

IMPACT OF DEMONETISATION ON IMMIGRANT CONSTRUCTION WORKERS IN KERALA



INTER UNIVERSITY CENTRE FOR ALTERNATIVE ECONOMICS
University of Kerala, Kariavattom Campus

IMPACT OF DEMONETISATION ON IMMIGRANT CONSTRUCTION WORKERS IN KERALA

Dr. Liji K.T.



Report submitted to
Inter University Centre for Alternative Economics
Department of Economics
University of Kerala
2017

Internship Report

Chief Editor

A Abdul Salim

Editors

Dr. Vijayamohanan Pillai

Siddik Rabiyyath

Dr A.K Prasad

Dr. Manju S Nair

Dr. Anitha V

Type Setting and Office Assistance

Mubarak Karim, Kavya Murali Parthasarathy

Reshma R

Printed at

Copyright © 2017, IUCAE, University of Kerala

First Edition Published in February 2017

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system, or transmitted, in any form without the prior permission in writing from the IUCAE. Enquiries concerning reproduction outside the scope of the above should be sent to the Honorary Director, IUCAE.

DECLARATION

This report “**Impact of demonetisation on immigrant construction workers in Kerala**” is a bonafide work done by me under the supervision of Prof. Abdul Salim A and has not been previously formed the basis for award of any degree, diploma , associateship, fellowship or other similar title or recognition.

Kariavattom
2017

Dr. Liji K.T.

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that this report “**Impact of demonetisation on immigrant construction workers in Kerala**” is a record of bonafide work carried out by Dr.Liji K.T. under my supervision. No part of this report has been submitted for the award of any degree or diploma of any university.

Kariavattom
2017

Prof. Abdul Salim A
Honorary Director

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I sincerely express my deep sense of gratitude to Dr. Abdul Salim, Honorary Director, Inter University centre for Alternative Economics, for his cooperation and guidance. This work is the result of his exquisite efforts and generous attitude.

I take this opportunity to express my profound gratitude to all faculty members, Department of Economics, Mercy College, Palakkad for the support and help in pursuing my study.

My heartfelt thanks to Anjuna T.R., Research Scholar, Bharathiyar University for her intensive support and valuable guidance went a long way towards the successful completion of this work.

I also extend sincere gratitude to the technical assistant Ms. Reshma, IUCAE who helped me to complete my work.

I owe and respectfully offer thanks to my noble parents for their constant moral support which helped me to complete this work successfully.

I am thankful to all my friends for assisting and supporting me to accomplish my work. I sincerely acknowledge the efforts of all those who have directly or indirectly helped in completing my work successfully.

Dr. Liji K.T.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Human migration is a universal phenomenon. The characteristic feature of labour in India is its migratory character. Migration has provided the single most dynamic factor in the otherwise dismal scenario of Kerala in the last quarter of the twentieth century. Initially, emigration of skilled labour did not create any major bottleneck back home, but their continued emigration resulted in significant scarcity of skilled workers in the state.

The scarcity was followed inevitably by increases in wage rates. After a lapse of about 60 years, Kerala is again becoming a net in- migrating state. As soon as a contractor takes up a construction or road work, he appoints an agent to recruit workers not only from neighbouring states but also from states as far away as Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, and West Bengal. Emigration of workers from Kerala, demographic contraction of the supply of young workers brought about by rapid demographic transition in the state, higher wage rates of Kerala workers, ability of Kerala workers to sustain themselves with remittances from relatives even without work for long periods, reluctance on the part of Kerala workers to do hard physical work- all these have engendered the era of replacement migration in Kerala. Modi government's demonetisation scheme has brought an unexpected windfall for migrant workers from several states engaged in construction sector of Punjab

In the light of above discussion, this paper is attempt to study on **“Impact of demonetisation on immigrant construction workers in Kerala”**

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

The flow of economically active persons for the purposes of employment is supposed to be the predominant form of contemporary international migration. The past few decades have seen massive departure from less developed nations to the more developed ones, usually for employment, higher earnings, more freedom and better quality of life. Although not all migration has been purely economic in motivation, nor has it been voluntary, nevertheless massive migration has profound implications both for the supplier and the host country.

With the globalisation of the economy, the interdependence of the economies has been blurred to a degree never seen before. At a time when new borders are emerging and barriers between nations are collapsing, we notice a veritable thirst among the peoples. In the wake of globalisation of the economy and aftermath of the cold war, we are swamped in the multicultural pursuits and discourses which assume the emergence of a New World Order.

The characteristic feature of labour in India is its migratory character. Therefore, migration of labour assumes great significance in the Indian economy. Migration is thought to be the consequence of unequal development where in people from 'backward' regions move to 'developed' regions. These developed regions may either be prosperous rural areas or the expanding urban areas where the people from the regions of less employment and income opportunities flock.

