"Why to Change Job(s)?
Determinants of Women's Interfirm Mobility in Indian IT-ITES Sector"

Doctoral Thesis

to Achieve the Doctoral Degree

of the Faculty of Social Sciences

of Göttingen University

put forward by

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born at

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Dedicated to my family, friends and respondents

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Abbreviations

ASI: Annual Survey of Industries

B.A: Bachelor of Arts

BBA: Bachelor of Business Administration

BCA: Bachelor of Computer Application

B.Com: Bachelor of Commerce

BE: Bachelor of Engineering

BIT: Bachelor of Information Technology

BPO: Business Process Outsourcing

B.Sc: Bachelor of Science

B.Tech: Bachelor of Technology

CAGR: Compound Annual Growth Rate

CEO: Chief Executive Officer

CSO: Central Statistical Office

C&B: Cost & Benefit

DGET: Directorate General of Employment & Training

DHS: Demographic and Health Survey

EHA: Event History Analysis

ETF: Economic Theory of Fertility

FDI: Foreign Direct Investment

F2F: Face to Face

GDP: Gross Domestic Product

GOI: Government of India

HEIs: Higher Education Institutions

HRM: Human Resource Management

ICT: Information Communication Technology

IT: Information Technology

ITES: Information Technology enabled Services

KPO: Knowledge Process Outsourcing

LFP: Labour Force Participation

LFPR: Labour Force Participation Rate

LIS: Luxembourg Income Study

LPG: Liberalisation Privatisation Globalisation

MAR: Missing at Random

MBA: Master of Business Administration

MCAR: Missing Completely at Random

MICE: Multiple Imputation by Chained Equation

MNAR: Missing not at Random

MNC: Multinational Corporation

MOSPI: Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation

NAS: National Account Statistics

NASSCOM: The National Association of Software and Services Companies

NCR: National Capital Region

NFHS: National Family Health Survey

NSS: National Sample Survey

NSSO: National Sample Survey Organisation

PCE: Piecewise Constant Exponential

R&D: Research & Development

RCT: Rational Choice Theory

SAP: Structural Adjustment Programme

VOC: Value of Children

WFPR: Workforce Participation Rate

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1. Introduction

"Female millennial[1] represents a new era of female talent. Female millennial are more career- confident and ambitious than their previous generation. They are financially empowered but work-life strategies are critical".

(PricewaterhouseCooper 2015)

A global study on highly educated and working women asserts that "female millennials matter because they are more highly educated and are entering the workforce in larger numbers than any of their previous generation" (PricewaterhouseCooper 2015). In Indian context, a recent report of the Times of India (2015) suggests that the level of women's education in India has seen a sharp rise between 2001 and 2011. According to the census of India 2011, the number of women earning technical and professional degrees has doubled nearly to 196% during this decade. While there were only 480,000 women engineers in 2001, there are today 2 million women engineers suggesting an increase of 326%. The Times of India (2015) report further states that engineering and related technological degrees emerge as more popular and, the IT sector continues to be desirable sector for highly educated women (Times of India 2015).

These findings on young highly educated women at the global level and national level in India highlight that women are climbing high in education and employment domains. During the last two decades, Indian women have made a remarkable progress in both fields. For instance, women's enrolment has increased at both under-graduate and post-graduate levels. In addition to engineering and technology degrees, commerce, computers and management have drawn women's interest. Thus, highly educated working women in India are joining global millennial women who are- career-oriented, self-motivated, and aspire for professional careers. These millennial women are shaping their lives through their higher educational attainment and career achievement.

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[1] Female millennial are those women who are born between 1980 and 1995. Millennial women are considered career-oriented and more self-confident than women of the previous generation. In the present study, 86% of the women are millennial women who are born between 1980 and 1995.

India has been undergoing socio-economic transformation for the last two decades. The socio-economic changes in the lives of young women in urban India indicate that they are both a driving force and product of this social transformation. One of the most impressive and visible changes in India has been the growing presence of girls/women in schools, colleges, universities, companies and public offices. It demonstrates enhanced opportunities for them in both educational and employment domains as well as their increased physical mobility in the Indian society.

PricewaterhouseCooper (2015) report claims that globally more millennial women are entering labour market than their previous generation, similarly, increasing women's entry in paid work in urban areas, has been one of the remarkable developments in India post 1990s. Increasingly, young married women and mothers have been participating in white-collar jobs in urban labour market. This is an outcome of dual processes- (i) economic changes kicked-off by the liberalisation of the economy and globalisation after 1991 and, (ii) higher educational attainment of women. Economic changes resulted in availability of decent white-collar jobs in urban labour market, while educational attainment of women induced their entry into paid work. Thus, the forces of pull and push factors were strong to create enabling environment for women's paid work post 1990s.

Economic changes are the outcome of economic reform programmes that aimed at bringing foreign capital and technology through foreign direct investment (FDI). Consequently, the services sector has grown and expanded enormously over the last two decades. Especially, the Information Technology (IT) - Information Technology enabled Services (ITES) segment of the services sector has grown rapidly as a result of the economic reforms. The IT-ITES sector has significantly contributed to the gross domestic product (GDP) and stimulated economic development. Most importantly, the sector is known for generating decent employment opportunities for the growing educated working population of India. In particular, the sector has emerged as one of the important sources of employment for educated women in urban areas.

A sufficient number of white-collar job opportunities to educated urban women were missing prior to the 1990. This also reflects, as will be shown, in the slow growth in the share of women's employment in both public and private organised sector prior to 1990. In addition, male-domination of organised sector jobs combined with the early age at marriage of women constrained women's labour market opportunities. Therefore, the majority of educated women ended up being full-time housewives and mothers. A very few women could opt for both work and family life.

However, the expansion of the services sector, particularly, the rapid growth of the Indian IT-ITES sector post 1991 has generated enormous white-collar employment opportunities for educated women in urban areas. Consequently, women in increasing numbers have been participating in paid work. A prominent change is the continuation of work after marriage and childbirth. That is, young women have been performing dual roles of worker and wife/mother. Additionally, dual-earner couples and dual-earner households are on the rise in urban India. These changes suggest that contemporary social transformation in urban India is intrinsic to women's employment.

Women's entry into paid work in the IT-ITES sector has drawn researchers' attention to study changes in the traditional role of Indian women and the ways in which it is affecting other social processes in the Indian society. Previous research (cf. Clark and Sekher 2007; Kelkar, Shrestha, and Veena 2002; McMillin 2006; Ng and Mitter 2005; Singh and Pandey 2005) has taken women's employment in the IT-ITES sector as a central point of reference to study a range of corresponding changes emanated from women's entry into employment. Topics such as gender roles, gender relations at work and home, women's socio-economic status, patriarchy and women's bargaining power, women's agency and career aspirations of young women have been examined by the researchers. Thus, the existing research offers valuable insights of several aspects of women's employment in the Indian IT-ITES sector.

However, little is known about women's interfirm mobility behaviour, career development trajectory and the effect of family roles on women's interfirm mobility decisions. These aspects indicate career decisions of women. Hence, the

research topic is important for several reasons. First, interfirm mobility of workers inform their career trajectory. There exists a knowledge gap about the determinants of interfirm mobility behaviour of women. Second, while there is a broad public discourses about job-hopping behaviour of individuals (especially males) in the Indian IT-ITES sector, very few studies have scientifically contributed to the analysis of interfirm mobility of women. In fact, an investigation of women's job changing behaviour is missing so far. It largely remains an under-researched topic in the social sciences.

Third, an analysis of women's interfirm mobility behaviour is also important with regard to their family roles. Due to the patriarchal nature of the Indian society combined with traditional gender roles, women are considered responsible for childcare and household work. Thus, insofar, no study has causally shown the effect of marriage and motherhood on women's job changing decisions. We do not know the extent to which the roles of wife and mother affect the length of women's stay in a job. In a nutshell, little is known about the causal relationship between interfirm mobility decision of women and their family roles.

The majority of job (both intrafirm and interfirm) mobility research has been carried out in the context of industrialised countries. In the Indian context, a few studies touch upon interfirm mobility behaviour of workers in the IT-ITES sector. However, these studies largely refer to the interfirm mobility of men, while briefly point out women's interfirm mobility (cf. Kelkar, Shrestha, and Veena 2002; Upadhya and Vasavi 2006). An additional drawback lies in the methodological approaches taken by these studies. They predominantly employ qualitative methods of enquiry. These studies usually rely on qualitative interviews with few individuals and have a relatively small sample size. Consequently, their findings remain rather informative and exploratory and, lack internal and external validity. In fact, those studies which collect and employ own survey, report their findings only descriptively (cf. Shanker 2008; Singh and Pandey 2005).

Given the topical and methodological gaps in the existing body of literature, the present research intends to fill these gaps by analysing interfirm mobility behaviour of women in the Indian IT-ITES sector by applying advanced

quantitative methodological approaches. More precisely, the main research question of the study is- Why do women change job(s)? What are the determinants of women's interfirm mobility decision? To what extent, marriage and motherhood affect their interfirm mobility decision? By answering this research question, the overarching goal of the study is to examine the interfirm mobility behaviour of young highly educated women working in Indian IT-ITES sector and, the extent to which their decision is affected by women's family roles of wife and mother.

For addressing the research question of the study, I employ my own survey data. An online and paper based face-to-face survey was conducted in IT-ITES firms in Delhi, Gurgaon, and Noida. The survey was conducted from November 2011 to February 2012. The final sample size consists of 295 women working in IT-ITES firms at these three locations. The survey includes retrospective work and family life history of women. It records full information of six jobs and childbirth information up to four children. Consequently, it enables to create a longitudinal dataset.

The survey data is analysed using the piecewise constant exponential model technique of the event history analysis. The mobility from first and second job is analysed. The time gap between leaving first job and joining the second job is not taken into account. It is because all women were employed at the time of survey.

All women were married, while many of them were mothers at the time of the survey. The main purpose to survey only married women had the following reasons. First, the study aimed to capture the clear effect of marital and motherhood statuses on women's interfirm mobility decision over a period of time. This is because previous studies have demonstrated that unmarried women do not face any challenges in combining work and family as the household responsibilities are taken-care by the parents. Such arrangement provides unmarried women flexibility to work during any hours of the day and night. It is only after marriage, especially after becoming mother women experience challenges in reconciling work and family life. The roles of wife and mother pose greater challenge in women's worker role due to which they find difficult to combine work and family. It is primarily because women in the role of a wife and

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mother are expected to take-care of children and manage household responsibilities.

Previous research also suggests that despite the division of women's time in work and family, their full-time household responsibilities have not diminished (Kelkar et al. 2002). Consequently, women lag behind in exploiting career opportunities through interfirm mobility (Kelkar et al. 2002). Against this backdrop, the current study offers the opportunity to causally establish the relationship between women's work decision and family roles. In addition, own survey data provides a good framework to substantiate and explain the causal findings with descriptive results. The latter strengthens the causal findings by providing well-informed explanations. For instance, if causal findings suggest the constraining nature of children on women's interfirm mobility then descriptive findings help demonstrating the role conflict as well as problems for mothers to reconcile work and family life. The descriptive findings thus complement the causal analysis.

The descriptive findings of the study are additionally presented to demonstrate the work and family attitudes of educated working women. That is, survey data enables us to show the extent to which women are- career-oriented, motivated and derive sense of fulfilment through paid work. How do women balance work and family life? Which roles are important for them? Are gender role attitudes of women changing? What is women's perception of their husband's attitudes towards wife's work? Are financial needs of the families are growing in line with increasing cost of living? Who takes care of the children during mother's working hours- is it family or market? Therefore, the survey data provides possibilities to answer all these questions descriptively in addition to causal analysis of women's interfirm mobility decision.

By addressing these questions, the current study also makes a significant contribution to the global discourse of millennial women. Young highly educated women working in one of the most progressive sectors of the economy, i.e. IT-ITES truly represent the millennial women of India as they are career-oriented, motivated and economically independent. They stand together with their global counterparts. These young women no longer idealise the roles of housewives and

mothers. Rather, they have been shaping their lives through their educational and career success which was nearly unimaginable two decades ago in India.

For investigating the determinants of interfirm mobility decision of women, the effect of marriage and motherhood on their interfirm mobility decision and, their attitudes toward work and family, the current study is structured as follows.

Chapter 2, "Trends and patterns of women's education and employment in India: From independence to the present" explains the status of women's education and employment in different time periods in India. The time is divided into two periods- (i) from independence (1947) to 1990 (ii) from 1991 to the present. The year 1991 is a landmark in the history of modern India as a wide range of economic reforms were adopted by the government of India. Thus, the chapter aims to cover the expansion of women's education and growth in women's employment from independence to the present. It further demonstrates the emergence and expansion of the IT-ITES sector in India, its relevance and contribution to women's employment.

Chapter 3, "State of the art" reviews all those major studies which have contributed to enhancing the understanding of women's employment in IT-ITES sector. It provides important findings and background information on the topic of women's employment in IT-ITES sector. Further, having highlighted the gaps in the existing body of research; the chapter points out the main motivation of taking up the current research project.

Chapter 4, "Theoretical framework" elaborates two theoretical approaches adopted in the study- rational choice theory (RCT) and value of children (VOC) approach. The discussion is followed by demonstrating some of the major empirical studies on job mobility and the extent to which they substantiate rational choice theory. To note, the value of children approach is employed to understand how and in what terms children are constraints to the mother which in turn, affects women's labour market outcomes by limiting their potential to reach maximum. The VOC approach is used as an interpretive device instead of testing its own assumptions. The chapter ends with drawing hypotheses that guide the subsequent analysis.

Chapter 5, "Data and method" explains the full procedure of conducting online and paper based face-to-face survey in IT-ITES firms in Delhi and National Capital Region. The chapter provides the details of- sample, challenges in deploying online and paper based face-to-face survey, strengths and limitations of the survey data, statistical analysis technique, i.e. piecewise constant exponential technique, a full procedure of imputing the data and, scale and recoding of the variables used for both causal and descriptive analysis.

Chapter 6, "Descriptive findings" presents the descriptive results of the study in detail. A full account of several aspects of young women's work and family life is provided. The chapter offers valuable insights of women's- demographics, educational profile, job changing patterns, job characteristics, career development trajectory, attitude towards work and family life, work-family reconciliation and family structure in urban India. Thus, the chapter addresses all those topics that strengthen the causal findings.

Chapter 7, "Results" reports the regression findings of interfirm mobility. The findings of first and second interfirm mobility are presented separately.

Chapter 8, "Discussion" comprehensively investigates the regression findings. A detailed discussion of first and second interfirm mobility is carried out cumulatively. The regression findings are examined in the light of- theoretical expectations, literature review and descriptive findings.

Chapter 9, "Summary and conclusion" wind up the study. The chapter summarised the main findings of the study and draws significant conclusions. It additionally highlights the limitations of the current study and puts forward recommendations for stakeholders and future research.

2. Trends and Patterns of Women's Education and Employment in India: From Independence to the Present

2.1. Introduction

This chapter shows the status of women's education and employment in post-independent India. The aim is to provide an overview of expansion of women's education and employment from independence to the present. To fulfil this goal, the time is divided in two periods: (i) from independence (1947) to 1990 and (ii) from 1991 to the present. The purpose is to demonstrate development in women's education and employment before and after 1991.

The year 1991 is a landmark in the history of modern India as a wide range of economic reforms were adopted by the government of India. The economic liberalisation stimulated economic development and generated huge employment opportunities to both the educated and unskilled population of India in both the organised[2] and unorganised sector[3] of the economy.

Educated women have benefitted from this economic transformation due to the attainment of higher education and growth in employment opportunities. Consequently, women's participation has increased in white-collar jobs in urban areas. The work participation is prominent in private organised sector. In addition, economic liberalisation and globalisation is claimed to influence young women's disciplinary choices in higher education (Chanana 2007). That is, changes in educational choices of individuals are closely related to the changes in

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[2] According to the definition of the Directorate General of Employment and Training (DGE&T), the organised or formal sector includes all public sector establishments (including all government services at the central, state and local government levels), all public sector undertakings (public utilities/services in the field of agriculture, industry, credit financing, etc.), all non-agricultural private establishments (that employ 10 or more people) are categorised as a part of organised sector (Bhattacharya 2007).

[3] According to Sharma & Chitkara (2006) the unorganised sector refers to those enterprises whose activities or collection of data is not regulated under any legal provision and/or which do not maintain any regular accounts. The sector is characterised by: no paid leave, no formal written contract and no social security benefits to the worker (Employment and Unemployment Survey, 2013-14).

labour market. Thus, post 1990s, significant changes have occurred in the education and employment status of women.

Against this backdrop, to give an account of women's participation in educational and economic activities from 1947 to 1974, I primarily rely upon '*Towards Equality: Report of the Committee on the Status of Women in India*' of 1974[4]. The majority of the texts for discussion purpose is extracted from this report. It is primarily because this is one of the most comprehensive reports which extensively and deeply studied women's position and status in almost all sectors and spheres of Indian society from independence to mid-1970s. It is suggested that this report had a huge impact on the government and its policies that aimed to empower women and promote their welfare.

In addition, the result of the report led to the establishments of 'Women Studies Centre' in Indian university system (Desai, Majumdar, and Bhansali 2003; Rajadhyaksha and Smita 2004). In academic domains, this report was followed by a proliferation of studies on women's economic status in different industrial sectors. For instance, one study investigated the working conditions of women in different sectors of the economy, organisation of family relation, employer's attitudes towards women workers, and the degradation of women to low-paid and low-skilled jobs (Rajadhyaksha and Smita 2004). Thus, the '*Towards Equality*' report serves best purpose to provide an overview of education and employment status of women from independence to mid-1970s.

To address women's education and employment from mid-1970s to the present, I rely on several academic and government sources. Women's employment in private and public organised sector is given emphasis. It is because the current study focuses on the IT-ITES sector which is part of the private organised sector.

That is, a sample is drawn from the IT-ITES firms that operate in private sector. The section is followed by a discussion of the emergence and expansion of the IT-ITES sector in the Indian economy. The relevance and contribution of the IT-ITES sector to women's employment is briefly explained.

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[4] See this report for more detailed and diverse information about any aspect of women's social, economic, political and religious life.

2.2. Socio-Economic Status and Position of Women in India from Independence (1947) to Mid-1970s

It is suggested that the socio-economic status of women improved in post-independent India. Education expansion and introduction of formal laws are attributed to this change (Guha et al. 1974). However, the improvement in the status and position of women was largely limited to the upper middle class urban women as accessibility to educational institutions was confined to them only (Guha et al. 1974; Nayyar 1987).

On the other hand, the majority of women, particularly rural women, continued to grow up in illiteracy and ignorance of the importance of education for several decades (Guha et al. 1974). Given their lack of education, these women were inherently excluded from the employment in white-collar jobs (Guha et al. 1974).

In brief, those women who could enter in institutions of learning could also access white-collar jobs in various services and professions (Guha et al. 1974). Those women who continued to be illiterate and without any formal education ended up doing manual labour, blue-collar jobs in industries (primarily in unorganised sector) or they could find employment as agriculture labourers.

Therefore, such uneven pattern of educational and economic development were major causes of poor socio-economic outcomes for the majority of women in post-independent India, especially for those in rural areas (Guha et al. 1974). The following paragraphs discuss these phenomena in detail.

2.2.1   Expansion of Education in Post-Independent India

The education of women expanded in post-independent India. However, the participation was higher at primary level, while it was low at secondary and university level (Guha et al. 1974; Ministry of Human Resource Development 2014). The authors of the '*Towards Equality*' report suggest that in 1947, 83% of all enrolled girls were in primary school (about half of them in class I), while only 7% of all enrolled girls were in secondary school (Guha et al. 1974). Further, 23,000 women were enrolled at university level which was 0.5% (less than 1%)

of all girls enrolled in the educational system. Table 2.1 shows the enrolment of girls at all levels of educational institutions from 1951 to 1971 (Guha et al. 1974).

Table 2.1: Enrolment of girls at different levels of education in post-independent period

Enrolment of Girls at different levels of Education in Post-Independent Period				
				Figures in 1,00,000*
Year	Primary School Classes (I -V)	Middle School Classes (VI-VIII)	Secondary School Classes (IX-XI)	Colleges & Universities General Education
1950-51	53.85 (39)	5.34 (20)	1.61 (15)	0.4 (17)
1955-56	76.39 (44)	8.67 (25)	3.18 (21)	0.84 (22)
1960-61	113.47 (48)	16.7 (32)	5.41 (23)	1.5 (28)
1965-66	182.93 (57)	28.46 (37)	11.72 (30)	3.24 (30)
1968-69	199.36 (59)	34.93 (39)	15.6 (32)	4.32 (31)
1973-74~	244.01 (62)	45.37 (43)	23.4 (36)	9.00 (31)

Source: Guha et al. (1974).
~Note: estimated
Note: Figures in parentheses indicate the number of girls for every 100 boys enrolled. The table deliberately excludes the figure for year 1946-47 and 1978-79. For more info, see the report, page no.239.
*Note: One hundred thousand (100,000) is read as one lakh in Indian terms.

Table 2.1 demonstrates that during 1950-51, the total enrolment of girls at primary level, i.e. in class I-V was 53.85 lakh (5.385 million), while the enrolment was 113.47 lakh (11.347 million) in 1960-61. Girls' enrolment increased to 244 lakh (24.4 million) during 1973-74. In other words, 39 girls for every 100 boys were enrolled in 1950-51, while it increased to 62 girls for every 100 boys in 1973-74 at primary level.

Similarly, at middle school level i.e. in class VI-VIII, the enrolment of girls during 1950-51 was only 5.34 lakhs (0.534 million) and 16.7 lakh (1.67 million) in 1960-61, as shown in table 2.1. It increased to 45.37 lakh (4.537 million) during 1973-74. That is, 20 girls per 100 boys were enrolled during 1950-51 which increased to 43 girls per 100 boys in 1973-74 at middle school level, as shown in table 2.1.

At secondary school level, the enrolment of girls was 1.61 lakh (161,000) in 1950-51 and 5.41 lakh (541,000) during 1960-61. It increased to 23.4 lakh (2.34 million) during 1973-74, as shown in table 2.1. In other words, 15 girls per 100

boys were enrolled during 1950-51 which increased to 36 girls in 1973-74 (Guha et al. 1974).

The enrolment of women was low at university level. The total enrolment was 40,000 during 1950-51 and 1.5 lakh (150,000) during 1960-61, as indicated in table 2.1. It increased to 9 lakh (900,000) during 1973-74. That is, 17 women for every 100 men were enrolled in higher education in 1950-51, while the number increased to 31 for every 100 men in 1973-74, as shown in table 2.1 (Guha et al. 1974).

A substantial number of women were enrolled in professional education such as teaching, medicine and arts. However, their enrolment in other courses like commerce, law, agriculture and engineering was low. For instance, 32.4 women for every 100 men were enrolled in education, while only 6 women per 100 men were enrolled in commerce during 1950-51, as shown in table 2.1.

During 1950-51, 16.3 women per 100 men were enrolled in medicine which increased to 22.8 women in 1970-71. The third highest enrolment of women was seen in arts. During 1950-51, 16.1 women for every 100 men were enrolled in arts which increased to 31.7 women in 1970-71, as shown in table 2.1. Further, there were only 3.7 women per 100 men in law, while engineering and technology had only 1 woman for every 100 men during 1970-71, as shown in table 2.1 (Guha et al. 1974).

In brief, the education status of women suggests that at school level, the majority of girls were confined to primary education. Very few could move to the next levels, as secondary and higher education was only confined to the upper and middle classes in urban areas. Consequently, only a low number of women were enrolled in higher education.

Male-dominated disciplines such as engineering and technology had the enrolment of only 1 woman per 100 men until 1970-71, while the majority of women were concentrated in medicine, education and arts. Commerce too had least number of women over these two decades.

The illiteracy and low education of women had a direct effect on the type of economic activities they were engaged in. An unequal trajectory of educational development combined with the changes in the economy resulted in increased opportunities for "educated" women, while it negatively affected "illiterate" women.

2.3. Women's Economic Participation: From 1947 to Mid-1970s

The Indian economy is characterised by the existence of a vast informal or unorganised employment sector (Government of India 2014). In 2014, more than 90% of the workforce and about 50% of the national product were accounted by the informal economy (Government of India 2014). Since independence the majority of India's working population is engaged in economic activities in unorganised sector. The major activities in unorganised sector include: agricultural activities, non-agricultural activities and self-employment. The organised sector includes: industries and, services and professions (Guha et al. 1974).

2.3.1. Women in Unorganised Sector in Indian Economy

Guha et al. (1974) suggest that 94% of the women workers were engaged in the unorganised sector of the economy- 81.4% of the women were in agriculture and the remaining 12.6% were engaged in non-agricultural occupations[5]. Many women worked as unpaid family workers, both in family enterprises and in wage employment where their contribution is neither recognised nor are they considered as earners (Guha et al. 1974). It is frequently recorded that women in India perform a dual role of worker and homemaker but they are not recognised as workers (Banerjee 1989; Nayyar 1987)

The report finds that more than half of the women who enter the labour force before the age of 15 are unpaid family workers (Guha et al. 1974). Due to this, the proportion of female unpaid workers in rural India was much higher than male. Thus, women form an important segment of the labour force. According to

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[5] As defined above, workers in the unorganised sector are not protected by any employment law. They often have poor working condition, insecurity of employment, poor wages and lack of employment related benefits.

the estimates of the 1961 census, the proportion of unpaid family workers aged 10 or above, was 14% for males and 41% for females. The description of each major activities performed by women within the unorganised sector is explained briefly in the following sections.

Agriculture- Agriculture has been the main activity of women in India. Especially in rural areas, the majority of women were engaged in agriculture and agricultural-related activities. According to the 1971 census, 80.1% of the women were found in agriculture. In rural areas, they constituted 87% of the female work force, while in urban areas their proportion was 17.5%. In addition, programmes for rural works also provided temporary employment to women in rural areas (Guha et al. 1974).

Non-Agricultural occupations- The authors point out that a large number of women was employed in various industries, trades and services in the unorganised sector both in rural and urban areas (Guha et al. 1974). The estimates of the 1961 census suggest that traditional village and cottage industries were providing employment to nearly 11 million people.

In addition, a large number of women were also employed in small scale industries. According to rough estimates of the report on the basis of the 1971 census, 4 million women were employed in non-agricultural occupation[6]. Women in these industries were characterised by illiteracy, dependence on intermediaries to obtain employment and lack of knowledge about the protective laws (Guha et al. 1974).

The majority of the women worked as wage labourers in unorganised sector. In particular, they worked as contract labourers in both private and public sector (Guha et al. 1974). The presence of contract labour was prominent in mining and construction industries. The government was the largest employer in construction industry due to the perennial nature of public works. Women in these industries

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[6] This is a completely rough estimate by the report. There were no clear estimates or data available on the actual number of women engaged in non-agriculture occupations.

worked as unskilled labourers for carrying earth, mortar or bricks, crushing bricks and working with hand pumps[7].

According to Guha et al. (1974), the number of women in the construction industry declined from 290,000 in 1951 to 204,000 in 1971. They were paid on daily or weekly basis and largely belonged to the rural areas. In addition, women were illiterate, economically poor and belonged to socially backward communities.

Moreover, a large number of women were found to be employed in Beedi (tobacco, kind of cigarette) industry across the country. Other big industries which employed a large number of women were Match and Chikan[8] industry. Women additionally were working as sweepers, scavengers and domestic workers within the unorganised sector. These activities formed a major avenue for employment to women in urban areas. Petty trades such as food and food products, home crafts, paper bags, agarbatti (packets of incense) making and tobacco also provided employment to a large number of women in the unorganised sector (Guha et al. 1974).

Self-employment- Until 1974, major activities within self-employment included- retail-trading, spinning, weaving, fish curing, basket making, midwifery and barbering (Guha et al. 1974). Women played a crucial role in retail trade activities.

Women sell both agricultural and non-agricultural products in the local daily or weekly market. For instance, women vendors sell vegetables and fruits, fish, pulses, ground-spices and utensils primarily in the big cities. In the post-independence period, the employment of women increased in food processing industry which includes the production of- pickle, papad, jams, spices etc. (Guha et al. 1974).

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[7] These activities of women's work in the construction industry were reported by the Committee on Women Construction Workers, By the Department of labour and Social Welfare, Patna University.
[8] It is a fine art of embroidery done on various products such as kurta, saree, shirts, table linens, handkerchief, etc.

The authors claim that the majority of the women till 1974 were engaged in agriculture and agricultural-related activities, small scale and cottage industries and in self-employment in unorganised sector. Women, engaged in the unorganised sector, were largely illiterate and unskilled workers. They predominantly came from a poor socio-economic background. Work in these industries was characterised by low wages, gender based discrimination, poor working conditions, lack of employment related benefits and absence of social security.

2.3.2.   Women in Organised Sector in Indian Economy

The organised sector is governed by the laws and regulations related to the industries, services and other occupations. It is suggested that the proportion of women employed in this sector formed only 6% of the total women workers in the country in 1971: 2.7% were employed in the industry and 3.3% were employed in the tertiary (services) sector (Guha et al. 1974). More precisely, out of 31 million women workers, 19.24 lakhs (1.924 million) women were employed in the organised sector in 1971.

Table 2.2 shows women's employment in organised sector from 1962 to 1973. In absolute numbers, women's employment in the organised sector has increased from 1.37 million in 1962 to 1.89 million in 1970. It further increased to 2.14 million in 1973. Although, women's employment increased during post-independence period, their proportion has been relatively constant throughout all these years, as shown in table 2.2. It was 10.8% in 1962 and increased marginally to 11.1% in 1970 and 11.3% in 1973. On the other hand, total employment in the organised sector increased rapidly during these years. It was 125,80,000 (12.5 million) in 1962 and increased to 170,40,000 (17.4 million) in 1970. The total employment in this sector further increased to 188, 20,000 (18.8 million) in 1973.

Table 2.2: Employment of women in organised sector in India

Year (ending March)	Total employment in organised sector	Women's employment in organised sector	Proportion of women's employment*
		(figures in '00,000)	
1962	125.8	13.7	10.8
1963	134.1	14.9	11.1
1964	142.3	15.2	10.6
1965	150.0	16.8	11.2
1966	154.6	17.4	11.2
1969	166.3	18.5	11.1
1970	170.4	18.9	11.1
1971	174.9	19.2	10.9
1972	179.8	20.2	11.2
1973	188.2	21.4	11.3

Source: Guha et al. (1974).
*Note: Proportion of women= women's employment/ total employment*100.

The distribution of women employees in public and private organised sector from 1962 to 1973 is shown in table 2.3.

Table 2.3: Women employees in organised public and private sector

Year	Public Sector (in '00,000)	Percent	Private Sector (in '00,000)	Percent	Total Women Employees
1962	4.80	35.0	8.90	65.0	13.70
1963	5.50	37.0	9.40	63.0	14.90
1964	5.80	38.2	9.40	61.8	15.20
1965	6.40	38.1	10.40	61.9	16.80
1966	7.20	41.4	10.30	58.6	17.40
1967	7.20	39.6	11.00	60.4	18.20
1968	7.50	40.7	10.80	59.3	18.30
1969	7.70	41.8	10.70	58.2	18.40
1970	8.10	42.8	10.80	57.2	18.90
1971	8.60	44.6	10.70	55.4	19.30
1972	9.20	45.3	11.10	54.7	20.30
1973	10.10	47.2	11.30	52.8	21.40

Source: Guha et al. (1974)

Table 2.3 suggests that during the first two decades of independence women's participation was higher in private sector than in public sector. However, afterwards, the public sector began to attract more women. In 1962, in absolute numbers, 480,000 women were employed in public sector, while 890,000 women were working in private organised sector. The wide differences in women's employment between the two sectors persisted till 1967. The table shows that

39.6% of the women were employed in public sector, while 60.4% were employed in private sector during this year.

However, from 1968 onwards, the difference between the two sectors in terms of women's employment began to shrink. In 1973, one million (47.2%) women were employed in public sector, while, 1.13 million (52.8%) women were employed in private sector, as shown in table 2.3. In brief, over these years, the share of women's employment in private sector came down from 65% in 1962 to 52.8% in 1973, while the share of women's employment in public sector drastically increased from 35% in 1962 to 47.2% in 1973 (Guha et al. 1974).

The report further asserts that, although in comparison to men employees, the ratio of women employees in the public sector has shown a steady increase, it remains below 10 women per 100 men employed in the public sector during 1962-1973 (Guha et al. 1974). On the other hand, from 1962 to 1973, the ratio of women for every 100 men employed in private organised sector remained relatively constant. That is, 20.8 women per 100 men were employed in 1962 which reduced slightly to 20.6 women in 1973 (Guha et al. 1974).

2.3.3. Industries and, Services and Professions

To better understand the employment situation of women, the organised sector can further be divided into industries and, services and professions.

Industries

Factories, mines and plantations were one of the biggest sources of employment for women in the organised sector (Guha et al. 1974). The report suggests that in factories, the number of employed women rose firmly from 1951 to 1964. However, it started declining afterwards. In 1951, the total number of women employed in factories was 290,000 which increased to 409,100 in 1964. But it declined to 392,500 in 1971. In addition, women were employed in tea, coffee and rubber plantation and jute industry. Women employed in these heavy industries were unskilled and illiterate. They largely worked as wage labourers, as said before (Guha et al. 1974).

A few hundred women were also employed in newer industries such as engineering, electronics and pharmaceutical. These industries employed educated women as skilled workers. However, the majority of the women were largely placed at the lower level to perform monotonous and repetitive tasks which largely involved nimble fingers. Only few women were working at supervisory level (Guha et al. 1974).

Services and Profession

The services and professions have provided white-collar employment opportunities to educated women that allow educated women to utilize their education. It is suggested that prior to World War II, women were generally confined to health and education. However, after the war women began to enter into clerical and secretarial occupations. The authors suggest that the following factors have facilitated women's entry into non-traditional services and professions in post-independent India (Guha et al. 1974):

i. The constitutional guarantee of non-discrimination and equality of opportunity in the matter of employment

The socio-political reasons are attributed to the change in women's economic status. It is suggested that the emphasis on women's equality emerged in the last phase of freedom movement influenced the attitude of middle class educated women to a great extent (Guha et al. 1974).

ii. Expansion of women's education

The expansion of women's education was a major force in improving status and position of women in post-independent India. In addition, opportunities of employment in public sector stimulated women's education. Further, attainment of technical and vocational education induced women's employment (Guha et al. 1974).

iii. Changing attitude towards paid work

There was a gradual ideological change in social values as a result of women's participation in paid employment. Men were accepting women in worker's role. However, it was more due to growing economic pressure on middle class families that induced women's employment (Guha et al. 1974).

iv. Expansion of employment opportunities in the service sector

Service sector expanded in post-independent India. Consequently, it provided decent white-collar employment opportunities to educated women in both public and private sector. The report suggests that those women who could benefit from the expanding educational system were able to access white-collar jobs in services and professions in public sector (Guha et al. 1974).

It is claimed that among services and professions women were mainly concentrated in 'female type occupations' that carry low prestige and are ranked lowest in the hierarchy in comparison to male-dominated occupations. For instance, women were concentrated in occupations such as teaching, medical and health, clerical services and as telephone operators. The ratio of women in relation to men in selected professions for the year 1971 is shown in table 2.4.

Table 2.4: Women in professions in 1971

Profession	Percent of Women in 1971
Physician and surgeons	7.0
Lawyers	1.2
Teachers	30.3
Nursing and other medical and health technicians	72.2
Scientists	10.9

Source: Guha et al. (1974)

Table 2.4 demonstrates that women physician and surgeons accounted for 7%, while the ratio of women as lawyers was 1.2% in 1971. The highest number of women employees was found in nursing and other medical and health related occupations. In this category, women accounted for 72.2%.

The second highest participation was seen in teaching. Women constituted 30.3% as teachers, as shown in table 2.4. Women were also emerging as scientists. Among all, social research and social work were reported to be popular among

women. In absolute terms, the total number of women scientists was 16,000, while they had a share of 10.9% in 1971.

In a nutshell, the authors state that, although white-collar job opportunities for educated women increased after independence, the proportion of women's employment to the total employment in both public and private organised sector was low (Guha et al. 1974). Employment of women in the public organised sector was low in the first two decades of independence. However, it boosted from 1960 to 1970s. In contrast, women's employment declined slightly in private organised sector during this period.

Among all occupations/professions, the majority of the women were concentrated in female type occupations/professions such as teaching, health and clerical services. A few women were employed in law, technology and engineering. The authors elucidate that employment in organised sector was confined to the urban middle and upper class women as they had access to secondary and higher education.

Women in rural areas continued to grow up in illiteracy as a result of which they largely ended up working in unorganised sector as agricultural and wage labourers. In industries within organised sector too such women worked as unskilled manual labourers.

In brief, it can be concluded that status and position of urban women improved slightly, while the socio-economic status and position for the majority of women in rural areas was poor and unsatisfactory in post-independent India. In fact, the latter constituted the biggest portion of women's population as India continued to be rural and agriculture dominated country for several decades after independence.

2.4. Expansion of Women's Education from 1970 to 2014

This section provides an overview of the expansion of the education system in India from 1970 to the present. In particular, it discusses growth in women's education. The section covers all stages of education such as primary, elementary, secondary and higher education. However, the focus remains on the expansion of

higher education, especially the higher educational attainment of women since 1990s. The shift in disciplinary or subject choice of women post-1990s is given emphasis as economic liberalisation has influenced individual's subject choice by making some subjects more paying-off in the labour market than others (Chanana 2007).

Thus, the main purpose of this section is to elucidate the link between women's higher educational attainment and their workforce participation. That is, it is higher educational attainment of women along with macro-economic changes which has stimulated women's workforce participation in IT-ITES industry. The section is structured as following. A brief overview of expansion of educational institutions in India is provided. I then shift attention to explaining the gross enrolment ratio (GER) at different levels of education as well as the enrolment in different disciplines at higher education.

2.4.1. Expansion of Educational Institutions in India

Table 2.5 presents the growth of recognised educational institutions in India at all levels from primary to higher education from 1970-71 to 2013-14. The Indian education system has expanded immensely during the last four decades. However, the most rapid growth is observed since 1990-91. At primary level, i.e. from class 1 to 5, there were 408,400 schools during 1970-71 which increased to 560,900 in 1990-91.

The schools at primary level further increased to 819,900 during 2009-10, as shown in table 2.5. Thus, 259,000 primary schools were established in two decades between 1990-91 and 2009-10 as compared to only 152,500 primary schools laid down in two decades from 1970-71 to 1990-91.

Table 2.5: Number of recognised educational institutions

Year	Number of Recognised Educational Institutions					
	in '00'				(in absolute numbers)	
	Primary	Upper Primary	Secondary	Senior Secondary	Colleges	University
1970-71	4084	906	NA	371	3277	82
1980-81	4945	1186	NA	516	6963	110
1990-91	5609	1515	NA	798	5748	184
2000-01	6387	2063	877	384	10,152	254
2005-06	7726	2885	1060	536	16,982	350
2006-07	7849	3056	1122	574	19,812	371
2007-08	7878	3252	1138	592	23,099	406
2008-09	7788	3656	1221	642	27,882	440
2009-10	8199	3941	1222	716.8	25,938	436
2010-11	7485	4476	1312	720.46	32,974	621
2011-12	7143	4788	1283	841.33	34,852	642
2012-13*	8359	4103	1036	1195.8	35,829	665
2013-14*	7906	4011	1313	1026	36,671	712

Source: Ministry of Human Resource Development (2014)
*Note: Provisional; NA- Not available.

Table 2.5 demonstrates that at upper primary level, i.e. from class 6 to 8, schools increased over fourfold from 1970-71 to 2013-14. There were total 90,600 schools during 1970-71 which increased to estimated 401,100 in 2013-14. The table 2.5 suggests slow expansion of upper primary schools from 1970-71 to 1990-91. Only 60,900 schools were established in these two decades, while 242,600 schools were established in two decades from 1990-91 to 2009-10.

In brief, the number of upper primary schools laid down between 1990 and 2010 is nearly four times higher than the schools established between 1970 and 1990. Furthermore, 7000 upper primary schools have been opened up during four years from 2009-10 to 2013-14.

Similarly, a rapid expansion of schools at secondary level is observed during 2000s. As table 2.5 indicates, there were 87,700 secondary schools in 2000-01 which increased to 122,200 during 2009-10. That is, 34,500 schools were opened in one decade, while 9100 secondary schools are laid down in four years from 2010-11 to 2013-14.

The expansion of Indian higher education sector indicates toward demand and supply of educated workforce in the Indian economy. The rapid expansion of higher education in the country has been a remarkable phenomenon since economic liberalisation. It is suggested that growing needs of higher education

especially after 1990s was met by the private sector, while the public sector failed to meet the increased social demand of higher education in India (Chanana 2007).

Table 2.5 demonstrates the swift growth in both colleges and universities at HE level in India. It indicates that the number of colleges in the country increased eleven times from 1970-71 to 2013-14. The total number of recognised colleges was 3277 during 1970-71 which increased to 36,671 in 2013-14, as shown in table 2.5.

However, a slow growth in the establishments of colleges is observed from 1970-71 to 1990-91, as shown in table 2.5. Only 2471 colleges were opened up in two decades, while 20,190 colleges were established from 1990-91 to 2009-10, as indicated in table 2.5. That is, the number of colleges grew eight fold since 1990. Further, 10,733 colleges are established in five years from 2009-10 to 2013-14.

The number of universities has increased during the last four decades. They have grown eight times since 1970. The table 2.5 informs that the total number of universities was 82 in 1970-71 which increased to 184 in 1990-91 and is estimated to be 712 in 2013-14.

In two decades, from 1970-71 to 1990-91, 102 universities were established, while 252 universities have been laid down between 1990 and 2010, as shown in table 2.5. Moreover, total 528 universities have been established in two and a half decade since 1990, as shown in table 2.5. This suggests a phenomenal growth in higher education in the country.

In brief, table 2.5 clearly indicates the expansion of Indian education system from primary to higher education level since 1990s. The number of institutions at all level grew exponentially. Especially, the expansion of higher education sector is phenomenal. A big boost is observed since economic liberalisation (1991) where forces of globalisation and increased social demand for higher education resulted in expansion of the higher education sector. The next section takes the discussion one step further and provides gross enrolment ratio at different levels of education.

2.4.2.   Enrolment of Girls and Boys at different levels of Education

Table 2.6 demonstrates gross enrolment ratio (GER) of boys and girls at primary (class 1 to 5) and upper primary level (class 6 to 8), while table 2.7 provides number of girls per 100 boys enrolled at different levels of education.

Table 2.6: Gross enrolment ratio at primary and upper primary level

Gross Enrolment Ratio						
Year	Primary (I-V)			Upper Primary (VI-VIII)		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1970-71	95.5	60.5	78.6	46.5	20.8	33.4
1980-81	95.8	64.1	80.5	54.3	28.6	41.9
1990-91	94.8	71.9	83.8	80.1	51.9	66.7
2000-01	104.9	85.9	95.7	66.7	49.9	58.6
2005-06	112.8	105.8	109.4	75.2	66.4	71.0
2006-07	114.6	108.0	111.4	77.6	69.6	73.8
2007-08	115.3	112.6	114.0	81.5	74.4	78.1
2008-09	114.7	114.0	114.3	82.7	76.6	79.8
2009-10	113.8	113.8	113.8	84.3	79.0	81.7
2010-11	114.9	116.3	115.5	87.5	82.9	85.2
2011-12	105.8	107.1	106.5	82.5	81.4	82.0
2012-13*	99.3	102.2	100.7	82.3	86.9	84.5
2013-14*	98.1	100.6	99.3	84.9	90.3	87.4

Source: Ministry of Human Resource Development (2014)
Note: *Provisional; NA: Not available.

Table 2.7: Number of females per hundred males enrolled at different levels of education

Number of Females per hundred Males Enrolled at different levels of Education				
Year	Primary (I-V)	Upper Primary (VI-VIII)	Senior Secondary (XI-XII)	Higher Education
1970-71	60	41	33	28
1980-81	63	49	45	36
1990-91	71	58	49	46
2000-01	78	69	62	58
2005-06	87	81	72	62
2006-07	88	82	74	62
2007-08	91	84	76	63
2008-09	92	86	77	65
2009-10	92	88	80	67
2010-11	92	89	79	78
2011-12	93	90	81	80
2012-13*	94	95	87	81
2013-14*	93	95	89	NA

Source: Ministry of Human Resource Development (2014)
Note: *Provisional
Note: From 1950-51 to 1990-91, figures for Class XI-XII include Class IX-X.

Table 2.6 shows that GER of boys (95.5) at primary level was higher than for girls (60.5) during 1970-71. It marginally declines to 94.8 during 1990-91, while GER of girls at primary level augments from 60.5 in 1970-71 to 71.9 in 1990-91. It further boosts drastically to 113.8 during 2009-10 and equalises to boys GER. More specifically, as table 2.7 demonstrates, at primary level, 60 girls per 100 boys were enrolled during 1970-71 which increased to 71 in 1990-91. That is, there had been extremely slow increase of 11 girls per 100 boys in two decades.

On the other hand, 92 girls per 100 boys were enrolled at primary level in 2009-10 as compared to the enrolment of 71 girls per 100 boys in 1990-91, as shown in table 2.7. That is, there has been an increase of 21 girls per 100 boys during these two decades in comparison to the increase of enrolment of 11 girls per 100 boys from 1970 to 1990.

Further, the enrolment of girls per 100 boys at primary level is expected to reach 93 during 2013-14, as shown in table 2.7. Thus, both table 2.6 and table 2.7 suggest that more and more girls were enrolled at primary school from 1990 to 2010. It additionally indicates that more and more parents began to send their girl child to schools. During 2013-14, approximately all school going girls were enrolled in the primary schools.

Table 2.6 shows that GER of girls at upper primary level was extremely low during 1970-71, while it was not very high for boys as well. However, boys' enrolment ratio augmented drastically to 80.1 during 1990-91, while it observed a slow growth in girls' enrolment. Table 2.7 indicates that only 41 girls per 100 boys were enrolled at upper primary level during 1970-71. The GER of girls increased to 51.9 during 1990-91. That is, 58 girls per 100 boys were enrolled in 1990-91, shown in table 2.7.

A phenomenal increase in GER of girls at upper primary level is observed from 1990-91 onwards. The GER of girls boosted to 79.0 during 2009-10 and it is estimated to be higher (90.3) than for boys (84.9) in 2013-14. As table 2.7 informs, 88 girls per 100 boys were enrolled at upper primary level in 2009-10. The enrolment is further estimated to be 95 during 2013-14.

In brief, statistics suggest that girls are increasingly enrolling at primary as well as at upper primary level. In the previous sections of this chapter, it was shown that enrolment of girls at primary level was higher in the decades following independence. However, they did not proceed for further education. Girls were withdrawn from the school due to several socio-economic reasons. Thus, increasing enrolment of girls at upper primary level since 1990s is a significant change in their educational attainment. This suggests continuation of education as well as positive change in the parents' attitude towards the value of girl's education.

Table 2.8 provides gross enrolment ratio (GER) of boys and girls at secondary and senior secondary level, and higher education level. The data is presented from 2001-02 onwards as data for the preceding years are not available.

Table 2.8: Gross enrolment ratio at senior secondary and higher education level

Gross Enrolment Ratio						
Year	Secondary & Senior Secondary (IX-XII)			Higher Education (18-23 years)		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
2001-02	38.2	27.7	33.3	9.3	6.7	8.1
2002-03	41.3	33.2	37.5	10.3	7.5	9.0
2003-04	42.9	34.3	38.9	10.6	7.7	9.2
2004-05	44.3	35.1	39.9	11.6	8.2	10.0
2005-06	44.6	35.8	40.4	13.5	9.4	11.6
2006-07	45.0	36.8	41.1	14.5	10.0	12.4
2007-08	49.4	41.9	45.8	15.2	10.7	13.1
2008-09	51.0	43.5	47.4	15.8	11.4	13.7
2009-10	52.5	46.1	49.4	17.1	12.7	15.0
2010-11	55.7	48.5	52.2	20.8	17.9	19.4
2011-12	58.8	54.5	56.8	22.1	19.4	20.8
2012-13*	56.5	56.1	56.3	22.3	19.8	21.1
2013-14*	61.9	62.1	62.0	NA	NA	NA

Source: Ministry of Human Resource Development (2014)
Note: *Provisional; NA: Not available.

Table 2.8 demonstrates that GER at secondary and senior secondary levels has increased for both boys and girls over the last one decade. Notably, there has been a slightly higher increase in the GER of girls as compared to boys from 2000-01 to 2009-10. The GER of boys increased 14.3 points during this time period, while GER of girls increased 18.4 points. The GER of girls is further estimated to be 62.1 during 2013-14, observing the increase of 16 points, while there was

marginal increase of 9.4 points in boys GER from 2009-10 to 2013-14, as shown in table 2.8.

More precisely, as table 2.7 informs, 62 girls per 100 boys were enrolled at senior secondary level in 2000-01 which is a slow improvement from the enrolment of 33 girls per 100 boys in 1970-71. That is, it took 3 decades from 1970 to 2000 to double the enrolment of girls at senior secondary level. A rapid upward shift is rather observed from 1990-91 to 2009-10. The girls' enrolment per 100 boys increased to 80 in 2009-10 from 49 in 1990-91, as shown in table 2.7. It is estimated to reach 89 in 2013-14.

The gross enrolment ratio at higher education is presented in table 2.8. It indicates students enrolled in institutions after completing 12 years of education. The total GER at higher education has increased since 2001, as shown in table 2.8. The GER of boys at higher education increased from 9.3 in 2000-01 to 17.1 during 2009-10. Hence, an increase of 7.8 points is observed as compared to 6.0 point increase in the GER of girls during this period. That is, girls GER in higher education increased from 6.7 in 2000-01 to 12.7 in 2009-10 suggesting a slow growth in comparison to boys.

Table 2.7 also demonstrates that enrolment of girls per 100 boys at higher education was extremely low during 1970-71. Only 28 girls per 100 boys enrolled during this period. The enrolment gradually improved between 1970 and 1990, it was less than half of the men. There were 46 women per 100 boys enrolled at higher education level in 1990-91, as shown in table 2.7. It points out an increase of only 18 girls per 100 boys in two decades. A prominent shift came after 1990 and enrolment of girls reached to 67 during 2009-10. Furthermore, it is estimated to be 81 during 2012-2013, as indicated in table 2.7.

In brief, statistics suggest that women in increasing numbers are transiting from school to higher education. Women have enormously progressed at upper primary and senior secondary levels. Their presence is growing in HEIs as well. A remarkable shift in GER of girls at higher education is observed since 2000s and women are increasingly equalising with men. A more specific detail of enrolment

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of boys and girls in different disciplines at higher educational institutions is provided in next section.

2.4.3. Women's Enrolment in different Disciplines and Programmes at Higher Education

Table 2.9 demonstrates percentage of men and women as proportion of total enrolment in different disciplines in higher education. That is, out of every 100 men and every 100 women who take admission in higher education, how many enrol for which subjects (Chanana 2007).

Table 2.9: Women in different Disciplines at Higher Education

Percent of Women as Proportion of Total Enrolment of Women in Higher Education by Gender								
Faculties	1970-71		1980-81		1990-91		2002-03	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Arts	64.3	38.7	56.2	34.6	54.2	35.6	51.1	41.0
Science	25.7	33.2	20.6	19.0	19.8	19.0	19.9	19.8
Commerce	1.9	14.1	11.8	23.3	14.6	24.3	16.5	19.0
Education	3.2	1.5	4.5	1.9	3.7	1.8	1.8	1.2
Engineering/Technology	0.1	3.8	0.7	6.2	1.2	6.7	4.2	9.7
Medicine	3.4	3.2	3.6	4.2	3.5	3.3	3.6	3.0
Law	0.4	2.9	1.6	8.1	1.8	6.8	1.7	4.3
Agriculture	0.9	2.5	1.2	2.8	0.3	1.5	0.3	0.8
Veterinary Science*					0.1	0.3	0.1	0.2
Others*					0.8	0.7	0.8	0.9

Source: Chanana (2007).

Note: Agriculture, veterinary science and others are merged for the years 1950-51 to 1980-81.

Table 2.9 informs that a higher number of women than men were enrolled in arts discipline during 1970-71. Total 64.3% of the women opted for arts as compared to 38.7% of the men who opted for arts. The second highest presence of women is observed in science in 1970-71. A total 25.7% of the women were enrolled in science in 1970-71 as compared to 33.2% of the men, as shown in table 2.9. Interestingly, gender gap is not as wide in science as in arts. The gender gap in arts was 25.6% as compared to 7.5% in science during 1970-71.

Women were least present in commerce during 1970-71. However, their number has increased drastically over the decades. The table suggests that only 1.9% of the women opted for commerce in 1970-71 which increased to 14.6% in 1990-91 and to 16.5% in 2002-03. On the other hand, far more men have been opting for commerce since 1970s which only declined during 2002-03. Table 2.9 indicates

that 14.1% of the men were enrolled in commerce in 1970-71, 23.3% in 1980-81 and 24.3% in 1990-91.

Interestingly women have almost been equal in numbers in medicine in post-independent India: 3.4% of the women as compared to 3.2% of the men were enrolled in medicine during 1970-71. In 2002-03, women outnumbered (3.6%) men (3%) in medicine, as shown in table 2.9.

Table 2.9 informs that women had least presence in engineering and technology subjects until 1990-91. However, 4.2% of the women were enrolled in engineering and technology disciplines during 2002-03 which is an increase from 0.1% in 1970-71, 0.7% in 1980-81 and 1.2% in 1990-91. Although women constitute nearly half of the men enrolled in engineering and technology in 2002-03, their number has certainly increased over the last two decades.

Table 2.9 further suggests an interesting trend in the individual's choice of discipline. Over the last four decades, women's enrolment has increased in commerce and engineering and technology, while men's enrolment in arts has observed fluctuations and eventual increase in 2002-03. That is, table 2.9 indicates that 41% of the men opted for arts in 2002-03 as compared to 34.6% in 1980-81 and 35.6% in 1990-91.

It points toward two possibilities. First, either men's interest has renewed in the social sciences or they ended up choosing social sciences due to low performance at school. Second, it may be the result of lack of availability of places in desirable discipline in colleges and universities.

In a nutshell, the trend suggests that women have been choosing commerce, engineering and technology related subjects which traditionally were dominated by men and are considered masculine. The shift towards the choice of applied science disciplines is attributed to the economic liberalisation and globalisation which has generated higher demand and incentives for particular disciplines and degrees in the labour market (Chanana 2007).

Hence, changes in education are closely related to the changes in labour market. That is, the emergence of some lucrative sectors, such as IT, finance and

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communications which values individuals with IT, engineering and technology educational profile over others, to a great extent have influenced disciplinary choice of the young population in India.

A closer look at the enrolment in higher education in recent years at both under-graduate and post-graduate level is provided in the next table. In addition, enrolment statistics in specific programmes at both bachelor and master level by gender are explained.

Table 2.10 demonstrates total enrolment of students in different disciplines at under-graduate level, while table 2.11 presents enrolment of men and women separately in different programmes at both under-graduate and post-graduate level. Table 2.10 shows a higher enrolment of individuals in arts, humanities and social sciences disciplines followed by the engineering and technology, and commerce.

That is, total 40.69% of the individuals were enrolled in humanities and social sciences, while 16.34% of the students were enrolled in engineering and technology, and 14.53% of the individuals were enrolled in commerce in 2012-13. The gender difference in enrolment in table 2.11 indicates that 37.84% of the women were enrolled in arts in comparison to 28.22% of the men who opted for arts in 2012-13.

Table 2.10: Enrolment in different disciplines/subjects at under-graduate level during 2012-13

Enrolment in different Disciplines/Subjects during 2012-13* (in Percent)	
Discipline	Under-Graduate
Arts/Humanities/Social Sciences	40.69
Engineering/Technology	16.34
Commerce	14.53
Science	12.6
IT & Computer	4.11
Medical Science	2.87
Management	2.19
Law	0.95
Education	3.10
Oriental Learning	0.46
Agriculture	0.55
Other	1.60

Source: Ministry of Human Resource Development (2014)
Note: *Provisional

Table 2.11: Enrolment in different programmes in higher education during 2012-13

Enrolment in different Programmes in Higher Education during 2012-13 (in Percent)			
Programme	Male	Female	Total
Bachelor of Arts	28.22	37.84	32.55
Bachelor of Commerce	11.51	11.3	11.42
Bachelor of Science	10.41	12.09	11.17
Bachelor of Technology	9.1	4.46	7.01
Bachelor of Engineering	8.07	4.06	6.26
Bachelor of Education	1.34	2.84	2.01
Bachelor of Law	0.86	0.48	0.69
Bachelor of Medicine & Surgery	0.46	0.52	0.49
Master of Arts	3.45	5.42	4.34
Master of Science	1.59	2.31	1.91
Master of Business	2.25	1.44	1.88
Master of Commerce	0.77	1.16	0.94
Master of Computer	0.92	0.75	0.84
Master of Technology	0.61	0.39	0.51
Master of Engineering	0.25	0.22	0.24
Other	20.2	14.72	17.73

Source: Ministry of Human Resource Development (2014)

Interestingly, enrolment of men and women is nearly equal in commerce at under-graduate level. That is, 11.30% of the women and 11.51% of the men were enrolled in commerce at bachelor level during 2012-13, as shown in table 2.11. On the other hand, women are nearly half in engineering and technology with 4.06% and 4.46% enrolment in comparison to men.

Further, table 2.10 demonstrates that 12.6% of the students opted for science at under-graduate level while, 4.11% were enrolled in IT and computer-related subjects. The gender difference, as shown in table 2.11, suggests that women have second highest enrolment in science. They (12.09%) outnumbered men (10.41%) in science in 2012-13. Women's enrolment (2.84%) is over double than men's enrolment (1.34%) in education at bachelor level which suggests continuity in feminisation of education discipline.

Medical science stands at sixth position with 2.87% enrolment of the individuals, while management at under-graduate level is opted by 2.19% of the students, as demonstrated in table 2.10. Especially, women (0.52%) outnumber men (0.46%) in enrolment in medicine at bachelor level.

Table 2.12 presents students enrolment in different disciplines/subject at post-graduate level during 2012-13. The table points out that the highest number of students, i.e. 20.58% was enrolled in social science in 2012-13. The gender difference in enrolment indicates that 5.42% of the women as compared to 3.45% of the men opted for arts at master level, as shown in table 2.11.

Table 2.12: Enrolment in different disciplines/subjects at post-graduate level during 2012-13

Enrolment in different Disciplines/Subjects during 2012-13* (in Percent)	
Discipline	Post-Graduate
Social Science	20.58
Engineering/Technology	6.34
Commerce	8.04
Science	8.75
IT & Computer	9.34
Medical Science	4.17
Management	16.92
Law	0.76
Indian Language	8.78
Foreign Language	4.83
Agriculture and Allied	0.61
Home Science	0.21
Other	10.69

Source: Ministry of Human Resource Development (2014)
Note: *Provisional

The second highest enrolment of students is observed in management. Total 16.92% of the individuals opted for management at their master level. The gender difference in table 2.11 demonstrates that 1.44% of the women as compared to 2.25% of the men were enrolled in management at post-graduate level in 2012-13. Women's presence in management subjects stands at third position after arts and science, except the other category.

A total 9.34% of the individuals were enrolled in IT & computers at master level. Enrolment of men (0.61%) is higher than women (0.39%) in technology, while women (0.22%) are nearly equal to men (0.25%) in engineering at post-graduate level, as shown in table 2.11. Women outnumber men in both commerce and science as 1.16% of the women as compared to 0.77% of the men were enrolled in commerce, while 2.31% of the women and 1.59% of the men were enrolled in science in 2012-13.

In brief, recent statistics suggest that enrolment of students at both bachelor and post-graduate level continues to be higher in social science. However, at bachelor level, the second highest enrolment is observed in engineering and technology, while management is second preference among students at post-graduate level. It indicates the taste of young individuals towards attaining professional education to enhance career prospects in the labour market.

Though, women constitute half of the men in engineering and technology at bachelor level, they are catching up with men in these disciplines at master level. Moreover, the trend since 1970s indicates women's growing preference for commerce at both undergraduate and post-graduate level.

Thus, young women are increasingly attaining higher education and many of them are transiting to post-graduate level to obtain technical/professional education in order to improve their career opportunities and be better positioned in labour market. Attainment of technical/professional degrees at higher education additionally highlights the desirability of obtaining employment in non-traditional lucrative sectors such as IT-ITES, finance, communications and engineering. Hence, growing taste of young women for technical/professional education is expected to influence their interfirm mobility decision in the present study as well.

2.5.   Women's Employment in India from 1970 to 1990

This section explains general trends and patterns of employment in organised and unorganised sector of the Indian economy from 1970 to 1990. The employment status of women during this period is also discussed. In brief, the section elucidates the employment situation in different sectors of the economy as well as women's employment status that existed in the country prior to the two decades of economic liberalisation.

2.5.1.   Employment in Organised and Unorganised Sector

Table 2.13 demonstrates the total number of workers employed in both organised and unorganised sectors of the economy from 1983 to 1993-94.

Table 2.13: Size of workforce in organised and unorganised sector

Size of Workforce in Organised and Unorganised Sector					
Year	Organised sector (in million)	Percent	Unorganised Sector (in million)	Percent	Total (in million)
1983	24.0	8.0	275.6	92.0	299.6
1987-88	25.4	7.8	301.9	92.2	327.3
1993-94	27.4	7.3	348.8	92.7	376.2

Source: Sakthivel and Joddar (2006).

Table 2.13 informs that an overwhelmingly large portion of the workforce in India is employed in the unorganised sector (Sakthivel and Joddar 2006). The share of the employment in unorganised sector marginally increased from 92% in 1983 to 92.7% in 1993-94, while the share of employment in the organised sector reduced from 8% to 7.3% during this period. In absolute numbers, the total number of workers in the unorganised sector of the economy increased from 275.6 million in 1983 to 348.8 million workers in 1993-94.

On the other hand, in the organised sector, though the number of workers increased from 1983 to 1993-94, its share in the total employment reduced during this period, as shown in table 2.13. In absolute numbers, 24 million workers were employed in the organised sector in 1983 which increased to 27.4 million workers in 1993-94.

As table 2.13 informs the share of organised sector declined from 8% in 1983 to 7.3% in 1993-94. A total of 92.7% of the workers were engaged in the unorganised sector, while 7.3% of the workers were employed in the organised sector of the economy in 1993-93.That is, out of total 276.2 million workers in 1993-94, 348.8 million workers were engaged in the unorganised sector, while 27.4 million workers were employed in the organised sector of the economy.

In brief, table 2.13 shows that the unorganised sector continues to absorb the majority of the working population of India. The trend indicates that the share of organised sector workforce declined from 1983 to 1993-94, while the share of unorganised workforce increased during this time period despite the fact that actual numbers of workers were increasing in both the sectors. A more detailed view of employment in different industries is discussed below.

Table 2.14 demonstrates employment in different industries in both the organised and unorganised sectors from 1983 to 1993-94. As mentioned before, the majority of the workforce in India has been engaged in unorganised sector of the economy at any given point of time. In addition, it is largely the agriculture sector that enlarges the size of the unorganised sector.

Table 2.14: Industry-wise employment in organized and unorganized sector

Industry-Wise Employment in Organised and Unorganised Sector									
									(in million)
	1983			1987-88			1993-94		
Industry	Organised Sector	Unorganised Sector	Total	Organised Sector	Unorganised Sector	Total	Organised Sector	Unorganised Sector	Total
Agriculture*	1.3	203.8	205.1	1.4	209.9	211.3	1.4	238.3	239.7
Mining & quarrying	1.00	0.8	1.8	1	1.3	2.3	1.1	1.6	2.7
Manufacturing	6.3	25.7	32	6.3	29.9	36.2	6.4	33.4	39.8
Electric, gas & water	0.8	0.1	0.8	0.8	0.3	1.2	1	0.4	1.4
Construction	1.2	5.5	6.7	1.2	11	12.2	1.2	11	12.2
Trade, hotels & restaurants	0.4	18.5	18.9	0.4	22.8	23.2	0.5	28	28.5
Transport~	2.9	4.5	7.4	3	5.7	8.7	3.1	7.4	10.6
Services^	10.2	15.1	25.2	11.2	19.2	30.4	12.6	27.2	39.9

Source: Sakthivel and Joddar (2006).
Note*: Also includes hunting, forestry and fishing
Note~: Also includes storage & communication
Note: Employment figures represented in this table correspond to usual principal and subsidiary status taken together
Note^: includes finance, insurance and real estate; social, personal and community services.
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Table 2.14 indicates that in 1983, the majority of the workforce was engaged in agriculture and allied activities such as hunting, forestry and fishing. A total of 203.8 million workers were engaged in these activities within the unorganised sector. It increased to 238.3 million workers in 1993-94. In contrast, the share of employment in agriculture has been extremely low in organised sector of the economy. Only 1.3 million workers were employed in organised agriculture sector in 1983 which slightly increased to 1.4 million workers in 1987-88. It remains stagnant at 1.4 million workers during 1993-94.

Manufacturing emerges as the second largest employer from 1983 to 1993-93, as shown in table 2.14. The table indicates that a total of 32 million workers were engaged in manufacturing sector in 1983. The number of workers increased to 36.2 million during 1987-88 and 39.8 million during 1993-94. The statistics inform the trend of informalisation of employment in manufacturing sector over these decades.

The third largest growth of employment between 1983 and 1993-94 is observed in the services sector, as shown in table 2.14. The total number of workers in this sector increased from 25.2 million in 1983 to 39.9 million in 1993-94. However, the share of employment between organised and unorganised services sector suggests that 10.2 million workers and 15.1 million workers were employed in "organised" service sector and "unorganised" service sector, respectively.

The employment within the organised service sector further increased to 11.2 million in 1987-88 and 12.6 million in 1993-94, as shown in table 2.14. The employment in the unorganised service sector grew much higher than in the organised service sector. The table 2.14 demonstrates that the number of workers increased in the unorganised service sector from 19.2 million in 1987-88 to 27.2 million in 1993-94. Thus, similar to the trend in the manufacturing industry, the service sector, to a great extent, displayed informalisation of employment.

The growth in employment in services sector is attributed to the rapid growth and expansion of the sector. The share of the services sector in gross domestic product (GDP) has grown over these decades. The share of the services sector was 30.5% in 1951 (Economic Survey, 2010-11). It increased to 44.26% in 1986, 57.55% in

2005 (Sharma and Sharma 2007), and 72.4% in 2014-15 (Economic Survey, 2014-15).

The latest statistics suggest that service sector share in India's gross domestic product (GDP) at factor cost (at current prices) stood at 57% during 2013-14 (Economic Survey, 2013-14), while the share was 55.2% in 2009-10 (Economic Survey, 2010-11). The growth of the sector has been higher during 2000-01 to 2013-14 than overall GDP growth of the country (Economic Survey, 2013-14). The sector grew from 7.5% in 1990s to 10.3% in 2004-05 to 2009-10 (Economic Survey, 2010-11). In particular, a major boost in the growth rate (CAGR) of Indian economy from 5.7% in the 1990s to 8.6% during 2004-05 to 2009-10 is attributed to the acceleration of growth rate in the services sector (Economic Survey, 2010-11).

In brief, table 2.14 informs the expansion of employment opportunities between 1983 and 1993-94. The employment is characterised by the informalisation as the majority of the employment was generated in the unorganised segment of the particular sector. These changes have resulted into the enlargement of size of the unorganised sector in the Indian economy.

Among all industries, employment in the organised services sector has been large during this period, while all other industries had lowest share of employment in its organised segment. In addition, data indicates that the share of the services sector in GDP has increased due to which the sector has gained dominance and has become growth engine of the economy (Sharma and Sharma 2007).

2.5.2.   Women's Employment in Organised Sector in India from 1976 to 1990

In this section, I turn attention to women's employment in organised sector from mid-1970s to 1990. I restrict the discussion to women's employment in organised sector as the current study analyses women's interfirm mobility in IT-ITES sector which is part of the private organised sector. Thus, an account of women's employment in both public and private organised sector will provide a better understanding of women's employment situation in these two sectors a few decades before. It will further enhance the understanding of progress Indian

women have made in terms of accessibility to the labour market due to their educational achievement.

Table 2.15 demonstrates women's share to the total organised sector employment from 1976 to 1990. In other words, it indicates the increase in total employment and women's share in total organised employment during this period.

Table 2.15: Employment of women in organised sector in India

Employment of Women in Organised Sector in India		
Year (ending March)	Total Employed (in 100,000)	Percent of women employment to total employment
1976	201.7	11.8
1980	223.1	12.1
1981	228.8	12.2
1982	234.9	12.3
1983	240.1	12.5
1984	242.1	12.6
1985	245.8	12.9
1986	250.6	13.0
1987	253.9	13.2
1988	257.1	13.4
1989	259.6	13.7
1990*	263.5	13.8

Source: Selected Socio-Economics Statistics India (2002), Central Statistical Organisation, Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, Government of India.
Note*: Data as per Quarterly Employment Review.

Table 2.15 suggests that the total employment in the organised sector increased from 201,00,000 (20.1 million) in 1976 to 263,50,000 (26.35 million) in 1990. However, women's share in organised sector employment increased marginally during this period. Women had a share of 11.8% in 1976 which increased to 13.8% in 1990 suggesting a slow increase, as shown in table 2.15. In one and a half decade, i.e. 1976-1990, women's share increased only 2%.

Thus, it can be firmly be said that women's share in employment to total organised sector employment was unsatisfactory between 1976 and 1990. The growth in the total employment in the organised sector was not accompanied with the increase in share of women's employment.

2.6. Women's Employment in Organised sector in India from 1990 to the Present

This section addresses women's employment in organised sector in India after 1990s. The share of women's employment in public and private organised sector is explained. Economic reforms were adopted in 1991; thus, the discussion informs the extent to which the changes in the share of women's employment to total employment are consequence of the economic reforms.

