

Structural Change, Social Security Provisions, and Industrial Policy in India: An Enterprise-level Analysis of Employment Status from 2004 to 2023

Avanindra Nath Thakur

Associate Professor of Economics at the Jindal School of Government and Public Policy, O P Jindal Global University

Priyanshi Chaudhary

Research scholar (PhD candidate) at the Jindal School of Government and Public Policy, O P Jindal Global University

Abstract: In recent decades, the government's industrial policies have been characterised by an excessive focus on supply-side factors and a lack of recognition of demand deficiencies. Initiation of several schemes such as 'Startup India,' 'MUDRA loan,' 'ASPIRE,' and 'CHUNAUTI,' among many others, are some of the examples reflecting the government's strategy toward entrepreneurial development as a strategy for achieving successful economic transformation of the country. The fundamental assumption underlying this policy discourse is to provide an agent with enough information and awareness about the existing demand in the economy and to correct the supply-side factors in line with overall demand. Thus, the policies aim to overcome potential skill gaps, bridge information gaps in integrating commodity and factor markets, and correct imperfections in financial markets to overcome hurdles in achieving economic transformation. In this context, by using unit-level data from the National Sample Survey Organisation's (NSSO's) Employment-Unemployment Survey and the Periodic Labour Force Survey (PLFS), this paper proposes to explore the shifts in employment structure by mapping the structural change of the workforce from 2004 to 2023, particularly for various enterprises type. This study shall examine how workforce participation has changed within the type of enterprises (Proprietary and Partnership, Government or Public Sector, Private and Public Limited Companies, Co-operative societies or Trusts or Other non-profit institutions, Employer's Households, and Others) in both rural and urban areas for male as well as female workers leading towards generating adequate gainful employment. The paper shall investigate how social security provision has changed with time within each enterprise type. The paper shall argue that despite initiating many schemes and programs, the economy's structural transformation, particularly concerning employment, by undermining demand-side problems and ignoring the market's exclusionary nature, ultimately leads the country nowhere close to such transformation.

Keywords: Structural Transformation, Social Security, Employment Policy

JEL- J21, J28, J81, J82, O25

Introduction

One of the central aims of industrial policy for any developing country like India is to achieve structural transformation of the economy in terms of output and employment. Promising industrialisation leading to a higher share of manufacturing employment with an enhanced level of social security is undoubtedly the most critical long-term objective of the macroeconomic policy of any developing country, and India is no exception. Though such targets have been reiterated numerous times in policy documents over the last couple of decades, the progress made in this regard has been entirely off the mark. Since the adoption of neo-liberal policy regimes in India, it has been argued that the structural transformation could

only be achieved through the automatic market route, and the role of government in this regard is to facilitate, monitor, and regulate the economy to bring both demand and supply in line with the functioning of the markets. Mainstream economists find economically active government (undermining the autonomy of the market) and inadequacies in supply-side factors as primary reasons for the sluggish economic transformation of the economy. However, this entire discourse completely ignores a problem arising from the possibility of persistently low demand in the economy due to the general proletarianisation of the masses embedded in the market mechanism itself. The exclusionary elements present in the neo-liberal market-based system with interminable primitive accumulation processes in the traditional sectors leading to the persistence of the vicious cycle of low income-low demand trap has been an integral part of economic development during the neo-liberal economic regime.

In recent decades, in the government's industrial policies, non-recognition of demand deficiencies and excessive focus on provisions of supply-side factors have remained central. Initiation of several schemes such as 'Startup India,' 'MUDRA loan,' 'ASPIRE,' and 'CHUNAUTI,' among many others, are some of the examples reflecting the government's strategy toward entrepreneurial development as a strategy to achieve successful economic transformation of the country. The fundamental assumption underlying such policy discourse is to provide an agent with enough information and awareness about the existing demand in the economy and to correct the supply-side factors in line with overall demand. So, the policies target overcoming the possible skill gap, bridging information gaps to integrate commodity and factor markets, and correcting imperfections of financial markets as possible ways to overcome the hurdles in achieving economic transformation. However, undermining demand-side problems and ignoring the very exclusionary nature of the market itself is ultimately leading the country nowhere close to such transformation.

Data and Methods

The paper shall capture the trends regarding the changing employment structure across various types of enterprises. It will also explore the changing status of workers' social security in those enterprises. Unit-level data from the Employment-Unemployment Survey for 2004-05 and 2011-12 of the National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO) and Periodic Labour Force Survey (PLFS) from 2017-18 to 2022-23 will be used for the trend analysis. This paper proposes to explore the shifts in employment structure by mapping the structural change of the workforce from 2004 to 2019; by extending the trend further, the paper will also explore the change in such trends during the post-COVID-19 period, particularly concerning various enterprise types. This study shall examine how workforce participation has changed within the type of enterprises (Proprietary and Partnership, Government or Public Sector, Private and Public Limited Companies, Co-operative societies or Trusts or Other non-profit institutions, Employer's Households, and Others) in both rural and urban areas for male as well as female workers. The paper shall investigate how social security provision has changed with time within each enterprise type and their implications for the structural change in the workforce during the same period.

Contextualising 'Enterprise' in the contemporary Policy Discourse

In various government policy documents mainly related to the country's industrial development, a clear shift toward enterprise development is evident during the recent development period. Such shifts can be discerned mainly on two accounts; firstly, the recent

revision of the methodology of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) calculations shows a shift from the establishment approach to the enterprise approach in a substantive manner. However, such a shift in methods created many controversies regarding the comparability of data (in new series) with earlier series. Further, several scholars identified that the new series with an enterprise approach shows a much higher share of manufacturing value added to total GDP. This is mainly because, in an enterprise approach, all types of activity happening within its premises (including various services like transportation, storage, etc.) are counted as part of manufacturing. So, an apparent fall in the share of 'services' and a commensurate rise in the share of 'manufacturing' is evident (Nagaraj & Srinivasan, 2016). Further, the divergence between growth in the production of manufactured goods (measured by the index of industrial production) and the growth in manufacturing gross value added (measured by the National Accounts Statistics as part of GDP calculations) are mainly due to switching from establishment to enterprise approach by NAS.¹ Therefore, in the new series, not only the one-time value added of manufacturing is higher, but the estimated growth rates have also been higher compared to the earlier series, which puts a question mark on the official estimates of the share of manufacturing output in total GDP. (Nagaraj, 2015). This paper, however, is primarily concerned with employment share and the status of social securities across various types of enterprises. Thus, such debates around the value-added are beyond the scope of this paper. Nevertheless, such development indicates the rising importance of the enterprise approach in the policy documents.

Secondly, the recent phase of industrial policy changes shows 'enterprises' as a focus of industrial development. Several new policies and programmes are initiated to keep enterprise development as one of industrial development's key aims and objectives. During the recent period, the central government has initiated several schemes and programmes, namely Start Up India 2016, Make in India 2014, Stand Up India Scheme 2016, A Scheme for Promotion of Innovation, Rural Industries & Entrepreneurship (ASPIRE) 2015, Scheme of Fund for Regeneration of Traditional Industries (SFURTI) 2014, PM Mudra Yojana 2015, PM SVANidhi Scheme 2020-24, Production Linked Incentive Scheme 2020 etc. Though each of these schemes' target groups is different, their objectives are mainly centred around providing subsidised credits, tax benefits, necessary skills, Etc. for developing new greenfield enterprises in the country. A large sum of money is allocated to each of these schemes primarily to overcome supply-side constraints in developing new industries via entrepreneurial development. Further, some of these schemes also provide for relaxations in labour laws (in some cases also environment laws/regulations) as incentives for setting up greenfield enterprises over and above other benefits.

Neo-liberal reforms and structural change

However, even though the government in the recent period has started giving more attention to enterprise development as a strategy to fasten industrial growth and also to move forward in achieving structural transformation of the economy, the overall approach is problematic in many respects, particularly in the context of neo-liberal reforms and industrial policies linked to such reforms. During the last three decades of neo-liberal reforms, there has hardly been any significant improvement in the share of manufacturing or industry in overall GDP. Despite progress in the quality and variety of industrial goods, not only did the share of manufacturing

¹ https://www.business-standard.com/article/economy-policy/growing-divergence-between-iip-and-industrial-data-in-gdp-115030700758_1.html

in total GDP stagnate, but the share of merchandise exports also declined over the period. The import content in domestic consumption has also increased (Nagaraj, 2017). Thus, for the last three decades, a fall in the share of agriculture (or primary sector) has been compensated with the commensurate rise in the service (or tertiary sector) while keeping the share of manufacturing (or secondary) nearly stagnant in the overall GDP of the country. In other words, though the country has not been de-industrialised, the structural transformation in the rising share of industrial output has been halted during the last three decades of neo-liberal reforms (Chakraborty & Nagaraj, 2020). Some of the factors explaining the inability of the neo-liberal economy to bring about structural change in the output are – low agricultural productivity, poor public infrastructure, extreme dependence on energy imports, low level of expenditure on research and development, unplanned integration of the domestic economy with the world, dilution of the development financial institutions, etc. (Nagaraj, 2017). Besides, the recent period of industrial development witnessed a fall in the share of wages, a decline in the cost of capital, and a rising share of profit in total GVA in the country (Roy, 2016). Such trends have substantial implications for the demand-side constraint of industrialisation in the country. Limited growth in the middle-income group of the population further limits the expansion of the market for industrial goods in any substantive manner (Roy, 2016). Besides, rising inequality and continuing primitive accumulations of capital through the squeeze of income from the farmers and petty producers in the country through the mechanism embedded in the neo-liberal markets also constraint the demand in the economy and, thus, limit the scope of the expansion of manufacturing activities (Patnaik & Patnaik, 2021). A shift in the share of income from wage to profit also lowers the demand for products mainly produced in small-scale industries (Roy, 2016). Further, it is argued that the role of the agriculture sector in creating demand for the manufacturing sector is highly crucial (Shifa, 2015). Thus, the persistence of agrarian distress for much of the neo-liberal era in the country is also responsible for limited demand creation for the manufacturing sector.

The evidence of structural transformation in terms of a shift in the share of the workforce towards the industrial/manufacturing sector has been even more problematic. Since the beginning of neo-liberal reforms, the employment growth rate in almost all major sectors of the economy witnessed a relative deterioration compared to the decade preceding reforms. For instance, during the entire post-reform era, not only did the employment elasticities in the manufacturing sector remain low, but they also fell continuously. Most importantly, the organised manufacturing sector, expected to provide qualitative employment, did not perform satisfactorily during the post-reform period. More precisely, the recent period shows rising stress on the front of employment generation. For instance, the agriculture sector, which employs the largest workforce, witnessed negative employment elasticity during the most recent period between 2011-2018 of magnitude -0.26 compared to the corresponding figure of 0.49 during the pre-reform period between 1983 and 1994. The secondary and tertiary sectors also witnessed a sharp fall in employment elasticities from 0.49 each between 1983 and 1994 to 0.20 and 0.29 during 2011-17 for the secondary and tertiary sectors, respectively. Even within the broad industry sector, the construction sector performed relatively better, and employment elasticities of the manufacturing sector remained nearly insignificant (only 0.07 in magnitude) during the most recent period from 2011 to 2018 (Nigam, 2021). In other words, despite witnessing a reasonable growth rate of value addition in manufacturing, the capacity to employ additional employment has been severely undermined in the sector. (Patnaik & Patnaik, 2021) Argues that there are three major reasons why industrialisation in a country like India is delinked with employment generation. Firstly, the desire of the urban middle and upper class to imitate the metropolitan lifestyle leads to a shift in the product mix and technology, which

is employment-displacing. Secondly, the desire to continuously alter this lifestyle in accordance with the changes observed in the metropolitan areas is instrumental in bringing technological cum structural change, which is again employment displacing. Moreover, a shift in income distribution away from workers, peasants and petty producers towards the capitalist and the urban upper and middle-class results in a change in the consumption pattern and, therefore, a change in the demand for a new kind of product mix, which is employment displacing.

Further, the National Manufacturing policy² (2011) aimed to increase the manufacturing sector contribution to 25 percent of the national gross domestic product (GDP), creating 100 million additional jobs, among other ambitious targets by 2022. However, despite some improvement from 2011-12 to 2017-18, the overall achievement in this regard has remained entirely off the mark. More precisely, the share of manufacturing during the period 2011-2022 remained stagnant and hovering around 17-18 percent in total GDP. Further, during the same period, the manufacturing sector only added 3 million jobs in contrast to the target of 100 million³. During the recent period, the Indian manufacturing sector also started witnessing a fall in labour productivity as well as total factor productivity along with a sharp decline in the research and development intensity in the manufacturing sector, which has substantial negative implications for the international competitiveness of the Indian Manufacturing sector compared to other newly industrialising countries like China (Kujur & Goswami, 2021). Most of the recent industrial schemes and programmes focus on providing cheap labour as a precondition for industrial growth. For instance, 'Make in India' and ASPIRE, etc., categorically talk about relaxing labour laws as a precondition to developing industries in the country. However, in India, the wage cost has already been pushed to an abysmally low level, and further decline can hardly be the source of international competitiveness in the future (Roy, 2016). Nevertheless, the implication of such a fall in the wage share is essential in limiting the overall economic demand.

Thus, during the recent period, there is hardly any evidence of structural transformation of the workforce in terms of shifting of employment share from primary to secondary in any substantive manner. Even though some rise in the share of employment in the tertiary sector is witnessed, there is little evidence of a rise in the share of formal employment in any significant manner in the tertiary sector as well. However, more focus has been given to enterprise development through different schemes and policy changes in recent years. It is imperative to explore to what extent different kinds of enterprises have witnessed a rise in employment share over the last one and a half-decades. The following section deals with the change in the structure of employment from the perspective of enterprise type.

Employment share across enterprises

Here, we look at the structure of employment across enterprises. Based on NSS and PLFS unit-level data, enterprises have been divided into six types-

1. Proprietary and Partnership
2. Government or Public Sector enterprises

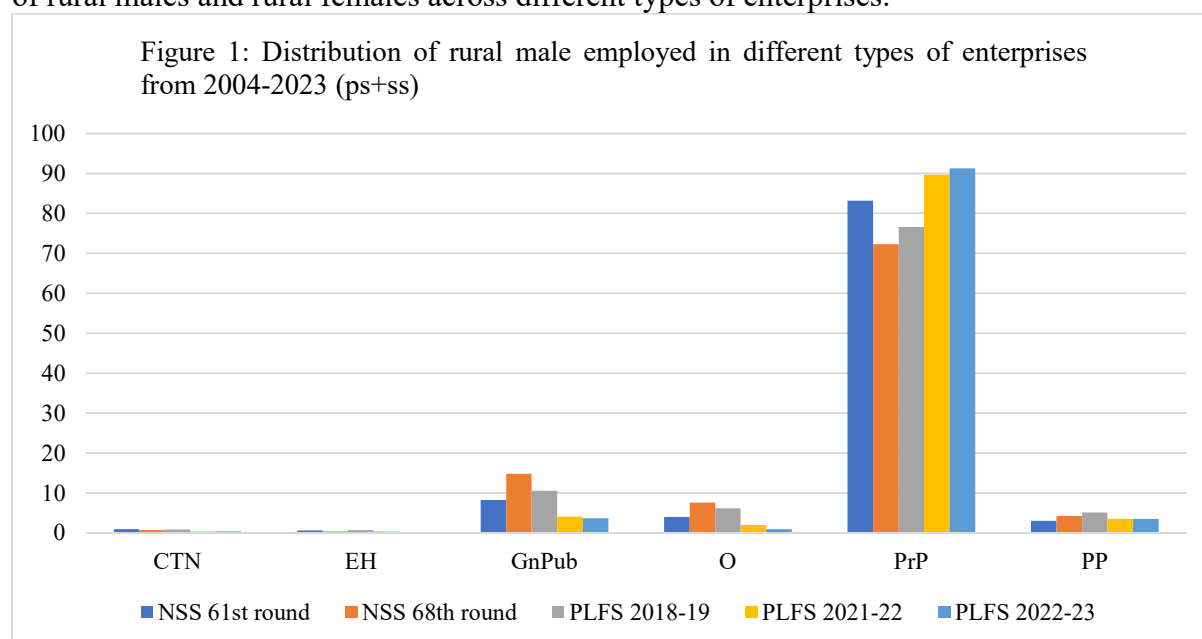
² See for detail

[https://www.meity.gov.in/writereaddata/files/National%20Manufacturing%20Policy%20\(2011\)%20\(167%20KB\).pdf](https://www.meity.gov.in/writereaddata/files/National%20Manufacturing%20Policy%20(2011)%20(167%20KB).pdf)

³ <https://www.livemint.com/opinion/columns/indias-manufacturing-sector-faces-worsening-decline-implications-for-growth-employment-and-income-11686851477882.html>

3. Private Limited Company and Public Limited Company
4. Co-operative societies or Trust or Other Non-Profit Institutions
5. Employer's Households (i.e., private households employing maids, servants, guards, cooks, etc.)
6. Others

Most initiatives to promote industrialisation are focused on tax benefits, relaxing labour laws, and providing cheap credit to industrial projects. Thus, one expects a rise in the share of employment in both 'Proprietary and Partnership' and 'Private and Public Limited Companies' as part of such an initiative. However, as discussed in the foregoing section, such strategies are problematic in many respects for a country like India. Figures 1 and 2 represent the distribution of rural males and rural females across different types of enterprises.

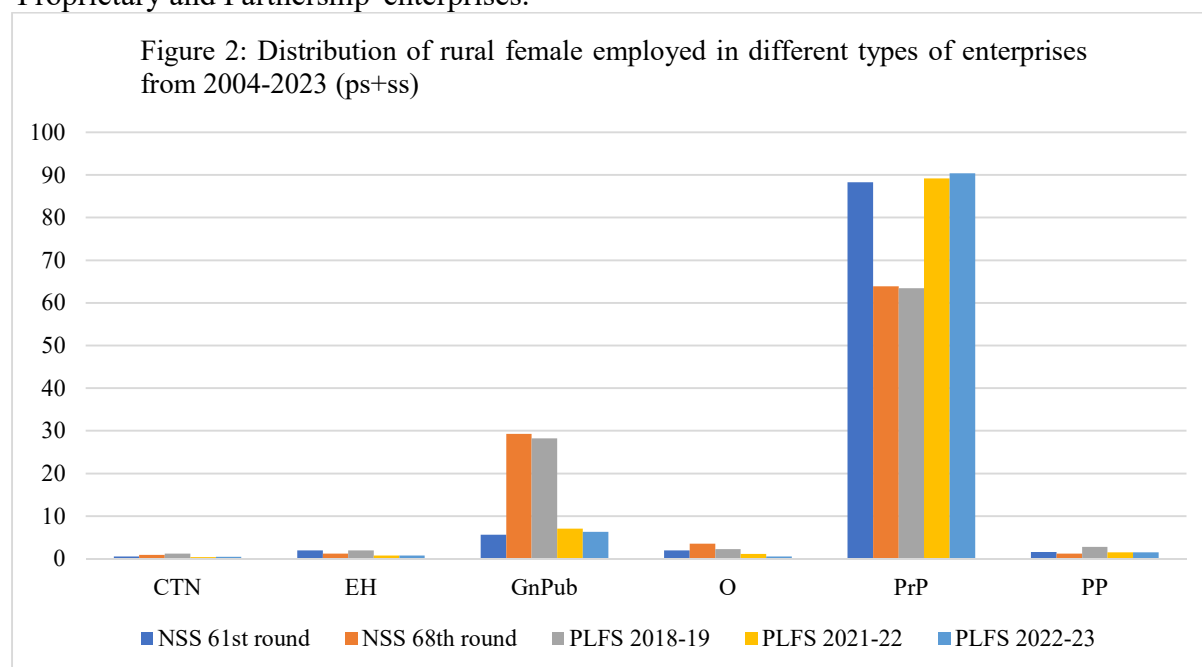


Source: Author's calculations based on unit-level data of various NSS and PLFS rounds

NOTE: In all figures, the various enterprise types are abbreviated as follows: - Proprietary and Partnership as PrP; Government or Public Sector Enterprises as GnPub; Public Ltd. Co. and Private Ltd. Co. as PP; Co-operative societies or Trust or Other Non-Profit Institutions as CTN; Employer's Households (i.e., private households employing maids, servants, guards, cooks, etc.) as EH; and Others as O.

