# INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF RESEARCH IN **COMMERCE, IT & MANAGEMENT**



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Sharma T., Kwatra, G. (2008) Effectiveness of Social Advertising: A Study of Selected Campaigns, Corporate Social Responsibility, Edited by David Crowther & Nicholas Capaldi, Ashgate Research Companion to Corporate Social Responsibility, Chapter 15, pp 287-303.

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 Schemenner, R.W., Huber, J.C. and Cook, R.L. (1987), "Geographic Differences and the Location of New Manufacturing Facilities," Journal of Urban Economics, Vol. 21, No. 1, pp. 83-104.

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#### **COMBATING UNEMPLOYMENT: AN INDIAN PERSPECTIVE**

# PALAASH KUMAR STUDENT SCHOOL OF PHARMACY & TECHNOLOGY MANAGEMENT NMIMS UNIVERSITY SHIRPUR

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#### **ABSTRACT**

Inequalities in income and wealth can witness a sea change only in a longer term perspective. A change in inequality (i.e. an increase or a decrease in the inequality) can be brought about by the employment structure of an economy. The functionality of the governments is bound by administrative and fiscal constraints; therefore, the income distribution is, in a normal manner, marginally impacted by the target group programs. What India faces as the major challenge is youth unemployment and that too for the labour market policy even against the backdrop of the country's increased levels of literacy and demographic dividend. 49 percent is the share of the unemployed people in India that is made up by young job seekers. The informal sector provides for 93 percent of the available work as a result of which a large number of well-educated youth face unemployment, underemployment or are seeking employment or are between jobs or adjusting with insecure work arrangements. What is required in India is cooperation, both national as well as international, among different trade unions, vocational training organizations, and committees at the national level in order to provide an environment full of opportunities for economic growth. Indian youth, in the absence of any formal social security, is faced with the challenge of survival and limited growth prospects. To check unemployment among the youth in India, various measures have been initiated. India has introduced a number of employment generating schemes, including those under MGNREGA. Similar policy initiatives have been taken for skilled workers. However, these initiatives have had limited impact. There is a need to learn about other's experiences, their employment guarantee programs and also their social security programs. In this study we will investigate the various causes of unemployment in India and the possible measures to eradicate it.

#### **JEL CODE**

J21, J23, J10, J11.

#### **KEYWORDS**

Employment, unemployment, skill development, joblessness, literacy, vocational education, training.

#### INTRODUCTION

In the year 1999-2000, 7.32 % of the labour force was unemployed. In numbers, the total number of unemployed stood at 26.58 million. The underemployed in terms of underutilization of labour time are included in the above number. Underemployed working at very low levels of income and productivity are excluded from the above number.

The organized sector provides only 8 percent of the total employment. Informal sector activities engage more than 90% which is largely outside the reach of any social security benefits and also suffers from handicaps in the form of limited access to institutional facilities and other support facilities.

39 percent of the total population is made up by India's labour force.

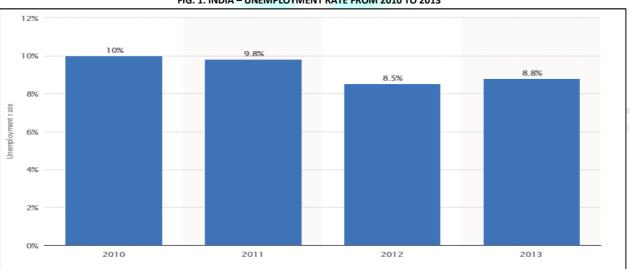


FIG. 1: INDIA - UNEMPLOYMENT RATE FROM 2010 TO 2013

#### **EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT**

Almost 33 percent of the people employed in 1993 were poor, while only 18 to 19 percent of the unemployed people were poor. The percentage of self-employed Indian workers was 51; 54.2 percent in rural areas and 41.1 percent in urban areas. This is what was revealed by the NSS's 66<sup>th</sup> round data. The share of casual workers among the employed was as high as 33.5 percent as compared to 15.6 percent of the regular wage/salaried people.