Table 2.16 demonstrates the total employment in organised sector from 1991 to 2009 and the share of women's employment in it.

Table 2.16: Women's employment in organised sector in India

Women's Employment in Organised Sector in India		
Year (ending March)	Total Employment (in 100,000)	Percent of women employment
1991	267.30	14.10
1992	270.60	14.40
1993	271.80	14.80
1994	273.70	15.20
1995	275.20	15.40
1996	279.40	15.80
1997	278.00	16.80
1998	281.90	17.00
1999	281.10	17.20
2000	279.60	17.60
2001	277.89	17.80
2002	272.06	18.10
2003	270.00	18.40
2004	264.43	18.60
2005	264.58	19.00
2006	269.93	19.00
2007	272.76	19.20
2008	275.48	20.00
2009	280.98	19.90

Source: Selected Socio-Economic Statistics (2001).

Table 2.16 suggests that the total employment increased in organised sector from 1991 to 1999 with an exception of 1997 where a slight decline in total employment was observed. However, afterwards a continuous decline was recorded from 2000 to 2008. The total employment augmented again in 2009.

In absolute numbers, the total employment in organised sector was 267,30,000 (26.73 million) in 1991 which increased to 281,10,000 (28.11 million) in 1999, as

shown in table 2.16. Afterwards, it declined from 279,60,000 (27.96 million) in 2000 to 275,48,000 (27.548 million) in 2008. The total organised employment increased to 280,98,000 (28.098 million) in 2009, as shown in table 2.16.

On the other hand, women's share in total employment in organised sector demonstrates an interesting trend during 1991-2009, shown in table 2.16. The share of women's employment to total employment increased drastically during this period. Women had a share of 14.1% in 1991 which increased to 14.8% in 1993. Their share further increased to 15.8% in 1996, as shown in table 2.16.

Despite a slight decline in total employment in 1997, the share of women's employment increased to 16.8% in this year. Thus, the share of women's employment to total employment augmented drastically from 14.1% in 1991 to 19.9% in 2009, as indicated in table 2.16. A rapid growth in women's employment is observed post-1990s, especially from 1997 onwards.

2.6.1. Women's Employment in Public and Private Sector

Table 2.17 demonstrates total employment in both public and private organised sector of the economy. It additionally shows the share of women's employment in both the sectors from 1990- 2011.

Table 2.17: Estimates of employment in organised public and private sectors

Estimates of Employment in Organised Public and Private Sectors				
Year (ending March)	Public Sector		Private Sector	
	Total Employment (in 100,000)	Share of Women Employment (in Percent)	Total Employment (in 100,000)	Share of Women Employment (in Percent)
1990	187.72	12.0	75.82	18.4
1991	190.57	12.3	76.76	18.7
1992	192.10	12.6	78.46	18.9
1993	193.26	12.8	78.51	19.7
1994	194.45	13.2	79.30	20.0
1995	194.66	13.4	80.59	20.2
1996	194.29	13.6	85.12	21.1
1997	195.59	13.9	86.86	22.0
1998	194.18	14.2	87.48	23.0
2000*	193.13	14.8	86.46	23.9
2005*	180.06	16.2	84.52	24.8
2010*	178.62	17.9	108.46	24.5
2011*	175.48	18.1	114.52	24.3

*Source: Reproduced from Men and Women in India Report (2014)
Source: From 1990-1998, DGE&T, Ministry of Labour

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Table 2.17 suggests that total employment increased from 1990 to 1998 in both private and public organised sector. However, it began declining from year 2000 to 2011 in public organised sector. In absolute numbers, the total employment in public organised sector was 187,72,000 (18.772 million) in 1990. It increased to 194,66,000 (19.466 million) in 1995 and 195,59,000 (19.559 million) in 1997. The total employment was 194,18,000 (19.418 million) in 1998 which declined to 175,48,000 (17.548 million) in 2011.

On the other hand, in the private sector, total employment augmented from year 2010 onwards after recording a decline in year 2000 and 2005, as shown in table 2.17. The total employment in private sector was 75,82,000 (7.582 million) in 1990. It increased to 80,59,000 (8.059 million) in 1995 and 87,48,000 (8.748 million) in 1998.

The share of women's employment in both public and private organised sector suggests a continuous increase from 1990 to 2011, as shown in table 2.17. Despite the decline in total employment in public sector, women's share in employment has continuously risen.

Table 2.17 indicates that women's share was 12% in 1990 in public organised sector which increased to 13.4% in 1995 and 14.2% in 1998. The employment share of women reached 18.1% in public sector in 2011. In private sector, the share of women's employment was 18.4% in 1990. It further increased to 20.2%, 23% and 24.3% in 1995, 1998 and 2011 respectively as shown in table 2.17.

In a nutshell, the pattern of women's employment suggests that the share of women's employment to total employment in both the sectors has been continuously rising since 1990s. Further, the total employment in private organised sector increased after 1990 despite a slight dip in the year 2000 and 2005.

Simultaneously, the continuous rise in the share of women's employment in private organised sector is observed from 1990 to 2011. The growth in the share of women's employment in the organised sector can be attributed to the economic liberalisation which generated decent white-collar employment opportunities in

the country. It especially stimulated employment in the private sector. In addition, with the expansion of services sector (as shown above) and educational attainment, women could benefit from the increased employment opportunities.

Nevertheless, despite the increase in women's employment in both sectors, it should be noted that their share has been low in comparison to the men. Especially, in the public sector, their share was 18.1% in 2011, while remaining 81.9% was dominated by the men. Hence, despite growth in women's employment, their share in comparison to the men is far less and unsatisfactory.

2.7.   Emergence and Expansion of IT – ITES Sector in Indian Economy: Growth in Employment Opportunities for Educated Women

This section focuses on elaborating the emergence and expansion of the IT-ITES sector. The sector is known for providing white-collar employment opportunities to educated women in India. However, to better understand the swift growth of the IT-ITES sector, it is significant to elucidate those socio-economic and political conditions that contributed to embarking economic transformation in the country which, in turn, induced growth of the IT-ITES sector and generation of white-collar employment opportunities for India's growing educated population. Such employment opportunities were missing before 1990 which is also reflected in slow growth in women's employment in organised sector as shown in the previous section.

In this light, the adoption of economic reforms and the beginning of globalisation process are briefly discussed. An overview of the IT-ITES sector, its importance and contribution to the economy as well as to women's employment are explained.

2.7.1.   Economic Reforms in India: The Year of 1991

The process of economic liberalisation first appeared during the mid-1980s in India, while it accelerated during the 1990s (Bhattacharya 2007). The structural adjustment program (SAP) was adopted through economic reform policy in 1991 in response to the huge debt that led to the balance of payment crisis (Patel 1994). The goals of the new economic policy were privatisation, globalisation,

modernisation and improving productivity efficiency and growth rate (Patel 1994).

In order to achieve these objectives, SAP involved different processes such as decontrol and deregulation; adoption of market friendly fiscal exchange; trade and credit policies; freedom of entry to foreign goods and investments; cut back in public expenditure; limitations of fiscal deficits to low levels; adoption of newer technologies; concentration of government investment in infrastructure, education, health and similar soft areas; exit policy; withdrawal of subsidiaries of all kinds (Krishnaswamy 1993; Patel 1994).

As a result of adoption of these extensive measures in 1991, the Indian economy was opened to the foreign business giants that accelerated the globalisation process. One of the remarkable features of the liberalisation and globalisation process has been the huge inflow of foreign capital and technology through foreign direct investment (FDI) in various sectors of the economy (McMillin 2006).

It stimulated economic development (Raju 2003; Thomas 2012). Thus, the Indian economy performed well and stood second to China during the 2000s in terms of the growth of gross domestic product (Thomas 2012).

It is suggested that the policies of economic liberalisation have contributed to globalising world trade and finances (Bhattacharya 2007; Patnaik and Chandrasekhar 1995). This, in turn, has resulted into the spread of multinationals (Clark and Sekher 2007) which have globalised the markets through FDI (Bhattacharya 2007).

Consequently, the huge FDI in the Indian economy has facilitated the rapid expansion of the services sector and the swift emergence of the IT-ITES sector. Thus, since the economic reforms, the services sector[9], especially the IT-ITES sector has witnessed sudden and unique growth in the Indian economy.

The Indian IT-ITES sector is a part of 'business services' that comes under services sector. This is shown in figure 2.1. The service sector is divided into four

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[9] Expansion and contribution of the service sector is explained in the previous section.

major industries: (i) trade, hotels and restaurants, (ii) transport, storage and communication, (iii) financing, insurance, real estate and business services, and (iv) community, social and personal services. The IT-ITES sector comes under business services. The IT-ITES further includes several services such as IT services, Business Process Outsourcing (BPO[10]), engineering services, R&D, and software products (Economic Survey, 2010-11).

Broadly, the software services include activities such as coding, custom and software development (Kelkar et al. 2002). On the other hand, ITES includes call centres, customer interaction, back office operations, insurance claims processing, medical transcription, database management, digital content, and online education (Kelkar et al. 2002; Tara and Ilavarasan 2009; Upadhya and Vasavi 2006).

The terms BPO and ITES are used interchangeably. However, in practice, ITES is a broad sector category which includes BPO. Literally, BPO refers to the outsourcing/offshoring segment of the IT industry (Basant and Rani 2004). According to McMillin (2006), BPO is defined as the movement of business process from inside the organisation to external service providers.

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[10] These days the terminology has been changed to Business Process Management (BPM) in order to make this sector more dignified in the Indian society. During the initial years of expansion of IT-BPO sector, the BPO was not considered good to work in especially for females. However, it has increasingly got acceptance and prestige in the society. In this study, for the sake of clarity, I use the term BPO because this term has been used in the survey and at several other places while making references to this sector.

Figure 2.1: Service Sector
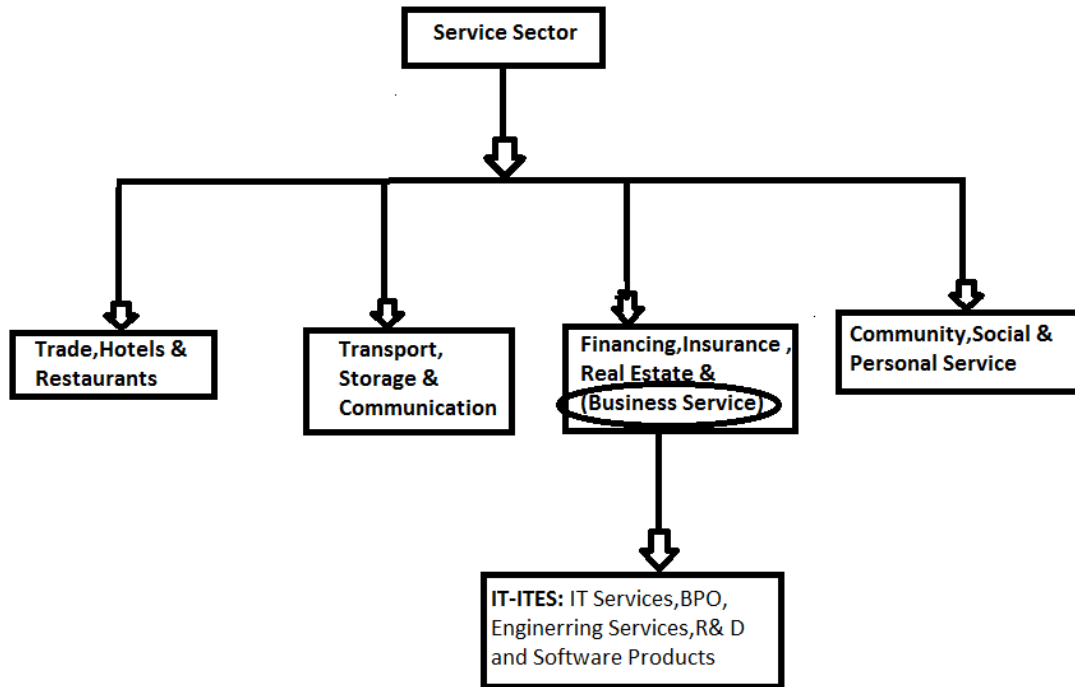
It is claimed that India has gained a brand identity of knowledge economy due to its IT-ITES sector. The emergence of the Indian IT-ITES sector is attributed to the global changes in the structure of IT industry and subcontracting of IT intensive industries (Basant and Rani 2004; Tara and Ilavarasan 2009).

In addition, India has emerged as a popular destination for IT-ITES businesses due to the availability of a highly educated English speaking labour force, low wages, and the ideal time zone location of the country to its American and European clients (Ng and Mitter 2005; Upadhya and Vasavi 2006).

Moreover, economic-political factors, the spread of ICT and the process of liberalisation and globalisation have contributed to the emergence and rapid expansion of the IT-ITES sector (Upadhya and Vasavi 2006). In brief, the growth of the IT-ITES sector in India is an outcome of economic reforms adopted in 1991 by the then government of India.

In economic terms, the sector has been substantially contributing to GDP, employment and exports. The statistics suggest that India continues to maintain a leadership position in global sourcing that accounted for above 55% of the total global sourcing market (excluding engineering services, and research and development) in 2013 as compared to 52% in 2012 (Economic Survey, 2013-14). The contribution of IT-ITES sector in GDP has increased from 4.1% in 2004-05 to 6.1% in 2009-10 (Economic Survey, 2010-11) and estimated 8% in 2012-13 (Economic Survey, 2012-13).

The major boost in IT-ITES industry came since 2004-05. According to the NASSCOM, the overall Indian IT-ITES industry was estimated to US$ 63.7 billion in 2009-10 and an estimated US$ 76.1 billion in 2010-11. The industry grew by an estimated 19.5% in 2010-11 as compared to the moderate growth of 6.2% in 2009-10. Further, IT-BPO sector is estimated to have grown by 10.3%, reaching US$ 105 billion in 2013-14 (Economic Survey, 2013-14).

Of this, exports with a major share of 81.9% grew by 13% (Economic Survey, 2013-14) and its (exports) share in total industry revenue was 77% in 2009-10 (Economic Survey, 2010-11). Similarly, in 2010-11, the total IT-ITES exports had grown to US$ 49.7 billion from US$ 17.7 billion in 2004-05 (Economic Survey, 2010-11).

2.7.2.   Women's Employment in IT-ITES Sector

The Indian IT-ITES sector has emerged as one the largest employment providers in the country. It has generated well-paid white collar jobs. In particular, the sector is known for offering decent employment to the educated women in urban areas (Basant and Rani 2004; Clark and Sekher 2007; McMillin 2006; Singh and Pandey 2005).

The IT-ITES sector is a provider of skilled employment both in India and abroad. It generated direct employment for nearly 2.8 million persons and indirect employment[11] of around 8.9 million in 2011-12 (Economic Survey, 2012-13). This suggests a significant improvement in direct employment from 2009-10. The

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[11] According to the Economic Survey (2010-11), indirect employment is generated in diverse fields such as commercial and residential real estate, retail, hospitality, transportation and security.

direct employment generated by the IT-ITES sector in 2009-10 was 2.3 million (Economic Survey, 2010-11).

According to NASSCOM, the IT industry employed 500,000 people in 2001. Of these, 410,000 people were employed in software export and 70,000 in ITES (Kelkar et al. 2002; NASSCOM 2001). Further, in 2001, the women workforce constituted 21% of total IT workforce in India (Kelkar et al. 2002; NASSCOM 2001).

The ITES segment of the IT sector has emerged as one of the largest employment providers to individuals with a non-technical educational background. The employment in this segment grew from about 42,000 to 160,000 during 1999-2003 (McMillin 2006). The employee base further grew from 415,000 in 2006 to 700,000 in 2008 (NASSCOM 2009).

It is suggested that women have largely benefited from the employment in ITES industries (Basant and Rani 2004). According to the NASSCOM (2003), the ratio of male to female workers in the ITES sector was 35:65. In core IT sector, many women were employed at technical and senior level positions such as software engineers and senior software engineers (Kelkar et al. 2002). In brief, employment of women in IT-ITES sector has increased post 1990. The greater impetus came since 2000.

It can be summarised that significant changes have taken place in the Indian economy since adoption of the economic reforms in 1991. The prominent changes have occurred in structure of the labour market as well as in the size of the labour force. Women's share of employment has increased in both public and private organised sector.

In addition, women in a growing number have been participating in the IT-ITES labour market. Certainly, the IT-ITES sector has emerged as one of the influential sectors for stimulating economic development. It additionally has helped the country to be a dominant player in information technology and sourcing business activities (Economic Survey 2012-13).

Most importantly, the sector has emerged as one of the largest employment providers to the growing educated working population of India. Especially, highly educated women have benefited enormously from the expansion of white-collar employment opportunities in the IT-ITES sector. Their participation in this sector has grown over these years.

Women's workforce participation is accompanied with the simultaneous social change in the Indian society at both micro and macro level. It has resulted in the growth of vast body of literature that addresses several aspects of women's employment. This research is reviewed in the next chapter.

3. State of the Art

3.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses existing research on women's employment in white-collar jobs in urban India, with a particular focus on the IT-ITES sector. Its main purpose is to review previous studies and identify research gaps that serve as background and motivation to investigate interfirm mobility of young women in the IT-ITES sector.

Several studies examined in this chapter explain the impact of women's employment in the IT-ITES sector on gender roles, gender relations at home and workplace, socio-economic status of women at home and in society, change in traditional gender norms, women's work and family experiences and their career aspirations.

However, these studies, as this chapter will show, have certain drawbacks with respect to interfirm mobility research. Against this backdrop, the chapter elucidates the relevance and contribution of the current study for academia and industry.

3.2. A Survey of Previous Research

Given the higher educational attainment of young women, their workforce participation in urban labour market and the on-going economic transformation in India, there is a vast body of literature that aims to understand the changing role of women in the Indian society.

Especially, women's employment in the IT-ITES sector has drawn researchers' interest. Consequently, the majority of the previous studies have focused on understanding work and family life experiences of educated young women working in the IT-ITES sector.

Researchers have investigated the impact of women's employment in IT-ITES sector on gender roles, gender relations at work and home, the changing nature of patriarchy, women's freedom and agency (Clark and Sekher 2007; Kelkar and

Nathan 2002; Kelkar et al. 2002; Raju 2003; Shanker 2008; Tara and Ilavarasan 2009).

Other research topics include the effect of women's employment on their socio-economic status in family and individual life experiences (Ng and Mitter 2005; Singh and Pandey 2005); technology, inequality and globalisation (Arun, Heeks, and Morgan 2007; Goyal 2007; Mitter 1999); identity and work in the global context (McMillin 2006); socio-economic status and bargaining power (Clark and Sekher 2007; Kelkar and Nathan 2002; Mitter 2000); and the changing nature of work, workplace and workplace culture (Gothoskar 2000; McMillin 2006).

This expanded body of literature enhances our understanding of contemporary social change in the Indian society partially as an outcome of women's employment.

Kelkar et al. (2002) examine women's agency as an outcome of their employment in the IT-ITES sector. The authors discuss change in gender roles and gender relations at work and home for employed women. Kelkar et al. (2002) conducted field research in Delhi and Bangalore. The authors interview 64 individuals- 30 women and 5 men in Bangalore and, 25 women and 4 men in New Delhi (Kelkar et al. 2002). The interviewed women were working in- teleworking centres, call centres, medical transcription centres, computer training centres, cyber cafes, web designing centres, software companies and NASSCOM (Kelkar et al. 2002).

Kelkar et al. (2002) claim that women do paid work in order to improve their social position. Women challenge patriarchal relations both at home and workplace, enhance their agency and avoid dependency and coercion of the family through their employment. Women's employment has been changing traditional gender roles and relations; however, it has not transformed them completely. Rather, a struggle and negotiations are observed (Kelkar et al. 2002).

The authors suggest that women's entry into the labour market has improved their socio-economic position at home but their family roles and responsibilities continue to dominate in their personal lives (Kelkar et al. 2002). This also affects their career growth. The study notes several instances which demonstrate these events and practices.

Kelkar et al. (2002) interview a woman working in marketing. The authors argue that marketing is women dominated sector because women are considered better at building a rapport with a client, possess better communication skills and, are more sincere and thorough (Kelkar et al. 2002).

Women are expected to travel more; however, at the same time they are expected to balance both work and home. Most women have mothers/in-laws/housekeepers to support them (Kelkar et al. 2002). The housework remains women's responsibility and is unshared or minimally shared (Kelkar et al. 2002). Men contribute in the housework only when a woman is travelling, while only a few men are equal partners in sharing tasks at home with their wives (Kelkar et al. 2002).

On the other hand, women are unable to fulfil additional implicit responsibilities at work that contributes to their career growth. For instance, the authors note, at work, official responsibilities include taking the team or client out for a drink to build a closer relationship. However, women often lag behind in such activities due to their household responsibilities (Kelkar et al. 2002). In this context, a respondent working as deputy general manager in IBM Company expresses:

"Women are typically left out of this team-building, drinking camaraderie, because they prefer to go back home, especially, if they have a child" (Kelkar et al. 2002).

In another instance, Kelkar et al. (2002) report gendered notions and practices in finance sector. The authors suggest that finance is also a women dominant sector. It is because women are perceived to be honest, less demanding, cheaper, and hard-working than men.

Women tend to accept less salary due to considerations such as location, timings, social network and firm loyalty (Kelkar et al. 2002). Thus, money is not the only criterion for women (especially for mothers) to choose a particular job as they are expected to balance responsibilities at home and in the office (Kelkar et al. 2002).

With respect to women's physical mobility, Kelkar et al. (2002) state that women's employment in the IT-ITES sector suggests weakening restriction on women's physical mobility as a large number of single unmarried women has been staying in cities away from their parental homes.

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Traditionally, Indian women were not allowed to travel or live alone. They are often accompanied by a male family member (Kelkar et al. 2002). Thus, such findings also inform migration of unmarried women to cities for employment purpose which is a recent development in the Indian society.

Working in night shifts, particularly in call-centres, also indicate greater physical mobility of young women. Previous research suggests that a woman working in shifts at odd hours is a new phenomenon in the Indian society. For instance, Singh and Pandey (2005) argue that it was once a taboo for women to travel or go out after dark but now they are even allowed to work in night-shifts. McMillin (2006)[12] claims that woman's night shifts work is no longer derogated but rather glorified. Hence, findings indicate a positive shift in traditional norms, attitudes toward women's work and their physical mobility in urban areas (Singh and Pandey 2005).

Tara and Ilavarasan (2009)[13] come to the same conclusion with regard to the augmented physical mobility of women in response to their employment in call centres. The authors report an increase in the number of women working in night shifts in call centres, suggesting a decline in restrictions on their movement.

The authors further assert that parents are extending their support and allowing their daughters to work in night shifts in call centres, indicating a significant change in parental attitudes toward daughter's work (Tara and Ilavarasan 2009).

The study finds that both mother and father, even if the former has been a housewife, want their girls to work in order to be independent (Tara and Ilavarasan 2009). The researchers cite an interview with the father of one of the respondents:

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[12] McMillin (2006) conducts ethnographic field research in call-centres in Bangalore. The author employs several methods in the study. For instance, she conducts participant observation in two call centres in addition to in-depth interviews with 40 employees from 6 call-centres in Bangalore. Moreover, the researcher also interviews newspaper, radio and TV reporters who cover call-centres stories. In addition, the author extracts relevant information from media and public libraries in Bangalore. Hence, all cumulative information is used for the paper and the results are presented qualitatively.

[13] Tara and Ilavarasan (2009) conduct 39 in-depth, semi-structured interviews with women call-centre workers and their parents in Delhi and Jaipur. The study examines the nature of parental support to unmarried women working in call-centres.

"Today everybody is working and people ask about your daughter as well, and if she is not working then they talk about her marriage. I always wanted that my daughter should also work to be independent. Night shift was a little concern, but when we saw that the cab facility is good and other girls from the colony were also going then we also agreed" (Tara and Ilavarasan 2009).

Likewise, the mother of the woman respondent expresses:

"I have always been a housewife, but I wanted all my three daughters to be financially independent. XYZ (name of the respondent) was not good at studies but her English was fine, as she used to study in English medium school. She was not willing to have higher education but I wanted her to be financially independent like her sisters, so we thought if this sector (call centre) is providing her job with good money and good working conditions with cab facility then why not" (Tara and Ilavarasan 2009).

These empirical findings show that the family's attitude is positively changing towards young women's work. The positive attitudes and parental support are enabling women to work even during night shifts as it is desired by the call-centre industry. However, at the same time, research indicates that family support is restricted to unmarried women.

Women are not expected to work in night shifts after marriage. Married women do not receive sufficient support from in-laws family to continue working in night shifts. Women then have to quit job if they do not find better job with suitable working time somewhere else.

Working at night and in rotating shifts after marriage are claimed to be incompatible with family demands (McMillin 2006; Singh and Pandey 2005; Tara and Ilavarasan 2009). Both married men and women find difficult to balance work and family life if working in night shifts (McMillin 2006; Singh and Pandey 2005).

Especially, married women often feel more disadvantaged to work in night shifts. In this context, a woman respondent who quitted the job expresses:

"When I was unmarried, my father allowed me to work in night shifts of call centre but my parents-in-law did not agree to it, because I have to work at home as well. Before marriage, my mother used to take care of my needs, but now I have to take care of the needs of my husband and parents-in-law. So call centre job with rotating shifts is not possible without the support from the family members" (Tara and Ilavarasan 2009).

In the light of conflict in women's worker and family roles, Kelkar et al. (2002) acknowledge restrictions on physical mobility[14] of married women, in turn

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[14] Restrictions on physical mobility results into constrained interfirm mobility.

affecting their career advancement. The authors state that women with children are unable to exploit opportunities (Kelkar et al. 2002).

Even if women's participation in the IT-ITES industry has increased, their physical mobility continues to be restricted due to the presence of children. Mothers are bound by domestic and childcare responsibilities which make them less mobile than men in terms of changing job frequently (Kelkar et al. 2002).

The study suggests that the percentage of women who move from one company to another for better opportunities is very small (Kelkar et al. 2002). The household responsibility and societal barriers make it difficult for them to change jobs frequently (Kelkar et al. 2002). This makes them less competitive with regard to exploiting job opportunities (Kelkar et al. 2002). In this context, a woman respondent who was working as a senior manager in a software company remarks:

"I am already in a senior position in this company. To move beyond this, I have to go abroad, but due to my responsibility to kids and household, I cannot take a job abroad even if I get one. There is no such restriction on my husband" (Kelkar et al. 2002).

In another interview with a woman manager, Kelkar et al. (2002) demonstrate the extent to which childcare responsibilities continue to affect women's career growth:

"I wanted to ensure that I had enough time for my kids, so I opted for a job with less pay, even though they offered me a higher position. However, now I find myself with less pay, I still do all the work that a senior person would normally do. I have no time, and I have made a bad career move by opting for a lower position" (Kelkar et al. 2002).

The empirical evidences elucidate that childcare and other household responsibilities of women have not reduced despite the fact that the total time available for housework has reduced due to women's paid work (Kelkar et al. 2002). Working women are assumed to be 'full time' responsible for housework.

Women take help (both paid and unpaid) from other women to carry out the tasks. For instance, women in joint families share childcare responsibilities with other women in the family, while women in nuclear families hire housekeepers and women child tenders (Kelkar et al. 2002). Yet, women continue to be burdened with household and care responsibilities.

Shanker (2008)[15] examines the effect of women's employment in IT sector on gender relations at home and workplace. The author suggests that women's participation in the IT industry has greatly enhanced their socio-economic status and physical mobility (Shanker 2008). However, their emancipation is largely limited to the public sphere, domestic lives of highly educated women have not greatly changed (Shanker 2008). They continue to be under the hold of patriarchy.

Shanker (2008) claims that women are not able to challenge patriarchal relations as they have internalised the unequal system of gender relations. In addition, women continue to assume bigger responsibilities for household work. Shanker (2008) notes the excerpts from an interview with one of the respondents:

"Ever since I got married to this home, I have lost my financial independence. In the first week of every month, I hand over my full salary to my husband. Later, he gives me money for my expenses. I don't want to regret because this was an unwritten agreement we had before marriage, and I agreed to it" (Shanker 2008).

In another interview, a woman software engineer expresses:

"My elder brother was just a diploma holder with not a huge income, and hence he was not getting good offers from respectable families in marriage market. Finally, my parents began fielding me against him and got into exchange offer where I had to marry a diploma boy and the boy's sister who was an engineer in turn, had to marry my brother. Everybody thought this was a perfect arrangement and now we are all in marriage. But I am sure that both the girls were not very keen with the offer, but had to compromise due to family bonds and pressure" (Shanker 2008).

The study findings demonstrate that despite being highly educated and employed in IT sector, women are not able to exercise their socio-economic agency.

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[15] Shanker (2008) employs several research methods in the study. The author collects both quantitative and qualitative data. The survey's (quantitative) information is used as complementary to qualitative interviews. More precisely, it is used as a background information on several topics. Hence, the author presents the descriptive analysis using small survey information, while no causal analysis has been conducted. Shanker (2008) conducts a survey in selected 30 software firms in Bangalore. The survey was conducted at three levels- human resource department, women workers and cross-section of people related to the IT industry including a few male workers. At first stage, the author conducts "exhaustive interviews" with heads of human resource department. She employs random and snowball sampling methods, and selects 10 HR personnel from different IT firms working at managerial level. At second stage, the author interviews 40 women engineers and 20 women HR personnel. The researcher employs systematic random and convenient sampling method to select the respondents. The interviews were both open-ended and semi-structured. At the third stage, the author organises a group discussion with 10 informants from a cross-section of the society, connected to the IT companies (Shanker 2008).

Women continue to be under the grip of patriarchy and rationalise unequal gender relations (Shanker 2008).

In contrast, Singh and Pandey (2005) in their study on call centres conclude that changes are taking place in the Indian patriarchal society. Employed women, through their educational and economic independence, are challenging patriarchal and traditional norms. They are bargaining to create their voices and spaces in the male-dominated public and private sphere.

In this light, Kelkar et al. (2002) claim that women's status in the family and society is directly proportional to their status at the workplace. Women employed in the ITES sector (such as call centre and back office work), where they had no prospect to advance in their careers, felt little change in their social status. On the other hand, women in management positions noted a rise in their familial status (Kelkar et al. 2002).

Kelkar et al. (2002) find that women in higher management in the IT industry reported less unequal gender relations at home and consequently exercised more decision making power. Simultaneously, the study also finds contradictory trends regarding women's decision making power. That is, in some cases women exercise autonomy at home, while in some cases decision-making power lies with the men. Nevertheless, women's financial autonomy is largely limited to their own earnings as all major decisions concerning income and property were taken by the approval or in consultation with the men (Kelkar et al. 2002).

In this context, Kelkar et al. (2002) note the excerpts of interview with one of the respondents:

> *"I just hand over my salary to my mother-in-law and get house-keeping money from her. All financial decisions are taken by my husband and in-laws. Of course, they keep me informed about it"* (Kelkar et al. 2002).

The empirical evidence indicates toward more patriarchal values and unequal power relationships internalised by a woman than exercising financial autonomy. Such ignorant attitudes of women are harder to change to create equal system of relationship in family and society.

Several studies on women's employment in IT-ITES sector have exclusively focused on women working in call centres (Clark and Sekher 2007; McMillin 2006; Singh and Pandey 2005; Tara and Ilavarasan 2009). The authors have addressed several aspects of women's work in call-centres. For instance, wages and working environment, women's career aspiration, inter-sector mobility and socio-economic status of young working women are explained. The next section examines the major findings of these studies.

Singh and Pandey (2005) investigate the effect of women's employment in call centre on their health, family life and decision making powers. The authors survey 100 women in call-centres located in Delhi and NCR and present findings descriptively. The study finds that predominantly young and unmarried women work in call centres. The majority of women are in the age group of 18-25 years. A few women in their 30s and 40s were also employed (Singh and Pandey 2005).

Similarly, McMillin (2006) suggests that individuals working in call centres are young and between the age group of 18 to 45 years. Shanker (2008) also informs that the majority of women working in IT sector are young, highly educated and belongs to urban areas. The author's findings indicates that 77% of the workforce was in their 20s, while 23% of the workforce was in 30s (Shanker 2008).

Gothoskar (2000) suggests that her interviewees working in a back office of an airline company were between the age group of 22-23 years old. According to Clark and Sekher (2007) a large number of 'young' women are employed in the ITES sector. All of the women respondents in the authors' study were between the age group of 20 and 36 years (Clark and Sekher 2007). Hence, empirical evidences clearly indicate that the Indian IT-ITES sector as well as its workforce is predominantly young and highly educated.

Singh and Pandey (2005) further state that the majority of the women working in call centres is concentrated at the lower and middle level, primarily working as junior and senior customer care executives, while men tend to move upward. The authors find a large number of women employees in call centres that had not attained any promotion in the organisation (Singh and Pandey 2005). This is because women move out of employment due to demands of marriage, children

and household responsibilities by the time they are likely to get the promotion (Singh and Pandey 2005).

In a similar context, Kelkar et al. (2002) also find that in core IT segment more women are working at lower position as technology managers, team leaders and project managers. However, at the same time, it is also argued that those women who work either in call centres or perform low end activities in the ITES sector do not see such jobs as their *career destination.*

Rather, such jobs are seen as a stepping stone for desirable career in the future (Clark and Sekher 2007; Gothoskar 2000; McMillin 2006; Ng and Mitter 2005; Singh and Pandey 2005; Tara and Ilavarasan 2009). Since call centres are easy to get a job with higher wages and better working environment, women intend to move to another firm after accumulating work experience.

Singh and Pandey (2005) claim that women join the call centre industry due to higher wages and a better working environment. Often, no other sector or occupation offers higher wages similar to the IT-ITES sector. In this context, Clark and Sekher (2007) observe that one of the study respondents joined call centres to earn quick money to meet financial needs at home. The woman employee expresses:

"Work in call centre was monotonous. The concept of call centre in India was new four years ago. All we knew was that salary was really good! They were paying Rs 130,000 ($2045[16]) annually. Before, I worked in an Indian industry for 2 years where I was paid only 4,000 ($63[17]) per month. So there was a huge increase in the salary from 48,000 ($755[18]) per year for working in an industry to 130,000 ($2045[19]) per year for working in call centre" (Clark and Sekher 2007).

Another woman respondent says:

"Call centre is a place for earning money and not building career. In the beginning, one can start earning from Rs. 13,000-14,000 ($205[20]) per month. However, as you accumulate more experience you can earn Rs. 20,000 ($315[21]) per month" (Clark and Sekher 2007).

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[16] Amount in dollars calculated on the basis of current conversion rates, as on July 20, 2015.
[17] Amount in dollars calculated on the basis of current conversion rates, as on July 20, 2015.
[18] Amount in dollars calculated on the basis of current conversion rates, as on July 20, 2015.
[19] Amount in dollars calculated on the basis of current conversion rates, as on July 20, 2015.
[20] Amount in dollars calculated on the basis of current conversion rates, as on July 20, 2015.
[21] Amount in dollars calculated on the basis of current conversion rates, as on July 20, 2015.

Ng and Mitter (2005) study call centres in Malaysia and India. The authors employ case-study methods to understand work-life experiences of women working in call-centres in these two countries. However, I only discuss case-studies conducted in Indian call centres[22].

Ng and Mitter (2005) state that women working in call centres in India appreciate their job. The higher wages offered by the industry enable women to exercise freedom and autonomy as traditionally, women's physical mobility, income and spending power were controlled by the men (Ng and Mitter 2005). In fact, highly educated working women were also disadvantaged due to prevailing strong patriarchal attitudes.

The authors' find an interviewee enjoys working in the call centre as it offers good salary in addition to good working environment resembling with her college days (Ng and Mitter 2005). The respondent had been working in the call centre for the last 2 years and was earning Rs. 12,000-13,000 ($205[23]) per month with social security benefits such as provident fund and health insurance (Ng and Mitter 2005). According to the respondent, the call centre job is less stressful in comparison to her previous job in a commercial bank (Ng and Mitter 2005).

The respondent further expresses that the call centre job is challenging and provides her opportunity to know about the world (Ng and Mitter 2005). In addition, it is a good site to earn well after graduation (Ng and Mitter 2005). The job has given her a sense of freedom and lot of self-confidence. The training and money earned at the firm contributed to her individual growth (Ng and Mitter 2005).

Ng and Mitter (2005) interview another call centre employee, Deepika. The authors note:

"Deepika joined the call centre in 2003 as it offered her better salary and career opportunities. She has been trained in hotel management and finds call centre work less stressful than the hotel industry. Shifts are shorter and the working time is fixed. According to her, call centre companies value graduates from hotel management courses due to their work discipline and the

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[22] The second author, Swasti Mitter conducted case-studies in India. Due to several challenges of getting information at company level, the researcher interviewed call-centre women employees outside their offices. Two call-centres were selected- one a sub-contractor, based in New Delhi and other a subsidiary of an overseas company, based in Bangalore.

[23] Amount in dollars calculated on the basis of current conversion rates, as on July 20, 2015.

training in people management they undergo during the course. Moreover, she believes that call centre provides good working environment for women due to which more women are joining the industry in large number" (Ng and Mitter 2005).

In brief, the authors' findings indicate that good salary and good working environment are main pull factors drawing young women in call centre jobs (Ng and Mitter 2005). Call centre jobs are claimed to be less stressful than jobs in other sectors such as bank or hotel industry.

Gothoskar (2000)[24] examines several aspects of teleworking in the light of the changing nature of work, workplace and work organisation in contemporary times. In particular, the author investigates the implications of teleworking for women. Gothoskar (2000) interviews two women and one man working in a back office of an airline company[25]. The respondents were engaged in data processing activities such as checking PNR number, pre-flight and post flight checks.

The author informs that majority of the employees were in their first job and all workers were unmarried at the time of interview. Discussing the working environment respondents express:

> *"We have very interesting things happening at work, like we have regular company picnics which are fully paid by the company. Then we have also very regular 'days-away'. On the 'days-away', we are taken to a five-star hotel and we can just enjoy ourselves, all at company expense. It is real cool. Even at the workplace, the atmosphere is very informal"* (Gothoskar 2000).

Clark and Sekher (2007) interview a woman working in BPO[26]. The woman respondent reported to join the BPO industry after finishing her university degree in commerce. According to the respondent her work is related to the insurance. She performed activities such as indexing and adjusting claims for several

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[24] Gothoskar (2000) conducts interviews with individuals (especially women employees) working in different occupations in Mumbai. The study respondents are drawn from industries such as media (mainly journalists and researchers), accountancy, publishing, software development, off-shore computer-related work such as ticketing and billing. The respondents were employed in-house, outsourced teleworkers and self-employed. The total number of interviews conducted is not provided by the author.

[25] For the purpose of the current study only those interviews are chosen where employees work in the ITES sector. Interviewees working in other occupations such as journalism or in publishing are not reported here.

[26] Clark and Sekher (2007) employ narrative-enquiry method. The authors conduct narrative-enquiry among 35 individuals: 16 recent female college graduates with ITES sector work experience, 15 young women studying for MBA-equivalent certificates and 4 young men studying in the same educational programme. All individuals were drawn from Bangalore city.

American companies. The respondent suggests that she likes her work although it does match to what she studied at university (Clark and Sekher 2007).

While discussing the personal growth and career aspirations of women, Ng and Mitter (2005) argue that women working in call centres have benefitted from their work as they have learned new skills such as communication, listening and inter-personal skills and technical competency. The training received at the firm has boosted the self-confidence and enhanced the personalities of the young women (Ng and Mitter 2005).

In this context, Ng and Mitter (2005) observe:

"She was a reserved and shy person before starting this job, but after the training she gained so much confidence and knowledge that she can face anyone and talk boldly".

Furthermore, women are claimed to be work-oriented by several studies. Women aspire for a career in IT-ITES sector and intend to continue working post-marriage as well (Clark and Sekher 2007; Ng and Mitter 2005). However, some women expressed to be temporarily out of the workforce around childbirth so long as children need mother's attention (Clark and Sekher 2007; Ng and Mitter 2005).

Apart from offering a good working environment and good salary, studies reveal several disadvantages of the work in these industries which contributes to job dissatisfaction and lead to frequent job changes by the employees. In particular, the monotonous, repetitive and boring nature of work (especially in call centres and ITES) has been reported by previous research.

Gothoskar (2000) notes the excerpts of an interview with workers (both men and women) in a back office of an airline company:

"….but to tell you the truth, the work itself is very boring. There is nothing creative or challenging in the work itself. Some-times, we wonder what we are doing here. Many of us have confided in each other that we feel like crying. At least we know some of the girls who have said that. The main problem is that there is no variation in the type of work we do. Also sometimes we feel what is this doing to us? Are we learning anything at all? Even boys feel the same. We are stuck here because after becoming permanent we get advantages for family for travelling foreign. That is why there is very high employee turn-over. People stick on for a maximum of 1 to 2 years" (Gothoskar 2000).

Ng and Mitter (2005) also acknowledge that the job in call centres is highly boring, repetitive and monotonous leading to high employee turnover. This is also observed by Kelkar et al. (2002) in interviews with women working in medical transcription (comes under ITES sector). The respondents inform that:

 "Work is repetitive and boring, and also quite stressful if the team leaders or production mangers are not very good. However, they were happy to be away from housework, i.e. away from the everyday drudgery of housework for at least few hours" (Kelkar et al. 2002).

In another interview, a woman working in call centre in Delhi says:

"Although the work is monotonous but I do not want to quit this job because it is closer to my home" (Kelkar et al. 2002).

In addition, previous findings report health issues faced by the IT-ITES workers (Clark and Sekher 2007; Ng and Mitter 2005; Singh and Pandey 2005). Ng and Mitter (2005) observe health issues such as weight loss, throat and back pain. In this context, a woman working in a call centre states:

"When you are working in night-shifts, biologically you are changing the whole routine of your life. You sleep in the day and work in the night. It was ok for 2-3 months, but after a whole year you would have medical problems. The fun was gone. You cannot stay long, so the attrition is high" (Clark and Sekher 2007).

Singh and Pandey (2005) claim that the majority of women workers in call centres was suffering from one of the health hazards such as backache, earache, leg cramps, spondylitis, sleep disorder, indigestion, eye strain and headache.

Upadhya and Vasavi (2006) extensively address several issues in the IT industry in India in their report *Work, Culture and Sociality in the Indian IT Industry: A Sociological Study*. This report, in general, presents a comprehensive guide to the researcher about broad range of topics that one can explore in detail[27]. Here, I

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[27] Upadhya and Vasavi's (2006) work is an outcome of a long term research project carried out in both India and Europe. The project was pursued from November 2003 to March 2006. The research is qualitative in nature and is aimed at producing in-depth knowledge of several topics investigated in the report. In addition, the authors conduct a small survey in IT-ITES firms to generate some quantitative data. The field research in India was conducted in Bangalore for over 18 months, while a 4 months field research was carried out in: The Netherlands, Belgium and Germany. Upadhya and Vasavi state that they "spoke" with nearly 600 people connected with the IT-ITES industries, in Bangalore and in Europe, including employees at various levels and their families, managers, HR executives and consultants. Moreover, the researchers spent over 80 days observing training programmes, work practices, meetings and company social events. Lastly, additional 50 days were spent in filming activities in 3 software firms in Bangalore.

discuss only those aspects of the report which are relevant for the current study. The authors' report focuses on men employees in the IT sector; thus, the arguments primarily refer to the behaviour of men workers.

Upadhya and Vasavi (2006) describe interfirm mobility behaviour of male workers in the IT industry. The authors suggest that their findings do not confirm the claims made by the IT industry about job hopping behaviour of IT professionals. The study findings indicate that 39% of the respondents had worked only in one organisation, while 33% had worked in two firms at the time of the interview. Only 16% of the individuals had worked in four or more firms (Upadhya and Vasavi 2006).

The findings of Upadhya and Vasavi (2006) are in contrast to the popular image of IT professionals as job hoppers. With respect to the duration in a firm, the authors suggest that 34% of the individuals spent 4 to 6 years in the current firm, while 13% of the male workers had spent over 7 years in the current firm. The average time spent by the individuals in the current firm is 3.5 years.

The authors further argue that age makes a difference in interfirm mobility behaviour. The study findings suggest that only 18% of the respondents aged 31 years and above had worked in one firm, while one-third were in their second firm and another one-third of the respondents had worked in four or more organisations (Upadhya and Vasavi 2006).

Hence, the findings suggest that interfirm mobility is higher in the beginning of the career especially among young workers who newly join the industry (Upadhya and Vasavi 2006).

Upadhya and Vasavi (2006) compare interfirm mobility of individuals within the IT sector with interfirm mobility in other sectors of the economy. The authors state that:

"The corporate tradition in India has been, until recently, close to the European pattern of life-long employment- at least in the public sector industries. However, the IT industry has tended to reproduce the American 'hire and fire' culture, perhaps because it has emerged in close relationship with American corporations" (Upadhya and Vasavi 2006).

The findings indicate that the IT industry has produced a new work culture in which changing job every 2-3 years is considered normal. Changing firm is often seen as the best way to climb the corporate ladder as well as a sign of personal growth (Upadhya and Vasavi 2006).

Other researchers also support this claim. Kelkar et al. (2002) argue that those individuals who change job faster rise faster in IT-ITES sector. Changing jobs is a key to career development in this sector. Women often lag behind in such strategies due to their household and childcare responsibilities (Kelkar et al. 2002). Consequently, women stay longer in a job as compared to men (Kelkar et al. 2002). This also results into delaying their promotion.

In brief, IT companies in India tend to promote and replicate contemporary American corporate culture, which values labour flexibility and individual achievement over long standing employment relationships (Upadhya and Vasavi 2006). This is in contrast to European (especially German) firms where individuals tend to stay longer in the firm (Upadhya and Vasavi 2006).

Nevertheless, despite all the high claims of the IT-ITES industry about job hopping behaviour of workers in these industries, Upadhya and Vasavi (2006) do not find evidence that could support industry claim except instances of interfirm mobility among young workers who newly the IT-ITES industry (Upadhya and Vasavi 2006).

In addition to employment in the IT-ITES sector, researchers have examined women's employment in urban context. Sudarshan and Bhattacharya (2009) investigated the determinants of women's workforce participation in Delhi. The authors analyse determinants of women's decision to work, type of work, constraints faced by them and perceived cost and benefits of engaging in paid work (Sudarshan and Bhattacharya 2009).

Sudarshan and Bhattacharya (2009) conducted household survey in Delhi. The sample is representative of the city of Delhi. The survey was conducted face-to-face with head and members of the households, using questionnaire. Hence, the study examines 448 households across 58 blocks in Delhi.

The authors' findings suggest greater workforce participation of women in Delhi than recorded in the National Sample Survey. The study reports 21% of the female workforce participation, while 24% labour force participation. The findings however indicate lower LFP rate for married women in comparison to unmarried women. The LFP rate is 19% for the married women and 43% for the unmarried women (Sudarshan and Bhattacharya 2009).

The study claims that decision to work outside home is usually a *family decision* (Sudarshan and Bhattacharya 2009). The authors find that 69% of the working women did not work prior to marriage rather decision to enter into labour market was taken after marriage. It implies 'consent and encouragement' of the spouse in women's work (Sudarshan and Bhattacharya 2009).

In addition, it indicates changing attitude of husband towards wife's work and his implicit desire to have a working partner in order to enhance standard of living and economic status of the family (Clark and Sekher 2007).

Sudarshan and Bhattacharya (2009) further point out that women continue to assume greater responsibilities for household and care work. The time spent on care work is high and working women are not able to reduce their household responsibilities. The results suggest that on average working women spend 5 hours per day on housework/childcare in addition to 6 hours on paid work, while non-employed women spend, on average, 7 hours on housework and care work (Sudarshan and Bhattacharya 2009).

The authors also mention labour market mobility of women in terms of change in occupation or place of work. The study informs that 24% of the women change jobs a few times to advance their career (Sudarshan and Bhattacharya 2009).

In brief, the authors conclude that the majority of the women in their sample were regular salaried employees. Women's economic contribution to the family is visible. However, domestic responsibilities and reproductive roles influence women's decision to paid work. Care work is high which adds to the women's responsibilities and makes work-family balance harder (Sudarshan and Bhattacharya 2009).

3.3. Critical Evaluation and Summary

The studies reviewed above offer valuable insights on several aspects of women's employment in IT-ITES sector. The impact of women's employment in IT-ITES sector on gender roles, gender relations at home and work, enhanced socio-economic status, and personal and professional growth is discussed. In brief, the studies suggested that a large number of young and educated women has been increasingly participating in employment in the IT-ITES industries.

Women's physical mobility has increased in response to their employment in these industries. Traditionally, women were confined to home. Until few decades ago, it was nearly impossible for a single, unmarried woman migrating to cities for work. Young women appreciate the IT-ITES sector and employment opportunities offering higher wages and good working environment by this sector which is harder in public sector job or any job in other industries.

Several studies demonstrated that many women after finishing university education (especially women with non-technical educational background) begin their work career with call-centre jobs. Employees are required to work in rotating and night shifts in call centres. The unmarried marital status does not pose any constraint in call centre jobs or any ITES sector jobs that require working at night or in rotating shifts. Women receive full parental support and enabling environment to work in any shift demanded by the job.

However post-marriage, call centre jobs or a job with rotating shifts are seen as incompatible with family demands. It is because married women are considered responsible for household duties and taking care of the family needs unlike single women where parents take care of family needs. It suggests that family support to women's work depends on her role. Women's paid work is supported by the parents, while, after marriage, as a woman becomes wife/daughter-in-law, the support for her employment gets restricted and conditional.

Married women are expected to work only during standard working hours. Thus, almost all studies conclude that women overwhelmingly remain burdened with childcare and household responsibilities despite that one-third of women's time goes in paid work. Women's overindulgence in household and care work affects

their career as they are unable to fulfil implicit work requirements contributing to the career growth.

The research surveyed contributes to the greater understanding of young women's employment in the IT-ITES sector. However, women's interfirm mobility behaviour remains an under-researched topic. We do not know why women change jobs. How many jobs women change? What determines their job moves? How long do they exactly stay in a job? Some studies that touch-upon interfirm mobility behaviour of workers in the IT-ITES sector were discussed. However, these studies refer to either men's interfirm mobility behaviour (Upadhya and Vasavi 2006) or briefly mention women's job moves (Kelkar et al. 2002).

Previous studies mention the constrained nature of women's interfirm mobility due to childcare and household responsibilities, but no convincing evidence is presented (see Kelkar et al. 2002).In brief, to date, there exists no study that systematically examines women's interfirm mobility behaviour and the influence of family roles on their job changing decision. So far, the topic is not causally investigated.

An additional drawback in the existing research is of a methodological nature. Previous studies (cf. Kelkar et al. 2002; Upadhya and Vasavi 2006) describe interfirm mobility behaviour of individuals based on qualitative data. That is, researchers explain workers' interfirm mobility behaviour through qualitative interviews with few individuals. The sample size is usually smaller due to which researchers cannot go beyond the 'told' factors of interfirm mobility.

Due to the qualitative nature of the research, the scholars have been unable to explain determinants of the restricted nature of women's interfirm mobility. The children and household responsibilities are claimed to be responsible for women's lower interfirm mobility (Kelkar et al. 2002), but the causality has not been established.

Other studies which employ own survey in the IT-ITES firms and address several other issues report their findings only descriptively (cf. Shanker 2008; Singh and Pandey 2005). The results are more informative, while they lack convincing

evidence and external validity. Therefore, a topical and methodological research gap exists with respect to women's interfirm mobility behaviour.

Against this backdrop, the current study aims to fill this gap by investigating women's interfirm mobility behaviour and the effect of marriage and children on their job changing decision. The current study is the first that comprehensively studies women's interfirm mobility behaviour in the Indian IT-ITES sector in conjunction with their family roles.

To fulfil this goal, the present study employs own survey data (N=295) and employs advanced statistical technique, i.e. piecewise constant exponential technique of event history analysis. In addition, the study offers valuable and interesting insights on young women's work and family attitudes. Thus, in brief, the study covers crucial aspects of women's work and family life.

The study findings contribute to several domains. In addition to the contribution to existing body of knowledge, the study findings are expected to be useful for the IT-ITES sector. The findings can help developing internal firm policies aimed at promoting better reconciliation of work and family life for women. The results and suggestions can be used to initiate gender-equal policies at the firm level. For instance, by offering parental leaves or longer paternity leaves, firms can induce male workers interest in sharing childcare responsibilities.

Similarly, the study findings and insights are expected to offer suggestions for formulating female-friendly policies at both state and national level which may include- erecting state-funded quality childcare services. In a nutshell, the study is expected to be insightful for stakeholders in various domains. The next chapter discusses theoretical framework and hypotheses that guides further analysis.

4. Theoretical Framework

4.1. Introduction

This chapter employs two theoretical approaches to explain the interfirm mobility decision of women and the effect of marriage and motherhood on their job mobility decision. The two approaches are- 1) rational choice theory (RCT) and 2) value of children (VOC). I examine the extent to which RCT fits better in explaining micro-level phenomena, i.e. individual decision to change job(s), while VOC approach helps explaining- *how* and *in what terms* children pose constraints in women's interfirm mobility decision[28]. In this light, the chapter first provides a brief overview of emergence of rational choice theory in sociology and its few underlying assumptions. Afterwards, I discuss its application to the present study.

This is followed by outlining the main assumptions of value of children approach that are relevant for the current study. The VOC approach is used to demonstrate the importance of children to the mother and the family which in turn, restricts women's labour market outcomes. That is, VOC helps interpreting the extent to which presence of children affects women's interfirm mobility decision. Thus, VOC approach is used as an interpretive device to understand the effect of children on women's job changing decision instead of testing its own theoretical assumptions.

The current study expects that children have negative effect on mobility rates; thus, the focus is to examine *how* and *in what terms*, children appear as

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[28] Constraints are one of the main assumptions of RCT. In the present study, I assume children as constraint. However, in order to clearly demonstrate that *in what way* children pose constraints in women's interfirm mobility decision, I use VOC theoretical approach. This is because new home economics cannot be completely applied to the Indian context where children are considered natural and altruism function is high. Not having children nearly does not exist. Although, it is true that children consume time and energy and they are consumption goods until adult age; the perception of children as only *consumption* goods may not be true in many cultural settings. Rather, it is more an investment by the family due to altruism and long term benefits of children. Thus, the question of *how* and *in what terms* children pose constraints to mothers is important to understand given that children are natural.

'constraints' in job changing decision of women, as said above. Children are born within marriage but the presence of children has a gendered outcome. Few decades before, childbirth or having small children did not have any consequences for women as the majority of them were full time mothers. Hence, there was a clear division of work between men and women. Women took care of the home, while men were earners. However, in line with women's entry into paid work, their time previously available for home has divided in work and family, while men have continued their role as earners.

Simultaneously, the reproduction continues (with low fertility), the ideology of motherhood and importance of children remains intact for the mother, family and the society in general. That is, children are natural and must be born after marriage but the responsibilities linked to children continue to be the women's task. It suggests the prevalence of traditional gender role attitudes in the Indian society that oblige women with full time childcare responsibilities which undermine their worker's role and lead to limited availability of time for the family demands. Thus, these factors cumulatively result in limiting women's labour market outcomes. In the current study, they help interpreting the constrained nature of women's interfirm mobility decision.

4.2.   Rational Choice: An Idea Borrowed from the Economics

It is suggested that the focus on the individual as 'unit of analysis' was strengthened by the development of decision and game theory that resulted in the popular use of the term rational choice (Lindenberg 2006). In general, RCT became popular in sociology since the 1970s. It has been expanding since then and being applied in various analysis of sociological problems (Hedström and Stern 2008; Lindenberg 2006). However, originally the idea was borrowed from neo-classical economics (Coleman 1994).

It is further argued that RCT in sociology is influenced by RC applied in neo-classical economics (Heckathorn 2005; Hedström and Stern 2008). The only distinction between RCT in sociology and RCT in neo-classical economics is that the social organisations and social institutions are largely missing in neo-classical

economics, while they play a major role in sociology (Coleman 1994; Heckathorn 2005).

Heckathorn (2005) states that "Rational choice in sociology studies of what is left out of the market model, including the web of norms and hierarchies in which markets are embedded and upon which they rely to establish and secure systems of property rights and define norms of economic conduct". In contrast, only 'perfect market' is assumed the only institution prevalent in neo-classical economics (Coleman 1994).

The social organisations and social institutions in sociology (considered as fixed and given) constitute a structure within which choices are made and which translates these individual actions into systemic outcomes (Coleman 1994). That is, social structure is assumed to shape the macro social outcomes. Thus, RCT in sociology is the combination of an assumption of rationality on the part of individuals but replacement of the assumption of perfect market with social structure which carries individual actions into systemic outcomes (Coleman 1994). In this light, the following section elucidates main assumptions of RCT.

4.3. Basic Underlying Assumptions of RCT

Methodological individualism

The overarching goal of the use of RCT is to explain a macro phenomenon through *individual action/behaviour*. Sociologically, this is termed as *methodological individualism*. The assumption of methodological individualism is at the centre of RCT aimed at explaining macro (social) phenomenon through individual action (Friedman and Hechter 1988; Goldthorpe 1998; Heckathorn 2005; Lindenberg 2001, 2006; Scott 2000; Voss and Abraham 2000). Elster (1989) expresses:

> *"The elementary unit of social life is the individual human action. To explain social institutions and social exchange is to show how they arise as the result of the action and interaction of individuals".*

It is claimed that the individual as the basic unit of analysis began to gain prominence since the 1950s having replaced household, firms and states as basic units of analysis (Lindenberg 2006). It was since the 1970s that methodological

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individualism and rational choice entered in sociological domain and grew bigger since that time (Lindenberg 2006).

Rational choice theory makes few more assumptions in addition to methodological individualism. It includes- active or goal oriented individual, preferences, constraints and rationality. All assumptions of RCT operate in the light of full or partial information being possessed by an actor. That is, an actor is assumed to have full or partial information of the situation in which s/he is going to act. These assumptions are briefly discussed below.

Active agent or actor

In RCT, an actor is considered to be an 'active agent'. That is, actors act actively and they are not passive, subject to learning only (Lindenberg 2006). In contrast, Simon (1957) had argued that 'man' is docile in social terms[29]. S/he is considered as *passive* actor embedded in social surrounding (Simon 1957). However, as opposed to this traditional assumption about an actor being passive, RCT assumes an actor as inherently 'action' oriented. He is purposive and intentional (Friedman and Hechter 1988).

Being an active agent refers to actors search behaviour- to the interest in regulating the effects of other people's behaviour (regulatory interest), to entrepreneur and risk taking behaviour, and to investment behaviour[30] (human capital and social capital) (Lindenberg 2006).

In a nutshell, an actor is a 'producer' in daily life (Lindenberg 2006). Expanding this common understanding of rational actor, Goldthorpe (1998) argues that

"rational action may be understood as action of an 'outcome oriented' kind in which certain requirements are met regarding the nature of, and the relations among-actor's goal, their beliefs relevant to the pursuit of these goals and the course of action which, in a given circumstances they then follow".

Goldthorpe (1998) describes the common understanding of rationality in which 'numerical strength' seems decisive force in conferring an act as 'rational' or

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[29] In the work of Simon "Two Models of Man: Social and Rational" the author see an actor as passive and embedded in surroundings.
[30] This refers to the investment in education in relation to its expected returns. Similarly, social capital as a result of investment in social networks that contributed in emergence of social capital theory.

'irrational'. According to him, it is not the act in itself which is rational instead it has to be 'recognised' as a rational or irrational act by the 'majority'. In his words,

"if rational action theory is adopted, it need not to be claimed that all actors at all times act in an entirely rational way rather it is the tendency to act rationally, is the most important common factor, i.e., non-idiosyncratic factor at work. The 'law of large numbers' will then ensure it is rational tendency that dominates" (Goldthorpe 1998).

At this point, a question arises, what does being 'rational' mean? In what sense, an individual is a rational actor? The term rational in RCT refers to the "more or less intelligent" way of seeking goal under given opportunities and constraints. According to Lindenberg (2006),

"Human beings pursue goals and that, being confronted with opportunities and limitations for reaching their goals, they do so in a more or less intelligent way".

Thus, rational refers to the more or less intelligent way (Lindenberg 2005, 2006). At the same time, the phrase 'more or less intelligent' entails certain assumptions based on which an actor takes decision which is then considered 'intelligent'. In brief, in the RCT approach, an actor is assumed to be inherently intelligent, while his/her actions are goal oriented (Hedström and Stern 2008; Lindenberg 2006; Voss and Abraham 2000).

An actor is assumed to be intelligent or knowledgeable enough to know the expected (future) consequences of his/her action (Voss and Abraham 2000). This is why, an individual chooses the best 'action' that is likely to give him/her the 'expected results' (Voss and Abraham 2000). According to RCT, individuals act rationally to satisfy *"the preferences or maximise utility"* (Coleman 1994). Hence, actors are considered conscious decision maker whose actions are significantly influenced by the cost and benefit analysis of different action alternatives (Hedström and Stern 2008).

In a nutshell, the central idea is that individuals are resourceful in their goal pursuit, they can think of new ways of achieving a goal and can adapt to the changing environment (Lindenberg 2006). It is also suggested that human beings learn from past experiences apart from making certain expectations about past, present and future. Situations are made meaningful in terms of goal pursuit (Lindenberg 2001).

Principle of maximization or optimization

Individuals being rational, act to 'maximize utility' (Coleman 1994). All actions of individuals aim at 'maximization'. Maximization is an assumption about the process of choosing alternatives that relates to actor's goals. The assumption of maximization states that human being wants their goal realised in such a way that in every situation, the best alternative is chosen (Lindenberg 2001).

That is, since individuals are goal oriented, and once the goal is known, the action taken will be the one that the individual perceives to be most efficient to achieve the goal (Coleman 1994). The assumption of maximization is suggested at the heart of rationality (Lindenberg 2001). It is the source of deductive power of RCT in both sociology and neo-classical economics as well (Coleman 1994). An act of utility maximization is the engine that drives the system (Coleman 1994).

Alternatives (Opportunities) and Constraints

Despite being an intelligent enough an individual is confronted with the *opportunities* and *constraints* in the course of pursuing goals (Friedman and Hechter 1988; Lindenberg 2006; Voss and Abraham 2000). In order to pursue a goal an individual is endowed with several alternatives (opportunities) or set of actions. Individuals act rationally to satisfy preferences, as said above (Coleman 1994).

However, an actor also faces constraints even if s/he has several opportunities. Constraints may emerge from limited resources available with the individuals and within such conditions an actor has to make decision to achieve the goal (Friedman and Hechter 1988; Lindenberg 2006). The limited resources may include time, money, budget, and market process of goods and so on (Voss and Abraham 2000).

Restrictions may also emerge from social structure or institutional arrangement (Friedman and Hechter 1988; Voss and Abraham 2000). For instances, school rules; laws and ordinances; firm policies, churches or hospitals are some of the examples of social institutions that constraint individuals action available to him/her, while they either raise or lower the net benefit of any thoughtful course

of action (Friedman and Hechter 1988). At individual level, the nature of constraints will depend upon the nature of goal pursued.

Bounded Rationality

Bounded rationality suggests having partial or incomplete information of the situation in which an actor acts (Lindenberg 2006; Voss and Abraham 2000). According to Simon (2000)

"*Bounded rationality is simply the idea that the choices people make are determined not only by some consistent overall goal and the properties of the external world, but also by the knowledge that decision makers do and do not have of the world, their ability or inability to evoke that knowledge when it is relevant, to work out the consequences of their action, to conjure up possible courses of action, to cope with uncertainty (including uncertainty deriving from the possible responses of other actors), and to adjudicate among their many competing wants*".

Rationality is bounded because these abilities are severely limited (Simon 2000). In similar line, Jones (1999) states that

"*Bounded rationality asserts that decision makers are intendedly rational; that is, they are goal oriented and adaptive, but because of human cognitive and emotional architecture, they sometimes fail, occasionally in important decision*".

That is, individuals making choices are intendedly rational. They want to make rational decision, but they cannot always do (Jones 1999). Dequech (2001) observes that

"*In most cases if not all, the expression bounded rationality is used to denote the type of rationality that people (or organisation) resort to when the environment in which they operate is too complex relative to their limited mental abilities*".

Thus, bounded rationality adopts an explicitly behavioural instance in which cognitive limitations of decision makers are taken into account (Jones 1999). This is because rational behaviour in the real world is as much determined by the "inner environment" of people's mind, both their memory contents and their processes, as by the "outer environment" of the world in which they act, and which acts on them" (Simon 2000).

According to Voss and Abraham (2000) the basic principle of bounded rationality is that actor uses situation specific decision rules. An actor acts as a 'bounded rational' when s/he is having imperfect information of the situation. In economic sociology, the approach of bounded rationality is used in the analysis of markets, contracting and organisation (Lindenberg 2006).

Within the study of organisations, the RCT is applied to analysing several topics such as job design, recruitment process (avoiding adverse selection), governing employment relations such as aligning interest, creating credible commitments, offering efficiency wages, seniority rules, internal labour market, grievances procedure (Lindenberg 2006).

The assumptions of RCT in sociology, as explicated above, presents the critique of neo-classical economics. Over a period of time, few more assumptions have been added by the sociology (Coleman 1994). Those assumptions are- gaining utility by giving up control, social capital, social origin of rights, and institutions (Coleman 1994). In the next section, I briefly discuss the concept of 'institution' for conceptual clarity, as explained by Coleman (1994).

Institutions or Organisations

RCT has been increasingly used to study economic institutions. According to Coleman (1994), the understanding of RC sociology on institution is distinguished from neo-classical economics as latter assumes the existence of a 'perfect market' as the only institution. However, gradually neo-classical economists has also recognised the existence of firms as an institutions that led to the development of theories of the firm (Coleman 1994; Voss and Abraham 2000).

The analysis of organisations is carried out in terms of allocation and coordination and it focusses on two types of actors: individual and corporate actors (Voss and Abraham 2000). Individuals are generally the unit of analysis when intra-organisational processes and problems are to be discussed (Voss and Abraham 2000).

In this context, the constraints on actions due to organisational structures are of interest. In addition, organisations provide a given social structure which determines choice and behaviour of the actors within it, while individuals are rational actors (Voss and Abraham 2000).

According to Coleman (1994), institutions play two important roles in RCT- institutions combine individual actions via relation (3), as seen in figure 4.1, from

the level of individual actors to bring about systemic outcomes. Thus, market institutions redistribute resources at prices which depend on particular institutions. For example, bureaucratic institutions are structured in such a way that they coordinate actions of individuals in position to bring about joint outcomes (Coleman 1994).

The second role played by institutions in RCT is the translation of systems states via relation (1) (in the figure 4.1) to affect individual actor's orientation. Communication media is one of its examples. By determining the individual's cognitive world, these institutions can affect actor's preferences and thus actions. In part this occurs through framing effects, in part simply through selective transmission (Coleman 1994).

Figure 4.1: The interrelation of the macro (structures) and micro (individuals) level
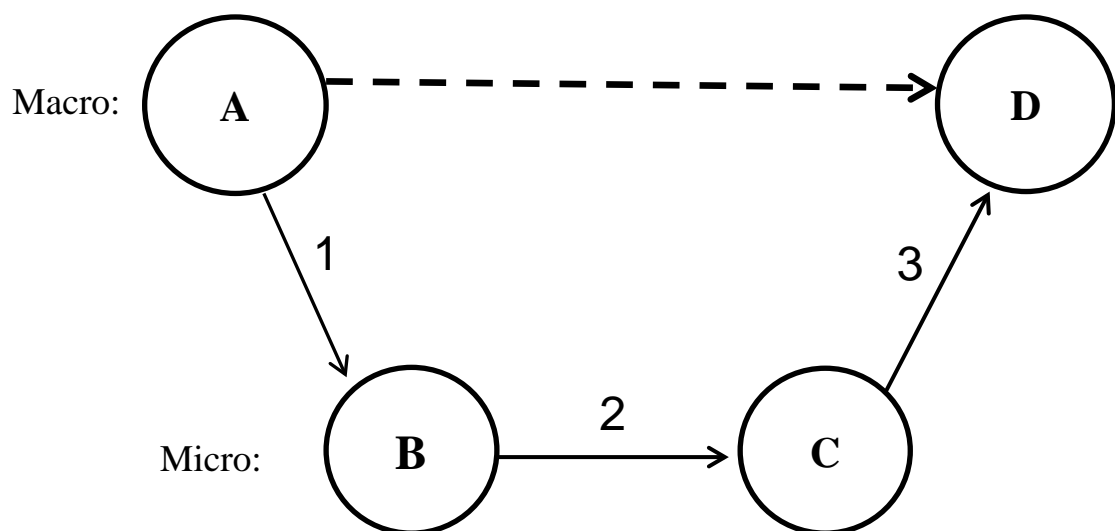
A. Actions of others or other relevant environmental conditions
B. Individual reasons or other orientations to action
C. Individual action
D. Social outcome

Source: Coleman (1990).

4.4.　　The Application of Rational Choice Theory to Analyse Women's Interfirm Mobility Decision

The overarching goal of using rational choice theory is to explain macro social phenomena through individual action. However, the individual decision does not operate in isolation. It is influenced by internal and external forces. In other words, the decision of an individual itself is an outcome of both internal and external forces which influences them, shapes the orientation and behaviour of individuals and, allows them to arrive at a particular decision. It is then an individual action which contributes to macro level social outcome. This is presented by Coleman's scheme of macro-micro linkages, as shown in figure 4.1 (Coleman 1990).

The main goal of the current study is to examine the interfirm mobility decision of women. The *unit of analysis* is job change. The time women spend in a job- is a *dependent* variable in the present study. Mobility from first and second job is analysed. Those women who leave first job move to second job, while those women who leave second job move to third job. Therefore, women move between the employers.

To note, the study does not consider the time gap between leaving the first firm and joining the second firm. There may lay some possibilities that some of the women may have spent time in temporary unemployment, either voluntary or involuntary. The study does not take that into account as the purpose is to examine job changing moves of women and the extent to which marriage and motherhood affect their job changing decision.