Between 2004-05 and 2011-12, the proportion of rural males employed in 'Proprietary and Partnership' enterprise type declined significantly by almost 11 percentage points and was compensated by a significant rise in 'Government or Public Sector' (from 8 percent to 14 percent) and marginal rise in 'Others' and 'Private and Public Limited Companies'. However, this trend was reversed between 2011-12 and 2018-19 and continued into 2022-23. The share of 'Proprietary and Partnership' rose by almost 19 percentage points, while that of 'Government or Public Sector' and 'Others' declined. Overall, a significant rise is observed in the employment share of 'Proprietary and Partnership', and a substantial decline is observed in 'Government or Public Sector', 'Private and Public Limited Companies' and 'Others' enterprise types. For the overall period from 2004 to 2023, the changes in the employment pattern of rural males across enterprise types have only been marginal. A significant rise in the 'Proprietary and Partnership' category during 2019-2023 seems to have been due to the impact of the COVID-19 outbreak. Evidently, a sizable reverse migration continued for most of the period back to rural areas and

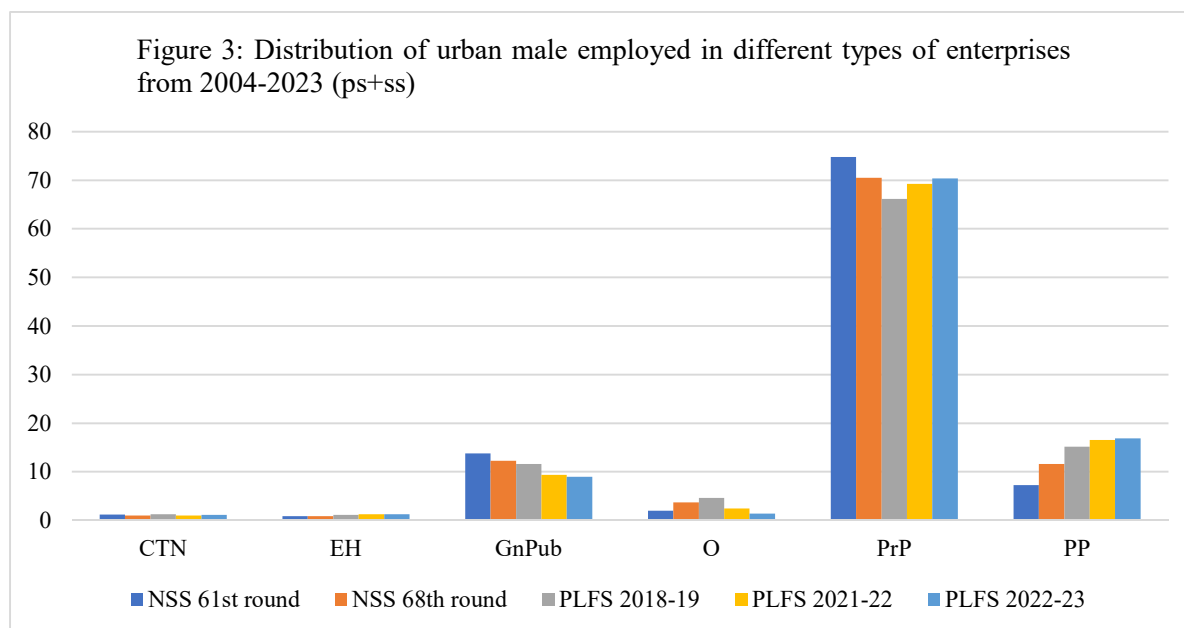
most of them were absorbed in self-employment activities (Thakur, 2020) confined to largely 'Proprietary and Partnership' enterprises.



Source: Same as Figure 1; NOTE: Same as Figure 1

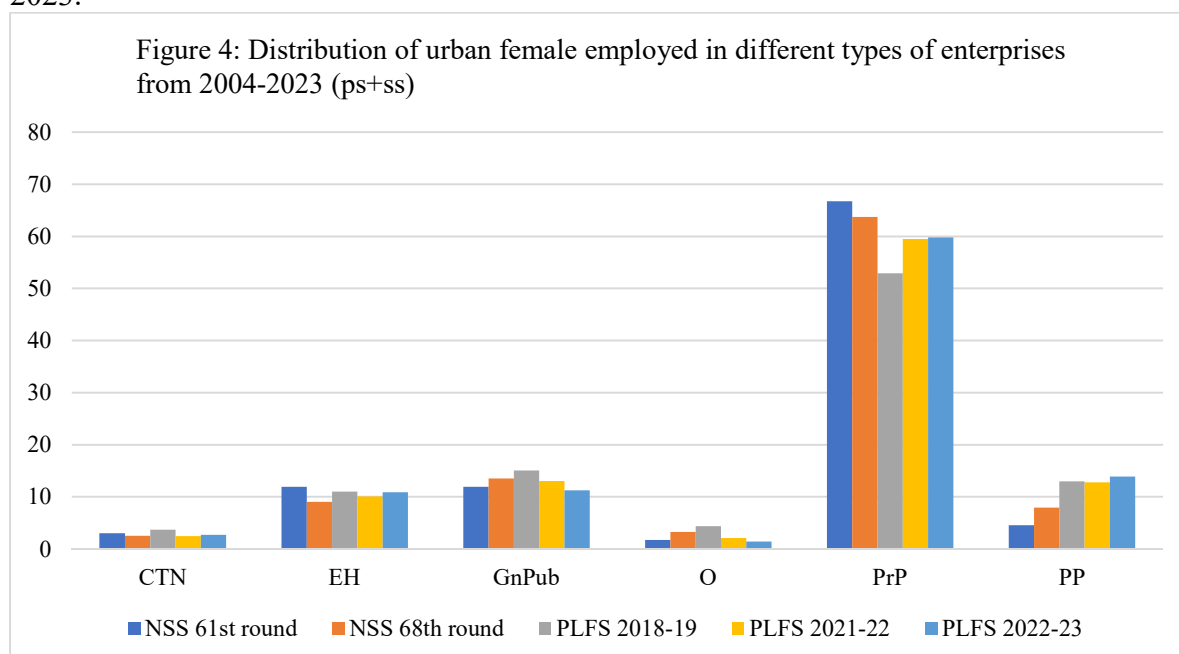
For rural females, between 2004-05 and 2011-12, a substantial shift away from the 'Proprietary and Partnership' enterprise type was observed (almost 24 percentage points). This decline was accompanied by a significant rise in the 'Government or Public Sector' (from 6 percent to 30 percent) and a marginal rise in 'Others'. This trend continued in the subsequent PLFS 2018-19 survey. It seems that the initiation and expansion of Mahatma Gandhi National Employment Guarantee Act (MGNRGA) during this period remained instrumental in increasing the size of the government sector in rural areas for males and females. The share of 'Government or Public Sector' and 'Proprietary and Partnership' remained almost the same, while that of 'Public and Private Limited Companies' increased marginally. However, an unambiguous reversal of this trend is observed between 2018-19 and 2022-23, wherein the share of 'Proprietary and Partnership' increased and 'Government or Public Sector' declined to almost 2004-05 levels. Like rural males, the rural female category hardly witnessed any change in the employment share within different enterprise types for the entire period from 2004-23.

Figures 3 and 4 represent the distribution of urban males and urban females across different types of enterprises, respectively. It is clear that the 'Proprietary and Partnership' enterprise type has the highest employment share for urban males and females. It shows a declining trend from 2004 to 2019 and an increasing trend from 2019 to 2023 for both categories. The 'Private and Public Limited Companies' has the second largest share of employment for urban males, followed by the 'Government or Public Sector' and 'Others' categories from 2004-2023. The 'Government or Public Sector' enterprises have the second largest share for urban females, followed by 'Private and Public Limited Companies' and 'Employer's Household'.



Source: Same as Figure 1; NOTE: Same as Figure 1

Between 2004-05 and 2018-19, the proportion of urban males employed in 'Proprietary and Partnership' declined significantly by almost eight percentage points and then rose by nearly four percentage points between 2018-19 and 2022-23. The share of 'Government or Public Sector' enterprises saw a secular decline from 2004-05 to 2022-23 by 4.8 percentage points. This decline was compensated for by a significant rise in 'Private and Public Limited Companies' (almost 9.6 percentage points) and a marginal decline in 'Others' from 2004 to 2023.



Source: Same as Figure 1; NOTE: Same as Figure 1

For the category urban female, between 2004-05 and 2018-19, a continuous decline is observed in the 'Proprietary and Partnership' enterprise type (almost 14 percentage points). This decline was accompanied by a rise in 'Private and Public Limited Companies' (8 percentage points) and a marginal rise in 'Government or Public Sector' and 'Others'. However, a reversal in this trend is seen during 2019-23. It is important to note that the Workforce Participation Rate (WPR) for urban females is the lowest among all other categories; a rise in the employment share of 'Private and Public Limited Companies' is thus indicative of employment opportunities seized by urban females wherever available.

Thus, for the overall period, a fall in both 'Government or Public Sector' and 'Proprietary and Partnership' enterprises was compensated for by a similar rise in the 'Private and Public Limited Companies'. Though one can see this trend as a positive one, in terms of overall share, the shift has hardly been significant in the overall structure of employment across various enterprise types. In other words, the share of 'Private and Public Limited Companies', which largely comes under the formal sector, remained lower than 17 percent in the case of urban males and below 14 percent in the case of urban females.

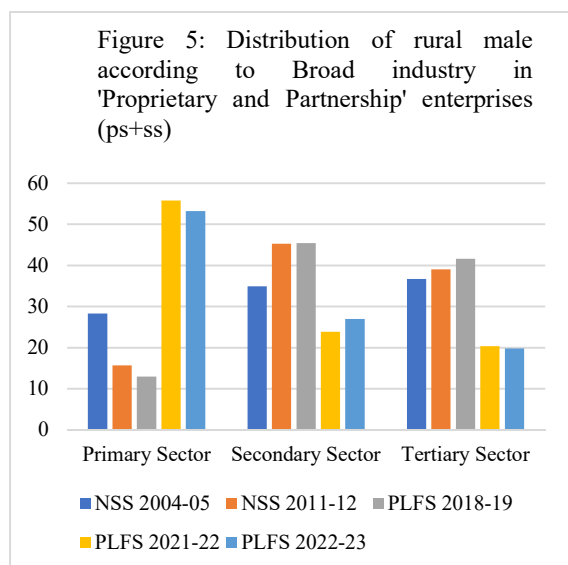
Structure of Workforce across different enterprises

This section deals with major enterprise types and the structure of employment within those enterprises. As discussed in the foregoing section, three types of enterprises together constitute an overwhelming proportion of total employment for males and females in rural and urban areas. Thus, this section will explore employment structure and changes therein for these three types of enterprises. Two main aspects of employment structure will be discussed in this section: firstly, a sectoral combination of the workforce, i.e., the share of primary, secondary, and tertiary employment within such enterprise types and secondly, type of employment, i.e., casual, self-employment and regular employment.

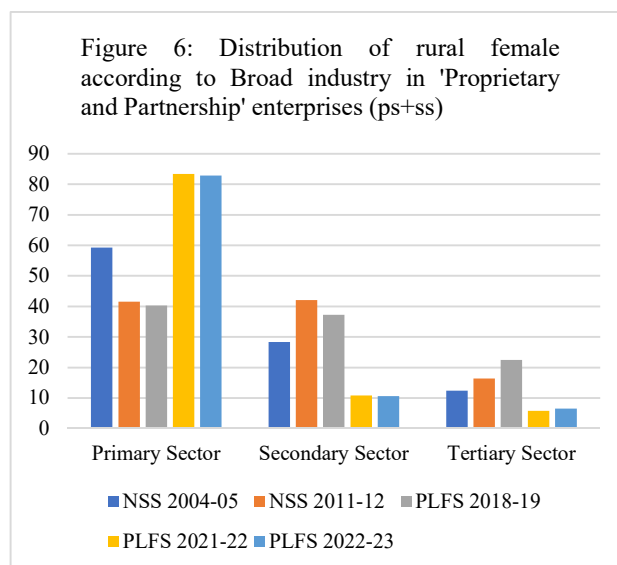
1. Proprietary and Partnership

Broad Industry

Figures 5 and 6 show the distribution of rural males and females employed in the 'Proprietary and Partnership' enterprises across broad industry types according to the usual principal activity status (accounting for principal and subsidiary activity during the last 365 days). While the secondary sector had the highest proportion of rural males from 2004-05 to 2018-19, the primary sector share increased significantly from 2018-19 to 2022-23. The highest proportion of rural females are found in the primary sector. This indicates that while rural females are much more dependent on the primary sector, their male counterparts are also becoming more dependent.



Source: Same as Figure 1



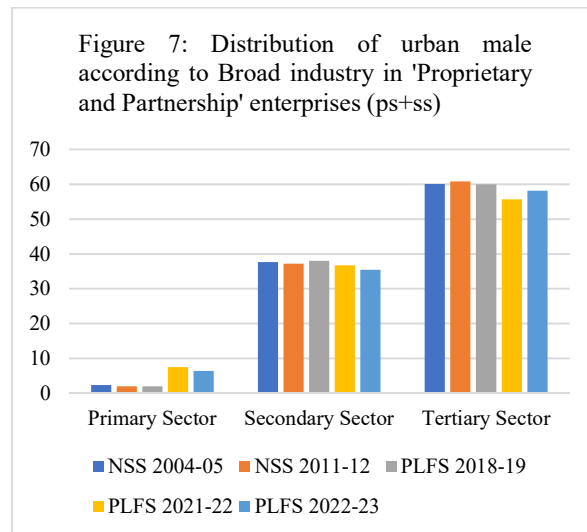
Source: Same as Figure 1

Between 2004-05 and 2018-19, a significant declining trend was observed in the primary sector for rural males (about a 15 percentage points decline). A rising trend in the tertiary and secondary sectors accompanies this. This is indicative of the declining dependency of rural males on the primary sector (agriculture). However, this trend is reversed from 2018-19 to 2022-23, indicating a substantial rise in the primary sector. Similarly, for rural females, the share of the primary sector shows a significant decline from 2004-05 to 2011-12 (about 17 percentage points), then a marginal decline from 2011-12 to 2018-19. The share of the secondary sector increased from 2004 to 2012, then further declined moderately from 2012 to 2019. The proportion of rural females in the tertiary sector increased continuously during 2004-19 (about ten percentage points). Between 2018-19 and 2022-23, a turnaround is observed in these trends, wherein the share of the primary sector increased substantially by 23 percentage points, compensated for by a decline in the share of the secondary and tertiary sectors.

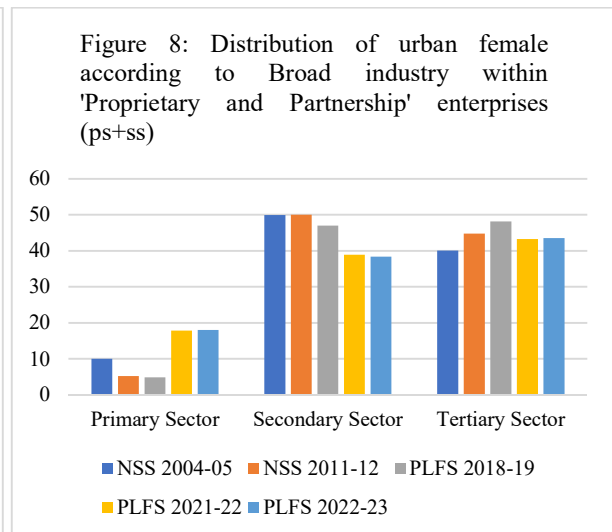
Thus, the trend clearly indicates that whatever shifts in employment away from the primary sector were experienced during the period from 2004 to 2019 it was not only reversed during the post-COVID-19 period, but the share of the primary sector became much higher than that in 2004 for both male and female in rural areas. It infers that whatever change in the structure of employment happened in rural areas till 2019 was not robust in any sense, and therefore, COVID-19 shocks reversed the structural changes completely. Further, since a sizable proportion of workers moved back from urban to rural areas as part of reverse migration, they could only attach to the primary sector, with nearly no additional jobs available in other sectors of the economy. Thus, the trend suggests that for the entire period of nearly the past two decades, not only the diversification of rural females from the primary to secondary and tertiary sectors has been absent, but with the COVID-19-led shock, the structure of employment got reversed in terms of the rising share of primary sector employment in the country within the largest category of enterprises 'Proprietary and Partnership' which contains nearly 90 percent of total rural employment.

Figures 7 and 8 depict the distribution of urban males and females employed in the 'Proprietary and Partnership' enterprises across broad industry types according to the usual principal activity status. While tertiary sector has the highest share of employment for urban males, the secondary

sector is at the top for rural females during 2004-19, and the primary sector share for urban males and females has been the lowest.



Source: Same as Figure 1



Source: Same as Figure 1

The proportion of urban males in the tertiary sector hovered around 60 percent between 2004-05 and 2018-19. It has been around 37 percent in the secondary sector during this time. However, during the post-COVID-19 period, like in rural areas, a shift in the share of employment towards the primary sector was observed for urban males. From 2004-05 to 2018-19, urban females experienced only marginal changes in the industry distribution, with the secondary and tertiary sectors contributing 47 percent and 48 percent, respectively, in 2019. Like the rural areas, a significant decline in the share of the secondary and tertiary sectors has been observed, with a rise in the primary sector by 13 percentage points from 2018-19 to 2022-23.

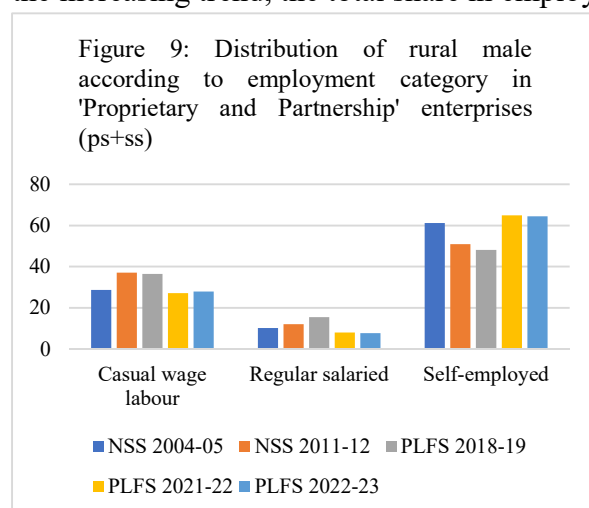
In summary, from 2004-05 to 2018-19, some diversification of employment away from the primary sector is observed within the 'Proprietary and Partnership' enterprises in urban areas. The industry distribution of urban males remained consistent, while only modest changes were seen for urban females. From 2019 onwards, we observe that the share of the primary sector has increased significantly in both rural and urban areas. Thus, during the post-COVID-19 period, we see clear evidence of reversal of structural transformation for all categories of employment within the 'Proprietary and Partnership' enterprises. Thus, for the entire period from 2004 to 2023, the 'Proprietary and Partnership' category showed a net rise in the share of the primary sector and a net fall in the share of the secondary sector for both urban males and females.

Thus, whatever structural transformation in terms of shifting the share of the primary sector to the secondary sector was achieved during the period 2004 to 2019 not only got reversed, but the share of employment in the primary sector became higher than that was observed in 2004 for both male and female in rural and urban areas within the category of 'Proprietary and Partnership' which constitute the largest share of employment in both rural and urban employment.