ABLE 1: AGE-SPECIFIC LABOUR PARTICIPATION RATE ON UPSS BASIS									
RURAL MALE									
(years)	1993-94	1999-00	2004-05	2009-10	2011-12				
15-19	598	532	529	390	333				
20-24	902	889	891	813	788				
25-29	980	975	982	975	963				
All ages	561	540	555	556	553				
		RURAL	FEMALE						
(years)	1993-94	1999-00	2004-05	2009-10	2011-12				
15-19	371	314	331.00	195	164				
20-24	469	425	435.00	314	297				
25-29	530	498	530.00	404	369				
all	330	302	333.00	265	253				
		URBAI	N MALE						
(years)	1993-94	1999-00	2004-05	2009-10	2011-12				
15-19	404	366	381	263	256				
20-24	772	755	769	682	664				
25-29	958	951	957	947	951				
all	542	542	570	559	563				
		URBAN	FEMALE						
(years)	1993-94	1999-00	2004-05	2009-10	2011-12				
15-19	142	121	144	85	89				
20-24	230	191	250	197	197				
25-29	248	214	261	222	253				
all	164	147	178	146	155				

#### TABLE 2: AGE-SPECIFIC WPR AMONG 15-29 AND ALL POPULATION

group	1999-2000	2004-2005	2009-2010	2011-2012	1999-2000	2004-2005	2009-2010	2011-2012		
	RURAL									
	Male				Female					
15-19	503	497	358	303	304	319	186	156		
20-24	844	849	768	742	409	410	295	278		
25-29	950	966	957	942	491	513	391	357		
15-29	741	742	648	616	400	410	288	258		
all (0 +)	531	546	547	543	299	327	261	248		
				URBAN						
	Male				Female					
15-19	314	335	231	223	105	128	76	78		
20-24	658	684	617	594	155	201	160	160		
25-29	883	909	906	906	194	229	196	231		
15-29	593	623	564	558	149	184	144	157		
all (0 +)	518	549	543	546	139	166	138	147		

TABLE 3: UNEMPLOYMENT RATE AMONG YOUTH ACCORDING TO USUAL STATUS

Age Group	1999-2000	2004-05	2009-10	2011-12					
RURAL MALE									
15-19	6.5	7.9	10.0	11.4					
20-24	6.2	6.2	6.4	6.9					
25-29	3.2	2.3	2.2	2.8					
15-29	5.1	5.2	5.5	6.1					
	RUR	AL FEMALE							
15-19	3.1	6.7	7.4	8.0					
20-24	4.9	9.3	8.6	9.9					
25-29	2.4	5.2	4.5	5.8					
15-29	3.7	7.0	6.5	7.8					
	URE	BAN MALE							
15-19	15.4	14.0	13.2	14.4					
20-24	13.9	12.5	10.1	11.6					
25-29	7.5	5.8	4.4	5.3					
15-29	11.5	10.0	7.9	8.9					
URBAN FEMALE									
15-19	15.5	15.6	14.3	15.3					
20-24	22.6	25.8	21.7	21.9					
25-29	11.5	15.8	14.6	10.8					
15-29	16.6	19.9	17.2	15.6					



TABLE 4: EMPLOYMENT & UNEMPLOYMENT INDICATORS (2011-12)						(PER THOUSAND)			
		Rural		Urban			Rural+ Urban		ban
	Male	Female	Person	Male	Female	Person	Male	Female	Person
USUAL PRINCIPAL STATUS		•			•				,
Labour Force Participation rate	547	181	368	560	134	356	550	168	364
Worker Population Ratio	535	176	359	542	125	342	537	161	354
Proportion Unemployed	12	5	8	18	9	14	13	6	10
Unemployment Rate	21	29	23	32	66	38	24	37	27
USUAL STATUS (PS +SS)		•			•				
Labour Force Participation Rate	553	253	406	563	155	367	556	225	395
Worker Population Ratio	543	248	399	546	147	355	544	219	386
Proportion Unemployed	10	4	7	17	8	13	12	5	9
Unemployment Rate	17	17	17	30	52	34	21	24	22
CURRENT WEEKLY STATUS									
Labour Force Participation Rate	545	215	383	561	148	363	549	196	377
Worker Population Ratio	526	207	370	539	138	347	530	188	364
Proportion Unemployed	18	8	13	22	10	16	19	8	14
Unemployment Rate	33	35	34	38	67	44	35	42	37
CURRENT DAILY STATUS	CURRENT DAILY STATUS								
Labour Force Participation rate	534	180	361	555	136	354	540	168	359
Worker Population Ratio	504	169	340	528	125	335	511	156	339
Proportion Unemployed	29	11	20	27	11	19	29	11	20
Unemployment Rate	55	62	57	49	80	55	53	66	56

Source: NSSO report (68th round) Employment and Unemployment Situation in India, 2011-12.

