

Women's Paid and Unpaid Work: Insights from the Time Use Survey and Methodological Issues

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Ellina Samantroy



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List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

CBSS	: Commission on Behavioural and Social Sciences
CSO	: Central Statistical Office
ECNS	: Education & Committee on National Statistics
EUS	: Employment and Unemployment Surveys
EPL	: Employment Protection Legislations
FLFP	: Female Labour Force Participation
GDP	: Gross Domestic Products
GPS	: Global Position System
ICATUS	: International Classification of Activities for Time-Use Statistics
MOSPI	: Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation
NCATUS	: National Classification of Activities for Time-Use Statistics
NIC	: National Industrial Classification
NRC	: National Research Council
NSO	: National Statistical Office
NSSO	: National Sample Survey Organisation
OBC	: Other Backward Category
PLFS	: Periodic Labour Force Survey
SC	: Scheduled Caste
SDG	: Sustainable Development Goals
SNA	: System of National Accounts
ST	: Scheduled Tribes
TUS	: Time Use Surveys
USDA	: United States Department of Agriculture
UNSNA	: United Nations System of National Accounts
UNSD	: United Nations Statistics Division
WPR	: Work Participation Rate



Preface

The concept of unpaid work has remained central to the discourse on economic empowerment of women and the future of decent work. Unpaid work and care work includes the work carried out for the household or household related work and care for persons in the household, communities or the larger society. Unpaid care work has remained one of the most significant barriers for women's entry into or exit from the labour market and also determining the quality of their employment. The intrinsic connection between paid and unpaid work and the need for capturing unpaid work is extremely important in the context of analysing women's over representation in low-paying informal jobs and lack of access to better employment conditions and social security.

As recorded by the Employment and Unemployment Survey and Periodic Labour Force Surveys, women's labour force participation in India has decreased from 38.5 percent in 1999-00 to 28.7 percent in 2019-20 reflecting on a substantial decrease of 9.8 percentage points. While women's employment trends in India have been discouraging, women's time spent in unpaid and care work is significantly high as reported by the Time Use surveys. The huge disparity between men and women's labour force participation rates does not imply that women work less; rather they perform a greater proportion of unpaid work. There is no denying the fact women tend to combine paid work with non-economic or unpaid activities due to the traditional perceptions about their role as dependent household members. Women continue to bear the burden of unpaid care work; they are viewed as 'natural caretakers' and stereotyped for pursuing professional care services.

In this context, the capturing of unpaid work in National Accounts Statistics was deliberated during the Beijing World Conference on Women in 1995 and had remained a major concern for policy makers. Several developed countries across the world had conducted small or large scale time use surveys to capture unpaid work. However, there is growing realization among developing nations to conduct large-scale time use surveys for capturing unpaid work. The time use surveys differ from the conventional labour force surveys and capture all activities whether market related or non-market activities. These surveys provide full visibility to the unpaid and care work thereby uncovering how such work interferes in participation



in paid work. Overall these surveys can help in addressing the challenges of unpaid work and can contribute immensely in macroeconomic policy making. Even the global sustainable development goals (SDG) Goal 5, target 5.4 has focused on recognizing and valuing unpaid care work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and family for achieving gender equality.

The present study engages in understanding women's participation in paid and unpaid work through an analysis of the labour force surveys and the Time use survey. It tries to provide an in-depth understanding about the time use patterns of women in various activities thereby highlighting on the constraints women experience to participate in paid employment. The study tries to reflect on the methodological issues concerning time use surveys for better capturing of women's work. It has focused on the importance of making women's unpaid work visible for effective policy making in this regard.

I am sure that this study will be invaluable in helping planners, statisticians, policymakers, social scientists, researchers, civil society organizations, and trade unions for working towards enhancing women's economic participation and ensuring access to social protection coverage in India. This work is an addition to the existing debates on low and declining participation of women in the labour market and gender gaps in the labour market thereby highlighting on time constraints of women. Overall, the study will help policy makers to engage in targeted interventions towards promotion of gender equality and the achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals.

Dr. H. Srinivas
Director General



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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 The Context

The intrinsic link between paid and unpaid work is central to understanding women's work in India. Women's concentration in unpaid work often acts as an invisible barrier for women's entry into paid employment. Unpaid work has remained one of the most important barriers for women to participate in the labour market. The low participation rates of women in the labour market and prominent gender gaps reflect on significant decent work deficits across the world. Women's global labour force participation was 48.5 per cent in 2018, which was 26.5 percentage points below that of men (ILO, 2019). Another, significant challenge before women is their concentration in the informal sector in low- and middle-income countries and rise in vulnerable employment. The declining trend in participation of women in the workforce force is an important policy concern in countries like India, which are marked with high informality. There has been plethora of debates on the reasons for declining work participation of women in academic and policy discourses in India. It is undeniable that despite economic development, declining fertility rates, and improving education levels for women and girls, India's female labour force participation (FLFP) remains low.

The labour force participation of women has declined from 41.7 percent in 1999-00 to 32.3 percent in 2019-20, reflecting on a significant decline by 9.4 percentage points in the productive age group (15-59 years) as reported by the Employment and Unemployment Survey and the Periodic Labour Force Surveys. Evidence in literature suggests that gender inequalities in respect of education and employment curtail the productive capabilities of women and hence impede the process of development of nations. This is particularly the case in developing countries such as India, where women are subjected to a number of restrictive social norms and ethos despite the principle of gender equality being enshrined in the Constitution. The Constitution also empowers the State to adopt measures protect discrimination of women which has led to several laws, policies and development plans and programmes introduced for the advancement of women in different spheres (Raveendran, 2016).

Female labour force participation is a driver of growth and therefore, participation rates indicate the potential for a country to grow more rapidly. However, the relationship between women's engagement in the labour market and broader development outcomes is complex (Verick, 2014). Women's employment is influenced by a variety of factors. At the micro level, factors such as employment accessibility, number of children, household income etc. has an impact on employment choices of women. Female labour



force participation (FLFP) is determined at the macro level by factors such as population of women, educational attainment, so on and so forth. Longer-term statistics indicate that India's female labour force participation rates have really been mystifying. Female labour force participation initially declines with growth of the economy as women who were earlier working to make ends meet withdraw from the labour market with rising income. It then rises because of structural shifts. Despite experiencing these structural changes such as decline in fertility rates and expansion of women's education, Indian FLFP has been declining. These statistics are concerning not only from the point of view of women's liberation and autonomy but also from an economic angle¹. Women in India account for a substantial proportion of the working age population and therefore participation of women in the labour force is of utmost importance to realize the full benefits of demographic dividend and reduction of gender inequalities. Increasing Labour Force Participation Rate for women is vital to achieving high growth of employment and overall economic growth. FLFP is a key to promoting inclusive growth and achieving the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), particularly SDG 5, which focuses on 'achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls' (Narayan & Sharmila, 2019).

However, economic literature distinguishes between male and female participation in the labour market due to observed differences in trends and determinants of each (Kapsos, Bourmpoula & Silberman, 2014). The average female invests in on-the-job training about one-tenth as much as the average male (Mincer, 1962). Since women have closer substitutes for time spent in market work than men do, changes in market wages are expected to have larger substitution effects on women's labour supply. Further, since, given traditional gender roles, women are perceived as secondary earners within the family, their labour supply is likely to be more negatively affected by their spouse's wages (Blau & Kahn, 2007). Women continue to face many barriers to enter labour market and to access decent work and disproportionately face a range of multiple challenges relating to access to employment, choice of work, working conditions, employment security, wage parity, discrimination, and balancing the competing burdens of work and family responsibilities. In addition, women are heavily represented in the informal economy where their exposure to risk of exploitation is usually greatest and they have the least formal protection (Verick, 2014). Furthermore, the negative effects of strict Employment Protection Legislations (EPL) are disproportionately larger for those individuals (such as prime-age women) who are more subject to labour market entry problems. The access to social security and that to

¹ Kapoor A. & Kapoor M. (2021). No place for women: What drives India's ever-declining female labour force? The Economic Times (E-Paper). Retrieved from: <https://economictimes.indiatimes.com/news/economy/indicators/no-place-for-women-what-drives-indias-ever-declining-female-labour-force/articleshow/83480203.cms> Accessed on: 5 October, 2021



active labour policies are linked and depend on work history (for example, contribution records showing recent and continuous employment). This requirement may represent a barrier for women who are more likely to have interrupted careers and to work part-time. This implies that, while the burden of flexibility is increasingly borne by women, women are also more likely to be excluded from benefits and active policies. Thus, the tendency towards a more flexible labour market may exert a negative impact on the incentives to participate when flexible occupations are of lower quality and poorly securitized (Cipollone et al , 2014).

To the extent women's labour force participation is decided by their families (particularly by husbands and in-laws) and does not reflect women's own preferences, or is constrained by their inability to migrate for employment, policy action to promote female employment would be warranted. But even if the main constraint is women's own preferences, the degree to which this impedes their labour force participation should be a concern to policy makers (Klasen & Pieters, 2013). Many of these studies pointed out that the undercounting of females in the labour force, which can be attributed to the use of poor investigation method, is one of the possible reasons for such decline. Besides, increasing enrolment of women in schools as well as low growth of employment further adds to it. Nevertheless, these studies explain the fluctuating trends in the female labour force in terms of either education (the age effect) or changes in the employment pattern (the period effect). The available data from the National Sample Survey Office's employment-unemployment survey and the Periodic Labour Force Survey (PLFS) shows a U-shaped association. The U-shaped hypothesis is a simplified explanation of the relationship between female labour force participation and economic progress, which is usually assessed in values of GDP per capita. The U-shaped hypothesis describes the correlation of the female labour force participation rate with economic development (shifts in economic activity and household labour supply, as well as perceptions toward women working outside the home). As education levels improve and fertility rates fall, women are able to join the labour force in response to growing demand in the services sector. This is a stylized fact, but it is not robust to different data sets and econometric methodologies (Verick, 2014). The literature points to essentially five factors explaining the U-shape hypothesis: 1) the economic transformation of societies from agriculture to industry; 2) the increasing share of the female educated population; 3) long-term demographic changes including falls in fertility rates; 4) cohorts effects; and 5) evolving gender norms and culture (Verme, 2014).

From the supply side perspective it is important to understand the factors that encourage them to either participate in the workforce or constraints them to opt out from the workforce. The clear understanding of such factors and their effect on women's propensity to participate plays a very important role



in determining prospective growth and development of countries (Hosney, 2016). Amongst all the arguments pertaining to income effect, education effect and the problem of statistical invisibility of women's work, it is important to understand the structural transformation of the economy and its resultant impact on the female labour market in the whole process. With an increase in income levels of the households, a woman no longer prefers working as an unpaid worker or a helper or as a casual worker unless the work is remunerative (as in MGNREGA)² along with availability of childcare services. However, such opportunities are limited in rural India and as a result women are not finding jobs matching their preference (regular part-time jobs close to their households).

Another significant challenge that women have experienced along with material deprivation has been marginalization. This experience of marginalization is effectively doubled: not only do they belong to communities that exist 'on the edges of society', but they are also often denied a voice within the states, markets, communities, and households in which they live, dominated as they are by men and male interests. This situation contributes to an invisibility of women as public actors and constitutes a negation of their rights to equal participation (Hoare & Gell, 2009). Furthermore, with low skill levels, jobs in the non-farm sector are also limited which have led to the withdrawal of women from the labour force (Sanghi et al 2015).

Apart from the above-mentioned factors, the challenge of unpaid work has remained a significant concern for policy making on improving female labour participation and promoting gender equality in the labour market. Women's excessive participation in unpaid work often constraints them to participate in full time paid employment and denies them upward mobility. Women spend a significant amount of time in unpaid and care work because of which they tend to remain unavailable for better educational opportunities, skilling and labour market avenues.

1.2 The Dilemma of Unpaid Work

Unpaid work includes all non-remunerated activities ranging from free collection of firewood, water, cooking, cleaning, elderly care, childcare, voluntary work, and all kinds of care work that is generally carried out for the households or others. It is also referred to as unpaid care work as which falls outside the national accounts but is within the general production boundary. Unpaid work consists of time used as input (often together with the use of purchased goods and/or consumer durables used as capital equipment) in non-market production processes; unpaid work is part of a particular 'mode of provision' for human needs (Gershuny, 1983 and 1988 cited in Swiebel,

² The Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act. Accessed on: 22 April, 2022 <https://nrega.nic.in/amendments_2005_2018.pdf>



1999). The United Nations System of National Accounts (UNSNA) 2008³ included all production activities destined for the market for sale or exchange and included all goods or services provided free to individual households or collectively to the community by government units. Also, the global sustainable development goals (SDGs) target 5.4 focuses on recognizing and valuing unpaid care work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and family as nationally appropriate⁴.

Unpaid work can be unpaid domestic services or unpaid care work i.e., provided for the maintenance and care of households are considered as unpaid domestic work. Unpaid household/domestic work has three elements: (i) household maintenance including cooking, cleaning, and shopping; (ii) care of persons living in the house, 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 (Ferrant, Pesando & Nowacka, 2014; Antonopoulos, 2009; Suh, Dorji, Blackman & Milagrosa, 2020).

Evidence in literature suggests that because unpaid work is overwhelmingly women's work, these contributions place women in a subordinate economic position that disadvantages them in market production in general, and in the labour market in particular (Beneria 1979; Beneria and Sen 1981 cited in Esquivel 2011). Unpaid work is rendered invisible because it is performed in the private sphere of the household, outside money exchanges (Esquivel, 2011) Feminist economists have led the call for unpaid care work to be 'counted' in statistics, 'accounted for' in representations of the economy, and 'taken into account' in policy making (Elson, 2000). The Beijing Declaration adopted in the World Conference on Women, 1995 reflected on the need to include unremunerated work in the system of National Accounts. Others have pointed out, unpaid care work contributes indirectly to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) but often remains unrecognized, imposing a systematic time-tax on women throughout their life cycle. It is monotonous work contributing to drudgery of women and workers engaged in it lack upward mobility and opportunities for growth (Antonopolous, 2008; Hirway, 2015). Also, the issues of measurement of unpaid care work particularly hours of work or time allocation patterns and the need to recognize, reduce and redistribute unpaid

³ The United Nations System of National Accounts (UNSNA), 1993 are a coherent, consistent and integrated set of macroeconomic accounts which are based on internationally accepted concepts, definitions, classifications etc. They provide a comprehensive and detailed record of the complex economic activities taking place within an economy and of the interaction between the different economic agents, and groups of agents that takes place on markets or elsewhere. Available at <<https://unstats.un.org/unsd/nationalaccount/docs/SNA2008.pdf>>

⁴ For details see: <<https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/sdg5>> Accessed on: 2 April 2020



care work have been highlighted by scholars for in-depth understanding on women's constraints to participate in paid employment (Folbre, 2006; Elson, 2017).

The redistribution of such work is extremely essential as in low-income families women are unable to delegate their unpaid labour obligations to domestic workers. As a result, most females opt to work part-time, near their homes or from within their houses, in low-paying jobs with no social security benefits (Banerjee & Chakrabarti, 2021). Women typically spend disproportionately more time on unpaid care work than men do. Because of gendered social norms that view unpaid care work as a female prerogative, women across different regions, socio-economic classes and cultures spend an important part of their day on meeting the expectations of their domestic and reproductive roles. This is in addition to their paid activities, thus creating the 'double burden' of work for women (Ferrant, Pesando and Nowacka, 2014). Women are bound with their role obligations and are expected to spend more time in household activities, childcare, and sacrifice their own personal work and leisure tasks. This can cause imbalance in daily patterns of occupations, which in turn can influence the sense of well-being in women. Employed women had less free time spent in enjoyment compared to women who are homemakers. Some scholars had pointed out that housework was never considered uplifting for women and the time spent in household activities was greater for both working and non-working women. In addition, homemakers considered their work hard, monotonous, and dissatisfactory. The dual role played by employed women may lead to occupational imbalance (Quadros & Acharya, 2018).

Most importantly, unpaid care work entails a systemic transfer of hidden subsidies to the rest of the economy that go unrecognized, imposing a systematic time-tax on women throughout their life cycle. These hidden subsidies signal the existence of power relations between men and women; also, they connect the 'private' worlds of households and families with the 'public' spheres of markets and the state in exploitative ways (Antonopoulos, 2009). The impact of unpaid work on household living standards can be treated either as a form of implicit income (an addition to household market income), or an increase in household consumption (an addition to market purchases). While women have been disempowered by their traditional specialization in care work - both within the family and without - care work provides important resources for the development of human capabilities. Responsibilities for the care and nurturance of dependents impose significant financial and temporal constraints. Women may be reluctant to pursue gender equality if they fear for the wellbeing of children and other dependents (Folbre, 2011).

From a broader theoretical perspective, some reflections on unpaid work appeared in the Marxist-feminist debate ensued in the late 1960s and early



1970s on the sexual division of labour, and particularly on the issue of unpaid care work (reproductive work, housework), which remains crucial to theorizations of care work today (Müller, 2019). Marxist-feminists sought to revamp the terms of Marx's critique of political economy or to supplement it with a feminist perspective in order to 'interpret gender and class oppression and exploitation theoretically, particularly to tease out analytically the contradictory connection between female employment and housework'. Such a connection is apparent in the fact that while women's oppression did exist before capitalism, its emergence had a profound effect on the separation of the reproduction and production spheres (Beer, 1987 & Schäfergen, 2000 cited in Müller, 2019). The Marxist position, which has never denied the existence of material processes within the household, placing them squarely within the economic structure of society, although outside the capitalist mode of production. It has also revealed the material roots of the oppression of women in their lesser participation in social production (Menon, 1982). Further, women being treated as a 'reserve army of labour' and the role of household structure and familial ideology in limiting women's participation in wage labour has been prominent in feminist debates (Barret, 1980).

1.3 Women's Contribution to the economy through their unpaid household work

From cooking and cleaning, to fetching water and firewood or taking care of children and the elderly, women carry out at least two and a half times more unpaid household and care work than men. As a result, they have less time to engage in paid labour, or work longer hours, combining paid and unpaid labour. Women's unpaid work subsidizes the cost of care that sustains families, supports economies and often fills in for the lack of social services. Yet, it is rarely recognized as 'work'. With the onslaught of climate change, women's unpaid work in farming, gathering water and fuel is growing even more. Policies that provide services, social protection and basic infrastructure, promote sharing of domestic and care work between men and women, and create more paid jobs in the care economy, are urgently needed to accelerate progress on women's economic empowerment⁵.

Due to the constrained extent of the term of 'economic growth' as used in national income accounting, the contribution of a huge segment of society i.e. women remains unaccounted and underestimated. For the purposes of determining national income, only the market value of goods and services are taken into consideration while much of the work done in the home and community remains unrecognised. The participation in unpaid domestic work remains an important women's engagement in various states of India. Although these activities contribute to the value of household budget, the

⁵ UN Women. (2016). Redistribute unpaid work. <https://www.unwomen.org/en/news/in-focus/csw61/redistribute-unpaid-work> Accessed on 12 October, 2021



predominance of women in unpaid work has often remained out of the production boundaries that define economic activities (Deb, 2021). Household production is the production of goods and services by the members of a household, for their own consumption, using their own capital and their own unpaid labour. Goods and services produced by households for their own use include accommodation, meals, clean clothes, and childcare. The process of household production involves the transformation of purchased intermediate commodities (for example, supermarket groceries and power-utility electricity) into final consumption commodities (meals and clean clothes). Households use their own capital (kitchen equipment, tables and chairs, kitchen and dining room space) and their own labour (hours spent in shopping, cooking, laundry and ironing) (Ironmonger, 2000).

Calculations of the value of household production have been made in several countries during decades, but the problem is that there are no generally accepted guidelines how to construct the satellite accounts for household production or what is the best operational method to value household production. However, the best possible method for capturing women's work has been the Time Use Survey⁶ (TUS). In India, a pilot Time Use Survey was conducted in six selected states during July 1998 to June 1999. Keeping in view the ultimate objective of the survey, the wage data for different categories of persons were also collected for the districts where the rural sample was located to enable the valuation of unpaid activities of the individuals (Pandey, 2000a). The need was felt to arrive at a better estimate of value of goods and services produced, particularly in the household sector, in order to construct a more complete national income account. A more complete measurement and imputation of Gross Domestic Products (GDP) provides an indicator of how much a country produces not just for the market but also for sustenance of the society. Conventional data on GDP do not generally include the goods and services produced for self-consumption within the household. This means that by excluding the value of unpaid goods and services, the conventional data on GDP may underestimate considerably the total income of a nation. Exclusion of unpaid services and non-marketed products also reduces the cross-country comparability of the national income data. Since developing countries have the culture of producing several goods and services within the household, according to some researchers, the conventional national income data underestimate the income and overestimate the poverty of these countries. In short, it was felt necessary to estimate the time spent on unpaid household activities through a well-designed time use survey and impute its value at least in a satellite account to start with (Pandey, 2000b).

⁶ Time use surveys are quantitative summaries of time spent in various activities in a 24-hour time-period. These surveys provide a detailed description of activities carried out by men and women on a daily or weekly basis, in any region or across the world.



1.4 Gender Inequality, unpaid care work and the role of Time Use Survey

Gender differences in the number of hours spent on unpaid care work spans geographical regions, domestic economic levels, and communities. Statistics on time-use represents an essential perspective of how gender stereotypes affect the distribution of labour in a household, as well as reflects on unequal household division of labour. Since unpaid care work has traditionally been associated with women and has been normalised and routinised through socialisation patterns and cultural norms, gender disparities in unpaid care is evident in almost all countries across the world with women spending more time in unpaid care work in comparison to men. The continuing gender disparities in labour force participation over the last few years demonstrate the inadequacies of conventional labour supply assumptions, which disregard the influence of cultural norms on women's capability to participate and remain in the workforce. Women from low-income households or informal workers are not in a position to afford or realistically outsource unpaid care duties such as cooking, cleaning, or fetching water and they spend a considerable amount of their time in securing these household inputs. The unequal distribution of caring obligations between men and women in the home translates into unequal possibilities to participate equally in paid activities in terms of time. Gender inequality in unpaid care work is the missing link in an investigation of gender disparities in labour outcomes in three areas: labour force participation rates, job quality, and earnings (Ferrant, Pesando and Nowacka, 2014).

Caring duties are also associated with the efficiency of female labour force participation, with the disproportionate quantity of hours devoted in unpaid care work by females increasing the possibility of them being engaged part-time or in precarious situations. Women in part-time and sensitive occupations are more prevalent in countries with a higher percentage of unpaid care work undertaken by women as compared to men. Unpaid domestic services are a labour and energy-intensive activities that restricts women's participation to the labour force, demoting them to low-paying, non-regular employment. In places where women are responsible for the large percentage of unpaid care work, they are less highly probable to be unemployed, and those who are employed are more likely to be working part-time or informally, earning less than their male counterparts. As a result of the gender disparities in unpaid care work, there are larger gender disparities in employment performance.

Discourses on the economy, gender inequality and unpaid care work are inter-linked and need to be analysed through an understanding of their relationship the lack of empirical data, or the ability to count unpaid care work, often lead to the magnitude of the problem being underestimated, which, otherwise can be addressed through the TUS. TUS is a methodology that comes with a set of instruments that can be used to enumerate non-



market activities. The historical roots of TUS are inseparable from unpaid care and its gender implications, but the time use survey has since taken off into many other interesting research directions. Many countries across regions and development levels are turning to time use surveys as the tool to bridge the gap between market and non-market activities. International and regional organisations are harmonising standards, and research centres are experimenting with innovative ways to conduct time use studies using new technology (Choong, Firouz, Jasmin, Noor and Gong, 2019).

It is also believed that to achieve better outcomes in the reduction and redistribution of unpaid care work, care policy arrangements need to be complemented with labour market policies that improve work-life balance for gender equality to enable women and men to better reconcile their job and care responsibilities; reduce gender wage gaps; and protect rights of workers both in formal and informal sectors (Dugarova, 2020). The formulation of work-family balance policies are central to address women's invisible challenges to participate in paid employment. The TUS can provide an assessment of work and family life balance issues.

Apart from the above-mentioned arguments, gender statisticians have clearly highlighted upon the statistical invisibility of women's work in the country. The contribution of women to the national economy is still subject to more under reporting and misrepresentation than the contribution of men. The statistics available are partial and contribute to maintaining a distorted perception of the nature of a country's economy and its human resources, and to perpetrating a vicious circle of inequality between men and women caused by inappropriate perceptions, policies and programmes (Greenwood, 1999). The feminist struggles are testimony to the make women's unpaid work visible by uncovering the gender relations in a capitalistic patriarchal order (Barret, 1980; Mies 1986). The conventional definition of 'work' used in national employment and unemployment surveys is in the 'economic sense', which leaves behind a majority of women workers engaged in non-market activities as unrecognised and invisible.

There is no denying the fact that women's participation in the labour market is determined by a multitude of socio-economic considerations. Women also have fewer job possibilities, limited education and professional development prospects, and work in deplorable workplace conditions once they enter the labour force. They are disproportionately represented in the informal sector, especially in precarious, low-skilled, and low-paying employment with inadequate social security benefits. The invisible constraints to participate in paid employment as experienced by women need to be probed in detail for a more nuanced analysis of the socio-cultural contexts of women that have restricted women's agency. Such an analysis would require an in-depth probing into the situation of women by providing full visibility to the



activities women undertake each day. Also, ignoring unpaid care labour leads to erroneous conclusions about levels and changes in people's well-being and the value of time, limiting policy efficacy in a variety of socio-economic areas, including gender inequities in employment and other areas of development.

The significant time constraints on women for not being able to contribute to full time paid employment can be uncovered through the Time Use Surveys (TUS). TUS are a valuable source of information regarding the activities that the population engages in and the length of time that they engage in those activities. One element that sets the TUS apart from other household surveys is that it can record time disposition on various kinds of human activity, whether paid, unpaid, or other which cannot be captured by conventional labour force surveys. The key objective of the (TUS) is to determine how much time men and women spend on paid and unpaid activities. TUS is a valuable source of information on the time spent by household members in unpaid care giving, volunteer labour, and unpaid domestic service producing activities. It also shows how much time each family member spends on learning, socialising, leisure activities, self-care activities, and so on (MoSPI, 2020).

1.5 Time Use Survey: A Method for Capturing Unpaid Work

Time use surveys gather data on all human activities and can thus be used to inform a variety of policies. Unpaid work and non-market production, monitoring well-being, and gender equality are listed as three critical areas where data from TUS required for effective policy making. Time use data is relevant to the measurement of welfare directly because time is a source of utility and indirectly because it provides a valuable guide to the estimation of value generated and services performed within the household. If living standards are to be measured in welfare terms, then they should include the utility derived from leisure, or direct consumption of time (Acharya, 1982). Time use surveys provide a detailed description of activities carried out by men and women on a daily or weekly basis, in any region or across the world. These activities are within the Production Boundary of the System of National Accounts (SNA) as well as within the general production boundary and that are perusal or non-delegable. There can be a threefold activity classification (i) SNA activities which fall within the production boundary of 1993 UNSNA⁷ which are in other words purely economic activities; (ii) Extended SNA i.e., household and related activities that fall within the General Production Boundary and (iii) Non-SNA activities are activities like sleep, leisure, learning, socio-cultural activities etc that cannot be delegated to anyone.

Data collection on time spent in paid and unpaid work is still a challenge although the experience of time-use surveys is now rather long, especially in Europe. But the harmonisation of the methods of data collection is far

⁷ For details see: <https://unstats.un.org/unsd/nationalaccount/docs/1993sna.pdf>



from being achieved. Today, the most reliable and robust data on time-use are based on diaries (that is, the complete enumeration of activities during a 24-hour lapse time) and international classifications of time-use activities rather than on methodologies based on a set of various stylised questions on a reference period of a week. Recently, many household surveys have added short sections or modules on time-use that follow synthetic methodologies (short tasks surveys, stylized diaries) that are not 24-hour diaries. Some of the studies conducted on the basis of compilation of time use statistics of some countries have clearly highlighted on the challenges in harmonisation, particularly with regard to discrepancies in activity classification that needs to be addressed with methodological innovation (Charmes, 2019).

There are three basic indicators for time use: time use for participants, participation rate and time use for total population (also called social time in some surveys). Except for physiological needs (sleeping, eating), not all the population is involved in the various activities: time use for participants is an approach of the reality experienced by the population, for instance a workday is approximately of 8 hours for a worker, and a care-work day is of 7 hours for a young mother, but all the population is not at work during the reference period and not all women are young mothers entirely dedicating their time to care. Participation rates indicate the proportion of population, of workers, of mothers, etc., who, during the period of reference, participate in a precise activity. And time use for total population in a given activity is the ratio of the total time recorded in the survey by the total population or also the multiplication of time use for participants by participation rates. Time use for total population is an indicator that allows reconstituting a complete 24-hour day (or 1440 minutes). The average time spent in the activity by the total covered population is the indicator used in this report: in order to compute an annual value, the simple multiplication by 365 is enough, provided that the survey methodologies take the weekly and the seasonal variations into account (Charmes, 2019).

History of Time Use Survey:

The first attempts to measure time spent in various economic activities can be attributed to a French engineer and precursor of Sociology, Frédéric Le Play (1806-1882), who published, 'Les ouvrierseuropéens' (The European workers) in the year 1855, in which he presented 57 quantitative and qualitative monographs of factory workers and their families in various industries and in various countries of Northern, Eastern, Southern and Western Europe (Charmes, 2021). In the second decade of the 20th century, Maud Pember-Reeves, researching on behalf of the Fabian Society in London, who may have been aware of the previous Russian work in this area, collected a small number of single week diaries of six working classhousewives in London (Pember-Reeves, 1913 cited inGershuny, 2011). Strumilin collected large diary



samples in the USSR between 1921 and 1923 for economic planning purposes (Zuzanek, 1980 cited in Gershuny, 2011), and the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) made a major collection of women's diaries (with farm, town and 'college women's' samples) between 1925 and 1931, as part of its programme of agricultural extension work. The academic study of time-use took its origin in the USA with the Russian émigré sociologist Pitirim Sorokin, who had been a colleague of Strumilin's in Moscow in the early 1920s. His *Time Budgets of Human Behaviour* (Sorokin and Berger, 1939 cited in Gershuny, 2011) provided a first introduction to this field to many social scientists (Gershuny, 2011).

Sándor Szalai and his collaborators (1972) organized time-use surveys in the 1960s in a number of countries. Other countries' statistical agencies, particularly those of Australia, Canada, Germany and Korea, have conducted much larger-scale, albeit only quinquennial or decennial, time-budget surveys in recent years (Hamermesh, Frazis & Stewart, 2005). Time use researchers around the world have joined forces to harmonize time use diary. Harmonizing time use data means bringing time use survey data from a variety of countries together in a manner that enables researchers to make comparisons across countries (each country's time use survey is conducted a bit differently than the others and has different variables) (Gross & Swirski, 2002).

With regard to the history of TUS in India, the first national pilot TUS was undertaken by the Central Statistical Organization, Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation (MoSPI), Government of India during the period July 1998 to June 1999 on a pilot basis. The broad objectives of the survey was to develop a conceptual framework and design a methodology for conducting time use surveys in India on a regular basis; estimate labour force/workforce and the value of unpaid work in the economy in a satellite account; distribution of paid and unpaid work, nature of unpaid work, household division of labour; to analyse the data of the time use pattern of the specific section of the population such as children and women to draw inferences for welfare policies for them.

The survey was conducted among six states in India namely; Haryana, M.P, Gujarat, Orissa, Tamil Nadu and Meghalaya. The survey covered 18,591 households selected through a three-staged stratified random sampling, including 77, 593 individuals of whom 40,187 were males and 37, 406 were females (GoI, 2001). To capture the seasonality in the work pattern, the survey was spread over one year and was conducted in four sub-rounds of three months duration each. A specially designed classification schedule was used for the survey to ensure adequate coverage of activities, as well as compatibility and comparability with other national and international data (Samantroy and Khurana, 2015). The activity classification in the survey was based on the 1993 UNSNA which covered SNA, Extended SNA and Non-



SNA activities. To capture the variation in the activity pattern, time use data was collected for all the individuals aged 6 years and above for three type of days, namely normal, abnormal and weekly variant.

In the year 2012, Ministry of Statistics & Programme Implementation (MOSPI) conducted the pilot survey on Time Use in two States namely Bihar and Gujarat, which was based on Abridged and Detailed Classification of activities after examining all the major classifications namely, ICATUS (2000 onwards), Indian TUS classification (1997-98) as well as the Seal Committee (2009) classification and named it as National Classification of Activities for Time-Use Statistics (NCATUS). The NCATUS was aligned with NIC 2008 activities within the production boundary of SNA. Hence, it was decided to adopt the first level categorization to total 9 categories (1-9); namely 1-2-3 for SNA activities, 4-5-6 for extended SNA and 7-8-9 for non- SNA. The descriptions of the categories is as follows: 1. Economic Activities in Primary Sector 2. Economic Activities in the Secondary Sector 3. Economic Activities in Tertiary Sector 4. Household maintenance, management and shopping 5. Care for children, sick, elderly and disabled for own household 6. Voluntary activities, community services and help to non-household members 7. Learning 8. Socialization, cultural, recreational activities and mass media use 9. Personal care and self-maintenance activities (GoI, 2013). The survey however did not find success. In 2019, the National Statistical Office (NSO) under the MoSPI undertook the first nationwide Time Use Survey which provides detailed information about time spent by men and women in the country. The survey covered the whole of the Indian Union except the villages in Andaman and Nicobar Islands which are difficult to access. The activities reported by the respondents, were codified (3-digit code) following the International Classification of Activities for Time Use Statistics 2016 (ICATUS 2016). The survey has measured the participation and time spent by persons in paid activities, unpaid care giving activities, unpaid volunteer work, leisure, socio-cultural activities etc. (GoI, 2019).

