#	18
3.4	Salaried	#	#	#	3	#	#	#	2	#	#	#	15	#	#	#	2
3.5	Anganwad / Asha Worker	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	1
3.6	Domestic Worker	#	#	#	3	0	#	#	3	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	1
	Average	0								25.5				0			

V.D.9. Non-Agricultural & Non-Construction Earning Activities – Pithoragarh

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
3.1	Home based/Family Enterprise	#	#	#	17	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	6	0	0	0	0
3.2	Shops/Stores	#	#	#	6	#	#	#	3	52.5	14	70	26	#	#	#	2
3.3	Casual Worker	48.1	3.5	56	136	#	#	#	5	50.4	7	56	228	50.1	7	56	26
3.4	Salaried	#	#	#	4	#	#	#	1	49	14	56	48	49.2	1.75	56	21
3.5	Anganwadi/Asha Worker	#	#	#	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3.6	Domestic Worker	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Average	48.1				0				50.6				49.6			

V.D.10. Non-Agricultural & Non-Construction Earning Activities – Hyderabad

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
3.1	Home based/Family Enterprise	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3.2	Shops/Stores	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0
3.3	Casual Worker	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3.4	Salaried	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0
3.5	Anganwadi/Asha Worker	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3.6	Domestic Worker	#	#	#	6	#	#	#	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Average	**0**				**0**				**0**				**0**			

V.D.11. Non-Agricultural & Non-Construction Earning Activities – Thane

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
3.1	Home based/Family Enterprise	#	#	#	17	#	#	#	5	#	#	#	3	0	0	0	0
3.2	Shops/Stores	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	6	0	0	0	0
3.3	Casual Worker	22	2	32	55	#	#	#	3	#	#	#	17	#	#	#	1
3.4	Salaried	#	#	#	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3.5	Anganwadi/Asha Worker	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3.6	Domestic Worker	#	#	#	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Average	**22**				**0**				**0**				**0**			

V.D.12. Time Spent on Travel and Waiting Related to Economic Activities – Solapur

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
8.1	Time to reach for fishing	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	1
8.2	Time to reach forest for collection	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	1
8.3	Time to reach grounds for fodder and grass	10	1	42	234	9.3	1	28	38	7.3	1	35	56	#	#	#	11
8.4	Time to reach work site	2.5	1	14	171	2.5	1	7	23	2.3	1	8	65	#	#	#	14
8.5	Waiting for work at nakas	1.3	1	7	25	#	#	#	2	#	#	#	19	#	#	#	3
	Average	4.5				5.9				4.8				0			

V.D.13. Time Spent on Travel and Waiting Related to Economic Activities – Pithoragarh

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
8.1	Time to reach for fishing	10.3	1.75	42	108	9	1.75	35	30	13.6	1.75	56	62	8.4	1.75	70	21
8.2	Time to reach forest for collection	24.7	7	42	40	#	#	#	5	#	#	#	13	0	0	0	0
8.3	Time to reach grounds for fodder and grass	22.5	3.5	56	256	20	7	42	49	#	#	#	7	0	0	0	0
8.4	Time to reach work site	9.4	1.75	49	75	#	#	#	2	10	3.5	56	115	10	3.5	49	23
8.5	Waiting for work at nakas	10	3.5	49	49	#	#	#	6	#	#	#	14	#	#	#	3
	Average	15.3				14.5				11.9				9.2			

V.D.14. Time Spent on Travel and Waiting Related to Economic Activities – Hyderabad

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
8.1	Time to reach for fishing	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP
8.2	Time to reach forest for collection	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP
8.3	Time to reach grounds for fodder and grass	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP
8.4	Time to reach work site	4.4	0.25	60	338	#	#	#	10	4.5	1.5	60	327	4.5	3	8	26
8.5	Waiting for work at nakas	13	1.33	35	133	#	#	#	3	14.4	1	150	107	#	#	#	7
	Average	**8.6**				**0**				**9.4**				**4.5**			

V.D.15. Time Spent on Travel and Waiting Related to Economic Activities – Thane

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
8.1	Time to reach for fishing	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP
8.2	Time to reach forest for collection	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP
8.3	Time to reach grounds for fodder and grass	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP
8.4	Time to reach work site	2.5	0.25	14	382	#	#	#	#	2.8	0.25	8	253	#	#	#	#
8.5	Waiting for work at nakas	5.1	0.5	21	379	#	#	#	#	4.8	1	14	249	#	#	#	#
	Average	**3.8**				**0**				**3.8**				**0**			

V.D.16. Time Spent on Household Processing and Repair of Self-Created Goods – Solapur

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
4.1	Processing of grains: cleaning, washing, drying, grading	16	2	35	372	13.2	7	35	106	19	7	42	24	#	#	#	11
4.2	Processing & pre-serving of milk, meat, fish, vegetables, spices etc.	3	1	42	366	3	1	15	115	3.5	1	9	21	#	#	#	9
4.3	Repair of self-owned agricultural & con-struction tools	23.5	0.25	1.5	42	#	#	#	8	21	0.25	1	160	0.3	1	35	48
4.4	Care of homestead, kitchen garden & yard	1.8	1	14	268	1.8	1	14	98	1.5	1	3	11	#	#	#	5
4.5	Collection of raw material for making ropes, mats, brooms & baskets	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0
4.6	Maintenance & repair of dwelling	2	1	14	280	1.6	1	14	98	2.3	1	12	34	#	#	#	9
	Average	9.3				4.9				11.4				0.3			

V.D.17. Time Spent on Household Processing and Repair of Self-Created Goods – Pithoragarh

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
4.1	Processing of grains: cleaning, washing, drying, grading	23.9	7	63	381	22.3	7	63	63	#	#	#	18	#	#	#	5
4.2	Processing & pre-serving of milk, meat, fish, vegetables, spices etc.	13.8	3.5	56	344	12	3.5	63	51	#	#	#	5	0	0	0	0
4.3	Repair of self-owned agricultural & construction tools	9.8	3.5	63	259	#	#	#	16	9.8	1.75	42	78	#	#	#	9
4.4	Care of homestead, kitchen garden & yard	5.5	1.75	42	347	5	1.75	7	70	7	1.75	21	54	#	#	#	9
4.5	Collection of raw material for making ropes, mats, brooms & baskets	#	#	#	14	#	#	#	4	#	#	#	7	0	0	0	0
4.6	Maintenance & repair of dwelling	12.2	3.5	63	293	10.2	3.5	35	40	14.6	3.5	42	146	#	#	#	18
	Average	**13**				**9**				**10.5**				**0**			

V.D.18. Time Spent on Household Processing and Repair of Self-Created Goods – Hyderabad

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
4.1	Processing of grains: cleaning, washing, drying, grading	1.6	0.25	3.5	89	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
4.2	Processing & preserving of milk, meat, fish, vegeta-bles, spices etc.	2.6	1	4.6	135	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	19	#	#	#	4
4.3	Repair of self-owned agricultural & construction tools	1	0.5	1.5	32	0	0	0	0	1.2	0.5	3.5	276	#	#	#	9
4.4	Care of homestead, kitchen garden & yard	2	0.5	7	29	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
4.5	Collection of raw material for making ropes, mats, brooms & baskets	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
4.6	Maintenance & repair of dwelling	15.3	0.25	40	367	#	#	#	15	16	0.25	40	306	17.9	4	40	27
	Average	**4.5**				**0**				**8.5**				**17.9**			

V.D.19. Time Spent on Household Processing and Repair of Self-Created Goods – Thane

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
4.1	Processing of grains: cleaning, washing, drying, grading	2	0.25	12.5	369	1.8	0.5	8	69	#	#	#	5	#	#	#	3
4.2	Processing & preserving of milk, meat, fish, vegetables, spices etc.	1.2	0.25	10.5	180	#	#	#	16	#	#	#	2	#	#	#	16
4.3	Repair of self-owned agricultural & construction tools	#	#	#	9	0	0	0	0	1.3	0.25	3	43	#	#	#	6
4.4	Care of homestead, kitchen garden & yard	1.1	0.25	7	62	#	#	#	5	#		#	5	0	0	0	0
4.5	Collection of raw material for making ropes, mats, brooms & baskets	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
4.6	Maintenance & repair of dwelling	1.2	0.25	10	68	#	#	#	7	1.1	0.25	4	208	1.0	0.25	3.5	50
	Average	**1.4**				**1.8**				**1.2**				**1**			

V.D.20. Time Spent on Travel and Waiting for Energy – Solapur

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
9.1	Time spent on travel to collect firewood; time spent to chop wood/ branches/ twigs.	20	7	56	318	17.5	7	56	82	17.2	7	35	35	#	#	#	13
9.2	Time spent to collect Animal dung; time spent to make & dry animal dung cakes.	#	#	#	11	#	#	#	2	#	#	#	2	#	#	#	3
9.3	Time spent to light choolah.	1.8	0.25	21	365	1.5	1	7	58	1.6	1	7	27	#	#	#	6
9.4	Time spent in queue to access kerosene.	1.5	0.5	5	72	#	#	#	8	1.8	0.5	5	137	1.9	0.5	5	35
9.5	Time spent on collecting of personal gas cylinder.	1	0.5	2	21	#	#	#	1	1	0.5	4	78	1.1	0.5	4	38
	Average	**6.1**				**9.5**				**9.4**				**1.5**			