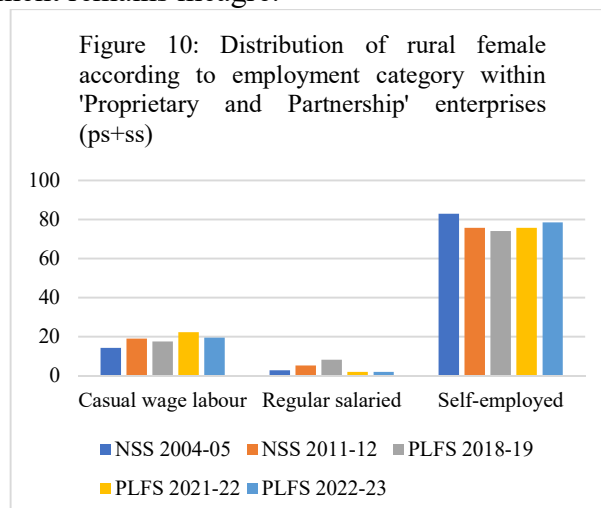
Employment Category

Structural transformation of the workforce requires not only a sectoral shift of workers from primary to secondary or tertiary in numbers but also a qualitative shift in employment as well. In this paper, qualitative shifts in employment conditions are discussed firstly through changes in the type of employment, i.e., a shift from casual or low-paid self-employment to regular employment. Secondly, the paper also explores the provision of social security for workers across various enterprise types to understand the qualitative change in the employment conditions of the workforce. The status of workers' social security and change there are attempted in a separate section.

The distribution of different types of employment for rural males and females employed in the 'Proprietary and Partnership' enterprises across employment categories is depicted in Figures 9 and 10 according to the usual principal activity status. For both rural males and females, the share of self-employment is the highest, followed by casual wage labour and regular salaried during 2004–23. The share of regular salaried people in rural areas has been dismal, and despite the increasing trend, the total share in employment remains meagre.



Source: Same as Figure 1



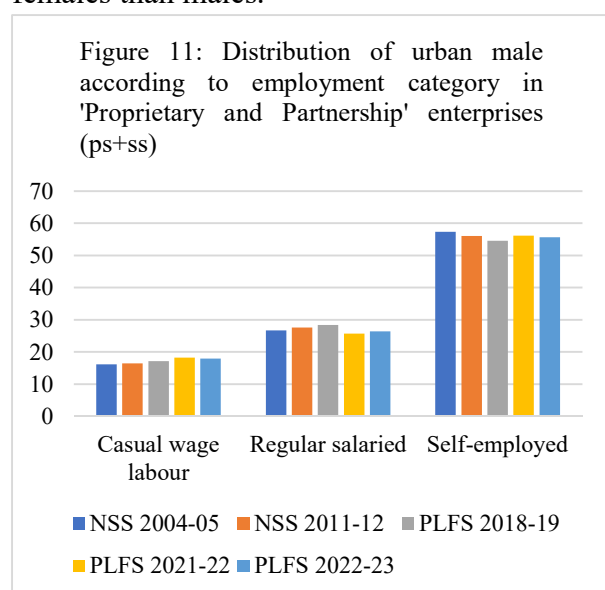
Source: Same as Figure 1

The proportion of rural males in self-employment shows a significant decline from 2004 to 2019 (about 13 percentage points) within the 'Proprietary and Partnership' category. While the 2004–19 decline in self-employment is compensated for by a rise in casual wage labour (about a nine percentage point rise), a marginal but continuous rise in the share of regular salaried is observed during 2004–19. Thus, a marginal shift of employment share away from self-employment and in favour of regular employment was observed during the period from 2004 to 2019. However, such trends were completely reversed during the post-COVID-19 era. The share of self-employment rose to as high as 64 percent (from nearly 48 percent in 2019) in 2023. This suggests that about 91 percent of rural males in 2023 are engaged in vulnerable forms of employment (self-employment and casual wage labour). This number is not only higher than that of the 2019 figure but also above that of the 2004 figure. Whatever rise in the share of regular employment observed during the 2004 to 2019 period was reversed in 2023 and reached below the level of 2004 for rural males.

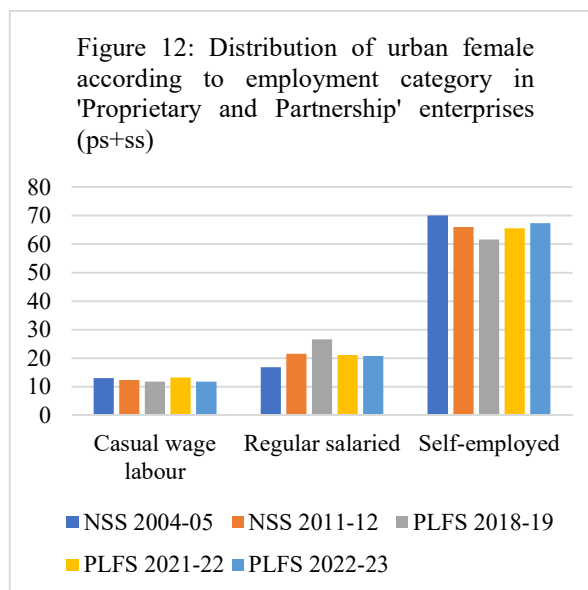
The distribution of employment categories for rural females follows a similar pattern but with a substantially higher share of self-employment (about 78 percent) in 2023. During 2004–19, self-employment share showed a marginal decline, with a meagre rise in casual wage labour (14 percent to 17.5 percent) and a 5-percentage point rise in regular salaried employment. The

share of regular salaried employment declined by about seven percentage points, a rise of 2 percentage points in casual wage labour and a four percentage points rise in self-employed during 2019-23. This indicates that nearly 97 percent of rural females remain in vulnerable employment.

Figures 11 and 12 show the distribution of urban males and females across employment categories within the 'Proprietary and Partnership' enterprises according to the usual principal activity status. For both males and females, the share of self-employment is the highest, followed by regular salaried and casual wage labour during 2004-23. While the pattern of employment change is similar for both males and females, it is more pronounced for urban females than males.



Source: Same as Figure 1



Source: Same as Figure 1

The proportion of urban males engaged in self-employment has shown a declining pattern from 2004 to 2019, but only by about a meagre three percentage points. This modest decline is accompanied by a slight increase in the share of casual wage labour and regular salaried workers during this time. During 2018-19 and 2022-23, this pattern is reversed. While the pattern of change from self-employment to regular salaried is desirable, the direction of such change has reversed during the post-COVID-19 period for urban males, indicating that there has been a reversal in the diversification away from precarious forms of employment.

As observed for urban males, the share of self-employment for urban females has been declining from 70 percent in 2004-05 to about 61 percent in 2018-19 and increases by seven percentage points from 2019 to 2023. The share of casual wage labour also shows a declining, even though marginal, trend during this period. The proportion of urban females in regular salaried employment has risen (about ten percentage points rise during 2004-19), while it declined by six percentage points during 2019-23. Even though there is some magnitude of change in the positive direction for urban females (a part of which got reversed during the post-COVID-19 period), the total shares of employment in 2023 (67 percent for self-employment, 21 percent for regular salaried, 12 percent for casual wage labour) reflect that the share of less stable employment remains disproportionately high.

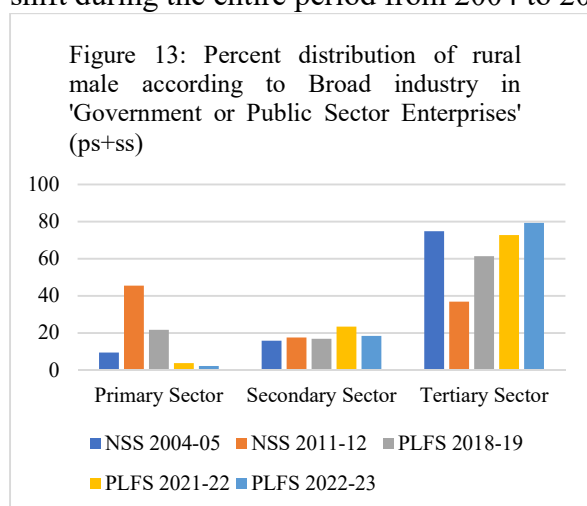
Self-employment has the largest share of employment for rural and urban areas within the 'Proprietary and Partnership' enterprises. Even though some marginal changes are observed in employment patterns, the vulnerable forms of employment dominate the workforce, especially in rural areas.

Post-COVID-19, self-employment remained the predominant employment category, showing a decline for males and marginal increases for females. A concerning trend of vulnerable employment persisted, with around 91 per cent of rural males and 97 per cent of females engaged in self-employment and casual wage labour. Self-employment remained prevalent, with minimal shifts in employment patterns. Despite urban females showing positive changes in employment categories, vulnerable employment is persistent.

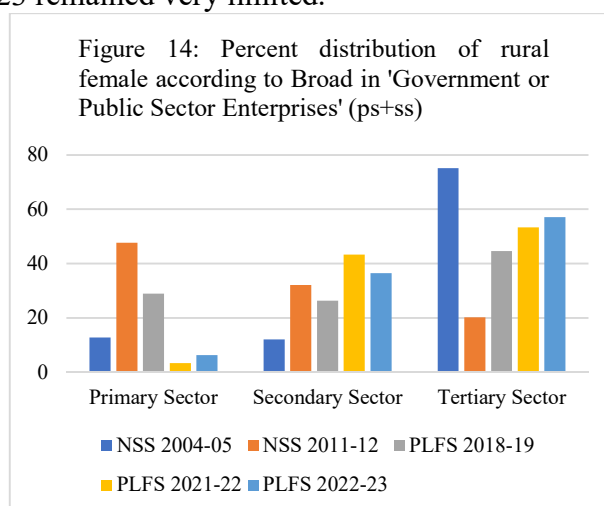
2. Government or Public Sector Enterprises

Broad Industry

Figures 13 and 14 represent the distribution of rural males and females in the 'Government or Public Sector' enterprises across broad industry types according to the usual principal activity status. From 2004-05 to 2011-12, the primary sector experienced a sudden surge in employment shares. This rise is likely due to the enactment of MGNREGA and, consequently, a rise in employment in the country's rural areas. Thereafter, a fall in the share of the primary sector was observed for rural males, which led to an overall decline in the share of the primary sector in total employment. For rural males, the share of the primary sector declined by seven percentage points from 2004-05 to 2022-23, while the share of the secondary sector increased only marginally and tertiary sector share increased by five percentage points. A similar pattern is observed for rural females wherein the primary sector's share declined by six percentage points (however, like rural males, the share of the primary sector increased substantially during 2004-11 and fell after that), compensated for by a rise in the secondary sector share and a significant decline in the tertiary sector by 18 percentage points during 2004-05 to 2022-23. The share of the primary sector declined significantly from 2018-19 to 2022-23 for both males (by 19 percentage points) and females (by 23 percentage points). However, due to the rise in the share of the primary sector during 2011-12 for both male and female categories, the overall sectoral shift during the entire period from 2004 to 2023 remained very limited.



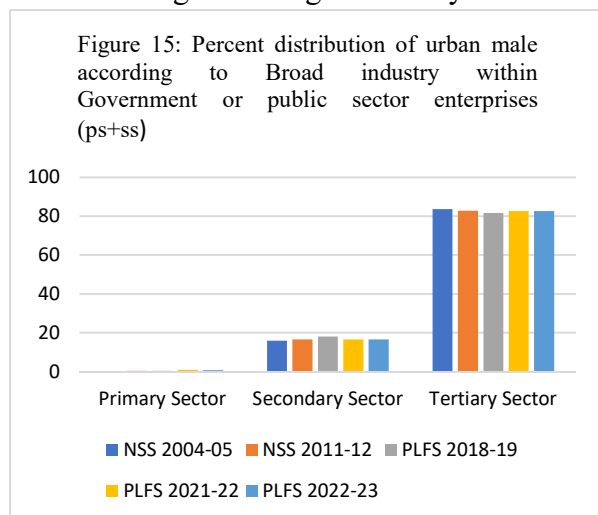
Source: Same as Figure 1



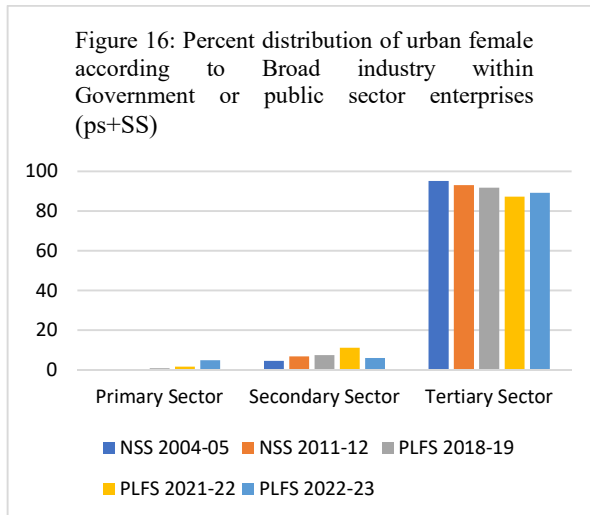
Source: Same as Figure 1

Figures 15 and 16 depict the distribution of urban males and females in the 'Government or Public Sector' enterprises across broad industry types according to the usual principal activity

status. The share of the tertiary sector is the highest for both males and females, followed by the secondary and primary sectors for 2022-23. For urban males and females, there has hardly been any significant change in the share of employment across the primary, secondary and tertiary sectors. However, a rise in the share of urban females in the primary sector was observed in the most recent period (post-COVID-19). Thus, the industry distribution has only shown a marginal change over 19 years for the 'Government or Public Sector'.



Source: Same as Figure 1



Source: Same as Figure 1

Thus, during the entire period, the shift in employment share from primary to secondary and tertiary remained extremely limited for both males and females in 'Government or Public Sector' enterprises in rural and urban areas.

Employment Category

The distribution of rural males and females employed in the 'Government or Public Sector' enterprises across employment categories is shown in Figures 17 and 18, respectively, according to the usual principal activity status. The share of regular salaried has been the highest for rural males from 2004-05 to 2022-23, except for a sudden decline of 41 percentage points in 2011-12, compensated for by a rise in the share of casual wage labour and self-employed. For rural females, the share of casual wage labour first increased significantly by 38 percentage points from 2004-05 to 2011-12, accompanied by a 53 percentage point decline in regular salaried and a 14 percentage point rise in self-employment. This trend reversed from 2011-12 to 2022-23, where casual wage labour and self-employed declined by 16 percentage points and six percentage points, respectively, and regular salaried increased by 38 percentage points. Nevertheless, the share of regular salaried declined from above 70 percent in 2004-05 to below 60 percent in 2022-23 for rural females. Thus, while for rural males, there has been a very limited shift of employment away from casual and self-employment to regular wage was observed, for rural females, a clear trend of rising casual wage and self-employment and falling share of regular employment was evident within the 'Government or Public Sector' enterprises.

Figure 17: Percent distribution of rural male according to the employment category in 'Government or Public Sector Enterprises' (ps+ss)

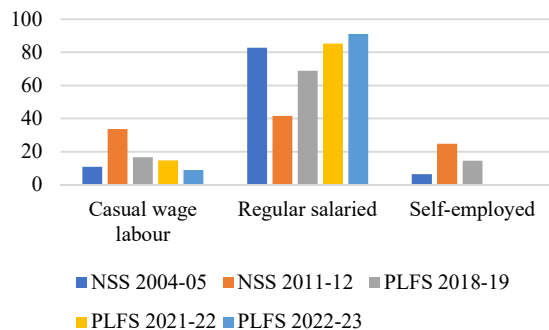
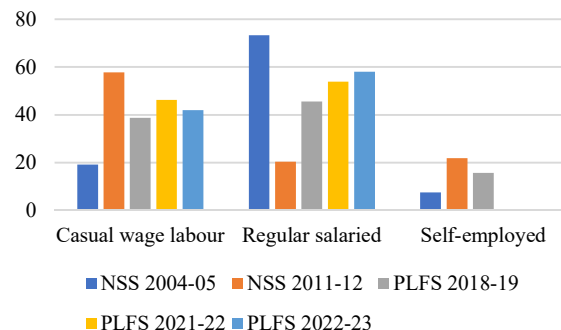


Figure 18: Percent distribution of rural female according to the employment category in 'Government or Public Sector Enterprises' (ps+ss)



Source: Same as Figure 1

Source: Same as Figure 1

Figure 19: Percent distribution of urban male according to the employment category in 'Government or Public Sector Enterprises' (ps+ss)

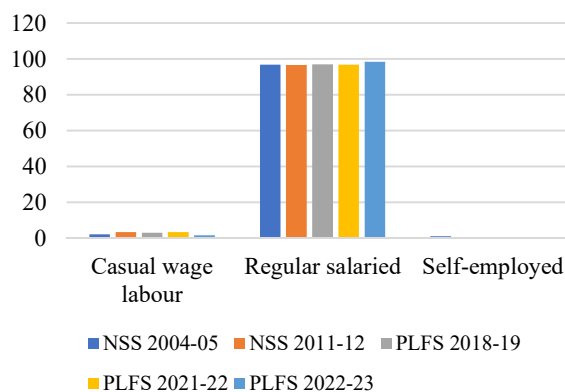
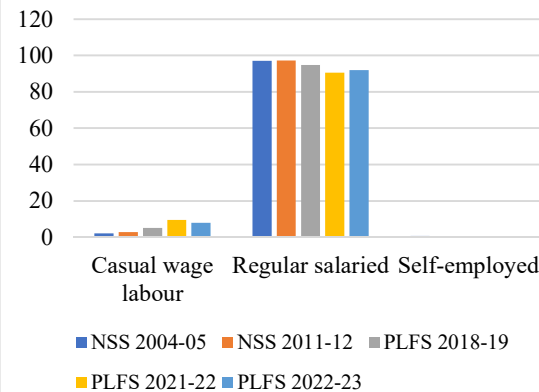


Figure 20: Percent distribution of urban female according to the employment category in 'Government or Public Sector Enterprises' (ps+ss)



Source: Same as Figure 1

Source: Same as Figure 1

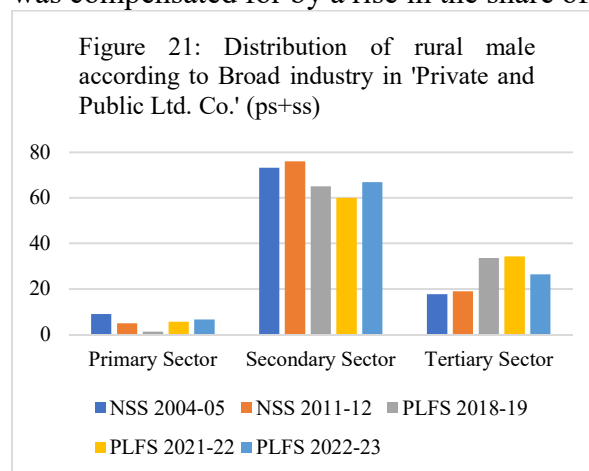
Figures 19 and 20 show the distribution of urban males and females employed in the 'Government or Public Sector' enterprises across employment categories according to the usual principal activity status. Urban males' and females' share of regular salaried has hovered above 90 percent from 2004 to 2023. While the share of regular salaried has shown a slight rise of 2 percentage points for males, this share has seen a declining trend of 5 percentage points for females from 2004-05 to 2022-23. Thus, for urban males, while there has hardly been any change in the structure of employment concerning the type of jobs, for urban females, the trend showed a rise in the share of precarious employment during the entire period from 2004 to 2023.

