

EMPLOYMENT TRENDS IN INDIAN LABOUR MARKET

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Abstract

In the informal sector, it does not appear that employees are completely unskilled, the only problem with them, their skills are developed outside the official system and they do not have adequate podiums to prove their capability. They are characterised by a low level of productivity as compared with the formal sector employees. The industry has equally, and even more competent and qualified employees who, as contractual, casual and outsourced workers, perform better than most formal workers or even the workforce, but their jobs do not get any recognition. They are also employed. The hiring and firing rules influence formal organisations themselves at critical moments. It is necessary to acknowledge the abilities of people who operate under the tag of informal workers for formal institutions and to use their skills appropriately.

Keywords: *Informal labourers, wage, employment, income, and female participation.*

Introduction

The formal and informal sectors are concerned with economic activity relating to products, services, manufacturing and distribution. The distinction must be like the economic units involved in their actions, ways and circumstances. In a detailed report on the Employment Mission in Kenya by the International Labor Organization (ILO) in 1972, the word informal/non-organized sector was first used in an official publication. Since then, numerous studies have been conducted to understand what, why and how the informal sector works. The informal sector carries out businesses that have no legal provision or have no regular accounting for operations. This sector is so essential for the economy that it has gradually become a prominent subject for research not only in economics but also in finance, sociology, anthropology etc. For further improvement and growth in this sector, many interdisciplinary writers and researchers have started to execute existing work to develop new ideas for the expansion of this sector.

Informal industries are said to be an essential source of living since immemorial as there are trivial official businesses and a diminutive alternative source of employment. At the period, when there was no alternative source of employment, this sector had been used by excess labourers to earn their livelihood through hard labour. The informal sector engaged in the unrecognised work, carried out other than in formal sectors by individuals. The sector is mainly concerned with people who are not employed in an organised sector because of a lack of training competence, lack of interest and expertise; these jobseekers ultimately represent the alternative source of employment to earn the income that is recognised as an informal industry. India grows economically, technically and industrially, but its poor are still fighting for livelihood. India has not justified itself by eliminating massive amounts of poverty with one foot on Mars and one foot on deep curses of poverty. More than 90% of the workforce, who generate 50% of GDP, have no employment safety, future insurance and health insurance in the unorganised sector. Poverty is multi-dimensional and has a direct effect on education, employment and the social and political rights of people in India. Because of poverty, individuals without basic education begin to make a living, but that leads them unhappily to times that are worse than the previous condition. Individuals have experienced growth rapidly in labour supply over time due to the issues of the informal sector.

This industry has become associated with the combination of unfettered, unqualified, low-paid and fast-food employees, because of its easy entrance. The load and vulnerabilities for the field, now known as the

non-skilled and unskilled talent sector, have increased, while the employee and employer are not mutually concerned about social security. The truth is that employees are insulted by the operators functioning in the informal sector and a large segment of the labourer's population lives in extreme poverty. The exploitation of labour in the informal non-structured sector has become clear and common, and it is frequently attributable both to the non-applicability of existing rules and to the annihilation of laws. In addition, the day-to-day instances of the informal sector include economic circumstances, lack of training, lack of motivation and lack of vocational expertise. Despite the increasing worldwide issue in the informal sector, particularly in developing nations, such as in the informal Indian industry, an appalling scenario has arisen in which the protection of workers' rights has become essential.

Research Problem

There is realistic knowledge, which is neglected in development planning, of the importance of the economy and the working conditions within the non-formal sector due to a lack of accurate statistical information on the size, distribution and economic impact of the informal sector. Increased rural landlessness, increasing urbanisation and population expansion have led to a rising workforce, that is short of organized/formal employment. Moreover, inadequate labour regulations in India promote employees' difficulties, especially those which are caused by social security, minimum wages and bonded labour. Despite the increasing literature in the informal sector, several significant problems need the government's urgent attention. Problems such as increasing migration and child labour. The biggest obstacles to a growing country are working women and social protection. The results of the informal sector are in the form of these problems as mentioned above.

