

## **SOCIAL AND DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF TEMPORARY WORKFORCE IN INDIA**

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### **ABSTARCT**

*The Census data is provided every 10 years, with the most recent data referring to 2011. Similarly, quinquennial NSSO statistics on employment and unemployment are only available for 2011-12. The countrywide Employment and Unemployment (E&U) surveys have been superseded by Periodic Labour Force Survey (PLFS), which began in 2017-18 and is performed by the MoSPI's National Statistical Office (NSO). On a yearly basis, PLFS data is provided for both rural & urban areas, as well as the entire population. Quarterly data, on other hand, are only available for urban households. This paper give many social and demographic features of the workforce in India, such as workplace type, religion and social group, gender, marital status, educational accomplishments, and training data.*

**Keywords:** *Online/offline marketing, Labour Market, workforce, organized/unorganized sector*

### **INTRODUCTION**

Globalisation has led to many substantial changes in the world including the Indian labour market. The economic and social reforms post 1991 had impacted the functioning of the labour market. There have been many changes in Indian labour like changing nature of employment, improvement in the skills and education of the workforce, changes in demand of skills needed, etc. The movement of labour force away from agriculture to different sectors of the economy is very much evident from NSSO (National Sample Survey Organisation) Round 68. At present India is passing through a phase of demographic dividend with huge population of youth. The total population of India is 1,210,569,573[1] and the estimated working age (15-59) consists of 744,024,762;[1] this constitutes 61 per cent of the total population. The huge youth population which are available for work in the Indian labour market makes the country rich and if they are being utilised in proper manner can lead India to new heights of economic growth.

Against this backdrop, there is a huge population in India which is working in the offline/unorganized sector under poor working conditions, facing problems of unemployment, disguised employment and working in low-quality jobs. As per the latest NSSO 68th round data, the unorganised sector in India is very large and it constitutes about 93 per cent of the labour force. Most of these workers work in an environment where there is no formal contractual relationship between employer and employees, there is no legal protection, no social security and there is very little access to credit. The earnings of most of the workers who are working in offline sector are very less. There is a lack of skills, training, education, etc. which acts as major barriers in access to gainful employment.

As per the definition of National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO)[2] the nature of employment is considered as permanent if the person is in normal course is likely to continue the same employment or if the person does not continue the same employment nature of work will be considered as temporary. When it comes to the use of the statistical method in order to compute the workforce, they differ mainly based on the duration of the work in the reference period. In this study only those labour force have been considered as part of the workforce who have been working in the gainful employment for six months or more within the reference period of one year. The workforce can be further divided into formal and informal sector. Some people also use the online and offline sector for the same.

## RELATED STUDIES

According to Okafor (2010), the following forms of employment are typically related with non-standard employment relationships: part-time employment, casual work, contract work, outsourced jobs, fixed-term work, temporary work, on-call work, and home workers. All of these types of labor are similar in that they differ from traditional job relationship (full time, continuous work with one employer). Each type of nonstandard employment has its unique set of obstacles, but they also have some of the same drawbacks: low earnings, minimal benefits, a lack of collective representation by unions, & little or no work stability or defined length .[3]

According to the International Labour Organization (2011), there are several perspectives on the regulation of these private employment companies. Some of the points of view have been debated in various venues. The International Labour Organization has identified two essential views on the regulation of commercial staffing companies. First, the expansion of private staffing firms has resulted in labor market liberalization, and they accuse these companies for being the driving force behind the deregulation rather than merely beneficiaries. Second, many dishonest organizations continue to abuse employees.[4]

A. James & B. Vira (2012) reports on the findings of a regional labor mobility survey conducted among 439 contact center workers in India's National Capital Region. Previous research has extensively critiqued 'dead-end' character of contact center employment off shored to India from Global North, but it has done so with an intra-firm emphasis of study. Their analysis, using an alternative cross-firm worker agency approach, documents for first time some Indian call center agents' abilities to avoid a lack of internal job ladders and achieve career progression through lateral 'career staircases,' as they job hop b/w firms in search of better pay, better working conditions, and more complex job roles. In lack of extensive unionization in this sector, essay also explores productive & social reproductive variables that drive these patterns of Indian call center worker agency, as well as their mediation through a complex network of labor market intermediaries outside of enterprise.[5]

