

Employment and Wage Distribution in Indian Labour Market

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ABSTRACT

Informal activities are concentrated in the areas that belong to socio-economic deprivation. Production and employment are the key indicators to measure the performance of an informal economy. These factors have significant effects on the economy because most of the workforce about 90% are engaged in these informal economic activities and more than half of the total GDP is derived alone from these sectors. The reduction in state control and market through disinvestment, withdrawal of subsidies, reduction of public expenditure for welfare etc., are the leading cause of extensive growth of the informal labour market. Slow Industrial progress has reduced formal employment opportunities for men and women and pushed them into the informal sector as an alternative source of livelihood.

1. Introduction

Before the concept of the informal sector, several consortiums such as, 'organized and unorganized', 'modern and traditional' and 'capitalist and subsistence sector' have been used for analyzing the dichotomous nature of an urban economy. These two sectors analyzed the unique characteristics by prominence policies for the growth of the first sector while neglecting the other. Some social scientists argued that the two-way classification of the urban economy is inadequate as the informal sector itself could be broken into two sub-sectors: (a) an irregular sector, and (b) the informal sector proper. The dualist frame has been claimed to be more useful in the analysis of an urban economy. They have also been referred to as the 'Upper' and 'Lower' strata of the urban economy. While these strata emphasize the distinctive organization of production activities in terms of employment and income structure and several new characteristics of the urban economy. It is also perceived as a structural imbalance between 'rich' and 'impoverished' sectors in which the former is based on money, capacity and technology imported.

The process of globalization has increased in formalization through more freedom in the movement of capital across the boundary of nations. Globalization entails a reduction in state control of administering prices, privatization of state assets, reduction of direct and indirect taxes, reduction or cutting back public productive investment or reduction of subsidies to the farmers to reduce the fiscal deficit and encourage trade liberalization, and liberalization of current and capital account transactions. Globalization introduces new technologies, easing the process of integrating markets and opportunities for free mobility etc. But from the perspective of the labour market, it has created a division between skilled and unskilled workers, male and female workers and formal and informal workers. Globalization often affects the relative demands for skilled and unskilled workers and the workers from developing countries substitute low-skilled workers in advanced countries through contraction, sub-contraction etc. The informal sector is responsible for those corporations that have no legal status or which do not have normal company accounts. In addition to non-corporate, private or partnership enterprises that include

enterprises run by cooperative companies, trust and private limited companies involved in the production of products or facilities with the main aim of providing employment and revenue for the organized sector. The generation of job opportunities in the unorganized sector was influenced by factors such as the limited work absorption capacity of the organized sector and by the structural adjustment strategies implemented by many emerging nations. Although some professions may have significant societal hindrances, for them there are no obstacles to entrance or departure from this sector in general.

2. Research Problem

Migration: Studies show that the internal movement of the workforce is more common in impoverished countries than in industrialized ones across the globe. It is essential to discuss the problem related to mobility, particularly in emerging nations such as India, since it may lead to larger growth in poverty, hunger, illness and violence etc. Indian population lives in extreme poverty and vulnerable conditions, and thus it is known that India is home to the destitute. The expedition for work and shelter to alleviate this abject poverty contributes to an increase in urban populations because migrants locate work and shelter in urban areas. To get better work and survival in the urban areas, they left behind poor employment combined with adequate living conditions in rural areas. Thus, migration is a never-ending issue and has potential for research work.

Underage Workers: Child labour is work which damages children physically and psychologically, depletes their energy and deprives them of their childhood, potential, and dignity. Child labour prohibits children from attending school, thereby hampering their education. In India child labour is a major problem that grows day by day and reduces it instead, in the same way that other countries do. The Indian government indicates that child labour is decreasing in India, while the truth is something different. The current difficulty is that the government itself does not want to combat this problem of child labour since these youngsters contribute seven per cent of its GDP. Moreover, when we look at overall statistics, we can see that more youngsters suffer forced work than voluntarily

engage in work. Child labour violates the core fundamental right to education for normal children and denies the right to education. However, experts believe that child labour is due to poverty, a lack of orphan homes, a lack of appropriate training, a lack of vocational education, a weak jurisdiction, a caste and creed scheme, and a lack of social protection. In the end, nothing seems to be brought down because of the lack of government management and thus it is a potential issue for research work.

