

Abstract{PRIVATE }

The paper provides evidence of the growing informalisation of the labour force in the South Asian countries. Two broad components of the informal economy, i.e., non-wage and wage employment were distinguished. The share of the first component was found to be rising in the last two decades. Within non-wage employment, certain invisible groups of workers, such as homebased workers and street vendors were identified as being vulnerable to changes in the global and local economy. Increasing casualisation of the workforce was seen as evidence of an increase in the second broad component. Within wage employment, homeworkers or outworkers and informal workers in the formal enterprises were identified as vulnerable. The low quality of employment available to women in the informal economy was brought out by evidence on the wages and incomes received and differentials in earnings.

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Gender and Informality in the Labour Market in South Asia

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{PRIVATE }I. INTRODUCTION{tc \l 1 "I. INTRODUCTION"}

The labour market in developing countries is markedly different from that in the developed countries. The most striking feature of labour markets in the developing countries is its non-homogeneous character. The labour markets in these two worlds differ in its sectoral composition with the vast majority of employment being in the non-agricultural sectors in the developed world whereas the developing world is still predominantly agricultural. The status of the vast majority of workers in the developed countries is of wage and salary earners. Whereas in the developing countries there is a predominance of self employment.

This non-homogeneous character of the labour markets in developing countries also implies that the nature of employment and the manner in which it is created is different in the two worlds. "Almost all the employment in developed economies is created within the **recognised institutional framework** as the economic agents which create these jobs operate within the existing laws and regulation" (Sethuraman, 1998). These economic agents are the government, and private enterprises, including non-corporate entities, and the employment thus created is governed by the prevailing labour laws and regulations. In contrast, in the developing countries the vast majority of the population is left to fend for itself and create employment out of its own ingenuity, skills and capital. This leads to vast differences in the nature of employment and the creation of a dualistic structure of "formal" and "informal" components of the labour market.

The standard textbook model assumes "a homogeneous market with an inelastic supply of labour, where demand conditions alone determine the price of labour or wage" (Mazumdar, 1997). This assumption leads to thinking about an average productivity of labour for the economy as a whole. Labour market policies based on this assumption can be quite misleading if prescribed for the developing countries. The productivity differences between the various sectors of the labour market in the developing countries are of major importance for both labour market outcomes and policies. In this paper we shall focus on this non-homogeneous nature of the labour market in the South Asian countries. It addresses the question of informality and women's employment in these countries through a selective review of literature and available empirical evidence. The countries included in the study are Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka and Nepal.

{PRIVATE }II. INFORMALITY IN THE LABOUR MARKET: CONCEPTS AND DEFINITIONS{tc \l 1 "II. INFORMALITY IN THE LABOUR MARKET\; CONCEPTS AND DEFINITIONS"}

The World Development Report (WDR), 1995 was titled 'Workers in an Integrated World'. This report emphasized the World Bank development strategy of export-led growth as the most effective way to raise the standard of living of workers around the world. It presented the case of the East Asian countries as successful models that followed this strategy. The WDR argued implicitly that the reasons for the growth of the informal sector in developing countries was labour market distortions, such as trade unions and Government policies leading to inflexible labour markets. However, this has been contested on the ground that the informal sector existed before the growth of trade unions and

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the reason for the growth of the informal sector is capital market distortions. Since capital labour ratios are generally higher in the formal sector, labour productivity is higher and so are earnings in this sector. The chain of causation runs from differential capital intensity to productivity differences to wage differences (Mazumdar, 1997).

The reasons for the growth of the informal sector are important from the point of view of developing policies. Whatever the reason, the growth of the informal sector in the emerging labour market is inevitable. Women's employment in the informal sector is also likely to rise due to various reasons. With the adoption of the structural adjustment programme women tend to lose ground in the formal sectors of the economy. The growth of ancillarisation and industrial employment through sub-contracting appears to be gaining importance. Stagnating and falling incomes of households due to poor performance of the economy also leads to increased entry of women into the labour market. The process of globalisation, export-oriented industrialisation and relocation of industries from the developed to the developing countries also lead to the increase in the employment in the informal sector. Women's employment is often favoured in many of these industries.

These factors lead to the increasing informalisation of the labour force. This informalisation takes place broadly in two ways. Work is pushed out of the factories and formal work situations into small workshops (sweatshops), the homes and informal situations. That is, there is an international trend in sub-contracting of work and a consequent increase in informal work, often in homeworking. Secondly, the workers who remain in the factories or in formal work situations, are governed by looser contracts and obtain fewer social security benefits. That is, there is an attempt on the part of the employer to reduce his liabilities.

{PRIVATE }Definition of the Informal Sector: SNA 1993{tc \l 1 "Definition of the Informal Sector\': SNA 1993"}

The ILO's definition of the informal sector in the early seventies was descriptive. It specified a set of characteristics to distinguish informal enterprises such as: small scale of operation, family ownership, reliance on indigenous resources, labour intensive and adaptive technology, skills acquired outside the formal system and operation in unregulated and competitive markets. The problem with applying such multiple criteria is that all of them could be found in units pursuing different objectives. It is also difficult to apply. In practice, most of the early ILO studies ended up using a single index of the employment size.

At the international level, after several years of negotiations, an agreement has been reached on the definition of the informal sector in the Fifteenth International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS), 1993 and the new System of National Accounts (SNA), 1993. Due to the complexity and looseness of the concept, the labour statisticians decided to distinguish one single statistical definition for the purpose of data collection from the several definitions that may vary according to the needs of the users and could be differentiated at the tabulation stage.

The SNA (1993) characterizes the informal sector as consisting of units engaged in the production of goods or services with the primary objective of generating employment and incomes to the persons concerned. They form part of the household sector as unincorporated enterprises owned by households. They are distinguished from corporations and quasi-corporations on the basis of their legal status and the type of accounts they hold. These household enterprises do not have a legal status independently of the households or household members owning them.

The fifteenth ICLS, 1993, adopted an operational definition of the informal sector that is irrespective of the kind of workplace, the extent of fixed assets, the duration of the activity of the enterprises and its operation as a main or secondary activity. Within the household sector, the informal sector comprises: (i) Informal own-account enterprises

that are single member or partnership household units that do not hire workers on a continuous basis. (ii) Enterprises of informal employers are household units owned and operated by employers, singly or in partnership, which employ one or more employees on a more or less continuous basis. For operational purposes the latter may be defined in terms of either, the size of unit below a specified level of employment or, non-registration of the enterprise or its employees.

{PRIVATE }Critique of the Dichotomous Definition of the Economy{tc \l 1 "Critique of the Dichotomous Definition of the Economy"}

The SNA definition of the informal sector is based on the legal status of the **enterprise**. To **distinguish employment in the informal sector one will have to assume that all persons working in such units are workers in this sector**. That is, informal employers, and employees in the enterprises of informal employers, own account workers and unpaid family helpers in informal enterprises. **This definition of the informal sector, focusing on the enterprise, does not give us any clue about the status and working conditions of the workers in them.** It will not be correct to assume that all workers in the formal sector are better off than all workers in the informal sector, or that all workers in the informal sector are equally badly off.

In recent years many writings have expressed the view that such a dichotomized classification of the 'formal' and 'informal' sector is unrealistic and tends to hide more than it reveals. It also fails to capture three things which are important from the point of view of social protection for workers, particularly women: 'the continuing process of informalisation of the formal economy; the great diversity within the informal economy itself; and the linkages between the formal and informal parts of the economy' (Lund and Srinivas, 2000).

The term 'informal sector' is giving way to the term 'informal economy'. For example in an important paper called "Decent work for all", the Director-General of the ILO used the term informal economy. Sethuraman (1998) argued that 'it is now widely accepted that such a dichotomy into the formal and informal is but a caricature of the real economy because both the formal and informal parts exhibit considerable diversity'. Employment in the informal economy is not only inferior to that in the formal economy, in terms of wages and benefits received, but also varies in terms of quality. 'Some jobs tend to be more informal than others in the sense that the extent of deviation from the established quality norms is greater'.

The dichotomous definition of the formal and informal sector actually distinguishes the status of the enterprise. This is useful for National Accounts and in estimating the gross value added accruing from the two sectors. The concept of the 'informal economy' in fact tries to characterize the workers depending on the degree of informality of their work status. This is more useful to persons concerned with wages, working conditions and access to social protection to workers.

A second problem with the enterprise based definition is when it is used in an establishment survey to distinguish the unit. This definition tends to leave out more invisible groups of own-account enterprises such as those operating on the streets or in their homes. A labour force survey with clear questions on the place of work and nature of contract may be better able to net in all such workers.

Elsewhere we have argued that the enterprise-based dichotomous definition (SNA) is important from the point of view of estimating the contribution of this sector in the gross national product. However, **an additional worker based approach is required to identify the status of workers within the two sectors and invisible groups of workers often missed out through an enterprise approach** (Unni, 2000a).

{PRIVATE }Measurement {tc \l 1 "Measurement "}

The main and relatively more reliable sources of data on employment are the Population Census and National Labour Force Surveys of the various countries. These traditional sources of data classify workers according to three international classification schemes. The **industrial classification** distinguishes the worker according to the nature of the industrial sector in which he/she works, for e.g., in agriculture, manufacturing sector etc. The **occupational classification** distinguishes the worker according to the nature of work, for e.g., doctor, weaver, carpenter etc. The **activity status classification** distinguishes the worker according to the status of work, for e.g., self employed, employee etc.

These classifications do not distinguish the worker on the basis of the degree of informality of the enterprise in which he/she works. Therefore it is not directly possible to distinguish whether the worker works in the informal sector from these traditional sources. In order to do this one has to make some heroic assumptions. It is also difficult to determine the degree of formality or informality of the employment from these classifications.

Many countries do conduct establishment surveys. India is one of the few countries that have been conducting special establishment surveys of the informal/unorganised sector since the late 1970s. However, it is well recognised that these surveys tend to under-estimate employment. With the adoption of the international definition of the informal sector several countries are in the process of planning/conducting national surveys on the informal sector. In the next decade comparable data on the informal sector will be generated from many countries. Till then we have to be satisfied with estimates based on certain assumptions to estimate certain components of the informal sector employment from the population census, national labour force surveys and special micro surveys.

The extent to which the economy is informal can be measured in two ways: through the composition of employment and earnings differentials. We shall try to explain below how the employment composition and relative earnings will help to delineate the extent of the informal economy and women's employment in it.

{PRIVATE }Composition of Employment {tc \l 1 "Composition of Employment " }

The international definition of the informal sector distinguishes two kinds of enterprises, namely, own account enterprises and enterprises of informal employers. The activity status of employment is the closest that this enterprise based definition can get to distinguishing the informal economy. The present **activity status** classification of the International Classification of Status in Employment (ICSE) 1993, ILO consists of the following categories: employees, employers, own-account workers, members of producer's co-operatives, contributing family members, workers not classifiable by status.

Components of the Informal Economy: Following the worker approach workers in the informal economy can be broadly distinguished into wage employment and non-wage employment, each consisting of the following components:

{PRIVATE }First Component: Non-wage employment {tc \l 1 "First Component: Non-wage employment " }

Own account workers;
Employers/owners of informal enterprises with at least one hired worker;
Unpaid family helpers in both types of informal enterprises.

{PRIVATE }Second Component: Wage employment {tc \l 1 "Second Component: Wage employment " }

Employees in the enterprises of informal employers;

Outworkers or Homeworkers: persons working at home, or on premises of his choice other than the employer's, to produce goods or services on a contract or order for a specific employer or contractor;

Independent wage workers not attached to only one employer, and providing services to individuals, households and enterprises, e.g., maid servants and watchmen working for households.

Informal employment in formal sector enterprises: workers whose pay and benefits do not conform to existing labour regulations.

This categorisation is similar to that developed by Sethuraman (1998). In the literature the first four categories above are generally taken to represent employment in the informal sector. The need to distinguish the category of independent wage workers can be debated. In many Latin American countries domestic servants are distinguished in the national surveys and together with independent wage workers are added to the informal sector (Sethuraman, 1998).

The first process of informalisation of the labour force, pushing work out of formal work situations, leads to an increase in the first component, non-wage employment. It can also lead to increase in the first two varieties of the second component, i.e., informal wage employment. The second process of informalisation, resulting in looser contracts and fewer benefits, leads to an increase in the last category of workers, informal employment within the formal enterprises as defined by the enterprise-based approach.

Measure of the First Component of the Informal Economy: Obviously it is not easy to obtain empirical estimates of these categories of workers from the national official labour statistics. However, we can arrive at an approximation of the first component of the informal economy, non-wage employment or self employment, by the addition of employers, own account workers and unpaid family helpers in the activity status classification of the national labour force survey. While it may be relatively safe to assume that own account workers and unpaid family helpers are part of the informal economy, this assumption may not be very accurate for the category of employer. Employers, however, form a very small proportion of the workforce.