Due to their lack of marketable education and skills, the unemployment of young people in the labor market is high.

The Government of India (GOI) says that for every non-youth who remains unemployed, there are nearly six young people who suffer the same fate in rural areas and seven in urban areas.

TABLE 5: ALL INDIA RURAL & URBAN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (2011-12) (%)

Estimates	Rural		Urban			Rural+ Urban			
	Male	Female	M+F	Male	Female	M+F	Male	Female	M+F
Usual Principal Status	2.1	3.0	2.3	3.2	6.4	3.8	2.5	3.8	2.8
Usual Status (ADJ)	1.8	1.6	1.7	3.0	5.2	3.5	2.2	2.4	2.2
Current Weekly Status	3.3	3.5	3.4	3.8	6.9	4.4	3.5	4.3	3.7
Current Daily Status	5.5	6.2	5.7	4.9	7.9	5.4	5.3	6.7	5.6

Source: NSSO Report (68th Round) Employment and Unemployment Situation in India, 2011-12.

Unemployment declined by 14.6 per cent in the case of youth compared with non-youth (65.5 per cent) (Government of India 1998). Youth unemployment is the paramount unemployment problem in India.

The following was the trend in the youth labor market during 1980-2010:

- 1. The youth size of the population (15 to 24 age group) increased threefold.
- The literacy rate of the youth population went up from 56.4 per cent in 1983 to 80.3 per cent in 2007–2008.
- 3. The self-employed form the majority of youth workers (50 per cent).
- 4. Casual laborers form the next biggest category (35 per cent). The share of youth in regular salaried/wage employment has increased over time.
- 5. However, the proportion of youth employment in agriculture has declined faster than among adults.

The indicators and also the other important statistics relating to distribution of workers according to employment status and industry and also on wage rates of regular wage/salaried employees and casual laborers from the survey are summarized as below:

#### 1. LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE (LFPR) IN USUAL STATUS (PS+SS)

About 40 per cent of population belonged to the labor force - 41 per cent in rural areas and 37 per cent in urban areas.

LFPR for males was nearly 56 per cent and it was 23 per cent for females.

LFPR was about 55 per cent for rural males and about 56 per cent for urban males. It was about 25 per cent for rural females and about 16 per cent for urban females.

#### 2. WORKER POPULATION RATIO (WPR) IN USUAL STATUS (PS+SS)

WPR was 39 per cent at the all-India level- 40 per cent in rural areas and 36 per cent in urban areas.

WPR for males was nearly 54 per cent and it was 22 per cent for females.

WPR was nearly 54 per cent for rural males and 25 per cent for rural females. It was nearly 55 per cent for urban males and 15 per cent urban females.

#### 3. UNEMPLOYMENT RATE (UR) IN USUAL STATUS (ADJUSTED)

UR in the usual status (ps+ss) termed as UR in usual status (adjusted) was nearly 2 per cent at the all-India level. It was about 2 per cent in rural areas and about 3 per cent in urban.

In the rural areas, UR for both males and females were almost at the same level (nearly 2 per cent) while in urban areas, UR for females was about 5 per cent as compared to 3 per cent for males.

#### 4. GROWTH IN EMPLOYMENT BETWEEN 66TH ROUND AND 68TH ROUND

According to the usual status (ps+ss), the workforce at the all-India level, was about 459.0 million (rural male: 231.9, rural female:104.5, urban male: 99.8 and urban female: 22.8) as on 1st January 2010 (NSS 66th round) which increased to 472.9 million (rural male: 234.6, rural female:101.8, urban male:109.2 and urban female: 27.3) as on 1st January 2012 (NSS 68th round), indicating a growth of about 13.9 million of the workforce at the all-India level between 66th round and 68th round.