One of the greatest advantages of the Time Use Surveys is the ability to capture multiple and simultaneous activities in which women spent most of their time. The time use surveys can capture a whole range of activities from cooking, cleaning, washing, child and elderly care to waiting for a transport and doing nothing. Women, particularly in the urban areas generally multi-task in varied contexts and such pressures often create a situation of time stress⁸ among them. Some scholars have noted that the intensity of these multiple and simultaneous activities increases without lack of adequate urban planning or creation of urban spaces more accessible for women (Tacoli, 2012). The TUS have multiple uses including; analysis of the sexual division

⁸ Time stress is situation when women due to multi-tasking are engaged in several unpaid activities and hence are taxed in terms of time and experience stress. Such a situation may have a detrimental impact on physical and psychological health.



of labour and gender inequalities; studies on the link between monetary poverty, income and the distribution and allocation of time; studies on the relationship between production within the system of national accounts and household production; measurements of well-being; national, regional and international requirements for data on unpaid work; Measurements of all forms of work (ECLAC, 2019).

1.5.1 Types of Time-Use Surveys:

- a) **Time-Use Diary (TUD) Approach:** Time use diaries record continuous events and actions through a 24h or 48 h period, sometimes longer. Diarists self-report their actions at specified periods, often 15 min epochs, into a TUD that reflects and codes 24 hours for that individual. Constructing such accounts is rendered problematical by recall failures, the likelihood of multiple concurrent activities (e.g. reading and eating), and of competing alternative descriptions of activities (e.g. 'walking' v/s 'travel to work'). So optimal time use data would collect information of multiple descriptive characteristics of each successive 'event', where the 'event' itself is defined as the period during which all of these characteristics remain unchanged. Originally TUDs contained a main activity field, several concurrent or simultaneous activity fields, a location field and multiple others co-present' fields. Current practice now often has a field about device use, sometimes adds one or more affect fields (estimating levels of enjoyment, stress or others), as well as fields containing measurements in real time taken from instruments (such as accelerometers or global position system [GPS] devices) carried by the diarist (Bauman, Bittman & Gershuny, 2019).
- b) **The Stylised Approach:** Stylized questions are another method to measure time use, asking respondents how much time they spend in certain activities. Some examples are: About how much time do you spend cooking in your home during the week? About how much time do you spend caring for your child on a daily basis? Questions can be open-ended, where respondents can fill in a number of hours, or they can have a range of answers, where respondents choose one answer from categories such as 'never', 'once a week', 'several times a week', or 'every day'. Many surveys with goals other than measuring time use have used these types of questions, usually as indicators of behaviour patterns (NRC, 2000).

A significant driver for undertaking TUS was an increasing awareness that the conventional statistical approaches, such as national censuses, significantly devalued women's contribution to the national economy. These methodologies, in particular, refused to take responsibility for non-market or extended SNA activities, wherein women bear the most of the burden. These services are



crucial to productivity, despite whether they are generally unpaid. After identifying major inconsistencies between both the statistics of their national census and a preliminary regional TUS, India was encouraged to develop a much more extensive national TUS to study these disparities further.

Although the diary method of documenting (in which participants are provided a diary in which one can note their activities) is the most prevalent in developed economies, the interview approach has become more prominent in developing economies, partially due to the absence of a literacy criterion. The interview approach is best suited to this setting, considering the goal of explicitly evaluating women's time use and the reality that women have greater illiteracy rates than males, especially in rural areas. Furthermore, to ensure cultural competence and gender inclusive interviewers, supervision and monitoring are required. Moreover, interviewers must be made aware of the significance and validity of women's labour as an area of comparative advantage.

1.5.2 Features of Time Use Surveys:

- It makes a number of recommendations for resolving important methodological issues surrounding the measurement of unpaid work and household work, such as the time of year/day of week when data is collected, and it considers specific issues for developing countries, such as the prevalence of unpaid work, low literacy, and the lack of use of time pieces, among other things.
- It also recommends taking societal norms and household structures into account when selecting survey respondents and interpreting time usage patterns, tying time use data to contextual variables such activity location, kind of employment, ethnicity, age, and household structure.
- It also devises methods for monitoring and reporting concurrent or secondary tasks without overburdening respondents, which is critical for comprehending home labour.
- Finally, the statistics supports recurring surveys over time because this increases the policy and planning advantages of time use data.
- TUS findings can also help decision makers devise policies aimed at helping women participate more equally in the market economy. Such gender-sensitive policies may be much more effective than conventional macroeconomic policies at addressing deeply rooted cultural biases concerning women (UNDP, 2005).
- It collects the statistics on all types of work done by men and women, including SNA activities (those that fall within the Production Boundary) and extended SNA activities (those that fall within the General Production Boundary) (GoI, 2012).



box’ during which only one or two activities are recorded — for example, ‘work’ and ‘short break from work’. Some of the surveys described below go somewhat beyond this. In India, in particular, the time use survey provided detailed codes for economic work. Overall, however, solid analysis of the interplay of economic work and other activities requires data beyond time use variables. It will, for example, need to consider the extent of the burden of unpaid care work on women and men who are employed (that is, doing economic work), unemployed (that is, not doing economic work but looking for such work) and not economically active (that is, not engaged in economic work and not wanting to be so engaged). It will also need to understand the characteristics of economic work and how that might affect unpaid care work, for example, whether the work is for fixed or variable hours, which hours of the day and days of the week it occurs, whether it is likely to have benefits attached, where it is done and so on. In addition, it would be important to know something about the earnings of both the person being investigated and the other members of the household (Budlender, 2007).

- e) The interview method can, be more costly than other techniques as it often requires hiring and training skilled workers (UNDP, 2005).

In this above background, the present study is contextualized within the backdrop of a declining female labour force participation in India and increasing participation of women in unpaid and care work. The study would engage in understanding the time use surveys as method for capturing women’s work and also reflect on the methodological issues for better capturing women’s work. The time distribution patterns of men and women are analyzed for an in-depth analysis of women’s unpaid work and its relationship with paid employment. For an analysis of Indian situation, the insights from National Time use Survey conducted in 2019 and data collected from this survey is taken into consideration¹¹. The main objectives of the study are discussed below.

1.6 Objectives of the study

- To understand the employment trends for women and the relationship between paid and unpaid work.

¹¹ These surveys were conducted until 2011-12 as quinquennial rounds and later on the National Statistical Office introduced the Periodic Labour Force Surveys which are annual surveys. The Central Statistical Organization (CSO), Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation (MOSPI), Government of India conducted a pilot Time Use Survey through State Directorate of Economics and Statistics in six states viz., Kerala, Meghalaya, Haryana, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa and Gujarat for the first time in 1998-99. The results of the TUS pilot survey of 1998-99 brought to the fore the issue of inadequacy of data collected through conventional Employment and Unemployment Surveys (EUS) and the Population Census for measuring the quantum of unremunerated economic activities.



Chapter 2

Employment Trends & Labour Market Participation of Women in India

2.1 The Context:

The low and declining participation of women in the labour market has remained one of the prominent policy concerns in the country. Female labour force participation has shown a significant decline over the years; particularly a marked decline was witnessed after 2004-05 as reported by the Employment and Unemployment Surveys (EUS). A falling female participation force is not an unprecedented occurrence; the disparity in LFPR continues to exist despite high rates of economic growth in India¹². There is a substantial amount of research on the various determinants of female labour force participation (such as domestic duties, social standards, agricultural productivity, academic achievement, and industrialization) as well as the correlation between industrial prosperity and female labour force participation (Thomas, 2020; Padhi&Motkuri, 2021; WBG & WTO, 2020; Nath &Basole, 2021; Pampel& Tanaka, 1986; Verick, 2018). Some scholars have opined that that this drop in female labour force participation affects economic growth of a country (Singh &Ozanne, 2017). However, there are multiple reasons for the decline in labour market participation of women. This trend continues across women from different ethnic backgrounds, age groups, marital statuses, and for women with and without children (Black, Schanzenbach&Breitwieser, 2017).

FLFP may also be affected by the amount of household economic protection, particularly in less advanced economies where deprivation is widespread. The developing economies that are marked by high informality often have challenges to provide access to comprehensive social protection measures. In such economies, as a result, the occupational segregation of women often pushes them to low paying jobs that are outside the standard employer-employee relationship with unregulated employment conditions and lack of social security. Further, the COVID 19 pandemic aggravated the persisting inequalities in the labour market. Women workers were worst affected by the pandemic due to their concentration in low paying jobs in certain sectors which was worst hit by the pandemic leading to significant livelihood losses. A recent ILO Covid-19 monitor had highlighted that majority of job losses and declining working hours was witnessed in hardest hit sectors like retail trade, accommodation, food services and manufacturing. Further, there were losses in post-support labour income relatively larger for self-employed, low paid

¹² Gupta, A (2021). The permanent effects of the pandemic on the female workforce. Retrieved from: <https://www.orfonline.org/expert-speak/the-permanent-effects-of-the-pandemic-on-the-female-workforce/> Accessed on: 4 October, 2021



and low skilled women reflecting on a risk of uneven recovery and greater inequality (ILO, 2021)¹³. Apart from this, the competing demands of work and family life balance often discourage women to engage in regular paid employment. From a policy perspective, there is an urgent need to promote work-family balance policies strengthening and expanding income support programmes, expanding support for small businesses and the self-employed. Such measures need to incorporate a gender lens and take into consideration women's particular needs, responsibilities, and viewpoints (OECD, 2020).

The Global Gender Gap Report had reported that, India has widened its gender gap and has been a country with the largest economic gender gaps at 32.6 percent (WEF, 2021). This was before the pandemic had intensified the pre-existing condition. The pandemic-induced lockdown had a tremendous impact on working women, with the percentage of women in professional, technical, and managerial roles falling dramatically. Those working in the informal sector, particularly in metropolitan areas, have been the hardest hit, and women workers are concentrated in the informal sector (Mitra & Sinha, 2021). Women employed as domestic workers in India—commonly migrants from rural areas have lost work in large numbers, forcing many to return to their home villages¹⁴. The COVID-19 situation had disproportionately influenced women workers in various ways, there is a risk of reversing previous achievements and worsening gender disparities in the labour market. In contrast to previous crises, women's jobs are in jeopardy more than men, owing to the downturns impact on the service industry. Women, on the other hand, make up a high percentage of workers in front-line occupations, particularly in the health and social care sectors. Furthermore, the additional burden of unpaid care brought on by the crisis disproportionately affects women (ILO, 2020).

Female labour-force participation in India has declined from 40.9 percent (1999-2000) to 30.9 percent in 2019-2020 for the age group 15-59 years (PLFS, 2019-2020), the lowest among major economies reflecting on increased labour market inequalities. Women's decision to work and their ability to do so are influenced by a variety of economic and social factors that interplay in a complicated way at both the home and distribution services. Some of the significant factors include academic achievement, birth rates and marital age, income development influences, and industrialization.

¹³ ILO (2021), ILO Monitor: Covid 19 and the World of Work, Seventh Edition, Updated Estimates and Analysis, Accessed on 2 March 2022, Retrieved from: https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/@dgreports/@dcomm/documents/briefingnote/wcms_767028.pdf

¹⁴ Chatterjee, M. (2021). COVID-19 has devastated India's self-employed women. Here's how to support them. World Economic Forum. Retrieved from: <https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2021/06/women-in-indias-informal-economy-are-bearing-the-brunt-of-covid/>



The country has made significant progress in extending access to higher education for females in the last couple of decades, as an increasing number of women of working population participate in higher education. However, due to the country's socioeconomic development, opportunities in industries that could easily absorb women have not been created in large percentages. There is a gap due to an oversupply of academic graduates, many of whom are women, who are having difficulty finding work in India's transforming job market. This is reflected in women's low labour participation rates, particularly in urban areas, demonstrating that an increase in the number of women pursuing higher education has not translated into more employment opportunities for women (Sangar, 2014).

Furthermore, while most Indian women work and contribute to the economic development in some way, much more of their labour is not recognized or reported for in government statistics, resulting in under-reporting of women's labour. In India, a significant share of females reported doing domestic work as their main activity. It is worth mentioning that a significant percentage of women who typically perform domestic activities stated that they would accept work if it were offered to them on their own property (Verick, 2014). Further, the devaluation of domestic labour is ingrained in cultural norms of proper femininity and masculinity, making it more acceptable for women to engage in 'masculine' behaviours, such as paid job, than for males to engage in 'feminine' behaviours, such as unpaid labour (Sayer, 2005).

Women's engagement in the labour force and access to quality employment is a critical component of an equitable and long-term development cycle. Women continue to confront various challenges in entering the labour market and obtaining decent work, and they are particularly disadvantaged by issues such as access to employment, employment flexibility, conditions of employment, financial security, wage disparity, stereotyping, and balancing work and family commitments. Furthermore, women are disproportionately represented in the unorganized sector, where they are most vulnerable to exploitation and have the least institutional security. In this context, the present chapter provides an insight into employment trends of women. It tries to provide an overall picture of women's location in the labour market particularly with regard to sector-wise participation. The chapter further discusses the intersections of a gendered participation in the labour market with educational status, marital status and social groups. The employment conditions of women are analyzed by providing an insight into employment contracts, leave provisions and social security arrangements.

2.2 Declining Labour Force Participation among women in India

The Work Participation Rate (WPR) for females was 40.9 percent in 1999 which declined by 10 percentage points during PLFS 2019-20 (30.9 percent)

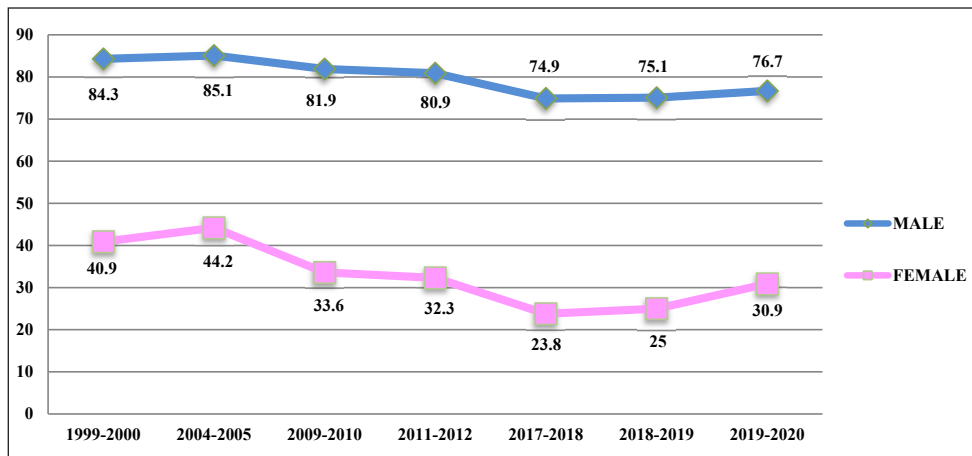
(Table 2.1). The EUS & the PLFS across various rounds have reflected on the declining female workforce participation across the country. The 15-59 age group, which is considered for the analysis of the present study, the workforce participation of females fell from 51.5 percent in 2004-2005 to 34.5 percent in 2019-2020 in rural areas. While in urban areas, the participation of females fell from 24.2 percent in 2004-2005 to 23.1 percent in 2019-2020.

Table: 2.1 WPR (in percent) in usual status (ps+ss) (Age Group: 15-59 Years)

WPR (15-59 years)	Rural		Urban		Rural + Urban	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1999-2000	86.7	48.2	78.4	20.9	84.3	40.9
2004-2005	87.1	51.5	80.2	24.2	85.1	44.2
2009-2010	83.4	39.2	78.5	19.8	81.9	33.6
2011-2012	82	37.2	78.4	21	80.9	32.3
2017-2018	75.2	25.5	74.2	19.8	74.9	23.8
2018-2019	75.8	27.2	73.7	20.2	75.1	25
2019-2020	77.5	34.4	75.1	23.1	76.7	30.9

Source: Employment Unemployment Survey of India & Periodic Labour Force Survey of India

Figure: 2.1 WPR (in percent) in usual status (ps+ss) Rural and Urban combined (Age Group: 15-59 Years)



Source: Employment Unemployment Survey of India & Periodic Labour Force Survey of India

Fig.2.1 reveals that there is a decline in WPR of females from 44.2 percent in 2004-05 to 25 percent in 2018-2019, yet in 2019-2020 there was a marginal increase in workforce participation rates of female to 30.9 percent. This increase was reported due an increase in self-employment among women, which rose from 53.4 percent (2018-19) to 56.3 percent in 2019-2020 (PLFS, 2019-2020). However, the gender gaps in workforce participation rates were



quite evident with the participation of males being 76.7 percent while for female it remained at 30.9 percent in the year 2019-2020. Though there are multiple reasons for the exit of women from the labour market as discussed above some scholars have pointed out that women have voluntarily chosen to exit the labour force (Deshpande & Singh, 2021).

However, the economic growth and employment debate has remained prominent in discourses on development. It is true that in many parts of the world particularly developing economies, a significant proportion of people are excluded from the larger development process due to uneven economic growth between regions is distribution of benefits is unequal between people. The rural informal sector often remains marginalised is not excluded (Nayyar, 2006). In fact, the persistence of inequality in many societies where women are often excluded remains a significant policy concern. Development must, therefore, provide all men and women the rights, the opportunities and the capabilities to expand their freedoms and exercise their own choices for their wellbeing (Nayyar, 2006). In this context, it is important to uncover the gendered vulnerabilities across regions from an intersectional perspective.

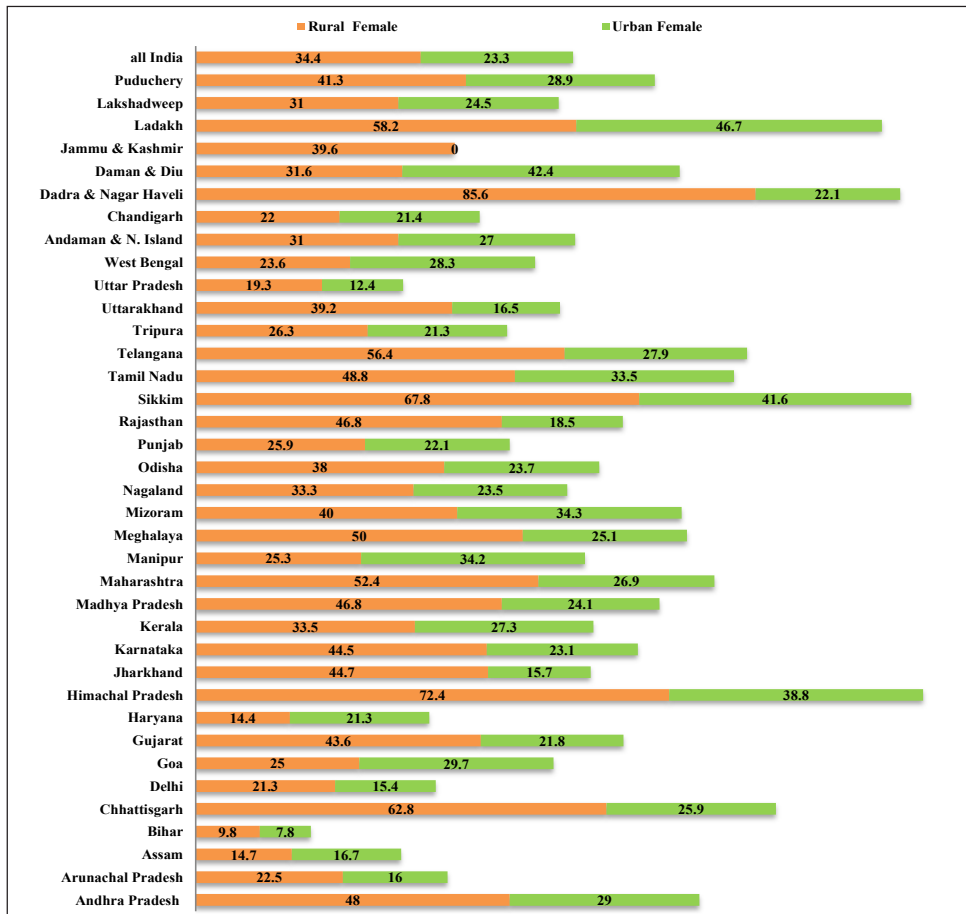
2.2.1 State-wise Workforce Participation of Women in India:

Despite economic and social development, low birth rates, and increasing educational standards for women and girls, India's FLFP remains low. The WPR of women has been significantly low in certain regions of the country thereby reflecting on the need to uncover the regional challenges for a more concerted policy action in this regard. It would be interesting to explore the WPR of women in certain States along with their burden of unpaid work for a more nuanced analysis of specific challenges emerging due to varied socio-cultural contexts. This section highlights on significant employment trends among women in Indian states. With regard to overall WPR of females in India, the five states that have reported the lowest WPR are Bihar (9.5 percent), Assam (14.9 percent), Haryana (16.8 percent), Uttar Pradesh (17.7 percent) and Arunachal Pradesh (21.3 percent) (Appendix, Table 1).

From the fig. 2.2, it can be seen that in the rural areas of India, women from the states/UT of Dadra & Nagar Haveli (85.6 percent), Himachal Pradesh (72.4 percent), Sikkim (67.8 percent), Chhattisgarh (62.8 percent) and Ladakh (58.2 percent) have the highest WPR, whereas rural women from the states of Bihar (9.8 percent), Haryana (14.4 percent), Assam (14.7 percent), Uttar Pradesh (19.3 percent) and Delhi (21.3 percent) have the lowest WPR.

Similar trends can be witnessed among the urban areas where women from the states/UT of Ladakh (46.7 percent), Daman & Diu (42.4 percent), Sikkim (41.6 percent), Himachal Pradesh (38.8 percent) and Mizoram (34.3 percent) which have the highest WPR, whereas women in urban areas, from the states of Bihar (7.8 percent), Uttar Pradesh (12.4 percent), Delhi (15.4 percent),

Figure: 2.2 Worker Population Ratio (WPR) (in percent) according to usual status (ps+ss) for each State/UT (Age Group: 15-59 years)



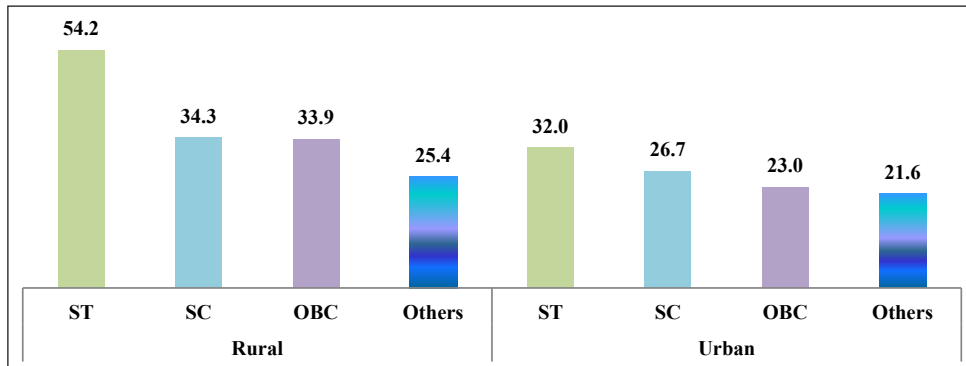
Source: Periodic Labour Force Survey of India 2019-20

Jharkhand (15.7 percent) and Arunachal Pradesh (16 percent), registered to have the lowest WPR, as compared to the other Indian States.

2.3 Work Participation of Women across Social Groups

The socio-economic disaggregation of work participation rates in India suggests that more disenfranchised social groups have higher rates of labour market participation (Menon, Tomy & Kumar, 2019). The Scheduled Castes (SC) and Scheduled Tribes (ST) women reported to have greater participation in the labour market as per the PLFS report, i.e., 80.4 percent for ST women and 76.9 percent for SC women (Appendix, Table 2). Though the WPR for women of SC and ST remain high, it is also important to understand the kinds of employment they are engaged in as most of these women are pushed to low paying informal employment due to economic necessity.

Figure: 2.3 Workforce Participation Rate (in per cent) according to usual status (ps+ss) for different social groups in PLFS (2019-20) - Female



Source: Calculated from the unit level data of PLFS

From fig. 2.3, it is visible that rural women from the ST community (54.2 percent) have higher workforce participation rate followed by women from the SC (34.3 percent) and OBC (33.9 percent) groups. Similarly, in urban areas, ST women (32 percent) have higher workforce participation as compared to women belonging to SC (26.7 percent) and OBC (23 percent). SC and ST women are expected to participate in labour market in greater numbers as these are the lowest social classes in India, in which there is a high opportunity cost for withdrawal of women from the labour force. Caste emerges as a significant factor in determining the likelihood of participation of women in work (Mamgain& Khan, 2021).

2.4 Sectoral Segregation: Gender Dimensions

As the economy evolves from primary to secondary, women’s work shifts from agriculture to other industries that reflect new issues should be addressed. The widespread informality that pervades numerous occupations frequently raises concerns about the quality of work and its long-term viability. Though agriculture continues to play a significant role in the rural economy, urban dwellers have a considerably wider range of jobs.

Table: 2.2 Percentage distribution of workers in usual status (ps+ss) by broad industry division during PLFS (2017-18), PLFS (2018-19) and PLFS (2019-20) (15-59 Years)

Industry	2019-20								
	Rural			Urban			Rural + Urban		
	Male	Fe-male	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Fe-male	Total
Agriculture	52.42	75.39	59.49	4.28	7.54	5.03	37.23	59.21	43.51
Mining	0.31	0.04	0.22	0.56	0.11	0.46	0.39	0.05	0.29

Industry	2019-20								
	Rural			Urban			Rural + Urban		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Manufacturing	7.72	7.52	7.65	20.54	22.57	21.01	11.76	11.11	11.57
Electricity, gas & water	0.5	0.13	0.38	1.47	0.66	1.28	0.8	0.26	0.65
Construction	16.13	5.41	12.83	12.12	4.73	10.4	14.86	5.24	12.12
Trade, hotel & restaurant	9.63	3.65	7.79	28.43	21.55	26.84	15.56	7.92	13.38
Transport, other	5.88	0.21	4.13	12.59	3.79	10.55	8	1.06	6.02
	7.43	7.66	7.5	20.01	39.04	24.43	11.4	15.15	12.47
	2018-19								
Agriculture	50.41	70.7	55.76	4.25	7.25	4.88	35.82	54.62	40.47
Mining	0.45	0.24	0.39	0.68	0.15	0.57	0.52	0.22	0.45
Manufacturing	7.66	9.33	8.1	22.07	24.86	22.65	12.22	13.27	12.47
Electricity, gas & water	0.43	0.14	0.36	1.27	0.53	1.12	0.7	0.24	0.58
Construction	16.51	5.73	13.67	11.77	4.01	10.15	15.01	5.29	12.61
Trade, hotel & restaurant	10.13	4.18	8.56	24.71	13.14	22.3	14.74	6.45	12.69
Transport, other	5.91	0.19	4.4	12.7	3.83	10.86	8.06	1.12	6.34
	8.49	9.49	8.75	22.54	46.22	27.47	12.93	18.8	14.38
	2017-18								
Agriculture	52.41	72.76	57.5	4.6	8.32	5.37	37.84	56.32	42.23
Mining	0.47	0.18	0.4	0.58	0.16	0.49	0.51	0.18	0.43
Manufacturing	8.08	8.35	8.14	22.48	25.2	23.04	12.47	12.65	12.51
Electricity, gas & water	0.51	0.03	0.39	1.33	0.66	1.19	0.76	0.19	0.63
Construction	15.42	5.29	12.88	12.01	4.2	10.4	14.38	5.01	12.15
Trade, hotel & restaurant	9.34	3.96	7.99	24.1	12.67	21.73	13.84	6.18	12.02
Transport, other	5.66	0.29	4.32	13.13	3.52	11.14	7.94	1.11	6.32
	8.11	9.13	8.37	21.76	45.27	26.63	12.27	18.35	13.72

Source: Calculated from the unit level data of various rounds of PLFS

As per the unit level data of PLFS, between the PLFS 2017-2018 and 2019-2020, the share of female workers aged between 15-59 years in India showed a progress in agriculture sector from 56.32 percent to 59.21 percent. However,



there was a noticeable decline in the manufacturing sector from 12.65 percent in 2017-18 to 11.11 percent in 2019-20. Also in the *others sector* the percentage of female workers declined from 18.35 percent in 2017-18 to 15.15 percent in 2019-20. The share of female workers in agriculture in rural areas has increased from 72.76 percent to 75.39 percent. Whereas, the share of rural female workers in Mining (0.18 percent in 2017-2018 to 0.04 percent in 2019-2020), Manufacturing (8.35 percent in 2017-2018 to 7.52 percent in 2019-2020) & *other*¹⁵ sectors (9.13 percent in 2017-2018 to 7.66 percent in 2019-2020) has declined, while sectors such as Electricity, Gas & Water Supply, Trade, Hotels, Transport & Communication, Financing, Insurance, Real Estate & Business Services and Community, Social & Personal Services too have not shown any significant progress in these years. Similar trends were noticed for female workers in urban areas, where the share of female workers has declined in others sectors i.e., from 45.27 percent in 2017-2018 to 39.04 percent in 2019-2020. Though there was a noticeable increase in the Trade, Hotel & Restaurant sector where the share of urban women increased from 12.67 percent in 2017-2018 to 21.55 percent as reported by the PLFS.

The analysis of gendered sectoral segregation and decrease in agricultural employment helps in understanding the nature and quality of employment of women workers. Despite the fact that they are shifting to certain industries in search of paid employment, do women in urban areas have access to fair working conditions and adequate social security? Women's status as marginal employees, as well as their greater involvement in household responsibilities, poses severe concerns about the quality of employment in cities.

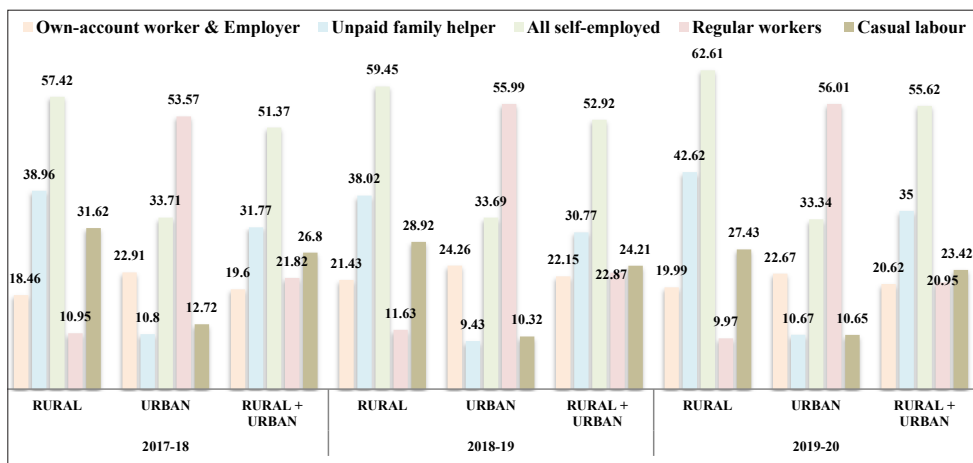
2.4.1 Type of Employment

While women are increasingly engaged in paid labour in both services and manufacturing sectors, increasing the potential for autonomy and independence in many contexts, there has been an entrenchment of women's poverty. Even as globalization has brought millions of women into paid labour, it has also reproduced gender inequalities by concentrating women workers at the bottom of the global value chain- in the lowest paid jobs, in piece-rate, subcontracted work, and insecure forms of self-employment, with little or no access to decent work and social protection (UNESCO, 2017). In India, the percentage of female casual labourers declined from 26.8 percent (2017-18) to 23.42 percent (2019-20). Similarly the share of share of regular

¹⁵ As per NIC - 2008 which was used in the current survey for recording industry of work for the employed persons, the different industry sections comprised the broad industry divisions mentioned as 'others' are as follows: Financial and insurance activities, Real estate activities, Professional, scientific and technical activities, Administrative and support service activities, Public administration and defence; compulsory social security, Education, Human health and social work activities, Arts, entertainment and recreation, Other service activities, Activities of households as employers; undifferentiated goods-and services producing activities of households for own use, Activities of extraterritorial organizations and bodies.

workers declined from 22.87 percent (2018-19) to 20.95 percent (2019-20). Though, an increment from 51.37 percent (2017-18) to 55.62 percent (2019-20) was seen in the self-employment status of women (Appendix, Table 3). As evident in Fig 2.4, the share of female casual labourers has decreased in both rural and urban areas; the share of regular wage or salaried female workers has followed the pattern of previous years and has increased between 2017-18 and 2018-19. There was a decline in Casual Labour for rural women from 31.62 percent (2017-2018) to 27.43 percent (2019-2020). And the share of self-employed females though has increased in rural areas; it remained at the same level in urban areas for both the years 2018-19 and 2019-20.