3. Private Limited Company and Public Limited Company

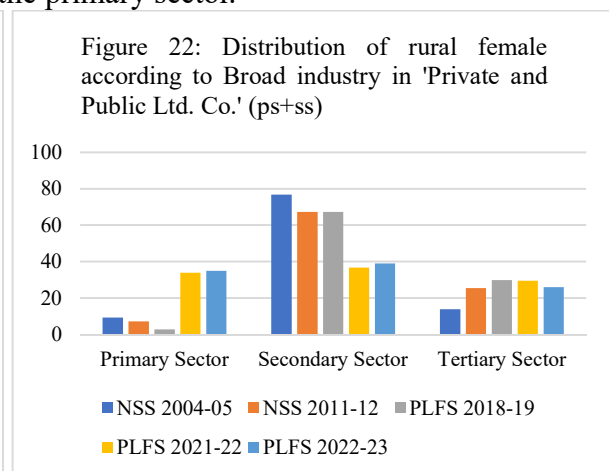
Broad Industry

Figures 21 and 22 depict the distribution of rural males and females employed in the 'Private and Public Limited Companies' enterprise type across industry types according to the usual

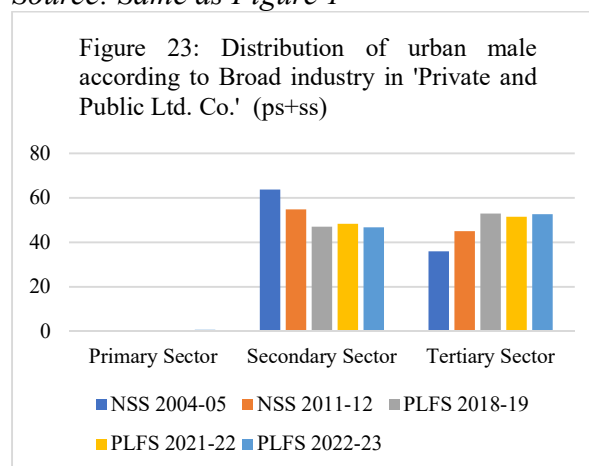
principal activity status. For rural males, the proportion of primary and secondary sectors declined by nearly 16 percentage points, with a commensurate rise in the share of tertiary sector from 2004-05 to 2018-19. During 2018-19—2022-23, while the share of the secondary sector remained nearly stagnant, a marginal fall in the share of the tertiary sector was observed, with a commensurate rise in the share of the primary sector for rural males. Thus, the post-COVID-19 period witnessed a slight shift of the workforce from tertiary to primary sector within the 'Private and Public Limited Companies'. For rural females, the share of the secondary sector declined significantly by nine percentage points, along with a substantial rise in the share of the tertiary sector by 16 percentage points between 2004-05 and 2018-19. During 2018-19—2022-23, for females, the share of the secondary sector further declined significantly by 28 percentage points, while that of the tertiary sector also declined slightly by three percentage points. The decline of both the secondary and tertiary sectors during the post-COVID-19 period was compensated for by a rise in the share of the primary sector.



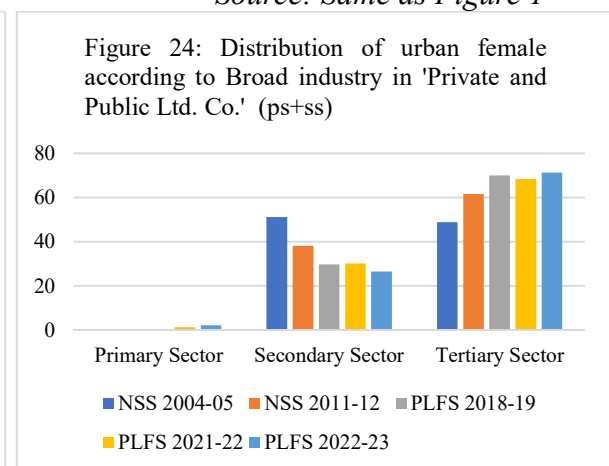
Source: Same as Figure 1



Source: Same as Figure 1



Source: Same as Figure 1



Source: Same as Figure 1

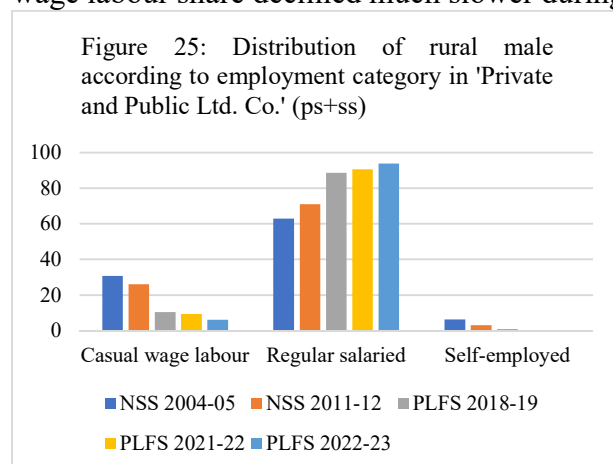
Figures 23 and 24 show the distribution of urban males and females employed in the 'Private and Public Limited Companies' across industry types according to the usual principal activity status. The share of the secondary sector shows a declining trend, while the tertiary sector witnessed a rise in shares between 2004-05 and 2022-23 for both males and females. However, the decline in secondary sector share and rise in tertiary sector share slowed down substantially during 2018-19—2022-23. Thus, for urban males and females during the entire period under study, the 'Private and Public Limited Companies' observed a shift of the employment share from secondary to tertiary sector. However, such a shift remained nearly dismal during the post-

COVID-19 period. It is important to note that overall, the share of 'Private and Public Limited Companies' in total employment has been meagre. They are nearly absent in rural areas, while in urban areas, there has hardly been any rise in the share of employment during the most recent period.

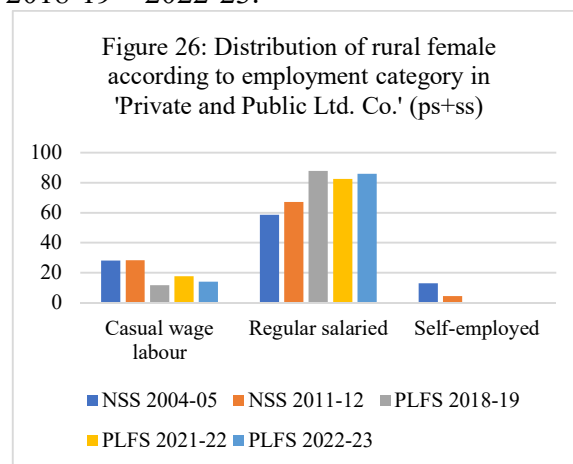
Employment Category

The distribution of rural males and females employed in the 'Private and Public Limited Companies' by employment category is given in Figures 25 and 26 according to the usual principal activity status. A consistent pattern of rise in the share of regular salaried is observed for males (29 percentage points) and females (28 percentage points) between 2004-05 to 2022-23. This is compensated for by a decline in casual wage labour and self-employed share during this time. However, it is notable that the rise in regular salaried share and decline in casual wage labour share declined much slower during 2018-19—2022-23. In 2022-23, the share of regular salaried was above 85 percentage points, while the share of casual wage labour was below 15 percentage points for males and females.

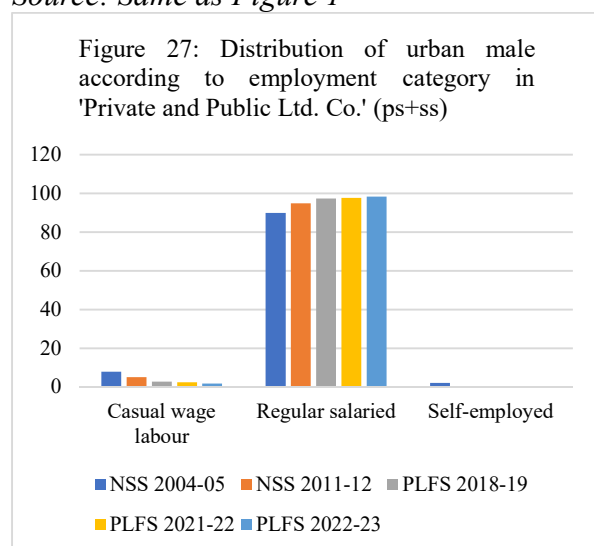
Figures 27 and 28 show the distribution of urban males and females employed in the 'Private and Public Limited Companies' by employment category according to the usual principal activity status. The share of regular salaried has shown a rising trend (by about 8-10 percentage points), along with a decline in the share of casual wage labour for both males and females. Like the pattern observed for rural areas, the rise in regular salaried share and decline in casual wage labour share declined much slower during 2018-19—2022-23.



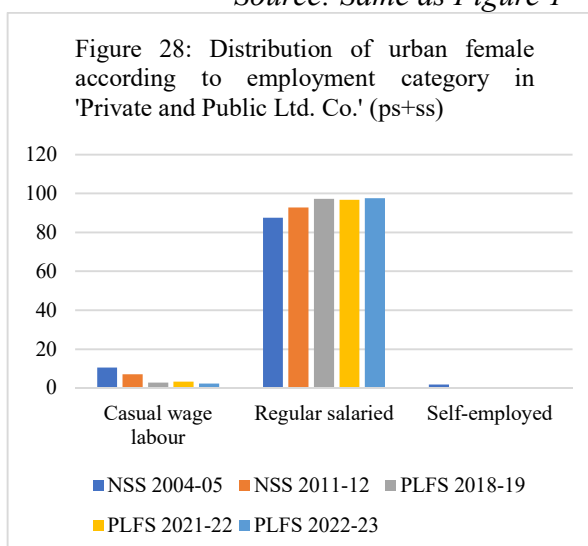
Source: Same as Figure 1



Source: Same as Figure 1



Source: Same as Figure 1



Source: Same as Figure 1

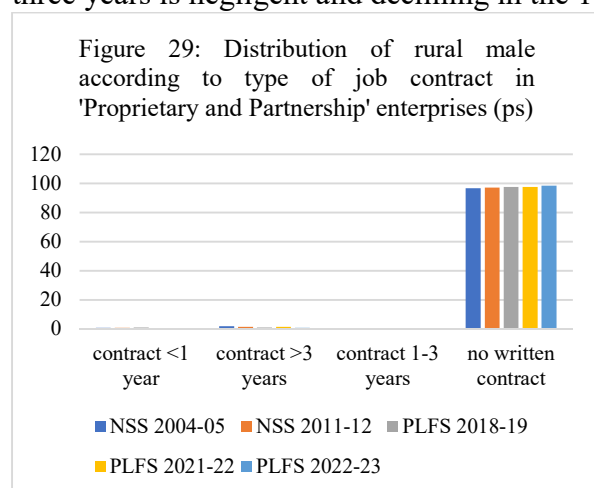
The data highlights that there has been a positive trend towards rising regular salaried proportions of males and females employed in the 'Private and Public Limited Companies' in both rural and urban areas. However, as noted earlier, the overall share of 'Private and Public Limited Companies' in total employment has been minimal (less than 17 percent for urban males and less than 14 percent for urban females, and nearly negligible in rural areas for both male and female), such a slight rise in the share of regular employment within this category of enterprise leaves the overall employment structure in terms of the total share of the regular employment nearly insignificant.

Employee benefits across different enterprise types

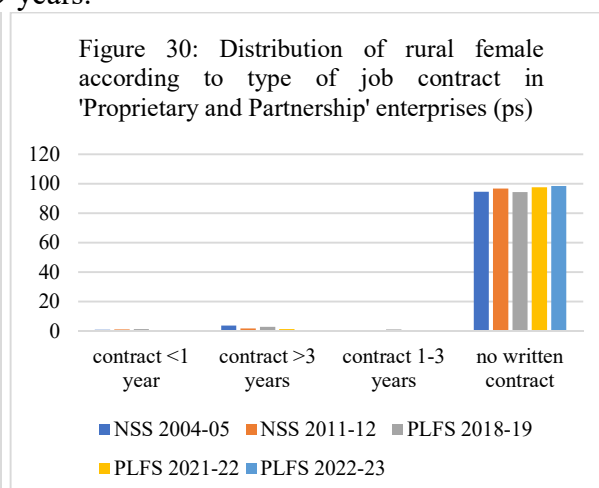
1. Proprietary and Partnership

Type of Job Contract

A long-term job contract can benefit employees by providing job security, stability, career development, financial planning, and growth. Figures 29 and 30 show the distribution of rural males and females employed in the 'Proprietary and Partnership' enterprises across the types of job contracts (in terms of duration) according to the principal activity status. The principal activity status (ps) accounts for principal activity during the last 365 days. Nearly 97 per cent of the rural people employed in 'Proprietary and Partnership' enterprises did not have a written contract during 2004-23. The share of rural males and females having a contract of more than three years is negligent and declining in the 19 years.

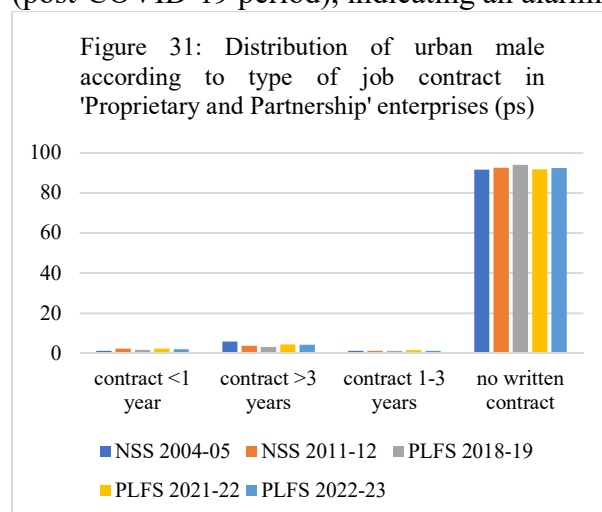


Source: Same as Figure 1

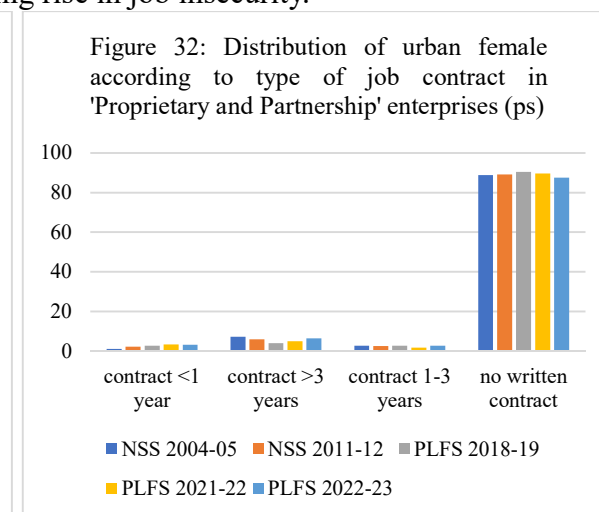


Source: Same as Figure 1

Figures 31 and 32 show the distribution of urban males and females employed in the 'Proprietary and Partnership' enterprises across the types of job contracts according to the principal activity status. Nearly 90 percent of the urban persons employed in 'Proprietary and Partnership' enterprises did not have a written contract during 2004-23. Furthermore, this proportion has been rising from 2004 to 2019 and only slightly declining from 2019 to 2023 (post-COVID-19 period), indicating an alarming rise in job insecurity.



Source: Same as Figure 1



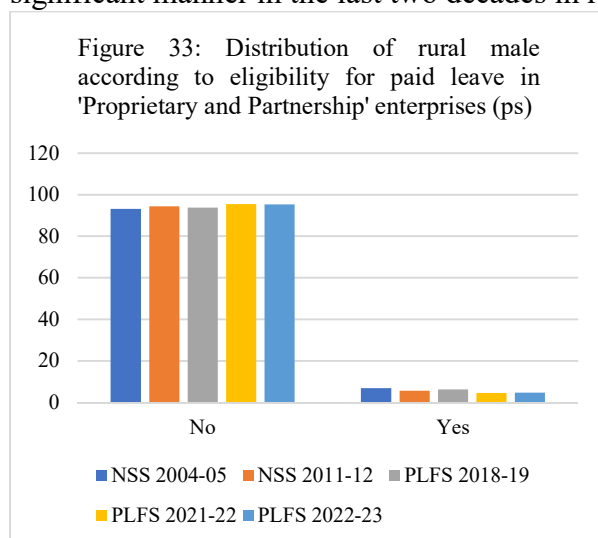
Source: Same as Figure 1

Thus, 'Proprietary and Partnership' enterprises, which constitute an overwhelming proportion of total employment in both rural and urban areas for both male and female, not only has an overwhelming share of employees with 'No written contract' but also shows no sign of

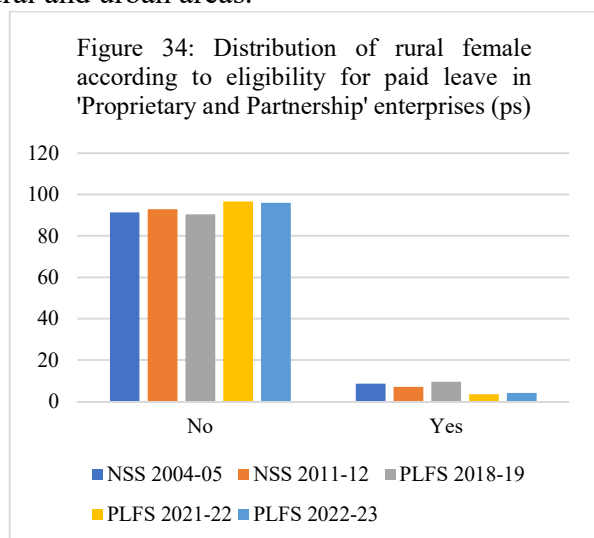
improvement despite several initiatives by the government during the recent period. Rather, there are some worsening trends observed during the post-COVID-19 period.

Eligibility for Paid Leave

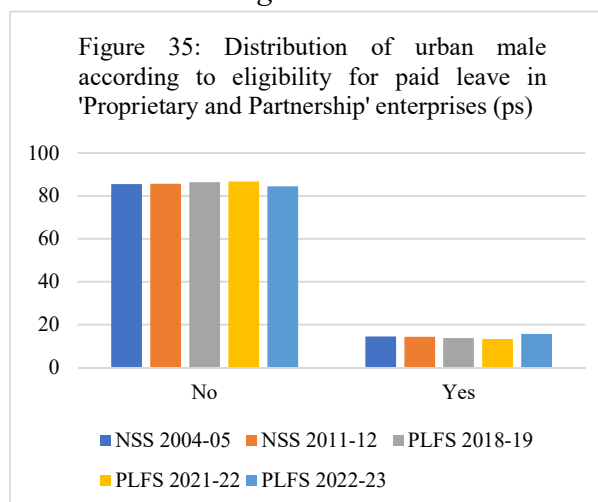
Figures 33, 34, 35, and 36 show the distribution of rural males, rural females, urban males, and urban females employed in the 'Proprietary and Partnership' enterprises for eligibility for paid leave according to the principal activity status, which can be seen as a sign of job security and stability. In rural and urban areas, the proportion of employees with no access to paid leave has been consistently high from 2004-05 to 2022-23. In the case of rural areas, less than 5 percent of males and females had access to paid leaves during 2022-23 while this ratio is marginally better for urban males and females. This indicates that access to paid leave and job security was limited in the 'Proprietary and Partnership' enterprises, and it hardly improved in any significant manner in the last two decades in rural and urban areas.