V.D.21. Time Spent on Travel and Waiting for Energy – Pithoragarh

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
9.1	Time spent on travel to collect firewood; time spent to chop wood/ branches/ twigs.	29	7	49	342	27.6	7	42	59	24.6	7	42	39	#	#	#	8
9.2	Time spent to collect Animal dung; time spent to make & dry animal dung cakes.	4.3	7	14	83	#	#	#	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
9.3	Time spent to light choolah.	3.1	1.75	28	352	3.3	1.75	21	69	#	#	#	7	#	#	#	2
9.4	Time spent in queue to access kerosene.	19.1	1.75	49	209	#	#	#	12	21	3.5	56	161	21	3.5	42	23
9.5	Time spent on collecting of personal gas cylinder.	24	1.75	56	97	#	#	#	11	24.4	3.5	56	90	#	#	#	16
		12.3				12.5				9.7				10.2			

V.D.22. Time Spent on Travel and Waiting for Energy – Hyderabad

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
9.1	Time spent on travel to collect firewood; time spent to chop wood/ branches/ twigs.	2.4	0.5	7	306	#	#	#	6	1.6	0.5	4	119	#	#	#	5
9.2	Time spent to collect Animal dung; time spent to make & dry animal dung cakes.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
9.3	Time spent to light choolah.	2.8	0.5	5.6	350	#	#	#	10	1.4	0.75	3.5	20	#	#	#	3
9.4	Time spent in queue to access kerosene.	1	0.5	3.5	43	0	0	0	0	0.8	0.5	1	28	#	#	#	3
9.5	Time spent on collecting of personal gas cylinder.	#	#	#	11	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	18	0	0	0	0
	Average	**2**				**0**				**1.3**				**0**			

V.D.23. Time Spent on Travel and Waiting for Energy – Thane

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
9.1	Time spent on travel to collect firewood; time spent to chop wood/ branches/ twigs.	3.3	0.25	10.5	248	2.8	1	4	36	2.8	1	3	81	#	#	#	11
9.2	Time spent to collect Animal dung; time spent to make & dry animal dung cakes.	#	#	#	5	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	1
9.3	Time spent to light choolah.	2	0.25	17	197	1.4	0.25	4	20	#	#	#	5	0	0	0	0
9.4	Time spent in queue to access kerosene.	1.5	0.5	7	114	#	#	#	10	1.1	0.5	3	107	#	#	#	10
9.5	Time spent on collecting of personal gas cylinder.	1.3	0.25	3	38	#	#	#	1	1.8	0.25	3	28	#	#	#	3
	Average	**2.6**				**2.8**				**2.8**				**0**			

V.D.24. Travel and Waiting Time to Access Water – Solapur

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
10.1	Collecting water for irrigation.	1.8	1	5	49	1.7	1	3	24	2	1	8	139	2.1	1	5	38
10.2	Collecting water for livestock.	2.3	0.5	14	111	1.8	0.25	10	57	1.8	0.25	14	147	1.5	0.25	7	48
10.3	Collecting water for bathing/washing/ household.	2.8	0.25	14	260	3.3	0.5	14	120	2.5	1	14	144	2	0.5	14	69
10.4	Collecting water for cooking & drinking.	1.8	0.25	14	245	1.8	0.25	14	109	1.3	0.25	7	131	1.3	0.25	3	58
	Average	**2.1**				**2.1**				**1.9**				**1.7**			

V.D.25. Travel and Waiting Time to Access Water – Pithoragarh

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
10.1	Collecting water for irrigation.	19.7	3.5	42	114	#	#	#	9	18.3	7	42	28	#	#	#	9
10.2	Collecting water for livestock.	5	1.75	28	287	5.4	1.75	42	60	6	3.5	28	20	#	#	#	9
10.3	Collecting water for bathing/washing/ household.	5.1	1.75	35	370	4.8	1.75	14	94	5.6	1.75	42	83	4.4	1.75	14	30
10.4	Collecting water for cooking & drinking.	4.2	1.75	21	361	4.4	1.75	35	90	6	1.75	28	40	#	#	#	17
	Average	**8.5**				**4.9**				**9**				**4.4**			

V.D.26. Travel and Waiting Time to Access Water – Hyderabad

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
10.1	Collecting water for irrigation.	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP
10.2	Collecting water for livestock.	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP
10.3	Collecting water for bathing/washing/ household.	4.3	0.5	14	340	#	#	#	18	3	1	7	99	#	#	#	15
10.4	Collecting water for cooking & drinking.	2.5	0.5	7	355	#	#	#	16	1.2	0.5	7	70	#	#	#	11
	Average	**3.4**				**0**				**2**				**0**			

V.D.27. Travel and Waiting Time to Access Water – Thane

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
10.1	Collecting water for irrigation.	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP
10.2	Collecting water for livestock.	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP
10.3	Collecting water for bathing/washing/ household.	2	0.5	7	319	3	0.5	7	86	#	#	#	13	#	#	#	12
10.4	Collecting water for cooking & drinking.	1.8	0.5	8	309	2.8	0.5	7	87	#	#	#	9	#	#	#	12
	Average	1.9				2.9				0				0			

V.D.28. Time Spent on Care of Children, Ill, Elderly & Challenged – Solapur

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
6.1	General childcare	10.3	1	49	103	11.8	35	49	43	9.3	7	49	53	#	#	#	7
6.2	Teaching/tuitions/ homework	10.5	1	49	46	14.5	7	49	30	12.3	3.5	56	39	#	#	#	4
6.3	Medical/health care for children	1	0.25	3	138	1	0.25	3	236	1	0.25	3	74	#	#	#	4
6.4	Personal care to the elderly	2	1	7	78	#	#	#	13	#	#	#	19	0	0	0	0
6.5	Medical/health care to elderly	#	#	#	10	#	#	#	2	#	#	#	2	0	0	0	0
6.6	Medical/health care to sick	#	#	#	15	#	#	#	9	#	#	#	3	#	#	#	2
6.7	Medical/health care to physically/ mentally challenged	#	#	#	4	#	#	#	4	#	#	#	2	#	#	#	2
	Average	5.9				7.4				6				0			

V.D.29. Time Spent on Care of Children, Ill, Elderly & Challenged – Pithoragarh

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
6.1	General childcare	13.7	1.75	56	260	14.2	3.5	56	73	8.9	3.5	42	35	#	#	#	5
6.2	Teaching/tuitions/ homework	8.2	3.5	14	26	#	#	#	13	#	#	#	19	#	#	#	5
6.3	Medical/health care for children	15.4	7	42	268	15.9	7	42	54	#	#	#	14	#	#	#	2
6.4	Personal care to the elderly	11.1	7	28	39	10.8	3.5	56	27	#	#	#	4	#	#	#	2
6.5	Medical/health care to elderly	19.1	7	42	79	16.3	7	28	28	#	#	#	3	#	#	#	2
6.6	Medical/health care to sick	20	35	49	77	#	#	#	15	#	#	#	10	#	#	#	1
6.7	Medical/health care to physically/ mentally challenged	#	#	#	6	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	2	#	#	#	1
	Average	**14.6**				**14.3**				**8.9**				**0**			

V.D.30. Time Spent on Care of Children, Ill, Elderly & Challenged – Hyderabad

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
6.1	General childcare	5.8	1	21	255	#	#	#	9	2.8	1	7	52	#	#	#	1
6.2	Teaching/tuitions/ homework	4	0.5	7	140	#	#	#	7	2	0.5	10	39	#	#	#	4
6.3	Medical/health care for children	3.5	0.5	16	261	#	#	#	3	2.9	0.5	16	97	#	#	#	1
6.4	Personal care to the elderly	2.2	0.5	7	52	#	#	#	1	1.6	0.5	7	33	#	#	#	4
6.5	Medical/health care to elderly	5.5	0.5	24	49	#	#	#	1	4.8	0.5	24	55	#	#	#	6
6.6	Medical/health care to sick	1.6	0.5	16	157	0	0	0	0	2	0.5	16	24	#	#	#	3
6.7	Medical/health care to physically/mental-ly challenged	#	#	#	5	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	2	0	0	0	0
	Average	**3.8**				**0**				**2.7**				**0**			

V.D.31. Time Spent on Care of Children, Ill, Elderly & Challenged – Thane

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
6.1	General childcare	4.5	0.5	20	286	7.8	0.5	20	29	4	0.5	20	152	#	#	#	4
6.2	Teaching/tuitions/ homework	#	#	#	16	#	#	#	5	2.8	0.5	14	67	#	#	#	4
6.3	Medical/health care for children	1.8	0.25	14	205	#	#	#	7	1.5	0.25	7	139	#	#	#	4
6.4	Personal care to the elderly	#	#	#	19	#	#	#	9	#	#	#	12	#	#	#	8
6.5	Medical/health care to elderly	1.7	0.25	8	24	#	#	#	13	#	#	#	17	#	#	#	8
6.6	Medical/health care to sick	1.5	0.25	7	66	#	#	#	5	1.3	0.25	7	97	#	#	#	3
6.7	Medical/health care to physically/ mentally challenged	#	#	#	3	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0
	Average	**2.6**				**0**				**0**				**0**			

V.D.32. Time Spent on Household Management & Maintenance – Solapur

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
5.1	Cooking/serving/ cleaning up after meals	14.4	2	42	347	14.8	5	58	110	#	#	#	5	#	#	#	5
5.2	Washing, drying vessels	4.5	1	21	334	6.4	1	21	159	#	#	#	5	0	0	0	0
5.3	Boiling & heating of water	5	1	14	326	#	#	#	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5.4	Indoor cleaning	4.3	1	28	353	2.1	0.5	7	153	#	#	#	13	#	#	#	9
5.5	Outdoor cleaning	2	0.5	15	325	2.3	0.5	8	162	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	10
5.6	Washing clothes/ drying/sorting/fold-ing/storing/ironing	19.5	3.5	49	297	10	1	28	139	#	#	#	11	#	#	#	7
5.7	Making & picking of bed	2	1	8	315	1.8	0.5	7	127	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	13
5.8	Toilet & Bathroom cleaning	1.5	1	7	88	1.5	1	7	25	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	1
5.9	Recycling, disposal of garbage	1.8	0.5	7	308	1.5	0.5	7	128	2	1	7	24	#	#	#	11
5.10	Cleaning & upkeep of dwelling	3	0.5	21	347	1.5	1	4	132	#	#	#	18	#	#	#	9
5.11	Daily care of pets	6.5	2	7	176	6	1	7	62	6	1	35	94	0.8	2	7	38
5.12	Sewing, stitching, darning etc.	1	0.5	7	320	1.3	0.5	7	79	#	#	#	7	#	#	#	1
5.13	Repair of personal & household goods	1.5	0.5	14	237	1.3	1	4	63	1.5	1	4	53	#	#	#	18
5.14	Shopping for con-sumables	2	1	8	185	1	1	4	33	2	1	5	215	0.3	4	49	48
	Average	**4.3**				**3**				**3**				**0.5**			