During the last few decades activities related to construction have emerged as an important economic sector in most large and medium-sized urban centres in the country. Since the early fifties a sizeable proportion of the aggregate investment in India has most seemingly been going to construction. Most workers in the construction sector come from the rural areas. While a part of this labour force is floating and move to these sectors seasonally, a group develops a long-time association with the industry that makes it more or less settled in urban centres and also significantly dependent upon it. Often such groups come from the categories of landless or marginal agricultural labourers and farmers who get trapped into compromising between subsistence wages in urban areas and marginalised situation in rural areas. Their growing dependence on the sector compels them to move from one employer to another or from one work-site to another.

Migration has provided the single most dynamic factor in the otherwise dismal scenario of Kerala in the last quarters of the twentieth century. It is one of the positive outcomes of the Kerala Model of Development. The role of foreign remittances in the economy of the state of Kerala in India in the form of money sent by its workers in the Gulf countries is now widely acknowledged. Initially, emigration of skilled labour did not create any major bottleneck back home, but their continued emigration resulted in significant scarcity of skilled workers in the state.

At present the state Kerala provides higher wage rates among the states in India. The differentials in wage rates between Kerala and neighbouring states received the attention of workers in other states. Migration of workers seeking employment in Kerala from other states like West Bengal, Bihar, Orissa, Chandigarh apart from the workers already present in this state from Tamil Nadu are increasing.

1.1 Review of Literature

The most important reason for voluntary migration is economic. Better economic opportunities attract the labour to move from one place to another. That is true for both-international as well as internal migration. Helan Safa has remarked, "Migration is normally viewed as an economic phenomenon though, non-economic factor obviously have some bearing, most studies conscious that migrants leave their area of origin primarily because of lack of economic opportunities in the hopes of finding better opportunities elsewhere".

Tondon and Singh (2007) made a study on rural-urban migration in India : status and direction revealed that India ranks quite low among the countries of the world in the degree of urbanisation, few reasons can be attributed to it – net migration from rural areas, agricultural economy, natural increase of urban population. Since the process of urbanisation started in India about a decade, it has not gathered enough momentum so as to enable it to absorb a significant chunk of the rural population. They realised that there is variation in urbanisation at state level. Few states are more urbanised as compared to others. The level of urbanisation and absolute number of urban population shows two different pictures for example: Uttar Pradesh level of urbanisation is low i.e. only 2.7 percent population is urban level in absolute number it has 34,51,300 which makes it as one of five most urban states.

Sidhu and Naresh (2005) made an attempt to identify the push and pull factors which influence workers inter-state migration, on the basis of perceptions of workers. A sample of 200 workers drawn from 25 brick-kiln located in three districts of Punjab was interviewed. This study found that industrial development, better job opportunities and comparatively higher wages in Punjab have emerged as the most important pull factors which motivate labour to migrate. Lack of development, inadequate agricultural land and poor economic conditions of family forced labour to migrate out of its native place. The study further found that economic factors have emerged more significant as compared to non-economic factors in the process of migration. Study recommends that in view of the slow absorption rate in the urban industrial sector, the labour migration should be regulated. Concrete plans and their effective implementation are necessary in order to minimize the difference between the economic opportunities in urban and rural sectors.

Catalina et al. (2006) used data of Mexico while studying about "Migration, remittances and male and female employment patterns". They traced the impact of international remittances on the labour supply of working-age, men and women in Mexico. They accounted for the endogeneity of remittance income and examined differences in the hours worked in various type of employment by men and women in urban and rural areas, owing to their remittance income. Remittances may reduce or increase work hours depending on the gender of the recipient, the location of the household, and the type of work. The income effect appears to dominate in the case of women in rural areas, who seem to be using

remittances to purchase durables. Higher remittance appeared to be associated with a reduced male labour supply in informal sector work and urban self-employment.

During the year 1992 The Council for Social Development, Hyderabad, had undertaken a study on 'Migrant Labours in Mahabubnagar District' (Usha Rao, 1993) sponsored by the DADA, Mahabubnagar. The study mainly focused on the socio- economic characteristics of the migrant labour households, causative factors responsible for migration, nature and pattern of migration and impact of migration. The study also tried to assess the kind of assistance that the Government could render to improve their socio-economic status and thereby reduce or prevent the migration and finally possible measure for development and welfare of migrant labours were suggested. The study made use of structural schedules and also case studies to obtain an in depth knowledge of the problems faced by the migrants.

Migration studies with a focus on women, unwaveringly highlight women's income/wage earning work as integral to the understanding of households survival strategy. A study by Kasturi (1990) on 'Women at Delhi' presented a broad view of the consequences of urban poverty for women and the family. The study indicated a highly complex occupational specialisation based on religion, caste and region of origin. The significant findings were:

1. The seeming relationship of the women's traditional economic role in the family and the likelihood of her being able to adapt her skills to the urban situation.
2. The concept of ritual pollution associated with traditional caste occupations carried over to urban occupation.