Kabiru Ishola Genty (2013) investigates the International Labour Organization's establishment of labor conventions & role of the Nigerian government in using these agreements to build National Labour Acts. The concept was critically examined in order to assess impact of such labor rules in Nigeria, which adopted convention, as well as the Ministry of Labour, Employment, and Productivity's shortcomings in ensuring adequate compliance. Secondary information was employed to collect data for the study, and discourse content analysis was performed to produce closing remarks on topic matter. According to the findings of the study, convention enforcement is lax, if not non-existent. Thus, the ILO's supervisory organizations must strive relentlessly to guarantee that ratified treaties are vividly implemented; failure to comply by member states should result in severe penalties.[6]

Srija. Shirke and A. According to S.V. (2014), the proportion of employment in the organized vs. unorganized sector was 13:87 in 2004-05, but it increased to 17:83 in 2011-12. It suggests that organized sector employment increased from 13% to 17% in 2011-12. However, it should be highlighted that the rise in organized sector employment was of an informal type. As the percentage of informal organized sector employment climbed from 48 % in 2004-05 to 55 % in 2011-12, share of formal organized employment declined from 52 percent in 2004-05 to 45 percent in 2011-12.[7]

N. Beerepoot and B. Lambregts (2015) give a comparative analysis of the relative earnings and the rewarding of skills and experience of contractors from chosen countries, and analyze whether wage convergence occurs between Western and developing nations

through labor arbitrage. The worldwide internet employment marketplace for independent contractors has given rise to a new type of service outsourcing. Such platforms are now the most accurate representation of the concept of a global labor market in which everyone competes for employment regardless of location. In this essay, we look at how rivalry shows itself on oDesk, a worldwide online platform. We find that wage convergence is obvious, but that experience and abilities seldom transfer into higher pay. While service outsourcing (or microwork) via global online markets creates new job prospects for freelancers all over world, fierce competition & inherent limitations of this form of marketplace limit financial rewards for the majority of contractors.[8]

K. Meagher (2016) investigate the truth underneath the outbreak of informal economic optimism, as well as why African labor markets are presented in such glowing terms. Images of a "African Boom" have shown labor markets with high potential: a dropping dependence ratio, low unemployment, and a thriving middle class. This upbeat vision of African labor markets masks a less upbeat reality of catastrophic young unemployment and growing informality. How did the continent recognized for having the greatest percentage of informal labor in the world become a beacon of prosperity.[9]

Jo Ingold and Danat Valizade (2017) study the influence of active labour market programmes (ALMPs) on employers' recruitment of disadvantaged groups using a unique comparative survey of enterprises in the UK and Denmark. The influence of ALMPs on employer recruitment was assessed in relation to organisational characteristics such as company size and selection criteria, using the Bonet et al. paradigm to envision agencies offering ALMPs as labour market intermediaries (LMIs). Despite the fact that ALMPs boosted employers' likelihood of employing long-term jobless in both countries and lone parents in Denmark, the effect was minimal when compared to firm size and employer selection criteria. While ALMP agencies have the potential to boost employers' recruitment of underrepresented groups, their power to do so is limited when they function as basic 'information provider' LMIs. Because ALMP agencies are unable to act successfully as 'matchmaker' LMIs, considerable intra-organizational impediments to such recruitment remain.[10]

Giesing et al. (2018) assess causal effect of a job search assistance program on asylum seekers' employment in Germany. Asylum seekers often require more time than other migrants to find work in their host nation. Individual abilities such as education and labor market experience are undoubtedly significant. Furthermore, the job search process necessitates the acquisition of skills & institutional knowledge, which may be lacking in certain groups, such as recently arrived immigrants, particularly non-economic migrants. We believe that the role of these frictions is an understudied aspect. We make an attempt to provide a rigorous evaluation of a software targeted at lowering matching frictions. We intend to conduct a field experiment to determine how lowering matching frictions enhances recent immigrant labour market integration in Germany. We conduct interviews with around 400 job-seeking migrants who attend job-counseling sessions offered by a Munich-based NGO.[11]

Mattia Martini et al. (2019) investigate the link between employment agency support, temporary agency worker employability, & influence of client corporate investments in worker development. We hypothesise that support from a temporary labour agency affects perceived career performance, employability skills, and employment possibilities. Furthermore, we contend that client firm investments reduce the influence of Temporary Work Agency assistance on employment outcomes. The research assumptions were put to the test on a group of temporary workers employed through an Italian employment agency. According to the findings, perceived career success and marketable qualities are favourably associated to employment agency support, owing to the partial

mediation of client firms' investments. Temporary Work Agencies, according to the poll, play a vital role in increasing the employability of temporary agency workers, even affecting client businesses' investments in workers' growth. This study adds to our understanding of the methods and conditions that allow investments in contract workers from both Temporary Work Agencies and client organisations to be effective predictors of their employability.[12]

