



IJMRRS

**International Journal for Multidisciplinary
Research, Review and Studies**

Volume 1 - Issue 1

2024

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Self-Employment in India with special emphasis on Women

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Abstract

A sizeable portion of India's workforce is engaged in the informal sector, or the unorganized sector, terms used interchangeably in the Indian context to define employment which does not have labour benefits or written contracts, and often does not work within the ambit of labour laws. Within the informal sector is the further distinction between proprietary and partnership enterprises, referring to the structure of ownership and subsequent employment within the sector.

An important subset, and one which is a significantly large portion of the informal sector, is the class of **self-employed** persons in India. Self-employment is present in both rural and urban areas and may range from very-low-value-added jobs like ferrying water to and from water sources for households to even startups and businesses (the employers' side).

Much of the Indian informal sector cannot be enumerated exhaustively, owing to the size and diversity of the population, geographical challenges, socio-cultural beliefs prevalent among those employed in this sector, and administrative slip-ups. As in the formal sector, there are gender-based differences prevalent in the informal sector too. This paper aims to highlight the extent of the impact self-employed women have in the informal sector in India, the gender-based disadvantages they face, and use data to support theories and concepts founded here.

Keywords: informal sector, self-employment, patriarchy, women, PLFS.

I. Introduction

Studying the Indian economy has its challenges, given its vast and varied demographic. The Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation (MoSPI) conducts surveys ranging from census surveys to sample surveys to collect data and chart the developing economy that India is. The National Statistical Office (NSO) under the MoSPI conducts surveys under the National Sample Survey (NSS) rounds, which provide much of the knowledge we have on the Indian economy. The informal sector employs about 80% of India's eligible workforce, as per the Annual Report of the Ministry of Labour and Employment in 2022-23. From official PLFS (Periodic Labour Force Survey) data for the 2022-23 period we gather the following points of interest.

- About 56% of regular wage/salaried women working in both the urban and rural areas were employed without any written contract of employment.
- About 44% of regular wage/salaried women working in both the urban and rural areas were not eligible for paid leave.
- About 57% of regular wage/salaried women working in both the urban and rural areas were not eligible for any specified social security benefits.

Roughly half the population of women working in India are thus visibly engaged in the informal sector, of which a large proportion are in the AGEGC (AGriculture sector Excluding Growing of Crops) and non-agricultural sector. These women form the background for the necessity of self-employment. Unsafe labour conditions, lack of social security, low value added by each worker in the unorganized sector, unstable jobs, administrative corruption and thin protection against breaching of labour laws affect both men and women engaged in the unorganized sector here, but women are subjected to additional disadvantages too, such as socio-cultural pressures of having and raising children in addition to working, facing sexual harassment at work, and dealing with wage gaps and pink taxes. A lot of these issues persist in the formal sector as well, but a credible legal framework supporting her employment, a relatively

healthier and safer workplace, better records and social security, and benefits such as paid leaves and aid for maternal purposes place the formal-sector woman employee in better stead compared to her self-employed, informal-sector counterpart in India.

Keeping in mind these above points, this paper aims to find reasonable and credible points to address the following objectives.

1. Finding out how the Indian woman self-employed in the informal sector fares against her male counterpart
2. Finding out how the Indian woman self-employed in rural areas fares against her urban counterpart

The paper is divided into *five* Sections, with *Section II* marking a review of the literature deemed pertinent by the author to the subject matter of this paper. *Section III* lists out the methodology followed for research in the paper, while *Section IV* notes the analysis and inference made by the author based on the research conducted. *Section V* draws the author's conclusions on the research conducted.

Appendix for data as required are added at the end of this paper, along with relevant sources for the same.

II. Literature Review

In his IMF paper titled *Measuring Informal Economy in India – Indian Experience*, **SV Ramana Murthy** discusses about the basic characteristics of the informal sector or the 'grey' economy of India. The author makes use of an approach developed to calculate the GVA of each worker in the informal sector, termed as the Labour Input or the *Effective Labour Input* (ELI) method. The author has used this method to effectively estimate the value added by each worker in each sector of the informal economy, and has based these calculations on NSS data primarily. The author has also spoken largely about the issues faced by workers in this sector, and the issues faced by the administrative bodies in regulating stakeholders here.

In a paper titled *Women, Informal Sector and Perspectives on Struggles*, author **U Kalpagam** recognizes the problems faced by women in India's informal sector on a very astute, grassroots level. The author lists out various issues such as lack of credit, dependence on intermediaries and unavailability of raw materials which can only be dealt with by interacting with other stakeholders in the system. Patriarchal setups in Indian society render the informally-employed woman unable to meet with people outside her family as freely as is ideally required, further setting her back from her male counterpart. The paper states the existence of the bourgeois ideology of restraining women to their homes instead of letting them work that most men and families have, even if the family requires the woman's contribution financially. Such ideologies are often bought into by women themselves and hamper their effectiveness at work, where their flexibility in the ever-shifting nature of the informal sector further decreases. The author also harps on the invisible nature of home-based production activities that women and children take part in and often go unnoticed with no labour value attached to such forms of production.

Mridul Eapen focuses on the state of Kerala in a paper titled *Women in Informal Sector in Kerala*, where the author studies whether a reported increase in participation of women in the informal sector through the 1980s and 1990s was actually appreciable or not. The author noted that although the participation of women in Kerala's informal sector had increased, it still remained greatly at odds with men doing the same work, with lower caste women earning lesser than their higher caste counterparts too. There is also an interesting factor to be noted here: the

author speaks of the formal sector dissociating into an informal sector gradually, which is indicative of most of the country today, where formal sector employees extend into the unorganized pool of labour to hire casual workers during peak season. Noting the added disadvantage women face in this sector, the author concludes that decentralized administration and development of skills of informal-sector women employees to gradually move into the more secure formal sector is necessary.

Incorporating a unique societal perspective in a paper titled simply *The relationship between women's paid employment and women's stated son preference in India*, **Julia Behrman** and **Sara Duvisac** conduct groundbreaking research in determining whether stated son preference in never-pregnant women has any relationship with women's paid employment. There is some literature which supports the existence of a negative relationship between son preference and urbanization and education. This has distilled into the empirical belief of the authors that women in the informal sector are more likely to have alterations in son preference, noting as they already had a high son preference before employment. In this case, son preference and associated social and economic costs increase when a woman is employed but not with the financial and social security of the formal sector. The authors use logistic regression analysis to reach their results in a field which has had little literature or policy action.

III. Research Methodology

To compare how a self-employed Indian woman fares in the informal sector with similar stakeholders, data has been taken from recent PLFS data to draw information on those engaged in proprietary and partnership enterprises in India as a measure of the informal sector. Data from all the States and Union Territories as covered in PLFS by NSSO are taken separately and dummy variable analysis is carried out to see which States have highest proportions of female workforce engaged in self-employment.

Similar comparisons have been drawn for proportions of the male workforce too and empirical inferences have been drawn for the same.

PLFS data for the periods from 2017-18, 2019-20, 2021-22 and 2022-23 has been used to study the informal sector and Indian women's participation in it. Theoretical explanations for trends observed in the data have been provided subsequently.

Data taken from PLFS has also been used to depict how many women employed in the informal sector are self-employed, and how many of them are casual workers. This data has been compared with the two broad distinctions made by NSSO in PLFS: between rural regions and urban regions, and between men and women secondarily.

We consider data collected from PLFS for **own-account workers and employers** and **helpers in household enterprises** to constitute **self-employment** among **rural males, rural females, urban males** and **urban females**. We consider self-employment to form an estimate of the informal sector, and the activity of rural and urban men and women here has been considered for this purpose. Data is paneled from thirty-six (36) States and Union Territories across the mentioned time periods and has been used in this regard.

