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OCCUPATIONAL HAZARDS AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC WELL-BEING OF WOMEN DOMESTIC WORKERS IN TIRUNELVELI DISTRICT

INVESTIGATORS

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Dr. M. Maria Saroja

Mrs. E. Michael Jeya Priya

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INDEX

S.No	Content	Page.No
CHAPTER-I CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK		
1.1	Introduction	1
1.2.	Domestic Workers	2
1.3	Women and Informal Sector	5
1.4	Challenges Faced by Domestic Workers	6
1.5	The Role and Challenges of Modern Domestic Workers	7
1.6	Domestic Work: An Indian Scenario	8
1.7	Workplace Struggles, Health Challenges, and Social Security for Domestic Workers	10
1.8	Challenges Faced by Domestic Workers in India	11
1.9	Social, Economic, and Workplace Struggles of Domestic Workers	12
1.10	Occupational Health and Safety	15
1.11	Access to Social Protection and Social Services	16
1.12	Acts and Laws in India	17
1.13	Health and Social Security Schemes for Domestic Workers	18
1.14	Financial Inclusion	20
1.15	Working Conditions of Domestic Workers	21

1.16	Socioeconomic Status (SES)	22
1.17	Problems Faced by Women Domestic Workers	23
1.18	Work-Life Quality of Female Domestic Workers	26
1.19	Need and Significance of the Study	26
1.20	Statement of the Problem	31
1.21	Title of the Study	33
1.22	Operational Definitions of Important Key Terms	33
1.23	Objectives of the Study	34
1.24	Hypotheses of the Study	35
1.25	Delimitations	37
1.26	Conclusion	37
1.27	Organization of the Study	39

CHAPTER-II-REVIEW OF RELATED STUDIES

2.1	Introduction	41
2.2	Review of Related Literature	42
2.3	Research Gap	62
2.4	Conclusion	64

CHAPTER-III RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1	Introduction	66
3.2	Economic Significance of Women	68
3.3	Dual Role of Women	69

3.4	Labour Market Discrimination in India	71
3.5	Theoretical Framework to the Domestic Workers	72
3.6	International Law and International Instrument Relating the Women Workers	74
3.7	Violence against Women in Work Place	75
3.8	Human Rights of Women Workers Need Special Attention	77
3.9	Research Methods	77
3.10	Sampling Technique	78
3.11	Steps Involved in Survey Method	79
3.12	Method adopted for the Present Study	79
3.13	Tools Used	81
3.14	Establishing Validity	81
3.15	Trying Out	82
3.16	Pilot study	82
3.17	Item whole correlation	83
3.18	Establishing Reliability	85
3.19	Description of the Tool	86
3.20	Occupational Hazards Scale	86
3.21	Socio-Economic Well-being Scale	87
3.22	Scoring Key	88

3.23	Area of the Study	88
3.24	Population and Sample	88
3.25	Administration of the Tool	89
3.26	Research Tool Used for the Present Study	89
3.27	Description of the Tool	89
3.28	Statistical Techniques Used	98
3.29	Conclusion	98

CHAPTER -IV-ANALYSIS OF DATA

4.1	Introduction	99
4.2	Need for Analysis of Data	101
4.3	Interpretation	101
4.4	Objective Testing	102
4.5	Conclusion	126

CHAPTER-V-FINDINGS & INTERPRETATIONS

5.1	Introduction	127
5.2	Findings of the Study	130
5.3	Interpretation of the Data	131
5.4	Recommendations	139
5.5	Suggestions for Further Studies	142
5.7	Conclusion	143
	Photo Gallery	161

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Content	Page.No
3.1	Item Vs Whole Correlation of Occupational Hazards of Women Domestic Workers	84
3.2	Item Vs Whole Correlation of Socio-emotional Wellbeing of Women Domestic Workers	85
3.3	Split-Half Reliability Value of the Tool	86
3.4	Nature of items of Occupational Hazards Scale	87
3.5	Nature of items of Socio-Economic Well-Being Scale	87
3.6	Scoring Key	88
3.7	Reliability Coefficient of the Tools	90
3.8	Distribution of the Sample	90
3.9	Distribution of Sample with regard to Place of Residence	91
3.10	Distribution of Sample with regard to Type of Family	92
3.11	Distribution of Sample with regard to Nature of Housing	93
3.12	Distribution of Sample with regard to Educational Qualification	94
3.13	Distribution of Sample with regard to Type of Employment	95
3.14	Distribution of Sample with regard to Years of Experience	96

3.15	Distribution of Sample with regard to Marital Status	97
4.1	Level of Occupational Hazards among Women Domestic Workers.	102
4.2	Difference between Rural and Urban Women Domestic Workers in their Occupational Hazards.	106
4.3	Difference between Joint and Nuclear Family Women Domestic Workers in their Occupational Hazards.	107
4.4	Difference between Owned and Rented House Women Domestic Workers in their Nature of Housing	108
4.5	Difference between Uneducated and School Level Educated Women Domestic Workers in their Occupational Hazards	109
4.6	Association between the Type of Employment of Women Domestic Workers on Occupational Hazards	111
4.7	Association between Years of Experience of Women Domestic Worker on Occupational Hazards	112
4.8	Association between marital status and occupational hazards of women domestic workers.	113
4.9	Level of Socio-Economic Well-Being among Women Domestic Workers.	114

4.10	Difference between Rural and Urban Women Domestic Workers in their Socio-Economic Well-Being.	118
4.11	Difference between Joint and Nuclear Family Women Domestic Workers in their Socio-Economic Well-Being.	119
4.12	Difference Between Owned and Rented House Women Domestic Workers in their Socio-Economic Well-Being.	120
4.13	Difference Between Uneducated and School-Level Educated Women Domestic Workers in their Socio-Economic Well-Being.	121
4.14	Association between Type of Employment of Women Domestic Workers in their Socio-Economic Well-Being.	123
4.15	Association between Years of Experience of Women Domestic Workers in their Socio-Economic Well-Being.	124
4.16	Association between Marital Status of Women Domestic Workers in their Socio-Economic Well-Being.	125
4.17	Relationship between Occupational Hazards and Socio-Economic Well-Being of Women Domestic Workers.	126

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Content	Page.No
3.1	Distribution of Sample with regard to Place of Residence	91
3.2	Distribution of Sample with regard to Type of Family	92
3.3	Distribution of Sample with regard to Nature of Housing	93
3.4	Distribution of Sample with regard to Educational Qualification	94
3.5	Distribution of Sample with regard to Type of Employment.	95
3.6	Distribution of Sample with regard to Years of Experience	96
3.7	Distribution of Sample with regard to Marital Status	97
4.1	Level of Occupational Hazards among Women Domestic Workers	103
4.2	Mean Score and Standard Deviation of Occupation Hazards of Women Domestic Workers	110
4.3	Level of Socio-Economic Well-Being among Women Domestic Workers.	117
4.4	Mean Score and Standard Deviation of the Socio-Economic Well-Being of Women Domestic Workers.	122

CHAPTER-I CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

1.1.Introduction

Women have consistently played a vital role in driving economic progress. However, gender bias continues to persist across various social divisions, even in the most educated and developed societies. Despite their significant contributions to all aspects, these societies often struggle to acknowledge and fully integrate women's participation. In certain regions, male-dominated communities limit women's involvement in crucial economic and family-related decisions (Thilaka & Seethalakshmi, 2018). Women play an important role in building a nation, including their role as homemakers. Even though homemakers comprise the world's largest workforce, their contribution remains unpaid and unvalued. Women's domestic chores are not considered an occupation by nations worldwide because they are deemed unproductive and insignificant work. We fail to consider that domestic work is one of the most productive jobs women perform, which does not contribute significantly to the development of the family or the nation.

The workers who provide services similar to those of a homemaker to another's home are domestic servants, workers, or maids (Kherde & Peshave, 2023). Generally, due to illiteracy or lack of awareness about education, women enter these types of jobs for their survival and the survival of their families. In this regard, women as domestic workers play an important role in an employer's life and improve their economic condition. In the history of any nation, Women have contributed significantly to the economic development of the nation in order to achieve remarkable progress. Due to the prevalence of gender prejudice in every social division, even among the most educated and developed society, the partition of women in all spheres of life has gone unnoticed. In some regions, chauvinistic societies

reduce the participation and contribution of women in significant decision-making about family and economic patterns. In today's society, domestic workers are considered one of the most significant workers in the nation's economy. Domestic women workers' service is regarded as one of the world's most important sectors. In recent years, the demand for domestic and house care workers has increased steadily in developing and developed countries.

1.2. Domestic Workers

Domestic work is an essential source of employment for millions of women worldwide. It is one of the oldest and most significant sectors of labour, with historical roots in slavery, colonialism, and other forms of servitude, highlighting the long-standing existence of domestic workers (Anderson, 2000). The contribution of domestic workers is crucial to both households and the broader economy, as they enable other professionals to participate in the workforce (International Labour Organization (ILO), 2013). In recent decades, the demand for domestic workers has increased globally, both in developing countries and developed nations (Parrenas, 2015). In urban and metropolitan areas of countries like India, millions of women work as domestic workers, performing essential tasks such as cleaning, cooking, childcare, elder care, and shopping (Neetha, 2008). These women work long hours, often eight to twelve hours daily, without formal contracts or job security (ILO, 2021). Despite their continuous labour, they receive minimal wages and face wage deductions if they miss work due to emergencies or illness (Raghuram, 2001).

Additionally, domestic workers frequently experience workplace exploitation, including sudden termination without notice, lack of social security, and instances of verbal, physical, and sexual abuse (Chakraborty, 2019). Many domestic workers do not report cases

of harassment due to fear of job loss or social stigma (ILO, 2018). Their vulnerable position and absence of adequate legal protections force them to endure these injustices silently (Kabeer, 2010).

Domestic workers, as an occupational group, include a subset called homemakers who provide a variety of household and personal services for the elderly, ill, and disabled. Women workers In India constitute one-third of the total workforce. Most women are in unorganized sectors such as agriculture, construction, and domestic services. The overwhelming majority of domestic workers are women and girls. The female domestic workers surveyed are the part-time and full-time workers who serve one or more households daily. Domestic servants usually live with the employing family, performing many household tasks such as laundry, ironing, cooking, cleaning, and serving in exchange for a modest wage plus room and board. Domestic workers are usually young, single women from working-class families whose terms of service last until marriage. Women of modern days certainly play a vital role in the development of society. Many women are found working in private companies and government offices. In the mechanical way of living, both women and men must work.

Domestic workers make up four to ten percent of the developing world's workforce, and according to the ILO Bureau of Statistics, this number is growing yearly. Therefore, domestic work is an important source of employment, especially in poorer parts of the world. Increases in rural poverty and various economic crises have pushed growing numbers of women and girls into the domestic labour market in their own countries and abroad (Chen, 2011). Many more women than men are drawn into this

occupation, not only because domestic work is often considered "women's work" but also because women are less likely to have alternative ways of earning a living.

Generally, the domestic worker's work includes sweeping, mopping, dusting, cleaning dishes, washing clothes, cooking, clearing the table after meals, hanging up the washing, picking up and dropping children at bus stops, and often more. The term "domestic" also denotes a class of "menials," which includes many types of workers, like ayah, kitchen helper, cook, and sweeper (Thiruvasagam & Rajasekar, 2016). Therefore, the term is restricted to domestic servants as "those who do cooking, care for the children, clean utensils, wash clothes, clean and sweep the premises, and receive wages." The domestic worker works within the employer's household (Alphonse & Upadhaya, 1988).

According to the International Labour Organization (ILO), "A domestic worker is someone who carries out household work in a private household in return for wages." The poor and marginalized women are now joining the growing force of domestic workers in Indian towns and cities (James et al., 2021). Women workers in the informal economy comprise society's most affected working sectors. They come from a marginalized population whose legal, economic, and political status limits their ability to demand or access their rights. These women include domestic workers whose social and economic contributions to society are invisible to the public, the law, and policies of the country (Gupta, 2021). The maids or domestic workers are excluded from labour laws. The exclusion is just a short distance to abuse: long hours, lousy pay, inhuman treatment, and physical and sexual harassment. Domestic workers in India are routinely harassed and exploited by their employers despite several steps taken by the government to improve their lot (Sutharsana &

Vetriselvi, 2016). Women workers in India constitute one-third of the total workforce. Most women are in unorganized sectors such as agriculture, construction, and domestic services. The overwhelming majority of domestic workers are women and girls. Domestic workers are usually young, single women from working-class families whose terms of service lasted until marriage. While comparing the pay to other jobs open to poor and uneducated females, domestic work attracts few native-born women despite its long hours, low status, lack of freedom, and close supervision. Consequently, domestic servants often come from the ranks of the most desperate community members, either those who are too poor to pay for housing or those excluded from other vocations (Sathiyashiela & Jeyakodi, 2013).

1.3. Women and Informal Sector

A large mass of women works in the informal sector of the economy. They undertake income-generating activities to increase the family income, sometimes even to the point that they are the only source. They carry out all the family reproduction work and participate in all the non-salaried production work. The economic role of women is marginalized even the statistics ignore them. The underlying reason is that these activities are, in many cases, the only option enabling women to earn an income while assuming the tasks inherent in their reproductive function and all this without any social and economic protection and, in most cases, under deplorable safety and health conditions. This trend is growing as the informal sector is feminized. Women, who are the majority in this sector, are subject to a double marginalization: for one, the sector as such is considered marginal; for another, most workers are women occupying a marginal position. Theoretically, though, women play an indispensable part in development, and

the principle of equal opportunities for men and women is recognized as a fundamental human right. Although women constitute a smaller number of people than men worldwide in the workforce, the informal sector employs more females than males. Women are found in the informal sector more often than men because of a lack of opportunities or other obstacles to formal sector employment.

1.4.Challenges Faced by Domestic Workers

Women in modern society play a crucial role in societal and economic development. Many women work in private companies and government offices, balancing professional and domestic responsibilities. However, for many, especially those from underprivileged backgrounds, domestic work remains the primary source of income. Domestic workers perform essential household tasks but often face numerous challenges, including low wages, lack of job security, and poor working conditions.

Unregulated Employment Conditions: Domestic workers have no fixed wages, working hours, or designated weekly off days. They are often dismissed without prior notice and sometimes go unpaid for the work they have completed. The working hours usually range from early morning until late evening, leaving them little time to care for their own families.

Financial Exploitation: The wages of domestic workers vary significantly, ranging from as low as Rs. 500 to Rs. 2500 per household. In some cases, employers provide them with essential items such as mobile phones, but deduct the cost from their salaries unfairly. Moreover, when extra guests arrive, domestic workers are expected to take on additional duties without any extra compensation.

Social Discrimination: Domestic workers frequently face caste-based discrimination. Some employers restrict them from entering the main house and relegate them to work only in backyards. This form of exclusion highlights the deep-rooted prejudices that persist in society.

Sexual Harassment and Safety Concerns: Female domestic workers are particularly vulnerable to sexual harassment, sometimes even in the presence of the employer's wife. The fear of losing employment often silences them, leaving them without legal recourse.

Lack of Legal Protection and Awareness: Although the International Labour Organization (ILO) established the Domestic Workers Convention, 2011 (No. 189), advocating for labour protections such as minimum wages, maternity benefits, and regulated working hours, its implementation remains weak due to widespread ignorance and non-compliance.

1.5. The Role and Challenges of Modern Domestic Workers

In India, most of the women domestic workers are involved in domestic work because of poverty. Poverty is the core factor that forces many women from low socio-economic backgrounds to select this employment, especially migrant women. The Lack of other choices of employment for women with low education or illiteracy and Lack of skills push women into this employment. For woman who migrates from rural and tribal areas to urban areas, domestic work is the key employment for them to fulfil their needs and for the survival of their family. National Domestic Workers Movement (NDWM) has identified the socio-economic circumstances that make individuals, primarily women domestic workers, select domestic work as their employment.

- Family disputes, ill-treatment, and loss of parents are the factors that make them domestic worker
- Widowhood, separation from husband, and if the husband has alcoholism, then women are forced to work as domestic workers for their survival and to take care of their children and family
- Rural and male unemployment also pushes women into domestic work
- Debt and failure in agriculture/loss in agriculture also encourage them to select this employment.
- Lack of education and other skills and also a low level of socio-economic condition have to turn up women to take this job, as domestic workers.
- Conflict situations and natural calamities also force migration. The loss of livelihood and other things such as land and houses and the Lack of rehabilitation programs will make them work as domestic workers.

1.6. Domestic Work: An Indian Scenario

There is no dispute that most domestic workers in India are women. This was because of Indian society's thought that household work was still considered the domain of women. In huge numbers, women domestic workers usually come from India's less developed states, such as Jharkhand, West Bengal, Bihar, and Assam. They travel to other places and transnational, seeking work as servants and maids in well-off homes. They were often barely of legal working age, and their wages were less than the minimum fixed by the government. Their employers range from India's best to worst, many of whom still believe in the usual divide between servants and masters. In those days, the upper class kept several servants and maids for household services and

other work. It is also a status symbol for them. In the typical middle-class or upper-middle-class household in urban areas, where the family members, including both men and women, go to work, they share the household work. These are very usual practices in ancient India. However, in recent decades, even a middle-class woman joined the workforce and attained financial independence. She could not liberate herself from housework but could only transfer it to women less economically fortunate than herself.

In India, domestic workers are generally classified into three major categories. They are Live-in / Resident Domestic Workers, Part-time / Live-out Domestic Workers, and Migrant Domestic Workers. Out of these three, the third category was divided into Inter-State Domestic Workers and Overseas Domestic Workers. A live-in / Resident domestic worker lives at the place of their domestic service. They are occupied with all types of domestic work, from housekeeping, washing clothes, cleaning vessels and utensils, cooking, and even caring for a baby, children, and elders. They depend on their employers for basic needs such as food, clothing, and shelter at their work time. Almost all the live-in domestic workers are women who have migrated from villages to cities in search of employment. They are, to a large extent, the children, unmarried women, married young girls, separated women, and widowed women. Part-timers are less dependent on their employers than full-time workers. They live with their families and return to their homes, as do those of other workers and employers. However, these domestic workers are not significantly dependent on their employers for their fundamental requirements and are characterized by greater independence than the live-in domestic workers.

Inter-State Domestic Workers migrate from rural areas to towns and cities to work as domestic workers in the numerous states of India. They usually migrate as a consequence of debt bondage, poverty, unexpected death of their family members, natural disasters, male unemployment, and artificial crises, such as riots and insurgency. The attraction of city life also acts as a pull factor for young girls and women to migrate to big cities in some cases. For them, working in cities would be regarded as a solution to their poverty. Migrants overseas were typically live-in/resident domestic workers. Many of them are from tribal areas and less developed regions of India. Sometimes, in the case of overseas migration, women workers face many problems. These women domestic workers go to the place where they get jobs, even overseas. The increased demand for domestic helpers in richer industrialized countries provides opportunities for women domestic workers in poorer and less developed countries. India is also among them, where the women domestic workers from India are migrating to other foreign countries.

1.7. Workplace Struggles, Health Challenges, and Social Security for Domestic Workers

Young female domestic workers highlight their daily struggles, including hectic schedules, working for multiple employers daily, and having little to no time for breaks, food, or water. The physical toll of domestic work is severe, with women frequently experiencing headaches, neck pain, shoulder pain, and leg pain due to repetitive tasks, heavy lifting, prolonged squatting, bending, standing, or sitting for extended periods (International Labour Organization, 2019).

These health issues tend to worsen with age, leading to chronic pain, ergonomic disabilities, and occupation-induced illnesses,

which have received minimal attention in policy frameworks (Kundu, 2020). Additionally, female domestic workers face a constant risk of sexual harassment, an issue that often goes unreported due to the isolated nature of their work and fear of job loss (National Commission for Women, 2021). Furthermore, their menstrual health is frequently neglected, exacerbating their overall well-being.

The rising cost of essential goods further intensifies their hardships, leading to widespread malnutrition and perpetuating the cycle of poverty (Economic Survey of India, 2022). Given these pressing concerns, introducing comprehensive health benefits and social security measures is crucial to safeguarding and improving the well-being of domestic workers.

1.8.Challenges Faced by Domestic Workers in India

Despite receiving higher education and consistent economic growth, there are the lowest female workforce participation rates globally. (Express, 2021) 21% India has one of the lowest female participation rates in the world. In other words, 79% of Indian women (aged 15 years and above) do not seek work. In addition, they undertake domestic chores such as fetching water and food for family members, unpaid care work, reproductive work, and so on. Hired domestic workers ease the burden of individual households by undertaking household chores in return for remuneration. The tasks include caring for children and the elderly, cooking, driving, cleaning, grocery shopping, running errands, and caring for household pets, particularly in urban areas. However, despite this work's benefits to individual households, domestic workers are often not recognized as workers by society. They perform these tasks and are not labelled as work, though they continue struggling for visibility and recognition. While

there are several legislations such as the Unorganized Social Security Act, 2008, Sexual Harassment against Women at Work Place (Prevention, Prohibition, and Redressal) Act, 2013, and Minimum Wages Schedules notified in various states refer to domestic workers, it lacks an absence of comprehensive policy, uniformly applicability and national legislation that guarantees a decent term of working condition Domestic workers should, however, be guaranteed the exact terms of employment as enjoyed by other workers Working conditions of Domestic Workers (INDIA-Domestic Workers, 2019) In a survey it is estimated that there are over four million domestic workers in India who remain a part of an informal and unregulated sector with no policies and regulations to guide and protect them Their wages are, on average, only a third of those in other sectors, they have minimal social protections and commonly suffer poor working conditions, exploitation, abuse, and slavery. Many domestic workers are migrants from poorer states and are among the most marginalized and socially discriminated populations in India. Most of them are Dalits or come from other disadvantaged castes and tribal minorities; many are landless, illiterate, and innumerate, which increases their vulnerability and disempowerment. Around the world, domestic workers are particularly vulnerable to human rights abuses concerning their working conditions. They often work excessively long hours, with little to no pay and almost no access to social protections. Globally, on average, 30% are excluded from labour legislation, but a much greater number do not enjoy de facto minimum protection at work.

1.9.Social, Economic, and Workplace Struggles of Domestic Workers

To promote improved and equal working conditions for domestic

workers, the ILO carries out policy advisory services for national constituents, technical assistance projects at the country level, research and knowledge development, and policy advocacy campaigns. Critical areas addressed include policies and programs regarding the working time of domestic workers that safeguard their health and safety, work-family balance and adequate rest, wage protection including minimum wage, and employment practices that shape domestic workers' employment terms and conditions. Deplorable working conditions, labour exploitation, and abuses of human rights are significant problems facing domestic workers. The Convention, which was conducted in 2011, lays down fundamental rights and principles that require states to take measures to promote decent work for domestic workers. Significant policies are highlighted: wages, working time, migrant domestic workers, and maternity benefits. (Souza, 2010) It helps responses from self-help organizations and NGOs by supporting domestic workers through capacity building, national support, and national policy.

Domestic Workers Act (Social Security & Welfare, 2008) act was introduced to regulate payments and working conditions and check the exploitation and trafficking of women and other young household workers. Domestic workers are in both organized and unorganized. Hence, there are practical difficulties in covering them. As per the Act, minimum wages are to be paid, and employees are also entitled to annual leave with wages for at least 15 days. The Act makes explicit provisions for a penalty in cases where any person knowingly sends, directs, or takes any girl or woman domestic worker to any place for immoral purposes or to a place where she is likely to be morally corrupted or in any manner sexually exploited Social Security Benefits.

- ***Child Care Facility:*** Women are the centre of the economy. Their labour and enterprise create the wealth of the nation, and their hard work leads to national growth. A working mother is overworked, exhausted, and often very anxious and stressed about her child's welfare. Adequate childcare facilities are to be provided to them.
- ***Maternity Entitlements:*** The repeated neglect of a woman's health during her pregnancy has made her physically vulnerable during the period of childbirth, plunging her into a crisis of borrowing and high-interest expenses. Often, she does not take adequate rest and starts working soon after childbirth, which has adverse effects on her health. It has led to high childbirth manifests with a high mortality rate and poor health conditions of these workers.
- ***Old Age:*** Social security provides many facets for women. Income security is one factor that forces women to work long hours to support their families in economic crises, but it is only one aspect. Women are often forced to work for long hours even when their age does not permit it. However, old age not only means loss or diminution of her income, it also means loss of her health and a rise in the cost of medical care.
- ***Risks and Crises:*** It is usually a personal, social, or natural crisis that drives a family into the downslide towards destitution. It could be natural contingencies like floods, droughts, and cyclones; a personal loss such as the death of a husband or the family breadwinner; or events such as a market crash, crop failure, or cattle loss through disease. Each crisis leaves the woman worker and her family weaker and more vulnerable. The main reason for such a strong negative impact is the high expenditure.

- **Caste Discrimination:** The conditions of domestic workers in Tamil Nadu are often determined by caste and religious discrimination. Most domestic workers in the state are from the Dalit caste, and untouchability in the workplace is a common practice. There are separate plates, utensils, and toilets for the workers, and they may not be given food while working.
- **Poor Urban Infrastructure:** Access to housing is a serious issue for domestic workers in Chennai, where slum evictions are common. Workers have been relocated to the city's edges, significantly driving up transport costs. They work in 3-4 houses and are paid Rs.6,000-7,000. However, they pay more than Rs.3,000 for the bus. They walk 6km to take a shared auto rickshaw to reach the bus stand. It is tough for them" (Interview with Sister Clara, NDWM, Dec 2019). Some domestic workers have had to leave their jobs due to additional transport costs incurred by the city's relocation. Domestic workers often have to take care of their household's water supply before leaving, which can take time and impact their ability to reach work on time and take on extra hours.
- **Lack of Leave Provisions:** Paid leave does not exist for domestic workers in Tamil Nadu. Income is forfeited when leave is taken. Generally, they will leave work for at least six months to take care of their babies and then look for work elsewhere.

1.10.Occupational Health and Safety

Domestic workers report becoming ill through working conditions such as traveling long distances to work, the discrimination they face, and their household burdens. They often suffer from ulcers, anaemia, headaches, and back pain (FGD with

domestic worker union members, Dec 2019). Sexual violence in the workplace is also a common occurrence, exacerbated by workers' relative isolation and the difficulty in monitoring private homes. Domestic workers are often reluctant to report incidents of sexual harassment due to the fear of victim blaming and loss of earnings that may ensue.

1.11. Access to Social Protection and Social Services

In Tamil Nadu, domestic workers are incorporated into the Manual Workers Act, which establishes the Domestic Workers Welfare Board under the auspices of the Manual Workers Welfare Board. Domestic workers between the ages of 18 and 60 years are required to register with the board and then become eligible to receive the following non-contributory benefits:

- ❖ Financial assistance for the education of a son or a daughter.
- ❖ Financial assistance of Rs.5,000 on the marriage of a son or daughter.
- ❖ Maternity benefit of Rs.12,000, plus financial assistance for pregnancy, miscarriage, or termination of pregnancy.
- ❖ Accidental death benefit (Rs.100,000).
- ❖ Funeral benefit (Rs.5,000).
- ❖ Old age and disability pension of Rs.1,000/month.

Lack of Knowledge about the Welfare Board: many domestic workers and employers are unaware of workers' entitlements. The documentation required to register with the board can be onerous, including bonafide from schools or colleges, no objection certificates (NOC), Aadhar cards, ration cards, birth certificates, and bank books. Sometimes additional documentation is required – a domestic worker interviewed for this study said that she was asked to submit her husband's Voter ID card to ascertain whether

or not she was married, which made it very difficult to get her registration done (FGD with domestic workers union members, Dec 2019). The arbitrary nature of documentation requirements can make the registration process extremely difficult for domestic workers, yet this is the only way for them to access social security benefits.