Measure of the Second Component of the Informal Economy: The second component of the informal economy is even more difficult to demarcate from the official data since there is really a continuum in the degree of informality in the employer-employee relationships. The official data distinguish only employees. The Indian labour force surveys further classifies them into casual and regular. All regular workers do not necessarily belong to the formal economy, as they often do not receive a variety of benefits due to the formal worker such as provident funds, paid leave etc.

An approximation of the second component of the informal economy can be made by assuming that all casual employees definitely constitute a part of the informal economy since they are least likely to obtain any of the benefits accruing to formal economy workers.

{PRIVATE }Earnings Differentials {tc \l 1 "Earnings Differentials " }

Another indicator or measure of the nature of informality of the work status or sector is the earnings differentials. The informal economy can be distinguished by the inferior quality of work and inferior terms of employment, both remuneration and benefits. Among the non-wage component inferior technologies lead to low productivity and hence

to low earnings or incomes. Income is a key indicator of the quality of employment. Women's inferior quality of employment can be distinguished in comparison with that of men. Hence, differential in earnings by gender can be used as a proxy to distinguish the degree of informality in women's employment.

Empirical evidence on the wages, earnings and incomes are much more difficult to obtain from the official data sources. We shall present the available evidence on the differentials in wages and earnings by gender.

{PRIVATE }III. COMPOSITION OF EMPLOYMENT{tc \l 1 "III. COMPOSITION OF EMPLOYMENT"}

In this section we present empirical evidence available on changes in the level and structure of employment of men and women over the period of the 1970s, 80s and 90s for the five countries under study. We first analyse changes in the labour force participation rate (LFPR) and the industrial structure of employment. Using the assumptions outlined in the previous section we present trends in rough estimates of informal economy using the traditional census and labour force surveys.

{PRIVATE }Is the Female Labour Force Participation Rate Rising?{tc \l 1 "Is the Female Labour Force Participation Rate Rising?"}

With the expectation of increasing informalisation of the labour force we also expect an increase in the labour force participation of women. In fact, women's participation has been increasing in many developing countries. This could occur due to increasing education levels of women, new opportunities of employment in the industrial sector, increasing migration to urban areas and falling real incomes of the households forcing women to enter the labour market (Sethuraman, 1998).

It has been observed that over the last three decades while female labour force participation has been rising, that of males has been falling (Standing, 1998). These international trends, however, may not be captured by the national census and labour force surveys of South Asia. The under-enumeration of women workers in census and large scale labour force surveys is well known. Such under-enumeration is greater in countries, where there are social and cultural barriers to women's work. This occurs due to various reasons (Unni, 1992). The perception of women's work being housework leads to an under-enumeration of their work. The socially accepted norms of what is considered women's work bias the respondent to answer accordingly, while the interviewer tends to steer the answer towards what is considered socially correct. The questionnaire design and concepts utilized in the survey such as the arrangement of the questions, key words or phrases used and the minimum time requirement imposed to be counted as a worker, also lead to under enumeration. Large fluctuations in the LFPR from one census/labour force survey (LFS) to another indicates the possibility of a less than complete enumeration of workers in some of the estimates.

The percentages of economically active population, 10 years and above, in the five countries under study are presented in Table 1. Wide variations from year to year between population census and labour force survey estimates in women's LFPR clearly establishes the sensitivity of this measure to the concepts used and survey techniques.

Bangladesh: The female LFPR varies widely across the years for which information is available. The 1981 census and the 1985-86 LFS indicate less than 10 percent of the women as being economically active, whereas the census of 1974 and LFS of 1989-90 and 1995-96 indicate much higher participation rates. Between the 1974 Census and the LFS of the latter two years there is a large increase in the female LFPR. However, between the LFS of 1989-90 and 1995-96 there is a fall, particularly of women's participation in the labour market. Men's participation is more or less constant at

80 percent in the two penultimate years and close to 75 percent in the two intervening years. Overall, one can say that there has been an increase in women's participation in the labour force in the last two decades due to the large differences observed between the LFSs in the mid and late eighties.

India: In India LFPR of women is definitely higher in the LFSs as compared to the census. Women's labour force participation shows a declining trend in both the census and LFSs taken separately. Men's LFPR also shows a declining trend. The overall participation declines correspondingly. In India the LFS are considered better indicators of employment trends than the census. This is often attributed to the fact that while LFS is conducted by permanent and well trained staff of the National Sample Survey Organisation, the census are conducted by ad hoc investigators, generally school teachers and other government officials.

A number of micro studies have shown that women's participation in the labour force is under-enumerated even by the LFS. In fact, it has been argued that in India where a large proportion of the female work force is in the rural areas their participation fluctuates during drought and normal agricultural years (Unni, 2000b). Women enter the labour market in the drought year and withdraw during the normal year. The labour force survey was conducted during 1987-88 which turned out to be a year of severe drought, while the next LFS was conducted during a normal year 1993-94. Women's participation registered a decline during these two years.

Pakistan: In Pakistan, the census and LFSs showed a very smoothly rising trend in women's LFPR over the period 1972 to 1996-97. The only estimate that appears out of line is that of the census of 1981. Men's LFPR, however, showed a declining trend over the period.

Sri Lanka: Women's LFPR in Sri Lanka showed a rising trend during 1971 to 1992, comparing across the census and LFSs. The census of 1981 alone showed a small dip out of line with the trend. Men's LFPR was more or less stable over the period. These census and surveys can be compared with some confidence.

Nepal: Women's LFPR in Nepal rose during the 1970s and was more or less stable between 1981 and 1991. Men's participation, however, showed a large decline. The 1971 census rates refer to the age group 15 years and above and hence cannot be directly compared with the other two years.

Inter-country Comparison: In South Asia, women's participation in the labour force was very low in Pakistan compared to the other countries. This may be due to the fact that it is a Muslim country where women's work may be less visible. However, women's participation has been rising slowly and steadily. Women's work participation in Bangladesh, another Muslim country in the sub-continent, was much higher than that in Pakistan. Sri Lanka and India had similar absolute levels of participation rates, though the trend was rising in Sri Lanka and falling in India. The participation of women in Nepal was the highest among these countries and consistent between the eighties and nineties. Thus, given the cultural barriers to work participation, and particularly to reporting it, the South Asian countries have seen a slow and steady increase in the women's work participation in the last two decades.

The classic international trend of rising female participation and falling male participation was observed, however, only in Pakistan and Sri Lanka. While a number of countries show declining male participation, the trend among females is less clear. This is partly because of the problems in enumerating women's work, discussed earlier.

{PRIVATE }Sectoral Share in Employment{tc \l 1 "Sectoral Share in Employment"}

The rise in women's participation has been accompanied by a shift in employment from the agricultural to the non-

agricultural sector. It was pointed out in an international survey that Asia was the only continent in the world where the output share of manufacturing had risen in the last two decades (Van-Ginnekan, 1989). The share of agricultural value added in GDP was still the highest in South Asia, but in recent decades it had registered a major decline in all the countries of South Asia. Has this been accompanied by a similar shift in the sectoral shares in employment? The share of the primary, secondary and tertiary sectors in GDP is presented in Table 2 and that in employment in Table 3. The primary sector consists of agriculture and allied activities such as fishing, forestry etc. and mining and quarrying. The secondary sector consists of manufacturing, electricity, gas and water and construction. The tertiary sector consists of trade, hotels and restaurants, transport, storage, communications and services.

Bangladesh: The share of value added in agriculture in GDP fell from 50 to 30 percent during 1980 to 1997 in Bangladesh (Table 2). Though indicating a declining trend the fall in share of employment of persons in agriculture was less dramatic, 79 percent in 1974 to 65 in 1989 and 63 in 1995-96². The share of male employment in the agricultural sector fell by 25 percentage points between 1974 and 1995-96. Female participation in agriculture actually rose during the entire period. This could be partly attributed to the better enumeration of women workers in the later two LFS compared to the census as we observed earlier.

The share of services in GDP rose sharply, while that of the secondary sector was more or less stable during 1980 to 1997 (Table 2). The share of the tertiary sector in male employment rose during 1974 to 1995-96, to compensate for the fall in the share of agriculture. While the share of female employment in the secondary sector rose until 1985-86, the more recent LFS 1995-96 showed a sharp decline. The share of women's employment in the tertiary sector showed a decline till 1989-90 and rising again in 1995-96. One is not certain to what extent this is affected by the problems with the enumeration of women discussed earlier, i.e., exceptionally low LFPRs in 1981 and 1985-86, and very high LFPR in 1989.

The garment industry has apparently grown tremendously in Bangladesh since the early 1980s. The decline in the share of female employment in the secondary sector since 1985-86 goes against this commonly acknowledged fact. The subsectoral share of readymade garments (RMG) increased from 2 percent (in 1981-82) to 30 percent (in 1997-98). About 90 percent of the workers were women, which constituted almost 70 percent of the total female employment in the country's manufacturing sector (Bhattacharya and Rehman, 2000). However, after the initial exceedingly high rates of growth (underwritten by both a growth from a very low base as well as the initial boom in the number of enterprises established) the rate of expansion of the RMG workforce has slowed down in recent years' (Bhattacharya and Rehman, 2000). This can perhaps explain the decline in the share of the secondary workers among the female workforce after 1985-86.

India: In India the share of value added in agriculture in GDP was not very high in 1980 (38 percent) and the fall was also less sharp than that in Bangladesh (to 27 percent in 1997) (Table 2). The share of employment in agriculture was, however, relatively large nearly 72 percent in 1971 and fell only marginally to 67 percent in 1991. The labour force surveys also indicate a decline in the share of employment in agriculture (Table 3).

2 The fall in share of employment in agriculture is perhaps sharper than this indicates. The 1989 data on women's participation was exceptionally high compared to the previous years. Consequently, the overall share of employment in agriculture was relatively high, 72 percent for women. This would affect the share of total employment in this sector as well.

According to the population census, women's participation in the primary sector was as high as 82 percent and fell only marginally during 1971 to 1991. Male participation in agriculture was lower at about 70 percent in 1971 and fell to 63 percent in 1991.

The share of value added in both industry and services rose during 1980 to 1997, relatively more so in the services sector. During 1983 to 1993-94, the male share in the tertiary sector grew much faster than that in the secondary sector. The LFS between 1983, 1987-88 and 1993-94 indicates a rise in non-wage employment in the non-agricultural sector. The proportion of female non-wage workers rose slightly from 15.7 to 17.5 percent in the eighties, but jumped sharply to 50 percent in 1993-94. This latter increase was mainly in the industry sector. While this rather sharp increase appears exaggerated an overall trend towards non-wage employment in non-agriculture cannot be denied.

Pakistan: While the sectoral share of value added shifted away from agriculture and towards the tertiary sector in Pakistan during 1980 to 1997, it did so by only a relatively small proportion (Table 2). The share of employment in the primary sector fell steadily over the three decades. More or less similar trends were observed for men. Among women, however, the trend is not very clear.

The share of value added shifted in favour of the tertiary sector. The share of employment, however, rose in both the secondary and tertiary sectors during the entire period 1972 to 1996-97. Women's share in employment, however, more or less stagnated in the secondary and tertiary sectors indicating a rise only in the population census of 1981.

Sri Lanka: The share of value added in GDP in agriculture was the lowest in Sri Lanka among the South Asian countries even in 1981, and continued to be so in 1997. The share of value added in agriculture registered a decline of only 6 percentage points during 1980 to 1997.

The share of agriculture in employment was relatively low in Sri Lanka to begin with even in 1971 (50 percent), compared to the other South Asian countries. Besides, unlike the other countries, the share of employment in the primary sector remained more or less constant over the period 1971 to 1985-86. The LFSs, however, show a steady decline in the share of the agricultural sector during 1985-86 to 1995. The share of value added rose in the tertiary sector, but actually declined in the secondary sector. The employment share, however, showed a steady increase in the secondary sector since 1985-86 and not much of an increase in the tertiary sector.

Women's share of employment in the primary sector was relatively low to begin with and continued to fall. There was a large increase in the share of the secondary sector in 1995, particularly in the manufacturing sector. Women's share of employment in the tertiary sector also rose though at a much slower pace in 1995.

Nepal: In spite of a sharp fall in the share of agriculture in value added in the GDP between 1980 and 1997, agriculture in Nepal continued to have the highest share in the South Asian countries in 1997. The share of agriculture in employment was as high as 94 percent in 1971, which fell to 81 percent in 1991. The share of agriculture in male employment fell much more sharply, dropping by 17 percentage points to nearly 75 percent. Women's participation in the labour force continued to be dominated by agriculture its share falling from 98 to 90 percent during the period.

The share of value added in GDP in both the secondary and tertiary sectors grew equally during 1980 to 1997. The share of employment, however, grew much faster in the tertiary sector as compared to the secondary sector during 1971 to 1991. This was true for both men and women in the labour force.

Inter-country Comparison: A comparison across countries for the last year for which data are available shows that the

share of agriculture in employment was the highest in Nepal, followed by India and Bangladesh. The share of the tertiary sector was the highest in Pakistan followed by Sri Lanka. Pakistan and Sri Lanka also had the highest shares in the secondary sector, both countries having higher shares in the tertiary compared to the secondary sector.

