CHAPTER – 7

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Chapter-7

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter is divided into two sections. The summary and conclusions are presented in the first section. The second section, based on the findings of the study, make certain policy recommendations.

7.1 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS:

The primary objective of development policies in any country is to achieve growth targets with "Social Justice." Economic development of any country consists in the optimum utilisation of human resources in-productive directions, which leads to the reduction of unemployment and boost the income of the society. When an individual, even after his best possible efforts, does not get work on the existing wage-rate or even a low wage-rate to earn his means of subsistence, he is termed as "unemployed".

It is now fully recognised that in peasant economies, typically characterised by population pressure, an ever-declining man-land ratio, small and fragmented holdings, highly iniquitous land distribution structure etc., agriculture alone cannot provide the ultimate solution for rural unemployment and under-employment. As a result, non-farm sector is gradually emerging as an important constituent of India's rural economy. The rural work force is gradually shifting to a diverse variety of non-farm jobs, partly located in rural areas themselves and partly through migrating to urban work place. By the close of eighties, nearly one-fourth of rural male and about one-sixth of rural female workers were engaged in different types of non-agricultural activities.
The quality of jobs is important for the long term development of rural India, hence, emphasis should be given for productive and sustainable employment which contributes to the economic growth. Jobs, in the rural non-farm sector, build up the skill base of the rural population, are often less capital intensive, use less energy and imported inputs and make significant contributions to exports.

Unemployment eradication has been a major concern of Indian planning. Provision of gainful rural employment has been recognised as a key instrument in poverty-alleviation, reduction of unemployment and sectoral transformation. In order to operationalise this strategy, many programmes have been launched by the Govt of India which can be categorised into (1) wage-employment programmes (2) self-employment programmes.

Wage-employment programmes were expanded in the sixth plan (1980-85) under the National Rural Employment Programme (NREP), the Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme (RLEGP) and many other programmes. The recent wage-employment programme in this direction, Jawahar Gram Samruddi Yojana was introduced in 1999. To begin with, the Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) was the only self-employment programme. It aimed at providing self-employment to the identified poor families through acquisition of productive assets and inputs which generate additional income on sustainable basis.

As part of the strategy for promoting self-employment, the national scheme of training of rural youth for self-employment (TRYSEM) was launched on Aug. 15, 1979 with the principal objective of removal of unemployment among rural youth. It aimed at providing technical skills to rural youth in the age-group of 18-35 from among the families living below poverty-line. According to the reports received, so far more than
47 lakh rural youth have received training under TRYSEM and more than 50 per cent of youth are self-employed after the completion of training.

7.1.1 Review of Literature:

A review of the available literature was done in this section with a view to identify the research gaps and issues for the study. The studies are classified into (a) studies on employment and Unemployment (b) Studies on TRYSEM.

The studies of Dantwala, Vivek Deolankar, Thapliyal, Bepin Behari, Venkat Reddy, George, Asthana etc focused on the issues relating to incidence of rural employment and unemployment and its effects on economic growth. The studies of Bruhen Roy, Mannadiar, Raja, Savitha Singal and Kamala Srinivasan dealt with the employment status of women and contribution of their work hours spent on family chores. The studies of B Sivaraman, A Sankaraiah and M Subramanyam Sarma, K Sundaram, Brigesh K Bajpai, Vijay Mahajan and Ashok Singha and Bepin Bihari examined the magnitude and the need of extension of rural non-farm sector and its role in economic development. The studies of A K Rajula Devi, Nirmala Murthy and Mahendra Kumar Singh, B Sudhakar Rao, Jayalakshmi Kumpatia, Jyotirmayee Kaur and T Ramadas Reddy etc examined the performance and progress of TRYSEM, and its impact on employment and income.

Most of the studies on employment and unemployment have not touched upon the relationship between economic growth and employment and there was no single major study on under-employment. Further, while evaluating the impact of TRYSEM on employment and income generation, the heterogeneity inherent in the target groups and the consequential differential rates of impact will not surface, unless the evaluation...
of the programme is conducted at some level of desegregation. The present study is an attempt to fill the gaps in literature. More specifically the objectives of the study are

1 to analyse the trends in levels of employment, unemployment and under-employment in Rural India.

2 to assess the changes in structure of rural employment

3 to estimate the growth rate of employment and unemployment in rural India

4 to understand the interrelationship between economic growth and employment/unemployment

5 to assess the physical and financial progress of TRYSEM and

6 to examine the impact of TRYSEM on income and employment generation

7.1.2 Methodology:

To examine the objectives of the study, relevant data were collected from both primary and secondary sources. The primary data were collected from beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries through a field survey in Nellore District of Andhra Pradesh State. The data relating to trends in employment and unemployment were collected from the various quinquennial reports on employment and unemployment published by the National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO), population census data and rural labour enquiry reports of the Labour Bureau. The secondary data was collected from annual reports of Ministry of Rural Areas, annual reports of department of rural development, Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development Statistics, NIRD. The sample beneficiaries were drawn by two stage stratified sampling method. The first stage of
sampling consisted of selection of vocations under TRYSEM. After selecting the trades, the beneficiaries under each trade were stratified into three-caste groups viz. SC/ST, BC and OC communities. While selecting the beneficiaries, proportionate representation was given to all the schemes and all the caste groups (40 per cent). A total of 240 beneficiaries were sampled for the study to assess the net effect of TRYSEM. A group of non-beneficiaries who were similar to beneficiaries in all respects were selected as a control group for the study.

7.2 EMPLOYMENT GENERATION STRATEGIES:

The problem of poverty is interwoven with unemployment. The causes of rural unemployment include unabated increase in rural population and inability of agricultural sector to absorb the growing masses. The growth rate of employment and output are not proportionate to absorb the increased labour-force. Concentration on industry, advancement of technology in the urban areas, and chronic sickness of small scale and cottage industries and crop failures further aggravated the situation. Thus, the absorption of labour-force, unemployed and under-employed through expansion of employment opportunities in rural areas becomes an essential objective for the development of our country. Generation of adequate employment and a substantial reduction in poverty has been the goal of successive plans in India. Experience has shown that there has been a slow growth in production and hence, the ‘trickle down’ effects were rather limited.

7.2.1 Categories of unemployment:

There are various categories of unemployment that were prevalent. India’s unemployment was structural in nature and it is the development of the economy that
alone can take care of this employment. Disguised unemployment is a situation peculiar to agricultural sector and this was caused due to population increase and the absence of sufficient development of industrial sector to absorb the growing population which India is experiencing.

All those who are unemployed and have no work to do come under this category. They are able to work and are also willing to work. But there is no work for them. This will be found both in rural and urban areas. Agriculture, which is principal occupation in the countryside is, by nature, a seasonal occupation. The period of seasonal unemployment varies from state to state depending upon the methods of farming, conditions of the soil, types of crops grown and other factors. In an economy, which is undergoing considerable technological change, some technological unemployment is inevitable. This refers to persons who have been put out of work by the introduction of a superior technology in their area of operation. It is concerned with joblessness among the educated i.e., matriculates and higher educated. Both in urban and rural areas, this type of unemployment is found. This is one of the dominant types of unemployment existing in developed economies. It may be caused by the lack of co-ordination among the innumerable decision makers in the field of saving and investment. This type of unemployment characterises developed economies, as they push towards further development. At a higher level of development, many changes take place in the industrial structure of these economies, with old industries contracting and dying out and new industries coming up. In between the time of leaving and joining, the time for which labour gets no work is a period of unemployment called frictional unemployment. In India this also does not exist.
7.2.2 Employment Policy under Five-year Plans:

Concern for widespread poverty and unemployment are focussed from the beginning of our developmental plans and these concerns were reflected in the constitution of India. The successive five-year plans aimed at the creation of adequate employment opportunities in rural areas where agriculture alone was unable to absorb the increasing additions to labour-force. The first five-year plan recognised the Central importance of employment and started an integrated approach to all aspects of development. It was expected that the first five-year plan would have had an impact on the employment situation in rural areas since large number of construction activities like soil conservation and irrigation projects were taken up.

Second five-year plan made the extent of unemployment estimates for the first time in the country. Sectoral allocation of the plan outlay was expected to influence employment generation. It laid emphasis on the development of such industries like agriculture and cottage industries which adds substantially to the levels of regular employment and also construction of public assets which were expected to create large employment. The third plan with three important components (a) Spreading out the efforts to widely and evenly to generate employment (b) Promotion of rural industrialisation (c) Effective use of rural works programme aimed at generating more employment. The fourth plan is a watershed in the development efforts and initiated the strategy of direct attack on poverty and unemployment. The attempt was made to enable small and marginal farmers to participate in the process of development and sharing the benefits. The fifth five-year plan recognised that employment as the most important challenge to development during the perspective period of 1974-86 and number of programmes like DPAP, SFDA, MFAL etc. were introduced in this direction. From the
sixth plan, unemployment was viewed as an issue of social justice and more intensified and vigorous steps were taken by the Government of India to create more employment in rural areas. The major self-employment programme in this direction was IRDP with its components TRYSEM and DWCRA.