For understanding how each region of India shapes up in this analysis, the following breakdown of the country into **Six Regions** as follows:

North: Delhi, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Punjab, Uttarakhand, Uttar Pradesh, Chandigarh, Jammu and Kashmir, Ladakh

East: Bihar, Odisha, Sikkim, West Bengal

North-East: Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Nagaland, Tripura

Central: Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh

West: Goa, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Rajasthan, Dadra and Nagar Haveli and Daman Diu

South: Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Telangana, Puducherry, Andaman and Nicobar Islands*, Lakshadweep Islands*

The two island groups are regarded as a part of the Southern Region.

Basic regression analysis has been carried out to see whether formal education has any impact on employment in the informal sector, and whether there is any difference in educating men and women and affecting where they seek their eventual employment.

Graphs have been plotted by the author to present the data and the findings from the data. All tables used with their sources have been added as Appendix.

IV. Results and Analysis

(i) Self-Employment: Visual Inspection and Observations

We take a look at the figures of self-employment collected across the 36 States and UTs for the year 2022-23 initially.

Table 1 (a): Percentage distribution of workers in usual status (ps+ss) by broad status of self-employment across 36 States and UTs in India in 2022-23

State/UT	self-employed rural male	self-employed rural female	self-employed urban male	self-employed urban female
Andhra Pradesh	49.8	44.7	37	43.7
Arunachal Pradesh	69.7	87.6	43.6	68.5
Assam	53.8	75.1	47.3	54.9
Bihar	62.6	71.4	52.6	59.3
Chhattisgarh	69	74.8	43.4	43
Delhi	36.8	3.2	35.1	32
Goa	42.8	31.8	34.7	25.3
Gujarat	53.6	71.1	38.4	49.8
Haryana	50.9	56.2	31.7	37.1
Himachal Pradesh	61.2	88.8	35.5	33.4
Jharkhand	61.4	90.3	45	55.7
Karnataka	57.4	57.1	32.6	25.7
Kerala	41.8	39.3	39.5	35.6
Madhya Pradesh	65.4	73.6	43.6	50.2
Maharashtra	55.6	58.8	33.3	29.7
Manipur	68.2	85.1	56.5	71.2
Meghalaya	46.2	57.5	30.8	21.3
Mizoram	68.3	91.5	50.6	71.6
Nagaland	60	86.8	36.6	70.7
Odisha	60.3	78.4	41.5	43.9
Punjab	46.7	54.3	41.5	29
Rajasthan	67	86.6	44.5	49.7
Sikkim	53.8	81.4	40.9	26.3
Tamil Nadu	38.2	40.3	29.6	32.6
Telangana	73.2	65.4	37.7	36.4
Tripura	57.9	59.4	50.1	42.2
Uttarakhand	60.6	87.4	48.6	44.5
Uttar Pradesh	68.4	88.8	51.5	60.1
West Bengal	52.2	72.2	43.1	48.8
Andaman & N. Island	50.3	69.1	26	23.3
Chandigarh	20	0.6	21.5	18.8
Dadra & Nagar Haveli &	30	79	18.2	58.4
Jammu & Kashmir	55	95.4	46.9	53
Ladakh	50	89.4	41.2	51
Lakshadweep	27.7	55.1	34.8	51.2
Puducherry	29.9	32.6	30.7	23.8

Source: Annual Report of Periodic Labour Force Survey (2022-23), NSSO, MOSPI, Government of India

From the above data, we note that

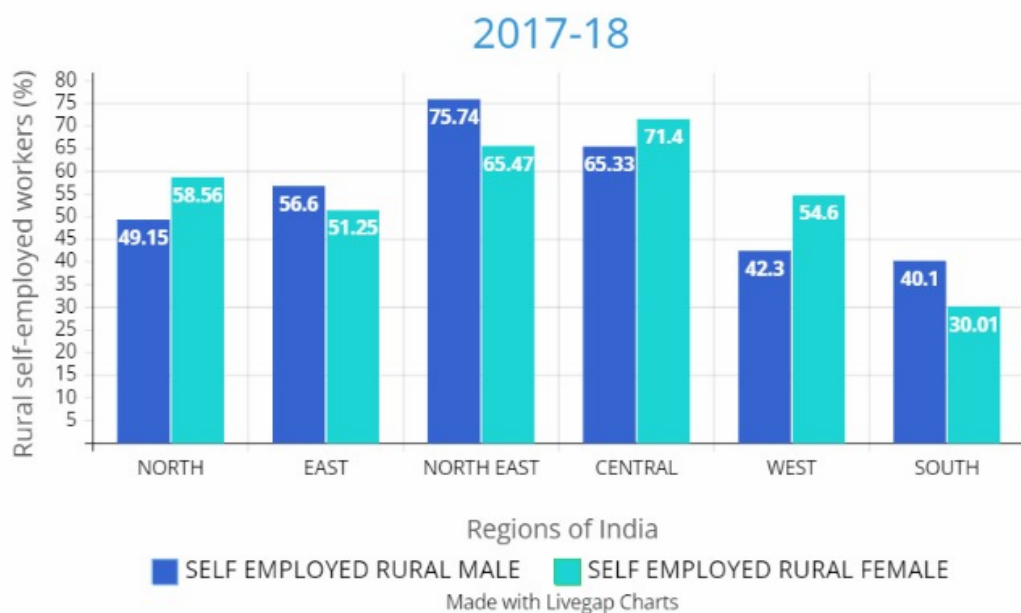
- As many as **twenty-two** States and UTs have more than 60% of the rural female workforce engaged in self-employment, while only **thirteen** States and UTs have more than 60% of the rural male workforce engaged in self-employment. In fact, all the States and UTs which have more than 60% of the rural male workforce self-employed also have the same proportion of the rural women workforce engaged in self-employment. These thirteen States and UTs are mostly in **Northern, North-Eastern** and **Central** Regions. Telangana is the only Southern State to feature on the list, while Rajasthan is the only Western State here
- There is on the whole lesser incidence of the urban workforce being self-employed. There are **eight** States and UTs which see more than 45% of the urban male workforce self-employed, while as many as **sixteen** States and UTs have a more than 45% incidence of the urban female workforce being self-employed. There are **six** States and UTs where there is more than 45% of each of urban male and urban female populations being engaged in self-employment, all but one of them featuring in the Northern and North-Eastern regions. Bihar is exception, from the Eastern region

The above data reflects that on the whole, the **Northern half of India** is more likely to see an incidence of self-employed people, be it rural or urban, compared to the Southern half. There is also more incidence of women, be it rural or urban, being self-employed compared to men, as far as PLFS data suggests.

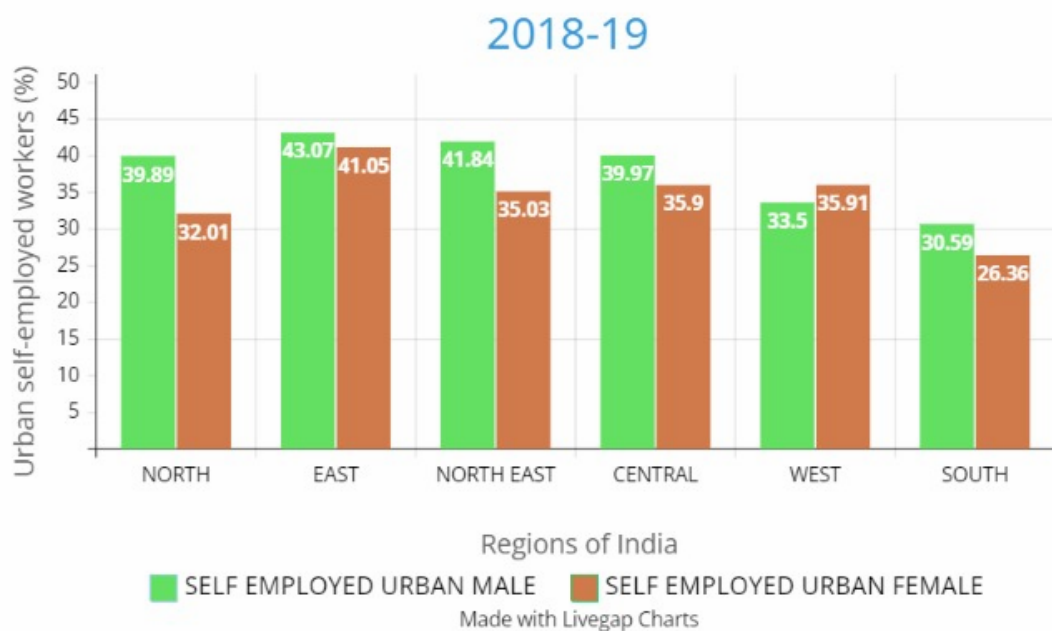
Before we draw any inference from these two very vital facts that arise out of this data, we correlate our findings from other years in our sample too. The Tables used for doing this analysis are similar to 1(a) and are included in the Appendix. For purposes of brevity, the simple findings from each year are detailed below in graphical form, as pertaining to Self-Employment.