The sectoral shares of women in employment were more or less similar to that of all persons with the share of agriculture being the highest in Nepal, followed by India. The share of women in the secondary sector was the highest in Sri Lanka in the mid-1990s. The share of women in the tertiary sector was also the highest in Sri Lanka followed by Pakistan.

The fall in the share of employment in agriculture and the increase in the tertiary sector was more or less true for all the five countries. However, these changes in employment shares were not as dramatic as the structural change in the sectoral shares of value added. Hence the structural transformation of these countries is not yet complete, and large proportion of the work force, particularly women, are still dependent on agriculture working in obviously informal conditions.

Sri Lanka and Pakistan are, however, ahead of the other countries in the transformation of their economies, with the lowest proportion of their workers in the primary sector. In Pakistan women's employment has grown in the tertiary sector, though not so much in the secondary sector. In Sri Lanka, women's share in agriculture was as low as 60 percent in 1981 itself. In recent years, there was a dramatic increase in the share of women in the manufacturing sector. This has been attributed to the growth of the export processing zones in the country (ESCAP, 1997). In Nepal, though there has been a very slow decline in the share of women's employment in agriculture, it continued to be as high as 90 percent in 1991.

{PRIVATE }Non-Wage Employment in Non-Agriculture: The First Component{tc \l 1 "Non-Wage Employment in Non-Agriculture\; The First Component"}

The closest one can come to distinguishing the two components of the informal economy from the population census and labour force surveys is by using the **activity status classification**. Hence in this section we shall analyse these data for the five countries. Almost the whole of the agricultural sector can be considered to be informal. As we saw in the previous section all the countries have experienced a decline in the share of the agricultural sector. Any measure of the informal economy including the agricultural sector would indicate a decline. Hence a good measure of changes in the informal economy over time would perhaps be to concentrate on the non-agricultural sector.

A rough estimate of the informal economy in the non-agricultural sector is obtained as the proportion of the non-wage workers, self employed and unpaid family workers, to total workers in this sector. This constitutes what we earlier distinguished as the first component of the informal economy. The non-agricultural sector is dis-aggregated into the secondary and tertiary sectors, with the tertiary sector being split further into trade and services. The percentage of non-wage workers in the total non-agricultural labour force and in each industrial sector is presented in Table 4.

Bangladesh: In Bangladesh the percentage of non-wage workers in non-agriculture shot up from around 50 in 1974 and 1981 to nearly 80 in 1990-91. At a dis-aggregated level this increase is mainly reflected in the rise in non-wage workers in the secondary sector in 1990-91. The percentage of non-wage workers in the trade and service sector also increased during this period, but to a smaller extent.

When this increase in the non-wage employment is dis-aggregated by gender, there is a much larger increase in non-wage employment of women in the non-agricultural sector. Women's non-wage employment in the secondary sector

showed a large increase whereas the other sectors actually showed a decline in non-wage employment. In 1990-91 women's self employed activities in the secondary sector appeared to have increased while wage employment grew in the trade and service sectors.

This increase in self-employment in the secondary sector in Bangladesh goes against the commonly held notion of a large increase in women's employment in the garment manufacturing industry. However, as observed earlier the share of the secondary sector actually declined in the late eighties and nineties with the growth in the garment industry tapering off. This could explain the reduction in the share of employees in the secondary sector. It is also possible that the larger units in the garment industry began to subcontract the work to smaller garment units or home-based workers, mainly women. These workers may be captured here as self employed or non-wage workers in the secondary sector.

India: In India this first component of the informal sector, self employed, actually declined over the period 1971 to 1991, or remained constant during 1981 to 1991, according to the population census. It constituted about 41 percent of the non-agricultural work force in 1991. At the level of the industry groups, this decline is visible in the secondary and trade sector, but not in the service sector.

In general, the Census of India are known to under-enumerate women workers, and particularly so the 1971 Census. Hence here we consider only the later two census. Non-wage employment in the non-agricultural work force rose slightly among women. This rise is mainly reflected in the rise in self-employment in trade, and to some extent in the secondary sector. The LFS between 1983, 1987-88 and 1993-94 indicates a rise in non-wage employment in the non-agricultural sector. The proportion of female non-wage workers rose slightly from 15.7 to 17.5 percent in the eighties, but jumped sharply to 50 percent in 1993-94. This latter increase was mainly in the industry sector. While this rather sharp increase appears exaggerated, an overall trend towards non-wage employment in non-agriculture cannot be denied. This is an indication of the informalisation of employment in the economy during this period.

This increase in self-employment of women goes against the generally observed decline in self employment in India. The reason for this is that we have excluded the agricultural sector for the reasons explained earlier. If the economy as a whole is considered, including agriculture, there would be a decline in the share of self-employed, mainly because there is an overall trend of decline in the share of employment in agriculture and a large proportion of the agricultural workers are self employed. The proportion of self employed men in rural and urban areas and self employed women in the urban areas declined in India as expected (Table 5). However, in urban areas the proportion of self employed men registered an increase.

Nepal: The trend in Nepal is different from the case of Bangladesh and India. In Nepal the first component of the informal sector, non-wage employment, constituted about 35 percent of the workforce in 1971 (Table 4). This declined to nearly 27 percent in 1991. The proportion of non-wage employment in the non-agricultural work force is the highest in trade sector, 88 percent, and only 11 percent in the services sector.

The non-wage component in the non-agricultural work force is much higher among women, about 50 percent. It declined to 33 percent in 1991. The decline in share of non-wage employment in the secondary sector was the most impressive. This was true for men as well. It is possible that large and formal manufacturing units and other public sector enterprises such as in electricity have been set up in the eighties leading to more of a formalisation of the work force in the secondary sector.

Pakistan: The percentage of non-wage employment in the non-agricultural work force dropped sharply and consistently from 62 percent in 1972 to 43 percent in 1994-95. This decline is observed in the secondary and service

sectors. It is only in the trade sector that the proportion of non-wage employment is maintained at around 85 percent. A similar pattern of a high component of non-wage employment in the trade sector and decline in this component in the other two sectors, is observed for women as well.

Sri Lanka: The proportion of non-wage employment in the non-agricultural sector in Sri Lanka is more or less maintained during 1971 to 1981. This is true for all the three sectors. However, the non-wage component of the non-agricultural sector declined for women workers, most sharply in the trade sector. The more dramatic changes in the secondary sector occurred in the 1990s for women in Sri Lanka. Unfortunately, we were not able to obtain data at this level of dis-aggregation for any later year.

Inter-country Comparison: The first component of the informal sector, non-wage workers in the non-agricultural work force, was most predominant in Bangladesh followed by Pakistan and India. It was the least important component in Sri Lanka. This was true for women workers as well.

The trends in the changes in the first component of the informal economy were rather mixed in the South Asian countries. An increase in the non-wage component in employment was observed clearly in India and Bangladesh. In Nepal and Pakistan, however, the non-wage component appeared to decline. In Sri Lanka lack of data for the nineties makes it difficult to make any judgement.

By industry group non-wage employment was most prominent in the trade sector, followed by the secondary sector. The service sector appeared to be more dominated by wage employment.

{PRIVATE }Casual and Regular Employees in India and Bangladesh: The Second Component{tc \l 1 "Casual and Regular Employees in India and Bangladesh): The Second Component"}

The second component of the informal economy consists of a number of categories which cannot readily be obtained from any census or labour force survey. These are the employees in informal enterprises, outworkers or homeworkers, independent wage workers and informal employment in the formal sector. However, the casual workers can clearly be distinguished as working under informal conditions, and could in effect constitute any of the above categories. All countries do not provide the category of casual employees separately. The Indian population and labour force surveys and the Bangladesh labour force survey clearly distinguish the casual workers. The proportion of casual workers in the rural and urban areas in India as obtained from the National Sample Survey data is presented in Table 5.

The Indian labour force survey splits the employees into regular and casual workers. Persons with regular employment have a higher degree of formality in their employer-employee relations. The casual workers are clearly in the informal economy. The proportion of male and female casual workers increased in both rural and urban areas during the entire period from 1977-78 to 1993-94. The increase was, however, marginal for the women in urban areas.

There is a clear decline in the proportion of men regular workers in rural and urban areas. The proportion of women regular workers is marginal in the rural areas and much lower than that of men in the urban areas. However, while the proportion of regular workers remained more or less constant in rural areas, it in fact registered a small increase in urban areas. The major decline in the female work force is in the proportion of self employed workers in urban areas.

Therefore, while there is a clear informalisation of the female work force in rural India, women in urban India seem to be making some in-roads into the formal economy. However, as we shall see later from the case of a city in India, many of these regular workers do not receive the benefits due to them.

The distribution of workers by activity status for rural and urban areas combined in Bangladesh is presented in Table 6. The data refer to the labour force surveys of 1989 and 1995-96. The proportion of casual employees among women was extremely small, only about 3 percent. However, the proportion more than doubled during the nineties to about 6.2 percent in 1995-96. Male casual workers also increased marginally from 24 to 25 percent.

Though the proportion of regular employees among women workers was quite small, it was higher than that of casual employees. There was less gender difference in the proportion of regular workers as compared to casual workers. The proportion of regular women workers doubled during the period, while there was not much of an increase in male regular workers.

The large increase in female casual workers compared to regular workers indicates an increasing informalisation of the work force. However, this was accompanied by a fall in the proportion of the self employed and the unpaid workers. There was therefore, mainly a change in the quality of employment within the informal economy during this period. The small increase in regular employees is a welcome trend. However, the chances are that these workers are also not receiving all the benefits of the formal economy.

{PRIVATE }Informal Employment in the Formal Economy{tc \l 1 "Informal Employment in the Formal Economy"}

Earlier we spoke about two processes of informalisation of the labour force. One of them was an attempt on the part of employers in apparently formal enterprises to reduce his liabilities towards workers. Increasingly workers in factories and other formal work situations are governed by looser contracts and obtain fewer benefits. This is what we termed the second process of informalisation. It is difficult to obtain empirical evidence of such a process. We, however, made an attempt to capture this at a point in time through a household survey of informal activities in Ahmedabad city in India in 1998 (Unni, 2000a).

Conditions of work and facilities received from the employer may vary from worker to worker even among the regular employees. They vary considerably between regular and casual employees. In the survey of the informal sector in Ahmedabad, we asked a series of questions to all employees regarding the benefits accruing to them from their employment. Table 7 shows the percentage of workers receiving various facilities associated with their employment separately for regular employees and casual employees by gender.

About 21-26 percent of both the male and female regular employees had a written or oral contract. This percentage was only about 5 percent for male and none for female casual employees. The most inclusive criterion was the notion of "security of work" or in other words "assurance of employment". This includes persons who responded positively to the question on whether they had security of employment on any particular day. More than 90 percent of the male and female regular employees felt that their employers would engage them if they appeared at the workplace on any day. This percentage was much lower for casual employees - 59 for males and 69 for females. Thus, security of employment appeared to be relatively better for female employees than for male employees. Again the proportion of regular employees receiving paid leave was much higher among the females (50 percent) compared to the males (only 33 percent). The explanation for this was the nature of the regular employment held by women which was mainly in the government and in registered factories, whereas men were engaged in the government sector and in unregistered enterprises. This proportion was very small in the case of casual employees - only about 4 percent. Receipt of social security benefits such as provident fund, pension, medical facilities etc. was reported by only about 24-30 percent of regular employees. In the case of casual employees this was negligible. Notice for termination of job was given to

about 28 percent of the male regular employees and 36 percent of the female regular employees. Thus, a large proportion of regular employees are in fact informally employed without enjoying the benefits due to formal workers.

The last category of informal sector workers distinguished by us in the worker approach was informal employment in the formal sector. In order to distinguish such workers we first categorise the workers according to the sector, formal or informal, in which the enterprise in which the employee works was identified. An enterprise was considered to be in the formal economy if it was a government undertaking, in the private corporate sector, or registered under the Indian Factories Act, 1948. About 45 percent of the employees identified themselves as working in such formal sector enterprises. While nearly 47 percent of male employees were in the formal sector only 39 percent of the female employees were so engaged (Table 8).

We chose the benefit of obtaining paid leave as necessary criterion to distinguish formality of the employment. Within the formal sector enterprises about 44 percent of the employees did not receive even a single day of paid leave. Such persons were considered to constitute informal employment in the formal sector. Among women such informal employment was much less at only 12 percent. Therefore, though fewer women obtained work in the formal sector, those who did were less likely to be in the nebulous category of informal employment. In other words women employees were more likely to be in the informal sector to begin with.

{PRIVATE }Invisible Groups of Informal Workers{tc \l 1 "Invisible Groups of Informal Workers"}

There has been an international focus on certain groups of workers within the informal sector who are considered more invisible (Chen, et.al., 1999). Some such groups of workers are the homebased workers, within them are the homeworkers or out-workers, and the street vendors. Part of their invisibility stems from the fact that they are often women and work in not very clearly designated "business places", e.g., within their homes or in the streets.