Ad-hoc employment generation programmes were given up during the fifth plan in view of starting of area development programmes, namely DPAP, SFDA, MFAL as well as MNP. The idea of guarantee of employment emerged during this period. Seventh plan aimed at achieving near full employment and virtual elimination of poverty and illiteracy besides satisfying the basic needs for all by 2000 A.D. Eighth five-year plan lists as the very first objective the generation of adequate employment to achieve near full employment level by the turn of the century, thus reducing the unemployment to a negligible level. Ninth five-year plan viewed that a broad based programme of development and economic growth could alone offer a sustained and long lasting solution to the problems of poverty and unemployment. Priority was assigned to agriculture and rural development. Sectors using labour intensive techniques and regions characterised by chronic under-employment and unemployment are to receive greater attention and EAS was accorded a high priority to ensure larger share of work opportunities to the poor. Specially designed anti-poverty programmes for generation of both self-employment and wage-employment continued in the Ninth plan.

7.2.3 Employment Generation Programmes:

To absorb huge number of unemployed and under-employed both in the organised and unorganised sectors, particularly those who are illiterate and unskilled, strategy for creation of wage and self-employment on a large scale was provided, while wage-employment is temporary and short term phenomenon, it ultimately leads to
self-employment which is gainful and sustainable. To provide more thrust to self-employment training of rural youth for self-employment and DWCRA as components of IRDP were also introduced. Swarna Jayanthi Gram Swarozgar Yojana, a holistic programme covering all aspects of self-employment such as organisation of the poor into self-help groups, credit technology, infrastructure and marketing. A large number of people depend on wage-employment for their livelihood as they have no assets are inadequate assets. Various wage-employment programmes like (a) Rural Manpower Programme (b) Crash Scheme for Rural Employment Programme (c) Pilot Intensive Rural Employment Programme (d) Rural Works Programme (e) Food for Work Programme (f) National Rural Employment Programme (g) Jawahar Rojgar Yojana (h) Jawahar Gram Samruddhi Yojana were introduced.

In any economy, characterised by inadequate capital stock and surplus manpower, such programmes help to reduce unemployment and under-employment and at the same time facilitate capital formation. It was realised that these programmes have a little or no impact on poor as they do not have adequate emphasis on production assets. This realisation emphasised the need for self-employment programmes aimed at integrating all sectors of economy and led to the formulation and initiation of IRDP.

IRDP was introduced in 1980 with the aim of providing self-employment to the rural poor through acquisition of productive assets which would generate additional income on a sustained basis to enable them to cross the poverty-line. TRYSEM is a component of IRDP and was launched on Aug 1979 to provide basic technical and managerial skills to rural youth for families below poverty-line which enable them to take up self-employment ventures and also to participate in wage-employment. DWCRA is another component of IRDP and was introduced in 1982. The main idea
behind the project was to provide employment and income generating opportunities to the women of target group. A new programme called Swarna Jayanthi Gram Swarozgar Yojana, was launched in 1999 as a result of restructuring all the self-employment programmes. Its main objective was to provide income generating assets through a mix of bank credit and Government subsidy and to bring assisted poor families (Swarozgars) above the poverty-line in three years.

Thus, to generate employment opportunities in rural areas, two approaches were adopted i.e. asset-oriented approach and wage-oriented approach. Both these approaches had their own strengths and weaknesses. The advocates of wage-employment argued what the poor immediately need is cash to survive and this can be met through wage-employment. On the other hand, the advocates of asset endowment argued that IRDP has provided some scope for altering to some extent the existing skewed distribution of land and other assets in rural areas. Undoubtedly, in the over-all national context there is need for both the approaches and care has to be taken not to adopt these programmes in all the regions in an uniform manner without taking into account infrastructural differences. In the Indian context, therefore, the need exists for a package consisting of programmes of both types which varies according to specific agro-climatic characteristics of the area concerned.

7.3 TRENDS AND STRUCTURE OF EMPLOYMENT:

In India, issues concerning employment generation for different sections of the population were always given importance in the national agenda. Employment and unemployment levels are generally measured by three approaches namely (a) usual status approach (b) current weekly status approach (c) current daily status approach.
Measurement of Employment:

If a person was engaged for a longer period in any one or more gainful activities during the preceding 365 days prior to the survey, he/she is considered as ‘working’ according to usual Principal Status (PS). A person who has not been classified as a ‘principal status worker’, ‘but has pursued some gainful activity for a short period more or less regularly is considered as ‘subsidiary status worker’ Thus, usually employed constitute both principal status and subsidiary status workers Current Weekly Status (CWS) approach deals with persons engaged in any gainful activity at least for one hour during the reference week, he/she is considered as working Current Daily Status (CDS) approach was more appropriate as far as rural Indian Labour market is concerned. He or she was classified as working for the entire day, if he/she was engaged in any gainful activity for more than four hours. This approach is more appropriate to capture the intensity of unemployment in a typical developing economy like India.

Due to various reasons, the persons below 15 years and above 60 years remain as dependent rather than gainfully employed. According to recent National Sample survey Organisation (NSSO) estimate, total labour-force has increased from 374 millions to 393 millions during the period 1993-94 to 1999-2000 (Table 3 1) Work force participation rates for rural male workers declined from 53.77 per cent to 53.1 per cent during the period 1981 to 1999-2000 and in the case of rural females, it increased from 23.06 per cent to 29.9 per cent. The decline can partly be due to reduction in child employment, due to higher attendance in school and old people opting out of work force possibly due to improvement in economic conditions of their household.
7.3.2 Incidence of Employment:

Workforce participation rates according to PS+SS (Table 3 3) reveals that the decline in work force participation rate is observed to be high in the case of females in comparison with males. The rate of employment for females decreased from 34 per cent in 1983 to 29.9 per cent in 1999-2000, while in the case of males it declined from 54.7 per cent to 53.1 per cent during the same period. The same trend is noticed even, if principal status workers alone are taken into consideration. It can also be noticed that the decline in the incidence of employment is more pronounced during post-reform period i.e. 1992-2000. The data on incidence of employment based on current weekly status revealed that the total Work Force Participation Rates increased during the pre-reform period in the case of both males and females, while the reverse is noticed during the post-reform period indicating decline in incidence of employment (Table 3 4).

7.3.3 Status of Employment:

According to status of employment persons employed are categorised into three broad groups, namely (1) Self-employed (2) regular employed and (3) casual labour. The percentage of regular employees among the employed males ranged between 10.6 per cent in 1983 and 9 per cent in 1999-2000 (Table 3 5). Half of the males employed in rural areas were in the self-employed category. The share of casual labour in total employed increased from 29.9 per cent to 36.6 per cent during the study period. More or less the same trend is noticed, if subsidiary status workers are also included. It is interesting to note that the distribution of employed by status of employment was more or less stable before implementing economic reforms, while during the post-reform
period the share of the self-employed and regular employed declined, while the share of casual labour witnessed an increase.

The distribution of females employed by status of employment revealed that the percentage of rural female’s self-employed declined by considering principal and subsidiary status workers during post-reform period, while the share of regular employed and casual labour increased. The decline in the shares of self-employed and regular employed were more pronounced in 1998 which may be due to the fact that period of survey being January-June, the Rabi season, many of the small and marginal farmers may not cultivate their own land during this season and instead they may prefer to work in others farm or non-farm enterprises. More or less the same trend is noticed even, if subsidiary workers are taken into consideration (Table 3.6).

7.3.4 Age-wise Incidence of Employment:

Age-wise incidence of employment for rural workers revealed that work participation rates for children in the age-group 5-9 and 10-14 declined during the period 1987-88 – 1999-2000. The Work Force Participation Rates among the children in the age-group 15-19 fell from 63 per cent to 50.3 per cent during the period for males and for females it fell from 41.5 per cent to 30.4 per cent (Table 3.7).

7.3.5 Industry-wise Incidence of Employment:

The data on the distribution of work by broad industrial categories revealed that there is a steady decrease in the percentage of usually working in the primary sector. The share of employment in the secondary sector declined in the case of rural males and females during 1995-96 and 1997 of NSSO survey and later the share of employment in the case of both males and females increased in the period 1999-2000 (Table 3.8).
The share of employment in tertiary sector has increased for both males and females during the 1977-78 to 1999-2000. Thus, there have been changes also in the sectoral distribution of work force in rural areas and these have implications for the economic well being of the workers. The share of tertiary sector in total male workers increased from 12.2 per cent to 16 per cent and from 4.8 per cent to 7.7 per cent for females respectively during 1983 to 2000.