Social Protection: Social security in the Indian context is an integrated strategy that aims at preventing deprivation, guaranteeing the person with his or her dependents the basic minimum revenue and preventing any concerns. The idea of social security is in fact for all inhabitants of the country but a constant overview of the informal sector leads us into the future when we discover a big difference between the wealthy and the poor, and it will then be extremely hard for the poor to survive. Social security is an important issue of the productivity of the whole Indian economy and has a negative impact on private savings and future investment. The well-being of such employees can only prevent and reach every individual in need by implementing social security programs. Government and policymakers must be more focused to give positive thought to the social security of its citizens.

3. Objectives

This study has the primary goal to analyze the effect of globalization on the informal sector of India. The second objective is to study the trends in labour-force participation with the share of engagement in work and wage earning.

4. Data Source and Methodology

The secondary data from the NSSO have been used to analyze and find the objective of the research. NSSO provides four distinct job estimations based on the typical state, present status and current daily status of three activities classification methods. The NSSO defines the Principal Status as the status of activity for a person who spent a relatively lengthy time within 365 days before the survey date. The research utilizes job estimates based on the normal status or subsidiary status. The research is based on the Employment Schedule of the National Sample Survey Data 2011-12, 68th round survey. NSSO categorizes the people respective to their status of employment (NSSO 2013). Thus, we may estimate changes in the involvement of the workers and causes of the engagement of the female workforce.

5. Literature Review

The writings of Hart, Harris, and Todaro (1970) have provided a significant source of study on the conceptualizing of informality in emerging countries. There are five classifications of informal sector theories:

Classical/Marxian Approach: According to the Marxist paradigm, capital and labour are considered distinct economic entities, and there is no space for economic entities that cannot be explained using either capital or labour. However, in many industrialized nations, unemployed people find the importance of the unorganized sector as the secondary option for service opportunities. "Economic space for employees to participate in economic activities that vary greatly from the capitalist production organization," as Sanyal (2007), Chatterjee (2008)

and Bhattacharya (2009) explain. Informal sector work is mostly made up of self-employment, a passive kind of labour-based job in which an individual is solely separated from financial, professional, and regular wage-based work. The demands of competition and globalization, while these units are located in non-capitalist production areas, lead to the integration of informal units into global and domestic capital through subcontracting and relocation processes. So, the informal industry is linked to the formal sector via force or compulsion on the market with such a perspective of the informal economy.

Dualistic Approach: ILO (1972) and Hart (1973) have popularized the notion of informality not as an inevitable result of primordial accumulation, but as an evolutionary indicator. This concept defines the informal field of income, and the lack of laws and guidelines as a collection of home and limbo activities separate from formal units. This sector arose because the contemporary industry grew slowly or could not provide it with enough employment possibilities. The proper governmental reaction was to elevate and enable units in the informal economy to expand over time. It, therefore, indicates that informality is an undeveloped and developed countries' particular problem.

Structuralist Approach: In this view, Moser and Portes (1989) consider that micro-enterprises of the informal sector act as a secondary component of the organized sector reducing the costs of input and output by inducing the competitiveness of large capitalist enterprises. This perspective also suggests that Klein businesses have more elasticity and innovated from geography-oriented companies are better generated. This approach thus considers informal sector companies as essential in economic growth, in contrast with the dualist model, at each phase of development under various modes of production, it would have to live with the informal sector and be associated with the modern industry.

An approach to legalism: This procedure argues that the stringent rules and regulations and requirements regulating the operation of a unit in the formal sector create additional difficulties for the unit to avoid formal regulations and regulations by operating in informal/unorganized industries. In the opinion of De Soto (1989), the informal sector is successful in avoiding the cost of formality in the area of stringent rules, taxation, time and effort necessary to comply with official procedures. The informality issue is no longer an exclusive development concern by such an approach because, for any growing nation, regulatory and enforcement expenses are a major problem.