Homeworkers: The activity status classification of the International Classification of Status in Employment (ICSE) 1993, works with the mutually exclusive dichotomy of 'paid employment' and 'self employment'. The criterion given by the ICSE to distinguish paid employee from self employed are: (a) existence of a contract, (b) kind of remuneration, (c) type of employer, (d) ownership of means of production and (e) kind of supervision.

The ILO adopted a Convention on Home Work in 1996, which refers exclusively to homeworkers, a category not included in the ICSE-1993. It defined homemaker as a person who carried out work for remuneration in premises of his/her own choice, other than the work place of the employer, resulting in a product or service as specified by the employer, irrespective of who provided the equipment, material or inputs used. This is a sub-category of a broader category of homebased workers, and are the dependent own-account workers as discussed above.

The homeworkers fall in an intermediary position between the self-employed and the employee. The homeworkers share with the employees, the criteria of the existence of a contract, kind of remuneration and the type of employer. They differ from the employees in matters of ownership of means of production and kinds of supervision. The contract stipulates the provision of work. Remuneration paid to the homemaker is remuneration for work, stipulated in the contract, (even though paid by piece) like that of an employee. In contrast, the self-employed earn an income from sale of merchandise, the price of which is determined by the market. Homeworkers, like self-employed, own tools and equipment and work in their own home/place meeting certain costs such as actual or imputed rent, lighting, power, storage etc. and other efforts of clean-ing. They are not supervised like the self employed (Urdaneta-Ferran, 1998).

This ILO Convention on homework is the first international treaty to set labour standard for workers in the informal

sector. If ratified and implemented by national governments it would establish an important precedent for similar legislation to protect and promote other categories of homebased workers and informal sector workers (Chen et.al., 1999).

Home Based Workers form a broader category of workers within which the homeworkers are included. They are defined as those own account workers and unpaid family helpers who pursue economic activities within their home, i.e., their place of work is their home. It may be noted that we have excluded employers working at home from this category.

Street Vendors are another category of informal workers that are difficult to capture and measure. There are two kinds of street vendors-those with fixed location and those without fixed location but mobile like peripatetic vegetable sellers etc. Besides street vendors there are a number of own account workers whose place of work is on the street. They include cycle rickshaw pullers, auto drivers etc.

Again it is difficult to obtain empirical data on these specific groups of workers. Conceptually the labour force survey would capture street vendors as persons engaged in trade (industrial classification). Chances of under-enumeration are high due to non-reporting, the seasonal nature of their work etc. However, unless the labour survey asks a question on the 'place of work', it is not possible to estimate the proportion of traders who are also street vendors. The occupational classification at the three digit level, however, has a specific code (431) for street vendors, canvassers and new vendors. Published data at this level of dis-aggregation are difficult to obtain. It is not very clear how home-workers and homebased workers are captured in the official data. It is likely that homeworkers are treated as casual workers (employees) and homebased workers, other than the above, as own account workers (self employed).

In our study of Ahmedabad city, however, we made a special effort to estimate separately, homeworkers, homebased workers, street vendors and other workers on the street (Unni, 2000 a). The distribution of all workers in the city study is presented in Table 9. The non-agricultural workers constituted about 98.7 percent of all workers. This proportion was 99.1 for males and 97.5 for females. Percentage of self-employed among the non-agricultural workers was 29 for males and 34 for females. They along with unpaid family workers formed 34.2 percent among male non-agricultural workers and 58.6 percent among female non-agricultural workers.

Among women workers, homebased workers constituted about 8 percent of the non-agricultural workforce, while among males they were only about 3 percent. The largest proportion of women workers were homeworkers and unpaid helpers, 24 per cent each. About 15 percent of the male non-agricultural workers were working on the streets. For females, this proportion was relatively small - 2.2 percent. Street vendors, about whom there has been considerable discussion in the international context, constituted almost all the women workers on the street, 2.2 percent, but only 6.3 percent of the male workers. The rest of the male workers on the street were mainly autorickshaw and cycle rickshaw drivers and handcart pullers. Self-employed workers with a separate business place constituted only 5 per cent of male workers and a negligible proportion of women.

A couple of authors have provided some estimates of street vendors in major Indian cities. According to one author, Mumbai had the largest number of street vendors, about 200,000; Ahmedabad and Patna had about 80,000 each; Indore and Bangalore had 30,000 each and Calcutta had more than 100,000 hawkers (Bhowmik, 2000). Another author, however, provided slightly different estimates (Jhabvala, 2000). According to her Mumbai had about 250,000 street vendors, Delhi had about 200,000; 100,000 in Ahmedabad and 50,000 in Patna. As Bhowmik states, these vendors provided additional employment to many other family members and hired workers. This could also account for the differences in estimates.

{PRIVATE }Importance of Unpaid Workers{tc \l 1 "Importance of Unpaid Workers"}

In South Asia a large proportion of the women workers are unpaid family workers, as we observed earlier for a city in India. They receive virtually no incomes and generally undertake all the arduous work. The overall quality of their employment is poor and there is the most extreme degree of informality in their work relations.

We observed above that in Bangladesh a very large proportion of the female workforce were unpaid family workers. However, the census and labour force survey prior to 1989 recorded a lower proportion of unpaid workers (Table 10).

In Pakistan too the proportion of women in unpaid work is close to 60 percent compared to only 17 of the men in 1993-94. However, in subsequent labour force surveys in the nineties, the proportion of unpaid women workers has declined slightly.

In Sri Lanka and Nepal, particularly the latter, the proportion of female unpaid workers was much smaller. It also continued to decline in Sri Lanka. The cultural difference between these two sets of countries can account for the difference. In the Muslim countries with more restriction on the mobility of the women unpaid work is the more prevalent.

{PRIVATE }Unpaid Work in the SNA and Extended SNA Activities{tc \l 1 "Unpaid Work in the SNA and Extended SNA Activities"}

The UN System of National Accounts, 1993 (SNA 1993) defines the production boundary for purposes of national accounts. In defining the production boundary, the 1993 SNA draws on the distinction between goods and services. It includes the production of all goods within the production boundary, and the production of all services except personal and domestic services produced for own final consumption within households, other than services of owner occupiers and those produced by employing paid domestic staff. It also included the gathering of wild fruit or berries, and firewood and carrying water from one location to another. All these activities included in the production boundary are called SNA activities and constitutes labour force participation in the official data.

The 1993 SNA, however, lists a large number of productive activities undertaken within the household which are not included in the production boundary. For example, the production of domestic and personal services for consumption within the same household: preparation of meals, care and training of children, cleaning, repairs etc.

International standards for measurement of the 'economically active population' corresponds to this definition of the production boundary. Hence, women engaged in domestic duties and care work are excluded from 'work' and 'labour force' participation measurement. However, there is a strong lobby and an international debate on the importance of such work for the reproduction of the labour force. Under the influence of UN bodies such as the UNDP a number of countries have undertaken Time Use Surveys of the labour force. This is considered an useful methodology to measure the amount of time spent by women in SNA activities and care work.

The National Sample Survey Organisation in India has recently conducted a time use survey in six states of India. The SNA activities consist of primary production activities, like crop production, animal husbandry, secondary production such as manufacturing, and trade, business and services. Extended SNA activities include household maintenance, care for children, sick and elderly. The activities related to learning, social and cultural activities, mass media and personal care and self maintenance are categorised as Non-SNA activities (CSO, 2000).

Average time spent on SNA, Extended SNA and Non-SNA activities in India according to the Time Use Survey is presented in Table 11. Of the 168 hours in the week, on average women spent only about 19 hours on SNA activities compared to 42 hours spent by men. Women in rural areas, however, spent longer hours, about 23, on SNA activities. As expected women spent much longer hours on Extended-SNA activities, on average 35 hours, while men spent only about 4 hours on such activities. In such activities there was not much difference in the time spent by women in rural and urban areas. Rural women mainly cut down on Non-SNA activities to make up for the hours on SNA activities.

In India a number of economic activities performed by family members or through exchange labour remain unpaid. It is possible to estimate the amount of time spent on SNA activities that remain unpaid. In the six states combined payment was not made for about 38 percent of the time spent on SNA activities (Table 12). About 50 percent of the time spent on SNA activities by women remain unpaid, while only 33 percent of men's time was unpaid. Among women this ranged from only 32 percent of unpaid time in Tamil Nadu compared to 86 percent in Haryana. The cultural difference between these two states, with taboos related to women working outside the home in the Northern state of Haryana, mainly explains this difference.

{PRIVATE }Feminisation of the Labour Force{tc \l 1 "Feminisation of the Labour Force'}

It has been argued that the growing flexibility in the labour market, or increasing informalisation, had led a feminisation of the labour force (Standing, 1998). Feminisation implies that more women find themselves in jobs traditionally taken by men. Or certain jobs could have changed to have characteristics associated with traditional women's work. Such as informal contracts, lower remuneration, less security provided and lower skills. A review of international evidence on this leads him to conclude that this process was actually leading to a convergence of male and female patterns of labour force participation. However, it has been argued that this process of narrowing of gender differentials in paid work should in fact be described as "masculinization" (Elson, 1999). It is part of a process where a large part of women's work becomes directly subject to market force, as was the characteristics of men's work.

International evidence has shown a tendency for the female share of non-agricultural employment to rise (Standing, 1998), though the share remains small, in most countries in Africa, Latin America and Asia. The share of women in non-agricultural workers is presented in Table 13 for the South Asian countries. There is a clear pattern of rise in the share of women in non-agriculture in all the countries. Of course, one has to keep in mind the lack of comparability discussed earlier between the census and labour force surveys, as well as the peculiarities of particular years. This increasing feminisation was observed in India as well.

Within the industry sector including manufacturing there was an increasing share of women's employment in India, Bangladesh, Pakistan and Nepal. The share of women's employment increased in the trade sector only in Pakistan and Nepal. The feminisation of the services sector was most marked in all the South Asian Countries, except India where it was the highest in manufacturing.

Non-wage employment, or self-employment, is considered the first component of the informal sector. The share of women in non-wage employment in non-agriculture in South Asia is presented in Table 14. The share of women in non-wage employment in non-agriculture rose in India, Bangladesh, Pakistan and Nepal.

All the South Asian countries showed a rise in women's share in non-wage employment in industry, including manufacturing. Only Nepal registered rise in women's share in non-wage employment in trade. In the services sector,

women's share in non-wage employment rose in India, Pakistan and Nepal. Overall, the South Asian countries do show an increasing feminisation of the non-agricultural labour force.

{PRIVATE }IV. WAGES AND INCOMES IN THE INFORMAL ECONOMY{tc \l 1 "IV. WAGES AND INCOMES IN THE INFORMAL ECONOMY"}

The difference in the quality of employment in the formal and informal economy can be distinguished by the differentials in income. Even within the informal economy they differ by gender and type of activity. Within the informal economy we have distinguished wage and non-wage employment. In making comparisons we therefore need to look at both wages of employees and incomes generated by self-employed workers. In the case of self-employed incomes it is more difficult to distinguish the women's component of the activity as it is a household activity. Hence, gender dis-aggregation of self-employed incomes is not always possible.

{PRIVATE }Wage Rate of Casual Workers in Bangladesh{tc \l 1 "Wage Rate of Casual Workers in Bangladesh"}

Casual workers in rural and urban areas of Bangladesh are paid in cash and kind. Kind wages are often in the form of food. Available data show that wage-rates to labourers vary by sector and gender (Table 15). Women wage daily labourers were paid lower wage-rates than men in agriculture and non-agriculture in rural and urban areas. The male-female wage differential was higher in the non-agricultural sector, both with and without food. Several factors contribute to the low average wage rate for women in non-agricultural activities; low levels of marketable skills due to limited access to education and training and low demand for female labour (ESCAP, 1995). In the agricultural sector low wage rates can be attributed to the fact that the work done by women are often performed by family members, except in large farm households (ESCAP, 1995).

The overall wage rates were higher in non-agricultural activities compared to agricultural activities (Table 15). However, there was a striking difference by gender. While non-agricultural wage-rates were higher for men, for women the agricultural wages were higher. This was true for both rural and urban areas. This probably reflects the low demand for women in the non-agricultural sector, while women's activities in agricultural operations was essential.

{PRIVATE }Incomes of Employees in Pakistan{tc \l 1 "Incomes of Employees in Pakistan"}

The national labour force surveys in Pakistan present data on monthly incomes of employees. Employees can be working in either the formal or informal economy. The distribution of monthly income by gender would reveal the quality of employment in the economy. These data are presented in Table 16.

Monthly income of female employees was Rs. 1381 in 1993-94 while male incomes was Rs. 2113. While the incomes of women rose to Rs. 1880 in 1996-97 that of men rose to Rs. 3140. The gender difference in wages in the two years was substantial. Female incomes were about 60-65 percent of male incomes. The distribution of monthly incomes also showed that women were concentrated in lower income groups in both years. The absolute percentage of men and women in each income group cannot be compared across years since they are not deflated for rise in prices.

An article using Household Income and Expenditure Survey of 1979, 1985-86 and 1987-88 of Pakistan studied the earnings differentials by gender (Ashraf and Ashraf, 1998). Using different models they concluded that there was overwhelming evidence to show that male-female earning differentials had dropped sharply during the 1980s. They attributed this to changing social attitudes to work participation of women and governments efforts to reduce

discrimination against female workers.