The data on the distribution of workers by industrial category briefly explains that the percentage of work force in agriculture declined both for males and females during the period from 1977-78 to 1999-2000. The percentage of workers in manufacturing has increased in the case of both males and females during the same period. So, in rural areas the share of manufacturing workers seems to be stabilizing around 7 per cent both for males and females.

The share of construction workers has fluctuated significantly over the years 1977 to 2000 (Table 3.9). The two sectors where the proportion of the workers have moved up systematically are (a) wholesale and retail trade and (b) community and other services particularly after 1983. The incremental work force getting absorbed largely as casual and self-employed workers in low productive sectors certainly cannot be taken as healthy development from the viewpoint of workers' welfare.

7.3.6 State-wise Incidence of Employment:

The state-wise Incidence of Employment during the selected years, according to Current Weekly Status in Rural areas, explains the employment levels of males and females. The employment levels among males at all-India level were higher during green revolution and post revolution period and declined thereafter. In the case of males
employment rates declined from 57.99 per cent during the period 1972-73 to 1977-78 and later it declined to 52.4 per cent in 1997-98. In the case of females, it was stabilised more or less at 22 per cent during 1972-73 to 1977-78 and it was 20.2 per cent in 1997-98. The employment levels for males were lower in Kerala, while they were higher in Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Rajasthan etc. In Kerala, the focus was on provision of gainful employment whereas in states like Madhya Pradesh the emphasis was on striving for higher wages (Table 3.10).

The information on the state-wise incidence of employment according to usual status revealed that in most of the states, the employment levels were high and hovered around certain levels during the periods from 1972-73 to 1983, but fell substantially during the later years. The decline in employment levels during 1987-88 was attributed to the fact that it is agriculturally a bad year. It can be inferred from the data that in majority of states there was marginal decline in employment levels among males during post-reform period. Among the females, the employment levels were relatively lower than those of the males. It is to be noted that in many states, the employment levels were higher in 1993-94 in comparison to 1987-88.

737 Growth of Employment:

One of the most pressing demands of the present development paradigm is to provide employment not only to the new entrants into the labour market but also to reduce the backlog of unemployment of the past. The observed decline in labour-force participation is a consequence of declining employment elasticity leading to a rise in the growth rate of unemployment. The annual growth rates of employment declined during the period 1977-78 to 2000 (Table 3.13) and this decline in the growth rates of employment reflected in the reduced share of work force participating in different
activities during the same decade. In the late 1990's of the post-reform period, there was a drastic decline in the growth rate of employment particularly in the rural economy. Annual growth rate of employment for rural females continued to show a declining trend throughout the period and eventually witnessed a negative growth during the post-reform period. This indicates that economic reforms introduced in the beginning of 1990's seem to have had an adverse impact on the growth of rural employment opportunities and they rise doubts regarding the legitimacy of the accountability of economic reforms.

The estimated number of employed persons state-wise in rural areas based on US approach (Table 3.14) revealed that the growth of employment for females was more than that of males for the entire period and it was less than males during the period, 1983-94. This indicates that 70's and early 80's offered considerable employment opportunities to female workers and in the later period the development process favoured male workers. One plausible explanation could be that given the rate of labour supply, when employment opportunities shrink, male workers might be preferred to female workers in the labour markets. State-wise employment growth rates revealed that states like Haryana experienced negative growth rate during the last decade, with regard to male workers. Temporal analysis also indicate that employed persons grew at a faster rate in several states like Assam, Bihar, Gujarat during the period 1983-94. The scenario with regard to female workers indicated that Bihar, Kerala and UP marked the negative growth rate, while the remaining states experienced a positive growth (Table 3.15).

The employment trends in unorganised sector in the fields of construction manufacturing, transport, services sector etc, experienced higher rates of employment.
growth in unorganised sector compared to the rates of growth of employment for the entire economy (Table 3.16).

7 3 8 Index of Employment Opportunities:

The Index of Employment Opportunities (IEO) is an appropriate indicator of employment situation and captures the employment conditions of a household i.e., the number of members in a household engaged in economically gainful activities. The data on index of employment opportunities based on the US approach explains that the percentage of the households without a working member declined in all states except Orissa over the period 1987-88 to 1993-94. Decline in such type of households can be viewed as a positive effect of the changes taking place in the labour market structure. The percentage of lone female worker dependent households declined except in Andhra Pradesh (A.P). A fall in the percentage of the single male worker dependent households was found to be a universal phenomenon. It is to be noted that the incidence of employment by the US method improved in 1993-94 compared to 1987-88 in several states. The female employment levels improved marginally during 1987-88 to 1993-94 (Table 3.17).

The extent of employment-generation depends on the nature and pace of development in rural sector. The data on employment of usually employed workers in rural labour households provide information regarding the number of days worked and number of days not worked, due to sickness or want of work (Table 3.18). The increased participation of women in labour market coupled with the enhanced employment was a positive feature of the rural labour markets. What is disturbing is the high levels of employment of child workers.
Employment on salary basis / salaried employment among rural poor was abysmally low in rural India, but it was showing a promising trend. Large proportion of children have been engaged in household enterprises. The data on the number of days 'not worked for want of work' for all the three categories point out that growth of work opportunities during these two decades has been rather favourable. Morbidity factor played a major role in curtailing the employment period of women, while a month's employment was lost for men on account of sickness.

The importance of agriculture as a source of work over time has been reducing or not, was studied through different tables (Tables 3 19, 3 20, 3 21) and this revealed that the importance of agriculture as a key source of employment did not diminish and in many cases it was further strengthened. Highly fluctuating pattern of employment from agriculture was noticed in the case of female workers. But there was an improvement in this regard except in the year 1987-88. This year being drought year women workers were affected mainly over male workers and more so in poverty-stricken states. The contribution of public works programme was one of the reasons for the rise in employment opportunities during 1987-88 when compared to 1983 in the drought-affected states. Child labour incidence was found to be declining and concentrated only in few states like Andhra Pradesh. Thus, intensity of child labour phenomenon was on the rise, while their participation in labour market is declining. However, most of them were engaged in household enterprises and largely in agriculture, which is a matter of consolation.

7.3.9 Economic Growth and Employment:

The elasticities of employment was worked out by dividing the rate of growth of employed persons by the rate of growth of State Domestic Product (SDP) for each of...
the selected periods. If growth is labour-absorbing, these elasticities are to be positive. The elasticities can be negative, if growth resources are primarily in urban sector or technical progress is labour displacing or additions to labour-force outstrip the employment opportunities. In some periods, elasticities can turn out to be negative despite a positive growth in wages and employment primarily due to fall in the economic growth in some states during certain periods. The table on employment elasticities of economic growth (Table 3.22) explains fluctuating employment elasticities of economic growth for males and females at all-India level. Further more, they were positive for all major states for both male and female workers during the two decades period (1972-73 to 1993-94). The same was not true in the case of females during the transition period 1983-1994. Assam & Kerala experienced fluctuations in the employment elasticities in respect of male as well as female workers in the study periods (1972-73 to 1993-94).

In the post-green revolution period, the male workers benefited significantly when compared to female workers. In some states like Assam & Gujarat, economic growth favoured the labour-force immensely. The effects of new policy regime were mixed but in majority of cases the elasticities have fallen considerably suggesting that labour absorption was too low vis-à-vis the economic growth experienced by the states during this period. Some of the reasons for slow as well as negative elasticities could be either the sluggish growth of economy or faster rate of population-growth. The growth of population, and thus, labour-force is expected to dampen the expansion of employment, unless accompanied by labour using technologies.
There are different approaches to measure unemployment. The nature of unemployment in over populated under developed countries is discussed by applying production approach to unemployment and various economists suggested number of other approaches to measure unemployment.

7.4.1 Approaches to measure unemployment: Production approach:

Unemployment in developing countries is hidden or disguised. The term, 'disguised unemployment' was first coined by Joan Robinson to describe cyclical unemployment in developed countries. This refers to the adoption of inferior jobs with a relatively lower productivity by the workers laid off from normal jobs due to lack of effective demand. This concept relates to the Keynesian version of unemployment and differs from that in developing countries. As soon as the effective demand expands due to revival of investment, the dismissed workers would be called back to their normal jobs. Secondly, the marginal productivity of workers thrown into inferior jobs is low, but not zero whereas the concept applied to developing countries related to zero-marginal productivity. Thirdly, disguised unemployment in developing countries does not refer to any movement of workers from one job to another. In developing countries, the problem arises due to lack of effective demand and in low-income countries, it arises primarily due to deficiency in effective supply.