Objectives of the Study

In the globalisation era, more flexibility in the flow of money and eliminating all kinds of obstacles leads to increasing informality between countries. In the early 1991's India began to integrate into the world economy by adopting the liberalisation policies for the economy by having a balance of payment, a large budget deficit and a high rate of inflation. The formal and informal sectors have changed considerably since 1991 about production, employment, earnings and working environment. Over the past two decades, the Indian economy achieved dramatic growth despite the high degree of informalisation. The globalisation trend and the process of informalisation led to a lack of safety at work, unequal pay, no wage revision and no additional benefits. It has also led to more competition among the labourers, in which employees have to do work for longer hours and get poor pay and little safeguards. So, the trends of labour force participation have changed in the economy. Keeping all the view, there are two objectives. The primary goal is to investigate the changing involvement in the workforce in India, and the secondary goal is to identify the possible reasons for the decreasing female workforce participation and the possible solutions.

Data Source and Methodology

The most important sources of information utilised in this study are NSS surveys on employment and unemployment. NSSO does surveys of approximately 5 lakes once nearly every five years. Principal status as per the national sample organisation activity over the 365 days before the survey on which a person spent relatively longer periods. If the person works under PS or SS system, the usual-status and the usual-primary-sub subsidiary status are said to be the person counted. To assess trends and patterns in labour-force participation in both rural and urban regions, reports from NSSO 43rd, 50th, 55th, 61st, 66th and 68th rounds are analysed for findings of the objectives. NSSO offers four distinct job estimates based on three business categorization methods. This research is based on secondary data analysis by using the tools of presenting bar charts two-dimensional diagrams etc. To evaluate female labour force participation, which has to be analysed with the help of the U-hypothesis based on new variables responsible for female labour force participation.

Significance of Study

In the informal labour sector, there are several problems, such as working women, child labour, migration, social security etc. This research tries to resolve the issues related to labour problems in the unorganised division of the economy. In this division, these disadvantages are exercised frequently and unemployment is now a never-ending issue for labourers. In this sector, the mistreatment of labourers occurs at all stages; they cannot receive what they deserve. Even entrepreneurs, subcontractors and suppliers abuse employees more and more for their interests without caring for someone who performs enormous labour. Informal sector problems are still unresolved and not any association or government agency is assigned a duty to protect informal employees.

In the research, the 68th Round of Sample Survey 2011-12 which is based on the Employment-Unemployment Schedule is used to find the result of the study. NSSO classifies individuals by their position as employees, therefore, we can determine who is simply engaged in home chores; who is involved in household work, as well as freely collecting, customising, weaving etc., and who works as unpaid family labour in the household survey. In our research, we have taken all three aspects into account in estimating the contribution of women to society, which goes unacknowledged and unknown. NSSO provides information to all employees regarding their industry, occupation, education level, and salaries earned. Thus, we can measure labour turnout patterns and the reasons for the decrease in female involvement in the labour force.

Literature Review

Prof. Papola believes that, based on the registration of the manufacturing business, the difference between formal and informal sector jobs may be established under the Factories Act. Registration is required under the Law when the employment volume of the company exceeds 10 power employees and 20 powerless employees. The conditions for the job, such as recruiting, working conditions, working hours, leave, wage pay, dismissals etc., are controlled after a business is registered in the factory. The terms of labour are controlled and relatively casual in the non-factory organisation. *Prof. Sethuraman* observes that the report included mainly squatter settlement enterprises as belonging to the informal sector at one point, while at another all enterprises not recognized by the government are included. In the Dipak Mazumdar report the informal sector is described as the 'unprotected' industry. He notes that the efforts of trade unions and governments are protecting jobs in the official sector, while the informal workforce is denied that. Mazumdar more clearly distinguished himself by claiming that entrance into the informal labour market is unlimited and limited by hiring criteria, standards and processes in the official labour market. *Prof. Keith Hart*, who introduced the informal sector idea into the first currency, differs formally from informal income, the latter including all non-wage revenue-based sources, whether legal or unlawful. This difference is based mostly on wages and self-employment. *Harold Lubell* noted in his Calcutta research that the informal sector provides a final-use residual labour market for self-employed individuals who generate marginal products and services without any other subsistence means. It is also a reservoir of contemporary and traditional know-how which may be productive provided they get effective demand. *Breman* defines the second as a 'workers' mass whose productivity is considerably less than it is in the contemporary metropolitan area of which the majority of these individuals are excluded and considers production method to be a foundation for the analytical difference between formal and informal sectors. According to him, the difference relates to two economic industries with their structural coherence and dynamism.