Christina Stringer et al. (2021) investigate the function of recruiting agencies in the intricate network of forced labor. Our main concern is the mistreatment of Indonesian crew members onboard South Korean industrial trawlers fishing in New Zealand seas. We obtained information from a variety of sources, including (1) papers such as Indonesian national legislation and employment contracts for migrants; (2) 27 interviews with Indonesian personnel; & (3) translation work for New Zealand government departments, court cases, and film projects. We examine how recruiting agencies are entangled at three stages, as perceived through crew's eyes: before departure, onboard vessels, & after they return home.[13]

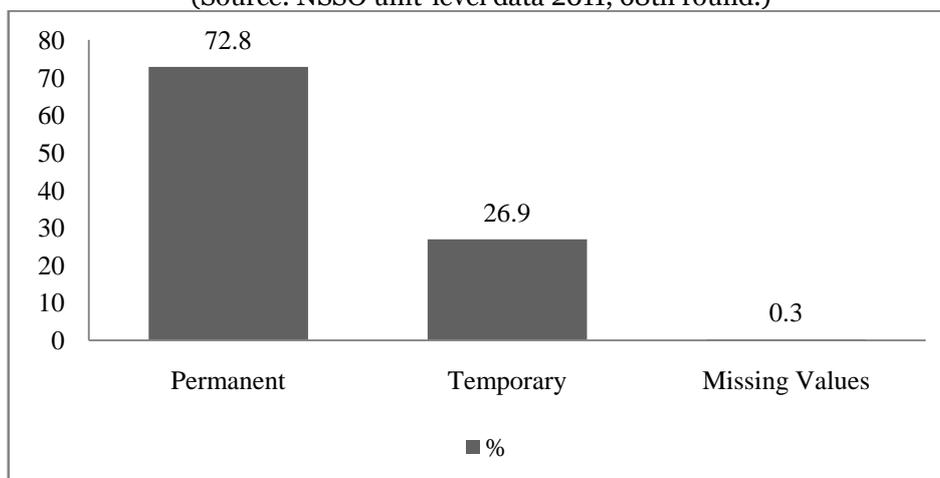
Studies on contingent employees by Jérôme Sulbout and Francois Pichault (2022) underline their boundaryless & ephemeral nature, portraying them as free agents who reject organizational forms of career assistance. Beyond this existing perspective, the purpose of this study is to shed light on career assistance offered by labor market intermediaries (LMIs) to skilled contingent workers (SCWs), also known as freelancers & consulting firm employees. The authors demonstrate that LMIs assist SCWs' careers through a variety of career management strategies & operational support, & account managers are expected to play a crucial role in SCWs' careers by providing transactional & relational career support. Furthermore, authors emphasize that SCWs are free agents who seek assistance from LMIs.[14]

## ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

**TABLE 1 NATURE OF EMPLOYMENT OF WORKFORCE IN INDIA**

NATURE OF EMPLOYMENT	NUMBER OF WORKERS	%
Permanent	53141697	72.80
Temporary	19638934	26.90
Missing Values	254513	0.30
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>73035144</b>	<b>100</b>

(Source: NSSO unit-level data 2011, 68th round.)

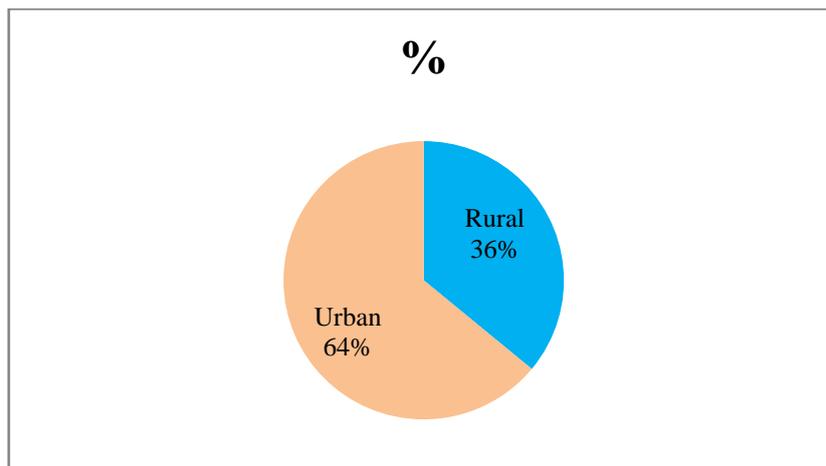


**FIGURE 1 NATURE OF EMPLOYMENT OF WORKFORCE IN INDIA**

Table 1 shows the percentages of the people in the temporary and permanent labour forces. It has been determined that around three-fourths of the workforce are in permanent positions, while nearly one-fourth of the population works as a temporary worker. This chapter's further analysis is focused on nature of employment in India. The following section discusses the social and demographic aspects of India's workforce.