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Estimated persons/person-o	days (in million) in differ	ent broad activity st	atuses			
all-India	age: all ages					
estimated persons/		rural	urban			
person-days on a day*						
	male	female	male	female		
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)		
			NSS 68 <sup>th</sup> round	d (July 2011 – June 2012)		
		usual principa	al status			
in the labour force	236.0	74.2	111.8	25.0		
in the workforce	231.0	72.1	108.2	23.3		
unemployed	5.0	2.2	3.6	1.6		
		usual status (	ps + ss)			
in the labour force	238.8	103.6	112.5	28.8		
in the workforce	234.6	101.8	109.2	27.3		
unemployed	4.2	1.7	3.4	1.5		
current weekly status						
in the labour force	235.1	88.0	112.0	27.6		
in the workforce	227.3	84.9	107.7	25.7		
unemployed	7.8	3.1	4.3	1.9		

#### **CURRENT DAILY STATUS ( PERSON-DAYS ON A DAY)**

CORRENT DAILT STATUS (FERSON-DATS ON A DAT)								
in the labour force	230.4	73.8	110.9	25.3				
in the workforce	217.7	69.2	105.5	23.3				
unemployed	12.7	4.6	5.4	2.0				
projected population	431.7	409.8	199.8	186.1				
			NSS 66 <sup>th</sup> round (Jul	y 2009 – June 2010)				
		usual principal status						
in the labour force	232.2	83.2	102.2	21.3				
in the workforce	227.8	81.2	99.1	19.8				
unemployed	4.5	2.0	3.1	1.5				
		usual status (ps + ss)						
in the labour force	235.7	106.2	102.7	24.2				
in the workforce	231.9	104.5	99.8	22.8				
unemployed	3.8	1.7	2.9	1.4				
current weekly status								
in the labour force	232.3	92.6	102.2	23.3				
in the workforce	224.9	89.2	98.5	21.6				
unemployed	7.4	3.4	3.6	1.7				

#### **CURRENT DAILY STATUS ( PERSON-DAYS ON A DAY)**

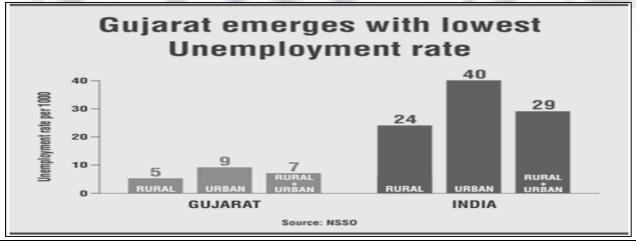
in the labour force	227.2	79.1	101.2	21.4
in the workforce	212.6	72.8	96.0	19.4
unemployed	14.6	6.3	5.2	1.9
projected population	423.9	400.9	183.8	165.5

Note: To get the estimated persons/person-days corresponding to 68<sup>th</sup> round, projected populations as on 1st January 2012 has been applied to the key indicators of 68<sup>th</sup> round and projected populations as on 1st January 2010 has been applied to the key indicators of 66<sup>th</sup> round to get estimated persons/person-days corresponding to 66<sup>th</sup> round.

#### INDIA'S UNEMPLOYMENT RATE

Unemployment rate in India decreased to 3.80 percent in 2011 from 9.40 percent in 2010. The Indian Ministry of Labor keeps track of and reports the unemployment rate in India. From 1983 until 2011, Indian Unemployment Rate averaged 7.6 Percent reaching an all-time high of 9.4 Percent in December of 2010 and a record low of 3.8 Percent in December of 2011. In India, the unemployment rate measures the number of people actively looking for a job as a percentage of the labor force.

FIG. 2: RATE OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN DIFFERENT STATES OF INDIA



<sup>\*:</sup> Total person-days available to the specific segments of the population on a day is distributed in three broad activity statuses viz., labour force, workforce and unemployed.

#### THE DIFFERENT TYPES OF UNEMPLOYMENT

#### CYCLICAL UNEMPLOYMENT

It is attributable to the business cycle and can be exemplified by the rise in unemployment due to the economic recessions. Periodic economic booms and recessions are a natural and regular part of economies. Recessions cause less demand which results in businesses laying off workers leading to cyclical unemployment.

#### FRICTIONAL UNEMPLOYMENT

It is characteristic of a persistent low unemployment level caused by the presence of natural frictions in the labor market. In other words, workers and businesses are on the constant lookout for each other. Frictional unemployment, a natural and normal part of an efficient labor market, is there even during economic booms when overall unemployment is very low.