{PRIVATE }Gender Differentials in Incomes in Nepal{tc \l 1 "Gender Differentials in Incomes in Nepal"}

The National Living Standards Survey of Nepal 1995-96 collected information on wages and salaries of employees and net returns of self-employed enterprises. Wages and salaries earned per day by men and women by industry groups are presented in Table 17. Women employees obtained lower wage and salaries per day than men in all industry groups³.

A large proportion of employees in sales, farmers and forestry workers, production workers, construction and transport can be assumed to be working in the informal economy. In general these workers earn lower daily wages and salaries than professional, administrative, managerial and clerical staff who are more likely to be in the formal economy. Workers in construction, transport, communication and men in services sector also had relative higher daily wages.

Overall wages per day among women employees was about 75 percent that of men. However, among agricultural and production workers women wage workers earned only about 50 percent of the men's wages. Broadly one can conclude that women employees had lower wages than men and the difference was more pronounced in the informal economy.

Net returns of the enterprise, or self-employed incomes, in Nepal are presented in Table 18. The data is presented for enterprises with women and without women workers. Net returns to enterprises with women was Rs. 21,763 while that without women was Rs. 26281. Enterprises in urban areas earned higher net returns compared to rural areas. Overall, enterprises with women earned about eighty percent of returns of enterprises without women.

{PRIVATE }Wages in the Formal and Informal Economy in India{tc \l 1 "Wages in the Formal and Informal Economy in India"}

There is very little information about wages in the informal or unorganised sectors in industry in India. Wage earnings in the agricultural sector are published by the Ministry of Agriculture (popularly known as the Agricultural Wages in India, AWI). Wage rates of non-agricultural labour in rural areas are available separately for carpenters, blacksmiths and cobblers, in the AWI⁴. The average male unorganised sector wage for each state was computed as an average of the wage rates accruing to carpenters, blacksmiths and cobblers for all the centers for which information was available. Both the agricultural and unorganised sector wage rates, obtained from the AWI, have been deflated using the Consumer Price Index for Agricultural Labourers to obtain the real wage rates between 1987 to 1996 (Table 19)⁵.

Time series data on monthly wages in the cotton textile industry is used as a proxy for wages in the formal or organised sector. The monthly earnings, basic plus DA, accruing to the lowest paid workers in different centers are averaged and divided by 26 days to obtain the daily wage earnings in each state. Cotton textile wage earnings so obtained are available for seven states of India. These earnings have been deflated by the Consumer Price Index for Industrial Workers, since the wages refer to urban centers (Table 19). Real wages relating to the unorganised sector and

3 The higher wages and salaries per day among women professional, administrative and managerial staff was due to a very small sample size (Acharya, 2000).

4 For an analysis of trends in these data see Unni, 1997.

5 Wage rates for the unorganised sector in Tamil Nadu and West Bengal, and for agricultural labour in West Bengal were not available. These have been replaced by the corresponding wage rates for the states of Andhra Pradesh and Orissa, respectively.

agriculture from these seven states only are presented. The relative wages, in terms of the cotton textiles to unorganised sector and agricultural labour, and unorganised to agricultural wages are presented in Table 20.

In general, the real earnings in cotton textile industry were maintained in all the states. This is to be expected since the organised sector wage earnings has a dearness allowance component built into it. The real wage rates in the unorganised sector fell marginally in most states, with the exception of Karnataka, where it tended to rise. The resultant relative wages crept up slowly in favour of the organised sector industry.

Gujarat stands out with an exceptionally sharp fall in the real wage rates in the unorganised sector. Real earnings in the cotton textile industry were maintained in spite of the closure of a number of mills and general recession in the mid-eighties in this industry in Gujarat. Consequently the relative wages rose in favour of the cotton textile industry. While the unorganised sector wages fell in the rural areas almost throughout the last decade, real wages in agriculture rose till 1992, after which it also fell. The ratio of cotton textile and agricultural wages remained somewhat steady till 1991 and rose thereafter. The rural wages moved in favour of agriculture compared to the unorganised sector almost throughout the period. Overall, real wages in the informal economy have remained low and relative wages have fallen.

{PRIVATE }Wages in the Informal Economy in Ahmedabad: Comparison with {tc \l 1 "Wages in the Informal Economy in Ahmedabad\}: Comparison with " }Minimum Wages

In India under the Minimum Wages Act, minimum wages are fixed for an eight-hour day for certain types of jobs where, in the judgement of the government, the market conditions make the workers particularly vulnerable to exploitation. Anyone hiring at least one worker is defined as an employer and is covered under the Act. In Gujarat, 53 employments (trades) have been included in the Schedule of Employments of the Minimum Wages Act. Of these, wages were fixed for only 47 employments as on 1-6-1994. These wages were revised on April 25, 1997. Twenty-one of these employments were observed in our survey of Ahmedabad (Unni, 2000a). The minimum rates of wages for unskilled workers in 19 of these industry groups are presented in Table 21 (Subrahmanya and Singh, 1995). Wages were paid in the remaining two industry groups, bidi rolling and garment manufacture, in piece rate. Wage rates in these industry groups are discussed later.

The daily wages of the workers in these industry groups are presented in Table 21 (Unni, 1998). The daily wages were computed as total earnings in the year divided by the total days worked. Since the minimum wages are specified for unskilled workers, the sample wages exclude earnings of professional and managerial cadres. The total number of workers in the sample in the 21 industry groups is 461 (including piece rated bidi and garment workers), of whom only 68 (14.7 per cent) were women. This constitutes a weighted proportion of about 50 per cent of all male employees and 26 per cent of all female employees, including all piece-rated workers. Overall, in the survey 44 per cent of the employees were covered under the Minimum Wages Act. The proportion of women workers and homeworkers covered under the Act was even smaller.

The Minimum Wages for the selected group of industries as on 1-6-94 ranged from Rs.32 to 38 per day. Given the fact that the indexation rule applies to Gujarat, these wages should range from Rs.45 to 53 in 1998, using the Consumer Price for Industrial Workers. The minimum wages are in fact very close to the poverty line wage computed for urban Gujarat, Rs.37.2 in 1993-94. The poverty line wage was obtained using the state specific poverty line estimated by the Expert Group set up by the Planning Commission, and assuming two non-earning dependents per worker and 26 days of work per month (Bhagat, 1997). The poverty line wage in 1998 was Rs. 52.1. In April 1997 the revised wages ranged from Rs. 57 to Rs. 69 in various industry groups. That is, they were revised to just above the poverty line.

We first compare the money wages obtained in 1998 with the minimum wages in 1994 assuming that no revision of the wages has taken place till now. Then we compare these with the new revised rates where they exist. In all the selected industry groups the daily wage earnings obtained by men were higher than the statutory minimum prescribed in 1994. However, women workers in four of the industry groups received less than the minimum wage of 1994. In the seven industry groups where the new rates were obtained, the observed wages were above it in only one case, that of public motor transport.

In the survey we identified the degree of informality of the enterprise in which the employee worked. This was subject to the limitation that an employee was often not able to provide information regarding the unit. However, with certain number of supplementary questions, an attempt was made to identify the nature of the unit. Formal units refer to public or government sector, cooperative sector and units registered with the Indian Factories Act. The rest of the units were part of the informal economy⁶.

About 64 per cent of the male and 40 per cent of the female employees were engaged in informal enterprises in these 19 selected industry groups. Of the ten industry groups in which male workers were engaged in both sectors, the wages in the formal enterprises were higher in eight. In general, males in the informal enterprises also received wages above the minimum fixed in 1994.

This phenomenon, however, changes if we consider the indexed minimum wage at the lower end of the range, Rs.45, or the poverty line wage in 1998, Rs.52. The average male wage in the informal units, Rs.46.8, was just about equal to the indexed wage and below the poverty line wage. The average female wage, Rs.36.9, was way below either of these wages. In the 19 industry groups male workers in only 9 received wages above Rs.52, and in 13 industry groups they received wages higher than Rs.45. Among all women and in the informal units the situation was obviously much worse. The only industry groups in which workers received wages above Rs.100 were those employed in the Municipal Corporation and in a petrol pump.

{PRIVATE }Incomes in Selected Industry Groups in Ahmedabad{tc \l 1 "Incomes in Selected Industry Groups in Ahmedabad"}

In order to secure a reasonable level of living it is obvious that a high wage rate alone is not sufficient. The daily wages received and the number of days of employment obtained in a year determine the annual income of the worker. The average income in the year in the selected industry groups is presented in Table 22. If we take the poverty line wage of Rs.52.1 and full employment of 312 days in the year, we obtain an annual income of Rs.16255. Male workers in only 5 out of 19 industry groups received wage earnings above this norm. Women working in the Municipal Corporation and pulp and paperboard manufacturing industry alone received wage earnings above this level. Among the male workers in informal enterprises only those employed in bakeries, industrial engineering units and in the petrol pump received wages above Rs.16255.

The poverty line wage (Rs. 52.1) with only 250 days of employment implies an annual income of Rs.13025. Even such a below poverty subsistence income is not obtained by male employees in the rice and flour mills, bobbin, roof tiles and electronics industry, shops and commercial establishments, hotel and restaurants and automobile garages. These are some industry groups where vulnerable employment exists. In the informal economy many more groups

6 The units that could not be identified have been taken to be part of the informal economy. Such units constituted only about 7 per cent of the total sample in the survey.

have employees earning average incomes below this bare minimum in the city.

{PRIVATE }Wages, Employment and Incomes in Construction Industry{tc \l 1 "Wages, Employment and Incomes in Construction Industry"}

Minimum wage rate in the construction industry for unskilled workers was fixed at Rs.33.8 in Gujarat. However, the construction industry is also included in the Minimum Wages Schedule of Employment of the Central Government. Besides unskilled work, wages are fixed for semi-skilled, skilled and highly skilled. The wages are also specified according to city size with Ahmedabad being included with the four Metropolitan cities. The wages range from Rs.37.2 to 67.2 on 31-12-1994 (Table 23). Along side we also present the wages for 1998, assuming that it was revised according to the Consumer Price Index (CPI) for Industrial Workers. The wages range from Rs.52 to 94. The new revised wages in April 1997 ranged from Rs. 60 to 69, which is below the wages using the CPI.

How exactly the skill levels are defined in the Schedule of the Central Government is not known. For the construction industry in Ahmedabad we defined the skill levels according to the following occupation groups. Unskilled workers include loaders and unloaders. Semi-skilled workers include white washers, pipe layers and construction workers not elsewhere classified. Skilled workers included bricklayers, masons, reinforced concrete workers, tile and roof layers, plasters, supervisors and foremen, and carpenters, plumbers, black-smiths and electricians working in the construction industry. It is difficult to distinguish between skilled and highly skilled workers in the industry. Hence all possible skilled workers are clubbed together. Overall, we obtained a sample of 64 workers of whom only 4 were women (Unni, 1998).

Workers in the construction industry, in various skill categories, received daily wage earnings above the minimum wages fixed in 1994 (Table 23). However, when compared with the revised wages for 1998, and minimum wages of April 1997, unskilled and semi-skilled workers received wages below the indexed minimum wage. The skilled workers received average wages above the minimum wage for skilled workers, but below that for highly skilled workers. While male unskilled workers received full employment (312 days in the year), semi-skilled workers received less and skilled workers obtained close to the norm of 250 days of employment. Hence, in spite of relatively high daily wages the semi-skilled workers received annual earnings of bare subsistence levels. Only the skilled workers received earnings above the Rs.16255 norm (poverty-line wage and full employment).

{PRIVATE }Piece-rate Wages, Employment and Incomes of Homeworkers{tc \l 1 "Piece-rate Wages, Employment and Incomes of Homeworkers"}

In the study of Ahmedabad city we observed 188 piece-rated homeworkers (Uma Rani and Unni, 2000). About 85 per cent of them were women. They were engaged in a variety of manufacturing activities, but were concentrated in garment, kite and hair rubber-band making, bidi and agarbatti rolling. Of these only garment making and bidi-rolling were included in the Schedule of Employments of the Minimum Wages Act, in Gujarat. These two activities accounted for 37 per cent of the homeworkers in the sample. The minimum wage of bidi rolling was defined as a piece-rate, Rs.31.6 per 1000 bidis (later revised to Rs. 60 for 1000 bidis). Minimum wage for garment manufacturing was defined for establishments employing more than three workers at Rs.33.8 per day (on 1-6-94).

For the 17 products observed in the survey, information about the average piece rate for the 'standard unit', average pieces manufactured per day and the gross daily wage earning at this rate are presented in Table 24. The first ten products together form garment manufacturing. The 'standard unit' is either a piece or a dozen pieces in garment manufacturing. The average 'piece' rate varies from Rs.1.7 to Rs.70.