In light of the study goal, rational choice presents a theoretical model which allows developing and testing hypotheses to examine interfirm mobility decision of women. The hypotheses in turn contribute to confirming or rejecting some of the assumptions of rational choice theory. That is, a decision is an outcome and there exists a procedure with its both visible and invisible attributes that I attempt to explain with the help of RC and VOC theoretical approaches.

The topic of job mobility research was pioneered by Aage Bottger Sørensen (Sørensen and Tuma 1981; Sørensen 1975, 1977, 1979). The author's central

theoretical argument of status and income attainment, as purpose of job mobility, is derived from the rational choice theoretical assumptions of utility maximization and rationality of an individual. According to Sørensen, the individual's behaviour is aimed at attainment.

That is, within a given structure of opportunity and constraints, individuals attempt to maximize income and status. Individuals aim at attaining status (non-monetary rewards) and, income (monetary rewards) through job change. The status or non-monetary rewards include- promotion or attaining prestigious position and, upward occupational mobility. The income or monetary rewards include- higher wages and additional monetary perks and benefits such as bonus, gift vouchers and performance related perks which has monetary value.

Both monetary and non-monetary rewards depend upon the time an individual spends in a firm, her/his educational attainment level, age and on-the-job training (Sicherman and Galor 1990). If an individual does not attain these expected rewards within a firm in an expected time period, s/he is more likely to leave the firm and move to the next employer (Farber 1994; Hachen 1990; Petersen and Spilerman 1990; Sicherman and Galor 1990).

Hence, according to the attainment argument which is in line with the RCT assumption of utility maximization, individuals aim to achieve status and income rewards by choosing best alternative. The alternatives may include- staying in firm or joining the next firm, if available. The choice of alternatives will depend upon availability of opportunities at a particular point of time and the nature of constraints faced at the time of making decision.

Due to this, some of the individuals end up staying in the current firm and some move to the next employer. The decision to stay or change the employer will constitute the best alternative for the individuals given their order of preferences and constraints faced at the time of decision.

In the current study, the RC assumption suggests that at the time of deciding to change a firm, a woman evaluates available alternatives and chooses the best alternative that gives her maximum utility. The opportunities include whether or

not she has best possible job somewhere else and it can give her expected benefits and rewards.

In other words, women employ cost and benefit (C&B) analysis to choose the best alternative to fulfil the goal. The goal is maximizing status and income. The question emerges- how does cost and benefit (C&B) analysis work in the case of interfirm mobility decision. Researchers have argued that individuals weigh the expected value of remaining in the firm against expected returns from leaving the firm (Petersen and Spilerman 1990).

If the expected value of leaving the firm is higher than staying in it (depending upon the time an individual has spent in it and alternatives available elsewhere) then individuals are more likely to leave the current firm and join another firm (Farber 1994; Petersen and Spilerman 1990).

That is, if individuals expect that they can attain expected rewards (promotion and higher wages) within expected time period in the next firm, in comparison to the current firm, they are more likely to move out. However, if the rewards are achievable in the current firm they will stay in it (Petersen and Spilerman 1990).

Thus, wherever attainment of rewards and utility is higher, an individual will choose that particular option. For instance, job change for career advancement is one of the examples for expectations of attaining higher rewards in the next firm (Petersen and Spilerman 1990) suggesting utility maximization.

RCT suggests that the nature of constraints depend upon the nature of goal pursued. In the current study, I expect that children act as constraints in women's interfirm mobility decision. Given the underlying assumption of maximizing status and income rewards, childbirth or presence of small children are expected to pose greater constraints as it limits women's abilities to reach maximum potential (Hachen 1990). However, to note here again, I interpret the constraining effect of children through VOC approach.

The question emerges- why children are constraints for women and in what terms they affect their employment outcomes. Is it because children demand exclusive attention, time and energy of women? But then why women continue to give

attention, time and energy to children? Can a mother afford to be ignorant towards a child?

In a society like India where voluntary childlessness nearly does not exist and children are considered 'natural', then what mothers are expected to do and why they are expected to do so? Does it also indicate towards the strong functioning of traditional gender roles in the society where only women are considered responsible for childcare? In the next section, I attempt to answer these questions through the value of children (VOC) approach.

4.5.   Value of Children: A Social-Psychological Perspective

The value of children approach is discussed to demonstrate the importance of children to the mother and the family. In the current study, the VOC approach will help us understanding *how* and *in what terms*, children pose constraints in interfirm mobility and limit women's potential to reach maximum. It must be noted that strong emphasis on having children combined with traditional gender role attitudes oblige women with family and childcare responsibilities which in turn affect their worker role.

The VOC approach was developed by Hoffman and Hoffman in 1973 in 'The Value of Children to Parents' (Hoffman and Hoffman 1973). This perspective is popularly described as 'supply based' explanation of utility of having children (Nauck 2007) as compared to the demand based economic theory of fertility (ETF), demonstrated by economist Gary S. Becker (Becker 1985; Gary Stanley Becker 1993; Nauck 2007).

It is suggested that a cost and benefit analysis of fertility decision in terms of having a number of children is common between ETF and VOC (Nauck 2007). However, the VOC approach aims at explaining fertility decision by taking into account 'cultural' or 'contextual' factors (Hoffman and Hoffman 1973; Nauck 2007). ETF approach heavily relies only on cost and benefit approach of fertility (Nauck 2007).

ETF approach can be applied and tested in the context of reducing fertility rates in India especially in the urban areas to investigate family's preference for less

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number of children[31]. However, it is less explanatory and less convincing in the context where children are considered natural and must be born within the marriage. It does not serve purpose of the current study for explaining socio-psychological dimension of having children and elucidating its effect on women's career.

Therefore given this gap in ETF, I draw theoretical support from VOC approach and employ it as an interpretive device to discuss the constraining effect of children on women's interfirm mobility decision. I do not intend to test the assumptions of VOC. In addition, I substantiate this approach with Indian findings on children and motherhood relationship.

The notion of ideal mother and son preference is as historical as the Indian society. They were popularly preached by the religious text through the ages (Bhattacharji 1990; Lakshmanna 2003). In contemporary urban India, dual-earner households are on the rise as a result of women's workforce participation. Women have begun to perform dual role of worker and wife/mother. This is especially evident among millennial women generation[32].

However, women's family role takes precedence over worker's role. That is, a woman is largely seen in the role of a mother and less as a worker in the family. Previous studies suggest that women remain responsible for housework and childcare responsibilities despite that their total time for housework has reduced due to their employment (Kelkar et al. 2002; Shanker 2008; Singh and Pandey 2005; Sudarshan and Bhattacharya 2009).

Thus, the question emerges why role of mother continues to be important for the children. Oppositely, why children continue to be important for the mother and the family as a whole? Why women (or families) in India continue to devote its

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[31] The Indian family size used to be bigger two decades before than contemporary times. For instance, according to census 2011, total fertility rate (TFR) in India is 2.4 per woman (Women and Men in India, 2013), while TFR was 3.9 in 1990 (World Bank). Thus, the ETF approach may explain family's preference for fewer children in a best way.

[32] Female millennial are those women who are born between 1980 and 1995. Millennial women are considered career-oriented and more self-confident than women of the previous generation. In the present study, 86% of the women are millennial women who are born between 1980 and 1995.
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most of the time (excluding when at work) on childcare activities. Why mother (and the family) makes economical and emotional investment in a child?

The answer of these questions is elaborated while discussing relevant assumptions of VOC in the following section as explained by Hoffman and Hoffman (1973) and Nauck (2007).

According to Hoffman and Hoffman (1973) "*value of children refers to the function they serve or the need they fulfil for parents*". The motivation to have a child depends upon, to a considerable extent, on the value of the child to the actor. Hoffman and Hoffman (1973) present the values into nine schemes[33]. Some of the nine values are briefly discussed.

Adult status and social identity

In general, girls are socialized to be mothers someday and a child grows up seeing a woman in this role. Motherhood is the normal culmination of the socialisation process for girls. Thus, the value of giving adult status and identity to women would appear to be the most influential with respect to the first child (Hoffman and Hoffman 1973).

In addition, authors suggest that parenthood establishes a person as a truly mature, stable and acceptable member of the community and provides him/her access to the other institutions of adult society (Hoffman and Hoffman 1973). In Indian context, it is suggested that a sense of personal fulfilment for Indian women comes through motherhood. A childless woman is considered as problematic (Nandy 2013). A child is highly valued in all segments of Indian society (Mishra et al. 2009).

Expansion of the self

Emphasis on continuity of the family lineage and family generation supports this value of having children (Hoffman and Hoffman 1973). This is particularly

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[33] Adult status and social identity; Expansion of the self, tie to a larger entity, "immortality"; Morality: religion, altruism, good of the group, norms regarding sexuality, impulsivity, virtue; Primary group ties and affiliation; Stimulation, novelty and fun; Creativity, accomplishment and competence; Power, influence and effectance; Social comparison, competence; and Economic utility are the 9 values.

evident in the Indian context where reproduction of son is strongly emphasised. In ancient India, marriage was primarily for the birth of a male child, for continuation of the line and, for the preservation and multiplication of wealth, safety and prosperity (Bhattacharji 1990).

This is also reaffirmed by the fact that in the ceremony for *garbhadhana* (impregnation) the payer is offered for male child; the *Atharvaveda* also prays for the male child (Bhattacharji 1990). Thus, in the Indian context, a male child is important for the continuation of family lineage as girls move out to the husband's house after marriage; hence, a son is needed in the family to take care of parents and the property.

Religion, altruism and norms regarding sexuality and impulsivity

Religion contributes to the definition of parenthood as moral. Traditionally, in almost all religions, there has been a greater emphasis on reproduction of children either as religious preaching or for religious purpose (Hoffman and Hoffman 1973).

This principle of VOC keeps immense importance in the Indian context. It offers an opportunity to take into account the ideology of motherhood propagated by the ancient Hindu texts which historically and traditionally have shaped gender roles in the Indian society.

The historian argues that in ancient India, motherhood played a very significant role. It was obligatory to train a girl to be a 'good wife' and 'good mother' and she used to be blessed with 'mother of sons' (Bhattacharji 1990). The author notes that *Upnishadic* text lays down the articles of food which the husband must feed the wife for conceiving different kinds of children, wise male, wise and intelligent female child (Bhattacharji 1990).

The *RgVeda* designates conception of a child as 'womb becoming raw' and number of rites is followed. Later, *Dharmashastras* and *Puranas* also laid down numerous vows for women who desired children (Bhattacharji 1990). As the time progressed, the vows to women for having a son got multiplied (Bhattacharji

1990). The higher the number of male children the higher is the status of women and the family in community and society.

Therefore, the texts suggest that in different time periods in ancient India, Hindu texts strongly preached and stressed on having children. Especially, reproduction of male children was strongly emphasised. These historical instances additionally indicate strong emphasis on women in mother's role. These historical ideologies have contributed to shaping gender roles in the society. Acceptance and continuance of such traditional gender roles has become integral part of Indian culture.

In regard to altruism, Hoffman and Hoffman (1973) suggest that having children provides the opportunity to be altruistic because of the sacrifices the parents must make. Not wanting a child may thus make one appear irresponsible and selfish. The explanation fits better in the Indian society.

The desire to presenting oneself as altruistic and avoid a selfish image has been shown in previous studies (Nandy 2013; Prakash 2008). Since children are considered natural in India, a (voluntary) childless woman is considered selfish and irresponsible (Nandy 2013). The author presents the excerpts from interview with one of the woman respondents who opted for voluntary childlessness:

> *"If people think I am selfish, so be it. But I would rather contribute to making a difference than making babies. And look at parents...all they do is 'cereals kha lo, doodh pee lo, exams mein pass ho jao' (eat your cereals, drink your milk, pass your exams). What about the stress on good values? People don't even want to know why they want kids...and if I really wanted a kid, I may have adopted. Why produce a new one when there are so many kids without parents?* (Nandy 2013).

This suggests the anxiety of childless woman and stigma associated with childlessness in Indian society. The idea of 'naturalisation' of having children is deeply ingrained in the minds of the individuals and society. Being childless leads to exclusion from the community and women are seen with no respect.

In the similar context, another study states "*it is easier to get sympathy that I am trying to start a family, rather than declaring, I am not interested*" (Prakash 2008). Moreover, additional stereotypes such as lazy, selfish and deviant are attached to the childfree women. Often women experience 'stigma' and feel 'awkwardness' due to opting for voluntary childlessness.

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Economic utility of children

Children are economically useful for their parents due to which the latter have a positive relation with the desire for having a large family. This is especially the case with families in rural agriculture settings. In contrast, the higher cost in raising children in urban areas is related with the preference for having a small family (Hoffman and Hoffman 1973).

In Indian context, children, in particular, sons are valued for their economic purpose. It is especially son who are valued higher than the daughters. Hoffman and Hoffman (1973) suggest that the economic value of children is expressed in terms of economic work performed by the children when they are young and security they provide in old age.

In addition, they are considered economically valued in bringing 'bride wealth' to the household. These examples largely indicate the pattern prevalent in agricultural societies where families use children labour in farm work. Thus, children labour is used for producing economic goods.

In urban context, the economic value of children is expressed differently. In urban areas, the cost per child is much higher than in rural areas. Further, salary of a father does not depend on the economic labour of the children (Hoffman and Hoffman 1973; Mishra et al. 2009). Thereby, children are not economically valuable for him so long as they are young and dependent.

However, children's value is realised in old age in terms of insurance, security and financial support (Nauck 2007). Due to these functions, children are important to the parents in old age, while until the adult age they are largely consumption goods for the family. But this does not imply, as economic theory of fertility suggests, that they are 'only' consumption goods for the family without any return. Rather, the value of children and benefits from them in old age itself is dependent upon, to a large extent, the cost incurred on them, from their childhood to the adult age.

The cost involves expenditure on education and physical well-being. Higher investment in education and physical well-being is likely to result in better

educational and career outcomes. This in turn, will enable children to give expected (or convincing) level of financial security and physical support to the parents in old age. For example, if children's educational and career outcomes are poor then their financial situation is most likely to be vulnerable.

Due to the weak financial status, the financial support and security to the older parents will be lower. It is because cost of living in urban areas is higher and increases in future. For an individual with sustenance level of income, it is harder to support aged parents in addition to their own family as the capabilities of individuals will be limited.

Thus, parents are aware that value of children and return from them in long run are itself dependent upon the time and money invested in raising them until they are adults. Then, this investment, in turn, will determine the economic value of children to the parents in long run. In this context, Poffenberger (1968) argues that in rural context small family is preferred due to the cost, yet cost is borne for the expected benefits in the old age.

In urban context, the economic and physical benefits of children are largely dependent upon the time and money investments in their early years by the parents. Except, some religious and social function to be performed by the sons (during marriage, after death and on other occasions) amount of investment will decide the degree of financial and physical support to them. Thus, given this context, children are not perceived as only 'consumption good' in Indian society unlike American or European society. Rather, to a great extent, they are seen as investment for the long run.

According to Nauck (2007) children fulfil social-psychological needs of parents at different stages of life. The author argues that human beings seek to maximize social esteem and physical well-being (Nauck 2007). The maximization is the result of specific perceived conditions. Here, maximization is perceived more in terms of 'subjective maximization' resulting from life-long parent-child relationship (Nauck 2007). On the other hand, "social esteem is defined as the extent to which an actor receives positive reinforcement by his/her social context

while, physical well-being is defined as the extent to which an actor is able to secure his/her physical survival (Nauck 2007).

According to Nauck (2007) physical well-being results from comfort and stimulation. Comfort can be achieved through productive labour, competition for scarce goods in the market, and effective organisation and cooperation, especially in the form of mutual insurance while, stimulation is mainly derived from any activities that produce arousal including mental and sensory stimulation" (Nauck 2007). Thus, the author claims that if any alternative actions provide greater social esteem and greater physical well-being, an actor is more likely to choose that alternative (Nauck 2007).

Children help to improve their parents comfort if they actively contribute to household production (Nauck 2007). Hence, they function as productive and not just as consumption goods. Further, the author argues that children's utility for optimizing parents comfort lies in their potential for income, work utility and insurance utility (Nauck 2007).

On the other hand, children's general utility for optimizing social esteem of their parents is their potential for social utility through status attainment and for dialogical-emotional utility in the quality of their parent-child relationship (Nauck 2007), as inter-generational relationships are constituted and largely characterised by dialogical interaction (Huinink 1995).

Mishra et al. (2009) employed VOC approach to analyse the value of children in rural and urban India. The authors find that children are valuable in all segments of the society. They are welcomed in Indian family as high emotional and traditional values are attached with the children (Mishra et al. 2009). An Indian mother derives a sense of fulfilment through motherhood role. The study supports the theoretical argument suggesting stimulation achieved from being a mother, especially in case of first child (Mishra et al. 2009).

The text discussed above suggests that children are highly valued in the Indian society. The purpose of marriage is to reproduce. The assumption of children as 'natural' is strong due to which voluntary childlessness is nearly unacceptable in the community and society. A woman in the role of a mother is respected. That is,

motherhood is honoured as mother plays an important role in raising children (Chekki 1996).

Women's status in the family and community is considerably improved by having children (Lakshmanna 2003). Thus, identity with the family and motherhood are given prestige and dignity in the Indian society (Rao and Rao 1982). It has been argued that *"womanhood in India is inseparable from motherhood and all that entails- is responsibility and the honour; everything else is of secondary importance"* (Madan 1976).

This suggests that children provide physical well-being in terms of giving comfort and stimulation to mothers (and the family). The stimulation may result from being a mother and watching a child growing up (Hoffman and Hoffman 1973; Nauck 2007). Children give more pleasure and sense of happiness to the mother. On the other hand, children raise the comfort level of parents by contributing in family income, helping in work and by providing security in older age (Nauck 2007). In brief, children are potential contributor in the family income, have work utility in terms of distribution of daily household work to more shoulders and certainly they are security to the parents in their old age.

However, as discussed above, I argue that the expected 'comfort' to parents from children, to a greater extent, will depend upon the investment made by the parents in children in their early years- from childhood to the adult age. It includes investment in- education, physical and emotional well-being. The higher the investment of parents in children, the higher comfort level can be expected.

The investment involves both economic and psychological (mental/emotional) types. The economic investment includes investment in education and physical health (well-being) of children. The investment in education will determine a child's educational and career outcomes which in turn, will determine his/her financial status and security in the long run. An investment in health in terms of providing sufficient and nutritious food will determine a child's physical and mental health.

The psychological investment involves forming an emotional bond with the child. It is expected to be built through mother's time as they continue to be primarily

responsible for childcare and child's socialization due to prevalence of traditional gender role attitudes and ideology of motherhood in the Indian society. That is, a mother primarily invests her time and energy for socializing a child- in inculcating good values, transferring knowledge of different life domains, building emotional, mental and physical capabilities and strengths.

Hence, mother is not only a primary caregiver to the child but she acts as an 'investor' that determines parent-child relationship in the long run. In a nutshell, the psychological investment is necessary for dialogical emotional utility of children and for healthy parent-child relationship in the long run which is the defining characteristic of inter-generational dialogical relationship (Huinink 1995).

It suggests that economic investment in a child is more likely to contribute to financial and physical support to the parents in old age, while psychological investment will ensure the long term dialogical (subjective) utility of children to the parents. Both investment will define and sustain the parent-child relationship in terms of providing the level of comfort to the parents when they are old. Nevertheless, some degree of comfort of children to the parents will always be there due to family structure and culture in the Indian society.

Furthermore, it is psychological investment by mother combined with emphasis on 'ideal motherhood' and traditional gender role attitudes in the Indian society that exert (moral) inner and outer pressure on women to devote a large amount of time and energy on childcare. The over indulgence in childcare along with full time paid job is bound to negatively impact career outcomes of women by not giving them scope to invest desirable time and energy in career advancement. Women's own desire to be mothers and seeing child growing up add to this phenomenon.

In light of these theoretical arguments, I expect that transition to motherhood or presence of small children is likely to decline women's mobility from the firm. Women are expected to stay longer in a job if they become mother or if they have small children. Hence, children pose constraints in women's attainment process by limiting their potential to reach maximum (Hachen 1990).

Based on theoretical arguments of RCT and VOC approach, as discussed above, the study expects that women's job changing decision is likely to be influenced by the cost and benefit analysis, utility maximization and constraints. Constraints are posed by marriage and motherhood, while maximization refers to status and income attainment. Maximization of status and income indicate attaining non-monetary rewards - promotion and monetary rewards- higher wages and additional monetary benefits. Maximization of these rewards is the central goal of individual's interfirm mobility.

4.6.   Rational Choice Theory and Empirical Research

This section elaborates those major previous researches which have contributed to enhancing the understanding of job mobility behaviour of individuals. The research has contributed in rational choice theory by extending its application to analysing various types of job mobility.

The job mobility must be understood in the light of underlying assumptions of attainment and utility maximization (Hachen 1990; Petersen and Spilerman 1990; Sørensen and Tuma 1981; Sørensen 1975, 1977, 1979). Individuals seek to maximize monetary and non-monetary rewards through job change. Especially, if they perceive it to be not achievable in the current firm they are more likely to move out and join another employer in the labour market (Petersen and Spilerman 1990).

According to Hachen (1990) individual attainment comes through a series of job change. Individuals quit the firm on optimal timing and the 'choice' of this optimal timing is aimed at maximising their future earnings (Sicherman and Galor 1990). Thus, interfirm mobility is aimed at maximising future rewards both monetary and non-monetary.

Job mobility (intra and interfirm) research has been primarily carried out in the context of industrialised societies. European and American researchers have particularly contributed to this area of labour market research. The majority of job mobility research appeared during 1990s (Burchell 1993; Farber 1994, 1999;

Hachen 1990; Krecker 1994; Petersen and Spilerman 1990; Rosenfeld 1992; Sicherman and Galor 1990), while few popped up in the 1980s (Carroll and Mayer 1986; Felmlee 1984; Topel and Ward 1988) and in the 2000s (Fuller 2008; García-serrano 2004; Horny, Mendes, and van den Berg 2009).

In particular, the tradition was begun by Sørensen who analysed intra-generational mobility of American workers and referred it as part of attainment (status and income) process by individuals (Sørensen and Tuma 1981; Sørensen 1975, 1977, 1979).

However, such knowledge is missing and the topic is under researched in the context of emerging economies like India where structural changes are rapidly occurring in the labour market due to the globalisation, liberalization and privatization processes in addition to educational expansion and entry of women to labour market. Especially, the topical gap remains in the context of IT-ITES industries which has been attracting young workforce and claims job hopping behaviour of individuals (Upadhya and Vasavi 2006).

Job mobility is considered as an indicator of individual attainment and the latter is defined in terms of job change (Carroll and Mayer 1986; Hachen 1990; Sørensen 1975). In other words, career development of an individual is an outcome of job change. Job shifts are thus the building blocks of individuals' career (Rosenfeld 1992).

Job mobility is one of the central processes of labour market which can take place within and outside firms. In case where workers move within the firm generally from lower to higher position is known as "promotion". It is also called as "intra-firm" mobility (Sicherman and Galor 1990). The transition from one employer to another is known as "interfirm" mobility (Farber 1994; Petersen and Spilerman 1990; Sicherman and Galor 1990). The present study focuses on interfirm mobility of women in the Indian context. It does not take 'promotion' as dependent variable rather event of interest is 'job change' by women.

In job mobility research several explanatory models have emerged over a period of time that aims at explaining determinants of job mobility rates from different perspectives. Such explanatory models include explanations at individual, firm

and sectoral level. Researchers have argued that since job shift is a decision that involves both the individual and the firm, it is expected that the job mobility rates are affected by both characteristics (Horny et al. 2009).

In brief, both individual and organisational level characteristics are decisive factors of workers job mobility (Carroll and Mayer 1986; Farber 1994; Hachen 1990; Petersen and Spilerman 1990; Sicherman and Galor 1990).

Individual level factors are cumulatively referred as 'worker's heterogeneity model'(Farber 1994) and 'reward resource model' (Felmlee 1984; Hachen 1990; Petersen and Spilerman 1990). The main purpose of both the models is same, i.e. explaining job mobility of workers through individual level characteristics. In the present study, I stick to the term 'worker's heterogeneity model' for the sake of convenience and clarity.

In worker's heterogeneity model, the heterogeneity is defined as the "*differences among workers in their probability of leaving a particular job conditional on workers characteristics and past labour force history up to the start of the job*" (Farber 1994). It suggests that job change is a function of individual level characteristics and accumulated work experience.

Farber (1994) stresses that the variation in probability for job change is a function of individual level characteristics that includes education, tenure and labour market experience. Job holders seek to maximize their rewards by moving to "better jobs" (Hachen 1990). Therefore, job changing is viewed as a function of individual resources in relation to current job rewards like status and earnings (Hachen 1990).

Worker's heterogeneity model aims at explaining 'employee initiated' moves targeted at upward (e.g. promotion) and between employer job shifts (Hachen 1990). Since rewards such as wages and promotion are dependent upon the individual resources (education, tenure and labour market experience), in the absence of achieving these expected rewards in the current firm, individuals are more likely to leave the current firm and move to another employer (Petersen and Spilerman 1990; Sicherman and Galor 1990).

Similarly, Hachen (1990) suggests that individuals with acquired resources (education and human capital) expect attainment levels where job rewards (earning and status) would be equal with their resources. Individuals seek to realise this expected attainment level by changing jobs[34] if they are unachievable in the current firm (Hachen 1990).

For this, workers choose an optimal quit timing and in turn, quitting serves as a device to realise optimal path of a chosen career (Sicherman and Galor 1990). In authors words, *"when a career that an employee considers his/her best choice cannot be realised in one firm (and the loss of firm specific human capital is taken into account), quitting that firm will be part of his/her optimal career path"* (Sicherman and Galor 1990). Thus, choice of an optimal timing of leaving a firm is aimed at maximizing their expected lifetime earnings.

Quitting a firm is an action planned in advance by the individuals (Sicherman and Galor 1990). Hachen (1990) also states that move between employers is a function of individual's attempt to maximize rewards. Workers try to maximize job rewards by moving to another job, as individual resources and job rewards are more related to interfirm moves than intrafirm moves (Hachen 1990).

Against the background, the individual level independent variables in the present study are- highest education, age at the time of entry into job, wages and additional monetary benefits, migrant status, marriage and motherhood status.

Firm level characteristics (Farber 1994; Horny et al. 2009; Rosenfeld 1992; Sicherman and Galor 1990) and sectoral differences (Carroll and Mayer 1986) also add to the explanation of workers job mobility rates (Petersen and Spilerman 1990). Researchers have recognised the importance of firm level characteristics in improving the understanding of job mobility behaviour of individuals in the light of prevailing inequality within the society (Horny et al. 2009).

It has been argued that if variation in job durations is driven by worker's characteristics then the ensuing inequality will be more persistent (Horny et al. 2009). However, in contrast, if the variation is driven by the firm characteristics

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[34] Hachen (1990) also suggests that individuals are more likely to stay in a job as they approach their expected rewards.

then re-structuring of the market in a sector can have large effects on inequality in the society (Horny et al. 2009).

Hence, in the current study, I examine the extent to which firm level factors explain variation in interfirm mobility rates of women. To note here, in the present study, the IT-ITES sector is treated as part of firm level characteristics. Due to the focus on one particular industry and selection of sample from the IT-ITES sector, the attributes of two different sectors cannot be compared with each other. In brief, the firm level factors in the current study include- working time, sector, job position of women, promotion and working conditions. Both individual and firm level characteristics explain interfirm mobility behaviour of women. They are discussed as following.

1.   Education

Education reflects the job reward potential of an individual (Felmlee 1984). According to Sicherman and Galor (1990) education provides individuals with human capital which subsequently raises their future earnings through two channels: directly, via the potential returns to schooling in certain occupations, and indirectly through the improvement in their career path. It suggests that in the USA context, the number of years of schooling determines the probability of wages of an individual in the labour market, while each additional year of schooling (or more numbers of years of schooling) increases the probability of an upward mobility in the individual's career.

In the context of industrialised societies, previous research has abundantly shown that highly educated women are more likely to be employed at any given point in time than low educated women (Becker 1993; Bowen and Finegan 1969; Klerman and Leibowitz 1994; Leibowitz and Klerman 1995; Spitze and Waite 1980; Sweet 1973). This is primarily because education is considered as a measure of earning potential of an individual; thus, the more educated a person is, the better job she is able to get and she is more likely to be employed at particular time period (Felmlee 1984).

However, such mainstream assumption of human capital theory is challenged in job mobility research as it is argued that the effects of education on lateral movement are theoretically still open (Blossfeld, Golsch, and Rohwer 2007).

Previous studies find mixed effect of education (Farber 1994; Felmlee 1984; Hachen 1990; Petersen and Spilerman 1990). For instance, Petersen and Spilerman (1990) find mixed effects of education on job leaving rates for career or personal reasons, while it has a clear positive effect on promotion rates. Similarly, Farber (1994) finds the interfirm mobility rates of those having 13-15 years of education as not different from those having 12 years of education. However, individuals with less than 12 years of schooling have lower job mobility rates (in terms of having few previous jobs) (Farber 1994).

Felmlee (1984) and Hachen (1990) find the positive effect of education on job mobility rates. Felmlee (1984) studies women's rate of leaving a job to become non-employed (unemployed or out of the labour force). She finds positive effect of higher education on women's probability of leaving the job. She suggests that highly educated women are more likely to leave the job either to go directly to the next employer or they spend some time out of work and then join another employer.

Hachen (1990) finds the positive significant effect of higher education on exit rates. The author studies several types of exit rates and distinguishes between voluntary and involuntary job exits. In a nutshell, the author's findings suggest the positive effect of higher education on all types of quit rates (Hachen 1990). The effect is positive and statistically significant on transition rates from voluntary job changes to joining another employer (interfirm mobility) and, from voluntary job quit to go out of the labour force. In brief, in the studies discussed, the authors suggest the positive effect of education on different types of job mobility rates.

The above previous research has been carried out in the context of the USA where number of years of education is taken into account for the analysis of different types of job mobility. However, in the context of Germany, Carroll and Mayer (1986) argue that it is a type of schooling and type of degree received by

an individual that matters in the labour market. This is because extensive training is given to all workers in Germany. The authors' findings suggest positive effect of education on different types of job mobility rates. The education has significant positive effect on mobility across (interfirm) the firm (Carroll and Mayer 1986).

In the Indian context, job mobility research is a new phenomenon which has resulted from restructuring of the labour market and the globalisation process. Previous research has touched upon this issue but has not comprehensively studied, as elucidated in previous chapter (Kelkar et al. 2002; Upadhya and Vasavi 2006). Due to scant research, a clear effect of education on job changing behaviour of individuals has not been shown. Therefore, based on the qualitative findings of the previous studies, I infer the direction of the effect of education on job changing decision of women in the IT-ITES sector.

Upadhya and Vasavi (2006) study core IT sector in which individuals work as software professionals and software engineers. It indicates that workers working in core IT segment possess specific technical degrees in technology, engineering and IT. They are known as IT professionals. The authors suggest that individuals (primarily men) are more likely to stay with the first or second firm (Upadhya and Vasavi 2006).

The study (qualitative) findings do not show job hopping behaviour of individuals. It is only in the beginning of a job, majority of young men (primarily in their early 20's) are inclined to frequent job changes. But men aged 30 years or above are more likely to stay in the firm for longer duration (Upadhya and Vasavi 2006). Based on Upadhya and Vasavi (2006) findings, it is expected that women who possess technical degrees (and work as technologists like software engineers or IT professionals) are likely to stay longer in a firm. They exhibit lower interfirm mobility.

In addition, since individuals with IT educational background are highly valued in the IT sector due to which it is expected that they have better job-employee match. Their longer stay in a firm is related to accumulation of job specific human capital which contributes to their career development. Hence, in order to

accumulate job specific human capital, individuals are expected to spend longer time in a firm which declines their job changing rates.

In contrast, women with non-technical degrees in disciplines such as arts, commerce and science are expected to have higher interfirm mobility rates. That is, women are expected to stay shorter in a firm, while they are more likely to move between the employers. The expectation is based on the assumption that these women work in ITES sector where there exist higher chances of education-job mismatches. It suggests that apparently women are highly educated with university degrees or above, the work they perform in ITES sector does not match with their qualifications.

These circumstances expectedly induce job-employee mismatch due to which job dis-satisfaction arises, and women workers try to find better job-education match by changing employers. This claim is based on several illustrations provided by previous studies. Existing research suggest that many individuals begin their work career in 'call centres' (part of ITES sector) or in any firm in ITES sector that is not intended to be their career destination. Such jobs serve as stepping stones for fresh graduates who are just out of college and transit to labour market (Clark and Sekher 2007; McMillin 2006; Tara and Ilavarasan 2009).

In this regard, Ng and Mitter (2005) suggest that the majority of the workforce in call centres are young, single women and mainly fresh graduates. They are the preferred workforce in this industry as a certain type of dynamism, communication and IT skills are required to care for the customers (Ng and Mitter 2005). However, the call centre industry is not perceived to build career by majority of the individuals.

Rather, the call centre industry is good for earning quick money and to accumulate work experience. Hence, based on the findings of the previous studies it is expected that women with non-technical university degrees who are not trained in technical disciplines and work as non-technical workforce, primarily in the ITES sector are likely to have higher interfirm mobility rates. It is due to bad job-employee match and job shopping behaviour (Johnson 1978) of the

individuals. Such assumption is anticipated to inform the importance of particular type of education and skill demand in these industries.

2.   Age at the Time of Entry in Job

Age is one of the important determinants of job mobility rates. Petersen and Spilerman (1990) find the negative effect of age on job leaving rates and promotion. In addition, the effect of age on job leaving rate is smaller. The authors suggest that the older a person is and the longer he or she has been in the company the less likely s/he is to leave or get promoted in the same firm (Petersen and Spilerman 1990). Further, according to Sørensen (1979) job mobility declines with age because opportunities for even better jobs decline as the level of attainment already achieved increases.

In the context of Indian IT-ITES sector, Upadhya and Vasavi (2006) report that male employees aged 30 years or above are likely to stay longer in a firm. It is rather men in early 20s who frequently move between the employers (Upadhya and Vasavi 2006). In line with empirical findings, the negative effect of age is expected on interfirm mobility rates. That is, increase in age declines women's mobility from the job.

3. Wages and Additional Monetary Benefits

Wage is a function of education, ability and labour force experience (Sicherman and Galor 1990). Burdett (1978) argues that workers change jobs when they receive a wage offer higher than their current wage. Over time, workers are sorted into progressively higher wage jobs, and the probability that a subsequent offer exceeds their current wage declines (Burdett 1978). Consequently, the probability of job change will decline.

Similarly, if expected level of attainment is already achieved in the organisation, the job quit will decline (Hachen 1990). According to Blossfeld et al. (2007) an employee will only leave a job when a better job is available outside, but if the higher attainment level is already achieved then it will be harder to find a better job in a given structure of opportunity.

In brief, researchers suggest that if the expected level of wages or income attainment is already achieved in the organisation, the workers are less likely to change the job as they are less likely to find attractive offers outside the current firm. However, in contrast, if they do not receive expected level of wages, they are more likely to quit the current firm and move to another employer.

In this light, in current study, wages are expected to have negative effect on interfirm mobility rates. Those women who receive higher wages in the job are likely to stay longer in the firm as compared to those women who do not receive higher wages and additional monetary benefits.

4. Migrant Status

In the USA context, researchers have analysed the effect of job changes on decision to migrate (Bartel 1979), or migration decision is treated as a type of job mobility that results into wage growth (Yankow 2003). Sjaastad (1962) suggested that migration occurs when the discounted value of real income available at a potential destination exceeds than at the origin by more than the cost of moving. Further, moving costs may be substantial- search expenditure, forgone earnings, direct out-of-pocket expenses, as well as the psychic costs of leaving family and friends which are weighed by an individual against expected benefit of relocating (Sjaastad 1962).

In addition, lifecycle factors play a prominent role in migration decision (Yankow 2003). They affect individual's perception of cost and benefit of migration (Yankow 2003). Another study also indicate that workers may change job several times in their new location as part of an assimilation process (Borjas, Bronars, and Trejo 1992).

In brief, the majority of the studies on migration and job mobility inform about the effect of geographic mobility (made as part of job change) on wage growth in working lifecycle. That is, the dependent variable is either job migration or wages.

In the Indian context, we do not know the extent to which individual's status as a migrant affects his decision to change employers, especially those of women. The

effect of migration on interfirm mobility of workers is under-researched so far. We do not know whether or not migrant workers differ in their job mobility decision than native workers.

Given this gap, the study expects that migrant women are likely to have lower interfirm mobility rates than women belonging to Delhi and NCR. That is, women belonging to other states of India are likely to stay longer in a job. The negative effect is based on the following assumptions.

It is assumed that women belonging to other states have migrated to host city (Delhi and NCR) for the work purpose. In some cases, though some women may have accompanied their spouses after marriage and then entered into labour market. However, the majority of the women are expected to have migrated for their own employment purpose.

To support this argument, previous research suggests presence of a large number of single unmarried women in IT-ITES firms located in big cities like Bangalore and Delhi (Kelkar et al. 2002). The study assumes that these migrant women are economically more vulnerable than native women workers because the latter enjoy economic benefits of living with parents so long as they are unmarried.

Even after marriage native Delhi women workers often own house in the city either of their own or of their parents in law. As a result, they do not have to spend a major share of their income in rent and other living cost. On the other hand, migrant women have to compulsorily spend a major portion of their income on rent, living cost and other utilities for survival in the capital.

Given this situation, they face greater possibilities of economic crisis than native women if they become unemployed. In an unexpected economic crisis, migrant women are also less likely to turn to their own families for economic support as it defeats their purpose of migrating to the cities for employment and earnings. Since, to a great extent, they lack safety nets and social network to rely upon in the times of economic necessity; the migrant women are likely to stay longer in a firm once they enter.

Women would like to avoid such situation by staying longer in a job until they get good job offers outside the current firm. However, having information of good job opportunities outside the current firm itself depends upon possessing information of the labour market and access to social network. It is assumed that migrants in comparison to native workers possess less information of the labour market and they often lack wider social network in host city.

Hence, job search is expected to be much costlier for them due to imperfect information of the labour market and lack of social network that facilitate in sharing information of job opportunities available in the labour market in city of work. Given these considerations, migrant women are vulnerable to social and economic capital due to which they are expected to spend longer duration in a job until they find better match outside the firm.

In contrast, native women have comparative advantage over migrant women in these two aspects. Availability of wider social network gives them benefit of having better labour market information and knowledge of available good job opportunities. In addition, living with parents and non-mandatory expenditure on utilities provides them better economic safety net. Thus, job search is likely to be relatively less costly and enable them moving between the employers faster.

5. Marriage and Motherhood

Children are expected to have negative effect on interfirm mobility decision of women. Transition to motherhood or presence of small children augments women's duration in a firm due to which they are less likely to leave the job. The rationale is elucidated in the previous section of this chapter.

Similarly, marriage is expected to constraint women's interfirm mobility. Women are likely to stay longer in a firm if they get married or if they are already married. It is expected due to addition in their household responsibilities as suggested by the previous research (Kelkar et al. 2002; Shanker 2008; Sudarshan and Bhattacharya 2009). Constraints emanating from marriage affect women's career growth negatively.

Traditionally, Indian society puts greater emphasis on wife and mother roles as ideals of "good wife" and "good mother" are heavily cherished which continue to affect women's labour force participation. These roles bring additional family responsibilities for women in comparison to their unmarried marital status. Married women and mothers are expected to take care of household duties and family needs. Especially, household and care work is often high for the Indian women.

Previous studies have found women's over-indulgence in household work along with their paid work. For instance, researchers suggest that Indian women on average spend 5 hours on household work in addition to paid work. Time spent on care work is also high (Sudarshan and Bhattacharya 2009).Thus, such cultural expectations (caused by prevailing traditional gender role attitudes) either limit women's labour force participation or restrict their job mobility to further advance their career if they are employed.

Against this background, marriage in addition to motherhood is expected to decline women's mobility from the firm. They pose constraints in women's interfirm decision and limit their abilities to reach maximum potential (Hachen 1990).

6.   Working Time

The effect of working time on interfirm mobility behaviour of individuals is under researched so far. We do not know the extent to which working time affects job mobility rates. However, working time has gained significance in the research on work-family balance and women's labour force participation. It assumes importance in the light of women's family responsibilities at the same time keeping them attached to the labour market with right balance between the two.

In this regard, flexible working hours are argued to enable women balancing work and family roles in a less stressful manner in comparison to fixed working hours. Therefore, the present study is aimed at testing the effect of working time

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hypothesis on job changing decision of women. Working time was measured in the survey in terms of fixed and flexible shifts[35].

Work in shifts is a new phenomenon in the Indian labour market. It has begun since Indian economy has become more globalised and linked with global markets after 1991. In general, labour market researchers distinguish the terms "flexitime" with that of "work shift" which are explained as following.

a. Flexitime

It refers to having a schedule that allows the worker to choose when to begin and end the work (Rosenfeld 1996). In the American context, findings have suggested that among employed mothers, those with school-aged children rather than pre-school children are more likely to have flexible work hours. This is because it allows them taking care of children when they are returned from school (Rosenfeld 1996). Further, the author states that not all scheduling of work time flexibility facilitates combining career success with family time and tasks. Rather, it might be at the higher level, career type jobs that allow this sort of autonomy (Rosenfeld 1996).

b. Work Shifts

According to Grosswald (2004) "shift work refers to a job schedule in which employees work hours other than the standard hours of 8-5 pm or a schedule other than the standard work week of Monday through Friday". Rosenfeld (1996) suggests that work shifts refer to having working time that usually does not begin at normal weekday time of 8 a.m. to 5 p.m.

In contemporary times, many professions in the services sector increasingly demand work in shift hours. For instance, nursing, doctors, care services, hotels and any hospitality industry that involve serving to customers usually demand shift work. According to the Work and Family Research Network (2010) "as we move towards more of a global, 24/7 economy, shift work has become increasingly more prevalent in the lives of working families".

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[35] The more detail about this variable is explained in data and method chapter.

The flexible shifts in the current study relates to the definitions given above. In particular, the study distinguishes between fixed and flexible work shifts. The basic difference between fixed and flexible work shifts is that working hours do not change in fixed work shift, while it keeps changing in flexible work shifts. A flexible shift is also known as 'rotating shift' and 'irregular shifts' in which working hours keep changing.

A shift consists of 9 hours. The working hours under a fixed shift remains constant throughout week, month or year. In flexible work shifts, working hours can begin anytime during the day or night. That is, a nine hour shift can begin anytime during the day or night. Moreover, flexible shifts imply that working hours can change each week, every month or fortnightly. For instance, a shift can begin at 11 am, 3 pm, or 6 pm. In flexible shifts employees are expected to be flexible enough to work during any hours of the day or night. In brief, the flexible shifts in the current study relates to the definitions given by Grosswald (2004) and Rosenfeld (1996).

In fixed shift, employees generally work on particular hours that usually remain stable over a period of time. However, there may exist some possibilities of flexitime within a fixed work shift. That is, a slight change in working hours can be expected in a fixed work shift. For instance, if a woman employee works in the fixed shift between 9 am - 6 pm, then it may be possible that she begins her shift at 8 am or 7 am, if job permits and, according to her work preference and demand of the job.

However, women are aware that their working shift does not rotate. In the Indian context, previous studies suggest that flexible work shifts, i.e. rotating shifts are incompatible with marriage and childcare responsibilities (Singh and Pandey 2005). In particular, night shift pose greater conflict with the family demands (McMillin 2006; Singh and Pandey 2005).

Hence, based on the previous findings, it is expected that women are more likely to change the firm if they work in flexible shifts as compared to working in fixed shift. In addition, interaction effect between flexible shifts and marital status is tested to examine the extent to which flexible shifts pose conflict to married

women in reconciling worker and wife role due to which they decide to change the employer.

Hence, I expect the positive effect of flexible work shifts for married women. It is because flexible shifts bring uncertainty of working hours which poses greater challenge for women to meet family demands. In addition, flexible shifts pose greater challenge in enabling women to be in tune with husband's working time. These factor increases the likelihood of women's interfirm mobility.

7.   Sector

Previous chapters demonstrated the significance of the IT-ITES sector in stimulating economic development of India. The sector has emerged as one of the important sources of employment to growing educated population of India (Basant and Rani 2004; Kelkar et al. 2002; McMillin 2006; Shanker 2008; Thomas 2012). Especially, the sector is known for providing decent white-collar job opportunities to young educated women, attractive salary, career opportunities and good working conditions.

Given the significance of the IT-ITES sector, lower mobility rates are expected in the sector in comparison to other sector of the economy. Although, the sample is drawn from IT-ITES sector and the majority of the women are expected to have begun their career in this sector, there exists some possibilities that some of the women began their work career in other industries and later changed the sector in line with the changing the job. Hence, in order to capture this trend, the effect of sector on women's interfirm mobility is examined.

8. Job Position in Firm Hierarchy

An individual's position in the firm is an important indicator of both intrafirm and interfirm mobility (Petersen and Spilerman 1990). A position with lower chances of promotion augments worker's mobility. That is, if individuals are located at lower levels in the organisation with poor promotional chances, they are more likely to leave the firm (Petersen and Spilerman 1990).

In addition, if employees perceive that it may take longer for them moving to the next level, they are more likely to leave the firm and join another employer. Thus, in in the current study, it is expected that lower levels (level 1 and level 2) of job position have positive effects on women's interfirm mobility rates. That is, if women are located at lower levels in the firm hierarchy, they are more likely to change the employer. It is because women are aware that they have poor prospects of moving upward in the current organisation which they attempt to attain by moving to the next employer.

9. Promotion

Sicherman & Galor (1990) suggest that the probability of promotion is a function of schooling, ability and job experience. Promotion is subject to the employer's decision (Sicherman and Galor 1990). Similarly, Petersen and Spilerman (1990) state that promotion indicates the structure of opportunity in an organisation as the decision to promote and the structuring of career ladder and advancement rules are made by the firm.

Within such opportunity structure, often employees have certain options in an organisation. They can remain with the current employer, earn the salary and wait for future prospects of promotion (Petersen and Spilerman 1990). Otherwise, they can decide to leave the company for employment somewhere else (Petersen and Spilerman 1990).

Rational choice theory suggests that individuals apply cost and benefit analysis in making any decision. Similarly, workers weigh the cost and benefits of leaving the current firm against the expected rewards (Petersen and Spilerman 1990). Individuals attempt to maximize their status by earning promotion. If they find it unachievable in the current firm, they are more likely to change the employer.

In light of the theoretical argument, promotion is expected to have negative effect on women's interfirm mobility decision. Those women who attain promotion are likely to stay longer in the firm as compared to those women who do not earn promotion.

10.   Working Conditions

Working conditions are crucial for women's employment as it determines their attachment to the labour market. The effect of working conditions on different kinds of job mobility is under-researched so far. We do not know the extent to which working conditions affect women's interfirm mobility decision. Garcia-Serrano (2004) analysed the effect of working conditions on job satisfaction and job mobility rates.

The study suggests that poor working conditions lead the worker to quit the job. More precisely, *"if working life results in poor job content, no promotion opportunities, and so on, workers may look for better alternative opportunities outside"*. In the current study, good working conditions are expected to have negative effect on women's interfirm mobility rates.

Women are likely to stay longer in the firm if they find good working conditions. Women employ cost and benefit analysis while making decision to change the employer. Good working conditions give them subjective utility to stay in the current firm, while poor working conditions will induce their mobility out of the firm.

4.7. Hypotheses Testing

In the light of theoretical arguments and empirical findings, as discussed above, the current study aims to test following hypothesis.

(H1) **Education**- Women with technical educational background (working as IT professionals) are expected to stay longer in the job. On the other hand, women with non-technical/professional educational profile are likely to have higher job mobility rates. Their duration in a job is expected to be shorter. Hence, a negative relationship between education and interfirm mobility rates is expected for women with technical educational background. A positive relationship between education and interfirm mobility rates is expected for women with non-technical educational profile.

(H2) **Migrant status**- A negative relationship is expected between interfirm mobility rates and migrant status of women. Those women who belong to other

states of India are expected to stay longer in the firm than women belonging to Delhi and NCR.

(H3) **Age at the time of entry in job**- A negative relationship is expected between age and interfirm mobility rates. The higher the age of women the lower is the mobility from the firm. That is, one century month increase in age is likely to decline hazard of job change.

(H4) **Wages and additional monetary benefits**- A negative relationship is expected between higher wages and interfirm mobility rates. Those women who receive higher wages and additional monetary benefits in the firm are less likely to change the job in comparison to those women who do not receive higher wages and additional monetary benefits.

(H5) **Marriage and motherhood status**- A negative relationship is expected between marital status and interfirm mobility rates and, motherhood status and interfirm mobility rates. If women get married or become mother then, they are likely to stay longer in the firm. Hence, marriage and motherhood decline women's mobility from the job, while they extend job duration.

(H6) **Working time**- A positive relationship is expected between flexible work shifts and women's interfirm mobility rates. Women are more likely to change the firm if they work in flexible shifts (rotating shifts) in comparison to the women working in fixed shift. Thus, flexible shifts augment women's mobility from the job.

In addition, positive effect is expected for interaction between flexible shift and marital status. Married women are more likely to change the job if they working in flexible shifts.

(H7) **Sector**- A negative relationship is expected between IT-ITES sector and job mobility rates of women. If women work in the IT-ITES sector in comparison to the other sector, they are less likely to change the job. Hence, IT-ITES sector is expected to have lower mobility rates than other sector.

(H8) **Job position**- A positive relationship is expected between job position of women and interfirm mobility rates. Women are more likely to change the employer if they are located at the lower levels in comparison to middle/higher level in the firm hierarchy. Thus, level one and level two of the job position are expected to have higher mobility rates.

(H9) **Promotion**- A negative relationship is expected between promotion and interfirm mobility rates. Women are expected to stay longer in a job if they attain promotion as compared to those women who do not attain promotion in the firm.

(H10) **Good working conditions**- A negative relationship is expected between good working conditions and women's interfirm mobility rates. If women find good working conditions in the firm, they stay longer in the job. Hence, good working conditions decline women's mobility from the firm.

The next chapter discusses data and method employed to answer the study research questions.

5.   Data and Method

5.1   Introduction

This chapter explicates the data and methods used for investigating the determinants of women's interfirm mobility decision. The study employs own survey data. The survey was conducted in the IT-ITES firms in New Delhi and the National Capital Region (NCR) from November 2011 to February 2012. The chapter begins with providing rationale for collecting own (primary) data through survey method. Further, the population, sampling and the rationale to conduct 'online' survey within IT-ITES firms in Delhi and NCR are explained.

This is followed by a discussion of challenges encountered while deploying online survey within the IT-ITES firms which resulted in the adoption of paper based face-to-face survey. The chapter outlines the benefits and challenges of deploying paper based survey, and elaborate on the strengths and limitations of the survey data.

This is followed by a description of the statistical analysis employed to answer the research question under investigation. That is, a full account of statistical analysis technique is provided aimed at elucidating the dependent variable. A method of imputation is elaborated. Moreover, the independent variables, their scale and recoding are explicated.

5.2   Data Collection through Survey Method: A Rationale

1. In order to study interfirm mobility behaviour of women, and to further investigate the relationship between family roles and interfirm mobility, the study required information on several variables that are collected over time (time-dependent variables). In other words, the data should be in longitudinal form either collected each year or retrospectively. In the Indian context, since the longitudinal dataset is missing, one needs to collect primary data.

The popular databases in India include: Census data, National Family and Health Survey (NFHS) and National Sample Survey (NSS). All these data sources,

except the census data[36], are cross-sectional in nature and interviews different individuals each time. No dataset repeats the same individuals. Consequently, one cannot create longitudinal data format from these surveys.

The NSS survey data focus on different themes in each round of its survey and each theme is repeated every four years. NFHS collects information on health issues. Moreover, few other international databases such as Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) and Luxembourg Income Study (LIS) are quite rich in nature but they are also cross-sectional.

These databases focus on different issues and one cannot create longitudinal design. These databases do not focus comprehensively on employment and fertility processes of women which are desired by the current study. For instance, DHS records detailed information about health, population, HIV and nutrition[37]. In addition, there is a lack of panel datasets in India.

2.   The current study required work and fertility histories of women that include precise timing of the event. For instance, month and year information on each job and childbirth of the women was a pre-requisite to answer the research question. Such information is usually missing in any cross-sectional dataset. It is because cross-section data records individual's lifetime event only once at one particular time.

3.   During the search process for suitable databases, it was found that employment and fertility data of individuals working in the IT-ITES sector is not collected by the National Government. I was informed by officials of the Ministry of Labour, Government of India that various agencies like Directorate General of Employment and Training (DGET) and employment exchange do not keep any systematic database for the individuals working in the IT-ITES sector.

Rather, labour department of a particular state (e.g. labour department of Haryana or labour department of Uttar Pradesh) keeps only gender data of these industries that informs about the number of men and women employed in the IT-ITES industries each year.

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[36] Census data is collected every 10 year.
[37] For more information: http://www.dhsprogram.com/.

4.   The benefit of conducting an own survey is the possibility to include desirable items on the desirable scale. Due to this advantage, many specific questions concerning women's work and family history and about their work and family attitudes could be included in the survey.

Therefore, in the absence of desirable panel or longitudinal dataset and in the light of the requirement to have specific information on women's work and family history, it was necessary to conduct an own survey that could provide comprehensive information of women's employment and fertility history in addition to women's work and family attitudes.

As a result, an internet based online survey was designed on Unipark software. The next section discusses sampling method used to deploy own survey.

5.3   Sampling: Method and Procedure

5.3.1   Population

The population of the study included women working in the IT, ITES, BPO and KPO[38] industries in Delhi and National Capital Region, India. For the sake of convenience and clarity, I use the term IT-ITES in the current study. Both the terms, ITES and BPO are elucidated in chapter 2. All married women with and without children above the age of 18 years working in the IT-ITES sector were subjects of the study. The sample was chosen by combining several strategies which are explained in the following sections.

5.3.2   Sampling: A Rationale for choosing Delhi and National Capital Region

In order to deploy survey among respondents in the IT-ITES sector, first the geographical location was chosen where IT-ITES firms were located in a large number. As a result, New Delhi and NCR were chosen. The NCR[39] includes three large areas: Gurgaon, Noida and Faridabad. These three areas border the capital,

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[38] KPO stands for Knowledge Process Outsourcing. KPO is an extension of BPO which includes specialised services that are given to the client such as services related to the law. Both BPO and KPO come under ITES sector.
[39] Though NCR includes many other areas or towns from neighbouring states; however, I mention only those areas where survey was employed.

New Delhi. The rationale for choosing this particular region for deploying survey is given below.

1.   The selected geographical area is known as IT-hub due to the heavy presence of IT-ITES firms. Apart from being the capital of the country, New Delhi is one of India's metropolitan cities which is truly cosmopolitan and a melting point in the sense that people from other parts of the country are represented here.

In addition, Delhi is a highly urbanised city (Sudarshan and Bhattacharya 2009). Both New Delhi and NCR have been witnessing heavy migration from other states of India due to increasing employment opportunities and rising per capita income. These attributes qualify these areas to be chosen for the field study and deploying survey.

2.   Another important reason for selecting Delhi and NCR for the current study is its under-coverage among researchers. Previous studies on women's employment in IT-ITES sector have predominantly focussed on Bangalore, known as Silicon Valley of India (Clark and Sekher 2007; Gothoskar 2000; Kelkar et al. 2002; McMillin 2006; Ng and Mitter 2005; Shanker 2008; Upadhya and Vasavi 2006; Updhya 2007). Few studies focussed on Delhi (Kelkar, Shrestha, and Veena 2002; Ng and Mitter 2005; Singh and Pandey 2005; Tara and Ilavarasan 2009), while the NCR is largely neglected. Thus, the under-coverage of this region among academics constitutes one of the main reasons for selecting this region for the topic under investigation. In addition, selection of this particular geographical area gives following advantages.

(a)   Familiarity with the area and existing social contacts in the field were another major consideration. Since, NCR is adjacent to New Delhi it is easily accessible through public and private transport.

(b)   The majority of multinational corporations (MNCs) and many domestic IT-ITES firms, which are located in the northern part of the country, are based in

Delhi and NCR[40]. Hundreds of multinational and domestic firms of large, medium and small size are found in this region.

Consequently, the selection of this area offered wider scope of choosing several companies and a large number of participants for the survey. In addition, recruiting respondents from the companies located in this region, to some extent, represents the characteristics of women workforce in IT-ITES firms located in other parts of the country. This is because large parts of the workforce have a migrant status[41]. In this light, the sample was expected to be heterogeneous.

(c)   After selecting the geographical area, the identification and selection of organisations was made through NASSCOM[42] website. The NASSCOM is a premier trade body and the chamber of commerce of the IT-BPO industries in India (NASSCOM[43]).

On the NASSCOM website, information on all companies can be found with their type of business and city in which they are located. A list of all companies was prepared which were located in Delhi, Gurgaon, Noida and Faridabad. Both multinational and national level firms of different size, i.e. large, medium and small, were selected.

(d)   After collecting information on those companies where online survey was planned to be conducted, extensive web verification was done to confirm their business type in order to match it with the research criteria. The authenticity check was done by visiting the website of each company. Expectedly, detailed information of on the companies was available online. Almost all firms had a web presence.

A list of companies was prepared where the online survey was intended to be deployed. In particular, the survey was aimed to be deployed online within IT-ITES firms. In that regard, frequent attempts were made (from Germany) to

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[40] In fact Chandigarh has also witnessed expansion of IT-ITES industries in its area. It is capital of Punjab and counted as Northern state of the country. However, it was not possible to include it for conducting survey as it is not located near like NCR areas.

[41] In the sample, 39% of the women originally belong to other states of India but work in Delhi and NCR. It implies that they have migrated from other states either for their work or with their spouse.

[42] NASSCOM stands for The National Association of Software and Services Companies

[43] http://www.nasscom.in/about-nasscom.

establish contacts with the concerned individuals within the firm. However, continuous efforts of several months did not produce any results as the majority of individuals did not respond through email and phone.

In the field, each possible strategy was adopted to deploy online survey in the selected IT-ITES organisations and recruiting the subjects. Hence, several challenges were encountered that eventually resulted in a low response rate. The process of deploying online survey within the IT-ITES firms and challenges encountered in that process are discussed below.

5.4   Challenges in Deploying Online Survey within the IT-ITES Firms

The design of the online survey was based on the understanding (presumption) of easy availability and accessibility of the internet with the prospective respondents. Since respondents are highly educated and work most of the time with ICT tools, a higher survey participation and response rate was expected. In addition, it was expected that the respective IT-ITES firms would cooperate and provide access to women workers.

However, as it turned out, it was difficult to deploy an online survey in the selected IT-ITES firms. Second, the online survey resulted in an extremely low response rate. The reasons for the low response rate and challenges encountered in deploying the online survey within the IT-ITES firms can be attributed to factors such as hierarchical work culture, attitude towards research and rigid bureaucratic environment. These factors are briefly explained below.

i.   Hierarchy and Organisational Culture

Strict observance of hierarchy, submission to authority and prevalence of strong superordinate-subordinate relation is integral part of the Indian society. It certainly extends to one's personal and institutions of public life. Hofstede (2001) argues that the national culture certainly influences the organisational culture too.

Such influences were clearly seen in both national and multinational IT-ITES firms operating in India. In general, these organisations are believed to be operating in an environment 'free' from these traditional characteristics, while

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adherence to modern values of the West (particularly the United States) are said to be practiced. For instance, addressing supervisors or senior level personnel by the first name is one example (Gothoskar 2000; McMillin 2006).

However, the prevalence of a rigid hierarchy and strict conformity to superordinate-subordinate relation were frequently encountered during the course of establishing contacts with senior level personnel in the firm. In most companies, it was noted that people at the lowest level in organisation hierarchy were neither willing to share basic contact information like email and phone number of the senior personnel nor, in many cases, to connect the outsider with the insider directly. Upon insistence they expressed:

"We are not allowed to give you either direct phone number or email id of the senior people in the company. We can only connect you with them on phone if they will be available you can talk or if they are not available better to call later".

This added the inaccessibility to the concerned personnel in the firm who were essential point of contact for deploying online survey within the IT-ITES firms. This kind of working culture of the organisations appeared to suggest the 'culture of secrecy' in the age of information.

ii.   *Attitude towards Research*

The recruitment of respondents for the survey was aimed to be made at the workplace. In order to gain access to women workers, it was first required to get approval from officials at the top of the firm hierarchy as direct accessibility to them within the firm was not possible by any outsider. It was expected that such route entails the possibility to recruit several respondents from one place.

However, the frivolous attitude of the senior level personnel was a major obstructing factor in deploying online survey within the IT-ITES firms. More precisely, three major challenges were encountered such as accessibility, non-responsiveness, and frivolous and sceptic attitude.

a. Accessibility

Gaining accessibility to the senior personnel in the IT-ITES organisations was a major difficulty. These individuals were hardly known to people outside the firm

due to which obtaining the basic contact information was extremely challenging. In addition, staff at the front desk was not willing to disclose their contact information, as explained above.

However, the continuous attempt of interaction with different front desk staff succeeded in retrieving contact information of the senior level personnel. The senior officials' were contacted to seek permission to deploy online survey in their firms.

b. Non-responsiveness

The modern new age practice of accessing people through electronic mail (email) was absolutely ineffective and unviable method in the Indian context as the majority of the contacted individuals remained non-responsive. Contact through phone also did not turn out to be the next best alternative. Such communication methods seemed to be least workable in the Indian work culture.

In many instances, avoidance to direct communication was experienced. Such practices were found similar across companies regardless of their size and brand value in the Indian IT-ITES labour market. Consequently, walk-in visits were made in few IT-ITES organisations, primarily in those firms which were smaller in size.

c. Frivolous and sceptic attitude

The personnel in IT-ITES companies demonstrated frivolous and sceptic attitude towards participation in the survey. In many instances, their views were observed to be materialistic. Many senior level individuals were noted to be embedded in their 'own perception' of potential benefit and loss to the business likely to be caused by the participation in the survey.

The majority of the personnel did not want to participate as it was not giving them any 'immediate monetary benefit' in return, as they expressed "*what you are going to give back to the business*". One human resource personnel of a medium scale BPO company stated:

"It is important for us to know that what you can give us in return. We cannot give you our employees crucial ten minutes because it means it will be loss to our business time without any return in exchange. Moreover, since it brings additional work for us like sorting out female email id, distributing them survey, follow up with them, obtaining internal approval and so on, I don't think we would be able to take some time out from our busy and hectic schedule for managing such task in our company".

In many other instances, apprehensive feelings were clearly observed among senior officials of the firm. They believed that the researcher's interaction with the women employees may cause a feeling of unrest among them against the organisation. Accordingly, the interaction potentially affects their psychological state of mind if challenges of work and life are to be discussed with women employees. It may result in hampering their work productivity as well.

During an interaction session, human resource personnel of a small scale Knowledge Process Outsourcing (KPO) firm at Gurgaon (in NCR) expressed:

"[...] *we do not allow external surveys in our company because 'employees' are not comfortable with it. We have noticed in the past that employees feel uncomfortable in answering particular questions which seeks to know more about the company, their immediate managers, pay scale and etc. They have feeling in mind that no matter how far surveys are told to be anonymous to the company and senior people but indeed they know everything about the individual responses. They know who responded what! Such information can affect employee's report card and rating for the promotion and monetary incentive at the end of the year because ultimately it is the senior people who decide about them*".

These kinds of assumptive, fearful and prejudiced behaviour of individuals holding authority positions in the respective firms was a big hurdle for deploying online survey within the IT-ITES firms. On many other occasions, senior officials appeared to expect 'concrete output' in return if they allow deploying online survey in the organisation.

Hence, after facing challenges at the survey deployment level, it was realised that the 'online' technique of deploying survey had least possibility to work in the Indian context. Both attitude and behaviour were major obstructing factors. The bigger the organisation, the tougher the task was.

iii.   *Rigid Bureaucracy*

The Indian IT-ITES corporate working environment is claimed to be non-hierarchical and non-bureaucratic unlike public sector organisations (Lichtensteiger 2003; Upadhya and Vasavi 2006). However, in the course of deploying online survey, the existence of rigid bureaucracy was clearly seen to be

strongly operating at all levels in the organisation. It acted as a glass ceiling for establishing communication between the researcher and the researched.

The process of approval seeking is one example. It was essential to get approval of the senior officials to deploy survey within the IT-ITES firm, however, the 'approval seeking' process had to pass through many layers of 'bosses' across the specialised divisions of work within the firm.

This procedure was lengthy and time consuming due to which many firms expressed reluctance in survey participation. In addition, the 'bosses' in many companies also exhibited their uncertain behaviour. In several cases where the deployment of the survey was agreed by the management, the firm did not remain committed till the time of deployment. As a result, online survey could not be deployed in many of the contacted organisations.

These challenges were encountered in the course of deploying online survey within the IT-ITES firms where human resource personnel and other concerned officials were contacted. In the end, very few organisations agreed to participate in the survey. Consequently, the number of received responses was extremely low.

In addition, personal level contacts and snowball technique were used to recruit respondents for the online survey. The snowball technique contributed to an increase in online responses but did not drastically boost up the sample size. Eventually, low level of responses from online survey method led to change of the technique from online to paper based face-to-face survey. This technique is elaborated below.

5.5 Transition from Online to Paper based Face-to-Face Survey: A Bottom to Top Approach

In the paper based face-to-face (f2f) survey technique, women employees were approached individually at their workplaces. The f2f survey drastically increased the sample size from few to hundreds. In total, 206 responses were collected from paper based f2f survey. However, it had its own distinct challenges for recruiting respondents and maximizing the response number.

In the beginning, accessibility to the women employees remained a bigger challenge. How the researcher has dealt with this challenge and could ultimately gain access to the women employees and maximize the number of responses is explained in the following section.

i.   *Entry-Free Zones: Accessibility to Women Employees*

In order to recruit respondents for paper based f2f survey, information was required about specific workplace premises where outsider's access is not restricted, while at the same time respondents could be accessed with less difficulty. In general, entry to such workplaces is largely restrictive to employees of the companies.

Even if an outsider makes a successful attempt to enter, s/he remains on surveillance of the security personnel. This was also experienced by another researcher while collecting primary data in the ITES industries (McMillin 2006). In addition, entry to these 'entry-free workplaces' are limited to a few areas.

An individual is not allowed to enter the main buildings without writing the full details of the self in the register with the security personnel. Hence, a successful entry in the premises does not end the barriers. It does not open a clear way to approaching the respondents. Nevertheless, after identifying open workplace premises, the next task was to identify and approach married women employees.

ii.   *Identification of Married Women Respondents*

The identification of married women at the workplace was based on their physical appearance. Traditionally, Indian women have particular ways of dressing up after marriage. For instance, women wear traditional symbols of being married such as wearing Sindoor (red mark) on forehead, red color Choorra (red bangles) in hands, bright colour and heavy design of dress (suit and salwar) with embroidery.

However, in the IT-ITES firms, it was initially found difficult to identify married women as they strived to look like professional working women. The majority of the women were dressed up in more modern and corporate style. Yet, they wore

one or the other marker of being married which made it easier to identify and approach them.

iii.   *Approaching Women Respondents*

The selected workplace premises facilitate employees' movement during free time and meal hours. Thereby, one gets an opportunity to approach those individuals who come out of their offices during their break time. It is suggested that employees in these industries generally remain under work pressure and meeting time deadlines (of foreign clients) due to which it is harder to expect the time for the survey from their limited break time.

However, the opportunity to recruit women respondents was based on cultural understanding and gender considerations. Culture of denial is not as dominant in India as in the West. In India, people in general are not culturally habitual of saying 'no' to someone seeking a favour from them. They feel a moral compulsion to extend their support.

In addition, gender (being a woman) makes a significant difference in approaching female respondents. As a result, f2f survey resulted in the expected success of recruitment of women respondents as well as maximizing responses. Eventually, 206 responses were collected through paper based f2f survey, while online survey technique earned 96 responses.

5.6   A List of Firms from where Respondents were drawn

The respondents participated in online and paper based f2f survey were working in the following IT-ITES firms- Royal Bank of Scotland, Bank of America Continuum Solutions Pvt Ltd, Sapient, IBM, Nokia-Siemens Network (NSN), Mercer, Oracle India Pvt Ltd, I-source Opportunities, Fidelity, X-changing, Hanu Software, Quattro Global Services, Amadeus India (Bird Group), WNS Global Services, GENPACT, Salient BPO, E-valueserve, Tata Consultancy Services, Aon Hewitt, Convergys, Huawei telecom, KEC International KPO, Birlasoft, Orange, Skilrock technologies, Cognizant, Accenture, CPA Global, United Lex, Vertex, Sunlife India, Ericsson and United Health Group.

These IT-ITES firms are involved in several business activities such as healthcare, technology, automotive, travel and transport, banking, communications, consumer goods, engineering and construction, education and research, finance and retailing.

5.7 Final Sample Size

In total, 302 responses were received through online and paper based survey techniques: 206 responses were collected through paper based f2f survey, while 96 responses were obtained through online survey technique. However, after cleaning the data, the final sample size consists of 295 women for the analysis.

Both online and paper based f2f survey were conducted in IT-ITES firms located in New Delhi, Gurgaon and Noida. All women respondents were working at the time of the survey and they were recruited at their workplaces. The survey was conducted from November 2011 to February 2012.

In brief, it can be claimed that internet based online survey is not a viable and successful technique in the Indian context. Although the population was highly educated and working in IT-ITES firms, the response rate was extremely low due to restricted access to them.

The major challenges encountered in deploying online survey at the firm level include: hierarchy and organisational culture, attitude towards research and rigid bureaucratic nature of the firms. In contrast, traditional paper based face-to-face survey technique yielded desirable results.

Although paper based f2f survey had its own distinct challenges, the recruitment of the subjects and response maximization benefitted from culture specific strategies such as building personal level contacts, communication strategy and, time and space of the survey. Consequently, it resulted in maximizing the sample size.