Nurkse in early 1950's proposed his theory of economic development assuming the presence of disguised unemployment in agriculture and the possibility of utilising it as a source of capital formation. He distinguished three forms of unemployment (a) seasonal unemployment of peasant cultivators (2) under-employment of cultivators
due to small size of farms and (3) unemployment disguised through fragmentation of
the individual holding, and observed that the term, 'disguised unemployment' fits the
third category best

Lewis proposed a modified version of disguised unemployment observing that
the phenomenon is not confined to agriculture and marginal productivity of labour need
not necessarily be zero Rosenstein Rodan defined disguised unemployment as that
amount of idle work force in terms of man equivalent hours, which exists at the peak of
agricultural operation and he is more concerned with visible rather than disguised
unemployment The theoretical basis for the existence of disguised unemployment in
the sense of zero marginal productivity of labour was provided by Eckaus on the basis
of factor proportions problem in agriculture Viner, on the critical grounds, argued the
impossibility of obtaining some additions to the crop by using additional labour in more
pains-taking way

The earliest onslaught against disguised unemployment was first made by
Schultz and later many studies provided evidence to reject the zero marginal product
hypothesis Many questions raised against the logical foundation of zero marginal
product hypothesis According to Nurkse, the concept of zero marginal product existed
among self-employed workers and is not applicable to wage-labour. On the other hand,
Lewis provided on explanation for its existence among wage-earners Sen observed, “It
is not that too much labour is being spent in the production process, but that too many
labourers spending it” Disguised unemployment, thus, normally takes the form of
smaller number of working hours per head per year. The explanation of disguised
unemployment implies that it is nothing, but under-employment i.e working less than
the minimum number of hours Secondly, when some workers are removed, the remaining workers have to work hard.

Economists like Leibenstein, Muzumdar and Wonnacotta provided an explanation for the co-existence of zero marginal productivity with positive wage-rate and they related labour productivity to wage-rate. Thus, the problem of unemployment is quite controversial from the angle of production approach.

Apart from production approach, Rajkrishna suggested three other approaches to the measurement of unemployment namely time, willingness and income criterion. According to time criterion, a person is classified as unemployed or under-employed, if he is gainfully occupied for a number of hours less than some normal or optional hours defined as full employment hours. According to willingness criterion, a person is considered as unemployed, only when he is willing to do more work. The income approach was suggested by Dandekar and Rath and they argued that an adequate level of employment must be defined in terms of its capacity to provide minimum living to its population.

Sen suggested two more approaches to unemployment namely (1) Income and (2) recognition. Sen's income approach, is different and according to this approach a person is considered as employed, if his income is conditional on work. Sen's recognition criterion treats a person as unemployed only when he considers himself as unemployed. He argues that unemployment is a state of being without fruitful work and the perception of the fruitfulness of work is to a large extent a result of social-conditioning. Thus, the concept of unemployment is viewed from different angles and estimates based on different approaches are important for employment policy. They indicate how the nature and magnitude of the problem changes as social conditioning.
itself gets modified in certain directions. The problem of unemployment and surplus labour in developed countries as well as developing countries can be viewed from two angles namely (1) actual surplus and (2) potential surplus. The mobilisation of the potential surplus required certain changes in the manner and organisation of work. On the other hand, the actual surplus can be mobilised under the existing conditions. In low income countries like India, where agriculture provides employment for a large proportion of the labour-force, the actual surplus labour consists of two parts namely (1) the removable labour, which is surplus throughout the year and (2) the non-removable labour which is surplus only during the slack season.

7.4.2 Magnitude of Unemployment:

The national sample survey collected data on unemployment over several rounds. Though there were variations from round to round, the basic approach was the labour-force approach with a short reference period. In the 9th round, two reference periods viz., one week and one year were adopted. In the latter case, the definition of unemployment was not complete absence of gainful work throughout the year, but the usual status of the person. In the 11th, 12th and 13th rounds, a person was classified as unemployed if he had no gainful work on the reference day and was ‘seeking work’ or ‘not seeking but available for work’. The reference period has been changed to one week since the 14th round and persons without gainful work on any day during the period and ‘seeking work’ or ‘available for work’ were treated as unemployed. During the 16th round, persons below the age of 15 and above 60 were excluded from the category of unemployed even, if they were actively seeking work. After the 17th round (1961-62), the rural labour surveys were discontinued and unemployment data for the rural areas were obtained only from the ‘integrated household schedule’. The
employment and unemployment surveys were carried out in rural areas by NSSO adopting three approaches, namely (1) usual status (2) current weekly status and (3) current daily status approaches Unemployment rates derived on the basis of adjusted usual status is expected to be lower than that based on principal status

The percentage of unemployment for rural males based on usual principal status increased during 1977-78 to 1987-88. Later it has come down till 1996-97. Again 1997-98 it increased which explains the fall in work force participation rates. In the case of rural females it decreased during the period 1997-78 - 1983 and was highest in the period 1987-88. It fluctuated between years and again rose to 2 percent in 1998. Unemployment rates based on CWS also increased during the period from 1977-78 – 1987-88 and later it fluctuated for some period and increased during 1995-97. Rural females also showed a similar trend in unemployment rates. Unemployment rates based on CDS decreased during the period 1977-83 and later it marked an increase during 1993-94 in the case of both males and females (Table 4 1).

7 4 3 Unemployment by Age-Groups:

Unemployment by the age-groups revealed that the rate of unemployment of the age-groups belonging to productive component decreases and it is more in the case of rural males than rural females (Table 4 2). An analysis of incidence of unemployment among the youth (Table 4 3) revealed that the rate of unemployment is the highest in the age-group 20-24 years followed by 15-19 and 25-29 age-groups. High rates of unemployment in the age-group of 15-29 has to be taken care of, since this, age-group constitutes the potential work force for achieving economic development.
Unemployment by Household Types:

The information on unemployment across the different household types explains that the incidence of unemployment is the highest among both males and females belonging to ‘others’ category which includes mainly the households largely depending upon regular wage earning and the households whose major income is from activities other than economic activities. The incidence of unemployment is the lowest mainly in the households depending on the earnings from self-employment in agriculture with the exception of females during 1997-98 (Table 4.5). The reason for the low rate of unemployment may be the fact that some of the members of such households work nominally or reasonably in the household enterprises instead of reporting themselves as available.

State-wise Unemployment:

The state-wise unemployment levels based on the US approach indicates that unemployment levels registered a rise during Green Revolution period (1972-73 to 1977-78). The post green revolution phase (1977-78 to 1987-88) was characterised by rise in unemployment rates universally as seen from the Table 4.6.

The data on incidence of unemployment using CWS approach reveals that unemployment levels had gone up in number of states during the Green Revolution and Post Green Revolution periods. The early phase of new economic policy, the incidence of unemployment was significantly lower in many states in the female workers. Similar trends were observable for males in general, but the exceptions being Assam and Maharashtra. States like Kerala experienced a remarkable fall in the levels of unemployment.
The data on incidence of unemployment based on CDS approach explains that in most of the states the downward swing was noticeable for females during the period 1987-88 to 1993-94, but on the whole the levels of unemployment were rather high and fluctuating and there was no discernable trend.

7.4.6 Under-employment:

Besides unemployment, under employment is another significant feature among the self-employed. The phenomenon of under-employment in backward agro-based economies has been captured by

(a) Percentage of usually employed seeking/available for more work and additional work

(b) Unemployment based on CWS among those usually employed

(c) Unemployment based on CDS among those usually employed

(d) Unemployment based on CDS among those employed based on CWS.

Two types of under-employment can be distinguished namely (1) the visible and (2) the invisible. The visible under-employment arises from the fact that many among those depending on agriculture and related activities although employed during the major part of the year may not have enough work during the lean season. Thus, a section of the usually employed may not work throughout the year and, in that sense, is under-employed. The magnitude of the visible under-employment can be judged by a cross classification of the usually employed persons by their current weekly and daily statuses as also by the classification of the current weekly employed by current daily statuses (Tables 4.9 and 4.10). The Invisible under-employment is reflected in the...
willingness of some of the usually employed to take up additional work to supplement their income, although they appear to be working throughout the year.