Ramesh (2007) in his study on 'Out-Migration of Labour from Rural Areas' mentioned that about 60 percent of the agricultural labourers interviewed reported that they usually move to other places as there was not sufficient work in the local villages. Another 21 percent go to other places as they are already part of some informal group working in those places. Only eight percent go in the expectation of higher villages. Palamur in Andhra Pradesh was the study area. The migrant labourers of this area are popularly known as 'Palamur Labour'. The migrant labour of this district is estimated to be about three lakhs, highest for any other district in the state. These labourers are historically known for migration to outside of the state for construction work. 300 migrant labourers were selected from villages like Kosyi, Achampet and Shadnagar. Information is collected from observation and interview schedules. The study concluded that all the drought prone districts of Andhra Pradesh face the most chronic and extensive seasonal out-migration .

Freeman (2006) studied about the causes and consequences of immigration and showed that people flows are large and growing but remain smaller than the trade and capital flows, and thus represent a promising way to attain global economic benefits. Greater mobility of labour across borders could raise the output and economic well being of workers in developing countries. Recipient countries could experience modest gain as well, but because immigration can be economically and culturally disruptive, countries are unlikely to favour free immigration event to the moderate extent that they favour free trade. People flows will become more important in globalisation and should help to reduce global inequality among workers around the world.

Nair (2005) made a study on "Migrant Labourers from Kerala and the Impact on Household Economy". The sample design adopted for National Family Health Survey (NFHS) is a systematic, multi-stage stratified sample of households. The universe consisted of all urban and rural areas of the state from the entire fourteen districts. It was designed to provide estimates for the state as a whole and for urban and rural areas separately. The total number of households interviewed was 4387 (72.2percent) from rural areas and 1220 (27.8 percent) from urban areas. The analysis found that there were more Muslim migrants (42 percent) than Hindu (37 percent) and Christian (21.2 percent) migrants. Majority (68

percent) of the migrants households have fairly good houses now. Its relevant to not that majority of the house are located in rural areas. However, only 39 percent of the households posses some cultivable land. This shows a glimpse of the pattern of utilisation of remittances in Kerala.

The interim report point out that demonetisation has brought about a huge cash shortage, with severe restrictions on access to currency. The shortage has a significant impact in the Indian economy, which has a relatively high cash-to-GDP ratio and in which more than 90 percent of transactions are estimated to be in cash. The immediate consequence of the cash crunch has been a severe curtailment of effective demand. A number of features of Kerala's economy have made it particularly vulnerable to the adverse impact of the poorly planned and implemented demonetisation exercise. First, cash transactions are predominant in the state's economy. Secondly, some of the major contributors by sector to the state's economy are in the informal or unorganised sector, where cash transactions dominate. Millions of people in Kerala are dependent on incomes gained in the traditional sectors of fisheries, coir, handlooms, and cashew processing as well as in crop and plantation agriculture. More than a two and half million migrant workers work as wage labourers in the state. Thirdly, the three-tiered cooperative banking structure, with PACS at the bottom of the pyramid, is an overwhelmingly large part of the financial structure.

1.2 Statement of the problem

In the early phase of Gulf emigration from Kerala, the emigrants had been mostly non-agricultural labourers with low levels of education. They also included some skilled workers like carpenters, masons, and electricians. The emigration of the unemployed unskilled workers had helped reduction of unemployment. The money they sent home accelerated the construction industry and thus helped further reduction of unemployment.

Initially, emigration of skilled labour had not created any major bolltleneck back home, but their continued emigration resulted in significant scarcity of skilled workers in the state. It is often said that it is easy to find a plastic surgeon in Kerala than a good carpenter. The scarcity was followed inevitably by increases in wage rates. After a lapse of about 60 years, Kerala is again becoming a net in- migrating state. As soon as a contractor takes up a construction or road work, he appoints an agent to recruit workers not only from neighbouring states but also from states as far away as Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, and West Bengal. Emigration of workers from Kerala, demographic contraction of the supply of young workers brought about by rapid demographic transition in the state, higher wage rates of Kerala workers, ability of Kerala workers to sustain themselves with remittances from relatives even without work for long periods, reluctance on the part of Kerala workers to do hard physical work- all these have engendered the era of replacement migration in Kerala.

The migrant workers are not paid Kerala level wages. The contract system of employment is also increasing in this state. And they began to move into Kerala and to take up work, especially in the construction sector. What started as a trickle soon assumed the dimensions of a torrent in the course of a few years? Thus started the era of replacement migration to Kerala. But the Demonetisation seems to have triggered a massive exodus of migrant workers from Kerala. There has been a 20-30 per cent decline in jobs in the last 2-3 weeks, especially in the construction sectors. Since many of the migrant workers do not have bank accounts, company owners are forced to pay them in cash. But the manufacturers said they were struggling to get new currencies, prompting many labourers to return home.

In the light of above discussion, the current study on, "**Impact of demonetisation on immigrant construction workers in Kerala**", has been undertaken with the following objectives.

1.3 The objectives of the study

The main objectives of the study are as follows

1. To identify the socio –economic factors responsible for migration.
2. To examine the changes in employment, wages and other living conditions of the workers after migration
3. Study the expenditure pattern and remittance behaviour of migrant workers.
4. Highlight the problems faced by the migrant workers
5. To study the rehabilitation measures taken by the government.