**TABLE 2 SECTOR WISE DISTRIBUTION OF TEMPORARY WORKFORCE IN INDIA**

TEMPORARY WORKFORCE	%
Rural	36
Urban	64
Total	100



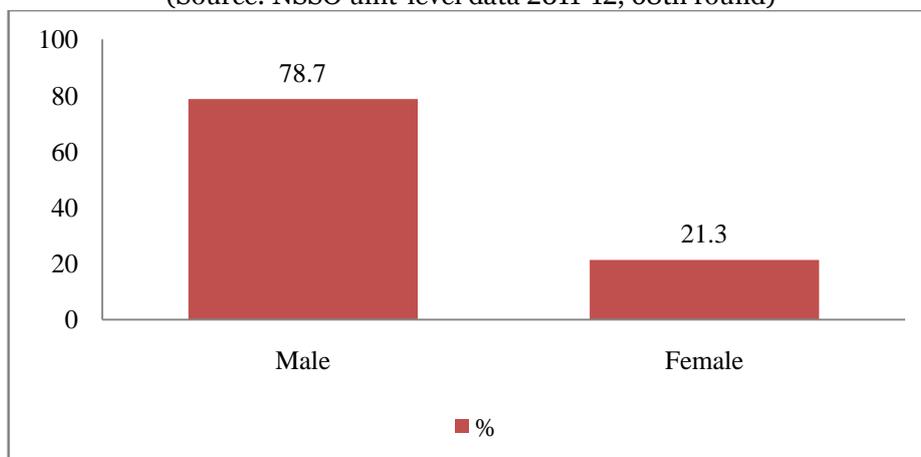
**FIGURE 2 SECTOR WISE DISTRIBUTION OF TEMPORARY WORKFORCE IN INDIA**

Figure 2 depicts the sector-wise distribution of temporary labour in India, indicating whether they work in the urban or rural sectors. Approximately 64% of the total temporary workforce works in urban sector, with remaining 36% working in rural sector.

**TABLE 3 GENDER WISE DISTRIBUTION OF TEMPORARY WORKFORCE IN INDIA**

GENDER	%
Male	78.70
Female	21.30
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>100</b>

(Source: NSSO unit-level data 2011-12, 68th round)