5.8 Strengths and Limitations of Own Survey Data

With respect to the longitudinal or event history data, Budig (2003) has expressed:

"[…] in principle, it is not difficult to collect life histories of women retrospectively, getting information on both the family-building and employment histories of the respondent. Such parallel histories can be illustrated in a comprehensive manner on an individual man".

Similarly, stating the significance of event history data, Blossfeld, Golsch, and Rohwer (2007) have argued that:

"*Cross*-sectional *data do not convey information about the time women spent in the different employment forms. From an analytical point of view, it is therefore, important to have data about duration in a state*".

Analysing intra-generational mobility, Sørensen (1975) recognises that "retrospective life-history data, as compared to panel data, enable researchers to observe the every act of mobility undertaken by the respondents over a period of observation".

The growing recognition of event history data among social scientists indicates its importance as the most appropriate empirical information to study substantive processes (Blossfeld et al. 2007). In the context of industrialised countries, researchers have been increasingly using event history data for analysing several social processes such as marriage, divorce, transition to parenthood and labour market entry.

Therefore, periodically, researchers have strongly recognised the need for work and life history data with proper documentation of time. It is because time dependent data on these two aspects of an individual's life facilitates examining various social processes. In addition, one can precisely estimate the effect of a specific event at a particular life stage. More importantly, it allows a researcher to apply an advanced statistical technique that properly captures the effect of time. Event history analysis is one of the statistical techniques used to study time-dependent processes. It is applied on longitudinal dataset.

The survey questionnaire was designed in line with the main goal of the current study: *analysing interfirm behaviour of women and the effect of marriage and motherhood on women's interfirm mobility decision.* The job change is a time-dependent process; thus, the survey aimed to capture the timing of work and family events of women as precise as possible. The time (month and year information) of jobs, marriage and childbirth were of central importance.

In line with this overarching goal, the survey was designed in a retrospective longitudinal format. That is, it contained work and family history of women in retrospective manner. The survey data is highly informative and contains rich information.

The next section elaborates more on the survey contents and variable description that constitutes the strengths of the survey data.

i.   Strengths

1.   The survey records work history of women up to six jobs. They are documented retrospectively. Each job has beginning and ending time with month and year information. For instance, if a woman is currently in her sixth job, then she provides month and year of beginning and ending of all previous five jobs, including the details of sixth job. In brief, the data is 'job dependent' unlike the panel format in which subjects are interviewed annually.

2.   The survey records several job characteristics for all six jobs. The job characteristics include- economic sector, nature of job (full time or part time), working time (fixed shift or flexible shifts), and location of women in firm hierarchy (from low to high). In addition, respondents also indicate one major reason for quitting a particular job.

3.   The data includes information on promotion[44], wages[45] and working conditions of an organisation. They are measured from second job to sixth job on a five point scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Several indicators of working conditions include: less stressful job, cooperation from colleague and seniors, career opportunities and favourable working time. These factors indicate working conditions in the current firm in comparison to previous job.

4.   The survey records employment status at the time of marriage. It also asks pregnancy status of women with the information on pregnancy month.

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[44] In order to measure promotion, an item in the survey includes- "*you got higher position*".
[45] In order to measure higher wages, an item in the survey includes- "*Better income and other monetary benefits*".

5.   The survey data includes motherhood status of women with total number of children. Information of birth month and birth year for all four children is recorded. However, all women have maximum two children. No woman had three or more children. The survey questionnaire also includes employment status at the beginning of pregnancy of those women who were mother at the time of the survey. In addition, maternity leave information is also recorded with total number of leave a woman had taken. The nature of maternity leaves i.e. paid or unpaid leave is documented as well.

6.   The childbirth information is followed by post-childbirth employment related questions. Those women who take maternity leave and return to the pre-birth employer are asked questions concerning working conditions in pre-birth firm. For instance, number of working hours, paternity leave and working time are recorded. In brief, the survey provides comprehensive retrospective information about the fertility and employment of women around childbirth.

7.   The survey records several attitudinal questions informing opinion and attitudes of women about work and family life. For instance, questions regarding work and family balance, attitude towards own work, sex role attitude and husband's attitude toward wife's work are measured. These variables are measured on a five point scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

8.   The focus of the study is inter-firm mobility of highly educated women. Often, women working in the IT-ITES sector are highly educated. In this context, the survey includes type and level of education women have attained. For instance, education is divided into four categories that include-technical/professional degrees and non-technical/non-professional degrees attained at bachelor and master level. Similar is measured for the husband education.

9.   The survey includes husband's current salary, the sector of work and earning status.

10.   The survey questionnaire additionally documents demographic information with birth and marriage year, number of members in the family and the migrant status of women.

ii.   *Limitations*

The survey data, however, have also some limitations. These limitations which can serve as a ground for the future research are discussed below:

1.   The survey does not record some organisational characteristics for the first job due to which the analysis of first-inter firm mobility is limited. In addition, a comparison between first and second interfirm mobility is restricted as well. The missing variables include: promotion, wages and working conditions. Those indices which constitute working conditions are: less stressful job, favourable working time, career opportunities, cooperation from colleagues and seniors in the organisation.

The absence of these indicators in the survey suggests some shortcomings in the questionnaire design. The primary reason for the absence of these indicators in the first job is that these indices were measured in 'comparison' to the previous jobs due to which they were measured from second job onwards. Consequently, they are missing for first job measurement.

2.   Another drawback in the data concerns access to older women employees. Those women who were 40 years old or above this age could not be accessed for the survey. Due to deployment level challenges within the firms, the accessibility to such women remained restrictive. As a result, the sample size consists of only young women who were in their 20's and 30's; and who were either (newly) married or young mothers at the time of survey.

However, taking into account previous research, this should not be considered as a biglacuna in the dataset. Previous studies on the IT-ITES sector reveal that women working in these industries are generally young. The majority of the workforce falls in the age group from 21 to 30 and, very few are found in the 40s (McMillin 2006; Shanker 2008; Singh and Pandey 2005).

For instance, Shanker (2008) finds that 77% of the women in IT sector were in their twenties, while 23% were in their thirties. No woman was in her forties. In addition, the majority of the women were unmarried. About 70% of the women software engineers and 85% of women human resource professionals were found

unmarried at the time of study. Similarly, Singh and Pandey (2005) suggest that 92% of the women respondents in their study were unmarried.

3.   One minor limitation of the survey includes absence of information on women's birth month and marriage month. For one-third of the women, this information was collected later through email. For other respondents missing information is imputed by statistical formula at the time of analysis. The missing information on month variable is commonly found in the surveys which are often imputed later.

4.   One of the major limitations of the survey includes absence of non-employed women[46]. The survey data does not include those women who exit the labour market permanently due to marriage and childbirth. The presence of a group of non-employed women in the sample could have provided better comparison between those women who stay in the workforce and those who exit the labour force.

It would have been useful to understand the difference in time these women spend in a job before ending up at different destinations states- home and employment. In addition, the variation in the effect of marriage and motherhood for employed and non-employed women would have become more pronounced. As a result, the implications of these two family variables could have been then generalised in a broader sense.

A separate section for non-employed women was designed in the survey; however, due to the non-cooperation of the firms and accessibility challenges, non-employed women could not be accessed. Moreover, due to financial and time constraints at PhD level, it was not possible to find them through household survey. As a result, only two observations were recorded in the non-employed section of the questionnaire.

In the light of data constraints, the findings of the study are limited to explaining interfirm mobility behaviour of young women who continue working post marriage and childbirth, including those women who eventually return to work

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[46] Non-employed women refers to those women who were neither working at the time of interview nor they were looking for work.

after some gap around marriage and childbirth. It does not extend to non-employed women.

5.9   Proposed Analysis with Own Survey Data

The survey data is used to investigate the job changing behaviour of women. More precisely, I ask "*why do women change jobs? To what extent, marriage and motherhood affect women's interfirm mobility decision?* The study examines the determinants of time spent in first and second job. The time spent in both jobs is analysed separately.

Those women who leave first job move to the second employer. Those women who leave second job move to the third employer. Thus, women move between the employers. They change jobs. To note here, the study does not consider the time gap between leaving the first firm and joining the second employer. Such time gaps are not important for answering the research question in hand.

In addition, it is because all women return to work after marriage and childbirth despite some possibilities that some women may have been temporarily unemployed between leaving the last job and joining the next firm. However, all women return to work as all were employed at the time of survey. In the next section, I discuss piecewise constant exponential (PCE) technique of event history analysis employed to analyse the survey data.

5.10   Statistical Technique: Piecewise Constant Exponential Technique of Event History Analysis

There are two types of hazard rate models: (i) discrete hazard rate model and (ii) continuous hazard rate model. According to Allison (1982), when an event occurs only at a regular discrete point in time then discrete time method of event history is used. An example is the result declaration at school or university.

In contrast, when an event can occur at any point in time, then we use continuous hazard rate model (Allison 1982). Its examples include- transition to birth, marriage or change in employer. In other words, discrete time model of event history method is used to analyse when there is an occurrence of an event at a

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particular (fixed) time. On the other hand, when an event occurs at any point in time where starting time differs for each individual, then we use continuous time model (Allison 1982).

The continuous time method of event history is claimed to offer comparative advantage over discrete hazard rate model. It is because continuous time modelling allows analysing multiple events also known as competing risks. In addition, it allows studying repeated events where individuals experience events more than once such as change of employers, marriage, birth and divorce, especially when observation continues for a long period of time (Allison 1982).

Therefore, in the current study, I use continuous time hazard rate modelling of event history method. It is because the 'event of interest' in the present study is *change of employer*. The time of beginning and ending the job differs for each individual in the data. In addition, many women change job more than once which indicates repeated event. Hence, continuous time model of event history method is used.

Piecewise constant exponential (PCE) technique is advanced form of continuous hazard rate modelling. It is the extension of basic exponential transition rate model. Transition rate model is a general statistical technique which allows analysing transition rate as a function of set of covariates (Blossfeld et al. 2007).

The basic exponential model assumes "the process under study is time constant" (Blossfeld et al. 2007). In piecewise constant exponential model, this assumption is relaxed and the process under study is assumed to be *time-dependent*. For instance, in the current study, job change is a function of the time spent in that particular job. Hence, the interest is what factors determine how long do women stay in a job.

The basic idea of the PCE technique is to split the time (duration) axis into sub-time periods (sub-episodes) and to assume that transition rates are constant *within* these intervals but can change *between* the intervals. Thus, in piecewise constant exponential technique, time-dependence means that the hazard of an event (in our case job change) depends upon the time spent in that job.

Dependent Variable in Current Study

The dependent variable (DV) in EHA is inherently the 'time or duration' spent in a particular state until the 'occurrence of an event'(Blossfeld et al. 2007). In the present study, the dependent variable is '*time spent in first and second job*[47]' and the event is a '*job change*'.

Those women who leave first job move to second job, while those women who leave second job move to the third employer, as said before. Thus, women change job and the study examines determinants of job change. Technically, interfirm mobility rates are negatively related to the duration spent in the job. That is, the *longer the stay in a job, the lower the mobility rates; while the shorter the stay in a job, the higher the mobility rates*(Petersen and Spilerman 1990).

I restrict the analysis to first two job mobility as there are very few events in subsequent jobs due to which they are not suitable for causal analysis. More precisely, only 30% (41 women) of the women change third job, while 70% (95 women) were working in it at the time of survey. This is discussed in detail in chapter 6. Hence, first and second job change are analysed.

Those women who continue working in their first and second jobs at the time of survey are right censored. Technically, they are at the risk of leaving their respective job. In EHA language, they belong to the 'risk set'. In order to fulfil this goal, I first describe data and the steps that were followed to prepare it for the final analysis. The data were not complete and contained missing values on several key variables due to which it was first imputed. The imputation procedure for both the jobs is discussed in the following section.

5.11 Multiple Imputation by Chained Equation (MICE): A Method of replacing Missing Values in Data

In order to analyse interfirm mobility rates, the prerequisite is to have data free from missing values. However, the survey data contained missing values on several key variables. The pattern of missing values on variables was prevalent in

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[47] As mentioned before, the first and second job change are analysed separately. However, they are discussed cumulatively in the chapter discussion of results.

the entire dataset. At the same time, the data were not large enough to drop the variables with missing values. In addition, it was also not a feasible idea to use the data after using list-wise case deletion method. The latter has a high probability to give biased results with reduced sample size.

After these two considerations, data was decided to be imputed before the analysis. The missing values on key variables are replaced in two different ways. Missing values on the time variable and other independent variables in the data are imputed separately. These two methods of imputation are elucidated in the following section.

5.11.1 Missing Values in Time Variable: Imputation using Random Numbers

The dependent variable in the current study is time spent in the job. In order to measure this, one needs to create a time variable from the month and year information given in the survey data. However, the survey contained several missing values on month variable, while the year variable had almost complete information.

Thus, the missing values on month variables in both first and second jobs are replaced by generating random numbers[48]. This is a standard practice for replacing missing values on month variable with integer bound between 1 and 12.

5.11.2 Missing Values in Independent Variables: A Rationale for using MICE

The missing values in other independent variables are replaced by using the multiple imputation method. In particular, Multiple Imputation by Chained Equation (MICE)[49] method is used (Social Sciences Computing Cooperative

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[48]In the first job, nine values were missing on month variable. Nine women did not write their month of beginning the first job and month of ending the first job. Thus, these nine missing values are replaced by generating the random numbers. The formula for generating random numbers is- "gen random1= int(runiform()*12)+1" and then replacing it with month variable. Similarly, in the second job, four values were missing on the job beginning month and, two values were missing on job ending month variable. They are also imputed by generating random numbers. The similar procedure is followed for replacing missing values in the second job as mentioned for the first job.
[49] The idea behind multiple imputation is that it does allow to use information available in those observations that contain missing values. It can lead to smaller confidence interval and more

Knowledge Base 2014). In order to impute the data, a researcher needs to make specific theoretical assumptions about the type of data s/he is going to use for the imputation (Social Sciences Computing Cooperative Knowledge Base 2014).

Three assumptions are common in the imputation literature:–(1) "missing completely at random" (MCAR); (2) 'missing at random' (MAR) and (3) 'missing not at random' (MNAR)(Allison 2002; Social Sciences Computing Cooperative Knowledge Base 2014). In the present study, for the imputation of own survey data, the assumption of missing at random (MAR) is adopted. It implies that if probability of a particular value being missing depends only on the observed data then the data is MAR and, the complete cases are not a random sample.

With MAR data, complete case analysis gives biased results but multiple imputation does not (Social Sciences Computing Cooperative Knowledge Base 2014). In addition, the assumption of MAR does not require that the probability of one missing value be independent of the probability of another value being missing, as the missing values are often linked (Social Sciences Computing Cooperative Knowledge Base 2014).

Theoretically, an imputation model estimates the joint distribution of all the variables it contains(Social Sciences Computing Cooperative Knowledge Base 2014). Thus, the advantage of using 'mi imputation' by chained equation method (in STATA software) is that it is not required to specify the model for each variable separately(Social Sciences Computing Cooperative Knowledge Base 2014).

One needs to list the variables that are to be imputed along with the information about how they should be imputed and then it will form the individual models automatically[50].For instance, to impute an ordinal variable, the variable is

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ability to reject null hypothesis. For more info: http://www.ssc.wisc.edu/sscc/pubs/stata_mi_intro.htm.

[50] For more info: http://www.ssc.wisc.edu/sscc/pubs/stata_mi_intro.htm.

prefixed with 'ologit' and, for imputing multinomial variable prefix 'mlogit' is used[51].

Hence, this method is followed to impute all missing values in the key variables that are required to investigate the mobility from first and second job. In the following sections, I discuss those variables that are imputed using method of chained equation. The description is provided for both first and second job sequentially in order to avoid any complexity to understand the data structure.

5.12 Imputation of First Job Variables

5.12.1 Time Variable in First Job

The year variable of the first job had almost full information except for one observation. However, after checking the data carefully and job history of that respondent, the value of missing year was replaced with the appropriate year. Further, at the time of converting time or duration variable in century months, few observations were found for which the estimated time comes to '0' (zero). For all such observations, the zeros were replaced with the value 'one'.

In this regard, it is assumed that the women may have spent at least one month in the first job. The calculated time comes to zero because women have reported to begin and leave their job in the same month and year. Thus, when joining and leaving a job happened in the same month and year, then the estimated time will be zero. There are six women for whom zero duration is replaced with value one. Thus, final analysis model for first job includes all 295 observations with at least one month spent in the first job.

5.12.2 Independent Variables in First Job

Independent variables in the first job are imputed using chained equation method. The imputed variables are: women's job position in organisational hierarchy and migrant status. This is shown in table 5.1. The table suggests that the variable job position had 1 value missing and variable migrant status of women had 4 missing values.

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[51] A complete command is given in do files attached in the appendix.

Hence, they are imputed to complete the data. Other independent variables required for the first job analysis are complete. They don't contain any missing values.

Table 5.1: Imputed independent variables in first job

Imputed Independent Variables in First Job				
Variable	Complete	Incomplete	Imputed	Total
Job position in organisation hierarchy	294	1	1	295
Migrant status	291	4	4	295

5.13   Imputation of Second Job Variables

For the analysis of second interfirm mobility, the sample size consists of 236 women. These are those women who leave their first job and move to the second employer. In second job, the month (of joining and leaving the job) variable contained 2.5% missing values, while the year variable was complete.

The missing values on the month variable are imputed by generating random numbers, as mentioned above. At the time of converting the time variable into century months, one observation resulted into zero duration which was replaced with value one assuming that the respondent may have spent at least one month in the second job[52]. Thus, data for second job analysis is complete and contains 236 observations.

5.13.1   Independent Variables in Second Job

Independent variables in second job are imputed using method of chained equation. The imputed variables are: women's job position in the organisational hierarchy, migrant status, promotion, wages, less stressful job, favourable working time, cooperation from colleagues and seniors, and career opportunities.

The list of imputed independent variables is shown in table 5.2. In the table, 'incomplete' suggests the number of values missing in the variable, 'imputed'

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[52]It may be possible that women may have worked from 1 of any month to 30/31 of any given month. By this rule they ideally spend one month in a job; however, due to conversion into century months it is not counted. This is why I assume value one for the subjects for whom calculated time comes zero.

indicates the number of missing values replaced. The number of incomplete and imputed must always be equal.

Thus, 2 values of job position, 3 values of women's migrant status, 7 values of promotion, 5 values of less stressful job, 7 values of favourable working time, 10 values of cooperation from colleagues and seniors, 2 values of career opportunities and 3 values of wages and monetary benefits are imputed.

Table 5.2: Imputed independent variables in second job

Imputed independent variables in second job				
Variable	Complete	Incomplete	Imputed	Total
Job position in organisation hierarchy	234	2	2	236
Migrant status	233	3	3	236
Promotion	229	7	7	236
Less stressful job	231	5	5	236
Favourable working time	229	7	7	236
Cooperation from colleagues & seniors	226	10	10	236
Career opportunities	234	2	2	236
Wages & monetary benefits	233	3	3	236

5.14   Imputation of Attitudinal Variables

Few other variables in the survey data are imputed using MICE technique. These variables were used for descriptive purpose. The imputed variables are given in table 5.3.

Table 5.3: Imputed variables for descriptive analysis

Imputed variables				
Variable	Complete	Incomplete	Imputed	Total
Your husband wants you to work	293	2	2	295
My husband often ask me to quit job	292	3	2	295
I always wished to be a housewife and have a family	293	2	2	295
I prefer to do part time job over full time job	287	8	8	295
I am ready to quit the job if my husband were to earn more than combining our current income	292	3	3	295
You do job for self-realization	294	1	1	295

As a result, 2 values of 'husband wants you to work', 2 values of 'husband often ask me to quit job', 2 values of family orientation variable, 8 values of preference of part time job, 3 values of desirability to quit the job on husband's increase in salary and, 1 value of self-realization is imputed.

The variables 'your husband wants you to work' and 'my husband often ask me to quit the job' were merged together to create a new variable that measured women's perception of husband's attitude towards his wife's work. The indicators 'I wished to be a housewife and have a family', 'I prefer to do part time job over full-time job' and 'I am ready to quit the job if my husband were to earn more than combining our current income' were collapsed together to create a new variable that measured work orientation of women.

The last indicator, you do job for self-realization, was combined with another variable to create a new variable that measured subjective utility of work. That is, if women derive sense of happiness and self-realization through paid work. To note here, the merger of several indices to create a new variable is guided by the definitions of theoretical concepts which are provided later in the chapter. Here, the focus is to explain details of imputed variables used in the study either for causal or descriptive analysis.

5.15   Imputation of Marriage and Birth Month

The survey had asked women's year of birth and marriage, while it missed the month of both events. For 25% of the respondents, this information was collected later through email, while for the remaining respondents it was missing. It is because many of the respondents did not respond to the email and many had not provided their contact information at the time of responding to the survey.

Due to this, only 25% of the respondents could be accessed. Therefore, the missing values in birth month are imputed by generating random numbers from 1 to 12. The random number is generated by using statistical formula[53].

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[53] The statistical formula is- gen newvar = int(runiform()*12)+1; then, replace bm = rand if (bm==.)

The missing values in marriage month are replaced by generating sequential numbers. Those special months were chosen in which most of the marriages are performed in North India, especially among Hindus. Those months are: November, December and February. The decision to choose these months was taken in the light of information provided by 25% of the respondents. The majority of the women got married during these months. Hence, the marriage months were replaced with these three months.

5.16   List of Independent Variables: Scale and Recoding

(1) *Highest education* refers to the highest level of degree attained by the women. It is a nominal variable with four categories including one reference category. Since all women are at least university educated, a distinction is made between technical/professional and non-technical/non-professional education qualification attained at the bachelor and master level.

I often use the term 'university/graduate degree' that implies bachelor degree, while degree above university level refers to the degrees attained at master level. Some of the examples of technical and professional degrees include degree in information technology (IT), engineering, software engineering, hardware, business administration, computer application and law[54].

Similarly, non-technical and non-professional degrees include- degree in arts, commerce, science, hotel management and fine arts. To note here, I do not distinguish between 'technical' degree and 'professional' degree. Rather, a distinction is made between technical/professional and non-technical/professional degrees, as said. Thus, the coding is as follows:

The first category 'master technical/professional' refers to a master degree attained in a technical/professional discipline. The second category 'master non-technical/professional' refers to the master degree attained in a non-technical or non-professional discipline. The third category 'bachelor technical/professional' refers to the degree attained in a technical/professional discipline at university

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[54] For more information: see the survey attached in the appendix.

level. The fourth category 'bachelor non-technical/professional' refers to the university degree in a non-technical/professional discipline.

The second category is the reference category. Highest education is used as a time-constant covariate in the analysis. It is a human capital that is accumulated by an individual through attending a number of years of schooling and university. In general, technical degrees take longer (4years) to complete than non-technical degrees.

(2) *Migrant status* is a demographic variable. It indicates women's state affiliation in the sample, i.e. which state of India women originally belong to. Those women who originally belong to other states of India but now live and work in Delhi and NCR (National Capital Region) are referred as migrant women in the current study.

The NCR includes Noida, Gurgaon and Faridabad. The variable is recoded as a binary variable with values 0 and 1. Women belonging to other states of India are recoded as 1 (one) and women belonging to Delhi and NCR are recoded as 0 (zero). It was originally a nominal variable with three categories.

I collapse Delhi and NCR into one category as theoretically it does not make difference to differentiate respondents from Delhi and NCR. They exhibit more or less similar characteristics. Geographically, NCR is a neighbouring area of Delhi. It has developed rapidly in the last two decades due to the vast employment generated by the IT-ITES sector and expansion of the services sector.

As a result, it has witnessed rapid urbanization and population growth due to the migration from other parts of India. This is an individual level variable which is used as a time-constant covariate in the analysis.

(3) *Age at entry into job* refers to the age at the time of entry in a particular job. For the analysis, age at entry in first and second job is calculated separately. The age of a woman is calculated at the beginning of each job episode. It is the difference of time of starting a particular job minus date of birth. The age is calculated in century months. This individual level variable is used as a time constant covariate in both the job analysis.

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(4) **Wages and monetary benefits** refer to higher wages and additional monetary benefits received by the individuals in a job. It is a binary variable with values 1 and 0. The value 1 refers if an individual receives higher wages and additional monetary benefits in the firm, while value 0 refers if an individual does not receive higher wages and additional monetary benefits.

It was originally an ordinal variable in the survey which was measured on a five point scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree. I collapse the agree category into 1 and disagree category into 0. Middle category of response, i.e. *neither agree nor disagree*, is also collapsed into 0. It is used as a time-constant covariate in the analysis.

In the survey, this variable was measured as a comparison with previous job due to which it is measured from second job onwards. Thus, it is not available for the first job, as said above[55]. Hence, the effect of higher wages and additional monetary cannot be analysed for first interfirm mobility.

(5) **Marital status:** This variable is measured as a time-varying covariate. It splits the total job duration episode into two sub-episodes to measure the time spent in unmarried and marital states. The first sub-episode begins from the date of beginning of a particular job and ends at the date of marriage. Second sub-episode begins at the time of marriage and lasts until the job ends or if job continues then until the interview time.

If a woman is already married at the beginning of the job duration then it is recoded as 1 (one) and is considered for the analysis. However, if a woman is married after the ending date of job duration, then it is recoded as 0 (zero). Further, if a woman is married during the job duration, then it is recoded as 1 (one).

In addition, it also records 0 (zero) for those women who were not married either during the job duration or before beginning a job. Marital status is calculated separately for first and second job. All those women who enter in second job with married as a marital status are recoded as 1 (one) and are considered for the

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[55] This is also explained in 'limitations of the own survey data'section in data and methods chapter.

second job analysis. It implies that they have already spent some time in marriage by the time they move to the second employer.

(6) **Motherhood status** refers if woman is a mother or not. It is also measured as a time-varying covariate and calculated in a similar way like marital status. It splits the job duration episode into two sub-episodes, i.e. in 0 and 1, to measure the time spent in motherhood and non-motherhood states.

If a woman is already a mother at the beginning of the job episode, then it is recoded as 1 (one) and considered for the analysis. If a woman becomes mother after the ending date of job, then she is recoded as 0 (zero). If a woman becomes mother during the job, then she is recoded as 1 (one).

In addition, those women who do not become mother either during the duration of a job or before beginning the job are recoded as 0 (zero). The variable is measured separately for first and second job. All those women who enter in second job as mothers are recoded as 1 (one) and are considered for the analysis. Both marital and motherhood status variables refer to the family status of women (Felmlee 1984).

(7) **Flexible shifts** refer to the working time of women. It is measured as nominal variable with two categories: one fixed shift and flexible shifts. It is recoded into a binary variable with values 0 and 1. Flexible shift is recoded as 1 and fixed shift is recoded as 0. Fixed shift is a reference category. It is a firm level variable and used as a time-constant covariate in the analysis.

(8) **Sector** makes distinction between the IT-ITES sector and other sector. It is a binary variable with values 0 and 1. The value 1 refers to the IT-ITES sector, and value 0 refers to the "other sector" of the economy. Other sector is a reference category. Other sector includes all other occupations and professions which are not part of the IT-ITES sector in which women work or have worked.

For instance, women are assumed to change the sector in line with changing the job. Before moving to the IT-ITES industries, women may be working as teacher, clerk, secretary and fashion designer. They may be working either in the hotel or fashion industry, or may be working in the informal sector.

In brief, all other occupations/professions are clubbed under the category of 'other sector'. The main idea is to distinguish between the IT-ITES sector and other sector to understand inter-sector mobility of women. It is used as a time-constant covariate in the analysis.

(9) *Job position* refers to the location of a woman in the firm hierarchy. It is an ordinal variable measured on a five point scale from low to high. Level one indicates the lowest position of a woman, while level five indicates the highest position held by a woman in the organisational hierarchy. It is a firm level variable and has been measured for all the jobs. Level 3 of the job position is the reference category.

(10) *Promotion* is treated as an independent variable to examine its effect on interfirm mobility rates in the current study. Thus, it is treated as a firm level variable. One can treat promotion as an individual level variable when it is treated as 'dependent variable' because then it captures the effect of all three functions: education, tenure and abilities.

In the survey, it was measured as an ordinal variable on a five point scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The specific question was – "*you got higher position*". However, for the analysis it is recoded as a binary variable with values 0 and 1. I collapse the 'strongly agree' and 'agree' categories into 1, while 'strongly disagree' and 'disagree' categories are collapsed into 0. Middle category of response 'neither agree nor disagree' is also collapsed into 0. Hence, value 1- refers to those women who attain promotion in the firm and value 0- refers to those women who do not attain promotion in the firm. It is used as a time-constant covariate in the analysis.

To note again, promotion is measured in survey from second job onwards due to which it is not available for the first job analysis. The question was asked in comparison to the previous job. Consequently, the first interfirm mobility is restricted due to the absence of promotion variable as an independent variable[56].

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[56] This is also explained in the section 'limitations of own survey data' of this chapter.

(11) ***Working conditions***[57] refer to the good working conditions prevalent in the firm. A new variable on a five point scale, from low to high is generated by merging four indicators. The four indicators are: if a woman finds her job less stressful, if she works in her favourable working time, if she perceives her job as providing career opportunities and if she receives cooperation from colleagues and seniors.

These four indicators were measured in the survey on a five point scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree. As a result, a scale is generated in which score one indicates poor working conditions, while a score of five indicates good working conditions. The higher the score, the better are the working conditions in the firm, perceived by the women.

It is a firm level variable and is used as a time-constant variable in the analysis. As mentioned earlier, these four indicators are measured in the survey from second job onwards due to which working condition variable cannot be constructed for the first job analysis. This is one of the limitations of the data.

5.17 Scale and Recoding of Variables for Descriptive Analysis

Several variables are recoded for the descriptive analysis. The recoding and scale generation is partially guided by the theoretical concepts used for specific term. They are elaborated as follows:

(1) **Work orientation**[58]- In order to measure the work orientation of women, a five point scale variable is generated by combining three indicators. A score of one indicates low work orientation, while a score of five indicates higher work

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[57] Though there exists less research on the effect of working conditions on job mobility. So far, García-serrano (2004) has analysed this variable. For instance, the author takes into account several indicators of working condition. Some of the indicators include- working life quality, general conditions, pride, no alienation etc. There is no hard and fast rule of taking only particular indicators as working conditions, one can choose those indicators that are sensibly and feasibly constitutes working conditions in a firm. Hence, I select four indicators that informs about prevailing working conditions in an organisation. In addition, a scale gives better measure of an attribute than single indicator. Thus, scale is generated wherever it is possible.

[58]Desai and Waite (1991) define work commitment as "underlying preference of work over other activities". Safilios-Rothchild (1974) defines work commitment as the relative distribution of interest, time, energy and emotional investment in work in relation to other life sectors and notably to family life". In light these definitions, I select only those indicators of work orientation from the survey that closely match with these definitions and inform about work orientation/commitment of women.

orientation. Thus, the higher the score, the higher is the work orientation of women.

The three indicators are: (1) women's preference of part time job over full time job, (2) if women always desired to be only housewife and have a family and (3) women are ready to quit the job if their husband earns more money than combining their current income. In the survey, these indicators were measured on a five point scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

(2) **Gender role attitudes** are measured separately from women's orientation towards own work (Bielby and Bielby 1984). One of the indicators of gender role attitudes in the survey included an item: *do you believe that women should do a job*? It was measured on a five point scale from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (2).

For the analysis purpose, it is recoded into three values. Both agree and disagree categories are collapsed separately, while the middle category remains intact. As a result, a new variable with three values is created. The value 1 indicates positive response, value 2 indicates neutral response and, value 3 indicates negative response. Hence, the new variable suggests whether or not young educated women have traditional gender role attitudes.

(3) **Woman's perception of husband's attitude towards wife's work**[59]: The survey measures husband's attitude towards wife's work as perceived by the women. A new variable on a five point scale, from low to high, is generated by merging two indicators. A score of one indicates women's perception of lower support to wife's work and a higher score indicates toward perception of higher support and positive attitude towards wife's work.

Hence, the higher the score, the higher is the husband's support, as perceived by the women. The two indicators are: *your husband wants you to work* and *my husband asks me to quit the job*. The former item was measured in the survey on

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[59] In the context of industrialised societies, husband's attitude towards wife's work has been shown to have strong and significant effect on women's labour force participation (Bernhardt 1993; Brewster and Rindfuss 2000; Darian 1975; Gordon and Kammeyer 1980; Macran et al. 1996; Shaw 1985; Vandenheuvel 1997; Waite and Stolzenberg 1976).

a five point scale from low to high, while the latter was measured on five point scale from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (5).

Thus, a new variable constructed on a five point scale suggests the extent to which women perceive that their husbands have a positive and supportive attitude towards wife's work.

(4) Subjective utility of work: sense of happiness and self-realization: The survey measures the extent to which women feel happy and derive sense of fulfilment through paid work. In order to measure the subjective utility of work, a new variable on a five point scale is generated by merging two indicators. A score of one indicates low feeling of happiness and sense of fulfilment, while a score of five indicates high feeling of happiness and sense of fulfilment derived from paid work.

Hence, the higher is the score, the higher is the subjective utility of work. These two indicators in the survey are: *purpose of doing job for pleasure and happiness and for self-realization.* These indicators were originally measured separately on a five point scale from low (1) to high (5).

(5) **Economic pressure** refers to the growing financial pressure on families. A new variable on a five point scale is generated by merging two indicators of economic necessity. A score of one indicates lower economic pressure, while the score of five indicates higher economic pressure. Hence, the higher is the score, the higher is economic pressure felt by women. The two indicators in the survey are: *purpose of doing job for meeting increased cost of living* and *financial need at home*.

These two indicators were measured in the survey on a five point scale from low (1) to high (5). Therefore, the new variable suggests the extent to which women feels economic pressure on them inducing their workforce participation.

(6) **Reconciling work and family life-** Women were asked in the survey if they find it difficult to combine work and family life. The specific item was, *I find it difficult to combine work and household.* The item was measured on a five point

scale from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (5) with middle category (3) as neutral.

For the purpose of descriptive analysis, it is recoded into three values. Both agree and disagree categories are collapsed separately, while the middle category remains intact. As a result, a new variable with 3 values is created that suggests women's perception conflict between work and family. The value 1 indicates-difficulty in balancing work and family, value 2 indicates neutral response, and value 3 indicates no difficulty in combining work and family life.

(7) **Role conflict-** Married women and young mothers often experience a role conflict between worker and family roles. The survey included an indicator that suggests role conflict. The indicator is *I have to many times a leave from work due to family responsibilities.* The indicator was measured as an ordinal variable on a five point scale from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (5).

For the purpose of analysis, it is recoded into three values. Both agree and disagree categories are collapsed separately, while the middle category remains intact. The value 1 indicates if women often have to take day-off from work, value 2 indicates neutral response, and value 3 indicates women do not take day-off from work. Hence, the new variable suggests role conflict between women's worker and family roles due to which women often make adjustment at work by taking day-off.

(8) **Family support to working mothers-** The survey measures family structure of working women. It records the number of persons living in the family. The main goal is to understand whether or not young women, especially women with small children, do have any family support.

The survey did not include a direct indictor about childcare during mother's working hours. Thus, in its absence, it is assumed that presence of additional member in the family provides care and support to small children during mother's working hours. Thus, two new variables are generated that suggest family

structure of mothers with one child[60] and family structure of married women without children.

For mothers, it takes three values: value 1 indicates the presence of either husband or a child, value 2 indicates the nuclear family only, and value 3 indicates the presence of additional member(s) in the family. The number of additional member in the family ranges from one to ten.

For women without children, it takes two values: value 1 indicates nuclear family, while value 2 indicates presence of additional member(s) in the family. Hence, the new variable implies that how many families get support from extended family structure in urban areas.

(9) **Priority to family over career:** The survey includes an indicator suggesting if women give more priority to family over career. It was measured on a five point scale from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (5).

It is recoded into three values. Both agree and disagree categories are collapsed separately, while the middle category remains intact. The value 1 indicates women give more priority to family over career; value 2 indicates a neutral response, and value 3 indicates women do not give more priority to family over career.

(10) **Job quit** refers to the primary reason for leaving a particular job. It is not used as an independent variable for the analysis. Rather, it is used for descriptive purposes. In the survey, women were asked to choose one main reason for leaving a job from several options provided to them in a list. In addition, an open writing box was provided to write the main reason for leaving a job, if it is not given in the list.

It is recoded as unordered categorical variable with five categories. The five categories are: (1) Family reasons, (2) Career advancement, (3) Employment related factors, (4) Higher education, and (5) Heterogeneous reasons.

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[60] Only 12% of the women had two children. In order to provide a clear picture of the family structure in the urban areas, women with one child were selected. In addition, they are easier to compare with women without a child.

The family reasons include: marriage, childbirth, childcare, parental care, parents-in law care, illness, spouse transfer and incompatible job timing with family demand. The career advancement reason includes: joined good salary job somewhere else. The employment related reasons include: if a woman did not like the company or a job, if a woman did not want to do job anymore and firing from the job.

Other reasons under heterogeneous category include: company shut down, merger & acquisition, relocation, commuting problem to work, contractual work assignment, night shift problem, very long working hours, career growth, dissatisfaction and unhappiness with the job and so on[61].

All the categories except the heterogeneous category indicate towards 'voluntary' job changes. It is only under the heterogeneous category many reasons were documented that indicate towards involuntary job shifts. For instance, job leaving due to the merger and acquisition, shut down or roll-back of the company. No women reported firing from the job.

5.18   Summary

The chapter discussed data and method employed to answer the research question. It provided full details from designing online survey to deploying it online and through paper based face to face survey. The chapter explicated the challenges encountered in deploying online survey within the IT-ITES firms due to which paper based f2f survey technique was adopted. Challenges faced while deploying paper based f2f survey were briefly outlined as well. In addition, the chapter provided the list of firms from where respondents were drawn.

The chapter further talked about strengths and limitations of own survey data. It further elucidated the statistical analysis technique, i.e. piecewise constant exponential technique of event history analysis. The dependent variable 'time spent in first and second job' of the study is informed clearly. The survey data

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[61] It was found that many women selected additional open writing box option to mention the job leaving reason despite that the option was given in the list. For instance, in the writing box, many women cited the reason of leaving job as 'better job and better salary'. This option was also given in the list. Thus, in many cases there is similarity of the responses given by the women in writing box with reason provided in the list. Many women wrote 'career advancement' reason for leaving a firm.

was imputed before the final analysis. Hence, the whole procedure of imputation technique was explained. The chapter ends with stating the list of independent variables, scaling and recoding of the variables to be used for both causal and descriptive analysis in the current study. The next chapter discusses the descriptive findings of the study. The own survey data has been explored to offer as rich information as possible about several aspects of women's work and family life.

6.   Descriptive Findings

6.1.   Introduction

This chapter discusses the descriptive findings of the study. It offers valuable insights, inter alia, into women's- educational profile, work and family relationship, career development trajectory, attitudes toward work and family life, gender role attitudes, husband's attitude towards wife's work and reconciliation of work and family life. Hence, the chapter aims to provide rich and dense information on women's work and family lives. In addition, it complements the regression findings presented in the next chapter.

6.2.   Demographic Information

The survey sample consists of 295 women drawn from IT-ITES firms located in New Delhi and National Capital Region (NCR), India. The women were surveyed from November 2011 to February 2012. The average age of women is 29.36 years and the standard deviation (S.D.) is 3.22, as shown in table 6.1. However, the minimum age of a woman was 22 years and maximum age was 43 years at the time of interview in 2011-12.

The maximum age, i.e., 43 years is (rather) an outlier, as 50% of the women were below 29 years of age; 90% of the women were below 33 years and 95% of the women were below the age of 35 years at the time of the survey.

Table 6.1: Variable distribution, mean and standard deviation

Variable	Obs. (N)	Mean (in years)	S.D.
Women's age at the time of interview	295	29.36	3.226
Women's age at marriage	295	25.65	2.236
Women's age at first childbirth	109	27.57	2.393
Women's age at completing university education	295	21.63	1.825
Women's age at entry into first job	295	22.88	2.063
Women's age at entry into second job	236	25.10	2.446
Age of first child at the time of interview	109	3.89	3.138

With respect to women's affiliation with different states of India, the findings suggest that 46% of the women belong to New Delhi, 16% of the women belong to National Capital Region and 38% of the women belong to other states of India. It indicates that women from other states of India have migrated to Delhi and NCR either for their own employment or with their spouse.

Most likely, it is expected that these women are in the capital for their own employment as the majority of the women enter into labour market before marriage. However, the possibility of migration to cities with the husband cannot be ruled out. It is possible that prior to marriage women may have worked in different state of India but post marriage they shifted to capital with the husband.

All women were married at the time of interview; however, 37% of the women were mothers and the remaining 63% did not have a child. Among mothers, 88% of the women had one child, while 12% of the women had two children. The mean age at marriage is 25.65 years and S.D. is 2.236, as shown in table 6.1. 50% of the women got married below the age of 26 years, while 90% got married below the age of 28 years.

By motherhood status, the mean age of women at first birth was 27.57 years and the S.D. is 2.393, as shown in table 6.1. Further, 90% of the women were below 31 years of age when they became first time mothers. The highest age at which a woman became mother is 32 years.

On the other hand, the mean age of first child at the time of interview was 3.89 years. 50% of the children were below the age of 3 years, while 75% of the children were below the age of 5 years and 90% of the children were below the age of 8 years at the time of survey. Thus, half of the children fall below the age of 3 years.

Undoubtedly, this is the time when children need most time and attention of the mother. The two years following childbirth are considered to be a crucial and juggling time for women in order to balance work and family life (Desai and Waite 1991).

The study findings further suggest that the majority of the women were working during their pregnancy period and took maternity leaves for childbirth. There were very few women who were either unemployed at the beginning of pregnancy or temporarily quit job, as shown in table 6.2.

Table 6.2: Employment status of women at the time of first child

Employment Status of Women at the Time of First Child		
Status	Frequency	Percent
Unemployed	13	11.93
Employed but later quitted job	10	9.17
Employed & took maternity leave	86	78.9
Total	109	100

Table 6.2 suggests that 79% of the women took maternity leaves, 12% were unemployed at the beginning of pregnancy and only 9% of the women were working at the beginning of the pregnancy but later (temporarily) quitted job. However, these two latter groups of women return to work after childbirth, as all women were employed in the sample at the time of survey.

It implies that these women were out of the workforce only for a short period of time perhaps to avoid stress during the pregnancy period or may be being at work was not rewarding for them in terms of having opportunity to avail paid maternity leaves and health cost associated with the childbirth.

Among those women who took maternity leaves, 62% were given paid maternity leaves, while 35% had mixed, i.e. paid-unpaid maternity leaves and only 3% had absolutely unpaid maternity leaves, as demonstrated in table 6.3. 93% of the women who took maternity leaves return to pre-birth employer, while 7% of the women change employer.

Table 6.3: Nature of maternity leave of women during first child

Nature of Maternity Leave of Women during First Child		
Status	Frequency	Percent
Paid	53	61.63
Unpaid	3	3.49
Paid-Unpaid	30	34.88
Total	86	100

With respect to the time spent in maternity leave, the findings suggest that the majority of the women avail maternity leave post-childbirth and very few women were on maternity leave before childbirth. The post-childbirth maternity leave patterns indicate that 33% of the women take maternity leaves of 3-4 months, while 30% of the women take maternity leaves of 2-3 months.

Only 34% of the women were out of actual work for less than one month before childbirth, while 38% of the women were at work until the last days of their childbirth. Hence, the findings suggest that the majority of the women could benefit from the maternity law under which they are legally entitled for twelve weeks of paid maternity leaves.

Over 12 weeks of maternity leaves indicate towards firm's flexible family policies enabling women to be with the new born for some more time[62]. It additionally informs the adjustments women could make with the employer in terms of increasing the maternity leave time period. Among those women who were not mothers, only 6% were pregnant at the time of interview.

6.3.   Educational Profile of Women

All women in the sample are highly educated. They are at least university graduates. That is, all of them have attained bachelor degree. However, the women vary in the type and level of degree they have attained, as shown in table 6.4. Nevertheless, the mean age at which women complete their university education is 21.63 years and the S.D. is 1.82, as indicated in table 6.1. The 50% of the women complete their university education before the age of 21 years; 75% complete before 22 years and, 90% complete before the age of 24 years.

To note again, the education qualification was measured at four levels in the survey. A degree level was divided into bachelor and master level, while the degree type was divided into technical and non-technical. Thus, the education has 4 classifications- technical/professional degree attained at bachelor and master level and non-technical/non-professional degree attained at bachelor and master

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[62]Under the law of "The Maternity Benefit Act", 1961, an employed woman is entitled for 12 weeks of paid maternity leave by the employer provided that if she has worked with the employer for at least 80 days preceding the childbirth. For more info, see http://www.ilo.org/dyn/travail/docs/678/maternitybenefitsact1961.pdf.

level. All women indicate the type and level of degree they have attained, as shown in table 6.4.

Table 6.4: Highest education of women

Highest Education of Women		
Education type & level	Frequency	Percent
Master technical/ professional	134	45.42
Master non-technical/ professional	37	12.54
Bachelor Technical/ professional	67	22.71
Bachelor non-technical/ professional	57	19.32
Total	295	100

Table 6.4 suggests that 45% of the women have their highest degree in a technical/professional discipline at master level, 23% of the women have earned highest degree in a technical/professional discipline at bachelor level. Further, 13% of the women have their highest degree in a non-technical/professional discipline at master level and, 19% of the women have their highest degree in a non-technical/professional discipline at bachelor level.

At this point, it is important to understand- who are those women that go for technical/professional education at master level and, whether or not does it predict any relationship between education and interfirm mobility decision of women in a causal analysis?

The results suggest that those women who attain non-technical/professional education at bachelor level (most likely women with ordinary degrees such as B.A, B.Com, B.Sc. etc.) constitute a majority who have attained a technical/professional degree at master level as well. More precisely, the majority of the women with ordinary bachelor degrees pursue degrees such as MBA and other computer related degrees in order to enhance their career prospects in the labour market.

The findings indicate that 59% of the women who have ordinary (non-technical/professional) degrees at bachelor level have attained a professional education at master level too[63]. The finding can be seen in the light of national

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[63] The Persons'chi2 (1) is calculated: 17.45; Pr: 0.00; Cramer's V: .243.

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level statistics shown in the previous chapter[64]. According to the Educational Statistics at Glance (2014), 1.44% of the women were enrolled in management programme at master level in 2012-13. Management degrees at post-graduate level had the second highest enrolment of students (men and women) in 2012-13 after social science with 20.58%.

Chanana (2007) also argues that transition from undergraduate to post-graduate level suggests that young women are going for further higher education. It is a new phenomenon in the Indian society as a result of the liberalisation of the economy. The author states that more women are enrolling for management degrees and law and that the preference for management degrees and, computer-related degrees and skills is higher[65] (Chanana 2007). In particular, specialisation in computer applications and software computer engineering are popular among women. In addition, human resource management (HRM) is in high demand among women (Chanana 2007).

Therefore, it demonstrates that having an ordinary university degree does not overwhelmingly contribute to advancing women's career prospects due to which they go for popular professional degrees at master level.

The present findings further suggest that 36% of the women who possess technical/professional degrees at bachelor level also go for a master degree in a technical/professional discipline[66]. Hence, comparatively there is a higher percentage (59%) of women with ordinary degrees at bachelor level who also attain professional qualification at master level, while, there is a lower percentage (36%) of women who have technical/professional education at both bachelor and master level.

In this light, one assumption is made about those women who possess technical/professional degree at both bachelor and master level and, those women who possess technical/professional degree only at bachelor level. Both groups of women are assumed to work as technologists, software professionals, information

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[64] See Table 2.11 in chapter 2.
[65] The change in disciplinary choice of women post-1990s is elucidated in chapter 2. It suggested that young women are more inclined to choose job-driven subjects such as management, IT and computer related degrees which enable them to get a job quickly.
[66] Pearson chi2(1): 14.3910 ; Pr = 0.000; Cramer's V= -.220

technology engineers, or in other profession such as law which requires expertise and specific knowledge gained through specific educational degrees.

This is more prominent in comparison to those women who hold non-technical/professional degrees at university level and then go for technical/ professional degree at master level. Ordinary degrees, to a great extent, do not provide expertise knowledge and technical skills which could directly be used at work unlike engineering or technical degrees.

The assumption is additionally based on the fact that acquiring technical/professional degree at university level takes longer than earning ordinary non-technical/professional university degrees in India. Those women who hold such (technical) degrees at university level can be expected to have attained training in IT, computer science, engineering or law related fields which in general provides better career prospects and labour market opportunities than ordinary degrees at bachelor level.

Thus, in order to improve the career prospects women with ordinary (non-technical/professional) degrees at bachelor level are more likely to go for further professional qualification at master level. This is why there is a move from ordinary degree at bachelor level to attaining technical/professional degree at master level, as the study findings suggest.

In brief, the higher proportion (59%) of women in this category serves as a plausible explanation for expected differences between women working as core technologists or IT professionals and those women who hold ordinary degrees but go for professional degrees at master level. The latter are also expected to work in the ITES sector which includes activities such as back office, call centre and data entry.

Lastly, the results suggest that there are only 17% of the women who possess non-technical/non-professional degree at both bachelor and master level. In a nutshell, the differences in the interfirm mobility decision of these two (technologists/non-technologists) groups of women are expected in the causal analysis in discussed in chapter 7.

6.4. Job Changing Patterns of Women

The findings on job changing moves of women offer useful and interesting insights about their career development trajectory that follows in line with the job changing process. The descriptive results additionally support the assumptions of rational choice theory that suggests the attainment and maximization tendency of individuals achieved through job change.

The findings suggest that by the interview time, the majority of the women settle down by maximum second and third job. Only few women change third or subsequent jobs for career advancement. That is, table 6.5 indicates a decline in job change and an increase in stability in employment over a period of time. Though there is high possibility that young women have several more years in the labour market, they have enough opportunities to change employers, if they decide to stay employed. Nevertheless, until interview time, the majority of the women find stability in second and third firm.

Table 6.5: Job changing patterns of women

No. of job	Stay in job (Frequency)	Percent	Changed job (Frequency)	Percent	Total
First	59	20	236	80	295
Second	100	42.37	136	57.63	236
Third	95	69.85	41	30.15	136
Fourth	34	82.93	7	17.07	41
Fifth	4	57.14	3	42.86	7
Sixth	3	100			3

Table 6.5 demonstrates that 70% of the women were working in their third job, while only 30%[67] of the women change employer for a third time at the time of survey. That is, these 30% change three jobs and move to fourth employer. The results further indicate that only first and second job witness higher number of job change, while interfirm mobility declines from subsequent (third) jobs onwards.

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[67] Since only 30% women changes third job which constitutes very few cases to establish causality between job change decision and its determinants. This is why the causal analysis is limited to only analysis two job changes. It is explained in data and methods chapter.

As table 6.5 shows, 80% of the women change first job and move to second employer, while remaining 20% continue working in it by the time of interview. Similarly, 58% of the women change their second job and move to third employer, while remaining 42% continue working in it by the interview time. Moreover, there are few women who end up being in a fourth, fifth and sixth jobs. For majority of the young women, stability is achieved in second and third firms.

The study findings are in line with the previous research that finds similar patterns of job change among (largely among male) individuals in the IT industries. Updhya & Vasavi (2006) find that 39% of the respondents had worked only in one organisation and, 33% had worked in 2 firms. It was only 16% who had worked in four or more organisations[68].

Thus, the current study and previous research do not support the IT-ITES industry claims of job hopping behaviour of individuals. One or two job change is a common phenomenon in the beginning of the career it cannot be reduced to job hopping behaviour of the workers. To note here, since there are few women who change third job, this is why the causal analysis is limited to investigating the determinants of interfirm mobility of first and second job.

The survey documents reason for changing a particular job. The findings suggest that 47% of the women change first job for career advancement, 27% change for family reasons, 4% of the women change first job due to employment reasons, 6% change for attaining higher education and, 16% of the women change first job due to several heterogeneous reasons.

Similarly, women provide primary reason for changing second firm. The results indicate that 45% of the women change second job for career advancement, 28% change for family reasons, 8% of the women change second job due to employment reasons, 2% change for obtaining higher education and, 17% of the women change second job due to several heterogeneous reasons.

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[68] The authors' findings refer to interfirm mobility of male workers in the IT sector.

The findings indicate that in both first and second job, majority of the women change employer for advancing their career. The women find better opportunity elsewhere in the labour market that fulfils some of their career preferences.

Interestingly, the results point out that the proportion of women who change employers for family reasons remains by and large stagnant, though the share is second highest. Nearly, one-third of the women in both first and second job cite several family reasons such as marriage, childbirth, parental care etc. for changing employer. This heterogeneous category accounts for the third highest reason for changing firms.

The women's age composition suggests that women enter at a very young age in the first job[69]. The mean age at which women enter into first job is 22.88 years and the S.D. is 2.063, as shown in table 6.1. Accordingly, 50% of the women were below the age of 23 years when they entered in first job, while 90% of the women were below the age of 25 years when they transit to labour market.

Similarly, the mean age at which women enter into the second job is 25.10 years and the S.D. is 2.446, as shown in table 6.1. Hence, 50% of the women were below the age of 25 years and 90% of the women were below the age of 28 years when they entered in second job.

The majority of the women enter in the first job with unmarried marital status, while only few women were married at the time of joining first job. The findings suggest that 13% of the women were married, while 87% were unmarried while transiting to labour market. This resembles with the pattern prevalent in industrialised countries where women enter in labour market with unmarried marital status (Bernhardt 1993). Other findings of the survey confirm this. Women were asked their employment status at the time of marriage. This is shown in table 6.6.

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[69] In the survey, the first job has been measured since finishing bachelor degree which may also coincide with women's labour market entry. To get a job in the IT-ITES firms the minimum qualification required is a bachelor degree, though workers with 12 years of schooling can also be seen in the ITES sector such as call-centre and data entry.

Table 6.6: Women's employment status at the time of marriage

Women's Employment Status at the time of Marriage		
Status	Frequency	Percent
Working	226	76.87
Not working	40	13.61
Job quitted before marriage	28	9.52
Total	294	100

Table 6.6 demonstrates that 77% of the women were working at the time of marriage, 14% [70] of the women were not working and 9% quit the job temporarily at the time of marriage. The latter two groups of women returned to work post-marriage. It suggests that they were only temporarily out of the workforce at the time of marriage.

6.5. Job Characteristics

This section explains the characteristics of- first, second and third job. The job characteristics include- sector, type of job, i.e. full time or part time, working shift and women's job position in the firm hierarchy. The third job characteristics are discussed only for descriptive purpose in order to understand the comparison between second and third job for those women who change second job and move to third employer.

6.5.1. First Job Characteristics

Table 6.7 demonstrates first job characteristics. It shows that 80% of the women worked in IT-ITES sector, while 20% were working in another sector of the economy in the first job. Another sector may include teaching, hotel management, fashion designing, clerical or secretarial work. The main purpose is to broadly distinguish between the IT-ITES sector and other sector of the economy instead of knowing the particular occupation or profession in which women worked.

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[70] There is only 1% difference in the distribution of this variable and written above that's suggests marital status for 13% women.

Table 6.7: First job characteristics

First Job Characteristics		
Sector	Frequency	Percent
IT-ITES	237	80.34
Other	58	19.66
Total	295	100
Type of job	Frequency	Percent
Full time	290	98.31
Part time	5	1.69
Total	295	100
Working shift	Frequency	Percent
One fixed	210	71.19
Flexible	85	28.81
Total	295	100

Further, 98% of the women were working full-time and only 2% worked part-time in their first job, as shown in table 6.7. With respect to the working time, 71% of the women reported to have worked in a fixed shift, while 29% worked/working in flexible work shifts.

Table 6.8: Women's job position in first firm

Job Position of Women in First Firm		
Job level	Frequency	Percent
1 (lowest)	104	35.37
2	102	34.69
3	75	25.51
4	10	3.40
5 (highest)	3	1.02
Total	294	100

Table 6.9: Women's job position in all three jobs

Women's Job Position			
No. of jobs	Obs.	Mean	S.D
First	294	2.00	.916
Second	234	2.491	.845
Third	133	2.939	.841

Table 6.8 demonstrates the job position of women in the firm hierarchy. The job position was measured on a five point scale from low (1) to high (5). It suggests the level at which women worked or were working in their first job at the time of interview.

Table 6.8 indicates that 35% of the women were working at the lowest level (level 1), 35% were working at level 2, 26% reported to be working/have worked at level 3, while 3% and 1% of the women were working at level 4 and level 5 respectively in the first job.

However, on average, women were located at level two (2) in the firm hierarchy in their first job, while the S.D. is .916, as shown in table 6.9. This implies that the majority of women, i.e. as much as 70% were concentrated at the lower level in their first organisation. Very few women were working at the middle level in their first job.

6.5.2. Second Job Characteristics

Out of total 295 women, 236 women change first job and move to second employer. The distribution of several variables measured for the second job is shown in table 6.10.

Table 6.10: Second job characteristics

Second Job Characteristics		
Sector	Frequency	Percent
IT-ITES	198	83.9
Other	38	16.1
Total	236	100
Type of job	Frequency	Percent
Full time	235	99.58
Part time	1	0.42
Total	236	100
Working shift	Frequency	Percent
One fixed	176	74.58
Flexible	60	25.42
Total	236	100

Table 6.10 demonstrates that 84% of the women reported to be working in the IT-ITES sector, while 16% worked in the other sector of the economy. Similar to first job, in the second job as well 99% of the women were working full-time, while only 1%[71] was working part-time. 75% of the women reported to be working in one fixed shift, while 25% of the women worked in flexible shifts.

Women's job position improves in the second firm, as shown in table 6.11.

Table 6.11: Women's job position in second firm

Job Position of Women in Second Firm		
Job level	Frequency	Percent
1 (lowest)	24	10.26
2	98	41.88
3	88	37.61
4	21	8.97
5 (highest)	3	1.28
Total	234	100

The findings suggest that only 10% of the women were working at the lowest level 1, while 42% of the women were working at level 2, 38% were working at the middle level and, 9% and 1% were working at level 4 and level 5 respectively in the second job, as shown in table 6.11.

On the other hand, the mean position at which women were working in their second job is 2.49 and the S.D. is .845, as shown in table 6.9. The mean value of job position suggests that as women move to the second job the majority of them improve their job position.

The findings about wages and additional monetary benefits suggest that 87% of the women receive higher wages and additional monetary benefits as they move to a second firm, while only 13% of the women do not receive an increase in wages and additional monetary perks from second employer.

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[71] There is only one woman who reported to be working or have worked in part time job. This Percent has been rounded off.

Similarly, 67% of the women attain higher position, while 33% of the women do not attain promotion at second employer. Hence, nearly one-third of the women do not receive higher position in their second job.

6.5.3. Third Job Characteristics

Out of 236 women in the second job, 136 women change second firm and move to third employer. The distribution of several job characteristics measured for the third job is shown in table 6.12.

Table 6.12: Third job characteristics

Third Job Characteristics		
Sector	Frequency	Percent
IT-ITES	125	91.91
Other	11	8.09
Total	136	100
Type of job	Frequency	Percent
Full time	135	99.26
Part time	1	0.74
Total	136	100
Working shift	Frequency	Percent
One fixed	109	80.15
Flexible	27	19.85
Total	136	100

As table 6.12 shows, 92% of the women reported to be working in the IT-ITES sector while 8% worked in other sector in their third job. Like in the previous jobs, 99% of the women had full-time job and only 1% worked part-time. Further, 80% of the women reported to be working in one fixed shift, while 20% worked in flexible shifts.

Table 6.13 demonstrates women's job position in the third firm. The findings suggest that only 5% of the women were working at the lowest level 1, 21% were working at level 2, 50% were working at the middle level and, 23% and 1% were working at level 4 and level 5 respectively, as shown in table 6.13.

Table 6.13: Women's job position in third firm

Job Position of Women in Third Firm		
Job level	Frequency	Percent
1 (lowest)	7	5.26
2	28	21.05
3	66	49.62
4	30	22.56
5 (highest)	2	1.50
Total	133	100

However, the mean position at which women were located in their third firm is 2.939 and the S.D. is .841, as shown in table 6.9. The increase in mean value of all the jobs position suggests continuous improvement in women's job position in line with changing jobs. Therefore, the majority of the women are concentrated at the middle level in third job, while only few women continue working at the lowest level one in their third job.

The findings about higher position (promotion) suggest that 78% of the women attain promotion while, 22% of the women do not attain higher position in their third job. Similar to the second job, 87% of the women receive increase in wages and additional monetary benefits from third employer, while 13% of the women do not receive higher wages in third firm.

6.6.   Career Development as an Outcome of Job Change: A Comparison of First, Second and Third Job

This section thoroughly compares the characteristics of first, second and third job. The results offer useful insights into the development of women's career trajectory as an outcome of job changing process. In addition, the results indicate women's preferences of particular aspects of work life such as working time.

The findings suggest that women change sector in line with changing job. That is, 50% of the women who were working in other sector in their first job move to the IT-ITES sector in their second job, while the remaining 50% move to other sector in their second job. Similarly, 69% of the women who worked in other sector in second job move to the IT-ITES sector in third job. Only 31% of the women join other sector in their third job.

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In all three jobs, almost all women work full time regardless of the sector in which they worked. There were very few women who worked part-time. This suggests that to a great extent, women prefer to work full time instead of part time.

It is supported by other findings of the survey that indicate women's preference for full-time jobs. The results inform that 53% of the women prefer to work full time while, 26% of the women want to work part-time and 21% of the women are indecisive about their preference for part-time job.

Desirable working time enables working women reconciling work and family life in a less stressful manner. This assumes more importance for working mothers as it influences their decision to stay in the firm or change employer if it makes their worker and family roles incompatible.

A comparison of working shift between first and second job is shown in table 6.14.

Table 6.14: Comparison of working shift between first and second job

Working shift in first job	Working Shift in Second Job					
	Fixed	Percent	Flexible	Percent	Total	Percent
Fixed	144	85.21	25	14.79	169	100
Flexible	32	47.76	35	52.24	67	100
Total	176	74.58	60	25.43	236	100

Table 6.14 suggests that 85% of the women who worked in one fixed shift in first organisation continue working in one fixed shift in second job as well, while 15% of the women, who worked in one fixed shift in first job, move to flexible shifts in second job.

Similarly, 48% of the women who had flexible work shifts in their first job move to one fixed work shift in the second job, while 52% of the women continue working in flexible shifts in second job[72].

A comparison of working shift between second and third job is shown in table 6.15.

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[72] Pearson chi2(1) = 35.4828   Pr = 0.000; Cramer's V= .387.

Table 6.15: Comparison of working shift between second and third job

Working shift in second job	Working Shift in Third Job					
	Fixed	Percent	Flexible shift	Percent	Total	Percent
Fixed	86.00	83.50	17.00	16.50	103.00	100.00
Flexible	23.00	69.70	10.00	30.30	33.00	100.00
Total	109.00	80.15	27.00	19.85	136.00	100.00

Table 6.15 suggests that 83% of the women who worked in one fixed shift in the second firm continue working in one fixed shift in the third organisation. Only 17% of the women shift from fixed shift in second job to flexible shifts in the third job. Moreover, 70% of the women who worked in flexible shift in the second job move to one fixed shift in third organisation, while 30% of the women continue working in flexible shifts in their third job.

The results clearly inform that women gradually prefer to work in one fixed shift instead of flexible or rotating shifts. Flexible (rotating) shifts bring uncertainty of working time that makes reconciliation of work and family difficult for married women and mothers. In addition, it poses a greater challenge for women to be in tune with the husband's working time. The movement of women in one fixed work shift in both the jobs i.e. 50% in second job and 70% in third job is evidence to this claim.

Women upgrade their job position in the firm hierarchy in line with changing employer. The results offer interesting insights about the status attainment process as an outcome of job change. The table 6.16 and 6.17 show upward movement in women's job position in line with changing firms.

Table 6.16: Comparison of job position between first and second firm

Job Position in First Firm	Job Position in Second Firm											
	1 (Lowest)	Percent	2	Percent	3	Percent	4	Percent	5 (highest)	Percent	Total	Percent
1 (Lowest)	19	20.21	55	58.51	19	20.21	1	1.06	0	0.00	94	100
2	3	3.75	37	46.25	37	46.25	3	3.75	0	0.00	80	100
3	2	3.92	6	11.76	30	58.82	12	23.53	1	1.96	51	100
4	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	14.29	5	71.43	1	14.29	7	100
5 (highest)	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	50.00	0	0.00	1	50.00	2	100
Total*	24	10.26	98	41.88	88	37.61	21	8.97	3	1.28	234	100

Table 6.17: Comparison of job position between second and third firm

Job Position in Second Firm	Job Position in Third Firm											
	1 (Lowest)	Percent	2	Percent	3	Percent	4	Percent	5 (highest)	Percent	Total	Percent
1 (Lowest)	5	33.33	8	53.33	2	13.33	0	0.00	0	0.00	15	100
2	2	3.57	18	32.14	32	57.14	4	7.14	0	0.00	56	100
3	0	0.00	2	4.08	29	59.18	18	36.73	0	0.00	49	100
4	0	0.00	0	0.00	3	27.27	7	63.64	1	9.09	11	100
5 (highest)	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	100.00	1	100
Total	7	5.30	28	21.21	66	50.00	29	21.97	2	1.52	132	100

The findings suggest that the job position of the majority of women (if not all) improves in line with changing employer. Table 6.16 demonstrates that 58% of the women who were working at level one in the first job move to level two in the second job. That is, women move one level up in the next firm in comparison to their location in the previous firm. It is 20% of the women who continue working at level one despite changing the employer, as shown in table 6.16.

Further, table 6.16 shows that 20% of the women who were working at the lowest level (level one) in first job move to level three in the second firm. Among those women who worked at level two in first job, 46% move to level three in the second organisation, while a similar percentage of women, i.e. 46% of the women continue working at level two in second the firm.

The situation does not change much for women working at the middle level in the organisation. Thus, 59% of the women who were working at level three in their first job continue working at the same level in second as well, as indicated in table 6.16. Only 24% of the women move to level four from level three in line with changing employer, as shown in table 6.16. Further, only few women are able to reach at level four and five in both first and second job[73].

A comparison of job position between second and third job is shown in table 6.17. The findings suggest that 53% of the women who were working at the lowest level (level one) in second job move one level up, i.e. at level two in the third job, while nearly one third continue working at the lowest level in the third firm.

Further, 57% of the women also improve their position as they move to the third employer. Women move to level three in a third job, while they worked at level two in the second firm. At the same time, 32% of the women do not move upward despite changing the firm. After reaching at the middle level women are not able to upgrade their job position despite changing the firm, as shown in table 6.17.

Furthermore, 59% of the women who were working at level three in the second firm continue working at level three in their third job, as shown in table 6.17.

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[73] The measure of correlation, Kendall's Tau-b= .513; ASE= .046.

Only 37% of the women move to level four in the third job from level three in the second job, as indicated in table 6.17. Again, very few women are able to reach at level four and five in the third firm. Those women who were working at level four in the second firm continue working at the same level in third organisation.

In brief, findings indicate that the majority of women move one level up and upgrade their job position in line with changing employer. Especially, almost all women seize to work at the lowest level (level 1) and move to second level by the time they join third employer. In addition, the majority of the women working at level two reach at the middle level. However, very few women are able to move beyond middle level. Eventually, the majority of the women get concentrated at the middle level.

In all three jobs very few women are able to reach at level four and five. The possible explanation could be that in order to reach higher levels such as managerial position, supervision or any decision making position individuals need certain years of experience at a particular job or in specific tasks. Since all women in the sample are young, there are plenty of possibilities to move upwards in near future if women decide to stay employed.

Another explanation may include gender discrimination at higher level that restricts women's opportunity to attain higher rewards. Gender norms and traditional gender role attitudes are expected to be stringent among male bosses/team leaders/managers who possess the authority for distribution of opportunities between male and female employees in the firm.

Given the traditional gender role attitudes of male bosses, women may not be perceived as efficient worker to perform work demanded at the higher level. Such attitudes lead to discrimination and, restrict women's opportunity and potential to move to higher levels. Due to such attitudes women stay concentrated at the lower or middle level for a long time in their work career.

Despite that, the findings suggest that women improve their job position in line with changing job. It can be claimed as one of their strategies to develop career and maximize (status) reward if they find it unachievable in the current firm.

They attain it by moving to the next firm. Thus, interfirm mobility contributes to their status enhancement.

Other indicators such as wages and promotion also demonstrate the attainment tendency of women. Table 6.18 demonstrates the results for promotion and table 6.19 shows the results for wages and monetary benefits.

Table 6.18: Comparison of promotion between second and third job

Promotion in Second Job	Promotion in Third Job					
	Yes	Percent	No	Percent	Total	Percent
Yes	77	81.05	18	18.95	95	100
No	24	68.57	11	31.43	35	100
Total	101	77.69	29	22.31	130	100

Table 6.19: Comparison of wages between second and third job

Wages & Monetary Benefits in Second job	Wages & Monetary Benefits in Third Job					
	Yes	Percent	No	Percent	Total	Percent
Yes	106	89.08	13	10.92	119	100
No	10	66.67	5	33.33	15	100
Total	116	86.57	18	13.43	134	100

Table 6.18 suggests that 81% of the women who receive promotion in the second job also attain higher position in the third job, while 69% of the women who do not receive higher position in the second firm they attain promotion in the third job[74].

Similarly, table 6.19 indicates that 89% of the women who receive higher wages and additional monetary benefit in the second job receive monetary benefits from third employer as well. It is only 11% of the women who do not benefit in monetary terms despite changing the firm[75].

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[74]The measurement of correlation is not significant. Pearson chi2(1) = 2.2989   Pr = 0.129; Cramer's V= .1330.

[75] The measurement of correlation is significant. Pearson chi2(1) = 5.7525   Pr = 0.016; Cramer's V= .207.