#### STRUCTURAL UNEMPLOYMENT

A fair deal of attention has been received by structural unemployment due to it being the most challenging to address and because it can slow economic recovery out of recessions. Structural unemployment results from a mismatch of worker skills and available job vacancies resulting from the economy not being the same before and after the recession.

#### REASONS FOR UNEMPLOYMENT

#### 1. SHORTAGE OF JOBS

According to various estimates, productivity during the period from 2004 to 2010 grew 34 per cent. Thus productivity accounted for the growth of the Indian economy more than employment. Due to the limited creation of additional jobs, workers found themselves without jobs. This situation compelled them to either go for unskilled or casual work in the informal sector or to go for further studies. Self-employment and that too with extremely low returns was chosen by those who could not go for further education. The large number of self-employed or casual workers is an example of self-exploitation since such workers are without any effective protection.

#### 2. EMPLOYABILITY

It is absolutely necessary for India to convert its labor force into an asset to be able to take full advantage of the demographic dividend. Only 5 per cent of the workforce has undergone some kind of vocational training, but even many of those are not employable, since the skills acquired have limited market application. Furthermore, the generalist nature of India's education system is not connected to the labor market. NASSCOM says that almost 40 per cent of the skilled workforce is not employable because the acquired education and training are of substandard quality.

#### 3. SKILLS MISMATCH

India is generally seen as a labor surplus economy with a majority of workers having limited or negligible marketable skills. Furthermore, India has a lopsided skills stock. On one side, a large section of the workforce is not able to get even minimum wages, which is mandatory as per the government; on the other side, there are a few people with marketable skills who are able to demand higher rewards. Recently, the acquisition of skills has increased. While an imbalance in the Indian labor market has created a surplus in some skills and it has also created shortages in others.

#### 4. WOMEN - SECURITY AND SOCIAL RESTRICTIONS

The expansion of the Indian economy has created increased employment opportunities for female workers, particularly in IT, retail, travel and tourism. Their full engagement still remains restricted due to problems of personal security, biased attitudes of co-workers and social customs. Due to ineffective protection, young female workers either select jobs for security considerations or prolong their education. Marriage is a major factor as to why women workers withdraw from the labor market. Security system also gets in the way of securing effective enforcement of labor laws and rights, including trade unions.

#### **CONSEQUENCES OF UNEMPLOYMENT**

Long-term unemployment indirectly influences outcomes. A worker's family income falls because of the lack of earnings while he is unemployed. The loss of income becomes larger as unemployment is longer and can influence the worker and the worker's household. Reduction in the quantity and quality of goods and services is a consequence of the loss of income and what the worker's family can purchase is also compromised upon. Exacerbation of stress is also led to as a result of dealing with the income loss.

Long-term unemployment undoubtedly has an effect on individuals, families and communities directly. Loss of skills or skill erosion is caused due to lack of use when individuals are out of work. This skill erosion or "depreciation of human capital" increases with the passage of time. What it means is that the potential wages the unemployed could earn upon finding a new job and even the chances of getting a new job diminish the longer they are out of work. A worker's "social capital" may also be reduced by being out of work. Social capital is the network of business contacts that facilitate finding new and good jobs. Social capital may decline with prolonged duration of unemployment because social circles defined by work contact can fade away when work contact ceases. Social capital erosion has a direct correlation with the diluted chances of finding a new job the longer a worker is unemployed. An individual's physical and mental health is also affected by the stress of being out of work. Family dynamics and the well-being of his or her children also bear the toll of the same. Involuntary loss of job is a stressful event which creates a number of problems immediately and long periods of unemployment can aggravate those problems.

Lower well-being among the long-term unemployed, their families and their communities results by being out of work for more than six months. Each week out of work is associated with more lost income. Even after finding new jobs, the long-term unemployed earn less. Unemployed people tend to be in poorer health and their children show worse academic performance than similar workers who avoided unemployment. Higher rates of crime and violence are also found in communities with a higher share of long-term unemployed workers.

The long-term unemployed may have issues that contribute to their unemployment status and also to their poor future outcomes. In this case, long-term unemployment can have an association with poor future outcomes of which it may not necessarily be an underlying cause. This phenomenon is referred to as a "selection" effect. Another factor which makes things complicated is the extent to which the association between poor outcomes and long-term unemployment is connected to the fact of an involuntary job loss itself.