Institutionalist Approach: This process is designed to target all transaction issues, both relational and organizational. This method includes the discovery of effective conditions in each kind of economic transaction. But commercial transaction parties encounter difficulties in the allocation of ex-post benefits due to the incompleteness of contracts and the unprincipled behaviour of contractual persons (Williamson 1985). Terms and conditions are either expensive or ineffectual to third parties or legal bodies. An informal entity such as norms and trust occurs as an instrument of execution and governance. As a result, informality is more common in societies without formal norms and laws. Early in the history of

financial development, informal institutions are very important in encouraging economic activity and helping to substitute for or fill in for formal institutions that are lacking or missing in many emerging countries. Because business is seen as a personal connection rather than a characteristic of the business, it is regarded as informal. On this basis, a Marxist view is comparable to an institutional approach in which informality is seen as a connection between capitalism and companies that are traditionally classified as being in a pre-capitalist economy.

6. Indian Economy and Informal Sector

The major issues in the present discussion on changes to labour legislation and the general well-being of labour in neoliberal India are important. We are aware that, under the principle of neo-liberalism, the inward-looking capital-intensive import replacement policy in developing countries has led to a prejudicial approach to agriculture and other job-intensive activities, about both domestic and foreign markets, and thus labour use has been far below potential.

Following the implementation of economic reforms, the issue of widespread unemployment and sub-employment in the Indian economy has grown increasingly severe. These changes have not only affected the quantity of work but also the quality of work. Approximately 82% of Indian workers in the informal economy are in precarious jobs. It works in highly susceptible and low-paying jobs, with a significant number of poor workers still being restrained in low-productive activities and chronic poverty. Moreover, the casualization and marginalization of the working landscape in the formal sector itself are becoming increasingly evident. In addition to such developments in employment, the majority of employees' well-being indices have been subjected to significant pressure. In the low-wage job in the unorganized sector, a certain portion of society like Women, Dalits and Adivasis occurs.

Thus, processes that are the same across the world represent the rising dominance of capital and the more significant

vulnerabilities of labour, albeit at different rates in various areas. During this time, capital has succeeded in getting unparalleled independence from public restrictions and has received enormous tax reductions. In the age of globalization, economic disparities between and within countries have grown, and labour difficulties have increased in most areas of the globe.

7. Globalization and Informal Labour Market

Liberalization is primarily aimed at improving competitiveness and decreasing government involvement to strengthen the market orientation of the economy. Further, an increase in competition across local and global markets by removing limitations on foreign direct investment was achieved with the foundation of the World Trade Organization (WTO) in 1995. Due to its extensive scope, globalization, liberalization and privatization have in general affected the organized as well as unorganized sectors of the Indian economy. Between the pre-reform and post-reform era, the performance of both industries in terms of size, revenue growth, jobs, efficiency and productivity has shifted across the whole economy.

Unorganized non-agricultural companies encompassing production, services and commerce have been covered in the past in the NSSO surveys. The NSSO 55th round included informal sector companies, where proprietary and partnership businesses were involved in the unorganized sector. 55th round the activity covered only the non-agricultural sector; in the 61st, 66th and 68th rounds the activity covered the non-agricultural sector and the AGEGC agriculture excluding crop production, crop spread, combined crop and animal production without a particular crop or animal production; the agricultural sector activities were covered. The findings of the NSSO 68th round indicate that a large number of AGEGC and non-farming employees are active in the informal sector, both in rural and urban regions.

Table 1: Informal Workers' Companies (PS+SS) AGEGC and non-farming Enterprises

Category of Workers	61 st Round (2004-05)	66 th Round (2009-10)	68 th Round (2011-12)
Rural			
Male	79.2	74.2	76.2
Female	86.4	74.4	72.7
Person	81.6	74.2	75.2
Urban			
Male	73.9	68.5	70.5
Female	65.4	61.6	63.6
Person	72.2	67.3	69.1
Rural+Urban			
Male	76.7	71.5	73.4
Female	79.7	69.8	69.2
Person	77.5	71.1	72.4

Source : NSSO 68th Round Report No 557, Page No 62, 2014

During all three rounds of the NSSO, Table 1 indicates a changing work proportion of non-agriculture in the unorganized subdivision in AGEGC and the non-agriculture workers. In the current 68th round (2011-2012), 72.4% of employees work in the AGEGC and non-farm sectors, in the 66th round (2009-2010) is 71.1% and in the 61st round (2004-05) is 77.7%. Around 75% and 69.1% were employed in urban areas and

approximately 75.2% of those involved in AGEGC and non-farm are estimated by the study to be in the 68th round of 72.4%. In the 68th cycle, evaluations of urban and rural, males and females employed by informal workers in the AGEGC and the non-farm sector, the highest figure was among men, rural 76.2%, urban (70.5%) rural and urban (73.4%); the proportion of women was 72.7%, urban (63.6%), rural and urban areas