In a nutshell, findings suggest that for the majority of the women interfirm mobility is at least an assurance of maximizing monetary rewards, if it does not result in attaining higher position. Women benefit in monetary terms as they change employer

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6.7. Women's Attitudes toward Work and Family

This section turns the discussion towards understanding the attitudes of young women. It informs about women's motivation, preferences and attitude towards work and family life. In industrialised countries, women's work commitment (Bielby and Bielby 1984; Bielby 1992; Desai and Waite 1991; Hakim 2000; Klerman and Leibowitz 1999; Moen and Smith 1986; Spitze and Waite 1980); sex role attitude and women's perception of their husband's attitude towards wife's work were shown to have a strong and significant effect on women's labour force participation (Bernhardt 1993; Brewster and Rindfuss 2000; Darian 1975; Gordon and Kammeyer 1980; Macran, Joshi, and Dex 1996; Shaw 1985; Vandenheuvel 1997; Waite and Stolzenberg 1976).

Bielby & Bielby (1984) suggest that work commitment and sex role attitudes are distinct from each other. Work commitment is related to itself over a period of time than being influenced by the women's sex role attitude. With respect to the husband's attitude towards wife's work, Spitze & Waite (1981) state that married women's labour force participation is strongly influenced by husband's attitude towards wife's work.

Thus, in the light of these theoretical concepts about work and family attitudes of women, the own survey measures women's attitude towards work and family life. The aim is to understand women better and the extent to which these findings support in explaining determinants of interfirm mobility decision of women.

Women's sex role attitude, their attitudes toward own work and women's perception of husband's attitude towards wife's work are some of the determinants of women's labour force participation as well as indicators of social

change in the society. In the current study, they are part of descriptive findings, as shown in table 6.20.

Table 6.20: Attitudes toward work

Variable	Obs.	Mean	S.D.
Women's attitude towards own work	295	3.572	.868
Deriving happiness & self-realization	295	4.115	.898
Husband's attitude to women's work	295	3.355	.866

A new variable is created that measures women's attitude towards own work[76]. The mean score of women's work orientation is 3.57 and the S.D. is .868, as shown in table 6.20. While, 50% of the women lie below the score of 3.66, 90% lie below the score of 4.66. Thus, the findings suggest that young women are increasingly becoming work oriented. They are committed to their own work.

The findings indicate that women would prefer to work even if their husband earns much higher salary. They do not prefer to work part-time[77]. In addition, women never desired to have only a 'housewife' career.

Similarly, findings about women's sex role attitude suggest that 96% of the women believe that women should work. Only 3% of the women remain indecisive and they believe in situation based decision, while only 1% of the women believe that women should not work.

The results indicate that young women in the sample do not have traditional gender role attitudes with respect to women's work. Rather, these young women believe in women's paid work. However, it would be informative to include several indicators of gender role attitudes in a future survey in addition to measuring gender differences in gender role attitudes.

In particular, measuring gender role attitudes around childbirth and regarding domestic chores would be of high significance. In the current study, the single

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[76] A five point scale, from low (1) to high (5), was generated by merging three indicators. The score of one indicated low work orientation, while a score of 5 indicated high work orientation. The details are given in chapter 5.

[77] According to Moen and Smith (1986) women are perceived to be 'family oriented' not 'worker' by the employer if they are involved in part-time work.

indicator of sex role attitude cannot provide much reliable information. Rather it is a good exploratory indicator that informs women's changing gender role attitudes.

Moreover, the findings suggest that women derive sense of happiness and pleasure by working. It highlights the subjective utility of work. The mean score on happiness scale is 4.11 and the S.D. is .899[78], as shown in table 6.20. The findings indicate that women feel happy and derive sense of fulfilment through paid work. For 50% of the women, the score of happiness and self-realization lies below 4.5, while for 90% the score is 5. Women feel happy and rewarded if they are working.

Moreover, the survey measures women's perception of husband's attitude towards wife's work. A new variable on a five point scale is generated that informs about women's perception of husband's attitude towards his wife's work[79].

The mean score on husband's attitudinal scale is 3.35 and the S.D. is .866, as shown in table 6.20. While 50% of the women lie below the score of 3.5, 90% of the women lie below the score of 4.5. In brief, 90% of the women perceive that their husbands have positive and supportive attitudes toward their wife's work.

6.8.   Economic Necessity

Increasing cost of living in urban areas generate the demand for additional income at home. This in turn induces women's employment. The survey measures economic necessities of women in order to understand the extent to which women believe that it contributes to their purpose of work. The results are shown in table 6.21.

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[78]A new variable on a five point scale, from low (1) to high (5) is generated in which a score of one indicated lowest feeling of happiness and a score of five indicated highest feeling of happiness derived from paid work. The details are given in chapter 5.
[79] A new variable on a five point scale is generated by merging two indicators. The lowest score (1) indicates husband's lower support to wife's work, while a higher score (5) indicates husband's positive and supportive attitude to wife's work, as perceived by the women.

Table 6.21: Financial needs of families

Financial Needs of Families			
	Obs.	Mean	S.D.
All women	295	3.423	1.115
Mothers	109	3.678	1.091
Non-mothers	186	3.274	1.104

The findings suggest that all women regardless of motherhood status earn to meet additional economic necessities. The estimated mean is 3.44 and the S.D. is 1.11[80]. The results indicate that 50% of the women fall below the score of 3.5, while 75% fall below the score of 4.5.

It is expected that large families need more income to meet financial demands of the big family. Such economic demand generates the urge for dual-earners in the household. A dual income becomes a necessity in the absence of other source of income. Thus, it is expected that the families with children require more financial resources than families without children which in turn, contributes to women's purpose of employment.

In this light, the differences in economic needs by motherhood status are tested, as shown in table 6.21. Expectedly, the mean of financial needs for mothers is 3.67 and the S.D. is 1.091[81], while the median is 4. For women without children, the mean is 3.27 and the S.D. is 1.104[82], as shown in table 6.21. The median is 3 for them.

Hence, the differences in mean value of economic need for mothers and non-mothers clearly inform that families with children demand higher economic resources than families without children. This in turn induces women's paid work. Women with children unlike non-mothers feel higher urge to work for meeting financial requirements at home. It adds to one of their purposes for work.

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[80] A new variable on a five point scale, from low (1) to high (5) is generated. A score of one suggests a low economic need at home, while a score of 5 indicates a higher economic need of women. Thus, the higher is the score, the higher is the economic needs felt by the women.
[81] Total observation (N) = 109.
[82] Total observation (N) = 186.

6.9.   Reconciliation of Work and Family Life

In the light of women's entry to paid work, previous research argues that "*women's time although is divided into work and family, this has not led to a decline in their household duties*" (Kelkar et al. 2002). It suggests that women continue to be primarily responsible for household work despite the fact that their available time has divided into work and family unlike before when they were full-time housewives and mothers.

Against this backdrop, the survey measures the extent to which women experience difficulty in combining work and family, as shown in table 6.22.

Table 6.22: Difficulty in reconciling work and family

Difficulty in Reconciling Work and Family		
	Frequency	Percent
Yes	102	35.7
Neither agree nor disagree	71	24.8
No	113	39.5
Total	286	100

Table 6.22 demonstrates that 36% of the women find difficult to combine work and family roles in comparison to 39% of the women who do not find difficult to combine work and family responsibilities. 25% of the women find it neither easy nor difficult to combine dual roles, as shown in table 6.22.

Further, differences in reconciling the two roles are tested according to the motherhood status. It is expected that women with children, in contrast to non-mothers find more difficult to combine work and family. The results fulfil the expectations, as shown in table 6.23.

Table 6.23: Difficulty in reconciling work and family by motherhood status

Mother	Difficulty in Reconciling Work and Family by Motherhood Status							
	Yes	Percent	NAND	Percent	No	Percent	Total	Percent
Yes	50	46.7	17	15.89	40	37.38	107	100
No	52	29.1	54	30.17	73	40.78	179	100
Total	102	35.7	71	24.83	113	39.51	286	100

The findings suggest that 47% of the mothers find difficult to combine work and family life in comparison to 29% of the women without children who find difficult to reconcile work and family, as indicated in table 6.23. Further, 37% of the mothers and 41% of the non-mothers do not face challenges in combining work and family life, as shown in table 6.23.

Lastly, 16% of the mothers and 30% of the women without children neither finds it difficult nor finds it easy to combine dual roles, as shown in table 6.23. Rather, for them it can be suggested that the situation depends more on work and family demands at different points in time.

Since it is largely mothers rather than non-mothers who find difficult to reconcile work and family roles, the study then expects that it is mainly mothers who have to negotiate with the worker's role and have to make adjustments at work to meet family needs. Thus, the study asks- what kind of adjustments do women make at work? Do mothers often take day-off from work to meet family demands?

The survey includes the indicator that informs women's frequency of taking days-off due to family needs. The findings support the expectations, as shown in table 6.24.

Table 6.24: Role Conflict by motherhood status

Mother	Women's frequency of taking day-off by motherhood status							
	Yes	Percent	NAND	Percent	No	Percent	Total	Percent
Yes	59	54.6	26	24.07	23	21.30	108	100
No	57	31	57	30.98	70	38.04	184	100
Total	116	39.7	83	28.42	93	31.85	292	100

The findings suggest that 55% of the mothers often take day-off from work in comparison to 31% of the women without children who often take day-off from work to fulfil family responsibilities, as shown in table 6.24. It is only 21% of the mothers who are not off-work due to family needs in comparison to 38% of the non-mothers who are often not off-work to fulfil family needs, as shown in table 6.24.

In brief, findings inform that it is largely mothers who require more financial resources and face challenges in combining work and family roles than women without children. High family demands affect women's work life due to which they have to negotiate at work and often have to take day-off from work.

6.10.   Family Support to Working Mothers

Given the context in which mothers experience enormous difficulties in combining work and family life, the study explored whether or not families with children receive any family support. The study posed the question- What is the respondents' family structure?

Traditionally, Indian families followed a joint family system. However, the forces of modernization, westernization and urbanisation have been altering traditional joint-family systems in urban areas. The trend has been moving towards nuclear families. Nevertheless, recent research suggests the resurgence of the joint family system in India as well as the co-existence of nuclear and joint family system in dual-earner households (Upadhya and Vasavi 2006).

The Indian family system is known as an informal care and support provider to its members. In this light, the survey measures the family structure of women to better understand its functions and importance to the dual earner families, especially to the families with children in urban areas. The findings are presented in table 6.25 and table 6.26.

Table 6.25: Family structure of dual-earner families

Family Structure of Women without Children		
No. of family members	Frequency	Percent
Only husband	77	41.62
husband & additional member(s)	108	58.38
Total	185	100

Table 6.26: Family structure of women with one child

Family Structure of Women with One Child		
No. of family members	Frequency	Percent
Either husband or child*	3	3.16
Husband & child	33	34.74
Husband, child & additional member(s)	59	62.1
Total	95	100

Table 6.25 suggests that 58% of the women without a child live with two or more individuals in the family. That is, women live with husband and additional family member[83], while 42% of the women without a chid live only with the husband. They have nuclear family set up without additional member in the household.

On the other hand, table 6.26 indicates that 62% of the women with one child live with three or more members. That is, women live with child, husband and additional family member. Further, 35% of the women live with husband and child only, i.e. in total, only three family members indicating nuclear household, as shown in table 6.26. Only 3% of the women live with either child or a husband[84].

Therefore, the results inform that the extended family system has not disappeared completely in urban areas. More than half of the families with and without children live with an additional person in the household. The presence of additional member in the family indicates towards having an older person in the family such as- grandparent(s).

The additional member(s) in the family is expected to provide care and support to the family especially to the small children during women's working hours. It additionally suggests the reliance of dual earner couples more on family than on alternatives such as market. Hence, in the case of families which have small children, an extended family system acts as a support and care pillar.

6.11.   Summary

The chapter discussed the descriptive findings of the survey in detail. The results can be summarised as follows. The majority of women in the sample begin their work career in the IT-ITES sector. However, some women change sector in line with changing job. Women move from other sector to the IT-ITES sector.

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[83]Survey does not ask exclusively whether women live with husband or not. Most expectedly women live with husband after marriage. So, we assume that when they mention 'one' person in the household they refer to husband. Further, additional people generally include parents-in-law or in exceptional cases any member from native village/place. However, most expectedly they refer to parents-in-law.

[84] In this case it is assumed that either women's husband has migrated to other place due to work or their child does not live with her. I assume that it is husband who might have migrated to other place for work and women must be living with child.

Women enter in first job at a very young age with unmarried marital status. A very few women are married at the time of joining first job.

All women are at least university educated. More than half of the women have attained education at master level. Almost all women work full time in all three jobs. On average, women spend over two years in both first and second job. The findings suggest women's high preference of one fixed shift over flexible (rotating) shifts. Flexible or rotating shifts do not seem desirable as the majority of the women gradually choose to work in one fixed shift.

Further, the findings informed that the majority of the women upgrade their job position as they move to next employer. Almost all women move at least one level up from the lowest level one. However, women get stuck at the middle level job position. They are not able to upgrade their job position above middle level.

The majority of the women benefit both in monetary and non-monetary terms from changing the employer. The results suggested that at least attaining higher wages and additional monetary benefits are assured upon changing employer, if not the promotion.

The work attitudes of women suggest a higher work commitment towards their own work. Women feel happy and rewarded if they are working. However, at the same time, their purpose to work is also influenced by the economic necessities at home. This is especially the case for families with children. Mothers require higher financial resources to meet family's economic demand.

In addition, mothers experience greater difficulty in combining work and family roles than non-mothers. Due to this work-family conflict, women are often adjusting at work by often taking days-off. Nevertheless, the support of extended family facilitates continuity of work post-childbirth.

In most of the families, the presence of an additional family member is expected to provide care and support to the child during mother's working hours. Hence, the family as an institution continues to be a significant care and support pillar for dual earner families in urban areas.

7.   Results

7.1   Introduction

This chapter examines women's interfirm mobility. Those women who leave first job move to second job, while those women who leave second job move to third job. Thus, mobility from first and second job is analysed. The analysis is carried out separately for both the jobs. That is, the first job change analysis model is discussed separately from second job change analysis model. However, findings are discussed cumulatively in the next chapter.

Further, the chapter explicates only regression results obtained by applying piecewise constant exponential (PCE) statistical technique to the own survey data. It then systematically compares the results of first and second job change. The chapter ends with providing summary of the results.

7.2   First Interfirm Mobility

There are total 295 women in the first job. Out of this, 80% (236) of the women change their first job and the remaining 20% continue working in it by the time of interview. The mean time women spend in the first job is 29.19[85] months since beginning the first job. The median time is 25 months[86]. That is, 50% of the women are likely to change their first job within 25 months and the remaining 50% stay in the first job more than 25 months.

Further, 25% of the women employees are likely to change their first job within 13 months, while 75% are likely to change within 45 months. The highest time a woman spends in the first job is 198 months[87]. This is the time when the study

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[85] This time is calculated on raw data. That is, it includes both type of women, those women who change first job and those women who continue working in the first job by the time of the interview. The latter are called censored cases.

[86] This is calculated using stsum command in Stata. It calculates time only for those women who change job.

[87] The time mentioned includes woman who does not leave first job and continue working till the time of the interview. This is calculated using stdescribe command of Stata. In general, 'stdescribe' command of Stata calculates the total time on 'raw' data that includes censored cases along with those individuals who experience an event (in our case job change). Hence, this way this maximum time includes those women who continue working in first job by the time of the

stops, i.e. at the time of interview. The total time at risk observed is 8613 person months. This is the time when women become at risk of changing their first job since the time of joining. The incidence rate is .0274 (236/8613=0.0274). The survival graph[88] of first interfirm mobility is given below.

Graph 7.1: Kaplan Meier survival estimate for first job

Kaplan-Meier survival estimate for first job
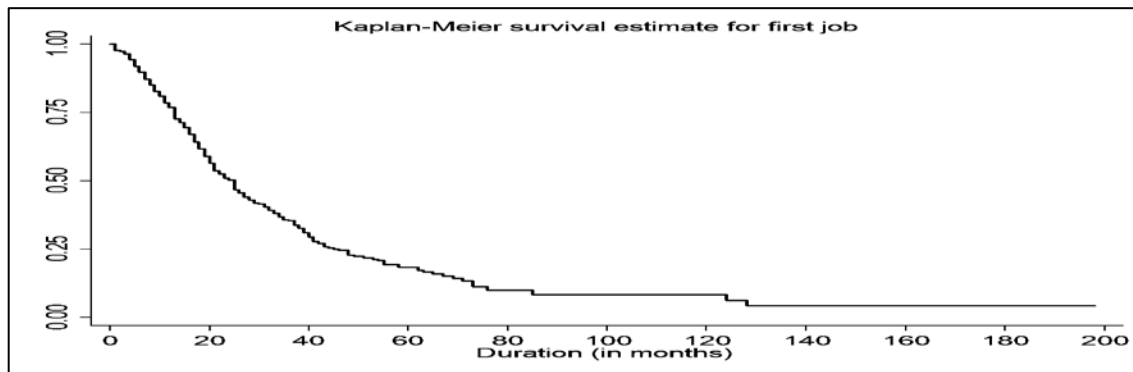
Graph 7.1 shows Kaplan-Meier survival estimate for the first job. Theoretically, survival curve always begins from 1 and then declines. However, it is not necessary that the curve reaches to zero at the end of the study time. It is because not all individuals in the study experience an event (here job change) by the end of the study.

In the current study, graph 7.1 demonstrates that in the beginning all women are at the risk of changing job; however, not all women change it in the end. Few women continue working in it by the time of interview. The graph 7.1 suggests that 75% of the women stay in the first job until 18-19 months and only 25% are likely to change within this time period, while 50% of the women change their first job within 25 months since joining the first job. Only 25% of the women continue working in the first job until 48-50 months, while 75% of the women change first job by this time period.

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interview. On the other hand, stsum command takes into account only those individuals who experience an event (job change) and, hence, reports accordingly.

[88] It is also calculated on raw data that includes both censored cases and those women who experience the event.

7.2.1 Time-dependency of the First Job Change Process

Before estimating the model with covariates, I first check the time dependency of the mobility rates from the first job. The time dependency in EHA implies that the occurrence of an event (in our case job change) is dependent upon the time spent in a particular state (Blossfeld et al. 2007). Hence, in the present study, it suggests that first job change is dependent upon the time spent in the first job.

I demonstrate how job change varies across different sub-time intervals. For this, the duration of first job is split into several sub-episodes (small time-intervals). The time axis is split into 9 equal time periods with equal time intervals of 10 months each, in addition to the last sub-episode. For instance, time-intervals begin from 0-9, 10-19, 20-29, 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, 60-69, 70-79 to 80-89. The last interval (t10) includes time above 90 months. That is, if woman spend more than 90 months in their first job, it comes under the last interval which is t10 (90-max). Hence, each time interval is made up of 10 equal months except the last interval (t10), as shown in table 7.1 and table 7.2.

Table 7.1: Time dependency of first job change

				Number of observation- 1077[89]		
				Number of imputation- 5		
Time Dependency of First Job Change						
_t	Coefficient	Std. Err.	t	P>|t|	[95% Conf. Interval]	
t1	-3.878	.133	-29.02	0	-4.140	-3.616
t2	-3.351	0.119	-28.04	0	-3.586	-3.117
t3	-3.478	0.156	-22.27	0	-3.784	-3.172
t4	-3.409	0.179	-18.98	0	-3.761	-3.057
t5	-3.557	0.242	-14.67	0	-4.032	-3.081
t6	-3.934	0.353	-11.13	0	-4.627	-3.241
t7	-3.676	0.408	-9.01	0	-4.476	-2.876
t8	-3.238	0.5	-6.48	0	-4.218	-2.258
t9	-4.077	1	-4.08	0	-6.037	-2.117
t10	-4.774	0.707	-6.75	0	-6.16	-3.389

Table 7.2: Time dependency of first job change in months

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[89] Total observation comes to 1077 because the time-dependency (as calculated by Stata) includes two time-varying covariates: marital status and childbirth. When time-dependent variables are created, the duration time already splits into two as a result of which the total observation increases. Thus, afterwards when time-dependency is calculated it leads to increase in total observations. This is why; here the total number of observation appears 1064.

Time Dependency of First Job Change (in months)			
time (in months)	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency
0 - 9	313	29.06	29.06
10 -19	252	23.4	52.46
20 - 29	174	16.16	68.62
30 - 39	128	11.88	80.5
40 - 49	86	7.99	88.49
50 - 59	58	5.39	93.87
60 - 69	38	3.53	97.4
70 - 79	14	1.3	98.7
80 - 89	8	0.74	99.44
90 – maximum	6	0.56	100
Total	1077	100	

Table 7.1 and table 7.2 demonstrate the hazard of changing first job. The tables suggest that the hazard of changing first job is higher at the time of joining the firm. That is, the risk is higher from 0 to 9 months. The hazard of changing first job further remains higher from until 19 months. However, with increasing time at the job, the risk declines from 20 month onwards. The risk of changing the first employer keeps declining until 69 months. From 70 to 79 months, the hazard of changing first job increases a bit; however, from 80 months onwards it again starts declining.

In brief, the findings suggest that women are more likely to change first job within first 9 months since joining the first firm. The risk remains higher in the first year. After completing a year in the firm, the risk slightly declines. However, after spending 2-2.6 years in the firm, women are more likely to change the job. Women are also more likely to change the first employer after spending 60-69 months (nearly 5 years).

However, there are few women who spend over 69 months in the first job as there are very few cases in the time intervals from 70 months onwards, as shown in table 7.2. Therefore, it is the first 2 years in the job in which women are more likely to change the first employer.

The study findings support previous findings that suggests high mobility rates in the beginning of job as individuals do not invest time in a particular job due to

which they have low human capital and hence, job mobility is likely to be higher in the beginning of each job (Blossfeld et al. 2007; Farber 1994).

In addition, this also indicates employer-employee mismatch. That is, when people are matched to jobs under the condition of imperfect information then mismatches can occur and this is stronger at the beginning of each new job (Blossfeld et al. 2007).

7.2.2   First Interfirm Mobility Analysis

This section elaborates the results of first interfirm mobility analysis. It explains all the models shown in table 7.3. For the analysis of first interfirm mobility, I first test individual level variables and then control organisation level variables. The individual level covariates include highest education, migrant status, age at entry in first job and, marital and motherhood status. The firm level covariates include working time, sector and job position of women. An interaction between marital status and working time is also tested in Model 6.

_t (duration in months)	First Interfirm Mobility					
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
	Individual factors			Firm factors		
0 – 9	-3.579 (.000)	-3.953 (.000)	-4.420 (.000)	-3.981 (.000)	-4.082 (.000)	-4.127 (.000)
10 – 19	-3.044 (.000)	-3.416 (.000)	-3.870 (.000)	-3.389 (.000)	-3.489 (.000)	-3.537 (.000)
20 – 29	-3.151 (.000)	-3.521 (.000)	-3.952 (.000)	-3.459 (.000)	-3.553 (.000)	-3.602 (.000)
30 – 39	-3.094 (.000)	-3.463 (.000)	-3.852 (.000)	-3.345 (.000)	-3.429 (.000)	-3.461 (.000)
40 – 49	-3.233 (.000)	-3.600 (.000)	-3.951 (.000)	-3.415 (.000)	-3.460 (.000)	-3.481 (.000)
50 – 59	-3.602 (.000)	-3.968 (.000)	-4.280 (.000)	-3.731 (.000)	-3.751 (.000)	-3.720 (.000)
60 – 69	-3.333 (.000)	-3.696 (.000)	-3.971 (.000)	-3.449 (.000)	-3.446 (.000)	-3.374 (.001)
70 – 79	-2.917 (.000)	-3.271 (.000)	-3.510 (.000)	-3.023 (.002)	-2.931 (.003)	-2.759 (.005)
80 – 89	-3.779 (.000)	-4.110 (.001)	-4.344 (.001)	-3.838 (.003)	-3.624 (.005)	-3.524 (.006)
90 - maximum	-4.424 (.000)	-4.770 (.000)	-4.956 (.000)	-4.444 (.000)	-4.184 (.000)	-4.192 (.000)

Table 7.3: Regression analysis of first interfirm mobility

_t (duration in months)	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
			First Interfirm Mobility			
	Individual factors			Firm factors		
Highest education (Ref: Master non-technical)						
Master technical/professional	-.328 (.098)~	-.331 (.101)~	-.355 (.079)~	-.335 (.097)~	-.319 (.115)	-.283 (.162)
Bachelor technical/professional	-.519 (.019)*	-.496 (.030)*	-.506 (.026)*	-.370 (.106)	-.406 (.077)~	-.398 (.083)~
Bachelor non-technical/professional	-.216 (.341)	-.194 (.416)	-.197 (.409)	-.331 (.167)	-.349 (.145)	-.341 (.155)
Migrant status (Ref: Delhi-NCR)		-.078 (.573)	-.082 (.559)	-.073 (.603)	-.103 (.467)	-.111 (.437)
Age at entry in first job		.001 (.606)	.003 (.286)	.003 (.241)	.002 (.422)	.002 (.437)
Marital status			-.203 (.265)	-.159 (.388)	-.144 (.436)	.075 (.706)
Motherhood status			-.187 (.560)	-.278 (.386)	-.343 (.290)	-.425 (.192)
Working time (Ref: Fixed shift)						
Flexible shifts				.069 (.639)	.036 (.811)	.248 (.143)
Economic sector (Ref: Other sector)						
IT-ITES sector				-.800 (.000)***	-.775 (.000)***	-.804 (.000)***
Job position in organisation (Ref: Level 3)						
1 (lowest)					.637 (.000)***	.628 (.000)***
2					.402 (.032)*	.426 (.023)*
4					.145 (.727)	.144 (.728)
5 (highest)					.591 (.420)	.677 (.357)
(Interaction effect)						
Marital status & flexible shift						-.996 (.014)**
No. of obs.	1077	1077	1077	1077	1077	1077

Note: P value in parentheses; statistical significance: *** at .001 level; ** at .01 level; * at .05 level; ~ at .10 level

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Model 1 in table 7.3 includes education along with sub time-intervals. As explained above, the time period is split into 9 equal time periods with equal time intervals of 10 months in addition to last sub-episode (t10, 90-maximum). For instance, time-intervals begin from 0-9, 10-19 and go up to 80-89 sub-time intervals. The last interval (t10, 90-maximum) includes the time above 90 months. The explanation of sub-time intervals will not be repeated while explaining each model. I only discuss the effect of independent variables.

Model 1 suggests that education regardless of type and level declines women's mobility from the first job in comparison to the reference category of non-technical/professional degree at master level. Women with technical/professional education at bachelor level (-.51) and master level (-.32), and women with non-technical/professional degree at bachelor level (-.21) are likely to stay longer in the first job as compared to women with non-technical/professional degrees at master level.

In comparison to the reference category, women trained in different disciplines and at different levels are likely to stay longer in the first job and, hence, are less likely to change the first employer. The effect of education is strong negative and highly statistically significant for women with technical/professional degree at bachelor level. While the effect is strong for women possessing technical/professional degree at master level, it is significant only at .10 level.

The effect is moderate and statistically insignificant for women with ordinary[90] degrees at bachelor level. In brief, education declines the likelihood of women's first interfirm mobility. All women regardless of the type and level of their education are more likely to stay longer in their first job. However, the results are highly statistically significant for women holding technical/professional degree at bachelor level.

In **Model 2** in table 7.3 migrant status and age at entry in first job are added. Both the variables have negligible and statistically non-significant effect on interfirm

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[90] The word ordinary is used for the non-technical/non-professional degrees. The words- 'common' and 'ordinary' are used interchangeably in the current study.

mobility rates. The age at which women enter in first job does not contribute to women's decision to change employer.

Similarly, women belonging to the other states of India do not show any remarkable differences in their job changing decision in comparison to women belonging to Delhi and NCR. The estimated parameters for migrant status and age are -.07 and .001 respectively. Both the factors have statistically insignificant effect. Further, adding these two variables in the model does not affect the education parameters drastically.

The effect of different levels of education continues to be same as it was in Model 1. The effect of technical/professional degree at bachelor level continues to be strong negative and statistically significant as compared to the non-technical/professional degree attained at master level. Lastly, these two variables do not affect sub-time intervals as well. They continue to remain statistically significant.

In **Model 3** in table 7.3 family status variables such as marital and motherhood statuses are added. Both the variables decline mobility from the first job. However, the effect is weak and statistically insignificant for both the variables. If women get married or become mother during their first job tenure or if they enter in first job as married or mother, they are likely to stay longer in the first job in comparison to the women who do not marry or do not become mother. The estimated parameters for marriage and motherhood status are -.20 and -.18 respectively. Further, adding these two family characteristics does not affect other parameters drastically in the model 3. For instance, the effect of migrant status and age continues to be negligible and statistically insignificant.

All levels of education declines women's mobility from the job; however, the effect of technical/ professional education at university level continues to be strong negative and statistically significant. The estimated parameter is -.50. The significance level for women possessing technical/professional degree at master level improves slightly as a result of adding family variables, while the effect remains strong.

In brief, women holding technical/professional degrees at master and non-technical/professional at bachelor level are less likely to change the first job, while they stay longer in it as compared to women holding non-technical/professional degree at master level. However, the results are not statistically significant for them at .05 level.

Thus, Model 3 includes all individual level covariates which can be summarised as follows: All covariates except age decline women's mobility from the first job due to which women are likely to stay longer in it. Except two categories of education, all other individual level independent variables have weak negative and statistically insignificant effect on interfirm mobility rates.

In **Model 4** in table 7.3 firm level variables- working time and sector are added. The IT-ITES sector has strong negative and statistically significant effect, while flexible (rotating) working shift has no effect on mobility rates. Women are less likely to change job if they worked in the IT-ITES firm in comparison to the other sector of the economy.

The estimated parameter of the IT-ITES sector is -.80 and the effect is highly statistically significant. The hazard of moving out from first job according to the sector is shown below in the graph 7.2. The graph clearly shows that hazard to change first employer is higher for those women who worked in other sector in comparison to those women who worked in the IT-ITES sector. Although descriptive findings suggest that 80% of the women worked in the IT-ITES sector, only 20% of the women worked in other sector in their first job.

Graph 7.2: Smoothed hazard estimate for first job according to sector

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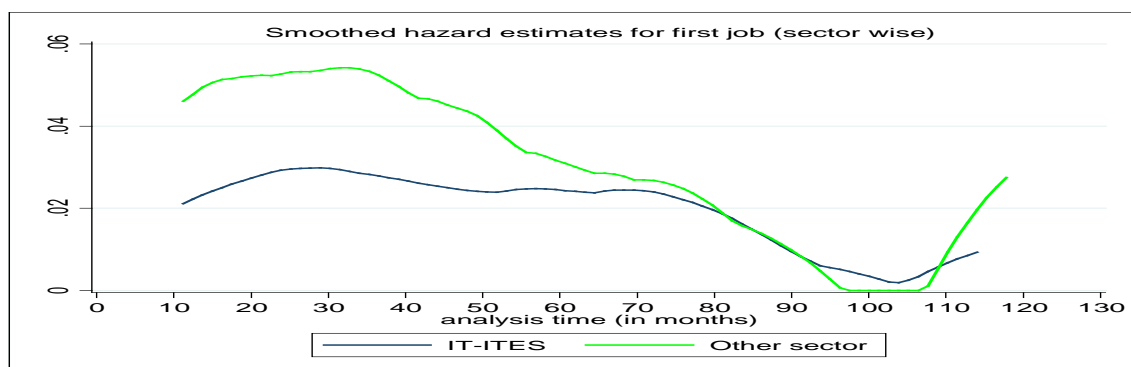
In **Model 4** in table 7.3, working time does not contribute to women's interfirm mobility decision. Women who reported to have worked in flexible shifts in the firm do not differ in their decision to change employer in comparison to those women who worked in one fixed shift in their first job. In brief, flexible work shifts do not affect women's decision to change the first employer.

Interestingly, after adding sector and working time, the effect and significance level of different educational categories drastically change. First, the variation in coefficients of different categories of education becomes smaller as shown in table 7.3. For instance, the effect of technical/professional degree attained at university level declines to -.37 (in Model 4) from -.50 (in Model 3). On the other hand, the effect of education for women holding non-technical/professional degree at bachelor level augments to -.33 (in Model 4) from -.19 (in Model 3).

These education categories no longer remain statistically significant at .05 level. In brief, though the effect of all categories of education remains strong negative in comparison to non-technical/professional degree at master level but the statistical significance disappears.

Adding sector and working time in Model 4 augments the effect of presence of small children. Those women who become mother during the first job tenure or enter in job with small children are less likely to move out from the job, while they stay longer in it. The effect is strong negative but statistically insignificant with estimated parameter of -.27.

Similarly, the effect of marriage declines slightly. Those women who get married during their first job tenure or enter in first job with married marital status stay longer in the first firm. The effect remains weak and statistically insignificant. Other variables such as migrant status and age continue to have negligible and statistically insignificant effect on interfirm mobility rates despite adding sector and working time in model 4.

Job position of women in the firm hierarchy is added in **Model 5** in table 7.3. Lower levels of job position have strong positive and statistically significant effect on first interfirm mobility decision of women. That is, if women are working at the lowest levels (level 1 and level 2) in comparison to level 3 in the

organisational hierarchy, they are more likely to move out of the first job and join next employer.

The estimated parameters for level one and level two of job position are .63 and .40 respectively. The effect is statistically significant for both the levels. However, a high statistically significant (at .001 level) result is noted for level one of job position. Further, adding job position in the model augments the effect of presence of small children.

Women are likely to stay longer in the first job if they become mother or if they are already mother at the time of joining the first job. The estimated parameter is -.34 but the effect remains statistically insignificant. The effect of marriage declines slightly as a result of adding job position in model 5 in table 7.3. However, it continues to have a weak and statistically insignificant effect on interfirm mobility decision of women.

The effect of migrant status, age and working time does not change despite adding job position in model 5 in table 7.3. In all models in table 7.3, age does not have any effect on interfirm mobility decision. Likewise, women working in flexible (rotating) shifts do not differ in their mobility decision from women working in one fixed shift. In other words, rotating working time does not contribute to women's decision to change first employer.

The addition of job position does not bring much change in the coefficients of different categories of education. All categories of education continue to have strong negative effect on mobility rates; however, the significance improves slightly for women holding technical/professional degrees at bachelor level. Other educational categories remain statistically insignificant at .05 level.

In **Model 6** in table 7.3**,** the interaction between marital status and flexible work shifts is tested. The study tested the extent to which rotating shifts has an impact on interfirm mobility decision of married women. The effect of the interaction is strong negative and highly statistically significant. If women get married during first job tenure or if they enter in first job with married marital status and work in flexible shifts, they are likely to stay longer in the first firm in comparison to those women who are not married and worked in fixed shift.

The estimated parameter for the interacted variables is -.99 and the effect is statistically significant at .01 level. Interestingly, the interaction between marital status and working time drastically change the effect of flexible work shifts in Model 6 in table 7.3. Until Model 5, working time does not have any effect on job changing decision of women.

However, introducing interaction term augments its effect positively. As a result, those women who worked in flexible shifts are more likely to change the first job as compared to women who worked in fixed shift. Though the effect remains statistically insignificant, the effect boosts as much as eight times, nearly from nothing, i.e. from .03 (in Model 5) to .24 (in Model 6).

After adding interaction term in model 6, the effect of marriage becomes positive, yet remains negligible and statistically non-significant. The effect of presence of small children augments after introducing interaction between marital status and working time. The estimated parameter for motherhood status is -.42 but the effect remains statistically insignificant.

The effect of other individual and firm level covariates do not change drastically as a result of adding interaction term in model 6. The migrant status and age continues to be ineffective and statistically non-significant. The IT-ITES sector continues to attract women in comparison to the other sector. Women are likely to stay longer in the IT-ITES sector than other sector.

Moreover, if women are located at lower levels (level 1 and 2) in the firm hierarchy, they are more likely to change the first employer in comparison to women located at middle level (level 3) in the firm. The effect of different categories of education remains negative. All women holding different types of degree at different levels are less likely to change the first job in comparison to women holding non-technical/professional degrees at master level.

However, the effect is strong and statistically significant at .10 level for women possessing technical/professional degree at bachelor level. The effect remains statistically insignificant for other two categories of education.

7.2.3   Summary of First Interfirm Mobility

The results of first interfirm mobility suggest that among individual level factors education and presence of small children have strong negative effect on interfirm mobility rates. Among all categories of education, women holding technical/professional degrees at bachelor level have statistically significant effect in comparison to women holding non-technical/professional degree at master level. Women trained in technical/professional degrees at university level stay longer in the first job.

The results for motherhood status are not statistically significant. However, its effect increases in line with adding each firm level variable. That is, if women become mother or if they are already mother at the time of joining first job, they stay longer in the first job. Other factors such as age, migrant status and marital status do have negligible and statistically insignificant effect on mobility from the first job. They are weak determinants of first interfirm mobility.

Among firm level covariates IT-ITES sector has strong negative and statistically significant effect on interfirm mobility rates. Women stay longer in the job if they work in the IT-ITES sector. Lower levels (level 1 and 2) of job position witness higher mobility rates. Women working at lower levels in the first firm are more likely to change the job.

Flexible work shifts do not influence women's job mobility decision till model 5. However, the effect of flexible shifts augments in model 6 as a result of adding interaction variables, the effect remains statistically insignificant. On the other hand, the interaction between marital status and flexible shifts suggest that women stay longer in the job if they are married and work in rotating shifts. It takes longer for them to change the first job.

In brief, results clearly inform that firm level factors bring change in individual level factors. The value of coefficients of individual level variables changes in line with adding each firm level variable. As the results demonstrated in table 7.3, the effect of marriage declines, while the effect of small children increases. Among all categories of education, the strongest negative and statistically

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significant effect is recorded for women holding technical/professional degree at bachelor level.

7.3   Second Interfirm Mobility

This section examines second interfirm mobility of women. That is, those women who leave first job move to second employer, while eventually they leave second job as well and move to third employer. Thus, they change job twice. In total, there are 236 women who change their first job and enter in second job. Thus, N=236 for the analysis of second interfirm mobility.

Out of 236 women, 58% (136) of the women change their second job, while 42% of the women were working in it at the time of the interview. The mean time women spend in second job is approximately 28 months[91] (27.94), i.e. more than two years. The median survival time is 20.5 months[92] which implies that 50% of the women are likely to change their second job within 20.5 months, while remaining 50% spend over 20.5 months in second firm.

The highest time a woman spends in the second firm is 205 months (17 years)[93] until the interview time. The calculated total time at risk is 6594 person months. This is the time when individuals become at risk of changing their second job since the time of joining second job. The incidence rate is .020 (136/6594= 0.020). The survival graph of second job is given below.

Graph 7.3 demonstrates that 25% of the women change second employer within 15-17 months since joining the firm, while 75% stay in it by this time period. Further, 50% of the women stay in second job until 26-28 months approximately, while the remaining 50% of the women change second job by this time period. The 25% of the women stay in job around 100 months since joining the firm, while 75% of the women change job within 78-80 months since joining time.

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[91] This estimation includes censored cases as well.
[92] This is obtained using 'stdes' command in Stata.
[93] This time includes censored cases as well. As noted above, Stata command 'stdescribe' computes time on 'raw 'data that includes censored cases as well. Thus, the time mentioned belongs to the woman who did not leave second job until the interview time. This woman is second oldest in the sample and hence may constitute as outlier. Yet the respondent cannot be dropped from the sample on the basis of age. This is why; she is included in the sample.

Graph 7.3: Kaplan-Meier survival estimates of second job change

Kaplan-Meier survival estimate for second job
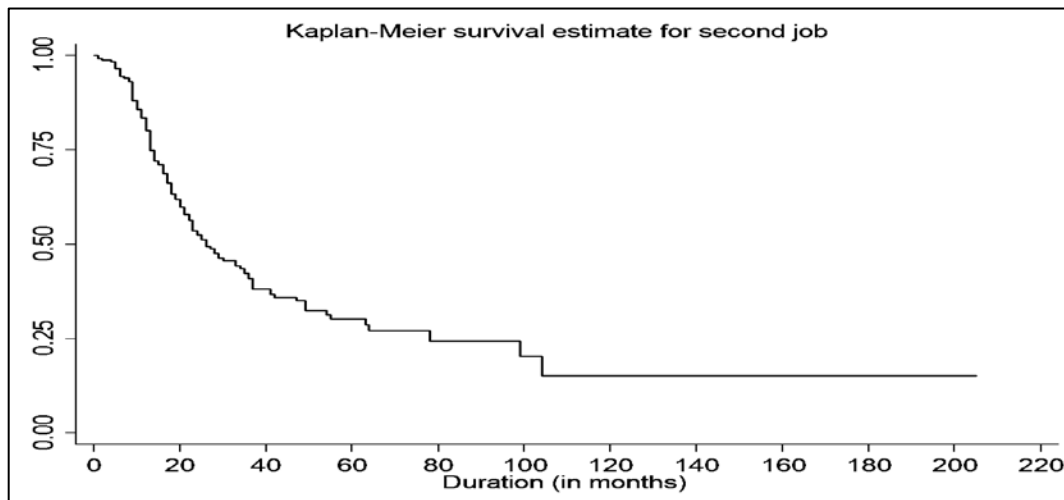
7.3.1 Time-Dependency of Second Job Change Process

Similar to first job, time dependency of second interfirm mobility is examined. In other words, I check how second job change is dependent upon the time spent in the second job. Thus, I demonstrate how job change varies across different sub-time intervals. For this, the duration of second job is split into several sub-episodes (small time-intervals).

The time axis is split into 8 equal time periods with equal time-intervals of 10 months each in addition to last sub-episode. For instance, time intervals begin from 0-9, 10-19, 20-29, 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, 60-69 to 70-79. The last time interval (t9) includes time above 80 months. That is, if woman spend more than 80 months in their second job, it comes under the last interval (t9, 90-max). Hence, each time interval is made up of 10 equal months except the last interval (t9), as shown in table 7.4 and table 7.5.

Table 7.4: Time dependency of second job change

				Number of observation- 851		
				Number of imputation- 5		
Time Dependency of Second Job						
_t	Coefficient	Std. Err.	t	P>|t|	[95% Conf. Interval]	
t1	-4.228	0.176	-23.92	0	-4.575	-3.882
t2	-3.337	0.136	-24.53	0	-3.604	-3.07
t3	-3.587	0.200	-17.94	0	-3.979	-3.195
t4	-4.035	0.301	-13.38	0	-4.625	-3.444
t5	-4.134	0.377	-10.94	0	-4.874	-3.393
t6	-4.962	0.707	-7.02	0	-6.348	-3.576
t7	-4.375	0.707	-6.19	0	-5.761	-2.989
t8	-4.663	1.000	-4.66	0	-6.623	-2.703
t9	-5.204	0.707	-7.36	0	-6.589	-3.818

Table 7.5: Time dependency of second job change in months

Time Dependency of Second Job Change (in months)			
time (in months)	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency
0 – 9	263	30.90	30.90
10 – 19	218	25.62	56.52
20 – 29	136	15.98	72.50
30 – 39	83	9.75	82.26
40 – 49	61	7.17	89.42
50 – 59	40	4.70	94.12
60 – 69	25	2.94	97.06
70 – 79	15	1.76	98.82
80 – maximum	10	1.18	100
Total	851	100	

Table 7.4 and 7.5 demonstrate the hazard of changing second job. The risk of changing second employer is higher between 0 to 9 months. The risk remains higher until 19 months. However, with increasing time in second firm, the hazard starts declining from 20 month onwards. The risk keeps declining until 50-59 months. However, from 70 month onwards (close to 6 years), the hazard of changing second job starts declining, though there are less number of women in subsequent interval who experience the event of job change.

In brief, the findings suggest that women are likely to leave second job in the beginning of the job. The risk is higher during the first 9 months after joining the

firm. In fact, the risk of changing the job remains high until 29 months. However, after spending over two years, the risk declines.

7.3.2   Second Interfirm Mobility Analysis

This section elaborates the results of second interfirm mobility analysis. It explains all models shown in table 7.6. For the analysis of second interfirm mobility, I first test individual level variables and then control for firm level covariates. The individual level covariates include highest education, migrant status, age at entry in second job, wages and monetary benefits, and marital and motherhood status. The firm level covariates include working time, sector, job position of women in the firm hierarchy, promotion and working conditions. An interaction between marital status and flexible work shifts is tested in Model 8.

Table 7.6: Regression analysis of mobility from second job

_t (duration in months)	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9
	Individual factors				Firm factors				
0 – 9	-4.806 (.000)	-2.520 (.015)	-2.667 (.013)	-2.991 (.010)	-2.27 (.051)	-3.067 (.009)	-2.877 (.015)	-2.175 (.075)	-1.988 (.108)
10 – 19	-3.897 (.000)	-1.605 (.118)	-1.752 (.100)	-2.076 (.071)	-1.298 (.263)	-2.018 (.085)	-1.822 (.125)	-1.102 (.370)	-0.912 (.463)
20 – 29	-4.140 (.000)	-1.858 (.072)	-2.004 (.061)	-2.317 (.043)	-1.494 (.197)	-2.155 (.064)	-1.95 (.098)	-1.221 (.318)	-1.02 (.410)
30 – 39	-4.580 (.000)	-2.307 (.029)	-2.454 (.025)	-2.74 (.018)	-1.929 (.100)	-2.507 (.033)	-2.337 (.049)	-1.593 (.196)	-1.387 (.267)
40 – 49	-4.663 (.000)	-2.397 (.026)	-2.546 (.022)	-2.818 (.016)	-1.922 (.106)	-2.464 (.038)	-2.329 (.053)	-1.563 (.211)	-1.369 (.279)
50 – 59	-5.482 (.000)	-3.225 (.009)	-3.368 (.007)	-3.64 (.005)	-2.743 (.039)	-3.227 (.015)	-3.104 (.021)	-2.323 (.093)	-2.146 (.124)
60 – 69	-4.874 (.000)	-2.666 (.028)	-2.804 (.024)	-3.076 (.017)	-2.216 (.091)	-2.615 (.046)	-2.493 (.059)	-1.724 (.205)	-1.577 (.248)
70 – 79	-5.148 (.000)	-2.97 (.033)	-3.116 (.029)	-3.373 (.021)	-2.552 (.085)	-2.952 (.046)	-2.824 (.058)	-2.058 (.178)	-1.898 (.215)
80 – max.	-5.698 (.000)	-3.488 (.004)	-3.633 (.004)	-3.759 (.003)	-2.918 (.024)	-3.284 (.011)	-3.065 (.019)	-2.334 (.083)	-2.138 (.115)

Mobility from Second Job

_t (duration in months)	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9
	Mobility from Second Job								
	Individual factors				Firm factors				
Highest education (Ref: Master non-technical)									
Master technical/ professional	.805 (.006)**	.794 (.007)**	.793 (.007)**	.808 (.006)**	.656 (.028)*	.702 (.020)*	.589 (.051)*	.490 (.107)	.478 (.115)
Bachelor technical/ professional	.284 (.407)	.228 (.508)	.227 (.509)	.245 (.477)	.292 (.398)	.424 (.229)	.318 (.370)	.226 (.525)	.206 (.564)
Bachelor non-technical/ professional	.629 (.052)*	.644 (.049)*	.645 (.048)*	.671 (.040)*	.579 (.083)~	.787 (.021)*	.672 (.049)*	.618 (.069)~	.587 (.085)~
Migrant status (Ref: Delhi-NCR)		-.039 (.833)	-.054 (.771)	-.056 (.766)	.003 (.985)	-.038 (.841)	.042 (.827)	.077 (.692)	.065 (.737)
Age at entry into job		-.007 (.024)*	-.007 (.026)*	-.006 (.083)~	-.005 (.117)	-.004 (.198)	-.006 (.097)~	-.005 (.121)	-.006 (.110)
Wages & monetary benefits			.142 (.609)	.150 (.588)	.066 (.810)	.243 (.385)	.111 (.696)	.199 (.488)	.197 (.491)
Marital status				.043 (.828)	.071 (.722)	.053 (.793)	.192 (.361)	.177 (.403)	.066 (.783)
Motherhood status				-.303 (.312)	-.333 (.271)	-.525 (.088)~	-.629 (.042)*	-.677 (.029)*	-.637 (.042)*
Working time (Ref: Fixed shift) Flexible shifts					-.097 (.655)	-.321 (.149)	-.379 (.091)~	-.381 (.090)~	-.567 (.059)~
IT-ITES sector (Ref: Other sector)					-.999 (.000)***	-1.093 (.000)***	-1.190 (.000)***	-1.177 (.000)***	-1.176 (.000)***
Job position (Ref: Level 3)									

1 (lowest)						1.194 (.000)***	1.577 (.000)***	1.634 (.000)***	1.615 (.000)***
2						.517 (.014)**	.527 (.012)**	.535 (.011)**	.526 (.012)**
4						.079 (.808)	.021 (.948)	.045 (.890)	.058 (.859)
5 (highest)						-.923 (.364)	-1.041 (.307)	-1.083 (.287)	-1.099 (.280)
Promotion							.627 (.008)**	.780 (.002)**	.765 (.002)**
Working conditions								-.270 (.045)*	-.286 (.035)*
Interaction effect									
Marital status & flexible shift									.407 (.327)
No. of obs.	851	851	851	851	851	851	851	851	851

Note: P value in parentheses; statistical significance: *** at .001 level; ** at .01 level; * at .05 level; ~ at .10 level.

Model 1 in table 7.6 includes education along with sub-time intervals. It suggests that education regardless of degree type and level augments women's mobility from the second job. Women holding technical/professional degree at master level and non-technical/professional degree at bachelor level are more likely to change the second job in comparison to women holding non-technical/professional degree at master level. The estimated parameters are .80 and .62 respectively. The results are statistically significant at .01 and .05 level.

The effect of education for women holding technical/professional degree at university level is moderate and statistically insignificant. The estimated parameter is .28.

In **Model 2** in table 7.6**,** migrant status and age at the entry in second job is added. Both the variables decline mobility from the second job. However, both have negligible effect. More precisely, age at entry in second job has weak negative but statistically significant effect on second interfirm mobility. The estimated parameter is -.007.

The migrant status is neither effective nor is statistically significant at .05 level. Women belonging to other states of India demonstrate no statistically significant difference in their second interfirm mobility in comparison to the women belonging to Delhi and NCR. The estimated parameter is -.039.

Adding migrant status and age at entry in second job does not drastically change the effect of different categories of education. They continue to have similar effect as they had in model 1 in table 7.6. However, interestingly, adding age brings change in the sub-time intervals. In model 1, all time intervals were statistically significant.

However, adding age changes the significance level of sub time-periods in model 2. Especially, time period (t2: 10-19 months) no longer remains statistically significant, while remaining time intervals continue to be statistically significant at .05 level.

In **Model 3** in table 7.6, variable wages and additional monetary benefits are added. They have a weak positive and statistically insignificant effect on interfirm

mobility rates. Those women who receive higher wages and additional monetary benefits in second job are more likely to change the employer in comparison to the women who do not receive higher wages. The coefficient value is .14.

Other individual level covariates such as age at the time of entry in second job and migrant status continue to have weak negative effect as they had in model 2. However, age has statistically significant effect. That is, each additional month in age declines interfirm mobility and women stay longer in the second firm. Migrant status does not contribute in job changing decision of women. Education continues to have similar effect as it had in Model 2. Adding wages and additional monetary benefits improves the statistical significance level of sub-time intervals.

In **Model 4** in table 7.6, the family status variables marital and motherhood status are added. Entry into marriage or being married does not affect women's job changing decision. It does not have a statistical significant effect. The estimated parameter is .04. If women marry during second job tenure or if they are already married at the time joining the second firm, it does not contribute to job changing decision of women.

However, childbirth or presence of small children decline women's second interfirm mobility. The motherhood status has strong negative effect on job mobility rates. If women become mother or if they are already mother, they stay longer in the second job. Though the effect is strong, it remains statistically insignificant with estimated parameter of -.30.

Interestingly, adding motherhood status changes the significance level of age. The variable age no longer remains statistically significant at .05 level. It suggests that the effect of age, at which women enter in second job, disappears once time dependent variable motherhood is added in model 4, as shown in table 7.6.

Other independent covariates in model 4 such as education, wages and additional monetary benefits and, migrant status continue to have similar effect as they had

in model 3, indicated in table 7.6. The statistical significance of sub-time intervals improves as a result of adding motherhood status[94].

In **Model 5** in table 7.6, the firm level variables working time and sector are added. Flexible (rotating) shifts do not have any effect on second interfirm mobility rates. Women working in flexible shifts are statistically not different in their job mobility decision from women working in one fixed shift. The estimated parameter is -.09. In other words, rotating working time does not influence women's decision to change the second job.

As expected, the IT-ITES sector declines women's mobility from the second job. Women working in the IT-ITES sector stay longer in the job as compared to women working in other sector. The effect of the IT-ITES sector is very strong negative and highly statistically significant. The estimated parameter is -.99.

Adding sector declines the effect of various categories of education. The effect of technical/professional degree at master level (.65) and non-technical/professional degree (.57) at bachelor level continues to be strong positive in comparison to the non-technical/professional degree at master level. However, the statistical significance declines for the women holding non-technical/professional degree at bachelor level. It no longer remains statistically significant at .05 level.

Adding sector in model 5 slightly increases the effect of family status variables. The effect of presence of small children augments a bit but remains statistically insignificant. Similarly, entry in marriage or being married does not influence women's decision to change second employer. The effect remains negligible (.07) and statistically insignificant.

The effect of migrant status (.003) and age at the entry in second job (-.005) on interfirm mobility rates remains ineffective and statistically insignificant, as shown in model 5 in table 7.6. The effect of wages and additional monetary benefits disappears completely. Receiving higher wages and monetary perks does

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[94] After adding motherhood variable, the significance level of time intervals improves. In the current study, marriage and motherhood variables are shown combined in model 4. However, they were tested separately as well. When marriage is tested separately, then findings suggest that the significance level of time intervals does not improve drastically. It is only after adding motherhood variable, the significance level of time-intervals considerably improves.

not influence women's decision to change second job. The estimated parameter is .06. Interestingly, the statistical significance of sub-time intervals drastically declines once sector is added. Initial sub-episodes from 10-49 months, i.e. t2-t5 become statistically insignificant at .05 level.

In **Model 6** in table 7.6, women's job position in firm hierarchy is added. Lower levels of job position have strong positive and statistically significant effect on mobility from second job. That is, those women who worked at level one and level two (lower levels) in the firm hierarchy are more likely to change the second employer in comparison to women who worked at middle level, i.e. at level 3.

The estimated parameters for level one and level two job position are 1.19 and .51 respectively. The results are statistically significant at .001 and .01 level. Further, the effect of all categories of education augments once job position is introduced in model 6. The effect of technical/professional degree at master level and non-technical/professional degree at bachelor level becomes highly strong and positive. The statistical significance improves considerably as well. Both the educational categories become statistically significant at .05 level.

It suggests that women holding technical/professional degrees at master level and non-technical/professional degree at bachelor level are more likely to change second firm in comparison to women holding non-technical/professional degree at master level.

The effect and significance level of motherhood status improves as a result of adding job position in model 6. That is, if women become mother during second job tenure or if they are already mother at the time of joining second firm, they stay longer in the job. The estimated parameter is -.52 and the effect is statistically significant at .10 level.

Marital status continues to have negligible and statistically insignificant effect on interfirm mobility decision rates. Transition to marriage or being married does not influence women's job changing decision. Similarly, migrant status and age do not affect job mobility rates.

The effect of higher wages and monetary benefits boosts up drastically once job position is added in model 6, as shown in table 7.6. It has moderate positive but statistically insignificant effect on second interfirm mobility rates. Women are likely to change the job if they receive higher wages and additional monetary benefits at second firm in comparison to those women who do not receive monetary benefits.

The effect of flexible shifts augments in response to adding job position in model 6, as shown in table 7.6. Women working in flexible shifts are less likely change the second employer than women reported to have worked in fixed shift. The estimated parameter is -.32 and the result is statistically insignificant. The statistical significance of time-intervals improves drastically once job position is added in model 6, as shown in table 7.6.

Promotion is added in **Model 7,** as shown in table 7.6. Promotion augments mobility from the second job. Those women who attain higher position in the second job are more likely to change the employer in comparison to women who do not attain higher position at second employer. The effect is highly strong and statistically significant. The estimated parameter is .62 and it is statistically significant at .01 level.

Introducing promotion in model 7 affects the parameter and statistical significance of different categories of education. Though the effect remains strong positive, the values of parameters change. Women holding technical/professional degree at master level and non-technical/professional degree at university level are more likely to change the employer than women holding non-technical/professional degree at master level. The effect of technical/professional degree at university level remains nearly strong but statistically insignificant.

The effect of presence of small children becomes strong and level of statistical significance improves as a result of adding promotion in model 7, as shown in table 7.6. If women become mother or if they are already mother, they stay longer in the second job as compared to women who are not mothers. The estimated parameter is -.62 and the result is statistically significant at .05 level.

The effect of marriage improves from .05 (in model) 6 to .19 (in model 7). Though, marriage increases women's mobility out of the job; however, the effect remains weak (.19) and statistically insignificant.

The effect of wages and monetary benefits declines nearly to half from .243 (in model 6) to .111 (in model 7). Receiving higher wages does not influence second job change decision. The effect of migrant status and age continues to be negligible. However, the statistical significance level of age improves very slightly. It becomes significant at .10 level.

The effect and statistical significance of flexible shifts improves considerably in response to adding promotion in model 7. Women working in flexible shifts are less likely to change the second job than women working in fixed shift. Women stay longer in the second firm. The estimated parameter is -.37 and the effect is statistically significant at .10 level.

In brief, the variable flexible shift gains strength each time a firm level covariate is added in the model. The trend is explicit in model 6 and model 7. Further, sector and lower levels of job position continue to be as effective and statistically significant in model 7 as they were in model 6.

The IT-ITES sector continues to be attractive for young highly educated women and they are likely to stay longer in it. Similarly, lower levels of job position witness higher mobility rates than the middle level.

The covariate working conditions is introduced in **Model 8,** as shown in table 7.6. As expected, good working conditions decline women's mobility from the second job. If women find good working conditions in the firm, they are likely to stay longer in it. The effect is nearly strong and statistically significant. The estimated parameter is -.27. Thus, better conditions at work allow women to stay longer in the firm.

Adding working conditions affect the parameters and level of statistical significance of different categories of education in model 8, as shown in table 7.6. The values of coefficients decline, yet the effect remains strong positive. A technical/professional degree at master level and non-technical/professional

degree at university level have positive effect on interfirm mobility rates with estimated parameters of .49 and .61 respectively. Further, the effect of technical/professional education at university level declines to .22 in model 8 from .31 in model 7.

The effect of marriage continues to be relatively similar in model 8 (.17) as it was in model 7 (.19). However, the effect of presence of small children strengthens in response to adding working conditions in model 8, as shown in table 7.6. It becomes strong negative and statistically significant. If women become mother or if they have small children, they are likely to stay longer in the second job. The estimated parameter is -.67 and the effect is statistically significant at .05 level.

Thus, among family status variables, motherhood restricts women's job mobility, while marriage increases mobility but the effect is weak and statistically insignificant. In other words, marital status continues to be a weak determinant of women's second interfirm mobility. Entry in marriage or being married does not influence women's decision to change employer, while motherhood is a strong determinant of women's second interfirm mobility.

Migrant status and age do not contribute to women's job changing decision. The effect and statistical significance of flexible shifts gain strength in model 8 as compared to model 7. Women working in flexible (rotating) shifts are less likely to change the second firm than women reported to work in fixed shift.

The effect of the IT-ITES sector, lower levels of job position and promotion on interfirm mobility rates remains very strong and highly statistically significant. Adding working conditions also affect the significance level of sub-time intervals. Almost, all time periods lose its statistical significance in model 8. They no longer remain statistically significant at .05 level.

Model 9 in table 7.6 introduces the interaction between marital status and flexible shifts. The effect is strong positive but statistically insignificant. If women are married and work in flexible shifts, they are more likely to change the second job. However, the effect remains statistically insignificant. The estimated parameter is .40.

Introducing this interaction declines the effect of marriage completely. Entry in marriage or being married no longer remains determinant of second interfirm mobility, while the presence of small children continues to restrict women's job changing decision. The effect of children is strong negative and statistically significant at .05 level, as shown in model 9 in table 7.6.

The effect and statistical significance of flexible working time improves considerably in response to adding interaction term in model 9. Women working in flexible shifts are less likely to change the second job than women working in fixed shift. The estimated parameter is -.56.

The effect of different categories of education slightly declines in model 9 as a result of adding interaction variable. None of the education categories remains statistically significant at .05 level. Further, migrant status, age, and wages and monetary benefits remain ineffective and statistically insignificant determinants of women's second interfirm mobility decision. The effect and statistical significance of the IT-ITES sector, lower levels of job position, promotion and working conditions remain strong and high.

7.3.3   Summary of Second Interfirm Mobility

The analysis of second interfirm mobility included covariates that were missing for the analysis of first interfirm mobility.

The findings suggest that technical/professional education at master level and non-technical/professional degree attained at bachelor level have highly strong positive and statistically significant effect on mobility rates from model 1 to model 6, as shown in table 7.6. However, as promotion is added in model 7 and working conditions is added in model 8, the effect declines, yet remains statistically significant at .05 level in model 7 and at .10 level in model 8.

The effect of technical/professional education at university level remains moderate and statistically insignificant until model 5, as shown in table 7.6. However, as soon as job position is added in model 6, the effect becomes strong positive, yet remains statistically insignificant. In model 8, when interaction between marital status and flexible shifts is introduced, the effect of

technical/professional degree at master level and non-technical/professional degree at bachelor level remains strong positive but they become statistically insignificant.

The effect of migrant status remains negligible and non-significant throughout all the models, as shown in table 7.6. Women belonging to other states of India statistically do not differ from women belonging to Delhi and NCR in their decision to change second job.

Age at entry in second job demonstrates statistically significant effect on mobility rates in the beginning. The effect of age remains statistically significant until model 3. However, as soon as motherhood status is introduced in model 4, the statistical significance of age declines. Although after adding sector in model 5, the statistical significance of age improves slightly but from model 6 to model 8, the statistical significance of age disappears.

Interestingly, introducing age affects the (statistical) significance level of time-intervals in model 2 and further models. All sub-time intervals remain significant until model 4. However, as sector is controlled in model 5, time periods loses its statistical significance. Further, the significance level of sub-episodes improves as a result of adding job position in model 6, yet, in model 8, all time-periods become statistically insignificant in response to adding working conditions.

The effect of higher wages and additional monetary benefits remain weak in model 3 and model 4. The effect becomes negligible after adding sector in model 5. However, the effect boosts up once job position is introduced in model 6. After adding promotion in model 7 and working conditions in model 8, the effect of wages declines to moderate. Thus, the effect of higher wages and monetary benefits on women's decision to change employer varies across the models, yet it remains statistically insignificant.

Among family level variables, marital status is a weak determinant of second interfirm mobility. It does not have any effect from model 4 to model 6. However, as soon as promotion is added in model 7, the effect of marriage boosts up, yet remains weak and statistically insignificant. After adding interaction variable in model 9, the effect of marriage once again disappears completely. In

brief, marriage has negligible and statistically insignificant effect on second interfirm mobility.

Transition to motherhood or presence of small children continues to have strong negative effect on second interfirm mobility rates. The effect of children increases in line with adding each firm level variable in the model. For instance, the negative effect of children increases as job position is added in model 6 and promotion is added in model 7. After adding these two firm level covariates, the statistical significance also increases sharply. Thus, childbirth or having small children leads women to stay longer in the second job.

The effect of flexible shifts improves from weak to strong negative from model 5 to model 9. In addition, the statistical significance level improves each time a firm level variable is added in the model. Women working in flexible (rotating) shifts are less likely to change second employer and stay longer in the job.

Due to introducing interaction variable in model 9, the effect and level of statistical significance of flexible work shifts improves further. Hence, flexible shifts as compared to the fixed shift decline women's mobility from the second job and the effect becomes statistically significant at .10 level.

The effect of the IT-ITES sector remains strong negative and statistically significant. Women worked in the IT-ITES sector are less likely to change the job as compared to women worked in the other sector. Lower levels of job position, i.e. level 1 and level 2 witness higher mobility rates. If women are located at lower levels in the firm hierarchy, then they are more likely to change the second firm. The effect of both the levels of job position remains very strong and statistically significant in all the models.

The effect of promotion remains highly strong positive and statistically significant. Those women who attain higher position in the second firm are more likely to change the second employer than those women who do not attain promotion. Hence, promotion augments women's mobility from the second job.

Good working conditions decline women's mobility from the second firm. Women are likely to stay longer if they find good working conditions in the

second firm. The effect is nearly strong and statistically significant. The interaction effect between marital status and working time in Model 9 suggests that if married women work in flexible shifts, they are likely to change the employer. The effect is statistically insignificant.

7.4   A Systematic Comparison between First and Second Job Change

This section compares the determinants of first and second interfirm mobility. It demonstrates the extent to which determinants of interfirm mobility differ in two jobs.

The findings suggest that on average women spend over 2 years in both first and second job. The mean survival time in first job is 29.19 months, while the average survival time in second job is 27.94 months. Further, the median survival time in first job is 22 months, while median survival time in second job is 20.5 months. With respect to job change, 80% of the women change first job, while 58% of the women change second job as well.

1. **Highest Education**

The effect of different categories of education varies considerably in all the models in both first and second job. In addition, there is a difference in the direction of the effect of education in both the jobs. In first job, education regardless of degree type and level declines women's mobility from the job, while it increases mobility from the second job.

Women are likely to stay longer in the first job while, they stay shorter in the second firm in comparison to the reference category, non-technical/professional degree at master level. An interesting pattern emerges in both the jobs.

Women holding technical/professional degrees at bachelor level emerge (statistical) significantly different in their interfirm mobility decision from first and second job. On the other hand, women holding technical/professional degrees at master level and women possessing non-technical/professional degrees at bachelor level emerges (statistical) significantly similar in their interfirm mobility decision from first and second job.

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Women qualified with technical degrees at bachelor level (statistically) significantly stay longer in the first job; while women possessing technical/professional education at master level and women qualified with ordinary degrees at bachelor level (statistically) significantly stay shorter in the second firm. The effect of these two latter educational categories remains statistically insignificant throughout all the models in first job, while they become statistically significant in second job.

In a nutshell, women holding technical/professional degree at university level emerge differently in their mobility decision, while other two educational categories emerge similar and are thus analogous in their interfirm mobility decision in both first and second job in comparison to women holding non-technical/professional degree at master level, as shown in table 7.3 and table 7.6.

2.   Migrant Status

Migrant status has a negligible and statistically insignificant effect on first and second interfirm mobility rates. Women belonging to other states of India are not statistically different in their job changing decision as compared to women belonging to Delhi and NCR. Thus, findings suggest that migrant status is a weak determinant of interfirm mobility behaviour of women.

3.   Age at Entry in Job

Age has a negligible effect on mobility rates in both first and second job. However, the effect is statistically significant in some models of second job. The direction of the effect also differs in both the jobs. It has positive effect in first job, while the effect is negative in second job, yet the effect remains statistically insignificant.

The effect of age in second job remains statistically significant until model 3 (see table 7.6). However, as soon as family status variable motherhood is added in model 4 of second job, the statistical significance declines. The age no longer remains statistically significant at .05 level.

On the other hand, in all the models of first job, age remains ineffective and statistically insignificant. One month increase in age does not affect women's decision to change employer. Thus, age is a weak determinant of women's interfirm mobility decision in the current study.

4.   Wages and Additional Monetary Benefits

The variable was tested in second job as it is missing for the first job mobility analysis. Wages and additional monetary benefits have a weak positive and statistical insignificant effect in almost all the models of second job. Those women who receive higher wages and additional monetary benefits from second employer are not (statistically) significantly different in their mobility decision from those women who do not receive higher wages and additional monetary perks in their second job. Thus, higher wages is a weak and insignificant determinant of women's interfirm mobility decision in the current study.

The family status variables marriage and motherhood demonstrate partly expected and partly unexpected results. The effect of marriage varies from negligible to weak but remains statistically insignificant in all the models of first and second jobs, as shown in table 7.3 and table 7.6. The direction (positive and negative) of the effect varies in both the jobs as well. In brief, the results suggest that if women marry during first and second job tenures or if they are already married at the entry of entry of first and second job, it does not (statistically) significantly contribute to their job changing decision. Hence, transition to marriage or being married does not affect women's job changing decision.

Transition to motherhood or presence of small children has a strong negative effect on the mobility from first and second jobs. The results are statistically significant in second job, while they are statistically insignificant in first job[95]. Women stay longer in the firms if they become mother or if they have small children.

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[95] The insignificant effect of children in first job is expected primarily due to two the following reasons. First, there are few women who are mothers during their first job tenure due to which results are not significant. Second, there is an absence of few organisation level variables for first job analysis. The second reason sounds more plausible as the results from second job suggest that it is after adding firm level factors such as promotion and working conditions in the model that improves the significance level of motherhood status to a great extent in Model 7 and Model 8 in table 7.6.

Interestingly, in all the models of first and second job the negative effect of children augments in response to adding each firm level variable. In the second job, the statistical significance of motherhood status improves considerably after adding promotion and working conditions (see table 7.6). Thus, findings suggest that firm level factors affect family life of women workers. In the current study, firm level factors influence the effect and statistical significance of presence of small children.

In brief, among family status variables, marital status does not contribute to women's decision to change firms, while the presence of small children does have a strong negative and statistically significant effect on the interfirm mobility decision. Women stay longer in jobs if they are mother or if they become mother.

6.   Flexible Shifts

Flexible work shifts have mixed effect in first and second job, as shown in table 7.3 and table 7.6. In first job, flexible shifts have negligible and statistically insignificant effect on mobility rates, while the effect is strong negative and statistically significant at .10 level in second job. Interestingly, interaction between marital status and flexible shifts makes the negative effect of flexible shifts stronger. It, however, continues to be statistically significant at .10 level (see Model 9 in table 7.6).