Unemployment has profound financial, budgetary and economic effects. A number of those who leave the workforce not of their will do not have the resources for a comfortable and long retirement. The society pays the price in the form of increased income support, reduction in human capital and productivity and health and community support costs. A divided nation is the result of deep-rooted unemployment where those with jobs benefit from economic growth while those missing out may be relegated to secondary status.

#### HOW TO REDUCE UNEMPLOYMENT

#### RIGHT TO WORK

In Article 41 of the Indian constitution, it is provided that the State shall within the purview of its economic capacity and development; formulate effective provisions for securing the right to work, to education and to public assistance in cases of unemployment, old age, sickness and disablement and in other cases of undeserved want. As per Article 38 the state shall strive to promote the welfare of the people; Article 43 states it shall endeavor to secure a living wage and a decent standard of living to all workers. The Directive Principles of state policy of the Constitution of India include these promises.

#### 2. EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGE

The Federal Ministry of Labor which operates the Employment Exchange organization; runs more than 900 individual employment exchanges in order to match demand and supply with regard to work opportunities. Registration of the job seekers with employment exchanges helps them get notified as soon as any vacancy in the government sector matching their profile comes up. Employment exchanges play a vital role in assisting young people in finding employment.

Self-employment ventures are also assisted with. Registering the applications of job seekers and notifying them about vacancies, collection and distribution of employment market information, vocational guidance for students and young people are the major functions of employment exchanges.

#### 3. VOCATIONAL TRAINING

70 million people need to be trained in vocational skills over the next five years. Another 360 million workers need to be retrained. The government targets to train 500 million people by 2022 by encouraging the participation of entrepreneurs and private organizations. The huge gap between skills demand and supply is the cause of an initiative that has been taken by India to develop a system of vocational training. Under this system, young people are to be provided with training related to skills.

Youth employability has to be increased through skill development and vocational training. The GOI has realized the importance of skills.

A three-tier institutional system consisting of:

- (i) The Prime Minister's National Council on Skill Development,
- (ii) The National Skill Development Coordination Board and
- (iii) The National Skill Development Corporation,

has been charged with the responsibility to take forward the Skill Development Mission

(GOI 2010: 205). This is an important initiative.

#### 4. EMPLOYMENT GENERATION PROGRAMS

The Employment Generation Programs (EGP) has emerged as an important employment policy tool, particularly in developing countries such as India in recent years.

This policy package includes:

- 1. a wide range of activities intended to increase labor demand (Eg: direct job creation);
- 2. to increase the quality of labor supply (training and retraining);
- 3. to improve the matching of workers and jobs (job search assistance).

The major programs currently in force in India are:

- 1. Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA),
- 2. Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY),
- 3. Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY) and
- 4. the Prime Minister's Employment Generation Programme (PMEGP).

#### **SUGGESTIONS**

We should promote the use of labor intensive and capital saving technologies. And secondly, the way the "organized sector" is defined at present needs to be changed. The organized sector is defined in terms of its capital intensity, i.e., the technology used and employment – the terms of contract between the employer and employee. At present the employment terms are viewed to be rigid by the organized sector, with the result that though the organized sector needs and uses a lot of labor input, it does not show up in jobs created.

Similar tendencies have forced the capital intensity to increase even in the small-scale sector. One of the suggestions is that, if employment is the social purpose of a small-scale policy or small and medium enterprise policy then the policy should be designed in terms of jobs created rather than investments made.

#### CONCLUSION

There is growing awareness of the fact that we live in an increasingly interdependent world following the global financial crisis from 2008 on. The ever-increasing size of the youth workforce, both skilled and unskilled, in an environment of job scarcity has resulted in more and more young people being faced with limited employment opportunities, causing them to be either underemployed or unemployed. Indian youth, in the absence of any formal social security, is thus faced with the challenge of survival and limited growth prospects. To check unemployment among the youth in India, various measures have been initiated. India has introduced a number of employment-generating schemes.

Others' experiences, their employment guarantee programs and also their social security programs are something that need to be learnt about. Global understanding of youth unemployment is need. Special emphasis on the problem of youth unemployment needs to be placed by global organizations to enhance employability and employment opportunities.

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