1.4 Hypotheses

To achieve the objectives of the study, the main hypotheses formulated for the present study are as follows

1. There are changes in employment, wages and other living conditions of the workers after migration.
2. Whether the respondents differed in their opinions on the severity of the problems faced in their working areas.
3. Migration of workers is enhancing the expenditure pattern of the migrants.
4. Finance is the main reason for migration.

1.5 Scope and significance of the study

Migrant workers, seeking employment in Kerala from other states like West Bengal, Bihar, Odissa, Chattisgarh, Jarkhand etc, apart from the workers already present in this state from Tamil Nadu are increasing. These workers are subjected to inhuman exploitation by paying low wages at below subsistence level and forcing them to work under shabby conditions at work place. They are nomadic type of job seekers and once they get into the work situation they enjoy it and leave it to another place for new assignment. Health, environmental parameters and even money is not a problem for them. They work and live in the same place without the knowledge of privileges they are entitled to get. A large number of them are also suffering from contagious diseases due to lack of sanitation and healthy environment. The contract system of employment is also increasing in our state. But compared to the migrant workers, the local workers are well organised and succeed in getting decent wages and working conditions. Awareness programmes are being conducted by the state for the migrant workers. The relatively higher wages and the general atmosphere of better respect, status and protection to labour in Kerala as compared to that in their home states have attracted migrant labour to the state.

This is a pioneering work as far the researcher is concerned. The researcher has not come across a study which covers the “Impact of demonetisation on replacement migration on construction sector to Kerala. However it is felt that this study can be utilised for any new policies coming up on this subject. So the researcher has attempted to evaluate the impact of replacement migration on wages and employment on construction sector in Kerala.

1.6 Methodology

The methodology followed for the study on “**Impact of demonetisation on immigrant construction workers in Kerala**” is discussed under the following headings:

- 1.6.1 Selection of the area
- 1.6.2 Selection of the sample
- 1.6.3 Source of data
- 1.6.4 Period of the study
- 1.6.5 Quantitative techniques
- 1.6.6 Limitations

1.6.1 Selection of the Area

To carry out the study the investigator has selected Ernakulam district of Kerala state. Kerala means the “land of coconuts”. It is a small state situated in the South west corner of India. The state of Kerala was formed on 1st November 1956 by uniting Travancore Cochin State and Malabar under the states Reorganization Act of 1958. The state covers an area of 38,863 sq.km. It lies between north latitude 8’18” and East longitude 74’52” and 77’22”. Kerala is separated from the rest of India by Western Ghats in the East and Arabian sea in the west. It is bounded by Karnataka in the North, Tamil Nadu in the East and South and Arabian sea in the West. As per 2011 Census, the total population of Kerala is 33,387,677 crores and which accounts for 3.47 percent of the total population of India. Kerala has a total of fourteen districts. . For the current study, Ernakulam district has been selected because 1) the people are more enterprising in the non-farm activities than farm activities, 2) studies are not available on the impact of demonetisation migrant workers of Ernakulam, 3) Ernakulam is known as the commercial capital of Kerala. In this study out of 15 block panchayaths, 13 municipalities and one corporation of Ernakulam district, three panchayats , two municipalities and one corporation were selected, based on simple random sampling method

1.6.2 Selection of the Sample

According to an ILO study (1972) reported by Meier (1984), the characteristics of informal sector are : “easy of entry, reliance on indigenous resource, family ownership of enterprise, small scale operation, labour-intensive and adopted technology, skills acquired outside the formal school system and unregulated and competitive market”. Because of these characteristics, the workers are appointed at a lower wages with less job security.

To know the consequences of migration 60 families were surveyed who lived near the accommodation of the migrant workers. And the researcher selected the migrant workers those who have completed minimum 1 year of stay in the district of Ernakulam. Majority of the migrant population in the selected area are engaged in construction works. This study is based on primary data, collected from a random sample of 200 respondents drawn from the selected area.

1.6.3 Source of Data

The data for the study were selected through primary source by administering an interview schedule (Appendix) among the respondents of the study and data needed for the study were thus obtained. An interview schedule method was used to collect the information from the respondents. Interview makes it possible a face to face meeting and enables a process of interstimulation between investigator and interviewee and this helps in securing the data not obtainable by method that do not involve interpersonal relationship (Gupta, 2005).

1.6.4 Period of the Study

The study was conducted during the period of February 2017 to May 2017.

1.6.5 Quantitative Techniques

4.5.1 Bar diagram

4.5.2 Sub-divided bar diagram

4.5.3 Pie Diagram

1.6.6 Limitations

The study covers only the respondents, who are employed in the selected occupations. It doesn't cover all the types of occupations. During the course of study the researcher could reveal that the migrants and the contractors are reluctant to open out the factors fully. The frequent movements from the cite to cite also were another problem faced by the researcher.

1.7 Plan of the study

The study is arranged in six chapters. A brief description of the content of each chapter is given below.

Chapter I: - The first chapter gives an introduction to the topic explaining the review of literature, statement of problem, objectives of the study, hypotheses and scope and significance of the study, methodology and limitations.