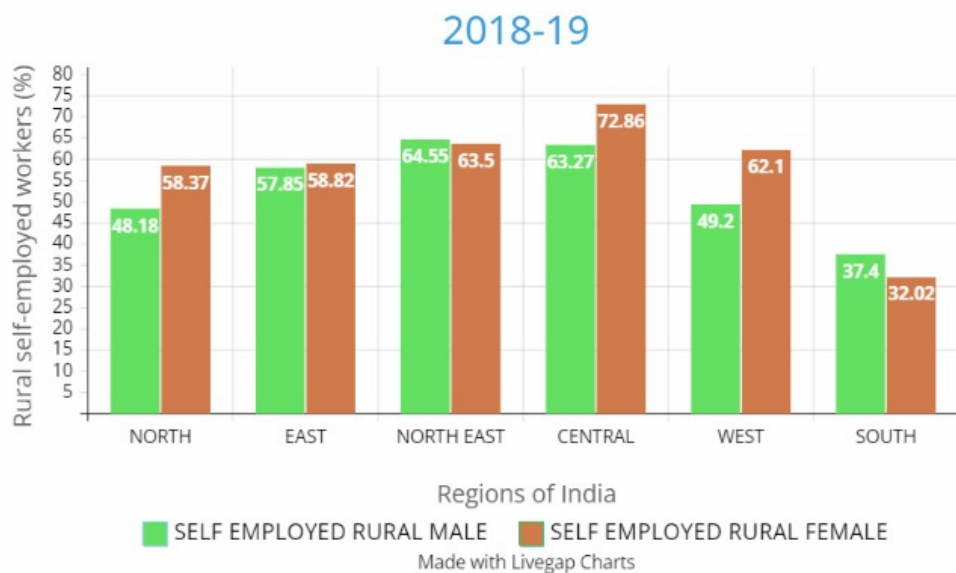
Graph 1(a): Region-wise percentage distribution of urban workers in usual status (ps+ss) by broad status of self-employment (2017-18)
Source: Calculated by the Author from PLFS data



Graph 1(b): Region-wise percentage distribution of rural workers in usual status (ps+ss) by broad status of self-employment (2017-18)
 Source: Calculated by the Author from PLFS data



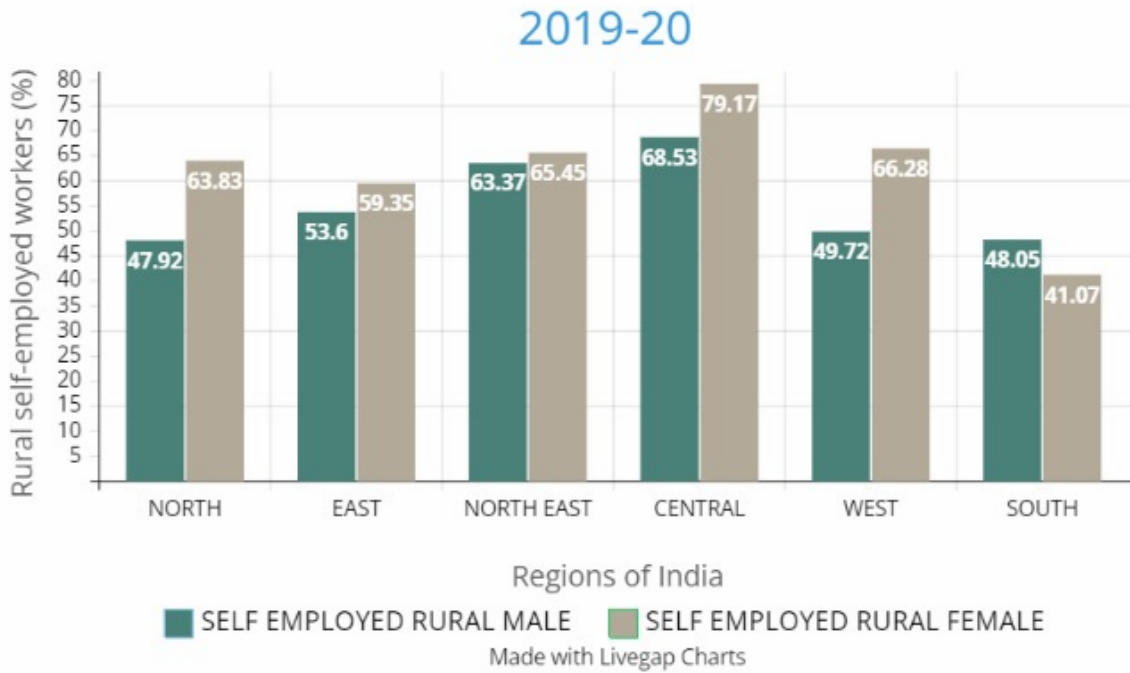
Graph 2(a): Region-wise percentage distribution of urban workers in usual status (ps+ss) by broad status of self-employment (2018-19)
 Source: Calculated by the Author from PLFS data



Graph 2(b): Region-wise percentage distribution of rural workers in usual status (ps+ss) by broad status of self-employment (2018-19)
 Source: Calculated by the Author from PLFS data



Graph 3(a): Region-wise percentage distribution of urban workers in usual status (ps+ss) by broad status of self-employment (2019-20)
 Source: Calculated by the Author from PLFS data



Graph 3(b): Region-wise percentage distribution of rural workers in usual status (ps+ss) by broad status of self-employment (2019-20)
 Source: Calculated by the Author from PLFS data