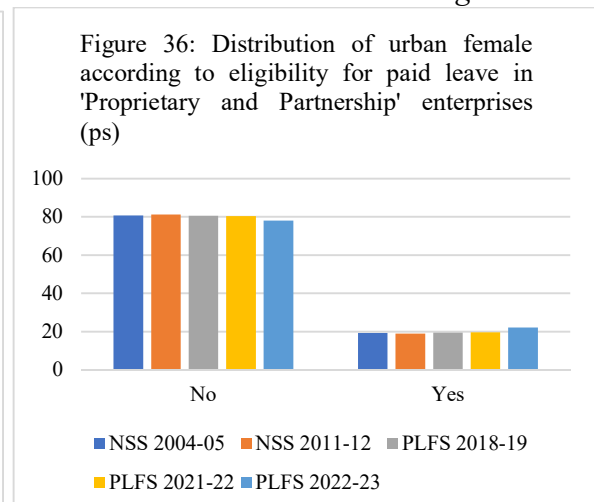
Source: Same as Figure 1



Source: Same as Figure 1



Source: Same as Figure 1

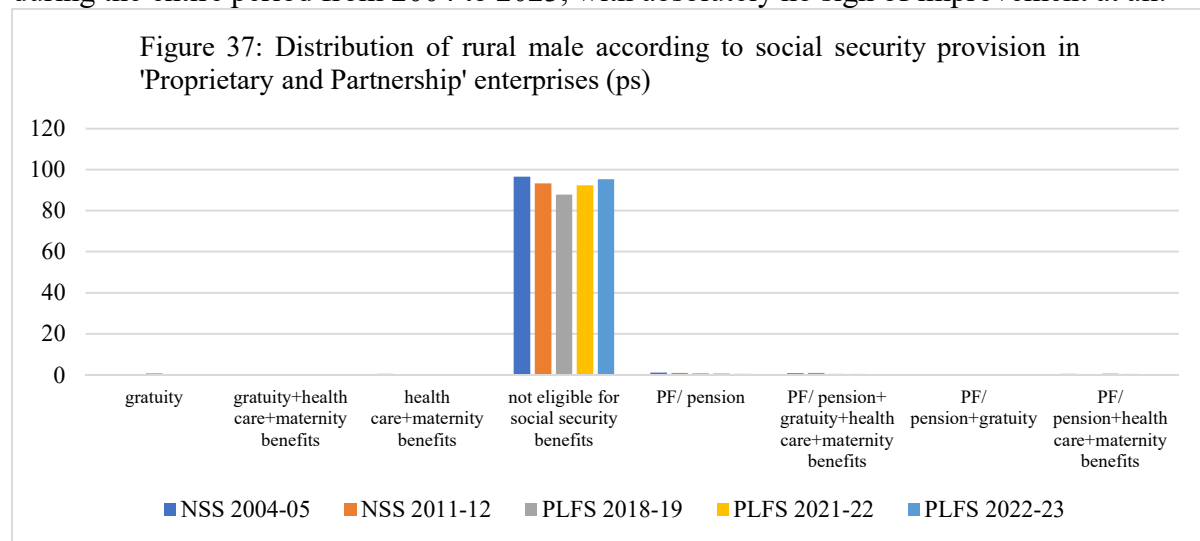


Source: Same as Figure 1

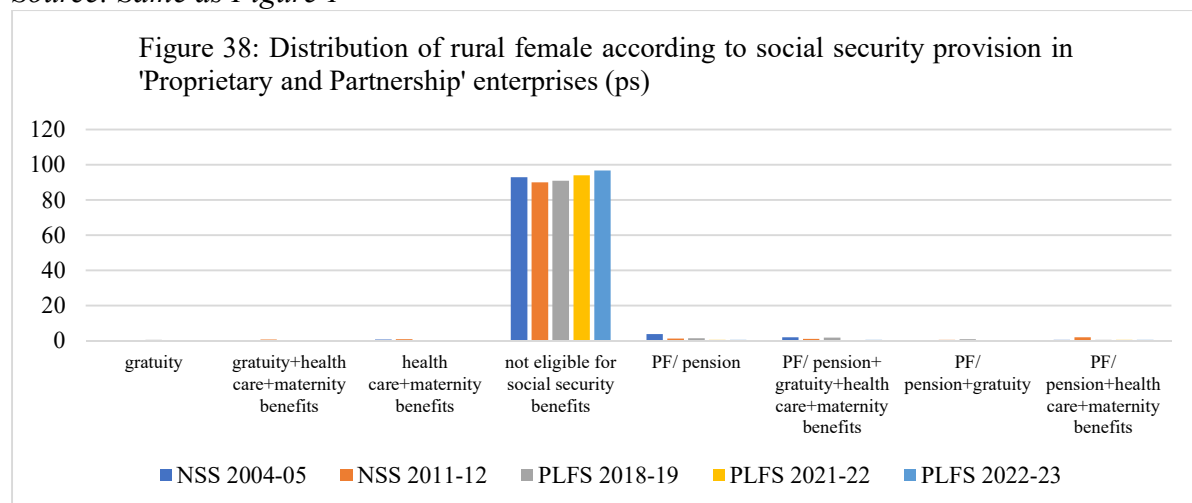
Provision of Social Security Benefits

Figures 37 and 38 show the distribution of rural males and females employed in the 'Proprietary and Partnership' enterprises across social security provisions according to the principal activity

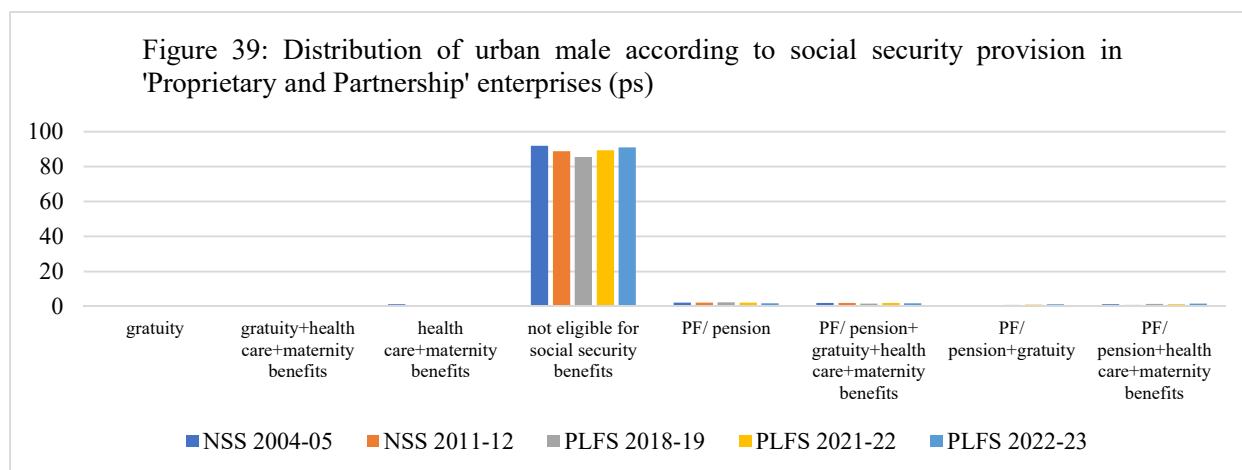
status. From 2004-05 to 2022-23, the proportion of rural males and females not covered under any social security benefits has remained above 95 percent. Evidently, during the post-COVID-19 period, such a proportion consistently rose for rural males and females employed under the 'Proprietary and Partnership' enterprises. A similar trend is observed in urban areas, where the proportion of employees not covered under any social security benefits has been above 91 percent for males and above 85 percent for females (Figures 39 and 40). Only a marginal improvement in social security coverage was observed in the urban areas (about six percentage points for males and 1.5 percentage points for females) during 2004-19, which was later reversed for urban areas by 2022-23. The data showcases a high and consistent vulnerability in employment within the 'Proprietary and Partnership' enterprises in both rural and urban areas during the entire period from 2004 to 2023, with absolutely no sign of improvement at all.



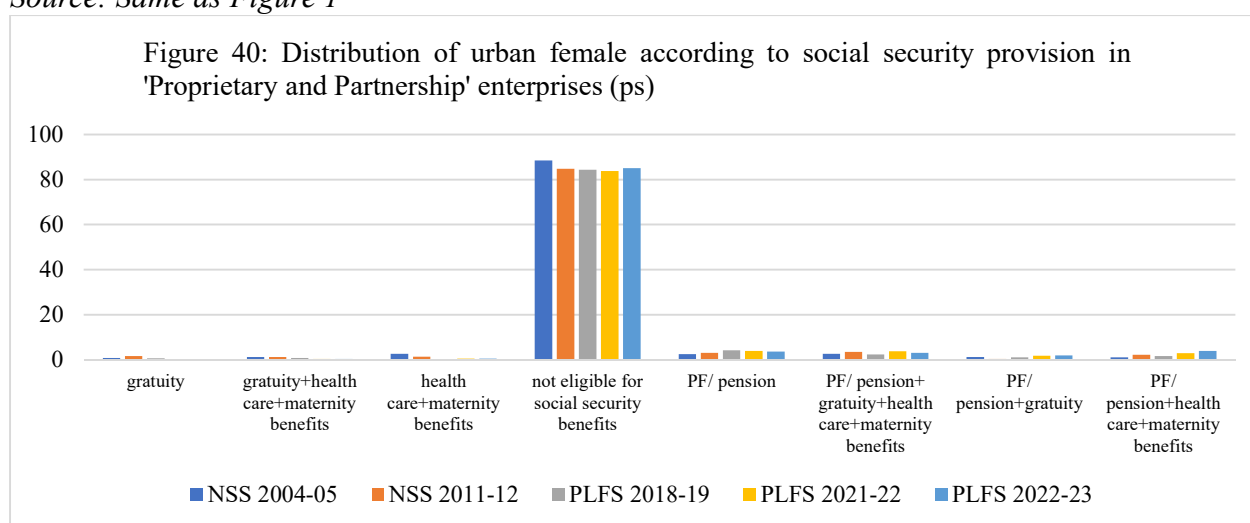
Source: Same as Figure 1



Source: Same as Figure 1



Source: Same as Figure 1



Source: Same as Figure 1

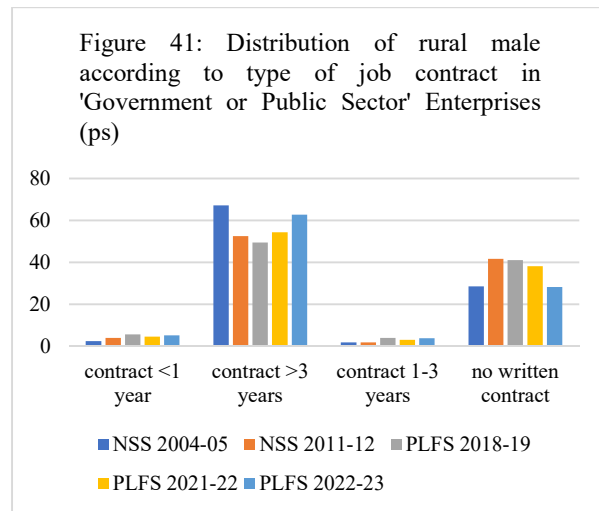
2. Government or Public Sector Enterprises

Type of Job Contract

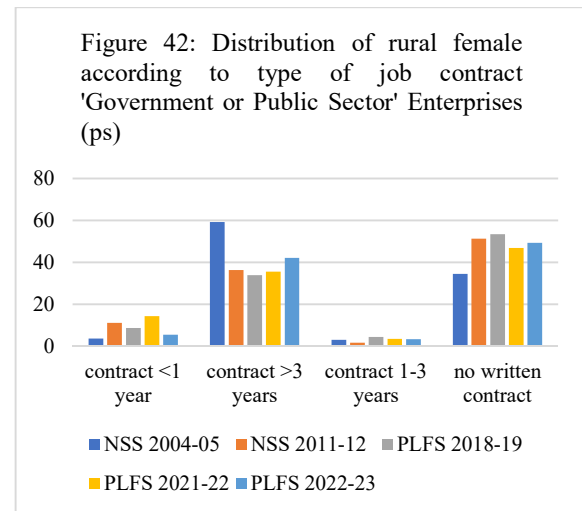
Figures 41 and 42 show the distribution of rural males and females employed in the 'Government or Public Sector' enterprises across the type of job contract according to the principal activity status. Between 2004-05 and 2018-19, the proportion of people with a job contract of more than three years has been declining in rural areas, while a significant rise is observed in the proportion of people without written contracts. These patterns are reversed from 2018-19 to 2022-23 for rural males and females.

From 2004-05 to 2018-19, the proportion of rural males with more than three years of job contract has decreased by 18 percentage points. This trend saw a reversal in 2018-19—2022-23, wherein this share increased by 13 percentage points. This has been accompanied by a marginal rise in contracts in less than a year, job contracts between 1-3 years in 2004-05—2018-19, and a marginal reversal in 2018-19—2022-23. A similar pattern is observed in the case of rural females, with a much more substantial fall of 26 percentage points in job contracts over three years during 2004-05—2018-19, followed by a slight reversal of 9 percentage points in 2018-19—2022-23. The proportion of no written contract has also risen significantly for rural females (19 percentage points) in 2004-05—2018-19, with only a slight decline observed

in 2018-19—2022-23. This suggests that the erosion in job tenure and security is more pronounced for rural females than males, even within the 'Government or Public Sector' enterprises, which are expected to provide the most secure jobs.

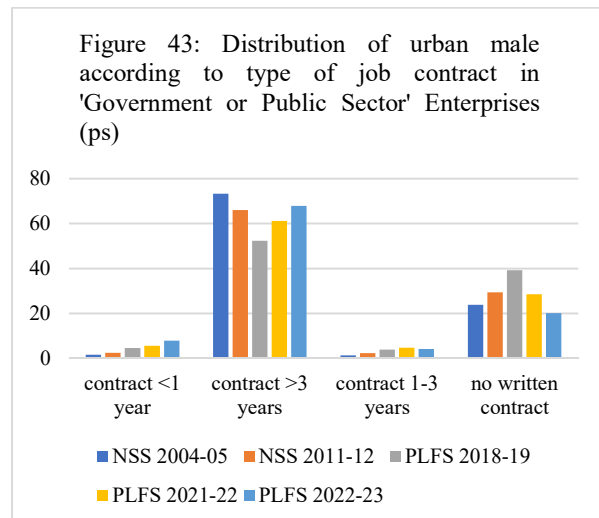


Source: Same as Figure 1

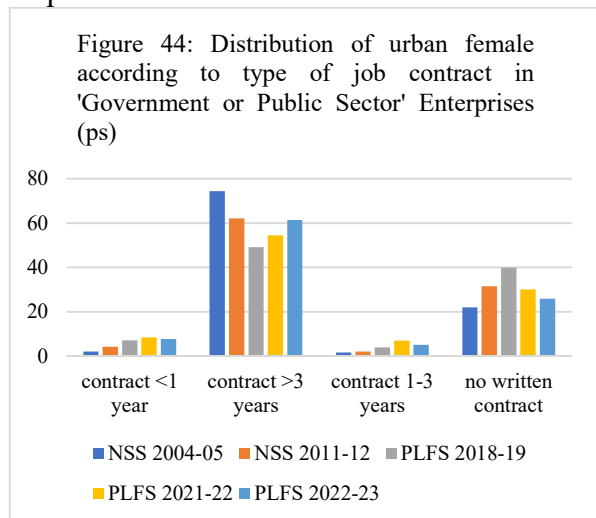


Source: Same as Figure 1

Figures 43 and 44 depict the distribution of urban males and females employed in the 'Government or Public Sector' enterprises across the type of job contract according to the principal activity status. A consistently declining trend is seen in the proportion of people with more than three years of job contracts from 2004-05 to 2018-19 for urban areas. However, during the post-COVID-19 period, some reversal in trends was observed. Nevertheless, even after improvement during the most recent phase, the entire period from 2004 to 2023 reflect worsening of provision of job security in terms of the fall in the share of higher tenured job contract in the 'Government or Public Sector' enterprises.



Source: Same as Figure 1

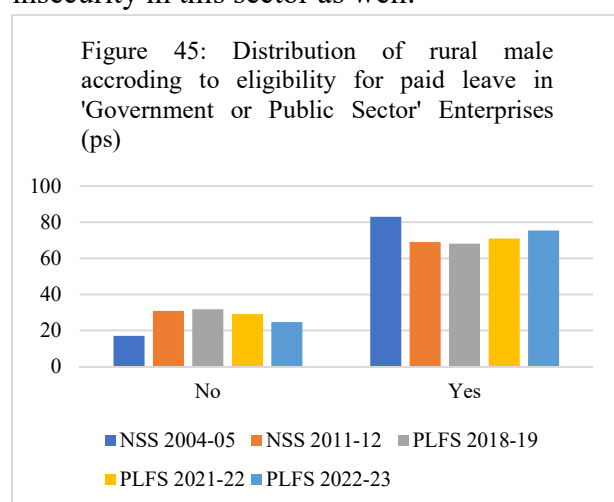


Source: Same as Figure 1

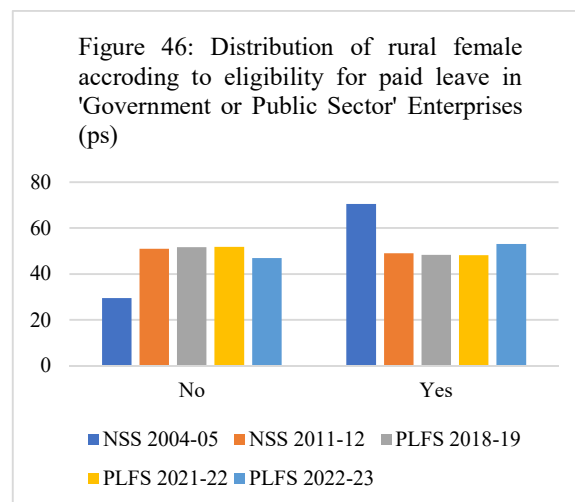
Eligibility for Paid Leave

While the 'Government or Public Sector' employees are expected to be eligible for paid leave, Figures 45, 46, 47, and 48 show a different story. In rural areas, the proportion of people eligible for paid leave declined significantly from 2004-05 to 2018-19 (15 percentage points for males

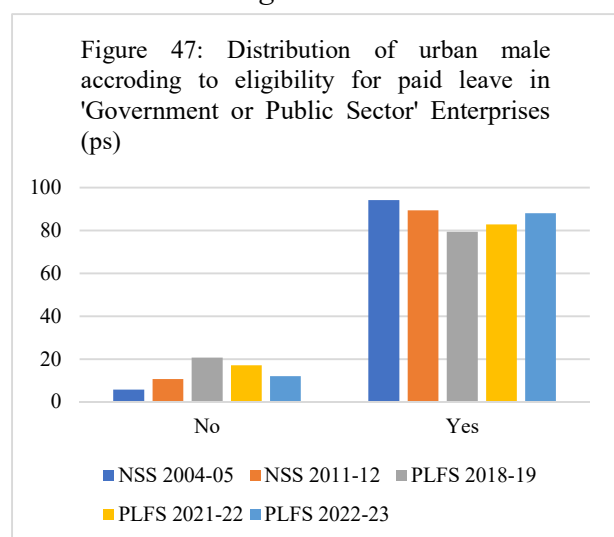
and 22 percentage points for females), with only a marginal increase seen from 2018-19 to 2022-23. In urban areas, the proportion of people eligible for paid leave declined from 2004-05 to 2018-19 (15 percentage points for males and 14 percentage points for females). This was followed by an increasing trend during 2018-19—2022-23 by nine percentage points for males and five percentage points for females. In an absolute sense, for the 'Government or Public Sector' enterprises, the proportion of people not eligible for paid leave was much higher in rural areas than in urban areas. Rural females had the lowest eligibility for paid leave in 2022-23 (about 53 percent). Thus, for the entire period from 2004 to 2023, there has been a rise in the share of workers with no eligibility for paid leave in rural and urban areas for both male and female workers within the 'Government or Public Sector' enterprises, reflecting a rise in job insecurity in this sector as well.