63.4%, while women represented 72.7%. The chart shows clearly that the greatest proportion of women from rural regions was in the three rounds. In the 61st round 86.4% of men, followed in rural regions by 79.2% of women, in urban areas by

73.9% and in urban areas by 65%. In the 66th round, 71.1% were females, 74.2% of them were rural men and 68,5% were males and 61.6% were urban women and the proportion of workers involved in non-agricultural activities was 71.1%.

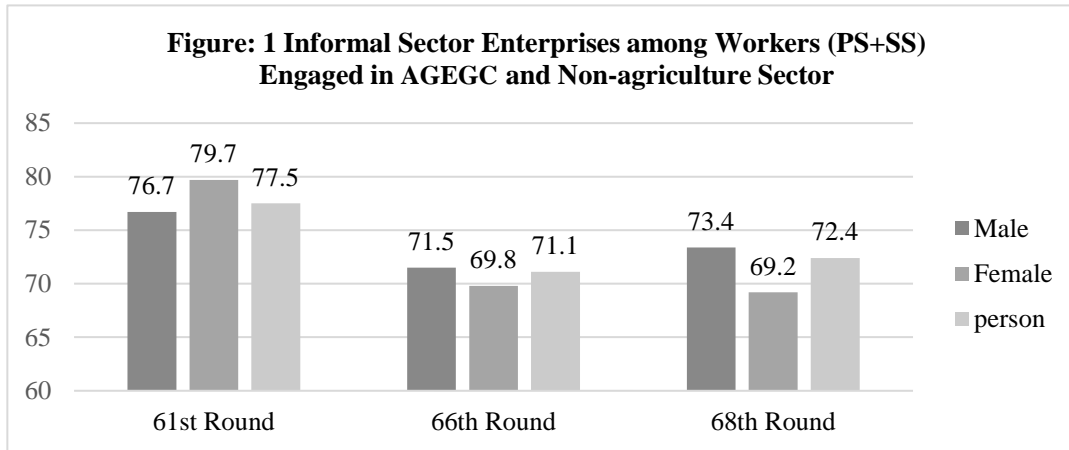


Table 2: Distributed to AGEGC and the Non-agricultural sector (2011-12) Employees in Common Status (PS+SS)

Category of Workers	AGEGC In percentage	Non-agriculture In Percentage
Rural		
Male	5.1	94.9
Female	28.8	71.2
person	11.4	88.6
Urban		
Male	1.2	98.8
Female	3.1	96.9
Person	1.6	98.4
Rural+Urban		
Male	3.3	96.7
Female	19.1	80.9
Person	6.9	93.1

Source : NSSO68th Round Report No557 Page No 63, 2014

Approximately 75.2% of the workforce was employed in rural, 69.1% in urban and 72.4% were in the AGEGC and non-farming estimated by the survey in the 68th round. Table 2 distributes the workers according to 2011-12 in the AGEGC and the non-farm sector was of normal status (pp+ss). Around 72.4% of employees were involved in the AGEGC and non-farm division, 93.1% worked in non-agriculture activities and only 6.9% worked in rural and urban regions of the AGEGC.

The greatest proportion of men in urban regions compared rural with urban, men and women were 98.8% for non-agriculture, 96.9% for females and 94.9% for men and 71.2% for women in rural areas. The proportion of employees working in AGEGC was 6.9%, with the greatest proportion of females 28.8% and 5.1% of males in rural areas, with 3.1% of females and 1.2% of males working in urban areas.