The incidence of visible under-employment by the CWS decreased from 2.3 per cent in 1983 to 0.8 per cent in 1997-98 in the case of males and in the case of females it decreased from 2.4 per cent to 0.6 per cent in the same period (Table 4.9). The incidence of visible under-employment in rural India employed by the US but unemployed by the CDS revealed that during the period 1983 – 1993-94, the rates declined from 5.7 per cent to 4 per cent in the case of males and with regard to females it decreased from 5 per cent to 3 per cent. The incidence of visible under-employment employed by the CWS but unemployed by the CDS revealed that there was a decline from 3.8 per cent to 2.6 per cent in the case of males and 4.2 per cent to 2.1 per cent in the case of females during the same period.

The levels of invisible under-employment registered a rise from 12.6 per cent to 13.1 per cent during the period, 1983-1987-88, in the case of males and with regard to females it decreased from 17.2 percent to 9.3 percent during the same period. Quite a good proportion of male and female workers were reporting of adequate employment. The percentage of workers seeking alternate work also found to be increasing in the case of rural males (Table 4.12).

The state-wise levels of under-employment explains that under-employment levels by the CWS of usually employed were lower for females and this has gone up during early 90s. The situation was almost quite opposite in respect of males as it declined during the same period (Table 4.13). In the case of rural males the decline was more in states like Haryana, Kerala and Rajasthan. Under-employment as measured by unemployed by daily status among the usually employed revealed a rise in its incidence.
in most of the states. Under-employment rates for males are increasing from 2.7 per cent in 1987-88 to 4 per cent in 1993-94 and in the case of rural females it increased from 2.6 per cent to 3 per cent during the same period (Table 4.14). The levels of invisible under-employment were rampant during 1987-88 which explains that invisible under-employment was as high as 33 per cent in Tamilnadu, which fell significantly to 5.12 per cent by 1993-94 in the case of rural males and in the case of females it reduced from 24.4 per cent to 14.8 per cent (Table 15).

The degree of casualisation of labour-force is an indicator of the risks/uncertainties in obtaining some gainful employment. The correlations of casualisation and unemployment in 1987-88 were very weak and it was negative for males and positive for females. But by 1993-94, strong and positive relationships emerged in both the cases (Tables 4.16 and 4.17).

Since under-employment is a more serious phenomenon of labour markets of agriculture based developing economies, the correlations between casualisation and under-employment (Table 60) reveal that:

(i) In 1987-88, irrespective of the measure adopted for estimating under-employment, the relationship was negative for male workers and positive for females i.e. most of the casual male workers were not under-employed, while casual female workers were mainly under-employed.

(ii) The nexus between casualisation and under-employment became very strong in both the cases by 1993-94. During the initial phase of the new economic policy regime, the increased casualisation led to severe under-employment which might have affected the livelihood systems of these workers.
TRYSEM: AN OVERVIEW OF PERFORMANCE:

The provision of employment opportunities is an intensively human and very complex problem. The problems of creating self-employment opportunities in the rural areas are (1) rural people are illiterates (2) they lack managerial and entrepreneurial skills and (3) they also lack asset base. The vast human resource as at present is away from direct involvement in the national development process. One important dimension in the way of providing employment opportunities for the rural youth includes opportunities, where the youth can find and exploit their own resources for self-employment. Rightly a programme directed towards this objective of self-employment for the rural youth known, as TRYSEM was initiated by the Government of India on August 15th, 1979.

Objectives, Approach and Strategy:

The objective of TRYSEM was to provide technical skills to the rural youth from families below poverty-line to enable them to take up self-employment in the broad fields of agriculture and allied activities, industry, services and business activities. Under TRYSEM, safeguards were provided for certain sections like SC/STs, women and physically handicapped. A minimum of 50 per cent of trained youth are represented from the scheduled caste and scheduled tribe communities and 40 per cent of the youth includes women.

Components of the Programme:

Identification of Beneficiaries.

The B.D.O calls for applications from youth belonging to the target group in
his area. A preliminary scrutiny is done to find out how many can be provided assistance under TRYSEM.

7.5.2.1 Selection of Trainees:

Once the exhaustive list of potential beneficiaries is available, a committee precided over by BDO and other members from training institutions of the area, banks, KVI's and Panchayats finalise selection on the basis of certain guidelines. There are no educational qualifications prescribed for the selection of trainees.

7.5.2.2 Identification of Vocations:

The D.R D.A identifies the necessary vocations in consultation with the district level officers of different departments, the final selection of the vocations is done keeping in mind the demand for skills, goods and services required.

7.5.2.3 Identification of Training facilities:

Once vocations have been shortlisted, the DRDA prepares a resource inventory of training facilities. Training will be imparted through institutions such as, the Polytechnics, Krishi Vigyan Kendras, Nehru Yuvak Kendras, Khadi and Village Industries Boards, State Institutes of Rural Development, Reputed Voluntary organisations and any departmental facilities available in that area. Master Craftsmen are also utilised during this period of training.

7.5.3 Training:

The syllabus for each trade is approved by the DRDA. The syllabus includes
training in job skills as well as managerial and entrepreneurial skills. Under TRYSEM training stipends are paid to trainees depending on the location of the training centre. Each trainee is subjected to a performance test on the completion of training. The duration of the training generally does not exceed six months. The SLCC can change the duration and prescribe duration for new trades.

7.5.3.1 Stipend and Honorarium:

Under TRYSEM, stipend to trainees are paid up to 300/- per trainee per month, if the training is conducted in a place other than the trainee’s village and no arrangements for free accommodation have been made. In the case the period of training is less than one month, daily stipend of Rs 12/- may be given subject to a maximum of Rs 150/-.

7.5.4 Supply of a Free Toolkit to the Trainees:

A free toolkit costing not more than Rs.800/- may be given in kind to the trainees during the course of the training itself. It will be provided to the trainees after they have acquired some proficiency, so that they gain experience in the use of their own toolkits. In the case the toolkit costs more than Rs 800/- it could well be provided, if the balance is met from the arrears of stipend or by the trainee himself.

7.5.5 Financing Project:

Loan application for assistance under IRDP of TRYSEM trainee must be completed and processed, while training is still in progress so as to obtain loans immediately after the completion.

7.5.6 Organisational Support:

Organisational support is provided at the Central level by the Central Committee.
on IRDP, at the state level by sub-committee of the SLCC, constituted exclusively for TRYSEM. An official of the rank of Project Director, DRDA will function at district headquarters.

7.5.7 Progress of TRYSEM in India:

TRYSEM has proved to be of great help to the unemployed in the development of skills relevant to the rural areas. The successful implementation of this programme is expected to bring out drastic improvement in the living conditions of the rural youth. This enables the rural youth to take up either wage or self-employment. The data on expenditure during the period 1990-91 to 1998-99 revealed that total expenditure increased from 3260.93 lakhs to 8976.28 lakhs (Table 5.1). The expenditure incurred was the highest during the period 1993-94 (11123.87 lakhs). This may be due to the fact that 8th five-year plan recognised the worsening unemployment problems, and accorded a high priority for achieving full employment by 2000. Large amounts were spent on this programme for infrastructure development in sixth and seventh plans. The recurring expenditure increased from 77.6 lakhs per annum during sixth plan to 6807 lakhs in 1997-98. This may be due to the fact that investment in infrastructure is quite essential at the initial stages of a development programme and needs huge resources. The number of trainees per annum under TRYSEM increased from around 2 lakhs during sixth plan period to 2.5 lakhs in 1997-98 (Table 5.3).

The information on employment generation under TRYSEM revealed that though training was given to, around 44 lakhs and only 24 lakhs were able to get employment constituting 54.49 per cent. Employment generated under TRYSEM comprised of both self and wage-employment (Table 5.4). The proportion of wage-employment increased from 17.50 per cent to 46.24 per cent from the sixth plan.
to the year 1998-99, indicating the declining prospects of self-employment generation under TRYSEM. The self-employment which was 82.41 per cent in sixth plan period has come down to 53.75 per cent in 1998-99. The coverage of SC/STs was given importance under this programme. The youth trained out of SC/ST communities increased from 32.9 per cent in sixth plan period to 60.70 per cent in 1998-99. The percentage of women trained revealed the gender equality. The rate of percentage of women beneficiaries trained was almost more than 50 per cent in all the years except in 1995-96. This reveals that women who belonged to the crucial group of family also had their share of participation and employment in this programme (Table 5.5).