The average gross daily earnings computed using the average piece rate and average number of pieces manufactured in a day varied widely. It ranged from Rs.6 per day in ring embroidery to Rs.585 in pant stitching. Within garment manufacturing the lowest daily gross wage earnings was Rs.12 for knicker stitching. In bidi rolling the average piece rate and the daily gross wage earnings were below the minimum wage rate of Rs.31.6 per 1000 bidis. All the piece rate jobs obtained daily gross wages well below the poverty line daily wage of Rs.52 computed for 1998, except dress, pant, shirt and mattress cover stitching and shirt cutting.

The average days of work obtained and the average annual net income is presented in Table 25. Among homeworkers, in 8 out of 17 products women obtained less than 250 days of work. This partly reflects the seasonal nature of the activities undertaken. This, together with the relative low wage rates, results in net annual incomes well below any acceptable norm. Among men homeworkers, dress and pant stitching appear remunerative yielding relatively high net incomes.

The homeworkers often have to incur some costs in the manufacture of the product. The average annual net income is computed after deducting these costs. There is also a cost of rejection of the finished product by the contractor (Jhabvala et.al., undated). However, in this study we did not make any attempt to record this form of cost incurred. The net daily earnings (excluding any expenses incurred) is computed and presented in Table 25. When compared with the gross daily earnings (Table 24) this was found to be lower in a number of products, for example, in garment manufacturing. In products where minimal expenditures are incurred it remains the same, e.g., bidi and agarbatti rolling. The daily net wages received by female garment makers is Rs.31.5. This is below the daily wage rate of Rs.33.8 fixed in 1994 for the garment manufacturing establishments with more than three workers.

Many of the homeworkers were helped by their family members. The proportion of workers who received such help, by the product manufactured, is presented in Table 25. About 25 percent of garment making homeworkers engaged family labour. The net incomes received per worker would reduce even further if one were to include these workers as well.

{PRIVATE }Income of Self-Employed Enterprises in India{tc \l 1 "Income of Self-Employed Enterprises in India"}

In our study of Ahmedabad city we also estimated the gross value added obtained by informal enterprises (Uma Rani and Unni, 2000). Net value added was obtained as the difference between receipts and operating expenses. Since own account enterprises do not employ hired workers we can assume the gross value added to be equal to incomes obtained by the self-employed enterprises.

Average incomes per enterprises and per family worker are presented in Table 26. The own account enterprises are further split according to their place of work. On an average own account enterprises earned an annual income of Rs. 38,376 per enterprise and Rs. 28,650 per worker in Ahmedabad in 1998-99. Own account enterprises with a designated place of business earned the highest incomes, followed by home-based workers. In our study we observed that while only 26 percent of the enterprises had female proprietors, of these only two percent had a designated place of business.

Evidence of low incomes of self-employed workers in the informal economy of other cities in India are presented by Sethuraman (1998). He noted that in 1990 in Bombay, about 80 per cent of self-employed women and regular wage workers in low income household earned below Rs. 300 per week. But the proportion of female contract of piece-rate workers earning below Rs. 300 is 98 percent. This confirms our observation from Ahmedabad that homeworkers earn even less than self employed workers. Gender disparity between earnings of men and women in six cities of India is presented in Sethuraman (1998). Women in petty trade in vegetables, food, beverages and other items earn less per hour than men. These differences by gender are probably explained by amount of capital invested or scale and location of business. There is, however, less gender disparity in the construction industry perhaps due to more competitive labour markets.

{PRIVATE }V. CONCLUSION{tc \l 1 "V. CONCLUSION"}

In this paper we have provided evidence of the growing informalisation of the labour force in South Asian Countries. The concept of the 'informal sector', as defined in the SNA 1993, needs to be widened to include workers who are more invisible and vulnerable in the labour market such as outworkers, informal employment in the formal sector, domestic workers etc. A concept of the informal economy may be more useful to advocates of these vulnerable groups of women.

We have identified two broad components of the informal economy, i.e., non-wage employment and wage employment. The first component of the informal economy non-wage employment in non-agriculture, was most prominent in Bangladesh, Pakistan and India. It's share increased during the eighties and nineties in Bangladesh and India, while it appeared to decline in Pakistan and Nepal. Within this first component we do find evidence of a large proportion of homebased workers and street vendors in some cities in India. Another large, but relatively declining component, was of unpaid family workers among women in all the countries. The second component of the informal economy, wage employment, is more difficult to clearly distinguish. We found an increasing proportion of casual employees in India and Bangladesh. This casualisation of the labourforce is considered a clear evidence of informalisation. Another process of informalisation we identified was the growth of informal employment within the formal economy. Though it is difficult to obtain trends in this process, we observed a large proportion of employees in the formal economy not receiving the benefits due to formal workers in a city in India. A third component of informal wage employment is constituted by homeworkers or outworkers. Again evidence for the South Asian countries was not available. However, we did observe a large proportion of women homework in a city in India.

The quality of employment available to the women in the informal economy is brought out by the wages and incomes they receive and differentials in earnings. Data on wages and incomes are much more difficult to obtain. Gender differential in wages in Bangladesh, Pakistan and Nepal all pointed to the lower quality of wage employment obtained by women in these countries. For India, detailed data on wages to employees in formal and informal components of the economy, as well as to homeworkers, provided evidence of the poor quality of employment available to women in the informal economy.

Incomes generated by self-employed enterprises was observed to be quite low in various cities in India and Nepal. In Nepal, returns to self employed enterprises with or without women workers, provided further evidence of the low quality of employment obtained by women.

The trend towards increasing feminisation of the workforce in the non-agricultural sector was observed in South Asia. The link between gender, informality and poverty in the labour market in South Asia are evident. The various components of the informal economy are growing and an increasing participation of women in them are observed. The

low quality of the employment thus obtained is disturbing. However, the chances are that the informal employment is what helps many households reduce the intensity of poverty.

Table 1

Percentage of Economically Active Population (10+ Years)

{PRIVATE }Countries/Year	Male	Female	Persons
Bangladesh			
1974 (PC)	80.3	39.9	38.9
1981 (PC)	74.1	4.3	40.6
1985-86 (LFS)	76.9	9.4	44.0
1989-90 (LFS)	81.0	61.6	71.7
1995-96 (LFS)	78.3	50.6	64.8
India			
1971 (PC)	73.9	16.9	46.7
1977-78 (LFS)	76.5	42.1	59.7
1981 (PC)	71.5	27.1	50.1
1983 (LFS)	76.9	40.6	58.4
1987-88 (LFS)	73.5	39.7	57.6
1991 (PC)	52.7	23.4	38.7
1993-94 (LFS)	62.1	32.5	47.8
Pakistan			
1972 (PC)	77.2	8.9	46.0
1981 (PC)	72.4	3.2	40.2
1985-86 (LFS)	74.8	9.1	43.4
1989-90 (LFS)	73.8	10.2	48.0
1993-94 (LFS)	69.1	13.3	42.0
1996-97 (LFS)	70.0	13.6	43.0
Sri Lanka			
1971 (PC)	68.5	26.0	48.0
1981 (PC)	64.8	23.1	44.4
1985-86 (LFS)	67.8	31.5	49.4
1992 (LFS)	66.5	31.7	48.9
Nepal			
1971 (PC) (15+)	87.8	34.3	61.0
1981 (PC)	83.2	46.2	65.1
1991 (PC)	68.2	45.2	56.6

Note: Population Census (PC) and Labour Force Surveys (LFS) of various countries as used in the ILO publication.

Sources: 1. Year Book of Labour Statistics, 1947-95, ILO, Geneva.
 2. Year Book of Labour Statistics, 1993, ILO, Geneva.
 3. Sarvekshana, various years.

Table 2

**Structure of Output in South Asian Countries
(Value Added as % of GDP)**

{PRIVATE }	Agriculture		Manufacture		Industry		Services	
	1980	1997	1980	1997	1980	1997	1980	1997
Bangladesh	50	30	11	9	16	17	34	53
India	38	27	18	19	26	30	36	43
Nepal	62	43	4	10	12	22	26	35
Pakistan	30	26	16	17	25	25	46	50
Sri Lanka	28	22	18	17	30	26	43	52

Note: Industry includes mining, manufacturing, construction, electricity, gas and water.

Source: World Development Report 1998-99, World Bank, Washington DC.

Table 3

Distribution of All Workers by Industry Group (Percentage)

{PRIVATE }Countries/ Year	Male			Female			Persons		
	Pri- mary	Seco- ndary	Ter- tiary	Pri- mary	Seco- ndary	Ter- tiary	Pri- mary	Seco- ndary	Ter- tiary
Bangladesh									
1974 (PC)	79.3	4.9	15.7	72.7	4.3	23.0	79.1	4.9	16.0
1981 (PC)	62.6	11.7	25.6	62.6	11.8	25.6	62.6	11.7	25.6
1985-86 (LFS)	61.8	9.7	27.4	48.5	35.7	15.8	59.5	12.9	27.6
1989-90 (LFS)	61.4	11.1	27.2	72.4	22.1	5.5	65.4	15.5	19.1
1995-96 (LFS)	54.4	10.7	34.9	77.4	7.7	14.9	63.3	9.5	27.3
India									
1971 (PC)	69.8	11.8	18.4	82.5	8.1	9.4	72.1	11.2	16.7
1981 (PC)	65.6	14.6	19.8	81.2	9.4	9.4	68.8	13.5	17.7
1983 (LFS)	62.0	15.7	22.2	78.5	10.6	10.8	68.6	13.8	17.6
1987-88 (LFS)	59.8	17.0	23.0	77.9	12.6	9.4	65.9	15.5	18.4
1991 (PC)	62.9	13.8	23.3	80.8	8.3	10.8	66.9	12.5	20.5
1993-94 (LFS)	57.6	16.6	25.8	77.7	11.1	11.3	64.3	14.9	20.9
Pakistan									
1972 (PC)	58.8	14.0	27.1	66.4	11.5	22.1	59.2	13.9	26.8
1981 (PC)	55.9	15.0	29.1	41.3	18.9	39.7	52.7	14.3	32.9
1989-90 (LFS)	-	-	-	-	-	-	57.7	9.6	32.7
1993-94 (LFS)	46.2	18.7	35.1	72.0	11.2	16.7	50.0	17.5	32.5
1996-97 (LFS)	40.6	20.3	39.1	65.9	10.3	23.7	44.2	19.0	36.9
Sri Lanka									
1971 (PC)	51.6	14.1	34.2	61.8	12.5	25.7	50.1	12.7	37.1
1981 (PC)	-	-	-	-	-	-	45.5	14.4	40.1
1985-86 (LFS)	48.2	16.7	59.4	59.4	13.6	27.0	49.1	18.0	32.9
1992 (LFS)	-	-	-	-	-	-	46.4	18.5	35.1
1995 (LFS)*	38.1	22.6	39.2	41.4	28.6	30.0	37.0	22.4	35.0
Nepal									
1971 (PC)	92.8	1.5	5.7	98.2	0.5	1.4	94.4	1.2	4.4
1981 (PC)	88.7	1.1	10.6	95.7	0.2	4.1	91.1	0.6	8.3
1991 (PC)	74.9	3.6	21.4	90.5	1.3	8.2	81.2	2.7	16.2

Note: Same as Table 1.

Source: Same as Table 1.

Table 4

**Distribution of Non-Wage Workers in Total Non-Agricultural
Labour Force and in Each Industry Group**

{PRIVATE }Countries/ Source/Year	Sex	Industry	Trade	Services	Non-Agriculture
Bangladesh					
PC 74	Persons	49.1	77.3	44.1	51.4
	Male	47.7	77.2	44.3	51.4
	Female	86.2	84.5	41.7	50.5
PC 81	Persons	37.7	84.6	36.5	53.9
	Male	37.8	84.5	36.6	54.0
	Female	37.4	84.8	35.6	53.8
LFS 90-91	Persons	81.0	87.3	49.0	79.4
	Male	76.8	87.5	50.9	77.3
	Female	92.7	78.2	25.2	91.6
India					
PC 71	Persons	49.0	74.4	23.9	43.1
	Male	47.2	73.6	23.6	42.4
	Female	61.8	88.2	26.4	48.7
PC 81	Persons	43.8	72.1	21.7	40.6
	Male	43.2	72.5	22.1	40.9
	Female	46.4	67.6	18.8	38.6
LFS 1983	Persons	19.7	30.4	11.5	20.3
	Male	29.5	39.0	7.2	34.8
	Female	17.1	27.7	7.1	15.7
LFS 1987-88	Persons	-	-	-	29.9
	Male	-	-	-	47.0
	Female	-	-	-	17.5
PC 91	Persons	38.5	69.2	22.3	40.7
	Male	36.6	68.8	23.0	40.6
	Female	49.9	74.8	17.8	41.6
LFS 1993-94	Persons	38.0	36.2	13.7	44.9
	Male	32.8	42.5	7.8	43.5
	Female	53.8	37.4	9.6	50.5

Table 4 (Contd...)