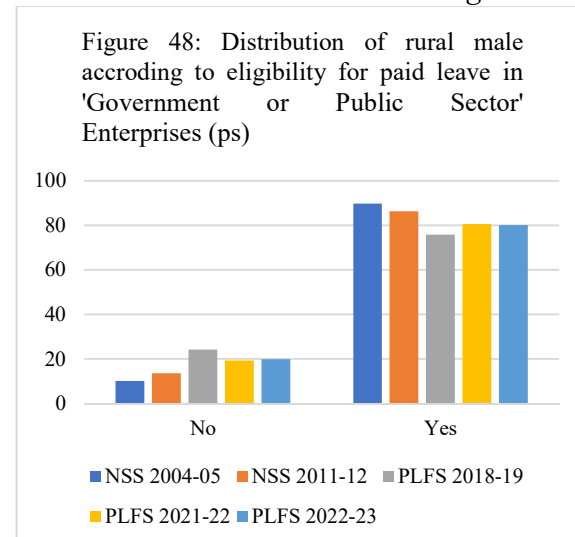
Source: Same as Figure 1



Source: Same as Figure 1



Source: Same as Figure 1



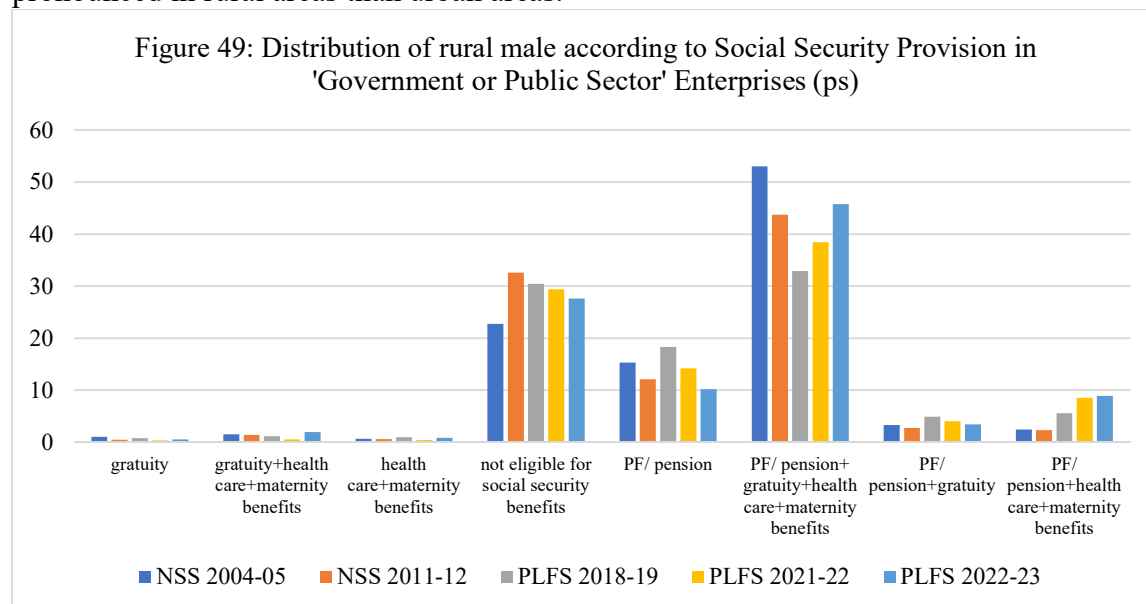
Source: Same as Figure 1

Provision of Social Security Benefits

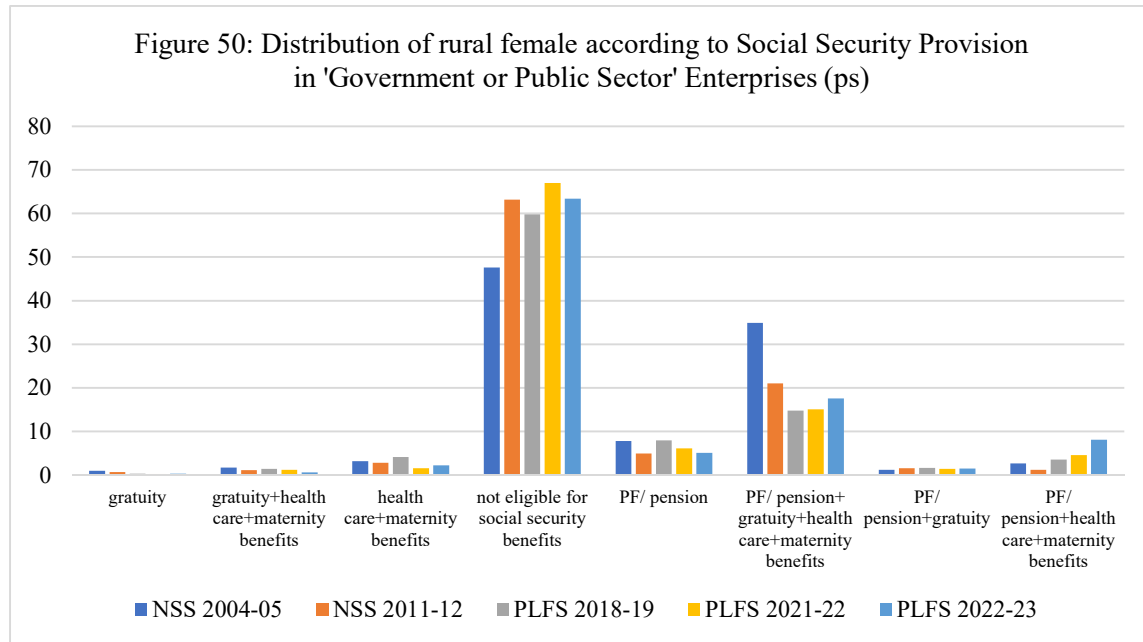
Figures 49 and 50 show the distribution of rural males and females employed in the 'Government or Public Sector' enterprises across social security provisions according to the principal activity status. From 2004-05 to 2018-19, the proportion of rural males and females not covered under any social security benefits increased by eight percentage points and 12 percentage points, respectively. A similar rising trend was observed for females, while a

marginally declining trend was observed for males during 2018-19—2022-23. However, the magnitude of females with no social security benefit is substantially higher than males (about 63 percent for females and 27 percent for males in 2022-23).

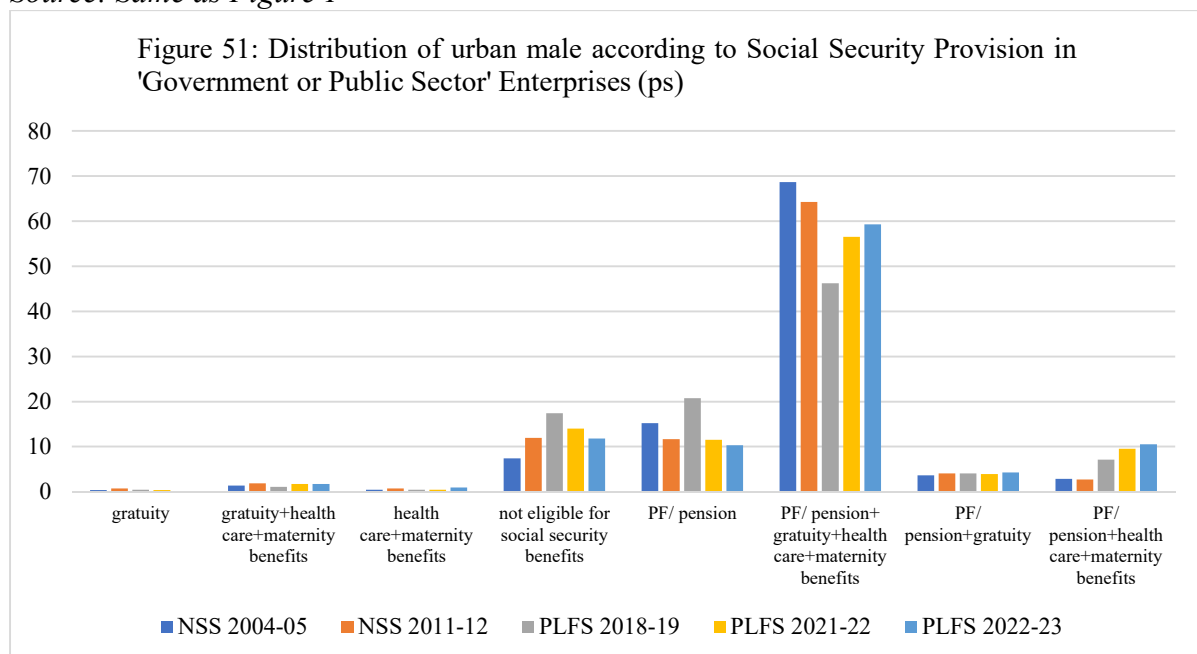
Regarding magnitude, the social security coverage is significantly higher for urban areas than rural areas (Figures 51 and 52). However, for males and females in the urban areas, the proportion of people not covered under any social security benefit rose between 2004-05—2018-19 (10 percentage points rise for males and females). A similar rising trend was observed for females, while a declining trend was observed for males during 2018-19—2022-23. Nonetheless, the magnitude of this proportion remains below 20 percent for males and 30 percent for females in 2022-23. Thus, for the entire period, there is clear evidence of a rising share of workers with no social security within the 'Government or Public Sector' enterprises in rural and urban areas for both males and females. The data, therefore, highlights a growing vulnerability in employment within the 'Government or Public Sector' enterprises, more pronounced in rural areas than urban areas.



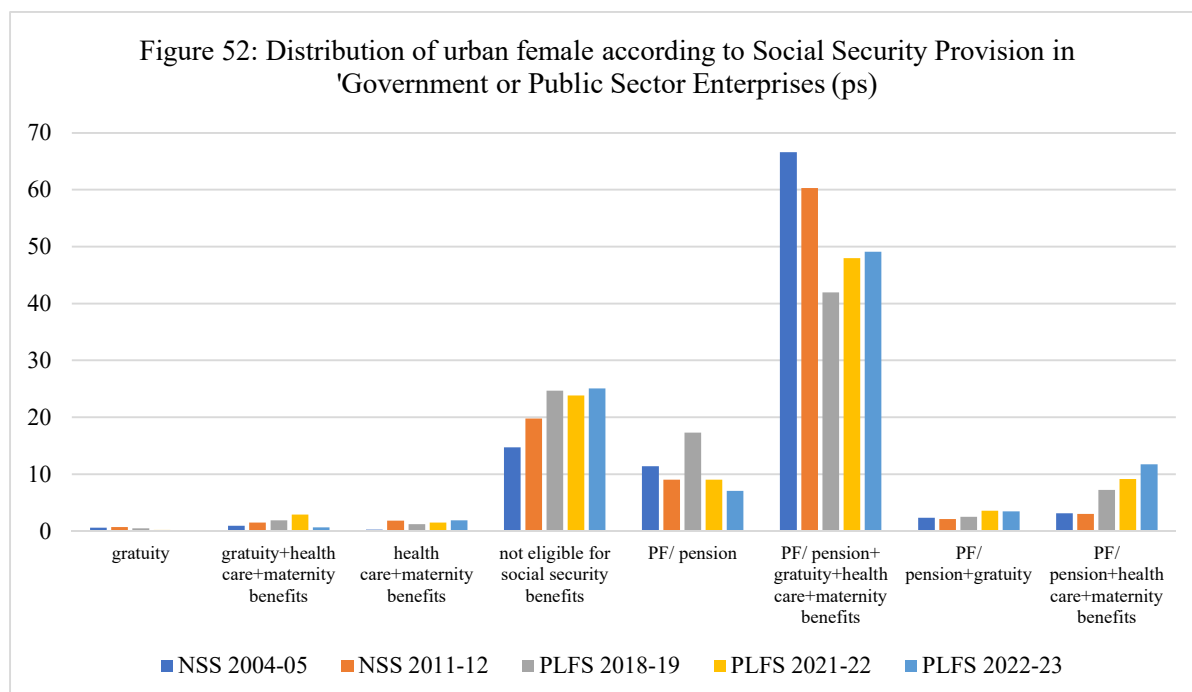
Source: Same as Figure 1



Source: Same as Figure 1



Source: Same as Figure 1

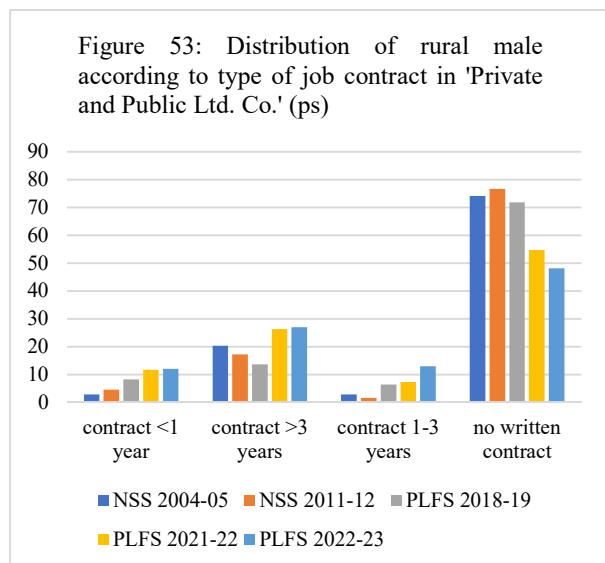


Source: Same as Figure 1

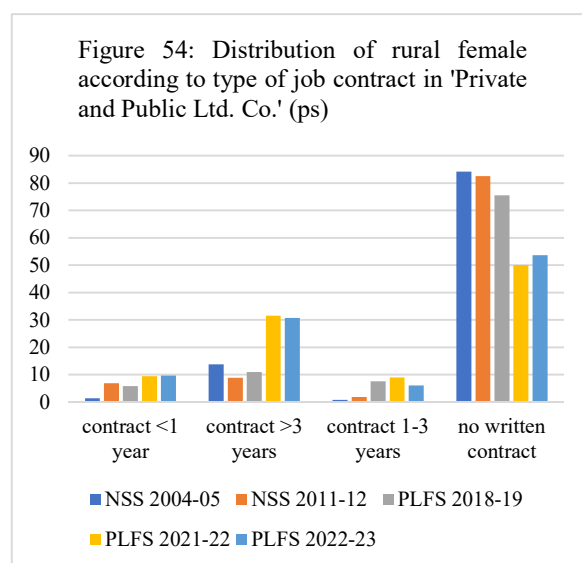
Not only did the total share of workers not having any kind of social security increase during the entire period, but the share of workers with comprehensive social security (with provident fund (PF), Pension, gratuity, health care and maternity benefits combined) significantly declined across male and female in both rural and urban areas within the 'Government or Public Sector' enterprises.

3. Private Limited Company and Public Limited Company Type of Job Contract

Figures 53, 54, 55, and 56 show the distribution of rural males, rural females, urban males, and urban females employed in 'Private and Public Limited Companies' across types of job contracts according to the principal activity status. Rural areas witnessed a decline in the proportion of people having no written job contract from 2004-05 to 2022-23, while this proportion declined significantly from 2018-19 to 2022-23. For rural males, the proportion of people having contracts of more than three years declined moderately during 2004-05—2018-19 and then increased from 2018-19 to 2022-23. In contrast, the share of less than one year and 1-3 years rose almost continuously during 2004-05 to 2022-23. For rural females as well, the same pattern is observed.

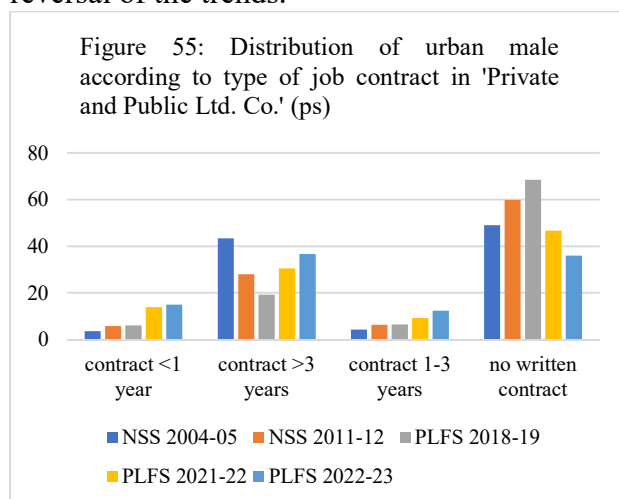


Source: Same as Figure 1

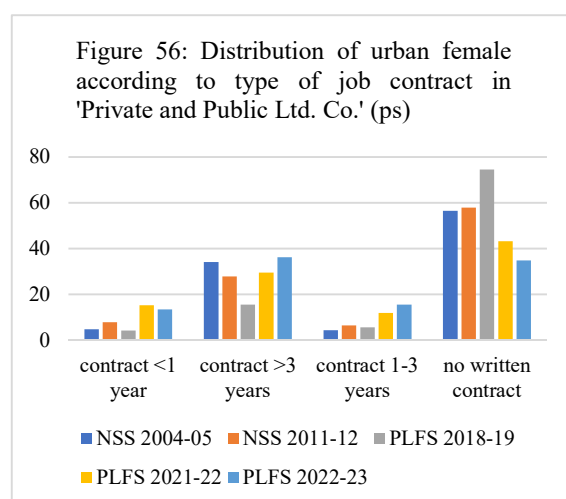


Source: Same as Figure 1

For urban males, a consistent rise is observed in the proportion of no written contract (by 19 percentage points) during 2004-05—2018-19, followed by a substantial decline of 32 percentage points during 2019-23. This is accompanied by a decline in contracts for more than three years (by seven percentage points) and a rise in contracts for less than one year and between 1 and 3 years during 2004-05—2022-23. A similar trend is observed for urban females, except for the rise in no written contracts, which was only substantial between the 2011-12 and 2018-19 periods. Thus, in urban areas for the entire period, despite some deterioration observed till 2019, improvement in terms of a fall in the no written contracts and consequent rise in both short-term (one to three years contract) and long-term (three and more years contract) was observed in the 'Private and Public Limited Companies'. However, so far, it is not clear whether such improvements are temporary or not. This is so because the government has been giving some monetary incentives to the firms to provide some security of tenure to their workers as part of the COVID-19 relief measures, and withdrawal of such measures might lead to a reversal of the trends.



Source: Same as Figure 1



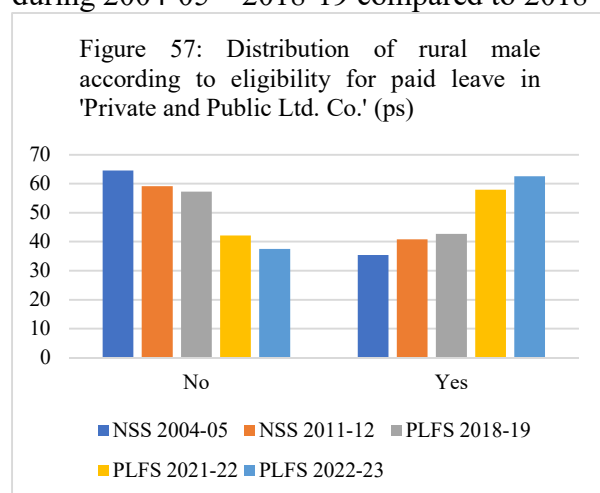
Source: Same as Figure 1

Eligibility for Paid Leave

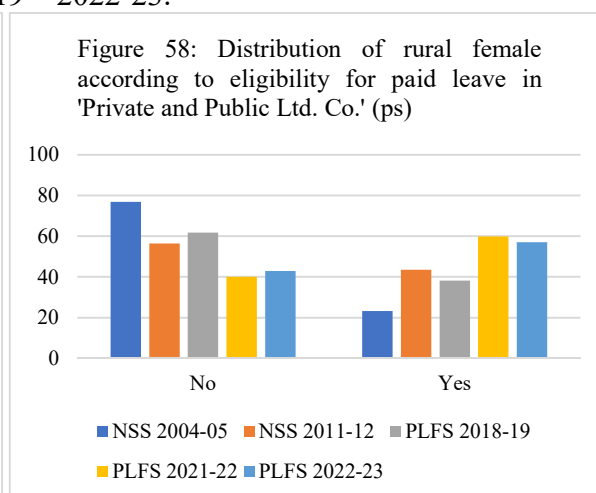
Figures 57, 58, 59, and 60 depict the distribution of rural males, rural females, urban males, and urban females employed in the 'Private and Public Limited Companies' by eligibility for paid leave according to the principal activity status. The rural areas had consistently lower access to paid leave than urban areas between 2004-05—2022-23.

The proportion of rural males with access to paid leaves showed a consistently rising trend, from 35 percent in 2004-05 to 62 percent in 2022-23. The proportion of rural females with access to paid leaves increased significantly from 23 percent in 2004-05 to 43 percent in 2011-12, then declined slightly in 2018-19 and finally rose to 57 percent in 2022-23.

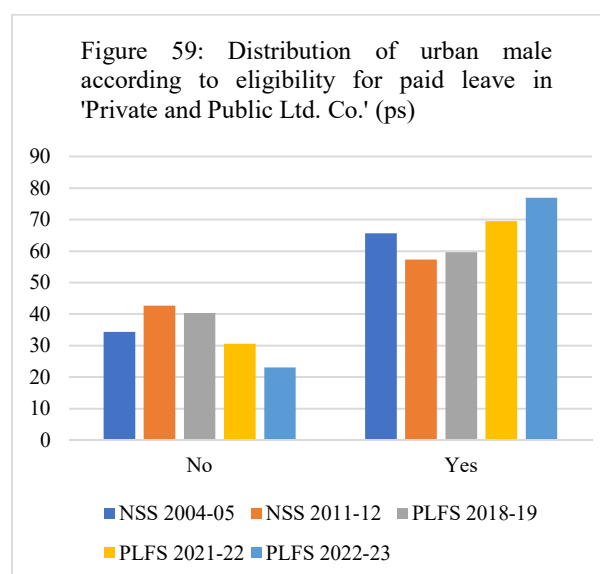
The proportion of urban males with access to paid leaves declined by eight percentage points from 2004-05 to 2011-12 and significantly increased by 19 percentage points from 2011-12 to 2022-23. In the case of urban females, the share of people with access to paid leaves consistently increased by 27 percentage points from 2004-05 to 2022-23, excepting a marginal decline of 0.5 percentage points in 2018-19. The rate of rise for urban females was much slower during 2004-05—2018-19 compared to 2018-19—2022-23.