Figure: 2.4 Percentage distribution of females in usual status (ps+ss) by status in employment during PLFS (2017-18), PLFS (2018-19) and PLFS (2019-20)



Source: Calculated from the unit level data of various rounds of PLFS

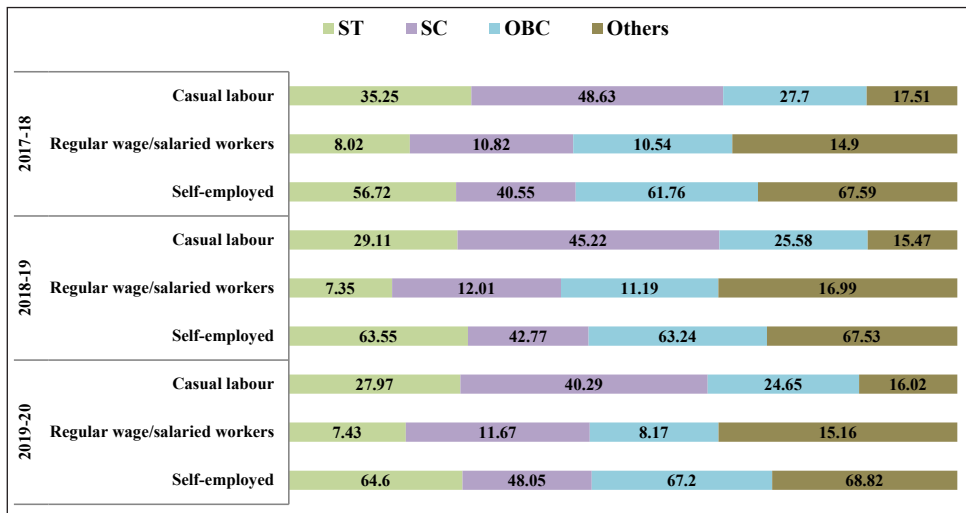
Self-employment in rural areas increased for females from the year 2017-2018 (57.72 percent) to 2019-2020 (62.61 percent). On the other hand, the scenario is however quite different for the women in urban areas wherein an increase in regular workers was reported from 53.57 percent (2017-2018) to 56.01 percent (2019-2020). Women tended to cluster in certain types of paid work such as self-employment and home-based work, as these provided them with flexibility in terms of both location and working hours, enabling them to perform both their paid work and unpaid care work responsibilities (Zaidi & Chigateri, 2017).

2.4.2 Type of Employment by Social Groups

The link between caste and labour market participation has been crucial in determining the economic status of certain social groups that have remained economically disadvantaged over time. As per the PLFS 2019-20 report, the social group of the head of the household was considered as the social group

of all the members of the household irrespective of the actual social group to which the individual members belonged. In the survey, information was collected in respect of four social groups viz. scheduled tribe (ST), scheduled caste (SC), other backward class (OBC) and the rest referred to as *others*. The information recorded in this regard was based entirely on the response of the informant and not based on any state or central level list of the social group. In India, the share of Casual Labour for the women belonging to ST declined from 34.67 percent (2017-18) to 27.48 percent (2019-20); for SC women it dropped from 41.59 percent (2017-18) to 35.96 percent (2019-20); for women from OBC it declined from 24.21 percent (2017-18) to 21.88 percent (2019-20) and for the *others* it fell down from 13.38 percent (2017-18) to 10.82 percent (2019-20). However, there was an increase in the self-employment status of women belonging to all the social groups from 2017-18 to 2019-20 (Appendix, Table 4). As women on average take on a larger part of household work, this could explain a higher inflow into self-employment of women than of men (Boden, 1999 & Wellington, 2006 cited in Joona&Wadensjö, 2008).

Figure: 2.5 Percentage distribution of females in usual status (ps+ss) by Social Groups in Broad Employment Status during PLFS (2017-18), PLFS (2018-19) and PLFS (2019-20) (Age Group: 15-59 Years) - Rural



Source: Calculated from the unit level data of various rounds of PLFS

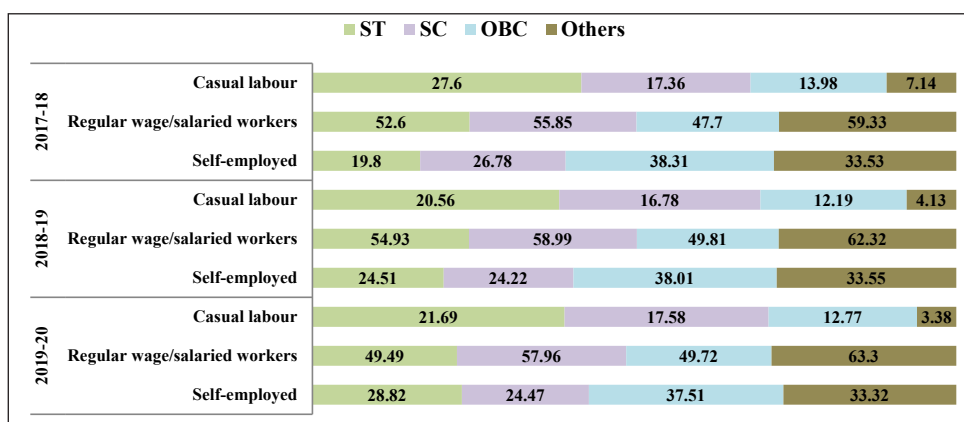
From the figure 2.5, it is apparent that workforce participation among Regular Wage/ Salaried rural women belonging to the STs has decreased considerably from 8.08 percent in 2017-2018 to 7.47 percent in 2019-2020. Similarly, among the SCs there has been a decline from 12.01 percent in 2018-2019 to 11.67 percent in 2019-2020 and in the OBC, it declined from 11.19 percent in 2018-2019 to 8.17 percent in 2019-2020. Among the Casual Labours, the workforce participation of rural women belonging to the SC declined from 48.63 percent in 2017-2018 to 40.29 percent in 2019-2020. Correspondingly, workforce



participation of rural women belonging to the ST declined from 35.25 percent in 2017-2018 to 27.95 percent in 2019-2020 and for OBC, it declined from 27.7 percent in 2017-2018 to 24.65 percent in 2019-2020. For the rural women belonging to others, the casual labour percentage declined from 17.51 percent in 2017-2018 to 16.02 percent in 2019-2020.

The gender gaps in workforce participation rates in rural areas were quite evident with the participation of males belonging to ST being 12.3 percent while for female it remained at 7.47 percent in the year 2019-2020. Similar trends could be noticed for the males belonging to SC, the workforce participation was 14.05 percent and for females it was 11.67 percent; and for the males belonging to OBC the WPR was 13.89 percent and for females it was 8.17 percent in 2019-2020.

Figure: 2.6 Percentage distribution of females in usual status (ps+ss) by Social Groups in Broad Employment Status during PLFS (2017-18), PLFS (2018-19) and PLFS (2019-20) (Age Group: 15-59 Years) - Urban



Source: Calculated from the unit level data of various rounds of PLFS

From the figure 2.6, it is apparent that workforce participation among Regular Wage/ Salaried urban women belonging to the Scheduled Tribes (STs) has decreased considerably from 52.6 percent in 2017-2018 to 49.5 percent in 2019-2020. Whereas, among the Scheduled Caste (SC) there has been an increase from 55.9 percent in 2017-2018 to 58 percent in 2019-2020; for *others* it increased to 63.3 percent in 2019-20 from 59.33 percent in 2017-18, and in the Other Backward Category (OBC), it increased from 47.7 percent in 2017-2018 to 49.72 percent in 2019-2020. Among the Casual Labourers, the workforce participation of urban women belonging to the ST category declined from 27.6 percent in 2017-2018 to 21.7 percent in 2019-2020. Correspondingly, workforce participation of urban women belonging to the OBC declined from 13.98 percent in 2017-2018 to 12.77 percent in 2019-20. For the urban women belonging to *Others* category, the casual labour percentage declined from 7.14 percent in 2017-2018 to 3.38 percent in 2019-2020. It is evident that



membership in certain social groups affects a woman's ability to participate in the labor force. Households belonging to marginalized communities are known to have lower levels of income compared to others, thus producing a negative income effect on women's participation (Andres, Dasgupta, Joseph, Abraham, & Correia, 2017). Moreover, the literature indicates that women in households belonging to upper caste groups are discouraged from engaging in paid work due to the long-standing stigma attached to women's paid work (Boserup cited in Andres, et. al., 2017).

To assess the quality of employment, it is important to understand the sectoral segregation of women, particularly with respect to specific kinds of employment within broader sectors. The following section provides an insight into the two-digit industrial classification of women workers engaged in specific sectors.

2.4.3 Employment Status by Industry

In order to understand the broad aspects of women's participation in various industry sectors, it is important to explore the National Industrial Classification (NIC) 2008. The National Industrial Classification (NIC) is an essential Statistical Standard for developing and maintaining comparable database according to economic activities. Such classifications are frequently used in classifying the economically active population, statistics of industrial production and distribution, the different fields of labour statistics and other economic data such as national income (GoI, 2008).

Table: 2.3 Percentage distribution of Women Workers by usual status (ps+ss) in Top 10 Sectors for Age Group- 15-59 Years – Rural (2019-20)

Industry	Percentage
Crop and animal production, hunting and related service activities (01)	75.55
Education (85)	3.85
Manufacture of wearing (14)	3.01
Retail trade, except of motor vehicles (47)	3.01
Construction Buildings (41)	2.58
Wearing apparel (13)	2.37
Human health activities (86)	0.86
Public administration and defence (84)	0.71
Food beverage service (56)	0.47
Activities of Household as employer (97)	0.35

Source: Calculated from the unit level data of PLFS 2019-20



In the tables 2.3 & 2.4, the two-digit groups of NIC (2008) are calculated. From the table, 2.3 it is evident that, 92.76 percent of such women workers were mostly found to be engaged in these 10 sectors of rural areas. Apart from agricultural activities (Crop and animal production, hunting and related service activities, to be specific) where 75.55 per cent of female workers were engaged in 2019-20, education, retail trade (except of motor vehicles and motorcycles) & construction buildings were other prominent fields where female workers in rural areas were engaged. The table below shows the share of top 10 sectors where female workers were engaged in 2019-20 in rural areas.

The sectoral employment in urban areas was more diversified with only 71.43 per cent of women workers engaged in top 10 sectors. While Retail trade (except of motor vehicles and motorcycles) was the most preferred industry where female workers were involved in urban areas in 2019-20, manufacturing of wearing apparels, education were the other significant sectors where women were making progress. Surprisingly, Crop and animal production, hunting and related service activities were also among the top 10 sectors in urban areas where female workers were engaged. The table below shows the share of top 10 sectors where female workers were engaged in 2019-20 in urban areas.

Table: 2.4 Percentage distribution of Women Workers by usual status (ps+ss) in Top 10 Sectors for Age Group- 15-59 Years – Urban (2019-20)

Industry	Percentage
Retail trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles (47)	18.38
Education (85)	14.96
Crop and animal production, hunting and related service activities (01)	8.15
Wearing apparel (13)	8.14
Activities of Household as employer (97)	5.83
Human health activities (86)	4.09
Construction Buildings (41)	3.87
Arts, entertainment and recreation (90)	2.84
Public administration and defence (84)	2.76
Food and beverage service (56)	2.41

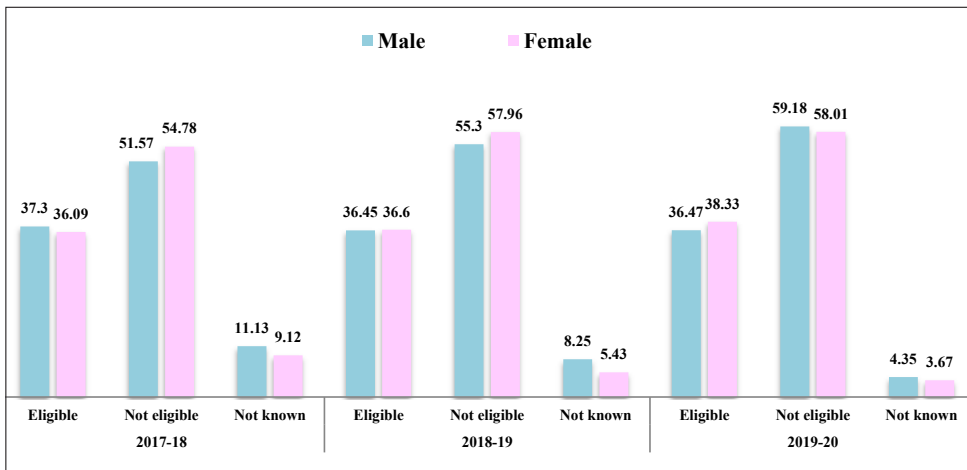
Source: Calculated from the unit level data of PLFS 2019-20

2.5 Employment Conditions and access to Social Security

Social Security is increasingly seen as an integral part of the development process aimed at ensuring decent work and protecting their well-being. Access to social security is officially mapped with reference to any one of the following variables: provident fund, pension, gratuity, healthcare and maternity benefits, as per the PLFS (Jha & Kumar, 2021). One of the prominent challenges for

extending social security has been the prevalence of informality in the country. Most of the women workers remain outside the purview of social protection coverage due to their employment status. Also, the gendered vulnerabilities associated with their cultural and social contexts are often ignored in policy and planning, particularly specific impact of existing government social security programs on women need to be monitored more rigorously. Since these programs typically do not acknowledge the specific situation of women, women usually do not benefit from them as much as they should (ADB, 2013). Women workers are disproportionately found in the lowest rung of the labour force, and are predominant in the subsistence forms of livelihoods revolving around food security, contributing to the value chain as invisible unpaid or sub-contracted workers (Mehta, 2013). Therefore, Social protection programmes should be viewed as one essential part of a broader development strategy which adopts a comprehensive and holistic approach to poverty reduction aimed at the realization of all economic, social, cultural, civil and political rights (Sepúlveda&Nyst, 2012).

Figure: 2.7 Percentage of workers in usual status (ps+ss) eligible for Social Security Benefits- Rural (Age Group: 15-59 Years)



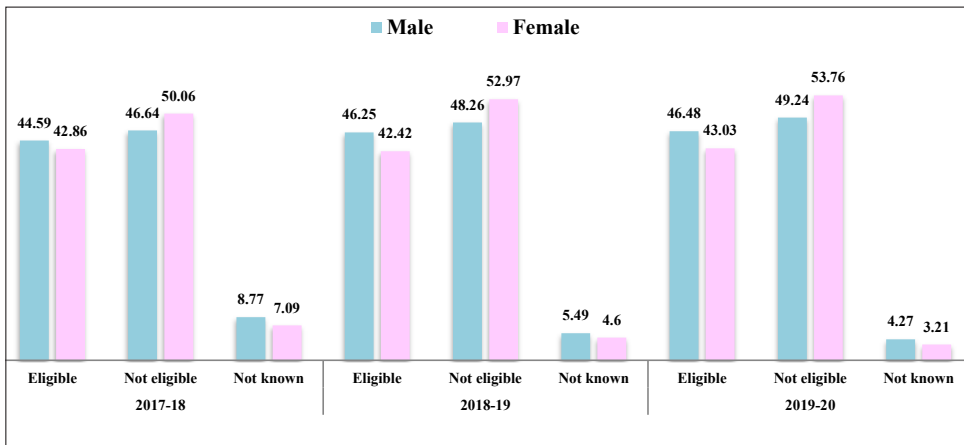
Source: Calculated from the unit level data of various rounds of PLFS

In India a greater percentage of women are not eligible for social security benefits¹⁶. From the unit level data of PLFS, it was revealed that the non-

¹⁶ As per the PLFS 2019-20 Report, for the employees in the usual status, it was ascertained whether they were covered under any of the specified social security benefits or a combination of them which are arranged by the employer or for which contribution is made by the employer. For the purpose of the survey the following schemes were considered as social security benefits: only PF/ pension (i.e., GPF, CPF, PPF, pension, etc.), only gratuity, only health care & maternity benefits, only PF/ pension and gratuity, only PF/ pension and health care & maternity, benefits, only gratuity and health care & maternity benefits, PF/ pension, gratuity and health care & maternity benefits. Those who were not covered under any of the above social security schemes were considered as not eligible for any social security benefits (GoI, 2019).

eligibility of women to access the social security benefits increased from 51.73 percent (2017-18) to 55.18 percent (2019-20) (Appendix, Table 5). With regard to rural women, the non-eligibility for social security benefits has increased over PLFS years by 3.2 percentage points from 54.7 percent in 2017-18 to 58.01 in 2019-20. Though, it was also witnessed that the eligibility for social security schemes also showed a marginal increase from 36 percent in 2017-18 to 38.3 percent in 2019-20. In the wake of new labour reforms in the country with the codification of labour laws¹⁷ it is extremely important to revisit the Code on Social Security 2020 for addressing these concerns and ensuring better coverage of women workers under the Code.

Figure: 2.8 Percentage of workers in usual status (ps+ss) eligible for Social Security Benefits- Urban (Age Group: 15-59 Years)



Source: Calculated from the unit level data of various rounds of PLFS

Similarly, in urban areas the non-eligibility for social security schemes increased from 46.64 percent in 2017-18 to 49.24 percent in 2019-20. Though, the eligibility for social security schemes also increased marginally from 42.86 percent in 2017-18 to 43.03 percent in 2019-20. Surprisingly, women in urban areas as compared to the rural women are not able to surpass the gender difference as shown in the figures above. The gender differentials were also evident with men having greater access to social security in comparison to women. One of the factors that can be attributed is the sectoral segregation of women workers in certain occupations which are not of regular nature.

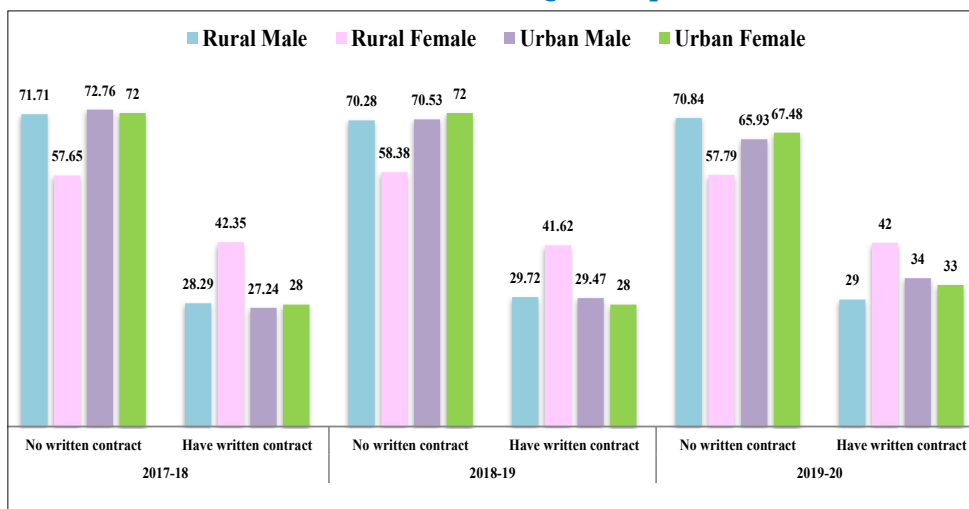
2.5.1 Job Contracts

As per the PLFS Report 2019-20, for each employee in the usual status, it was ascertained whether there was any written contract or agreement with

¹⁷ In pursuance of the recommendations of the 2nd National Commission on Labour 2002, the country (Ministry of Labour and Employment) has undergone labour reforms process with the codification of 29 labour laws into four labour codes during 2019 and 2020.

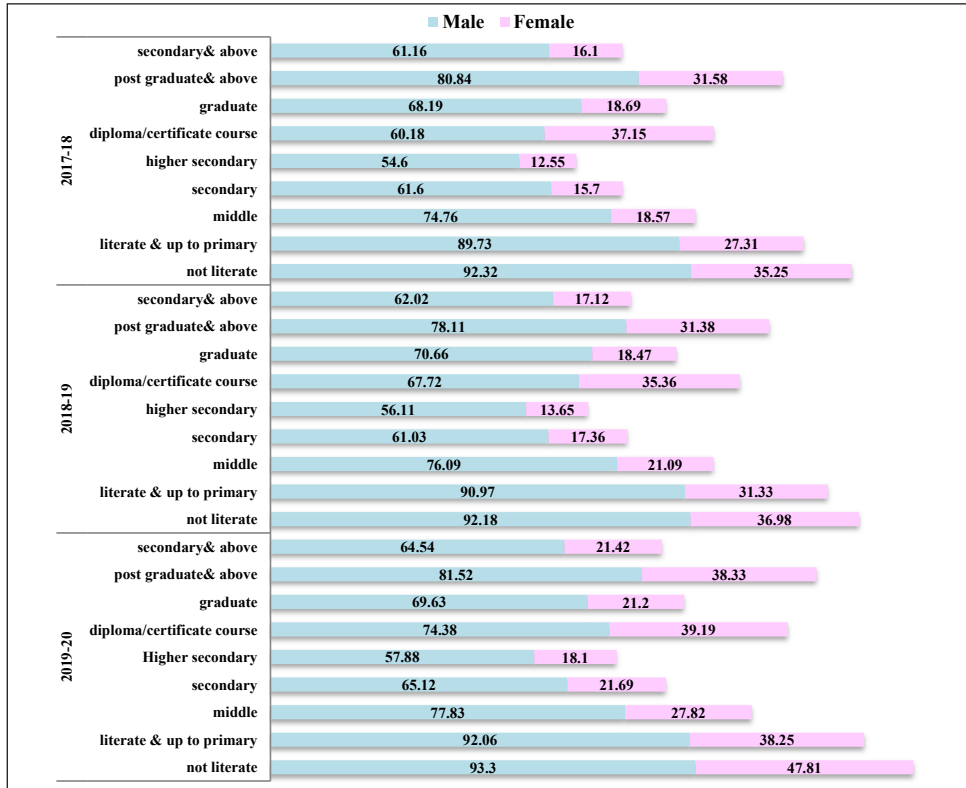
his/her employer in respect of duration of employment for the job he/she was engaged. For those who reported to have written job contract with their employer, further probing was done in respect of the length of duration contracted, viz., for 1 year or less, for more than 1 year to 3 years and more than 3 years. If the contract of employment specified a particular date of termination which was more than 3 years or if the type of job contracted was such that no time was fixed but the contract could only be terminated for certain administrative reasons such as incompetence, misconduct or for economic reasons then the contract was considered to have a duration of 3 years or more. However, if no written contract existed, then irrespective of the duration of employment, it was considered as no written job contract (GoI, 2019). The prevalence of shrinking job contracts has been a significant challenge for women workers for continuing in the labour market for a longer period of time. As per the unit level data of PLFS, 64.26 percent of women in 2019-20 do not have written job-contracts, though a greater percentage of men do not have written job contract in comparison to women i.e., 67.82 percent, it is important to understand the sustainability of such contracts for women (Appendix, Table 6). As evident in Fig 2.9 too, women in urban areas (67.4 percent) did not have written job-contracts during the year 2019-20. The percentage of women having long term contracts (contracts for more than 3 years) is quite low. The PLFS 2018-19 had reported that only 17 percent of women workers in the 15-59 age group had a written job contract for more than 3 years (Samantroy and Pradhan, 2020). However, it was reported that only 36 percent women had a written job contract during 2019-20 in both rural and urban areas (Appendix Table 6).

Figure: 2.9 Percentage of workers in usual status (ps+ss) have written contract/no written contract (Age Group: 15-59 Years)



Source: Calculated from the unit level data of various rounds of PLFS

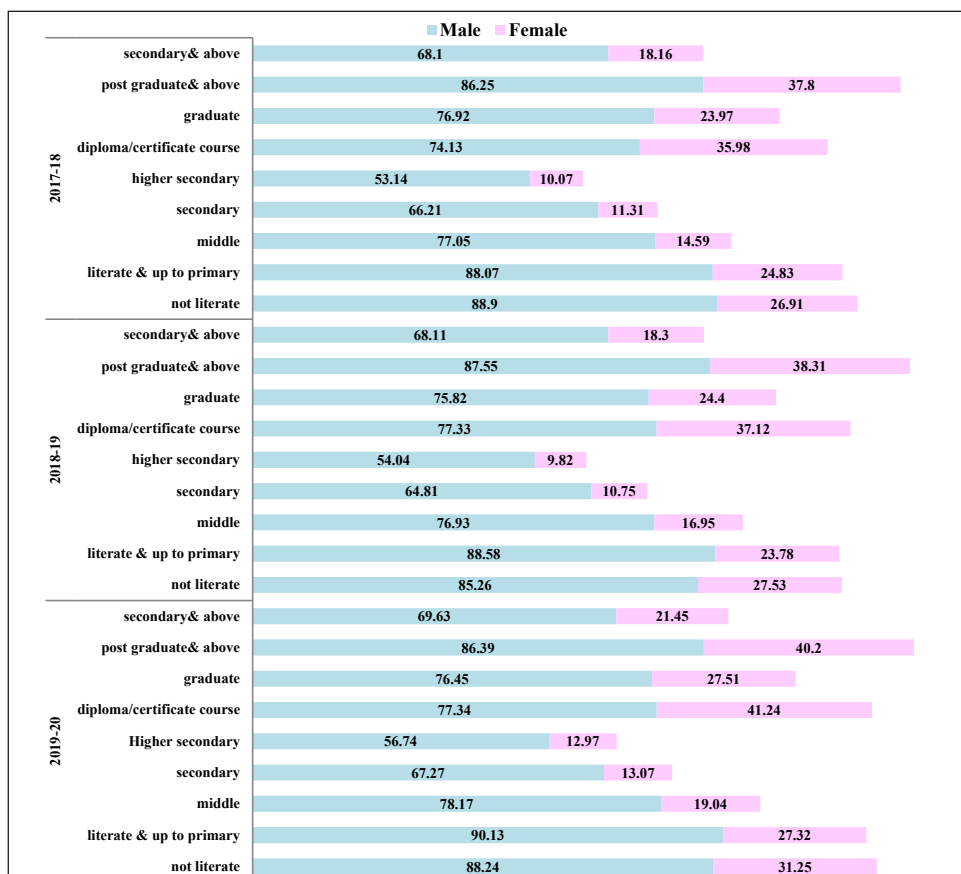
Figure: 2.10 Percentage distribution of workers in usual status (ps+ss) by Level of Education during PLFS (2017-18), PLFS (2018-19) and PLFS (2019-20) (Age Group: 15-59 Years) - Rural



Source: Calculated from the unit level data of various rounds of PLFS

The fig. 2.10 indicates that a greater percentage of women who are in the workforce are not literate (47.8 percent) or are literate and educated up to the primary level (38.2 percent). Also, a greater percent of women (39.1 percent) women who had a diploma/certificate course were in the workforce. The educational profile of the workers is an important criterion to understand the nature and quality of employment of these women workers.

Figure: 2.11 Percentage distribution of workers in usual status (ps+ss) by Level of Education during PLFS (2017-18), PLFS (2018-19) and PLFS (2019-20) (Age Group: 15-59 Years) - Urban



Source: Calculated from the unit level data of various rounds of PLFS

From the table 2.11, the WPR of urban females who are not literate increased from 26.91 percent in 2017-2018 to 31.25 percent in 2019-20. Significant increase was noticed within the women who attained primary, secondary, higher secondary, diploma/certificate courses and post graduate in the year 2019-20 as compared to the previous years.

2.6.2 Vocational Training

As per the PLFS Report 2019-20, a vocational/ technical training can broadly be defined as training through which knowledge and skills for the world of work were acquired. The main objective of vocational/ technical education and training is to make individuals employable for a broad range of occupations in various industries and other economic sectors. There are three methods of acquiring Vocational/ Technical training:



- I. Formal Training:** The training that is acquired through institutions/ organisations and is recognised by national certifying bodies, leading to diplomas/ certificates and qualifications. Formal training is structured according to educational arrangements such as curricula, qualifications, teaching/ learning requirements and assessment. Formal training is intentional from the learner's perspective.
- II. Non- formal Training:** The training that is in addition or alternative to formal learning and is also structured but is more flexible. It is provided through community-based settings, the workplace, or through the activities of civil society organisations or any organisation imparting training. This training mode does not have the level of curriculum, syllabus or accreditation and certification associated with formal learning but it is more structured as compared to informal learning.
- III. Informal Training:** The training that occurs in daily life, in the family, in the workplace, in communities, and through the interests and activities of individuals. It is not structured (in terms of learning objectives, learning time or learning support) and typically does not lead to certification.
- IV. Vocational/technical training other than formal vocational/technical training:**
 - i. Hereditary:** The expertise in a vocation or trade is sometimes acquired by the succeeding generations from the other members of the households, generally the ancestors. The expertise gained through significant 'hands-on' experience enables the individual to take up activities in self-employment capacity or makes them employable. Acquiring such marketable expertise by one, which enables him/her to carry out the trade or occupation of their ancestors over generations, was considered to be training through 'hereditary' sources.
 - ii. Self-learning:** The expertise in a vocation or trade when acquired by a person through his/her own effort, without any training under any person or organisation, was considered as non-formal vocational training through 'self-learning'. For example, a person who learnt photography on his own effort was considered to have acquired the non-formal vocational training through 'self-learning'.
 - iii. Learning on the job:** The expertise acquired by a person while in employment (current and/or past), either through informal training by the employer or organisation or through the exposure to the type of job that he/she is/was performing, was considered as the training through 'learning on the job'. Note that if a person

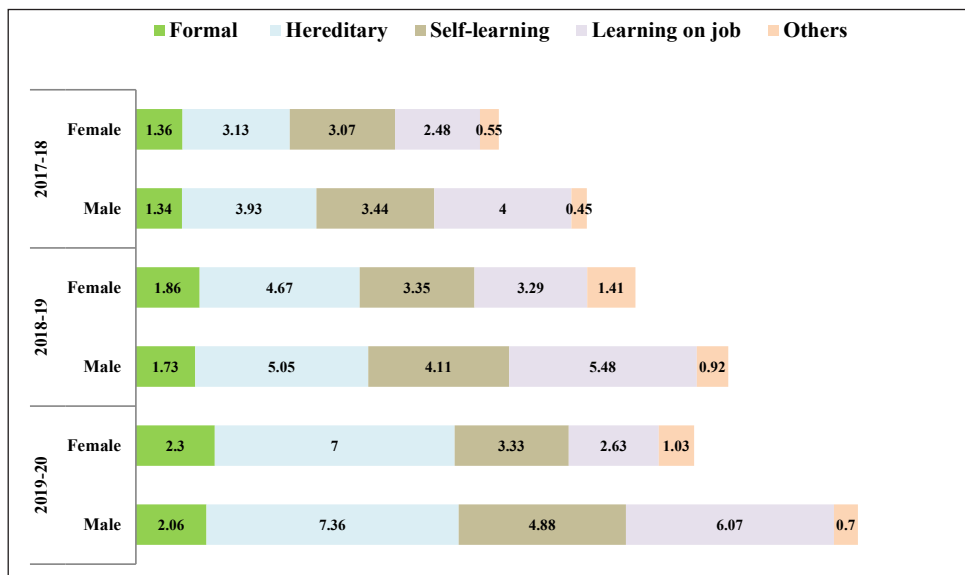
was provided with formal training in a vocation or trade even by the employer or organisation, while in employment, he/she was considered to have received 'formal' vocational/technical training.

- iv. **Other:** The 'other' sources included the cases where the expertise for a vocation or trade was developed even from the household members or ancestors, provided that the said vocation or trade was different from the one relating to their ancestors. Similarly, a person might have learnt tailoring work from a master tailor or a person may learn book-binding work from a printing press. All such expertise acquired was considered as vocational/technical training through 'other' sources.

(Source: GoI, 2019)

Women around the world often perform jobs with minimal skill requirements, and encounter few opportunities for learning and advancement. Governments and development agencies try to improve women's skills through vocational and business training programmes (Chinen, Hoop, Alcázar, Balarin, & Sennett, 2017).

Figure: 2.12 Percentage of workers of age 15-59 who received vocational training during PLFS (2017-18), PLFS (2018-19) and PLFS (2019-20)-RURAL

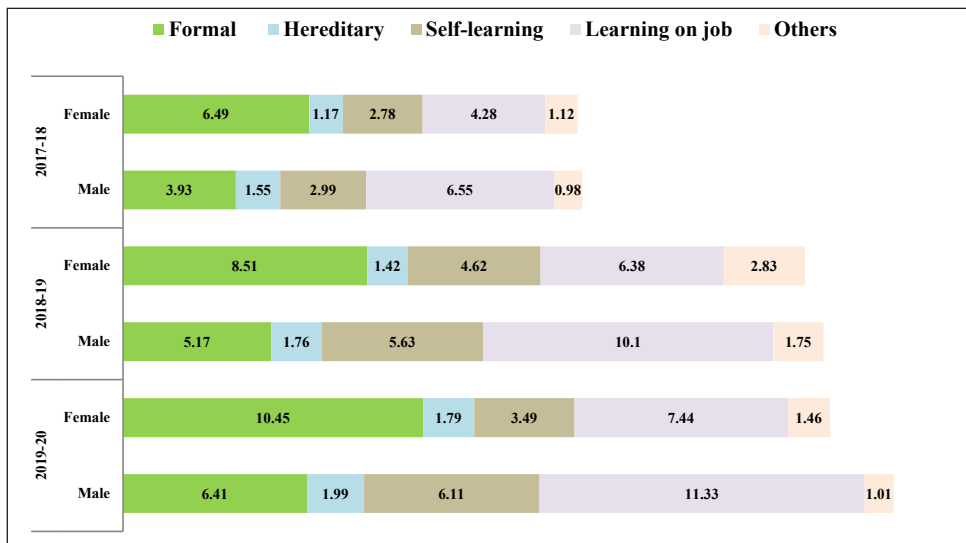


Source: Calculated from the unit level data of various rounds of PLFS

During PLFS 2019-20, the percentage of women in India who acquired vocational training by learning on job was much lesser than men, i.e., 3.77 percent for women and for men it was 7.73 percent. Women who received

vocational training by self-learning were 3.37 percent, whereas there were 5.27 percent men had received vocational training by self-learning (Appendix, Table 8). From fig. 2.13, it is revealed that the percentage of male in rural areas who acquired vocational training has been higher than females. Though, there is a significant increase in formal training of females from 2018-19 where it was 1.86 percent and in 2019-20 it increased to 2.3 percent. Similarly, an increase in Hereditary training was registered from 2017-18 (3.13 percent) to 2019-20 (7 percent) for rural females. However, a marginal decline was registered in learning on job from 2018-19 (3.29 percent) to 2019-20 (2.63 percent) for women in rural areas.