V.D.33. Time Spent on Household Management & Maintenance – Pithoragarh

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
5.1	Cooking/serving/ cleaning up after meals	15.4	3.5	49	374	11.3	3.5	56	84	#	#	#	17	#	#	#	5
5.2	Washing, drying vessels	7.7	1.75	21	366	5.6	1.75	14	87	#	#	#	7	#	#	#	1
5.3	Boiling & heating of water	4.2	1.75	42	377	4.7	1.75	7	69	6.7	3.5	14	25	#	#	#	3
5.4	Indoor cleaning	4.1	1.75	7	358	4.4	1.75	28	78	#	#	#	8	0	0	0	0
5.5	Outdoor cleaning	4	1.75	28	352	3.8	1.75	14	72	#	#	#	8	#	#	#	2
5.6	Washing clothes/dry-ing/sorting/folding/ storing/ironing	13.7	3.5	56	356	12.2	3.5	28	95	18.4	7	28	35	#	#	#	4
5.7	Making & picking of bed	3	1.75	7	378	2.7	1.75	7	111	2.2	1.75	3.5	130	1.8	1.75	3.5	30
5.8	Toilet & Bathroom cleaning	3.3	1.75	7	175	3.4	1.75	7	52	#	#	#	6	#	#	#	2
5.9	Recycling, disposal of garbage	2.2	1.75	7	339	2.2	1.75	3.5	60	#	#	#	11	#	#	#	2
5.10	Cleaning & upkeep of dwelling	3.4	1.75	7	349	3.4	1.75	14	78	#	#	#	5	#	#	#	4
5.11	Daily care of pets	5	1.75	35	92	4.9	1.75	35	33	#	#	#	14	#	#	#	3
5.12	Sewing, stitching, darning etc.	7.1	1.75	35	330	11.6	1.75	42	54	#	#	#	9	#	#	#	1
5.13	Repair of personal & household goods	10.9	1.75	56	275	11.3	3.5	42	27	8.3	3.5	42	79	#	#	#	7
5.14	Shopping for con-sumables	17	1.75	56	228	16.3	1.75	35	48	16.2	3.5	42	234	16.3	5.25	35	37
	Average	**7.2**				**7**				**10.4**				**9**			

V.D.34. Time Spent on Household Management & Maintenance – Hyderabad

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
5.1	Cooking/serving/ cleaning up after meals	9.2	1	21	360	#	#	#	17	2.3	0.5	7	34	0	0	0	0
5.2	Washing, drying vessels	3.6	0.5	7	343	2.9	1.5	3.5	20	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0
5.3	Boiling & heating of water	3.2	0.5	8	358	#	#	#	9	#	#	#	15	#	#	#	1
5.4	Indoor cleaning	1.7	0.5	7	367	1.2	0.5	3.5	203	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5.5	Outdoor cleaning	1.4	0.5	14	363	#	#	#	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5.6	Washing clothes/ drying/sorting/ folding/storing/ ironing	7	twice a week	21	364	#	#	#	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5.7	Making & picking of bed	1.4	0.25	7	360	#	#	#	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5.8	Toilet & Bathroom cleaning	1.3	0.25	7	341	#	#	#	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5.9	Recycling, disposal of garbage	1	0.25	3.5	359	#	#	#	10	#	#	#	6	0	0	0	0
5.10	Cleaning & upkeep of dwelling	1.5	0.25	8	340	#	#	#	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5.11	Daily care of pets	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5.12	Sewing, stitching, darning etc.	1	0.25	7	273	#	#	#	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5.13	Repair of personal & household goods	2	4 times a week	8	168	#	#	#	12	1.3	0.5	3.5	170	#	#	#	8
5.14	Shopping for consumables	2.4	twice a week	7	303	#	#	#	6	1.6	1	9.3	95	#	#	#	4
	Average	**2.8**				**2.05**				**1.8**				**0**			

V.D.35. Time Spent on Household Management & Maintenance – Thane

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
5.1	Cooking/serving/ cleaning up after meals	9.2	0.5	49	368	8.4	1	21	75	#	#	#	7	#	#	#	2
5.2	Washing, drying vessels	4.1	0.25	14	343	4.5	0.5	21	99	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	1
5.3	Boiling & heating of water	2	0.25	14	313	2.7	0.25	3.5	48	2.9	0.25	3.5	35	3.4	1.5	3.5	24
5.4	Indoor cleaning	2.9	0.25	10.5	278	4.4	0.25	14	88	1.7	0.5	7	47	0	0	0	0
5.5	Outdoor cleaning	1.1	0.25	8	206	1.8	0.25	8	38	1.1	0.25	2	80	#	#	#	13
5.6	Washing clothes/ drying/sorting/ folding/storing/ ironing	5.7	0.5	21	328	6.8	0.5	21	93	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	13
5.7	Making & picking of bed	1.5	0.25	4	347	1.7	0.25	4	67	0.3	0.25	1	31	#	#	#	8
5.8	Toilet & Bathroom cleaning	1.0	0.25	10.5	273	1.0	0.25	3.5	50	#	#	#	16	#	#	#	2
5.9	Recycling, disposal of garbage	0.9	0.25	3.5	138	0.8	0.25	3	62	0.9	0.25	2	118	0.4	0.25	2	43
5.10	Cleaning & upkeep of dwelling	3.4	0.25	7	233	4.2	0.25	7	75	2.9	0.25	7	108	#	#	#	16
5.11	Daily care of pets	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5.12	Sewing, stitching, darning etc.	0.7	0.25	7	270	0.5	0.25	1	38	#	#	#	9	0	0	0	0
5.13	Repair of personal & household goods	1.6	0.25	3.5	72	#	#	#	6	1.4	0.25	3.5	187	0.9	0.5	2	49
5.14	Shopping for consumables	3.7	0.25	7	220	5.3	0.5	7	30	3.9	0.5	7	133	#	#	#	#
	Average	**4.3**				**3**				**2**				**3**			

V.D.36. Time Spent on Travel and Waiting for Public Provisioning including Care – Solapur

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
11.1.	Toilet (with water)	1.3	0.25	3	20	#	#	#	9	#	#	#	10	#	#	#	6
11.2.	Bathroom.	1	0.25	3	27	#	#	#	9	#	#	#	6	#	#	#	8
11.3.	Health centres, Dispensaries, Hospitals etc. for children, sick, elderly, specially-abled.	1	0.25	4	175	1.3	0.25	3	33	1	0.25	3	71	#	#	#	4
11.4.	Public Distribution Shops (once a month)	1	0.25	5	153	#	#	#	11	1.8	0.5	6	192	1.5	0.5	5	62
11.5.	Anganwadis, Crèches, Schools.	0.9	0.25	3	27	#	#	#	15	#	#	#	13	#	#	#	10
11.6.	Public transport (once a month)	1	0.25	4	248	1	0.25	4	135	1	0.25	4	191	1	0.25	4	153
11.7.	Payments under Schemes, Direct Benefit Transfer in Banks.	1.3	0.25	4	84	#	#	#	4	1.3	0.25	4	219	1.3	0.25	2	30
11.8.	Payments under Schemes, Direct Benefit Transfer in Post Office.	1	0.5	5	29	#	#	#	1	1.3	1	2	53	#	#	#	9
11.9.	Paying bills (utilities, etc.).	1	0.25	4	48	#	#	#	5	1.1	0.5	4	177	1	0.25	2	58
	Average	**1.1**				**1.1**				**1.2**				**1.2**			

V.D.37. Time Spent on Travel and Waiting for Public Provisioning including Care – Pithoragarh

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
11.1.	Toilet (with water)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
11.2.	Bathroom.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
11.3.	Health centres, Dispensaries, Hospitals etc. for children, sick, elderly, specially-abled.	28.8	7	63	200	#	#	#	15	39	14	63	26	#	#	#	5
11.4.	Public Distribution Shops (once a month)	21	3.5	63	287	19	1.75	49	31	24	3.5	63	114	#	#	#	17
11.5.	Anganwadis, Crèches, Schools.	#	#	#	10	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
11.6.	Public transport (once a month)	12.9	1.75	63	191	12.3	1.75	63	47	10.4	1.75	63	124	9.7	1.75	42	35
11.7.	Payments under Schemes, Direct Benefit Transfer in Banks.	27.5	3.5	63	288	25	7	42	31	27.8	7	63	246	#	#	#	15
11.8.	Payments under Schemes, Direct Benefit Transfer in Post Office.	19.4	3.5	63	82	#	#	#	11	21.5	7	63	107	#	#	#	7
11.9.	Paying bills (utilities, etc.).	28.4	7	56	156	#	#	#	14	28.4	7	63	200	26.6	7	49	25
	Average	**21.8**				**19**				**22.4**				**18.2**			

V.D.38. Time Spent on Travel and Waiting for Public Provisioning including Care – Hyderabad