No Provision for Housing Benefits: Considering the difficulty of obtaining suitable housing, domestic workers argue that a housing benefit would significantly increase their overall security (FGD with union members, Dec 2019).

1.12. Acts and Laws in India

India merely has a couple of laws about domestic helpers and workers. The first was the Unorganized Workers' Social Security Act of 2008 (UWSSA), and the second was the Sexual Harassment of Women at Workplace (Prevention, Prohibition and Redressal) Act of 2013. Both of these Acts recognize domestic helpers as rights-bearing workers. About 50 percent of the states in India have incorporated domestic workers as labourers under the Minimum Wages Act. This sets out disbursement terms, work hours, and casual leaves for domestic workers. However, until now, this law has been grossly inadequate in satisfying the demands of domestic workers. The law does not check whether both parties, the employer and the employee, are fulfilling their contractual obligations and adjudicating conflicts. The National Commission for Women (NCW) announced the Domestic Workers Welfare and Social Security Act 2010. Complaints about unpaid wages, starvation, inhumane work hours, and verbal, physical, and sexual abuse were faced by the Domestic Workers Welfare and Social Security Act. The projected law was inevitable

for domestic workers above 18 years of age and affirmed that no one below 18 should be employed as a domestic worker.

The National Platform for Domestic Workers drafted the Domestic Workers Regulation of Work and Social Security Bill, 2016. This bill ensured the compulsory registration of domestic workers with the District Board to regulate domestic workers. This structure included security objectives and documentation of identification data and police verification. It provided the basic terms of employment, such as minimum wage, hours of work, notice period, grounds for termination, and offenses and penalties in the case of crimes. Despite these efforts, most domestic workers remain outside the purview of labour laws. Even today, much more care is needed for women domestic workers. Regulation of domestic work through legislation can be the only way to address the abuses faced by domestic workers.

1.13. Health and Social Security Schemes for Domestic Workers

Along with these acts and laws, the government of India has implemented some programmes for the welfare of the domestic workers. Both central and state governments have introduced health schemes for the informal labour sector, yet these initiatives have not effectively reached domestic workers (NSSO Report, 2021). Some of the key central government schemes include:

- ***Rashtriya Swasthya BimaYojana (RSBY)***: It is a health insurance programme. It is specially designed for the BPL (Below Poverty Line) families including urban and rural areas). Provides health insurance coverage to Below Poverty Line (BPL) families, offering up to Rs 30,000 per family for hospitalization (Ministry of Labour and Employment, 2020).

- **Employees' State Insurance Scheme (ESIC)**- Offers full medical coverage to registered workers and their dependents (ESIC Annual Report, 2021).
- **Janashree Bima Yojana** -Provides health insurance for individuals aged 18 to 59 (Government of India, 2019).
- **Ayushman Bharat National Health Protection Mission**- It covers over 10 crore poor families, providing up to Rs 5 lakh per family per year for healthcare expenses (National Health Authority, 2022).
- **Atal Pension Scheme**: It is implemented in 2015 to provide the economical support after 60 years of their life as pension for the people who are working in the unorganized sectors.
- **Swavalamban Yojana**: It is for all citizens of India who employed in the unorganised sector who join the New Pension System (NPS) administered by the Interim Pension Fund Regulatory and Development Authority (PFRDA). Benefits under the Scheme Government will contributes Rs. 1000 per year to each NPS account opened in the year 2010-11 and for the next three successive years. The benefit will be available only to persons who joined in the NPS with contribution, that is, a minimum contribution of Rs. 1,000 and maximum of Rs. 12,000 per annum.

In addition to these central government initiatives, state governments offer health schemes for BPL (Below Poverty Line) and APL (Above Poverty Line) workers. However, gaps in implementation and a lack of awareness among domestic workers have hindered their ability to access and utilize these benefits effectively (Sengupta & Jha, 2021).

1.14.Financial Inclusion

According to the World Bank, financial inclusion means that individuals and businesses can access valuable and affordable financial products and services such as transactions, payments, savings, credit, and insurance delivered responsibly and sustainably. A recent survey conducted by the International Labour Organization (ILO) revealed that financial decisions are increasingly being made by women domestic workers, with more of them availing of social security benefits. However, despite some progress, domestic workers face financial literacy challenges related to their working conditions and job profiles. They need to develop skills relevant to domestic work, which can help reduce work-related stress and improve their overall working conditions. Without such efforts, financial inclusion will remain a formality, limited to documentation rather than empowerment. Financial inclusion is examined to assess women's ability to assert themselves and improve their living conditions. Women's socio-economic status remains a significant barrier to financial inclusion, while, conversely, the lack of financial inclusion further contributes to their disadvantaged socio-economic standing. These aspects are deeply interconnected and have multiple dimensions.

The government has launched various schemes to promote financial inclusion and entrepreneurial development among women. Financial literacy is paramount in achieving financial inclusion (Munde, 2017). Banks should appoint representatives to assist underprivileged customers, providing information on financial services such as fixed deposits, recurring deposits, debit cards, and credit cards. Additionally, bank representatives should offer clear guidance on how to access banking facilities.

Bank branches should also extend their operating hours into the evening, as many low-income workers, including domestic workers, cannot visit banks during standard working hours. Furthermore, since some female domestic workers are migrants from other states, the government should establish mechanisms to provide essential documents or facilitate account openings without them. After years of government efforts to improve financial literacy and inclusion, it is crucial to assess whether the expected level of progress has been achieved. The government must conduct regular evaluations to determine the effectiveness of these initiatives and devise a well-informed roadmap for future improvements.

1.15. Working Conditions of Domestic Workers

The tasks performed by either category of domestic workers may include cleaning (sweeping, swabbing and dusting), washing (clothes and dishes), or even putting machine-washed clothes on the clothesline or/and folding them, cooking, or preparation for cooking such as chopping vegetables and making dough, or cooking a part of meal, ironing, housekeeping and extensions of these outside the home such as shopping.

Domestic work may also include childcare or care of the aged. There are no standard norms that decide working conditions. By and large, employers decide wages though this is often the ‘rate’ of the area they live in. Wages also depend on the bargaining power of the domestic worker and workers’ desperation for work. Experienced workers may be able to bargain for more while those desperate for work may be willing to work at lower rates. Other factors that influence decisions about wages include the type of tasks performed and the neighbourhood. Rates vary according to the task and the socio-economic profile of employers. These

factors are not cast-in- stone as workers are made to perform extra work with no additional compensation, especially during festivals or when employers have guests. There is no guarantee of employment as employers can ask workers to leave with no prior notice or financial compensation. These studies also note that only a few workers get a weekly off; paid leave is often the result of difficult negotiations with the employers. Getting sick leave also depends on the good will of the employer. Instances of workers losing their jobs due to long leave taken at time of childbirth or ill health are often reported. Some also lose their jobs when they visit their villages. Deduction in wages for extra leave is a common practice among employers. Part-time workers are not allowed access to a toilet in the employers' homes. Many commutes long distances and thus have no time to cook and carry food with them. They are often not provided with any tea or snacks and stay.

1.16. Socioeconomic Status (SES)

Socioeconomic status (SES) is a complex and multidimensional concept that plays a crucial role in shaping individual opportunities, health outcomes, and overall quality of life. During the last decade, the psychology of socioeconomic status (SES) or social class, which is broadly characterized as a social stratification system derived from access to various resources, has experienced remarkable growth. Such increased interest has been fundamentally driven by the onset of the Great Recession, which is connected to the broadening gap between the "haves" and the "have-nots" (Pfeffer et al. 2013). Indeed, in this socioeconomic climate, class disparities and their detrimental wide-ranging consequences across distinct domains are more visible (Moya & Fiske, 2017). It could be argued that almost all people's psychological and social outcomes are largely influenced by their

objective or perceived socioeconomic standing, ranging from food preferences (Baumann et al. 2019). From speech patterns to humour-related dispositions and identity, empirical research has mainly focused on investigating the connections between SES, psychological well-being, and health-related aspects.

Components of Socioeconomic Status

Income: Income level is a fundamental component of SES, influencing access to nutritious food, healthcare, housing, and educational opportunities. Higher-income levels generally correlate with better living conditions and an increased ability to invest in future opportunities for oneself and one's family. Chetty et al. (2016) demonstrated the significant impact of parental income on children's future earnings, highlighting how higher income levels can contribute to intergenerational economic mobility.

Education: Educational attainment is another critical aspect of SES. Higher levels of education typically correlate with greater access to higher-paying jobs, better health outcomes, and increased social mobility. Studies reviewed by Sirin (2005) consistently show a strong relationship between parental education and children's academic achievement and socioemotional development.

1.17.Problems Faced by Women Domestic Workers

Women domestic workers face numerous challenges in the workplace, including low wages, excessive workload, lack of extra pay for additional work, absence of holidays or leave, and sexual harassment by male employers (ILO, 2013). Despite the increasing demand for female domestic workers over the decades, their working and living conditions have improved little (Neetha, 2008). This sector is primarily composed of women from economically disadvantaged backgrounds, making them vulnerable to exploitation (Kabeer, 2010).

One of the major reasons for their exploitation is the absence of legal protection. The Minimum Wages Act does not comprehensively cover domestic workers in many regions, leaving employers free to decide their wages (Raghuram, 2001). Unlike women in formal sectors, domestic workers do not receive paid leave, maternity benefits, or job security (Chakraborty, 2019). Their employment is highly unstable, as their job continuity and wage increments depend entirely on the discretion of their employers (ILO, 2021). The lack of a formal contract increases the risk of exploitation, as domestic workers have almost no bargaining power (Parrenas, 2015). Furthermore, the absence of strong labour organizations to protect their rights exacerbates their vulnerability (Anderson, 2000).

The lack of social security remains a significant challenge for domestic workers in India. While several countries have implemented policies to provide occupational safety, health benefits, worker compensation for employment injuries, pensions, and unemployment insurance to domestic workers, India has yet to offer similar protections (International Labour Organization (ILO), 2013). Women engaged in domestic work, particularly in urban areas, face additional challenges as they often work for multiple employers who prefer flexible labour arrangements such as part-time work (Neetha, 2009). These informal work structures further contribute to job insecurity, leaving domestic workers without stable incomes and legal safeguards (Kabeer, 2010). Moreover, the oversupply of domestic workers in urban areas has led to poor wages and exploitative working conditions, with little to no bargaining power against their employers (Raghuram, 2001). Despite their crucial contributions to urban households, their labour remains undervalued, and they continue to lack formal recognition under national labour laws (Chakraborty, 2019).

To address these challenges, it is necessary to assist governments and social organizations in improving domestic workers' social security and working conditions. Conducting comprehensive quantitative and qualitative studies can help policymakers understand critical aspects such as the number of domestic workers and the households that employ them, their socio-demographic profiles, employment patterns, and the terms of their work agreements (ILO, 2021). With changing lifestyles and rapid urbanization, the demand for domestic workers is increasing, even in semi-urban areas (Parrenas, 2015). However, despite this rising demand, there is still a lack of scientific studies examining the working conditions in various parts of the country. Without empirical research and data-driven policymaking, the issues faced by domestic workers will continue to be overlooked (Neetha, 2013).

There are lots of problems faced by female domestic workers at the workplace, which include low wages, excessive work burden, no extra pay for extra work, no holidays or leaves, sexual harassment by male employers, etc. Over the decades, though demand for these female domestic workers has increased, their issues and problems are still the same. There has not been much improvement in their working and living conditions. This sector has the majority of women domestic workers who come from economically poor backgrounds. As the Minimum Wage Act does not cover domestic workers and there is no fixed minimum wage for workers in this sector, the employers pay as per their wishes and will. Female domestic workers do not receive any benefits or privileges, as other women workers working in offices or other formal organizations do. There is no job security for women working in the domestic work sector, and their job continuity depends on the moods and fancies of their employers. Their wage increment also depends on the mood of employers as there is no

formal written contract between the employer and domestic worker; there is scope for exploiting these workers. Similarly, as the bargaining power of these workers is almost zero, the scope of exploitation further expands. This sector lacks the organization to protect its interests and rights.

1.18. Work-Life Quality of Female Domestic Workers

The quality of work life refers to the overall well-being of employees in the workplace, including their physical, mental, and emotional health, job satisfaction, work-life balance, and personal growth opportunities. It encompasses all aspects of an individual's work experience, including their relationships with colleagues, job security, compensation, working conditions, and career development. A positive quality of work life is essential for employee motivation, engagement, and retention. It has been shown to increase productivity, job satisfaction, and overall well-being, leading to better mental and physical health outcomes.

1.19. Need and Significance of the Study

Women play a significant role in a nation, which includes a part of a homemaker. Homemakers are the largest workforce in the world, and they remain unpaid and undervalued. Women's domestic chores are not considered occupations by the nations. It is also viewed as an unproductive work. However, domestic work is the most productive work done by women for the nation's development. Workers who perform the same tasks as homemakers, but in other people's homes, are referred to as domestic servants, maids, or domestic workers. Normally, women entered these types of domestic work for their survival and their family's survival. This is because of the illiteracy or less educational awareness among women.

In this regard, women domestic workers have an important place to play in their lives as well as the employer's life, in which they are occupied. Domestic work/house care work is not considered a productive and appreciated occupation by the nations of the world. It is regarded as an unproductive work. But, in reality, domestic work is the most productive work done by women, especially less educated women, for the development of their families as well as for the growth of the nation. Normally, women enter into these types of domestic work in a large number. This is because of illiteracy or lack of educational awareness among women worldwide. In this regard, women domestic workers have an important role to play in their own lives, the employer's life, in which they are occupied, and the country's development. Compared to men, domestic or household care work is one of the most convenient and comfortable jobs for women in society. They are earning some reasonable revenue for their family in this job. In some families, the income of these domestic workers is necessary for the smooth running of their family because they are the main income earners of their family. Especially women who migrated to other places for social reasons, like marriage and livelihood, doing this kind of domestic work for their improvement and to upgrade the standard of living of their families. In some cases, while the mother is a domestic worker, she keeps her daughter or daughter-in-law with herself to help in her domestic work and a way to create another domestic worker. For instance, because of women domestic workers' unhealthiest and old age, they allow their daughters to go to the employer's house to do their part of the domestic work, and in turn, they slowly turn their daughters into domestic workers.

A domestic worker is someone who works within the employer's household. Domestic workers perform various household services for an individual or a family, from providing care for

children and elderly dependents to cleaning and household maintenance, known as housekeeping. Responsibilities may include cooking, laundry and ironing, food shopping, and other household errands. Some domestic workers live within the household where they work to care for older people. Yes, millions of women, men, and children - India's large force of domestic workers, or 'servants,' as most people call them - remain unseen, undervalued, and denied rights that all workers deserve. The maids or domestic workers are excluded from labour laws. The exclusion is just a short distance to abuse: long hours, bad pay, inhuman treatment, and physical and sexual harassment. Domestic workers in India are routinely harassed and exploited by their employers despite several steps taken by the government to improve their lot. It has often led to confrontations and, occasionally, firings. Household workers have no government protections, minimum wage guarantees, health benefits, paid holidays, and, usually, no days off. Hindered by traditional prejudices against their low caste status, many domestic workers say they have been forced to the sidelines as the middle and upper classes prospered during the country's decade-long boom. They are challenging deep-rooted prejudices about caste, class, and labour and calling on India's government to extend to domestic workers the rights, benefits, and protections afforded to workers in other fields.

The women domestic workers also struggled with several social problems. The low wage is one of the problems of domestic workers in the economy, more than ever for women domestic workers. Even though they work long hours, maybe in one or multiple houses, they earn minimal income. They were not guaranteed a weekly day of rest. In some cases, women domestic workers were exploited in terms of physical, mental, and sexual abuse. Some of them face discrimination along the lines of sex,

race, and caste, too. As a domestic worker, a woman faces some health issues due to the nature of her house service. They are suffering from some physical problems like fatigue, skin diseases, body pain, fever, cold, injuries, and even sometimes chest pain. They are also affected by some psychological problems like finding difficulty in the completion of daily work, particularly while working in more than two houses, time spent with their family members, in maintaining punctuality, overload of domestic work due to some special occasions and functions in employer's houses, their priorities and in satisfying the employers. The major issues faced by these workers are corrupt recruitment practices, lack of work contracts, withheld salaries, and physical, sexual, and emotional abuse at the workplace. Most often, the migrants become the victims of scams of the fly-by-night brokers. These brokers usually cheat the migrants by falsely promising jobs abroad and do not take the necessary steps to secure the appropriate paperwork so that these migrants can legally work as domestic workers. In India, the procedure for migrating abroad for work remains largely unregulated. The government has not implemented a pre-migration program to educate migrants on their rights.

The present study is relevant to present-day society and the country, reflecting the various hidden issues about domestic workers. The study is of current relevance as domestic workers face several problems, such as low salaries, overtime work without pay, sexual harassment, etc. The study is intended to cover a specific area because of time and money constraints. In this area, more females are involved in domestic work. They have faced many problems in our society. Moreover, domestic workers' issues are not properly taken care of. Therefore, the present study is considered a valuable contribution to the studies on domestic workers. No previous research has covered the socioeconomic

status of women domestic workers. Concerning the problems of women domestic workers, the researcher was promoted to conduct the present study.

In general, the argument for domestic work is based on unfavourable conditions of poverty and the government's disappointment in eradicating their poverty conditions or enhancing their postwomen. Workers have no reimbursement for work contracts, social security, or employment security. It is the age-old patriarchal and societal systems in India that domestic work is an unskilled and downgraded job. Because of this, it draws the poorest compensation and unorganized working hours. A large number of women are subjected to mortification, abuse (physical, verbal, and sexual), and mistreatment. This circumstance of work has brought down the confidence of women and made them uncertain about this job. Domestic work, as an economic activity, is too enormous and employs too many employees, which remains unregulated. Many people choose domestic work because of their low literacy level and the turn down of employment opportunities in the agricultural and other manufacturing sectors. Domestic workers are to be provided with sustainable wages and humane working conditions. The salaries paid to them are well below the minimum wage because they are unskilled or semi-skilled workers and depend on the nature of the work. In addition, most of them are made to work at least 15 hours a day, seven days a week. On average, full-time and part-time domestic workers work between four and eighteen hours daily. Their wages and rest time are at the employer's mercy. The women domestic workers faced some structural exploitation in the form of low wages, heavy workloads, and long working hours. These are the serious issues of women domestic workers apart from their daily routine. They face serious dangers, as is evident from cases of employers confining and assaulting them, coming

to light with frightening regularity. The inequality of domestic workers' circumstances drew attention to the fact that their place of work was surrounded by the privacy of the homes of people who were invariably more privileged than they were. Although successive governments have drafted policies for domestic workers, they are yet to become law. India is also a member of the International Labour Organization's 189th convention, which was called the 'Convention on Domestic Workers,' but has not ratified it yet. Daily and weekly rest hours, minimum wage payment, and the choice of living place and enjoying leave facilities are the measures suggested by the Convention for Domestic Workers.

One of the low-ranking occupations assigned to the poorest classes of society is "domestic service". Employee employment has become very common in the world's urban areas, where many homemakers will save energy for the working homemakers of modern cities. Domestic servants have also proved to be a necessity for non-working homemakers. In urban areas, they commonly engaged domestic servants to keep them carrying out their household chores, partly due to physical inability and partly due to lack of time. Moreover, in nuclear families, there is no stand-by in the family if the housewife falls ill. Also, we can argue that the new middle classes have developed a lifestyle that has increased the demand for domestic servants. Thus, the maidservant employed in household labour plays a significant role, especially in small towns in India. It is difficult to gauge the exact number of women in the occupation, as workers in the category have not been enumerated as such by the census.

1.20.Statement of the Problem

Women domestic workers form an essential, invisible workforce, contributing significantly to household maintenance

and caregiving services in urban and rural areas. Despite their crucial role, they face multiple occupational hazards and socio-economic challenges that affect their well-being and quality of life. In the Tirunelveli district, where domestic work remains a primary employment option for women from economically marginalized backgrounds, these issues are particularly pressing.

Domestic work is typically characterized by long hours, low wages, lack of job security, and absence of legal protection. Many women engaged in this sector endure workplace risks such as physical strain, exposure to harmful cleaning agents, lack of proper ventilation, and even verbal or physical abuse. Additionally, the informal nature of their employment leads to wage exploitation, non-payment of salaries, and absence of benefits such as health insurance, pensions, or paid leave.

The socio-economic well-being of women domestic workers is further influenced by factors such as gender discrimination, caste-based inequalities, and limited access to education and skill development. Many of these workers come from lower socio-economic strata and lack bargaining power due to their dependence on employers for financial sustenance. Their economic vulnerability often compels them to accept poor working conditions, reinforcing a cycle of poverty and marginalization.

Furthermore, domestic workers face significant challenges in balancing their work with household responsibilities. Their dual burden of labour both at employers' homes and their own leads to exhaustion and health issues. The absence of legal safeguards and labour rights exacerbates their vulnerability, making them susceptible to workplace exploitation and financial instability.

Given these realities, it becomes imperative to examine the occupational hazards and socio-economic conditions of women domestic workers in the Tirunelveli district. Understanding their struggles will provide insights into policy interventions, labour rights advocacy, and social support systems required to uplift their standard of living. This study “**Occupational Hazards and Socio-Economic Well-Being of Women Domestic Workers in Tirunelveli District**” seeks to explore the nature of workplace risks, the economic challenges they face, and potential measures to improve their well-being through legal, social, and economic empowerment initiatives.

1.21. Title of the Study

It is entitled “*Occupational Hazards and Socio-Economic Well-Being of Women Domestic Workers in Tirunelveli District*”

1.22. Operational Definitions of Important Key Terms

Occupational Hazards

Occupational hazards refer to the risks and dangers associated with a specific type of work that can negatively impact the physical, mental, or social well-being of workers. In the context of this study, occupational hazards include physical strain, exposure to harmful chemicals, workplace injuries, long working hours, and verbal or physical abuse experienced by women domestic workers. According to the International Labour Organization (ILO, 2021), occupational hazards encompass "any condition, process, or practice in the workplace that has the potential to cause harm or adverse health effects to workers."

Domestic Workers

Domestic workers are individuals employed in private households to perform tasks such as cleaning, cooking, childcare,

elderly care, and other household-related duties. In this study, women domestic workers refer to those engaged in paid domestic work, often in informal or unregulated employment conditions. The International Labour Organization (ILO, 2013) defines a domestic worker as "a person engaged in domestic work within an employment relationship, whether on a full-time or part-time basis, including live-in and live-out arrangements."

Socio-Economic Well-Being

Socio-economic well-being refers to the overall quality of life and financial stability of an individual, encompassing aspects such as income, employment security, access to healthcare, education, and social status. This study includes the financial earnings, job security, access to social benefits, education levels, and overall standard of living of women domestic workers in Tirunelveli district. According to Diener and Suh (1997), socio-economic well-being is "a multidimensional concept that includes economic security, social integration, and subjective life satisfaction."

1.23. Objectives of the Study

The present study aims to know about the occupational hazards and socio-economic well-being of women domestic workers in Tirunelveli District.

1. To find out the level of occupational hazards of women domestic workers.
2. To find out the level of socio-economic well-being of women domestic workers.
3. To find out if there exists any significant difference in the occupational hazards of women domestic workers with reference to the place of residence, type of family, educational qualification, and nature of housing.

4. To find out if there exists any significant difference in the socio-economic well-being of women domestic workers with reference to the place of residence, type of family, educational qualification, and nature of housing.
5. To find out if there exists any significant association between the occupational hazards of women domestic workers and their type of employment, years of experience, and marital status.
6. To find out if there exists any significant association between the socio-economic well-being of women domestic workers and their type of employment, years of experience, and marital status.
7. To find out the relationship between occupational hazards and the socio-economic well-being of women domestic workers.

1.24.Hypotheses of the Study

1. The level of occupational hazards among women domestic workers is moderate.
2. There is no significant difference between rural and urban women domestic workers in their occupational hazards.
3. There is no significant difference between nuclear and joint family women domestic workers in their occupational hazards.
4. There is no significant difference between owned and rented house women domestic workers in their occupational hazards.
5. There is no significant difference between uneducated and school-level educated women domestic workers in their occupational hazards.

6. There is no significant association between type of employment and the occupational hazards of women domestic workers.
7. There is no significant association between years of experience and occupational hazards of women domestic workers.
8. There is no significant association between marital status and occupational hazards of women domestic workers.
9. The level of socio-economic well-being among women domestic workers is moderate.
10. There is no significant difference between rural and urban women domestic workers in their socio-economic well-being.
11. There is no significant difference between nuclear and joint family women domestic workers in their socio-economic well-being.
12. There is no significant difference between owned and rented house women domestic workers in their socio-economic well-being.
13. There is no significant difference between uneducated and school-level educated women domestic workers in their socio-economic well-being.
14. There is no significant association between type of employment and the socio-economic well-being of women domestic workers.
15. There is no significant association between years of experience and socio-economic well-being of women domestic workers.

16. There is no significant association between marital status and socio-economic well-being of women domestic workers.
17. There is no significant correlation between occupational hazards and the socio-economic well-being of women domestic workers.

1.25. Delimitations

The proposed study is delimited to:

1. The sample was limited within women domestic workers.
2. The study was delimited within Tirunelveli District.
3. The study limited to certain demographical variables.

1.26. Conclusion

Domestic workers predominantly originate from marginalized communities and underprivileged regions. A vast majority of them grapple with abject poverty, illiteracy, and a stark deficiency in vocational proficiency, rendering them incapable of navigating the complexities of the urban labour market. Their labour remains severely undervalued, inadequately compensated, and largely unregulated. The systemic deprivation they endure manifests in substandard wages, exploitative work conditions, an absence of structured work hours, and rampant exposure to violence, abuse, and sexual harassment within their occupational spheres. Additionally, they are frequently subjected to egregious victimization by unscrupulous traffickers and exploitative placement agencies, coerced migration, and a glaring absence of institutional welfare mechanisms. The dearth of avenues for skill augmentation further exacerbates their occupational stagnation. The Domestic Workers' Welfare Bill aims to address these pressing concerns. Recognizing private households as legitimate

workplaces rather than inviolable ‘private domains’ would constitute a pivotal stride toward fortifying the rights of domestic labourers. Migrant domestic employees may receive remuneration either in monetary terms or in kind such as being provided with minimal subsistence accommodations within the employer’s premises or may alternatively be engaged under casual, temporary, contractual, or migratory employment arrangements. A stringent prohibition must be enacted against the employment of domestic workers below the age of 18. The proposed legislation advocates for an expansive definition of wages, stipulating that remuneration must not be confined to monetary compensation alone. It should explicitly exclude deductions for accommodations, utilities such as electricity and water, and medical provisions. Furthermore, employers shall bear a legal obligation to contribute to social security or insurance schemes, extend travel allowances or concessions, and furnish any additional compensatory entitlements upon the worker’s discharge.

Despite the formulation of protective legal frameworks, the enforcement of domestic workers' rights remains a formidable challenge. The private nature of their workplace often serves as a shield for exploitative practices, making labour inspections and grievance redressal mechanisms exceedingly difficult. Additionally, a lack of awareness among domestic workers regarding their legal entitlements further exacerbates their vulnerability. To combat these systemic injustices, the establishment of a dedicated regulatory body is imperative one that ensures strict compliance with labour laws, conducts routine audits, and imposes stringent penalties on non-compliant employers. Beyond legislative protection, empowering domestic workers through education and vocational training is crucial in

breaking the cycle of exploitation and economic stagnation. Government and non-governmental organizations should collaborate to provide literacy programs, financial literacy workshops, and specialized skill enhancement initiatives, enabling domestic workers to negotiate better wages and explore alternative livelihood opportunities. Moreover, fostering collective bargaining through unionization and self-help groups can strengthen their collective voice, ensuring greater bargaining power and workplace protections.