Figure: 2.13 Percentage of workers of age 15-59 who received vocational training during PLFS (2017-18), PLFS (2018-19) and PLFS (2019-20)- URBAN



Source: Calculated from the unit level data of various rounds of PLFS

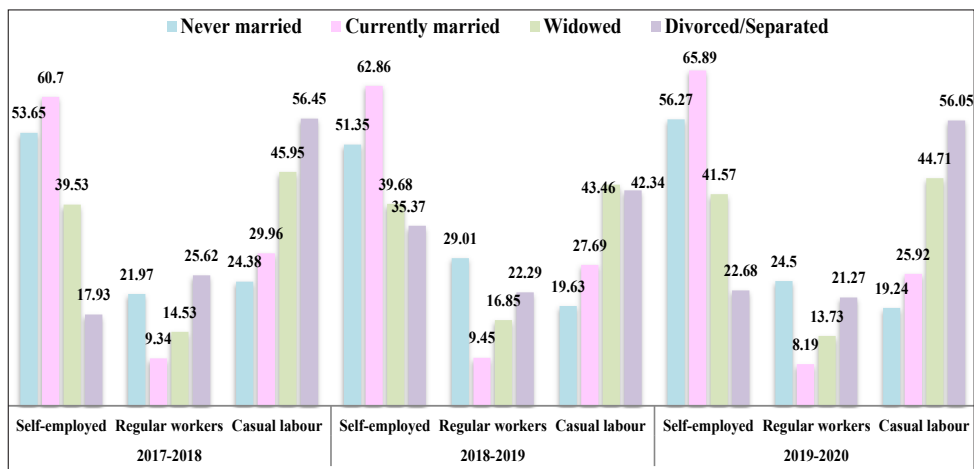
Similar statistics can be drawn from fig.2.14, where women in urban areas were less involved in vocational training than men. However, the percentage of urban women participating in formal training has been quite higher (10.45 percent) than urban men (6.41 percent) in 2019-20. The attainment of formal training for women in urban areas increased from 6.49 percent in 2017-18 to 10.45 percent in 2019-20. Moreover, there has been an increment in the learning on job, i.e., 4.28 percent in 2017-18 to 7.44 percent in 2019-20 for women. Apart from education and skilling, there are other factors (marital status) related to social context of women that play a prominent role in determining labour market preferences.

2.7 Women's work participation and Marital Status

With regard to marital position and employment status of workers, a greater portion of women (60.21 percent) who were *currently married* were engaged as self-employed workers in 2019-20 which had also shown an increasing trend over the PLFS years. On the contrary, a greater proportion of female the regular workers (25 percent) were in the *never married* category. However, a greater share of casual labourers (37 percent) were *widowed, divorced or separated* during 2019-20. There was marginal increase in self-employment rates of women for currently married women from 55.39 percent (2017-18) to 60.21 percent (2019-20) (Appendix, Table 9).

From the fig.2.14, it can be seen that self-employment rates of currently married women increased from 60.7 percent in 2017-18 to 65.89 percent in 2019-2020 in the rural areas, similarly women who are not married and widow have also shown the increased rates in the said category from 2017-18 to 2019-20. However, there was a decline among the casual labour from 24.38 percent in 2017-18 to 19.24 percent in 2019-20 for the unmarried women and 29.96 percent in 2017-18 to 25.92 percent in 2019-20 for currently married in the rural areas. Married women face additional challenges related to their ability to remain in informal private wage employment even if they opted to engage in such employment prior to marriage. Long work hours and long commutes come into direct conflict with unyielding domestic work burdens after marriage¹⁸.

Figure: 2.14 Percentage distribution of Female workers in usual status (ps+ss) by Marital Status (15 - 59 years) - Rural

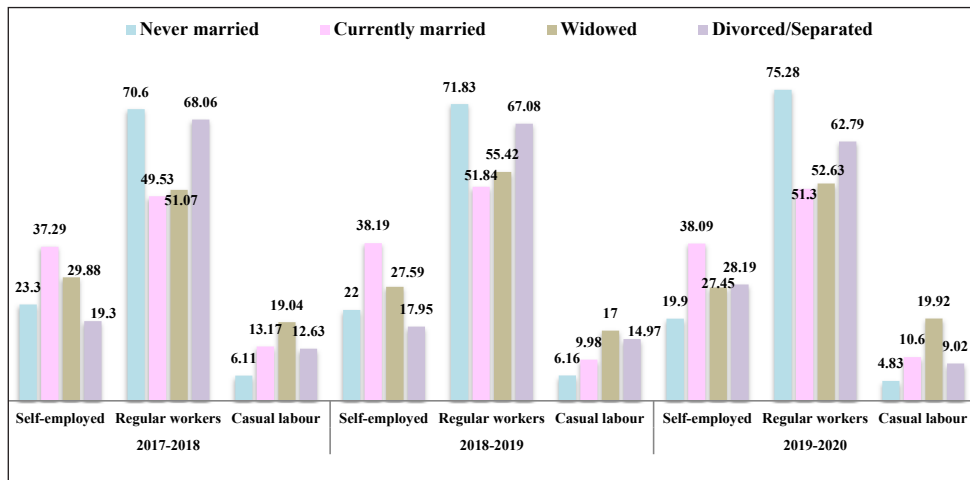


Source: Calculated from the unit level data of various rounds of PLFS

¹⁸ Assad, R. *Why Is Female Labour-Force Participation So Stagnant In Egypt, Jordan, And Tunisia Despite Rapid Increases In Educational Attainment?* Female Employment & Dynamics of Inequality Research Network. Economic & Social Research Council (ESRC), SOAS University of London, & Global Challenges Research Fund. Accessed on: 11 April, 2022 <<https://www.soas.ac.uk/fedi/research-output/file137450.pdf>>

From the Fig.2.15, it can be seen that self-employment rates of never married women declined from 23.3 percent in 2017-18 to 19.9 percent in 2019-20 in the urban areas. However, there was a significant increase among the regular workers from 70.6 percent in 2017-18 to 75.28 percent in 2019-20 for the never married women and 13.17 percent in 2017-18 to 10.6 percent in 2019-20 for *currently married* women in the urban areas.

Figure: 2.15 Percentage distribution of Female workers in usual status (ps+ss) by Marital Status (15 - 59 years) - Urban



Source: Periodic Labour Force Survey of India

Despite economic development, declining fertility rates, and improving education levels for women and girls, India’s Female Labour Force Participation remains low. On the other hand, there has been an increase in women’s unpaid work and increased time poverty, i.e., a significant reduction in leisure time and a loss of choice on allocation of women’s time in various activities, underscoring the non-remunerative and unrecognised character of women’s employment. Women’s engagement in the labour market varies greatly across rural and urban areas, as well as between States.

In India, cultural gender stereotypes and social norms continue to influence women’s work participation. Decline in married women’s employment in India has occurred alongside increased domestic work (Afridi, Dinkelman & Mahajan, 2017)

2.8 Summing up

The chapter has highlighted that the decline in the FLFP is still evident even if the PLFS rounds had experienced a marginal increase. Though, such an increase is attributed to increase in self-employment for women. The increasing concentration of women in self-employment necessitates further investigation on access to better employment conditions and provisions of social security.



Some of the States like Bihar, Assam, Haryana, Uttar Pradesh and Arunachal Pradesh in India have reported lowest WPR. It would be interesting to explore the unpaid work burdens of women in these States which is analysed in the next chapter. An analysis of WPR across social groups revealed that the lowest WPR was reported amongst the 'Others' category, though the women from ST, SC and OBC women had reported greater participation in the labour market. The economic deprivation and poverty coupled with lack of adequate skills amongst the social groups often compels women to take up low paying employment to meet the economic necessities. Further, the gendered sectoral segregation as discussed in the chapter has highlighted on location of women in low paying sectors with limited access to social security. The lack of regular job contracts and non-eligibility for social security portrays the prevalence of vulnerable employment among women workers that need to be addressed through appropriate policy interventions. The chapter also revealed on lack of formal vocational training among women workers which may restrict their entry to paid employment. The other indicator that determines women's entry into paid employment has been marriage as reported in the PLFS, lesser participation of married women in the labour market.



Chapter 3

Unpaid Work and Time Use Patterns in India

3.1 The Context

Unpaid care work is an important part of the economy as well as an essential contributor of well-being of individuals, their families, and societies. It includes all non-remunerated work activities and it is safe to say that it lacks social recognition (Antonopoulos, 2009). Unpaid work is of two types, unpaid SNA work and unpaid Non-SNA work. The former, which includes informal work (work performed by unpaid family workers in household enterprises) and subsistence work, is covered in national income accounts - at least at the conceptual level; while the latter, which includes household work, care of children, old, sick, etc., in the household and voluntary community work, is excluded from the purview of these accounts (Hirway, 2009).

People spend time cooking, cleaning, and caring for children, the sick, and the old on a daily basis. Despite the importance for well-being, unpaid care work is commonly left out of policy frameworks due to a common lack of awareness that, unlike standard market work measures, it is too difficult to assess and less meaningful for policy initiatives. However, ignoring unpaid care labour leads to misleading results about levels and changes in people's well-being and the value of time, limiting policymaking effectiveness in a variety of socio-economic areas, including gender inequities in employment and other areas of empowerment (Ferrant, Pesando & Nowacka, 2014). Some of the recent literature on care work have highlighted on the importance of quality of childcare, elderly care, self care as well as care for pets, neighbours and communities became central to the lives of people during the pandemic. Since care work demands time and time were revealed as 'scarcer than money', it is important to refocus the attention of society to the centrality of care through a national strategy (Lynch, 2021).

Most studies of care valuation rely on time explicitly devoted to a reported activity of care, ignoring the value of supervisory responsibilities for children that represent a constraint on other uses of time. This results in a large underestimation of the actual temporal demands that children impose. These measurement issues have important implications for the valuation of time devoted to childcare (Folbre & Yoon, 2010). In addition, a significant quantity of unpaid work is done in the community, resulting in a variety of valuable commodities and services. People manage sports groups, schools, care for the elderly and disabled, and transport those who are unable to go around on their own. People in rural areas grow food for their own consumption and



help one other with farm labour on a communal basis. This work is also an element of national production that is not accounted for in typical economic statistics (UN, 2005).

The Pilot Indian Time Use Survey has given enough evidence to show that unpaid work of women is important in the Indian economy (Hirway, 2000). This is because women's labour is usually intermittent, and uncertain, making it difficult to distinguish it from unpaid home labour that is non-SNA in nature (Hirway, 2001). The need to understand unpaid work of women is extremely important to uncover the invisible challenges which women experience in order to participate in paid employment. Women generally tend to be engaged in multiple and simultaneous activities that occupy a significant amount of their time and often compel women to choose non-regular employment. Some of the evidence based action research has clearly unravelled the gendered continuum of paid and unpaid work and has reflected on conceptual and methodological gaps thereby emphasising on the need to recognise unpaid work beyond the domestic domain. It represents a continuum of work across various thresholds and reinforces patriarchal interlinks between state, market, community, family and the larger society. Therefore, concepts of production and work need to include both exchange value and use value (Dewan, 2017).

In this context, the present chapter has tried to unravel women's engagement in unpaid activities through an assessment of their time spent in various activities. The following sections discuss the unpaid work and the time-use patterns in India. It highlights the average time spent in a day in different activities by men and women and highlights the gender gaps evident in time distribution patterns. The chapter provided an insight into the time spent in paid and unpaid activities across the states of India. To gain deeper insights into the invisible constraints of women for not being able to contribute to paid employment, the intersections of unpaid work with education, marital status etc are explored. It also draws attention to time spent in leisure activities to provide an assessment of well-being of women.

3.2: Participation rate and Time spent in different activities

Participation rate in a day in any activity is calculated as the percentage of persons performing that activity during the day the 24 hours of the reference period (GoI, 2019).

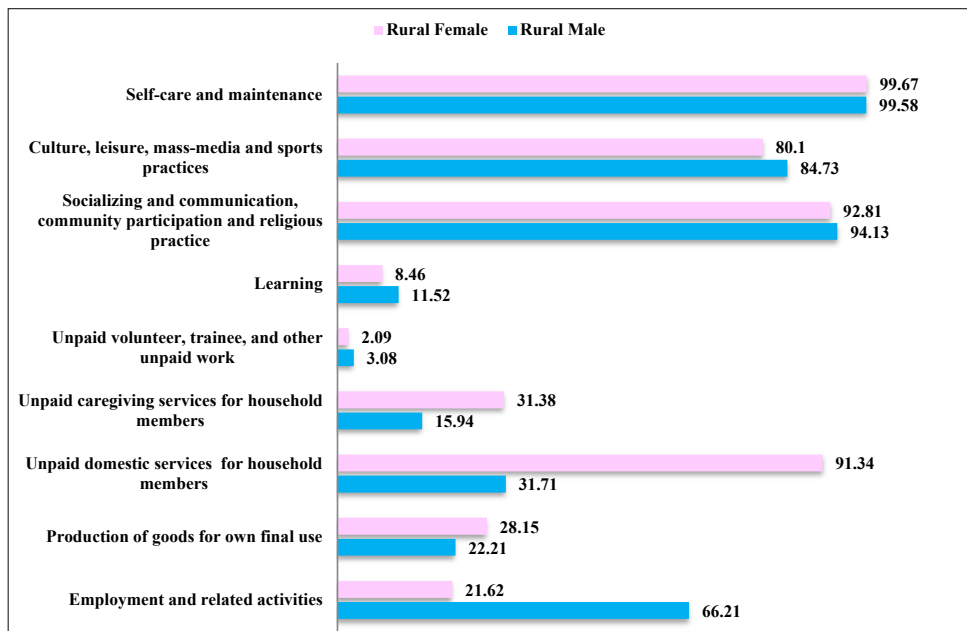
$$\text{Participation rate in activity 'A'} = \frac{\text{Number of Persons in activity 'A'}}{\text{Total number of persons}} \times 100$$

Source: GoI, 2019

Persons have been classified in different broad usual principal activity status following the major time criteria considering the activities pursued by the persons during the last 365 days. The broad usual principal activity statuses

are worker, unemployed, and not in labour force. Worker and unemployed constitutes the labour force (GoI, 2019). From the unit level data of TUS 2019, it was revealed that 92 percent women in India devote their time in the unpaid domestic services for household members, whereas only 28.8 percent men contribute their time in the said activity, a significant difference of 63.2 percent. Moreover, 32.7 percent women spend their time in the unpaid care-giving services for household members, while on the other hand the percentage of men was recorded for only 16.1 percent (Appendix, Table 10). From fig. 3.1, it is evident that 91.34 percent rural women spend their time in unpaid domestic services for household members, where merely 31.71 percent rural men are engaged in such activities. 31.38 percent women in rural areas spend most of their time in unpaid care-giving services to the household members, where merely 15.94 percent men spend time in such activities reflecting on a wide gender disparity. Similarly, only 21.62 percent women in rural areas participate in the employment and related activities while 66.21 percent rural men are engaged in the said activity.

Figure: 3.1 Participation rate of time spent in different activities in two-digit classification (15-59 Years) – Rural



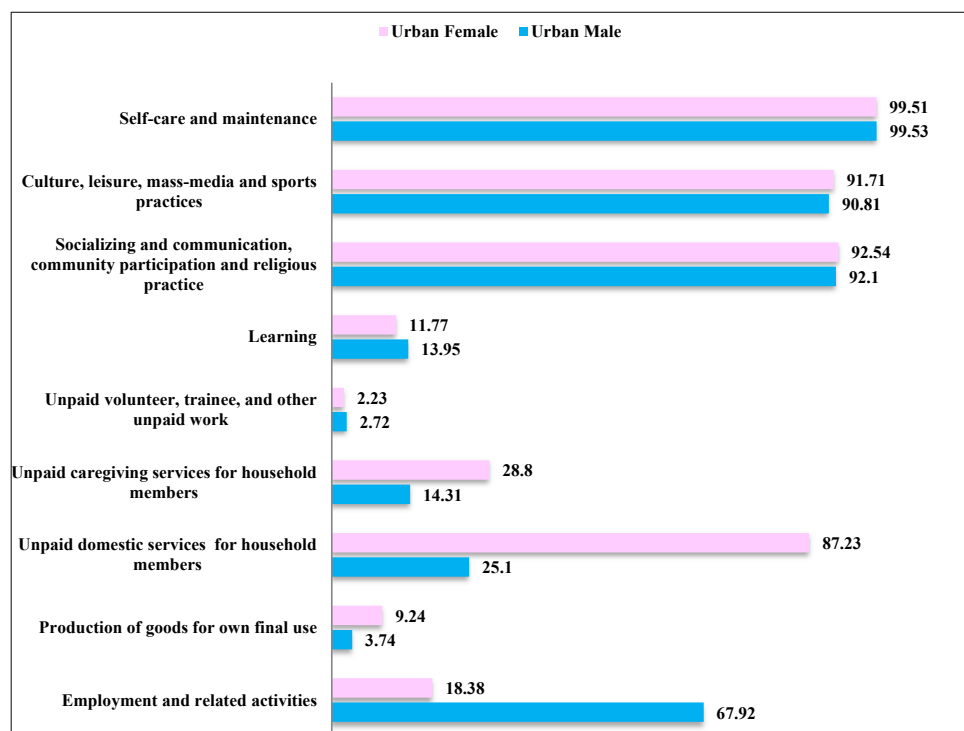
Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

There is scanty literature explaining demand-side factors and structural constraints in the expansion of remunerative employment opportunities outside agriculture in rural areas, which act as an important reason for the withdrawal/low participation of rural women. More so, women’s low levels of education and skill training severely affect their employability as well



as mobility (Mamgain & Khan, 2021). There is a greater probability of more women workers getting involved in unpaid work as the land-ownership size of the household increases. Further, it is seen that the probability that females engaged in unpaid work is greater for those in casual agricultural households with large land cultivated than for those who are in self-employed households (Dutta, 2016).

Figure: 3.2 Participation rate of time spent in different activities in two-digit classification (15-59 Years) - Urban



Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

In the urban context, 87.23 percent women participate in the unpaid domestic services for household members, where only 25.1 men percent devote their time in this activity. The participation in unpaid domestic services for households could be a barrier for the low worker participation ratio for the urban women (Deb, 2021). There is also an absolute difference in the time spent by men and women in care-giving activities for household members, where 28.8 percent of women participate in it and only 14.31 percent of men contribute in the same. A wide gender gap can be seen in the Employment related activities, where merely 18.38 percent women are engaged in comparison to men who have their participation rate of 67.92 percent. This gap is wider in urban areas than in rural areas (Banerjee & Chakrabarti, 2021). Similarly, considerable variations too exist in the time-use patterns of rural and urban women.



Average time spent in a day per participant for any activity is calculated by considering those who participated in the activity. Estimates of average time in a day in different activities is derived by considering only the participants in the activities are referred to as average time spent in a day per participant. By this approach, distribution of total time of 1440 minutes, i.e., 24 hours of a day per person in different activities is derived (GoI, 2019).

$$\text{Average time spent per participant in activity 'A'} = \frac{\text{total time spent by the participants in activity 'A'}}{\text{total number of persons participating in activity}}$$

Average time spent per person in an activity say Activity 'A'

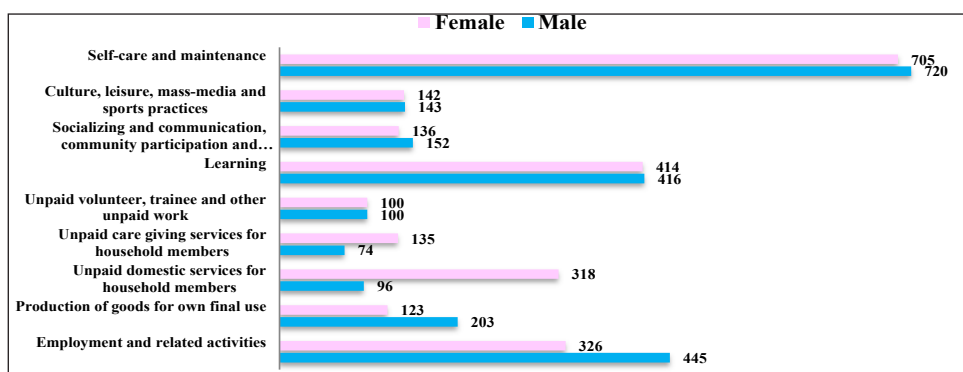
$$\frac{\text{total time spent by the participants in activity 'A'}}{\text{total number of persons}}$$

Source: GoI, 2019

As per the unit level data of the Time Use Survey, it was evident that women in India spend 315 minutes (5.25 hours) in the unpaid domestic services for household members, whereas men spend merely 95 minutes (1.58 hours) in the said activity. The average time spent by women in India in the unpaid care-giving activities for household members was 137 minutes (2.28 hours), while on the other hand the time spent by men was only 73 minutes (1.21 hours) (Table 11).

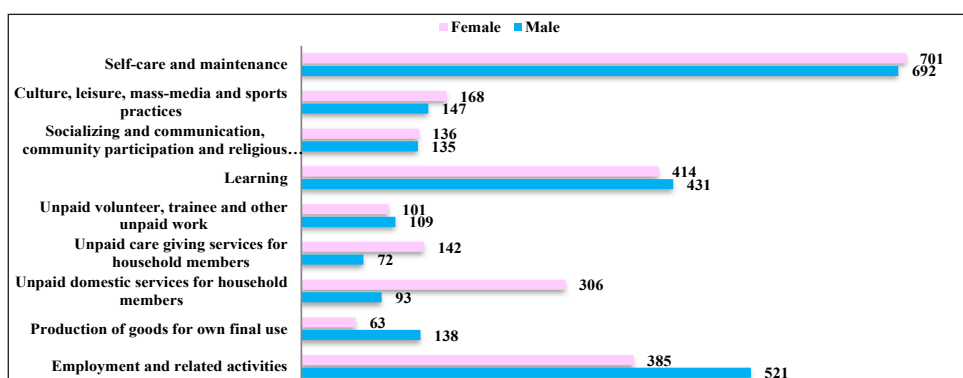
From the figure 3.3, it can be seen that women in rural areas spend 318 minutes (5.3 hours) in the unpaid domestic services for household members, whereas men spend only 96 minutes (1.6 hours) in the mentioned activity. Similarly, women within the unpaid care-giving services for the household members devote their 135 minutes (2.25 hours), whereas men contribute for only 74 minutes (1.23 hours). Moreover, men in rural areas spend more time in self-care and maintenance activities as compared to women, i.e., 720 minutes (12 hours), whereas women spend 705 minutes (11.75 hours) in the said activity. Same can be seen in context of Learning, where men spend 416 minutes (6.93 hours) and women spend 414 minutes (6.9 hours); and when it comes to employment and related activities, men in rural areas spend 445 minutes (7.41 hours) and women spend 326 minutes (5.43 hours) in such activities. The gender differentials in participation in unpaid work are quite evident in rural areas.

Figure: 3.3 Average time (in Minutes) spent in a day per participant in two-digit classification (15-59 years) - Rural



Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

Figure: 3.4 Average time (in Minutes) spent in a day per participant in two-digit classification (15-59 years) - Urban



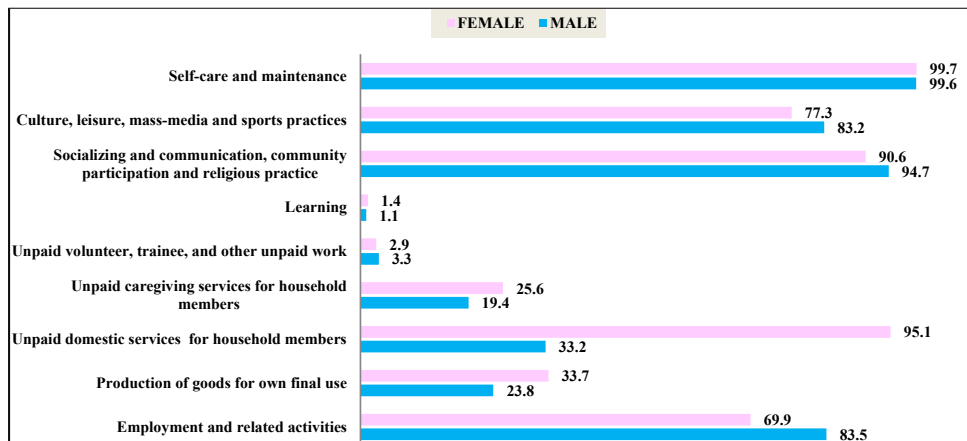
Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

Women in urban areas spend only 385 minutes (5.98 hours) in the employment related activities, whereas men spend 521 minutes (8.61 hours) (see fig. 3.4). When it comes to unpaid care-giving services to the household members, women spend 142 minutes (2.36 hours) and men merely contribute for 72 minutes (1.2 hours). Similarly, urban women spend 306 minutes (5.1 hours) in unpaid domestic services to the household members and men dedicate only 93 minutes (1.55 hours) of their time in this activity. Women bear an unfair burden of unpaid activities in the household, which puts a constraint on their ability to look out for opportunities of paid work (Singh, Ravishanker & Pillai, 2021).

3.2.1: Participation rate and time spent in different activities by Women workers

Women have been engaged in remunerated work since the inception of modern industry, though their contribution has not been widely recognized. The engagement of women in certain low paying occupations has remained a major concern particularly in the context of global commitments towards gender equality. Even when they are not paid workers, their often unacknowledged and unpaid contribution to social reproduction as well as too many economic activities has always been absolutely essential for the functioning of the system (Ghosh, 2013). It is also true that the participation of women in unpaid activities constraints their participation in paid activities. As per the unit level data of TUS, 93.2 percent of *women workers*¹⁹ in India are engaged in the unpaid domestic services for the household members whereas only 30.5 percent men devote their time in the said activity. 24.8 percent of women workers are involved in the unpaid care-giving services for the household members while on the other hand merely 18.7 percent men are said to be involved in such activities (Appendix, Table 12). The figures 3.5 & 3.6 below discuss the unpaid work participation of women workers.

Figure 3.5: Percentage of Workers in the age group 15-59 years participating in different activities in two-digit classification (Rural)



Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

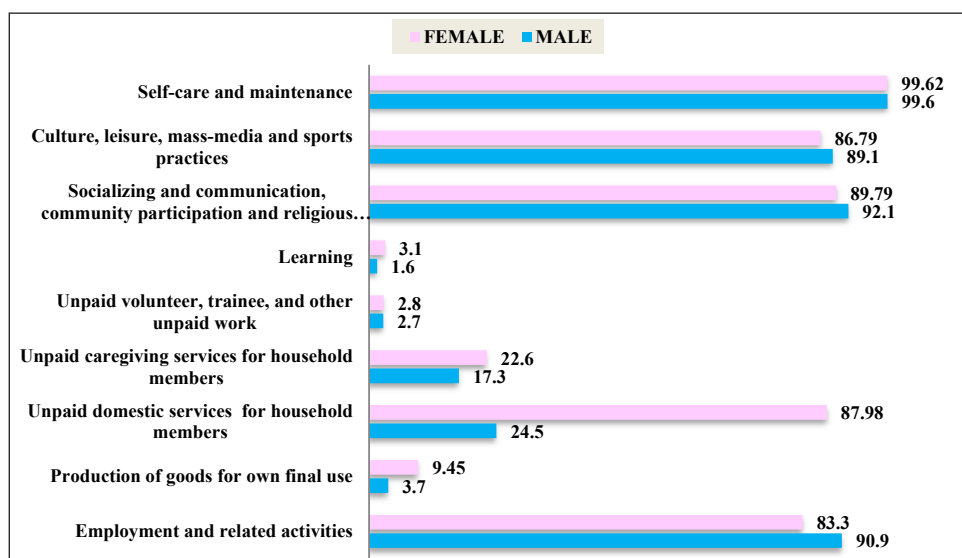
From fig. 3.5, it is visible that 95.1 percent of women workers in rural areas are engaged in the unpaid domestic services for household members, whereas merely 33.2 percent men are estimated to contribute in the same activity

¹⁹ Workers (or employed): Persons who were engaged in any economic activity or who, despite their attachment to economic activity, abstained themselves from work for reason of illness, injury or other physical disability, bad weather, festivals, social or religious functions or other contingencies necessitating temporary absence from work, constituted workers. Unpaid household members who assisted in the operation of an economic activity in the household farm or non-farm activities were also considered as workers (GoI, 2019).



with a considerable difference of 61.9 percent. The responsibility for doing unpaid care work falls disproportionately on women and girls that remains a significant challenge for achieving gender equality. Globally, women on average do more than three times of the unpaid care work done by men rising to more than five times in poor rural areas. This unequal division of labour, combined in some countries with a lack of basic infrastructure (like electricity and water), a lack of time-saving equipment (like washing machines) and a lack of affordable alternative care services (like childcare), creates a significant unpaid care workload for women (Unilever & Oxfam, 2019; ILO 2018; Karimli, Samman, Rost & Kidder, 2016)

Figure 3.6: Percentage of Workers in the age group 15-59 years participating in different activities in two-digit classification (Urban)



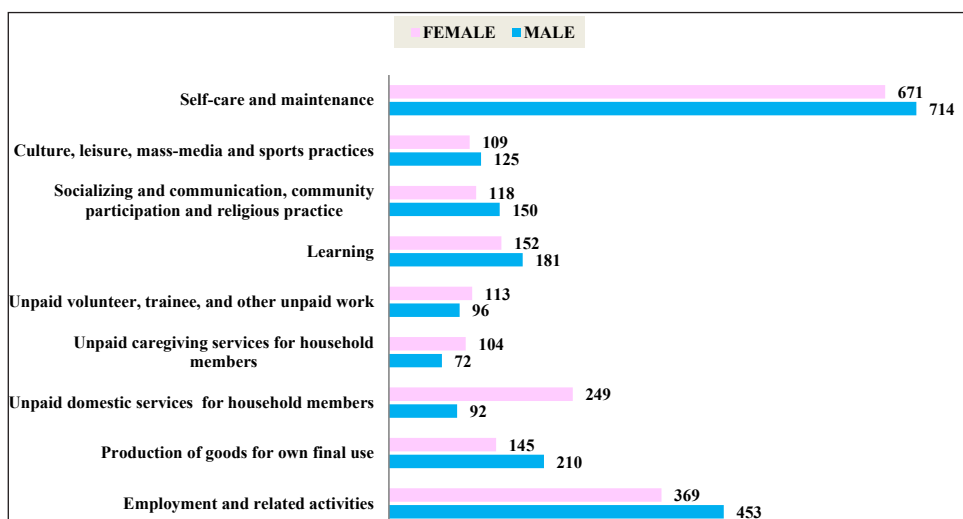
Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

There is a significant difference of 63.48 percent that can be witnessed when it comes to comparing the involvement of working men and women in unpaid domestic services in the urban areas. 87.98 percent of urban women workers were engaged in the unpaid domestic services to the household members, whereas only 24.5 percent urban men were engaged in the same. The gap in urban areas is wider than the rural areas as can be seen from fig. 3.5 & fig. 3.6.

Women are forced to bear the burden of domestic chores, and time spent on unpaid work reflects constraints imposed by cultural norms, lack of public services and infrastructure, or family leave policies etc. (Alonso, Brussevich, Norris, Kinoshita & Kochhar, 2019). In India, women workers spend almost 240 minutes (4 hours) in the unpaid domestic services for the household members and 103 minutes (1.71 hours) in the unpaid care-giving services

for the household members (Appendix, Table 13). Interestingly, it was also revealed that in India, self-employed women workers spend more time in unpaid domestic services for the household members and unpaid care-giving services for household members. Self-employed women spend 265 minutes (4.41 hours) in unpaid domestic services for household members and 110 minutes (1.83 hours) in unpaid care-giving services for household members in India. On the contrary, women workers in regular/wage salaried category spend 201 minutes (3.35 hours) in unpaid domestic services for household members and 99 minutes (1.65 hours) in unpaid care-giving services for household members (Appendix, Table 25).

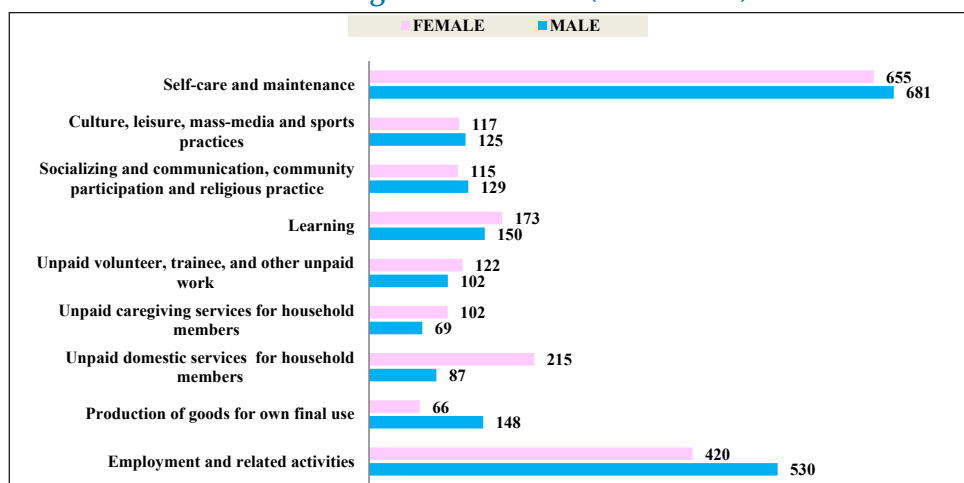
Figure 3.7: Average Time Spent (in Minutes) by Workers in different activities in two-digit classification (15-59 Years) - Rural



Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

As can be seen in fig. 3.7, rural women workers spend 249 minutes (4.15 hours) in the unpaid domestic services to the household members, whereas men spend only 92 minutes (1.53 hours) in the said category. The contribution of rural women workers is even higher in the unpaid care-giving services to the household members, where they spend 104 minutes (1.73 hours) and men merely 72 minutes (1.2 hours). The gender stereotyping of unpaid care work, and the association of care with women’s ‘natural’ inclinations and ‘innate’ abilities often leads to denial of several income generating activities for women (Addati, Cattaneo, Esquivel & Valarino, 2018).