Chapter II: - The Second chapter deals with the analysis of data and its interpretations. This chapter is divided into 3 chapters

Chapter III: - It gives a detailed study on socio economic condition of immigrant workers

Chapter IV: - It deals with work profile of the immigrant workers

Chapter V: - It explains the problems and prospectus of immigrant workers in Kerala

Chapter VI: - The sixth chapter deals with important findings and conclusions of the study. The findings and conclusions reveal the impact of replacement migration to Kerala. The researcher has put forward some suggestions to improve the conditions of the migrant workers and to reduce the consequences of migration to Kerala.

Chapter 2

ANALYSIS OF DATA

SOCIO- ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF THE MIGRANT WORKERS

This analysis was undertaken in Ernakulam district of Kerala state. Since this investigator was unable to get reliable records regarding the total number of migrant labour, a sample of 200 was taken. A pilot survey revealed that the largest number of migrant labour, to Kerala was from Bengal, followed by Bihar and Odissa. Therefore, 52.5 percent of the number surveyed was Bengalis, 35 percent were Biharis. It was found that most of the workers who came to Kerala were contract labourers and more than 75 percent was skilled labour.

This sample collected was from both urban, semi-urban and rural regions of Ernakulam district. A well structured interview schedule was prepared and each respondent was met personally by this investigator. The following analysis is made of the study area. The results of study are discussed and presented in the following heads.

2.1 Profile of the migrant workers

Worker participation in the labour market varies from country to country and from region to region. It also varies by sex and age. In India, most workers working in the unorganized sector, who are distinguished, from those in the organized sector in the following ways: while in the organized sector activities are regulated by legislation, in the unorganized sector activities are not well organized.

Sujitha and Rajsekar (2006) analysed “Employment insecurity of unorganized workers in Karnataka”. The data base of the study was a large sample of 910 workers in the unorganized sector including 505 agricultural labourers, 301 construction workers and 104 domestic workers from agro climatically different districts of Bangalore, Dakshina Kannada, Gulbarga and Mysore. The data was collected and sample workers were drawn from both rural and urban areas. It is also characterized by large out-migration of unorganized workers such as agricultural workers, construction workers and domestic workers. The present study was conducted among the migrant construction workers.

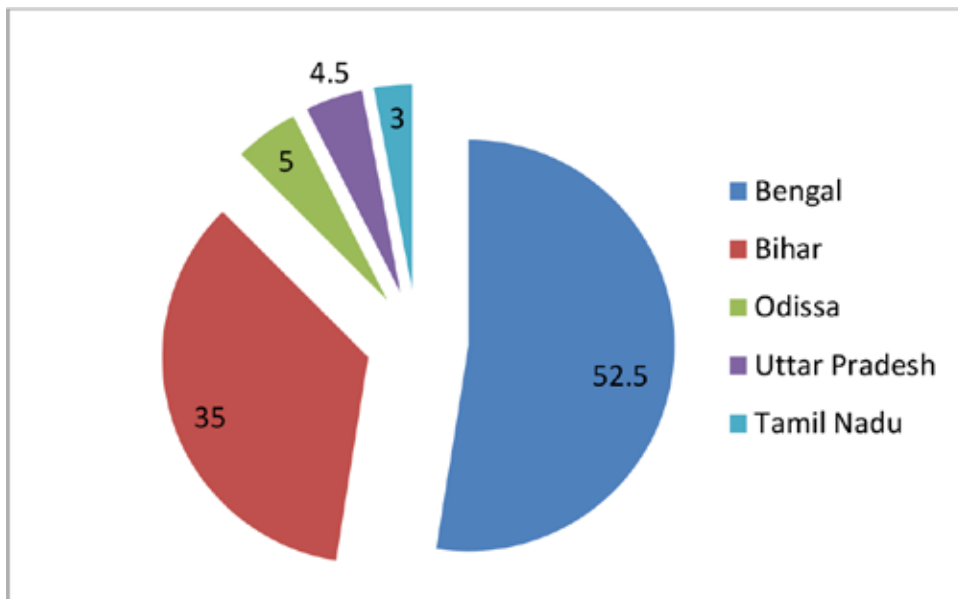
The profile of the present study which was carried out on these workers are given in Table 2.1

Table 2.1
Profile of Workers

From which state the workers migrated to Kerala	Frequency	Percentage
Bengal	105	52.5
Bihar	70	35
Odissa	10	5
Uttar Pradesh	9	4.5
Tamil Nadu	6	3
Total	200	100

In this investigation, the first thing was to know the native place of the migrant labour. As displayed in Table 5.1 large number (52.5 per cent) were from the state of Bengal followed by 35 percent from Bihar. About 5 percent of the sample migrants were from Odissa, rest of 4.5 percent from Uttar Pradesh, 3 percent from Tamil Nadu. On the whole it can be concluded that the majority of the migrant labourers were from Bengal and Bihar.