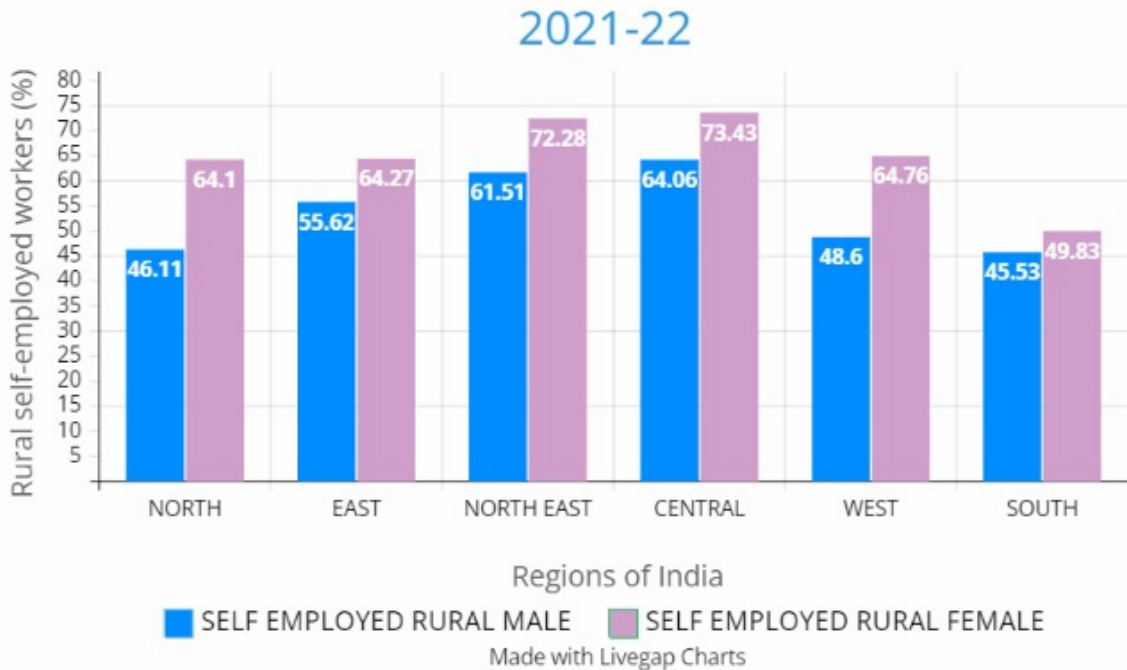
Graph 4(a): Region-wise percentage distribution of urban workers in usual status (ps+ss) by broad status of self-employment (2020-21)
 Source: Calculated by the Author from PLFS data



Graph 4(b): Region-wise percentage distribution of rural workers in usual status (ps+ss) by broad status of self-employment (2020-21)
 Source: Calculated by the Author from PLFS data



Graph 5(a): Region-wise percentage distribution of urban workers in usual status (ps+ss) by broad status of self-employment (2021-22)
 Source: Calculated by the Author from PLFS data



Graph 5(b): Region-wise percentage distribution of rural workers in usual status (ps+ss) by broad status of self-employment (2021-22)
Source: Calculated by the Author from PLFS data

(ii) Self-Employment: Analysis

Hence, the general trend across the period 2017-2023 has been such that the *likelihood of rural women seeking self-employment has increased* in comparison to that of rural men, with this likelihood increasing in recent years. There is overall lesser incidence of urban men and women seeking self-employment, and little to separate the two sexes, but here too is a drift toward the trend established by their rural counterparts: *urban women tend to look for self-employment more than urban men do*, with this likelihood increasing in recent years. This trend is more evident in the Northern half of the country, i.e. the Northern, Eastern and North-Eastern regions.

Why is this seen to be the case? **Why is it seen that women tend to drift toward self-employment more than men do?** There are too many factors at play here, not least of all the difference in the levels of education imparted to the two sexes, a study of which follows shortly. A likely explanation is provided by Kalpagam, however. The author writes,

Many of the women working in this sector do so not out of choice, and many of them have been working all through their lives. Yet at the ideological level they are enmeshed in a patriarchal ideology whereby the man is deemed to be the provider and protector of the family. Acceptance and adoption of this ideology confers status and power in a stratified context and remains a bourgeois ideal for many.

This is likely true in the case of India's rural woman. Inherent strains of patriarchal rigidity, bought into by women over the generations as well, force the women to not unlock their potential productivity. Employment in the formal sector requires women to interact with people

of different genders, castes and religions, which in itself is ideologically against the grain of what traditional Indian society believes in. Not only must the male of the family provide, but also ensure that he provides enough that the woman need not work, especially in the formal setting where ‘unwanted’ social interaction may ensue.

And yet, such is the state of the family that more often than not the rural woman needs must provide for the family too, even if it goes against the bourgeois ideal of the male ego. Forced passively (and possibly actively) to stay away from the formal sector, she slides into the self-employment of various forms: she may end up ferrying water to and from houses of the rural rich, or be their house-help (where she may be termed as being actively helping household enterprises); or take up sewing, embroidery or other form of handicrafts (in which case, she becomes an own-account employer and worker). Kalpagam continues,

There is no denying the fact that for some sections there are cultural constraints on women's mobility which is extended even to their spheres of work, for yet others a bourgeois ideology of restraining women to their homes continues to prevail even after their objective conditions, in particular their immiserization and proletarianization warrants a change in their values.

There is an interesting anecdote here: most of the major religions in India do not allow for women to take an active part in performing rituals and becoming priests. Hindus form the overwhelming majority of Indians and it was only recently that three women from Tamil Nadu were allowed to become priests. The point is, several rural and urban males are engaged in several practices of religion, while females aren't. The right to become a priest is often hereditary and an “endowed” skill at birth in terms of economics, perhaps, for it assures the male who is born in a priest's family to fall back upon priesthood with relative safety. Religion plays an active role in generating self-employment, and leaves out women in this regard as well, for most religions come ingrained with a sense of patriarchy.

Thus, even if the rural men in India manage to find their way into the formal sector, rural women are far less likely to.

(iii) Education and Self-employment: Regression Analysis

While there is general consensus about adverse socio-cultural conditions forcing Indian women into self-employment in place of employment in the formal sector, it is also accepted that it is not the only practical reason which leads to more rural women being self-employed than rural males. The formal sector provides social security and benefits, and conforms to labour laws, but also requires a more developed and specialized skill-set for employment. **Education plays a massive role** in determining who makes it into the formal sector and who remains in the informal sector.

We return to PLFS data, again, to gauge whether there is any difference in patterns of self-employment with regard to levels of education obtained. To study the same, we take the **percentage distribution of persons aged 15 years and above who have completed secondary education and above** to be a measure of the level of education, denoted by a variable E_i for the i^{th} State or UT.

Accordingly, we have S_i denoting the percentage distribution of rural/urban men/women who are self employed. We have the basic, first-order, two-variable, linear regression model as follows

$$S_i = \alpha + \beta E_i + u_i$$

where

α is the intercept parameter of the regression function

β is the coefficient parameter for E_i

u_i is the residual error term

Table 2 (a): Percentage distribution of persons aged 15 years and above who have completed secondary education & above across 36 States and UTs in India in 2022-23

State \ UT	rural male	rural female	urban male	urban female
Andhra Pradesh	40.1	29.4	62.9	49.6
Arunachal Pradesh	37.1	22.6	52.8	39.5
Assam	26.8	19.1	50.5	44.4
Bihar	37.7	22.5	60.9	46.3
Chhattisgarh	35.2	27.7	56.7	50.9
Delhi	59.1	48	57.2	50.6
Goa	52	41.6	60.6	55.8
Gujarat	33.6	21.7	51.4	41.3
Haryana	53.9	33.8	61.4	51.6
Himachal Pradesh	61.2	46.6	73.9	70.2
Jharkhand	32.5	18.6	61.3	51.5
Karnataka	41.5	30.7	66.8	55.8
Kerala	53.2	50.6	55.8	56.3
Madhya Pradesh	27	17	57.5	46.3
Maharashtra	48	31.5	65.6	55.7
Manipur	53.6	39.8	67.5	52.9
Meghalaya	24.9	20.8	61.7	53.5
Mizoram	39.7	21.8	56.6	39.6
Nagaland	44	31.2	66	47.4
Odisha	31	24.1	58.4	46.4
Punjab	45.3	39.1	57.4	56.6
Rajasthan	39	20.7	59.3	42.7
Sikkim	29.6	29.8	43.9	48.2
Tamil Nadu	41.9	35.7	59.3	51.1
Telangana	45.1	31.2	70.3	55.8
Tripura	22.6	15.3	44.8	39.6
Uttarakhand	58.3	40.7	64.4	57.6
Uttar Pradesh	40.4	27.6	56.6	46.8
West Bengal	28.5	23.2	48.8	43.2
A & N Islands	44.5	31.3	58.4	57
Chandigarh	51.4	33.8	69.5	62.7
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	33.2	22.4	42.2	38
Jammu & Kashmir	42.8	28.7	54.2	47.9
Ladakh	44.7	40.6	44.8	48.4
Lakshadweep	68	60.1	65	53
Puducherry	54.9	40.8	68.9	61.4

Source: Annual Report of Periodic Labour Force Survey (2022-23), NSO, MOSPI, Government of India

Using data from Table 1(a) we have data for S_i 's. We regress these observations against E_i 's for each state, and arrive at the following results.