Figure 3.8: Average Time Spent (in Minutes) by Workers in different activities in two-digit classification (15-59 Years) – Urban



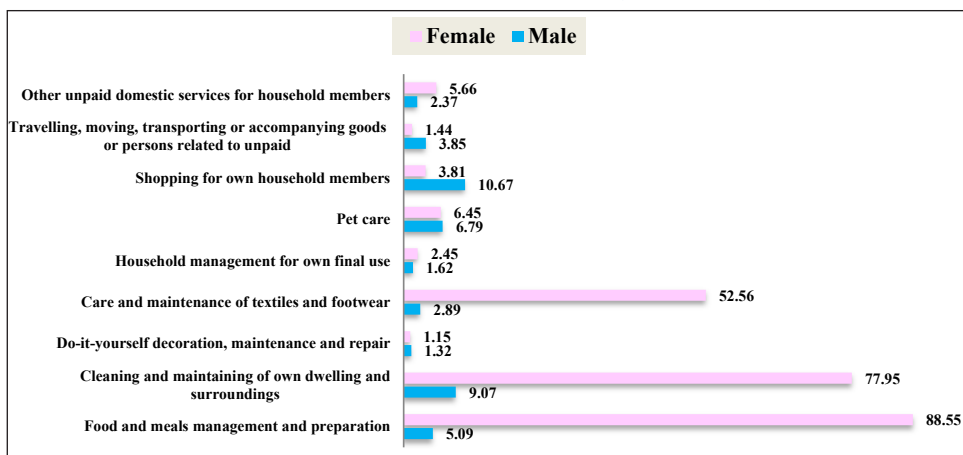
Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

Similar statistics can be drawn from the urban areas (fig. 3.8), where urban working women spend 215 minutes (3.58 hours) in the unpaid domestic services, where the contribution on urban working men remains for only 87 minutes (1.45 hours).

3.2.2: Participation rate and average time spent in Unpaid Domestic Services for household members

The unpaid domestic services for the household members, as disaggregated through the two digit classification followed by the TUS include: Food and meals management and preparation, Cleaning and maintaining of own dwelling and surroundings, Do-it-yourself decoration, maintenance and repair, Care and maintenance of textiles and footwear, Household management for own final use, Pet care, Shopping for own household members, Travelling, moving, transporting or accompanying goods or persons related to unpaid domestic services for household members, and Other unpaid domestic services for household members (GoI, 2019). In India, 87.24 percent women devote their time in Food and meals management and preparation, whereas only 6.04 percent men contribute in the said activity. 75.04 percent women are engaged in cleaning and maintaining of own dwelling and surroundings, while on the other hand only 7.84 percent men contribute in the said activity (Appendix, Table 14).

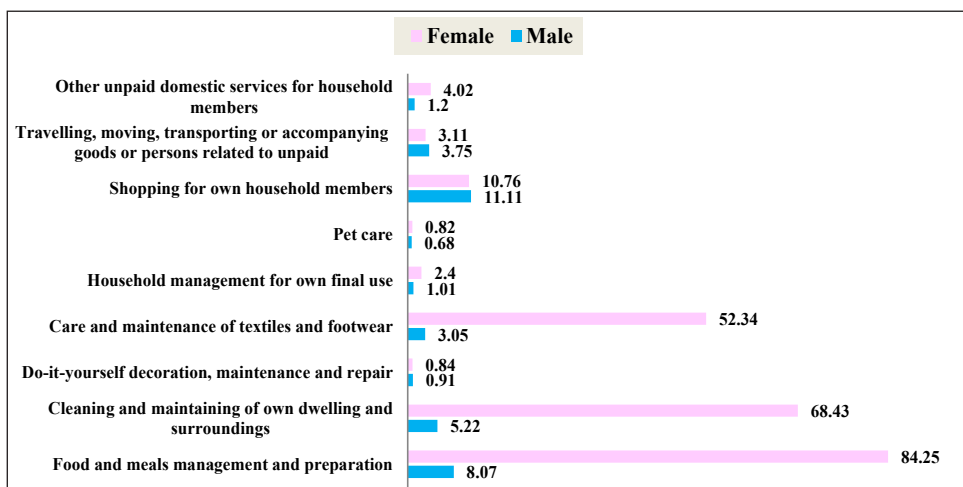
Figure 3.9: Participation Rate in Unpaid Domestic Services in two-digit classification for household members (15-59 Years)-Rural



Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

From fig. 3.9, it is evident that 88.55 percent of rural women spend their time in preparing and managing food and meals for the household members, whereas only 5.09 percent men participate in the same reflecting, a significant gap of 83.46 percent. Similarly, 77.95 percent of rural women spend their time in cleaning and maintaining of own dwellings and surroundings, though only 9.07 percent men do the same with a gender differential of 68.88 percent.

Figure 3.10: Participation Rate in Unpaid Domestic Services in two-digit classification for household members (15-59 Years)-Urban



Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

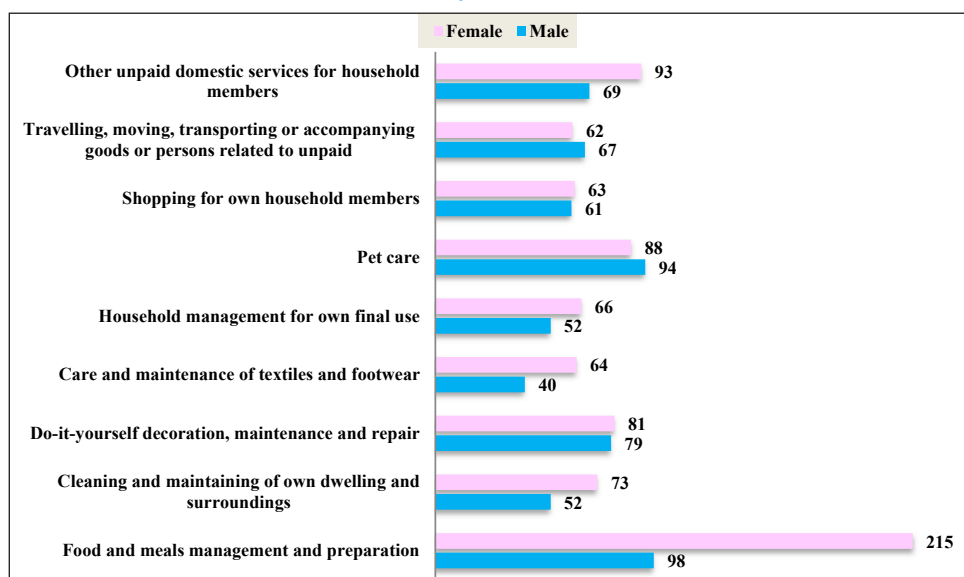
Similar findings can be drawn from fig. 3.10, where 84.25 percent of urban women spend their time in preparing and managing food and meals for the household members, whereas the percentage of men in the same category



tends to be only 8.07 percent, a noteworthy difference of 76.18 percent. In the same way, 68.43 percent of urban women spend their time in cleaning and maintaining of own dwellings and surroundings, where the contribution of men stands for merely 5.22 percent. 52.34 percent of women in urban areas give over their time in care and maintenance of textiles and footwear.

Similarly, the disaggregation of unpaid domestic services as per the two-digit classification of the TUS obtained from the ICATUS 2016 has revealed the participation of women in mostly in preparation of food and meals (cooking), i.e., 212 minutes (3.53 hours) (Appendix, Table 15).

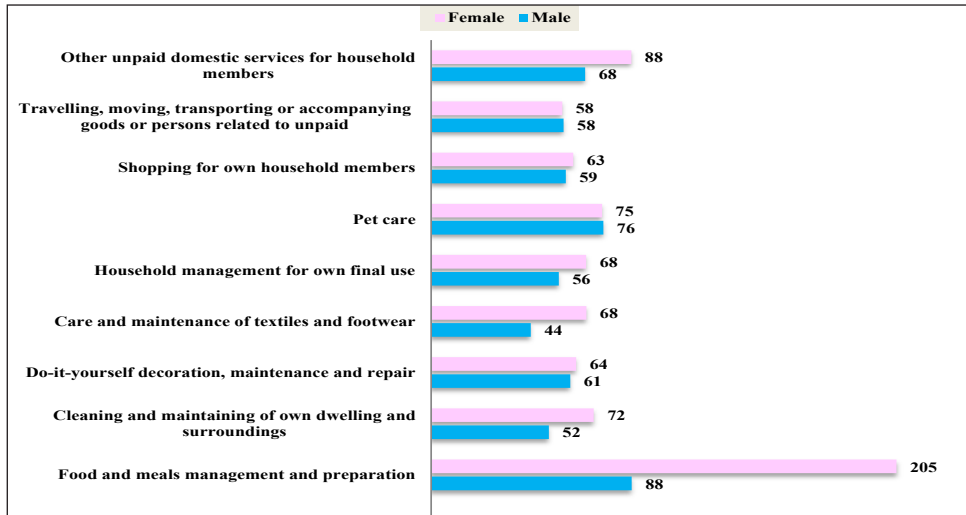
Figure 3.11: Average time spent (in Minutes) in unpaid domestic services in two-digit classification for household members Age (15 - 59 years) -Rural



Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

Women in rural areas spend 215 minutes (3.58 hours) in preparing and managing food and meals for the household members though men spend only 98 minutes (1.6 hours). The other domestic services where women participated in greater percentage was other unpaid domestic service for household members (93 minutes, i.e., 1.5 hours) followed by pet care (88 minutes, i.e., 1.4 hours), Do it yourself decoration, maintenance and repair (81 minutes, i.e., 1.35 hours) and cleaning and maintaining of own dwellings and surroundings (73 minutes, i.e., 1.21 hours), whereas men spent less time in these activities.

Figure 3.12: Average time spent (in Minutes) in unpaid domestic services in two-digit classification for household members Age (15 - 59 years) -Urban



Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

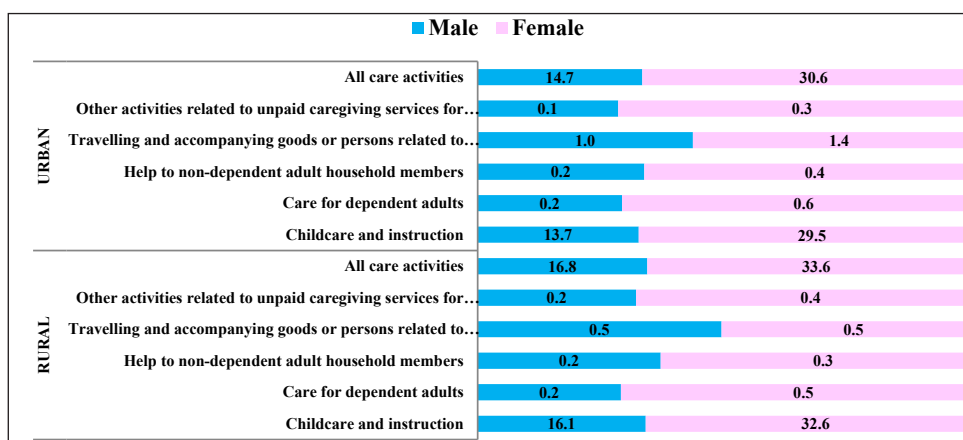
Similarly, urban women spend a considerable amount of their time i.e., 205 minutes (3.41 hours) in preparing and managing food and meals for the household members, whereas men spend only 1.4 hours in the same activity. Further, urban women spend 88 minutes (1.46 hours) in other domestic services for household members, 72 minutes (1.2 hours) in cleaning and maintaining of own dwellings and surroundings etc. On the other hand, it was observed that men spend considerably less amount of time in these activities. The time spent in various paid and unpaid activities has portrays wide regional variations that need to be explored to understand the socio-cultural contexts of women’s work.

3.2.3: Participation rate and average time spent in Unpaid Care-giving services for household members

Care work is overwhelming carried out by women, often as part of a hidden or underground economy and shaped by historical and persistent gendered inequalities (Barry & Jennings, 2021). Care work consists of two overlapping activities: direct, personal and relational care activities, such as feeding a baby or nursing an ill partner; and indirect care activities, such as cooking and cleaning. Unpaid care work is care work provided without a monetary reward by unpaid carers (Addati, Cattaneo, Esquivel & Valarino, 2018). Unpaid care work refers to work that contributes to meeting the basic physical and emotional needs of individuals, families and communities (SDC, 2017).

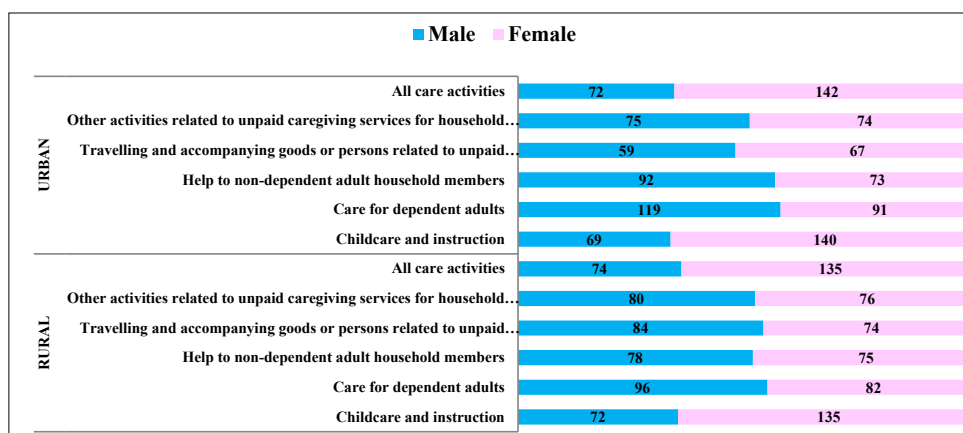


Figure 3.13 Percentage of workers participating in a day in different unpaid care giving services in two-digit classification for household members



Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

Figure: 3.14 Average time (in minutes) spent in a day in unpaid care-giving services in two-digit classification for household members



Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

As per the unit level data of TUS, 32.7 percent women in India spend their time in all care activities and 31.7 percent devote their time in childcare and instruction. The data further revealed that women contribute for 137 minutes (2.28 hours) in all care activities and 136 minutes (2.26 hours) in childcare and instruction (Appendix, Table 16). From the fig. 3.13, it can be seen that 32.6 percent of rural women and 29.5 percent of urban women devote their time to childcare and instruction, which is quite more than their male counterparts are in the said category. Women in urban areas spend 140 minutes (2.3 hours) and rural women devote 135 minutes (2.25 hours) in the childcare and instructions, whereas urban men and rural men spend merely 69 minutes (1.15 hours) and 72 minutes (1.2 hours) in the same category. In India, across



a variety of regional and cultural divisions, domestic work and childcare are widely considered women's work (Olsen & Mehta, 2006). Societal expectation of women's role as caregivers and caretakers of the household often mean that women who seek work encounter opposition from their peers and families, leading to lower participation. These views are also frequently internalized by women and may therefore suppress labour supply even in the absence of such constraints (Fletcher, Pande & Moore, 2017).

3.3 Time spent in SNA, Non-SNA & other activities

Time spent in various activities is discussed in this section through the activity classification framework followed by the UNSNA 1993²⁰. As per UNA SNA, activities can be classified into three categories namely; SNA production, Non SNA and other activities. The System of National Accounts (SNA) is the internationally agreed standard set of recommendations on how to compile measures of economic activity. The SNA describes a coherent, consistent and integrated set of macroeconomic accounts in the context of a set of internationally agreed concepts, definitions, classifications and accounting rules. In addition, the SNA provides an overview of economic processes, recording how production is distributed among consumers, businesses, government and foreign nations. It shows how income originating in production, modified by taxes and transfers, flows to these groups and how they allocate these flows to consumption, saving and investment. Consequently, the national accounts are one of the building blocks of macroeconomic statistics forming a basis for economic analysis and policy formulation (UN SNA, 1993). The SNA production boundary includes (a) the production of all individual or collective goods or services that are supplied to units other than their producers, or intended to be so supplied, including the production of goods or services used up in the process of producing such goods or services; (b) the own-account production of all goods that are retained by their producers for their own final consumption or gross capital formation; (c) the own-account production of housing services by owner-occupiers and of domestic and personal services produced by employing paid domestic staff (UN SNA, 1993).

Non-SNA production activities include (food preparation, child care, adult care, making and care of textiles, upkeep of dwelling and surroundings, repairs and maintenance of dwelling and of household equipment, household management and shopping, gardening and pet care) and unpaid work for the community (Clermont & Aligisakis, 1999).

²⁰ The System of National Accounts 1993 was adopted by the United Nations Statistical Commission during its 27th session in 1993 as the international standard for compilation of national accounts statistics and for the international reporting of comparable national accounting data. It is published jointly by the United Nations, the Commission of the European Communities, the International Monetary Fund, the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, and the World Bank. The System of National Accounts consists of an integrated set of macroeconomic accounts, balance sheets and tables based on internationally agreed concepts, definitions, and classifications and accounting rules. Together, these principles provide a comprehensive accounting framework within which economic data can be compiled and presented in a format that is designed for purposes of economic analysis, decision-taking and policy-making (System of National Accounts 1993, 1993 SNA). <<https://unstats.un.org/unsd/nationalaccount/sna1993.asp>>

Other activities include, Seeking employment, setting up a business Commuting, Learning, Socializing and communication, community participation and religious practice, Culture, leisure, mass-media and sports practices & Self-care and maintenance (GoI, 2019).

In this study the percentage of persons participating in SNA production activities and non- SNA production activities in a day are presented and average amount of time (in minutes) in a day spent by those who participated in such activities have been covered. As per the TUS 2019 Report, it may be noted that SNA production activities include both paid activities and unpaid activities while all the non-SNA production activities are covered under unpaid activities. To derive the distribution of total time in SNA production, non-SNA production and residual other activities by the population, the estimates of average time is obtained by considering all the persons irrespective of whether they performed the activities or not (GoI, 2019). From the information collected in the TUS 2019 of India, the following activities have been classified as SNA production, non-SNA production and residual or other activities:

Table 3.1 Classification of SNA production, Non-SNA production and residual or other activities as per TUS 2019 of India

SNA Production	Non-SNA Production	Residual Other Activities
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employment in corporations, government and non-profit institutions • Production of goods for own final use • Employment in household enterprises to produce goods • Employment in household enterprises to provide services • Ancillary activities and breaks related to employment • Training and studies in relation to employment • Employment-related travel • Unpaid trainee work and related activities • Unpaid direct volunteering for other households for production of goods or for production of goods/services for market/non-market units • Unpaid community- and organization-based volunteering for production of goods or for production of goods/services for market/non-market units • Other unpaid work activities (other than those which are already covered in SNA or covered in non- SNA production) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unpaid domestic services for household members • Unpaid care-giving services for household members • Unpaid direct volunteering for other households for production of services for the households • Unpaid community- and organization-based volunteering for production of services for the households 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Seeking employment • Setting up a business • Commuting • Learning • Socializing and communication, community participation and religious practice • Culture, leisure, mass-media and sports practices • Self-care and maintenance

Source: Time Use Survey, 2019



Table 3.2 Classification of SNA production, Non-SNA production and residual or other activities as per ICATUS 2016

Major division	Division	Group	Activity title
SNA PRODUCTION ACTIVITIES			
1			Employment and related activities
	11	110	Employment in corporations, government and non-profit institutions
	12		Employment in household enterprises to produce goods
		121	Growing of crops for the market in household enterprises
		122	Raising animals for the market in household enterprises
		123	Forestry and logging for the market in household enterprises
		124	Fishing for the market in household enterprises
		125	Aquaculture for the market in household enterprises
		126	Mining and quarrying for the market in household enterprises
		127	Making and processing goods for the market in household enterprises
		128	Construction activities for the market in household enterprises
		129	Other activities related to employment in household enterprises to produce goods
	13		Employment in household enterprises to provide services
		131	Vending and trading of goods in household enterprises
		132	Providing paid repair, installation, maintenance and disposal in household enterprises
		133	Providing paid business and professional services in household enterprises
		134	Transporting goods and passengers for pay or profit in household enterprises
		135	Providing paid personal care services in household enterprises
		136	Providing paid domestic services
		139	Other activities related to employment in household enterprises providing services
	14		Ancillary activities and breaks related to employment
		141	Activities ancillary to employment
		142	Breaks during working time within employment
	15		Training and studies in relation to employment
		150	Training and studies in relation to employment
	18		Travelling and commuting for employment
		181	Employment-related travel
2			Production of goods for own final use
	21		Agriculture, forestry, fishing and mining for own final use
		211	Growing crops and kitchen gardening, for own final use
		212	Farming of animals and production of animal products for own final use
		213	Hunting, trapping and production of animal skins for own final use



Major division	Division	Group	Activity title
		214	Forestry and logging for own final use
		215	Gathering wild products for own final use
		216	Fishing for own final use
		217	Aquaculture for own final use
		218	Mining and quarrying for own final use
	22		Making and processing goods for own final use
		221	Making, processing food products, beverages and tobacco for own final use
		222	Making, processing textiles, wearing apparel, leather and related products for own final use
		223	Making, processing of wood and bark products for own final use
		224	Making, processing bricks, concrete slabs, hollow blocks, tiles for own final use
		225	Making, processing herbal and medicinal preparations for own final use
		226	Making, processing metals and metal products for own final use
		227	Making, processing of products using other materials for own final use
		229	Acquiring supplies and disposing of products and other activities related to making and processing goods for own final use
	23		Construction activities for own final use
		230	Construction activities for own final use
	24		Supplying water and fuel for own final use
		241	Gathering firewood and other natural products used as fuel for own final use
		242	Fetching water from natural and other sources for own final use
	25		Travelling, moving, transporting or accompanying goods or persons related to own-use production of goods
		250	Travelling, moving, transporting or accompanying goods or persons related to own-use production of goods
5			Unpaid volunteer, trainee and other unpaid work
	51		Unpaid direct volunteering for other households
		511	Unpaid volunteer household maintenance, management, construction, renovation and repair
		512	Unpaid volunteer shopping/purchasing goods and services
		515	Unpaid volunteer activities in enterprises owned by other households
	52		Unpaid community- and organization-based volunteering
		521	Unpaid volunteer work on road/building repair, clearing and preparing land, cleaning (streets, markets, etc.), and construction
		524	Unpaid volunteer office/administrative work
	53		Unpaid trainee work and related activities
		530	Unpaid trainee work and related activities
	59		Other unpaid work activities
		590	Other unpaid work activities



Major division	Division	Group	Activity title
NON-SNA PRODUCTION ACTIVITIES			
3			Unpaid domestic services for household members
	31		Food and meals management and preparation
		311	Preparing meals/snacks
		312	Serving meals/snacks
		313	Cleaning up after food preparation/meals/snacks
		314	Storing, arranging, preserving food stocks
		319	Other activities related to food and meals management and preparation
	32		Cleaning and maintaining of own dwelling and surroundings
		321	Indoor cleaning
		322	Outdoor cleaning
		323	Recycling and disposal of garbage
		324	Upkeep of indoor/outdoor plants, hedges, garden, grounds, landscape, etc.
		325	Tending furnace, boiler, fireplace for heating and water supply
		329	Other activities related to cleaning and upkeep of dwelling and surroundings
	33		Do-it-yourself decoration, maintenance and repair
		331	Do-it-yourself improvement, maintenance and repair of own dwelling
		332	Installation, servicing and repair of personal and household goods including ICT equipment
		333	Vehicle maintenance and repairs
		339	Other activities related to do-it-yourself decoration, maintenance and repair
	34		Care and maintenance of textiles and footwear
		341	Hand/machine-washing
		342	Drying textiles and clothing
		343	Ironing/pressing/folding
		344	Mending/repairing and care of clothes and shoes; cleaning and polishing shoes
		349	Other activities related to care of textiles and footwear
	35		Household management for own final use
		351	Paying household bills
		352	Budgeting, planning, organizing duties and activities in the household
		359	Other activities related to household management
	36		Pet care
		361	Daily pet care
		362	Using veterinary care or other pet care services
		369	Other activities related to pet care
	37		Shopping for own household members
		371	Shopping for/purchasing of goods and related activities



Major division	Division	Group	Activity title
		372	Shopping for/availing of services and related activity
	38		Travelling, moving, transporting or accompanying goods or persons related to unpaid domestic services for household members
		380	Travelling, moving, transporting or accompanying goods or persons related to unpaid domestic services for household members
	39		Other unpaid domestic services for household members
		390	Other unpaid domestic services for household members
4			Unpaid care-giving services for household members
	41		Childcare and instruction
		411	Caring for children including feeding, cleaning, physical care
		412	Providing medical care to children
		413	Instructing, teaching, training, helping children
		414	Talking with and reading to children
		415	Playing and sports with children
		416	Minding children (passive care)
		417	Meetings and arrangements with schools and child care service providers
		419	Other activities related to childcare and instruction
	42		Care for dependent adults
		421	Assisting dependent adults with tasks of daily living
		422	Assisting dependent adults with medical care
		423	Assisting dependent adults with forms, administration, accounts
		424	Affective/emotional support for dependent adults
		425	Passive care of dependent adult
		426	Meetings and arrangements with adult care service providers
		429	Other activities related to care for dependent adults
	43		Help to non-dependent adult household members
		431	Feeding, cleaning, physical care for non-dependent adult household members including for temporary illness
		432	Affective/emotional support for non-dependent adult household members
		439	Other activities related to care for non-dependent adult household members
	44		Travelling and accompanying goods or persons related to unpaid care-giving services for household members
		441	Travelling related to care-giving services for household members
		442	Accompanying own children
		443	Accompanying dependent adults
		444	Accompanying non-dependent adult household members
	49		Other activities related to unpaid care-giving services for household members
		490	Other activities related to unpaid care-giving services for household members



Major division	Division	Group	Activity title
5			Unpaid volunteer, trainee and other unpaid work
		513	Unpaid volunteer childcare and instruction
		514	Unpaid volunteer care for adults
		522	Unpaid volunteer preparing/serving meals, cleaning up
		523	Unpaid volunteer cultural activities, recreation and sports activities
		529	Other activities related to community- and organization based unpaid volunteering
RESIDUAL OTHER ACTIVITIES			
1			Employment and related activities
	16		Seeking employment
		160	Seeking employment
	17		Setting up a business
		170	Setting up a business
6	18		Travelling and commuting for employment
		182	Commuting
			Learning
6	61		Formal education
		611	School/university attendance
		612	Extra-curricular activities
		613	Breaks at place of formal education
		614	Self-study for distance education course work (video, audio, online)
		619	Other activities related to formal education
	62		Homework, being tutored, course review, research and activities related to formal education
		620	Homework, being tutored, course review, research and activities related to formal education
	63		Additional study, non-formal education and courses
		630	Additional study, non-formal education and courses
	64		Travelling time related to learning
		640	Travelling time related to learning
	69		Other activities related to learning
	690	Other activities related to learning	
7			Socializing and communication, community participation and religious practice
	71		Socializing and communication
		711	Talking, conversing, chatting
		712	Socializing/getting together/gathering activities
		713	Reading and writing mail (including email)
		719	Other activities related to socializing and communication
	72		Participating in community cultural/social events
		721	Participating in community celebrations of cultural/historic events



Major division	Division	Group	Activity title
		722	Participating in community rites/events (non-religious) of weddings, funerals, births and similar rites-of passage
		723	Participating in community social functions (music, dance, etc.)
		729	Other activities related to community participation
	73		Involvement in civic and related responsibilities
		730	Involvement in civic and related responsibilities
	74		Religious practices
		741	Private prayer, meditation and other spiritual activities
		742	Participating in collective religious practice
		749	Other activities related to religious practice
	75		Travelling time related to socializing and communication, community participation and religious practice
		750	Travelling time related to socializing and communication, community participation and religious practice
	79		Other activities related to socializing and communication, community participation and religious practice
		790	Other activities related to socializing and communication, community participation and religious practice
8			Culture, leisure, mass-media and sports practices
	81		Attending/visiting cultural, entertainment and sports events/venues
		811	Attendance at organized/mass cultural events and shows
		812	Attendance at parks/gardens
		813	Attendance at sports events
		819	Other activities related to attendance at cultural, entertainment and sports events
	82		Cultural participation, hobbies, games and other pastime activities
		821	Visual, literary and performing arts (as hobby)
		822	Hobbies
		823	Playing games and other pastime activities
		829	Other activities related to cultural participation, hobbies, games
	83		Sports participation and exercise and related activities
		831	Participating in sports
		832	Exercising
	84		Mass media use
		841	Reading for leisure
		842	Watching/listening to television and video
		843	Listening to radio and audio devices
		849	Other activities related to mass media use
	85		Activities associated with reflecting, resting, relaxing
		850	Activities associated with reflecting, resting, relaxing
	86		Travelling time related to culture, leisure, mass-media and sports practices



Major division	Division	Group	Activity title
		860	Travelling time related to culture, leisure, mass-media and sports practices
	89		Other activities related to culture, leisure, mass-media and sports practices
		890	Other activities related to culture, leisure, mass-media and sports practices
9			Self-care and maintenance
	91		Sleep and related activities
		911	Night sleep/essential sleep
		912	Incidental sleep/naps
		913	Sleeplessness
		919	Other sleep and related activities
	92		Eating and drinking
		921	Eating meals/snack
		922	Drinking other than with meal or snack
	93		Personal hygiene and care
		931	Personal hygiene and care
		932	Health/medical care to oneself
		939	Other activities related to personal hygiene and care
	94		Receiving personal and health/medical care from others
		941	Receiving personal care from others
		942	Receiving health/medical care from others
		949	Other activities related to receiving personal and health/medical care
	95		Travelling time related to self-care and maintenance activities
		950	Travelling time related to self-care and maintenance activities
	99		Other self-care and maintenance activities
		990	Other self-care and maintenance activities

Source: Classification based on ICATUS 2016, used in the study by following definition provided in ICATUS

As per the unit level data of TUS 2019, the participation rate of women in SNA activities is comparatively lower than men in India, whereas the engagement of women in Non-SNA activities is much higher than men. There is a female deficit of hours dedicated to economic market activities and a male deficit of hours dedicated to unpaid work. Three quarters of men's working time are devoted to activities recorded in the GDP while nearly half of the productive contribution of women is excluded from GDP because they consist with domestic activities (Barbara, 2011).

Table 3.3 Participation rate and Average Time Spent (in minutes) in SNA production, non-SNA production and residual other activities (15-59 Years)

	Participation Rate		Average Time Spent (in minutes)	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Rural				
SNA	78.4	45.0	417	230
Non-SNA	41.6	94.1	103	364
Residual Other Activities	99.5	99.7	1068	992
Urban				
SNA	73.0	27.5	486	280
Non-SNA	34.7	90.3	96	350
Residual Other Activities	99.5	99.6	1049	1045
Rural + Urban				
SNA	76.7	39.6	438	241
Non-SNA	39.4	92.9	101	360
Residual Other Activities	99.5	99.6	1062	1008

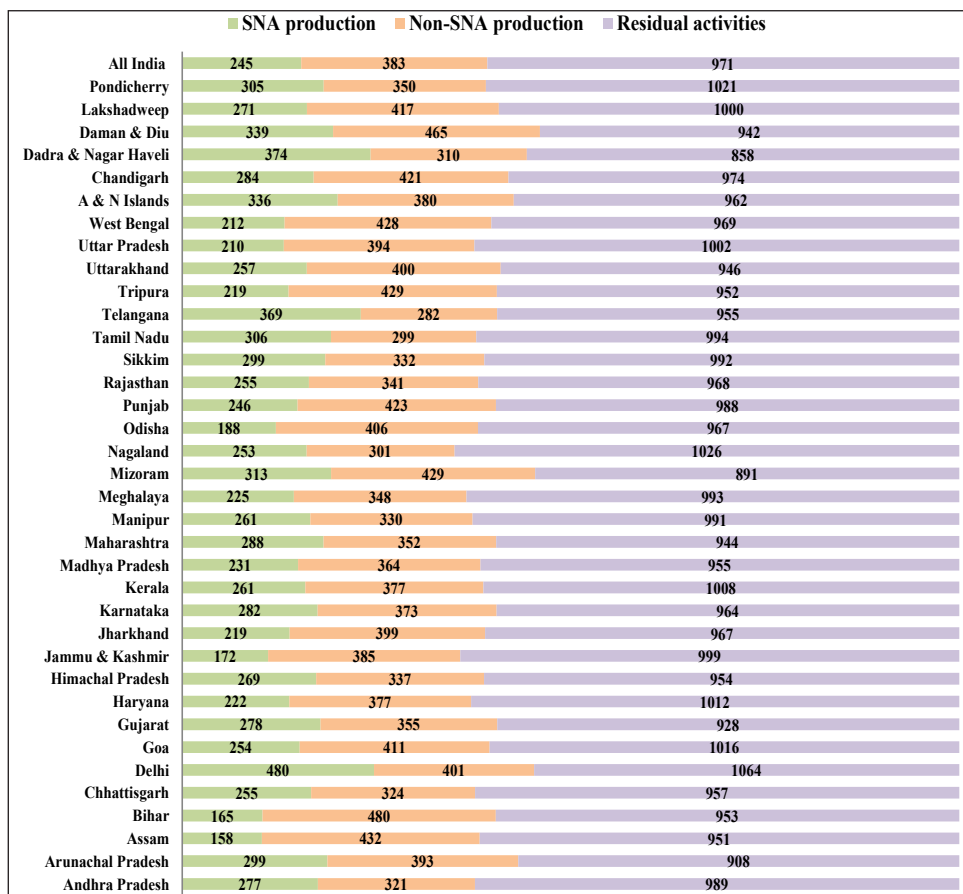
Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

In rural areas, only 45 percent women are engaged in the SNA activities, whereas 78.4 percent men participate in the same. Similar gender disparities can be observed in Non-SNA activities, where 94.1 percent women are involved in such activities while only 41.6 percent men devote their time in the same. In the urban context, 90.3 percent women are engaged in Non-SNA activities and only 34.7 percent men are engaged in the same thereby reflecting on a gender gap of 55.6 percentage points.