The different components of the definition of the informal field, therefore, show a wide range of diverse urban poor families, from small-scale work to self-employment, which is qualified and unqualified, including street sellers and small businesses with low and unequal incomes. This informal sector variability resulted in the quest for a uniform criterion for identifying informal industry companies. As the informal sector mostly provides jobs for urban poor people, any effort to encourage jobs and generate revenue should address the features, issues and limitations of companies rather than people.

Informal Sector and Indian Economy

Several thoughts were raised to support boosting the informal sector as a means of future development. It was claimed that the unorganised sector of the economy plays a significant role in generating additional employment by advancing or forming human capital in developing nations. This has become possible by giving access in contrast with the official sector, education institutions to training at considerably cheaper costs. Finally, the growth of the informal sector using economic planning ensured that the marginalised received an unfair distribution of development gains. Thus, the informal sector is managed in every regard as the most competent sector on the growth path.

The labour question has employed the centre stage in the political discourse of recent times. The question of the well-being of a majority of labouring people in the country is closely tied to macroeconomic policies as well as the gratitude for workers' rights. Major rights among these are the right to access basic facilities, decent work, and livelihoods. According to the International Labour Organization (ILO), labour with 'Decent Work' is an important factor for the economic development of the nations. It refers to the creation of opportunities to develop secure and productive work, provides a reasonable living income, and ensures social security for the working class. It also means that workers have the right to unite and participate in the decision-making that affects their welfare.

Employment Trends in India

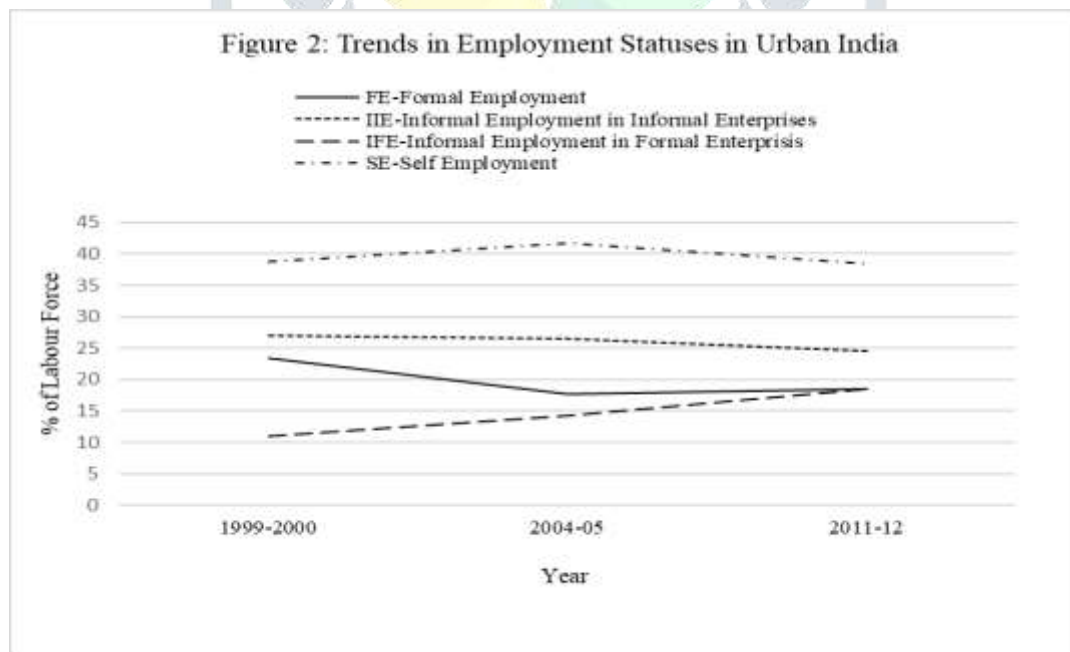
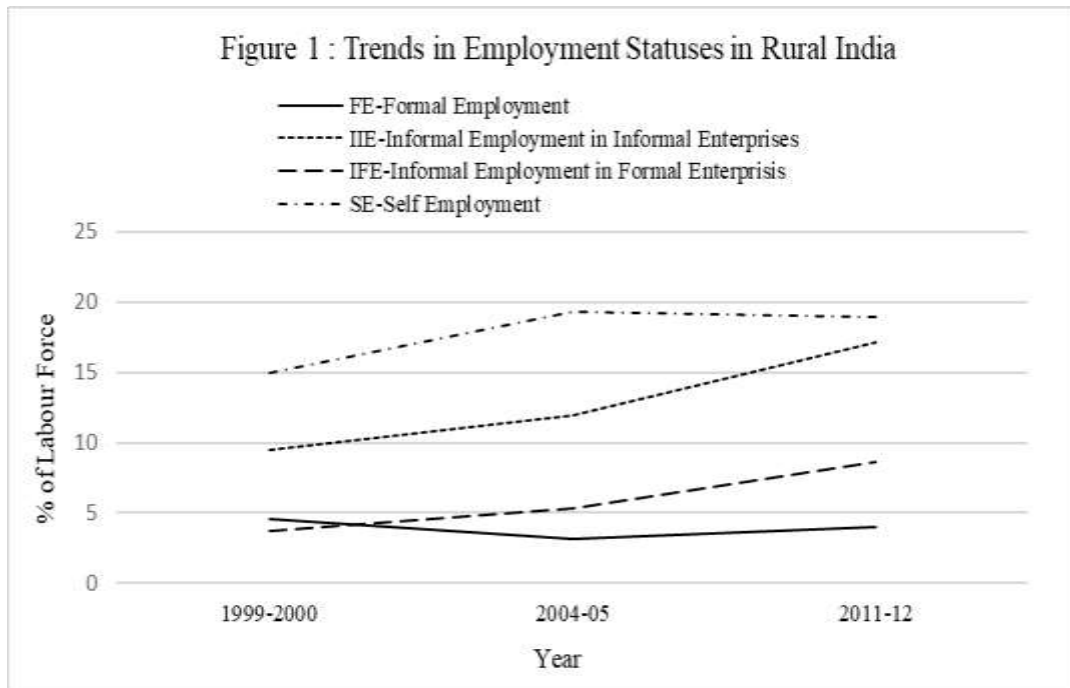
During the last three decades, despite long-term stability, some fluctuations in the labour power, and contribution rate were observed in various rounds of the NSSO surveys and such fluctuations (especially the participation rate of women at the margin) are often related to transitory features such as a good or bad agricultural year, particularly in rural areas. For example, there could have been an increase in women's involvement from 1999-2000 to 2004-05, due to the necessity to replace men working outside agriculture in a troubled farm year. Alternatively, it may represent a family income boost in a poor year. In other words, a higher participation rate neither necessarily reflects improved performance concerning employment availability nor does it indicate a durable change in the structure of the labour market; as it happens, these rates fell downwards in 2009-10 and further in 2011-12. For both urban males and females, no significant changes have been observed during the entire period of the study from 43 rounds to 68 rounds of national sample survey. However, workforce participation rates for urban females also fluctuated over this period. Despite high and sustained GDP growth for the last three decades, the overall worker-population ratio for persons as a whole does not show a rise in any significant manner during the recent period (that is, between 2004-05 and 2011-12), which indicates a situation far from satisfactory on the employment generation front. For urban females, WPR has shown a marginal rise taking the entire period from 1983 to 2011-12.