Profile of Workers



2.2 Age composition of workers

Age plays a prominent role in undertaking any economic activity. Age groups between 15-59 are considered as economically active population. Age is also an important factor for analysis of labour force participation. The economic development and prosperity of any region largely depends on the demographic composition and quality of its people. If they are hardworking, ambitious and willing to bear the risk, the region will develop.

Table 2.2 shows the observed distribution of workers in construction sector by different age group.

Table 2.2
Age- Wise Classification of Workers

Age	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 20	5	2.5
20-30	142	71
30-40	46	23
40-50	7	3.5
More than 50	0	0
Total	200	100

Source: Field survey

In the context of the current study area, 71 per cent were in the category of 20-30 and 23 per cent in the age group of 30-40. The remaining 3.5 per cent and 2.5 per cent were in the age group of 40-50 and less than 20 respectively. There was no migrant found above 50 years in the study area.

They have migrated in the most productive age in order to take advantage of employment opportunities and also made good earnings. The above table revealed that the percentage of people migrated to work were high in the age group of 20-40. Because in the later age they were not fit for heavy jobs due to health conditions and hazardous nature of work. The study conducted by Nair (2005) on “Migrant labourers from Kerala and the impact on household economy” pointed out that the gulf migration in Kerala was predominantly at their prime age of work. Majority of the migrants were relatively young and they belonged to the age group of less than 30-44 years. The migrants from rural areas were younger than those from urban areas.

2.3 Educational status of the respondents

Education empowers labourers with higher bargaining power and competition. It helps workers to be free from exploitation. Literacy is one among several indicators of educational development. It is capable of transforming the existence order of defining the aims and objectives of an authentic human resource development. (Battaille, 1976, Kannan, 1995).

Table 5.3 shows educational status of the respondents.

Table 2.3
EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF THE RESPONDENTS

Educational Level	Frequency	Percentage
Illiterate	36	18
Primary incomplete	136	68
Primary completed	28	14
Total	200	100

Source: Field survey

The principle effect of literacy is to provide people with an additional means of communication. Literacy may contribute to economic development by a) raising to productivity of new literates b) raising the productivity of individual working in association with literate the so called “first-round” spill-overs of literacy c) reducing the cost of transmitting useful information of individuals (health and nutrition) by creating, a new channel for disseminating knowledge d) stimulating the demand for vocational training and technical education, and e) strengthening economic incentives meaning the tendency for people to respond positively to arise in the rate to reward for their efforts. It should be noted that literacy has a pervasive value in reducing costs and in improving the productivity of the economy (Schultz; 1967). An attempt has been made in the current study to assess the literacy level among the migrant construction workers.

One of the factors having a considerable influence on the sector in which a particular individual works is the level of education. People with more education is likely to work in the formal sector. However, this depends also on the availability of employment people with less education are forced to seek employment in the informal sector. Out of 200 respondents 68 percent did not complete their primary level of education. 18 percent workers were illiterate. Only 14 per cent have completed their primary level of education. “Migration, employment status and poverty” of Kunthu and Sarangy (2007) exhibited a negative relationship of the incidence of poverty with levels of education, as the former declines smoothly as one moves from low level of literacy to graduation and above.

2.4 CLASSIFICATION OF WORKERS BY RELIGION

Table 2.4
Classification of Workers by Religion

Religion	Frequency	Percentage
Hindu	103	51.5
Muslim	96	48
Christian	1	0.5
Total	200	100

Source: Field survey

In this investigation 51.5 percent workers were Hindus by religion and 48 percent respondents from Muslim community. There was only one respondent from Christian religion.

Large majority of the sample workers are Hindus (94 per cent). Five of them are Christians and the remaining one is a Muslim. Scheduled Castes constituted 14 per cent and Scheduled Tribes three per cent of the sample (Ajith Kumar and Surabhi 2007).

2.5 Classification of respondents by community

Occupational relations in Indian villages have been traditionally determined by caste. Members of higher castes generally owned land and controlled the production and distribution of food and allocation of services, while those of lower castes were primarily tenants of agricultural labourers rendering services to the members of higher castes (Kiass, 1980). The ritual hierarchy is based on land ownership and allocation of work in agriculture (Srinivasan, 1969). It has been suggested by some scholars (Betille, 1967) that an important pre-requisite for rural and agricultural development in India is the transformation of its “closed” agrarian structure determined by caste “open” system differentiated

from the caste structure. However, a review of studies conducted in different regions of India (Sundari, 1991) confirmed that caste consideration continues to influence labour force participation (Rudhra,1981;Moorthi,1978) also in hiring agricultural labourers (Neale, 1972; Reddy 1978).

The distribution of workers among different communities is given in Table 2.5.