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
11.1.	Toilet (with water)	3.4	0.5	7	266	3	1	7	51	3	0.5	7	182	3	0.5	8	45
11.2.	Bathroom.	2.3	0.5	3.5	255	1.8	1	4.6	43	1.8	0.5	3.5	211	2.3	1	4.6	45
11.3.	Health centres, Dispensaries, Hospitals etc. for children, sick, elderly, specially-abled.	1.5	0.5	16	228	#	#	#	10	1.3	0.5	7	158	#	#	#	7
11.4.	Public Distribution Shops (once a month)	1.3	0.5	3	41	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	13	0	0	0	0
11.5.	Anganwadis, Crèches, Schools.	#	#	#	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0
11.6.	Public transport (once a month)	2.4	0.5	9.3	212	2	0.5	17	24	2.5	0.5	7	172	3.7	0.5	14	28
11.7.	Payments under Schemes, Direct Benefit Transfer in Banks.	1	0.5	2	37	0	0	0	0	1	0.5	3	38	#	#	#	1
11.8.	Payments under Schemes, Direct Benefit Transfer in Post Office.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0
11.9.	Paying bills (utilities, etc.).	#	#	#	5	#	#	#	1	1	0.25	2	50	#	#	#	3
	Average	**2**				**2.4**				**1.8**				**3**			

V.D.39. Time Spent on Travel and Waiting for Public Provisioning including Care – Thane

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
11.1.	Toilet (with water)	1.3	0.25	7	292	2.3	0.25	7	158	1.3	0.25	7	215	2	0.25	7	161
11.2.	Bathroom.	3.5	0.25	3.5	131	4.3	0.25	3.5	56	4	0.25	3.5	77	4.5	0.25	3.5	55
11.3.	Health centres, Dispensaries, Hospitals etc. for children, sick, elderly, specialy-abled.	1.8	0.25	7	102	#	#	#	15	1.3	0.25	7	96	#	#	#	19
11.4.	Public Distribution Shops (once a month)	1.3	0.25	7	195	#	#	#	13	1.9	0.5	3.5	74	#	#	#	9
11.5.	Anganwadis, Crèches, Schools.	#	#	#	16	#	#	#	2	#	#	#	2	0	0	0	0
11.6.	Public transport (once a month)	4	0.25	14	178	3.7	0.25	14	57	2.8	0.25	14	109	3.7	0.25	14	77
11.7.	Payments under Schemes, Direct Benefit Transfer in Banks.	0.8	0.25	3	27	#	#	#	1	0.8	0.25	4	57	0	0	0	0
11.8.	Payments under Schemes, Direct Benefit Transfer in Post Office.	#	#	#	3	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	5	0	0	0	0
11.9.	Paying bills (utilities, etc.).	1	0.25	7	86	#	#	#	5	1.1	0.25	7	200	0.1	0.5	2	46
	Average	**1.9**				**3.4**				**1.9**				**2.6**			

V.D.40. Time Spent on Personal Care – Solapur

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
7.1	Sleep	50	35	63	398	53	35	63	397	52.5	28	70	400	53.8	42	63	400
7.2	Sleeplessness	4.8	1	21	247	4	1	14	99	4	1	21	124	2.5	2	14	80
7.3	Eating meals	16	3.5	35	394	16.5	2	28	250	16.5	2	35	316	16	2	28	285
7.4	Personal hygiene & care	5.3	1	14	394	5.5	1	14	246	5	1	14	320	5.3	1	14	282
7.5	Personal health/med-ical care	1	0.25	7	325	1	0.25	4	168	1	0.25	4	230	1	0.25	3.5	197
7.6	Exercise - Walking/ Running	#	#	#	3	#	#	#	4	#	#	#	12	1.3	1	14	39
7.7	Parlour/Saloon	#	#	#	5	1	0.25	3	34	1.3	0.5	7	248	1.3	0.5	7	152
7.8	Resting/Relaxing	3.8	0.25	21	302	4.5	0.25	49	400	4.8	0.5	28	184	4.5	0.5	28	399
	Average	13.5				12.2				12.1				10.7			

V.D.41. Time Spent on Personal Care – Pithoragarh

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
7.1	Sleep	38.9	5.25	56	391	46.3	3.5	63	237	48.7	1.75	63	344	49.9	3.5	70	233
7.2	Sleeplessness	5.9	1.75	21	373	3.6	1.75	56	196	3.1	1.75	14	309	2.5	1.75	7	185
7.3	Eating meals	6	1.75	35	390	4.3	1.75	14	194	5	1.75	70	284	3.8	1.75	14	171
7.4	Personal hygiene & care	3.9	1.75	28	389	4.4	1.75	35	202	5	1.75	35	327	5	1.75	28	185
7.5	Personal health/ medical care	10.1	1.75	42	370	16.3	1.75	63	173	16.8	1.75	63	290	17.9	1.75	42	154
7.6	Exercise - Walking/ Running	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	2	#	#	#	4	#	#	#	5
7.7	Parlour/Saloon	#	#	#	10	#	#	#	15	#	#	#	17	#	#	#	6
7.8	Resting/Relaxing	4	1.75	14	238	6.5	1.75	28	176	6	1.75	28	244	7	1.75	21	175
	Average	11.4				13.6				14.1				14.3			

V.D.42. Time Spent on Personal Care – Hyderabad

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
7.1	Sleep	49.4	1	63	373	74.9	10	210	97	55.5	1	70	316	77.3	20	231	105
7.2	Sleeplessness	6.6	1	54	70	#	#	#	3	#	#	#	14	#	#	#	1
7.3	Eating meals	6	0.5	10.5	324	7.9	1.75	21	93	6.5	0.75	10.5	279	8.4	3.5	31.5	99
7.4	Personal hygiene & care	5.7	1	21	368	6.9	2.3	21	85	5.4	0.5	14	311	7.1	2.3	21	86
7.5	Personal health/ medical care	2.8	0.5	16	330	4.5	1	16	22	3.4	0.5	16	263	#	#	#	14
7.6	Exercise - Walking/ Running	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
7.7	Parlour/Saloon	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	6	1.3	0.25	4	305	1.3	0.5	2	33
7.8	Resting/Relaxing	7.2	1	35	193	25.7	3.5	12	20	15.2	0.5	32	163	13.5	4	28	20
	Average	**13**				**24**				**14.6**				**21.5**			

V.D.43. Time Spent on Personal Care – Thane

		PRF				OF				SRM				OM			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
7.1	Sleep	46.5	28	84	390	37.5	28	84	260	43	10	84	323	41.5	6	91	288
7.2	Sleeplessness	1.5	0.25	21	215	0.3	0.5	2	40	0.8	0.25	24	121	0.25	0.5	2	34
7.3	Eating meals	6.3	0.25	21	389	4.8	0.25	21	257	5.8	0.25	21	317	5	0.25	21	282
7.4	Personal hygiene & care	4.8	0.25	21	389	3	0.5	10.5	240	3.9	0.25	21	313	3.25	0.5	14	265
7.5	Personal health/med-ical care	1.3	0.25	30	347	0.3	0.3	7	125	0.8	0.25	30	242	0.25	0.25	7	157
7.6	Exercise - Walking/ Running	#	#	#	3	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	3	#	#	#	2
7.7	Parlour/Saloon	#	#	#	10	0.1	0.25	2	39	0.5	0.25	30	283	0.25	0.25	7	124
7.8	Resting/Relaxing	3.8	0.25	14	321	2.8	0.5	14	172	3.5	0.25	42	260	3	1	21	184
	Average	**10.7**				**6.9**				**8.3**				**7.6**			

V.D.44. Re-distribution of Free Time

	Solapur		Pithoragarh		Hyderabad		Thane	
Activity	PRF	SRM	PRF	SRM	PRF	SRM	PRF	SRM
Work more.	32.8	27.1	61.6	52.8	85	78	70.4	75.3
Skill Upgradation & Vocational Training.	1.7	2	45.5	30.2	1.34	3	28.6	6.1
Study.	0	0.5	2.8	4.3	0.5	0	3.3	2.0
Governance.	0	3.5	9.6	31.2	0	0	1.5	4.6
Voluntary work.	0	3.5	22.1	44.7	1.1	1.1	0.8	55.9
Spend more time with children.	41.8	26.1	55.3	36.7	60.1	38.3	2.6	43.9
Spend more time with friends/socialise	14.2	6.5	84.4	59.1	18.5	19	28.1	9.7
Rest/Sleep.	80.5	61.7	88.4	61.6	47.5	36.7	59.9	44.9
Personal Care.	47.8	39.6	77.6	48.2	66.5	56.3	44.4	23.0
Leisure.	63.4	61.7	73.4	34.2	50.1	56.3	26.8	21.9

V.D.45. Awareness and Benefits from Other Government Schemes – All Households

	Solapur		Pithoragarh		Hyderabad		Thane	
Activity	Aware	Benefitted	Aware	Benefitted	Aware	Benefitted	Aware	Benefitted
PAHAL	0	0	58	37.2	46.9	7	35.5	31.1
PMUY	0	0	1.5	0.3	0	0	1.5	1.5
NRDWP	0	0	1	0.8	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP
IGMSY	0	0	75.9	23.4	0	0	0.8	1
RGNCS	1.8	0	3.3	1.5	0	0	0.8	0.8
ICDS	93.2	29.4	90.7	29.4	96.8	36.5	65.8	29.6
IAY	43.2	8.1	53	20.9	0.3	0	1	0.8