Trends in Informal Employment

According to the NCEUS 2008, "Labourers engaged in Informal sector enterprises or households, apart from the employee in the organised sector without any social security and employee in the organised sector with social security benefits". Providing insurance, provisioning fund donations or gratuitous, social security benefits may be commissions. Other employment formality indicators include leave with pay or written contracts or the status of full-time employees. The distribution of these advantages has shown to be an essential indicator for the supply of PF, namely that the majority of people without PF have not received social welfare benefits, including free health care, paid leave or a signed contract. Given that the supply of PF and other benefits overlap considerably, PF is the benchmark indication of basic social security. Any job lacking a PF provision should thus be considered informal. This classification is based on the fact that all employees are now self-employed, informal employees in IFEs, informal employees in informal businesses, formal jobs and agricultural labourers in rural areas. All employment is classified as self-employed. Private independent proprietors or partnerships under the NSSO Employment-Unemployment Survey are informal enterprises. The public sector institutions and private limited companies are official enterprises. Independent workers include self-employed workers (unemployed), unpaid employees and

employers. In rural regions, farmers are self-employed but do not include farmers who are individually classified according to their employment status.

The bulk of the workforce in India is self-employed and the most prevalent among informally employed. The percentage of self-employed people from rural and urban regions decreased somewhat from 2004-05 in figures 1 and 2. This may be because of a variety of factors including higher education students and those who retire from distressing self-employment activities.