3.3.1 Average time spent in SNA, Non-SNA & other activities - State-wise analysis

The State wise analysis of TUS revealed that States like Bihar, Assam, Tripura, Mizoram and West Bengal have reported that women spend more time in unpaid or Non SNA work (Appendix, Table 17). As evident in Fig 3.15, in rural areas, the States that reported to have higher Non SNA activities for women are Bihar (480 minutes i.e., 8 hours), Daman & Diu (465 minutes i.e., 7.7 hours), Assam (432 minutes i.e., 7.2 hours), Tripura & Mizoram (429 minutes i.e., 7.15 hours) and West Bengal (428 minutes i.e., 7.13 hours). Interestingly, the PLFS 2019-2020 had reported that, rural women in the states of Bihar (9.8 percent) and Assam (14.7 percent) reportedly have the lowest WPR (fig. 2.2).

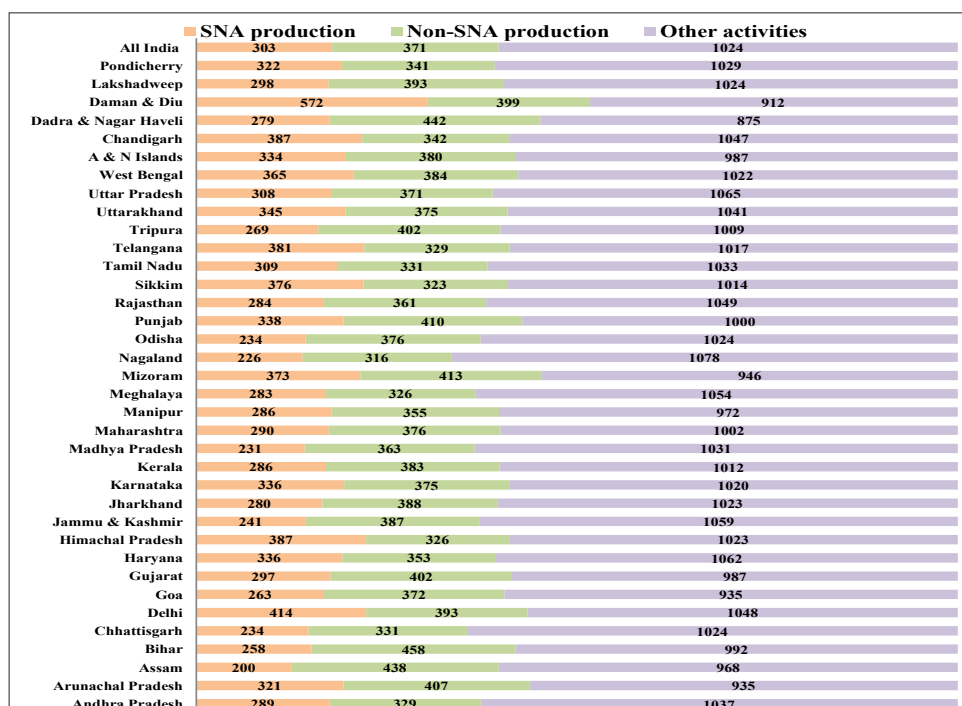
Figure: 3.15 Average Time (in minutes) spent by Females in SNA production, Non SNA production & residual activities (15-59 years) -Rural



Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

The intrinsic link between paid and unpaid work is evident in excessive participation of women in Non-SNA activities that discourages women to choose paid employment. Also, for States like Bihar other factors like lack of adequate educational avenues, skilling opportunities and rigid social norms play a prominent role in women’s choices for paid employment. The States that had reported greater participation in Non SNA activities had also reported less participation in SNA activities namely: Bihar (165 minutes i.e., 2.75 hours), Assam (158 minutes i.e., 2.63 hours) and Jammu and Kashmir (172 minutes i.e., 2.86 hours).

Figure: 3.16 Average Time (in minutes) spent by Females in SNA production, Non SNA production & residual activities (15-59 years) - Urban



Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

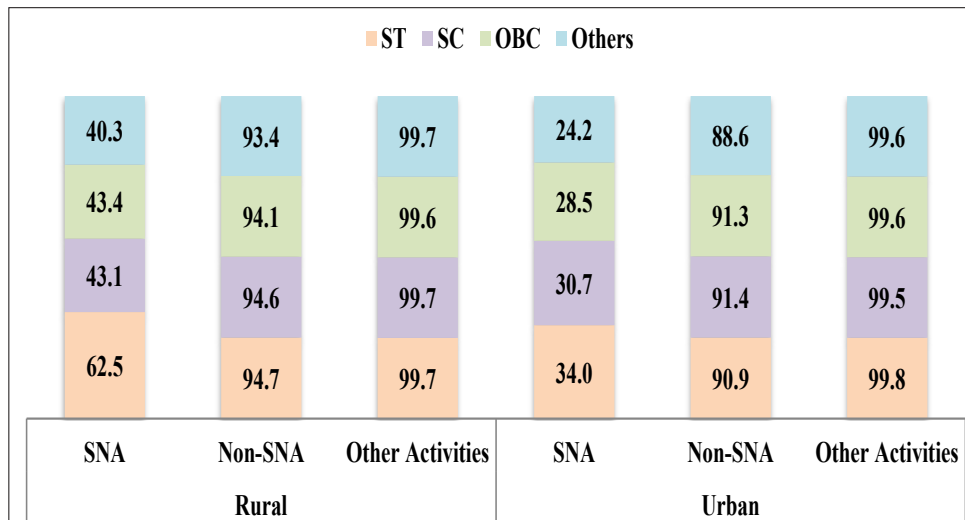
The States/UTs with greater participation of women in urban areas in Non-SNA activities are in Bihar (458 minutes i.e., 7.63 hours), Dadra & Nagar Haveli (442 minutes i.e., 7.36 hours), Assam (438 minutes i.e., 7.3 hours), Mizoram (413 minutes i.e., 6.8 hours) and Punjab (410 minutes i.e., 6.83 hours). As per the PLFS 2019-2020, women in urban areas of Bihar had the lowest WPR (7.8 percent). In this context, it becomes important to address the underlying challenges for women in these States with regard to formulation of policies aimed at redistribution of unpaid work or Non SNA work. Similarly, in urban areas of the States of Assam (200 minutes i.e., 3.33 hours), Nagaland (226 minutes i.e., 3.76 hours), Madhya Pradesh (231 minutes i.e., 3.85 hours), Chhattisgarh (234 minutes i.e., 3.9 hours), Odisha (234 minutes i.e., 3.9 hours) and Jammu & Kashmir (241 minutes i.e., 4.01 hours) women spend less number of hours in paid work or SNA activities.

3.3.2 Average time spent in SNA, Non-SNA & other activities by Social Groups

Time use surveys can also reveal how much time a person from a particular social group spends in a average day or week on sleeping, eating, doing employment-related work, socializing, and doing unpaid care work such as housework and caring for children, the disabled, elderly and ill, etc. These

surveys thus provide a good basis for discussing unpaid care work, and in exploring how responsibility for unpaid care work interacts with performance of other activities such as income-earning, as well as how performance of unpaid work varies along a range of individual and social characteristics (Budlender, 2008). The time spent in different activities depends a lot with the social and cultural context of women and their location in different social groups. This was reflected in target 5.4 of UN SDGs which states that, ‘recognize and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate’²¹. As per the unit level data of TUS 2019, women in India belonging to Scheduled Tribes (94.1 percent) spend most of their time in Non-SNA activities as compared to women belonging to Scheduled Castes (93.8 percent), Other Backward Class Category (93.3 percent) and others (91.4 percent) (Appendix, Table 18). Women in rural areas belonging to ST (94.7 percent) have the highest participation rate in the Non-SNA activities as compared to SC (94.6 percent), OBC (94.1 percent) & others (93.4 percent). However, in urban areas, the highest participation rate in Non-SNA activities is by the women belonging to SC community (91.4 percent). In India, Women from marginalized communities, i.e., schedule caste (SC) and scheduled tribe (ST) are supposed to have lower levels of income as compared to other groups, which creates a negative effect on women’s participation in the labour market compared to other backward class (OBC)/others (Singh & Pattnaik, 2020).

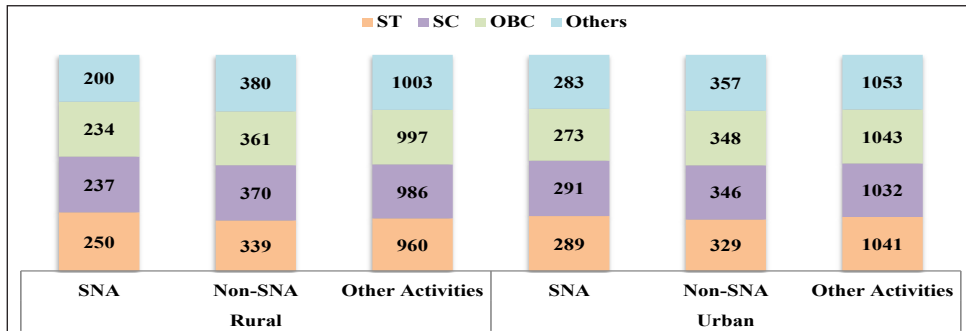
Figure: 3.17 Participation rate in SNA, Non-SNA & other activities by Social Groups- Female (15-59 Years)



Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

²¹ See <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/?Text=&Goal=5&Target=5.4>

Figure: 3.18 Average Time spent (in minutes) in SNA, Non-SNA & other activities by Social Groups –Female (15-59 Years)



Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

In India, women belonging to *others* spend most of their time in Non-SNA activities, i.e., 370 minutes (6.16 hours), while on the other hand the average time spent by women belonging to SC is 364 minutes (6.06 hours), OBC is 357 minutes (5.95 hours) and ST is 338 minutes (5.63 hours) (Appendix, Table 18). In rural areas, the average time spent by women belonging to *others* is 380 minutes (6.33 hours), whereas for SC women it is 370 minutes (6.16 hours), for OBC it is 361 minutes (6.01 hours) and for ST it is 339 minutes (5.65 hours). In the urban context, the average time spent by women belonging to *others* is 357 minutes (5.95 hours), while for OBC it is 348 minutes (5.8 hours), for SC it is 346 minutes (5.76 hours) and for ST it is 329 minutes (5.48 hours).

3.4 Participation rate and average time spent in SNA, Non-SNA & other activities by Highest Level of Education

Education plays an important role to an individual's involvement into an informed citizen. Education makes a person self-reliant, contributes in the elimination of social vices, and plays a pivotal role in the development of society and country. Time use associated with education attainment has received less attention (Babcock & Marks, 2011). As per the TUS, the highest level of education means the highest level of education that a person has successfully completed. A person who can both read and write a simple message with understanding in at least one language was considered literate. Those who were not able to do so were considered not literate. For the purpose of the Time Use Survey-2019, the primary level was defined as Class I-V for all the States/UTs uniformly. Information on highest level of educational successfully completed was collected on the following categories: Not Literate, Literate: below primary, primary, upper primary/middle, secondary, higher secondary, diploma /certificate course (up to secondary), diploma /certificate course (higher secondary), diploma /certificate course (graduation and above), graduate, postgraduate and above (GoI, 2019).

More generally the explanation for this drop in paid work when the educational level increases could be that in the countries concerned, women



strongly participate to the labour force, mainly in informal employment and therefore by necessity. When this necessity is lacking, in more well off households, women may prefer to dedicate more time to household care (Charmes, 2019).

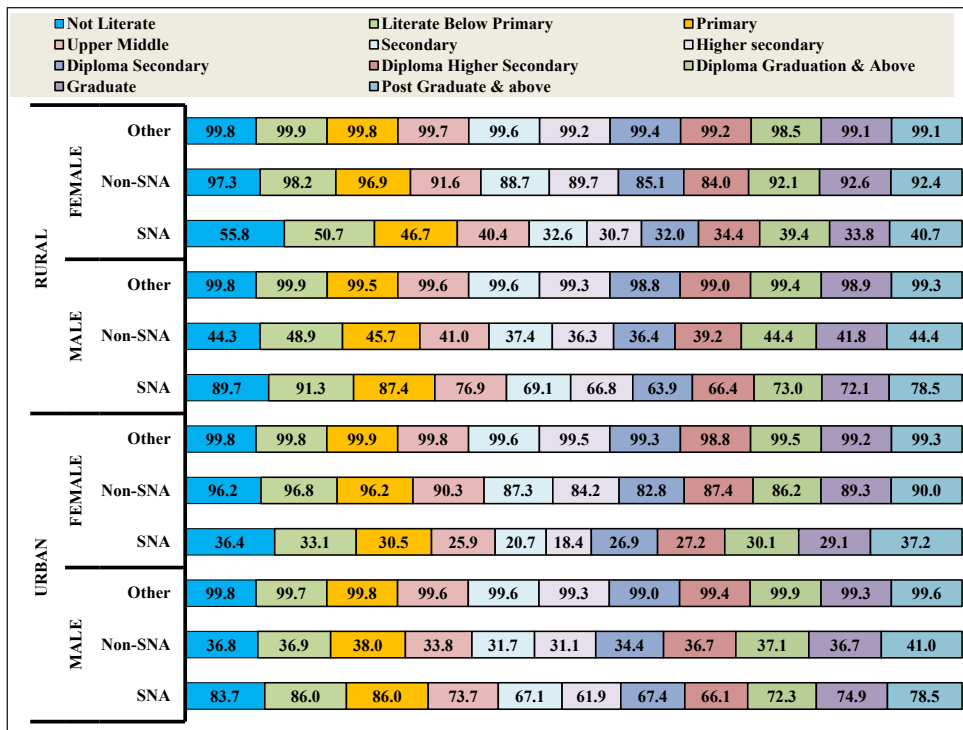
As per the unit level data of TUS, women in India having below primary education (97.91 percent), those who illiterate (97.1 percent), primary education (96.76 percent), upper middle education (91.22 percent) and post-graduation (90.64 percent) are mostly involved in the Non-SNA activities (Table 19).

From fig. 3.18, it can be seen that percentage of rural women involved in Non-SNA activities who are not literate is 97.3 percent whereas for rural men it is 44.3 percent reflecting on a major gap of 53 percentage points. Similarly, women who have attained below primary education (98.2 percent), primary education (96.9 percent), upper middle education (91.6 percent), secondary education (88.7 percent), higher secondary education (89.7 percent), diploma secondary (85.1 percent), diploma higher secondary (84 percent), diploma graduation & above (92.1 percent), graduation (92.6 percent) and post-graduation and above (92.4 percent), are occupied in the Non-SNA activities.

The participation rate of rural women in SNA activities is much lesser than men. Rural women who have attained below primary education (50.7 percent), primary education (46.7 percent), post-graduation and above (40.7 percent) or upper middle education (40.4 percent) have shown greater participation rate in SNA activities while men who are literate below primary or are not literate participate more in SNA activities with a greater share in comparison to women workers.

Similar statistics can be drawn from the urban areas, women who have attained below primary education (96.8 percent), primary education (96.2 percent), upper middle education (90.3 percent), and post-graduation and above (90.0 percent), are engaged in Non-SNA activities. There is a significant gender difference in contributing to Non-SNA activities for all levels of education, i.e., 59.9 percent in below primary education, 58.2 percent in primary education, 56.5 percent in upper middle education, 55.6 percent in secondary education, 53.1 percent in higher secondary education, 48.4 percent in diploma secondary, 50.7 percent in diploma higher secondary, 49.1 percent in diploma graduation & above, 52.6 percent in graduation and 49 percent in post-graduation and above. The participation of urban women in SNA activities is much lesser than men. Urban women who have attained post-graduation and above (37.2 percent), below primary education (33.1 percent), primary education (30.5 percent) and upper middle education (25.9 percent) participate more in SNA activities. It is evident that higher education has been an important factor for improved labour market participation of women.

Figure: 3.19 Participation rate in SNA, Non-SNA & other activities by Highest Level of Education (15-59 Years)



Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

From the above analysis it can be seen that despite of attaining higher education, women are lagging behind in the SNA activities, whereas the situation is better for men having similar qualifications. Furthermore, the higher qualification of a woman does not have significant impact on her involvement into the Non-SNA activities as she is expected to provide such services as normalised by socio-cultural norms, whereas men hardly contribute in the said activities. The time use patterns of men and women tend to converge as education increases, although gender differences persist even for more educated people (Matulevich & Viollaz, 2019). Education may lead to a desire for non-manual professions, and in countries where educational expansion outpaces structural transformation; women may be unable to find acceptable jobs, causing them to leave the labour force (Chatterjee, Desai & Vanneman, 2018).

The time spent by women in Non-SNA activities in India, despite of attaining higher education is quite higher than men. As per the unit level data of TUS, women in India having primary education (388 minutes i.e., 6.46 hours), below primary education (386 minutes i.e., 6.43 hours), upper middle education (373 minutes i.e., 6.21 hours), secondary education (357 minutes i.e., 5.95 hours) and those who are not literate (350 minutes i.e., 5.83 hours) spend most of their time in Non-SNA activities (Appendix,

Figure: 3.20 Average Time Spent (in minutes) in SNA, Non-SNA & other activities by Highest Level of Education (15-59 Years)

		Not Literate	Literate below Primary	Primary	Upper Middle	Secondary	Higher Secondary	Diploma Secondary	Diploma Higher Secondary	Diploma Graduation & Above	Graduate	Postgraduate & Above
RURAL	FEMALE											
	Other	953	943	953	1014	1060	1062	1089	1052	1038	1031	1019
	Non-SNA	352	392	393	374	356	349	331	343	320	354	332
	SNA	257	219	223	202	191	200	210	281	257	227	271
	MALE											
	Other	1009	1001	1019	1072	1117	1132	1134	1130	1088	1100	1084
URBAN	FEMALE											
	Other	1006	997	1001	1045	1077	1101	1086	1065	1044	1040	1017
	Non-SNA	338	361	372	370	360	346	312	325	336	338	317
	SNA	295	278	262	231	229	246	344	315	345	326	361
	MALE											
	Other	989	979	976	1040	1075	1107	1082	1089	1074	1047	1033
URBAN	Non-SNA	103	103	93	94	94	95	95	94	95	96	103
	SNA	491	489	496	496	495	486	477	472	456	473	461

Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

Table 20). From fig. 3.20, it can be seen that women in rural areas having below primary education (392 minutes i.e., 6.53 hours), primary education (393 minutes i.e., 6.55 hours), upper middle education (374 minutes i.e., 6.23 hours), secondary education (356 minutes i.e., 5.93 hours), higher secondary education (349 minutes i.e., 5.81 hours), diploma secondary (331 minutes i.e., 5.51 hours), diploma higher secondary (343 minutes i.e., 5.71 hours), diploma graduation & above (323 minutes i.e., 5.33 hours), graduation (354 minutes i.e., 5.9 hours) and post-graduation and above (332 minutes i.e., 5.53 hours), are occupied in the Non-SNA activities. Women in urban areas having below primary education (361 minutes i.e., 6.01 hours), primary education (372 minutes i.e., 6.2 hours), upper middle education (370 minutes i.e., 6.1 hours), secondary education (360 minutes i.e., 6 hours), higher secondary education (346 minutes i.e., 5.7 hours), diploma secondary (312 minutes i.e., 5.2 hours), diploma higher secondary (325 minutes i.e., 5.41 hours), diploma graduation & above (336 minutes i.e., 5.6 hours), graduation (338 minutes i.e., 5.63 hours) and post-graduation and above (317 minutes i.e., 5.28 hours), are occupied in the Non-SNA activities.



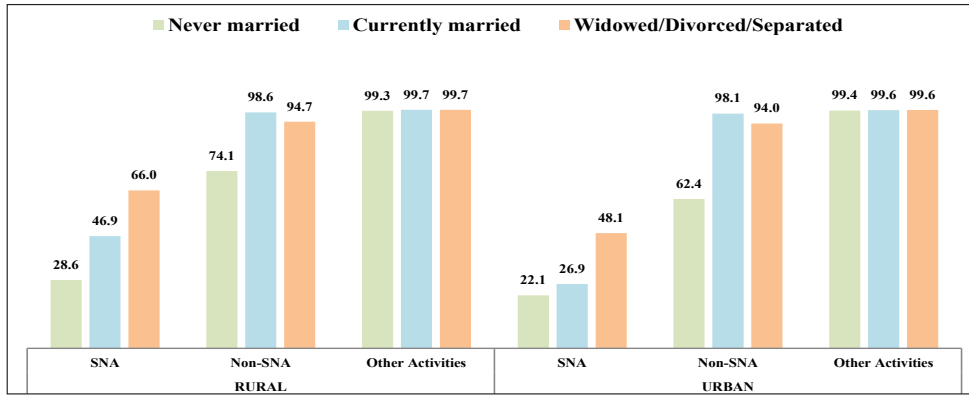
3.5 Participation rate and average time Spent in SNA, Non-SNA & Other Activities by Marital Status

Marriage and childbearing play a prominent role in determining women's labour market choices and often act as constraining factors for women's entry into paid work. The specific vulnerability faced by women is driven by discriminatory social norms and gender stereotypes that reinforce their role as caregivers, while simultaneously promoting men's role as breadwinners (Azcona & Bhatt, 2020). Increasingly, married women 'need' to work to compensate for the labour force difficulties of their husbands, and as the 'choice' of married mothers to stay out of the labour market and rear their own children becomes more and more constrained, it appears reasonable that single mothers, too, are subjected to similar constraints (Cohen & Bianchi, 1999). A woman's own wage-earning potential and occupational opportunities or whether her lack of prospects of financial support from another person (for example, her husband) is more likely to encourage her labour force participation tend to find that changes more often reflect expanding opportunities (Cohen & Bianchi, 1999).

Traditional gender stereotypes continue to have an overpowering role in both women's and men's labour market situations. Marriage, which is linked with gender specific societal expectations, tends to keep women out of the workforce and affects them severely to various forms of workforce inefficiencies. With respect to unpaid work, married women see a dramatic increase of their unpaid care work burden (Charmes, 2019). Due to established societal expectations, marriage encourages males to work more, pursue professional progression, and achieve extremely competent occupations, whereas it has the reverse effect on women's employment. As per the unit level data of TUS, women in India who are currently married (98.4 percent) are highly engaged in the Non-SNA activities as compared to women who are widowed/divorced/separated (94.5 percent) and unmarried (70.0 percent). On the other hand, the percentage of men who are widowed/divorced/separated (61.8 percent), currently married (45.6 percent) and unmarried (25.9 percent) are least involved in the Non-SNA activities (Appendix, Table 21).

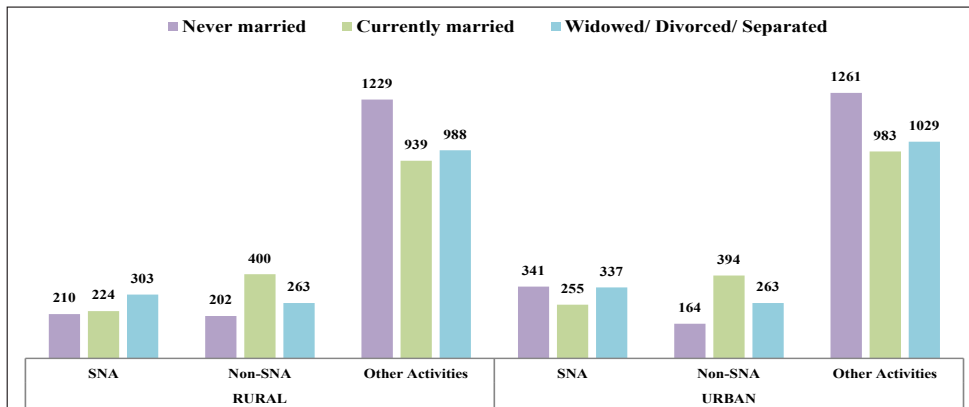
From Fig.3.21, it is visible that women in rural areas who are currently married (98.6 percent) are much more engaged in the Non-SNA activities as compared to women who are Widowed/Divorced/Separated (94.1 percent) and never married (74.1 percent). Similarly women in urban areas who are currently married (98.1 percent) are highly involved in the Non-SNA activities than women who are never married (62.4 percent) and Widowed/Divorced/Separated (94 percent).

Figure 3.21: Participation rate in SNA, Non-SNA & Other Activities by Marital Status (15-59 Years)-Female



Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

Figure 3.22: Average time spent (in minutes) in SNA, Non-SNA & Other Activities by Marital Status (15-59 Years)-Female



Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

From the unit level data of TUS, it was revealed that women in India who are currently married spend 389 minutes (6.43 hours) in Non-SNA activities, which is quite higher than the women who are widowed/divorced/separated who devote 239 minutes (3.93 hours) and those who are unmarried contribute for 190 minutes (3.16 hours) (Appendix, Table 22). As can be seen in fig. 3.22, women in rural areas who are currently married spend 400 minutes (6.66 hours), widowed/divorced/separated spend 263 minutes (4.38 hours) and unmarried spend 202 minutes (3.36 hours) in the Non-SNA activities. Similarly, women in urban areas who are currently married spend 394 minutes (6.5 hours), widowed/divorced/separated spend 263 minutes (4.38 hours) unmarried spend 164 minutes (2.73 hours) in the Non-SNA activities.

3.6 Time use patterns in Leisure activities

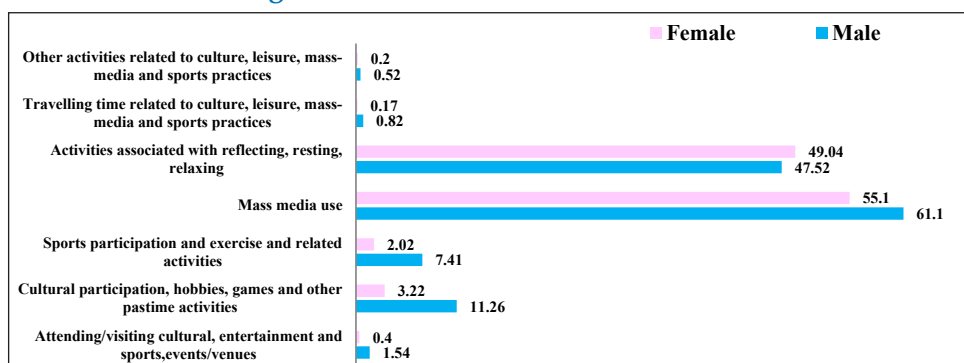
Leisure activities refer to social and recreational pursuits serving cultural and psychological needs (Hui-fen, Zhen-shan, Dong-qian & Yang, 2012). Leisure also



contributes to the well-being of people other than the person directly enjoying leisure. When a person engages in leisure, the benefits gained are shared with others in a multitude of ways, including improvements in personal relationships, family functioning, and in terms of creation of social capital networks (at least from some types of shared leisure) (OECD, 2009).

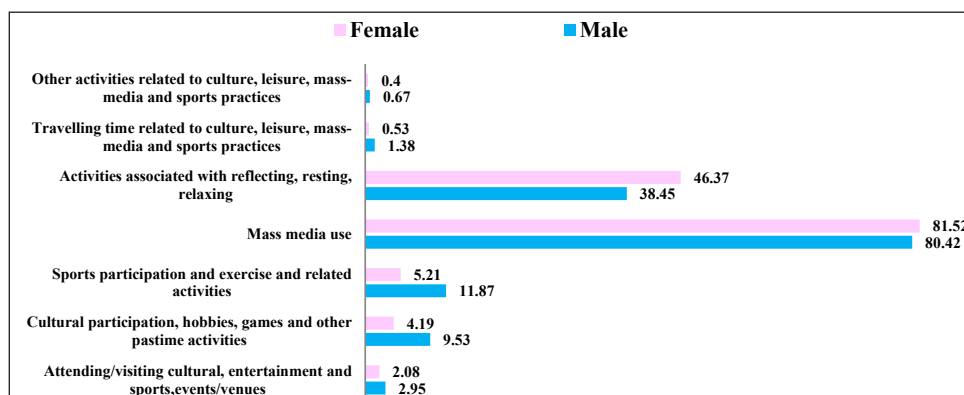
From fig.3.23, it is evident that rural women (49.04 percent) spend more time in activities associated with reflecting, resting and relaxing than rural men (47.52 percent). However, a marginal difference can be witnessed in the time spent in mass media use by rural women (55.1 percent) which is comparatively lower than rural men (61.1 percent). Similar gaps can be drawn from the statistics related to the participation in cultural participation, hobbies, games and other pastime activities, where rural women (3.22 percent) contribute extremely less than rural men (11.26 percent). The engagement of women is quite lower in the sports participation and exercise related activities as well.

Figure 3.23 Percentage of women participating in Leisure activities in two-digit classification - Rural - 15-59 Years



Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

Figure 3.24 Percentage of women participating in Leisure activities in two-digit classification - Urban - 15-59 Years

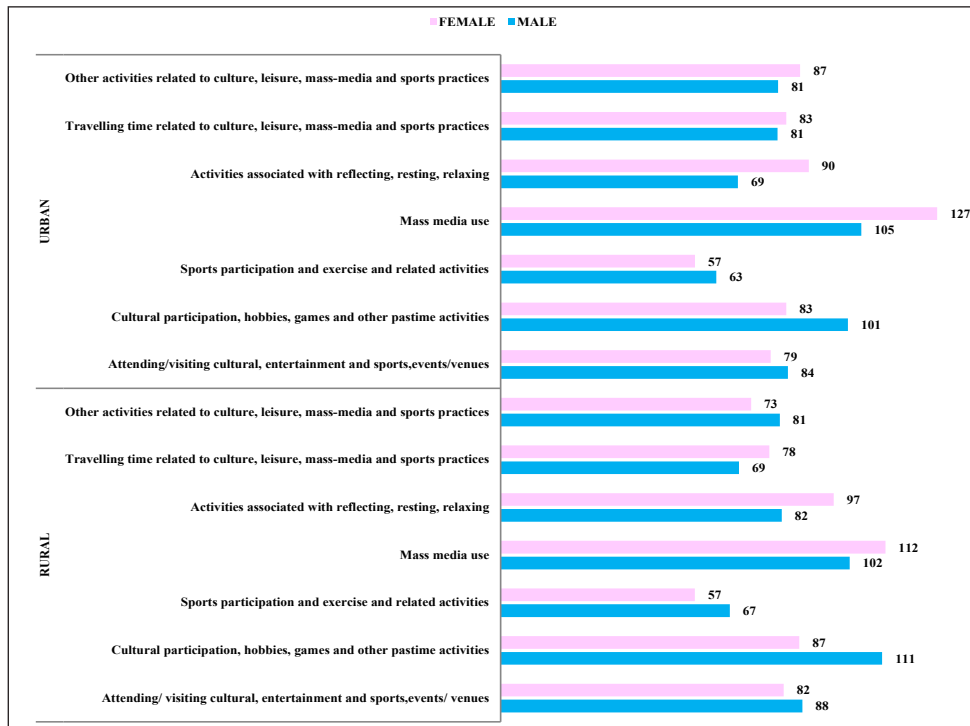


Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

From fig. 3.24, it is evident that urban women (46.37 percent) spend their leisure time more in activities associated with reflecting, resting and relaxing than urban men (38.45 percent). However, the engagement of urban women (5.21 percent) in sports participation and exercise and related activities is much lower than men (11.87 percent). Similar statistics can be drawn from the cultural participation, hobbies, games and other pastime activities, where women in urban areas (4.19 percent) are less engaged than urban men (9.53 percent).

As per the unit level data of TUS, the average time spent by Indian women in sports and exercise related activities is 57 minutes as compared to men who spend 65 minutes (1.08 hours) in the same. Similarly women spend 80 minutes (1.3 hours) in attending/visiting cultural, entertainment and sports, events/venues, whereas men contribute for 86 minutes (1.43 hours) in the same. The involvement of women in Cultural participation, hobbies, games and other pastime activities is for 86 minutes (1.43 hours), whereas for men it is 108 minutes (1.8 hours) (Appendix, Table 24). From fig. 3.25, it is evident that women in rural areas spend 57 minutes in sports and exercise related activities while on the other hand men spend 67 minutes (1.11 hours) in the said activity. Time spent by women in other activities related to culture, leisure, mass-media and sports practices is 73 minutes (1.21 hours), whereas for men it is 81 minutes (1.35 hours). Rural women play a part

Figure 3.25: Average Time spent (in minutes) in Leisure activities in two-digit classification (15-59 Years)



Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019



in Cultural participation, hobbies, games and other pastime activities for only 87 minutes (1.45 hours) and men spend 111 minutes (1.85 hours) in the same. In the same way, time spent by women in urban areas in sports and exercise related activities is 57 minutes as compared to men who spend and for men it is 63 minutes (1.05 hours). Urban women spend 83 minutes (1.38 hours) in Cultural participation, hobbies, games and other pastime activities and men spend 101 minutes (1.68 hours) in the same. Time spent by women in attending/visiting cultural, entertainment and sports, events/venues is 79 minutes (1.31 hours) and for men it is 84 minutes (1.4 hours).

The genders gaps are evident in the leisure activities as well. Women's experience of leisure is also distinctive and is difficult to disentangle from multiple and overlapping activities. Women are further disadvantaged by their disproportionate responsibility for the physical care of children. Women spend more time physically caring for children than playing with them. By contrast, the time fathers spend with their children is more likely to be in the context of play rather than care. In sum, a gender gap in leisure emerges (Bittman & Wajcman, 2000).