For rural men,

$$S_i = 70.125 - 0.392 E_i \quad (i)$$

(6.899) (0.169)
(p-value: 0.027)

For rural women,

$$S_i = 94.589 - 0.908 E_i \quad (ii)$$

(9.981) (0.364)
(p-value: 0.018)

For urban men,

$$S_i = 56.999 - 0.294 E_i \quad (iii)$$

(12.555) (0.208)
(p-value: 0.067)

For urban women,

$$S_i = 104.988 - 1.186 E_i \quad (iv)$$

(14.969) (0.277)
(p-value: 0.000)

The standard errors used here are the White corrected robust standard error values. For upholding the results obtained in the 2022-23 period, we calculate the same figures for the 2017-22 period in the same way as above, and attach relevant conclusions here. All tables used for this purpose have been attached in the Appendix.

(iv) Education and Self-employment: Inferences

From the above results we have four different equations describing the state of self-employment among rural and urban men and women. The equations have low R-squared values, i.e. the estimates form a **poor fit** overall, owing to the obvious reason that simply education levels do not determine self-employment levels adequately: more variables are needed to estimate a better fit, which have been left out of this analysis for we intend to study only the effects of education on self-employment, and more detailed analysis requires a stronger resource base for research.

The low R-squared values do not render our understanding useless, however, because of the **low p-values** of the regression equations. These indicate that we can reject the null hypothesis that education has no statistically significant effect on self-employment; in fact, the **generally negative** impact that education has on self-employment, as seen from the equations above, support empirical evidence too. Persons completing secondary or higher levels of education generally do not wish to stay self-employed or otherwise employed in the informal sector – better education, higher degrees and more years in formal education translates, usually, into formal-sector jobs.

Thus the negative relationship between self-employment and education is established both empirically and statistically (from the low p-values). The *extent of the negative relationship varies between men and women*, and rather significantly, too, as is evident. A secondary-and-above education causes rural women to move away from self-employment almost 230% more than rural men, as 2022-23 data may suggest. The same figure is almost 400% amongst urban persons, i.e., given the same level of education, **four urban women are more likely to leave self-employment for better work, for every urban man** who is likely to leave self-employment for something better too. In the case of rural areas, the ratio is over two women to every man. This trend is present generally over the period tested, with a slight increasing trend visible.

Why is there an increased propensity among self-employed women to find better work, when given the education or skills required, compared to self-employed men? Why do self-employed men not have the same likelihood to find better work too, when they are given the same skill sets as women?

The answer will make us circle back to where we started: women are more often than not forced into self-employment, actively or passively, and given the opportunity will leave the informal sector. For women who manage to complete a secondary education or higher are generally less constrained by socio-cultural norms by the time they're done, and a formal sector offering becomes easier for them.

This is one of the reasons, but even bigger ones lie in the quality of work and the environment women face self-employed in the informal sector. Self-employed men and women doing the same jobs together face an entirely different set of variables. As Eapen writes accurately,

Perhaps the most demeaning aspect of working in the informal sector is the open and at times subtle sex discrimination in wages... [in addition to] the extremely strenuous work and physical hardships involved in some of the activities in the informal sector, which impact severely on women's health.

The work conditions, sexual discrimination, sexual harassment, and the fact that they were forced into self-employment (actively or passively) anyway all make for compelling reasons for women to be more likely to move out of self-employment than their male counterparts, if given the opportunity.

V. Conclusion

Women have it much harder than men in the informal sector at large and when self-employed in particular in India. There is lesser incidence of self-employment in urban areas compared to rural areas on the whole, and lesser incidence of self-employment in the Southern half of the country compared to the Northern half on the whole. But the trends are distinct and stay true to their nature: in fact, the gulf between men and women in self-employment, especially in rural areas, seems to be increasing over time.

There is an increase in GVA and labour-productivity to be accounted for if women's conditions are taken into account in the informal sector, especially in self-employment, like Murthy calculates. A country where a significant portion of its workforce is employed in a manner it doesn't wish to be is likely to be missing out largely on its economic potential. But there is more to the benefits of helping women in the self-employment sector beyond the numbers.

An interesting study conducted by Behrman and Duvisac talks about how (stated) son preference falls as women manage to engage more and more in formal paid employment. Social stigmas of women and girl-children being economic burdens dissipate when a woman earns a stable income and contributes to the family's finances. This has a strong negative impact on son preference, which has immense negative economic and social connotations in the long run.

The government has initiated and is indulging in several policy actions which further women's cause in this regard. There remains a great divide between intention and implementation, however, and much area for progress remains in India, as is strongly evident.

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Appendix A

Table 1 (b): Percentage distribution of workers in usual status (ps+ss) by broad status of self-employment across 36 States and UTs in India in 2017-18

State/UT (Region)	self-employed rural male	self-employed rural female	self-employed urban male	self-employed urban female
A & N Islands (S)	34	32.7	19.9	12.6
Andhra Pradesh (S)	48.8	41.7	40.2	44.3
Arunachal Pradesh (NE)	71.4	73.1	35.7	24.5
Assam (NE)	62.7	18.5	50.7	32.3
Bihar (E)	56.5	35.2	50.2	25.7
Chandigarh (N)	20.2	36	33.6	27.3
Chhattisgarh (C)	70.9	75.3	32.1	32.2
Dadra & Nagar Haveli (W)	14.8	66.8	13	65.8
Daman & Diu (W)	33.7	26	10	5.1
Delhi (N)	37.8	2.4	34.4	21.9
Goa (W)	20.5	33.1	36.1	23.1
Gujarat (W)	62.6	64.7	43.1	35.8
Haryana (N)	47.9	50.1	37.5	26.4
Himachal Pradesh (N)	55.5	89.8	30.7	48.2
Jammu & Kashmir (N)	53.2	89.5	42.7	45.8
Jharkhand (C)	63.7	78.1	41.3	25.4
Karnataka (S)	58.7	45.2	36	31
Kerala (S)	40.7	30.5	40.9	28.5
Lakshadweep (S)	18.8	0	15.7	4.7
Madhya Pradesh (C)	61.4	60.8	44.5	40.9
Maharashtra (W)	57.6	52.2	34.3	27
Manipur (NE)	69	70.8	50.8	56.8
Meghalaya (NE)	70.8	80.4	33.5	27.7
Mizoram (NE)	79.8	85.1	38.3	44.1
Nagaland (NE)	62.2	63.5	35.8	32.1
Odisha (E)	61.6	52.6	45.9	34.8
Puducherry (S)	25.3	0.8	32.9	16
Punjab (N)	50.1	47.8	42.2	30.3
Rajasthan (W)	64.6	84.8	45.4	44.1
Sikkim (E)	71.3	71.2	44.2	41.5
Tamil Nadu (S)	35.1	34.5	29.5	31.7
Telangana (S)	59.9	54.7	30	31.4
Tripura (NE)	57.8	31.7	40.3	21.5
Uttar Pradesh (N)	65.2	78.5	49.8	46.2
Uttarakhand (N)	63.3	74.4	40	20
West Bengal (E)	49	46	39.3	45.6

Source: Annual Report of Periodic Labour Force Survey (2017-18), NSSO, MOSPI, Government of India

Table 1 (c): Percentage distribution of workers in usual status (ps+ss) by broad status of self-employment across 36 States and UTs in India in 2018-19