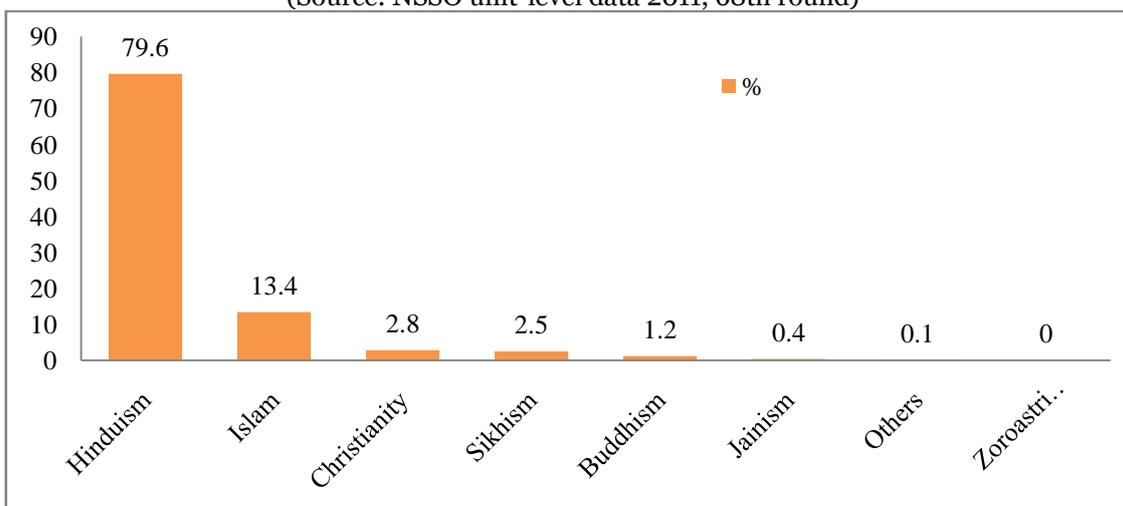
**FIGURE 3 GENDER WISE DISTRIBUTION OF TEMPORARY WORKFORCE IN INDIA**

The gender distribution of temporary workers in India is shown in Table 3 below. According to table 3, the bulk of the temporary workers in India is male (nearly 79%), with the remaining twenty-one percent being female. Historically, temporary employment was favoured for pink-collar occupations, such as clerical roles, which were largely employed to supply corporations with stop-gap solutions for the permanent employees. In the labour market, there has been a paradigm change on both the demand and supply sides. Men are now equally represented in the temporary workforce, which was formerly thought to be dominated by women. Nowadays, both individuals and jobs have become temporary. Temporary employees are not treated as a replacement for permanent employees, and people seek work-life balance, flexible time, flexible space, part-time schedules, and so on.

**TABLE 4 RELIGION OF TEMPORARY WORKFORCE IN INDIA**

RELIGION	%
Hinduism	79.60
Islam	13.40
Christianity	2.80
Sikhism	2.50
Buddhism	1.20
Jainism	0.40
Others	0.10
Zoroastrianism	0.00
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>100.00%</b>

(Source: NSSO unit-level data 2011, 68th round)



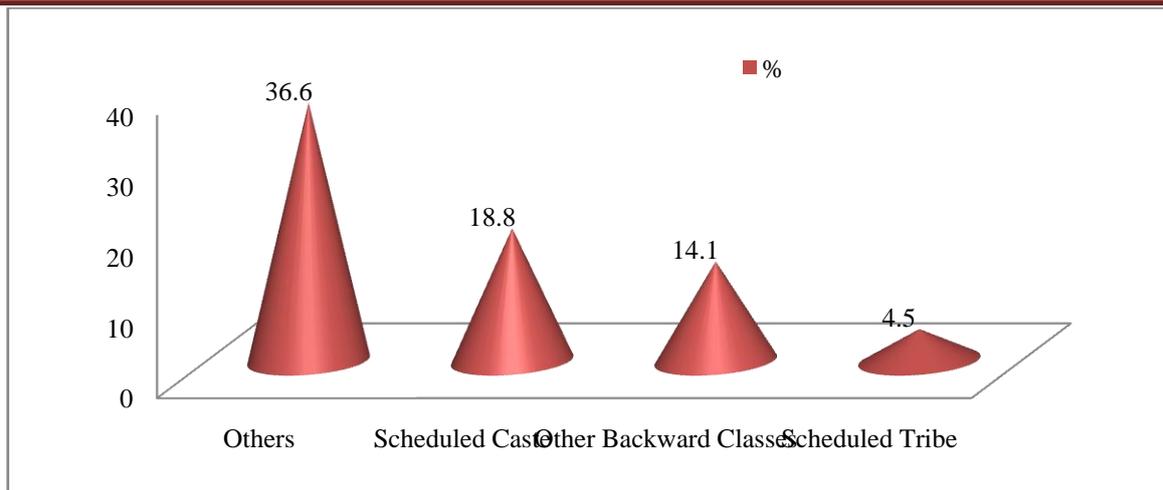
**FIGURE 4 RELIGION OF TEMPORARY WORKFORCE IN INDIA**

Table 4 shows the religion of India's temporary labour. Eighty percent of temporary workers are Hindu, thirteen percent are Muslim, and the remaining three percent, 2.5 percent, one percent, and 0.4 percent are Christian, Sikhism, Buddhism, and Jain, respectively.

**TABLE 5 SOCIAL GROUP OF TEMPORARY WORKFORCE IN INDIA**

SOCIAL CATEGORY	%
Others	36.60
Scheduled Caste	18.80
Other Backward Classes	14.10
Scheduled Tribe	4.50
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>100.00</b>

(Source: NSSO unit-level data 2011, 68th round)