In addition, the effect of the interaction between marriage and flexible work shifts differs in both the jobs. In first job, it has strong negative and statistically significant effect, while in second job it has a strong positive, yet statistically insignificant effect. If women are married and work in flexible shifts, they stay longer in the first job, while they stay (statistical insignificantly) shorter in the second job. Thus, the findings suggest that the effect of flexible or rotating shifts varies over a period of time.

7.   Sector

The IT-ITES sector has consistently a strong negative and statistically significant effect on mobility rates in both first and second job. Women (statistically) significantly stay longer in the IT-ITES firms than other sector of the economy.

8.   Job Position in Firm Hierarchy

Lower levels of job position have a strong positive and statistically significant effect on mobility rates in both first and second job. Women located at lower levels, i.e. at level one and level two in the firm hierarchy, are more likely to change the employer than women working at level 3. Thus, lower levels of job position witness higher mobility rates. Job position is a strong and (statistically) significant determinant of interfirm mobility.

9.   Promotion and Working Conditions

Covariates promotion and working conditions are analysed for second job as they are missing for the analysis of first job. Promotion has a strong positive and statistically significant effect on mobility from the second job. Working conditions has a nearly as strong and statistically significant effect on women's job changing decision.

If women attain higher position in the second firm, they are more like to change the employer than those women who do not receive promotion. Further, if women find good working conditions at work, they stay longer in the firm. Hence, good working conditions decline women's mobility from the job, while attaining promotion contributes to women's decision to change employer.

7.5   Summary

The chapter discussed the regression results of first and second interfirm mobility. Results were obtained by employing piecewise constant exponential technique of event history method. First and second interfirm mobility results were discussed separately. Each model in both jobs was elaborated in detail. The chapter further compared the results of first and second interfirm mobility in order to provide a clear and comparative overview of the results. In the next chapter, the results of both first and second interfirm mobility are discussed cumulatively.

8.   Discussion

8.1   Introduction

This chapter comprehensively discusses the main findings of the current study analysed using own survey data. Both regression and descriptive findings are discussed cumulatively. That is, descriptive results complement regression findings. Both the findings offer valuable insights about women's interfirm mobility behaviour and their work-family attitudes. A holistic explanation of the findings is provided in the light of- theoretical framework, hypotheses, state of the art and previous empirical research. In a nutshell, the aim of this chapter is to understand the interfirm mobility behaviour of young highly educated women working in the Indian IT-ITES sector in conjunction with their family roles.

8.2   A Cumulative Discussion of First and Second Interfirm Mobility

The interfirm mobility behaviour of young women suggests that the majority of the women settle down in second and third job, by the interview time. There are very few women who change three and subsequent jobs. The majority of the women find stability in second and third firms, by the interview time. In this respect, findings suggest that 70% (95 women) of the women continue working in their third job, while 30% (41 women) of the women change third employer, at the time of interview.

On the other hand, 80% (236 women) of the women change first job and 58% (136 women) of the women change second job. Those women who continue working in their first (20%, i.e. 59 women) and second (42%, i.e. 100 women) job at the time of interview are right censored. The mean time women spend in the first job is 29.19[96], while mean time spent in the second job is 27.94 months.

The median survival time in first job is 22 months, while median survival time in second job is 20.5 months. In brief, the findings suggest that women spend over 2

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[96] This time is calculated on raw data. That is, it includes both type of women, those women who change first job and those women who continue working in the first job by the time of the interview. The latter are called censored cases.

years in each job. The average duration is higher for the first job than for the second job.

The trend suggests that women's interfirm mobility begins declining from third job onwards. Only first and second job witnesses higher mobility rates. Though women are young and have ample opportunity to change employers in the future, the results indicate the trend observed until the interview time. Therefore, the results take into account the study end time while interpreting the results below.

The study findings are in line with the previous research carried out in the context of industrialised countries. Researchers observe the decline in voluntary job changes with time in the labour force (Blossfeld et al. 2007; Farber 1994; Hachen 1990; Petersen and Spilerman 1990; Sicherman and Galor 1990; Sørensen and Tuma 1981).

In addition, in the context of the Indian IT-ITES sector, study findings support previous research (Upadhya and Vasavi 2006). The authors suggest that few individuals change jobs four times or more, while the majority of the IT workers (primarily men), were observed to be in their first or second job (Upadhya and Vasavi 2006).

More precisely, Upadhya and Vasavi (2006) find that 39% of the (male) workers had worked only in one organisation, while 33% had worked in two firms. Only 16% of the individuals had worked in four or more firms (Upadhya and Vasavi 2006). Consequently, findings of the current study and previous research reject the claim of the IT-ITES industries about job hopping behaviour of the individuals.

Though the authors' findings (Upadhya and Vasavi 2006) refer to men's interfirm mobility behaviour in the IT-ITES sector, women's interfirm mobility behaviour in the current study suggests a similar trend. The majority of the women find stability in second and third firm.

In this light, the current study argues that changing (few) jobs in the beginning of the career is a 'norm' for the majority of the women workers, as much as 80% of the women change first job, while 58% change second employer. On the other

hand, unsurprisingly, this also resembles with the interfirm mobility behaviour of workers in industrialised countries.

The possible explanation could be that that the majority of the women do not attain expected rewards in the first firm. Hence, changing employer is one of the strategies through which they try to maximize their rewards. Sørensen and Tuma (1981) suggest that job rewards are likely to be unequal with individual resources in the beginning when an individual enters the labour market; thereby, job shifting is frequent in the beginning.

In addition, the first organisation may not provide better fit in terms of right 'job-employee' match to most of the employees that induce job change by the individuals. In the light of previous research in the IT-ITES sector, it can further be added that the first job is perceived more as an institution for earning quick money and accumulating work experience to strengthen position in the labour market than making a life-long career in it.

It is primarily because young women transit to labour market at a very young age where they have imperfect information of the labour market in terms of availability of better job opportunities. The findings suggest that women on average are 23 years old at the time of entry in first job. Hence, due to having imperfect information of the labour market, young women are more likely to choose the job that offers them higher wages as they fascinated by the idea of economic independence in the beginning of the career as they are fresh graduates out in the labour market.

The Indian IT-ITES sector[97] is widely known for offering higher wages to young fresh graduates compared to other sectors of the Indian economy. Hence, women at a very young age benefit from economic power newly achieved with their earnings. It is rather during their time in the workforce women gradually acquire better information of the labour market. As a result, women prefer to work in a firm that is a right match for them and where they could attain expected rewards.

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[97] Majority of women, i.e. as much as 80% women begin their work career in IT-ITES sector, while 20% of the women reported to have worked in other sector in their first job.

Women attempt to achieve expected rewards by changing employer, if they find it unachievable in the current firm (Farber 1994; Petersen and Spilerman 1990; Sicherman and Galor 1990). Previous studies note that many individuals begin their work career in call-centre industry (part of ITES sector) or any firm in the ITES sector which is not perceived as the career destination. Rather, the first job serves as a stepping stone for a better, desirable career in the future (Clark and Sekher 2007; Gothoskar 2000; McMillin 2006; Ng and Mitter 2005; Singh and Pandey 2005; Tara and Ilavarasan 2009).

In brief, the first organisation functions as a socialising institution for young highly educated women who transit to the labour market from educational institutions at a very young age. The majority of the workers aim at earnings and accumulating work experience in order to strengthen their position in the labour market for a desirable job. In the following sections, I discuss the extent to which women's interfirm mobility decision is explained by individual and firm level characteristics.

1.   Highest Education

It was hypothesised that women with a technical/professional education are likely to have lower mobility rates, while women with non-technical/professional educational degrees were expected to have higher mobility rates.

Though the findings support the hypothesis, they are not consistent in both jobs. Education has different effect on women's mobility from the first and second job. That is, education, regardless of degree level and types, declines women's mobility from the first job, while it augments women's mobility from the second firm.

However, in the first job, the effect is statistically significant for women holding technical/professional degrees at bachelor level. In the second job, the results are statistically significant for women holding technical/professional degrees at master level and non-technical/professional degree at bachelor level in comparison to women educated in non-technical/professional disciplines at master level. As a result, a unique trend emerges that demonstrates different effects of different types of education attained at different levels.

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I show two emerging trends. First, women holding a technical/ professional degree at master level and women holding a non-technical/professional degree at university level are analogous in their decision to changing employers. Second, women possessing a technical/professional degree at university level behave differently in their job changing decision, in comparison to women holding a non-technical/professional degree at master level (also see chapter 6).

In this regard, two assumptions are made. First, it is assumed that women holding technical/professional degrees at university level are expectedly trained in technology, IT, engineering and computer sciences degrees. In addition, these women most likely work as technologists or software engineers in the IT-ITES firms. They are also known as IT professionals.

Second, those women who hold technical/professional degrees at master level are expected to possess professional degrees such as MBA or any other technical/professional degree that is expected to enhance their career prospects and maximise their attainment level in the labour market post bachelor level education.

It is shown in chapter 6 that the category of master level education (technical/professional degree) is largely constituted by those women who also hold ordinary[98] degrees (non-technical/professional) at bachelor level. In other words, the majority of the women who possess master degree in technical/professional disciplines are trained in non-technical/professional disciplines at bachelor level.

It suggests that attaining a professional qualification at master level is aimed at enhancing career prospects and maximizing attainment level by choosing popular degrees such as MBA[99] or any computer related degree that is expected to benefit them in the future (Chanana 2007). It is because having only non-technical/professional degrees at bachelor level is insufficient to provide them expected level of rewards in the IT-ITES sector where technical (such as IT) and

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[98]To reiterate, the terms 'ordinary' and 'common' refers to non-technical/professional degrees.

[99] The popularity of management degrees at master level is also substantiated by national level statistics in chapter 2. The figures clearly show the preference of management degrees at post-graduate level among young individuals.

professional (HRM) education and skills are highly valued over non-technical degrees (see section 6.4 of chapter 6).

These assumptions are supported by the descriptive findings of the study. The findings suggest that 59% of the women who hold ordinary (non-technical/professional) degrees at bachelor level attain professional education at master level[100]. On the other hand, there are 36% of the women who possess technical/professional degrees at both bachelor and master level[101].

Therefore, a comparison between these two groups of women suggest that there is a higher percentage of those women (59%) who hold non-technical/professional degrees at bachelor level and go for technical/professional degrees at master level than those women (36%) who hold a technical/professional qualification at both university and master level.

This suggests that women with master level degrees (as their highest education) in technical/professional disciplines and women holding only non-technical/professional degrees (as their highest education) at university level are analogous in their job changing decision, while women with a technical/professional education at bachelor level, who are expected to work as core IT professionals, are distinct in their job changing decision in comparison to women holding non-technical/professional degrees at master level.

This raises the question- what do these differences indicate and why are these two groups of women distinct in their interfirm mobility behaviour? More interestingly, the question is –despite possessing a technical/professional education at master level - why these women are analogous to women who possess non-technical/professional degrees at university level[102]?

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[100] The Persons'chi2 (1) is calculated: 17.45; Pr: 0.00; Cramer's V: .243.

[101] Pearson chi2(1): 14.3910 ; Pr = 0.000; Cramer's V: -.220

[102] This similarity also raises one important question- if women with university education and women with professional qualification at master level emerge similar in their decision to changing employer, then why to go for master degree? It indicates towards demand and supply of skills requirement in the IT-ITES sector and quality of professional level education in the country. This can be a potential research topic in the future.

According to the findings of first and second interfirm mobility, women working as engineers or technologists (statistically) stay longer in the first job[103], while women with technical/professional degrees at master level and women with ordinary degrees at university level (statistically) are more likely to change employer[104].The possible explanations for these differences are as follows:

A. Different Career Trajectory of IT professionals and Non-IT Professionals

Different interfirm mobility behaviour indicates towards a different career trajectory of these two groups of women. It is suggested that IT professionals stay longer in the job in order to accumulate job specific human capital which is required to move to the next level. In addition, it takes longer for women to attain position equivalent to men in the IT sector due to their household and childcare responsibilities (Kelkar et al. 2002).

As a result, women are more likely than men to stay longer in a job (Kelkar et al. 2002). However, in the case of non-technical employees, career growth is not dependent upon earning 'job specific' human capital. Rather, it is their overall work experience that matters. It is general work experience (number of years spent in a job) that counts for non-technical women. It is because women perform non-technical low end work within the ITES sector. The task at job may not necessary involve specific skills, rather it is more of repetitive and monotonous nature.

On the other hand, technologists such as software engineers, IT professionals and software developers possess technical skills gained through educational training. The individuals with such educational background are highly demanded and valued in the IT sector as there is a direct utilization of their education in their work.

In addition, IT professionals work on different projects which keep enhancing their skills and knowledge and endow them with diverse job specific human

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[103] Results are significant for them in first job while, the effect is insignificant in second job. Thus, the focus will be on significant results while explaining the effect.

[104] Results are significant for them in second job, while these two categories have statistically insignificant effect in the first job. Thus, the explanation will focus on statistically significant results in both the jobs. For more info, see table 7.3 and table 7.6.

capital. In brief, the work nature of IT professionals offers them unique work experience, enhance their skills and learning abilities, and add value to their knowledge of the task. Such job specific human capital is highly valued in the IT sector which gives them an edge over non-technical workers.

This job specific human capital is enhanced by the opportunity to travel and work in foreign countries (Upadhya and Vasavi 2006). Therefore, the career trajectory of IT professionals contributes to their career growth as they learn diverse skills and knowledge to perform different tasks at work. Their workforce experience is more enriching than non-IT workers.

Accumulating such work specific human capital takes longer which, in turn, demands longer stay in the firm. Individuals are expected to stay in a firm minimum three to four years to earn this level of experience. In addition, gender differences in career growth result in women's longer stay at a position to earn the work experience equivalent to men in the IT-ITES firms.

In contrast, the career growth of non-technical workers does not depend upon earning work specific human capital. Rather, it is their general workforce experience that matters. It is because non-technical workers neither perform specialized technical-tasks nor do they possess technical skills which could benefit them in their first job unlike IT professionals.

In addition, the latter (IT workers) are more likely to find better match in their first job, while it takes longer for the former (non-technical workers) due to specific recruitment practices of the IT-ITES firms. Therefore, the main purpose of non-technical workers is to earn general work experience to strengthen their position in the labour market.

In addition, non-technical workers strive to find better match through job change that could offer them learning opportunities where they could attain expected rewards. Hence, due to these different criteria and requirements of career growth, the technical women are likely to stay longer in the first job, while non-technical women try to find better match and maximise their attainment level by changing jobs.

B .Employee-Job Mis(match)

Another possible explanation for the different effect of education in two jobs may include employee-job mismatch. As mentioned earlier, the category of technical/professional degree at master level is largely constituted by those women who also hold non-technical/professional degrees at bachelor level. As much as 59% of the women in this category hold a non-technical/professional degree at bachelor level.

In other words, women holding ordinary degrees at bachelor level (such as in arts, science and commerce) are the ones who have attained professional qualification at master level. Moreover, there are women who only hold ordinary degrees (non-technical/professional) at bachelor level. That is, bachelor degree in non-technical disciplines is their highest degree. These two groups of women are similar in their job changing decision in comparison to women holding non-technical/professional degrees at master level. The possible explanation for the corresponding effect between these two groups of women includes education-job mismatch.

Ordinary (non-technical) degrees at university level do not provide any specialized and technical skills which could be directly utilised at work in the IT-ITES industries. Except the knowledge of soft skills such as English language and computers in addition to basic mathematics, non-technical women are not specialised in any specific skill which has direct application in the tasks being performed in the ITES industries.

It is expected that most likely non-technical women work in the ITES industries that largely entail non-technical, non-skilled low-end work which is generally learned through short on the job training. Therefore, their job is equivalent to clerical work in any white collar job. This may lead to higher job-employee mismatch given their level of education and the work they perform.

That is, apparently women are educated at university and master level but the work they perform in the ITES industries does not make use of their education *per se*. It additionally does not offer them opportunity to learn and upgrade their skills. In a nutshell, their job lacks opportunities for learning and up-gradation of

skills which makes work monotonous and uninteresting. Women do not benefit in terms of upgrading their cognitive skills unlike IT professionals.

Previous research provides support for this argument. Upadhya and Vasavi (2006) argue that the nature of work, profile of workforce and employment related issues are quite different in ITES-BPO industry as compared to the software outsourcing industry.

The work performed in the ITES/BPO industries include- back office operations, call centre, data entry, customer interaction, insurance claims processing, medical transcription, database management, digital content and online education (Kelkar et al. 2002). Given this, women end up performing repetitive and monotonous tasks.

Additionally, given the individual level resources in a person, these factors induce employee-job mismatch and lead to a dissatisfaction with the job. In this regard, inferences can be drawn from previous research which supports this claim and indicate towards job-employee mismatch[105].

Gothoskar (2000) suggests that workers working in e-ticketing business find their work boring, uncreative and unchallenging. Employees report their work as lacking learning opportunities (Gothoskar 2000). However, they continue working in the job as it provides them a better salary and working conditions than a factory job, though individuals express that they will leave the firm someday, sooner or later (Gothoskar 2000).

Ramesh (2004) observes that many of the individuals working in call centres are under-utilising their higher education qualification, doing low level work. Many jobs are- stressful, monotonous, and hazardous to health and, subject to heavy surveillance(Ramesh 2004).

McMillin (2006) in a call-centre study suggests that college graduates are highly preferred for customer service representative due to their eagerness to learn and their aggressiveness to sell. The author's findings suggest that 79% of the

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[105] As said before, previous research does not shows a clear relationship between education and job mobility decision of women. Thus, I infer from previous findings to substantiate the argument.

employees had a bachelor's degree in non-technical/professional disciplines. That is, 47% of the respondents studied arts and science, while 32% studied commerce at bachelor level (McMillin 2006).

With respect to building career in call-centres, one of the employees (author's respondent) expresses:

"*Most people coming in are not thinking of this as a career, rather it is a stop gap. However, they end up going to another call centre even if their plan is to get out of this*" (McMillin 2006).

McMillin (2006) suggests that for male employees the call centre job was a temporary phenomenon until they get next better opportunity, while women in the study intended to work in call centre until their marriage.

Clark and Sekher (2007) interview several women working in the ITES sector who come from diverse educational background. For instance, one of the authors' interviewees comes from science background. The respondent studied science (particularly biology) at university level and was working in the ITES sector (Clark and Sekher 2007).

The respondent's work in the firm (at the time of interview) involves processing orders for all countries and regions. The woman respondent expresses to build career in the ITES sector. Similarly, another woman respondent in the study is a science graduate (Clark and Sekher 2007).

The respondent's university degree is in B.Sc.[106] in Nutrition. She also started her career in ITES firms and does not intend to return to her chosen graduate field. The interviewee was pursuing an MBA from distance learning as well (Clark and Sekher 2007).

Clark and Sekher (2007) interview another woman employee who graduated in B.Com[107]. The respondent was working in the ITES sector at the time of interview. Her work involves invoice processing which matches to what she studied at university. However, the respondent refers to the work as un-interesting

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[106] B.Sc. stands for Bachelor in Science.
[107] B.Com stands for Bachelor of Commerce.

and expresses apprehensions for pursuing it for the long term. The respondent states:

"*I enjoyed doing accounts which I get to do in this job. But I am not totally dependent upon my degree. The job might not be very interesting to me for a long term. But as an entry type job, actually it is interesting*" (Clark and Sekher 2007).

These findings suggest that women working in the ITES industries come from diverse educational background. Predominantly, they are educated in non-technical/professional degrees. In the majority of the cases, the work does not involve their educational training, except soft-skills such as English language.

In addition, the majority of the women workers expressed to change employer. It suggests that they do not perceive initial/first job(s) as career destination. Rather, they are perceived as an institution for earning quick money and accumulating work experience. This is the reason women continue working in their first job for a relatively longer time despite that they do not like it.

However, once they accumulate desirable work experience and have good labour market information, women workers move to the next employer which could be better fit for them. In other words, individuals attempt to find better job match through job change that fits better to their level of education and, that could also enhance their existing knowledge and skills.

First job is aimed at accumulating workforce experience to advance the career and strengthen the position in the labour market to avail next best job opportunity. Initial job(s) may not provide right fit and expected rewards to individuals which they attempt to achieve through interfirm mobility.

On the other hand, in case of women with engineering and IT educational background, first job is expected to provide better match in comparison to non-technical women workers. The right job-employee match can be attributed to the factors- recruitment practices of IT firms, higher demand of IT professionals, and direct utilization of education at work.

Their nature of work facilitates performing diversified tasks, upgrades skills, provide them opportunity for gaining foreign work experience, and offers better

career opportunities and higher wages in the beginning of the career as compared to the non-technical workers. This contributes to higher chances of employee-job match for technical workers.

Further, these factors differentiate them from non-technical workers. For instance, IT companies recruit individuals from engineering and technology educational background through campus selection method in which they attract bright students. Therefore, job search is not as costly for them as for non-technical individuals.

In addition, higher attainment level in the beginning of career contributes to their longer stay in a firm. IT professionals are highly demanded and firms compete for the best talent. High demand and competition among firms for attracting best human resources benefits IT professionals. Consequently, they are offered higher wages than a non-technical worker. Hence, the higher attainment level in the beginning of the career or in the first job is likely to extend their duration in the first job as offers outside will be less attractive to them.

The discussion suggests that women holding a technical/professional degree at bachelor level are more likely to stay in the first firm in comparison to women holding a non-technical/professional degree at master level due to the higher chances of job-employee match, higher attainment level in the beginning of career and better opportunities for career advancement. It further suggested that career trajectory of technical workers move differently than non-technical workers. Accumulation of work specific human capital takes time which, in turn, demands longer stay in the firm for technical workers.

In contrast, career growth of non-technical workers does not depend upon earning job specific human capital. Rather, their general workforce experience matters. The demand for individuals from engineering and IT educational background has always been higher in the IT-ITES industries, as the industry is mainly dependent upon the exports of software services.

Hence, IT professionals have higher attainment level in the beginning of career and enjoy more privileges in comparison to the non-technical employees. Women from non-technical educational background predominantly perform repetitive and

uninformative task that neither applies their education nor offers them learning opportunities which induces job-employee mismatch. The latter try to find better fit and maximize rewards through job changes as initial/first job(s) is not considered a career destination.

2.   IT-ITES Sector

The IT-ITES sector declines women's interfirm mobility. It was hypothesised that women stay longer in the IT-ITES sector as compared to other sectors of the economy. Findings support the hypothesis. The results are consistent in both the first and second job. The effect is strong negative and highly statistically significant (at .001 level) in both jobs.

Women stay longer in the IT-ITES firm as compared to firms in other sectors of the economy. The plausible explanation for the highly (statistically) significant results may include sample selection bias. Due to the study focus on the IT-ITES sector, the sample was selected only from the IT-ITES firm as it was expected that the majority of women begins their career in the IT-ITES sector.

Simultaneously, it was also expected that some of the women begin their career in other sector and transit to the IT-ITES sector. That is, women change sector in line with changing job. Thus, it was required to capture women's working sector for each job. Thereby, this should not be seen as a limitation because the study primarily focussed on the IT-ITES sector and investigated women's interfirm mobility in this sector.

The findings suggest that 80% (237) of the women begin their career in the IT-ITES sector, while 20% (58) of the women had first job in other sector. Similarly, 84% (198) of the women were working in the IT-ITES sector, while 16% (38) of the women worked in other sector in their second job. However, at the time of interview all of the women were working in the IT-ITES firms.

The Indian IT-ITES sector continues to attract the educated working population of India including women. The emergence and importance of the IT-ITES sector was discussed in chapter 2 in detail. The sector is a major contributor to GDP as

well as one of the biggest employment providers to the growing educated working population of India.

Several factors are attributed to the popularity of the IT-ITES sector among the young educated working population, especially among highly educated women in India. Those factors are- easy employment provider to technical and non-technical educated youth, easy entry, high wages, opportunities for career advancement and better working conditions.

The IT-ITES sector as compared to any other sector has offered decent white-collar employment opportunities to educated women in India. Such employment opportunities were largely absent in the country before 1991. It is argued that the capacity of the IT-ITES sector to absorb large number of educated masses with both technical and non-technical education qualification is one its remarkable features (Basant and Rani 2004)that makes it popular among educated working population[108].

In particular, offshoring model of the IT industry, i.e. ITES has made this possible by hiring people with different educational background who may not be having engineering or technology educational profile (Basant and Rani 2004). This is supported by the current study as well. The women in the sample have diverse educational background.

It has been noted in the previous section of this chapter that the majority of those women who have attained professional degrees at master level (such as MBA) are the ones who have attained ordinary (non-technical) degrees at bachelor level. That is, women have attained an additional technical/professional qualification at master level in order to enhance their career prospects and maximise their future attainment level primarily in the IT-ITES sector.

Further, findings suggest that women educated in purely non-technical/professional disciplines are also working in this sector. For instance, 13% of the women in the sample have attained purely non-technical/professional

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[108]This also constitutes reason for job-employee mismatch, as discussed in education section.

degrees both at bachelor and master level[109], while 19% of the women hold non-technical/professional degrees at university level. In the sample, 23% of the women hold technical degrees at bachelor level.

However, as argued above, women's non-technical education and work in the ITES sector is one of the primary causes for job-education mismatch that induces job changes to find better match and interesting work[110].

Nevertheless from the employment perspective, the study findings suggest that the IT-ITES sector accommodates educated women trained in both technical and non-technical educational disciplines. Hence, the study findings confirm previous research that suggested a similar phenomenon (Basant and Rani 2004).

The popularity of the IT-ITES sector among educated women can also be attributed to the following reasons- absence of decent white-collar employment opportunities in the unorganised sector, and male-dominated and competitive nature of public sector employment.

The public sector has been unable to absorb the growing number of the educated working-age population of India. Though over a period of time the share of women's employment in public sector jobs has increased, it has been low in comparison to the men, as shown in the previous chapter (Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, 2001).

The statistics suggest that women's share in total organised sector employment was 19.90% in 2009. In public organised sector employment, women's share was 18.1% in 2011, while in private organised sector women's employment share was 24.3% in 2011 (Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, 2014).This suggests that women's share in public organised sector jobs is less than 20% and far from one-fourth share. This implies that 82% of the public sector jobs are occupied by men. Hence, public organised sector jobs are clearly dominated by men.

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[109] These kinds of degrees include master degree in arts, hotel management and other fields which provides non-technical training at both bachelor and master level.
[110] This is explained in detail while discussing the effect of different types and levels of education degrees.

In addition, it takes longer to attain a job in the public sector. One has to undergo the lengthy procedure of qualifying for entrance test and interview which takes several years. It becomes difficult for women because age specific norms of marriage coincide with the preparatory years without certainty of getting employment in the public sector.

Therefore, recognising the constraints of getting a job in the public organised sector, while easy access to employment in the IT-ITES sector combined with higher wages makes the IT-ITES sector attractive for educated women.

In addition, the IT-ITES sector enables women to continue job after childbirth. By offering maternity leaves, the IT-ITES firms ensure women's return to pre-birth employer. The study findings support this argument. It suggests that 93% of those women who avail maternity leave during childbirth[111] return to the pre-birth employer.

The popularity of the IT-ITES sector among women is supported by the evidence for inter-sector mobility in the present study. Findings suggest that women move from other sector to the IT-ITES sector[112]. The results suggest that 50% of the women who were working in other sector in the first job move to the IT-ITES sector in the second job, while the remaining 50% move to other sector in the second job.

Similarly, 69% of the women who worked in other sector in second job move to the IT-ITES sector in third job. It is only 31% of the women who joined other sector in third job. The inter-sector mobility to the IT-ITES sector indicates women's preference to work in the IT-ITES sector over other sector. Thus, women change sector in line with changing employer.

The study findings corroborates previous research that suggests women's move from other profession/sector such as hotel management, sales, teaching and

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[111] Findings suggest that 79% of the women benefit from maternity leaves offered by the employer.
[112] Though all women were working in IT-ITES sector at the time of the interview; however, retrospective job history data suggests that women move from different sector to IT-ITES sector. For instance, if women worked in other sector in previous job then most likely they were working in different occupation/profession such as teaching, fashion designing house or in hotel management. Explicit information about their occupational or professional activity is not recorded in the survey for such claim, rather it is an assumption.

fashion designing to the IT-ITES industries (Kelkar et al. 2002; Ng and Mitter 2005).

Moreover, increasing employment of young and highly educated women in this non-traditional sector (IT-ITES sector) suggests the changing image and role of Indian women (Singh and Pandey 2005) which is in contrast to their stereotypical image of being teachers, nurses, clerks and secretaries.

Another reason for lower mobility rates from the IT-ITES sector is attributed to factors such as easy entry, higher wages, opportunities for career advancement, global exposure, i.e. opportunities to live and work outside of India, better working conditions, and time flexibility (Clark and Sekher 2007; McMillin 2006; Singh and Pandey 2005; Upadhya 2008).

Good working conditions are one of the indicators of decent employment opportunities offered by this sector. Prevalence of good working conditions in the IT-ITES sector is also found by the current study which is explained in detail in the next section.

Flexibility of working time and working conditions assume greater importance for women as it enables them to work post marriage and childbirth along with balancing work and family life in a less stressful manner.

Previous research notes several instances that add to this claim. Basant and Rani (2004) suggest that the time flexibility being provided by some segment of the IT labour market has enhanced women's ability to participate in this sector.

With respect to the working conditions, Singh and Pandey (2005) in call centre study demonstrate that 75% of the women respondents like the working environment in call centres. Similarly, while studying telework in e-ticketing business, Gothoskar (2000) finds the prevalence of good working conditions being liked by the young employees.

McMillin (2006) suggests that the majority of the respondents working as customer service representatives in a call centre like their job. It is because workers get opportunity to interact with people, they have young colleagues at

work, draw comparatively good salary, have facility of free transport, they find their job challenging in terms of sorting out client problem and it provides them opportunity to improve their communication skills and English language and diction (McMillin 2006).

In brief, workers like the working environment of jobs in the ITES sector. However, simultaneously, in the context of call centre jobs, it has also been argued that the job (which is often a first job of an individual) is being appreciated in the beginning so long as individuals are young and unmarried. The night or rotating shifts, continuous speaking and strict surveillance become discouraging factors for working in the call centres after marriage for both male and female (Clark and Sekher 2007; McMillin 2006; Ramesh 2004).

In some business activities, like medical transcription, existence of poor working conditions are also reported (Kelkar et al. 2002). However, these instances do not undermine the relevance and popularity of the IT-ITES sector in comparison to other sectors in India. The IT-ITES sector continues to be a better employer in several respects. Employment in IT-ITES sector enhances individual's socio-economic status and prestige in the society due to attainment of high salary at young age which is nearly impossible in public sector jobs or jobs in the unorganised sector.

3.   Working Conditions

The interfirm mobility decision of women is immensely influenced by the prevailing working conditions in an organisation. It was hypothesised that good working conditions decline mobility from the firm. Women are likely to stay longer in a firm if they find good working conditions at work.

The results support the hypothesis. The effect of good working conditions on women's job mobility decision is nearly strong negative (-.286) and statistically significant. Women stay longer in the firm in which working conditions are good.

If women find that they have better career prospects, often receive cooperation from colleagues and seniors, work in a favourable working time and have less

stressful job, they experience good working conditions due to which they stay longer in the second firm.

The results are in line with previous findings that suggest worker's longer stay in a firm which offers them good working condition (García-serrano 2004). It was made explicit that very few researchers have tested the effect of working conditions on individual's job mobility decision. Thus, findings of the present study offer insight into this firm level characteristic.

To note here, the results concerning working conditions refer to the IT-ITES sector. It is primarily because the majority of the women (86%) were working in this sector in their second job at the time of interview. Thus, the results indicate good working conditions prevalent in the IT-ITES sector.

The study findings support the previous research that suggest better working conditions offered by this sector (Clark and Sekher 2007; Gothoskar 2000; Kelkar et al. 2002; McMillin 2006; Singh and Pandey 2005; Tara and Ilavarasan 2009; Upadhya and Vasavi 2006). Young workers, both men and women like working in this sector which explains popularity of this sector among them.

It has been frequently mentioned that the IT-ITES sector has provided decent white-collar job opportunities to educated women in India which are largely missing in other sector. In addition, the sector offers wider opportunities for career advancement at very young age. Especially, in the IT segment, travel to foreign countries and gaining foreign work experience makes this sector attractive to the IT professionals (Upadhya and Vasavi 2006).

4.   Higher Wages and Promotion

In this section, effects of wages and promotion[113] on interfirm mobility rates of women are discussed together. This is because these variables are drawn from the rational choice argument that suggests a maximisation of attainment level and a cost and benefits analysis in decision making.

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[113] To note again, ages and promotion were measured in the survey from second job onwards. Hence, they are not available for the first job.

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It was hypothesised that those women who receive higher wages and additional monetary benefits are likely to stay longer in the job in comparison to those women who do not receive higher wages and monetary benefits from the employer. Similarly, with respect to the promotion, it was hypothesised that those women who attain promotion stay longer in the firm in comparison to those women who do not receive promotion in second firm.

Results are opposite to the expectations for both determinants. Higher wages and promotion augment mobility from the firm. Those women who receive higher wages or promotion in the firm are more likely to change the job. The results are strong positive and highly statistically significant for promotion (at 0.01 level), while the results are weak and statistically insignificant for higher wages.

Thus, I focus on explaining the effect of promotion on women's interfirm mobility decision. It is because statistically higher wages are a weak determinant of interfirm mobility decision. The possible explanation for the positive and statistically significant effect of promotion on interfirm mobility rates is following.

The survey does not contain information about the time of receiving promotion and increased wages. We do not know on which date women received promotion and/or increment in wages. It may be possible that women receive promotion or increment in wages at the time of joining the second firm or after spending sometime in the firm.

In both the situations, they are assumed to have spent longer time in the firm since attaining these rewards. Thus, women expect another promotion (and wage increment). Another possibility may include that women may have attained these rewards lately after joining the firm and they spent relatively longer time at a particular position.

In both the conditions, they are aware that it may take longer to get next expected rewards (especially promotion) in the same firm due to the career ladder and bureaucratic structure of the firm that decides on the promotion prospects (Petersen and Spilerman 1990).

Women workers get signals whether or not they will earn promotion or monetary rewards in their expected time period. On the other hand, women are also aware of their position in the labour market. Women know that they have best possible opportunities elsewhere outside the current firm which can offer them expected rewards in a short period of time.

Women weigh the cost and benefit of staying and leaving the firm. Women workers are aware that the expected value of leaving the current firm is higher than staying in it. Thus, they leave the current firm and move to another employer.

On the other hand, those women who do not attain any rewards (neither promotion nor monetary benefits) are more likely to stay in the firm because they are also aware of their position in the firm and in the labour market. Since these women have already spent longer time in the firm without receiving any reward (especially higher position) in expected time period, they are thus aware of the fact that they have less chances of gaining such rewards in outside firms.

Individuals are aware that they do not have best job alternatives available elsewhere in the labour market. Moreover, other employers in the labour market also estimate individuals abilities based on the rewards accumulated in the previous firms even if they cannot know the actual performance of an individual in the last firm (Petersen and Spilerman 1990).

If they do not earn promotion in the current firm then they know that it is less likely that they can attain expected rewards and benefits within their expected time period in the next firm. Therefore, women are likely to wait longer in the current organisation until they get expected rewards instead of moving out. This possible explanation for the positive effect of promotion (and/or wages) on interfirm mobility decision of women additionally suggests attainment tendency of individuals achieved through job change.

Descriptive findings additionally support the theoretical argument. Findings suggest that 81% of the women who attain higher position in the second firm also receive promotion in the third job, while 19% of the women attain promotion in second firm but do not achieve it at third employer.

Further, 69% of the women, who do not achieve higher position in the second job, receive it in the third firm. It is only 31% of women who do not attain promotion in both second and third job. Similarly, descriptive findings about wages and additional monetary benefits suggest that 89% of the women who receive higher wages in second job also receive it in third job, while 11% of women do not get higher wages and additional monetary perks when they move to third job from second job (see table 6.18 and 6.19 in chapter 6).

It can be argued that interfirm mobility results in maximizing status and income rewards. The majority of the women (89%) attain higher wages when they move to the next (third) employer. Women also benefit from attaining non-monetary rewards. The chances for attaining higher position in the next firm increase, if women attain promotion in the previous firm.

In addition, non-rewarded women employees also benefit from interfirm mobility. Those women, who do not receive higher position in the second firm, attain it in the third firm. Findings suggest that as much as 69% of the women do attain higher position in the third firm, while they could not receive it in the second firm.

Hence, both causal and descriptive findings of the study contribute to the theoretical argument of utility maximization. That is, interfirm mobility maximizes status and income rewards for the majority of the women in the current study. Interfirm mobility is at least assurance of attaining higher income if not necessarily gaining the higher position.

Though the regression findings suggest no effect of higher wages on women's job changing decision, women benefit economically as a result of changing employer. Thus, promotion is a strong determinant of women's interfirm mobility decision, while higher wages statistically do not contribute in women's job changing decision.

5.   Migrant Status

It was hypothesised that women belonging to other states (migrants) of India are less likely to change the employers in comparison to women belonging to Delhi

and NCR. Hence, migrant women were expected to stay longer in the job. Findings do not confirm the hypothesis. Findings suggest negligible and statistically insignificant effect of migrant status on women's interfirm mobility decision.

The results are consistent in both first and second job. Hence, migrant status is a weak determinant of women's interfirm mobility decision in the current study. Being migrant in the city of work (Delhi and NCR) does not affect firm change decision of women. The lower mobility of migrant women workers was expected in the light of- economic vulnerability, imperfect information of the labour market and lack of social network in the city of work.

However, results do not support these assumptions. The plausible explanation may include: First, since women are highly educated, they may acquire labour market information from various sources. It may be possible that women already have some social capital constituted by the individuals of their own region/area or extended family who have migrated earlier than them which facilitate sharing labour market information.

Second, the survey does not ask the date of migration that could exactly inform about their length of duration in the city of work. It may be possible that some women studied in the capital and then transited to labour market instead of coming directly for their work purpose.

Third, over a period of time women enter in marriage. Women get earning partner which reduces their economic vulnerabilities. Thus, it can be argued that women belonging to other states of India do not (statistically) significantly differ in their interfirm mobility decision as compared to women belonging to Delhi and NCR.

However, in order to investigate the effect of migrant status in future studies; it would be interesting to record the time of migration, i.e. arrival time in the city of work and purpose of migration. This information can lead to better estimation of the effect of migration on employment or transition to labour market.

6.   Age at entry in job

Age was expected to decline women's mobility from the job. That is, one century month increase in age was hypothesised to decline interfirm mobility rates. The results are in contrast to the expectations. That is, variable age does not confirm the hypothesis. The age has negligible and statistically insignificant effect in mobility from both first and second job.

However, age in second job demonstrates an interesting trend. The effect of age remains negligible but statistically significant until Model3[114]. However, after adding family status variables (particularly motherhood) and firm level variables the statistical significance of age disappears.

In final model 8, as shown in table 7.6 (model without interaction effect), age has negligible and statistically insignificant effect on interfirm mobility rates. The plausible explanation includes sample selection bias and the age composition of the sampled women. All women are young in the sample. There are very few women in the sample who are over 40 years of age.

Findings suggest that 90% of the women were below 33 years of age and 50% of the women were below 29 years of age at the time of interview. Thus, there does not exist much variation in the age group of women that could be captured by the statistical analysis.

Due to the absence of older women, i.e. women aged 40 years or above, it may be harder to make clear distinction between mobility rates of young and older women workers. Hence, in the current study, age at which women enter in first and second jobs is a weak determinant of their job changing decision.

7.   Marriage and Motherhood

Marital and motherhood status as family status variables were hypothesised to constrain women's interfirm mobility decision. That is, women were expected to stay longer in the job if they marry or become mother. Findings partially confirm the hypotheses. With respect to marriage, the results are in contrast to the hypothesis, while the results confirm the motherhood hypothesis. First, I discuss the effect of marriage on women's interfirm mobility decision.

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[114] See table 7.6 in chapter 7.

In both first and second job, marriage does not have statistically significant effect on job changing decision of women. It has negligible effect regardless of differences in the direction of the effect in first and second job (see table 7.3 and table 7.6).

If women are married or marry during any of the two jobs, it does not affect their decision to change employers. The negligible effect of marriage can be interpreted at two levels. First, the effect may be due to the sample selection bias in the data. Since all women were married in the sample at the time of interview due to which a greater variation between the (married and unmarried) groups in data may be compromised.

However, this limitation or apprehension may be ruled out in the light of the design of the retrospective survey and statistical technique used to analyse the data. In the survey, jobs were recorded retrospectively and data is analysed using piecewise constant exponential technique of event history method.

Analysing retrospective job history data implies that neither all women were married at the time of entry in first or second job nor all women get married during the tenure of two jobs. Rather, it is only few women who were married at the time of entry in first job. The majority of women marry during first and second job tenure. Some of the women remain unmarried when they move to the third employer.

Thus, it is over a period of time women enter in marriage which is simultaneous process along with their time in the workforce. Hence, EHA technique still distinguishes between the two groups of women by their unmarried and married marital status[115].

In addition, it considers the time spent in unmarried marital state for those women who marry during the job tenure[116]. Nevertheless, despite these apprehensions, the findings suggest a negligible effect of marital status on interfirm mobility decision of women.

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[115] See section 5.16 in chapter 5 to know the data structure of time-varying covariates in event history analysis.
[116] That is recoded as zero, as explained in chapter 5- Data and Method.

Another possible explanation for the negligible effect of marriage on women's interfirm mobility decision suggests de-restricting effect of marital status for sampled highly educated working women. It suggests that in the context of job changes, marriage *per se* ceases to be a constraining factor for these highly educated working women.

Marriage does not bring heavy family responsibilities for women unlike motherhood. This in turn indicates that women can focus on career advancement through interfirm mobility. Although some kind of addition in the household and family responsibilities (such as household chores, elderly care, women's presence in festivals and other occasions and, maintaining links to extended family) is expected in Indian society, being married does not change much of the lifestyle of the highly educated working women. Transition to the wife's role does not constraint women's worker role in the current study.

Descriptive findings of the current study support the derestricting effect of marriage on women's employment. The findings suggest that 77% of the women were working at the time of marriage, while 23% of the women who were either unemployed or they had temporarily quit the job at the time of marriage. However, they return to work after marriage[117] as all women were employed in the IT-ITES firms at the time of interview.

In the Indian context, a previous study suggests women's return to work post-marriage or their first time entry in labour market after marriage. Sudarshan and Bhattacharya (2009) find first time entry in labour market for those women who never worked prior to marriage. In the present study, the majority of women enter in employment prior to marriage with unmarried marital status. Findings suggest that 87% of the women were unmarried at the time of entry in first job. Only 13% of the women were married at the time of joining first job.

Women's return to work or the continuation of work after marriage is an indication of on-going social change in urban India. It indicates toward relaxing the conservative norm of keeping women home after marriage while allowing them to work. This also suggests augmented physical mobility of married women.

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[117] This is discussed in detail in chapter 6.

Few decades before, an increase in family's socio-economic status was followed by the withdrawal of women from paid work. It is because seclusion of women brought enormous prestige and honour to the men in their own community and society at large[118](Joshi and Liddle 1986). However, in contemporary times, several factors are contributing to facilitating women's work and simultaneous changes in the restrictive nature of marriage for educated employed women in urban areas.

Some of the indicators of social change include- expansion of education, higher educational attainment of women, women's orientation to work, change in traditional gender role attitudes, subjective utility of work, i.e. deriving psychological satisfaction through paid work, change in husband's attitude towards wife's work, growing economic needs due to increased cost of living in urban areas.

Education shapes individual's attitude towards work and life. In the present study, all women are at least university educated and nearly 58% of the women have highest degree above bachelor level. Women's higher educational achievement motivates them to work.

Findings suggest that women gain subjective utility through their paid work. They derive a sense of happiness and pleasure through paid work. A new variable on a five point scale from low (1) to high (5) is generated that suggests subjective utility of work[119].The mean score on happiness scale (from 1 to 5) is 4.11. Women feel happy and rewarded if they are working.

Further, the survey measures work attitudes of women. In particular, women's attitude towards own work are measured. The findings suggest that the attitudes of young educated women towards own work is changing. Young women are

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[118]The idea of seclusion of women, i.e., keeping them at home and constraining their mobility is one of the Brahmanical patriarchal practices in India. Under these norms, women have to be kept within the home under men's control with no mobility outside home. This used to be done largely to control women's sexuality on one hand and, raising one's social status in the society. In a way, seclusion led to dual control of men over women's sexual and economic autonomy and one reinforced the other.

[119] A variable on five point scale, from low (1) to high (5) is created by merging two indicators. A score of 1 indicates low motivation, while a score of 5 indicates higher motivation. Thus, the scale moves from 1 to 5. Higher the score, higher is the subjective utility of work. For more details, see section 5.17 in chapter 5.

increasingly becoming work oriented. A new variable on a five point scale from low (1) to high (5) is generated by merging three indicators[120]. The mean score on work orientation scale from (1 to 5) is 3.57 and the standard deviation is 0.868.

The mean score of work orientation is moving towards higher side of the scale which suggests that young educated women are increasingly becoming work oriented. Their work attitudes are changing in comparison to the generation of their mothers who identified themselves only with the family before and after marriage (Lakshmanna 2003).

For the previous generation, the sole purpose of education was to get educated husband and home management (Lakshmanna 2003). Other studies also suggest that for both working and non-working women, family roles were more important than their work role (Narayana 1982; Unwalla 1977).

Previous research on dual-earner households in urban context informs that women in this setting continue to view themselves primarily as homemakers and their work status could not alter their gender role attitudes (Rajadhyaksha and Smita 2004).

In contrast, the current study suggests that educated working women no longer idealise only housewife role rather they have high work orientation. Though the family over career is important (for 69%[121] of the women) to them, women are work oriented as well. Interestingly, 26% of the women choose the middle category which implies that they neither agree nor disagree by always giving priority to the family. Rather, this category of women makes a situation-specific decision.

It additionally indicates that women do not identify themselves only in the family roles. Women's high work orientation is in line with their changing traditional

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[120] The indicators included- 1) I always wished to be a housewife and have a family; 2) I prefer to do part time job over full time job; 3) I am ready to quit job if my husband were to earn more than combining our current income. A score of one indicates lower work orientation of women, while a score of five indicates higher work orientation of women. Thus, higher the score, higher is the work orientation of women. For more details, see section 5.17 in chapter 5.
[121] The survey asked women- *I give more priority to my family than to my career*. The variable was measured on 5 point scale from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (5). The agree category was collapsed together and disagree category was collapsed together, while middle category was kept intact. Hence, variable was recoded with 3 values.

gender role attitudes as findings suggest that 96% of the women believe that women should work[122]. Hence, findings indicate women's preference of work, increasing work orientation and non-idealization of family roles as housewife or mother. This, it can be said that these millennial women are career oriented and have not internalised family roles unlike the previous generation.

Another indicator of social change that induces women's paid work after marriage is husband's attitude towards his wife's work. Husband's positive and supportive attitude towards his wife's work is influencing women's employment in contemporary urban India. Women's perception of husband's attitude towards wife's work was measured in the survey.

The findings suggest that women perceive that their husband's attitude towards wife's work is changing. Men have supportive and liberal attitudes toward their wife's work. It is perceived that men are increasingly becoming open towards having working wife. A new variable on a five point scale from low (1) to high (5) is generated that suggest women's perception of husband's attitude towards women's work[123]. The mean score on husband's attitude scale (from 1 to 5) is 3.35, while the S.D. is .866.

In brief, findings inform that women's perception of husband's attitude towards wife's work is positive and supportive. Men are opening up to have a working partner and let women work post-marriage as well. These findings suggest a generational change in the spousal attitude towards wife's work.

Guha et al. (1974) notes the uneven attitude of husband towards work of women and their participation in public life. The authors note clear gender defined roles between men and women that existed in the Indian society few decades before. However, Rajadhyaksha and Smita (2004) note a slow and positive change in husband's attitude towards wife's work.

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[122] As said before, it would have provides better view of women's gender role attitudes if survey had more indicators of gender role attitudes. For instance, individual's attitude around childbirth and child cognitive growth. One indicator limits the explanations of its effect.

[123] A new variable on a five point scale from low (1) to high (5) is generated by merging two indicators. The score of 1 indicates lower support to wife's work, while a score of 5 indicates positive and supportive attitude to wife's work as perceived by the women. For more details, see section 5.17 in chapter 5.

The acceptability of a working wife, to a great extent, is influenced by the growing financial needs at home due to increased cost of living in the urban areas and, aspiration to raise standard of living in urban setting. The growing economic necessity is building pressure on men to overcome the idea of traditional 'male-breadwinner' role and have additional income being supplied by the women's employment.

This in turn, is compelling them to be open to accept working wife and support women's work after marriage. Findings indicate growing financial necessities of the dual-earner families which in turn, is stimulating women's paid work. A new variable on a five point scale from low (1) to high (5) is generated[124]. The mean score of financial needs scale (from 1 to 5) is 3.42 and the standard deviation is 1.11.

A difference in the perception of economic necessities was also tested by motherhood status, as explained in chapter 6. Expectedly, financial needs are higher in the families with children than families without children. The mean score of economic needs for families with children and families without children on a five point scale from low (1) to high (5) are3.678 and 3.274 respectively[125].

In a nutshell, findings suggest that growing financial needs due to increased cost of living in urban areas have generated the demand of two incomes. It has induced women's paid work as well as resulting in growth of dual-earner families in urban settings in India. Hence, this family structure is becoming dominant in urban areas in the absence of alternative source of income.

In the current study, findings suggest that 99% of the women's husband work and 98% of the husband have regular income. Majority of the spouses, i.e. 84% of the men work in private sector, 2% work in public/government sector and remaining 14% are either self-employed or have their own business[126]. As much as 86%[127]

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[124]A new variable on a five point scale from low (1) to high (5) is generated by merging two indicators. The score of 1 indicate low financial needs at home, while a score of 5 indicates higher financial needs at home felt by women. Hence, higher the score, higher is the economic necessities at home. For more details, see section 5.17 in chapter 5.

[125] For more details, see table 6.21 in chapter 6.

[126] Total N= 291

[127]Total observations are 291. Other source of income includes income from rent, property and so on. In other words, income that is not earned by women and their spouse through paid work.

of the households do not have additional source of income from rent and property.

Therefore, given the situation of higher economic needs, increased cost of living and precariousness of employment of both the spouses (84% of the husband work in private sector), men are increasingly realising women's economic value and supporting their work post-marriage. Due to these changes, men in dual-earner families have been abandoning the idea of traditional male-breadwinner role and are accepting women's worker role.

At the same time, women's- higher educational attainment, changing traditional gender role attitudes, increasing work orientation and subjective utility of work are stimulating women's paid work. Thus, all these factors are cumulatively giving rise to dual earner families in urban areas where women are continuing work after marriage and childbirth.

Hence, these changing structures and traditional norms suggest towards changing nature of marriage for educated working women in the present study. The limiting nature of marriage is changing for educated urban women in line with the socio-economic transformation of the society. It is indicated by the negligible, though statistically insignificant, effect of marriage on women's interfirm mobility decision in the present study.

The results are in line with the expectations with respect to the effect of children on interfirm mobility rates. It was hypothesised that childbirth or presence of small children decline women's mobility from the firm. As a result, women stay longer in the job. The results of both first and second job support the hypothesis.

The children have strong negative effect on job mobility rates in both the jobs. However, results are statistically significant in second job, while they are insignificant for first interfirm mobility[128]. The possible explanations include:

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[128]To reiterate, the insignificant effect of children in first job is expected due to the following two reasons. First, there are few women who become mother or who are already mother in the first job due to which results are not significant. That is, due to the small cases results may not be significant. Second, there is an absence of some organisation level variables in the first job which have affected the children variable. The second reason sounds more plausible as results from second job suggests that it is after adding firm level factors such as promotion and working

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First, the negative effect of children must be seen in the light of socio-cultural expectations with the role of mother in Indian society and the social production function of children that gives prestige and esteem to the mother and to the family (Nauck 2007).

In the light of social-psychological utility of children combined with the traditional gender role attitudes in the society, as explained in chapter 4, women assume greater responsibilities for childcare, socialization and other family responsibilities. Such expectations combined with full time job increase women's duties and responsibilities in practical life.

This, in turn, consumes most of women's time and energy due to which they are left with little time and energy to look for alternatives outside the current firm and to invest in career advancement as job search is costly in terms of investment of time and energy (Gary Stanley Becker 1993).

The study findings suggest that presence of small children increases women's responsibilities that affect their worker's role. One of its indicators in the survey includes women's frequency of taking days-off from work due to family demands. Findings inform that 55% of the mothers often have to take day-off from work due to family responsibilities in comparison to 31% of the women without children who often are off-work due to family needs.

It is only 21% of the mothers who are not off-work due to family demands in comparison to 38% of the non-mothers who are not off-work for fulfilling family needs. The results clearly suggest that mothers are predominantly burdened with family demands as compared to non-mothers. Consequently, women often have to negotiate with worker's role and make adjustment at work.

One of the repercussions of such conflict between worker and family role is that it may present women as more *family oriented* than a *dedicated worker* to male colleagues and male managers. This in turn has high potential to affect women's career opportunities in the firm.

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conditions in the model that improves the significance level of motherhood status to a great extent. See Model 7 and Model 8 in table 7.6.

Further, due to heavy family responsibilities combined with full-time job, mothers find difficult to combine work and family life. The study findings suggest that 47% of the mothers find difficult to balance work and family life in comparison to 29% of the women without children who find difficult to combine work and family. Further, 37% of the mothers do not find difficult to combine two roles as compared to 41% of the non-mothers who do not find difficult to balance work and family life.

The study results are in line with previous research that suggests increased family responsibilities for women despite the division of their time into work and family roles (Kelkar et al. 2002). That is, even if women's time has divided into work and family, there has not been a decline in their family responsibilities. Women continue to be over-burdened by family duties which make balancing work and family life difficult. At the same time, it affects their physical and mental health due to high stress level.

Thus, descriptive findings of the study substantiate the causal findings indicating women's longer duration in the job after becoming mother. It is because heavy childcare responsibilities combined with family demands lead women to stay longer in job. These conditions are opposed to interfirm mobility.

In addition, the cultural ideology of 'ideal mother' (Chekki 1996; Lakshmanna 2003; Madan 1976; Rao and Rao 1982) reinforces traditional gender roles (especially regarding childcare) in the family and society. Due to this, women are expected to fulfil particular needs of the children which demand their exclusive time.

Emotional and psychological needs of children are expected to be fulfilled by the mother. This is primarily because women continue to be responsible for a child's socialization. A mother is expected to invest her time and energy for socializing a child in- inculcating good values, transferring knowledge of different life domains, building emotional, mental and physical capabilities and strengths.

Moreover, women's own desire of gratifying motherhood needs results in women's overwhelming indulgence in childcare activities and other associated

responsibilities. This, in turn, affects their labour market outcomes negatively. In the present study, it increases women's duration in a firm.

Apart from cultural factors, three main structures of the society- family, welfare state and market must also be taken into account in explaining the negative effect of children on interfirm mobility decision of women. That is, the extent to which these three structures of the society help explaining women's interfirm mobility decision.

Family is an important institution in India. It continues to be a crucial supplier of support and care to its members. That is, an extended or joint family is a big care and support provider to the dual earner families in the urban areas, especially to small child(ren) during mother working hours. Findings suggest the presence of additional family member(s) in the dual earner families who expectedly provide care and support to the child(ren) when mother is at work.

Findings suggest that 62% of the women with one child live with one or more family members (excluding husband) in the house. That is, dual earner couples live with additional family members[129]in the household. Similarly, 58% of the women without a child live with one or more family members (excluding husband) in the household.

There are only 35% of the families which have nuclear family structure consisting of husband, wife and a child. Likewise, nuclear family set up is found for 42% of the women without a child. Most expectedly[130], the presence of additional family members indicates toward having grandparents in the family.

The study findings are in line with the previous research (on IT-ITES industries) that informs the resurgence of 'joint family' system in urban context where women have started earning (Upadhya and Vasavi 2006).Thus, in dual-earner families, it is expected that grandparents are primary caregivers to small child(ren) in the family when mother is at work.

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[129]The range of family members goes from one to five and, in some cases it goes up to ten family members.
[130] The survey does not include a direct indicator of identifying the source of childcare during mother's working hours. This is why inferences are drawn from the size of family and number of members living in a dual-earner family.

In addition, women in the survey express that family support enables them to continue working despite having children. Their views indicate to the supportive attitude of husband and the family which is allowing them to continue working post-marriage. For instance, one woman in the survey states that "*I manage office and home easily because I have supportive family*". Similarly, another woman views that "*you need family support to carry forward your work-family life which otherwise is not possible without family support*"[131].

In brief, findings suggest that husband and family support is crucial for enabling women to continue working post marriage and childbirth. This assumes more significance given the importance of marriage and family in the Indian society and the absence of welfare state supportive structures to the women working in private organised sector.

The lack of quality publicly funded childcare services contributes to women's overwhelming indulgence in childcare which in turn, affects their labour market outcomes. There are virtually no provisions for publicly funded childcare for working women in India except legal childcare services to be provided to the workers at tea plantations and mines. The National Employment Policy of India (2008) also recognises the absence of supportive structures that can facilitate women's employment.

Arguably, the lack of quality childcare services is one of those supportive structures that induces women's workforce participation (DGE&T 2008).Except the entitlements to maternity leave, women working in private organised sector are not entitled for any other benefits under the family policies of India[132].

Findings suggest that among mothers, 79% of the women were employed and took maternity leave during first childbirth, while the remaining 21% were either unemployed or they temporarily quit the job at the beginning of pregnancy. Those women who take maternity leave during first childbirth, 93% of them return to the pre-birth employer, while the remaining 7% do not return to the pre-birth employer. They change employer post-childbirth.

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[131] Women respondents were provided open box in the survey where they wrote the comments.

[132] Women working in public/ government sector are entitled for two year parental leave that can be taken anytime during the service period. For more info, see Times of India (2014).

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In addition, there existed (at the time of interview) no provision in law for paternity leaves for male workers working in the organised private sector in comparison to the male workers working in the public sector. The latter are entitled for paternity leave benefits[133]. In the organised private sector, paternity leave for male workers depends upon internal firm's policy.

The study findings suggest that 49% of the women's husband received paternity leave from their firm, while 46% of the women's husband did not receive paternity leave during first childbirth. Therefore, the absence of state support leads dual earner families (or women) to fall back on the support of extended family after childbirth when women decide to continue working.

One of the repercussions of such prevailing structural arrangements in the Indian society is that it forces women to seek support of husband and extended (in-laws) family (or being dependent upon husband/family support) to continue paid work which then appears as a 'mutual decision of the family' instead of women's independent decision for her own work.

It is because women are aware that children have to be born and its responsibilities will eventually fall on them in the absence of alternatives for childcare. This in turn makes it harder for women to make independent decision for their own work after childbirth.

In case, where dual-earner couples cannot seek extended family support then either women have to leave labour force or choose market based solution for childcare. Although the role of private market in providing childcare services is increasing in urban areas, in contemporary times, it involves higher cost.

Families do cost and benefits analysis between availing the market based solution and women's earnings[134]. It is possible that 35% of the dual-earner families with children that do not have family support more likely to avail of market services for childcare during mother working hours.

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[133] At the time of survey in (2011-12), there existed no law that could offer paternity leave to the father. Rather, a grant of paternity leaves was dependent upon firm's internal policy.
[134] Cost and benefits analysis with women's earnings because men cannot be expected to be stay-at-home fathers due to- gender roles, patriarchal nature of the society and men's own attitude to be main breadwinner of the family. Thus, it is women who have to give-up their work for childcare.

The strong presence of one of these three structures in the society partially induces women's workforce participation. In the Indian context, it is largely the joint or extended family which emerges as a major care and support supplier to dual-earner families with small children, especially when a mother is at work. Market based childcare services are chosen by dual-earner couples in the absence of extended family support.

In brief, it can be argued that positive and supportive attitude of husband towards his wife's work, women's work orientation, subjective utility of work, changing gender role attitude of women, growing economic pressure and family support facilitate women's work after marriage and childbirth.

At the same time, women's family and childcare responsibilities make it difficult for them to balance work and family life. Working mothers are overwhelmingly burdened with family demands due to which they stay longer in the job. High family demands often pose greater conflict between worker and family roles which women adjust by taking day-off from work.

Although the family acts as a crucial support pillar to working mothers, a full-time job coupled with the care work supplied to small children (expectedly to elderly members in the family as well) and other family responsibilities makes it difficult for women to balance work and family life.

The problem is aggravated by the absence of affordable publicly funded childcare services and no provision for longer child care (parental) leave provisions that may reduce women's burden of care work and can help combining work and family roles in a less stressful manner especially in the early years of childhood.

These conditions or structural arrangements are bound to limit women's potential to reach maximum (Hachen 1990) and affect their labour market outcomes. Consequently, women are less likely to change the employer and stay longer in the job. Staying longer in a firm is a better alternative than completely quitting the job to be full time housewife and full time mother.

8.   Working Time: Fixed and Flexible Shifts

It was hypothesised that flexible (rotating) shifts augment women's mobility from the job. Women are more likely to change the employer if they work in flexible work shifts than one fixed shift. Findings suggest mixed effect of flexible shifts in first and second interfirm mobility. The effect is negligible and statistically insignificant in first job, while the effect is strong negative and statistically significant (at .10 level) in second job.

It suggests that flexible work shifts have no effect on women's first job change, while women stay longer in the second job if they work in flexible shifts. The plausible explanation for the mixed effect of flexible work shifts in two jobs can be attributed to women's family status and their general preference of working time especially after marriage. In brief, the effect must be seen in the light of a 'time' (over a time period effect) and several family processes that accompany women's working life.

It was explained earlier that the majority of the women enter in first job with unmarried marital status due to which they do not assume necessary household responsibilities or other kind of work in the family which needs their exclusive time and attention. It is not obligatory on their part to perform household chores as it is taken-care by the family as long as they live with the parents before marriage (Singh and Pandey 2005; Tara and Ilavarasan 2009).

In other situation, if they live away from the family, women still enjoy freedom and independence in their life. In this context, previous research suggests that often women begin their career in call-centres or any other job in the ITES sector that requires working in night or rotating shifts(Clark and Sekher 2007; Ng and Mitter 2005; Singh and Pandey 2005; Tara and Ilavarasan 2009).

Women receive full parental support that enables them working during any time of the day or night (Tara and Ilavarasan 2009). In brief, work in flexible or night shifts does not pose any conflict in women's personal or familial life before marriage, while it poses greater challenges and conflict in marital life. Hence, this serves as one possible explanation of negligible effect of flexible work shifts in the first job.

Flexible shifts were also interacted with marital status in both the jobs to see the effect of flexible (rotating) shifts for married women. The effect of interaction term is very strong negative and statistically significant (at .05 significance level) in the first job while, it has strong positive but statistically insignificant effect in second job change.

That is, if women get married and work in rotating shifts, they (statistically) significantly stay longer in the first job. However, women are more likely to change the second job, if they are married and work in flexible shifts. The result is statistically insignificant though. Moreover, adding interaction term improves the significance level of flexible work shift[135]. The plausible explanation for these effects is following. Here, I focus on the statistically significant results.

The strong negative and significant effect of flexible shifts for married women in first job is due to- either it takes longer for them to find desirable work shifts in the next firm or women stay longer voluntarily in first job in order to adjust with new family role.

That is, married women's time in first job extends due to expensive job search. It takes longer for them to find next best job opportunity in the labour market that offers desirable working time. Alternatively, they stay longer in the first job voluntarily as flexible (rotating) work shifts may allow them adjusting with new family role of wife.

Though marriage does not have any effect on women's job mobility decision in the present study, it is not ruled that marriage may bring some additional responsibilities to them due to which women may prefer to have flexible (rotating) work shifts in the beginning of marriage. Since the adjustment process is higher in the beginning of marriage, flexible work shifts may enable women adjusting worker and family role in a less stressful manner. Hence, this plausibly explains married women's longer waiting time in the first job.

A similar explanation applies to the negative effect of flexible work shifts in the second job. Over a period of time as more and more women marry, spend time in

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[135] See Model 9 of table 7.6.

marriage, become mothers, there exist possibilities that flexible (rotating) work shifts enable them reconciling work and family life in a better manner due to which they voluntarily stay longer in the firm.

Alternatively, due to expensive job search, it takes longer for them to find next better job opportunity that offers them desirable working time (most expectedly one fixed shift). This in turn extends their duration in the firm. Substantiating the latter argument with the descriptive findings, it can be argued that women prefer to work in one fixed shift instead of flexible or rotating shifts. Hence, finding the desirable (one fixed shift) work shift extends their duration in the firm.

Findings suggest that 71% (210) of the women were working in one fixed shift, while 29% (85) of the women were working in flexible shifts in the first job. In second job, 75% (176) of the women were working in fixed shift, while 25% (60) of the women were working in flexible shifts (see table 6.7 and 6.10).

Women also change their working shifts in line with changing employer. Findings suggest that 85% (144) of the women who worked in one fixed shift in the first job continue working in fixed shift in second firm. Only 15% (25) of the women who worked in fixed shift in first job move to flexible work shifts in the second job.

Similarly, 48% (32) of the women who had flexible work shifts in their first job move to one fixed shift in the second job, while 52% (35) of the women continue working in flexible shifts in second job[136]. Further, findings inform that 83% (86) of the women who worked in one fixed shift in the second job continue working in one fixed shift in the third firm. Only 17% (17) of the women moved from fixed shift in second job to flexible shifts in the third job.

Moreover, 70% (23) of the women who worked in flexible shifts in the second job move to one fixed shift in third organisation, while 30% (10) of the women continue working in flexible shifts in the third job (see table 6.14 and 6.15).

Hence, based on the descriptive findings of the present study, it can be inferred that over a period of time as women marry and become mothers, they prefer to

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[136]Pearson chi2(1) = 35.4828 Pr = 0.000; Cramer's V= .387.

work in one fixed shift. However, it takes longer to find a next best job that could offer desirable working time which in turn, extends their duration in the current firm.

Flexible or rotating work shifts do not pose a conflict in the beginning of the career as the majority of the women enter in labour market with unmarried marital status. But after marriage or childbirth, women prefer to work in one fixed shift. It is because flexible work shifts bring uncertainty of working hours that pose greater conflict between women's worker and family roles.

Due to this, flexible working shifts are less preferred by women. In order to minimise the conflict between work and family roles and to be in tune with spouse working time, women prefer to work in one fixed shift. It is because working hours do not change drastically in one fixed shift. It harmonises women's work and family lives.

Hence, the study results confirm previous research which suggests incompatibility between flexible (rotating) work shifts and family responsibilities (McMillin 2006; Singh and Pandey 2005). In the present study, flexible work shift extends women's duration in the current firm until they find next best job offer in the labour market which fulfil their work preference of one fixed shift.

9.   Job Position in Firm Hierarchy

It was hypothesised that lower levels of job position augment women's mobility from the job. Women are more likely to change the employer if they work at the lower levels in the firm hierarchy. Results support the hypothesis in both first and second job mobility. Level one and level two in comparison to level three[137] in the firm hierarchy witness higher job mobility rates[138]. The results are strong positive and highly statistically significant for both the levels in both the jobs.

Women change employer in order to improve their job position in the next firm. Petersen and Spilerman (1990) suggest that individuals are more likely to move out from the lower levels of job position where promotion prospects are poor.

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[137] Level 3 is the reference category.
[138] Job position was measured on a five point scale from low (1) to high (5). Since, there are few cases at level four and level five of job position, they are not discussed here.

The study findings support this argument. On average, women spend over two years in both first and second job. If women do not get opportunity to move upward in the organisational hierarchy and if their job position does not improve in the expected time period, they are more likely to change the employer to advance their job position. Thus, women maximize their status through job change.

Descriptive findings also support this argument. The majority of the women improve their job position in line with changing employer. The majority of the women move one level up[139] in line with changing the job.

Findings suggest that the mean value of women's job position in first firm is 2.00 on a five point scale from low (1) to high (5). It improves to 2.49 in the second job on a similar scale (see table 6.9 in chapter 6). For instance, as shown in table 6.9, 58% of the women who were working at level one in the first job move to level two in the second job. That is, they move one level up in the next firm in comparison to their job position in the previous job.

Similarly, 20% of the women who worked at the lowest level (level 1) in first organisation move to level three in second firm. In similar way, 46% of the women who worked at level two in first job move to level three in the second firm. Those women who change job twice also upgrade their job position level.

Findings suggest that 53% of the women who were working at the lowest level in second job move to level two in the third firm, while57% of the women move to level three in the third firm from level two in the second firm.

However, women are not able to upgrade their position after reaching middle level. That is, after reaching at level three, it is harder for women to move above. Those women who change job twice are largely stuck at the middle level job position. Findings inform that 59% of the women working at the middle level in second job continue working at the same level in the third firm as well. Similarly, 59% of the women continue working at level three in the second job despite changing the first firm.

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[139] The job position was measured on a five point scale from low to high. The level one refers to low position, while level five refers to higher position in a firm hierarchy.

In brief, it can be argued that women benefit from changing employer if they are located at lower levels in the firm hierarchy. Women succeed in improving their job position by one level up as a result of changing the firm. However, interfirm mobility does not bring much change for women working at the middle level. Majority of the women get stuck after reaching middle level job position.

Nevertheless, it may be possible that to reach further higher levels in the firm hierarchy, women need more work experience. In future, more time in the workforce may result in their vertical movement. As all women are young and have further opportunities to reach at higher levels in the organisation if they stay employed.

In brief, it can certainly be argued that interfirm mobility proves to be a strategy for career development for women as they maximize their status and income rewards by moving to the next employer. Women benefit in both monetary and non-monetary terms by changing employer.