Analysing developments in informal employment forms is particularly important because of the steady increase in corporate informality. Close to 80% of employment was produced by informal companies between 1999-2000 and 2011-12, and most have been non-formal (NCEUS 2007). Informal rural informal businesses increased from 9% in 1999-2000 to 17% in 2011-12. IIE is reasonably constant at around 25% in urban regions. On the other hand, throughout the last decade, formal businesses have contributed less than 20% to employment (NCEUS 2007). The workforce was mostly in metropolitan regions, rising from

10% of the workforce to 18% in 2011-2012. These formal companies (FEs) have decreased throughout the years to recruit formal employees. Instead, informal labourers were increasingly employed to create a new kind of informal work, namely informal work in formal companies. This trend, the informalization of the formal sector, shows that big formal companies are expanding to recruit employees in risky and unstable labour arrangements. In India, labour regulations have also made the informalization of the workers themselves indirectly easier.

Table 1 represents the wide sectoral categorization of urban and rural women's employment. The percentage of urban farmers has steadily declined in the 68th cycle, from about 29% in the 40th to roughly 11%. Regarding the structural changes after the economic reforms of 1991, this significant decrease is very much to be anticipated. However, up to the 66th round, the percentage of urban women in the production industry stayed almost steady. In the industrial sector, however, urban women rose significantly to 44%. This stagnation of urban women's employment from the 43rd to the 66th round is astonishing, due to the government's policies of export and liberalisation. This issue has been studied in depth by Chandrashekar & Ghosh (2007) and the possibility of misclassifying employment inaccessible information has been noted. They conclude that while there is no obvious trend in the employment of urban women under their main status, the employment of urban women as a subsidiary has consistently increased. They have shown that domestic sub-contracting labour is not recorded in job statistics and may thus explain the stagnation of women in the production industry. Female production jobs, however, have substantially risen between cycles 66 and 68.

Table 1: Share of Female Employment in Different Sectors

Rounds	Urban Female			Rural Female		
	Agriculture	Manufacturing	Services	Agriculture	Manufacturing	Services
43 rd	29.4	27.0	27.8	84.7	6.9	3.7
50 th	24.7	24.1	35.0	86.2	7.0	4.0
55 th	17.7	24.0	34.2	85.4	7.6	4.3
61 st	18.1	28.2	35.9	83.3	8.4	4.6
66 th	13.9	27.9	39.3	79.4	7.5	5.7
68 th	10.9	44.0	55.1	74.9	16.7	8.3

Source: Employment and Unemployment Surveys of NSS

The other services were the biggest winner. It covers high-quality and low-paying professions in both the private and public spheres. Employment in other services has risen for urban women from 28% in the 43rd to almost 55% in the 68th cycle of NSSO. To assess the nature of occupations for women in the urban sector, positions in the service industry must be examined at a disaggregated level. For rural women, the percentage of farmers decreased in the fourth round from about 85% to around 75% in the sixty-eighth round. This gradual shift from farming is called "feminising" by Srivastava & Srivastava (2009). The concentration of women in farming would not enhance their well-being much since agricultural earnings are substantially lower than non-agricultural wages. In the 68th round, the percentage of rural women involved in production was extremely low and staggered, and jobs in other services were extremely low and only slightly increased.

Women's Work Participation

India research uses state data from 1983 to 2010 not only to ask how strong the U hypothesis is across nations. There are no significant connections between the growth of the economic development of countries and labour force participation (2013). This study shows that participation is influenced by the growth mix, which forces us to pursue a description beyond the U hypothesis. The return-to-work rate for female employees in regular and casual wage employment as well as rural and urban regions is lower according to the NSSO (2014a). NSSO also notes that the average earnings for female employees in each level of education and industry are lower than those for male workers. Das (2006) estimates that the gender pay

disparity in the informal sector represents 73 per cent of discrimination. This unequal value of labour efforts supports a workplace hierarchy. It is not apparent if employers consciously try to build and perpetuate these divides, nevertheless, they profit from the unfair access to work and the return to women's work. At least in part, the gender pay difference may explain why a large percentage of individuals who withdrew from work comprised women with secondary school and college education.