Several countries have made significant strides in safeguarding domestic workers' rights through progressive policies and international conventions, such as the ILO's Domestic Workers Convention, which mandates fair wages, regulated working hours, and protection from abuse. India must take inspiration from such global precedents and work toward robust policy implementation, ensuring that domestic work is recognized as dignified labour, deserving of the same protections and rights as any other sector. A society's progress is reflected in how it treats its most vulnerable. By institutionalizing legal safeguards, fostering skill development, and promoting social security for domestic workers, we can move towards a future where they are not mere labourers but empowered individuals with agency, dignity, and economic stability.

1.27. Organization of the Study

Chapter I comprises the Domestic Workers, Women and Informal Sector, Challenges Faced by Domestic Workers The Role and Challenges of Modern Domestic Workers, Domestic Work: An Indian Scenario Workplace Struggles, Health Challenges, and Social Security for Domestic Workers, Challenges Faced by Domestic Workers in India, Social, Economic, and Workplace

Struggles of Domestic Workers, Occupational Health and Safety, Access to Social Protection and Social Services, Acts and Laws in India ,Health and Social Security Schemes for Domestic Workers , Financial Inclusion , Working Conditions of Domestic Workers, Problems Faced by Women Domestic Workers, Work-Life Quality of Female Domestic Workers, Need and Significance of the Study, Statement of the Problem, Objectives and Hypotheses of the present study, delimitations of the study and Organization of the study.

Chapter II presents a summary of related studies conducted abroad and India and reviewed by the Investigator.

Chapter III describes the Research methodology of the study covering the Importance of the study, Variables of the study, Sample Design and sampling Techniques, Method Adopted for Selection of Mandals and Schools, Tool Description, Pre-test Administration, Item Analysis and Final Test Items, Reliability and Validity, Data Collection and Statistical Techniques Used for Analysis.

The details of the analysis of data and interpretations are given in *Chapter IV*.

Chapter V presents a summary of the study, major findings, and conclusions, educational implications of the study, recommendations and suggestions for further research in this area.

CHAPTER-II-REVIEW OF RELATED STUDIES

2.1.Introduction

Economic growth and urbanization encourage the development of the domestic service workforce, as they serve an affordable class of employers. Domestic workers in employment constitute a significant proportion of the workforce in many countries, particularly in developing countries. They contribute significantly to the global economy and care for their dependents, particularly aged people, children, and people with disabilities in the family. Women workers in the informal economy are society's most vulnerable working segment. They came from a marginalized population whose legal, economic, and political status limited their ability to demand their rights. These women include domestic workers whose social and economic contributions to society are invisible to the public, the law, and policies of the country. Failure in agriculture and livelihood opportunities in rural areas resulted in the migration of rural people to urban areas. Most women migrants are unskilled and illiterate or have a low level of education. They are compelled to engage in informal sector employment, mainly in domestic service, where they are trained at home. All these factors contribute not only to the low wages of work but also to the exploitation of women domestic workers by employers. As the number of women domestic workers keeps growing in urban and sub-urban India, it is necessary to understand their plight and prospects. Social workers have made efforts for government and non-government agencies to preserve their rights; the government has passed many laws for their protection and security. However, no significant changes are observed in the nation's substantial and essential labour force status. Even today,

they are treated with the employer's 'No Terms and Conditions' attitude. There is a long list of issues highlighting the problems and maltreatment of domestic workers. There is a requirement to analyze the trend of treatment received by domestic workers from their employers, which can help to draw guidelines for the group's betterment.

2.2 Review of Related Literature

Chowdhury & Basu (2022) explored intervention programs for abused domestic workers and emphasized the importance of implementing stronger legal frameworks to protect their rights. The study highlighted successful programs in countries that have domestic worker protection laws and suggested the adoption of similar models in regions where abuse cases remain prevalent. Countries such as the Philippines and Brazil, which have enacted comprehensive domestic worker protection laws, have decreased abuse cases due to increased legal awareness and structured grievance mechanisms. The study called for a global standard on domestic worker protections through international labour agreements, ensuring that these workers receive the same protections as those in other formal sectors.

Martinez et al. (2022) examined labour policies and concluded that only a few countries have comprehensive legal protections for domestic workers, leading to widespread job insecurity. Countries ratifying ILO Convention 189 on Decent Work for Domestic Workers have significantly improved labour conditions, while others struggle with enforcement. The study recommended increased advocacy and policy reforms to ensure fair treatment and job security for domestic workers.

Gonzalez et al. (2022) conducted an experimental study on the effectiveness of occupational safety training programs and found that trained domestic workers had significantly lower workplace injury rates. Training on proper lifting techniques, handling hazardous cleaning agents, and emergency response procedures could dramatically reduce workplace accidents.

Lopez & Fernandez (2021) examined the impact of social isolation on domestic workers and found a strong correlation between limited social interactions and increased mental health problems. Many domestic workers work long hours with little time off, preventing them from engaging in social activities or maintaining support networks. The study suggested that providing domestic workers with mandatory rest days, counselling services, and peer support groups could significantly improve their emotional well-being. Furthermore, they emphasized the importance of training employers to recognize and address their employees' emotional and psychological needs. Governments could also implement policies that require regular psychological assessments for domestic workers to prevent long-term mental health deterioration.

Fernandez (2021) analyzed documented cases of abuse and noted that many domestic workers refrain from reporting incidents due to fear of job loss or lack of legal protection. The study also indicated that a lack of enforcement of labour laws contributes to a culture of impunity, allowing perpetrators of abuse to go unpunished. Fernandez suggested the establishment of domestic worker unions and legal aid programs to provide better protection and avenues for justice. Additionally, the study recommended the introduction of an anonymous helpline where domestic workers could report cases of abuse without fear of

retaliation. Fernandez further suggested implementing employer training programs to educate households on ethical employment practices and appropriate behaviour towards domestic workers.

Khan & Sharma (2020) conducted in-depth interviews with domestic workers and discovered that many of them experience discrimination, bullying, and psychological distress due to workplace mistreatment. The study highlighted that domestic workers often lack avenues for legal recourse and are hesitant to report abuse for fear of job loss or retaliation. Furthermore, it was observed that domestic workers who are migrants or belong to marginalized communities are at higher risk of experiencing emotional abuse and unfair treatment. The researchers suggested that implementing awareness programs and mental health counselling services tailored to domestic workers could help address these issues. Additionally, they recommended that government and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) work together to establish reporting mechanisms that protect domestic workers from retaliation.

Rahman (2019) surveyed 500 domestic workers and found that 35% reported experiencing physical or sexual harassment at work. The study identified that domestic workers who work in isolated settings, such as live-in workers, are at a higher risk of abuse due to their dependence on their employers for accommodation and financial stability. The research further highlighted that many victims of harassment felt powerless due to the absence of legal protection and their undocumented work status. The study called for stronger legal measures, including employer background checks and periodic inspections by labour authorities, to prevent abuse in domestic work settings.

Tomar & Kishore (2018) conducted a study on "Demographic and socioeconomic profile of female domestic workers in an urban slum of central Delhi- a mixed method study". Housemaids form a significant part of the unorganized workforce in our country. Domestic Women workforce in our country belong to low socioeconomic status and live in vulnerable conditions. More research work needs to be done, as is done in any other formal or informal sector. Research on attitudes and behaviours of employers towards domestic workers is required, too.

Garcia & Patel (2018) assessed different household environments and noted that inadequate ventilation and improper handling of cleaning chemicals exacerbate health risks for domestic workers. Their research involved a survey of households employing domestic workers. They found that many workers operate in poorly ventilated spaces, such as small kitchens and enclosed bathrooms, where exposure to cleaning fumes is intensified. The study revealed that improper mixing of cleaning agents, such as combining bleach with acidic products, produces toxic fumes that can lead to severe respiratory distress. Furthermore, Garcia & Patel highlighted that many domestic workers reported experiencing dizziness, headaches, and nausea due to inhaling strong cleaning fumes over extended periods. The study called for improved occupational health regulations to mitigate these risks, including employer-provided safety training and enhanced workplace ventilation.

Lee & Kim (2018) conducted a comparative study on wage disparities and found that domestic workers often receive lower wages than other unskilled labourers due to their informal employment status. The study noted that because many domestic

workers are hired without contracts, they are vulnerable to wage theft and arbitrary termination. The researchers recommended that governments enforce standardized wage policies for domestic workers and ensure they receive the minimum wage applicable in their respective countries.

Tewathia (2017) discussed the unaccounted and invisible contribution of women domestic workers in our country. The study highlighted that the regulation and formalization of the domestic employment relationship are in the interests of both workers and employers. The government must draw attention to the urgent need for skill development, written contracts, a regulatory body, and regular inspections for domestic workers.

Smith & Jones (2017) analyzed the exposure of domestic workers to hazardous cleaning chemicals and identified a strong link between prolonged use of household cleaning agents and respiratory issues, skin allergies, and other chemical-related ailments. The study assessed various cleaning products commonly used in households and found that many contain toxic substances such as ammonia, chlorine, and formaldehyde. The findings indicated that frequent exposure to these substances without proper protective gear (e.g., gloves, masks, and ventilation systems) increases the risk of developing asthma, dermatitis, and eye irritation. The study also emphasized that many domestic workers lack awareness of the potential dangers of these chemicals and are not provided with adequate safety training by their employers.

Venkatesh (2017) in his article, 'India Ranks 120th among 131 Nations in Women Workforce', stated that according to the World Bank, there were some hurdles to enhancing women's

participation in the Indian workforce. They needed a safe and conducive environment and also incentives. The World Bank opined that India had one of the lowest female participation rates in the workforce, ranking 120th among 131 countries for which data was available in its India Development Report released in May 2017. The primary sector in India was the agriculture sector. Thus, the report highlighted that an increase in the women's workforce in India led to its potential GDP growth rate.

Fish (2017) study, based on in-depth interviews with 80 domestic workers in Cape Town, found unequal relations in the struggle of the workers and employers. The study found triple oppression of women domestic workers because of their race, gender and class. The privileged women devalue domestic work, justify these discriminations, and continue the apartheid culture often referred to as "maids and madams". It was found that employers use several loopholes to justify the violation of the BCEA, which covers only full-time workers.

Mendoza (2016) studied emotional stress among domestic workers and found that long working hours, lack of privacy, and verbal abuse contribute to anxiety and depression. Many workers, especially live-in domestic workers, experience feelings of isolation as they spend the majority of their time in their employers' homes with limited personal space and social interactions. This isolation is often linked to increased risks of stress-related illnesses and burnout. In addition, Mendoza highlighted that the emotional strain of managing multiple household tasks without adequate rest results in chronic fatigue and sleep disorders.

Barua & Waldrop (2016) attempt to shed light on the

complexities of domestic workers' specific strategies and negotiations to question and challenge the sociocultural markers of hierarchical differences that employers mobilize when trying to establish boundaries and distinctions between themselves and their employees. To understand the dynamics of this cutting-edge work, the study applies concepts and insights from James Scott's work on everyday resistance and hidden transcripts. The study further argues that while paid domestic work at home is a highly unequal social relationship characterized by fundamental domination and dependence between domestic workers and their employers, domestic workers employ creative and innovative strategies to combat inequities.

Dharshini (2016) conducted "A study on the socioeconomic status of women domestic workers (WDW) in Pudukkottai, Sivaganga District". In her study she insisted that the socioeconomic condition of female workers coming from a small section of various suburban areas to work in niches of Pudukkottai. The upper class of society drains out the domestic workers, yet the workers remain unrecognized. Prolonged service in the same house builds a trustworthy relationship between owners and domestic helpers. At times, servants expect financial assistance from the owners in emergencies. The female workers are exploited physically as well as socially for their being illiterate and having unknown rights.

Anderson (2015) conducted an extensive study on Ergonomic challenges in domestic work: The physical toll of repetitive labour. The study found that domestic workers frequently engage in activities such as scrubbing floors, lifting heavy objects, prolonged standing, and bending, all contributing to musculoskeletal disorders. The research highlighted that

improper posture, lack of training on safe lifting techniques, and extended working hours significantly increase the risk of chronic pain, joint problems, and spinal injuries. Anderson further suggested that the absence of ergonomic interventions, such as adjustable workspaces and appropriate tools, exacerbates these physical strains.

Perilla (2015) work looked at domestic violence from a philosophical, religious, cultural, social, and political point of view. Her examination spanned the history, behaviour, and consequences of domestic abuse as well as its ramifications on Latino immigration into the United States. The research examined the suffering of migrant workers from both a long-term and short-term perspective. This was applied from an ecological, universal, and cultural perspective to explore their sufferings truly. Participants also used Freire's consciousness ideas to define various levels of awareness and accountability for domestic violence.

Phuong & Venkatesh (2015) examined the Risk-adjusted returns of Vietnamese migrant domestic workers in Taiwan: A case study from Phu Tho County. The study analyzed data obtained by interviewing a sample of immigrant domestic workers, all from Phu Tho County in northern Vietnam, who immigrated to Taiwan. The study found that migrants were driven strongly by financial motivations. An analysis of typical immigration costs, host country wages, average length of stay, and especially uncertainty related to length of stay shows that investment immigration is risky for immigration. In most cases, the migration will not pay off. In addition, the study urges that the financial literacy of immigrants needs to improve so that they can better assess their investments in immigration.

Mansour (2015) has examined the conditions of domestic workers in Egypt. The study shows that local household chores in Egypt are mainly performed and performed by women and children, and the average age of the participants surveyed was about 31 years old. More than half of the participants had no education, followed by nearly a quarter with no formal education and only a few with primary education. The study concluded that many participants were described as illiterate and unskilled workers. Participants' Information Behaviour (ISB) profiles showed that they preferred oral vs. written, informal vs. formal, and undocumented vs. daily life-related problems.

Sarkar (2015) investigated the general socioeconomic status of urban domestic workers in India, followed by a micro-study in Delhi to understand various labour and gender aspects of female part-time workers. Finally, the study examines the deficiencies of decent domestic work using the Delhi case study. The study highlights that domestic workers suffer from varying levels of job insecurity and unhealthy work lives, which affect their overall well-being. The International Labour Organization recognizes the plight of domestic workers worldwide and adopted Convention No. 189 on Decent Work for Domestic Workers on 16 June 2011. The Convention aims to protect workers from degrading working conditions, multiple abuse/harassment, social insecurity and the undervaluation of their work in formal employment. Seventeen ILO member nations have ratified the Convention by 2014, whereas India, being an active member, is still far from ratifying the Convention. Ismail Idowu Salih (2015)⁶⁵ examines the UK government's model and attitude towards an international framework that promotes humane treatment of domestic workers and respect for their human rights.

Rajashekar & Suchitra (2014) conducted a study in four districts of Karnataka State, namely Mysore, Dakshina Kannada, Bangalore, and Gulbarga, to review the policy measures for providing social security to unorganized workers. The sample consists of 910 households in the unorganized sector, including construction workers, domestic workers, and agricultural workers. The study found that the anti-poverty programmes based on the PL (poverty Line) norms are inadequate to meet the unorganized sector's needs.

Badiger & Gudagunt (2014) have examined the socioeconomic conditions of domestic workers, their working conditions, the problems of domestic work, and their limitations. The study concluded that women and children have been employed as domestic workers. They usually come from a lower caste, have very little education, and are often unaware of their rights. Within India, many women and children domestic workers continue to suffer various kinds of abuses and violations of their human rights.

Pereira & Rodrigues (2014) highlight that many women have faced sexual harassment at some point, possibly in the office or on the way to work. They are forced to keep silent because if they speak up about it, they will face more serious crimes like assault and rape, acid attack, etc., especially in India. Therefore, the primary responsibility of employers is to develop absolute intolerance for sexual harassment in the workplace or elsewhere. There is so much crime against women, so much gender inequality, sexual harassment and a hostile environment in the workplace that happens every day. The study further shows that resisting harassment, empowering women, and treating women

better as a whole requires courage and building self-confidence, as evidenced by great legends such as Justice.

Kunwar & Kunwar (2014) conducted a descriptive study in Kailali District, Dhangadhi City, Nepal, to understand women's experiences of sexual harassment in the workplace. Only female respondents working in the office were taken purposively from four sectors: government sectors, Companies, Public Schools and NGOs for the study using pre-structured interview schedules. Data were collected based on the first-come, first-served method till the required number was achieved. The study was conducted among 92 respondents. It was noted that women employed at the workplace were subject to harassment of all kinds: 56.3 per cent verbal, 16.9 per cent physical, 11.3 per cent written or graphical, 8.5 per cent gesture, and 7 per cent physical. 52.1 per cent of respondents who responded to the survey reported experiencing harassment at work, 77.2 per cent of which considered it sexual. The dominant reason why harassers harassed was that men felt empowered and superior, but offenders overwhelmingly disregarded the abuse in favour of perpetuating it.

Neetha (2013) stated in her paper on 'Minimum Wages for Domestic Work' that apart from labour market issues that govern legislative interventions, a critical factor in understanding the state's responses to the issues domestic workers face was the social understanding of household work. In India, few states have followed the minimum wage for domestic workers in the informal sector. This reflected the undervaluation of housework even when it entered the market. Better statutory minimum wages for domestic workers would not only help protect their rights. Still, they could also shake household work's social and political foundations, leading to a new valuation.

According to Kit (2013), "domestic workers are employed by private households within national boundaries or overseas to do house chores and care work. They constitute an integral part of the labour force worldwide. Decent work for domestic workers: "Once regarded as an obsolete occupation, domestic service continues to grow, as increasing numbers of workers enter into the homes of others to perform a range of services for pay, including cooking, cleaning, laundry, childcare, care of the elderly, gardening, and shopping. Domestic work is one of the fastest growing economic sectors in many parts of the world" (Smith, P., 2000)

Sathiyashiela & Jeyakodi (2013) conducted a study on the socioeconomic status of women domestic workers and the various problems they faced in Madurai city by using convenient sampling of domestic workers. It was suggested that the government should take steps to bring domestic workers under the Minimum Wage Act of 1948. All domestic workers may become members of the Domestic Workers Association. It is observed that the domestic workers feel that they do not have enough time to take care of their children. Hence, the employer may consider them human beings and allow them a weekly off.

John (2013), in his article entitled "Domestic Women Workers in Urban Informal Sector," described poverty as the main reason many women and children engage in domestic work. The reasons for entering into domestic work were Family problems, including rural and male unemployment, disputes at home, ill-treatment, and loss of parents, which resulted in their leaving the house to work as domestic workers. Women who were widows, separated from their husbands, or those with alcoholic husbands were compelled to work for the survival of their children.

Madhumathi (2013) attempted to conceptualize domestic services in Bangalore as a significant informal sector movement in the context of transformations in class associations and developing a new lifestyle collective with extraordinary female migration. The study highlights the disgraceful circumstances of work in domestic service, such as long working hours, low pay, and a deficiency of job security despite the state legislation on wages, underlining the need for effective implementation of the law. The study finds that organizing domestic workers is difficult due to a lack of group psyche, heterogeneity, migrant status, and awareness of organizing.

Nayak Nalini (2013) emphasized marriage and connected issues in the context of paid domestic work. The study found prominent female domestic workers, pre-marital engagement in domestic service, and initial initiation into domestic work. The study also reports tremendously high hopes, requirements and investment in education in these poor areas despite acute financial problems. However, it also reveals discernment between sons and daughters regarding access to education. The study concludes that the practices around marriage, work, and education are varied and complex, defying any trend or causal relationship between education, marriage, and work.

Kiran (2013) discussed the working and living circumstances of domestic workers in Chandigarh in a broader context of the informal sector, urban poverty, and worried migration. A comparative study of live-in and live-out domestic workers is presented concerning monthly earnings, hours of work, family and living conditions. The study explored other aspects of education, such as marital status, caste, and migration-related factors. The study discusses the concept of decent work for

domestic workers, addressing the deficiencies of decent work and the need to protect the human rights of domestic workers, and proposes policies including legislative action, social dialogue and regulation of working conditions.

The International Human Rights Clinic Report (2013)

describes how migrant domestic workers travel from the Philippines, arrive and work in Kuwait until they are repatriated. The study explains the support system that links migrant workers' work and residence permits to their employers' approval, the lives of Filipino migrant workers in Kuwait, the role of employment agencies, and issues in the interaction between employers and domestic workers, particularly. There are cases of nonpayment of wages, confiscation of passports and cases of physical and sexual abuse. In addition, the study identified appropriate responses from government agencies and civil society organizations in both countries. The report concludes with recommendations to all relevant stakeholders to protect the rights of migrant domestic workers better and strengthen cooperation between countries of origin and destination, governments and civil society. In addition, the report aims to raise public awareness of the rights of migrant domestic workers and provide practical solutions for policymakers in countries of origin and destination, and specifically for the governments of Kuwait and the Philippines to offer practical solutions to take action to prevent human rights violations better, punish violators and protect vulnerable groups. By focusing on Filipino migrant domestic workers, the report aims.

Agrawal (2012) conducted a study on maternal health issues of domestic workers living in urban clusters and shanty towns across India's capital city of Delhi. It revealed an apparent lack of a well-

defined and workable maternal and neonatal health system for domestic workers in the informal economy and the critical need for such support. According to the study, the majority of the male partners of the respondents did not concern themselves with family planning in any way, and the use of condoms was very low. Pregnancy brought its share of traumas. Most respondents continued to work until the time came to give birth because most women bore the sole responsibility of caring for their household. The striking finding of the research was that although most of these women went to a hospital or saw a doctor during their pregnancy, many of them had delivered at home as opposed to a hospital or clinic. The reasons behind this varied as there was no means of transport, a lack of education and an inability to make informed choices. More than half of the respondents revealed that the decisions on healthcare during pregnancy were made by 'elders' of the family, who were more likely than not to hold conservative views on such issues. The pregnant woman contributed little or no input in this decision-making process. The findings of the focus group discussion revealed a reasonably widespread phenomenon and again underlined the lack of access to information and contraceptive services among migrant domestic women workers in urban clusters.

Kaur & Rani (2012) studied female domestic employees from urban areas of Sangrur district, Punjab. The authors argued that the deployment of domestic workers originated in feudal society. The contemporary trend in the employment of domestic workers can be traced to the rising workforce contribution of middle-class urban women, employers' insight into their position and upward mobility, and the accessibility of cheap labour for hiring. The

study explores the work conditions that comprise wages, living conditions, and family-related problems of domestic workers.

Varia (2011) has attempted to study the millions of women who migrate to destinations in Asia and the Middle East to earn for life as domestic workers. In host countries, the combination of significant gaps in labour laws, restrictive immigration policies and socially accepted discrimination against migrant workers has contributed to alarming human rights violations, including excessively long hours with no days off, nonpayment of wages, confinement in the workplace, physical abuse, sexual abuse, forced labour and in some cases, the slavery. While some governments have started to improve standards incrementally, most have failed to adopt comprehensive reforms.

Budlender (2011) reported on the trend among employers in Hong Kong. The employer employed the worker as a domestic worker but then did her work in a launderette, restaurant, or grocery store. The worker did two jobs but was paid only the wages of a domestic worker. Though employers knew they were violating the work permit, they seemed to be confidently acting unscrupulously. Domestic work was not recognized as work in any law or regulation. This non-recognition of domestic work as work had opened wide doors for abuse, exploitation and treatment of domestic workers as maids, servants or enslaved people.

Tomei (2011) conducted a comparative study of domestic work in Belgium, France, the Canton of Geneva (Switzerland), and Brazil, highlighting the increasing involvement of the state and market in regulating and supplying domestic services. Her findings suggest that such interventions offer pathways toward ensuring decent work for domestic workers and challenge the

historical undervaluation of their labour. These regulatory systems have effectively formalized casual and part-time domestic employment; however, they remain limited in addressing key issues such as irregular working hours, unstable earnings, social isolation, and the lack of opportunities for skill development and career progression. Tomei emphasizes that while it may be socially acceptable for some individuals to provide household care and management for others, governments must establish and enforce comprehensive regulatory frameworks to safeguard the rights and welfare of domestic workers.

Mohammed (2011) conducted a Mapping Study of Home Based Workers in Uttar Pradesh, With the significant objectives of identifying and mapping the home-based workers and the organizations representing them to prepare a status report of the Home Based Workers in the above industrial sectors about the wages, housing, employer-employee relationship, occupational health, social security and lack of skills and to give recommendations on organizing the Home Based Workers and to suggest a strategy for changing the current occupational status. Observation and interview schedules were used for data collection of the study. The study focuses on the home-based sector only in three districts and covers a small sample size, so the survey findings are specific and cannot be generalized. The study reveals that all Home Workers in the three selected districts for the study have similar socio-economic conditions and are facing the same problems like Health, Education, Child labour, Minimum wages, and lack of awareness about the Govt. beneficiary schemes for people with low incomes and BPL. All related govt. Departments and boards have not been playing their role effectively in supporting the Home Based Workers. Although

the Trade Unions are available in three districts, they are not in active condition; they are going on their way or are busy with their political interest. Home-based workers live in very low economic conditions in all three trades. They are getting little wages, so they cannot even afford two meals a day for their families. Although the govt. Has many social security schemes, but they are not able to access these facilities. Lack of awareness is the biggest issue or problem for the Home Based Workers.

Datta & Murthy (2011) in their paper Working and Living Conditions of Women Domestic Workers: Evidence from Mumbai discussed the working and living conditions of women domestic workers in Mumbai based on a survey conducted by Adecco TISS Labour Market Research Initiative (ATLMRI), between September 2009 and March 2010, in collaboration with Jagrut Ghar Kamagar Sanghatan (JGKS), Mumbai. The core objective of this survey was to collect data on domestic workers who are members of JGKS, covering demographic profile, nature of service, consumption, health status, time use, assets and liability, habitat, gender profile and domestic violence. The findings revealed that only three domestic workers have ever been suspected of theft by the employers. Most (90%) have never faced sexual harassment at the workplace. Most do not have fixed weekly holidays, and only thirteen per cent get overtime payments. Most people –two-thirds to four-fifths access health facilities due to illnesses such as headache, giddiness, body pain, cough & cold and back Pain, while one-sixth of people visit health facilities because of diarrhoea. Further, work-related injuries and back pain are commonly noticed among women domestic workers. Respondents in the study view that trade unions have brought enormous awareness on specific pertinent

issues, for instance, making these workers aware of the domestic workers' law, helping domestic workers acquire ration cards and ensuring the availability of ration against ration cards, and health information through trade union are few examples to imply how the role of trade union becomes vital in the process of fighting for social justice, with given enormity of political resistance towards bringing reforms to the life of domestic workers, the role of trade union becomes very clear. Three-fifths of domestic workers spend 2-6 hours daily. Almost all of them spend less than four hours on unpaid domestic activities. Moreover, half of the women do not make decisions about spending their own money. In deciding the number of children, nearly forty per cent of respondents viewed that husband and wife jointly make decisions. This paper describes a vicious situation of lack of core entitlements required to enjoy freedom guaranteed by the democratic society and the necessity of appropriate alternatives to bring positive social change, impacting the lives of hapless domestic workers and their families.

Geeta (2010) examined the situation of domestic workers in four metropolises in India: Delhi, Mumbai, Chennai, and Kolkata. The study notes that domestic workers lack access to a savings account in a bank due to the non-availability of documents. The study recommends framing suitable legislation, raising domestic workers' awareness of the legal recourse available to them, organizing as a significant tool of positive intervention, regulation of placement agencies, and adequate protection for migrant domestic workers.