8.3   Summary

This chapter discussed results of women's interfirm mobility decision. Findings of first and second interfirm mobility were discussed cumulatively in the light of previous research, theoretical framework and hypotheses. The regression findings were combined with the descriptive findings to offer valuable insights of women's work and family roles. It helped to understand the extent to which women's work decision is influenced by family roles.

Both individual and firm level determinants were discussed in detail. Among individual level characteristics, the effect of- education, marriage and motherhood were given emphasis. Among firm level covariates, the effect of- working time, sector, job position, promotion and working conditions were given more focus.

Results indicate that women trained in different educational degrees behave differently in their interfirm mobility decision. Findings suggest that women with technical/professional degrees at bachelor level, who expectedly work as IT professionals and engineers in the IT sector (statistically) significantly stay longer

in the first job in comparison to women holding non-technical/professional degrees at master level.

Women trained in non-technical/professional degrees at bachelor level and women educated in a technical/professional degree at master level emerge similar in their interfirm mobility decision. These two groups of women stay longer in the first job but the results are not statistically significant for them. These two groups of women stay shorter in the second job and are more likely to change the second employer than women trained in non-technical/professional degrees at master level. The results are statistically significant for them in the second job.

In brief, women with technical/professional degree at bachelor level stay longer in the first job, while non-technical women with bachelor degree and women with technical/professional degree at master level are more likely to change second firm as well in comparison to women with non-technical/professional degrees at master level.

Hence, the differences in the interfirm mobility rates were attributed to the- job-employee mismatch, different career trajectory and high demand and relevance of technical workforce in the IT-ITES sector. Those women who work as technologists, IT professional or software engineers find better job-employee match in their first job, while non-technical workforce attempt to find better match and interesting work through job change in short period of time.

The effect of wages and promotion was discussed together. Wages have weak and statistically insignificant effect on job changing decision of women, while promotion has strong positive and highly statistically significant effect on interfirm mobility decision of women. Those women who attain promotion in the second firm are more likely to change the job than women who do not receive promotion with second employer.

It was argued that the time of attaining promotion in the current firm keeps relevance. It is because individuals are aware that it may take longer for them to attain next promotion in the current firm, while they can attain it in expected time period (or earlier) in the next firm. Thus, women workers weigh the value of

staying in the firm against value of leaving firm. They find it beneficial to change the employer to maximize their attainment level.

On the other hand, wages were not strong and statistically significant determinant of interfirm mobility. However, the descriptive findings demonstrated that interfirm mobility is a key to maximize monetary rewards. The majority of the women receive higher wages and additional monetary benefits in the next firm. For instance, 87% of the women were receiving higher wages in the second job. Hence, they benefit in monetary terms in line with changing employer.

In brief, the study argued that changing employer is the assurance of attaining higher income if not necessarily the higher position. Nevertheless, the majority of the women attain higher position as they move to the next firm.

Among family status determinants, marriage does not have any effect on women's interfirm mobility decision. The effect is negligible and statistically insignificant in both the jobs. That is, being married or entry in marriage does not (statistically) influence women's decision to change employer.

On the other hand, transition to motherhood or presence of small children has strong negative and statistically significant effect on women's job changing decision. That is, if women are mothers or if they become mother during job tenures, they are likely to stay longer in the firm. The effect of children is statistically significant in the second job, while the effect is statistically insignificant in the first job.

The negligible effect of marriage was characterised as the 'de-restricting' nature of marriage for highly educated working women in the current study. This de-restricting effect of marriage was further attributed to factors such as higher educational attainment of women, women's increasing work orientation, subjective utility of work, changing attitude of husband towards his wife's work, growing financial necessities of urban families sweeping the ideology of 'male-breadwinner', and relatively easy reconciliation of work and family roles for married women than mothers. All these factors are contributing to bringing social change in India.

Findings demonstrated that children decline women's job mobility. Women stay longer in the job once they become mother or if they have small children. It was argued that due to strong prevalence of traditional gender role attitudes in the Indian society and ideology of motherhood women end up devoting most of their time to childcare and associated responsibilities.

Women's overwhelming indulgence in childcare negatively affects their work career. In the present study, it augments their stay in the job as women are not left with enough time and energy to invest in career advancement.

To substantiate this argument, it was shown that it is largely mothers who often have to negotiate with worker's role and make adjustment at work due to their family needs. It was demonstrated through frequency of taking days-off from work by motherhood status.

Further, it is predominantly mothers who find difficult to combine work and family in comparison to women without children. Though, in urban areas, dual-earner families have joint or extended family support to the small child(ren) during mother's working hours, yet mothers find difficult to reconcile work and family roles.

Thus, in brief, it was argued that due to the absence of publicly funded quality childcare services, women (dual-earner families) often fall back on seeking support of the extended family for childcare during mother's working hours. This structural arrangement, in turn, makes women implicitly vulnerable as they have to seek husband and family support (approval) to continue working after childbirth.

It is because women are aware that children have to be born and childcare responsibilities will fall on them. Thus, husband and family support is crucial to women's work. Hence, an exchange and interdependency exists between family, welfare state and women's employment mediated by traditional gender roles in the society.

Among firm level variables, the IT-ITES sector declines women's job mobility. Women stay longer in the job if they work in the IT-ITES firms than other sector.

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The popularity of the IT-ITES sector among educated working population, especially among women, was attributed to- easy entry, higher wages, better working conditions and opportunities for career advancement.

Most importantly, the IT-ITES sector has provided decent white-collar job opportunities to the growing number of educated working-age women in India. These job opportunities were largely missing prior to 1991. In addition, the male dominated and highly competitive nature of public sector jobs has induced the interest of educated women towards the IT-ITES sector. Thus, women stay longer in the IT-ITES firms than in other sectors.

Good working conditions decline women's job mobility from the firm. Findings suggest that if women find good working conditions at work, they stay longer in it. The effect was nearly strong and statistically significant. It was elucidated that variable working conditions refer to the prevalence of working conditions in the IT-ITES firm as 84% of the women were working in the IT-ITES sector in second job which implies that they refer to the several indices of working conditions in the IT-ITES sector. Findings informed that the IT-ITES offer good working conditions to its employees which are most expectedly harder to find in jobs in the unorganised sector.

Lower levels of job position augment women's mobility from the firm. If women work at level one and level 2 in the firm hierarchy, they are more likely to change the employer than women working at level three. The results were strong positive and statistically significant in both the jobs.

Descriptive findings suggest that interfirm mobility is a key to career development for highly educated women. That is, the majority of the women upgrade their job position in line with changing employer. The majority of women move at least one level up from the lowest level one.

However, interfirm mobility does not bring much change if women attain middle level position in the firm. Women employees get stuck after reaching middle level. Nevertheless, it is expected that if women continue working, they have more opportunities in the future for vertical movement. It is because they are all young and have several years in the labour market.

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Hence, the study argued that the majority of the women maximize their status and income rewards by changing employer. Women benefit in both monetary and non-monetary terms in by moving to next job. Both causal and descriptive findings of the current study support this argument. The next chapter provides a short summary of the study findings and draws conclusions.

9. Summary and Conclusion

9.1 Summary

The dissertation analysed interfirm mobility behaviour of young highly educated women in the Indian context. The main research questions were- why do women change job(s)? What are the determinants of women's interfirm mobility decision? 2) To what extent, marriage and motherhood affect women's interfirm mobility decision? In this light, the overarching goal was to examine interfirm mobility behaviour of women and the extent to which it is affected by the family roles of wife and mother.

The study focussed on the Information Technology (IT) - Information Technology Enabled Services (ITES) sector due to its increasing importance to Indian economy and to women's employment. The study demonstrated that the services sector has expanded enormously since the adoption of the economic reforms in 1991.

Among many sub-sectors of the services sector, the IT-ITES sector has gained importance due to its contribution to stimulating economic development. The IT-ITES sector has been contributing significantly to gross domestic product and has enabled the country to gain the identity of a knowledge economy.

The sector is recognised for providing decent white-collar well-paid jobs to the growing educated working-age population of India. Especially, the sector has emerged as a major source of employment for educated women in urban areas.

Highly educated urban women have benefitted enormously from white-collar employment opportunities offered by this sector. Thus, a large number of young women have been participating in the IT-ITES sector since two decades.

The growing employment of educated women in the IT-ITES industries has led to discourses in academia on the changing role of women in the Indian society. A vast body of literature has emerged that studied women's employment in the IT-

ITES sector as well as corresponding changes in the lives of women as a result of their employment in these industries.

In this context, the dissertation reviewed major previous research that has contributed to enhancing the understanding of women's employment in the IT-ITES sector. It was shown that previous studies primarily focused on analysing work, family and individual life experiences of women working in the IT-ITES sector.

More precisely, existing studies examined the effect of women's employment in the IT-ITES sector on gender roles, gender relations at work and family, changing nature of patriarchy, women's agency, and changing socio-economic status of women.

Previous research offers valuable insights on several aspects of women work and family life. However, the study emphasised that little is known about the interfirm mobility behaviour of women in this sector. Women's job changing behaviour remains an under-researched topic so far. We do not know- why do women change job(s) and what determines their interfirm mobility decision? To what extent, marriage and motherhood affect women's interfirm mobility decision.

A very few studies touch upon this topic. However, they largely refer to the interfirm mobility behaviour of either men or mention women's job mobility only briefly. For instance, researchers argue that women stay longer in a job in the IT industry due to their childcare and family responsibilities, while men move faster between employers. In other words, women are less likely to change jobs than men.

One of the drawbacks in such studies is that the researchers do not provide sufficient evidence to support their arguments. It is primarily because the majority of previous studies has been conducted using qualitative methods of enquiry (cf. Kelkar, Shrestha, and Veena 2002; Upadhya and Vasavi 2006).

In qualitative research, scholars rely on interviews with a very small number of individuals which restricts the validity and reliability of their research findings. In addition, these studies have not investigated the extent to which women's family

roles restrict women's interfirm mobility. In a nutshell, a systematic and causal investigation of women's interfirm mobility decision has not been carried out so far.

Those existing studies which employ own survey, report their findings only descriptively (cf. Shanker 2008; Singh and Pandey 2005). Thus, previous research has not established clear links and relationship between determinants of women's interfirm mobility behaviour and their family roles.

Hence, a topical and methodological gap persists which the current study attempts to fill by investigating women's interfirm mobility behaviour and the extent to which it is influenced by women's family roles of wife and mother.

By examining interfirm mobility behaviour of women through a quantitative mode of enquiry, the dissertation bridges a methodological gap in the literature by conducting own survey and applying advanced statistical technique on survey data. The study employs own survey data with a relatively bigger sample consisting of 295 women.

The survey was deployed both online and through paper based face-to-face method among women working in the IT - ITES firms in Delhi and National Capital Region. The survey was conducted from November 2011 to February 2012.

All women were married at the time of interview, while 37% of the women were mothers. The survey records complete retrospective work and family life histories of young educated working women. In addition, it contains comprehensive information on their work and family attitudes.

In order to analyse survey data, the study employed piecewise constant exponential (PCE) model technique of event history analysis. This advanced statistical technique enables to establish a clear causal relationship between work and family decisions of young women. In other words, work and family are time dependent and simultaneous processes.

The advanced statistical PCE technique helps demonstrating the clear effect of family status on interfirm mobility decision of women. That is, the extent to which entry (or time spent) in marriage and motherhood affects women's decision to change employer is clearly shown by the PCE technique of event history method.

The current study uses two theoretical approaches- rational choice theory (RCT) and value of children (VOC). The study develops several hypotheses based on some of the assumptions of RCT. With regard to rational choice theory, the study also demonstrates the extent to which RCT developed in the Western context, can be applied to the Indian context and help us in understanding the interfirm mobility behaviour of women in the Indian IT-ITES sector.

One of the underlying assumptions of RCT is 'methodological individualism' which explains macro social outcomes through individual actions. In this light, the current research analyses women's decision to change firms. Further, according to RCT, individuals are driven by utility maximization and act in an environment that offers certain- opportunities and constraints.

Hence, applying the basic assumption of utility maximization, the study assumed that individuals attempt to maximize status (non-monetary rewards such as promotion and prestigious position) and income rewards (higher wages and additional monetary rewards) through job change. The study examined the extent to which women attempt to maximize these rewards through job change.

Marriage and children were indicators of constraints in the present study. The role of children as constraints was further explained with the help of the value of children approach. The VOC theoretical approach helped to understand the ways in which children are important to the mother and the family, which in turn, due to the given traditional gender role attitudes, affect women's labour market outcomes negatively.

Thus, in combination with RCT, the VOC theoretical approach helped to understand the determinants of women's interfirm mobility decision and the extent to which marriage and motherhood affect their decision.

The study adds value and an innovative perspective to the existing literature by using these two theoretical approaches. In addition, it makes a contribution to the growing body of literature on the relationship between gender, technology and globalization (cf. McMillin 2006; Raju 2003; Shanker 2008).

Furthermore, the study examined work-family attitudes of young educated working women in the light of their dual roles of worker and wife/mother. The descriptive findings of the study comprehensively illustrated how women's-employment, higher education and increasing work orientation help understanding the on-going social transformation in urban India.

That is, due to available white-collar well-paid job opportunities in the IT-ITES sector, women are able to utilize their higher educational attainment. At the same time, they are inclined to achieve higher education that is aimed at achieving economic independence and having a successful career.

These women who truly represent the characteristics of millennial women[140] are drivers of social change in urban India. Educated working women are contributing to bring change in traditional gender roles and stereotypical images of women in the Indian society. Simultaneously, women are shaping their own lives through their educational and employment achievements.

Against this background, by using-own survey data and employing advanced statistical technique, the study successfully establishes a causal relationship between women's interfirm mobility decision and their family roles. In addition, the study complements causal findings with descriptive findings to offer a better view of women's work and family lives. A brief summary of research findings is given below.

The dissertation examined first and second interfirm mobility. Mobility from first and second job was analysed separately, while the results were discussed cumulatively. Both individual and firm level determinants were analysed.

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[140] Millennial women are those women who are born between 1980 and 1995. Millennial women are characterised as- highly educated with at least university education and above, career oriented, self-motivated, self-confident and financially independent. The millennial women are argued to enter workforce in a large number than their previous generation.

The individual level determinants included- highest education, migrant status, age at the entry in job, higher wages and additional monetary benefits, and marital and motherhood status. Firm level covariates included- flexible shifts, IT-ITES sector, women's job position, promotion and working conditions.

The findings suggested that different types and levels of education, presence of small children, flexible shifts, IT-ITES sector, job position, promotion and working conditions (statistically) significantly explain women's interfirm mobility decision. Wages and marriage, by contrast, do not (statistically) significantly explain job changing decision of women. However, descriptive findings about these two determinants add value to the causal findings.

To note, the sample was drawn from the IT-ITES sector and the majority of the women (80%) were working in this sector in their first and second job. Thus, the study results predominantly refer to the women's mobility in the IT-ITES sector.

Findings suggested that the majority of the women change at least first job in their early career. That is, as much as 80% of the women change first employer and move to the second firm. However, by interview time, the majority of the women find stability in second or third firm. Very few women change three or more employers.

In this light, it was argued that changing first employer is a 'norm' for the majority of the women. It is primarily because first job does not provide better job-employee fit to majority of them. Simultaneously, first job is not considered as a career destination by the majority of the women which induces interfirm mobility.

Rather, the first job is perceived as a socialising institution where the primary purpose is to earn quick money and accumulate workforce experience to strengthen position in labour market for desirable career. It was further argued that women enter in labour market at a very young age; they are fascinated by the idea of economic independence achieved through earning higher wages in the IT-ITES sector in the beginning of their careers.

Other sectors of the economy do not offer such opportunities. Thus, due to imperfect information of the labour market, women are likely to accept the first job that offers them good wages and better working conditions. Hence, first job is an instrument to develop a desirable career in the future. The findings suggested that 47% of the women change first job, while 45% of the women change second job for career advancement. The effect of each individual and firm level variable on women's job changing decision is explained in the following sections.

Highest Education

It was expected that women with technical/professional education stay longer in the job, while women with non-technical degrees are likely to change job. Although the results confirm the expectation, the results vary in first and second job. The study demonstrated that women trained in different types and levels of degrees vary in their interfirm mobility decision.

Women with technical/professional education at bachelor level (statistically) significantly stay longer in the first job, while women with non-technical/professional degrees at bachelor level and technical/professional degrees at master level stay (statistically) significantly shorter in their second job in comparison to women holding non-technical/professional degrees at master level.

It suggests that women with a non-technical educational profile at university level and women with technical/professional degrees at master level are more likely to change second job. In this context, the study assumed that technical/professional women with bachelor degrees are expected to work as IT professionals and software engineers in core IT sector[141].

On the other hand, women trained in technical/professional degrees at master level and women holding non-technical degrees at bachelor level constitute the non-technical workforce and are expected to work in the ITES sector.

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[141] IT professionals generally utilize their technical expertise in developing products and technologies. Hence, they work as core technologists. On the other hand, work in ITES include-back office work, call-centre representative, data entry, and information processing work. The work in ITES does not require technical expertise among its workforce.

The assumption was substantiated by the descriptive findings which suggested that the majority of the women who possess professional degrees at master level are trained in non-technical disciplines at bachelor level. Hence, by attaining popular degrees such as MBA, women maximize their attainment level in the IT-ITES sector as a non-technical education at bachelor level is insufficient to provide them a desirable level of monetary and non-monetary rewards.

The differences in interfirm mobility rates were attributed to the different career trajectory, high demand and relevance of technical workers in the IT-ITES sector and job-employee mis(match). The study argued that technical women are likely to stay (statistically) longer in the first job as they find better job-employee match and their career trajectory moves differently as compared to non-technical workers.

Technical workers require job specific human capital for moving to next level in their career. The accumulation of job-specific human capital in a firm takes longer which, in turn, extends their duration in the firm.

The job specific human capital is constituted by the diversified nature of work performed by the IT professionals. That is, IT workers get opportunities to work in different projects that contribute to enhancing their skills and knowledge.

Technical workers learn diverse skills at work which is further boosted by the opportunity to travel abroad and gain foreign work experience. Such diverse human capital is highly valued in the IT sector which gives them an edge over non-technical workers. Accumulation of such human capital thus adds to their career development.

On the other hand, it was shown that career growth of non-technical workers does not depend upon accumulating job specific human capital. Rather, their general workforce experience counts in the next job. It is because non-technical workers do not perform technical work in the ITES sector.

The nature of work in the ITES sector is said to be repetitive, monotonous, boring and un-informative. In other words, work in the ITES sector is equivalent to clerical work in any white-collar job. Except some soft skills, the work in the

ITES firms does not require technical skills and competences among its workforce. Hence, the nature of work reduces the scope of direct utilization of the individual's education at work.

These factors induce job-employee mismatch and lead to job dis-satisfaction. That is, though women are educated at university and post-graduate level, they perform work in these industries that does not utilize their education *per se.* In addition, it does not offer them opportunities for learning and upgrading their existing skills.

This creates a bad job-employee match for highly educated women, given their individual level resources. Hence, women try to find a better job-employee fit through job change. They attempt to find informative and interesting work which could give them opportunities for learning and upgrading skills.

In contrast, a better fit for technical women in the first firm was attributed to the-high demand of engineers and software professionals in the IT sector, and direct utilization of their education at work. This is further complemented by the recruitment practices of IT firms which reduce the job search cost of technically educated women.

In a nutshell, the study argued that job-employee mis(match), different career trajectory and high demand of IT workers in the IT-ITES sector explain the variation in interfirm mobility decision of women with different educational background.

IT-ITES Sector

It was expected that women are likely to stay longer in the IT-ITES sector than in other sectors of the economy. The research findings confirm these expectations. It suggests that women are less likely to change the job if they work in the IT-ITES sector than women working in others sector of the economy.

The effect of the IT-ITES sector was strong negative and statistically significant in both jobs. The strong negative and (statistically) significant effect was attributed to two reasons. First, it was argued that this might result from a sample

selection bias. The sample was drawn from the IT-ITES sector and the majority of the women begin their career in these industries.

Therefore, few women were working in other sector in their first job. That is, 80% (237) of the women began their career in the IT-ITES sector, while 20% (58) of the women began their career in other sector.

Those women who began their career in other sector change it in line with changing employer. That is, women move to the IT-ITES sector in line with changing the firm. The inter-sector mobility indicates women's preference of the IT-ITES sector over other sectors.

Second, the strong negative and (statistically) significant effect of the IT-ITES sector was attributed to the popularity of the sector among working-age population of India, especially among highly educated women.

The study showed in detail that the IT-ITES sector has emerged as one of the largest employment providers to the growing number of educated women in India[142]. Hence, several factors contribute to the popularity of the Indian IT-ITES sector such as easy entry, higher wages, opportunities for career advancement and better working conditions.

In addition, the study argued that the inability of public sector to accommodate the growing educated working population of India has, in turn, contributed to the popularity of the IT-ITES sector among educated women. In particular, the male dominated and competitive (time-consuming) nature of public sector jobs has induced interest of educated women towards the IT-ITES sector.

The share of women's employment in public organised sector provides evidence to this argument. As illustrated in chapter 2, the share of women's employment in total employment in the public organised sector was 18.1% in 2011.

In contrast, higher wages at the entry level, opportunities for career advancement, i.e. upward mobility and chances for gaining foreign work experience at a young

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[142] This is also reported by the newspaper recently. For more info, see http://timesofindia.indiatimes.com/india/Rise-in-women-graduates-almost-double-that-of-men-in-a-decade/articleshow/48313138.cms.

age, and better working conditions are defining characteristics of the IT-ITES sector due to which a large number of educated urban women have been participating in this industry.

Working Conditions

It was expected that good working conditions decline women's mobility from the job. The research findings confirm the expectation. That is, women stay longer in the firm if they find good conditions at work. The study showed that good working conditions (statistically) significantly explain women's interfirm mobility decision[143].

In this light, if women find that they have opportunities for career advancement, they often receive cooperation from colleagues and seniors, work in their favourable working time and have a less stressful job then this cumulatively adds to making working conditions good for them in a firm.

Thus, study findings support previous research suggesting the good working conditions in the IT-ITES sector. This additionally contributes to explaining women's preference for the IT-ITES sector over other sectors of the economy.

Higher Wages and Promotion

It was expected that if women attain higher wages and/or promotion in the firm, they stay longer in the job. The study findings demonstrated that wages do not (statistical) significantly explain interfirm mobility decision of women. If women receive higher wages and additional monetary benefits in the firm, it does not affect their decision to change the employer.

On the other hand, findings showed that that promotion (statistically) significantly explains women's interfirm mobility decision. Those women who

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[143] It was suggested that working conditions refer to the good working conditions prevalent in the IT-ITES sector as 83% of the women were working in the IT-ITES firm while referring to several indices of the working conditions.

receive higher position in the second firm are more likely to change the employer than women who do not receive higher position in the second firm.

The highly strong positive effect of promotion was attributed to the 'time' of receiving last promotion in the firm. The study argued that women are aware that it may take longer for them to get next promotion in the same firm, while they may receive higher position earlier (or within their expected time period) in the next firm. Thus, the value of leaving the firm is higher than staying in it.

Hence, they are more likely to change the employer despite attaining higher position in the current firm. In addition, through descriptive findings, the study demonstrated that interfirm mobility is the assurance of attaining higher income and additional monetary benefits in the next firm, if not necessarily attaining the higher position. The majority of women benefit economically by moving to the next employer. They maximize their income level.

Further, findings also suggested that women are more likely to attain higher position in the next firm if they receive it in the last firm. The strong positive and statistically significant effect of promotion indicates that after attaining a number of years of work experience, women are more inclined towards maximizing their status level. If they find it unachievable in the current firm, they move to the next employer. Consequently, the majority of women benefits from changing employer.

They benefit both in monetary and non-monetary terms in line with changing the employer. The study claimed that interfirm mobility is a strategy for career development as well as maximizing the attainment level for highly educated working women.

Though the findings do not fully confirm the wages hypothesis derived from rational choice theory, they are, however, overall congruent with the theoretical assumption of utility maximization. Women maximize their status and income level by moving to the next employer.

Since all women are young and have several more years in the labour market to attain further rewards, it is unlikely that they achieve their highest level of

rewards in the second firm. Thus, changing employer is the best strategy to achieve expected level of attainment.

Migrant Status and Age at Entry in Job

Migrant status and age at entry into job do not have any effect on women's job mobility decision. The results are consistent for both the jobs. Women belonging to other states of India do not differ (statistically) significantly from women belonging to Delhi and National Capital Region in their job changing decision.

Similarly, age at which women enter in first and second job do not affect their decision to change the employer. Hence, both variables are weak determinants of women's interfirm mobility decision.

Marriage and Motherhood

It was expected that marriage and motherhood decline women's mobility from the firm. The present study demonstrated that transition to motherhood or presence of small children (statistically) significantly explains women's interfirm mobility decision, while marriage does not have any effect on women's decision to change employer.

The study informed that entry in marriage or being married does not affect women's job changing decision, while if women become mother or if they have small children, they stay longer in the job.

The negligible and (statistically) insignificant effect of marriage was attributed to the two major reasons. First, sample selection bias was assumed. All women were married at the time of survey which probably compromised the variation in the results.

However, at the same time, it was argued that the data is retrospective in nature. It implies that not all women have married during their first and second job tenure. Rather, entry in marriage is a time dependent process. The statistical analysis technique (PCE) still makes distinction between unmarried and married women marital status of women at the time of analysing its effect.

Second, the negligible and statistical insignificant effect of marriage was characterised as a 'de-restricting' marital effect for highly educated working women in the current sample. This derestricting effect was attributed to the several factors such as women's- higher educational attainment, increasing work orientation, subjective utility of work, positive and supportive attitude of husband towards his wife's work, growing economic necessity on dual-earner families in urban areas, and relatively easy reconciliation of work and family life for married women without children.

The study demonstrated that women's perception of their husband's attitude toward his wife's work is changing. Descriptive findings suggest that increasingly husbands have positive and supportive attitude towards their wife's work. It is an important change in the Indian society considering its patriarchal nature.

It was argued that change in husband's attitude is the outcome of growing economic needs of the families, in particular families with children. Such increasing financial needs are demanding additional income in the family being supplied by the women. Thus, men are realising the economic value of women. Simultaneously, it is resulting in undermining the ideology of male-breadwinner.

The study further highlights increasing work-orientation of women. Young working women, who are wives and mothers, no longer idealise the role of housewife and mother. Women have high work orientation. Women feel happy and rewarded if they are working. Hence, this represents a generational change.

Therefore, it was argued that these factors are cumulatively bringing social change in the Indian society. Young working women who are performing dual roles of workers and wives/mothers are drivers of this social change. They are contributing to bring change in the traditional gender roles and stereotypical images of women in the Indian society.

Hence, the sample women represent the millennial women of India who are- career-oriented, self-confident, motivated and financially independent.

On the other hand, prevailing traditional gender role attitudes and emphasis on the ideology of motherhood were identified as causes for mother's longer stay in

a job. It was argued that given traditional gender roles in the Indian society combined with the expectation of an 'ideal mother' result in women's overwhelming indulgence in childcare.

The lack of publicly funded childcare services was additionally attributed to women's over-indulgence in childcare and associated responsibilities, which negatively affects women's career. In the present study, it augments women's duration in the firm.

The study substantiated these arguments with descriptive findings that suggested a role conflict for mothers in addition to difficult work and family reconciliation. The study demonstrated that mother's often have to take day-off from work due to family responsibilities. Hence, the conflict between worker and family roles were higher for mothers in comparison to the women without children. For mothers, it is therefore difficult to combine work and family life.

Moreover, the study showed that families with children receive support from extended family. The presence of additional family member(s) in the household was suggested to provide care and support to small children during mother's working hours.

Hence, the study demonstrated that in the absence of public childcare services, the extended family emerges as a big care and support pillar to young working mothers in urban India. It is a crucial care supplier to small children during mother's working hours which, in turn, is enabling women to continue working after childbirth.

The study suggested that the joint or extended family system still persists in urban India. It has not died. Rather, in dual-earner families, in contemporary times, it is emerging as a crucial support for working mothers. Hence, there is a coexistence of both nuclear and extended family system in urban areas.

Those families which cannot seek the support of extended family voluntarily or involuntarily rely on market mechanisms for the childcare during mother's working hours.

In a nutshell, in the current study, the effect of marriage is weakening for highly educated working women, while the presence of children continues to constrain women's potential to reach maximum in their careers. It is because childcare is demanding and women continue to assume most of its responsibilities. Hence, motherhood is a strong and (statistically) significant determinant of women's interfirm mobility decision, while marriage is a weak determinant of women's job changing decision in the present study.

Working Time: Flexible Shifts

It was hypothesised that flexible shifts augment women's mobility from the job. That is, women are more likely to change the firm if they work in flexible shifts than fixed shift. Findings suggested mixed effect of flexible work shifts on women's interfirm mobility decision. Flexible work shifts (statistical) significantly explain women's mobility from the second job, while it does not have any effect on mobility from the first job.

In addition, the effect of flexible work shifts was tested separately for the married women. Results suggested that married women stay longer in the (first) job if they work in flexible shifts, while flexible shifts had no statistical significant effect on married women in second job.

In this context, it was argued that flexible shifts do not pose any challenge in the beginning of the career as the majority of women enter in labour market with unmarried marital status. They do not have obligations for taking care of family needs as they are taken-care by the parents.

However, it is over a period of time when women marry or become mother, they assume obligatory family responsibilities. As a result, work in flexible (rotating) shifts poses a greater challenge to reconcile worker and family roles, because flexible shifts bring uncertainty of working hours and thus conflict with meeting family demands.

In addition, it does not enable them to be in tune with spouse working time. Hence, the study argued that women wait longer in a job until they find next best job that offers them desirable working time.

The argument was substantiated by the descriptive findings. The results demonstrated that women prefer to work in one fixed shift. The majority of women move in fixed working shift as they change employer. Findings suggest that the majority (75%) of the women was working in fixed shift in their second job, while only 25% of the women were working in flexible shifts.

Thus, the study showed that after assuming family roles, women do not prefer to work in flexible work shifts. It is because it brings uncertainty of working hours which is in direct conflict with their family demands. In the beginning of their careers, so long as women are unmarried, uncertainty of working hours does not affect women's family life.

Since it takes longer to find a job with desirable working time, they stay longer in the firm. The study results are in line with previous research that suggests incompatibility of flexible working shifts with family roles and responsibilities.

Job Position in Firm Hierarchy

It was expected that lower levels of job position augment women's interfirm mobility. The study findings supported the expectations. That is, if women work at level one and level two in firm hierarchy, they are more likely to change the jobs than women located at level three.

The results were consistent in both first and second job. The effect of lower levels of job position was strong positive and (statistically) significant in both first and second job. The study argued that women upgrade their job position in line with changing employer.

The argument was substantiated by the descriptive findings. Findings showed that women benefit from changing employer. Women move one level up in line with changing employer. Especially, women located at level one benefit most from changing the firm. By third job, almost all women cease to work at the lowest level.

However, the results also demonstrated that interfirm mobility does not bring much change for women located at level three. Women are not able to improve their level of job position after reaching middle level. They get stuck there.

In a nutshell, the study argued that interfirm mobility is a key to career development for the majority of the women. Most women upgrade their job position in line with changing employer. However, the growth gets restricted after reaching at the middle level. Nevertheless, it is expected that women have enough opportunities for vertical movement in the future, if they stay employed.

9.2   Limitations of the Current Study

The current study examined the determinants of women's interfirm mobility decision and the extent to which it is influenced by marriage and motherhood. In addition, the study presented a comprehensive discussion of work and family attitudes of educated women working in the Indian IT-ITES sector.

Thus, the causal findings were complemented by descriptive findings. Although the study presented a comprehensive account of work and family lives of educated women working in the IT-ITES sector, it encountered many challenges due to which the generalization of the results is partially limited.

The study had the following limitations: First, the study could not access non-employed women during field research. The inclusion of non-employed women in the data could have enhanced the effect of family status variables on women's decision to change or leave the job.

Second, the survey sample does not include unmarried women which might have led to different results for the effect of marriage. Third, own survey data is neither a random sample nor representative, therefore, the results cannot be generalised to women working in the IT-ITES sector in different parts of India such as Bangalore, Pune, Chandigarh and Chennai. The study findings are rather restricted to generalising interfirm mobility behaviour of the sampled women. Nevertheless, future studies can build on the limitations of the current study to find out more on the work and family lives of educated women.

9.3   Direction for Future Research

The findings and limitations of the study suggest several research ideas which can be taken up in future. First, gender differences are important. Data on men and women will offer valuable insights for any work and family research topic in the future.

Second, as the current study suggests positive change in husband's attitude towards his wife's work, it would thus be of academic and societal relevance to study men's attitude towards women. Their gender role attitudes are important to measure. A cohort analysis of men's attitude will be interesting. In addition, the extent to which men's attitude shapes women's orientation towards education, work and family life are of high importance.

Third, as the study identified difficulties for mothers to reconcile work and family life, work-family balance thus constitutes an important future research topic. Four, the study findings indicated that women get concentrated at middle level job positions. It would be interesting to follow these women and study their upward movement and further career growth.

Five, gender role attitudes occupy a central role in contemporary India; hence, a detailed study of gender role attitudes and their impact on women's career growth and employment decision would constitute a relevant research topic for the future.

9.4   Conclusion

The current study investigated the determinants of women's interfirm mobility decision and the extent to which, it is affected by family roles of marriage and motherhood. In the light of study findings, it concludes that women maximize their status and income rewards by changing employers. Women benefit in both monetary and non-monetary terms by changing jobs. In brief, interfirm mobility is one of the strategies for career development for the highly educated women.

However, children pose constraints in the process of maximizing attainment level. Childcare in addition to family responsibilities make it harder for mothers to

combine work and family due to which they often adjust at work by often taking days-off from work. Thus, the conflict between worker and family role is higher for mothers.

Nevertheless, despite these challenges, the sampled women are career-oriented and prefer working. Hence, they represent millennial women of India who are shaping their lives through their educational and employment achievements. They are drivers of social change who are also contributing to bring change in traditional gender roles and stereotypical images of women in the India society. Hence, educated women with English language skills have benefitted most from the economic transformation and globalisation.

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Appendix I

Table 1: Variable distribution, means and standard distribution.

Work and Family Attitudinal Variables			
Variable	Observation	Mean*	Standard deviation
I like to do a job	294	1.306	0.490
I have always desired for a long term career	294	1.442	0.651
I give more priority to my family than to my career	291	2.058	0.878
I do extra responsibilities at work	287	1.822	0.724
I often attend various types of training and other skill enhancing programme in my current company	291	1.965	0.817
I am always ready to do overtime in my current company	291	2.979	1.082
I have lot of work pressure in my current company	294	2.918	0.949
I find it difficult to combine work and household responsibilities	286	3.010	1.084
I always wished to be a housewife and have a family	293	3.853	1.076
I can get leave easily from the company whenever I need	289	2.394	0.966
I have to take many times a leave from work due to family responsibilities	292	2.876	1.051
My husband helps in household work	295	2.125	1.091
my husband often ask me to quit the job	292	4.075	0.981
I prefer to do part time job than full-time job	287	3.341	1.209
I have option to work from home	289	3.384	1.233
I am ready to quit the job if my husband were to earn more than combining our current income	292	3.517	1.247
Do you believe that women should do a job	294	1.289	0.635

Table 1

*Note: All the variables in the table are measured as an ordinal variable on a five point scale from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (5). The scale has values- (1) strongly agree; (2) agree; (3) neither agree nor disagree; (4) disagree; (5) strongly disagree.

Women's purpose for doing job			
Variable	Observation	Mean~	Standard deviation
Earnings	294	3.860	1.085
Meeting increased cost of living	294	3.721	1.167
Financial need at home	294	3.136	1.345
Passing time	292	2.982	1.439
Escaping family-work burden	289	1.716	1.084
For pleasure & happiness	295	3.830	1.162
Husband wants you working	293	2.641	1.427
For self-realization	294	4.397	0.957

Table 2

~Note: All the variables in the table are measured as an ordinal variable on a five point scale from lowest (1) to highest (5).

Table 3 and table 4 present first job characteristics.

First job characteristics		
Sector	Frequency	Percent
IT-ITES	237	80.34
Other	58	19.66
Total	295	100
Type of job	Frequency	Percent
Full time	290	98.31
Part time	5	1.69
Total	295	100
Working shift	Frequency	Percent
One fixed	210	71.19
Flexible	85	28.81
Total	295	100

Table 3

Job position of women in first organisation		
Job level	Frequency	Percent
1 (lowest)	104	35.37
2	102	34.69
3	75	25.51
4	10	3.40
5 (highest)	3	1.02
Total	294	100

Table 4

Table 5 and table 6 present second job characteristics.

Second job characteristics		
Sector	Frequency	Percent
IT-ITES	198	83.9
Other	38	16.1
Total	236	100
Type of job	Frequency	Percent
Full time	235	99.58
Part time	1	0.42
Total	236	100
Working shift	Frequency	Percent
One fixed	176	74.58
Flexible	60	25.42
Total	236	100

Table 5

Job position of women in second organisation		
Job level	Frequency	Percent
1 (lowest)	24	10.26
2	98	41.88
3	88	37.61
4	21	8.97
5 (highest)	3	1.28
Total	234	100

Table 6

Table 7 and table 8 present third job characteristics

Third job characteristics		
Sector	Frequency	Percent
IT-ITES	125	91.91
Other	11	8.09
Total	136	100
Type of job	Frequency	Percent
Full time	135	99.26
Part time	1	0.74
Total	136	100
Working shift	Frequency	Percent
One fixed	109	80.15
Flexible	27	19.85
Total	136	100

Table 7

Job position of women in third organisation		
Job level	Frequency	Percent
1 (lowest)	7	5.26
2	28	21.05
3	66	49.62
4	30	22.56
5 (highest)	2	1.5
Total	133	100

Table 8

STATA Syntax for Descriptive Statistics

use "C:\Users\Public\Documents\PhD\FINAL DATASET TO BE WORKED\dataset\correct.dataset.2.feb.2013.dta", clear

*log using "C:\Users\Public\Documents\PhD\FINAL DATASET TO BE WORKED\dataset\Log file\attitude.log"

*/10jan,2015

**FOR FIRST JOB

label drop year

label drop month

**command not recoding before 1980, so here (34=1979, actually refers to before 1980)

recode v_279 (1 = 2012) (2 = 2011) (3 = 2010) (4 = 2009) (5 = 2008) (6 = 2007) (7 = 2006) (8 = 2005) (9 = 2004) (10 = 2003) (11 = 2002) (12 = 2001) (13 = 2000) (14 = 1999) (15 = 1998) (16 = 1997) (17 = 1996) (18 = 1995) (19 = 1994) (20 = 1993) (21 = 1992) (22 = 1991) (23 = 1990) (24 = 1989)(25 = 1988) (26 = 1987) (27 = 1986) (28 = 1985) (29 = 1984) (30 = 1983) (31 = 1982) (32 = 1981) (33 = 1980) (34 = 1979)

recode v_310 (1 = 2012) (2 = 2011) (3 = 2010) (4 = 2009) (5 = 2008) (6 = 2007) (7 = 2006) (8 = 2005) (9 = 2004) (10 = 2003) (11 = 2002) (12 = 2001) (13 = 2000) (14 = 1999) (15 = 1998) (16 = 1997) (17 = 1996) (18 = 1995) (19 = 1994) (20 = 1993) (21 = 1992) (22 = 1991) (23 = 1990) (24 = 1989)(25 = 1988) (26 = 1987) (27 = 1986) (28 = 1985) (29 = 1984) (30 = 1983) (31 = 1982) (32 = 1981) (33 = 1980) (34 = 1979)

recode v_314 (1 = 2012) (2 = 2011) (3 = 2010) (4 = 2009) (5 = 2008) (6 = 2007) (7 = 2006) (8 = 2005) (9 = 2004) (10 = 2003) (11 = 2002) (12 = 2001) (13 = 2000) (14 = 1999) (15 = 1998) (16 = 1997) (17 = 1996) (18 = 1995) (19 = 1994) (20 = 1993) (21 = 1992) (22 = 1991) (23 = 1990) (24 = 1989)(25 = 1988) (26 =

1987) (27 = 1986) (28 = 1985) (29 = 1984) (30 = 1983) (31 = 1982) (32 = 1981)
(33 = 1980) (34 = 1979)

recode v_327 (1 = 2012) (2 = 2011) (3 = 2010) (4 = 2009) (5 = 2008) (6 = 2007)
(7 = 2006) (8 = 2005) (9 = 2004) (10 = 2003) (11 = 2002) (12 = 2001) (13 =
2000) (14 = 1999) (15 = 1998) (16 = 1997) (17 = 1996) (18 = 1995) (19 = 1994)
(20 = 1993) (21 = 1992) (22 = 1991) (23 = 1990) (24 = 1989)(25 = 1988) (26 =
1987) (27 = 1986) (28 = 1985) (29 = 1984) (30 = 1983) (31 = 1982) (32 = 1981)
(33 = 1980) (34 = 1979)

recode v_331 (1 = 2012) (2 = 2011) (3 = 2010) (4 = 2009) (5 = 2008) (6 = 2007)
(7 = 2006) (8 = 2005) (9 = 2004) (10 = 2003) (11 = 2002) (12 = 2001) (13 =
2000) (14 = 1999) (15 = 1998) (16 = 1997) (17 = 1996) (18 = 1995) (19 = 1994)
(20 = 1993) (21 = 1992) (22 = 1991) (23 = 1990) (24 = 1989)(25 = 1988) (26 =
1987) (27 = 1986) (28 = 1985) (29 = 1984) (30 = 1983) (31 = 1982) (32 = 1981)
(33 = 1980) (34 = 1979)

recode v_344 (1 = 2012) (2 = 2011) (3 = 2010) (4 = 2009) (5 = 2008) (6 = 2007)
(7 = 2006) (8 = 2005) (9 = 2004) (10 = 2003) (11 = 2002) (12 = 2001) (13 =
2000) (14 = 1999) (15 = 1998) (16 = 1997) (17 = 1996) (18 = 1995) (19 = 1994)
(20 = 1993) (21 = 1992) (22 = 1991) (23 = 1990) (24 = 1989)(25 = 1988) (26 =
1987) (27 = 1986) (28 = 1985) (29 = 1984) (30 = 1983) (31 = 1982) (32 = 1981)
(33 = 1980) (34 = 1979)

recode v_348 (1 = 2012) (2 = 2011) (3 = 2010) (4 = 2009) (5 = 2008) (6 = 2007)
(7 = 2006) (8 = 2005) (9 = 2004) (10 = 2003) (11 = 2002) (12 = 2001) (13 =
2000) (14 = 1999) (15 = 1998) (16 = 1997) (17 = 1996) (18 = 1995) (19 = 1994)
(20 = 1993) (21 = 1992) (22 = 1991) (23 = 1990) (24 = 1989)(25 = 1988) (26 =
1987) (27 = 1986) (28 = 1985) (29 = 1984) (30 = 1983) (31 = 1982) (32 = 1981)
(33 = 1980) (34 = 1979)

recode v_361 (1 = 2012) (2 = 2011) (3 = 2010) (4 = 2009) (5 = 2008) (6 = 2007)
(7 = 2006) (8 = 2005) (9 = 2004) (10 = 2003) (11 = 2002) (12 = 2001) (13 =
2000) (14 = 1999) (15 = 1998) (16 = 1997) (17 = 1996) (18 = 1995) (19 = 1994)
(20 = 1993) (21 = 1992) (22 = 1991) (23 = 1990) (24 = 1989)(25 = 1988) (26 =
1987) (27 = 1986) (28 = 1985) (29 = 1984) (30 = 1983) (31 = 1982) (32 = 1981)
(33 = 1980) (34 = 1979)

recode v_365 (1 = 2012) (2 = 2011) (3 = 2010) (4 = 2009) (5 = 2008) (6 = 2007)
(7 = 2006) (8 = 2005) (9 = 2004) (10 = 2003) (11 = 2002) (12 = 2001) (13 =

2000) (14 = 1999) (15 = 1998) (16 = 1997) (17 = 1996) (18 = 1995) (19 = 1994)
(20 = 1993) (21 = 1992) (22 = 1991) (23 = 1990) (24 = 1989)(25 = 1988) (26 =
1987) (27 = 1986) (28 = 1985) (29 = 1984) (30 = 1983) (31 = 1982) (32 = 1981)
(33 = 1980) (34 = 1979)

recode v_378 (1 = 2012) (2 = 2011) (3 = 2010) (4 = 2009) (5 = 2008) (6 = 2007)
(7 = 2006) (8 = 2005) (9 = 2004) (10 = 2003) (11 = 2002) (12 = 2001) (13 =
2000) (14 = 1999) (15 = 1998) (16 = 1997) (17 = 1996) (18 = 1995) (19 = 1994)
(20 = 1993) (21 = 1992) (22 = 1991) (23 = 1990) (24 = 1989)(25 = 1988) (26 =
1987) (27 = 1986) (28 = 1985) (29 = 1984) (30 = 1983) (31 = 1982) (32 = 1981)
(33 = 1980) (34 = 1979)

recode v_382 (1 = 2012) (2 = 2011) (3 = 2010) (4 = 2009) (5 = 2008) (6 = 2007)
(7 = 2006) (8 = 2005) (9 = 2004) (10 = 2003) (11 = 2002) (12 = 2001) (13 =
2000) (14 = 1999) (15 = 1998) (16 = 1997) (17 = 1996) (18 = 1995) (19 = 1994)
(20 = 1993) (21 = 1992) (22 = 1991) (23 = 1990) (24 = 1989)(25 = 1988) (26 =
1987) (27 = 1986) (28 = 1985) (29 = 1984) (30 = 1983) (31 = 1982) (32 = 1981)
(33 = 1980) (34 = 1979)

recode v_427 (1 = 2012) (2 = 2011) (3 = 2010) (4 = 2009) (5 = 2008) (6 = 2007)
(7 = 2006) (8 = 2005) (9 = 2004) (10 = 2003) (11 = 2002) (12 = 2001) (13 =
2000) (14 = 1999) (15 = 1998) (16 = 1997) (17 = 1996) (18 = 1995) (19 = 1994)
(20 = 1993) (21 = 1992) (22 = 1991) (23 = 1990) (24 = 1989)(25 = 1988) (26 =
1987) (27 = 1986) (28 = 1985) (29 = 1984) (30 = 1983) (31 = 1982) (32 = 1981)
(33 = 1980) (34 = 1979)

recode v_446 (1 = 2012) (2 = 2011) (3 = 2010) (4 = 2009) (5 = 2008) (6 = 2007)
(7 = 2006) (8 = 2005) (9 = 2004) (10 = 2003) (11 = 2002) (12 = 2001) (13 =
2000) (14 = 1999) (15 = 1998) (16 = 1997) (17 = 1996) (18 = 1995) (19 = 1994)
(20 = 1993) (21 = 1992) (22 = 1991) (23 = 1990) (24 = 1989)(25 = 1988) (26 =
1987) (27 = 1986) (28 = 1985) (29 = 1984) (30 = 1983) (31 = 1982) (32 = 1981)
(33 = 1980) (34 = 1979)

*/converting datetime variable into date format
gen doi = date(datetime, "DMY ###")
format doi %td

**extracting month and date

304

```
gen imonth= month(doi)
gen iyear= year(doi)


*/converting interviewing time into century months, adding 1 also while
converting into century months.
gen intwtime= (iyear - 1900)*12 + imonth + 1
****************************************************************
**********
*job position of women, calculated on RAW data (unimputed data). FOR ALL 3
JOBS
****************************************************************
**********
tab v_293
tab v_293, m


tab v_317
tab v_317, m


tab v_334
tab v_334, m


sum v_293, d
sum v_317, d
sum v_334, d


*/NOW CROSS TAB BWN 1st N 2ND JOB POSITION,to see how many hv
moved to next level when they change job


tab v_293 v_317
tab v_293 v_317, nof row taub


*cross tab bwn 2nd and 3rd job position
tab v_317 v_334
tab v_317 v_334, nof row taub
```

```
*********************************
*third job characteristics
***********************************
tab1 v_1003 v_332 v_333 v_334


tab1 v_335 v_340



*******************************
*PROMOTION in 2nd and 3rd job
********************************
tab v_319
tab v_319, m


recode v_319 (1 2 = 1 "yes") (3 4 5 = 0 "no"), gen (promo2)
tab promo2


*3rd job
tab v_335
tab v_335, m


recode v_335 (1 2 = 1 "yes") (3 4 5 = 0 "no"), gen (promo3)
tab promo3


tab promo2 promo3
tab promo2 promo3, nof row chi V


****************************************
*WAGES in 2nd and 3rd job
*****************************************
tab v_324
tab v_324, m
```

recode v_324 (1 2 = 1 "yes") (3 4 5 = 0 "no"), gen (wages2)

tab wages2

*3rd job

tab v_340

tab v_340, m

recode v_340 (1 2 = 1 "yes") (3 4 5 = 0 "no"), gen (wages3)

tab wages3

tab wages2 wages3

tab wages2 wages3, nof row chi V

****

*SECTOR

****

tab v_1001

tab v_1001, m

tab v_1002

tab v_1002, m

*moved to IT-ITES

tab v_1001 v_1002

tab v_1001 v_1002, nof row chi V

****

*FULL-TIME/ PART TIME

****

tab v_291

tab v_291, m

tab v_315

tab v_315, m

*moved to full time (not necessary, as all works in FT)

```
*tab v_291 v_315, nof row chi V


*******************************
*SHIFTS
*******************************
tab v_292
tab v_292, m


tab v_316
tab v_316, m


tab v_292 v_316
tab v_292 v_316, nof row chi V
*****************************************
*ECONOMIC PRESSURE ON WOMEN
*****************************************
tab v_1031
tab v_1031, m
sum v_1031, d


egen econed = rowmean (v_1030 v_1031)
tab econed
sum econed, d


sum econed if v_855==1, d
sum econed if v_855==2, d
*********************************************************
*DIFFICULTY IN COMBINING WORK N FAMILY LIFE
*********************************************************
tab v_203
tab v_203, m
sum v_203, d


recode v_203 (1 2 = 1 "yes") (3 = 2 "nand") (4 5 = 3 "no"), gen (wfbal)
```

tab wfbal

*ACCORDING TO MOTHERHOOD STATUS

tab v_855 wfbal

tab v_855 wfbal, nof row chi V

****

*ROLE CONFLICT bwn worker and mother

****

tab v_207

tab v_207, m

sum v_207, d

recode v_207 (1 2 = 1 "yes") (3 = 2 "nand") (4 5 = 3 "no"), gen (tklev)

tab tklev

tab v_855 tklev

tab v_855 tklev, nof row chi V

****

*NO OF FAMILY MEMBERS

****

tab v_506

tab v_506, m

sum v_506, d

*to know how many ppl living with non-mothers

tab v_506 if v_855==2

*to know how many ppl living with wmn who have only one child. (though ideally they shud live with 2 ppl, hus+child,but lets see hw many r there)

*this will tell about family structyre in urban india that provides support to working wmn

tab v_506 if v_395==1

tab v_506 if v_395==2

*non mothers living with how many ppl.

recode v_506 (1 = 1 "only hus") (2/10 = 2 "2 or more ppl") if v_855==2, gen (nonmot_famstr)

tab nonmot_famstr

****

*age at entry into first job

****

tab v_1052

gen agejob1 = .

replace agejob1 = v_279 - v_1052

tab agejob1

sum agejob1, d

****

*age at entry into second job

****

tab v_1052

tab v_314, m

gen agejob2 = .

replace agejob2 = v_314 - v_1052

tab agejob2

sum agejob2, d

****

*employment status @ marriage

****

tab v_393, m

****

*age at marriage

****

gen mgeage = .

```
replace mgeage = v_1053 - v_1052

tab mgeage, m


sum mgeage, d


*********************************************
*calculating marital status. ho many unmarried @ time of entry into first job
*the result frm this var is also matches with v_393
*********************************************
gen single = .
replace single = 1 if v_1053>v_279
replace single = 0 if v_1053<=v_279
tab single


****************************************
*age at interview time/ current time
****************************************
gen age = .
replace age = iyear - v_1052
tab age, m


sum age, d


*******************************
*AGE OF FIRST CHILD AT THE TIME OF INTERVIEW
*******************************
gen agech1 = .
replace agech1 = iyear - v_427
tab agech1
sum agech1, d
*******************************
*women's age at first childbirth
*******************************
gen momagech = .
```

```
replace momagech = v_427 - v_1052
tab momagech
sum momagech, d


********************************
*age at completing bachelor degree/ university degree
******************************
gen uniyr = .
replace uniyr = v_995 - v_1052
tab uniyr
sum uniyr, d
label var uniyr "university degree passed"


**************************
*no. of mothers
**************************
tab v_855, m


*no of children
tab v_395




***************************
*regional background
*********************
tab v_505


***********************************
*/women's education vars
***********************************
*Bachelor non-tech
tab v_228, m
recode v_228 (1 3 = 1 yes) (2 = 0 no) , gen(bante)
```

tab bante

label var bante "bach non-tech"

*bach tech

tab v_229, m

recode v_229 (1 3 = 1 yes) (2 = 0 no), gen(bate)

tab bate

label var bate "bach tech"

*master non-tech

tab v_230, m

recode v_230 (1 3 = 1 yes) (2 = 0 no), gen(mante)

tab mante

label var mante "mas non-tech"

*master tech

tab v_231, m

recode v_231 (1 3 = 1 yes) (2 = 0 no), gen(mate)

tab mate

label var mate "mas tech"

*/this makes sense.those did masters either tech/non-tech r recoded. n those only

did bach either tech/non-tech r further recoded.so it differentiate both

*/those with higher degrees with master n those only did bachelors.

*/so now its higher education variable.

gen hedu = .

replace hedu = 1 if mate==1

replace hedu = 2 if mante==1

replace hedu = 3 if (mate==0 & mante==0) & (bate==1)

replace hedu = 4 if (mate==0 & mante==0) & (bante==1)

tab hedu

label var hedu "higher edu"

label define edulevel 1"mtech" 2"mntech" 3"batech" 4"bntech"

label value hedu edulevel

tab hedu

****

*/ EDUCATIONAL PAIR OF WOMEN to know how many are real technologists and how many hold MBA degrees
****

tab bante

tab bante

tab mate

tab mante

*bachelor non-technical + master, MBA/ professional degree

tab bante mate

tab bante mate, nof row chi V

*propoer technologists who did computer sciences/ BTECH/ BIT/ and then went for MTECH/ MIT

tab bate mate

tab bate mate, nof row chi V

*women with non-technical/ordinary degrees at both bachelor and master level

tab bante mante

tab bante mante, nof row V

****

*HUSBAND CHARACTERISTICS

****

****

*husband earning status

****

tab v_245

tab v_245, m

tab v_250

tab v_250, m

****

*husband sector/income/other income

****

tab v_248

tab v_250

tab v_251

tab v_253

****

*/IMPUTATION FOR ATTITUDINAL VARIABLES

****

**checking missingness in vars

tab1 v_203 v_205 v_207 v_209 v_211 v_212 v_213 v_214 v_1029 v_1033
v_1035 v_1036 v_997 v_998, m

browse v_203 v_205 v_207 v_209 v_211 v_212 v_213 v_214 v_1029 v_1033
v_1035 v_1036 v_997 v_998

*missing var with .a & .e (.a= 60 / .e= 1)

tab v_997

*missing var with .a & .d

tab v_998

*missing vars with .e

*/tab1 v_203 v_205 v_207 v_209 v_211 v_212 v_213 v_214 v_1029 v_1033
v_1035 v_1036

*/FYI..missing codes=(mvdecode lfdn-rts1389377, mv(-77=.a\ -66=.b\ -99=.c\
99=.d))

mvencode v_203 v_205 v_207 v_209 v_211 v_212 v_213 v_214 v_1029 v_1030
v_1031 v_1033 v_1035 v_1036, mv(.e = 999)

mvdecode v_203 v_205 v_207 v_209 v_211 v_212 v_213 v_214 v_1029 v_1030
v_1031 v_1033 v_1035 v_1036, mv(999 = .)

*/imputing the missing vars

315

mi set wide

mi register regular v_1001 v_291 v_292 v_204 v_208

mi register imputed v_203 v_205 v_207 v_209 v_211 v_212 v_213 v_214 v_1029 v_1030 v_1031 v_1033 v_1035 v_1036

mi describe

mi misstable patterns v_203 v_205 v_207 v_209 v_211 v_212 v_213 v_214 v_1029 v_1030 v_1031 v_1033 v_1035 v_1036

mi impute chained (ologit) v_203 v_205 v_207 v_209 v_211 v_212 v_213 v_214 = v_1001 v_291 v_292 v_204 v_208, add(5) rseed(1234) force augment

mi impute chained (ologit) v_1029 v_1030 v_1031 v_1033 v_1035 v_1036 = v_1001 v_291 v_292 v_204 v_208, force augment replace

mi describe

mi update

****

*HUSBAND ATTITUDE TO WIFE'S WORK

****

*creating variable for changing husband's attitude towards women's work role

*/v_1035, hus wants u to work

gen hw = runiform()

gen hww = _1_v_1035 if (hw < .2)

replace hww = _2_v_1035 if (hw > .2) & (hw < .4)

replace hww = _3_v_1035 if (hw > .4) & (hw < .6)

replace hww = _4_v_1035 if (hw > .6) & (hw < .8)

replace hww = _5_v_1035 if (hw > .8)

tab hww

sum hww, d

*/husband ask ask to quit job

tab v_209

gen hqj = runiform()

gen hqj1 = _1_v_209 if (hqj < .2)

replace hqj1 = _2_v_209 if (hqj > .2) & (hqj < .4)

replace hqj1 = _3_v_209 if (hqj > .4) & (hqj < .6)

replace hqj1 = _4_v_209 if (hqj > .6) & (hqj < .8)

replace hqj1 = _5_v_209 if (hqj > .8)

tab hqj1

*/showing husband attitude to wmn's work.higher score means hus att is positive to wives work, they want wife to work as perceived by wmn

*/find theoretical argument for creating this var.from Linda waite..she did same study.

mi passive: egen husatt = rowmean (hww hqj1)

tab husatt

sum husatt, d

label var husatt "hus attit wmn wrk"

mi update

****

*WOMEN'S ATTITUDE TOWARDS THEIR OWN WORK.i combine= wished to be housewife + part time job + ready to quit job (showing work orientation).

**WORK ORIENTATION/COMMITTMENT OF WOMEN

****

*/highest score shows that wmn are work oriented as they dnt wanna do PT job nor quit job even if hus salary doubles.

tab1 v_205 v_211 v_213

gen hwfam = runiform()

gen hwfam1 = _1_v_205 if (hwfam < .2)

replace hwfam1 = _2_v_205 if (hwfam > .2) & (hwfam < .4)

replace hwfam1 = _3_v_205 if (hwfam > .4) & (hwfam < .6)

replace hwfam1 = _4_v_205 if (hwfam > .6) & (hwfam < .8)

replace hwfam1 = _5_v_205 if (hwfam > .8)

tab hwfam1

sum hwfam1, d

gen pt = runiform()

```
gen ptw = _1_v_211 if (pt < .2)
replace ptw = _2_v_211 if (pt > .2) & (pt < .4)
replace ptw = _3_v_211 if (pt > .4) & (pt < .6)
replace ptw = _4_v_211 if (pt > .6) & (pt < .8)
replace ptw = _5_v_211 if (pt > .8)
tab ptw
sum ptw, d


gen hwif = runiform()
gen hw1 = _1_v_213 if (hwif < .2)
replace hw1 = _2_v_213 if (hwif > .2) & (hwif < .4)
replace hw1 = _3_v_213 if (hwif > .4) & (hwif < .6)
replace hw1 = _4_v_213 if (hwif > .6) & (hwif < .8)
replace hw1 = _5_v_213 if (hwif > .8)
tab hw1
sum hw1, d


mi passive: egen wmnatt = rowmean (hwfam1 ptw hw1)
tab wmnatt
sum wmnatt, d
label var wmnatt "work orientation"
mi update


*****************************************
*SELF REALISATION THRU JOB, as a reward to their education
*****************************************
*/creating var for self-realisation as purpose of job
tab1 v_1034 v_1036


gen sr = runiform()
gen srz = _1_v_1036 if (sr < .2)
replace srz = _2_v_1036 if (sr > .2) & (sr < .4)
replace srz = _3_v_1036 if (sr > .4) & (sr < .6)
replace srz = _4_v_1036 if (sr > .6) & (sr < .8)
```

```
replace srz = _5_v_1036 if (sr > .8)
tab srz


mi passive: egen selfreal = rowmean (v_1034 srz)
tab selfreal
sum selfreal, d
label var selfreal "self realisation"
mi update
```

STATA Syntax for First Job Mobility

use "C:\Users\Public\Documents\PhD\FINAL DATASET TO BE WORKED\dataset\correct.dataset.2.feb.2013.dta", clear

**FOR FIRST JOB

label drop year

label drop month

**command not recoding before 1980, so here (34=1979, actually refers to before 1980)

recode v_279 (1 = 2012) (2 = 2011) (3 = 2010) (4 = 2009) (5 = 2008) (6 = 2007) (7 = 2006) (8 = 2005) (9 = 2004) (10 = 2003) (11 = 2002) (12 = 2001) (13 = 2000) (14 = 1999) (15 = 1998) (16 = 1997) (17 = 1996) (18 = 1995) (19 = 1994) (20 = 1993) (21 = 1992) (22 = 1991) (23 = 1990) (24 = 1989)(25 = 1988) (26 = 1987) (27 = 1986) (28 = 1985) (29 = 1984) (30 = 1983) (31 = 1982) (32 = 1981) (33 = 1980) (34 = 1979)

recode v_310 (1 = 2012) (2 = 2011) (3 = 2010) (4 = 2009) (5 = 2008) (6 = 2007) (7 = 2006) (8 = 2005) (9 = 2004) (10 = 2003) (11 = 2002) (12 = 2001) (13 = 2000) (14 = 1999) (15 = 1998) (16 = 1997) (17 = 1996) (18 = 1995) (19 = 1994) (20 = 1993) (21 = 1992) (22 = 1991) (23 = 1990) (24 = 1989)(25 = 1988) (26 = 1987) (27 = 1986) (28 = 1985) (29 = 1984) (30 = 1983) (31 = 1982) (32 = 1981) (33 = 1980) (34 = 1979)

recode v_314 (1 = 2012) (2 = 2011) (3 = 2010) (4 = 2009) (5 = 2008) (6 = 2007) (7 = 2006) (8 = 2005) (9 = 2004) (10 = 2003) (11 = 2002) (12 = 2001) (13 = 2000) (14 = 1999) (15 = 1998) (16 = 1997) (17 = 1996) (18 = 1995) (19 = 1994) (20 = 1993) (21 = 1992) (22 = 1991) (23 = 1990) (24 = 1989)(25 = 1988) (26 = 1987) (27 = 1986) (28 = 1985) (29 = 1984) (30 = 1983) (31 = 1982) (32 = 1981) (33 = 1980) (34 = 1979)

recode v_327 (1 = 2012) (2 = 2011) (3 = 2010) (4 = 2009) (5 = 2008) (6 = 2007) (7 = 2006) (8 = 2005) (9 = 2004) (10 = 2003) (11 = 2002) (12 = 2001) (13 = 2000) (14 = 1999) (15 = 1998) (16 = 1997) (17 = 1996) (18 = 1995) (19 = 1994) (20 = 1993) (21 = 1992) (22 = 1991) (23 = 1990) (24 = 1989)(25 = 1988) (26 = 1987) (27 = 1986) (28 = 1985) (29 = 1984) (30 = 1983) (31 = 1982) (32 = 1981) (33 = 1980) (34 = 1979)

recode v_331 (1 = 2012) (2 = 2011) (3 = 2010) (4 = 2009) (5 = 2008) (6 = 2007) (7 = 2006) (8 = 2005) (9 = 2004) (10 = 2003) (11 = 2002) (12 = 2001) (13 = 2000) (14 = 1999) (15 = 1998) (16 = 1997) (17 = 1996) (18 = 1995) (19 = 1994)

(20 = 1993) (21 = 1992) (22 = 1991) (23 = 1990) (24 = 1989)(25 = 1988) (26 = 1987) (27 = 1986) (28 = 1985) (29 = 1984) (30 = 1983) (31 = 1982) (32 = 1981) (33 = 1980) (34 = 1979)

recode v_344 (1 = 2012) (2 = 2011) (3 = 2010) (4 = 2009) (5 = 2008) (6 = 2007) (7 = 2006) (8 = 2005) (9 = 2004) (10 = 2003) (11 = 2002) (12 = 2001) (13 = 2000) (14 = 1999) (15 = 1998) (16 = 1997) (17 = 1996) (18 = 1995) (19 = 1994) (20 = 1993) (21 = 1992) (22 = 1991) (23 = 1990) (24 = 1989)(25 = 1988) (26 = 1987) (27 = 1986) (28 = 1985) (29 = 1984) (30 = 1983) (31 = 1982) (32 = 1981) (33 = 1980) (34 = 1979)

recode v_348 (1 = 2012) (2 = 2011) (3 = 2010) (4 = 2009) (5 = 2008) (6 = 2007) (7 = 2006) (8 = 2005) (9 = 2004) (10 = 2003) (11 = 2002) (12 = 2001) (13 = 2000) (14 = 1999) (15 = 1998) (16 = 1997) (17 = 1996) (18 = 1995) (19 = 1994) (20 = 1993) (21 = 1992) (22 = 1991) (23 = 1990) (24 = 1989)(25 = 1988) (26 = 1987) (27 = 1986) (28 = 1985) (29 = 1984) (30 = 1983) (31 = 1982) (32 = 1981) (33 = 1980) (34 = 1979)

recode v_361 (1 = 2012) (2 = 2011) (3 = 2010) (4 = 2009) (5 = 2008) (6 = 2007) (7 = 2006) (8 = 2005) (9 = 2004) (10 = 2003) (11 = 2002) (12 = 2001) (13 = 2000) (14 = 1999) (15 = 1998) (16 = 1997) (17 = 1996) (18 = 1995) (19 = 1994) (20 = 1993) (21 = 1992) (22 = 1991) (23 = 1990) (24 = 1989)(25 = 1988) (26 = 1987) (27 = 1986) (28 = 1985) (29 = 1984) (30 = 1983) (31 = 1982) (32 = 1981) (33 = 1980) (34 = 1979)

recode v_365 (1 = 2012) (2 = 2011) (3 = 2010) (4 = 2009) (5 = 2008) (6 = 2007) (7 = 2006) (8 = 2005) (9 = 2004) (10 = 2003) (11 = 2002) (12 = 2001) (13 = 2000) (14 = 1999) (15 = 1998) (16 = 1997) (17 = 1996) (18 = 1995) (19 = 1994) (20 = 1993) (21 = 1992) (22 = 1991) (23 = 1990) (24 = 1989)(25 = 1988) (26 = 1987) (27 = 1986) (28 = 1985) (29 = 1984) (30 = 1983) (31 = 1982) (32 = 1981) (33 = 1980) (34 = 1979)

recode v_378 (1 = 2012) (2 = 2011) (3 = 2010) (4 = 2009) (5 = 2008) (6 = 2007) (7 = 2006) (8 = 2005) (9 = 2004) (10 = 2003) (11 = 2002) (12 = 2001) (13 = 2000) (14 = 1999) (15 = 1998) (16 = 1997) (17 = 1996) (18 = 1995) (19 = 1994) (20 = 1993) (21 = 1992) (22 = 1991) (23 = 1990) (24 = 1989)(25 = 1988) (26 = 1987) (27 = 1986) (28 = 1985) (29 = 1984) (30 = 1983) (31 = 1982) (32 = 1981) (33 = 1980) (34 = 1979)

recode v_382 (1 = 2012) (2 = 2011) (3 = 2010) (4 = 2009) (5 = 2008) (6 = 2007) (7 = 2006) (8 = 2005) (9 = 2004) (10 = 2003) (11 = 2002) (12 = 2001) (13 = 2000) (14 = 1999) (15 = 1998) (16 = 1997) (17 = 1996) (18 = 1995) (19 = 1994) (20 = 1993) (21 = 1992) (22 = 1991) (23 = 1990) (24 = 1989)(25 = 1988) (26 = 1987) (27 = 1986) (28 = 1985) (29 = 1984) (30 = 1983) (31 = 1982) (32 = 1981) (33 = 1980) (34 = 1979)

recode v_427 (1 = 2012) (2 = 2011) (3 = 2010) (4 = 2009) (5 = 2008) (6 = 2007) (7 = 2006) (8 = 2005) (9 = 2004) (10 = 2003) (11 = 2002) (12 = 2001) (13 = 2000) (14 = 1999) (15 = 1998) (16 = 1997) (17 = 1996) (18 = 1995) (19 = 1994) (20 = 1993) (21 = 1992) (22 = 1991) (23 = 1990) (24 = 1989)(25 = 1988) (26 =

1987) (27 = 1986) (28 = 1985) (29 = 1984) (30 = 1983) (31 = 1982) (32 = 1981) (33 = 1980) (34 = 1979)

recode v_446 (1 = 2012) (2 = 2011) (3 = 2010) (4 = 2009) (5 = 2008) (6 = 2007) (7 = 2006) (8 = 2005) (9 = 2004) (10 = 2003) (11 = 2002) (12 = 2001) (13 = 2000) (14 = 1999) (15 = 1998) (16 = 1997) (17 = 1996) (18 = 1995) (19 = 1994) (20 = 1993) (21 = 1992) (22 = 1991) (23 = 1990) (24 = 1989)(25 = 1988) (26 = 1987) (27 = 1986) (28 = 1985) (29 = 1984) (30 = 1983) (31 = 1982) (32 = 1981) (33 = 1980) (34 = 1979)

*/converting datetime variable into date format

gen doi = date(datetime, "DMY ###")

format doi %td

**extracting month and date

gen imonth= month(doi)

gen iyear= year(doi)

*/converting interviewing time into century months, adding 1 also while converting into century months.

gen intwtime= (iyear - 1900)*12 + imonth + 1

*/gen event for job 1

gen event1=.

replace event1=1 if v_298==2

replace event1=0 if v_298==1

tab event1

tab v_255, m

tab v_279, m

tab v_309, m

tab v_310, m

set seed 12345

*/imputing values for first job started month (i impute values for missing months)

gen random= int(runiform()*12)+1

replace v_255=random if (v_255==.d)

*/imputing values for first job end month

gen random1= int(runiform()*12)+1

replace v_309= random1 if (v_309==.d & event1==1)

*/I impute missing value year for case 250(lfdn 425).i assume yr 2007 for her.reason is given below.