Table 2.5
Classification of Workers by Community

Community	Frequency	Percentage
Other backward caste	109	54.5
Scheduled caste	72	36
Scheduled tribe	18	9
Others	1	0.5
Total	200	100

Source: Field survey

As it is well known, India is a country with many castes, creeds, religion, languages etc. from time immemorial that multiplicity had been the backbone of Indian society. In the current study, 54.5 per cent workers were belonged to other back ward castes. 36 per cent were scheduled caste workers and 9 per cent were in the category of scheduled tribe. Similar observations were exhibited by Jetley (1987) in “Impact of male migration on rural females” that male migrants in the sample area were mainly from two castes–peasant castes (58.7 percent) and low castes (38.1 percent) traditionally held untouchables (but referred to as “harijans” and listed in the Indian constitution as caste scheduled for special protection). The remaining few were from other castes.

2.6 Type of Family of the Respondents

The below table 5.6 presents the type of family of the migrant workers.

Table 2.6
Type of Family of the Respondents

Type of family	Frequency	Percentage
Joint	143	71.5
Nuclear	57	28.5
Total	200	100

Source: Field survey

The researcher in her study found that 71.5 percent workers were coming from joint family background. 28.5 percent workers had nuclear type family.

2.7 Size of the Family

Family size is an important factor which influences one’s standard of living. The average size of family in India is 5.6 (Census,2001). The size of the household plays an important role in determining the

employments in which people try to find employment somewhere even for lower wages. It is therefore essential to understand the family size of the workers.

The size of the family of the respondents covered in the study area are given in Table 2.7.

Table 2.7
Distribution of Workers by Family Size

Size of family (no.of family members)	Frequency	Percentage
1-5	51	25.5
6-10	136	68
More than 10	13	6.5
Total	200	100

Source: Field survey

It is evident from the table that 68 percent workers had the family size of 5-10 members. The family size of 25.5 percent workers was 1-5. Only 6.5 percent had the members more than 10. In the current study, 93.5 percent of workers came from medium size family, thus it can be said that when the size of family is big, income of the male members is not found to be sufficient and women are forced to work in the labour market.

2.8 Marital status of the respondents

The details of all the respondents covered in the study by their marital status are given in the Table 2.8.

Table 2.8
Classification of Workers by Marital Status

Marital status	Frequency	Percentage
Single	119	59.5
Married	81	40.5
Total	200	100

Source: Field survey

Of the total labour force 59.5 per cent were unmarried. 40.5 per cent workers were married.

Chapter 3

WORK PROFILE OF THE MIGRANT WORKERS

3.1 Type of work

Access to occupation not only determines the available employment and income potential of an individual but also indicates his social status as well. The main mechanism through which structural transformation gets manifested is the changes in the occupational structure and the associated employment and income patterns of rural groups. Since occupational structure reflects the diversification of employment and income sources, it is also instrumental for capturing the relative potential for economic diversification among rural groups.

The details of the nature of work carried out by workers is given in Table 3.1.

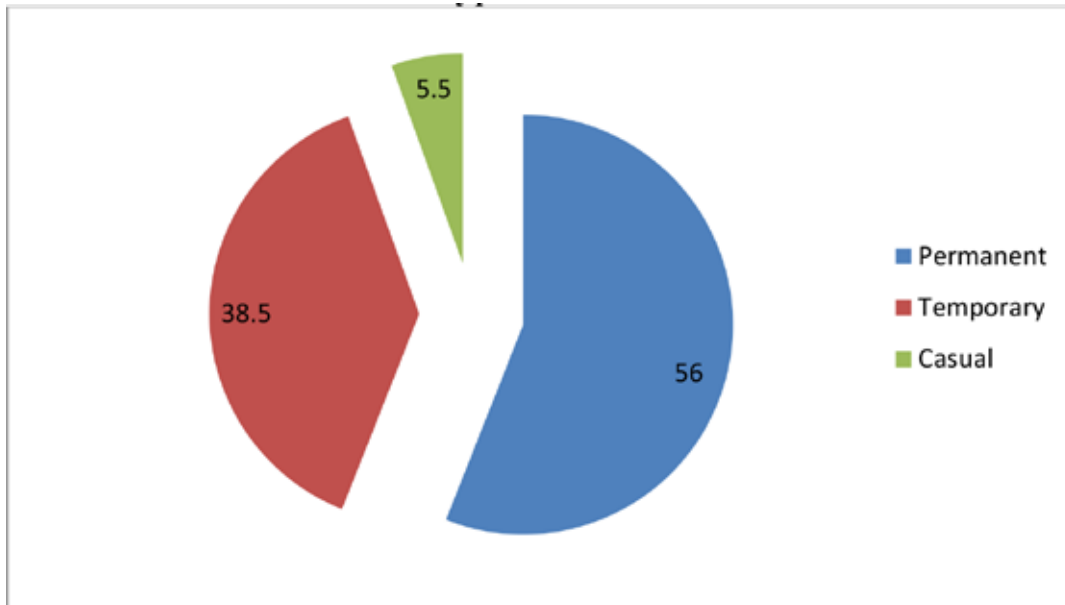
Table 3.1
Type of Work

Type of work	Frequency	Percentage
Permanent	112	56
Temporary	77	38.5
Casual	11	5.5
Total	200	100

Source: Field survey

The characteristic feature of industrial labour in India is its migratory character. Therefore, migration of labour assumes greater significance in the Indian Economy. Migration is also defined as an inflow of population from a region to another region for a permanent or semi-permanent settlement of habitation (Mishra,1981). In this construction sector 56 percent workers were permanent workers. In construction sector mainly their employers were contractors. 38.5 percent workers were working on temporary basis. 5.5 percent were casual workers. They had demand only in busy seasons.