V.D.46. Awareness and Benefits from MGNREGA – Solapur

		PRF		SRM		PRF	SRM
	Activity	Aware	Benefitted	Aware	Benefitted	Ratio of Benefitted to Awareness	Ratio of Benefitted to Awareness
14.1.1	Applied for work	42.7	13.2	25.5	11.9	30.9	46.8
14.1.2	100 work days	22.1	3.7	10.7	4.2	16.9	39.6
14.1.3	Timely wage payment	22.4	2.5	9.6	3.2	11.1	33.6
14.1.4	Equal wages	20.8	2.5	7.6	2.7	11.9	36.2
14.1.5	Unemployment allowance	19.3	1.7	5.7	2	9	34.7
14.1.6	Drinking water	18.5	2.5	6.3	2.7	13.5	43.8
14.1.7	Shade	15.1	1	4.2	1.2	6.6	29.9
14.1.8	First Aid	17.7	2.7	6	2.2	15.5	37.4
14.1.9	Crèche	14.6	1.2	3.4	1	8.5	29.4
14.1.10	Maternity Benefit	16.1	2.7	4.2	2	16.9	47.8

V.D.47. Awareness and Benefits from MGNREGA – Pithoragarh

		PRF		SRM		PRF	SRM
	Activity	Aware	Benefitted	Aware	Benefitted	Ratio of Benefitted to Awareness	Ratio of Benefitted to Awareness
14.1.1	Applied for work	79.4	17.6	75.1	11.1	22.2	14.7
14.1.2	100 work days	82.7	7	78.4	3.3	8.5	4.2
14.1.3	Timely wage payment	73.6	9.1	73.1	4	12.3	5.5
14.1.4	Equal wages	71.7	11.1	72.1	6.8	15.4	9.4
14.1.5	Unemployment allowance	12.8	1	23.1	1.3	7.8	5.4
14.1.6	Drinking water	2.3	0.5	5.5	0.8	22.2	13.6
14.1.7	Shade	1	0.5	2.8	0.8	50	27.3
14.1.8	First Aid	1	0.3	2.8	0.5	25	18.2
14.1.9	Crèche	0.8	0.3	1.3	0.5	33.3	40
14.1.10	Maternity Benefit	4	1	1.5	0.8	25	50

V.D.48. Awareness and Benefits from BOCW – Hyderabad

		PRF		SRM		PRF	SRM
	Provisions	Aware	Benefitted	Aware	Benefitted	Ratio of Benefitted to Awareness	Ratio of Benefitted to Awareness
14.2.1.	Fixed working hours.	38.6	36.7	33.5	33.5	95.1	100
14.2.2.	Minimum Wages	18	3.2	16.4	2.7	17.9	16.4
14.2.3.	Latrines & Urinals.	3	0.5	2.1	0.8	18.2	37.5
14.2.4.	Drinking water.	26.1	22.5	20.1	18.2	86.4	90.7
14.2.5.	Safe site.	1.9	0.3	2.4	0.5	14.3	22.2
14.2.6.	First Aid boxes.	1.1	0	0.5	0	0	0
14.2.7.	Maternity benefits for self.	21.6	0	17.7	0	0	0
14.2.8.	Maternity benefits for daughters of the worker.	48.1	1.9	37.3	0.8	3.9	2.2
14.2.9.	Employee's State Insurance	1.1	0	1.3	0	0	0
14.2.10.	Old Age Pension.	13.4	0	11.3	0.5	0	4.8
14.2.11.	Financial assistance for education.	3	0	2.4	0	0	0
14.2.12.	Financial assistance for education of children of Beneficiaries.	5.1	0	4.3	0	0	0
14.2.13.	Skill Development training.	7.3	0.3	5.4	0	3.7	0
14.2.14.	Vocational Training to the dependents.	6.2	0.3	5.1	0	4.3	0
14.2.15.	Loans for house construction.	5.6	0	5.6	0	0	0
14.2.16.	Financial Assistance for tools and equipment's.	0	0	0.3	0	0	0

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		PRF		SRM		PRF	SRM
	Provisions	Aware	Benefitted	Aware	Benefitted	Ratio of Benefitted to Awareness	Ratio of Benefitted to Awareness
14.2.17.	Financial Assistance for Disability due to accidents.	43.4	0.5	37	0.3	1.2	0.7
14.2.18.	Financial Assistance for Family Planning.	0.5	0	0.5	0	0	0
14.2.19.	Marriage expenses for female workers.	28.4	0	25.7	0.3	0	1
14.2.20.	Marriage expenses for daughters of workers.	51.7	0.3	42.6	0.5	0.5	1.3
14.2.21.	Loans for marriage.	0.5	0	0.8	0	0	0
14.2.22.	Financial Assistance in case of widow headed households for 5 years.	0	0	0.3	0	0	0
14.2.23.	Group insurance.	0.3	0	0	0	0	0
14.2.24.	Cover medical expenses.	0.8	0	0.8	0	0	0
14.2.25.	Medical Assistance for serious ailments.	4.3	0	2.7	0	0	0
14.2.26.	Hospitalization allowance/relief.	38.6	0	31.6	0.5	0	1.7
14.2.27.	Assistance in accidents	15.3	0	11.8	0	0	0
14.2.28.	Fatal Accidents relief.	4.8	0	3.5	0	0	0
14.2.29.	Death Benefit/Natural death relief.	49.1	1.1	37.5	0.3	2.2	0.7
14.2.30.	Funeral expense.	20.6	0	16.9	0.3	0	1.6

V.D.49. Awareness and Benefits from BOCW – Thane

		PRF		SRM		PRF	SRM
	Provisions	Aware	Benefitted	Aware	Benefitted	Ratio of Benefitted to Awareness	Ratio of Benefitted to Awareness
14.2.1.	Fixed working hours.	53.8	41.3	1	0.3	1.9	0.6
14.2.2.	Minimum Wages	30.1	21.4	0	0	0	0
14.2.3.	Latrines & Urinals.	37	24.5	0	0	0	0
14.2.4.	Drinking water.	49	36.5	18.9	18.6	38.5	51
14.2.5.	Safe site.	34.4	22.7	0	0	0	0
14.2.6.	First Aid boxes.	37.8	25.8	0	0	0	0
14.2.7.	Maternity benefits for self.	25.8	15.6	0	0	0	0
14.2.8.	Maternity benefits for daughters of the worker.	24.5	15.1	0	0	0	0
14.2.9.	Employee's State Insurance	25	16.6	0	0	0	0
14.2.10.	Old Age Pension.	30.6	17.3	0.3	0	0.8	0

Contd...

		PRF		SRM		PRF	SRM
	Provisions	Aware	Benefitted	Aware	Benefitted	Ratio of Benefitted to Awareness	Ratio of Benefitted to Awareness
14.2.11.	Financial assistance for education.	30.9	17.9	0	0	0	0
14.2.12.	Financial assistance for education of children of Beneficiaries.	30.4	17.3	0	0	0	0
14.2.13.	Skill Development training.	28.6	17.3	0	0	0	0
14.2.14.	Vocational Training to the dependents.	23.7	15.3	0	0	0	0
14.2.15.	Loans for house construction.	46.7	34.9	0	0.3	0	0.7
14.2.16.	Financial Assistance for tools and equipment's.	28.8	18.9	0	0	0	0
14.2.17.	Financial Assistance for Disability due to accidents.	46.2	33.4	0	0	0	0
14.2.18.	Financial Assistance for Family Planning.	21.7	11.2	0.3	0.3	1.2	2.3
14.2.19.	Marriage expenses for female workers.	27.3	14.0	0	0	0	0
14.2.20.	Marriage expenses for daughters of workers.	22.2	12.5	0	0	0	0
14.2.21.	Loans for marriage.	29.1	15.8	0	0	0	0
14.2.22.	Financial Assistance in case of widow headed households for 5 years.	28.1	14.3	0	0	0	0
14.2.23.	Group insurance.	20.7	11.5	0	0	0	0
14.2.24.	Cover medical expenses.	18.9	8.9	0	0	0	0
14.2.25.	Medical Assistance for serious ailments.	19.9	10.5	0	0	0	0
14.2.26.	Hospitalization allowance/relief.	21.9	8.4	0	0	0	0
14.2.27.	Assistance in accidents	34.9	25.8	0	0	0	0
14.2.28.	Fatal Accidents relief.	32.1	23.5	0	0	0	0
14.2.29.	Death Benefit/Natural death relief.	38.3	23.5	0	0	0	0
14.2.30.	Funeral expense.	35.2	26.3	0	0	0	0

V.D.50. Cultivation: FHH

		Solapur								Pithoragarh							
		PRF				OF				PRF				OF			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
1.1	Ploughing	#	#	#	3	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	3	#	#	#	1
1.2	Tilling	#	#	#	3	#	#	#	1	35.8	21	49	18	#	#	#	2
1.3	Preparing Land	18.2	14	35	5	#	#	#	3	36.1	14	49	37	32.7	7	42	6
2	Sowing, Planting and Transplanting	#	#	#	4	#	#	#	3	36.8	14	56	41	40.6	1.75	56	10
3.1	Weeding, cutting of Undergrowth	30.6	12	42	20	#	#	#	2	27.3	14	49	41	31.5	7	42	10
3.2	Tree/Plant Pruning	28.5	14	42	14	#	#	#	2	24.3	14	42	25	28	1.75	42	5
3.3	Plant Propagation	#	#	#	2	0	0	0	0	30	7	56	29	25.7	1.75	42	6
4.1	Applying Fertilizer, Manure, Pesticide	24.9	14	35	9	#	#	#	2	9	3.5	42	19	#	#	#	4
4.2	Carrying Manure, Cow Dung etc. to the field	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	2	19.1	1.75	42	40	18.4	1.75	42	13
4.3	Watering of Plants/ irrigation in the field	25.7	14	35	7	0	0	0	0	28.3	14	42	21	#	#	#	3
5.1	Harvesting, threshing, Winnowing, stalk clearing	34.2	21	42	17	#	#	#	1	35	14	49	38	29.8	1.75	42	12
5.2	Picking, cleaning, sorting crops, fruits & vegetables	34.3	20	56	26	#	#	#	1	25.8	7	42	41	19	7	28	7
5.3	Nursery Work & other post - harvest activities	18.9	7	35	11	#	#	#	1	25.7	14	42	15	#	#	#	3
5.4	Household orchards, kitchen gardening	21.9	7	49	15	0	0	0	0	6.8	3.5	28	38	7.5	1.75	14	7
5.5	Safeguarding of Crops	15.2	3.5	49	9	#	#	#	1	23.6	3.5	42	37	25.2	3.5	42	10
	Average	**24.5**				**0**				**28.4**				**28.1**			