A second reason for women's decreasing involvement in the workforce in India argues that greater women's education has lowered labour supplies, but it is expected to better employment and income in the coming future. The U-hypothesis, among other variables, assigns low FLFPR to poor skills and education achievements in medium-development nations. It is assumed to naturally raise the FLFPR by increasing educational achievement. The estimate from Abraham (2013) shows that throughout the decades there has been a greater percentage of women involved in schooling. Raveendran and Kannan (2012) assessed that only 27% of the total of 38.5 million women in higher education were employed between 2004-05 and 2009-10 and that the majority under the age of 25 were women who did not join the labour market. In addition, NSSO data indicate a decrease in the FLFPR between 1983 and 2009-10 in all levels of schooling despite better educational results (Abraham 2013). Thomas (2010) further research on NSSO data shows that 53% and 41% of urban and rural women, respectively, graduates withdrew from the workplace to home responsibilities between 1999-2000 and 2004-2005. Overall, 80 per cent of female graduates completed household responsibilities. Therefore, the anticipated positive relationship with labour market involvement does not seem to be the opposite of the U-hypothesis prediction. Despite the high rate of economic development and high educational attainments, it deepens the problem of the increased involvement of women in home chores even more.

The third reason for the deterioration of women's participation in the labour market refuses to accept the U-hypothesis and accuses the economy of failing to provide appropriate jobs. The question is that the decrease in the size of working women was primarily due to the reduction in the agricultural sector's capacity to absorb employees, which used to employ more than 68% of women (Mazumdar and Agnihotri 2011). This is apparent in Table 1, which mostly addresses agriculture, the significant reduction in female participation in autonomy, unpaid work and casual labour in rural areas. While the U-hypothesis seems to be corroborated, agriculture is not the only sector which has removed women. Between 2004-2005 and 2009-2010, workers in women lost 21.5 million farm jobs and 3.2 million occupations in manufacturing. There was an increase of 3.8 million from 2004-05 to 2011-12 for urban women in secondary and third sectors, but insufficient compared with a 21.5 million growth in the potential women's labour force over the same time.

Domestic Economies

According to Abraham (2013), the reporting of female housework as their primary status rose accordingly from 29.8% to 38.5%, and for rural and urban women 42.2% and 48% respectively. Income supporters believe that the 'productive status' of the family is a domestic responsibility and arises from household income Srivastava & Srivastava 2010; Abraham 2009; Himanshu 2011. This characterization was opposed by Raveendran and Kannan (2012) who observed that Indian women, who were missing in 2010 were the poorest families. Rangarajan (2014) argues that even the comparatively poor may have the impact of having money, thereby removing female work. This part thus discusses whether the connection between domestic duties and a positive revenue impact is warranted with status production.

First of all, the NSSO classifies domestic responsibilities as 'domestic activities alone' and 'domestic and related work.' The category of domestic chores and associated occupations includes the free gathering of items (vegetables, roots, firewood, livestock, etc.) stitching and cutting. Although the NSSO data does not define the 'household chores alone' category, I presumably include "family care, food preparation, cleaning, clothing, house cleaning, and home care." Secondly, I investigate whether the wide category of domestic responsibilities is justified as a status production. Figure 3 illustrates the positive connection between monthly per capita spending and household activity for urban and rural women. Nevertheless, the

relationship between monthly per capita expenditure and urban women is unfavourable among families and allies. In contrast, in the first three MPCs, the percentage of rural women engaged in domestic chores and alliances progressively increases and decreases.

Figure 4 also illustrates the relationship between domestic duty and land cultivated in India as the 'U-formed relationship' of domestic and national activities and as a negative relation between domestic and alienated activities in India. In Figure 4, the income of rural India is not the single variable related to socio-economic status. But less than 0.004 ha of land is used for household farming, 48 per cent of all rural families, and the number of women engaged in both acts is higher (NSSO 2014a). Figures 3 and 4 show that involvement in domestic activities is not favourably connected with rural and urban females but not with rural women's earthly participation, compared with the distribution of farming families and landowners. On the other hand, participating in domestic and allied activities is not positively linked to rural women's land or MPCE for rural and urban women.