Menon (2010) has analyzed that caste and language play an essential role in the lives of domestic workers. Indian society was still far from caste-free, although some changes had occurred in

urban areas. Most of the villages were still plagued by casteism and feudalism. As domestic workers, they got only food and shelter. Part-timers work for two to three hours at a time in different houses. They work like machines, running from one home to another. They were paid according to their tasks; for example, they earned Rs. 300 for sweeping and mopping, washing utensils and washing clothes, and Rs. 200 for dusting. These rates also were not fixed. The worst part was that, in the end, nothing was recognized. The workers were only cursed, blamed and fed with leftovers.

Hiralal(2010) studied Indian home-based workers residing in South Africa. The study's primary objectives were to study home-based workers' lives and challenges in the labour market. The study sample consisted of twenty-five women home-based workers. Quantitative and qualitative data were collected using in-depth interviews, questionnaires and focus group discussions as data collection tools. Significant findings of the study revealed that over 80 per cent of women were married. Others were divorced, single and unmarried mothers. The educational profile of women was low. Women worked from home and were engaged in various economic activities, i.e. bottling homemade chutney and pickles, selling floral arrangements, beadwork, craft work and embroidery, etc. Many complained of their small working space and strongly felt it was not conducive to running a successful business from home.

Bhattacharya &Sinha (2009) conducted a study on 'Domestic Workers in India: Background and Issues'. They revealed that services provided by domestic workers were made to allow a greater degree of female labour force engagement. However, by providing these services, many female domestic workers could

not provide quality care for their children and elderly. One of the key findings of the Self Employed Women's Association (SEWA) and the Institute of Social Studies Trust (ISST) studies in Ahmadabad and Delhi was childcare. Women often left their children alone at home or in the care of neighbours while they went to work. Many women interviewed stated that they could not take up further tasks or households simply because they had to come home and care for their children.

Sharma (2006) reported that no standard norms decide working conditions for domestic workers. They work 8 to 18 hours a day, while live-in domestic workers are on call 24 hours daily. The article further discussed legislation protecting domestic workers, stating that domestic workers are excluded from labour welfare laws. As such, domestic works are currently not within the scope of most labour laws. So, women, domestic workers, cannot demand rights for their decent working conditions, minimum wages, social security, hours of work, weekly offs, paid leaves or medical benefits. The article quoted a SEWA survey showing that live-out domestic workers do not have social security.

2.3.Research Gap

A review of earlier studies worldwide highlighted specific issues and dealt with particular challenges. In the process of review, it has been observed that lacunas are found in the definition of domestic work, absence of formal association and recognition of domestic workers. As such, the majority continue as informal workers, and discrimination exists against domestic women workers. There is an urgent need to understand the problems women domestic workers face and take essential steps to recognize their hard work. While extensive scholarly inquiries

have scrutinized the adversities confronting domestic workers in India, conspicuous lacunae persist, particularly regarding the occupational perils and socio-economic precarity of women domestic workers in Tirunelveli District. Prevailing research predominantly orbits around macroscopic national or state-level paradigms, frequently neglecting the granular intricacies of labour conditions and the lived realities of domestic workers in peripheral districts.

Moreover, while extant literature elucidates the corporeal and psychological detriments inherent in domestic labour, empirical substantiation concerning the protracted ramifications of these occupational hazards on health trajectories and economic resilience remains scant. Additionally, discourses on the legislative architecture governing domestic labour in India predominantly underscore regulatory deficiencies. However, they seldom furnish region-specific exegeses on policy enactment and labourers' cognizance of their statutory entitlements. Some studies in India have dealt with the background characteristics of women domestic workers, wages of women domestic workers, their work relations and state & legislative responses to the welfare of women domestic workers. Still, there is a lack of covering the specific areas.

Further studies indicated that women face many problems due to their work, such as deduction in payment, no extra fee for extra work, getting less work compared to males, unequal pay for equal work, and irregular availability of work in the case of home-based workers. The job was characterized by no time, money or place to go for recreation, and forced to leave if the employer moved house or did not increase the wages. Reviewed literature also revealed that the condition of women domestic workers was

disconsolate as they were not satisfied with the present salary, cut wages even when women were not at fault, did not get a day off from work, and had no time, money or place to go for recreation. The majority of women reported suffering a lot (beating, non-cooperation, the husband not taking family responsibilities) due to the violent attitude of a drunkard husband.

Hence, this study tries to cover particular milieus such as caste discrimination, standards of work, wage structure, safety and security at the workplace, leave and sexual harassment apart from current psycho-social problems, the impact of monthly income, working environment, relationship with the employer, social responsibility, social & political awareness of the domestic workers and finally to give suggestions to improve their wellbeing professionally. Furthermore, the ramifications of entrenched sociocultural determinants such as caste-based ostracization, systemic marginalization, and impeded healthcare accessibility in rural and semi-urban locales remain an understudied domain. This study endeavours to ameliorate these deficiencies by furnishing a localized, data-driven exposition on the occupational vulnerabilities, socio-economic vicissitudes, and policy inadequacies afflicting women domestic workers in Tirunelveli District, thereby proffering substantive insights for enhanced legislative interventions and labour safeguards.

2.4.Conclusion

The review of literature on occupational hazards faced by women domestic workers highlights significant challenges in their work environment, including mental health issues, workplace harassment, economic vulnerabilities, and health risks. Studies show that domestic workers frequently experience anxiety,

depression, and isolation due to long working hours, lack of privacy, and verbal abuse. The absence of strong legal protections often leaves them vulnerable to discrimination, workplace mistreatment, and even physical or sexual harassment. Many domestic workers, especially those who are migrants or belong to marginalized communities, lack the means to seek justice due to fear of retaliation or job loss.

Domestic workers face low wages, job insecurity, and lack of social benefits, making them economically vulnerable. Many work without formal contracts, which exposes them to wage theft and arbitrary dismissal. The lack of social security, pension benefits, and healthcare coverage further exacerbates their financial instability. Studies also highlight that domestic workers are exposed to hazardous cleaning agents, ergonomic challenges, and poor working conditions, leading to chronic health problems such as respiratory diseases, skin allergies, and musculoskeletal disorders.

Despite these risks, legal protections and interventions remain inadequate in many countries. While some nations have introduced labour policies to protect domestic workers, enforcement is often weak, leaving many unprotected. The literature strongly suggests comprehensive labour laws, awareness programs, mental health support, and improved workplace safety measures to ensure better working conditions.

CHAPTER-III RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

Women across the world have long suffered from systemic disadvantages and have traditionally occupied a status inferior to that of men. In both developed and developing countries, women face compounded inequalities stemming from socio-cultural and economic injustices practices that, until recently, were accepted as part of an unquestionable natural order. It was only when these disadvantages were addressed, and women were empowered that they began to play active and meaningful roles in various spheres of life, thereby contributing significantly to societal development.

This recognition led developed nations to realize that the well-being of both the country and its women depends on development policies and research that fully utilize women's potential. Drawing from the experiences of other nations, Indian leaders and policymakers have called for measures to improve the status of women in India. However, before taking any meaningful steps, it is essential to understand the kind of status Indian women seek and why, to identify the areas requiring change, and most importantly, to define the direction in which that change should occur.

Women worker's experience is that the line between the organized and unorganized sectors is very thin. They are often pushed from the organized to the unorganized sector and oscillate between skilled and unskilled work according to the demands of the work situation. A peep in history shows that the advent of British rule and its various economic policies affected handicrafts and artisan industries adversely. Both men

and women lost out in employment due to mechanization. During the first half of the 20th century, compared with male industrial employment, female employment was much less. In the service sector also, the female workforce decreased in trade and commerce, the disappearance of village weekly fairs, the growth of towns, transport, and large-scale processes eliminated women in construction males displaced women. In rural areas, women. work in the sectors of agriculture, plantations, fisheries, poultry, and dairy. In urban areas, they work for manufacturing units of garments and food processing, and household-related activities.

Faced with deprivation, women from rural and tribal areas end up working in the insecure, unorganized sector, in activities related to construction, stone cutting, food processing, selling vegetables, fruits, and domicile labour. They find it difficult to enter the formal sector as they do not have the required skills or the resources to acquire them. They take up whatever work is available and that they can handle with the running of their poor homes. Consequently, women are increasingly seen in house-based work related to producing food or items for household and even industrial use. They roll bidis, rotis and papads, grind masalas, prepare pickles and food pockets, and make bindis and other small items women use. They also are engaged in the gannet industry. Their nimble fingers are busy cutting, stitching, lace making, and embroidery. Producers, retailers, and importers find it convenient to give women "jobs to be done" within a specified time limit. They do not have to provide regular wages or any other benefit to women workers, and they know that they will get the finished products from women since they have no other option. The women are thus

employed not only by small producers and importers but also by big business houses and multinational companies.

This chapter provides an overview of the research methodology used in the study. The researcher outlines the research design chosen for this study and the rationale for doing so. The data collection instrument is also detailed, as are the procedures employed to carry out this investigation. The researchers also describes the data analysis methodologies employed.

3.2.Economic Significance of Women

The status of women in a given society cannot be measured in separation from social agenda in which they live. Their status is meticulously connected with social structure, religion, family and kinship, cultural standards and value systems which are significant elements of their position and behaviour arrangement society as individual as well as in relation to others inside and outside the family. This is truer in the background to the status of rural women in India where the procedure of modernization is rather very sluggish. The whole life and behaviour pattern of the rural women and the assertiveness of the society towards them is formed and guided by traditional socio- cultural norms and morals which are so deep-rooted in the minds and hearts of the people that there appears a wide gap among the position they actually clutch in the traditional society. Religion, family and kinship, cultural norms, moral values etc. delineate the scope of women's activities in the family and society. The rural women have yet to come up the traditional norms and taboos and to enjoy a position of 'equality' to men as individual citizen as recorded

in the constitution. The right to personal integrity is part of the rights guaranteed by Article 21 of the Indian Constitution, which guarantees the right to life and liberty. The Supreme Court described the term “sexual harassment”.

3.3.Dual Role of Women

Economists believe that the gender division of labour is essential to distinguish between men and women. Scientists claim that the gender division of labour, not just gender differences, creates the differences between men and women. Each ethnic group has a traditionally different division of labour. Gender classifications of work and family arrangements for people of colour have been systematically disrupted and reorganized by racial/ethnic and class procedures. Thus, ethnic classifications are combined with gender distinctions in business. In the economy, gender is reflected in the group of breadwinners and housewives who anchor the invisibility and disapproval of women’s work. The feminist concept of labour will include biological and social reproduction and is not limited to the production of goods and services.

Contemporary understandings of gender and work stem in part from the political economy of the domestic work debate in the 1970s. This discussion revolves around the effect that women’s unpaid labour replicates labour and thus directly and indirectly contributes to the production of surplus value and the accumulation of capital. This acquisition of surplus value can only be curbed if all household chores are divided equally between men and women. The terms of this debate do not focus on ethnicity. The analysis focuses on the material

characteristics of gender, including economic contributions. They fail to address the intangible aspects of gender, including how people perceive themselves and their activities nor do they address the critical relationship between the immaterial aspects of gender and decisions that determine access to shared resources. The social constructionist framework, which increased importance in the 1980s, points that gender is vital to how work is systematized and that work is central in the social construction of gender. The general agreement among a broad range of feminist scholars within the social constructionist agenda is that gender hierarchy is propagated because women are repudiated employment opportunities and income relative to men. According to this logic, varying women's relationship to employment and domestic tasks is the means to gender equity. However, other feminist scholars have long strapped for a change in "what is acknowledged and socially legitimated as work". The latter group of scholars refers to the contradiction of work and housework. Women have continuously worked, but much of the work they perform does not legitimately count as work because people are essentially described by the work they do, the work people do ultimately influence how people think about themselves. Work casts a long shadow on the person doing it. If a person's contribution is valued, then work enhances self-worth. Relative earnings and perceived contributions of spouses affect the distribution of decision-making in families. Work formal, informal, and housework also disturbs the socio-economic empowerment. When women's contributions are unrecognized, it also probable constrains women's access to decision-making. Therefore, it would follow from this logic

that when women's contributions are not acknowledged or devalued, there is no challenge to gender hierarchy.

3.4.Labour Market Discrimination in India

Women in India have traditionally been restricted to the household, but formal labour force contribution rates of women have increased just as observed in other countries across the world. Trade theory envisages that relative wages of unskilled labour will increase in the long run in an unskilled-labour abundant country that opens up to trade. It was anticipated that labour intensive industries in labour plentiful economies would become export challenging and women who tended to dictate labour intensive industries would stand to improvement. It is anticipated that opening up to trade benefit women in a low-skill abundant country like India. The explanations delivered for such wage distinction are several, comprising the human capital theory, reimbursing differentials, search models, and discrimination. Human capital is the incarnation of productivity in people. The human capital theory predicts that earnings are higher for those with higher education and experience. Even after monitoring for all observable factors such as education, age, experience, marital status, occupation and industry in earnings regressions advanced by the human capital theory, wage differentials among workers may not be fully illustrated. The segment of the wage gap that is not illustrated by observable distinctions in worker features is typically attributed to discrimination in the Blinder-Oaxaca (1973) decomposition technique. Discrimination in the labour market has been studied comprehensively, predominantly in developed countries. The main economic theory to study discrimination was developed

by Gary Becker, in the 1950s. Becker developed a neoclassical model, with typical neoclassical assumptions of perfect competition in labour markets and utility maximization, using the idea of a taste for discrimination on the part of employers, employees or customers to inspect the consequences of discrimination, where it exists. Becker suggests that this taste for discrimination creates a wage differential in the short run, as a result of the willingness on the part of discriminators rates than men. Females and lower castes in India have lower levels of education and experience than males and higher castes. This distinction in human capital can be one explanation of wage gaps among gender and caste groups. However, studies have found that the existence of wage and job discrimination were against female workers.

3.5.Theoretical Framework to the Domestic Workers

Three theoretical viewpoints are offered to elucidate the exploitation of domestic workers and the problems opposing them: (i) dual labour market theory; (ii) patriarchy; and (iii) the Marxian perspective. According to the dual labour market theory, the job structure is categorized into primary and secondary sectors and upper and lower tiers. Women are excessively distributed into the secondary sector and in the lower tiers. This secondary sector tends to be low paying with poor working conditions, little change of advancement, instability of job, and high turnover among the labour force. Also, it is characterized by extremely personalized association among the workers and the supervisors, which leave wide latitude for favouritism and harsh and unpredictable work discipline.

The overrepresentation of women in this sector stems not from a deficiency in labour or skill demand, but from underlying institutional processes. Marx also said that there is a division of labour, and different roles are arranged according to the hierarchy of the occupational structure. Women and children are employed in the lowest occupational groups. The reserve army of labour conjures a very concrete picture of a well-defined, specifiable army of people who move in and out of labour at the will of capital.

The institutional process that pushes women into the lower ranks of the secondary industry can be summed up as a patriarchal mode of production. Sylvia Walby argues that in the patriarchal mode of production, women's labour is deprived of the male community. Women are excluded from the highly skilled labour force and are forced to sell their labour at extremely low wages. There is a tendency to pay women less, i.e., less than the value of labour. It is compulsory to analyse women's politicization in domestic service and the consequent exploitative practices within the context of institutional practices under patriarchy. The institutional contexts and processes by which women are drawn into labour segments need to be analysed. Female domestic workers' labour power being paid at a low price below its values can be attributed to the ideological assumptions of women's role. The informal nature of domestic work and the consequent exploitation of inexpensive labour mirror the dominant attitudes and ideologies embedded in society. Gender role ideologies, sexual division of labour, public-private contrast and confinement of women to the private area can be understood within the context of patriarchal system. The

gender division of labour is a philosophical representation of labour distribution. Patriarchy as a category of inquiry inscribes the gender division of labour as a social division of labour determined by the nature of the production system. The patriarchal system is positively correlated with the feudal system. The gender division of labour divides all labour development into male and female tasks and identifies women as a separate category of workers due to their reproductive role. Domestic workers in India should be understood in the context of dual labour markets, patriarchal oppression and gender division of labour. Domestic workers are subject to a range of human rights violations. Their numbers are large yet they, majority being girls and women, mostly remain invisible workforce. Their work such as cleaning, cooking, washing, caring for children and elderly members of the family, etc, though essential for their employers' households is not considered formal employment because of its private nature; it also carries the low value of women's unpaid care work. Domestic workers are overworked, underpaid, and unprotected by labour laws. As the most invisible sector, domestic work has uniformly been given a low status on the hierarchy of work, by governments and society.

3.6. International Law and International Instrument Relating the Women Workers

The ILO promotes international labour laws that have been a part of many official documents since the late 1800s. One of the most significant aspects of these conventions is that they have allowed women to be treated as equals. Over decades, a "silent revolution" inspired by these conventions has led to positive changes in education, training, employment and

working conditions. Many people attribute this recent change to the ILO's influence on their cause. The Declaration of Philadelphia was put into effect through the International Labour Organization. It stresses that all people without distinction of race, religion or gender have the right to pursue their well-being in both spiritual and material terms. Additionally, the Declaration states that workers should have economic security and equal development opportunities. The Convention guarantees prevents employers from paying women less than they pay men for the same work. The convention also guarantees all workers the right to equal pay for work of equal value. It also helped push the Millennium Development Goals forward, which were adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in 2010. These goals specifically address women working in non-agricultural jobs. Additionally, the Resolution on Schemes to Promote Equal Opportunity and Treatment for Women Workers pushed for gender equality in other areas. The Workers and family Responsibilities, 1981 was another important milestone in promoting gender equality at work and in various other areas.

3.7. Violence against Women in Work Place

Employment discrimination can be litigated through individual or class-action cases to guarantee greater opportunities and equality for women. Many private-public interest firms focus on employment discrimination and have opportunities to litigate on behalf of women. Work at the federal level at the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) is another avenue through which to end discriminatory practices against women in the workplace.

Violence against women is partly the result of gender relations that assume male superiority over females. Given the subordinate status of women, much gender based violence is considered normal and socially acceptable. Manifestations of violence include physical assault such as beatings of varying intensity, burns, attempted hanging, sexual abuse and rape, psychological abuse through insults, humiliation, coercion, blackmail, financial or emotional threats, and control over speech and behaviour. In extreme but not unknown cases, death can result (Adriana, 1996). These expressions of violence take place in relationships between men and women in the family, the state and society. Domestic attacks on women and girls often remain hidden for a variety of reasons. Cultural and social factors are associated with the emergence and spread of violence because men and women go through different socialization processes, men adopt stereotypical gender roles of dominance and control, while women adopt gender roles of subordination, dependence, and respect for authority. A girl always grows up feeling vulnerable and in need of protection, whether physically, socially, or financially. This helplessness leads them to be exploited at almost all stages of life. Families socialize their members to accept hierarchies that manifest themselves in the unequal division of labour and power over the distribution of resources between the sexes. In families and their operational units, children are exposed to sex differences in the form of sex determination tests from birth and, more recently, even before birth, resulting in the killing of foetuses and baby girls. Home, which should be the safest place, is the place where women are most vulnerable to violence. Many documents explicitly describe violence against women as a form of discrimination. In 1993,

the World Conference on Human Rights in Vienna recognized for the first time that gender-based violence is a violation of human rights.

3.8.Human Rights of Women Workers Need Special Attention

The human rights of vulnerable women workers appear to be marginalized due to the country and the rapidly changing work environment. As the national and global economy grows, new economic growth opportunities open up for the national and global economy. A report by the International Labour Organization. The report identified “prejudice against women across all of these categories” along with some important follow-up findings.

3.9.Research Methods

Research methodology describes the various steps to be adopted in solving a problem, such as how the problem is formulated, definition of the terms, the choice of subjects for investigation, the validation of data gathering tools, the collection, analysis and interpretation of data, and the processes of inferences and generalizations. Research methods are classified into three main methods.

The Historical Method

Historical research is the application of the scientific method of inquiry into historical problems. Historical research is one of the most difficult types of investigation to conduct adequately. In the historical method, the source of data is collected through direct observation and documents through indirect observation. It accurately records past events,

interpretations, relationships, and evaluation of present-day problems and procedures.

Survey Method

The descriptive or normative survey method of educational research is very common. It is a method of investigation, which attempts to describe and interpret what exists at present in the form of conditions, practices, processes, trends, effects, attitudes, beliefs, etc. It is an organised attempt to analyse, interpret, and report the present status of a social institution, group, or area.

Experimental Method

Experimentation is the most sophisticated research method. It is defined as observation under certain conditions, which are beyond the control of the researcher. It studies observable changes that take place in order to establish a cause and deliberate, controlled modification of the conditions determining an event and in the observation and interpretation of the changes that occur in the event itself.

3.10.Sampling Technique

Sampling is taking any portion of a population or universe as a representative of the population or universe. Sampling is the procedure which allows the researcher to conclude the population by analyzing the data. In other words, sampling enables the selection of a subgroup from a large group and uses the sub-group as the basis for making the judgment about the large group. There are different sampling methods:

- a. Simple Random Sample
- b. Stratified Random Sample.
- c. Cluster Sampling

- d. Proportionate Stratified Sampling
- e. Accidental Sampling
- f. Quota Sampling
- g. Purposive Sampling.

The investigator must choose one of the methods depending upon the scope of his research. The method of selection of the sample very much depends upon the nature of the observations to be made and the extent of the generalization of the findings.

3.11.Steps Involved in Survey Method

The steps involved in conducting survey as follows:

- Planning.
- Development and application of sample plan.
- Construction of questionnaire.
- Data collection.
- Translation of data.
- Analysis.
- Conclusion and reporting.

Functions of Survey Method

The investigators have adopted the survey method due to the following functions:

- It is always conducted in a natural setting.
- It is a field study.
- It seeks responses directly from the respondents.
- It covers a very large population.
- It may involve an extensive study or an intensive study.
- It covers a definite geographical area.

3.12. Method adopted for the Present Study

According to John W. Best (1959), "the survey is extensive and

cross-sectional, dealing with a relatively large number of cases at a particular time and yielding statistics that are abstracted from particular cases". The survey is an important type of research. It involves a clearly defined problem and definite objectives. It requires expert and imaginative planning, careful analysis and interpretation of the data gathered and logical and skillful reporting of the findings. For this study, the descriptive method of study has been used for processing the data, classifying, analyzing them, and interpreting the findings so that the researcher can draw conclusive evidence from the study and arrive at generalizations.

For the present study, the investigators used the survey method. Survey method is a method of collecting and analyzing data obtained from a large number of respondents responding to a specific population collected through a lightly structured questionnaire or even an interview. Survey research deals with the distribution and relationship of educational, psychological, and sociological variables. The broad classification comprises a variety of specific techniques and procedures, all similar from the standard point of purpose, that is, to establish the status of the phenomenon under investigation. The survey method gathers data from a relatively large number of cases at a particular time. It is concerned with the generalized statistics that result when data are abstracted from several individual cases.

The research approach used in this study is quantitative. Babbie and Mouton (2001) define quantitative research as the numerical presentation and manipulation of observations to describe and explain the phenomena that those observations reflect. The current study is regarded as quantitative because

the researcher assigned numbers to observations, data was produced by counting and measuring the variables under study, and statistics were used to infer the meanings that lay hidden within the data (Leedy, 1993). The present study describes the *Occupational Hazards and Socio-Economic Well-Being of Women Domestic Workers in Tirunelveli District*.

3.13.Tools Used

In any research, the researcher requires specific instruments to gather information or explore new areas. These research tools serve as how data is collected, providing the foundation for testing hypotheses. The quality and quantity of the data collected are influenced by the tools and techniques employed by the researcher. For research to be systematic, relevant data must be collected in sufficient quality and quantity, with each tool appropriate for the particular research context. The success of an investigation hinges on the careful selection and strategic use of these tools.

In this study, the researchers opted for the questionnaire as one of their primary tools due to its many advantages. It is easy for respondents to complete, simple to tabulate and interpret, covers a wide range of participants, and is both time- and cost-efficient.

3.14.Establishing Validity

According to Lee Cronbach, "validity is the extent to which a test measures what it purports to measure". Before administering the tool, the investigators were asked to bring forth the expert's judgement regarding the pooled items' suitability, adequacy, objectivity, and clarity. The newly constructed tool was given to experts in the field of education for the establishment of "Face

Validity", which is a subjective statement that the tool appears to cover the relevant content, and "content validity", which involves the systematic examination of the content to determine whether it covers a representative sample of the domain to be measured—expert's opinion on the clarity and suitability in measuring the particular dimension. The arrangements of items in random order were subjected to the expert's scrutiny. Some items were modified, deleted, and rearranged based on their suggestions. Thus, the face validity and content validity of the tool were established. Therefore, 40 statements were retained in the Occupational Hazards Scale and 30 in the Socio-economic Wellbeing Scale.

3.15.Trying Out

- The main task of try out is to improve and modify the language ambiguity and difficulty. The subjects are selected from the population for which the test is designed. It helps to:
- To refine the instrument.
- To identify the difficult items and to delete the ambiguous or difficult statements.
- To estimate the reliability index of the tool.
- It enables the investigators to select the required number of items for inclusion in the final form of the scale final tools are prepared.

3.16.Pilot study

The pilot study is a preliminary try-out of the instrument with a small number of individuals. The pilot study's purpose is to refine the instrument, including the correlation of deficiencies. A pilot study is not the major data collection of the data.

Before finalizing, the rough draft of the Occupational Hazards Scale (OHS) consisted of 46 statements and Socio-economic Wellbeing Scale (SEWS) consists of 36 statements. The tool was administered to 30 women domestic workers in Tirunelveli District. The questionnaire was distributed to 30 women domestic workers to know whether the items included in the questionnaire measure what they have to measure viz. On basis of their responses Scoring was done and Item vs. Item whole correlation was calculated. Ambiguous items were deleted. Only items having high level precision were retained.

3.17.Item whole correlation

Karl Pearson's product-moment correlation co-efficient was calculated between the item score and the total score to find validity index of the item. In this method each item score is correlated with the total scale mean score. The items for the Occupational Hazards, which are significant at the 5% level, are accepted and selected. The table value at 5% significance level is 0.853. Hence, statements with a correlation value above or equal to 0.853 were selected. Items having validity index below 0.195 were deleted from the draft questionnaire, thus, 6 items were deleted. So the final tool contained 40 items. Thus, the validity of the tool was established. For the items in the Socio-economic Wellbeing which are significant at the 5% level, are accepted and selected. The table value at 5% significance level is 0.872. Hence, statements with a correlation value above or equal to 0.872 were selected. Items having a validity index below 0.195 were deleted from the draft questionnaire, thus, 6 items were deleted. So the final tool contained 40 items.

The validity indices are given in the following.