Table 3: AGEGC and Non-Agricultural Worker's Distribution

Status of Employment	Self- Employment	Regular wage/ salaried Employees	Casual Labour in Public Works	Casual Labour in Works other than Public Works
Rural				
Male	39.3	22.7	2.3	35.7
Female	57.1	14.7	11.7	16.5
person	44.0	20.6	4.8	30.7
Urban				
Male	40.4	45.3	0.4	13.9
Female	42.5	46.3	0.1	11.1
Person	40.8	45.5	0.4	13.3

Source : NSSO 68th Round Report No 557, Page No53, 2014

Table 3 shows employees working for informal and other companies via self-employer status in the AGEGC and the non-farming sector, regular wages and wage earners, informal public work and recreational work in non-governmental employment. Table 3 presents the following categories of jobs. When comparing all forms of work status, the number of independent women in rural regions was higher, 57.1% followed by 46.3% of women in urban areas working for regular wages. Among informal labours, just 0.1% of women and 0.4% of men were employed in public works in urban areas and rural

regions as casual labour, up 11.7% of women and 2.3% of men in cities. The regular percentage of wages/salaries of informal workers was high in urban areas, with women, in particular (46.3 per cent compared to males, 45.3 per cent), 22.7 % for males (rural regions) and 14.7 per cent for females (in rural areas). The proportion of casual work in jobs was lower than the proportion of casual employment in non-public works, which represented 35.7% of men and 16.5% of women in rural regions, while 13.9% were men and 11.1% of women in urban areas.

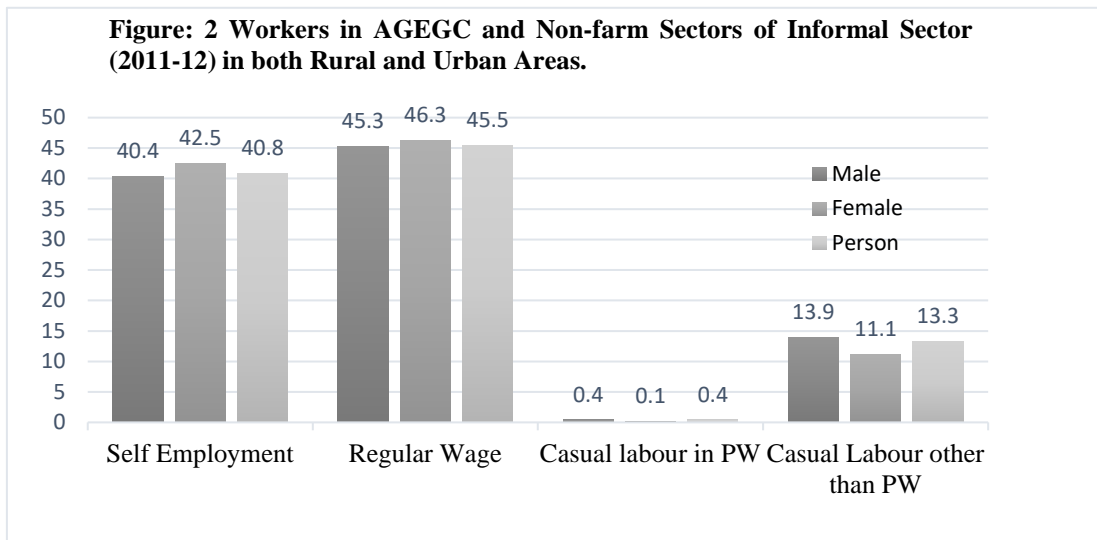


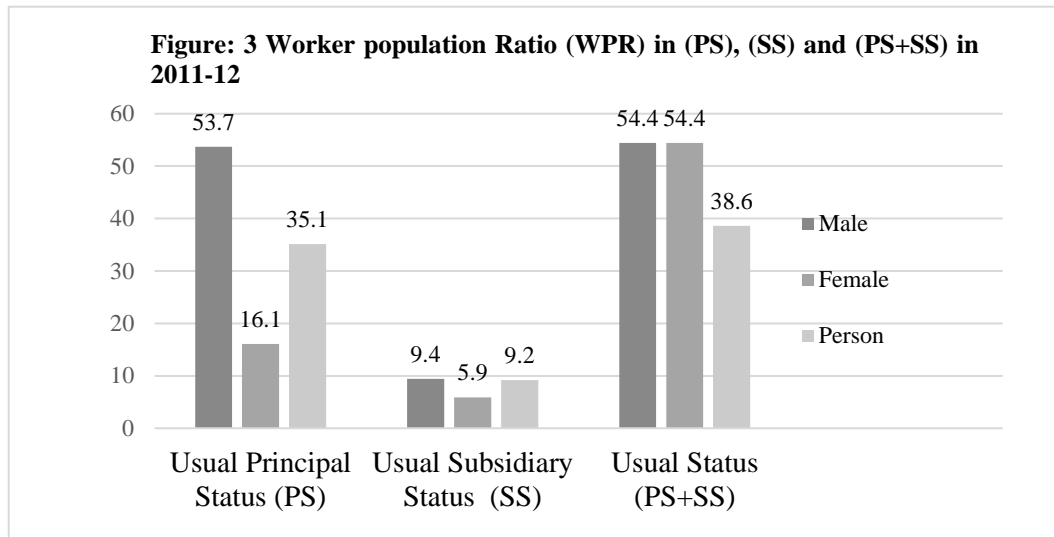
Table 4: PS, SS and PS+SS of worker population ratio WPR (2011-12)