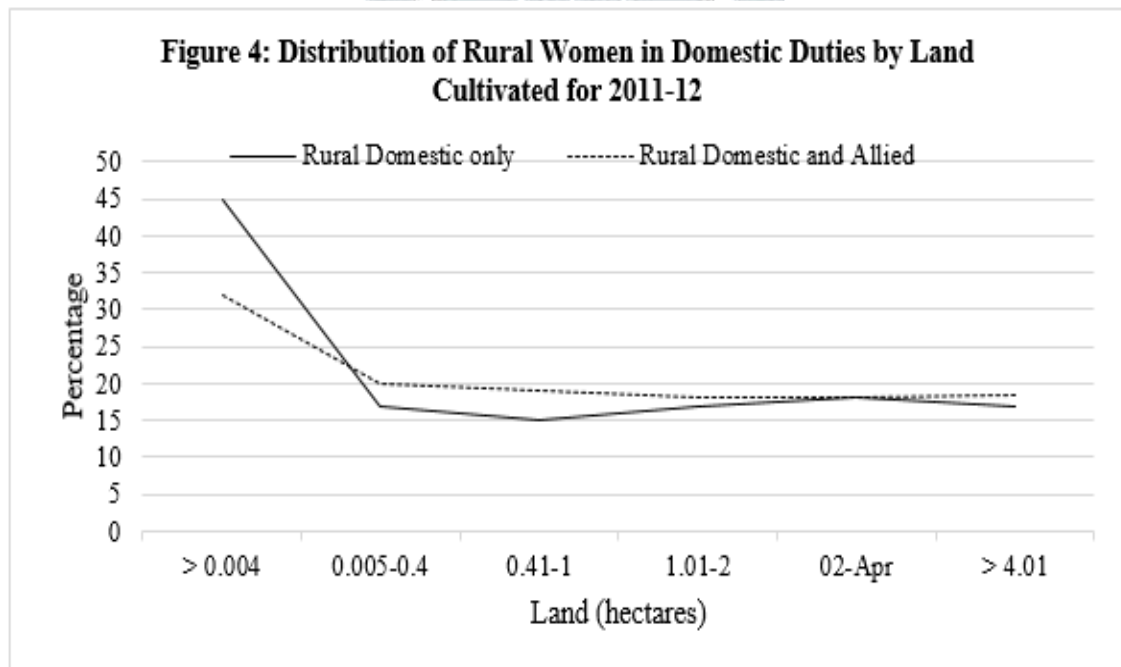
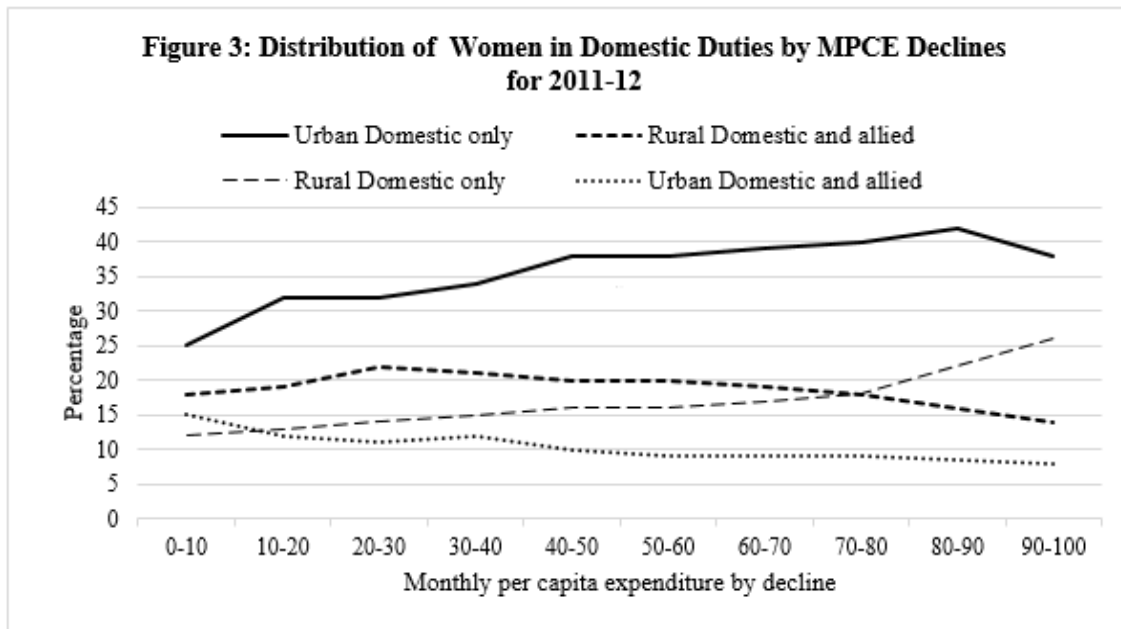