Table 3.1. Item Vs Whole Correlation of Occupational Hazards of Women Domestic Workers

Item No.	γ value	Remarks	Item No.	γ value	Remarks
1.	0.439	Selected	24.	0.276	Selected
*2.	0.180	Deleted	25.	0.346	Selected
3.	0.430	Selected	26.	0.342	Selected
4.	0.288	Selected	27.	0.297	Selected
5.	0.281	Selected	28.	0.427	Selected
6.	0.394	Selected	29.	0.386	Selected
7.	0.329	Selected	30.	0.392	Selected
*8.	0.149	Deleted	*31.	0.125	Deleted
9.	0.345	Selected	32.	0.429	Selected
10.	0.393	Selected	33.	0.198	Selected
11.	0.303	Selected	34.	0.243	Selected
12.	0.413	Selected	35.	0.210	Selected
*13.	0.075	Deleted	36.	0.414	Selected
14.	0.441	Selected	37.	0.205	Selected
15.	0.371	Selected	38.	0.187	Selected
*16.	0.073	Deleted	39.	0.195	Selected
17.	0.264	Selected	40.	0.334	Selected
18.	0.239	Selected	41.	0.202	Selected
19.	0.202	Selected	42.	0.261	Selected
20.	0.242	Selected	43.	0.195	Selected
*21.	0.099	Deleted	44.	0.221	Selected
22.	0.356	Selected	45.	0.211	Selected
23.	0.379	Selected	46.	0.302	Selected

At 5% level of significance, for 98 df the table value of γ value is **0.853**

Table 3.2. Item Vs Whole Correlation of Socio-emotional Wellbeing of Women Domestic Workers

Item No.	γ value	Remarks	Item No.	γ value	Remarks
1.	0.219	Selected	*19.	0.021	Deleted
2.	0.311	Selected	20.	0.274	Selected
3.	0.260	Selected	21.	0.318	Selected
*4.	0.129	Deleted	22.	0.248	Selected
5.	0.285	Selected	23.	0.321	Selected
6.	0.319	Selected	24.	0.233	Selected
7.	0.334	Selected	25.	0.197	Selected
8.	0.202	Selected	26.	0.196	Selected
9.	0.261	Selected	*27.	0.120	Deleted
*10.	0.115	Deleted	28.	0.301	Selected
11.	0.221	Selected	29.	0.271	Selected
12.	0.197	Selected	30.	0.296	Selected
13.	0.198	Selected	31.	0.210	Selected
14.	0.308	Selected	32.	0.311	Selected
15.	0.382	Selected	33.	0.323	Selected
*16.	0.121	Deleted			
17.	0.217	Selected			
18.	0.227	Selected			

At 5% level of significance, for 98 df the table value of γ value is 0.872

3.18. Establishing Reliability

Reliability refers to the consistency of scores and stability of test for a certain population. The investigators employed split half method to establish the reliability of the tool. This method of

estimating reliability involves both the characteristics of stability and equivalence. In this method result obtained from one half of the scale items is checked against the result from the other half of the items. This method is appropriate for testing the coefficient of homogeneity. The whole tool was split into two halves-odd and even numbered statements. The responses were scored, and the reliability coefficient of correlation between the two sets of scores was calculated. The reliability index of the tool was estimated by the Spearman Brown formula. The reliability index of OHS and SEWBS is found to be 0.853 and 0.872.

Table 3.3.Split-Half Reliability Value of the Tool

S.No.	Tool	Spilt-half ' γ ' value
1.	Occupational hazards	0.853
2.	Socio-economic well-being	0.872

3.19.Description of the Tool

The personal data form is used to collect general information about the college students. It includes some personal information about the respondents, such as Place of Residence, Type of Family, Nature of Housing, Educational Qualification, Type of Employment, Years of Experience, and Marital Status.

3.20. Occupational Hazards Scale

The investigators have used a Self-made Questionnaire of the Occupational Hazards Scale (OHS) developed by Vasanthi Medona, L., Maria Saroja, M., & Michael Jeya Priya, E. (2024) to collect data for this study. The scale is intended to measure the

Occupational Hazards among Women Domestic Workers. It consists of 46 Statements, both positive and negative.

Table.3.4. Nature of items of Occupational Hazards Scale

ITEMS	ITEM NUMBERS	NO. OF ITEMS
Positive	3,7,9,10,11,12,15,16,17,24,25,26,27,28,30,31,32,33,34,35,37,38,39,40,41,42	26
Negative	1,2,4,5,6,8,13,14,18,19,20,21,22,23,29,36,43,44,45,46	20

3.21. Socio-Economic Well-being Scale

The investigators have used a Self-made Questionnaire of the Socio-Economic Well-being Scale (SEWS) developed by Vasanthi Medona, L., Maria Saroja, M., & Michael Jeya Priya, E. (2024) to collect data for this study. The scale is intended to measure the Socio-Economic Well-being among Women Domestic Workers. It consists of 33 Statements, both positive and negative.

Table.3.5. Nature of items of Socio-Economic Well-Being Scale

ITEMS	ITEM NUMBERS	NO. OF ITEMS
Positive	1,2,3,4,5,6,8,9,10,11,12,13,15,16,17,18,19,21,22,27,28,30,33	23
Negative	7,14,20,24,23,25,26,29,31,32	10

3.22. Scoring Key

In the scoring key, a score is a numerical value assigned to a respondent's performance on a specific test, providing a quantitative assessment. Scores are given for all responses. All the statements would be scored for the Occupational Hazards Scale (OHS) and Socio-Economic Well-being Scale (SEWS in the following manner for the positive and negative questions.

Table.3.6.Scoring Key

RESPONSE	CHOICE	
	Positive	Negative
Agree	1	3
Undecided	2	2
Disagree	3	1

3.23. Area of the Study

The investigators had selected Tirunelveli district for their study.

3.24. Population and Sample

The population for this study includes all women domestic workers in Tirunelveli District, as they are the primary focus of the research. The study aims to explore their occupational hazards and socio-economic well-being. In this study, a sample of 150 women domestic workers was selected using the Simple Random Sampling method, ensuring each individual had an equal chance of selection. This technique enhances the representativeness and reliability of the findings. The sample reflects diversity in age, work experience, income, and type of employment, enabling meaningful insights applicable to the broader population.

3.25.Administration of the Tool

The investigators personally visited the area of the Reddiarpatti, Palayamkottai, and Samathanapuram and collected the information from the women domestic workers. The personal data form along with Occupation Hazards Scale (OHS) and Socio- Emotional Well-being Scale (SEWS) were distributed to the women domestic workers. The domestic workers were given enough time to respond to the item of the tools.

3.26.Research Tool Used for the Present Study

By keeping various objectives and purposes of the study in mind, the investigators prepared the following tools.

1. Personal data sheet prepared by the investigators.
2. Occupation Hazards Scale (OHS)
3. Socio- Emotional Well-being Scale (SEWS) prepared by the investigators.

3.27.Description of the Tool

The investigators collected data from 150 women domestic workers in Tirunelveli District. The following demographic variables were selected for the present investigation.

Place of Residence	: Rural / Urban
Type of Family	: Joint Family / Nuclear Family
Nature of Housing	: Owned / Rented
Educational Qualification	: Uneducated / School Level
Type of Employment	:Permanent / Temporary / Contractual
Years of Experience	: 0-5 Years / 5-10 Years / 10 Years and Above

Marital Status : Married / Single / Widowed

The tools were developed by the investigators. The reliability was found using the test-retest method. The investigators collected the data required for the questionnaire from 30 samples from the Tirunelveli district. Then, after two weeks, the same set of questions was administered to the same sample, and the coefficient of reliability was found as a whole.

Table.3.7. Reliability Coefficient of the Tools

Tool	Reliability Coefficient
Occupational hazards	0.853
Socio-economic well-being	0.872

Table 3.8.Distribution of the Sample

Variables	Category	Sample	Percentage
Place of Residence	Rural	92	61.33
	Urban	58	38.66
Type of Family	Joint Family	36	24.00
	Nuclear Family	114	76.00
Nature of Housing	Owned	56	37.33
	Rented	94	62.66
Educational Qualification	Uneducated	46	30.66
	School Level	103	68.66
Type of Employment	Permanent	21	14.00
	Temporary	72	48.00
	Contractual	57	38.00

Years of Experience	0-5 Years	75	50.00
	5-10 Years	53	35.33
	10 Years and Above	22	14.66
Marital Status	Married	82	54.66
	Single	40	26.66
	Widowed	28	18.66

Table 3.9. Distribution of Sample with regard to Place of Residence

Place of Residence	No. of Workers	Percentage
Rural	92	61.33
Urban	58	38.67
Total	150	100

Figure.3.1. Distribution of Sample with regard to Place of Residence

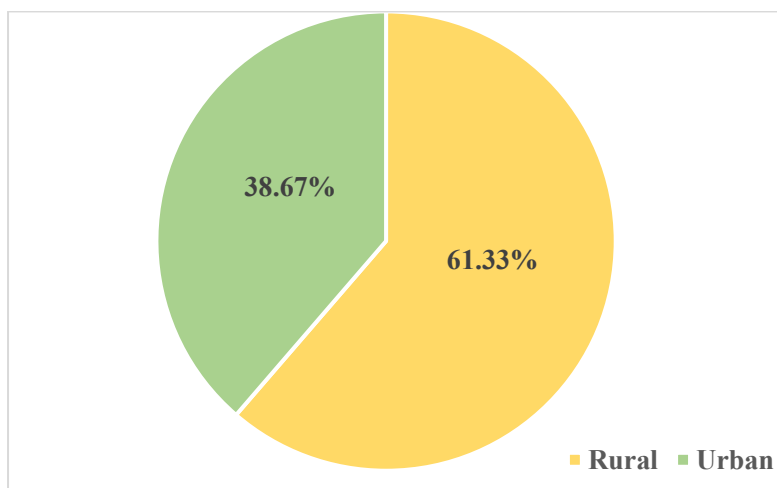


Table 3.10. Distribution of Sample with regard to Type of Family

Type of Family	No. of Workers	Percentage
Joint Family	36	24.00
Nuclear Family	114	76.00
Total	150	100

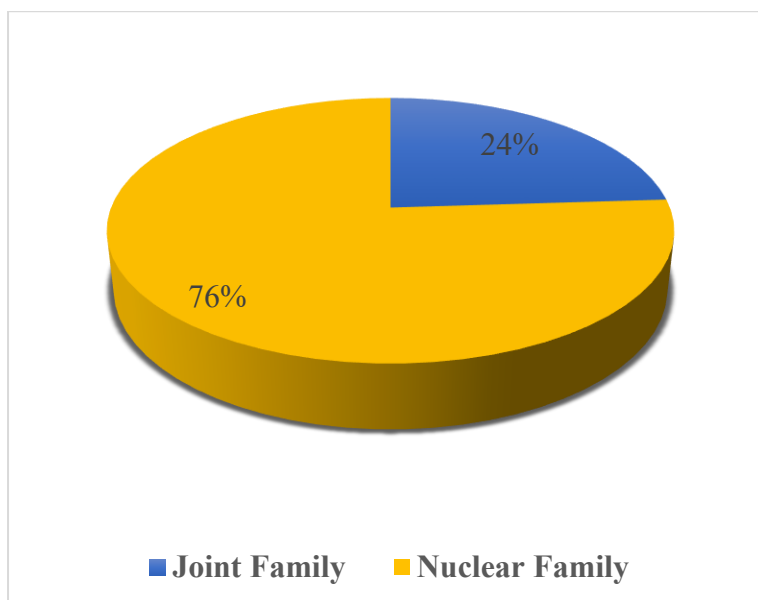
Figure.3.2. Distribution of Sample with regard to Type of Family

Table 3.11. Distribution of Sample with regard to Nature of Housing

Nature of Housing	No. of Workers	Percentage
Owned	56	37.33
Rented	94	62.67
Total	150	100

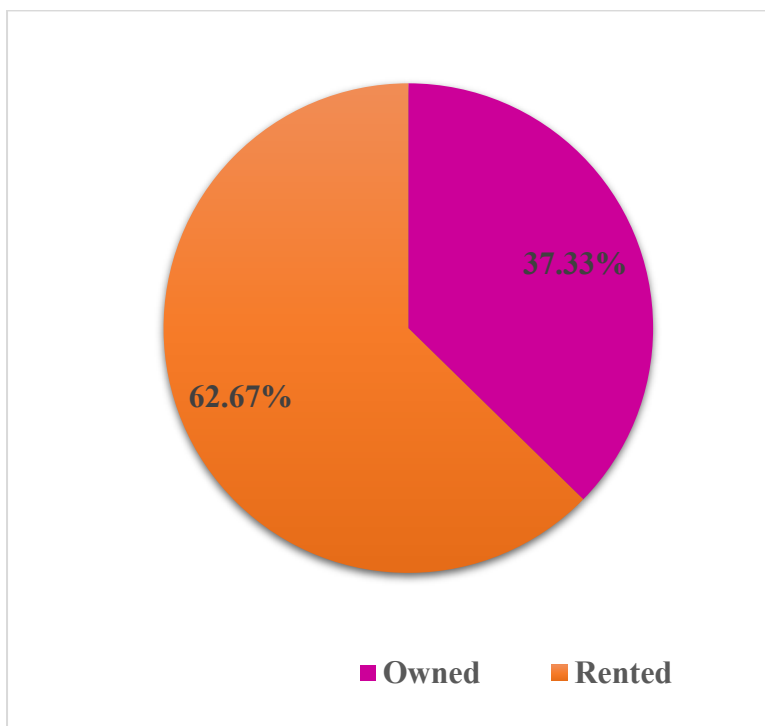
Figure.3.3. Distribution of Sample with regard to Nature of Housing

Table 3.12. Distribution of Sample with regard to Educational Qualification

Educational Qualification	No. of Workers	Percentage
Uneducated	46	30.67
School Level	104	68.67
Total	150	100

Figure.3.4. Distribution of Sample with regard to Educational Qualification

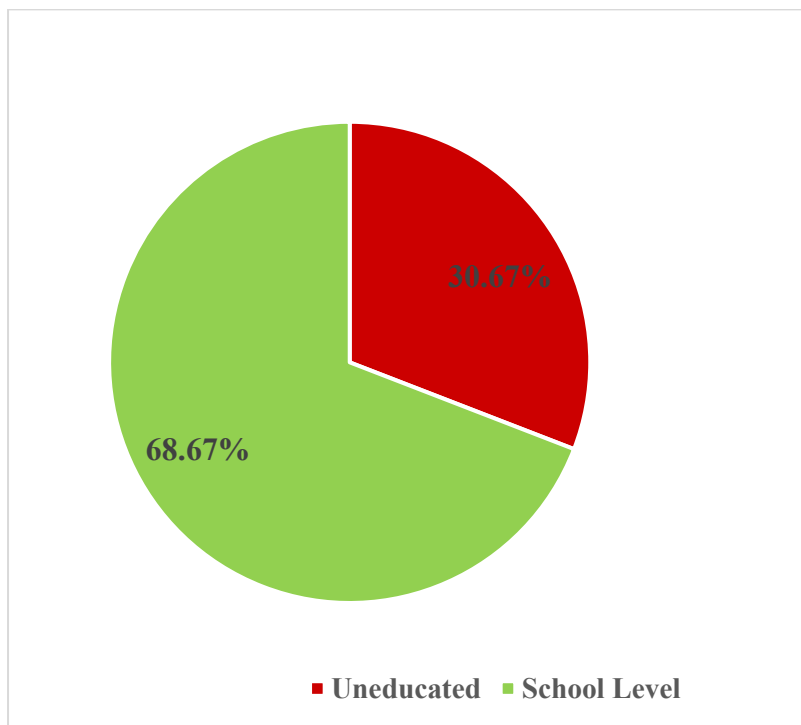


Table 3.13. Distribution of Sample with regard to Type of Employment

Type of Employment	No. of Workers	Percentage
Permanent	21	14.00
Temporary	72	48.00
Contractual	57	38.00
Total	150	100

Figure.3.5. Distribution of Sample with regard to Type of Employment

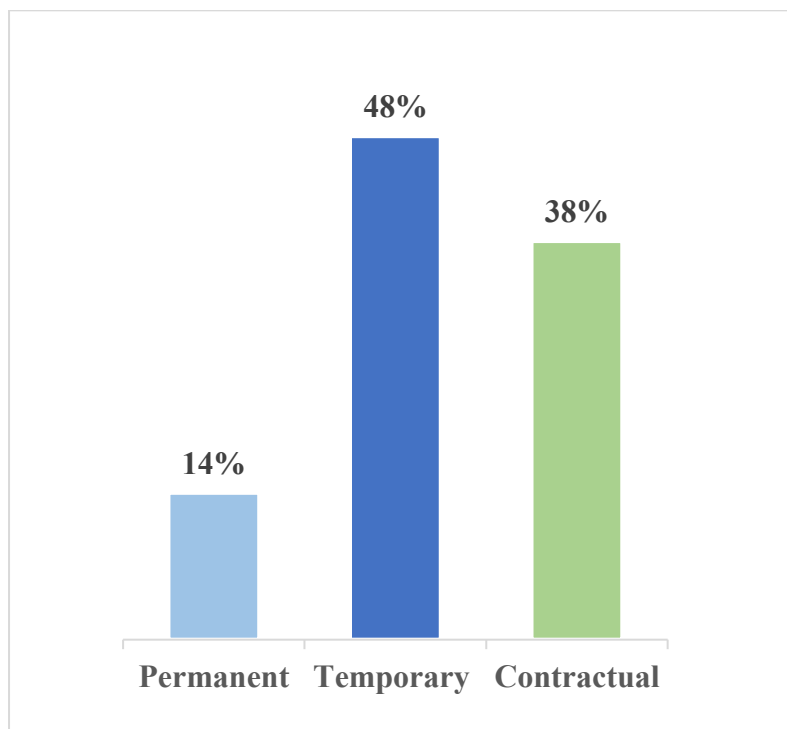


Table 3.14. Distribution of Sample with regard to Years of Experience

Years of Experience	No. of Workers	Percentage
0-5 Years	75	50.00
5-10 Years	53	35.33
10 Years and Above	22	14.66
Total	150	100

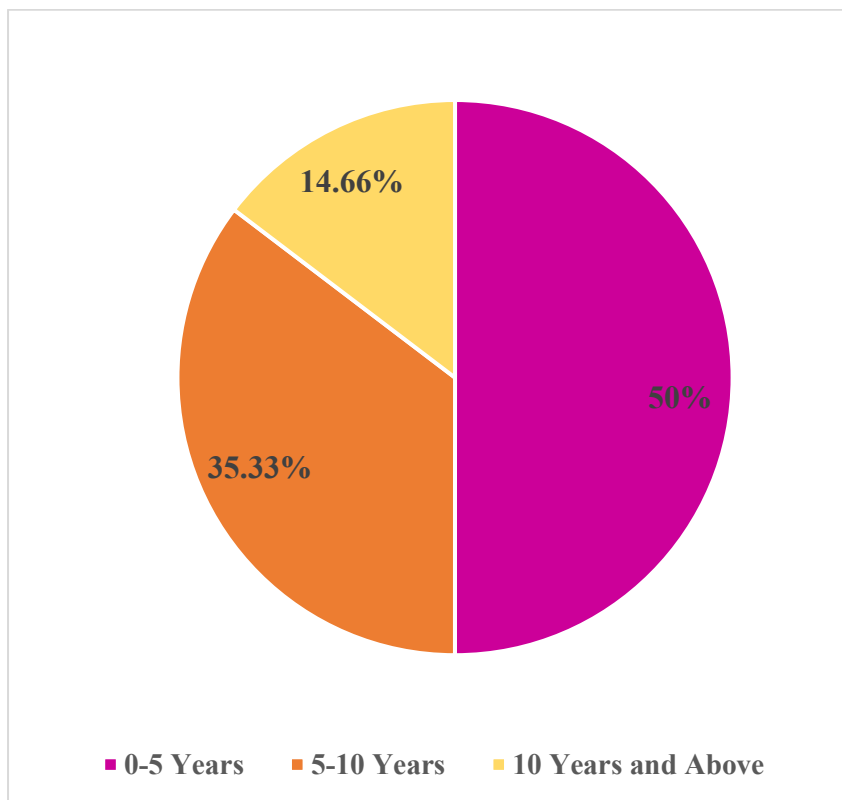
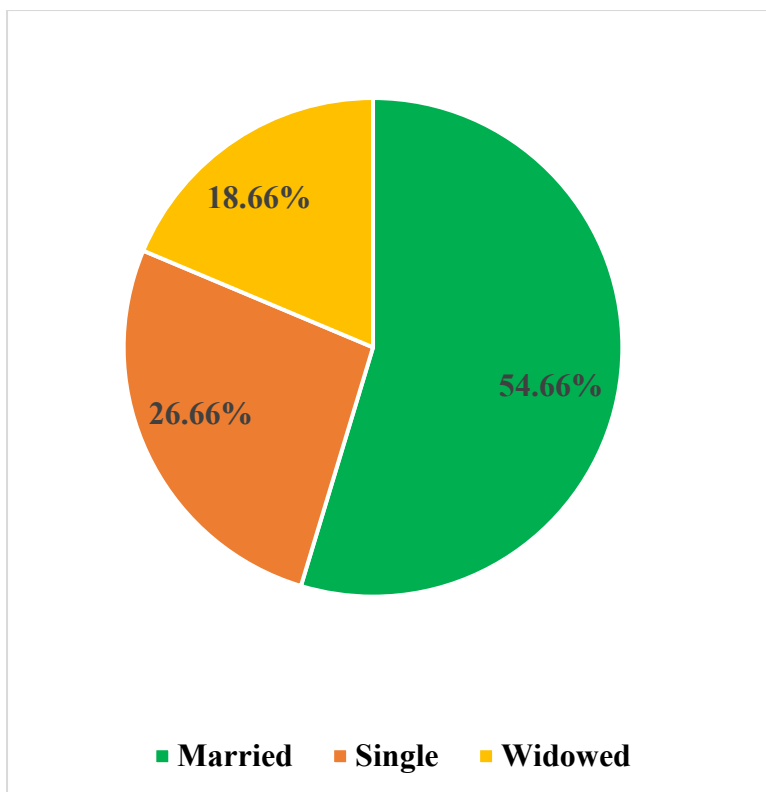
Figure.3.6. Distribution of Sample with regard to Years of Experience

Table 3.15. Distribution of Sample with regard to Marital Status

Martial Status	No. of Workers	Percentage
Married	82	54.66
Single	40	26.66
Widowed	28	18.66
Total	150	100

Figure.3.7. Distribution of Sample with regard to Marital Status

3.30.Statistical Techniques Used

The descriptive statistics, such as mean, standard deviation, and frequencies, were employed for the analysis of data. The t-test was computed to find out the significant difference between the mean scores of various groups of the study. Pearson's Coefficient of correlation was computed to find out the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable of the study. The data were analysed using basic statistical measures of central tendency and the relationship between variables. In the present study following statistical techniques have been used.

1. Descriptive Analysis (Mean and Standard Deviation)
2. Differential Analysis (t-value and F-ratio)
3. Correlation Analysis (r-value)

3.31.Conclusion

This chapter provides an overview of the proposed research methodology of the study. An attempt has been made to explain the need and significance of the study, objectives and hypotheses of the study, statement of the problem, operational definitions of key terms, research design, and variables of the study, methodology of the study, research tools used for data collection, population and sample and statistical techniques employed for analysis of the data.

CHAPTER -IV-ANALYSIS OF DATA

4.1.Introduction

Data analysis means studying the tabulated material to determine inherent facts or meanings. It involves breaking down existing complex factors into simple parts and putting them together in new arrangements for interpretation. It includes comparing the outcomes of the various treatments for several groups and the decision-making needed to achieve the research goals. In the previous chapter, a full account of the tools for the present investigation, the objectives and hypotheses of the study, operational definitions of the key terms, research design and variables of the study, description of the tools and the reliability and validity of the tools were discussed. Statistics is the body of mathematical techniques or processes for gathering, describing, organizing, and interpreting numerical data. Since research often yields such quantitative data. Statistics is a basic tool of measurement and research. Education research may deal with two types of statistical data applications. All the research work could be meaningful when the data were analyzed and interpreted properly. Therefore, the researchers have given much importance to this part. This chapter analyses the collected data at four levels: descriptive, differential, and correlation. The data were collected from a sample of 250 women domestic workers in Tirunelveli District who have been subjected to

1. Descriptive Analysis (Percentage, Mean, and Standard Deviation)
2. Differential Analysis (t-value and F-ratio)
3. Correlation Analysis (r-value)

Description Analysis

Descriptive Analysis includes a comparison of measures of central tendency, such as the mean, and the measures of variability, such as standard deviation. The calculated values describe the properties of the different sub-samples. Percentage analysis is one of the statistical analysis techniques used to describe the characteristics of the sample or population in totality. Percentage analysis involves computing measures of variables selected for the study, and its findings will give easy interpretation for the reader.

Differential Analysis

Differential Analysis determines the statistical significance of the difference between groups concerning select variables. It is a numerical procedure that considers the difference between the means of the two subgroups, the size of the sample in each group, and the amount of variation of spread present in the scores. Thus, the t-test is a technique to determine whether or not the two groups are significant. ANOVA is employed to determine whether there are substantial differences among the means of more than two groups of variables. The ANOVA yields the F-value, determining whether significant differences exist between the means of the different groups

Correlation Analysis

Correlation Analysis is the relationship between two or more variables or two or more sets of data. The degree of relationship is measured and represented by the coefficient of correlation. The relationship between the two samples is found using the correlation method. There are several indices of relationship. In this study, the product-moment correlation coefficient method is used. Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient was

calculated in this study to show the relationship between overall occupational hazards and the socio-economic well-being of women domestic workers.

4.2. Need for Analysis of Data

An important aspect of data analysis is that the purpose of the presentation of data is to highlight the result and make the data or results more illustrative. The visual presentation of data or results is simple and easy to understand. The graphical and pictorial presentations provide the geometrical image of data, enabling one to comprehend the essentials of the frequency distribution and helping to observe the assumptions of the statistical analysis applied to the treatment of data.

4.3. Interpretation

The analysis and interpretation of data represent the application of deductive and inductive logic to the research process. The data are often classified by division into subgroups and then analyzed and synthesized so that hypotheses may be verified or rejected. The final result may be a new principle or generalization. Data are examined in terms of comparison between the more homogeneous segments within the group and by comparison with some outside criterion. Barr and Others state, "Analysis is an important phase of the classification and summation of data into a summary". The types of statistical analysis used in research are determined by the nature of the data and the measurement scale employed. Data measured on an interval or ratio scale can be analyzed using either parametric or non-parametric methods.

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The analysis of data serves the following main functions:

1. To make the raw data meaningful
2. To test null hypotheses
3. To obtain significant results
4. To draw some inferences or make generalizations
5. To evaluate parameters

4.4. Objective Testing

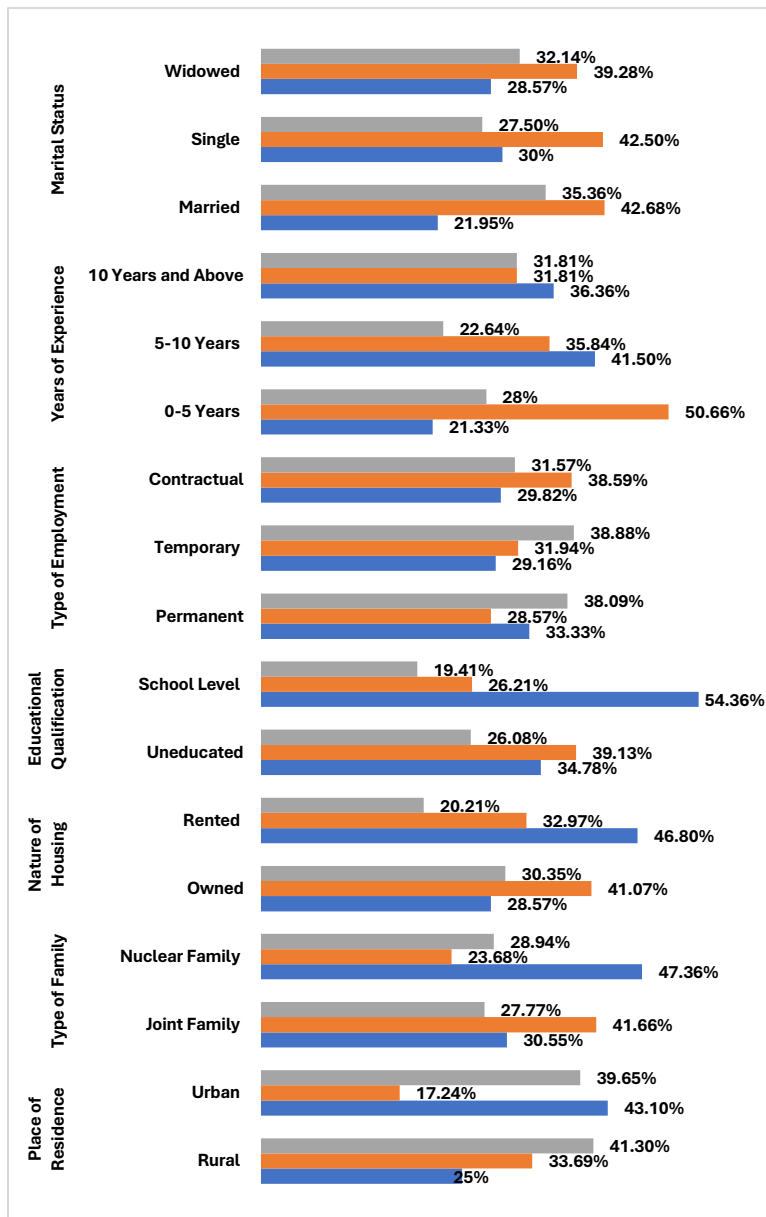
Null Hypothesis 1

The level of occupational hazards among women domestic workers is moderate.