State/UT (Region)	self-employed rural male	self-employed rural female	self-employed urban male	self-employed urban female
Chhattisgarh (C)	72.5	78.9	37.7	31.9
Jharkhand (C)	57.8	78.3	38.4	31.7
Madhya Pradesh (C)	59.5	61.4	43.8	44.1
Bihar (E)	58.2	39.8	50.8	41.4
Odisha (E)	60	59.6	40.8	30.6
Sikkim (E)	64.9	77.5	39.4	39.7
West Bengal (E)	48.3	58.4	41.3	52.5
Arunachal Pradesh (NE)	72.7	84.1	41.3	23
Assam (NE)	57	21.1	50.2	20.8
Chandigarh (N)	26.3	22.3	26.1	9.9
Manipur (NE)	60	66	50.2	54.7
Meghalaya (NE)	60	67.9	29.7	32
Mizoram (NE)	79.2	89.1	39.1	56.3
Nagaland (NE)	61.2	76.4	37	38
Tripura (NE)	61.8	39.9	45.4	20.4
Delhi (N)	35.9	6.3	39	25.3
Haryana (N)	45.9	51.8	38.7	23.7
Himachal Pradesh (N)	56.4	87.3	35.4	46.6
Jammu & Kashmir (N)	53.9	90.1	48.7	45.2
Punjab (N)	43.8	50.4	39.6	23.7
Uttar Pradesh (N)	67.2	81.3	47.5	40.9
Uttarakhand (N)	56.1	77.5	43.9	40.8
A & N Islands (S)	38	24.9	26.6	28.7
Andhra Pradesh (S)	45.8	43.4	36.7	36
Karnataka (S)	55.7	43.7	34.5	28.1
Kerala (S)	41	34.2	38	29.7
Lakshadweep (S)	0.2	0	18.5	0
Puducherry (S)	19.3	26.1	32.5	27.8
Tamil Nadu (S)	37.6	40	27.8	27.5
Telangana (S)	61.6	43.9	30.1	33.1
Dadra & Nagar Haveli (W)	23	68.7	14.2	15.2
Daman & Diu (W)	44.4	59.5	24.2	47
Goa (W)	40.9	43.8	42.8	37
Gujarat (W)	62.3	65	40.4	40.1
Maharashtra (W)	56.5	50.1	33.6	26.6
Rajasthan (W)	68.1	85.5	45.8	49.6

Source: Annual Report of Periodic Labour Force Survey (2018-19), NSSO, MOSPI, Government of India

Table 1 (d): Percentage distribution of workers in usual status (ps+ss) by broad status of self-employment across 37 States and UTs in India in 2019-20

State/UT	self-employed rural male	self-employed rural female	self-employed urban male	self-employed urban female
A & N Islands (S)	33	21	17.6	18.2
Andhra Pradesh (S)	46.7	39.9	33	38
Arunachal Pradesh (NE)	75.1	75.6	37.3	26.5
Assam (NE)	58.1	29.5	49	35.7
Bihar (E)	59.4	51.7	59.4	46.4
Chandigarh (N)	9.2	0	26.5	17.4
Chhattisgarh (C)	75.4	80.8	41.5	39.1
Dadra & Nagar Haveli (W)	33.3	83.1	11.7	34.3
Daman & Diu (W)	34	57.1	20.8	36.3
Delhi (N)	62.3	54.7	32.4	11.8
Goa (W)	38.7	63	28.6	18.6
Gujarat (W)	59.2	67.3	41.7	43.1
Haryana (N)	48.2	42.2	33.4	23.3
Himachal Pradesh (N)	54.9	87.5	33.2	32.9
Jammu & Kashmir (N)	48	88.6	47.8	43.9
Jharkhand (C)	66	88.6	40.9	53.9
Karnataka (S)	61.2	51.2	33.6	24.8
Kerala (S)	41	40.6	36.7	32.7
Ladakh (N)	31.4	87.1	47.9	32.7
Lakshadweep (S)	58	37.8	26.2	14.5
Madhya Pradesh (C)	64.2	68.1	39.5	39.4
Maharashtra (W)	54.2	54.6	34.6	30.1
Manipur (NE)	63.1	65.3	47.3	62
Meghalaya (NE)	51.2	60.4	31.1	27.9
Mizoram (NE)	71.4	90.5	46.6	64.3
Nagaland (NE)	67.2	82	42.4	46.2
Odisha (E)	61.2	66.1	39.8	28.6
Puducherry (S)	47.3	48.2	36.5	31
Punjab (N)	46.4	44.1	39.6	28.9
Rajasthan (W)	67.7	82.2	49.5	55.9
Sikkim (E)	53.2	67	32.7	27.8
Tamil Nadu (S)	37.7	41.4	29.6	27.4
Telangana (S)	59.5	48.5	33	32.3
Tripura (NE)	59.6	54.9	48.3	42.9
Uttar Pradesh (N)	67.3	84.1	48.1	44.2
Uttarakhand (N)	63.6	86.2	41	31.4
West Bengal (E)	49.5	56.9	40.7	42.5

Source: Annual Report of Periodic Labour Force Survey (2019-20), NSSO, MOSPI, Government of India

Table 1 (e): Percentage distribution of workers in usual status (ps+ss) by broad status of self-employment across 36 States and UTs in India in 2020-21

State \ UT (Region)	self-employed rural male	self-employed rural female	self-employed urban male	self-employed urban female
A & N Islands (S)	14.1	0	25.9	16.9
Andhra Pradesh (S)	45.4	37.2	37.6	41.1
Arunachal Pradesh (NE)	71.6	79.6	35.9	36
Assam (NE)	58.9	65.2	53	37.9
Bihar (E)	63.9	69.7	54.8	47.5
Chandigarh (N)	35.2	61.4	16	21
Chhattisgarh (C)	71	80.1	38.8	36.5
Dadra & Nagar Haveli (W)	50.5	89.4	46.8	53.3
Daman & Diu (W)	42.7	65.2	47.5	48.4
Delhi (N)	36.2	12.8	31.6	24
Goa (W)	33.6	59.2	36.2	32.9
Gujarat (W)	56.9	67.1	44.1	41.1
Haryana (N)	46.7	53.5	41.6	24.1
Himachal Pradesh (N)	56.5	88.1	35.1	44.3
Jammu & Kashmir (N)	64.4	90.1	43.7	48
Jharkhand (C)	56.4	52.4	31.4	29.3
Karnataka (S)	41.8	37.1	35.7	31.3
Kerala (S)	65.6	65.9	44.3	49.8
Lakshadweep (S)	66.6	13.9	30.6	36.4
Madhya Pradesh (C)	57.4	54.1	34.7	34.5
Maharashtra (W)	56.4	65	48.3	54.7
Manipur (NE)	52.2	53.4	29.9	28.3
Meghalaya (NE)	74.1	91.2	45.8	69
Mizoram (NE)	58.6	78.8	35.8	58.5
Nagaland (NE)	61.3	66.5	47.3	39.8
Odisha (E)	42.8	49.4	44.8	36.9
Puducherry (S)	42.6	40.9	35.5	29
Punjab (N)	70.6	83.3	48.7	49.5
Rajasthan (W)	59	73.8	41.5	46
Sikkim (E)	35.4	37.1	30.1	32.1
Tamil Nadu (S)	68.6	61.3	33	34.8
Telangana (S)	56.2	65.1	42.6	42
Tripura (NE)	62.3	85.9	33.9	39.4
Uttar Pradesh (N)	50.7	55.6	42.9	47.6
Uttarakhand (N)	70.8	87	49.7	53.8
West Bengal (E)	41.6	55.1	23.4	21.4

Source: Annual Report of Periodic Labour Force Survey (2020-21), NSSO, MOSPI, Government of India

Table 1 (f): Percentage distribution of workers in usual status (ps+ss) by broad status of self-employment across 36 States and UTs in India in 2021-22