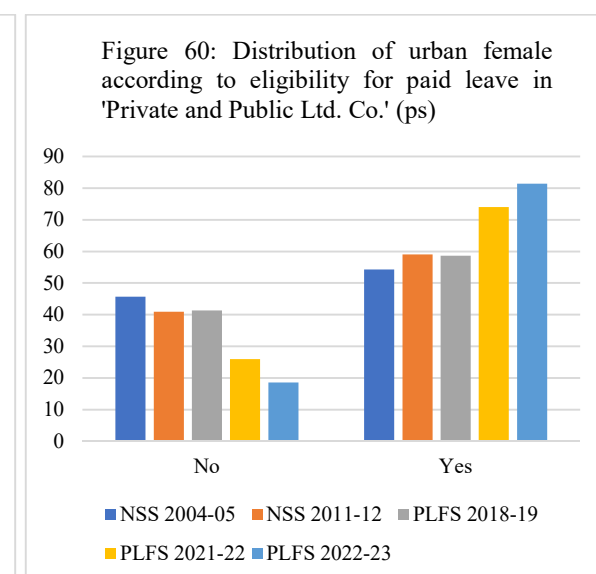
Source: Same as Figure 1



Source: Same as Figure 1



Source: Same as Figure 1



Source: Same as Figure 1



Though some improvement in terms of the rising share of workers with paid leave is observed in the 'Private and Public Limited Companies' in both rural and urban areas for male and female workers considering the entire period from 2004-2023, the improvement was visible only during the post-COVID-19 period. This again raises a concern about the persistence of such trends even when the incentives helpful in enhancing the security of tenures are withdrawn. Secondly, the size of 'Private and Public Limited Companies' in total employment in rural areas is negligible, while it is extremely low in urban areas. Thus, some observed improvement has a minimal impact on the overall social security provision of the workers in general in both rural and urban areas.

Provision of Social Security Benenfits

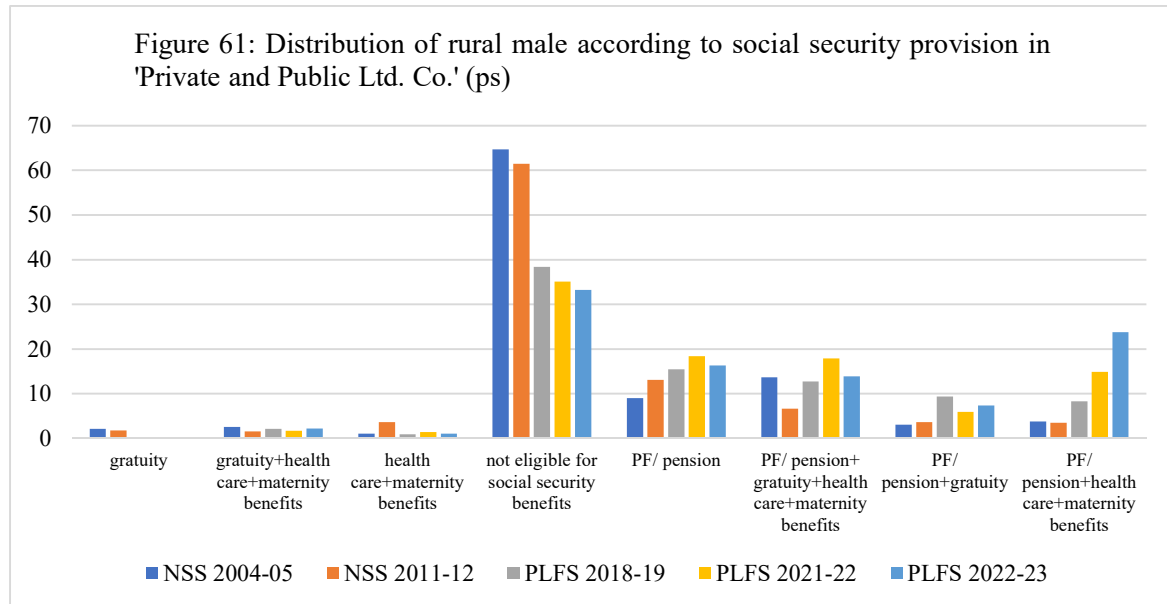
The distribution of rural males, rural females, urban males and urban females employed in the 'Private and Public Limited Companies' across various social security provisions is depicted in Figures 61, 62, 63, and 64 according to the principal activity status. While access to social security has shown an increasing trend across rural and urban areas, the proportion of non-eligible persons for any social security benefits remains substantially high, particularly in rural areas between 2004-05 and 2022-23.

In rural areas, the proportion of people not covered under any kind of social security benefit has decreased by about 31 percentage points each for males and females during the last two decades. However, a slight rise in this proportion by about five percentage points is observed for females from 2021-22 to 2022-23. In 2022-23, the total share of non-eligibility for social security was much higher for females (41 percent) than for males in rural areas (33 percent).

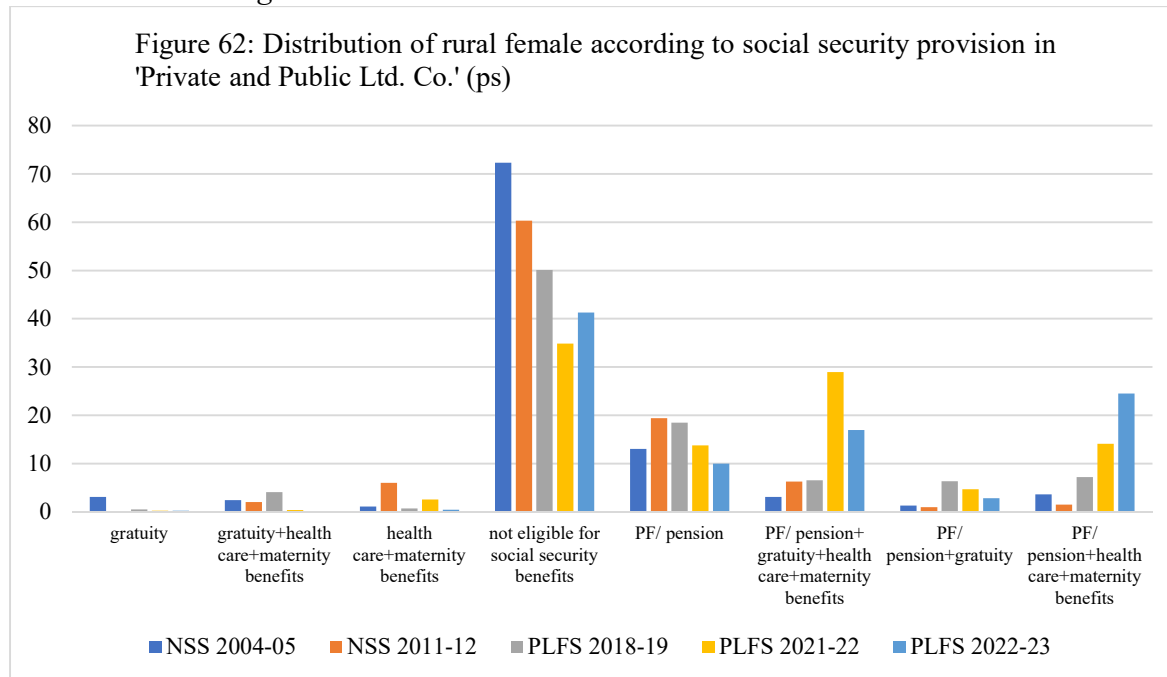
In urban areas, the inaccess to social security increased from 2004-05 to 2011-12 by approximately 6.5 percentage points, then declined by 23 percentage points from 2011-12 to 2022-23 for males. For urban females, a consistent decline in access to social security by approximately 28 percentage points was observed from 2004-05 to 2022-23.

The data highlights a positive trend in social security access in rural and urban areas within the 'Private and Public Limited Companies', albeit at a slow pace for rural females and urban males. Post-COVID-19, there was a reduction in non-eligibility for social security but a slight rise for rural females in 2022-23. Higher non-eligibility for females than males in 2022-23 in rural areas. Thus, such a fall in the share of workers not having access to any form of social security during the post-COVID-19 period might be due to the various government incentives provided during the same time. Some deterioration observed during the most recent period, 2022-23, also points towards continuing such trends in the near future.

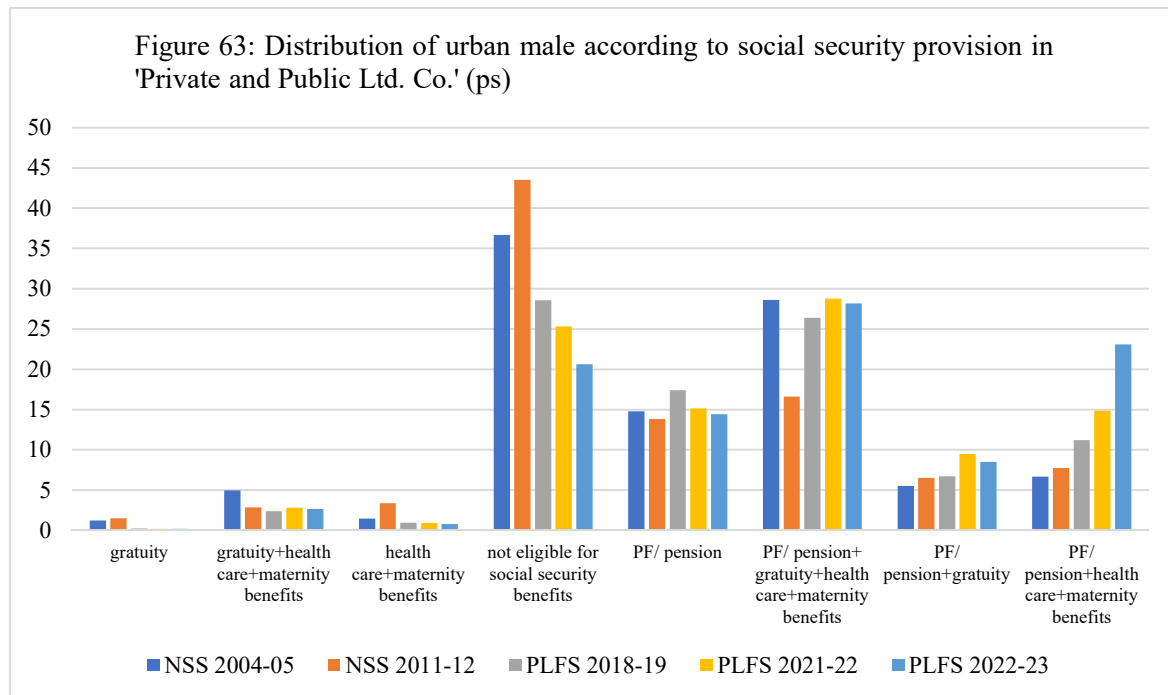
Further, a rise in the share of workers with social security is associated mainly with access to provident funds (PF). The central government has been giving incentives to the 'Private and Public Limited Companies' by covering their contribution towards the PF of their employees, which might be instrumental in higher enrolment of workers with PF in such companies. There is a possibility that once such relief is withdrawn, the proportion of workers with PF facilities might stagnate if not fall. Further, it is essential to note that an overwhelming proportion of workers in both rural and urban areas do not have access to health care benefits (including maternity leave for female workers).



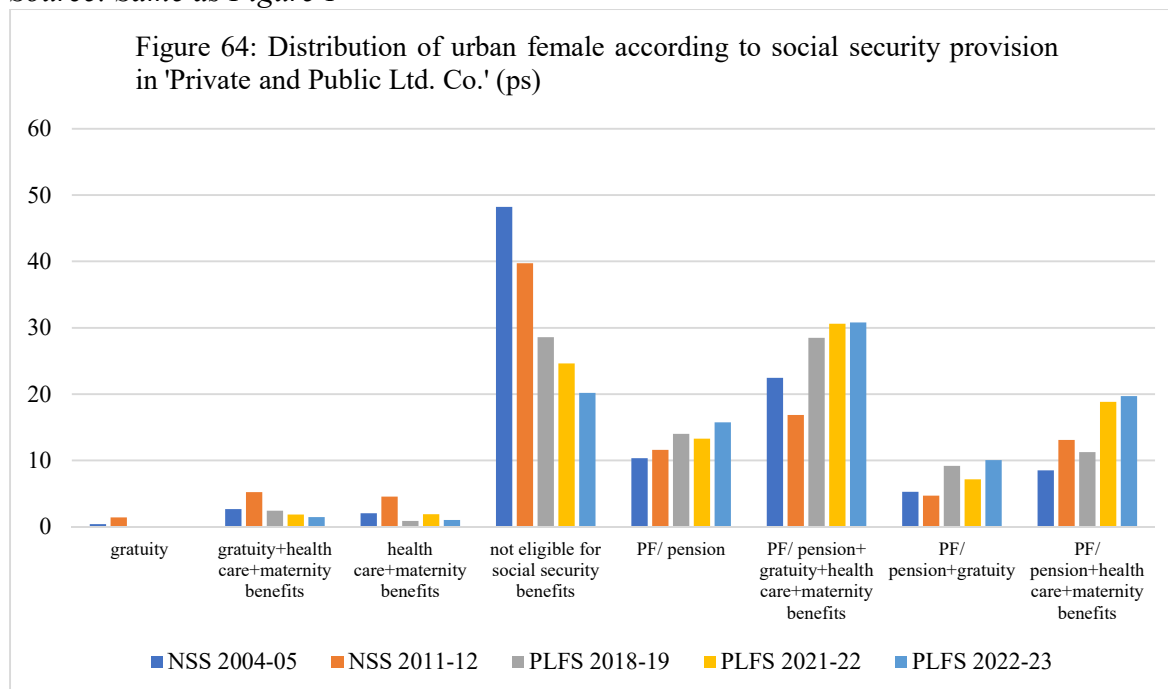
Source: Same as Figure 1



Source: Same as Figure 1



Source: Same as Figure 1



Source: Same as Figure 1

Thus, on the whole, there has hardly been any substantial improvement in the provision of social security for workers in all three major types of enterprises, namely 'Proprietary and Partnership', 'Government or Public Sector', and 'Private and Public Limited Companies', employing an overwhelming majority of workers in both rural and urban areas. Even if, in some aspects, marginal improvements are discernible, either due to external incentives given by the government during the COVID-19 period or the improvements are so small in numbers that they hardly contribute to the overall improvement in the quality of employment conditions of workers in general. On the contrary, there have been consistent trends of worsening social

security status in many ways, affecting a sizable proportion of workers in general, in rural and urban areas for both males and females. Thus, the front of providing qualitative employment as part of the structural transformation of the workforce has remained entirely off the mark.

Summary and Concluding Remarks

What seems quite evident from the study is that despite several attempts and reorientation of policy goals targetting shift in employment structure in favour of better-quality jobs, the progress in this regard has remained largely off the mark during the last two decades. The industrial policy focuses on entrepreneurial development through tax incentives, expansion of credit through several channels, relaxation in labour laws, and allocating funds for skill development of the workers to bridge the gap between what is required and what is available and to spread awareness about the existing demand conditions of the economy. The entire policy discourse remained nearly silent on the deficiency of demand as a possible factor in limiting the expansion of the industrial sector. Further, the changing nature of the demand in the economy, and consequently their role in falling employment elasticity in the modern sector and the role of modern technology mediating the relationship between growth and employment, should be addressed in the policy discourse. All these factors are critical in determining overall employment conditions in an economy like India. Therefore, the non-recognition of such factors is entirely reflected in the overall trends and patterns of structural transformation India has witnessed during the most recent period. Not only that, but the industrial sector's share remained nearly stagnant, if not falling, in the country's total GDP. On the employment front, the situation is even more alarming. Despite being the focus of industrial development in contemporary India, the enterprise-wise analysis of employment shows that there has been no structural change in employment across various types of enterprises in the country. The development of 'Proprietary and Partnership' enterprises remained central in many policy documents (the focus of 'Start-up India' schemes) and received attention in various credit-linked incentives; though constituted an overwhelming share of total employment, the share remained nearly stagnant or falling during the entire period. The 'Private and Public Limited Companies', the primary beneficiaries of labour laws relaxations and tax concessions, are showing only a marginal improvement in their share of employment that is too limited to the urban sector. Despite some improvement, the overall share of 'Private and Public Limited Companies' in total employment remains nearly negligible in rural areas and very tiny in urban areas. Conditions of employment have hardly improved over the last two decades for males and females in both rural and urban areas. Quite expectedly, the shrinking size of the 'Government or Public Sector' enterprises is evident during the entire period and more pronounced for males in both rural and urban areas.

The trends regarding shifting workers from the primary to the secondary sector are rather pessimistic. Whatever slight shift in the share of the workforce in favour of the secondary sector was experienced from 2004 to 2019 in rural and urban areas, they not only reversed during the post-COVID-19 period but reached even below the 2004 level. Thus, during the entire period from 2004-2023, there has been a rise in the share of the primary sector in all types of enterprises except the 'Government or Public Sector' enterprises, indicating the trend opposite to whatever is stated in standard mainstream literature. Most importantly, despite the relaxation of labour laws during the recent period, there is no sign of the rising share of qualitative employment in any of these enterprises under study. The stress on regular employment is quite visible in all enterprises under study. The share of regular employment in all types of enterprises remained stagnant or fell during the entire period. More importantly, 'Proprietary and

Partnership' enterprises, which constitute the largest share of employment in both rural and urban areas and received many policies focused on recent years, showed an evident decline in the share of regular employment in both rural and urban areas. In other words, while the share of precarious and vulnerable employment (casual and self-employment) remained overwhelmingly high in 'Proprietary and Partnership' enterprises, it experienced a further rise in the share of such employment during the most recent period. The 'Government or Public Sector' enterprises, which are expected to provide relatively stable employment, clearly showed a falling share of regular employment for rural and urban females while the share remained nearly stagnant for rural and urban males. Besides, concerning job contracts, there has been clear evidence of a falling share of long-term job contracts across all types of enterprises during the entire period except for the 'Private and Public Limited Companies' in rural areas, which in any way constitute a negligible proportion of total rural employment. Such fall has been more pronounced in the 'Government or Public Sector' enterprises. Further, in 'Proprietary and Partnership' enterprises, which employ an overwhelming proportion of workers in both rural and urban sectors, nearly all jobs remained without written contracts, and unfortunately, there has been no improvement in the trends during the last two decades.

As far as the workers' social security status is concerned, the trends have been worrisome. The largest employment provider, 'Proprietary and Partnership' enterprises, not only showed nearly absent workers' social security status, but the improvement in such trends also remained utterly absent during the entire period. So, an overwhelming proportion of workers employed in these enterprises remained entirely devoid of any social security till the most recent period. Further, there has been clear evidence of deteriorating the level of social security in terms of first, a falling share of workers with the eligibility for paid leave and second, a rising share of workers who do not have any social security provision in the 'Government or Public Sector' enterprise. Further, a marginal improvement was observed in the 'Private and Public Limited Companies' that remained limited to the provision of PF only. The rising proportion of workers with PF is mainly due to the incentives given by the government to such enterprises to retain employees during the COVID-19 period. So, it is likely that once such incentives are withdrawn, the share of workers with PF will also fall.

Thus, overall, during the last two decades, workers' social security status fell visibly in most enterprises employing an overwhelming proportion of workers. Thus, one may argue that during the most recent period, structural transformation in providing qualitative employment has not only been absent in India but has shown a deteriorating trend, indicating a worsening employment situation of the working masses in general. Thus, the industrial policy formulated during the recent period has failed to cater to achieving quality jobs in the economy across various types of enterprises. The problem is rather systemic and embedded in the market mechanism. Thus, it is hard to get any positive result without addressing the significant systemic issues.

References

- Chakraborty, J., & Nagaraj, R. (2020). Has India Deindustrialised Prematurely? A Disaggregated Analysis. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 55(48), 40–47.
- Nagaraj, R. (2015). Seeds of doubt remain: A reply to CSO's rejoinder. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 50(18), 64–66.
- Nagaraj, R. (2017). Economic reforms and manufacturing sector growth: Need for reconfiguring the industrialisation model. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 52(2), 61–68.