V.D.51. Animal Husbandry: FHH

		Solapur								Pithoragarh							
		PRF				OF				PRF				OF			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
1.2.1	Animal & Livestock Grazing	13.6	7	42	23	14.6	10	28	7	14.7	2.1	35	14	#	#	#	2
1.2.2	Washing & Watering Animals & Poultry, preparing food & feeding	15.2	7	21	20	#	#	#	4	9.7	2.1	42	38	7.5	3.5	14	7
1.2.3.	Cleaning & maintenance of animal & poultry shelters	13	5	21	16	#	#	#	3	6.2	3.5	21	31	7	3.5	14	6
1.2.4	Collecting, milking, storing, grading etc. of milk, poultry & other animal products	10.3	5	28	10	#	#	#	2	5.6	2.1	28	31	#	#	#	2
1.2.5	Grading of Milk	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
1.2.6	Poultry and Other Animal Products	11.7	7	28	6	#	#	#	3	8.3	2.1	21	24	#	#	#	1
1.2.7	Safeguarding of Animals	10	2	21	16	#	#	#	3	14.1	3.5	42	47	16.3	7	28	6
	Average	**12.3**				**14.6**				**9.5**				**10.3**			

V.D.52. Forestry & Fishing: FHH

		Solapur								Pithoragarh							
		PRF				OF				PRF				OF			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
1.3.1.	Forest growing activities, preparation of nursery of forest trees, caring work for seedlings & saplings.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1.3.2.	Collection of Non-Wood Forest Produce, vegetables, fruits, roots, herbs, medicinal plants, leaves, etc.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	1
1.3.3.	Making nets & traps, trap-laying, net fixing.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	39	28	56	7	0	0	0	0
	Average	**0**				**0**				**39**				**0**			

V.D.53. Construction: FHH

		Hyderabad										Thane							
		PRF					OF					PRF				OF			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Yes	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Yes	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
2.1.	Brick making.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.2.	Mixing & straining of mud/sand/cement.	22	0	6	63	45	#	#	#	#	2	#	#	#	3	0	0	0	0
2.3.	Filling tile gaps & cleaning of tiles/floor/ paint.	#	#	#	#	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.4.	Stone crushing.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	17.3	4	77	67	#	#	#	1
2.5.	Head load worker/ helper/coolie.	14.7	9	5	27	23	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.6.	Water collection/filling & watering of walls/ floor/columns/other structures.	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Contd...

		Hyderabad										Thane							
		PRF					OF					PRF				OF			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Yes	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Yes	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
2.7.	Masonry/plastering.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.8.	Pre-fabrication of structure.	#	4	#	#	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.9.	Head mazdoor/ Supervisor.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.10.	Lift/Crane operator.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.11.	Earth work-digging, foundation laying.	21.3	0	8	32	9	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.12.	Brick setting/wall making.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.13.	Well sinker.	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.14.	Drainage work.	0	0	#	#	2	#	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.15.	Slab work/Column making/centering.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.16.	Cutting of stone/ Kaddapa/granite/ marble.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.17.	Rock breaking.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.18.	Painting work/ Putty work.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.19.	Carpentry.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.20.	Plumbing.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.21.	Fixing and polishing of tiles.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.22.	Electrical.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.23.	Rod bending, welding.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.24.	Demolition work.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.25.	Watchman/security.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Average	18.3					0					17.3				0			

V.D.54. Non-Agricultural and Non-Construction Income: FHH

		Solapur								Pithoragarh							
		PRF				OF				PRF				OF			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
3.1	Home based/Family Enterprise	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0
3.2	Shops/Stores	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	2
3.3	Casual Worker	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	46.3	3.5	56	32	#	#	#	2
3.4	Salaried	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0
3.5	Anganwadi/Asha Worker	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	3	0	0	0	0
3.6	Domestic Worker	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Average	**0**				**0**				**46.3**				**0**			

V.D.55. Non-Agricultural and Non-Construction Income: FHH (Contd.)

		Hyderabad								Thane							
		PRF				OF				PRF				OF			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of ResAp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
3.1	Home based/Family Enterprise	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	20.5	9	32	5	#	#	#	1
3.2	Shops/Stores	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	1
3.3	Casual Worker	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	15	6	24	10	0	0	0	0
3.4	Salaried	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	4	0	0	0	0
3.5	Anganwadi/Asha Worker	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3.6	Domestic Worker	#	#	#	2	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	2	0	0	0	0
	Average	**0**				**0**				**17.8**				**0**			

V.D.56. Time Spent on Travel and Waiting for Economic Activities: FHH

		Solapur								Pithoragarh							
		PRF				OF				PRF				OF			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
8.1	Time to reach for fishing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	14.9	3.5	28	19	#	#	#	4
8.2	Time to reach forest for collection	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	3	0	0	0	0
8.3	Time to reach grounds for fodder and grass	7	1	28	24	7	1	14	6	24.1	3.5	35	29	20	7	35	9
8.4	Time to reach work site	3.7	1	14	38	3	1	4	6	10.6	1.75	42	18	#	#	#	2
8.5	Waiting for work at nakas	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0	11.7	3.5	42	6	#	#	#	2
	Average	**5.4**				**4.8**				**15.3**				**20.2**			

V.D.57. Time Spent on Travel and Waiting for Economic Activities: FHH (Contd.)

		Hyderabad								Thane							
		PRF				OF				PRF				OF			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
8.1	Time to reach for fishing	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP
8.2	Time to reach forest for collection	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP
8.3	Time to reach grounds for fodder and grass	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP
8.4	Time to reach work site	4.2	1.5	10.5	51	#	#	#	2	1.8	0.25	8	68	#	#	#	2
8.5	Waiting for work at nakas	11.8	3	20	31	#	#	#	2	4.8	0.25	14	68	#	#	#	2
	Average	**8**				**0**				**8**				**0**			

V.D.58. Time Spent on Household Processing and Repair of Self-Created Goods: FHH

		Solapur								Pithoragarh							
		PRF				OF				PRF				OF			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
4.1	Processing of grains: cleaning, washing, drying, grading	16.5	7	28	57	3.1	1	14	56	24.3	7	42	58	26.1	7	42	11
4.2	Processing & pre-serving of milk, meat, fish, vegetables, spices etc.	3.1	1	14	56	3.7	1	7	12	12.7	3.5	35	50	8	7	14	7
4.3	Repair of self - owned agricultural & con-struction tools	0.3	0.25	0.5	5	0	0	0	0	10	3.5	42	41	#	#	#	4
4.4	Care of homestead, kitchen garden & yard	1.9	1	14	35	2	1	7	13	6.4	3.5	14	50	6.4	3.5	7	11
4.5	Collection of raw material for making ropes, mats, brooms & baskets	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	3	#	#	#	1
4.6	Maintenance & repair of dwelling	2	1	14	46	0	0	0	0	11.7	3.5	42	53	12.83	3.5	28	12
	Average	**4.8**				**3**				**12.9**				**13**			

V.D.59. Time Spent on Household Processing and Repair of Self-Created Goods: FHH (Contd.)

		Hyderabad								Thane							
		PRF				OF				PRF				OF			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
4.1	Processing of grains: cleaning, washing, drying, grading	1.4	1	2	20	#	#	#	1	1.8	0.5	10.5	69	2	2	2	2
4.2	Processing & pre-serving of milk, meat, fish, vegetables, spices etc.	2.7	1	4	18	#	#	#	1	1	0.5	10.5	41	#	#	#	3
4.3	Repair of self - owned agricultural & construction tools	1	1	1.5	15	0	0	0	0	0.3	0.25	1	7	0	0	0	0
4.4	Care of homestead, kitchen garden & yard	2	1.17	7	8	0	0	0	0	1	0.25	7	22	#	#	#	4
4.5	Collection of raw material for making ropes, mats, brooms & baskets	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0
4.6	Maintenance & repair of dwelling	15.3	twice a week	40	62	10.7	8	16	6	1.3	0.25	10	28	#	#	#	3
	Average	**4.6**				**10.7**				**1.1**				**2**			

V.D.60. Time Spent on Energy: FHH

		Solapur								Pithoragarh							
		PRF				OF				PRF				OF			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
9.1	Time spent on travel to collect firewood; time spent to chop wood/ branches/twigs.	18.8	7	42	53	0	0	0	0	25.2	7	42	50	26.8	14	42	12
9.2	Time spent to collect Animal dung; time spent to make & dry animal dung cakes.	2.4	1	7	19	0	0	0	0	3.8	3.5	7	13	0	0	0	0
9.3	Time spent to light choolah.	2	0.5	7	55	0	0	0	0	2.8	1.75	7	57	2.7	1.75	3.5	9
9.4	Time spent in queue to access kerosene.	1.4	0.5	4	26	#	#	#	2	16.8	3.5	42	40	18.2	7	35	5
9.5	Time spent on collecting of personal gas cylinder.	1	1	1	9	#	#	#	2	23.9	7	49	17	#	#	#	2
	Average	**5.11**				**0**				**14**				**15.9**			

V.D.61. Time Spent on Energy: FHH (Contd.)