*/case 250(lfdn 425) hv missing quitting year for first job.but she has given mnth of quit.so i assume tht she may hv quitted first job in 2007 itself.bcs she quit for studies.n join second job in oct,2008.n at the time of inw she stays in 2nd job means she is not job hopper

replace v_310 = 2007 if v_310==.d & lfdn==425

*/gen century months for first job

gen j1end=.

replace j1end= (v_310 - 1900)*12 + v_309 + 1

gen j1sta=.

replace j1sta= (v_279 - 1900)*12 + v_255 + 1

*/gen time variable for job 1

gen jtime1=.

replace jtime1= (j1end - j1sta) + 1 if event1==1

323

replace jtime1= (intwtime - j1sta) + 1 if event1==0

sort lfdn

*/first i gen new var similar to jtime1 in order to correct the values

gen corrjtime1= jtime1

replace corrjtime1= 1 if corrjtime1==0

replace corrjtime1= corrjtime1*(-1) if corrjtime1<0

browse corrjtime1

browse corrjtime1 if corrjtime1<=0

browse corrjtime1 if corrjtime1==.

browse if jtime1<0

browse

sort lfdn

*/stset the data

*NOTE:stsum gives 25%/50%/75% chnaces of job exit at repsective months.(this is interpretation).

stset corrjtime1, f(event1)

stdescribe

stsum

*/the highest time (198) in table means that:it is highest time wmn spend in first job until the intw period.means till the time study finish a wmn spend 198 months.its not necessary tht she may hv exit from job but may be wrkng until intw timw.

*/exit(t) in study means study finishes.n this s highest time recorded in 1st job.

**NOTE: MEDIAN time caluclated from stsum command will be differnet from median time calculated from 'stdescribe' bcs 'stdes' calculates time from 'RAW DATA' n ignores censored subjects.so it means

*///that it takes into account both subjects who left the first job and those were in first job @ of intw.

*NOTE: stci calculates mean and percentile of survival time

*stci, by(event1) emean

stci, p(25)

stci, p(75)

stci, p(90)

stci, emean

stci, median

****

*/GRAPHS

****

*/kaplan meier survival curves

sts graph, xlabel(0(20)200)

*/Plotting the hazard function

sts graph, h xlabel(0(10)130)

****

*/women's education vars

****

*Bachelor non-tech

tab v_228, m

recode v_228 (1 3 = 1 yes) (2 = 0 no) , gen(bante)

tab bante

label var bante "bach non-tech"

*bach tech

```
tab v_229, m

recode v_229 (1 3 = 1 yes) (2 = 0 no), gen(bate)

tab bate

label var bate "bach tech"


*master non-tech

tab v_230, m

recode v_230 (1 3 = 1 yes) (2 = 0 no), gen(mante)

tab mante

label var mante "mas non-tech"


*master tech

tab v_231, m

recode v_231 (1 3 = 1 yes) (2 = 0 no), gen(mate)

tab mate

label var mate "mas tech"


*/this makes sense.those did masters either tech/non-tech r recoded. n those only
did bach either tech/non-tech r further recoded.so it differentiate both

*/those with higher degrees with master n those only did bachelors.

*/so now its higher education variable.

gen hedu = .

replace hedu = 1 if mate==1

replace hedu = 2 if mante==1

replace hedu = 3 if (mate==0 & mante==0) & (bate==1)

replace hedu = 4 if (mate==0 & mante==0) & (bante==1)

tab hedu
```

label var hedu "higher edu"

label define edulevel 1"mtech" 2"mntech" 3"batech" 4"bntech"

label value hedu edulevel

tab hedu

****

**GENERATING CENTURY MONTHS FOR BIRTH

****

gen bm = .

replace bm = 1 if lfdn== 97

replace bm = 1 if lfdn== 148

replace bm = 8 if lfdn== 152

replace bm = 9 if lfdn== 155

replace bm = 9 if lfdn== 205

replace bm = 2 if lfdn== 217

replace bm = 4 if lfdn== 224

replace bm = 6 if lfdn== 252

replace bm = 11 if lfdn== 265

replace bm = 10 if lfdn== 289

replace bm = 9 if lfdn== 295

replace bm = 11 if lfdn== 300

replace bm = 11 if lfdn== 304

replace bm = 2 if lfdn== 313

replace bm = 4 if lfdn== 319

replace bm = 5 if lfdn== 321

replace bm = 10 if lfdn== 322

replace bm = 6 if lfdn== 328

```
replace bm = 11 if lfdn== 331

replace bm = 6 if lfdn== 333

replace bm = 6 if lfdn== 335

replace bm = 5 if lfdn== 339

replace bm = 1 if lfdn== 342

replace bm = 1 if lfdn== 344

replace bm = 8 if lfdn== 352

replace bm = 7 if lfdn== 372

replace bm = 4 if lfdn== 373

replace bm = 12 if lfdn== 383

replace bm = 11 if lfdn== 384

replace bm = 7 if lfdn== 388

replace bm = 8 if lfdn== 394

replace bm = 12 if lfdn== 398

replace bm = 1 if lfdn== 407

replace bm = 10 if lfdn== 408

replace bm = 6 if lfdn== 422

replace bm = 7 if lfdn== 429

replace bm = 9 if lfdn== 440

replace bm = 6 if lfdn== 453

replace bm = 6 if lfdn== 457

replace bm = 12 if lfdn== 465

sum bm


*generating random number for birth month

gen rand = int(runiform()*12)+1

replace bm = rand if(bm==.)
```

```
*gen century months for birth year

gen byr = (v_1052 - 1900)*12 + bm + 1

sum byr


*********************************************

*/creating century months for childbirth

*********************************************

tab1 v_855 v_426 v_427, m

*/imputing values for first childbirth month

gen randch= int(runiform()*12)+1

replace v_426=randch if (v_426==.d & v_855==1)


*/century months for first child

gen ch1=.

replace ch1= (v_427 - 1900)*12 + v_426 + 1

sum ch1

label var ch1 "childbirth"


*****************************************************************
********

*creating age at entry into first job.this is calculated in century months.

*i need to put this variable into model as time constant covariate.

*****************************************************************
**********

*/also convert the age into cohort/ diff age categories

gen agelm1 = .

replace agelm1 = j1sta - byr
```

sum agelm1

label var agelm1 "age at first job"

****

**checking missingness in vars

tab1 v_255 v_279 v_1001 v_291 v_292 v_293 v_298 v_309 v_310 v_505 v_1052 v_311 v_1030 v_1031, m

**missing vars, .d & .e

tab1 v_505 v_293, m

*/FYI...(mvdecode lfdn-rts1389377, mv(-77=.a\ -66=.b\ -99=.c\ 99=.d))

*first convert missing values in (.), then impute

mvencode v_293 v_505 v_1030 v_1031, mv(.d = 99\ .e = 999)

mvdecode v_293 v_505 v_1030 v_1031, mv(99 = . \ 999 = .)

**i removed v_309 v_ 310 v_311 from mi impute regular list as they r pronblematic. for lfdn 153,missing value is coded wrongly(.d)it shud be(.a)as she is in first job itself

*we always register variable as "regular" that dnt hv any missing values.means they r complete

mi set wide

mi register regular corrjtime1 v_1001 v_291 v_292 agelm1 hedu v_1053

mi register imputed v_293 v_505 v_1030 v_1031

mi describe

mi misstable patterns v_293 v_505 v_1030 v_1031

mi misstable nested v_505 v_293 v_1030 v_1031

mi impute chained (ologit) v_293 v_1030 v_1031 = corrjtime1 v_1001 v_291 v_292 agelm1 hedu, add(5) rseed(1234) force augment

mi impute chained (mlogit) v_505 = corrjtime1 v_1001 v_291 v_292 agelm1 hedu, force augment replace

mi describe

*for exploring imputed data

mi xeq : sum v_293 v_505 v_1030 v_1031

mi xeq 0 1: sum v_293 v_505 v_1030 v_1031

mi xeq 0 1 2 3 4 5: sum v_293 v_505 v_1030 v_1031

****

*for recoding variable

****

*i put category 15 into emp_reas bcs after chking repsonses carefully they all r related to emp factors n actually tells abt deteriorating working condition.

*added:3july15.i need to create additional category as 'heterogenous' for other reasons of job quit which were written in open box.

mi xeq : recode v_311 (2/8 13 = 1 "fam_reas") (9 = 2 "career adv") (10 11 12 14 = 3 "emp_reas") (1 = 4 "stud") (15 = 5 "heterogenous"), gen(jobquit1)

label var jobquit1 "job1 quit reason"

tab jobquit1

*recreating job position variable

gen jp = runiform()

gen jbp = _1_v_293 if (jp < .2)

replace jbp = _2_v_293 if (jp >= .2) & (jp < .4)

replace jbp = _3_v_293 if (jp >= .4) & (jp < .6)

replace jbp = _4_v_293 if (jp >= .6) & (jp < .8)

replace jbp = _5_v_293 if (jp >= .8)

tab jbp

sum jbp, d

label var jbp "jb pos1"

*********registering new var & updating at the same time

*/we register var as "regular" if they r not imputed.

*/we register var as "passive" if they r imputed

mi register regular jobquit1

mi register passive jbp

mi update

****
****

**in order to create new var from imputed var,first i need to create new var (eg x1)equal to uniform var then this(x1)will be used to create another new var(x2)which will be finally used for analysis.

*and this x2 will be complete var w/o any missing value

gen rg = runiform()

gen reg = _1_v_505 if rg < .2

replace reg = _2_v_505 if (rg >= .2) & (rg < .4)

replace reg = _3_v_505 if (rg >= .4) & (rg < .6)

replace reg = _4_v_505 if (rg >= .6) & (rg < .8)

replace reg = _5_v_505 if (rg >= .8)

tab reg

mi xeq : recode reg (1 2 = 1 "DL_NCR") (3 = 2 "OTHST"), gen(region)

tab region

sum region

label var region "region"

```
**************************************************

**GENERATING MARRIAGE MONTH

**************************************************

*its tabulation shows that most of the mge took plave in nove,dec,feb.so divide
wmn mge mnth into these 3 mnths only.

gen mm = .

replace mm = 12 if lfdn== 97

replace mm = 11 if lfdn== 104

replace mm = 2 if lfdn== 148

replace mm = 12 if lfdn== 152

replace mm = 10 if lfdn== 155

replace mm = 3 if lfdn== 205

replace mm = 11 if lfdn== 217

replace mm = 11 if lfdn== 224

replace mm = 2 if lfdn== 252

replace mm = 3 if lfdn== 265

replace mm = 2 if lfdn== 289

replace mm = 11 if lfdn== 295

replace mm = 8 if lfdn== 300

replace mm = 2 if lfdn== 304

replace mm = 2 if lfdn== 313

replace mm = 1 if lfdn== 319

replace mm = 1 if lfdn== 321

replace mm = 2 if lfdn== 322

replace mm = 11 if lfdn== 328

replace mm = 8 if lfdn== 331
```

replace mm = 9 if lfdn== 333

replace mm = 10 if lfdn== 335

replace mm = 5 if lfdn== 339

replace mm = 11 if lfdn== 342

replace mm = 11 if lfdn== 344

replace mm = 11 if lfdn== 352

replace mm = 4 if lfdn== 372

replace mm = 1 if lfdn== 373

replace mm = 12 if lfdn== 383

replace mm = 12 if lfdn== 384

replace mm = 2 if lfdn== 388

replace mm = 3 if lfdn== 394

replace mm = 11 if lfdn== 398

replace mm = 10 if lfdn== 407

replace mm = 11 if lfdn== 408

replace mm = 12 if lfdn== 422

replace mm = 12 if lfdn== 429

replace mm = 12 if lfdn== 440

replace mm = 2 if lfdn== 453

replace mm = 12 if lfdn== 457

replace mm = 7 if lfdn== 465

*this is generating number sequentially from 10-12.then i replace 10 with 2.as data shows most mge took/take place in feb,nov,dec.

egen dd = seq(), from(10) to(12) b(3)

replace dd = 2 if dd== 10

replace mm = dd if mm==.

*creating century months for marriage

gen mge = (v_1053 - 1900)*12 + mm + 1

sum mge

label var mge "marriage time"


```
*********************************************************************
********************
```

*ANOTHER WAY OF EPI-SPLITTING FOR KNOWING MARRITAL STATUS DURING JOB DURATION.

*if wmn get married during job-duration then how does marriage affect job-exit rate?

```
*********************************************************************
**********
```

gen marrdate = mge - j1sta

mi stset corrjtime1, f(event1) id(lfdn)

mi stsplit married, at(0) after(time=marrdate)

tab married

replace married = married + 1

tab married

mi update


```
*********************************************************************
**********
```

*EPISODE SPLITTING AT FIRST CHILDBIRTH to see if wmn had child during first job episode then to wht extent motherhood affects job-exit rate.

```
*********************************************************************
**********
```

*splitting 1st job episode at first childbirth

```
mi stset corrjtime1, f(event1) id(lfdn)

gen chbrt = ch1 - j1sta

sum chbrt

*gen newid1 = _n



mi stset corrjtime1, f(event1) id(lfdn)

mi stsplit child, at(0) after(time=chbrt)

tab child

replace child = child + 1 if (v_855==1)

tab child


sort lfdn

browse lfdn corrjtime1 event1 j1sta j1end intwtime chbrt ch1 child married

browse lfdn corrjtime1 event1 j1sta j1end marrdate mge ch1 married


mi register regular child married

mi update



************************************************************
**********

*/following is TIME DEPENDENCY split episode for THESIS ANALYSIS.

************************************************************
**

*/the following procedure upto stjoin will result into providing "baseline
transition rate".for more info:pg120.

mi stset corrjtime1, f(event1) id(lfdn)

stdescribe
```

*/NOTE:ADDED ON 1JUNE15 after meeting karin. i chkd several time-split period n i arive at conclusion tht i now split time period until 90 mnths. though there 15 cases intotal from mnth 80to150.

*/e.g 8 cases at mnth 80; 6 cases at mnth 90; 1 case at 150 mnth. so after split until 90 mnths, there will hv left only 1 case at 150 mnths which does not matter.

*/so splitting until 90 mnths s good decision. also i change time periods from t1-t8 to t1-t10.

mi stset corrjtime1, f(event1) id(lfdn)

stdescribe

mi stsplit time, at(0(10)90)

mi xeq: tab time, gen (t)

*now i regress the sub-time period w/o constant bcs assumption is tht hazard varies over time.

mi estimate, dots : streg t1-t10, d(e) nocons nohr

****

*/INDIVIDUAL LEVEL CHARACTERISTICS

****

*/with EDUCATION

mi estimate, dots : streg t1-t10 ib2.hedu, d(e) nohr nocons

*/with REGION/MIGRANT STATUS

mi estimate, dots : streg t1-t10 ib2.hedu ib1.region, d(e) nohr nocons

*/here controlling for AGE at LM entry

mi estimate, dots : streg t1-t10 ib2.hedu ib1.region c.agelm1, d(e) nohr nocons

*/now adding time varying covariate, MARITAL STATUS

mi estimate, dots : streg t1-t10 ib2.hedu ib1.region c.agelm1 married, d(e) nohr nocons

*/now adding time varying covariate, MOTHERHOOD STATUS

mi estimate, dots : streg t1-t10 ib2.hedu ib1.region c.agelm1 married child, d(e) nohr nocons

****

*FIRM LEVEL VARS + SECTOR

****

*adding WORKING TIME.(flexible n fixed shift)

mi estimate, dots : streg t1-t10 ib2.hedu ib1.region c.agelm1 married child ib1.v_292, d(e) nohr nocons

*/now controlling for SECTOR

mi estimate, dots : streg t1-t10 ib2.hedu ib1.region c.agelm1 married child ib1.v_292 ib2.v_1001, d(e) nohr nocons

*/ now controlling for JOB POSITION

mi estimate, dots : streg t1-t10 ib2.hedu ib1.region c.agelm1 married child ib1.v_292 ib2.v_1001 ib3.jbp, d(e) nohr nocons

****

*/INTERACTION EFFECT

****

*/MARRIAGE n FLEXIBLE SHIFT

mi estimate, dots : streg t1-t10 ib2.hedu ib1.region c.agelm1 married child ib1.v_292 ib2.v_1001 ib3.jbp married##ib1.v_292, d(e) nohr nocons

Questionnaire

1 [Page ID: 1339145] [L]
Page_1

This Research Project studies Employment Behaviour of Married Women and Mothers in Services Sector (IT, ITES, BPO and KPO) in India.

Background

I, Jagriti, PhD Researcher from the Institute of Sociology at Georg- August-University, Germany is carrying out a project on married women and mothers working in IT, ITES, BPO and KPO. It highlights concerns and difficulties experienced by them in the course of carrying out the responsibilities of both family and employment. For this, I am collecting information through the questionnaire. The results of this survey will be used for academic purpose and writing my PhD thesis. I urge you to kindly participate in our questionnaire.

If you wish to know more about the research project or about me you can contact at the following address:

Email ID- jagriti.jagriti@stud.uni-goettingen.de

Mobile# +91 8130122011

Please Note: Individual information will strictly be kept confidential, anonymous and will not be shared with anyone.

Instructions

The questionnaire will take about 10 to 12 minutes. It includes questions about your choice and decision, education, past and current job(s), motherhood status (depending upon individual's current status) and some basic information about you. The format includes check boxes, drop down (to choose an option from) and written responses. Please answer the questionnaire on the basis of your own personal experience of balancing work and family life. You have opportunity to win gift voucher upto Rs 500 while participating in our survey. Thank you so much to be part of this survey. We hope you will enjoy answering our questionnaire!

2 [Page ID: 1345864] [L]
starting

Please indicate your Current Marital Status

You are a

○ Married Woman above 18 years of age
○ Divorcee / Widow / Re-married / Separated Woman of ANY age
○ Unmarried Woman of ANY age
○ Others

3.1 [Page ID: 1345868] [L]
not married

We are very sorry! Unfortunately, you won't be able to be part of this survey as our research targets only married women and mothers.

We will highly appreciate if you could give us references of your married female friend(s) who is/are currently working or quitted the job or finding job in IT, ITES, BPO and KPO.

For this, please enter below her/their email id.

	Friend's Name	Friend's Email ID
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		

Please write your name if you have referred any of your friend above and click on 'Next' button

3.2 [Page ID: 1339158] [L]
The End

Thank you so much for participating in our survey. Have a good time ahead! You can now close the window.

Close window

4 [Page ID: 1339160] [L]
Page_2

Are you ?

○ Currently employed
○ Currently unemployed

5.1 [Page ID: 1339164] [L]
Page_2 (a)

Please indicate the level of agreement that most accurately reflects your Aspirations, Choice and Decisions in your life

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
I like to do a job	○	○	○	○	○
I have always desired for a long term career	○	○	○	○	○
I prefer to do a job over staying at home	○	○	○	○	○
I give more priority to my family than to my career	○	○	○	○	○
I do take extra responsibilities at work	○	○	○	○	○
I often attend various types of training and other skill-enhancing programme in my current company	○	○	○	○	○
I am always ready to do over-time in my current company	○	○	○	○	○
I have lot of work pressure in my current company	○	○	○	○	○
I find it difficult to combine work and household responsibilities	○	○	○	○	○
I expect to see myself on some senior position after 10 years from now	○	○	○	○	○
I always wished to be a housewife and have a family	○	○	○	○	○
I can get leave easily from the company whenever I need	○	○	○	○	○
I have to take many times a leave from work due to family responsibilities	○	○	○	○	○
My husband helps me in household work	○	○	○	○	○
My husband often ask me to quit the job	○	○	○	○	○
I prefer to do part time job over full time job	○	○	○	○	○
I have option to work from home	○	○	○	○	○
I am ready to quit the job if my husband were to earn more than combining our current income	○	○	○	○	○
Do you believe that women should do a job	○	○	○	○	○

5.2 [Page ID: 1357922] [L]
You do job

What is your purpose for doing job ?

Please select the level for each

	From Low				To High
Earnings	○	○	○	○	○
Meeting increased cost of living	○	○	○	○	○
Financial need at home	○	○	○	○	○
Passing your time	○	○	○	○	○
Escaping from family work burden	○	○	○	○	○
For pleasure and happiness	○	○	○	○	○
Your husband wants you to work	○	○	○	○	○
For self-realization	○	○	○	○	○

5.3 [Page ID: 1350822] [L]
Intro_Edu

The Next Section is About You and Your Husband's Educational Qualification

5.4 [Page ID: 1345981] [L]
Edu

Please indicate your Educational Qualification

	Yes	No	Continuing
B.A(P), B.A(H) B.COM(P), B.COM(H), B.SC, B.Sc (H), etc (All Non-Technical Degrees/Diploma)	○	○	○
BBA, BCA, BIT, BE, etc (All Technical Degrees/Diploma)	○	○	○

	Yes	No	Continuing
M.A, M.COM, M.Sc, etc (All Non-Technical Degrees/Diploma)	○	○	○
MBA, MCA, ME, MIT, M.Tech, etc (All Technical Degrees/Diploma)	○	○	○

Please write the year of completion of your Bachelor's (or equivalent to Bachelor's) education

Please indicate your husband's Educational Qualification

	Yes	No	Continuing
B.A(P), B.A(H) B.COM(P), B.COM(H), B.SC, B.Sc (H), etc (All Non-Technical Degrees/Diploma)	○	○	○
BBA, BCA, BIT, BE, etc (All Technical Degrees/Diploma)	○	○	○
M.A, M.COM, M.Sc, etc (All Non-Technical Degrees/Diploma)	○	○	○
MBA, MCA, ME, MIT, M.Tech, etc (All Technical Degrees/Diploma)	○	○	○

Does your husband earn money?

○ Yes
○ No

5.5.1 [Page ID: 1346024] [L]
hus job

In which service/sector does your husband work ?

Please Select
Private Service
Public / Government Service
Own business
Self-Employed
Others (please write)

Others (please write)

Does your husband have a regular income ?

○ Yes
○ No

What is your husband's annual gross salary ?

Please Select
1 Lakh - 3 Lakh
3 Lakh - 6 Lakh
6 Lakh - 9 Lakh
9 Lakh - 12 Lakh
Above 12 Lakh

5.6 [Page ID: 1346073] [L]
hus_income

Do you have other source of income (for example, from property, rent etc) ?

○ Yes
○ No

5.7 [Page ID: 1350735] [L]
Intro_Job History

The Next Section is About Your Work Life While Contain Questions Related to Your Past and Current Jobs

Please Note: Jobs undertaken during or before Bachelor's education will NOT be considered here. Therefore, please count all your jobs you joined after completing your Bachelor's (or equivalent) education.

5.8 [Page ID: 1347217] [L]
Job history

Your FIRST JOB since completing Bachelor's education

(Please carefully select)

Month	Year
	Please Select
	2011
	2010
	2009
	2008
	2007
	2006
	2005
	2004
	2003
	2002
Please Select	2001
January	2000
February	1999
March	1998
April	1997
May	1996
June	1995
July	1994
August	1993
September	1992
October	1991
November	1990
December	1989
	1988
	1987
	1986
	1985
	1984
	1983
	1982
	1981
	1980
	Before 1980

You started your first job in

Please select the Sector/ Industry you work/worked in your first job ?

○ IT / ITES / BPO / KPO   ○ Others

Your first job is/was

○ Full-time   ○ Part-time

You work/worked in first job in

○ One fixed shift   ○ Flexible shifts

In the job hierarchy of your organisation, you work/worked at which level ?

Please indicate

From Low ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ To High

Are you still in your first job ?

○ Yes   ○ No

5.8.1.1 [Page ID: 1347246] [L]
JS 1_Q1

When did you quit your first job ?

(Please carefully select)

Month	Year

Please Select
2011
2010
2009
2008
2007
2006
2005
2004
2003
2002
Please Select   2001
January   2000
February   1999
March   1998
April   1997
May   1996
June   1995
July   1994
August   1993
September   1992
October   1991
November   1990
December   1989
                 1988
                 1987
                 1986
                 1985
                 1984
                 1983
                 1982
                 1981
                 1980
                 Before 1980

What was your main reason for quitting the job ?

Please Select
Studies
Marriage
Childbirth
Childcare
Parents care at home
Parent in laws care at home
Prolonged illness/Poor health
Job timing was un-compatible with family demands
You joined good salary job somewhere else
You did not like the company
You did not like the job
You did not want to do job anymore
Your husband transferred in another city
You were dismissed from the job
Others (please write)

Others (please write) [_____]

5.8.1.2 [Page ID: 1347248] [L]
JS 2

Your Second Job since completing Bachelor's education

(Please carefully select)

	Month	Year

You started your second job in

| Please Select |
| January |
| February |
| March |
| April |
| May |
| June |
| July |
| August |
| September |
| October |
| November |
| December |

| Please Select |
| 2011 |
| 2010 |
| 2009 |
| 2008 |
| 2007 |
| 2006 |
| 2005 |
| 2004 |
| 2003 |
| 2002 |
| 2001 |
| 2000 |
| 1999 |
| 1998 |
| 1997 |
| 1996 |
| 1995 |
| 1994 |
| 1993 |
| 1992 |
| 1991 |
| 1990 |
| 1989 |
| 1988 |
| 1987 |
| 1986 |
| 1985 |
| 1984 |
| 1983 |
| 1982 |
| 1981 |
| 1980 |
| Before 1980 |

Please select the Sector/ Industry you work/worked in your second job ?

○   IT / ITES / BPO / KPO   ○   Others

Your second job is/was

○   Full-time   ○   Part-time

You work/worked in second job in

○   One fixed shift   ○   Flexible shifts

In the job hierarchy of your organisation, you work/worked at which level ?

Please indicate

From Low   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○   To High

Please indicate the level of agreement that most accurately reflects your opinion about your second job as compared to your first job

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
You got higher position	○	○	○	○	○
Less stressful	○	○	○	○	○
Favourable working time	○	○	○	○	○
Cooperation from colleague & seniors	○	○	○	○	○
Career opportunities	○	○	○	○	○
Better income and other monetary benefits	○	○	○	○	○

Are you still in your second job ?

○   Yes   ○   No

5.8.1.3.1   [Page ID: 1347330] [L]
JS_2_filter_Q1

When did you quit your second job ?

(Please carefully select)

Month	Year
	Please Select
	2011
	2010
	2009
	2008
	2007
	2006
	2005
	2004
	2003
	2002
Please Select	2001
January	2000
February	1999
March	1998
April	1997
May	1996
June	1995
July	1994
August	1993
September	1992
October	1991
November	1990
December	1989
	1988
	1987
	1986
	1985
	1984
	1983
	1982
	1981
	1980
	Before 1980

What was your main reason for quitting the job ?

Please Select
Studies
Marriage
Childbirth
Childcare
Parents care at home
Parent in laws care at home
Prolonged illness/Poor health
Job timing was un-compatible with family demands
You joined good salary job somewhere else
You did not like the company
You did not like the job
You did not want to do job anymore
Your husband transferred in another city
You were dismissed from the job
Others (please write)

Others (please write) [   ]

5.8.1.3.2 [Page ID: 1347337] [L]
JS 3

Your Third Job since completing Bachelor's education

(Please carefully select)

Month	Year

You started your third job in

Please Select	Please Select
January	2011
February	2010
March	2009
April	2008
May	2007
June	2006
July	2005
August	2004
September	2003
October	2002
November	2001
December	2000
	1999
	1998
	1997
	1996
	1995
	1994
	1993
	1992
	1991
	1990
	1989
	1988
	1987
	1986
	1985
	1984
	1983
	1982
	1981
	1980
	Before 1980

Please select the Sector/ Industry you work/worked in your third job ?

○ IT / ITES / BPO / KPO   ○ Others

Your third job is/was

○ Full-time   ○ Part-time

You work/worked in third job in

○ One fixed shift   ○ Flexible shifts

In the job hierarchy of your organisation, you work/worked at which level ?

Please indicate

From Low ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ To High

Please indicate the level of agreement that most accurately reflects your opinion about your third job as compared to your second job

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
You got higher position	○	○	○	○	○
Less stressful	○	○	○	○	○
Favourable working time	○	○	○	○	○
Cooperation from colleague & seniors	○	○	○	○	○
Career opportunities	○	○	○	○	○
Better income and other monetary benefits	○	○	○	○	○

Are you still in your third job ?

○ Yes   ○ No

5.8.1.3.3.1   [Page ID: 1347359] [L]
JS_3_filter_Q1

When did you quit your third job ?

(Please carefully select)

Month	Year
	Please Select
	2011
	2010
	2009
	2008
	2007
	2006
	2005
	2004
	2003
	2002
Please Select	2001
January	2000
February	1999
March	1998
April	1997
May	1996
June	1995
July	1994
August	1993
September	1992
October	1991
November	1990
December	1989
	1988
	1987
	1986
	1985
	1984
	1983
	1982
	1981
	1980
	Before 1980

What was your main reason for quitting the job ?

Please Select
Studies
Marriage
Childbirth
Childcare
Parents care at home
Parent in laws care at home
Prolonged illness/Poor health
Job timing was un-compatible with family demands
You joined good salary job somewhere else
You did not like the company
You did not like the job
You did not want to do job anymore
Your husband transferred in another city
You were dismissed from the job
Others (please write)

Others (please write)

5.8.1.3.3.2 [Page ID: 1347363] [L]
JS 4

Your Fourth Job since completing Bachelor's education

(Please carefully select)

Month	Year

Please Select
2011
2010
2009
2008
2007
2006
2005
2004
2003
2002
2001
2000
1999
1998
1997
1996
1995
1994
1993
1992
1991
1990
1989
1988
1987
1986
1985
1984
1983
1982
1981
1980
Before 1980

You started your fourth job in

Please Select
January
February
March
April
May
June
July
August
September
October
November
December

Please select the Sector/ Industry you work/worked in your fourth job ?

○	IT / ITES / BPO / KPO	○	Others

Your fourth job is/was

○	Full-time	○	Part-time

You work/worked in fourth job in

○	One fixed shift	○	Flexible shifts

In the job hierarchy of your organisation, you work/worked at which level ?

Please indicate

From Low	○	○	○	○	○	To High

Please indicate the level of agreement that most accurately reflects your opinion about your fourth job as compared to your third job

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
You got higher position	○	○	○	○	○
Less stressful	○	○	○	○	○
Favourable working time	○	○	○	○	○
Cooperation from colleague & seniors	○	○	○	○	○
Career opportunities	○	○	○	○	○
Better income and other monetary benefits	○	○	○	○	○

Are you still in your fourth job ?

○	Yes	○	No

5.8.1.3.3.3.1   [Page ID: 1347372] [L]
JS 4_filter_Q1

When did you quit your fourth job ?

(Please carefully select)

	Month	Year
		Please Select
		2011
		2010
		2009
		2008
		2007
		2006
		2005
		2004
		2003
		2002
	Please Select	2001
	January	2000
	February	1999
	March	1998
	April	1997
	May	1996
	June	1995
	July	1994
	August	1993
	September	1992
	October	1991
	November	1990
	December	1989
		1988
		1987
		1986
		1985
		1984
		1983
		1982
		1981
		1980
		Before 1980

What was your main reason for quitting the job ?

Please Select
Studies
Marriage
Childbirth
Childcare
Parents care at home
Parent in laws care at home
Prolonged illness/Poor health
Job timing was un-compatible with family demands
You joined good salary job somewhere else
You did not like the company
You did not like the job
You did not want to do job anymore
Your husband transferred in another city
You were dismissed from the job
Others (please write)

Others (please write) [   ]

5.8.1.3.3.3.2 [Page ID: 1347374] [L]
JS 5

Your Fifth Job since completing Bachelor's education

(Please carefully select)

	Month	Year

You started your fifth job in

Month	Year
Please Select	Please Select
January	2011
February	2010
March	2009
April	2008
May	2007
June	2006
July	2005
August	2004
September	2003
October	2002
November	2001
December	2000
	1999
	1998
	1997
	1996
	1995
	1994
	1993
	1992
	1991
	1990
	1989
	1988
	1987
	1986
	1985
	1984
	1983
	1982
	1981
	1980
	Before 1980

Please select the Sector/ Industry you work/worked in your fifth job ?

○ IT / ITES / BPO / KPO   ○ Others

Your fifth job is/was

○ Full-time   ○ Part-time

You work/worked in fifth job in

○ One fixed shift   ○ Flexible shifts

In the job hierarchy of your organisation, you work/worked at which level ?

Please indicate

From Low ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ To High

Please indicate the level of agreement that most accurately reflects your opinion about your fifth job as compared to your fourth job

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
You got higher position	○	○	○	○	○
Less stressful	○	○	○	○	○
Favourable working time	○	○	○	○	○
Cooperation from colleague & seniors	○	○	○	○	○
Career opportunities	○	○	○	○	○
Better income and other monetary benefits	○	○	○	○	○

Are you still in your fifth job ?

○ Yes   ○ No

5.8.1.3.3.3.3.1 [Page ID: 1347377] [L]
JS 5_filter_Q1

When did you quit your fifth job ?

(Please carefully select)

Month	Year
	Please Select
	2011
	2010
	2009
	2008
	2007
	2006
	2005
	2004
	2003
	2002
Please Select	2001
January	2000
February	1999
March	1998
April	1997
May	1996
June	1995
July	1994
August	1993
September	1992
October	1991
November	1990
December	1989
	1988
	1987
	1986
	1985
	1984
	1983
	1982
	1981
	1980
	Before 1980

What was your main reason for quitting the job ?

Please Select
Studies
Marriage
Childbirth
Childcare
Parents care at home
Parent in laws care at home
Prolonged illness/Poor health
Job timing was un-compatible with family demands
You joined good salary job somewhere else
You did not like the company
You did not like the job
You did not want to do job anymore
Your husband transferred in another city
You were dismissed from the job
Others (please write)

Others (please write) [   ]

5.8.1.3.3.3.3.2 [Page ID: 1347378] [L]
JS 6

Your Sixth Job since completing Bachelor's education

(Please carefully select)

Month	Year

Please Select
2011
2010
2009
2008
2007
2006
2005
2004
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1999
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1992
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1987
1986
1985
1984
1983
1982
1981
1980
Before 1980

Please Select
January
February
March
April
May
June
July
August
September
October
November
December

You started your sixth job in

Please select the Sector/ Industry you work/worked in your sixth job ?

○   IT / ITES /
    BPO / KPO   ○   Others

Your sixth job is/was

○   Full-time   ○   Part-time

You work/worked in sixth job in

○   One fixed
    shift   ○   Flexible
                           shifts

In the job hierarchy of your organisation, you work/worked at which level ?

Please indicate

From Low   ○   ○   ○   ○   ○   To High

Please indicate the level of agreement that most accurately reflects your opinion about your sixth job as compared to your fifth job

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
You got higher position	○	○	○	○	○
Less stressful	○	○	○	○	○
Favourable working time	○	○	○	○	○
Cooperation from colleague & seniors	○	○	○	○	○
Career opportunities	○	○	○	○	○
Better income and other monetary benefits	○	○	○	○	○

Are you still in your sixth job ?

○   Yes   ○   No

5.9 [Page ID: 1350736] [L]
Intro_Motherhood

The Next Section Contains Questions Related to Your Marriage and Motherhood Status

5.10 [Page ID: 1347379] [L]

Motherhood

> **What was your employment status at the time of your marriage ?**
>
> Please Select
> I was not working
> I had quitted the job before
> I was working but later took a leave for marriage
>
> ---
>
> **Are you currently pregnant ?**
>
> ○ Yes
> ○ No

5.11.1 [Page ID: 1349299] [L]
Currently preg_Q1

> **Which month are you in ?**
>
> Please Select
> 1
> 2
> 3
> 4
> 5
> 6
> 7
> 8
> 9

5.12 [Page ID: 1350750] [L]
Mother_Ques_

> **Are you currently a mother ?**
>
> ○ Yes
> ○ No

5.13.1 [Page ID: 1347381] [L]
Mo_yes_Q1

> **How many children currently do you have ?**
>
> Please Select
> 1 child
> 2 children
> 3 children
> 4 children or more

5.13.2.1 [Page ID: 1347406] [L]
Child 1

> **About your first child**
>
> | | Month | Year |
> |---|---|---|

Date of Birth of your first child

Please Select	Please Select
January	2011
February	2010
March	2009
April	2008
May	2007
June	2006
July	2005
August	2004
September	2003
October	2002
November	2001
December	2000
	1999
	1998
	1997
	1996
	1995
	1994
	1993
	1992
	1991
	1990
	1989
	1988
	1987
	1986
	1985
	1984
	1983
	1982
	1981
	1980
	Before 1980

What was your employment status at the beginning of pregnancy ?

Please Select
Unemployed
Employed but later quitted the job
Employed but later took a maternity leave

5.13.2.2.1 [Page ID: 1347410] [L]
CH 1_filter_Q1

	Before childbirth	After childbirth
	Please Select	Please Select
	Less than 1 month	Less than 1 month
	1 Month	1 Month
	1 - 2 Months	1 - 2 Months
Your total maternity leave at the birth of your first child was	2 - 3 Months	2 - 3 Months
	3 - 4 Months	3 - 4 Months
	4 - 5 Months	4 - 5 Months
	5 - 6 Months	5 - 6 Months
	6 - 7 Months	6 - 7 Months
	7 - 8 Months	7 - 8 Months
		8 - 9 Months
		9 - 10 Months
		10 - 11 Months
		11 - 12 Months
		More than 12 Months

Your maternity leave was

○ Paid
○ Unpaid
○ Partly Paid/ Partly Unpaid

Please indicate the level of agreement that most accurately reflects your Experience after Childbirth in the same organisation

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
You joined the same position at which you were working before	○	○	○	○	○
You work/ worked less number of hours	○	○	○	○	○
You work/ worked in flexible shifts	○	○	○	○	○
Your husband was given paternity leave	○	○	○	○	○

5.13.2.3.1 [Page ID: 1347430] [L]

Child 2

About your second child

	Month	Year
		Please Select
		2011
		2010
		2009
		2008
		2007
		2006
		2005
		2004
		2003
		2002
	Please Select	2001
	January	2000
	February	1999
	March	1998
	April	1997
	May	1996
Date of Birth of your second child	June	1995
	July	1994
	August	1993
	September	1992
	October	1991
	November	1990
	December	1989
		1988
		1987
		1986
		1985
		1984
		1983
		1982
		1981
		1980
		Before 1980

What was your employment status at the beginning of pregnancy?

Please Select
Unemployed
Employed but later quitted the job
Employed but later took a maternity leave

5.13.2.3.2.1 [Page ID: 1347437] [L]
Ch2_filter_pregnancy

	Before childbirth	After childbirth
		Please Select
		Less than 1 month
		1 Month
		1 - 2 Months
	Please Select	2 - 3 Months
	Less than 1 month	3 - 4 Months
	1 Month	4 - 5 Months
	1 - 2 Months	5 - 6 Months
Your total maternity leave at the birth of your second child was	2 - 3 Months	6 - 7 Months
	3 - 4 Months	7 - 8 Months
	4 - 5 Months	8 - 9 Months
	5 - 6 Months	9 - 10 Months
	6 - 7 Months	10 - 11 Months
	7 - 8 Months	11 - 12 Months
		More than 12 months

Your maternity leave was

○ Paid
○ Unpaid
○ Partly Paid/ Partly Unpaid

Please indicate the level of agreement that most accurately reflects your Experience after Childbirth in the same organisation

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
You joined the same position at which you were working before	○	○	○	○	○

You work/worked less number of hours	○	○	○	○	○
You work/worked in flexible shifts	○	○	○	○	○
Your husband was given paternity leave	○	○	○	○	○

5.13.2.3.3.1 [Page ID: 1347439] [L]
Child 3

About your Third Child

	Month	**Year**
		Please Select
		2011
		2010
		2009
		2008
		2007
		2006
		2005
		2004
		2003
		2002
	Please Select	2001
	January	2000
	February	1999
	March	1998
	April	1997
	May	1996
Date of Birth of your third child	June	1995
	July	1994
	August	1993
	September	1992
	October	1991
	November	1990
	December	1989
		1988
		1987
		1986
		1985
		1984
		1983
		1982
		1981
		1980
		Before 1980

What was your employment status at the beginning of pregnancy ?

Please Select
Unemployed
Employed but later quitted the job
Employed but later took a maternity leave

5.13.2.3.3.2.1 [Page ID: 1347448] [L]
ch3_filter_Q1

	Before childbirth	**After childbirth**
		Please Select
		Less than 1 month
		1 Month
		1 - 2 Months
		2 - 3 Months
	Please Select	3 - 4 Months
	Less than 1 month	4 - 5 Months
	1 Month	5 - 6 Months
Your total maternity leave at the birth of your third child was	1 - 2 Months	6 - 7 Months
	2 - 3 Months	7 - 8 Months
	3 - 4 Months	8 - 9 Months
	4 - 5 Months	9 - 10 Months
	5 - 6 Months	10 - 11 Months
	6 - 7 Months	11 - 12 Months
	7 - 8 Months	More than 12 months

Your maternity leave was

○ Paid
○ Unpaid
○ Partly Paid/ Partly Unpaid

Please indicate the level of agreement that most accurately reflects your Experience after Childbirth in the same organisation

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
You joined the same position at which you were working before	○	○	○	○	○
You work/worked less number of hours	○	○	○	○	○
You work/worked in flexible shifts	○	○	○	○	○
Your husband was given paternity leave	○	○	○	○	○

5.13.2.3.3.3.1 [Page ID: 1347553] [L]
Child 4 page

About your Fourth Child

	Month	Year
		Please Select
		2011
		2010
		2009
		2008
		2007
		2006
		2005
		2004
		2003
		2002
	Please Select	2001
	January	2000
	February	1999
	March	1998
	April	1997
	May	1996
Date of Birth of your fourth child	June	1995
	July	1994
	August	1993
	September	1992
	October	1991
	November	1990
	December	1989
		1988
		1987
		1986
		1985
		1984
		1983
		1982
		1981
		1980
		Before 1980

What was your employment status at the beginning of pregnancy ?

Please Select
Unemployed
Employed but later quitted the job
Employed but later took a maternity leave

5.13.2.3.3.3.2.1 [Page ID: 1347559] [L]
Ch4_preg_Q1

	Before childbirth	After childbirth
		Please Select
		Less than 1 month
		1 Month
	Please Select	1 - 2 Months
	Less than 1 month	2 - 3 Months
	1 Month	3 - 4 Months
	1 - 2 Months	4 - 5 Months
Your total maternity leave at the birth of your fourth child was	2 - 3 Months	5 - 6 Months
	3 - 4 Months	6 - 7 Months
	4 - 5 Months	7 - 8 Months
	5 - 6 Months	8 - 9 Months
	6 - 7 Months	9 - 10 Months
	7 - 8 Months	10 - 11 Months
		11 - 12 Months
		More than 12 Months

Your maternity leave was

○ Paid
○ Unpaid
○ Partly Paid/ Partly Unpaid

Please indicate the level of agreement that most accurately reflects your Experience after Childbirth in the same organisation

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
You joined the same position at which you were working before	○	○	○	○	○
You work/ worked less number of hours	○	○	○	○	○
You work/ worked in flexible shifts	○	○	○	○	○
Your husband was given paternity leave	○	○	○	○	○

5.14 [Page ID: 1351618] [L]
Future Mother

Would you like to have child in future ?

○ Yes
○ No

5.15.1 [Page ID: 1351624] [L]
Fut_Moth-NM_Q

Please indicate the level of agreement that closely reflects your situation when/if you will have child(ren) in future

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
I will continue to work	○	○	○	○	○
I will be dependent on any family member/ relatives support for childcare	○	○	○	○	○
I may have to take servant/crèche/day care service for childcare	○	○	○	○	○
It will be difficult for me to combine work and family	○	○	○	○	○
I will have to completely quit my job	○	○	○	○	○
I believe that my husband will help me in childcare and household work	○	○	○	○	○

Would you like your husband to take the paternity leave ?

○ Yes
○ No
○ Not Applies to me

5.15.2.1 [Page ID: 1356616] [L]
Paternity_Q

How many months would you prefer your husband to take the paternity leave ?

Please Select
Less than 1 month
1 Month
1 - 2 Months
2 - 3 Months
3 - 4 Months
4 - 5 Months
5 - 6 Months
6 - 7 Months
7 - 8 Months
8 - 9 Months
9 - 10 Months
10 - 11 Months
11 - 12 Months
More than 12 months

6.1 [Page ID: 1347696] [L]
FOR UNEMPLOYED

Please indicate the level of agreement that most accurately reflects your Aspirations, Choice and Decision in your life

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
I like to do a job	○	○	○	○	○
I prefer to be housewife and have family	○	○	○	○	○

I have always desired for a long term career	○	○	○	○	
I prefer to do a job over staying at home	○	○	○	○	○
I give more priority to my family than to a career	○	○	○	○	○
I have quitted job permanently	○	○	○	○	○
Quitting job was my own decision	○	○	○	○	○
Quitting job was mutual decision of me and my husband	○	○	○	○	○
I had a lot of work pressure in my last company	○	○	○	○	○
It was difficult for me to combine job and family responsibilities	○	○	○	○	○
I had to take many times a leave from work due to household responsibilities	○	○	○	○	○
I used to get leave easily from my last company, when I needed	○	○	○	○	○
I did take extra responsibilities at work in last company	○	○	○	○	○
I attended various types of training and other skill-enhancing programme in my last company	○	○	○	○	○
I often did over-time in my last company	○	○	○	○	○
My husband supported my job	○	○	○	○	○
Now my husband often ask me to take-up new job	○	○	○	○	○
I have possibility to join any job in future	○	○	○	○	○
I prefer to do a part-time job over full-time job	○	○	○	○	○
I would like to work in one fixed shifts in future	○	○	○	○	○
If I am required to earn money in future, I can work just for salary and not care for other facilities	○	○	○	○	○
I feel there is no difficulty in finding a desirable job in future	○	○	○	○	○
I had option to work from home	○	○	○	○	○
Do you believe that women should do a job	○	○	○	○	○

6.2 [Page ID: 1389377] [L]
UE_future job

In which sector/service you will prefer to do a job in future ?

○ IT/ITES/BPO/KPO
○ Other Private Service Job
○ Public/Government
○ Self-Employed
○ Own/Family Business
○ Teaching
○ Others

6.3 [Page ID: 1350840] [L]
UE_Intro_Edu

The Next Section is About You and Your Husband's Educational Qualification

6.4 [Page ID: 1348145] [L]
UE_EDU_Q1

Please indicate your Educational Qualification

	Yes	No	Continuing
B.A(P), B.A(H) B.COM(P), B.COM(H), B.SC, B.Sc (H), etc (All Non-Technical Degrees/Diplomas)	○	○	○
BBA, BCA, BIT, BE, etc (All Technical Degrees/Diplomas)	○	○	○
M.A, M.COM, M.Sc, etc (All Non-Technical Degrees/Diplomas)	○	○	○
MBA, MCA, ME, MIT, M.Tech, etc (All Technical Degrees/Diplomas)	○	○	○

Please write the year of completion of your Bachelor's (or equivalent to Bachelor's) education

[   ]

Please indicate your husband's Educational Qualification

	Yes	No	Continuing
B.A(P), B.A(H) B.COM(P), B.COM(H), B.SC, B.Sc (H), etc (All Non-Technical Degrees/Diplomas)	○	○	○

BBA, BCA, BIT, BE, etc (All Technical Degrees/Diplomas)	○	○	○
M.A, M.COM, M.Sc, etc (All Non-Technical Degrees/Diplomas)	○	○	○
MBA, MCA, ME, MIT, M.Tech, etc (All Technical Degrees/Diplomas)	○	○	○

Does your husband earn money?

○ Yes
○ No

6.4.1.1 [Page ID: 1348154] [L]
hus job

In which service/sector does your husband work ?

Please Select
Private Service
Public / Government Service
Own business
Self-Employed
Others (please write)

Others (please write) [_____]

Does your husband have a regular income ?

○ Yes
○ No

What is your husband's annual gross salary ?

Please Select
1 Lakh - 3 Lakh
3 Lakh - 6 Lakh
6 Lakh - 9 Lakh
9 Lakh - 12 Lakh
Above 12 Lakh

6.4.2 [Page ID: 1348156] [L]
UE_hus_income

Do you have other source of income (for example, from property, rent etc) ?

○ Yes
○ No

6.4.3 [Page ID: 1350744] [L]
UE_Intro_Job History

The Next Section is About Your Work Life While Contain Questions Related to Your Past and Current Jobs

Please Note: Jobs undertaken during or before Bachelor's education will NOT be considered here. Therefore, please count all your jobs you joined after completing your Bachelor's (or equivalent) education.

6.4.4 [Page ID: 1352883] [L]
UE_Jobs Quitted

How many jobs you have quitted till now since completing your Bachelor's education ?

Please Select
1
2
3
4
5
6 or more

6.4.5.1 [Page ID: 1348159] [L]
UE_Job_History

Your First Job since completing Bachelor's education

(Please carefully select)

| | **Month** | **Year** |

You started your first job in

Please Select
January
February
March
April
May
June
July
August
September
October
November
December

Please Select
2011
2010
2009
2008
2007
2006
2005
2004
2003
2002
2001
2000
1999
1998
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1987
1986
1985
1984
1983
1982
1981
1980
Before 1980

Please select the Sector/ Industry you worked in your first job ?

| ○ | IT / ITES / BPO / KPO | ○ | Others |

Your first job was

| ○ | Full-time | ○ | Part-time |

You worked in first job in

| ○ | One fixed shift | ○ | Flexible shifts |

In the job hierarchy of your organisation, you worked at which level ?

Please indicate

| | From Low | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | To High |

When did you quit your first job ?

(Please carefully select)

| **Month** | **Year** |

Please Select
2011
2010
2009
2008
2007
2006
2005
2004
2003
2002
2001
2000
1999
1998
1997
1996
1995
1994
1993
1992
1991
1990
1989
1988
1987
1986
1985
1984
1983
1982
1981
1980
Before 1980

Please Select
January
February
March
April
May
June
July
August
September
October
November
December

What was your main reason for quitting the job ?

Please Select
Studies
Marriage
Childbirth
Childcare
Parents care at home
Parent in laws care at home
Prolonged illness/Poor health
Job timing was un-compatible with family demands
You joined good salary job somewhere else
You did not like the company
You did not like the job
You did not want to do job anymore
Your husband transferred in another city
You were dismissed from the job
Others (please write)

Others (please write)

6.4.6.1 [Page ID: 1348168] [L]
UE_JS 2_

Your Second Job since completing Bachelor's education

(Please carefully select)

Month	Year

You started your second job in

| Please Select |
| January |
| February |
| March |
| April |
| May |
| June |
| July |
| August |
| September |
| October |
| November |
| December |

| Please Select |
| 2011 |
| 2010 |
| 2009 |
| 2008 |
| 2007 |
| 2006 |
| 2005 |
| 2004 |
| 2003 |
| 2002 |
| 2001 |
| 2000 |
| 1999 |
| 1998 |
| 1997 |
| 1996 |
| 1995 |
| 1994 |
| 1993 |
| 1992 |
| 1991 |
| 1990 |
| 1989 |
| 1988 |
| 1987 |
| 1986 |
| 1985 |
| 1984 |
| 1983 |
| 1982 |
| 1981 |
| 1980 |
| Before 1980 |

Please select the Sector/ Industry you worked in your second job ?

○ IT / ITES / BPO / KPO   ○ Others

Your second job was

○ Full-time   ○ Part-time

You worked in second job in

○ One fixed shift   ○ Flexible shifts

In the job hierarchy of your organisation, you worked at which level ?

Please indicate

From Low ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ To High

Please indicate the level of agreement that most accurately reflects your opinion about your second job as compared to your first job

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
You got higher position	○	○	○	○	○
Less stressful	○	○	○	○	○
Favourable working time	○	○	○	○	○
Cooperation from colleague & seniors	○	○	○	○	○
Career opportunities	○	○	○	○	○
Better income and other monetary benefits	○	○	○	○	○

When did you quit your second job ?

(Please carefully select)

Month   **Year**

You started your third job in

Please Select
January
February
March
April
May
June
July
August
September
October
November
December

Please Select
2011
2010
2009
2008
2007
2006
2005
2004
2003
2002
2001
2000
1999
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1994
1993
1992
1991
1990
1989
1988
1987
1986
1985
1984
1983
1982
1981
1980
Before 1980

Please select the Sector/ Industry you worked in your third job ?

○ IT / ITES /
BPO / KPO   ○ Others

Your third job was

○ Full-time   ○ Part-time

You worked in third job in

○ One fixed
shift   ○ Flexible
shifts

In the job hierarchy of your organisation, you worked at which level ?

Please indicate

From Low ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ To High

Please indicate the level of agreement that most accurately reflects your opinion about your third job as compared to your second job

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
You got higher position	○	○	○	○	○
Less stressful	○	○	○	○	○
Favourable working time	○	○	○	○	○
Cooperation from colleague & seniors	○	○	○	○	○
Career opportunities	○	○	○	○	○
Better income and other monetary benefits	○	○	○	○	○

When did you quit your third job ?

(Please carefully select)

Month   **Year**

Please Select
2011
2010
2009
2008
2007
2006
2005
2004
2003
2002
Please Select
January
February
March
April
May
June
July
August
September
October
November
December

2001
2000
1999
1998
1997
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1982
1981
1980
Before 1980

What was your main reason for quitting the job ?

Please Select
Studies
Marriage
Childbirth
Childcare
Parents care at home
Parent in laws care at home
Prolonged illness/Poor health
Job timing was un-compatible with family demands
You joined good salary job somewhere else
You did not like the company
You did not like the job
You did not want to do job anymore
Your husband transferred in another city
You were dismissed from the job
Others (please write)

Others (please write) [   ]

6.4.8.1   [Page ID: 1348186] [L]
UE_JS 4_

Your Fourth Job since completing Bachelor's education

(Please carefully select)

	Month	Year

You started your fourth job in

Please Select
January
February
March
April
May
June
July
August
September
October
November
December

Please Select
2011
2010
2009
2008
2007
2006
2005
2004
2003
2002
2001
2000
1999
1998
1997
1996
1995
1994
1993
1992
1991
1990
1989
1988
1987
1986
1985
1984
1983
1982
1981
1980
Before 1980

Please select the Sector/ Industry you worked in your fourth job ?

○ IT / ITES / BPO / KPO   ○ Others

Your fourth job was

○ Full-time   ○ Part-time

You worked in fourth job in

○ One fixed shift   ○ Flexible shifts

In the job hierarchy of your organisation, you worked at which level ?

Please indicate

From Low ○ ○ ○   ○ ○ To High

Please indicate the level of agreement that most accurately reflects your opinion about your fourth job

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
You got higher position	○	○	○	○	○
Less stressful	○	○	○	○	○
Favourable working time	○	○	○	○	○
Cooperation from colleague & seniors	○	○	○	○	○
Career opportunities	○	○	○	○	○
Better income and other monetary benefits	○	○	○	○	○

When did you quit your fourth job ?

(Please carefully select)

Month	Year

Please Select
2011
2010
2009
2008
2007
2006
2005
2004
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2000
1999
1998
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1992
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1989
1988
1987
1986
1985
1984
1983
1982
1981
1980
Before 1980

Please Select
January
February
March
April
May
June
July
August
September
October
November
December

What was your main reason for quitting the job ?

Please Select
Studies
Marriage
Childbirth
Childcare
Parents care at home
Parent in laws care at home
Prolonged illness/Poor health
Job timing was un-compatible with family demands
You joined good salary job somewhere else
You did not like the company
You did not like the job
You did not want to do job anymore
Your husband transferred in another city
You were dismissed from the job
Others (please write)

Others (please write)

6.4.9.1 [Page ID: 1348190] [L]
UE_JS 5_

Your Fifth Job since completing Bachelor's education

(Please carefully select)

	Month	Year

You started your fifth job in

Please Select
January
February
March
April
May
June
July
August
September
October
November
December

Please Select
2011
2010
2009
2008
2007
2006
2005
2004
2003
2002
2001
2000
1999
1998
1997
1996
1995
1994
1993
1992
1991
1990
1989
1988
1987
1986
1985
1984
1983
1982
1981
1980
Before 1980

Please select the Sector/ Industry you worked in your fifth job ?

○	IT / ITES / BPO / KPO	○	Others

Your fifth job was

○	Full-time	○	Part-time

You worked in fifth job in

○	One fixed shift	○	Flexible shifts

In the job hierarchy of your organisation, you worked at which level ?

Please indicate

From Low	○	○	○	○	○	To High

Please indicate the level of agreement that most accurately reflects your opinion about your fifth job as compared to your fourth job

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
You got higher position	○	○	○	○	○
Less stressful	○	○	○	○	○
Favourable working time	○	○	○	○	○
Cooperation from colleague & seniors	○	○	○	○	○
Career opportunities	○	○	○	○	○
Better income and other monetary benefits	○	○	○	○	○

When did you quit your fifth job ?

(Please carefully select)

Month	Year

Please Select
2011
2010
2009
2008
2007
2006
2005
2004
2003
2002
2001
2000
1999
1998
1997
1996
1995
1994
1993
1992
1991
1990
1989
1988
1987
1986
1985
1984
1983
1982
1981
1980
Before 1980

Please Select
January
February
March
April
May
June
July
August
September
October
November
December

What was your main reason for quitting the job ?

Please Select
Studies
Marriage
Childbirth
Childcare
Parents care at home
Parent in laws care at home
Prolonged illness/Poor health
Job timing was un-compatible with family demands
You joined good salary job somewhere else
You did not like the company
You did not like the job
You did not want to do job anymore
Your husband transferred in another city
You were dismissed from the job
Others (please write)

Others (please write)

6.4.10.1 [Page ID: 1348194] [L]
UE_JS 6_

Your Sixth Job since completing Bachelor's education

(Please carefully select)

Month   **Year**

You started your sixth job in

Please Select
January
February
March
April
May
June
July
August
September
October
November
December

Please Select
2011
2010
2009
2008
2007
2006
2005
2004
2003
2002
2001
2000
1999
1998
1997
1996
1995
1994
1993
1992
1991
1990
1989
1988
1987
1986
1985
1984
1983
1982
1981
1980
Before 1980

Please select the Sector/ Industry you worked in your sixth job ?

○	IT / ITES / BPO / KPO	○	Others

Your sixth job was

○	Full-time	○	Part-time

You worked in sixth job in

○	One fixed shift	○	Flexible shifts

In the job hierarchy of your organisation, you worked at which level ?

Please indicate

From Low ○   ○   ○   ○   ○ To High

Please indicate the level of agreement that most accurately reflects your opinion about your sixth job as compared to your fifth job

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
You got higher position	○	○	○	○	○
Less stressful	○	○	○	○	○
Favourable working time	○	○	○	○	○
Cooperation from colleague & seniors	○	○	○	○	○
Career opportunities	○	○	○	○	○
Better income and other monetary benefits	○	○	○	○	○

When did you quit your sixth job ?

(Please carefully select)

Month	Year

Please Select
2011
2010
2009
2008
2007
2006
2005
2004
2003
2002
2001
2000
1999
1998
1997
1996
1995
1994
1993
1992
1991
1990
1989
1988
1987
1986
1985
1984
1983
1982
1981
1980
Before 1980

Please Select
January
February
March
April
May
June
July
August
September
October
November
December

What was your main reason for quitting the job ?

Please Select
Studies
Marriage
Childbirth
Childcare
Parents care at home
Parent in laws care at home
Prolonged illness/Poor health
Job timing was un-compatible with family demands
You joined good salary job somewhere else
You did not like the company
You did not like the job
You did not want to do job anymore
Your husband transferred in another city
You were dismissed from the job
Others (please write)

Others (please write) _____

6.5 [Page ID: 1350743] [L]
Intro_UE_Motherhood

The Next Section Contains Questions Related to Your Marriage and Motherhood Status

6.6 [Page ID: 1348200] [L]
UE_Motherhood

What was your employment status at the time of your marriage ?

Please Select
I was not working
I had quitted the job before
I was working but later took a leave for marriage

Are you currently pregnant ?

○ Yes
○ No

6.7.1 [Page ID: 1349400] [L]
UE_MO_curently pregn_Q

Which month are you in ?

Please Select
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9

6.8 [Page ID: 1350769] [L]
UE_mother_quest

Are you currently a mother ?

○ Yes
○ No

6.9.1 [Page ID: 1348212] [L]
UE_Mo_yes

How many children currently do you have ?

Please Select
1 child
2 children
3 children
4 children or more

6.9.2.1 [Page ID: 1348223] [L]
UE_Child 1

About your First Child

	Month	Year
		Please Select
		2011
		2010
		2009
		2008
		2007
		2006
		2005
		2004
		2003
		2002
		2001
		2000
	Please Select	1999
	January	1998
	February	1997
	March	1996
	April	1995
	May	1994
Date of Birth of your first child	June	1993
	July	1992
	August	1991
	September	1990
	October	1989
	November	1988
	December	1987
		1986
		1985
		1984
		1983
		1982
		1981
		1980
		Before 1980

What was your employment status at the beginning of pregnancy ?

Please Select
Unemployed
Employed but later quitted the job
Employed but later took a maternity leave

6.9.2.2.1 [Page ID: 1348227] [L]
UE_child 1_Filter_pregnancy leave

	Before childbirth	After childbirth
Your total maternity leave at the birth of your first child was	Please Select Less than 1 month 1 Month 1 - 2 Months 2 - 3 Months 3 - 4 Months 4 - 5 Months 5 - 6 Months 6 - 7 Months 7 - 8 Months	Please Select Less than 1 month 1 Month 1 - 2 Months 2 - 3 Months 3 - 4 Months 4 - 5 Months 5 - 6 Months 6 - 7 Months 7 - 8 Months 8 - 9 Months 9 - 10 Months 10 - 11 Months 11 - 12 Months More than 12 months

Your maternity leave was

- ○ Paid
- ○ Unpaid
- ○ Partly Paid/ Partly Unpaid

Please indicate the level of agreement that most accurately reflects your Experience after Childbirth in the same organisation

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
You joined the same position at which you were working before	○	○	○	○	○
You worked less number of hours	○	○	○	○	○
You worked in flexible shifts	○	○	○	○	○
Your husband was given paternity leave	○	○	○	○	○

6.9.2.3.1 [Page ID: 1348391] [L]
UE_Child 2_

About your Second Child

	Month	Year
Date of Birth of your second child	Please Select January February March April May June July August September October November December	Please Select 2011 2010 2009 2008 2007 2006 2005 2004 2003 2002 2001 2000 1999 1998 1997 1996 1995 1994 1993 1992 1991 1990 1989 1988 1987 1986 1985 1984 1983 1982 1981 1980 Before 1980

What was employment status at the beginning of pregnancy ?

Please Select
Unemployed
Employed but later quitted the job
Employed but later took a maternity leave

6.9.2.3.2.1 [Page ID: 1348402] [L]
UE_CH 2_Filter_pregnancy_Q1

	Before childbirth	**After childbirth**
Your total maternity leave at the birth of your second child was	Please Select Less than 1 month 1 Month 1 - 2 Months 2 - 3 Months 3 - 4 Months 4 - 5 Months 5 - 6 Months 6 - 7 Months 7 - 8 Months	Please Select Less than 1 month 1 Month 1 - 2 Months 2 - 3 Months 3 - 4 Months 4 - 5 Months 5 - 6 Months 6 - 7 Months 7 - 8 Months 8 - 9 Months 9 - 10 Months 10 - 11 Months 11 - 12 Months More than 12 months

Your maternity leave was

○ Paid
○ Unpaid
○ Partly Paid/ Partly Unpaid

Please indicate the level of agreement that most accurately reflects your Experience after Childbirth in the same organisation

	Strongly Agree	**Agree**	**Neither Agree Nor Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
You joined the same position at which you were working before	○	○	○	○	○
You worked less number of hours	○	○	○	○	○
You worked in flexible shifts	○	○	○	○	○
Your husband was given paternity leave	○	○	○	○	○

6.9.2.3.3.1 [Page ID: 1348662] [L]
UE_CH 3_Filter_Q

About your Third Child

	Month	**Year**

Date of Birth of your third child

| Please Select |
| January |
| February |
| March |
| April |
| May |
| June |
| July |
| August |
| September |
| October |
| November |
| December |

| Please Select |
| 2011 |
| 2010 |
| 2009 |
| 2008 |
| 2007 |
| 2006 |
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| 1991 |
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| 1989 |
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| 1987 |
| 1986 |
| 1985 |
| 1984 |
| 1983 |
| 1982 |
| 1981 |
| 1980 |
| Before 1980 |

What was your employment status at the beginning of pregnancy ?

| Please Select |
| Unemployed |
| Employed but later quitted the job |
| Employed but later took a maternity leave |

6.9.2.3.3.2.1 [Page ID: 1348665] [L]
UE_CH 3_Pregnancy leave

	Before childbirth	After childbirth
Your total maternity leave at the birth of your third child was	Please Select Less than 1 month 1 Month 1 - 2 Months 2 - 3 Months 3 - 4 Months 4 - 5 Months 5 - 6 Months 6 - 7 Months 7 - 8 Months	Please Select Less than 1 month 1 Month 1 - 2 Months 2 - 3 Months 3 - 4 Months 4 - 5 Months 5 - 6 Months 6 - 7 Months 7 - 8 Months 8 - 9 Months 9 - 10 Months 10 - 11 Months 11 - 12 Months More than 12 months

---

Your maternity leave was

○ Paid
○ Unpaid
○ Partly Paid/ Partly Unpaid
○ Please Select

Please indicate the level of agreement that most accurately reflects your Experience after Childbirth in the same organisation

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
You joined the same position at which you were working before	○	○	○	○	○
You worked less number of hours	○	○	○	○	○
You worked in flexible shifts	○	○	○	○	○
Your husband was given paternity leave	○	○	○	○	○

6.9.2.3.3.3.1 [Page ID: 1348676] [L]
UE_CH 4_Q

About your Fourth Child

	Month	Year

Year dropdown:
Please Select
2011
2010
2009
2008
2007
2006
2005
2004
2003
2002
2001
2000
1999
1998
1997
1996
1995
1994
1993
1992
1991
1990
1989
1988
1987
1986
1985
1984
1983
1982
1981
1980
Before 1980

Month dropdown:
Please Select
January
February
March
April
May
June
July
August
September
October
November
December

Date of Birth of your fourth child

What was your employment status at the beginning of pregnancy ?

Please Select
Unemployed
Employed but later quitted the job
Employed but later took a maternity leave

6.9.2.3.3.3.2.1 [Page ID: 1348680] [L]
UE_CH 4_Pregnancy Q

	Before childbirth	After childbirth

Your total maternity leave at the birth of your fourth child was

Before childbirth dropdown:
Please Select
Less than 1 month
1 Month
1 - 2 Months
2 - 3 Months
3 - 4 Months
4 - 5 Months
5 - 6 Months
6 - 7 Months
7 - 8 Months

After childbirth dropdown:
Please Select
Less than 1 month
1 Month
1 - 2 Months
2 - 3 Months
3 - 4 Months
4 - 5 Months
5 - 6 Months
6 - 7 Months
7 - 8 Months
8 - 9 Months
9 - 10 Months
10 - 11 Months
11 - 12 Months
More than 12 months

Your maternity leave was

○ Paid
○ Unpaid
○ Partly Paid/ Partly Unpaid

Please indicate the level of agreement that most accurately reflects your Experience after Childbirth in the same organisation

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

You joined the same position at which you were working before	○	○	○	○	○
You worked less number of hours	○	○	○	○	○
You worked in flexible shifts	○	○	○	○	○
Your husband was given paternity leave	○	○	○	○	○

6.10 [Page ID: 1351679] [L]
UE_Future Mother

Would you like to have child in future ?

○ Yes
○ No

6.11.1 [Page ID: 1351692] [L]
UE_Fut_Moth-NM

Please indicate the level of agreement that closely reflects your situation when/if you will have child(ren) in future

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Your child will be looked after by you	○	○	○	○	○
You will be dependent on any family member/ relatives support for childcare	○	○	○	○	○
Do you believe that your husband will help you in childcare and household responsibilities	○	○	○	○	○

Would you like your husband to take the paternity leave ?

○ Yes
○ No
○ Not Applies to me

6.11.2.1 [Page ID: 1356620] [L]
UE_Paternity_Q

How many months would you prefer your husband to take the paternity leave ?

Please Select
Less than 1 month
1 Month
1 - 2 Months
2 - 3 Months
3 - 4 Months
4 - 5 Months
5 - 6 Months
6 - 7 Months
7 - 8 Months
8 - 9 Months
9 - 10 Months
10 - 11 Months
11 - 12 Months
More than 12 months

7 [Page ID: 1347577] [L]
About You

Please write your

Birth Year
Marriage Year

Are you originally from

Please Select
Delhi
Delhi's neighbouring areas
Other States

Total number of family members live with you (EXCLUDING you)

Please Select
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
Above 10

Please write your

Please Note: It is not mandatory for you to give us your contact details but we would be happy to have them for the announcement of the gift. Your contact details will be kept absolutely confidential.

Name
Personal Email ID
Mobile number
Company name (currently working / last worked)

For Your Comments

(Please feel free to write anything you want to share with us)

8 [Page ID: 1347737] [L]
Abt researcher

If you wish to know more about the research project or about me you can contact at the following address:

Name- Jagriti

Email ID- jagriti.jagriti@stud.uni-goettingen.de

Mobile- +91 8130122011

9 [Page ID: 1339144] [L]
Final page

Thank you so much indeed for participating in our survey and devoting your precious time.

Have a nice time ahead! You can now close the window.

Close window