{PRIVATE }Countries/ Source/ Year	Sex	Industry	Trade	Services	Non- Agriculture
Nepal					
PC 71	Persons	39.6	87.7	11.2	35.1
	Male	37.3	87.0	10.9	33.6
	Female	57.6	93.0	15.3	19.7
Pakistan					
PC 72	Persons	63.4	86.4	43.7	61.6
	Male	62.5	86.3	44.4	61.7
	Female	87.6	93.1	30.3	60.9
PC 81	Persons	43.8	84.6	39.0	56.6
	Male	43.2	86.4	40.1	57.2
	Female	56.3	81.4	22.6	44.2
LFS 94-95	Persons	24.1	85.5	29.6	42.9
	Male	22.4	85.3	31.1	43.6
	Female	45.7	94.8	18.1	33.9
Sri Lanka					
PC 71	Persons	16.5	43.4	21.5	21.4
	Male	16.0	42.8	22.1	22.1
	Female	18.4	51.0	18.3	18.2
PC 81	Persons	14.6	43.1	5.8	19.0
	Male	15.0	44.0	6.9	21.0
	Female	12.6	34.0	2.6	10.2

- Source: 1. Same as Table 1.
 2. Jacques Charmes, 1999.
 3. **Sarvekshana**, Various rounds.

Table 5

Employment Status of Workers (Percentage)

{PRIVATE }	Male			Female		
	Self Employed	Regular Employer	Casual Employee	Self Employed	Regular Employee	Casual Employee
{PRIVATE }Rural{tc \l 1 "Rural"}						
1977-78	62.8	10.6	26.6	62.1	2.8	35.1
1983	60.5	10.3	29.2	61.9	2.8	35.3
1987-88	58.6	10.0	31.4	60.8	3.7	35.5
1993-94	57.9	8.3	33.8	58.5	2.8	38.8
Urban						
1977-78	40.4	46.4	13.2	49.5	24.9	25.6
1983	40.9	43.7	15.4	45.8	25.8	28.4
1987-88	41.7	43.7	14.6	47.1	27.2	25.4
1993-94	41.7	42.1	16.2	45.4	28.6	26.0

Source: NSSO, **Sarvekshana**, Various Issues.

Table 6

Distribution of Workers by Activity Status in Bangladesh (All Areas)

{PRIVATE }Year	Male			
	Self Employed	Unpaid	Regular Employer	Casual Labour
Male				
1989	43.3	19.8	13.1	23.8
1995-96	43.2	17.2	14.4	25.2
Female				
1989	10.2	82.2	4.5	2.8
1995-96	7.7	77.4	8.7	6.2
Persons				
1989	29.6	45.7	9.6	15.1
1995-96	29.6	40.1	12.4	17.9

Source: Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics, Labour Force Surveys, 1989 and 1995-96.

Table 7

**Percentage of Employees (Wage and Salary Earners)
Receiving Different Benefits by Employment Status and Sex**

{PRIVATE }Status of Employ- ment/Sex	Benefits					
	Assurance of Employ-ment	Written or Oral Contract	Paid Leave	PF/ Pension	Medical and Other Benefits	Notice for Termi-nation
Regular Employees						
Male	89.7	36.1	32.5	29.9	23.4	28.0
Female	92.2	32.2	50.6	24.2	30.0	35.7
Person	90.1	35.4	35.4	28.9	24.5	29.3
Casual Employees						
Male	59.2	4.8	4.3	1.3	0.9	0
Female	69.5	0	2.6	0	0	0
Persons	61.2	3.9	4.0	1.1	0.7	0
All Employees						
Male	80.3	26.4	23.8	21.1	16.4	19.4
Female	84.5	21.2	34.3	16.0	19.8	23.5
Persons	81.0	25.5	25.6	20.2	17.0	20.1

Source: Unni, 2000 a.

Table 8

**Employees in the Formal Sector: By Registration Status
and By Informal Employment**

{PRIVATE }	Persons	Male	Female
By Registration Status			
Formal Sector	45.2	46.6	38.6
Informal Sector	54.8	53.4	61.4
All	100.0	100.0	100.0
Informal Employment in the Formal Sector			
Without Paid Leave	43.6	49.1	12.1

Note: Informal employment refers to persons in the formal sector not obtaining paid leave.

Source: Unni and Uma Rani, 1999.

Table 9

**Distribution of Workers in the Non-Agricultural Sector by
Derived Work Activity Status for Each Sex**

{PRIVATE }Derived Work Activity Status	Male	Female	Persons
Regular Employee	45.4	27.4	41.0
Casual Employee	20.4	14.1	18.9
Home Workers	2.5	24.1	7.8
Self Employed	24.4	10.4	22.4
Employer	2.7	0.1	2.1
Own Account Worker	23.7	10.3	20.3
a. Home based	3.3	7.9	4.4
b. Street Worker	15.4	2.2	12.1
i. Street Vendors	6.3	2.2	5.3
ii. Others on Street	9.1	-	6.8
c. Own Business Premises	5.0	0.2	3.8
Unpaid Family Worker	5.3	24.1	9.9
All	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of Sample Persons	1095	411	1506

Source: Unni, 2000 a.

Table 10

Percentage of Unpaid Workers

{PRIVATE }	Male	Female	Persons
Bangladesh			
1974	21.9	59.9	23.5
1981	15.8	15.9	15.8
1985-86	19.5	11.3	18.6
1989	19.9	82.5	45.7
1995-96	17.2	77.4	40.1
Pakistan			
1972	22.5	55.0	24.1
1981	14.5	27.0	15.1
1985-86	-	-	26.2
1992-93	16.9	59.8	23.0
1993-94	17.5	60.1	23.8
1994-95	17.2	61.7	22.6
1996-97	15.1	54.1	20.3
Sri Lanka			
1971	3.5	11.2	5.3
1981	2.8	6.5	3.6
1985-86	9.2	22.7	13.2
1991-92	5.8	21.8	11.2
1995	5.7	16.2	8.9
Nepal			
1971	4.3	3.1	7.2
1981	1.7	4.1	2.5
1991	1.5	3.5	2.3

Source: Same as Table 1.

Table 11

**Weekly Average Time Spent (in hours) on SNA,
Extended SNA and Non-SNA Activities in India, 1999-2000**

{PRIVATE }Activities	Male	Female	Persons
Total			
SNA	41.96	18.72	30.75
Extended SNA	3.65	34.63	18.69
Non-SNA	122.42	114.58	118.62
Total	168.03	167.93	168.06
Rural			
SNA	42.31	22.53	32.72
Extended SNA	3.74	33.95	18.40
Non-SNA	121.98	111.50	116.89
Total	168.03	167.98	168.01
Urban			
SNA	41.06	9.16	25.77
Extended SNA	3.44	36.44	19.26
Non-SNA	123.47	122.44	123.03
Total	167.97	168.04	168.06

Source: CSO, 2000, Table 5.3

Table 12

Unpaid Time Spent on SNA Activities in India, 1999-2000

{PRIVATE }States	Percentage of Unpaid time on SNA Activities		
	Male	Female	Persons
Haryana	35.38	85.99	51.58
Madhya Pradesh	44.25	52.40	46.67
Gujarat	24.21	44.67	29.70
Orissa	41.77	69.44	49.90
Tamil Nadu	24.39	32.45	26.89
Meghalaya	67.12	76.39	70.64
All States	33.15	50.52	38.29

Source: CSO, 2000, Table 5.7

Table 13

Share of Women in Non-Agriculture

{PRIVATE }	Industry	Trade	Services	Non-Agri-cultural
Bangladesh				
1974	3.7	1.1	7.6	5.5
1981	5.0	5.0	5.0	5.0
1990-91	26.6	2.9	7.5	14.6
1995-96	30.8	-	20.8	23.4
India				
1971	12.2	5.9	11.5	12.1
1981	16.7	8.1	13.7	19.2
1991	14.5	6.5	14.4	12.9
1983	20.0	10.5	16.5	15.7
1987-88	-	-	-	21.8
1993-94	24.8	-	17.4	20.5
Pakistan				
1972	3.9	1.6	5.3	4.1
1981	4.5	2.3	6.0	4.5
1994-95	7.0	2.4	11.5	7.4
Sri Lanka				
1971	21.9	6.8	19.6	17.0
1981	17.3	8.6	25.1	18.3
Nepal				
1971	11.4	12.4	7.6	14.5
1981	13.9	15.0	14.2	16.6
1991	19.8	23.7	19.3	20.2

Note: Includes non-agricultural workers not classified by industry group.

Source: Same as Table 1.

Table 14

**Share of Women in Non-Wage Employment in Non-Agriculture
(First Component of the Informal Sector)**

{PRIVATE }	Industry	Trade	Services	Non-Agri-cultural
Bangladesh				
1974	6.6	1.2	7.1	5.4
1981	5.0	5.0	4.9	5.0
1990-91	30.4	2.6	3.8	16.9
India				
1971	15.4	7.0	12.7	12.2
1981	17.7	7.6	11.8	13.4
1991	18.8	7.0	11.5	13.3
1983	24.6	15.6	12.2	18.5
1987-88	-	-	-	23.4
1993-94	35.1	-	16.4	23.1
Pakistan				
1972	5.4	1.7	3.7	3.9
1981	5.7	2.2	3.5	3.6
1994-95	13.3	2.7	7.0	5.9
Sri Lanka				
1971	24.4	8.0	11.5	14.8
1981	15.0	6.8	11.0	10.2
Nepal				
1971	16.6	13.1	10.3	13.5
1991	24.1	25.3	24.3	24.

Source: Same as Table 1

Table 15

Average Wage Rate (Taka) of Day Labourers Working in Agricultural and Non-Agricultural Sectors by Sex and Residence

{PRIVATE }	Bangladesh			Urban			Rural		
	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female
Agriculture									
With Food	27.56	28.06	24.58	25.53	25.35	25.00	27.58	28.09	24.66
Without Food	31.46	31.62	27.74	31.96	27.33	27.33	31.45	31.60	28.01
Non-Agriculture									
With Food	29.69	37.71	13.53	38.96	39.34	15.09	27.95	36.33	13.17
Without Food	42.78	45.96	20.86	45.03	48.58	17.00	42.17	45.23	21.76

Source: ESCAP, 1995,

Table 16

Percentage of Employees (10+ Years) by Sex and Monthly Income in Pakistan

{PRIVATE }Monthly Income (Rs.)	Male	Female	Total Employees
1993-94			
<1500	39.25	66.54	
1500-2500	38.00	22.91	
2500-4000	17.60	6.08	
>4000	5.88	4.18	
All	100.00	100.00	
Average Monthly Income Rs.	2113	1381	
1996-97			
<1500	19.55	56.67	24.08
1500-2500	33.26	21.78	31.86
2500-4000	31.13	14.17	29.05
>4000	16.06	7.37	15.00
All	100.00	100.00	100.00
Average Monthly Income Rs.	3140	1880	2986

Source: Labour Force Survey, 1993-94, Federal Bureau of Statistics, Government of Pakistan, 1995.
Labour Force Survey, 1996-97, Federal Bureau of Statistics, Government of Pakistan, 1998.

Table 17

Average Wage and Salary Earnings in Agriculture and Occupations in Non-Agriculture in Nepal, 1995-96

{PRIVATE }Activity	Wage Earned Per Day		Wage + Salary Per Day	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Non-Agriculture				
Professional + Technical	65.8	70.5	105.6	79.2
Administrative & Managerial	-	-	174.4	417.6
Clerical	80.1	48.8	101.4	90.8
Sales	58.3	42.9	78.4	131.7
Services	85.1	34.7	88.9	61.9
Farmers & Forestry Workers	76.1	37.6	58.0	156.5
Production Workers	83.6	43.5	96.5	53.9
Construction/Transport/Communication	81.8	71.7	99.0	79.6
Ordinary Labour	71.6	61.6	83.7	62.1
All	76.5	57.6	92.4	76.5

Source: Acharya, 2000

Table 18

Sectoral Composition and Net Returns of Enterprises With and Without Women Family Members in Nepal, 1995-96

{PRIVATE }	Number of Enterprises		
	With Women	Without Women	All
Manufacturing	34.0	26.1	28.8
Trade & Services	59.0	48.4	52.1
Others	7.0	25.5	19.0
All	100.0	100.0	100.0
Net Returns Per Enterprises (Rs.)			
Rural	17666	21978	-
Urban	47259	56756	-
All Enterprises	21763	26281	-

Source: Acharya, 2000, NLSS data for 1995-96

Table 19

Real wages in Organised and Unorganised Sector in States

{PRIVATE }		1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Gujarat	CT	4.68	4.86	4.97	4.88	4.83	4.91	4.70	4.34	4.45	4.38
	UO	6.70	6.50	6.03	5.39	4.34	5.03	4.35	3.66	3.29	3.76
	AL	1.84	-	1.66	1.75	1.63	2.64	2.25	1.69	1.71	-
Maharashtra	CT	4.50	4.51	4.44	5.28	4.31	4.31	4.31	4.30	4.28	4.25
	UO	-	-	5.34	4.27	4.06	-	-	4.39	4.45	3.82
	AL	-	-	2.23	2.08	1.87	-	2.57	2.82	2.46	-
Karnataka	CT	5.14	5.16	5.20	5.33	5.32	5.33	5.34	5.31	5.34	5.32
	UO	2.16	-	3.07	3.10	2.47	-	4.08	3.64	3.16	-
	AL	-	-	1.71	1.73	1.19	1.05	2.14	2.34	2.20	-
Tamil Nadu	CT	6.24	6.37	6.31	6.27	6.27	6.30	6.29	6.31	6.32	6.32
	UO	3.39	3.34	3.22	2.97	2.83	2.92	2.97	2.83	3.62	3.35
	AL	1.65	-	2.07	1.91	2.66	-	2.36	2.43	2.17	-
Madhya Pradesh	CT	4.51	4.49	4.41	4.35	4.32	4.32	4.30	4.27	4.27	4.25
	UO	3.87	3.67	3.35	3.33	2.18	3.22	3.16	3.17	2.80	3.25
	AL	1.79	-	1.68	1.97	1.95	2.06	1.78	1.86	9.73	-
Utter Pradesh	CT	5.28	5.35	5.33	5.21	5.72	5.76	5.51	5.68	5.21	5.20
	UO	4.26	3.74	4.02	3.91	-	4.48	3.57	4.84	-	-
	AL	2.10	-	2.10	2.08	-	2.24	1.79	1.94	2.59	-
West Bengal	CT	5.59	5.64	5.73	5.67	5.59	5.60	5.62	5.64	5.60	5.78
	UO	3.20	3.87	3.74	3.76	4.09	4.36	3.99	3.64	4.33	3.90
	AL	1.69	-	2.38	2.08	2.56	2.26	2.26	2.10	2.07	-

Note: Rupees at 1980-81 prices.