7.5.8 Progress of TRYSEM in Andhra Pradesh:

TRYSEM programme was implemented in Andhra Pradesh from 1979-80 onwards. Under this programme, a very low percentage of the youth were trained in the year 1998-99. In Andhra Pradesh, the achievement has been always less than the target. The percentage of youth to be trained was the highest in 1996-97 (84.44 per cent) and lowest in 1998-99 (18.66 per cent), while in the remaining years it ranged between 46 per cent to 76 per cent (Table 5.6). Some of the reasons for this may be lack of sufficient funds, lack of proper monitoring and discouraging atmosphere of the past experience. It is learnt that all the trained youth were not able to get employment opportunities. Out of the total trained only 46.7 per cent of them were able to get employment opportunities (Table 5.7). Another important factor was TRYSEM programme provided not only self-employment but also wage-employment. In the year 1998-99 self-employment amounted to 76.02 per cent whereas it is 74.84 per cent during 1996-97 and highest as 90.09 per cent in 1993-94. The wage-employment ranged between 9 per cent to 5.5 per cent between the period 1990-1998-99. The proportion of
the women trained was least in the year 1993-94 (5.2 per cent) and highest in 1997-98 (27.6 per cent) The proportion of SC/ST trained was less in 1996-97 (24.7 per cent) and highest in 1990-91 (54.27 per cent) (Table 5.8).

7.5.8 Progress of TRYSEM in Nellore District:

At the district level, there was TRYSEM Committee for which The District Collector is the Chairman DRDA assumes the over-all responsibility for the programme and also provides subsidy Beneficiaries are being helped by the trainer, the banker, the Industrial Extension Officer and Block Development Officer The progress of TRYSEM programme in terms of number of trained youth since its inception revealed that there are wide fluctuations in the number of trained persons (Table 5.10) during the period 1980-98 During the years 1990-99 the programme provided considerable amount of wage-employment also in Nellore District, where 512 youth are self-employed and 337 wage-employed on an average for the periods 1990-1999 Caste-wise particulars of TRYSEM in Nellore district indicated that percentage of SC/ST communities youth trained was according to the norms prescribed within the guidelines of TRYSEM manual It can be noticed that the number of SC/ST youth trained varied over different periods since its inception (Table 5.12) The expenditure incurred over a ten-year period from 1990-1999 revealed that huge amounts were spent on this programme The expenditure incurred was 10,74,000 in 1990-91 and it was 59,80,000 in 1996-97 and 30,53,000 for the period 1998-99

Thus, TRYSEM plays a vital role in enhancing employment opportunity in rural youth But the performance of TRYSEM in terms of youth trained was less than the target in India, Andhra Pradesh and the study region Nellore District. Efforts were made by the implementing authorities to improve the performance of this programme.
IMPACT OF TRYSEM ON EMPLOYMENT AND INCOME GENERATION:

An effective employment policy was the most appropriate instrument for achieving growth with social justice within the framework of existing economic and political system. It is often said that, unless the programme is properly implemented, the advantage of planned development can not percolate down to the grass-root level. At this stage it is necessary to know about socio-economic conditions and implementation process of the programme.

7.6.1 Socio-economic Conditions:

7.6.1.1 Profile of sample beneficiaries:

In the study region, Nellore District of Andhra Pradesh a total of 240 beneficiaries belonging to different trades viz. Computer, modern dress making, rural electrical and motor rewinding, carpentry, radio & T.V and four-wheeler mechanism were sampled for the study. The sample beneficiaries belonged to the category of the persons who completed training. The socio-economic characteristics such as age, sex, education, caste status, size of households and level of employment are described here in order to provide a clear background for assessing the impact of TRYSEM programme on the economy of sample beneficiaries.

7.6.1.2 Sex-wise Distribution:

The distribution of respondents by sex presented in (Table 6.2) revealed that of the total beneficiaries male respondents constituted 74.5 per cent and the female ones 25.4 per cent. In regard to three vocations viz. Rural Electrical and motor-rewinding, carpentry and four-wheeler mechanism all the selected respondents are males since they are chosen by male youth only, while all the respondents are female in the case of
modern dress making. Among the non-beneficiaries the percentage of male respondents was 78.12 per cent and that of females 21.87 per cent.

7.6.3 Age-wise Distribution:

The target group under TRYSEM comprises rural youth between the ages of 18-35 from families below the poverty-line. The respondents are divided into four age-groups of 18-22, 23-27, 28-32 and 32-35 years. All the sample respondents were within the age-group of 18-35 years. It indicates that, while identifying beneficiaries for TRYSEM, the persons with younger age were given preference. With regard to non-beneficiaries, 43.75 per cent were in the age-bracket of 23-27 years followed by 25 per cent in the age-group of 28-32 years (Table 6.3).

7.6.4 Educational Status:

The educational profile of sample beneficiaries revealed that around 71 per cent of the respondents had secondary education, while 12 percent of respondents were graduates, 10.8 per cent had intermediate education. It is to be noted that only 4 per cent of the beneficiaries had upper primary education followed by 2.8 per cent of respondents with vocational and technical education. Among the non-beneficiaries 6.25 per cent studied upto upper primary, 53.12 per cent upto secondary, 28.12 per cent upto Intermediate and 12.5 per cent upto Degree (Table 6.4).

7.6.5 Caste-wise Distribution:

It is observed that TRYSEM programme has mostly benefitted socially disadvantaged communities. It is noticed that about 58.3 percent of the beneficiaries belong to SC and ST category, 25 percent belong to the backward classes and 16 per
cent belong to the forward castes. In the case of non-beneficiaries, 56.25 per cent belonged to SC/ST, 25 per cent hailed from backward community and 18.75 per cent belonged to forward caste (Table 6.5).

7.6.16 Occupation-wise Distribution:

The occupational classification of respondents was done on the basis of total income from farm and non-farm sectors. It can be seen that around 65 per cent of the respondents belong to agricultural sector, the remaining 35 per cent belonged to non-agricultural sector. Among the non-beneficiaries around 60 per cent of respondents belonged to agricultural sector (Table 6.6).

7.6.3 Implementation Process:

7.6.3.1 Identification:

Proper identification of beneficiaries is the important step in the programme implementation on which the end result would very much depend. According to the guidelines of Government of India, the households below the poverty-line are identified through base-line income survey.

To find out the procedure of identification in the study area, the beneficiaries were asked to indicate how they were identified for purpose of training. They indicated that about 35.4 percent of the respondents were identified through self-efforts and 25.4 percent were reported to be identified by the VDO. About 17.5 percent were identified through household-survey followed by 13.3 percent by Mandal Officers, 5 percent by co-operatives and 3.3 percent by Panchayat officials (Table 6.7)
The number of beneficiary households by income groups as found at the time of the identification process reveals that out of 240 beneficiary household surveyed only 72 beneficiary households had an annual income about 12,000 which is the non-poverty income. This shows that phenomenon of mis-identification is 30 per cent which has to be taken care of (Table 6 8).

7.6.3.2 Selection of Vocations:

In the study region it was observed that the beneficiaries have not taken crucial role in selection of vocations. Another important factor was majority of prospective trainees filled the application without proper thinking and understanding in very limited time. The benefits of expertise of good number of training institutes was not made use of in the selection of trainees and in assessing their aptitude and choice of trade. Beneficiaries expressed that they received encouraging suggestions from the local authorities and administrators at the time of joining, but discouraged at the end of training and every thing became quite unapproachable from their side.

7.6.3.3 Training:

The training of the rural youth for self-employment is the third stage in the implementation of TRYSEM. Trade wise analysis reveals that time gap between selection and starting of the programme was below 3 months in the case of the vocation modern dress making and R & TV, 4-6 months of in the case of vocation RE & MRW, Carpentry and four-wheeler mechanism and below one year for the vocation computers (Table 6 9).

The training under TRYSEM was provided through a mixture of institutional and non-institutional modes. Trainees are in general trained by master craftsmen or near
by institutions or private organisations. Many institutions, which include both Government organisations and voluntary organisations provided training with the help of master craftsmen to the trainees in various vocations (Table 6.10).

The training period differed according to trades. The duration of training for trades like Radio & TV, Four-wheeler mechanism and carpentry was six months and the duration of training for trades like computers, modern dress making and RE & MRW was nine months. The duration of training period was designed, according to the provision of skills needed in that particular trade after which they can start their own vocation.

The guidelines point out that on completion of training, the trainee may be subjected to a performance test to see whether he has acquired the skills and is proficient in them and DRDA issues certificates to TRYSEM trainees after successful completion of training. In this regard, the study revealed that 77.5 per cent of the trained youth were awarded certificates, while the remaining were denied. It is also noticed that among the beneficiaries who were issued certificates only 17 per cent were able to make use of it in order to get self-wage-employment (Table 6.11).