3.7 Summing up

The chapter uncovered the gender gaps in time use patterns of men and women in paid and unpaid work. Women have been spending a considerable amount of their time in unpaid Non-SNA work. In addition, this chapter reveals that the States having the highest concentration of women engaged in Non-SNA production have also reported to have lowest WPR by the PLFS 2019-2020. The disaggregated analysis of unpaid domestic and unpaid care giving activities have clearly revealed that women tend to spend more time in cooking and household activities which have been traditionally associated with women and are normalized through institutionalized practices. The impact of socio-cultural norms in determining women's participation in household and related activities reflects on unequal gender relations in the household. The chapter has also revealed the role of marital status as an important constraint for labour market participation. Also, the participation of women in unpaid work was not affected with obtaining higher education.



Chapter 4

Women's Engagement in Multiple and Simultaneous Activity and Methodological Issues in TUS

4.1 The Context

Simultaneous activities are important in developing countries for poor and women, who undertake such activities many times during a day. Information on simultaneous activities is important to design interventions for reducing time stress of the poor, particularly poor women. However, it is not easy to collect these data, as it requires special efforts (people do not provide this information easily) and also not easy to analyse since it needs good analytical tools (Hirway, 2009). Men and women in developing countries frequently take up multiple jobs or perform multiple economic activities to make the two ends meet. Since many of these activities are frequently in the informal sector, it is not easy to get the right response from respondents (GoI, 1998). The collection of simultaneous activities allows for the capture of a more comprehensive measure of how people are using their time and provides a better understanding of those engaged in multiple activities (UNCE, 2013).

Multiple and simultaneous activities play an important role in any economy, non-recognition can lead to underestimation of women's work thereby disregarding the invisible challenges of women. While this may have contributed to the formalised execution of a national survey like the TUS, the lack of attention given to such activities is a barrier to evaluating women's time burden. The chapter discusses the concept and importance of multiple/simultaneous activities along with the methodological issues in Time Use Survey-2019. The TUS 2019 has tried to capture both simultaneous and multiple activity which has been discussed in the following section (GoI, 2019).

4.2 Multiple/Simultaneous Activity and Context Variables

Women, whose work and contribution to social well-being through multiple activities, both economic and more significantly non-economic, is either poorly recorded or not documented. Traditional statistical approaches have neglected women's activities and employment which can be revealed by time use data. These activities provide an insight into women's time stress and pressure, as women carry a greater share of total work and participate in more simultaneous activities than men. Recording simultaneous activities is considered very important, as by doing so, often many activities that may be overlooked, particularly childcare activities, are in fact recorded (Gross & Swirski, 2002). An individual may be engaged in one or more activity at a



time (single or multiple activities). Time use data provide information on the time spent on both types of activities.

Time-use surveys (TUSs) were introduced as a way to measure how time gets allocated to different tasks by different people. Collecting time-use data can be challenging, but the information contributes a valuable dimension to gender analysis. From a gender perspective, a TUS is an important tool to draw attention to the nonmarket work that is carried out mostly by women (ADB, 2015). Also, such statistics have the potential to provide information on the time burden as well as time stress of individuals. In case of *multiple activities* in a time slot the activities which were performed for 10 minutes or more were recorded. If in a time slot more than one activity were performed each of which was for a duration of 10 minutes or more, the time slot was identified as a time slot in which multiple activities were performed. If in a time slot multiple activities were recorded, it was enquired whether some of these activities were performed simultaneously or not. *Simultaneous activities* are those that have an overlap of some duration of time in the same time slot of 30-minute duration, irrespective of their starting or ending time. If in a time slot where multiple activities were performed, some of the activities were simultaneous activities, the time slot was identified as a time slot in which simultaneous activities were performed (GoI, 2020).

There is no denying the fact that multiple and simultaneous activities provide a deeper insight into women's work and the different contexts in which they multi-task. However, it is also important to understand the context in which an activity took place. For example, the context in which the activity has taken place would provide an insight into the situation of women.

Contextual variables are an important and unique feature of time use surveys and help in interpreting the multidimensional context and thereby help in classifying activities. These context variables can contribute immensely in terms of understanding the physical, social, economic and temporal features of the environment in which the activities take place and enrich time use statistics (Samantray & Khurana, 2015). Major context variables are broadly related to: (1) Location of activities: for example, whether the activity is carried out within or outside home; (2) For whom or for what purpose: for whom the activity is carried out, or whether the activity – production – is for self-consumption or for sale, or whether the activity is for government, private corporation/company, public undertaking, partnership or for household sector, voluntary sector and so on; (3) With whom: for example, whether the activity is performed with children/ adults or with household member/non-household member and so on; and (4) Type of Activities: whether the activity is paid or unpaid or whether the activity is main or secondary for the performer and so on (Hirway, 2009). Apart from the above information, some other context variables can be 'assistance received' which would help in providing an insight into the intensity of the activity and whether the person has received any assistance from any other

person to carry out the activity. It is generally observed that men provide less assistance in unpaid work. A study conducted by the V.V. Giri National Labour Institute had revealed that a large proportion of women were taking care of the task of preparing and serving food to their children, solely by them. On the contrary, a small portion of women were assisted by their husbands in taking care of this task. It was also found that none of the husbands were taking care of this task on their own. Women received assistance from men only for picking and dropping the child to school and in homework than in domestic work (Samantroy, 2015).

It would be important to understand how different Time Use Surveys in India at different times had captured multiple and simultaneous activities and context variables. A comparison table is presented based on the above discussions to describe the development of Multiple/Simultaneous activities in the Indian Time Use Survey.

Table: 4.1 Capturing of Multiple/Simultaneous Activities and context variables throughout the Time Use Surveys in India

Time Use Survey (Year)	Whether Multiple/Simultaneous Activity was used or not? (Yes/No)	Context Variables
1998-1999	YES	<p>Two context variables were used namely; Where the activity was carried out?- Within household & Outside household Whether the activity was paid or unpaid? Questions asked: Actual Time spent (Minutes) Within (HH 1)outside Household –(HH2) Activity Code (Type of activity) Activity paid for /Mode of payment</p>
2012	<p>YES</p> <p>A person doing more than one activity simultaneously/ sequentially then all the activities were recorded with a half an hour slot dedicated to the major activity only. (GoI, 2013)</p>	<p>The number of context variables was not more than three namely;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (a) For whom (government/ Corporation/ Private Owner etc) (b) Paid or Unpaid and (c) Where (Inside or outside household premises) <p><i>For whom?</i> <i>Not for Payment:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-development/ care etc. • For subsistence/Own Account enterprise, • For Family enterprise(s), • taking care of family members <p><i>For payment:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Against regular salary/wage, • Against casual work, Others (GoI,2013)



NCATUS was broadly aligned to the ICATUS developed by the United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD)²². Although the methodology opted during the Pilot study in 2012 in Bihar and Gujarat was quite comprehensive, the survey results were not disseminated due to some misclassifications in the schedules of both the States (GoI, 2013)²³. However, the TUS 2019 had captured multiple and simultaneous activities more effectively. For the better understanding of methodological issues, the next section draws attention to the challenges in the Time Use Survey 2019.

4.3 Methodological issues in the Time Use Survey in Activity Classification

Despite these efforts to capture as much as possible of women's activities so that their job can be fully visible through a standard classification framework, there are several methodological challenges and gaps that need to be addressed.

4.3.1 Gaps in Capturing Multiple and Simultaneous Activities

The capturing of multiple activities becomes extremely significant to provide full visibility to any activity and also to understand the time burden on women. During the pilot TUS of 1998-99, the simultaneous activities were not captured effectively. For example, the total time devoted to simultaneous activities was divided equally by number of activities carried out simultaneously as a result of which all activities appeared to be equally important since the duration of time spent in those activities was same. As per the usual practice in most countries, it is important to identify primary and secondary activities among the simultaneous activities and divide the total time spend based on their importance. Further, the investigators asked this question on simultaneous activities at the end of the investigation and during the course of the investigation question is not added for each activity recorded by the respondents (GoI, 2007)²⁴. However, the Pilot survey conducted in 2012 in the States of Bihar and Gujarat had identified a major activity with a half an hour slot dedicated to the same. Later on the new TUS 2019, had captured simultaneous and multiple activity differently as discussed in the previous section.

4.3.2 Context Variables

The scope of capturing of context variables is broader in TUS 2019 as compared to previous pilot surveys with the inclusion of where the activity was performed, whether it was a major or minor activity and the paid and

²² GoI, Government of India (2013). Report of Pilot Time Use Survey (TUS) in the States of Bihar and Gujarat, Social Statistics, Central Statistics Office, Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, Government of India: New Delhi.

²³ Ibid

²⁴ GoI, Government of India (2007), Report of the International Seminar on Towards Mainstreaming Time Use Surveys in National Statistical System in India, 24-25 May 2007, Ministry of Women and Child Development, Government of India in collaboration with UNDP and World Bank.



the paid and unpaid status of the activity. Though the three TUS conducted in India, had tried to capture context variables, yet there can be other context variables which, if captured can provide a social and cultural context to the activity performed. For example, the variable 'assistance received' is quite significant to understand the redistribution of activity and also to understand household division of labour. However, this variable is not used in the time use surveys conducted in India.

Apart from these challenges, the issue of harmonization of surveys has methodological significance as it helps in providing for comparability of surveys. The section below will provide insights into the methodological issues and challenges associated with Indian Time Use Survey.

4.3.3 Lack of harmonization with ICATUS 2016

Harmonization refers to all efforts that standardize inputs and outputs in multinational, multicultural, multiregional surveys, which are referred to as '3MC' surveys. Harmonization is a generic term for procedures used predominantly in official statistics that aim at achieving, or at least improving, the comparability of different survey measures collected (Granda&Blasczyk, 2016). There are two general approaches for harmonizing data - input harmonization and output harmonization:

1. Input harmonization aims to achieve standardized measurement processes and methods in all national or regional populations included in the 3MC survey. Comparability can be realized through standardization of definitions, indicators, classifications, training, and technical requirements (Granda&Blasczyk, 2016).
2. Output harmonization begins with different national or regional measurements, possibly derived from nonstandard measurement processes. These measurements are 'mapped' into a unified measurement scheme (Granda&Blasczyk, 2016).

True harmonization of surveys requires consistency in both design and administration that can be costly and contentious to achieve, and the understandable desire for consistency with previous national surveys also creates resistance to change (Folbre, 2021). Indian TUS Classification system is not completely aligned with ICATUS 2016. Though the report had mentioned that it followed ICATUS 2016, but the 3-digit classification list had reported certain employment related activities that are involved in the Residual Activities, the rationale for which is not clear.

4.4 Insights from the Time Use Survey 2019

The Time Use Survey 2019 emphasises that women in India perform multiple and simultaneous activities in a higher concentration than men. The overall percentage of women simultaneously performing unpaid domestic services for household members is 39.8 percent in India.

Table 4.2: Percentage of persons of age 6 years and above performing multiple activities among those spending most of the time in 1-digit TUS activity codes out of the total time spent in 1 digit TUS activity codes 1 to 5 as a major activity- RURAL+URBAN

	1-digit TUS activity code in which most of the time was spent	1-digit TUS activity code which was performed as multiple activity along with 1-digit TUS activity code in which most of the time was spent				
		Employment and related activities	Production of goods for own final use	Unpaid domestic services for household members	Unpaid care-giving services for household members	Unpaid volunteer, trainee and other unpaid work
MALE	Employment and related activities	4.2	0.3	1.5	0.2	0.0
	Production of goods for own final use	0.9	2.2	1.3	0.1	0.1
	Unpaid domestic services for household members	0.3	1.0	12.6	0.7	0.2
	Unpaid care giving services for household members	0.1	0.1	1.1	2.9	0.2
	Unpaid volunteer, trainee and other unpaid work	0.5	0.4	1.1	0.3	4.7
FE-MALE	Employment and related activities	4.8	0.4	2.2	0.6	0.0
	Production of goods for own final use	0.5	4.6	4.7	0.6	0.1
	Unpaid domestic services for household members	0.3	2.3	39.8	7.5	0.1
	Unpaid care giving services for household members	0.1	0.2	10.7	5.0	0.1
	Unpaid volunteer, trainee and other unpaid work	0.1	0.8	2.7	0.9	1.8

Source: Time Use Survey, 2019

From table 4.3, it can be seen that 39.5 percent of women in rural areas perform unpaid domestic services for household members along with other unpaid domestic services and unpaid care-giving services for household members (7.6 percent). Similarly, 9.8 percent of rural women are engaged in unpaid care-giving services along with unpaid domestic services as well, whereas the percentage of men in the said activities is quite lower than women.

Table 4.3: Percentage of persons of age 6 years and above performing multiple activities among those spending most of the time in 1-digit TUS activity codes out of the total time spent in 1 digit TUS activity codes 1 to 5 as a major activity- RURAL

	1-digit TUS activity code in which most of the time was spent	1-digit TUS activity code which was performed as multiple activity along with 1-digit TUS activity code in which most of the time was spent				
		Employment and related activities	Production of goods for own final use	Unpaid domestic services for household members	Unpaid care-giving services for household members	Unpaid volunteer, trainee and other unpaid work
MALE	Employment and related activities	3.9	0.3	1.6	0.1	0
	Production of goods for own final use	1	2.3	1.3	0.1	0.1
	Unpaid domestic services for household members	0.3	1.2	11.8	0.7	0.2
	Unpaid care giving services for household members	0.1	0.1	0.9	2.4	0.2
	Unpaid volunteer, trainee and other unpaid work	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.4	3.6
FE-MALE	Employment and related activities	4.6	0.5	1.9	0.5	0
	Production of goods for own final use	0.5	4.8	4.6	0.6	0.1
	Unpaid domestic services for household members	0.3	2.7	39.5	7.6	0.1
	Unpaid care giving services for household members	0.1	0.3	9.8	3.6	0.1
	Unpaid volunteer, trainee and other unpaid work	0	1	2.3	1.2	2

Source: Time Use Survey, 2019



Table 4.4: Percentage of persons of age 6 years and above performing multiple activities among those spending most of the time in 1-digit TUS activity codes out of the total time spent in 1 digit TUS activity codes 1 to 5 as a major activity- URBAN

	1-digit TUS activity code in which most of the time was spent	1-digit TUS activity code which was performed as multiple activity along with 1-digit TUS activity code in which most of the time was				
		Employment and related activities	Production of goods for own final use	Unpaid domestic services for household members	Unpaid care-giving services for household members	Unpaid volunteer, trainee and other unpaid work
MALE	Employment and related activities	4.7	0.1	1.3	0.2	0.1
	Production of goods for own final use	0.6	0.9	1.4	0.1	0
	Unpaid domestic services for household members	0.3	0.4	14.1	0.6	0.2
	Unpaid care giving services for household members	0.2	0	1.4	4.2	0.2
	Unpaid volunteer, trainee and other unpaid work	0.9	0.6	2.2	0	6.9
FE-MALE	Employment and related activities	5.1	0	2.7	0.7	0
	Production of goods for own final use	0.6	1.1	6.4	0.5	0
	Unpaid domestic services for household members	0.2	1.5	40.4	7.2	0.1
	Unpaid care giving services for household members	0.1	0.1	12.5	7.8	0.1
	Unpaid volunteer, trainee and other unpaid work	0.2	0.5	3.4	0.4	1.4

Source: Time Use Survey, 2019



Chapter 5

Conclusion & Policy Recommendations

Unpaid work and care includes unpaid domestic services and direct care of people, such as childcare or care of dependent adults, and the domestic work that facilitates caring for people, such as cooking, cleaning or collecting water or firewood (Thorpe, Maestre & Kidder, 2016). While both men and women rely on quality care to enable their participation in economic, political, and social life, most unpaid care is provided by women and girls, leaving them with less time for employment, civic engagement, and leisure²⁵. There is a large and robust body of evidence about the extent of unpaid care work that women and girls do, and its contributions to both the economy and human development outcomes (Chopra, Kelbert & Iyer, 2013). Unpaid work remains significantly invisible in national accounts as has been discussed in the previous sections. Although a certain degree of statistical invisibility of unpaid work in the economy is a global phenomenon, it is particularly predominant in India. Time Use Survey has been an effective tool in unfolding the statistical invisibility of unpaid work across countries (Chakraborty, 2005). The popularity of time use data is related to its versatility and its wide range of uses. Information on how people use their time is collected by time use (Fleming & Spellberg, 1999). Time-use, describes the allocation of time among various circumstances and subjective states. It is a key social indicator, which finds particular applications in the assessment of individuals' material welfare and well-being. It provides the core measure of amounts of work in specific paid occupations, and for unpaid work in private households or in volunteer groups. Since all human states and activities occupy time, an appropriately designed time-use survey instrument can provide a comprehensive account of rhythm and balance among all the conditions and circumstance of daily life. As such, time-use accounts provide the basis for the systematic integration of various measures of well-being (Gershuny, 2011).

In this context, the present study tried to analyse the women's paid and unpaid work by gaining insights from the Time Use Survey, 2019. This study tried to understand the sectoral participation of women in the rural and urban areas by their level of education, marital status, broad industry employment, type of employment, and access to social security. The study tried to find out the higher participation rate and the average time spent by women in the unpaid domestic services for household members and unpaid care-giving services by highlighting the gender differences. Women's participation in the labour market has remained low in the majority of Indian states, particularly in urban areas, where women's participation has been significantly lower than

²⁵ Policy Brief on *Unpaid care and women's empowerment: Lessons from research and practice*, Growth and Economic activities for Women (GROW), International Development Research Centre, Canada <https://idl-bnc-idrc.dspacedirect.org/bitstream/handle/10625/56369/IDL-56369.pdf> Accessed on: 28 March, 2022



men. The study has also showed that men are more likely to engage in paid and SNA employment, whereas women are more likely to engage in unpaid and non-SNA work in both rural and urban areas of India. Women across social groups i.e., the SC, ST and OBC had greater participation in production of goods for own final use mostly arising out of economic necessity. At the same time, they also participated in unpaid domestic services for household members and unpaid care giving services.

The present study was divided into four chapters which may be summarized as follows:

The first chapter provided a brief background to the study while highlighting on the main objectives and methodology of the study.

The second chapter emphasized on the trends in the declining female workforce participation in India. It discussed the widening gender gap in various sectors of the economy and the increased labour market inequalities against women. From the unit level data of PLFS 2019-20, it was analysed that WPR among females was least reported in the states of Bihar, Assam, Haryana, Uttar Pradesh and Arunachal Pradesh. Further, the WPR of women in the social groups SC & ST was much greater than that of women in the 'others', owing to the fact that women in the SC & ST are driven into low-paying informal work due to the economic circumstances. The analysis of gendered sectoral segregation revealed that the share of female workers in agriculture in rural areas increased, whereas their participation in mining, manufacturing and *others sector* decreased. Similar trends were observed for female workers in urban areas, where the share of female workers has decreased in *other sectors*. However, there was a notable increase in the Trade, Hotel, and Restaurant sector, where the share of urban women increased as per the unit level data obtained from the various PLFS rounds. Moreover, in both rural and urban areas, the share of female casual labourers has declined; nevertheless, the share of regular wage or salaried female workers has shown an upward trend between 2017-18 and 2018-19, following the trend of previous years. Despite the fact that the percentage of self-employed female workers increased in rural areas, there was no progress in urban areas. The percentage of regular wage/salaried rural women in each social category has declined significantly. While there was a decrease in Regular Wage/ Salaried employees for ST women in urban areas, it increased dramatically for SC and OBC women.

The chapter further discussed the employment status of women by National Industrial Classification (NIC), where the participation of both rural and urban women was mostly found in these industries: Crop and animal production, hunting and related service activities, Education, Manufacture of wearing, Retail trade, except of motor vehicles, Construction Buildings, Wearing apparel, Human health activities, Public administration and defence, Food beverage service and Arts, entertainment and recreation. In addition, it was



revealed that women in urban and rural areas did not have adequate access to social security benefits in India. On the contrary, men had greater access to social security than women thereby reflecting on a gender divide. Moreover, most women did not have written job-contracts, and the greater percentages of women in the workforce were not literate as reported by the unit level data of PLFS. Furthermore, self-employment rates of currently married women increased in the rural areas. However, there was a decline among the casual labour, for the unmarried women and for currently married in the rural areas. In urban areas, self-employment rates of not married women declined, similarly women who are divorced/ separated have also shown a decline in the regular workers category. However, there was a significant increase among the regular workers for the unmarried women.

The third chapter laid emphasis on the unpaid work and time-use patterns of women in India. It highlighted that 92 percent of women in rural and urban India devote their time in the unpaid domestic services for household members, whereas only 28.8 percent men contribute their time in the said activity with a significant difference of 63.2 percent. Moreover, 32.7 percent women spend their time in the unpaid care-giving services for household members, while on the other hand the percentage of men was recorded for only 16.1 percent. Women in India spend 315 minutes (5.25 hours) in the unpaid domestic services for household members, whereas men spend merely 95 minutes (1.58 hours) in the said activity. The average time spent by women in India in the unpaid care-giving activities for household members was 137 minutes (2.28 hours), while on the other hand the time spent by men was only 73 minutes (1.21 hours). The participation of women in unpaid work remained high regardless of employment status due to deeply entrenched patriarchal and social norms. Women spend most of their time in preparing and managing food and meals for the household members and in cleaning and maintaining of own dwellings and surroundings. Further, it was revealed that States like Bihar, Assam, Tripura, Mizoram and West Bengal have reported that women spend more time in unpaid or Non-SNA work while some of these States had reported an extremely low participation of women in the workforce. Excessive engagement of women in Non-SNA activities and low employment rates reflects on an inherent relationship between paid and unpaid work thereby discouraging women from seeking paid employment. Other issues, such as a lack of proper educational opportunities, skilling possibilities, and rigid socio-cultural norms play a significant part in women's choices for paid employment in some states like Bihar. Women having low level of education like below primary education, primary education and those who are illiterate, are mostly engaged in the unpaid domestic services for household members. Also, those having primary education, below primary education and post-graduation were involved in unpaid care-giving for household members. It was found that, although having a higher education; women are falling behind in SNA activities, though males with equivalent qualifications have a



relatively better situation. Furthermore, a woman's higher education has no bearing on her participation in non-SNA activities because she is expected to engage in such activities as per socio-cultural norms, whereas men rarely participate in such activities.

The chapter further discussed that, women who are currently married spend most of their time in the unpaid domestic services for household members, unpaid care-giving services for household members and in unpaid volunteer, trainee and other unpaid work as compared to those who are widowed/divorced/separated/ and not married. Moreover, women after having children spend most of their time in childcare and instruction, which is significantly higher than men, as the caring role is attributed to women since the historical past. The gender differences were visible in the leisure activities as well, where men spent more time in attending/visiting cultural, entertainment and sports, events/venues and cultural participation, hobbies, games and other pastime activities.

The fourth chapter analysed the women's engagement in multiple and simultaneous activities and methodological issues in TUS. It was found that despite their engagement in multiple activities, women's work is often unrecognized and undervalued though the underestimation of such activities leaves behind a huge amount of work that women do and that affects their well-being. Women's engagement in multiple and simultaneous activity leads to severe *time stress* that affects women's agency. The chapter tried to uncover the process of capturing multiple and simultaneous activities during the three rounds of TUS conducted in India and reflected on the methodological challenges with regard to capturing of such activities. Further, the chapter highlighted on the need to revisit the methodology for promoting harmonisation. The chapter also analysed the time spent by women in multiple and simultaneous activities and revealed that women in both rural and urban areas are simultaneously engaged in the unpaid domestic services for household members along with the unpaid care-giving services for household members though lesser proportion of men are engaged in multiple activities.



Policy Recommendations

The following are some of the recommendations that have emerged from the study:

- **Sectoral Employment Policies:** The study has reflected on a decline in FLFP along with a rise in self-employment for women. The Covid-19 Pandemic has further accelerated the challenges for women in certain sectors which were worst affected by the pandemic. In this context there is a need for targeted sectoral policies aimed at addressing the self-employment and extending the social security and employment legislations to the self-employed women along with women engaged in low paying sectors. As discussed in Chapter-3, self-employed women spend greater share of time in the unpaid work in comparison to regular/wage salaried workers, which needs to be addressed through appropriate policy interventions. Policies aimed at promoting and supporting jobs in small and medium enterprises, promoting entrepreneurship, protecting self-employment and providing access to social protection for women engaged in such sectors is important (Samantroy, 2021)
- **Policies for marginalised groups:** As per the PLFS, SC & ST women have higher participation in labour market, but they are mostly engaged in the low-paying jobs. Women from social groups are mostly are concentrated in informal employment arising out of economic necessity. With regard to broad employment status, there was a reduction in regular wage salaried employment for women belonging to SC, ST & OBC. At the same time, the time use patterns of SC, ST & OBC women revealed greater participation in unpaid domestic & care-giving services in comparison to women belonging to General category. The participation in employment related activities and production of goods for own final use without regular employment reflects on vulnerability emerging out of poverty, low socio-economic status, caste norms etc. that demands a more systematic investigation into their socio-cultural lives along with formulation of polices aimed at curbing discrimination faced by them both because of gender and caste and ethnic backgrounds. Policy interventions aimed at economic opportunities along with promoting women's agency will contribute to promote gender equality across social groups.
- **Regularisation of Job Contracts:** Women are commonly seen working in many areas on a casual, temporary, or contractual basis, mainly at lower levels. Even though the type of work performed by both categories of employees is the same or similar, women are frequently paid less and there has been lack of regular job contracts. The recently introduced



fixed term contract under the Industrial Relations Code 2020 introduces written contract and extends the provisions of social security to these workers. Fixed-term employment workers include those workers who have a written contract of employment for a fixed period²⁶. This change in the labour legislation may contribute in increasing the job security of the workers as under the new rules; those workers who have an employment contract shall be entitled to statutory social security provisions at par with permanent employees. This might facilitate in having better access to social security for workers (Samantroy & Pradhan, 2020).

- **Employment Promotion in States:** It was also revealed that states with lower WPR had higher unpaid work, therefore there is a need to promote employment related activities specific to those States. The access to employment opportunities in peri-urban areas in States where women have reported a low WPR is important as women may have restricted mobility due to social norms operating in those regions. Skilling opportunities commensurate with market requirements may enable in the transition of women from education to employment. The adoption of new technology may have a diverse impact on women's working lives in different parts of India, removing some from their current employment and forcing others to move to high-skill jobs (Deb, 2020). There is a need to invest more in digital literacy across regions for promoting greater employability and economic opportunities for women.
- **Macroeconomic and Redistribution Policies:** From a macro economic perspective, it is important to focus on employment generation combined with reduction in unpaid work. Such an effort may not be confined to the micro or household level or uncovering of gendered social norms but also on financial allocation and gender sensitive policies that contribute to revenue generation. These may include larger social sector funding, investments in infrastructure, energy, water (near to residence) etc. that may contribute in reducing unpaid work for women and enable them to spend more time in paid work. There is no denying the fact that; women's greater share of unpaid work in contrast to men has contributed to low labour market participation and widening gender imbalances in the labour market. The Covid-19 pandemic has further exacerbated the problem, and some women may be compelled to leave the labour market or work part-time as coordinating unpaid and care work duties with paid work commitments becomes difficult. Therefore, it is also important to invest in transportation services, community security, and the provision of child care and elderly care facilities for addressing gender inequality alongwith promoting gendered subsidies, commodity specific taxes etc.
- **Conducting Regular Time Use Surveys and better gender-disaggregated data:** By conducting the First National Time Use Survey in 2019, India

²⁶ For details see: <https://labour.gov.in/sites/default/files/FTE%20Final%20Notification.pdf>



made considerable progress in this direction. The time use surveys have broader policy implications, particularly in terms of understanding the differences in men's and women's experiences, as well as uncovering gender inequalities in household division of labour and highlighting the invisible constraints of women. The visibility of unpaid work in official statistics enables in policymaking in the direction of unpaid work reduction and redistribution.

- **Better Capturing of Multiple/Simultaneous Activities and Harmonization of TUS:** From the TUS 2019 report, it was revealed that activity classification and methodological issues were not aligned adequately to the international guidelines. The issue of harmonisation is significant for better comparability of data, hence there is a need to develop measures and promote comparability. Also, the capturing of multiple and simultaneous activities along with capturing of context variables need to be more reliable and comparable. There is no denying the fact that 'time' is too nuanced and it is difficult to capture, there is a need to focus on integrating time with its multiplicity and synchronicity. From a methodological perspective, it is important to have more engagement with harmonising multiple and simultaneous activities. Such an engagement may uncover the gendered division of labour which consists of paid, underpaid and unpaid work and all that lies between and within recognised, unrecognised and increasingly derecognised labour.
- **Better recording of Leisure and Recreation, Learning, and Personal care activities:** In respect of non-SNA activities of leisure and recreation, learning, rest and personal care it is of interest to examine whether women and men have equal options. Though males and females spend time differently, no clear bias against females is supported by the data (Rajivan, 1999)²⁷. Even in the context of TUS 2019, there are significant gaps in capturing residual activities that need to be revised particularly in the context of diverse socio-cultural context of a country like India for effective capturing of women's residual activities. These data gaps need to be explored through methodological innovation and harmonisation with international standards along with understanding of some of the good practices in developed in other countries in this direction.
- **Focussing on Time poverty through Time Use Surveys**
There is no denying the fact that women in developing countries are taxed in terms of time and spend most of their time in providing for the household. Traditional poverty indicators have neglected women's time use and understanding women's experiences of poverty. Also it was observed that poverty rates increased with time deficits (UN

²⁷ For details, see: <https://millenniumindicators.un.org/unsd/demographic/sconcerns/tuse/Country/India/sourceind99a.pdf>



Women, 2020) .Such a situation is peculiar in developing countries where women are income poor and are engulfed in the vicious cycle of income poverty due to time constraints. An assessment of women's engagement in multiple and simultaneous activities may provide an insight into situation of time poverty along with an understanding of other indicators. In this regard, there is need to include indicators on time poverty in the TUS for better assessment of women's situation and also for informing public policy on access to employment and social protection.

- **Generalisation of Time-use Surveys:** Time-use surveys are costly: not more, but not less than other household surveys. This is why, beyond the preference for stand-alone time-use surveys, the inclusion of time-use diaries as modules of multipurpose household surveys might be a solution for their generalisation: the incremental cost being more affordable. Reducing costs may be seem prohibitive to decision-makers. Embedding individual diaries as modules of multipurpose household surveys can help reducing costs on vehicles and transport, even though the teams of interviewers are specialised for time-use data collection and are therefore not the same as for the core survey (Charmes, 2021).
- **Using TUS to improve Employment Policy effectively:** The results of TUS regarding women and employment very clearly show that there exists a sizeable gender gap to overcome. Governments need to be at the forefront of a shift in policy to make employment more accessible and equitable to women. A legal and institutional framework needs to be established whereby labour laws ensure better protection to women workers particularly in the informal economy. The recent labour reforms process needs to acknowledge the additional constraints of women in terms of their excessive engagement in unpaid work. The Social Security Code 2020 that has amalgamated the Maternity Benefit Act 1961 along with other social security legislations need to incorporate the role of fathers and promote caring rights as a shared responsibility with the introduction of parental leave policies. So the TUS play a significant role in informing gender sensitive employment policies of a country. In addition, governments need to be cautious that international and regional trade agreements do not adversely impact women's economic activities²⁸.