		Hyderabad								Thane							
		PRF				OF				PRF				OF			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
9.1	Time spent on travel to collect firewood; time spent to chop wood/ branches/twigs.	2.5	1	5	55	0	0	0	0	2	1	10.5	47	#	#	#	2
9.2	Time spent to collect Animal dung; time spent to make & dry animal dung cakes.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
9.3	Time spent to light choolah.	2.8	0.5	5.7	55	#	#	#	3	1.5	0.25	17	44	0.3	0.25	4	6
9.4	Time spent in queue to access kerosene.	1	0.5	3.9	5	0	0	0	0	1	1	7	47	#	#	#	3
9.5	Time spent on collecting of personal gas cylinder.	#	#	#	3	0	0	0	0	0.3	0.5	3	14	#	#	#	1
	Average	**2.1**				**0**				**1.8**				**0.3**			

V.D.62. Time Spent on Water: FHH

		Solapur								Pithoragarh							
		PRF				OF				PRF				OF			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
10.1	Collecting water for irrigation.	19.7	3.5	42	114	18.3	7	42	28	23.9	14	35	17	#	#	#	1
10.2	Collecting water for livestock.	5	1.75	28	287	6	3.5	28	20	4.9	3.5	14	40	4.9	3.5	10.5	10
10.3	Collecting water for bathing/washing/ household.	5.1	1.75	35	370	5.6	1.75	42	83	5	1.75	14	58	5.5	1.75	14	15
10.4	Collecting water for cooking & drinking.	4.2	1.75	21	361	6	1.75	28	40	4	1.75	14	58	4	1.75	7	16
	Average	8.5				9				9.5				4.8			

V.D.63. Time Spent on Water: FHH

		Hyderabad								Thane							
		PRF				OF				PRF				OF			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
10.1	Collecting water for irrigation.	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP
10.2	Collecting water for livestock.	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP	NAP
10.3	Collecting water for bathing/washing/ household.	4.2	1	7	58	3.8	1.5	7	6	1.3	0.5	7	59	0.5	1	7	9
10.4	Collecting water for cooking & drinking.	3	1.5	6	8	0.5	0.5	3.5	7	1	0.5	7	57	0.5	0.25	7	10
	Average	3.6				2.2				1.2				0.5			

V.D.64. Time Spent on Care of Children, Ill, Elderly and Challenged: FHH

		Solapur								Pithoragarh							
		PRF				OF				PRF				OF			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
6.1	General childcare	8.2	7	14	6	0	0	0	0	12.1	1.75	28	32	17.1	7	56	10
6.2	Teaching/tuitions/ homework	#	#	#	3	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	1
6.3	Medical/health care for children	1	0.5	1.5	11	0	0	0	0	16.9	1.75	42	32	22.2	14	35	6
6.4	Personal care to the elderly	1.6	1	3	6	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	3	10.2	3.5	14	10
6.5	Medical/health care to elderly	#	#	#	3	0	0	0	0	16.8	14	28	5	16	4	21	7
6.6	Medical/health care to sick	#	#	#	4	0	0	0	0	17.2	14	28	13	17	7	21	7
6.7	Medical/health care to physically/mentally challenged	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Average	**3.6**				**0**				**15.8**				**16.5**			

V.D.65. Time Spent on Care of Children, Ill, Elderly and Challenged: FHH (Contd.)

		Hyderabad								Thane							
		PRF				OF				PRF				OF			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
6.1	General childcare	6	3.5	14	31	#	#	#	2	2.8	0.5	14	36	#	#	#	4
6.2	Teaching/tuitions/ homework	4	0.5	7	23	#	#	#	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
6.3	Medical/health care for children	4	1	16	43	#	#	#	3	1.3	0.25	7	40	#	#	#	3
6.4	Personal care to the elderly	2.4	1	7	7	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	2	#	#	#	1
6.5	Medical/health care to elderly	4.3	1	14	9	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	2	#	#	#	1
6.6	Medical/health care to sick	1.6	1	3	18	0	0	0	0	0.3	0.25	4	7	0	0	0	0
6.7	Medical/health care to physically/mentally challenged	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Average	**3.7**				**0**				**1.5**				**0**			

V.D.66. Time Spent on Household Management and Maintenance: FHH

		Solapur								Pithoragarh							
		PRF				OF				PRF				OF			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
5.1	Cooking/serving/ cleaning up after meals	13	2	42	59	13.4	5	31	17	14.4	7	49	59	14.5	7	56	15
5.2	Washing, drying vessels	4.2	1	7	51	4.7	1	14	20	6.3	3.5	14	55	5.3	3.5	7	18
5.3	Boiling & heating of water	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4.7	1.75	21	61	5.8	1.75	7	7
5.4	Indoor cleaning	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4.1	1.75	7	52	4.4	3.5	7	16
5.5	Outdoor cleaning	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4.2	1.75	28	52	3.9	3.5	7	17
5.6	Washing clothes/dry-ing/sorting/folding/ storing/ironing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	11.9	3.5	28	56	10.5	3.5	28	19
5.7	Making & picking of bed	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2.8	1.75	35	60	2.7	1.75	3.5	20
5.8	Toilet & Bathroom cleaning	1.4	1	3	10	0	0	0	0	3.1	1.75	5.25	20	4	1.75	7	13
5.9	Recycling, disposal of garbage	1.6	1	4	55	1.3	1	2	15	2.5	1.75	7	52	2	1.75	3.5	13
5.10	Cleaning & upkeep of dwelling	2.3	1	14	51	1.5	1	3.5	16	3.1	1.75	7	54	3.4	1.75	10.5	14
5.11	Daily care of pets	6.4	2	7	16	#	#	#	2	6.8	1.75	21	11	7.8	1.75	21	7
5.12	Sewing, stitching, darning etc.	0.9	0.5	2	42	0.9	0.5	2	11	7.7	1.75	28	48	13.7	3.5	42	13
5.13	Repair of personal & household goods	1.3	0.5	5	32	1	1	1	5	7.8	1.75	28	46	7.5	3.5	14	7
5.14	Shopping for con-sumables	1.8	1	4	47	2.6	1	4	5	14.9	3.5	35	43	16.7	7	42	13
	Average	**3.3**				**3.2**				**6.7**				**7.3**			

V.D.67. Time Spent on Household Management and Maintenance: FHH (Contd.)

		Hyderabad								Thane							
		PRF				OF				PRF				OF			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
5.1	Cooking/serving/ cleaning up after meals	8.1	2	14	56	5.4	2	14	7	1.3	0.5	21	67	1.3	1	21	13
5.2	Washing, drying vessels	3.5	1	7	54	2.9	1.5	3.5	8	0.5	0.25	14	61	0.5	0.5	14	17
5.3	Boiling & heating of water	3.2	1.17	7.8	56	#	#	#	4	0.8	0.25	14	59	0.8	0.5	3.5	9
5.4	Indoor cleaning	1.8	1.17	7	59	1.2	1.17	2.3	43	1	0.25	10	48	0.8	0.5	7	16
5.5	Outdoor cleaning	1.3	1.17	3.5	56	1.2	1.17	1.5	5	0.8	0.25	3.5	54	0.5	02.5	7	8
5.6	Washing clothes/dry-ing/sorting/folding/ storing/ironing	7	3	21	59	5.7	1	10	5	1.8	1	21	49	5.5	1	21	20
5.7	Making & picking of bed	1.4	0.58	3.5	58	1.5	0.5	3.5	11	0.8	0.25	3.5	62	0.8	0.25	4	15
5.8	Toilet & Bathroom cleaning	1.1	0.17	2.3	58	#	#	#	2	0.5	0.25	10.5	52	0.8	0.25	3	18
5.9	Recycling, disposal of garbage	1	0.5	2.3	59	#	#	#	2	0.5	0.25	2	37	0.3	0.25	1	15
5.10	Cleaning & upkeep of dwelling	1.6	0.5	8	53	2.3	1	3.5	6	1.5	0.25	7	53	1.3	02.5	7	21
5.11	Daily care of pets	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5.12	Sewing, stitching, darning etc.	1	0.5	3.3	45	#	#	#	4	0.5	0.25	7	45	0.3	0.25	1	8
5.13	Repair of personal & household goods	2	0.5	8	41	#	#	#	4	0.3	0.25	3.5	15	#	#	#	1
5.14	Shopping for con-sumables	2.3	1	5	46	#	#	#	1	2.5	0.5	7	62	0.8	2	7	10
	Average	**2.7**				**2.87**				**1**				**1**			

V.D.68. Time Spent on Travel and Waiting for Public Provisioning including Care: FHH

		Solapur								Pithoragarh							
		PRF				OF				PRF				OF			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
11.1.	Toilet (with water)	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
11.2.	Bathroom.	#	#	#	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
11.3.	Health centres, Dispensaries, Hospitals etc. for children, sick, elderly, specially-abled.	1.4	0.25	2	24	#	#	#	1	25.3	14	42	21	#	#	#	1
11.4.	Public Distribution Shops (once a month)	1.2	0.25	4	39	#	#	#	3	20.6	1.75	42	49	15	7	35	7
11.5.	Anganwadis, Crèches, Schools.	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
11.6.	Public transport (once a month)	1.1	0.25	4	26	#	#	#	2	11.4	1.75	28	30	16.3	7	28	6
11.7.	Payments under Schemes, Direct Benefit Transfer in Banks.	1.1	0.25	2	31	#	#	#	1	25.7	7	56	51	21	14	28	8
11.8.	Payments under Schemes, Direct Benefit Transfer in Post office.	1.1	0.5	2	17	0	0	0	0	19.7	7	28	21	#	#	#	2
11.9.	Paying bills (utilities, etc.).	1	0.25	2	29	#	#	#	1	28.4	7	56	36	#	#	#	2
	Average	**1.2**				**0**				**22.3**				**23.6**			

V.D.69. Time Spent on Travel and Waiting for Public Provisioning including Care: FHH (Contd.)