CT - Cotton Textile Industry, UP - Unorganised Non-Agricultural Labour, AL - Agricultural Labour

Source: CT - Various issues of the Indian Labour Journal. UO and AL - Agricultural Wages in India, Ministry of Agriculture, Government of India.

{PRIVATE }

Table 20{tc \l 1 "

Table 20"}

Relative Wages in Organised & Unorganised Sector in States

{PRIVATE }		1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Gujarat	CT/UO	0.7	0.75	0.82	0.9	1.11	0.98	1.11	1.32	1.46	1.27
	CT/AL	3.34	-	3.78	3.49	3.49	2.24	2.41	3.35	3.22	-
	UO/AL	3.64	-	3.64	3.08	2.67	1.91	1.93	2.17	1.93	-
Maharashtra	CT/UO	-	-	0.83	1.24	1.06	-	-	0.98	0.96	1.11
	CT/AL	-	-	2.46	2.65	2.54	-	2.02	1.78	2.10	-
	UO/AL	-	-	2.40	2.05	2.17	-	-	1.56	1.81	-
Karnataka	CT/UO	2.38	-	1.69	1.72	2.15	-	1.31	1.46	1.69	-
	CT/AL	-	-	3.86	3.94	5.33	6.02	3.12	2.84	2.95	-
	UO/AL	-	-	1.79	1.79	2.08	-	1.91	1.56	1.44	-
Tamil Nadu	CT/UO	1.84	1.91	1.96	2.11	2.22	2.16	2.12	2.23	1.75	1.89
	CT/AL	4.55	-	3.76	4.02	2.74	-	3.16	2.90	3.65	-
	UO/AL	0.20	-	1.55	1.55	1.06	-	1.25	1.17	1.67	-
Madhya Pradesh	CT/UO	1.17	1.22	1.32	1.31	1.98	1.34	1.36	1.35	1.53	1.31
	CT/AL	3.13	-	3.11	2.69	2.56	2.59	2.75	2.69	2.90	-
	UO/AL	2.16	-	1.99	1.69	1.11	1.56	1.78	1.71	1.60	-
Utter Pradesh	CT/UO	1.24	1.43	1.33	1.33	-	1.29	1.54	1.17	-	-
	CT/AL	2.64	-	2.68	2.47	-	2.49	2.61	2.53	1.95	-
	UO/AL	2.03	-	1.91	1.88	-	2.00	2.00	2.5	-	-
West Bengal	CT/UO	1.75	1.46	1.53	1.51	1.37	1.28	1.41	1.55	1.29	1.48
	CT/AL	3.44	-	2.55	2.73	2.16	2.64	2.53	2.77	2.75	-
	UO/AL	1.89	-	1.57	1.87	1.6	1.93	1.77	1.73	2.09	-

Source: Computed from Table 19.

Table 21

Wages (Rs.) in Unorganised Sector Industry, All Employees, Gujarat

{PRIVATE }Name of Scheduled Employment	Minimum Wages 1.6.94/25.4.97	All Enterprises		Formal Sector		Informal Sector	
		M	F	M	F	M	F
Rice, Flour or Dal Mill	32.85 - 32.65	34.6	-	-	-	34.7	-
Bakeries	31.05 - 32.05	76.6	-	-	-	76.6	-
Cotton, Ginning and Cotton Pressing (Heavy, light)	34.85 - 34.35	57.2	32.6	57.4	32.6	30.0	-
Bobbin Industry	32.20 - 32.55	44.5	-	44.5	-	-	-
Textile Processing Industry	34.35 - 34.75/59.9 - 61.5	50.6	39.4	52.5	39.4	43.8	-
Pulp and Paper Board Manufacturing	32.55/57.6 - 60.7	52.9	65.4	57.7	65.4	48.0	-
Printing Press	33.25 - 33.80/58.9 - 61.1	51.3	-	-	-	51.3	-
Rubber or Rubber Products Industry	32.35	41.2	-	41.2	-	-	-
Roofing Tiles Manufacturing	31.55	57.7	15.4	57.7	15.4	-	-
Industrial Engineering (establishments employing less than 50 workers)	32.60 - 33.60/58.7 - 63.2	47.9	-	46.5	-	80.0	-
Electronics Industry	34.35	39.2	-	57.7	-	37.3	-
Construction or Maintenance of Road or Building Operation	33.60 - 33.85/60.5 - 69.5	61.2	48.9	101.8	-	59.1	48.9
Shop and Commercial Establishments	27.55 - 29.92	40.1	39.7	42.5	-	40.1	39.8
Petrol and Diesel Oil Pumps	29.29 - 29.92	115.4	-	-	-	115.4	-
Hotel and Restaurant	32.10 - 33.6	59.7	10.0	-	-	59.7	10.0
Public Motor Transport	37.75/62.6 - 66.3	81.9	-	86.8	-	50.8	-
Local Authority (Municipalities/Corpn)	29.88	112.0	123.1	112.0	123.1	-	-
Hospital and Nursing Homes, Dispensary, Clinical Laboratory	33.20 - 34.45/59.6 - 65.9	49.4	16.1	98.6	-	34.9	16.1
Automobile Repairing Workshops and Garages	31.15 - 32.15	37.6	-	33.3	-	38.0	-
Total	-	55.4	55.3	69.8	84.9	46.8	36.9

Note : Professional and managerial cadres are excluded.

Source: Unni, 2000 a.

Table 22

Average Income (Rs) in the Year in Industry, Employees, Ahmedabad

{PRIVATE }Name of Scheduled Employment	All Enterprises		Formal Sector		Informal Sector	
	M	F	M	F	M	F
Rice, Flour or Dal Mill	11743	-	-	-	11743	-
Bakeries	27565	-	-	-	27565	-
Cotton Ginning & Cotton Pressing (Heavy, light)	17204	8002	17322	8002	7198	-
Bobbin Industry	10362	-	10361	-	-	-
Textile Processing Industry	14955	8198	15677	8198	12275	-
Pulp and Paper Board Manufacturing	16201	20398	17999	20398	14399	-
Printing Press	15720	-	-	-	15720	-
Rubber or Rubber Products Industry	13094	-	13094	-	-	-
Roofing Tiles Manufacturing	3000	1600	3000	1600	-	-
Industrial engineering (establishments employing less than 50 workers)	15116	-	14798	-	21995	-
Electronics Industry	12552	-	17996	-	11999	-
Construction or Maintenance of road or building operation	13317	7911	25131	-	12712	7911
Shop & Commercial Establishments	11960	4860	14473	-	11885	12984
Petrol and Diesel Oil Pumps	23997	-	-	-	23997	-
Hotel & Restaurant	15204	3599	-	-	15204	3599
Public Motor Transport	25129	-	29029	-	9660	-
Local Authority (Municipalities/Corporation)	35077	32399	35077	32399	-	-
Hospitals and Nursing Homes, Dispensary, Clinical laboratory	15987	5259	35510	-	10952	5259
Automobile repairing Workshops and Garages	11085	-	11994	-	11022	-
Total	19346	14359	21181	18441	17717	8425

Source: Unni, 1998.

Table 23

Minimum Wage Rates (Central Government), Daily Wage Earnings, Days and Income in the Year in Construction Industry by Skill-Level

{PRIVATE }Skill-Level	Minimum Wage (Rs.)		Daily Wage (Rs.)		Days per Year		Income Per Year	
	31.12.94/25		1998	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Unskilled	37.2/69.0	52.1	49.4	48.7	311	171	15391	8431
Semi-skilled	44.4/60.5	62.2	60.1	50.0	196	90	12244	4648
Skilled	58.8/63.2	82.3	85.8	-	270	-	27133	-
Highly-skilled	67.2/69.5	94.1						
Total	-	-	61.9	48.8	218	160	13317	7911

Source: Unni, 1998.

{PRIVATE }

Table 24{tc \l 2 " Table 24"}

Piece Rate Wages (Rs) Among Home based Workers in Unorganised Manufacturing, Ahmedabad

{PRIVATE }Name of Product	Unit	Average Piece Rate (Rs)		Average Pieces per day		Daily Gross wage Earnings (Rs)	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Knicker stitching	Per dozen	12.0	10.0	12	16	12.0	13.9
Dress stitching	Per piece	15.0	24.7	19	8	285.0	197.6
Frock stitching	Per dozen	-	14.4	-	23	-	28.9
Pant stitching	Per piece	32.5	-	18	-	585.2	-
Shirt stitching	Per piece	9.3	-	7	-	65.3	-
Petticoat stitching	Per dozen	-	15.6	-	26	-	33.7
Salwar stitching	Per piece	-	1.7	-	14	-	24.4
Blouse stitching	Per piece	-	10.0	-	2	-	20.0
Mattress cover	Per piece	29.9	70.0	3	1	90.0	70.0
Shirt cutting	Per dozen	12.0	-	55	-	55.0	-
Kite making	Per 1000	20.4	19.3	3976	1238	80.9	24.9
Sequins pasting	Per piece	15.0	18.5	1	1	15.0	18.5
Agarbatti rolling	Per 1000	-	4.2	-	4684	-	19.7
Bidi rolling	Per 1000	20.0	27.8	999	1095	20.0	30.4
Hair band making	Per dozen	-	9.5	-	30.0	-	23.7
Ring embroidery	Per 12 dozen	-	3.4	-	258	-	6.1
Paper flower making	Per 1000	-	5.5	-	2000	-	11.0

Source: Unni, 1998.

Table 25

**Days of Employment, Annual and Daily Net Income (Rs.) and
Workers with Family Helpers (%) Among Home Workers in
Unorganised Manufacturing, Ahmedabad**

{PRIVATE }Name of Product	Average Days per Year		Average Annual Net Income (Rs.)		Daily Net Earnings		With Helper (%)
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
Knicker stitching	360	236	4322	3275	12.0	13.9	40.0
Dress stitching	360	218	47577	14043	132.0	64.4	0
Frock stitching	-	312	-	6562	-	21.0	33.3
Pant stitching	239	-	34897	-	146.0	-	0
Shirt stitching	297	-	15351	-	51.7	-	25.0
Petticoat stitching	-	190	-	5797	-	30.5	25.0
Salwar stitching	-	210	-	4247	-	20.2	40.0
Blouse stitching	-	360	-	4498	-	12.4	0
Mattress cover	240	300	13135	13796	54.7	46.0	50.0
Shirt cutting	360	-	19684	-	54.7	-	0
Garments manufacture (total)	295	236	34202	7434	115.9	31.5	25.0
Kite making	249	225	12832	5604	51.5	24.9	40.0
Sequins pasting	360	210	1799	3885	5.0	18.5	66.7
Agarbatti rolling	-	272	-	5351	-	19.7	66.7
Bidi rolling	180	310	3595	9424	20.0	30.4	23.5
Hair band making	-	159	-	3686	-	23.2	44.4
Ring embroidery	-	295	-	1842	-	6.1	33.3
Paper flower making	-	240	-	2640	-	11.0	50.0
Total							37.0

Source: Unni, 1998.

Table 26

Annual Incomes of Self-employed and Wage Workers in Ahmedabad

{PRIVATE }Type of Enterprise	Average Incomes (Rs.)	
	Per Enterprises	Per Worker
Own Account Enterprises	38376	28650
Home Based	63620	39848
On the Street	32408	25766
Street Vendors	41952	28142
With Business Place	68933	48118
Wage Employment		
Home Workers	19104	13537
Independent Wage Workers	10563	10563

Source: Uma Rani and Unni, 2000.

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