²⁸ For details, see: https://www.levyinstitute.org/undp-levy-conference/papers/paper_Vacarr.pdf

APPENDIX

Table 1: Worker Population Ratio (WPR) (in percent) according to usual status (ps+ss) for each State/UT age group: 15 -59 years

State/UT	Rural		Urban		Rural +Urban	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Andhra Pradesh	81.8	48.0	75.1	29.0	79.7	41.7
ArunachalPradesh	65.8	22.5	64.4	16.0	65.6	21.3
Assam	76.0	14.7	76.3	16.7	76.0	14.9
Bihar	71.0	9.8	66.6	7.8	70.5	9.5
Chhattisgarh	82.2	62.8	75.2	25.9	80.9	55.6
Delhi	70.5	21.3	72.8	15.4	72.7	15.6
Goa	77.9	25.0	76.6	29.7	77.1	27.8
Gujarat	81.1	43.6	81.3	21.8	81.2	33.8
Haryana	74.2	14.4	75.2	21.3	74.6	16.8
HimachalPradesh	81.2	72.4	78.8	38.8	80.9	68.1
Jharkhand	78.9	44.7	68.5	15.7	76.4	38.3
Karnataka	82.9	44.5	77.9	23.1	80.8	35.3
Kerala	73.5	33.5	72.4	27.3	72.9	30.5
MadhyaPradesh	82.9	46.8	75.0	24.1	80.7	40.5
Maharashtra	77.9	52.4	76.7	26.9	77.4	41.3
Manipur	68.3	25.3	65.8	34.2	67.6	27.9
Meghalaya	76.2	50.0	65.7	25.1	74.2	45.8
Mizoram	75.6	40.0	65.2	34.3	70.7	37.2
Nagaland	60.3	33.3	55.6	23.5	58.9	30.2
Odisha	78.8	38.0	74.4	23.7	78.0	35.7
Punjab	75.9	25.9	77.8	22.1	76.6	24.5
Rajasthan	76.6	46.8	71.0	18.5	75.1	39.3
Sikkim	79.3	67.8	80.4	41.6	79.6	60.7
TamilNadu	79.0	48.8	79.2	33.5	79.1	41.6
Telangana	75.9	56.4	72.4	27.9	74.4	45.4
Tripura	79.1	26.3	80.8	21.3	79.0	25.3
Uttarakhand	71.3	39.2	73.6	16.5	72.0	32.7
Uttar Pradesh	75.1	19.3	70.0	12.4	73.9	17.7
WestBengal	80.8	23.6	79.1	28.3	80.3	25.1
Andaman&N. Island	76.2	31.0	82.9	27.0	79.0	29.3
Chandigarh	85.9	22.0	77.7	21.4	78.2	21.4
Dadra&NagarHaveli	85.8	85.6	85.1	22.1	85.4	52.8
Daman&Diu	71.7	31.6	91.5	42.4	88.0	39.7
Jammu&Kashmir	73.8	39.6	74.0	21..2	73.8	35.9
Ladakh	75.2	58.2	81.5	46.7	76.1	56.6
Lakshadweep	87.1	31.0	78.4	24.5	80.7	25.7
Puduchery	74.6	41.3	73.2	28.9	73.7	32.8
AllIndia	77.5	34.4	75.1	23.3	76.7	30.9

Source: Periodic Labour Force Survey of India 2019-20

Table 2: Workforce Participation Rate (in percent) according to usual status (ps+ss) for different social groups in PLFS (2019-20) - Female

Gender	Rural				Urban				Rural + Urban			
	ST	SC	OBC	Others	ST	SC	OBC	Others	ST	SC	OBC	Others
Male	81.4	77.3	77.5	75.7	73.9	75.5	75.2	75.1	80.4	76.9	76.8	75.4
Female	54.2	34.3	33.9	25.4	32.0	26.7	23.0	21.6	51.4	32.5	30.5	23.6
Total	67.8	55.9	55.7	50.4	53.1	51.3	49.4	48.8	66.0	54.8	53.7	49.7

Source: Calculated from the unit level data of PLFS

Table 3: Percentage distribution of females in usual status (ps+ss) by status in employment during PLFS (2017-18), PLFS (2018-19) and PLFS (2019-20)

		Own-account worker & Employer	Un-paid family helper	All self-employed	Regular workers	Casual labour
2019-20	Rural	19.99	42.62	62.61	9.97	27.43
	Urban	22.67	10.67	33.34	56.01	10.65
	Rural + Urban	20.62	35	55.62	20.95	23.42
2018-19	Rural	21.43	38.02	59.45	11.63	28.92
	Urban	24.26	9.43	33.69	55.99	10.32
	Rural + Urban	22.15	30.77	52.92	22.87	24.21
2017-18	Rural	18.46	38.96	57.42	10.95	31.62
	Urban	22.91	10.8	33.71	53.57	12.72
	Rural + Urban	19.6	31.77	51.37	21.82	26.8

Source: Calculated from the unit level data of PLFS

Table 4: Percentage distribution of females in usual status (ps+ss) by Social Groups in Broad Employment Status during PLFS (2017-18), PLFS (2018-19) and PLFS (2019-20) (Age Group: 15-59 Years)

			ST	SC	OBC	Others
RURAL	2019-20	Self-Employed	64.6	48.05	67.2	68.82
		Regular Wage/ Salaried workers	7.43	11.67	8.17	15.16
		Casual Labour	27.97	40.29	24.65	16.02
	2018-19	Self-Employed	63.55	42.77	63.24	67.53
		Regular Wage/ Salaried Workers	7.35	12.01	11.19	16.99
		Casual Labour	29.11	45.22	25.58	15.47
	2017-18	Self-Employed	56.72	40.55	61.76	67.59
		Regular Wage/ Salaried Workers	8.02	10.82	10.54	14.9
		Casual Labour	35.25	48.63	27.7	17.51
URBAN	2019-20	Self-Employed	28.82	24.47	37.51	33.32
		Regular Wage/ Salaried Workers	49.49	57.96	49.72	63.3
		Casual Labour	21.69	17.58	12.77	3.38
	2018-19	Self-Employed	24.51	24.22	38.01	33.55
		Regular Wage/ Salaried Workers	54.93	58.99	49.81	62.32
		Casual Labour	20.56	16.78	12.19	4.13
	2017-18	Self-Employed	19.8	26.78	38.31	33.53
		Regular Wage/ Salaried Workers	52.6	55.85	47.7	59.33
		Casual Labour	27.6	17.36	13.98	7.14
RURAL + URBAN	2019-20	Self-Employed	61.8	43.54	60.27	54.22
		Regular Wage/ Salaried Workers	10.72	20.5	17.85	34.96
		Casual Labour	27.48	35.96	21.88	10.82
	2018-19	Self-Employed	61.1	39.07	56.85	52.85
		Regular Wage/ Salaried Workers	10.34	21.38	20.96	36.59
		Casual Labour	28.57	39.54	22.2	10.57
	2017-18	Self-Employed	53.97	37.45	55.79	54.04
		Regular Wage/ Salaried Workers	11.36	20.96	20.01	32.57
			Casual Labour	34.67	41.59	24.21

Source: Calculated from the unit level data of PLFS

Table 5: Percentage of workers in usual status (ps+ss) eligible for Social Security Benefits(Age Group: 15-59 Years)

Social Security Benefit	2019-20								
	Rural			Urban			Rural + Urban		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Eligible	36.47	38.33	36.89	46.48	43.03	45.59	42.61	41.45	42.33
Not eligible	59.18	58.01	58.92	49.24	53.76	50.4	53.09	55.18	53.59
Not known	4.35	3.67	4.2	4.27	3.21	4	4.3	3.37	4.07
2018-19									
Eligible	36.45	36.6	36.49	46.25	42.42	45.36	42.36	40.31	41.9
Not eligible	55.3	57.96	55.85	48.26	52.97	49.35	51.06	54.79	51.89
Not known	8.25	5.43	7.67	5.49	4.6	5.28	6.59	4.9	6.21
2017-18									
Eligible	37.3	36.09	37.06	44.59	42.86	44.19	41.58	40.48	41.33
Not eligible	51.57	54.78	52.19	46.64	50.06	47.42	48.68	51.73	49.33
Not known	11.13	9.12	10.75	8.77	7.09	8.38	9.74	7.81	9.33

Source: Calculated from the unit level data of PLFS

Table 6: Percentage of workers in usual status (ps+ss) have written contract/no written contract (Age Group: 15-59 Years)

	Rural			Urban			Rural + Urban		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
2019-20									
No written contract	70.84	57.79	68.03	65.93	67.48	66.33	67.82	64.26	66.96
Have written contract	29	42	32	34	33	34	32	36	33
2018-19									
No written contract	70.28	58.38	67.83	70.53	72	70.87	70.43	67.05	69.68
Have written contract	29.72	41.62	32.17	29.47	28	29.13	29.57	32.95	30.32
2017-18									
No written contract	71.71	57.65	69.1	72.76	72	72.59	72.33	66.92	71.19
Have written contract	28.29	42.35	30.9	27.24	28	27.41	27.67	33.08	28.81

Source: Calculated from the unit level data of PLFS

Table 7: Percentage distribution of workers in usual status (ps+ss) by Level of Education during PLFS (2017-18), PLFS (2018-19) and PLFS (2019-20) (Age Group: 15-59 Years)

	Rural		Urban		Rural +Urban	
	Male	Fe-male	Male	Fe-male	Male	Fe-male
2019-20						
Not literate	93.3	47.81	88.24	31.25	92.39	44.89
Literate & Up to Primary	92.06	38.25	90.13	27.32	91.6	35.47
Middle	77.83	27.82	78.17	19.04	77.92	25.23
Secondary	65.12	21.69	67.27	13.07	65.82	18.69
Higher Secondary	57.88	18.1	56.74	12.97	57.46	15.99
Diploma/ Certificate Course	74.38	39.19	77.34	41.24	75.89	40.19
Graduate	69.63	21.2	76.45	27.51	73.28	25.03
Postgraduate & Above	81.52	38.33	86.39	40.2	84.69	39.67
Secondary & Above	64.54	21.42	69.63	21.45	66.66	21.43
2018-19						
Not Literate	92.18	36.98	85.26	27.53	90.95	35.34
Literate & Up to Primary	90.97	31.33	88.58	23.78	90.38	29.47
Middle	76.09	21.09	76.93	16.95	76.32	19.82
Secondary	61.03	17.36	64.81	10.75	62.24	15.01
Higher Secondary	56.11	13.65	54.04	9.82	55.35	12.06
Diploma/ Certificate Course	67.72	35.36	77.33	37.12	72.9	36.25
Graduate	70.66	18.47	75.82	24.4	73.43	22.08
Post Graduate & Above	78.11	31.38	87.55	38.31	84.14	36.46
Secondary & Above	62.02	17.12	68.11	18.3	64.53	17.66
2017-18						
Not Literate	92.32	35.25	88.9	26.91	91.76	33.83
Literate & Up to Primary	89.73	27.31	88.07	24.83	89.31	26.7
Middle	74.76	18.57	77.05	14.59	75.37	17.37
Secondary	61.6	15.7	66.21	11.31	63.02	14.12
Higher Secondary	54.6	12.55	53.14	10.07	54.09	11.5
Diploma/ Certificate Course	60.18	37.15	74.13	35.98	67.5	36.54
Graduate	68.19	18.69	76.92	23.97	72.8	21.86
Post Graduate & Above	80.84	31.58	86.25	37.8	84.16	36.14
Secondary & Above	61.16	16.1	68.1	18.16	63.92	17.05

Source: Calculated from the unit level data of PLFS

Table 8: Percentage of workers of age 15-59 who received vocational training during PLFS (2017-18), PLFS (2018-19) and PLFS (2019-20) - (Age Group: 15-59 Years)

		Rural		Urban		Rural + Urban	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
2019-20	Formal	2.06	2.3	6.41	10.45	3.43	4.24
	Hereditary	7.36	7	1.99	1.79	5.67	5.76
	Self-Learning	4.88	3.33	6.11	3.49	5.27	3.37
	Learning on job	6.07	2.63	11.33	7.44	7.73	3.77
	Others	0.7	1.03	1.01	1.46	0.79	1.13
2018-19	Formal	1.73	1.86	5.17	8.51	2.82	3.54
	Hereditary	5.05	4.67	1.76	1.42	4.01	3.85
	Self-Learning	4.11	3.35	5.63	4.62	4.59	3.67
	Learning on job	5.48	3.29	10.1	6.38	6.94	4.07
	Others	0.92	1.41	1.75	2.83	1.18	1.77
2017-18	Formal	1.34	1.36	3.93	6.49	2.13	2.67
	Hereditary	3.93	3.13	1.55	1.17	3.21	2.63
	Self-Learning	3.44	3.07	2.99	2.78	3.31	2.99
	Learning on job	4	2.48	6.55	4.28	4.78	2.94
	Others	0.45	0.55	0.98	1.12	0.61	0.69

Source: Calculated from the unit level data of PLFS

Table 9: Percentage distribution of Female workers in usual status (ps+ss) by Marital Status (15 - 59 years)

	RURAL				URBAN				RURAL+URBAN			
	Never married	Currently married	Widowed	Divorced/Separated	Never married	Currently married	Widowed	Divorced/Separated	Never married	Currently married	Widowed	Divorced/Separated
2019-20												
Self - Employed	56.27	65.89	41.57	22.68	19.9	38.09	27.45	28.19	40.15	60.21	37.45	24.91
Regular Workers	24.5	8.19	13.73	21.27	75.28	51.3	52.63	62.79	46.99	17.01	25.09	38.09
Casual Labourers	19.24	25.92	44.71	56.05	4.83	10.6	19.92	9.02	12.86	22.79	37.46	37
2018-19												
Self - Employed	51.35	62.86	39.68	35.37	22	38.19	27.59	17.95	37.63	57.42	36.09	28.88



	RURAL				URBAN				RURAL+URBAN			
2019-20												
	Never married	Currently married	Widowed	Divorced/Separated	Never married	Currently married	Widowed	Divorced/Separated	Never married	Currently married	Widowed	Divorced/Separated
Regular Workers	29.01	9.45	16.85	22.29	71.83	51.84	55.42	67.08	49.03	18.8	28.3	38.97
Casual Labours	19.63	27.69	43.46	42.34	6.16	9.98	17	14.97	13.34	23.78	35.6	32.15
2017-18												
Self - Employed	53.65	60.7	39.53	17.93	23.3	37.29	29.88	19.3	40.11	55.39	36.92	18.54
Regular Workers	21.97	9.34	14.53	25.62	70.6	49.53	51.07	68.06	43.68	18.46	24.42	44.4
Casual Labours	24.38	29.96	45.95	56.45	6.11	13.17	19.04	12.63	16.22	26.15	38.66	37.06

Source: Calculated from the unit level data of PLFS

Table 10: Participation rate of time spent in different activities in two-digit classification (15-59 Years)

Activity	Rural		Urban		Rural + Urban	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Employment and related activities	69.5	22.5	72.8	19.9	70.6	21.7
Production of goods for own final use	21.3	28.5	3.4	9.4	15.6	22.6
Unpaid domestic services for household members	31.1	93.3	24.0	89.0	28.8	92.0
Unpaid care-giving services for household members	16.8	33.6	14.7	30.6	16.1	32.7
Unpaid volunteer, trainee, and other unpaid work	3.1	2.1	2.6	2.2	2.9	2.2
Learning	13.4	9.8	15.9	13.5	14.2	10.9
Socializing and communication, community participation and religious practice	93.7	92.3	91.6	92.1	93.0	92.3
Culture, leisure, mass-media and sports practices	84.7	80.0	90.3	91.5	86.5	83.5
Self-care and maintenance	99.5	99.7	99.5	99.6	99.5	99.6

Source: Calculated from the unit level data of TUS 2019-20


Table 11: Average time (in Minutes) spent in a day per participant in two-digit classification (15-59 years)

Activity	Rural		Urban		Rural + Urban	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Employment and related activities	445	326	521	385	470	343
Production of goods for own final use	203	123	138	63	198	115
Unpaid domestic services for household members	96	318	93	306	95	315
Unpaid care-giving services for household members	74	135	72	142	73	137
Unpaid volunteer, trainee, and other unpaid work	100	100	109	101	103	100
Learning	416	414	431	414	421	414
Socializing and communication, community participation and religious practice	152	136	135	136	146	136
Culture, leisure, mass-media and sports practices	143	142	147	168	144	151
Self-care and maintenance	720	705	692	701	711	704

Source: Calculated from the unit level data of TUS 2019-20

Table 12: Percentage of Workers in the age group 15-59 years participating in different activities in two-digit classification

	Rural		Urban		Rural + Urban	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Employment and related activities	83.5	69.9	90.9	83.3	85.8	73.5
Production of goods for own final use	23.8	33.7	3.7	9.45	17.5	27.3
Unpaid domestic services for household members	33.2	95.1	24.5	87.98	30.5	93.2
Unpaid care-giving services for household members	19.4	25.6	17.3	22.6	18.7	24.8
Unpaid volunteer, trainee, and other unpaid work	3.3	2.9	2.7	2.8	3.1	2.8
Learning	1.1	1.4	1.6	3.1	1.2	1.8
Socializing and communication, community participation and religious practice	94.7	90.6	92.1	89.79	93.9	90.4
Culture, leisure, mass-media and sports practices	83.2	77.3	89.1	86.79	85.0	79.8
Self-care and maintenance	99.6	99.7	99.6	99.62	99.6	99.7

Source: Calculated from the unit level data of TUS 2019-20

Table 13: Average Time Spent (in Minutes) by Workers in different activities in two-digit classification (15-59 Years)

Activity	Rural		Urban		Rural + Urban	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Employment and related activities	453	369	530	420	479	384
Production of goods for own final use	210	145	148	66	206	138
Unpaid domestic services for household members	92	249	87	215	91	240
Unpaid care-giving services for household members	72	104	69	102	71	103
Unpaid volunteer, trainee, and other unpaid work	96	113	102	122	97	115
Learning	181	152	150	173	169	162
Socializing and communication, community participation and religious practice	150	118	129	115	143	117
Culture, leisure, mass-media and sports practices	125	109	125	117	125	112
Self-care and maintenance	714	671	681	655	704	667

Source: Calculated from the unit level data of TUS 2019-20

Table 14: Participation Rate in Unpaid Domestic Services in two-digit classification for household members (15-59 Years)

	Rural		Urban		Rural + Urban	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Food and meals management and preparation	5.09	88.55	8.07	84.25	6.04	87.24
Cleaning and maintaining of own dwelling and surroundings	9.07	77.95	5.22	68.43	7.84	75.04
Do-it-yourself decoration, maintenance and repair	1.32	1.15	0.91	0.84	1.19	1.05
Care and maintenance of textiles and footwear	2.89	52.56	3.05	52.34	2.94	52.49
Household management for own final use	1.62	2.45	1.01	2.4	1.42	2.44
Pet care	6.79	6.45	0.68	0.82	4.84	4.73

	Rural		Urban		Rural + Urban	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Shopping for own household members	10.67	3.81	11.11	10.76	10.81	5.94
Travelling, moving, transporting or accompanying goods or persons related to unpaid	3.85	1.44	3.75	3.11	3.82	1.95
Other unpaid domestic services for household members	2.37	5.66	1.2	4.02	1.99	5.16

Source: Calculated from the unit level data of TUS 2019-20

Table 15: Average time spent (in Minutes) in unpaid domestic services in two-digit classification for household members Age (15-59 years)

	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
	Rural		Urban		Rural + Urban	
Food and meals management and preparation	98	215	88	205	94	212
Cleaning and maintaining of own dwelling and surroundings	52	73	52	72	52	73
Do-it-yourself decoration, maintenance and repair	79	81	61	64	75	76
Care and maintenance of textiles and footwear	40	64	44	68	41	65
Household management for own final use	52	66	56	68	53	66
Pet care	94	88	76	75	94	87
Shopping for own household members	61	63	59	63	61	63
Travelling, moving, transporting or accompanying goods or persons related to unpaid	67	62	58	58	64	60
Other unpaid domestic services for household members	69	93	68	88	69	92

Source: Calculated from the unit level data of TUS 2019-20



Table 16: Participation Rate & Time Spent in Unpaid Care-giving services for household members (15-59 Years)

	Participation Rate		Average Time Spent (in minutes)	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Rural				
Childcare and instruction	16.1	32.6	72	135
Care for dependent adults	0.2	0.5	96	82
Help to non-dependent adult household members	0.2	0.3	78	75
Travelling and accompanying goods or persons related to unpaid care-giving services for household members	0.5	0.5	84	74
Other activities related to unpaid care-giving services for household members	0.2	0.4	80	76
All care activities	16.8	33.6	74	135
Urban				
Childcare and instruction	13.7	29.5	69	140
Care for dependent adults	0.2	0.6	119	91
Help to non-dependent adult household members	0.2	0.4	92	73
Travelling and accompanying goods or persons related to unpaid care-giving services for household members	1.0	1.4	59	67
Other activities related to unpaid care-giving services for household members	0.1	0.3	75	74
All care activities	14.7	30.6	72	142
Rural + Urban				
Childcare and instruction	15.3	31.7	71	136
Care for dependent adults	0.2	0.5	104	85
Help to non-dependent adult household members	0.2	0.4	83	75
Travelling and accompanying goods or persons related to unpaid care-giving services for household members	0.7	0.8	72	70
Other activities related to unpaid care-giving services for household members	0.2	0.4	79	76
All care activities	16.1	32.7	73	137

Source: Calculated from the unit level data of TUS 2019-20

Table 17: Average Time (in minutes) spent by Females in SNA production, Non-SNA production & residual activities (15-59 years) – State-wise

State	Rural						Urban						Rural + Urban					
	SNA production		Non-SNA production		Other activities		SNA production		Non-SNA production		Other activities		SNA production		Non-SNA production		Other activities	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Andhra Pradesh	443	277	102	321	1063	989	501	289	102	329	1049	1037	460	280	102	324	1058	1004
Arunachal Pradesh	401	299	142	393	1024	908	451	321	132	407	1041	935	405	300	141	394	1026	911
Assam	420	158	123	432	988	951	481	200	123	438	974	968	427	161	123	433	987	953
Bihar	420	165	120	480	1040	953	462	258	117	458	1059	992	424	170	120	478	1042	957
Chhattisgarh	397	255	116	324	1083	957	501	234	100	331	1018	1024	419	251	113	325	1069	971
Delhi	514	480	176	401	991	1064	541	414	127	393	1030	1048	540	414	127	393	1030	1049
Goa	495	254	121	411	1025	1016	457	263	121	372	1012	935	470	260	121	388	1017	970
Gujarat	474	278	108	355	1002	928	556	297	108	402	991	987	512	283	108	377	996	956
Haryana	457	222	99	377	1077	1012	506	336	102	353	1036	1062	475	249	100	368	1062	1030
Himachal Pradesh	450	269	129	337	1045	954	507	387	116	326	1057	1023	455	275	127	336	1047	960
Jammu & Kashmir	463	172	104	385	1041	999	476	241	128	387	1071	1059	466	180	109	386	1048	1013
Jharkhand	439	219	121	399	1029	967	466	280	120	388	1066	1023	444	226	121	396	1036	978
Karnataka	425	282	92	373	1049	964	500	336	98	375	1020	1020	456	299	95	374	1036	988

State	Rural						Urban						Rural + Urban					
	SNA production		Non-SNA production		Other activities		SNA production		Non-SNA production		Other activities		SNA production		Non-SNA production		Other activities	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Kerala	428	261	121	377	1105	1008	450	286	117	383	1099	1012	438	272	119	380	1102	1010
Madhya Pradesh	421	231	121	364	1060	955	480	231	111	363	1062	1031	436	231	119	364	1061	975
Maharashtra	427	288	107	352	1066	944	529	290	111	376	1022	1002	472	289	109	362	1046	970
Manipur	399	261	115	330	1106	991	395	286	135	355	1126	972	398	266	120	336	1111	987
Meghalaya	373	225	121	348	1080	993	394	283	132	326	1123	1054	375	231	123	345	1085	1003
Mizoram	421	313	129	429	1003	891	441	373	128	413	1060	946	429	334	129	422	1028	916
Nagaland	368	253	120	301	1130	1026	389	226	126	316	1161	1078	374	247	122	306	1140	1041
Odisha	432	188	119	406	1066	967	492	234	126	376	1034	1024	441	193	120	402	1062	974
Punjab	496	246	105	423	1034	988	522	338	112	410	1011	1000	505	275	108	419	1026	992
Rajasthan	470	255	112	341	1056	968	540	284	112	361	1034	1049	488	258	112	346	1050	987
Sikkim	422	299	121	332	1019	992	480	376	117	323	1027	1014	436	312	120	330	1021	997
Tamil Nadu	472	306	93	299	1043	994	487	309	99	331	1045	1033	479	307	95	314	1044	1012
Telangana	445	369	93	282	1044	955	520	381	97	329	1013	1017	476	373	95	301	1030	981
Tripura	414	219	123	429	1041	952	456	269	130	402	1023	1009	423	227	124	423	1037	965
Uttarakhand	491	257	123	400	1009	946	535	345	110	375	986	1041	501	264	120	396	1004	964
Uttar Pradesh	419	210	118	394	1073	1002	501	308	114	371	1051	1065	437	220	117	389	1068	1016
West Bengal	460	212	120	428	1024	969	525	365	112	384	1001	1022	479	242	118	415	1017	984

State	Rural						Urban						Rural + Urban					
	SNA production		Non-SNA production		Other activities		SNA production		Non-SNA production		Other activities		SNA production		Non-SNA production		Other activities	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
A & N Islands	398	336	136	380	1062	962	456	334	130	380	1051	987	424	335	132	380	1056	971
Chandigarh	527	284	112	421	963	974	502	387	103	342	1012	1047	503	385	104	345	1010	1045
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	577	374	131	310	882	858	656	279	125	442	778	875	627	341	126	371	816	865
Daman & Diu	540	339	106	465	1069	942	709	572	102	399	786	912	691	542	102	412	827	918
Lakshadweep	391	271	109	417	1094	1000	411	298	102	393	1139	1024	406	292	104	398	1129	1019
Pondicherry	454	305	113	350	1079	1021	496	322	118	341	1046	1029	483	317	116	344	1057	1026
All India	438	245	114	383	1051	971	510	303	110	371	1031	1024	460	257	113	380	1044	987

Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

Table 18: Participation rate and average time spent (in minutes) in SNA, Non-SNA & other activities by Social Groups- Female (15-59 Years)

	Participation Rate				Average Time Spent (in minutes)				
	ST	SC	OBC	Others	ST	SC	OBC	Others	
Rural	SNA	62.5	43.1	43.4	40.3	250	237	234	200
	Non-SNA	94.7	94.6	94.1	93.4	339	370	361	380
	Other Activities	99.7	99.7	99.6	99.7	960	986	997	1003
Urban	SNA	34.0	30.7	28.5	24.2	289	291	273	283
	Non-SNA	90.9	91.4	91.3	88.6	329	346	348	357
	Other Activities	99.8	99.5	99.6	99.6	1041	1032	1043	1053
Rural + Urban	SNA	58.3	40.0	39.0	33.6	254	248	242	225
	Non-SNA	94.1	93.8	93.3	91.4	338	364	357	370
	Other Activities	99.7	99.7	99.6	99.6	972	998	1010	1024

Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

Table 19: Participation rate in SNA, Non-SNA & other activities by Highest Level of Education (15-59 Years)

		Not literate	literate below primary	Primary	Upper middle	Secondary	Higher secondary	Diploma Secondary	Diploma Higher secondary	Diploma Graduation & above	Graduate	Post graduate & above	
RURAL	MALE	SNA	89.7	91.3	87.4	76.9	69.1	66.8	63.9	66.4	73.0	72.1	78.5
		Non-SNA	44.3	48.9	45.7	41.0	37.4	36.3	36.4	39.2	44.4	41.8	44.4
		Residual	99.8	99.9	99.5	99.6	99.6	99.3	98.8	99.0	99.4	98.9	99.3
	FE-MALE	SNA	55.8	50.7	46.7	40.4	32.6	30.7	32.0	34.4	39.4	33.8	40.7
		Non-SNA	97.3	98.2	96.9	91.6	88.7	89.7	85.1	84.0	92.1	92.6	92.4
		Residual	99.8	99.9	99.8	99.7	99.6	99.2	99.4	99.2	98.5	99.1	99.1
URBAN	MALE	SNA	83.7	86.0	86.0	73.7	67.1	61.9	67.4	66.1	72.3	74.9	78.5
		Non-SNA	36.8	36.9	38.0	33.8	31.7	31.1	34.4	36.7	37.1	36.7	41.0
		Residual	99.8	99.7	99.8	99.6	99.6	99.3	99.0	99.4	99.9	99.3	99.6
	FE-MALE	SNA	36.4	33.1	30.5	25.9	20.7	18.4	26.9	27.2	30.1	29.1	37.2
		Non-SNA	96.2	96.8	96.2	90.3	87.3	84.2	82.8	87.4	86.2	89.3	90.0
		Residual	99.8	99.8	99.9	99.8	99.6	99.5	99.3	98.8	99.5	99.2	99.3

		Not literate	literate below primary	Primary	Upper middle	Secondary	Higher secondary	Diploma Secondary	Diploma Higher secondary	Diploma Graduation & above	Graduate	Post graduate & above	
RURAL + URBAN	MALE	SNA	80.4	83.9	83.4	74.8	66.9	63.8	64.0	64.3	69.7	69.8	73.2
		Non-SNA	41.9	45.9	43.7	39.5	36.3	35.0	36.7	38.8	41.2	39.6	42.2
	FE-MALE	Residual	99.8	99.9	99.6	99.6	99.6	99.3	99.0	99.1	99.6	99.2	99.5
		SNA	47.8	44.8	41.4	35.7	27.7	25.0	28.7	30.3	33.5	29.9	37.3
		Non-SNA	92.4	95.8	95.7	91.0	88.1	87.4	84.5	85.7	88.1	90.4	90.4
		Residual	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.7	99.6	99.3	99.4	99.1	98.9	99.2	99.2

Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

Table 20: Average Time Spent (in minutes) in SNA, Non-SNA & other activities by Highest Level of Education (15-59 Years)

		Not Literate	Literate below Primary	Primary	Upper Middle	Secondary	Higher Secondary	Diploma Secondary	Diploma Higher Secondary	Diploma Graduation & Above	Graduate	Postgraduate & Above
URBAN	MALE	SNA 491	489	496	496	495	486	477	472	456	473	461
		Non-SNA 103	103	93	94	94	95	95	94	95	96	103
		Other 989	979	976	1040	1075	1107	1082	1089	1074	1047	1033
		SNA 295	278	262	231	229	246	344	315	345	326	361
		Non-SNA 338	361	372	370	360	346	312	325	336	338	317
		Other 1006	997	1001	1045	1077	1101	1086	1065	1044	1040	1017
RURAL	MALE	SNA 424	424	424	421	409	401	408	401	424	403	393
		Non-SNA 108	103	103	100	100	102	110	100	88	106	99
		Other 1009	1001	1019	1072	1117	1132	1134	1130	1088	1100	1084
		SNA 257	219	223	202	191	200	210	281	257	227	271
		Non-SNA 352	392	393	374	356	349	331	343	320	354	332
		Other 953	943	953	1014	1060	1062	1089	1052	1038	1031	1019

		Literate below Primary	Primary	Upper Middle	Secondary	Higher Secondary	Diploma Secondary	Diploma Higher Secondary	Diploma Graduation & Above	Graduate	Postgraduate & Above
RURAL + URBAN	SNA	436	440	440	436	432	438	433	440	443	439
	Non-SNA	103	101	99	98	100	104	98	92	100	102
	Other	997	1010	1064	1104	1122	1112	1112	1081	1070	1049
	SNA	227	229	208	201	214	262	294	304	286	334
	Non-SNA	386	388	373	357	348	323	335	330	344	321
	Other	953	964	1022	1066	1079	1088	1058	1041	1037	1018

Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019



Table 21: Participation rate in SNA, Non-SNA & Other Activities by Marital Status (15-59 Years)-Female

		Never married	Currently married	Widowed/ Divorced/ Separated
RURAL	SNA	28.6	46.9	66.0
	Non-SNA	74.1	98.6	94.7
	Other Activities	99.3	99.7	99.7
URBAN	SNA	22.1	26.9	48.1
	Non-SNA	62.4	98.1	94.0
	Other Activities	99.4	99.6	99.6
RURAL + URBAN	SNA	26.3	41.1	60.0
	Non-SNA	70.0	98.4	94.5
	Other Activities	99.3	99.7	99.7

Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

Table 22: Average time spent (in minutes) in SNA, Non-SNA & Other Activities by Marital Status (15-59 Years)-Female

		Never married	Currently married	Widowed/ Divorced/ Separated
RURAL	SNA	210	224	303
	Non-SNA	202	400	263
	Other Activities	1229	939	988
URBAN	SNA	341	255	337
	Non-SNA	164	394	263
	Other Activities	1261	983	1029
RURAL + URBAN	SNA	249	228	277
	Non-SNA	190	389	239
	Other Activities	1240	965	1123

Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

Table 23: Percentage of women participating in Leisure activities in two-digit classification (15-59 Years)

	Rural		Urban		Rural + Urban	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Attending/visiting cultural, entertainment and sports, events/venues	1.54	0.4	2.95	2.08	1.99	0.91
Cultural participation, hobbies, games and other pastime activities	11.26	3.22	9.53	4.19	10.71	3.51
Sports participation and exercise and related activities	7.41	2.02	11.87	5.21	8.83	2.99
Mass media use	61.1	55.1	80.42	81.52	67.27	63.18
Activities associated with reflecting, resting, relaxing	47.52	49.04	38.45	46.37	44.62	48.22
Travelling time related to culture, leisure, mass-media and sports practices	0.82	0.17	1.38	0.53	1	0.28
Other activities related to culture, leisure, mass-media and sports practices	0.52	0.2	0.67	0.4	0.57	0.26

Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

Table 24: Average Time spent (in minutes) in Leisure activities in two-digit classification (15-59 Years)

	Rural		Urban		Rural + Urban	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Attending/visiting cultural, entertainment and sports, events/venues	88	82	84	79	86	80
Cultural participation, hobbies, games and other pastime activities	111	87	101	83	108	86
Sports participation and exercise and related activities	67	57	63	57	65	57
Mass media use	102	112	105	127	103	118
Activities associated with reflecting, resting, relaxing	82	97	69	90	78	95
Travelling time related to culture, leisure, mass-media and sports practices	69	78	81	83	74	81
Other activities related to culture, leisure, mass-media and sports practices	81	73	81	87	81	80

Source: Calculated from Unit Level Data of Time Use Survey, 2019

Table 25: Average Time Spent (in minutes) by Regular Workers, Self-Employed Workers & Casual Workers (Age Group: 15-59 Years) – Female

		Employment and related activities	Production of goods for own final use	Unpaid domestic services for household members	Unpaid care giving services for household members	Unpaid volunteer, trainee, and other unpaid work	Learning	Socializing and communication, community participation and religious practice	Culture, leisure, mass-media and sports practices	Self-care and maintenance
Self-Employed Workers	Rural	318	176	267	110	136	168	121	114	675
	Urban	337	89	257	107	166	186	123	131	662
	Rural + Urban	322	172	265	110	141	173	121	117	673
Regular Workers	Rural	411	74	219	99	93	156	118	109	656
	Urban	459	44	187	99	93	164	113	112	651
	Rural + Urban	440	64	201	99	93	161	115	110	653
Casual Workers	Rural	411	90	233	94	73	82	113	102	671
	Urban	418	62	229	102	93	268	111	113	659
	Rural + Urban	412	87	232	95	77	124	113	103	670

Source: Calculated from the unit level data of Time Use Survey, 2019



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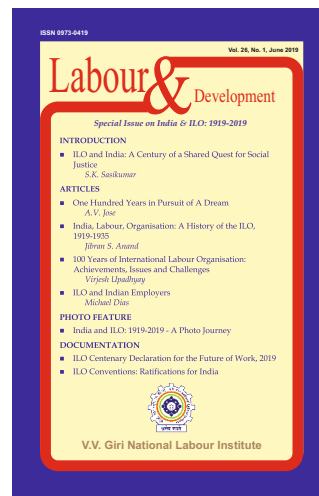
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