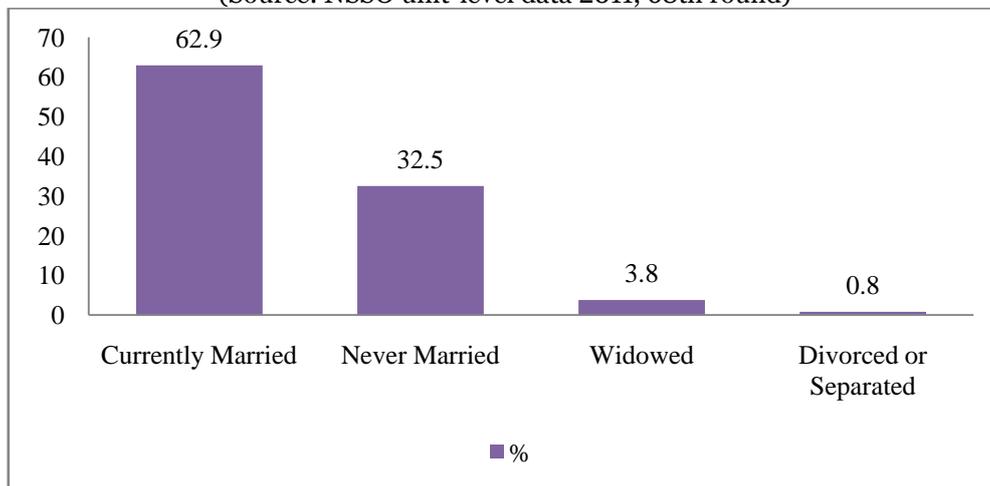
**FIGURE 5 SOCIAL GROUP OF TEMPORARY WORKFORCE IN INDIA**

Table 5 depicts the social group of India's temporary workers. The majority of temporary workers (37%), are from other social groups; around 19% are from Schedule castes, while the remaining 4.5% are from Schedule tribes in India. This picture demonstrates that the labour in India, whether permanent or temporary, is highly diversified in terms of socioeconomic and religious categories.

**TABLE 6 MARITAL STATUS OF TEMPORARY WORKFORCE IN INDIA**

MARITAL STATUS	%
Currently Married	62.90
Never Married	32.50
Widowed	3.80
Divorced or Separated	0.80
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>100.0</b>

(Source: NSSO unit-level data 2011, 68th round)



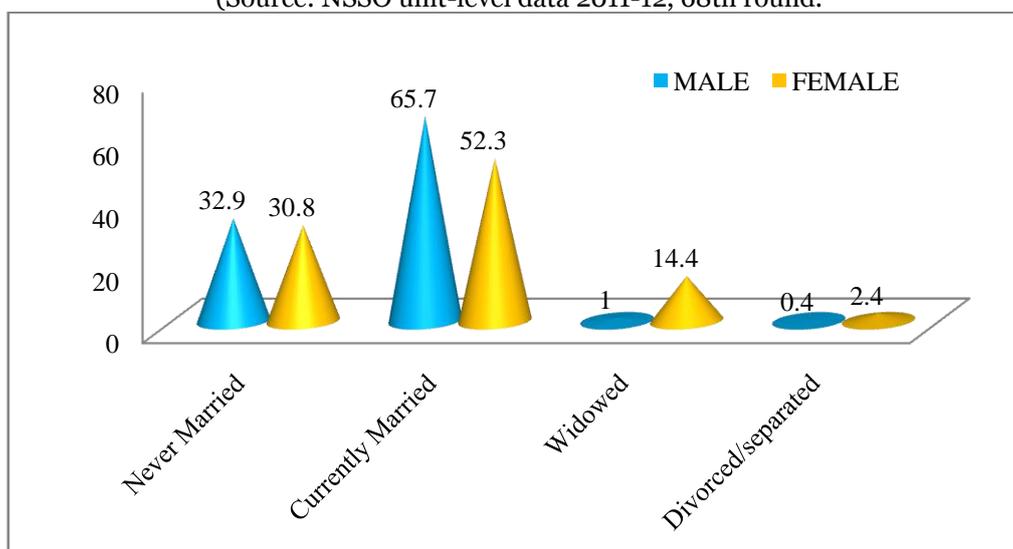
**FIGURE 6 MARITAL STATUS OF TEMPORARY WORKFORCE IN INDIA**

Table 6 shows the marital status of India's temporary labour. In Table 5.6, the researcher discusses the total marital status of India's temporary employment. The majority of the temporary workforce, around 63%, is married, 33% are not married, and the remainder are either divorced or widowed.

**TABLE 7 COMPARISON OF MALE AND FEMALE TEMPORARY WORKFORCE BASED ON MARITAL STATUS IN INDIA**

MARITAL STATUS	MALE	FEMALE
Never Married	32.90	30.80
Currently Married	65.70	52.30
Widowed	1.00	14.40
Divorced/separated	0.40	2.40
Total	100.00	100.00

(Source: NSSO unit-level data 2011-12, 68th round.)