- Nagaraj, R., & Srinivasan, T. N. (2016). Measuring India's GDP growth: Unpacking the analytics & data issues behind a controversy that refuses to go away. *India Policy Forum*, 13, 73–128.
- Kujur, S. K., & Goswami, D. (2021). National Manufacturing Policy A Reality Check. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 56(45), 20–24.
- Nigam, S. (2021). Post-Reform Growth , Structural Transformation and Persistence of Surplus Labour in India and China : The Pre-Pandemic Years. *Social Scientist*, 49(5), 29–53.
- Patnaik, U., & Patnaik, P. (2021). *Capital and Imperialism: Theory, History and the Present* (First Indi). Tulika Books. <https://tulikabooks.in/capital-and-imperialism.html>
- Roy, S. (2016). Faltering manufacturing growth and employment: Is “making” the answer? *Economic and Political Weekly*, 51(13), 35–42.
- Shifa, A. B. (2015). Does Agricultural Growth Cause Manufacturing Growth? *Economica*, 82(1), 1107–1125. <https://doi.org/10.1111>
- Thakur, A. N. (2020). Economic Implications of Reverse Migration in India. *Journal of Migration Affairs*, 3(1), 16. <https://doi.org/10.36931/jma.2020.3.1.16-31>

Appendix

Table 1: Employment share across enterprises

	Co-operative societies/other non-profit institutions	Employer's households	Government/ Public Sector	Others	Proprietary and Partnership	Private and Public Ltd. C
Rural male						
NSS 61st round	0.94	0.61	8.24	4.02	83.17	3.03
NSS 68th round	0.69	0.39	14.80	7.63	72.24	4.25
PLFS 2018-19	0.90	0.70	10.59	6.13	76.55	5.13
PLFS 2021-22	0.35	0.39	4.08	1.99	89.63	3.56
PLFS 2022-23	0.41	0.23	3.67	0.95	91.23	3.51
Rural female						
NSS 61st round	0.54	1.96	5.62	1.97	88.30	1.61
NSS 68th round	0.89	1.21	29.29	3.53	63.88	1.20

Source: Author's calculations based on unit-level data of various NSS and PLFS rounds

Table 2: Structure of Broad industry across different enterprises

	Proprietary and Partnership			Government or Public sector enterprises			Private and Public Ltd. Co.		
	PS	SS	TS	PS	SS	TT	PS	SS	TS
Rural male									

NSS 61st round	28.32	34.95	36.73	9.43	15.84	74.73	9.05	73.25	17.70
NSS 68th round	15.67	45.26	39.07	45.46	17.57	36.97	4.96	76.01	19.03
PLFS 2018-19	12.93	45.47	41.60	21.67	16.98	61.36	1.33	65.07	33.59
PLFS 2021-22	55.75	23.86	20.39	3.75	23.52	72.72	5.70	59.95	34.35
PLFS 2022-23	53.21	26.95	19.85	2.36	18.45	79.19	6.66	66.90	26.45
Rural female									
NSS 61st round	59.27	28.31	12.42	12.82	12.10	75.09	9.36	76.74	13.89
NSS 68th round	41.53	42.08	16.38	47.62	32.13	20.25	7.20	67.25	25.56
PLFS 2018-19	40.30	37.21	22.49	29.01	26.33	44.66	2.81	67.30	29.89
PLFS 2021-22	83.34	10.83	5.83	3.37	43.31	53.32	33.82	36.65	29.53
PLFS 2022-23	82.81	10.66	6.53	6.33	36.52	57.15	34.99	39.01	26.00
Urban male									
NSS 61st round	2.35	37.62	60.03	0.32	16.02	83.65	0.41	63.73	35.86
NSS 68th round	2.02	37.20	60.77	0.53	16.65	82.82	0.23	54.73	45.04
PLFS 2018-19	2.05	38.02	59.93	0.39	18.01	81.60	0.17	46.95	52.88
PLFS 2021-22	7.55	36.76	55.69	0.90	16.53	82.57	0.31	48.29	51.40
PLFS 2022-23	6.40	35.49	58.11	0.82	16.56	82.62	0.63	46.79	52.58
Urban female									
NSS 61st round	10.02	49.94	40.04	0.37	4.46	95.17	0.00	51.17	48.83
NSS 68th round	5.21	50.01	44.78	0.13	6.73	93.14	0.25	38.15	61.60
PLFS 2018-19	4.85	46.96	48.19	0.75	7.39	91.86	0.30	29.72	69.99
PLFS 2021-22	17.84	38.87	43.29	1.57	11.17	87.26	1.37	30.19	68.45
PLFS 2022-23	18.05	38.40	43.55	4.81	6.01	89.17	2.19	26.50	71.31

Source: Same as Table 1

Note: Abbreviations for different broad industries are as follows— PS: Primary Sector, SS: Secondary Sector, TS: Tertiary Sector

Table 3: Distribution of Category of Employment across Different Enterprises

	Proprietary and Partnership			Government or Public sector enterprises			Private and Public Ltd. Co.		
	Casual wage labour	Regular salaried	Self-employed	Casual wage labour	Regular salaried	Self-employed	Casual wage labour	Regular salaried	Self-employed
Rural male									
NSS 61st round	28.66	10.20	61.14	10.90	82.77	6.33	30.79	62.89	6.32
NSS 68th round	37.06	12.00	50.95	33.65	41.57	24.79	25.96	70.93	3.10
PLFS 2018-19	36.48	15.38	48.14	16.62	68.84	14.55	10.46	88.61	0.93
PLFS 2021-22	27.18	7.90	64.92	14.71	85.29	0.00	9.39	90.61	0.00
PLFS 2022-23	27.95	7.61	64.44	8.94	91.06	0.00	6.16	93.84	0.00
Rural female									
NSS 61st round	14.25	2.79	82.95	19.17	73.29	7.54	28.19	58.69	13.12
NSS 68th round	19.05	5.31	75.64	57.70	20.40	21.89	28.28	67.22	4.50
PLFS 2018-19	17.64	8.30	74.06	38.80	45.54	15.66	11.74	87.77	0.49
PLFS 2021-22	22.28	2.03	75.69	46.18	53.82	0.00	17.62	82.38	0.00
PLFS 2022-23	19.54	1.95	78.51	41.99	58.01	0.00	14.03	85.97	0.00
Urban male									
NSS 61st round	16.07	26.62	57.30	2.20	96.72	1.08	7.98	89.92	2.10
NSS 68th round	16.39	27.57	56.04	3.41	96.56	0.03	5.04	94.90	0.06
PLFS 2018-19	17.11	28.34	54.55	2.96	97.00	0.04	2.74	97.26	0.01

PLFS 2021-22	18.22	25.66	56.12	3.28	96.72	0.00	2.38	97.62	0.00
PLFS 2022-23	17.95	26.37	55.67	1.51	98.49	0.00	1.74	98.26	0.00
Urban female									
NSS 61st round	13.02	16.91	70.07	2.20	97.06	0.73	10.58	87.60	1.82
NSS 68th round	12.41	21.61	65.98	2.81	97.17	0.01	7.18	92.82	0.00
PLFS 2018-19	11.83	26.60	61.56	5.17	94.75	0.08	2.77	97.23	0.00
PLFS 2021-22	13.27	21.15	65.58	9.48	90.52	0.00	3.27	96.73	0.00
PLFS 2022-23	11.84	20.83	67.33	8.00	92.00	0.00	2.41	97.59	0.00

Source: Same as Table 1

Table 4: Distribution of Type of Job Contracts within 'Proprietary and Partnership' Enterprises

	contract year	<1 years	>3 years	1-3 years	no written contract
Rural male					
NSS 61st round	0.93	1.98	0.36	96.73	
NSS 68th round	0.94	1.56	0.36	97.14	
PLFS 2018-19	1.11	1.06	0.37	97.47	
PLFS 2021-22	0.60	1.49	0.46	97.44	
PLFS 2022-23	0.58	0.81	0.20	98.41	
Rural female					
NSS 61st round	1.01	3.85	0.69	94.46	
NSS 68th round	1.09	1.79	0.45	96.68	
PLFS 2018-19	1.48	2.95	1.15	94.41	
PLFS 2021-22	0.48	1.40	0.42	97.69	

PLFS 2022-23	0.51	0.81	0.31	98.37
Urban male				
NSS 61st round	1.23	5.88	1.26	91.63
NSS 68th round	2.32	3.78	1.29	92.61
PLFS 2018-19	1.76	3.11	1.16	93.97
PLFS 2021-22	2.27	4.43	1.49	91.80
PLFS 2022-23	2.09	4.24	1.30	92.37
Urban female				
NSS 61st round	1.18	7.22	2.83	88.77
NSS 68th round	2.23	6.05	2.55	89.16
PLFS 2018-19	2.69	4.01	2.82	90.48
PLFS 2021-22	3.47	5.09	1.86	89.58
PLFS 2022-23	3.28	6.48	2.68	87.57

Source: Same as Table 1

Table 5: Distribution of Type of Job Contracts within 'Government or Public Sector' Enterprises

	contract <1 year	contract >3 years	contract 1-3 years	no written contract
Rural male				
NSS 61st round	2.44	67.17	1.87	28.52
NSS 68th round	3.88	52.55	1.86	41.71
PLFS 2018-19	5.60	49.38	3.96	41.06
PLFS 2021-22	4.51	54.26	3.04	38.19
PLFS 2022-23	5.23	62.71	3.86	28.20
Rural female				
NSS 61st round	3.56	59.16	2.90	34.38
NSS 68th round	11.05	36.22	1.55	51.18
PLFS 2018-19	8.57	33.77	4.32	53.34
PLFS 2021-22	14.27	35.48	3.45	46.80

PLFS 2022-23	5.43	42.06	3.24	49.27
Urban male				
NSS 61st round	1.51	73.37	1.29	23.83
NSS 68th round	2.38	66.02	2.29	29.31
PLFS 2018-19	4.56	52.39	3.82	39.23
PLFS 2021-22	5.55	61.26	4.62	28.57
PLFS 2022-23	7.80	67.93	4.14	20.13
Urban female				
NSS 61st round	2.00	74.42	1.55	22.02
NSS 68th round	4.25	62.13	2.12	31.50
PLFS 2018-19	7.16	49.08	3.92	39.84
PLFS 2021-22	8.42	54.49	7.02	30.07
PLFS 2022-23	7.63	61.43	5.02	25.92

Source: Same as Table 1

Table 6: Distribution of Type of Job Contracts within 'Private and Public Limited Companies'

	contract <1 year	contract >3 years	contract 1-3 years	no written contract
Rural male				
NSS 61st round	2.80	20.28	2.82	74.10
NSS 68th round	4.56	17.15	1.59	76.69
PLFS 2018-19	8.20	13.65	6.38	71.77
PLFS 2021-22	11.72	26.30	7.25	54.73
PLFS 2022-23	12.02	26.99	12.91	48.07
Rural female				
NSS 61st round	1.37	13.71	0.77	84.14
NSS 68th round	6.84	8.82	1.79	82.54
PLFS 2018-19	5.79	11.01	7.62	75.58
PLFS 2021-22	9.41	31.58	9.02	49.99
PLFS 2022-23	9.66	30.73	6.00	53.61
Urban male				
NSS 61st round	3.49	43.31	4.27	48.94
NSS 68th round	5.76	28.01	6.36	59.86
PLFS 2018-19	6.02	19.15	6.40	68.43
PLFS 2021-22	13.80	30.40	9.14	46.67

PLFS 2022-23	14.97	36.71	12.31	36.01
Urban female				
NSS 61st round	4.87	34.16	4.41	56.56
NSS 68th round	7.85	27.81	6.48	57.86
PLFS 2018-19	4.28	15.54	5.65	74.53
PLFS 2021-22	15.26	29.60	11.90	43.24
PLFS 2022-23	13.48	36.20	15.53	34.79

Source: Same as Table 1

Table 7: Distribution of Eligibility to Paid Leaves across Different Enterprises

	Proprietary and Partnership		Government or Public sector enterprises		Private and Public Ltd. Co.	
	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes
Rural male						
NSS 61st round	93.15	6.85	17.00	83.00	64.58	35.42
NSS 68th round	94.33	5.67	30.96	69.04	59.17	40.83
PLFS 2018-19	93.80	6.20	31.79	68.21	57.29	42.71
PLFS 2021-22	95.46	4.54	29.12	70.88	42.12	57.88
PLFS 2022-23	95.33	4.67	24.68	75.32	37.48	62.52
Rural female						
NSS 61st round	91.39	8.61	29.54	70.46	76.76	23.24
NSS 68th round	92.94	7.06	51.01	48.99	56.48	43.52
PLFS 2018-19	90.47	9.53	51.71	48.29	61.79	38.21
PLFS 2021-22	96.54	3.46	51.82	48.18	40.07	59.93
PLFS 2022-23	95.93	4.07	46.98	53.02	42.90	57.10
Urban male						
NSS 61st round	85.56	14.44	5.83	94.17	34.31	65.69
NSS 68th round	85.70	14.30	10.63	89.37	42.67	57.33

PLFS 2018-19	86.37	13.63	20.68	79.32	40.31	59.69
PLFS 2021-22	86.70	13.30	17.12	82.88	30.55	69.45
PLFS 2022-23	84.45	15.55	11.98	88.02	23.07	76.93
Urban female						
NSS 61st round	80.67	19.33	10.19	89.81	45.66	54.34
NSS 68th round	81.15	18.85	13.63	86.37	40.97	59.03
PLFS 2018-19	80.57	19.43	24.20	75.80	41.37	58.63
PLFS 2021-22	80.42	19.58	19.41	80.59	25.94	74.06
PLFS 2022-23	77.94	22.06	19.89	80.11	18.56	81.44

Source: Same as Table 1

Table 8: Distribution of Provision to Social Security within 'Proprietary and Partnership' Enterprise

[illegible]

NSS 61st round	0.021	0.017	0.580	92.865	3.750	1.999	0.202	0.566
NSS 68th round	0.379	0.623	0.830	90.004	1.168	1.101	0.523	1.916
PLFS 2018- 19	0.569	0.342	0.142	91.003	1.377	1.774	0.768	0.429
PLFS 2021- 22	0.007	0.029	0.121	94.074	0.490	0.362	0.107	0.443
PLFS 2022- 23	0.058	0.021	0.055	96.674	0.439	0.388	0.204	0.443
Urban male								
NSS 61st round	0.378	0.266	1.321	91.987	2.198	1.988	0.648	1.215
NSS 68th round	0.634	0.510	0.784	88.745	2.142	1.925	0.615	0.962
PLFS 2018- 19	0.527	0.341	0.239	85.438	2.388	1.658	0.875	1.434
PLFS 2021- 22	0.067	0.161	0.225	89.366	2.193	1.964	1.170	1.293
PLFS 2022- 23	0.038	0.183	0.291	91.027	1.775	1.887	1.260	1.650
Urban female								
NSS 61st round	0.65	1.12	2.63	88.57	2.36	2.55	1.17	0.95
NSS 68th round	1.61	1.08	1.31	84.79	3.06	3.39	0.32	2.10
PLFS 2018- 19	0.55	0.74	0.19	84.34	4.18	2.22	1.06	1.51
PLFS 2021- 22	0.04	0.31	0.37	83.88	3.83	3.70	1.73	2.91
PLFS 2022- 23	0.10	0.33	0.48	85.14	3.59	3.01	1.89	3.88

Source: Same as Table 1

Table 9: Distribution of Provision to Social Security within 'Government or Public Sector'

	gratuity	gratuity+health care+maternity benefits	health care+maternity benefits	not eligible for Social Security benefits	PF/pension	PF/pension+gratuity+health care+maternity benefits	PF/pension+gratuity	PF/pension+health care+maternity benefits
Rural male								
NSS 61st round	1.020	1.501	0.681	22.740	15.287	53.026	3.315	2.430
NSS 68th round	0.482	1.375	0.608	32.571	12.120	43.729	2.743	2.310
PLFS 2018-19	0.799	1.180	0.979	30.421	18.291	32.919	4.910	5.607
PLFS 2021-22	0.325	0.533	0.392	29.412	14.172	38.460	4.020	8.517
PLFS 2022-23	0.517	1.972	0.824	27.624	10.218	45.767	3.436	8.904
Rural female								
NSS 61st round	0.959	1.708	3.152	47.573	7.812	34.898	1.230	2.668
NSS 68th round	0.655	1.130	2.787	63.151	4.964	21.033	1.601	1.176
PLFS 2018-19	0.301	1.416	4.145	59.768	7.981	14.793	1.640	3.565
PLFS 2021-22	0.255	1.201	1.602	66.992	6.146	15.049	1.391	4.559
PLFS 2022-23	0.312	0.593	2.205	63.407	5.119	17.567	1.483	8.070
Urban male								
NSS 61st round	0.373	1.358	0.484	7.440	15.183	68.651	3.679	2.832
NSS 68th round	0.750	1.841	0.710	11.964	11.634	64.230	4.077	2.752

PLFS 2018-19	0.437	1.114	0.426	17.408	20.757	46.217	4.039	7.108
PLFS 2021-22	0.389	1.730	0.425	13.993	11.511	56.493	3.959	9.527
PLFS 2022-23	0.083	1.749	0.943	11.789	10.349	59.302	4.291	10.496
Urban female								
NSS 61st round	0.61	0.92	0.26	14.70	11.38	66.63	2.35	3.15
NSS 68th round	0.69	1.51	1.82	19.80	9.04	60.29	2.09	3.04
PLFS 2018-19	0.46	1.89	1.22	24.68	17.31	41.94	2.50	7.25
PLFS 2021-22	0.18	2.92	1.50	23.83	9.02	48.00	3.56	9.18
PLFS 2022-23	0.13	0.67	1.86	25.08	7.07	49.12	3.49	11.73

Source: Same as Table 1

Table 10: Distribution of Provision to Social Security within 'Private and Public Limited Companies'

	gratuity	gratuity + health care+ maternity benefits	health care+ maternity benefits	not eligible	PF/ pension	PF/ pension + gratuity + health care+ maternity benefits	PF/ pension + gratuity	PF/ pension + health care+ maternity benefits
Rural male								
NSS 61st round	2.105	2.574	1.083	64.713	8.999	13.675	3.055	3.797
NSS 68th round	1.753	1.580	3.625	61.437	13.090	6.642	3.643	3.497
PLFS 2018-19	0.063	2.097	0.883	38.404	15.453	12.737	9.373	8.306

PLFS 2021- 22	0.047	1.720	1.404	35.07 7	18.410	17.926	5.909	14.875
PLFS 2022- 23	0.008	2.178	1.026	33.21 1	16.305	13.910	7.350	23.791
Rural female								
NSS 61st round	3.091	2.439	1.071	72.35 4	13.036	3.093	1.291	3.623
NSS 68th round	0.000	2.014	6.007	60.34 3	19.401	6.241	0.977	1.470
PLFS 2018- 19	0.464	4.060	0.664	50.09 2	18.454	6.527	6.336	7.210
PLFS 2021- 22	0.251	0.388	2.517	34.83 6	13.733	28.959	4.685	14.083
PLFS 2022- 23	0.240	0.029	0.395	41.28 8	9.966	16.952	2.799	24.524
Urban male								
NSS 61st round	1.237	4.979	1.464	36.69 8	14.793	28.629	5.513	6.686
NSS 68th round	1.502	2.858	3.391	43.49 6	13.834	16.628	6.514	7.749
PLFS 2018- 19	0.246	2.394	0.935	28.57 4	17.395	26.388	6.700	11.226
PLFS 2021- 22	0.204	2.841	0.896	25.31 8	15.146	28.774	9.481	14.867
PLFS 2022- 23	0.187	2.663	0.799	20.62 3	14.418	28.165	8.486	23.107
Urban female								
NSS 61st round	0.42	2.67	2.06	48.22	10.36	22.46	5.29	8.52
NSS 68th round	1.44	5.23	4.56	39.72	11.58	16.86	4.70	13.12
PLFS 2018- 19	0.05	2.44	0.90	28.57	14.02	28.48	9.17	11.27



PLFS 2021- 22	0.04	1.85	1.91	24.62	13.31	30.62	7.16	18.82
PLFS 2022- 23	0.00	1.48	1.02	20.20	15.73	30.80	10.05	19.72

Source: Same as Table 1