State /UT (Region)	self-employed rural male	self-employed rural female	self-employed urban male	self-employed urban female
Chhattisgarh (C)	68.7	77.1	37.5	37.2
Jharkhand (C)	57.1	88.6	43.3	56.4
Madhya Pradesh (C)	66.4	72.6	42.3	43.4
Bihar (E)	59.9	58.4	52.2	45.4
Odisha (E)	60	68.2	41.7	44.5
Sikkim (E)	53.7	66.9	34	39.2
West Bengal (E)	48.9	63.6	41.5	44.1
Delhi (N)	27.1	4	33.3	17.3
Haryana (N)	49	55.9	36.5	24.6
Himachal Pradesh (N)	58.2	86.5	34.2	46.9
Punjab (N)	44.3	51.4	42.6	36.7
Uttarakhand (N)	55.7	83	39.9	38.6
Uttar Pradesh (N)	69.5	87.9	51.7	60.5
Chandigarh (N)	19.3	35.3	26.2	30.6
Jammu & Kashmir (N)	49.4	93.4	42.8	60.5
Ladakh (N)	42.5	79.5	31.8	42.1
Arunachal Pradesh (NE)	74.4	84.8	36.8	50
Assam (NE)	59.6	70.6	51.3	39.6
Manipur (NE)	64.7	75.7	52.9	66
Meghalaya (NE)	46	57.9	24.7	29
Mizoram (NE)	72.3	92.8	48.4	72.1
Nagaland (NE)	56.2	82.1	42.8	71.9
Tripura (NE)	57.4	42.1	47.9	31.5
Andhra Pradesh (S)	46.8	43	37	40
Karnataka (S)	56.2	52.1	36.2	25.6
Kerala (S)	41.1	35	38	36.6
Tamil Nadu (S)	39.1	41.5	31.3	32.9
Telangana (S)	77	69.7	40.2	34.5
A & N Islands (S)	45.7	78	24.6	25.7
Lakshadweep (S)	28.2	34	21.9	14.6
Puducherry (S)	30.2	45.4	36.3	25.4
Goa (W)	42.8	43.9	33.5	32.8
Gujarat (W)	59	71.4	37.2	53.2
Maharashtra (W)	52.8	53.9	34.6	31.7
Rajasthan (W)	66.6	86.6	45.6	53.1
Dadra & Nagar Haveli (W)	21.8	68	8.9	23.5

Source: Annual Report of Periodic Labour Force Survey (2021-22), NSSO, MOSPI, Government of India

Appendix B

Table 2 (b): Percentage distribution of persons aged 15 years and above who have completed secondary education & above across 36 States and UTs in India in 2017-18

State/UT (Region)	above secondary rural male	above secondary rural female	above secondary urban male	above secondary urban female
A & N Islands (S)	38.4	36.3	56.1	55.1
Andhra Pradesh (S)	31.6	19.4	53.6	41.9
Arunachal Pradesh (NE)	38.8	16.4	62.3	41.6
Assam (NE)	30.3	20.6	53	43.5
Bihar (E)	35.8	19.5	58.2	42.4
Chandigarh (N)	60.1	54	67.6	64.5
Chhattisgarh (C)	29.2	17.4	50.1	39.7
Dadra & Nagar Haveli (W)	35.2	17.8	54.7	54.6
Daman & Diu (W)	45.8	27.6	51.2	43.3
Delhi (N)	53.6	35.4	56.9	45.7
Goa (W)	52.9	38.5	63	53.9
Gujarat (W)	37.6	20.6	55.6	42.3
Haryana (N)	45.8	27.2	62.6	49.5
Himachal Pradesh (N)	59.8	42.9	74.4	65.6
Jammu & Kashmir (N)	43.7	26.2	55.7	48.4
Jharkhand (C)	30.7	16.9	60.9	46.6
Karnataka (S)	38.5	25.1	58.6	51.1
Kerala (S)	46.6	45.8	53.9	52
Lakshadweep (S)	71.1	32.2	50.4	38.6
Madhya Pradesh (C)	26.8	13.5	55.5	42
Maharashtra (W)	44.1	27.5	64.1	53
Manipur (NE)	49.1	32.8	66.6	52.6
Meghalaya (NE)	23.3	16.4	56	48.1
Mizoram (NE)	32.3	26.9	53.1	48.7
Nagaland (NE)	47.6	30.2	62.2	51
Odisha (E)	29.6	20.5	58.6	46.5
Puducherry (S)	53	54.2	62.4	51.7
Punjab (N)	43.2	36.8	54.7	52.4
Rajasthan (W)	34	15	54.1	38.4
Sikkim (E)	34.4	28.6	48.7	53.1
Tamil Nadu (S)	38.9	29	56.2	47.8
Telangana (S)	43.5	26.5	66.3	49
Tripura (NE)	26.4	17.8	47.6	35.9
Uttar Pradesh (N)	37.4	23.6	54	44.8
Uttarakhand (N)	52.2	32.9	62.7	51.5
West Bengal (E)	24.3	18.9	45.8	38.2

Source: Annual Report of Periodic Labour Force Survey (2017-18), NSSO, MOSPI, Government of India

Table 2 (c): Percentage distribution of persons aged 15 years and above who have completed secondary education & above across 36 States and UTs in India in 2018-19

State \ UT (Region)	above secondary rural male	above secondary rural female	above secondary urban male	above secondary urban female
Chhattisgarh (C)	67.4	29.8	73.8	25.5
Jharkhand (C)	69.2	20.8	69.6	10.5
Madhya Pradesh (C)	68.9	14.5	67.6	16.9
Bihar (E)	60.4	3.4	63.6	10.7
Odisha (E)	68.8	18.6	69.5	19.4
Sikkim (E)	73.9	47.3	72.1	44.3
West Bengal (E)	71.7	15.4	69.2	22.6
Arunachal Pradesh (NE)	52.5	17.7	62.1	23.6
Assam (NE)	64.2	15	67.3	19.4
Chandigarh (N)	71	7.4	72.9	30
Manipur (NE)	70.3	32.3	67.1	32.9
Meghalaya (NE)	67.9	51.3	62.2	34.7
Mizoram (NE)	62	23.5	59.7	33.3
Nagaland (NE)	73.2	25.1	66.5	27
Tripura (NE)	64.3	22.1	65.5	28.2
Delhi (N)	87.3	31	72.6	18
Haryana (N)	71.6	12.2	72.4	22
Himachal Pradesh (N)	75.8	59.9	68.1	29.1
Jammu & Kashmir (N)	74.6	31	68.7	29.7
Punjab (N)	70.1	19	74.6	21.4
Uttar Pradesh (N)	65.4	9.7	64.9	9.2
Uttarakhand (N)	64.7	23.5	67.8	22.9
A & N Islands (S)	79.5	53	83	43.7
Andhra Pradesh (S)	69.4	34	69.5	24.9
Karnataka (S)	72.9	17.2	75.2	20.1
Kerala (S)	66.4	35	69.3	36
Lakshadweep (S)	86.6	25.2	71.9	33.3
Puducherry (S)	82.7	35.6	68.3	27.6
Tamil Nadu (S)	71	32.2	68.7	26.6
Telangana (S)	71.1	30.6	71.9	24
Dadra & Nagar Haveli (W)	80.3	64.1	91.5	20.7
Daman & Diu (W)	90.7	15.7	83.7	8.8
Goa (W)	67.6	40.8	76.6	36.9
Gujarat (W)	72.9	20.7	75.7	18.3
Maharashtra (W)	70.9	28	70.4	22.7
Rajasthan (W)	65.5	21.6	70.8	19

Source: Annual Report of Periodic Labour Force Survey (2018-19), NSSO, MOSPI, Government of India

Table 2 (d): Percentage distribution of persons aged 15 years and above who have completed secondary education & above across 36 States and UTs in India in 2019-20