		Hyderabad								Thane							
		PRF				OF				PRF				OF			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
11.1.	Toilet (with water)	3.6	0.5	7	47	4.1	2	7	10	0.8	0.25	7	28	0.5	0.5	7	16
11.2.	Bathroom.	2.3	1.17	3.5	45	2.5	2.3	3.5	7	0.5	0.25	3.5	43	#	#	#	4
11.3.	Health centres, Dispensaries, Hospitals etc. for children, sick, elderly, specially-abled.	1.7	1	8	35	2	1	5	7	0.8	0.25	7	19	#	#	#	3
11.4.	Public Distribution Shops (once a month)	1.5	0.5	3	9	0	0	0	0	1	0.25	3.5	59	#	#	#	4
11.5.	Anganwadis, Crèches, Schools.	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0
11.6.	Public transport (once a month)	2	0.5	5	40	2	1	6	8	1.3	1	14	14	#	#	#	4
11.7.	Payments under Schemes, Direct Benefit Transfer in Banks.	1	1	1.5	8	0	0	0	0	0.3	0.5	3	6	0	0	0	0
11.8.	Payments under Schemes, Direct Benefit Transfer in Post Office.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	#	#	#	2	0	0	0	0
11.9.	Paying bills (utilities, etc.).	#	#	#	4	0	0	0	0	0.8	0.25	2	49	0	0	0	0
	Average	**2**				**2.6**				**0.7**				**0.5**			

V.D.70. Time Spent on Personal Care – FHH

		Solapur								Pithoragarh							
		PRF				OF				PRF				OF			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
7.1	Sleep	50.6	40	56	59	52.7	46	56	26	41.5	5.25	56	65	46.1	3.5	56	32
7.2	Sleeplessness	7.5	2	21	48	6.9	2	14	15	7.7	1.75	21	62	4.2	1.75	7	27
7.3	Eating meals	12	4	28	59	13	2	28	27	6	1.75	14	65	5.3	1.75	14	26
7.4	Personal hygiene & care	5.2	1	14	59	5.2	1	7	26	3.8	1.75	21	64	4.4	1.75	14	30
7.5	Personal health/med-ical care	1.1	0.25	3	53	1.1	0.5	3	17	9.7	1.75	42	60	12.9	1.75	42	27
7.6	Exercise - Walking/ Running	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
7.7	Parlour/Saloon	0	0	0	0	0.6	0.25	1	6	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	1
7.8	Resting/Relaxing	5.9	0.25	21	46	7.7	0.25	49	14	4.9	1.75	14	38	6.6	3.5	14	25
	Average	13.8				12.4				12.3				13.2			

V.D.71. Time Spent on Personal Care – FHH (Contd.)

		Hyderabad								Thane							
		PRF				OF				PRF				OF			
	Activity	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.	Average (hrs/ week)	Min	Max	No. of Resp.
7.1	Sleep	49.5	42	63	61	60	49	112	14	46.8	28	63	71	20.5	4	84	40
7.2	Sleeplessness	3.4	1	54	35	#	#	#	2	1.8	0.25	21	21	#	#	#	1
7.3	Eating meals	4	3.5	10.5	51	5.3	3.5	8	15	4.8	0.25	21	71	2.8	0.25	21	40
7.4	Personal hygiene & care	2.6	1	14	58	2.9	3.5	7	14	4	0.5	10.5	71	2.5	1	7	39
7.5	Personal health/ medical care	1.5	1	8	53	2.6	1	16	9	1.3	0.25	7	68	0.3	0.25	3.5	26
7.6	Exercise - Walking/ Running	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
7.7	Parlour/Saloon	#	#	#	1	#	#	#	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
7.8	Resting/Relaxing	4.0	3	17	35	17.2	3.5	120	9	2.3	1	14	49	1.5	1	14	21
	Average	10.8				17.6				10.2				5.5			

V.D.72. Re-distribution of Free Time for the PRF: FHH

Activity	Solapur	Pithoragarh	Hyderabad	Thane
Work more.	32.8	60.6	78.7	14
Skill Upgradation & Vocational Training.	0	28.8	1.6	3.8
Study.	26.2	4.6	0	1
Governance.	4.9	12.1	0	4.2
Voluntary work.	0	22.7	0	5.6
Spend more time with children.	14.8	37.9	50.8	57.7
Spend more time with friends/socialise	11.5	86.4	27.9	1.4
Rest/Sleep.	55.7	80.3	62.3	66.2
Personal Care.	26.2	72.7	68.9	62.0
Leisure.	24.6	63.6	12.9	49.3

V.D.73. Awareness and Benefits from Other Government Schemes – All FHH Households

	Solapur		Pithoragarh		Hyderabad		Thane	
Activity	Aware	Benefitted	Aware	Benefitted	Aware	Benefitted	Aware	Benefitted
PAHAL	0	0	47	47	34.4	4.9	33.8	26.8
PMUY	0	0	1.5	0	0	0	1.4	1.4
NRDWP	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
IGMSY	0	0	68.2	19.7	0	0	0	0
RGNCS	0.3	0	3	1.5	0	0	1.4	1.4
ICDS	4.3	0.5	78.8	16.7	96.7	37.7	70.4	11.3
IAY	4.3	2.6	47	16.7	0	0	1.4	0

V.D.74. Awareness and Benefits from MGNREGA among PRF in FHH

		Solapur			Pithoragarh		
	Activity	Aware	Benefitted	Ratio of Benefitted to Awareness	Aware	Benefitted	Ratio of Benefitted to Awareness
14.1.1	Applied for work.	6.4	2.6	0.4	69.7	16.7	0.2
14.1.2	100 work days.	1.3	0.3	0.2	69.7	6.1	0.1
14.1.3	Timely wage payment.	1.3	0.8	0.6	59.1	15.2	0.3
14.1.4	Equal wages.	2	0	0	59.1	13.6	0.2
14.1.5	Unemployment allowance.	0.5	0.5	1	6.1	1.5	0.3
14.1.6	Drinking water.	0.8	0.3	0.3	0	0	0
14.1.7	Shade.	1.8	0.5	0.3	0	0	0
14.1.8	First Aid.	0.3	0.3	1	0	0	0
14.1.9	Crèche.	0.3	0.3	1	0	0	0
14.1.10	Maternity Benefit.	1.3	0.5	0.4	6.1	3	0.5

V.D.75. Awareness and Benefits from BOCW among PRF in FHH

		Hyderabad			Thane		
	Provisions	Aware	Benefitted	Ratio of Benefitted to Awareness	Aware	Benefitted	Ratio of Benefitted to Awareness
14.2.1.	Fixed working hours.	37.7	16.4	0.4	67.6	1.4	2.1
14.2.2.	Minimum Wages	9.8	0	0	46.5	0	0
14.2.3.	Latrines & Urinals.	0	0	0	53.5	0	0
14.2.4.	Drinking water.	16.4	13.1	0.8	54.9	1.4	2.6
14.2.5.	Safe site.	0	0	0	50.7	0	0
14.2.6.	First Aid boxes.	0	0	0	50.7	0	0
14.2.7.	Maternity benefits for self.	20.3	0	0	47.9	0	0
14.2.8.	Maternity benefits for daughters of the worker.	40	3.3	0	47.9	0	0
14.2.9.	Employee's State Insurance	0	0	0	43.7	0	0
14.2.10.	Old Age Pension.	6.6	0	0	60.6	1.41	2.3
14.2.11.	Financial assistance for education.	0	0	0	59.2	0	0
14.2.12.	Financial assistance for education of children of Beneficiaries.	0	0	0	60.6	0	0
14.2.13.	Skill Development training.	8.3	0	0	54.9	0	0

Contd...

		Hyderabad			Thane		
	Provisions	Aware	Benefitted	Ratio of Benefitted to Awareness	Aware	Benefitted	Ratio of Benefitted to Awareness
14.2.14.	Vocational Training to the dependents.	3.3	0	0	42.3	0	0
14.2.15.	Loans for house construction.	0	0	0	62	0	0
14.2.16.	Financial Assistance for tools and equipment's.	0	0	0	47.9	0	0
14.2.17.	Financial Assistance for Disability due to accidents.	31.2	1.6	0	60.6	0	0
14.2.18.	Financial Assistance for Family Planning.	1.6	0	0	45.1	0	0
14.2.19.	Marriage expenses for female workers.	14.8	0	0	56.3	0	0
14.2.20.	Marriage expenses for daughters of workers.	37.7	0	0	43.7	0	0
14.2.21.	Loans for marriage.	1.6	0	0	56.3	0	0
14.2.22.	Financial Assistance in case of widow headed households for 5 years.	0	0	0	54.9	0	0
14.2.23.	Group insurance.	0	0	0	43.7	0	0
14.2.24.	Cover medical expenses.	1.6	0	0	43.7	0	0
14.2.25.	Medical Assistance for serious ailments.	3.3	0	0	42.3	0	0
14.2.26.	Hospitalization allowance/ relief.	31.2	0	0	53.5	0	0
14.2.27.	Assistance in accidents	9.8	0	0	45.1	0	0
14.2.28.	Fatal Accidents relief.	3.3	0	0	45.1	0	0
14.2.29.	Death Benefit/Natural death relief.	42.6	3.3	0	59.2	0	0
14.2.30.	Funeral expense.	19.7	0	0	47.9	0	0

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