Category of Persons	Usual Principal Status (PS)	Usual Subsidiary Status (SS)	Usual Status (PS+SS)
Rural			
Male	53.5	12.3	54.3
Female	17.6	11.5	24.8
person	35.9	11.9	39.9
Urban			
Male	54.2	2.3	54.6
Female	12.5	2.6	14.0
Person	34.2	2.4	35.5
Rural+Urban			
Male	53.7	9.4	54.4
Female	16.1	5.9	24.8
Person	35.4	9.2	38.6

Source : NSSO 68th Round Report No557 Page No 44, 2014

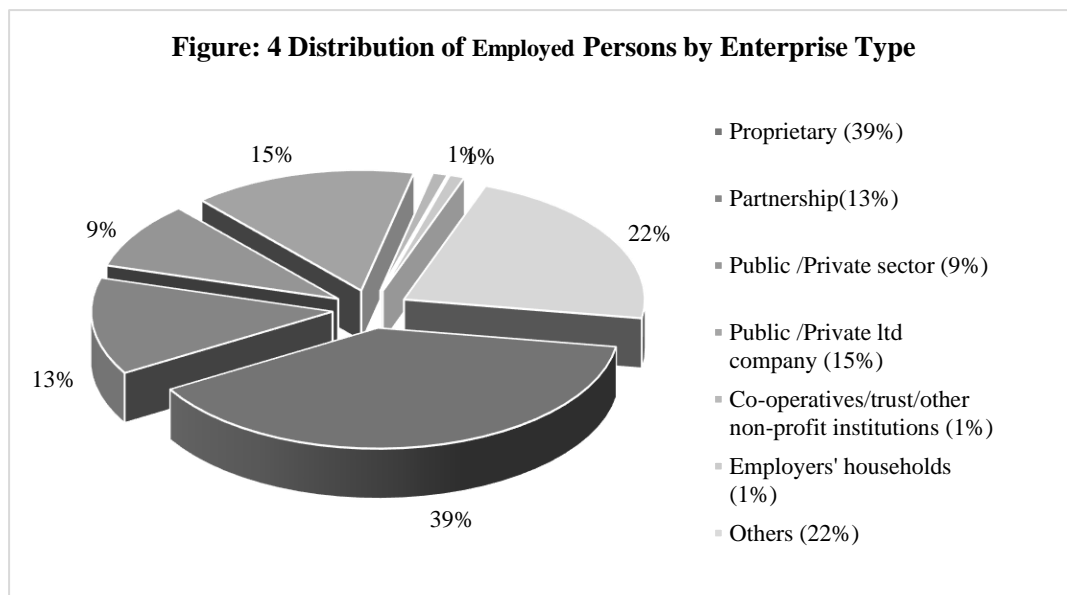
The figure shows an estimated 38.6% of the Indian workforce worked in the normal position (PS+SS), out of which 35.4% worked in the usual primary status (PS) and 9.2% worked in the usual subsidiary status (PS+SS). Table 4 indicates the proportion of the workers in normal main status (PS+SS) in Indian work (SS). In rural and 35.5% in urban regions, the standard WPR (PS+SS) was 39.9%, and in rural and urban areas it was approximately 54% higher for men, about 24.8%

for women and 14% for rural and urban areas. Data shows that approximately 35.4% of the inhabitants of India were mostly working women, of whom around 54% were males, followed by 17% by females in both rural and urban regions. Approximately 9.2% of employees were male and 11.5% were in rural regions, just 2.6% were female and 2.3% were male in urban areas.