State/UT	above secondary rural male	above secondary rural female	above secondary urban male	above secondary urban female
A & N Islands (S)	72.4	59.3	80.4	45
Andhra Pradesh (S)	72.3	32.8	70.6	24.2
Arunachal Pradesh (NE)	60.6	27.7	66.9	27.2
Assam (NE)	65.5	19.7	70.3	25.4
Bihar (E)	58.9	4.8	61.1	8.4
Chandigarh (N)	79.4	9.3	73.7	21
Chhattisgarh (C)	76.5	36.8	76.2	25.5
Dadra & Nagar Haveli (W)	70.7	71.3	89.2	21.7
Daman & Diu (W)	77.7	24.2	90.4	35
Delhi (N)	73.6	30.4	70.4	17.6
Goa (W)	77.9	25.1	76.6	38.6
Gujarat (W)	70.1	28.6	75	19
Haryana (N)	73.4	13.6	71.5	22.7
Himachal Pradesh (N)	81.5	66.8	75.2	36.8
Jammu & Kashmir (N)	69.9	36.6	72.6	36.2
Jharkhand (C)	68.8	27.2	69	14.8
Karnataka (S)	77.2	29.9	70.1	27.1
Kerala (S)	72.7	38.5	70.2	34.1
Ladakh (N)	61.2	49.3	75.8	48.8
Lakshadweep (S)	54.6	44.2	87.3	40.8
Madhya Pradesh (C)	72.5	24.9	71.1	21.6
Maharashtra (W)	71.9	31.7	71.9	27.4
Manipur (NE)	68.4	29.6	69.5	39.3
Meghalaya (NE)	65.8	45.6	67.2	35.5
Mizoram (NE)	63.9	33.9	63.2	37
Nagaland (NE)	73	44.4	70.1	37.2
Odisha (E)	73.7	25	72.2	22.5
Puducherry (S)	83	41.7	65.6	32.8
Punjab (N)	77.4	25.7	76	24
Rajasthan (W)	66.1	24.3	70	18.3
Sikkim (E)	75.2	64.4	79.7	47.2
Tamil Nadu (S)	71.4	30.4	72.5	31.9
Telangana (S)	72.3	39.5	73.1	27.2
Tripura (NE)	72.6	19.8	72.2	20
Uttar Pradesh (N)	69.9	11.3	68	14.5
Uttarakhand (N)	72.4	35.3	75.8	21.5
West Bengal (E)	73.1	17.3	71.1	25.6

Source: Annual Report of Periodic Labour Force Survey (2019-20), NSSO, MOSPI, Government of India

Table 2 (e): Percentage distribution of persons aged 15 years and above who have completed secondary education & above across 36 States and UTs in India in 2020-21

State \UT (Region)	above secondary rural male	above secondary rural female	above secondary urban male	above secondary urban female
A & N Islands (S)	77.7	14	65.3	28.3
Andhra Pradesh (S)	71.7	36.4	73	29.3
Arunachal Pradesh (NE)	64.7	32.5	66.2	31.7
Assam (NE)	72	26.6	72.8	25.4
Bihar (E)	56.6	6.4	60.8	7.6
Chandigarh (N)	64	59.7	74.1	18.1
Chhattisgarh (C)	68.5	35.8	72.4	22.8
Dadra & Nagar Haveli (W)	65.9	38.8	70.3	33.8
Daman & Diu (W)	78.7	80.2	75.5	40.7
Delhi (N)	61.6	7.9	67.1	15.6
Goa (W)	58.3	47	72.7	32.3
Gujarat (W)	72.6	30.4	74.9	20.4
Haryana (N)	72.4	15	70.2	20.7
Himachal Pradesh (N)	82.4	65.6	72.6	30.6
Jammu & Kashmir (N)	75.5	43.2	70.8	17.8
Jharkhand (C)	77.2	28.4	74.9	25.3
Karnataka (S)	74.5	38.8	69	36.6
Kerala (S)	71.3	23.7	72.2	20.8
Lakshadweep (S)	59.3	24.4	79	27.7
Madhya Pradesh (C)	72.8	29.9	71.5	25.5
Maharashtra (W)	60.5	20.5	64.8	30.3
Manipur (NE)	64.1	47.7	65.4	39.4
Meghalaya (NE)	64.2	36	62.9	37.1
Mizoram (NE)	75.5	51.4	70.9	37.3
Nagaland (NE)	71.5	21.9	71.8	24.8
Odisha (E)	75.2	20.5	76.9	22.3
Puducherry (S)	80.5	19.1	71.6	33.3
Punjab (N)	67.3	20.9	67.4	17.5
Rajasthan (W)	75.8	53.9	80.6	42.9
Sikkim (E)	71.1	34.6	74.2	29.7
Tamil Nadu (S)	70.8	37.2	71.5	24.5
Telangana (S)	75.1	28.9	68.2	24.8
Tripura (NE)	69.1	28.6	69.2	19.9
Uttar Pradesh (N)	72.5	21	70.4	23.4
Uttarakhand (N)	72.2	16.9	68.4	13.3
West Bengal (E)	78.4	57.6	79.2	49.6

Source: Annual Report of Periodic Labour Force Survey (2020-21), NSSO, MOSPI, Government of India

Table 2 (f): Percentage distribution of persons aged 15 years and above who have completed secondary education & above across 36 States and UTs in India in 2021-22

State \ UT	above secondary rural male	above secondary rural female	above secondary urban male	above secondary urban female
A & N Islands (S)	44.5	31.3	58.4	57
Andhra Pradesh (S)	40.1	29.4	62.9	49.6
Arunachal Pradesh (NE)	37.1	22.6	52.8	39.5
Assam (NE)	26.8	19.1	50.5	44.4
Bihar (E)	37.7	22.5	60.9	46.3
Chandigarh (N)	51.4	33.8	69.5	62.7
Chhattisgarh (C)	35.2	27.7	56.7	50.9
Dadra & Nagar Haveli (W)	33.2	22.4	42.2	38
Delhi (N)	59.1	48	57.2	50.6
Goa (W)	52	41.6	60.6	55.8
Gujarat (W)	33.6	21.7	51.4	41.3
Haryana (N)	53.9	33.8	61.4	51.6
Himachal Pradesh (N)	61.2	46.6	73.9	70.2
Jammu & Kashmir (N)	42.8	28.7	54.2	47.9
Jharkhand (C)	32.5	18.6	61.3	51.5
Karnataka (S)	41.5	30.7	66.8	55.8
Kerala (S)	53.2	50.6	55.8	56.3
Ladakh (N)	44.7	40.6	44.8	48.4
Lakshadweep (S)	68	60.1	65	53
Madhya Pradesh (C)	27	17	57.5	46.3
Maharashtra (W)	48	31.5	65.6	55.7
Manipur (NE)	53.6	39.8	67.5	52.9
Meghalaya (NE)	24.9	20.8	61.7	53.5
Mizoram (NE)	39.7	21.8	56.6	39.6
Nagaland (NE)	44	31.2	66	47.4
Odisha (E)	31	24.1	58.4	46.4
Puducherry (S)	54.9	40.8	68.9	61.4
Punjab (N)	45.3	39.1	57.4	56.6
Rajasthan (W)	39	20.7	59.3	42.7
Sikkim (E)	29.6	29.8	43.9	48.2
Tamil Nadu (S)	41.9	35.7	59.3	51.1
Telangana (S)	45.1	31.2	70.3	55.8
Tripura (NE)	22.6	15.3	44.8	39.6
Uttar Pradesh (N)	40.4	27.6	56.6	46.8
Uttarakhand (N)	58.3	40.7	64.4	57.6
West Bengal (E)	28.5	23.2	48.8	43.2

Source: Annual Report of Periodic Labour Force Survey (2021-22), NSSO, MOSPI, Government of India