Table.4.1. Level of Occupational Hazards among Women Domestic Workers.

Variables		Low		Average		High	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
Place of Residence	Rural	23	25.00	31	33.69	38	41.30
	Urban	25	43.10	10	17.24	23	39.65
Type of Family	Joint Family	11	30.55	15	41.66	10	27.77
	Nuclear Family	54	47.36	27	23.68	33	28.94
Nature of Housing	Owned	16	28.57	23	41.07	17	30.35
	Rented	44	46.80	31	32.97	19	20.21
Educational Qualification	Uneducated	16	34.78	18	39.13	12	26.08
	School Level	56	54.36	27	26.21	20	19.41
Type of Employment	Permanent	7	33.33	6	28.57	8	38.09
	Temporary	21	29.16	23	31.94	28	38.88
	Contractual	17	29.82	22	38.59	18	31.57
Years of Experience	0-5 Years	16	21.33	38	50.66	21	28.00
	5-10 Years	22	41.50	19	35.84	12	22.64
	10 Years and Above	8	36.36	6	28.57	8	38.09
Marital Status	Married	18	21.95	35	42.68	29	35.36
	Single	12	30	17	42.50	11	27.50
	Widowed	8	28.57	11	39.28	9	32.14

Figure.4.1.Level of Occupational Hazards among Women Domestic Workers.



It is inferred from the above table, with regard to **place of residence** 25.00% of rural women domestic workers have a low level of occupational hazards, 33.69% have an average level, and 41.30% have a high level. Among urban women domestic workers, 43.10% have a low level, 17.24% have an average level, and 39.65% have a high level of occupational hazards.

With regard to **type of family** Table 4.1 above reveals that among joint-family women domestic workers, 30.55% have low, 41.66% have average, and 27.77% have high levels of occupational hazards. Among nuclear family women domestic workers, 47.36% have low, 27% have average, and 28.94% have high levels of occupational hazards.

With regard to **nature of housing** Table 4.1 reveals that among women domestic workers who own a house, 28.57 % have a low level of occupational hazards, 41.07 % have an average level, and 30.35% have a high level of occupational hazards. Among women domestic workers who rent a house, 46.80% have a low level of occupational hazards, 32.97% have an average level, and 20.21% have a high level of occupational hazards.

With regard to **educational qualification** Table 4.1 reveals that 34.78% of uneducated women domestic workers have a low level of occupational hazards, 39.13 % have an average, and 26.08% have a high level of occupational hazards. Among school-level educated women domestic workers, 54.36% have a low level of occupational hazards, 26.21% have an average level, and 19.41% have a high level of occupational hazards.

With regard to **type of employment** Table 4.1 reveals that permanently employed women domestic workers, 33.33 % have low, 28.57 % have average, and 38.09% have high levels of

occupational hazards among women domestic workers. Among the temporarily employed women domestic workers, 29.16% have low, 31.94% have average, and 38.88% have high levels of occupational hazards among women domestic workers. Among the contractually employed women domestic workers, 29.82% have low, 38.59% have average, and 31.57% have high levels of occupational hazards.

With regard to **years of experience** Table 4.1 reveals that those 0-5 years of experience women domestic workers, 21.33 % have low levels, 50.66 % have average, and 28.00% have high levels of occupational hazards among women domestic workers. Among the 5- 10 years of experienced women domestic workers, 41.50% have low, 35.84% have average, and 22.64% have high levels of occupational hazards among women domestic workers. Among the 10 years and above-experienced women domestic workers, 36.36% have low, 28.57% have average, and 38.09% have high levels of occupational hazards among women domestic workers.

With regard to **marital status** Table 4.1 reveals that married women domestic workers, 21.95 % have low, 42.68 % have average, and 35.36% have high levels of occupational hazards among women domestic workers. Among the single women domestic workers, 30% have low, 42.50% have average, and 27.50% have high levels of occupational hazards among women domestic workers. Among widowed women domestic workers, 28.57% have low, 39.28% have average, and 32.14% have high levels of occupational hazards among women domestic workers.

Null Hypothesis 2

There is no significant difference between rural and urban women domestic workers in their occupational hazards.

Table 4.2. Difference between Rural and Urban Women Domestic Workers in their Occupational Hazards.

Place of Residence	N	Mean	SD	t-value	Remarks
Rural	92	33.75	7.427	0.637	NS
Urban	58	33.10	2.647		

(At 5% level of significance the table value of 't' is 1.96)

It is inferred from the above table that the calculated 't' value 0.637 is less than the table value 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance. Hence the null hypothesis is accepted. Thus there is no significant difference between rural and urban women domestic workers in their occupational hazards.

Null Hypothesis 3

There is no significant difference between nuclear and joint family women domestic workers in their occupational hazards.

Table 4.3. Difference between Joint and Nuclear Family Women Domestic Workers in their Occupational Hazards.

Type of Family	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-value	Remarks
Joint Family	36	34.44	10.945	0.290	NS
Nuclear Family	114	33.20	3.257		

(At 5% level of significance, the table value of 't' is 1.96)

It is inferred from the above table that the calculated 't' value 0.290 is less than the table value 1.96 at a 0.05 level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is accepted. Thus, there is no significant difference between joint and nuclear family women domestic workers in their occupational hazards.

Null Hypothesis 4

There is no significant difference between owned and rented house women domestic workers in their occupational hazards.

Table 4.4. Difference between Owned and Rented House Women Domestic Workers in their Nature of Housing.

Nature of Housing	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-value	Remarks
Owned	56	33.57	2.536	0.111	NS
Rented	94	33.46	7.390		

(At 5% level of significance the table value of 't' is 1.96)

It is inferred from the above table that the calculated 't' value 0.111 is less than the table value 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance. Hence the null hypothesis is accepted. Thus there is no significant difference between owned and rented house women domestic workers in their occupational hazards.

Null Hypothesis 5

There is no significant difference between uneducated and school-level educated women domestic workers in their occupational hazards.

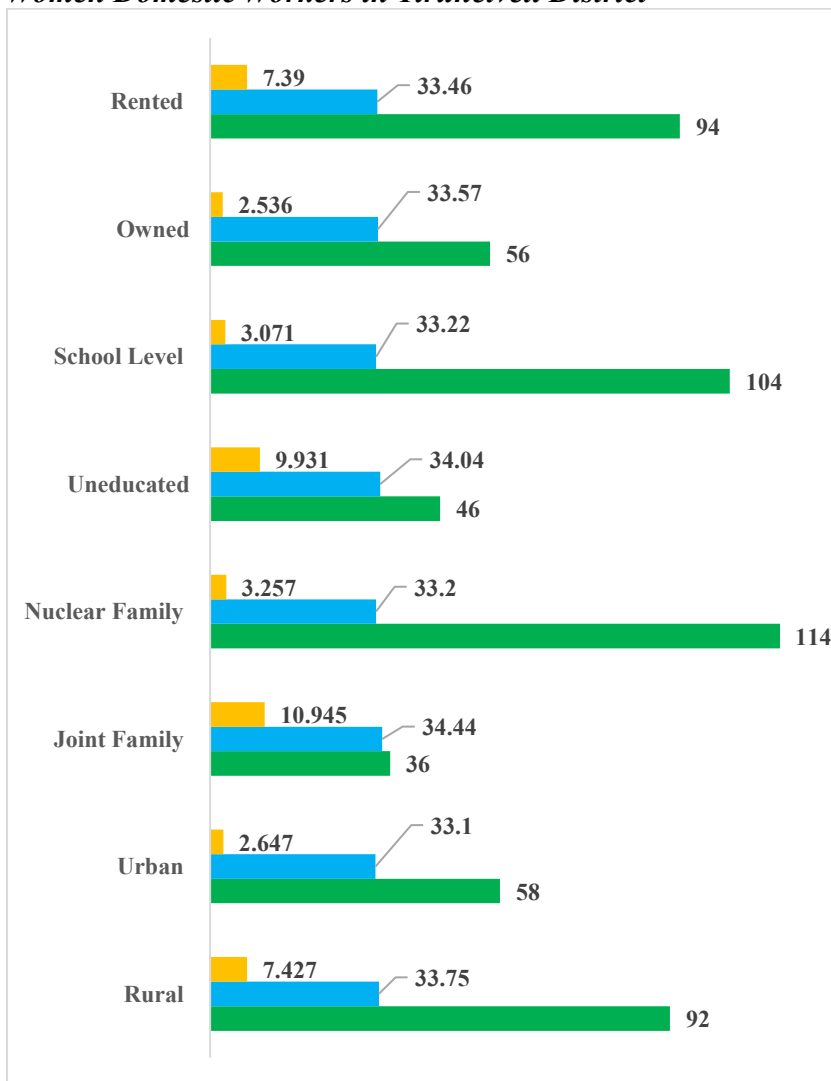
Table 4.5. Difference between Uneducated and School Level Educated Women Domestic Workers in their Occupational Hazards.

Educational Qualification	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-value	Remarks
Uneducated	46	34.04	9.931	0.763	NS
School Level	104	33.22	3.071		

(At 5% level of significance the table value of 't' is 1.96)

It is inferred from the above table that the calculated 't' value 0.763 is less than the table value 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance. Hence the null hypothesis is accepted. Thus there is no significant difference between uneducated and school level educated women domestic workers in their occupational hazards.

Figure.4.2. The Graphical Representation Shows the Mean Score and Standard Deviation of Occupation Hazards of Women Domestic Workers in Tirunelveli District



Null Hypothesis 6

There is no significant association between type of employment and the occupational hazards of women domestic workers.

Table 4.6. Association between the Type of Employment of Women Domestic Workers on Occupational Hazards.

Category	Mean	df	Calculated χ^2 Value	p-value	Remarks
Type of Employment	60.49	4	8.80	0.312	NS
	61.66				
	58.83				

(for 4 df, at 5% level of significance, the table value of ' χ^2 ' is 9.49)

It is inferred from the above table that the calculated ' χ^2 ' value 8.80 is less than the table value 9.49 at 0.05 level of significance. Hence the null hypothesis is rejected. Thus there is no significant association between type of employment and the occupational hazards of women domestic workers.

Null Hypothesis 7

There is no significant association between years of experience and occupational hazards of women domestic workers.

Table 4.7. Association between Years of Experience of Women Domestic Worker on Occupational Hazards.

	Mean	df	Calculated χ^2 Value	p-value	Remarks
Years of Experience	61.66	4	7.60	0.412	NS
	62.36				
	60.49				

(for 4 df, at 5% level of significance, the table value of ' χ^2 ' is 9.49)

It is inferred from the above table that the calculated ' χ^2 ' value 7.60 is less than the table value 9.49 at 0.05 level of significance. Hence the null hypothesis is rejected. Thus there is no significant association between years of experience and occupational hazards of women domestic workers.

Null Hypothesis 8

There is no significant association between marital status and occupational hazards of women domestic workers.

Table 4.8. Association between Marital Status and Occupational Hazards of Women Domestic Workers.

Category	Mean	df	Calculated χ^2 Value	p-value	Remarks
Marital Status	62.36	4	13.40	0.033	S
	61.10				
	59.83				

(for 4 df, at 5% level of significance, the table value of ' χ^2 ' is 9.49)

It is inferred from the above table that the calculated ' χ^2 ' value 13.40 is greater than the table value 9.49 at 0.05 level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected. Thus, there is significant association between marital status and occupational hazards of women domestic workers.

Null Hypothesis 9

The level of socio-economic well-being among women domestic workers is moderate.

Table.4.9.Level of Socio-Economic Well-Being among Women Domestic Workers.

Variables		Low		Average		High	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
Place of Residence	Rural	32	34.78	35	38.04	25	27.17
	Urban	18	31.03	23	39.65	17	29.31
Type of Family	Joint Family	16	44.44	11	30.55	9	25.00
	Nuclear Family	48	42.10	34	29.82	32	28.07
Nature of Housing	Owned	21	37.5	16	28.57	19	33.92
	Rented	18	19.14	54	57.44	22	23.40
Educational Qualification	Uneducated	13	28.26	21	45.65	12	26.08
	School Level	39	37.86	34	33.00	30	29.12
Type of Employment	Permanent	9	42.85	7	33.33	5	23.80
	Temporary	23	31.94	29	40.27	10	13.88
	Contractual	27	47.36	14	24.56	16	28.07
Years of Experience	0-5 Years	26	34.66	30	40.00	19	25.33
	5-10 Years	22	41.50	13	24.52	18	33.96
	10 Years and Above	8	36.36	9	40.90	5	22.72
Marital Status	Married	20	24.39	41	50.00	21	25.60
	Single	12	30.00	17	42.50	11	27.50
	Widowed	9	32.14	10	35.71	9	32.14

It is revealed from the above table 4.9 that among rural women domestic workers 34.78% have low, 38.04% have average and 27.17% have high level of socio-economic well-being among women domestic workers. Among the urban women domestic workers 31.03% have low, 39.65% have average and 29.31% high level of socio-economic well-being among women domestic workers.

It is revealed from the above table 4.9 that among joint family women domestic workers 44.44% have low, 30.55% have average and 25.00% have high level of socio-economic well-being among women domestic workers. Among the nuclear family women domestic workers 42.10% have low, 29.82% have average and 28.07% high level of socio-economic well-being among women domestic workers.

It is revealed from the above table 4.9 that among owned house women domestic workers 37.5% have low, 28.57% have average and 33.92% have high level of socio-economic well-being among women domestic workers. Among the rented house women domestic workers 19.14% have low, 57.44% have average and 23.40% high level of socio-economic well-being among women domestic workers.

It is revealed from the above table 4.9 that among uneducated women domestic workers 28.26% have low, 45.65% have average and 26.08% have high level of socio-economic well-being among women domestic workers. Among the school level educated women domestic workers 37.86% have low, 33.00% have average and 29.12% high level of socio-economic well-being among women domestic workers.

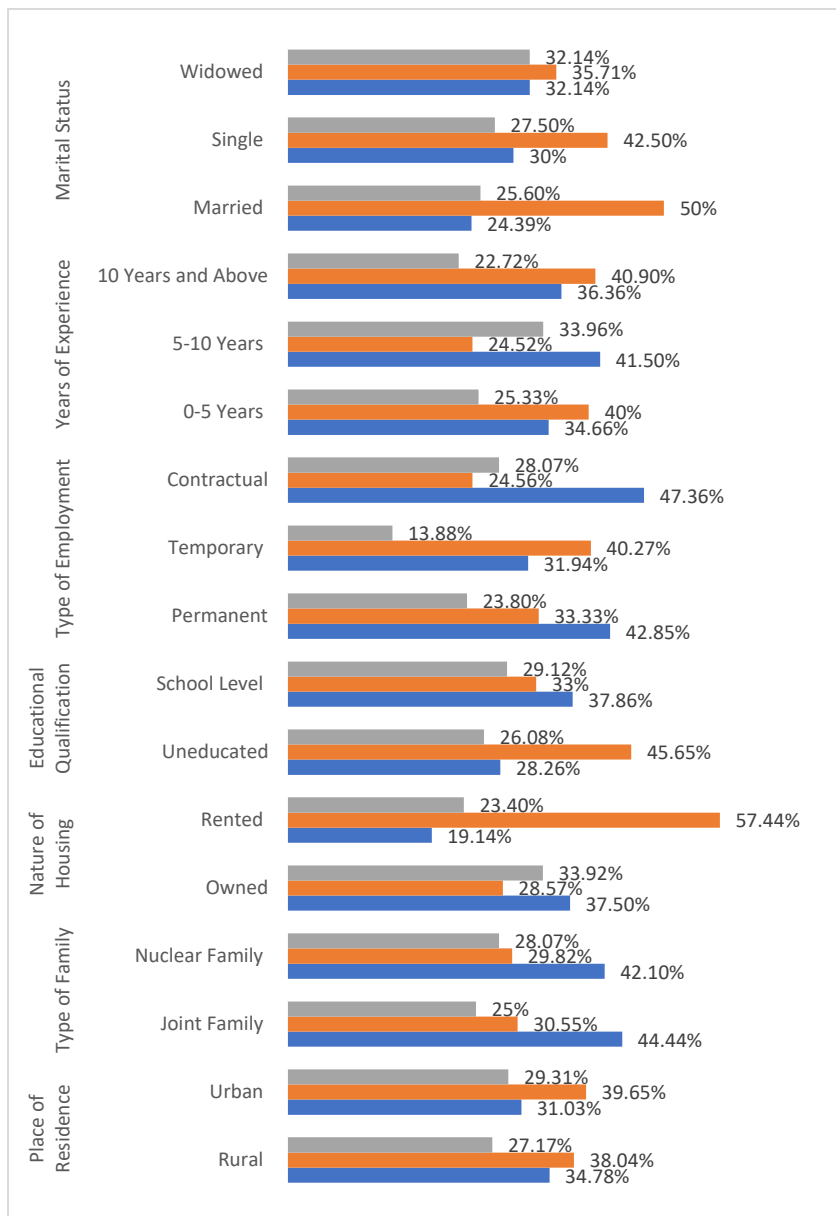
It is revealed from the above table 4.9 that permanently employed women domestic workers 42.85% have low, 33.33 % have average and 23.80% have high level of socio-economic well-being among women domestic workers. Among the Temporarily employed women domestic workers 31.94% have low, 40.27% have average and 13.88% high level of socio-economic well-being among women domestic workers. Among the Contractual

employed women domestic workers 47.36% have low, 24.56% have average and 28.07% high level of socio-economic well-being among women domestic workers.

It is revealed from the above table 4.9 that 0-5 years of experienced women domestic workers 34.66% have low, 40.00% have average and 25.33% have high level of socio-economic well-being among women domestic workers. Among the 5- 10 years of experienced women domestic workers 41.50 % have low, 24.52% have average and 33.96% high level of socio-economic well-being among women domestic workers. Among the 10 years and above experienced women domestic workers 36.36% have low, 40.90% have average and 22.72% high level of socio-economic well-being among women domestic workers.

It is revealed from the above table 4.9 that married women domestic workers 24.39% have low, 50.00% have average and 25.60% have high level of socio-economic well-being among women domestic workers. Among the single women domestic workers 30.00% have low, 42.50% have average and 27.50% high level of socio-economic well-being among women domestic workers. Among widowed women domestic workers 32.14% have low, 35.71% have average and 32.14% high level of socio-economic well-being among women domestic workers.

Figure.4.3.Level of Socio-Economic Well-Being among Women Domestic Workers.



Null Hypothesis 10

There is no significant difference between rural and urban women domestic workers in their socio-economic well-being.

Table 4.10. Difference between Rural and Urban Women Domestic Workers in their Socio-Economic Well-Being.

Place of Residence	N	Mean	SD	t-value	Remarks
Rural	92	93.08	8.646	2.048	S
Urban	58	90.14	8.418		

(At 5% level of significance the table value of 't' is 1.96)

It is inferred from the above table that the calculated 't' value 2.048 is greater than the table value 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance. Hence the null hypothesis is rejected. Thus there is significant difference between rural and urban women domestic workers in their socio-economic well-being.

Null Hypothesis 11

There is no significant difference between Joint and Nuclear Family women domestic workers in their socio-economic well-being.

Table 4.11. Difference between Joint and Nuclear Family Women Domestic Workers in their Socio-Economic Well-Being.

Type of Family	N	Mean	SD	t-value	Remarks
Joint Family	36	92.31	8.902	0.094	NS
Nuclear Family	114	91.82	8.606		

(At 5% level of significance the table value of 't' is 1.96)

It is inferred from the above table that the calculated 't' value 0.094 is less than the table value 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance. Hence the null hypothesis is accepted. Thus there is no significant difference between joint and nuclear family women domestic workers in their socio-economic well-being.

Null Hypothesis 12

There is no significant difference between owned and rented house women domestic workers in their socio-economic well-being.

Table 4.12. Difference Between Owned and Rented House Women Domestic Workers in their Socio-Economic Well-Being.

Nature of Housing	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-value	Remarks
Owned	56	93.91	9.093	2.181	S
Rented	94	90.77	7.523		

(At 5% level of significance the table value of 't' is 1.96)

It is inferred from the above table that the calculated 't' value 2.181 is greater than the table value 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance. Hence the null hypothesis is rejected. Thus there is significant difference between owned and rented house women domestic workers in their socio-economic well-being.

Null Hypothesis 13

There is no significant difference between uneducated and school-level educated women domestic workers in their socio-economic well-being.

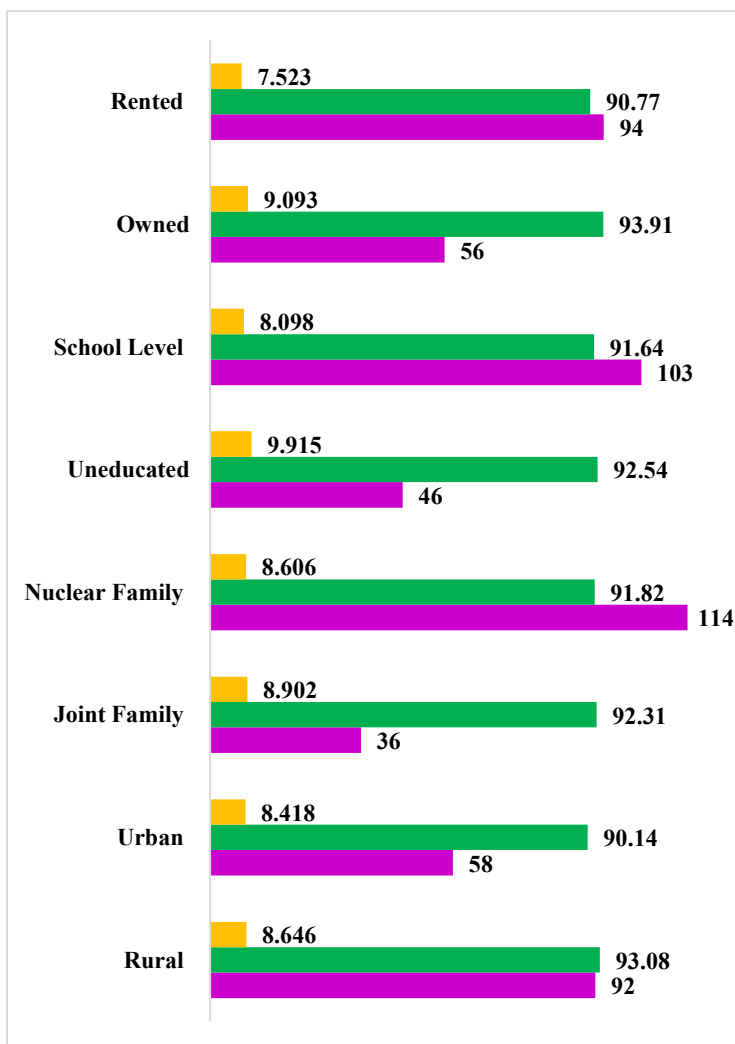
Table 4.13. Difference Between Uneducated and School-Level Educated Women Domestic Workers in their Socio-Economic Well-Being

Educational Qualification	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-value	Remarks
Uneducated	46	92.54	9.915	0.585	NS
School Level	103	91.64	8.098		

(At 5% level of significance the table value of 't' is 1.96)

It is inferred from the above table that the calculated 't' value 0.585 is less than the table value 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance. Hence the null hypothesis is accepted. Thus there is no significant difference between uneducated and school level educated women domestic workers in their socio-economic well-being.

Figure.4.4. The Graphical Representation shows the Mean Score and Standard Deviation of the Socio-Economic Well-Being of Women Domestic Workers in Tirunelveli District



Null Hypothesis 14

There is no significant association between type of employment and socio-economic well-being of women domestic workers.

Table 4.14. Association between Type of Employment of Women Domestic Workers in their Socio-Economic Well-Being.

Category	Mean	df	Calculated χ^2 Value	p-value	Remarks
<i>Type of Employment</i>	61.86	4	2.57	0.512	NS
	60.76				
	60.25				

(for 4 df, at 5% level of significance, the table value of ' χ^2 ' is 9.49)

It is inferred from the above table that the calculated ' χ^2 ' value 8.80 is less than the table value 9.49 at 0.05 level of significance. Hence the null hypothesis is rejected. Thus there is no significant association between type of employment and socio-economic well-being of women domestic workers.

Null Hypothesis 15

There is no significant association between years of experience and socio-economic well-being of women domestic workers.

Table 4.15. Association between Years of Experience of Women Domestic Workers in their Socio-Economic Well-Being.

Category	Mean	df	Calculated χ^2 Value	p-value	Remarks
Years of Experience	62.53	4	11.82	0.033	S
	61.76				
	58.83				

(for 4 df, at 5% level of significance, the table value of ' χ^2 ' is 9.49)

It is inferred from the above table that the calculated ' χ^2 ' value 11.82 is greater than the table value 9.49 at 0.05 level of significance. Hence the null hypothesis is rejected. Thus, there is significant association between years of experience and the socio-economic well-being of women domestic workers.

Null Hypothesis 16

There is no significant association between marital status and socio-economic well-being of women domestic workers.

Table 4.16. Association between Marital Status of Women Domestic Workers in their Socio-Economic Well-Being.

Category	Mean	df	Calculated χ^2 Value	p-value	Remarks
Marital Status	60.10	4	8.40	0.582	NS
	59.36				
	62.73				

(for 4 df, at 5% level of significance, the table value of ' χ^2 ' is 9.49)

It is inferred from the above table that the calculated ' χ^2 ' value 8.40 is lesser than the table value 9.49 at 0.05 level of significance. Hence the null hypothesis is accepted. Thus there is no significant association between marital status and socio-economic well-being of women domestic workers.

Null Hypothesis 17

There is no significant relationship between occupational hazards and the socio-economic well-being of women domestic workers.

Table 4.17. Relationship between Occupational Hazards and Socio-Economic Well-Being of Women Domestic Workers.

Variables	N	Calculated 'r' Value	t-value	Remarks
Occupational hazards and Socio-Economic Well-Being	150	0.003	0.088	NS

It is inferred from the above table that there is no significant relationship between occupational hazards and socio-economic well-being of women domestic workers. The calculated values are lesser than the table value. Hence the null hypothesis is accepted. There is no significant relationship between occupational hazards and the socio-economic well-being of women domestic workers.

4.5.Conclusion

The present chapter describes the statistical analysis and the results obtained from the collected data, as well as whether to reject the null hypothesis or accept it. The next chapter deals with the present study's summary, findings, and conclusion.

CHAPTER-V-FINDINGS & INTERPRETATIONS

5.1.Introduction

Domestic workers constitute one of the most economically and socially vulnerable sections of Indian society. Despite their significant contribution to households and urban economies, they often face systematic exploitation, low wages, and a lack of social security. Many domestic workers are women from marginalized communities, making them more susceptible to discrimination based on caste, gender, and socio-economic status.