7.6.3.4 Project Formulation:

The project Formulation as laid down in the basic principles of TRYSEM programme was not given much importance in the training period. Majority of them did not have any knowledge about project formulation. The project report considered as a blueprint for any self-employed venture was prepared by only 10.41 percent of the respondents. The large percentage of trainees did not have knowledge about it. When asked about this, the respondents attributed it to non-teaching by the trainers. Thus, the
trainees had neither personal experience in project preparation nor did any one taught them the techniques and methods of project preparation (Table 6 12)

7.6.3.5 Financing Projects:

According to the guidelines, loan application for assistance under TRYSEM must be completed and processed, while training is still in progress, so that loan is disbursed immediately upon completion of the course. It was found in the study, that only 10 per cent of the respondents have availed loans and the remaining 90 per cent could not get loans from banks. The non-receipt of credit by an overwhelming majority of the respondents needs a detailed examination. It was noticed that the lengthy procedures and long delays were the deterrent factors in receipt of credit by the beneficiaries under TRYSEM. Beneficiaries expressed that due to distance from their native village to the bank and lack of direct access with the officials they could not succeed in availing bank loans (Table 6 13).

7.6.4.1 Employment Generation:

An analysis of average man-days of employment of respondents during pre and post TRYSEM period reveals that average per-capita employment has increased during post TRYSEM period in the case of beneficiaries of all vocations. Taking all vocations together, the average employment has increased from 124.60 to 206.82 man-days indicating 66.04 per cent rise the post TRYSEM period. Statistically, the additional man-days of employment generated per beneficiary were found to be significant in the case of all schemes since the computed ‘t’ values are greater than the table values (Table 6 14). The real additional employment was high in the case of RE & MRW followed by MDM, and Radio & TV mechanism, while it was least in the case of four-wheeler mechanism (Table 6 15).
7.6.4.3 Employment Generation Caste-wise Analysis:

Caste-wise average per person employment of the respondents of pre and post TRYSEM periods revealed that the incremental employment was relatively high for O Cs followed by BCs. The incremental employment for scheduled castes was less (Table 6.16).

7.6.4.4 Real Additions: Caste-wise Analysis:

There was no marked changes in the real additional employment between the caste groups. The real additional employment was marginally high for SC/STs followed by BCs (Table 6.17).

7.6.4.5 Employment Pattern:

TRYSEM promotes self-employment more significantly than wage-employment and is likely to affect the employment pattern of beneficiary youth. During Pre-TRYSEM period, wage-employment predominated. The share of wage-employment in total employment accounted for 62 per cent which in turn reduced to 51.8 per cent during post TRYSEM period. There was an appreciable increase in self-employment in the case of all vocations. Thus, it can be concluded that due to TRYSEM, there was marginal diversification in pattern of employment in which the emphasis shifted from wage-employment to self-employment (Table 6.18).

7.6.4.6 Employment Status:

The TRYSEM programme is implemented to provide full employment to rural youth. It can be noticed that there was an improvement in employment status of the respondents during post-programme period. The percentage of unemployed declined
from 31.25 per cent in pre-programme period to 66.7 per cent during post-programme period (Table 6.19)

TRYSEM programme judged by the norm of full employment appears to be less impressive. So the programme may be evaluated in terms of alternative criterions namely its ability to promote mobility of the assisted beneficiaries to higher employment brackets. Majority of respondents moved from lower employment brackets to higher employment brackets due to TRYSEM. Scheme-wise analysis reveals that mobility is relatively faster in computers followed by RE & MRW and carpentry (Table 6.20).

7.6.4.7 Scheme Employment:

The scheme employment refers to the number of man-days spent per annum exclusively in the vocation for which training was imparted under TRYSEM. TRYSEM on an average has generated 109.95 man-days of employment (Table 6.21)

TRYSEM could provide employment opportunities to 62.5 per cent of youth trained in the vocations for which training was imparted. Among the schemes all the trained youth were employed in the trained vocation in the case of modern dress making, 75 per cent in carpentry, 62.85 per cent in Radio & T.V. mechanism (Table 6.22). It can be concluded that employment generation under the trained vocations was less and could not assure full employment.

Though TRYSEM mainly aims at generating self-employment, it is noticed that all the employed beneficiaries under TRYSEM schemes were not self-employed. Due to the lack of finance after training and absence of forward and backward linkages, some of the trained youth were wage-employed. Around 32 per cent of the sample
respondents were self-employed under TRYSEM schemes, 35 per cent were employed on wage-basis in the trained vocations, while 25.83 per cent were employed in other than TRYSEM vocations, the remaining 6.6 per cent were unemployed (Table 6.23). Thus, it can be concluded that TRYSEM could not generate self-employment for all the trained youth, and only around one-third of them were able to start their own projects and generate self-employment.

7.6.5 Income Generation:

The primary objective of TRYSEM is to provide employment to rural youth by equipping them with technical skills. It is expected that the employment generated through TRYSEM will enable the families of the trained youth to supplement their normal earnings and cross the poverty-line. From this angle, an attempt is made to assess the impact of TRYSEM on generation of additional income to the beneficiary households.

7.6.5.1 Scheme-wise Analysis – Additional Income:

The average net household income of beneficiaries was estimated at two points of time i.e., pre and post TRYSEM periods. Taking all the vocations together, the average household income has increased from Rs.9707.89 to Rs.15,254.17 indicating 57.13 per cent rise in post TRYSEM period. There was an increase in average household income in the case of non-beneficiaries also, which might be due to natural factors. The average household income of non-beneficiaries has increased from Rs.9220.50 to Rs.11080.00 yielding an increase of 21.32 per cent, which is less in comparison with TRYSEM beneficiary households (Table 6.24).
7652 Scheme-wise Analysis – Real Additions:

The incremental income between ‘pre’ and ‘post’ TRYSEM periods might not be due to the impact of TRYSEM alone. It might be due to other development programmes or natural process of development. To find the real additional income due to TRYSEM schemes, the net additional income figures of beneficiaries are compared with those of non-beneficiaries. When the net additional income figures of the beneficiary households were compared with the non-beneficiary group, it can be found that the additional incomes were varying from Rs 1042.50 to Rs 5958.50 under different schemes (Table 6.25).

765.3 Caste-wise Analysis – Additional Income:

It was felt that TRYSEM might not have a homogeneous impact on all beneficiary groups as far as they are homogeneous in terms of their personal attributes and their accessibility to the benefits of the programme. The heterogeneity inherent in the target groups and the consequential differential rates of impact will not surface, unless the evaluation of the programme is conducted at some level of desegregation. To find out the differential impact, if any among the different caste groups the beneficiaries were divided into three groups namely SCs-STs, into three groups viz B Cs and OCs. The average net household incomes of different caste groups during pre and post programme period disclose that the incremental income was relatively high for OCs (65.41 per cent) in comparison with B.Cs (58.52 per cent) and SC/Sts (53.12 per cent). There was an increase in the incomes of corresponding groups of non-beneficiaries also, but it was marginal when compared with beneficiary groups (Table 6.26).
Caste-wise Analysis - Real Additions:

To get the real impact of TRYSEM on household incomes of beneficiaries of different caste groups, the incremental incomes of the corresponding groups of non-beneficiaries were worked out and compared. It is observed that real additional incomes due to TRYSEM was high for OCs followed by BCs in comparison with SC-STs (Table 6.27).

Poverty-Alleviation:

The objective of TRYSEM is to provide employment opportunities and thereby to raise the beneficiary households above the poverty-line. The net percentage of beneficiaries crossing the poverty-line worked out to be 38.75 per cent. Since some of the non-beneficiaries also have moved above the poverty-line, this has to be taken into account to get the real impact of TRYSEM on alleviation of poverty. Consequently, the net number of beneficiaries crossing the poverty-line worked out to be 23.13 per cent (Table 6.28).

Income Mobility:

Judged by the norm of poverty crossing the performance of the programme appears to be less impressive. It is too much to expect very poor households trapped in poverty for a longer period to be lifted above the poverty-line in a couple of years. The very poor households may be expected to climb the income ladder only gradually even with the governmental support. As such, a more reasonable idea for assessing the impact of TRYSEM is referred to as the mobility of the beneficiaries to higher income brackets during the post TRYSEM period. During the post-programme period, both the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries have moved beyond the income level of Rs 10,000.
leading to a rise in the number of households in the income brackets of Rs.10000-
15000, 15000-20000, 20000-25000, 25000-30000 and above 30000 thousand, but the
increase in the case of non-beneficiaries was less in comparison with beneficiaries
(Table 6 29)

7.6.2 Income Distribution:

There are two accepted methods of measuring the inequalities in income. These
are Lorenz curve and Gini coefficient. They are complementary to each other. The
income distribution pattern of households of TRYSEM beneficiaries is measured by
making use of these two methods. The inequality of income would be clearly reflected,
if percentage share in total income for different groups of households were considered
along with the Gini concentration ratios (Table 6 30).