Table 2
Participation of Women (15-59 years) usually engaged
in Domestic Duties in 2011-12

Specified Activities	Rural (%)	Urban (%)
Maintenance of kitchen garden (1)	24.1	9.6
Work in household poultry, etc. (2)	38.0	14.0
Domestic agricultural activities (1 or 2)	47.3	20.0
Free collection of fish, etc. (3)	22.4	5.2
Free collection of firewood, cattle fodder, etc. (4)	57.8	17.0
Free collection of goods (3 or 4)	59.8	18.4
Food processing (own produce) (5)	11.1	2.7
Food processing (acquired) (6)	6.0	5.1
Preparing cow dung cakes (7)	56.3	20.9
Sewing tailoring, etc. (8)	9.3	39.5
Free tutoring of own and other's children (9)	5.4	12.9
Fetching water from outside house (10)	40.4	18.7
Fetching water from outside village (11)	1.0	-
Any of above items (1-11)	89.5	67.9

Source: NSSO (2014b).

More than 40% of working women in rural areas are involved in domestic and related activities in the free collecting of products, household farming, cow dung cakes and water collecting from outside their homes. But in urban regions, the number of women who engaged in free collection, preparation and customisation was 30 per cent or higher. Based on prior studies, free collection, processing of cow dung cakes and water production were consistently reliant on the poorest households. All activities are directly associated with the production of commodities for family use except for the free education of children in rural and urban areas with minimum participation. This is an argument not compelling, since market products in families with high wealth and/or access to essential infrastructure may be readily replaced by market goods.

Furthermore, NSSO data may be used to deduce women's desire and "choice" for household tasks. In 2011-2012, the main occupational status of 15.8 per cent of rural and 14.2 per cent of urban women claimed both religious and societal grounds for choosing household responsibilities. As no other family members had accomplished the task, 60.1 per cent of rural and 64.1 per cent of urban women described household responsibilities in 2012. 41.7 per cent and 49.1 per cent were prepared to work in the labour market, respectively, of women over the age of 15 who identified household obligations as their main position in rural and urban regions. Only around 5% were seeking occasional jobs and the rest regularly wanted employment in urban and rural regions. If the statistics represent the reality of the ground, both the lack of choice and a willingness to engage in the labour market are apparent. Furthermore, these statistics underline the significance for both rural and urban families of home activities and the potential economic compelling conditions for these activities, which are traditionally domestic.

Conclusion

It is a contextual patriarchy that does not force women to concentrate on the home market, nor does it force women's liberty in the increasing economy, which can be interpreted to increase the participation in the labour market of the domestic economy. We understand the women involved in the various activities of the working class and their relation to political and socio-economic bodies. The facility of production and value of the labour force influence the working group's access to public goods and social security. This means that the working classes do not have adequate well-paid jobs and the potential reproductive catastrophe, women's shifting from the main activity from work to domestic activities must be taken into account.

There is a lack of political commitment to provide stable and secure conditions to the working poor. It is true that most of the labour laws are old, archaic, and anachronistic and have primarily evolved in a knee-

perk fashion during approximately the last century and a half. Understandably they require streamlining and simplification. There has been a consensus amongst academics and activists along the entire ideological spectrum on the need for doing so for some time now. It is essential to take into account the requirements of companies and employees in the context of labour law changes. The law framework must offer all employees a primary degree of social safety, as was endorsed by the 2nd National Commission for Labour.

- According to a survey conducted by the NSSO, only 7.62 per cent of the total workforce was formal in nature, while the remaining 92.38 % of employees were informally employed. On the other hand, in the informal sector, salary is irregular, no wage revision and job security, and no social security benefits like insurance, paid leave etc. There is a need to extend these facilities in the informal or unorganised sector because globalisation leads to informalisation.
- The proportion of females is higher than males and the working conditions of these female workers are very critical in the informal sector. So, there is a need to give special attention to social security benefits, especially paid leave, maternity leave, etc.
- Education, training and training programmes to assist women to increase their productive potential are urgently needed. Furthermore, it is essential to concentrate more on providing secondary and higher education to guarantee that women employees are provided with regular jobs of good quality. In rural and urban women, the salary differences are substantial. There is also a substantial gender difference in the labour market, in addition to rural-urban pay differentials. The research thus indicates that proper government involvement and policy development are needed to solve the problem.

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