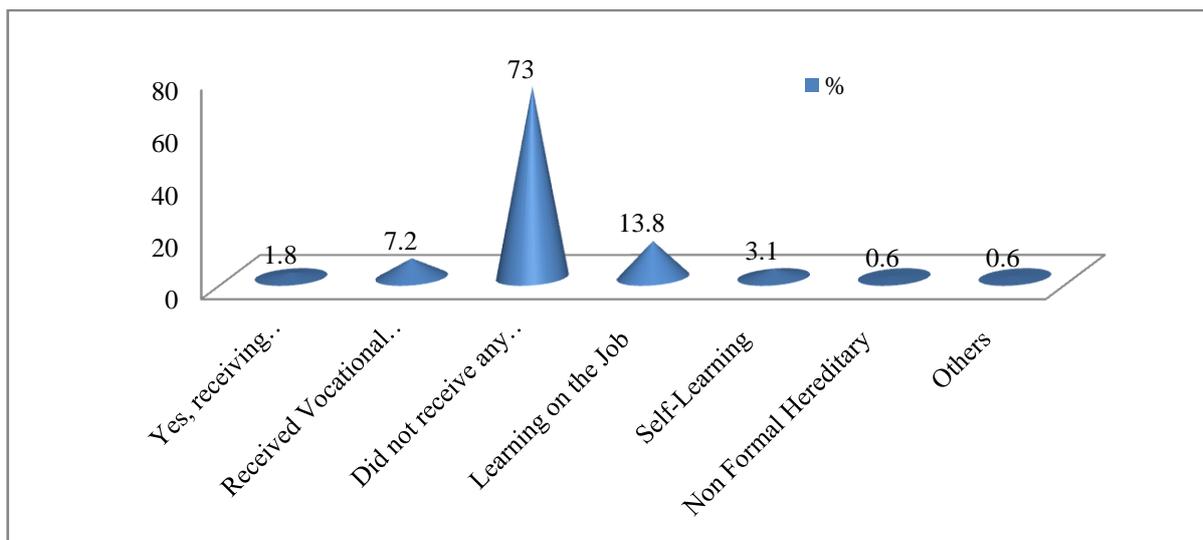
**FIGURE 7 COMPARISON OF MALE AND FEMALE TEMPORARY WORKFORCE BASED ON MARITAL STATUS IN INDIA**

The following table 7 compares the marital status of the temporary workers depending on gender, and it is obvious from the table that more than half of male (66%) and female (52%), who are in temporary labour, are married. One reason for this might be the work-life balance; both genders choose to work as temporary employees in order to balance their family lives and job. This data also emphasises flexibility. The ratio of male and female temporary workers who are not married also shows a significant number of persons, with males accounting for over 33% and females accounting for nearly 31%. The average age of marriage in India for men & women is 23 for males and 19 for women. This reflects the fact that in the early stages of a career, many people must enter the market as temporary employees in order to investigate options in that specific industry, as they do not have direct access to permanent employment. One of striking differences b/w men & women is that widowed & divorced women have a higher rate of temporary employment engagement than males.

**TABLE 8 SOURCE OF TRAINING OF TEMPORARY WORKING POPULATION IN INDIA**

SOURCE OF TRAINING	%
Yes, receiving Formal Vocational Training	1.80
Received Vocational training	7.20
Did not receive any Vocational Training	73.00
Learning on the Job	13.80
Self-Learning	3.10
Non Formal Hereditary	0.60
Others	0.60
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>100.00</b>

(Source: NSSO unit-level data 2011, 68th round)



**FIGURE 8 SOURCE OF TRAINING OF TEMPORARY WORKING POPULATION IN INDIA**

Table 8 shows the sources of training for India's temporary labour. The majority of them (73%) did not obtain any form of vocational training in India. Almost 8% of the workforce has stated that they have had vocational training, with just around 2% having obtained formal vocational training. A sizable proportion of the population (14%), has stated that they are learning on the job, while around 3% are studying for themselves. The others are learning via non-formal ways such as heredity or through other sources. This statistic reveals that India continues to lag behind in formal education.