During the pre-TRYSEM period, the computed Gini ratios were 0.25, 0.24, 0.26,
0.21, 0.30, 0.25, respectively for the trades computers, modern dress-making, RE &
MRW, carpentry, Radio & TV, Mechanism and four-wheeler mechanism respectively.
During the post-TRYSEM period, the inequalities in the distribution of income have
marginally declined as indicated by the increased shares of low income brackets which
is further confirmed by reduced Gini coefficient ratios (0.22, 0.21, 0.21, 0.18, 0.29,
0.29) for the respective trades except four-wheeler mechanism. The income inequalities
are graphically shown by drawing Lorenz curves. It can be seen from the Lorenz curves
that inequalities in the distribution of income have marginally declined except in the
case of four-wheeler mechanism.

7.6.7 Awareness and Perception:

The empirical data were collected about the awareness and the perception of
and the different aspects of implementation provided useful information about the over-all perspective of the subjects. Majority of beneficiaries came to know through friends (33.3 per cent) whereas only 16.4 per cent came to know through MDO, 16.6 per cent through VDO and 2.5 per cent through DRDA. All the respondents have not expressed the same level of satisfaction with regard to the TRYSEM programme.

Among the respondents, 33.75 per cent were satisfied with the implementation of the TRYSEM programme, 32.5 per cent expressed their partial satisfaction, 18.75 per cent were not satisfied at all and 15 per cent did not express any thing. Caste-wise analysis reveals that the level of satisfaction among SC-STs was as high as 35.71 per cent followed by BCs 33.33 per cent and for OCs 27.5 per cent. All the 240 respondents mentioned that training was useful. But they mentioned certain problems faced by them during the training period (Table 6.31).

Majority of the respondents felt that, if TRYSEM is to be helpful in providing income and employment to the rural poor by uplifting them from the clutches of poverty and unemployment, adequate help has to be provided till they become successful entrepreneurs by the Government so that they can make best use of their training. They also felt that the duration of training period was to be enhanced and their stipend amount to be increased. In addition to these, they also suggested that adequate marketing facilities to their products to be provided and to impart training in the mandal headquarters to the beneficiaries.

7.7 CONCLUSION:

There are some snags in the implementation process, by which, the progress of the scheme is retarded to a large extent. These snags can be found starting from the
identification of the right candidate / trainer, to the self-employment of the candidate by provision of credit facilities, raw material and the marketing facilities, through all possible sources. A few conclusions and suggestions are made below:

1. It was found from the study that selection of trades, trainees and institutions was done in various manners and to some extent in a haphazard manner. It has been observed that the system of identification and selection of trainees requires a thorough scrutiny. Selection process is lenient and the members in the selection board do not seem to be seriously considering the guidelines. It should be ensured that only right type of persons having aptitude for a particular trade and who after training are willing to set up their own units are selected. It has been observed that many trainees joined this training without being aware of the meaning, objectives and benefit of TRYSEM scheme. So, care has to be taken to select the trainees after thorough scrutiny. It is desirable to see that prior to the interview, the candidate should be briefed in a group as a whole for some time so that they may make up their mind with a final decision for their career development.

2. It was observed that the training institutions lacked adequate facilities, machines and tools for giving practical training. In some trades like carpentry, radio and TV mechanism, trainees expressed lack of necessary raw material as one of the drawbacks of this program. It restricted to acquire the required skill to the desired extent possible. It is learnt from the master craftsmen that due to lack of necessary raw material, new skills were not imparted to the trainees. Hence, uniformity has to be maintained in the allocation of raw material quantity sent to all the centres and proper supply of raw material has to be ensured.
It was observed that the conditions of training vary from place to place. The poly-techniques and industrial training institutes offer several facilities for the beneficial learning of the TRYSEM trainees, as they are geared fully for training purposes. On the other hand, the master craftsmen are engaged in production process for surplus generation and profit making regardless of the technology employed and the scale of operations. Hence, necessary measures to check this type of discrimination and to promote the quality of training are to be ensured for the successful implementation of the programme.

One of the weak points of the programme observed was the variations that existed in the disbursement of stipends. In some centres, stipends are disbursed for every two or three months, in some cases, twice or thrice during the training period and in some other cases regularly. This has subjected them to lot of inconvenience and their poor economic conditions intensified the problem. Hence, it is necessary to inspect and see that stipends are disbursed uniformly and timely in all the centres to avoid any confusion or unrest among the beneficiaries for the success of the programme by the rural development agencies.

It was observed that the training received is not in line with the local resources and market available. Majority of beneficiaries were given schemes of their own choice. It is necessary for the rural development agency to first ascertain about the potentiality and economic viability of the trade for which candidates opted. This would help the candidate for establishing himself immediately after the completion of the training course. The strategy to be more effective and to give...
more desired results, the family skills, experience and the availability of local resources infrastructure and product market are to be considered

The experience of the programme revealed that under this programme there was no proper accommodation provided for the outstation male beneficiaries. They expressed dissatisfaction over a large portion of money spent on transport. So it is recommended that the scheme should provide for payment of reasonable amount as transport allowances to the TRYSEM beneficiaries for the duration of training wherever training centre is located other than their location. To ensure regular attendance and promote effective training, the facility of hostels are to be encouraged on a large scale.

It was felt that the quality of training imparted to them was not upto the mark as their proficiency and knowledge of the trades in which they were trained was inadequate. Certain minimum standards for each trade, need to be laid down in a manner easily intelligible to the beneficiary and the trainer so as to ensure that atleast certain minimum level of proficiency is attained by the beneficiary as a result of TRYSEM training. Observations of the training imparted by the master craftsmen revealed that there is no schedule of planned training activity for the trainees due to lack of necessary guidance to the master trainers from the concerned officials in formulating a systematic plan of training the youth.

Another important observation was that the over-whelming majority of the beneficiaries did not get any training in entrepreneurship and project management. Project report considered as a blue print for any self-employment venture was prepared only by very few respondents. More over, except in few training centres, no where master craftsmen and institutes insisted on this
programme Master craftsmen should be given orientation towards the scheme under question and refresher courses should be conducted every year to thoroughly prepare them for imparting proper training. It is necessary to arrange orientation training to the trainers on a regular basis. Special camps can be conducted and can be used as forums for orienting the beneficiaries on procedures for infrastructural support and special camps could also be converted into credit camps for the bankers to extend credit assistance to the needy beneficiaries.

Under TRYSEM supply of tool kits is one of the most essential items to be supplied to the trainees at the initial stages of training itself. The study observed that in majority of cases the beneficiary has not received the tool kit. They could not do any practice work without tool kit and their economic position stood in the way of buying the implements. Hence, necessary supervision has to be undertaken by the implementing agencies and authorities to ensure proper supply of tool kits so that beneficiary can pursue any type of employment from which he likes to earn income.

It was found that the involvement of DIC and lead bank officials was not to the extent desired and hence, beneficiaries suffered from the lack of proper credit facilities. It is noticed that there is no proper co-ordination and co-operation between bankers and implementation authorities. According to the guidelines, the TRYSEM beneficiaries are to be provided with credit facility after submitting the project report and after completion of training. But project reports as envisaged were not prepared except in few cases. Hence, it is essential that proper scrutiny is required at every stage to observe in detail the training.
methods practiced and suggest solutions for the proper implementation of the programme to get the desired result.

From the study, it was found that many of the beneficiaries were not provided with certificates after completion of training and test, as laid down in the guidelines of TRYSEM. Due to some reason or other, they could not get the certificates from the training institutes. Hence, it is very much desirable to design uniform course certificates for each trade for all training institutes so that it enables the monitoring and supervising scheme team to execute their functions efficiently and provides for mobility. It is also necessary to attach some importance to their certificates, while registering in employment exchanges or for getting employment in government offices.

It was also found that majority of trainees were not engaged substantially in the skills that they were trained in. To promote self-employment, it is necessary to identify those individuals who have potential and a drive for such a venture. The curriculum has to be designed to meet the training needs of the self-employed which in most trades is more than the bare minimum skills. Every year after the completion of the training, a large get-together can be arranged and a valedictory function can be celebrated by each rural development agency where candidates may be introduced to many other officials, who may help them in due course of time. This would help the beneficiaries in building up self-confidence for making contacts with the officials and to realise the actual purpose and objectives of this programme.

Monitoring of the programme, the crucial aspect of any rural development programme was lacking in this programme. Rural Development Agency should
start monitoring the candidates during and after the training, which would indicate the progress of the scheme. Majority of beneficiaries expressed that no government official visited them after training and no sufficient care was taken to examine their position. They also expressed that it is necessary to monitor and help them and show some avenues till they get any employment. Hence, proper monitoring by rural development agency has to be ensured.