According to the 68th Round, small firms with a total of nine and more than 10 people comprise approximately 73.7% of them working in rural areas, 79% working in women, 76.2% working in rural areas, 65.9% working in men and 62.7% working women in urban areas, and informal non-agricultural

enterprises. The lowest percentage of employees has been seen in rural companies with 6-9 employees, where women represented just 5.7% and men 5.8%. It was 10.9% female and 9.8% male in urban areas.



According to typical main status (PS), about 38.9% of employees work in a company. It shows, compared with partnership companies in both sectors, that many informal employees are involved in private companies. In proprietary firms, approximately 43.2% of men are employed in comparison to women (22.9%), while the number of women employees in the partnership business is high (about 24.7%) compared to men (9.8 %). In the comparison between rural and urban, men and women, the largest proportion in rural

regions was men (44.6%), followed by men in urban areas (39.6% in ownership).

8. Wage in a labour market

The workforce participation rate is defined by the percentage of the population out of the total employed during a specific period. NSSO also include self-employed and unpaid family workers, as well as waged and regular pay employees, casual labours, and the jobless.

Table 5: Gender-Based Use Status Distribution (for all ages)

Activity Status (Principal Status or PS)	1983	1987–88	1993–94	1999–2000	2004–05	2009–10	2011–12
Rural							
Self-employed and unpaid family work (1)	21.0	22.0	18.5	11.4	13.6	10.2	9.4
Regular wage work (2)	1.6	2.1	1.3	0.9	1.2	1.1	1.3
Casual wage work (3)	18	17	17	11	9	9	6.8
All domestic (4)	29.8	27.3	34.4	36.3	35.5	39.9	42.2
Domestic duties only (4a)	15.9	15.1	15.7	20.3	17.5	22.0	18.5
Domestic duties and allied activities (4b)	13.9	12.2	18.7	16.0	18.0	17.9	23.7
Unemployed (5)	0.6	1.4	0.5	0	0.8	0.5	0.5
Education (6)	7.6	7.2	11.7	18.4	21.3	23.8	25.1
Others (7)	21.4	23.1	16.2	22.4	18.4	15.6	14.7
LFPR (1+2+3+5)	41.2	42.5	37.3	23.3	24.6	20.8	18
LFPR + All domestic	71	69.8	71.7	59.6	60.1	60.7	60.2
Urban							
Self-employed and unpaid family work (1)	8.3	8.5	7.9	4.5	5.4	4.2	4.6
Regular wage work (2)	8.4	9.0	7.8	4.6	5.7	5.3	6.1
Casual wage work (3)	7.0	6.0	6.0	3.0	2.0	2.4	1.8
All domestic (4)	38.5	38.1	40.2	45.4	45.7	48.2	48.0
Domestic duties only (4a)	30.8	29.5	30.5	38.4	35.0	39.9	36.4
Domestic duties and allied activities (4b)	7.7	8.6	9.7	7.0	10.7	8.3	11.6
Unemployed (5)	1.5	1.9	1.8	0.9	1.4	0.9	0.9
Education (6)	18.2	18.4	21.8	25.0	25.1	25.6	26.0
Others (7)	18.1	17.9	14.1	16.9	14.5	13.4	12.6
LFPR (1+2+3+5)	25.2	25.4	23.5	13.0	14.5	12.8	13.4
LFPR + All domestic	63.7	63.5	63.7	58.4	60.2	61.0	61.4

Source: Abraham (2013) Author's calculations

Table 5, which provides statistics on the state of feminine activity, shows that the FLFPR fell from 42.5% to 18% for rural women in the period 1987–88 to 2011–12, and from 25.4–13.4% for city women. As a result, women's participation in self-employment, unpaid labour, and casual earnings all decreased. 44% of rural women, and 15% per cent of urban women, were engaged in these two activities in 1983. The percentage of women involved in this activity decreased correspondingly in 2011–2012 to 16% and 6% in rural and urban regions. Three reasons are given for the decrease in FLFPR, which results in a favourable impact on income, higher education enrolment and declining job possibilities.