One of the biggest challenges domestic workers face is the absence of legal protection and formal employment contracts, depriving them of job security, fair wages, and benefits such as health insurance, maternity leave, and pension schemes. Many workers lack awareness of their rights, making them vulnerable to unfair treatment, long working hours, and even physical and verbal abuse. Furthermore, due to financial dependency, they often do not have the bargaining power to demand higher wages or better working conditions.

The lack of unionization and collective representation among domestic workers further weakens their ability to negotiate for better employment conditions. While some organizations and NGOs have attempted to create awareness and advocate for their rights, more substantial governmental intervention and legal enforcement are necessary to bring meaningful change.

There is need to encourage the formation organization and unions of domestic workers to safeguard their rights. Workers have right to get facilities at workplace from the employer. Organized sector and industries provide various facilities to their workers but

workers involved in unorganized sector/ work are not facilitated by the employer, even though they need some basic facilities at workplace specially women workers. The important reason behind women workers being late for the job are the illness, work fatigue, young child care responsibility, arrival of guests, and bad weather, etc., During the health illness or nonappearance they send their substitute, especially their children or co-workers. Nearly half of the respondents do not send their substitutes, whereas rest of them sends other domestic worker or other family members as their substitute. It means those workers, who have made this kind of adjustment with other domestic workers and do not wish to get their salary deducted, thus send their substitute. The important reasons for workers dissatisfaction are low wage, heavy workload, bad treatment by their employer and long distance between the work place and their homes .

Her additional role as a working women throws many challenges along with her primary challenge of the household. Both these roles make demands on her time and energy. After a full day's work with the employer, she has to do another shift at her home. For example, waking up early morning, rolling the beds, cleaning the house, preparing breakfast, cooking lunch, washing clothes, and the rushing off to the workplace. Returning in the evening with shopping in hand to cook the dinner for the family, handling children study work, washing utensils, and finally collapsing into the bed only to begin the grind again early next morning. These effects their health in the absence of proper infrastructure for the supply of these needs. When they have to combine triple burden viz., bearing children, taking for of the family, they have to sacrifice nutrition, health care and leisure for themselves. Notwithstanding, the mechanization at home and office put the

gender at a great health risk that ultimately affect reproductive role leaving more at the mercy of assisted pregnancy and child birth. This is the serious problem for mankind itself.

Women are the back bone of every family. Women are performing different kinds of tasks. At the same time women are indirectly exploited due to low salary, more working hours compared with men workers. Women are achieving their goal even after adopting various roles. In India women are not treated equally as male. But domestic workers are hired to work in a private sphere. Majority of them are women whose work is always unrecognized.

Women domestic workers often find themselves trapped in a cycle of poverty, exploitation, and social exclusion, making it difficult for them to break free from economic hardship. Due to low wages and long working hours, they struggle to provide adequate care and education for their children, leading to intergenerational cycles of poverty. Their lack of job security, absence of legal protections, and vulnerability to employer abuse further exacerbate their socio-economic struggles.

The invisibility of their labour in formal economic policies means they are often excluded from social security benefits, health insurance, and pension schemes, leaving them financially insecure, especially in old age. Additionally, their low social status and lack of recognition contribute to workplace discrimination, making it difficult for them to demand fair wages, humane working conditions, and respect.

Despite these challenges, domestic workers are essential in supporting families, enabling professionals to work, and contributing to economic growth. Recognizing their rights, implementing fair labour policies, and ensuring access to

education, training, and legal support can significantly improve their quality of life. By strengthening labour laws, promoting awareness campaigns, and encouraging social acceptance, society can help empower domestic workers and enable them to achieve economic stability, dignity, and a better future for their families.

5.3. Findings of the Study

1. The level of occupational hazards among women domestic workers is moderate.
2. There is no significant difference between rural and urban women domestic workers in their occupational hazards.
3. There is no significant difference between nuclear and joint family women domestic workers in their occupational hazards.
4. There is no significant difference between owned and rented house women domestic workers in their occupational hazards.
5. There is no significant difference between uneducated and school-level educated women domestic workers in their occupational hazards.
6. There is no significant association between type of employment and the occupational hazards of women domestic workers.
7. There is no significant association between years of experience and occupational hazards of women domestic workers.
8. There is significant association between marital status and occupational hazards of women domestic workers.
9. The level of socio-economic well-being among women domestic workers is moderate.

10. There is significant difference between rural and urban women domestic workers in their socio-economic well-being.
11. There is no significant difference between nuclear and joint family women domestic workers in their socio-economic well-being.
12. There is no significant difference between owned and rented house women domestic workers in their socio-economic well-being.
13. There is no significant difference between uneducated and school-level educated women domestic workers in their socio-economic well-being.
14. There is no significant association between type of employment and the socio-economic well-being of women domestic workers.
15. There is significant association between years of experience and socio-economic well-being of women domestic workers.
16. There is no significant association between marital status and socio-economic well-being of women domestic workers.
17. There is no significant correlation between occupational hazards and the socio-economic well-being of women domestic workers.

5.4.Interpretation of the Data

Interpretation related to finding no.8

There is significant association between marital status and occupational hazards of women domestic workers.

From Table 4.8, it is evident that the calculated ' χ^2 ' value 13.40 is greater than the table value 9.49 at 0.05 level of significance.

This may be because their workload, job responsibilities, and financial pressures vary based on their marital situation. Married women often face the dual burden of managing household responsibilities along with their work, leading to physical and mental exhaustion, which increases their risk of workplace injuries. On the other hand, widowed and divorced women, being sole earners, tend to work longer hours or take on multiple jobs, making them more vulnerable to chronic fatigue, joint pain, and respiratory issues due to prolonged exposure to hazardous working conditions. Employers may also assign heavier or more demanding tasks to single or widowed women, assuming they have fewer family obligations, increasing their physical strain. Additionally, divorced and widowed women are more likely to experience workplace exploitation and harassment due to their lack of social and financial support.

To address these concerns, there is a need for comprehensive safety training programs that educate domestic workers on proper work techniques, the use of protective equipment, and the risks associated with prolonged physical labour. Implementing regulated working hours and ensuring fair wages, especially for those working multiple jobs, can help reduce excessive strain and improve their overall well-being. Providing access to healthcare, including regular check-ups and medical insurance, is essential in preventing occupational illnesses and ensuring timely treatment for work-related injuries. Legal protections should also be strengthened to avoid discrimination in task allocation and safeguard domestic workers from unfair labour practices. Encouraging the formation of unions and self-help groups can empower women domestic workers to demand safer working conditions and better employment terms. Awareness campaigns

targeting workers and employers can help promote dignity, fair work distribution, and respect for domestic workers, regardless of marital status. By implementing these measures, the risks associated with occupational hazards can be minimized, and the socioeconomic well-being of women domestic workers can be significantly improved.

This result supported by the study conducted by **Mukherjee (2017)** in urban India revealed that married women domestic workers struggle with balancing household responsibilities and work, often facing higher stress levels than their single counterparts

Interpretation related to finding no.10

There is significant difference between rural and urban women domestic workers in their socio-economic well-being.

From Table 4.10, it is evident that the calculated t-value 2.048 is greater than the table value 1.96 which is significant at 0.05 level. Thus the null hypothesis is rejected. The mean attitude (93.08) of rural women domestic workers, which is significantly higher than the mean attitude (90.14) of urban women domestic workers in their socio-economic well-being. Hence the null hypothesis is rejected.

The result highlights the influence of place of residence on their financial stability, job satisfaction, and overall quality of life. This disparity arises due to various socio-economic factors. Rural domestic workers tend to have lower living expenses, more substantial community support, and better access to government welfare schemes, allowing them to retain a more significant portion of their earnings. In contrast, urban domestic workers face higher costs of living, increased job insecurity, and workplace

discrimination, which negatively impact their well-being despite receiving relatively higher wages. Rural workers often benefit from close-knit employer-worker relationships, leading to better treatment and informal job security, whereas urban domestic workers frequently experience longer working hours, more significant physical strain, and a lack of social support. Moreover, widowed and single domestic workers in urban areas are more likely to work multiple jobs, leading to exhaustion and higher occupational risks.

To address this disparity, it is essential to implement standardized wage policies that consider cost-of-living differences, ensuring that urban domestic workers receive appropriate financial support while providing rural workers with more income-generating opportunities. Strengthening labour laws to protect domestic workers from exploitation, ensuring fair work hours, and improving job security can help enhance their socio-economic well-being. Simplifying access to government welfare schemes, such as healthcare and housing support, can significantly benefit urban workers who often face bureaucratic challenges in accessing such benefits. Additionally, conducting employer sensitization programs to promote dignity and fair treatment of domestic workers can help reduce workplace discrimination. Encouraging the formation of self-help groups and worker unions can further empower domestic workers to advocate for their rights and demand better working conditions. By addressing these factors through policy interventions, legal protections, and social support programs, the socio-economic well-being of both rural and urban women domestic workers can be significantly improved, ensuring fair and dignified employment conditions for all.

This result supported by the study conducted by **Bino Paul (2017)**, in his study "Mental Health and Domestic Workers", urban domestic workers report higher levels of stress, workplace harassment, and social isolation, affecting their overall well-being. The study suggests that rural domestic workers benefit from stronger social ties, less workplace exploitation, and better community support, which contributes to their higher socio-economic well-being scores.

Kaur R. (2019), in his study "Social Protection for Domestic Workers in India", found that urban domestic workers struggle to access government welfare schemes due to a lack of proper documentation, employer restrictions, and bureaucratic hurdles. In contrast, rural domestic workers, often registered with local self-help groups, have better access to subsidized food, housing assistance, and healthcare services, positively impacting their socio-economic well-being.

Interpretation related to finding no.12

There is a significant difference between owned and rented house women domestic workers in their socio-economic well-being.

From Table 4.12, it is evident that the calculated t-value 2.181 is greater than the table value 1.96 which is significant at 0.05 level. Thus the null hypothesis is rejected. The mean attitude (93.91) of owned house women domestic workers, which is significantly higher than the mean attitude (90.77) of rented house women domestic workers in their socio-economic well-being. Hence the null hypothesis is rejected.

Domestic workers living in rented houses often face economic instability due to high monthly rental costs, which consume a significant portion of their income. This financial burden limits their ability to save, invest in their children's education, or access

healthcare. Furthermore, frequent rent hikes and the risk of eviction create stress and insecurity, affecting their overall well-being. In contrast, women living in owned houses experience more excellent financial stability, as they are free from rent payments and have a sense of security and permanence. This enables them to allocate their earnings toward better living conditions, nutrition, and future financial growth.

To overcome this disparity, governments and policymakers should introduce affordable housing schemes and rental assistance programs for low-income domestic workers, ensuring they can access secure housing. Initiatives like the Pradhan Mantri Awas Yojana (PMAY) in India have already provided housing support to informal workers, but targeted implementation for domestic workers can further bridge the gap. Financial literacy programs and access to low-interest home loans or cooperative housing projects can also empower domestic workers to invest in homeownership.

This result supported by the study conducted by Indira & Vasanthi (2014) on “Socio-Economic Conditions of Women Domestic Workers in Urban India”. Their study found that women domestic workers living in owned houses had better socio-economic well-being compared to those in rented homes. Renters spent a large part of their income on housing, faced frequent relocations, job instability, and had limited access to welfare schemes due to lack of address proof. Their children’s education was often disrupted, and they lived in poor sanitary conditions. In contrast, women in owned houses enjoyed more job stability, access to government benefits, better living conditions, and improved mental and social well-being.

Moreover, employer-supported housing schemes, where domestic workers are provided with safe and affordable

accommodation near their workplaces, could effectively improve their living conditions. Strengthening legal protections against unjust evictions and ensuring access to subsidized utilities, sanitation, and community housing projects can also help mitigate domestic workers' disadvantages in rented accommodations. By addressing these challenges through policy interventions, financial assistance, and housing security programs, the socio-economic well-being of domestic workers especially those in rented housing can be significantly improved, reducing the disparity caused by differences in housing ownership.

Interpretation related to finding no.15

There is significant association between years of experience and socio-economic well-being of women domestic workers.

From Table 4.15, it is revealed that workers in the early stages of their careers face greater financial instability, job insecurity, and workplace challenges, which negatively impact their overall well-being. Domestic workers with limited experience often earn lower wages, as they lack the negotiation power and skills that come with years of work. They are also more vulnerable to workplace exploitation, lack of job contracts, delayed payments, and excessive workloads, as they may not be fully aware of their labour rights. Additionally, the absence of social networks and employer trust makes it difficult for them to secure stable and well-paying jobs. Many inexperienced domestic workers, especially migrants, struggle with adjusting to new work environments, leading to stress, anxiety, and poor mental health. To address these challenges, skill development and vocational training programs should be introduced to help new domestic workers gain housekeeping, caregiving, and communication skills, making them more competitive in the labour market.

This result supported by the study conducted by Neetha (2009) on "Women Domestic Workers in India". In her study she shows that women domestic workers with more years of experience enjoy better socio-economic well-being. They earn higher wages, have more stable jobs, receive better treatment from employers, and are more likely to access benefits and welfare schemes. Experience also helps them gain employer trust and negotiate improved working conditions. According to the study, workers with longer experience typically over 5 to 10 years tend to secure higher wages, more stable employment, and better overall treatment from employers.

Interpretation related to finding no.17

There is no significant relationship between occupational hazards and the socio-economic well-being of women domestic workers.

From Table 4.17, it is revealed that the findings indicate no statistically significant relationship between occupational hazards and the socioeconomic well-being of women domestic workers. This suggests that, within the scope of the study, exposure to workplace risks such as physical injuries, exposure to harmful cleaning chemicals, prolonged standing or lifting, and lack of protective equipment does not directly influence key indicators of socioeconomic status such as income levels, housing conditions, access to healthcare, education for their children, or savings and financial security.

This outcome may point to a few underlying dynamics. First, the women may have normalized or internalized occupational risks as part of the job. Thus, these hazards do not necessarily translate into measurable differences in socioeconomic outcomes. Second, the informal and unregulated nature of domestic work could mean that the workers receive little or no compensation for injuries or health issues, making the hazards less visible regarding economic consequences. Moreover, many women may lack the bargaining

power to demand better conditions, and this structural vulnerability may dilute the potential impact of such hazards on their socioeconomic advancement.

It is also essential to consider that the socioeconomic well-being of these workers is often shaped more significantly by other factors, such as job stability, monthly income, number of dependents, educational attainment, availability of social welfare schemes, and support from family or community. These elements could outweigh the direct impact of occupational hazards on overall well-being.

Therefore, while improving workplace safety is still important from a human rights and health perspective, policies aimed at uplifting women domestic workers must also address broader issues such as wage regulation, legal recognition, access to social security, skill development, and empowerment through unionization or collectives. These approaches may yield more substantial improvements in their socioeconomic status over time.

5.5.Recommendations

The study emphasizes the need for comprehensive policies and legislation to control the exploitation of this unorganized workforce.

- ❖ Domestic work should be declared a profession, and as such, all the rights and privileges applicable to all other workers should be made available to them.
- ❖ Income-generation opportunities should be provided to bring them out of the vicious circle of poverty.
- ❖ Establishing self-help groups in their area and providing training in income-generating activities will certainly go a long way toward empowering them.

- ❖ Unlike workers who work in the organized sector and enjoy better working conditions, women domestic workers in the area of study are far behind. They get neither a satisfactory wage nor job security.
- ❖ Government and non-governmental organizations should collaborate to develop an awareness program about welfare schemes among women domestic workers, especially widows and divorcees.
- ❖ Labour laws should be revised and strictly enforced to prevent exploitation, discrimination, and harassment in the workplace.
- ❖ Providing educational opportunities and adult literacy programs can enhance awareness and improve job prospects for domestic workers.
- ❖ Employers should be mandated to follow workplace safety guidelines, and domestic workers should have access to healthcare services.
- ❖ Awareness campaigns should be conducted to promote societal respect and dignity for domestic workers and reduce discrimination and stigma.
- ❖ Domestic workers should be provided with regulated working hours, rest breaks, and leave policies to improve their quality of life.
- ❖ Migrant domestic workers should have access to legal aid, shelter facilities, and community support to address their specific challenges.
- ❖ Government and employers should facilitate childcare services and financial assistance for domestic workers with family responsibilities.
- ❖ Training programs should be introduced to educate domestic workers on financial management, savings, and investment opportunities.

- ❖ Setting up complaint centers, helplines, and legal aid services can help domestic workers report workplace grievances and seek justice.
- ❖ The formation of unions or worker associations should be encouraged to enable domestic workers to advocate for better working conditions.
- ❖ Formal written contracts should be made compulsory to ensure transparency and fair employment conditions for domestic workers.
- ❖ Laws against child labour should be strictly enforced, and rehabilitation programs should be developed for child domestic workers.
- ❖ Government and private sectors should offer affordable housing options or rental assistance for domestic workers living away from their families.
- ❖ Digital platforms and mobile applications should be used to disseminate information on rights, welfare schemes, and job opportunities.
- ❖ Programs should be launched to integrate domestic workers into community activities, promoting social acceptance and reducing workplace isolation.
- ❖ Pension schemes or retirement plans should be introduced to ensure financial security for aging domestic workers.
- ❖ Free legal aid services should be established to assist domestic workers facing harassment, exploitation, or wrongful dismissal.
- ❖ Employment agencies recruiting domestic workers should be closely monitored to prevent exploitation and ensure ethical hiring practices.

- ❖ Counselling services and mental health programs should be provided to address stress, workplace abuse, and emotional challenges faced by domestic workers.

5.6.Suggestions for Further Studies

- Analyze the effectiveness of social security and welfare programs for domestic workers.
- Study the physical and mental health challenges faced by domestic workers.
- Compare the socio-economic conditions of migrant domestic workers with local workers.
- Investigate workplace harassment, discrimination, and legal protection measures.
- Assess the impact of financial education on savings, credit access, and economic stability.
- Explore the effects of long working hours on personal and family life.
- Study how digital platforms and job portals can improve employment opportunities.
- Evaluate differences in wages, job security, and living conditions.
- Research the awareness of labour rights and the effectiveness of legal aid programs.
- Examine how employer behaviour affects job satisfaction and working conditions.
- Study the correlation between housing stability (owned vs. rented) and socio-economic well-being.
- Analyze how societal attitudes affect the dignity and self-esteem of domestic workers.
- Investigate the prevalence of child labour in domestic work and its impact on education.

- Study the economic and social challenges of aging domestic workers and the need for pension schemes.

5.7. Conclusion

Domestic workers form an integral part of households and urban economies, yet they continue to face economic insecurity, social discrimination, and workplace exploitation. This study has revealed that factors such as place of residence, work experience, and housing conditions significantly impact their socio-economic well-being. Rural domestic workers often benefit from community support and lower living expenses, whereas urban workers struggle with higher costs and less job stability. Similarly, those with more experience tend to secure better wages and conditions, while newcomers face low income, job uncertainty, and a lack of bargaining power.

Domestic workers are often excluded from formal labour protections despite their vital contributions, leaving them without fair wages, social security benefits, or legal safeguards. Many experience workplace mistreatment, financial hardship, and discrimination, making it difficult for them to break free from cycles of exploitation. The absence of written contracts, structured work policies, and union support further weakens their ability to negotiate for better pay and working conditions.

Addressing these issues requires comprehensive legal reforms, social security measures, and extraordinary advocacy efforts. Introducing structured employment contracts, minimum wage regulations, and mandatory benefits such as paid leave and health insurance can significantly enhance their financial stability. Additionally, vocational training programs, awareness initiatives, and support networks can empower domestic workers to demand their rights and improve their quality of life.

For actual progress, domestic work must be recognized as a legitimate profession deserving of fair treatment, dignity, and security. Policy-makers and society must work toward eliminating exploitation, ensuring equal rights, and fostering economic independence for domestic workers. With the right interventions, we can create a just and equitable environment where these workers are valued, protected, and given opportunities for a better future.

DRAFT TOOL

TITLE OF THE PROJECT

OCCUPATIONAL HAZARDS AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC WELL-BEING OF WOMEN DOMESTIC WORKERS IN TIRUNELVELI DISTRICT

Name of the Institution: St.Ignatius College of Education
(Autonomous) Palayamkottai,
Tirunelveli- 627 002

அன்பார்ந்த பெண்களே ,

எங்களது ஆராய்ச்சி தொடர்பாக உங்களிடமிருந்து சில விவரங்கள் தேவைப்படுகின்றன. அவற்றை உரிய வகையில் அளித்து உதவும்படி கேட்டுக் கொள்கிறோம். இவை ரகசியமாகப் பாதுகாக்கப்பட்டு எங்களுடைய ஆராய்ச்சிக்கு மட்டும் பயன்படுத்தப்படும் என உறுதி அளிக்கிறோம்.

தங்கள் நன்றியுள்ள,
ஆராச்சியாளர்கள்

PERSONAL INFORMATION

வசிக்கும் இடம்

Place of Residence

☐ கிராம☐ Rural☐ புறநகர் பகுதி☐ Semi-Urban

குடும்ப வகை

Type of Family

☐ கூட்டுக்குடும்பம்☐ Joint Family☐ தனிக் குடும்பம்☐ Nuclear Family

வீட்டுவசதியின் தன்மை

Nature of Housing

☐ சொந்த வீடு☐ Owned house☐ வாடகை வீடு☐ Rented House

கல்வித் தகுதி

Educational Qualification

☐ படிக்காதவர்☐ Uneducated☐ பள்ளி நிலை☐ School Level

வேலை வாய்ப்பின் வகை

Type of Employment

☐ நிரந்தர வேலை☐ Permanent Employment☐ தற்காலிக வேலை☐ Temporary Employment☐ ஒப்பந்த வேலை☐ Contractual Employment

பணியனுபவ வருடங்கள்

Years of Experience

☐ 0-5 ஆண்டுகள்☐ 0-5 Years☐ 5-10 ஆண்டுகள்☐ 5-10 Years☐ 10 வருடங்கள் மற்றும் அதற்கு மேல்☐ 10 Years and Above

திருமண நிலை

Marital Status

☐ திருமணமானவர்☐ Married☐ விவாகரத்து பெற்றவர்☐ Divorced☐ விதவை பெண்☐ Widowed

OCCUPATIONAL HAZARDS

Statement No	Statement	Agree	Undecided	Disagree
1.	I am satisfied with my job as a domestic worker. வீட்டுத் தொழிலாளியாக எனது பணி திருப்தி அளிக்கிறது.			
2.	I frequently suffer from muscle strain due to prolonged work. நீண்ட நேரம் வேலை செய்வதால் எனக்கு அடிக்கடி தசை அழுத்தத்தை அனுபவிக்கிறேன்.			
3.	I feel safe and respected at my workplace. என் பணியிடத்தில் நான் பத்திரமாகவும் மரியாதையாகவும் உணர்கிறேன்.			
4.	I feel respected and valued by my employer. என் முதலாளியால் நான் மதிக்கப்படுவதாகவும் உணர்கிறேன்.			
5.	I know my safety rights as a domestic worker. ஒரு வீட்டுப் பணியாளராக எனது பாதுகாப்பு உரிமைகளை நான் அறிவேன்.			
6.	I feel that domestic workers need better legal protection and rights. வீட்டுப் பணியாளர்களுக்கு சிறந்த சட்டப் பாதுகாப்பு மற்றும் உரிமைகள் தேவை என்று நான் உணர்கிறேன்.			
7.	I stand for long hours while working without sufficient rest. போதிய ஓய்வு இல்லாமல் நீண்ட நேரம் நின்று வேலை செய்கிறேன்.			
8.	My work environment is safe. எனது பணிச்சூழல் பாதுகாப்பானது.			
9.	Exposure to cleaning chemicals affects my skin and respiratory health. சுத்தம் செய்யும் இரசாயனங்கள் என் சுவாச மண்டலத்தை பாதிக்கிறது.			

10.	Lifting heavy objects during my work cause physical strain. கனமான பொருட்களை வேலை செய்யும்போது தூக்குவது உடல்ரீதியான அழுத்தத்தை ஏற்படுத்துகிறது.		
11.	I often experience joint problems due to my work. எனது வேலையின் காரணமாக அடிக்கடி மூட்டு பிரச்சனைகளை சந்திக்கிறேன்.		
12.	My workload does not allow me to take sufficient breaks during the day. எனது பணிச்சுமை பகலில் போதிய ஓய்வு எடுக்க அனுமதிக்காது.		
13.	I have been provided with protective gear to protect myself from occupational hazards. தொழில் ரீதியான ஆபத்துகளிலிருந்து என்னை பாதுகாத்துக் கொள்ள எனக்கு பாதுகாப்பு உபகரணங்கள் வழங்கப்பட்டுள்ளன.		
14.	My employer provides medical assistance in case of work-related injuries. வேலை தொடர்பான காயங்கள் ஏற்பட்டால் எனது முதலாளி மருத்துவ உதவியை வழங்குகிறார்.		
15.	I have faced verbal harassment while working as a domestic worker. வீட்டு வேலை செய்யும் போது நான் வார்த்தை வன்முறைகளை எதிர்கொண்டேன்.		
16.	I feel physically exhausted at the end of my work day. எனது வேலை நாளின் முடிவில் நான் உடல் ரீதியாக சோர்வாக உணர்கிறேன்.		
17.	I work more than 8 hours a day without sufficient rest. போதுமான ஓய்வு இல்லாமல் ஒரு நாளைக்கு 8 மணிநேரத்திற்கும் மேல் வேலை செய்கிறேன்.		
18.	I have received training on workplace safety and handling hazardous materials. பணியிட பாதுகாப்பு மற்றும் தீங்கு விளைவிக்கும் பொருட்களை கையாள்வதில் பயிற்சி பெற்றுள்ளேன்.		
19.	I receive paid leave or medical leave when needed. தேவைப்படும் போது எனக்கு சம்பளத்துடன் கூடிய விடுப்பு அல்லது மருத்துவ விடுப்பு பெறுகிறேன்.		
20.	I am paid overtime for working extra hours. நான் அதிக நேரம் வேலை செய்ததற்காக கூடுதல் நேர ஊதியம் எனக்கு வழங்கப்படுகிறது.		
21.	My employer acknowledges my hard work and contributions. எனது கடின உழைப்பு மற்றும் பங்களிப்புகளை எனது முதலாளி அங்கீகரிக்கிறார்.		
22.	I have access to clean drinking water and sanitary facilities at work. பணியிடத்தில் எனக்கு சுத்தமான குடிநீர் மற்றும் சுகாதார வசதிகள் உள்ளன.		
23.	I am provided with proper ventilation and lighting in my workplace. எனது பணியிடங்களில் சரியான காற்றோட்டம் மற்றும் வெளிக்காற்றை கொடுக்கப்பட்டுள்ளது.		
24.	I experience frequent headaches and muscle stiffness due to heavy household work. கடுமையான வீட்டு வேலை காரணமாக அடிக்கடி தலைவலி மற்றும் தசை இறுக்கம், போன்றவை ஏற்படுகின்றன.		
25.	I got long-term health issues like arthritis and chronic back pain due to work-related strain. மூட்டுவலி மற்றும் நாள்பட்ட முதுகுவலி போன்ற நீண்ட கால உடல்நலப் பிரச்சினைகளால் நான் பாதிக்கப்பட்டிருந்தேன்.		
26.	I frequently experience leg swelling after standing for long hours at work. வேலையில் நீண்ட நேரம் நின்ற பிறகு நான் அடிக்கடி கால் வீக்கத்தை அனுபவிப்பேன்.		
27.	I frequently work in cramped spaces that make movement difficult. நான் அடிக்கடி நெரிசலான இடங்களில் வேலை செய்கிறேன், இது வசதியாக நகர்த்துவதை கடினமாக்குகிறது.		
28.	My work is negatively affecting my long-term health. என் நீண்டகால ஆரோக்கியத்தை என் வேலை எதிர்மறையாக பாதிக்கிறது.		
29.	I know where to report workplace harassment or unsafe conditions. பணியிடத்தில் துன்புறுத்தல் அல்லது பாதுகாப்பற்ற நிலைமைகள் குறித்து எங்கு புகாரளிப்பது என்று எனக்குத் தெரியும்.		
30.	I feel mentally exhausted after completing my work. என் வேலையை முடித்த பிறகு நான் மனதளவில் சோர்வடைகிறேன்.		
31.	Climbing stairs while cleaning increases my knee issues. சுத்தம் செய்யும் போது படிக்கட்டுகளில் ஏறுவது என் முழங்கால் பிரச்சனைகளை அதிகரிக்கிறது.		