**TABLE 9 AREAS OF TRAINING RECEIVED BY THE TEMPORARY WORKFORCE IN INDIA**

AREA OF TRAINING	%
Driving and Motor Mechanic Work	18.70
Mechanical Engineering Trades	9.30
Health and Paramedical Servicesrelated Work	6.80
Office and Business related Work	5.70
Textile related Work	5.50
Work-Related to Child Care andPreschool	2.80
Catering, Nutrition Hotels andRestaurant related	1.50
Journalism and Mass Communication-related Work	0.80
Beautician and Hair Dressingrelated Work	0.70
Artesian Craftsman Handicraft Cottage based Production Work	0.50
Creative Arts and Artists	0.50
Work-related to Tour Operatorsand Transport	0.20

(Source: NSSO unit-level data 2011, 68th round)

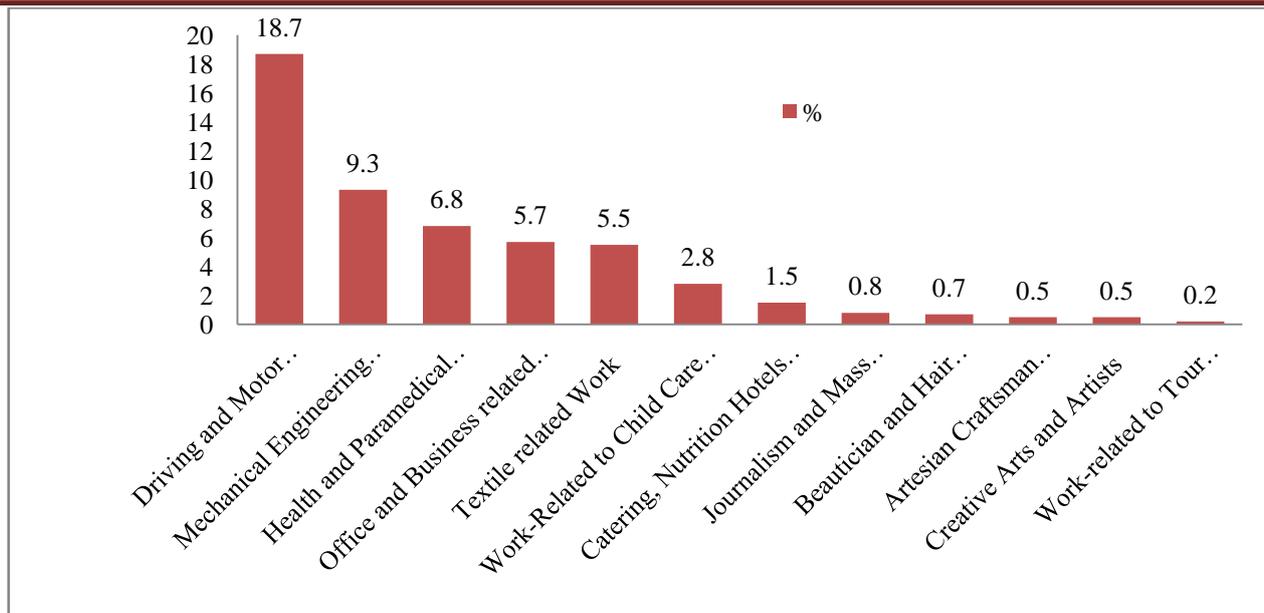


FIGURE 9 AREAS OF TRAINING RECEIVED BY THE TEMPORARY WORKFORCE IN INDIA

Table 9 shows the areas where temporary workers in India have acquired training. It essentially shows that many teenagers working in the temporary employment have obtained training in the fields of driving and motor mechanic work (19%), and 9% have received instruction in mechanical engineering skills. Approximately 7% of temporary workforces have training in the field of health and paramedical services, almost 6% have training in office and business-related employment, and the remainder have training in other disciplines.

## CONCLUSION

In India, over 27% of the workforce is engaged in some form of labour. The temporary workforce is highly diverse in terms of social factors such as gender, industry, social group, religion, marital status, and so on. Despite the development of educational options, there has been no suitable direction when it comes to workers' abilities. Because of the skill mismatch, many employees are forced to labour in low-wage positions with bad working conditions. Many efforts are being made by the Government of India, and these missions aim to contribute in terms of skilling millions of youth and providing them with gainful and decent employment. In India, the majority of the workforce works in the informal sector, with no documented job contracts or social security benefits. Employers in India choose workers for vocations requiring low to medium skill levels. The majority of them work in the manufacturing, retail and wholesale, education, and transportation industries. The industrial relations system for workers is inadequate since most of them do not have trade unions at their workplaces and those that have do not belong to the union.

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