In the framework of the U hypothesis, there was firstly a decrease and then a hope for growth in women's employment in India. In India, agriculture is the leading labour-absorbing sector, especially for female labours. Women are forced to offer their work in the rural labour market with low-paying jobs, which leads to them being in miserable poverty.

Economic growth and development of the nation lead to the growth of the non-farm sector and the deteriorating farm sector along with the necessity for female work decreasing. The accompanying increase in family income leads women to decrease labour supplies due to the impact on income. Women get better education and skills and return to the workforce while the economy continues to expand. The involvement of women in the workforce will thus grow. In summary, the U-hypothesis says that female participation in the labour force is high in low and high-economic-growth countries, while female participation in the labour force is low in middle-economic growth economies. In accepting this assumption, Abraham says that India is at the bottom of the U hypothesis being a middle-income economy, which leads to lesser involvement of female labours during increasing economic growth and development. He finds that the income effect must be a consequence of the women's retirement from the labour force.

Table 6: Daily Casual Labor salary earnings between the ages of 15-59.

NSSO Round	Nominal Wages (Rupees)			Real Wages (Rupees)		
	Male	Female	Increase in Male wages	Male	Female	Increase in Male Wages
Rural						
2011-12	322.28	201.56	263.8	97.8	61.163	39.32
1993-94	58.48	34.89		58.48	34.89	
Urban						
2011-12	469.87	366.15	391.75	135.71	105.75	57.59
1993-94	78.12	62.31		78.12	62.31	
Source: NSSO (2014a)						

A rise in the average salary for males should, by itself, be enough to compensate for the income loss experienced by women as a result of female employment in the labour market. The NSSO figures on nominal and real salaries in regular and temporary employment for males and women are shown in

Tables 6 and 7. The nominal earnings of casual male workers in rural and urban regions were raised by 126 and 150 between 1993-94 and 2011-12. In rural and urban regions for regular male employees 264 and 391.

Table 7: Average daily salary earnings among the ages of 15 to 59

NSSO Round	Nominal Wages (Rupees)			Real Wages (Rupees)		
	Male	Female	Increase in Male wages	Male	Female	Increase in Male Wages
Rural						
2011-12	149.32	103.28	126.14	45.31	31.34	22.13
1993-94	23.18	15.33		23.18	15.33	
Urban						
2011-12	182.04	110.62	149.66	52.58	31.95	20.2
1993-94	32.8	18.49		32.38	18.49	
Rural 'real wages' are calculated using the 'consumer price index' for agricultural labourers (1986-87) and urban real wages are calculated using 'consumer price index' for urban non-manual employees (1984-85). Source: NSSO (2014a)						

These increases in men's pay in 2011-2012 are higher than women's earnings. In rural and urban regions, the salary increases of casual men were 22 and 20, and in rural and urban areas regular male workers were 39 and 58, which in 2011-2012 was less for female casual and regular workers than their actual total income.

9. Conclusion

The involvement rate of women is much lower than that of men and thus includes a disadvantaged group. In comparison to urban, rural women have a significantly greater proportion of the workforce. In rural India, nevertheless, women are lower than their urban counterparts in the labour market. This is clear from the fact that most rural women work for more hours in harmful situations. In addition, most of the rural women work in the agriculture sector and get low income and live in vulnerable conditions. In the service sector, most urban women find employment. There are also significant salary differences between rural and urban women. Rural women get much less earnings than urban women, with little trend to decrease in disparities.

For alphabet-friendly women, WPR is greater than in women with higher education. This shows a lower number of trained and competent women engaging in low-paying unqualified occupations than before. For this purpose, active policies on the labour market should seek to accelerate the development and expansion of wage jobs beyond the present area of the organized sector. A significant proportion of newly generated employment should not be produced for relatively well-off people; thus, the development of specific skills should be visualized for the working poor. Considering the vast pool of workers impoverished, the issue simply cannot be solved by transferring them from one place to another. The government needs specific employment programs designed to provide wage jobs for disadvantaged people while reducing underemployment and increasing real pay for casual farm workers. The efficacy of such programs may be enhanced if the working poor are geographically targeted and a large proportion of total employment is represented and national minimum wages for unqualified casual workers are institutionalized.

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