32.	I experience high levels of stress due to my workload and responsibilities. நான் அதிக அளவு மன அழுத்தத்தை என்னுடைய பணிச்சுமை மற்றும் பொறுப்புகள் காரணமாக அனுபவிக்கிறேன்.			
33.	I feel pressured to complete tasks quickly, even if it affects my well-being. என்னுடைய பணிகள் என் நல்வாழ்வைப் பாதித்தாலும், அதனை விரைவாக முடிக்க வேண்டிய அழுத்தம் எனக்கு ஏற்படுகிறது.			
34.	I often feel anxious or nervous while working due to fear of making mistakes. வேலை செய்யும் போது தவறுகள் செய்துவிடுவோமோ என்ற பயத்தின் காரணமாக அடிக்கடி கவலைகள் அல்லது பதட்டம் ஏற்படுகிறது உணர்கிறேன்.			
35.	I experience frustration or emotional distress due to unrealistic employer expectations. முதலாளியின் பதார்த்தமற்ற எதிர்பார்ப்புகளால் நான் விரக்தி அல்லது உணர்ச்சிர் தியான துயரத்தை அனுபவிக்கிறேன்.			
36.	My employer takes steps to ensure my safety and well-being at work. எனது முதலாளி பணியிடத்தில் என் பாதுகாப்பு மற்றும் நல்வாழ்வை உறுதி செய்ய நடவடிக்கை எடுக்கிறார்.			
37.	I have experienced depression due to work pressure. வேலை அழுத்தம் காரணமாக நான் மன அழுத்தத்தை அனுபவித்திருக்கிறேன்.			
38.	I feel lonely or isolated because of the nature of my work. என்னுடைய வேலையின் தன்மை காரணமாக நான் தனிமையாகவோ அல்லது தனிமைப்படுத்தப்பட்டதாகவோ உணர்கிறேன்.			
39.	My job does not allow me enough time to spend with my children or loved ones. என் வேலையின் நிமித்தமாக என் குழந்தைகளுடனோ அல்லது அன்புக்குரியவர்களுடனோ செலவிட போதுமான நேரம் இல்லை.			
40.	I find it difficult to balance my work with my personal or family life. எனது தனிப்பட்ட அல்லது குடும்ப வாழ்க்கையுடன் எனது வேலையை சமநிலைப்படுத்துவது எனக்கு கடினமாக உள்ளது.			
41.	I feel unsafe while working alone in my employer's house. என் முதலாளியின் வீட்டில் நான் தனியாக வேலை செய்யும் போது பாதுகாப்பற்றதாக உணர்கிறேன்.			
42.	I have a written contract with my employer that outlines my work terms and conditions. எனது முதலாளியுடன் என் பணி விதிமுறைகள் மற்றும் நிபந்தனைகளை கோடிட்டுக் காட்டும் எழுத்துப்பூர்வ ஒப்பந்தம் எனக்கு உள்ளது.			
43.	I know the minimum wage laws applicable to domestic workers. வீட்டு வேலை செய்பவர்களுக்கு பொருந்தக்கூடிய குறைந்தபட்ச ஊதியச் சட்டங்கள் பற்றி எனக்குத் தெரியும்.			
44.	I am aware of my legal rights as a domestic worker. ஒரு வீட்டு பணியாளராக எனது சட்டப்பூர்வ உரிமைகள் குறித்து நான் அறிவேன்.			
45.	Domestic workers are entitled to access government welfare schemes and financial assistance. அரசாங்க நலத்திட்டங்களையும் நிதி உதவியையும் வீட்டு பணியாளர்கள் பெற வேண்டும் என்று நான் நம்புகிறேன்.			
46.	I would like to receive awareness programs on workplace safety and health. பணியிடப் பாதுகாப்பு மற்றும் சுகாதாரம் குறித்த விழிப்புணர்வு திட்டங்களைப் பெற நான் விரும்புகிறேன்.			

SOCIO-ECONOMIC WELL-BEING

Statement No	Statement	Agree	Undecided	Disagree
1.	I receive a fixed monthly wage for my work. நான் எனது வேலைக்கு ஏற்றவாறு நிலையான மாத ஊதியம் பெறுகிறேன்.			
2.	My wages are paid on time without delays. என் ஊதியம் தாமதமின்றி சரியான நேரத்தில் வழங்கப்படுகிறது.			
3.	My income is sufficient to meet my personal and family needs. எனது வருமானம் தனிப்பட்ட மற்றும் என் குடும்பத் தேவைகளைப் பூர்த்தி செய்யப் போதுமானதாக உள்ளது.			
4.	My job has improved my current living conditions. என்னுடைய வேலை என்னுடைய தற்போதைய வாழ்க்கை நிலைமையை மேம்படுத்தியுள்ளது.			
5.	I have a written contract that clearly defines my job responsibilities and salary. எனது பணிப் பொறுப்புகள் மற்றும் சம்பளத்தை தெளிவாக வரையறுக்கும் எழுத்துப்பூர்வ ஒப்பந்தம் என்னிடம் உள்ளது.			
6.	I do domestic work in multiple houses to earn a sufficient income. போதுமான வருமானம் ஈட்டுவதற்காக பல வீடுகளில் வீட்டு வேலை செய்கிறேன்.			
7.	I have been terminated from the job without any prior notice. எந்தவித முன்னறிவிப்பும் இன்றி பணியில் இருந்து நீக்கப்பட்டேன்.			
8.	I can receive social security benefits, including a pension and workers' compensation. ஓய்வூதியம் மற்றும் தொழிலாளர்களின் இழப்பீடு உள்ளிட்ட சமூகப் பாதுகாப்புப் பலன்களை என்னால் பெற முடியும்.			
9.	My employer provides medical support if I get injured while working. வேலை செய்யும் போது எனக்கு காயம் ஏற்பட்டால் எனது முதலாளி மருத்துவ உதவியை வழங்குகிறார்.			
10.	I have access to pension plans to ensure my future financial security. என் எதிர்கால நிதி பாதுகாப்பிற்காக என் முதலாளி ஓய்வூதிய திட்டங்களுக்கான அணுகலை ஏற்பாடு செய்துள்ளார்.			
11.	I live in housing that is safe and suitable for my family's needs. என் குடும்பத்தின் தேவைகளுக்கு ஏற்ற பாதுகாப்பான வீட்டில் நான் வசிக்கிறேன்.			
12.	I have access to clean drinking water in my home. என் வீட்டில் சுத்தமான குடிநீர் கிடைக்கிறது.			
13.	I have adequate sanitation facilities, including a toilet and a bathing space, at my home. எனது வீட்டில் கழிப்பறை மற்றும் குளியலறை உள்ளிட்ட போதுமான ககாதார வசதிகள் உள்ளன.			
14.	My living conditions impact my health and overall well-being. என் வாழ்விடம் தழுவல் ஆரோக்கியத்தையும் நலனையும் பாதிக்கிறது.			
15.	I spend a large portion of my income on rent and basic household needs. எனது வருமானத்தில் பெரும் பகுதியை வாடகை மற்றும் அடிப்படை வீட்டுத் தேவைகளுக்காக செலவிடுகிறேன்.			
16.	I enjoy a healthy and supportive home environment. எனக்கு ஆரோக்கியமான மற்றும் ஆதரவான வீட்டுத் தழுவல் உள்ளது.			
17.	I have attended skill training to improve my work skills. என் பணித் திறன்களை மேம்படுத்த திறன் பயிற்சிகளில் கலந்து கொண்டேன்.			
18.	I am aware of financial management and savings techniques. நிதி மேலாண்மை மற்றும் சேமிப்பு நுட்பங்கள் பற்றி எனக்குத் தெரியும்.			
19.	I wish to pursue further education if given the opportunity. வாய்ப்பு கிடைத்தால் தொடர்ந்து கல்வி கற்க விரும்புகிறேன்.			
20.	My lack of education limits my job opportunities and earning potential. கல்வியின்மை எனது வேலை வாய்ப்புகளையும் சம்பாதிக்கும் திறனையும் கட்டுப்படுத்துகிறது.			
21.	My working hours allow me to balance my job and personal life. என் வேலையையும் தனிப்பட்ட வாழ்க்கையையும் சமநிலைப்படுத்த எனது வேலை நேரங்கள் அனுமதிக்கின்றன.			
22.	I have enough time to spend with my family after work. வேலைக்குப் பிறகு என் குடும்பத்துடன் செலவிட எனக்கு போதுமான நேரம் இருக்கிறது.			
23.	My work responsibilities hinder me from caring for my children. என் வேலைப் பொறுப்புகள் என்னுடைய குழந்தைகளைக் கவனித்துக்கொள்வதில் தடையாக இருக்கின்றன.			
24.	I can take breaks during work without fear of punishment. வேலையின் போது தண்டனைக்கு பயப்படாமல் ஓய்வு எடுக்க முடியும்.			
25.	I feel overworked and exhausted at the end of the day. நான் அதிக வேலைச்சுமைப்பால் நான் முடியவில்லை சோர்வாக உணர்கிறேன்.			

26.	I experience high levels of stress due to my job. அதிக அளவு மன அழுத்தத்தை என்னுடைய வேலையின் காரணமாக நான் அனுபவிக்கிறேன்.			
27.	My family members help each other with daily responsibilities and care. எனது குடும்ப உறுப்பினர்கள் அன்றாடப் பொறுப்புகள் மற்றும் கவனிப்பில் ஒருவருக்கொருவர் உதவுகிறார்கள்.			
28.	Friends and family members support me in overcoming work struggles. என் பணிப் போராட்டங்களைச் சமாளிக்க நண்பர்களும் குடும்ப உறுப்பினர்களும் எனக்கு ஆதரவாக இருக்கிறார்கள்.			
29.	I frequently feel lonely due to my relentless assigned responsibilities. என் தொடர்ந்து வழங்கப்பட்ட பொறுப்புகளின் காரணமாக நான் அடிக்கடி தனிமையாக உணர்கிறேன்.			
30.	My job provides me with a sense of financial independence. எனது வேலை எனக்கு நிதி சுதந்திர உணர்வை தருகிறது.			
31.	I feel emotionally exhausted from managing work pressure. வேலை அழுத்தத்தை சமாளிப்பதால் உணர்ச்சி ரீதியாக நான் சோர்வடைகிறேன்.			
32.	My employer deducts money from my wages whenever I take leave. நான் விடுப்பு எடுக்கும் போதெல்லாம் எனது முதலாளி எனது ஊதியத்தில் இருந்து பணத்தைக் கழிக்கிறார்.			
33.	I can read and write confidently in my preferred language. எனக்குப் பிடித்த மொழியில் நம்பிக்கையுடன் படிக்கவும் எழுதவும் எனக்கு முடியும்.			

FINAL TOOL

TITLE OF THE PROJECT

OCCUPATIONAL HAZARDS AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC WELL-BEING OF WOMEN DOMESTIC WORKERS IN TIRUNELVELI DISTRICT

Name of the Institution: St. Ignatius College of Education
(Autonomous) Palayamkottai,
Tirunelveli- 627 002

அன்பார்ந்த பெண்களே ,

எங்களது ஆராய்ச்சி தொடர்பாக உங்களிடமிருந்து சில விவரங்கள் தேவைப்படுகின்றன. அவற்றை உரிய வகையில் அளித்து உதவும்படி கேட்டுக் கொள்கிறோம். இவை ரகசியமாகப் பாதுகாக்கப்பட்டு எங்களுடைய ஆராய்ச்சிக்கு மட்டும் பயன்படுத்தப்படும் என உறுதி அளிக்கிறோம்.

தங்கள் நன்றியுள்ள,
ஆராச்சியாளர்கள்

OCCUPATIONAL HAZARDS

Statement No	Statement	Agree	Undecided	Disagree
1.	I am satisfied with my job as a domestic worker. விட்டுத் தொழிலாளியாக எனது பணி திருப்தி அளிக்கிறது.			
2.	I feel safe and respected at my workplace. என் பணியிடத்தில் நான் பத்திரமாகவும் மரியாதையாகவும் உணருகிறேன்.			
3.	I feel respected and valued by my employer. என் முதலாளியால் நான் மதிக்கப்படுவதாகவும் உணர்கிறேன்.			
4.	I know my safety rights as a domestic worker. ஒரு விட்டுப் பணியாளராக எனது பாதுகாப்பு உரிமைகளை நான் அறிவேன்.			
5.	I feel that domestic workers need better legal protection and rights. விட்டுப் பணியாளர்களுக்கு சிறந்த சட்டப் பாதுகாப்பு மற்றும் உரிமைகள் தேவை என்று நான் உணர்கிறேன்.			
6.	I stand for long hours while working without sufficient rest. போதிய ஓய்வு இல்லாமல் நீண்ட நேரம் நின்று வேலை செய்கிறேன்.			
7.	Exposure to cleaning chemicals affects my skin and respiratory health. கத்தம் செய்யும் இரசாயனங்கள் என் சுவாச மண்டலத்தை பாதிக்கிறது.			
8.	Lifting heavy objects during my work cause physical strain. கனமான பொருட்களை வேலை செய்யும்போது தூக்குவது உடல்ரீதியான அழுத்தத்தை ஏற்படுத்துகிறது.			
9.	I often experience joint problems due to my work. எனது வேலையின் காரணமாக அடிக்கடி மூட்டு பிரச்சனைகளை சந்திக்கிறேன்.			
10.	My workload does not allow me to take sufficient breaks during the day. எனது பணிச்சுமை பகலில் போதிய ஓய்வு எடுக்க அனுமதிக்காது.			
11.	My employer provides medical assistance in case of work-related injuries. வேலை தொடர்பான காயங்கள் ஏற்பட்டால் எனது முதலாளி மருத்துவ உதவியை வழங்குகிறார்.			
12.	I have faced verbal harassment while working as a domestic worker. விட்டு வேலை செய்யும் போது நான் வார்த்தை வன்முறைகளை எதிர்கொண்டேன்.			
13.	I work more than 8 hours a day without sufficient rest. போதுமான ஓய்வு இல்லாமல் ஒரு நாளைக்கு 8 மணிநேரத்திற்கும் மேல் வேலை செய்கிறேன்.			
14.	I have received training on workplace safety and handling hazardous materials. பணியிட பாதுகாப்பு மற்றும் தீங்கு விளைவிக்கும் பொருட்களை கையாள்வதில் பயிற்சி பெற்றுள்ளேன்.			
15.	I receive paid leave or medical leave when needed. தேவைப்படும் போது எனக்கு சம்பந்ததுடன் கூடிய விடுப்பு அல்லது மருத்துவ விடுப்பு பெறுகிறேன்.			
16.	I am paid overtime for working extra hours. நான் அதிக நேரம் வேலை செய்ததற்காக கூடுதல் நேர ஊதியம் எனக்கு வழங்கப்படுகிறது.			
17.	I have access to clean drinking water and sanitary facilities at work. பணியிடத்தில் எனக்கு கத்தமான குடிநீர் மற்றும் சுகாதார வசதிகள் உள்ளன.			
18.	I am provided with proper ventilation and lighting in my workplace. எனது பணியிடங்களில் சரியான காற்றோட்டம் மற்றும் வெளிச்சம் கொடுக்கப்பட்டுள்ளது.			
19.	I experience frequent headaches and muscle stiffness due to heavy household work. கடுமையான விட்டு வேலை காரணமாக அடிக்கடி தலைவலி மற்றும் தசை இறுக்கம், போன்றவை ஏற்படுகின்றன.			
20.	I got long-term health issues like arthritis and chronic back pain due to work-related strain. மூட்டுவலி மற்றும் நாள்பட்ட முதுகுவலி போன்ற நீண்ட கால உடல்நலப் பிரச்சினைகளால் நான் பாதிக்கப்பட்டிருக்கிறேன்.			
21.	I frequently experience leg swelling after standing for long hours at work. வேலையில் நீண்ட நேரம் நின்று பிறகு நான் அடிக்கடி கால் வீக்கத்தை அனுபவிப்பேன்.			

22.	I frequently work in cramped spaces that make movement difficult. நான் அடிக்கடி நெரிசலான இடங்களில் வேலை செய்கிறேன், இது வசதியாக நகர்த்துவதை கடினமாக்குகிறது.			
23.	My work is negatively affecting my long-term health. என் நீண்டகால ஆரோக்கியத்தை என் வேலை எதிர்மறையாக பாதிக்கிறது.			
24.	I know where to report workplace harassment or unsafe conditions. பணியிடத்தில் துன்புறுத்தல் அல்லது பாதுகாப்பற்ற நிலைமைகள் குறித்து எங்கு புகாரளிப்பது என்று எனக்குத் தெரியும்.			
25.	I feel mentally exhausted after completing my work. என் வேலையை முடித்த பிறகு நான் மனதளவில் சோர்வடைகிறேன்.			
26.	I experience high levels of stress due to my workload and responsibilities. நான் அதிக அளவு மன அழுத்தத்தை என்னுடைய பணிச்சுமை மற்றும் பொறுப்புகள் காரணமாக அனுபவிக்கிறேன்.			
27.	I feel pressured to complete tasks quickly, even if it affects my well-being. என்னுடைய பணிகள் என் நல்வாழ்வை பாதித்தாலும், அதனை விரைவாக முடிக்க வேண்டிய அழுத்தம் எனக்கு ஏற்படுகிறது.			
28.	I often feel anxious or nervous while working due to fear of making mistakes. வேலை செய்யும் போது தவறுகள் செய்துவிடுவோமோ என்ற பயத்தின் காரணமாக அடிக்கடி கவலைகள் அல்லது பதட்டம் ஏற்படுகிறதை உணர்கிறேன்.			
29.	I experience frustration or emotional distress due to unrealistic employer expectations. முதலாளியின் யதார்த்தமற்ற எதிர்பார்ப்புகளால் நான் விரக்தி அல்லது உணர்ச்சிர் தியான துயரத்தை அனுபவிக்கிறேன்.			
30.	My employer takes steps to ensure my safety and well-being at work. எனது முதலாளி பணியிடத்தில் என் பாதுகாப்பு மற்றும் நல்வாழ்வை உறுதி செய்ய நடவடிக்கை எடுக்கிறார்.			
31.	I have experienced depression due to work pressure. வேலை அழுத்தம் காரணமாக நான் மன அழுத்தத்தை அனுபவித்திருக்கிறேன்.			
32.	I feel lonely or isolated because of the nature of my work. என்னுடைய வேலையின் தன்மை காரணமாக நான் தனிமையாகவோ அல்லது தனிமைப்படுத்தப்பட்டதாகவோ உணர்கிறேன்.			
33.	My job does not allow me enough time to spend with my children or loved ones. என் வேலையின் நிமித்தமாக என் குழந்தைகளுடனோ அல்லது அன்புக்குரியவர்களுடனோ செலவிட போதுமான நேரம் இல்லை.			
34.	I find it difficult to balance my work with my personal or family life. எனது தனிப்பட்ட அல்லது குடும்ப வாழ்க்கையுடன் எனது வேலையை சமநிலைப்படுத்துவது எனக்கு கடினமாக உள்ளது.			
35.	I feel unsafe while working alone in my employer's house. என் முதலாளியின் வீட்டில் நான் தனியாக வேலை செய்யும் போது பாதுகாப்பற்றதாக உணர்கிறேன்.			
36.	I have a written contract with my employer outlining my work terms and conditions. எனது முதலாளியுடன் என் பணி விதிமுறைகள் மற்றும் நிபந்தனைகளை கோடிட்டுக் காட்டும் எழுத்துப்பூர்வ ஒப்பந்தம் எனக்கு உள்ளது.			
37.	I know the minimum wage laws applicable to domestic workers. வீட்டு வேலை செய்பவர்களுக்கு பொருந்தக்கூடிய குறைந்தபட்ச ஊதியச் சட்டங்கள் பற்றி எனக்குத் தெரியும்.			
38.	I am aware of my legal rights as a domestic worker. ஒரு வீட்டுப்பணியாளராக எனது சட்டப்பூர்வ உரிமைகள் குறித்து நான் அறிவேன்.			
39.	I believe domestic workers should have access to government welfare schemes and financial support. அரசாங்க நலத்திட்டங்களையும் நிதி உதவியையும் வீட்டு பணியாளர்கள் பெற வேண்டும் என்று நான் நம்புகிறேன்.			
40.	I would like to receive awareness programs on workplace safety and health. பணியிடப் பாதுகாப்பு மற்றும் சுகாதாரம் குறித்த விழிப்புணர்வு திட்டங்களைப் பெற நான் விரும்புகிறேன்.			

SOCIO-ECONOMIC WELL-BEING

Statement No	Statement	Agree	Undecided	Disagree
1.	I receive a fixed monthly wage for my work. நான் எனது வேலைக்கு ஏற்றவாறு நிலையான மாத ஊதியம் பெறுகிறேன்.			
2.	My wages are paid on time without delays. என் ஊதியம் தாமதமின்றி சரியான நேரத்தில் வழங்கப்படுகிறது.			
3.	My income is sufficient to meet my personal and family needs. எனது வருமானம் தனிப்பட்ட மற்றும் என் குடும்பத் தேவைகளைப் பூர்த்தி செய்யப் போதுமானதாக உள்ளது.			
4.	I have a written contract that clearly defines my job responsibilities and salary. எனது பணிப் பொறுப்புகள் மற்றும் சம்பளத்தை தெளிவாக வரையறுக்கும் எழுத்துப்பூர்வ ஒப்பந்தம் என்னிடம் உள்ளது.			
5.	I do domestic work in multiple houses to earn a sufficient income. போதுமான வருமானம் ஈட்டுவதற்காக பல வீடுகளில் வீட்டு வேலை செய்கிறேன்.			
6.	I have been terminated from the job without any prior notice. எந்தவித முன்னறிவிப்பும் இன்றி பணியில் இருந்து நீக்கப்பட்டேன்.			
7.	I can receive social security benefits, including a pension and workers' compensation. ஓய்வூதியம் மற்றும் தொழிலாளர்களின் இழப்பீடு உள்ளிட்ட சமூகப் பாதுகாப்புப் பலன்களை என்னால் பெற முடியும்.			
8.	My employer provides medical support if I get injured while working. வேலை செய்யும் போது எனக்கு காயம் ஏற்பட்டால் எனது முதலாளி மருத்துவ உதவியை வழங்குகிறார்.			
9.	I have access to pension plans to ensure my future financial security. என் எதிர்கால நிதி பாதுகாப்பிற்காக என் முதலாளி ஓய்வூதிய திட்டங்களுக்கான அணுகலை ஏற்பாடு செய்துள்ளார்.			
10.	I live in housing that is safe and suitable for my family's needs. என் குடும்பத்தின் தேவைகளுக்கு ஏற்ற பாதுகாப்பான வீட்டில் நான் வசிக்கிறேன்.			
11.	I have access to clean drinking water in my home. என் வீட்டில் சுத்தமான குடிநீர் கிடைக்கிறது.			
12.	I have adequate sanitation facilities, including a toilet and a bathing space, at my home. எனது வீட்டில் சுழிப்பறை மற்றும் குளியலறை உள்ளிட்ட போதுமான குகாதார வசதிகள் உள்ளன.			
13.	My living conditions impact my health and overall well-being. என் வாழ்வியல் சூழல் என் ஆரோக்கியத்தையும் நலனையும் பாதிக்கிறது.			
14.	I spend a large portion of my income on rent and basic household needs. எனது வருமானத்தில் பெரும் பகுதியை வாடகை மற்றும் அடிப்படை வீட்டுத் தேவைகளுக்காக செலவிடுகிறேன்.			
15.	I have attended skill training to improve my work skills. என் பணித் திறன்களை மேம்படுத்த திறன் பயிற்சிகளில் கலந்து கொண்டேன்.			
16.	I am aware of financial management and savings techniques. நிதி மேலாண்மை மற்றும் சேமிப்பு நுட்பங்கள் பற்றி எனக்குத் தெரியும்.			
17.	I wish to pursue further education if given the opportunity. வாய்ப்பு கிடைத்தால் தொடர்ந்து கல்வி கற்க விரும்புகிறேன்.			
18.	My lack of education limits my job opportunities and earning potential. கல்வியறிவின்மை எனது வேலை வாய்ப்புகளையும் சம்பாதிக்கும் திறனையும் கட்டுப்படுத்துகிறது.			
19.	My working hours allow me to balance my job and personal life. என் வேலையையும் தனிப்பட்ட வாழ்க்கையையும் சமநிலைப்படுத்த எனது வேலை நேரங்கள் அனுமதிக்கின்றன.			
20.	I have enough time to spend with my family after work. வேலைக்குப் பிறகு என் குடும்பத்துடன் செலவிட எனக்கு போதுமான நேரம் இருக்கிறது.			
21.	My work responsibilities hinder me from caring for my children. என் வேலைப் பொறுப்புகள் என்னுடைய குழந்தைகளைக் கவனித்துக்கொள்வதில் தடையாக இருக்கின்றன.			
22.	I can take breaks during work without fear of punishment. வேலையின் போது தண்டனைக்கு பயப்படாமல் ஓய்வு எடுக்க முடியும்.			
23.	I feel overworked and exhausted at the end of the day. நான் அதிக வேலைச்சமையால் நான் முடிவில் சோர்வாக உணர்கிறேன்.			
24.	I experience high levels of stress due to my job. அதிக அளவு மன அழுத்தத்தை என்னுடைய வேலையின் காரணமாக நான் அனுபவிக்கிறேன்.			
25.	Friends and family members support me in overcoming work struggles. என் பணிப் பொறுப்புக்களைச் சமாளிக்க நண்பர்களும் குடும்ப உறுப்பினர்களும் எனக்கு ஆதரவாக இருக்கிறார்கள்.			

26.	I frequently feel lonely due to my relentless assigned responsibilities. என் தொடர்ந்து வழங்கப்பட்ட பொறுப்புகளின் காரணமாக நான் அடிக்கடி தனிமைப்பாக உணர்கிறேன்.			
27.	My job provides me with a sense of financial independence. எனது வேலை எனக்கு நிதி சுதந்திர உணர்வை தருகிறது.			
28.	I feel emotionally exhausted from managing work pressure. வேலை அழுத்தத்தை சமாளிப்பதால் உணர்ச்சி ரீதியாக நான் சோர்வடைகிறேன்.			
29.	My employer deducts money from my wages whenever I take leave. நான் விடுப்பு எடுக்கும் போதெல்லாம் எனது முதலாளி எனது ஊதியத்தில் இருந்து பணத்தைக் கழிக்கிறார்.			
30.	I can read and write confidently in my preferred language. எனக்குப் பிடித்த மொழியில் நம்பிக்கையுடன் படிக்கவும் எழுதவும் எனக்கு முடியும்.			

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PHOTO GALLERY







“Domestic workers deserve the same rights, protections, and respect as any other worker. Anything less is injustice.”



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