Fig. 3.1
Type of Work



3.2 Work Status

The following section explicitly focuses on those workers whose status of work after migration. These workers are divided into three categories: contract labourers, self-employed and others.

Table 3.2
Work Status

Work status	Frequency	Percentage
Contract labourers	152	76
Self-employed	10	5
Others	38	19
Total	200	100

Source: Field survey

In the current study the work status of the respondents reveal that 76 percent workers were contract labourers. 5 percent labourers were self employed workers. Self employed workers were not under the control of contractors. They had their own freedom to find work. 19 percent workers were doing all kinds of work. They did not have any special occupation. They were sometimes self employed workers and in another times they were acted as contract labourers.

3.3 Nature of Work

To a large extent, employment in the building industry is seasonal with a clear division of work phases and labour. Every specific work, such as lifting of weight, excavation, concreting, wood work, steel bending, concrete mixing, scaffolding, plastering, plumbing, white washing etc. are carried out by different groups of skilled and unskilled workers. Activities involved in the building industry suggests

the complexity of the work. The nature and the different time points at which these jobs need to be completed make the labour market for this industry more segmented with the unskilled category being more vulnerable to higher exploitation (Das,1992). The Table 3.3 reveals the nature of work of the migrant workers.

Table 3.3
Nature of Work

Nature of work	Frequency	Percentage
Skilled/Semi-skilled workers	159	79.5
Unskilled workers	41	20.5
Total	200	100

The researcher in her study reveals that 79.5 percent workers were claimed that they were very skilled or semi-skilled workers in the construction industry. Only 20.5 percent were admitted that they were not highly skilled workers in this sector.

3.4 Nature of Labour Contracting

Conventionally, it is the architect who gives shape to the design of a unit and then the building contractor enters the scene. He is supposed to be responsible for the entire project. In other cases, however, contractors take the entire responsibility of delivering the product to the client or private developers as well as public authorities.

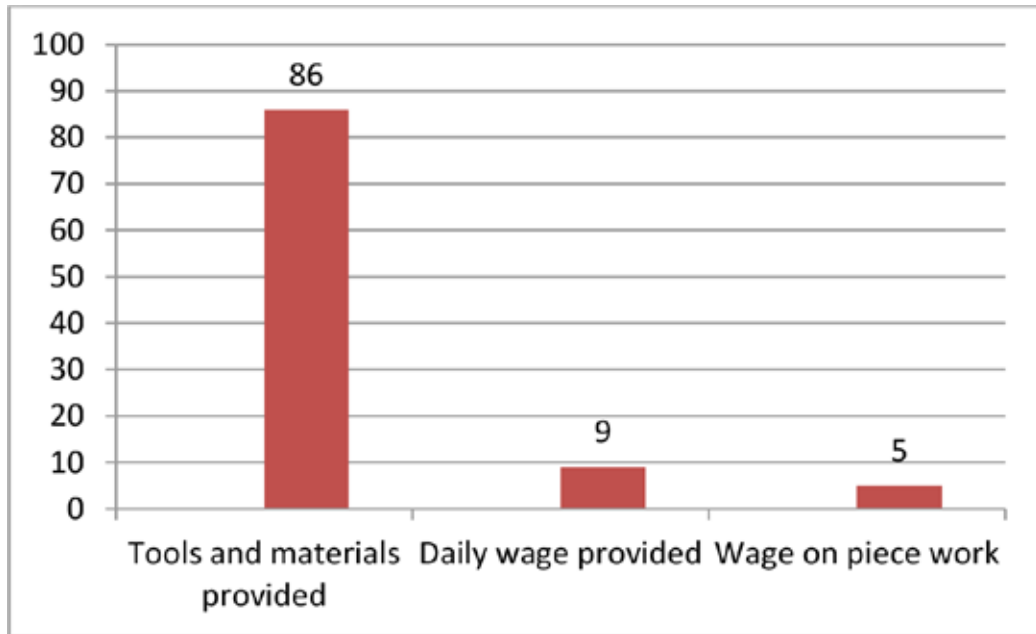
Table 3.4
Nature of Labour Contracting

Nature of labour contracting	Frequency	Percentage
Tools and materials provided	172	86
Daily wage provided	18	9
Wage on piece work	10	5
Total	200	100

Source: Field survey

As an essential part of the entire system, labour contracting varies in its nature as well as operations. The most common method is one wherein the building contractor himself provides the (86percent) materials and most of the employment required for some parts of the task and pays the subcontractor for carrying out the work. In the labour the contractor only provides hand tools and labourer to complete the specified task in construction work, say the excavation, bricklaying etc. The labour contractor raises a definite sum of money based on the quantum of piece-rate work (5 percent) where his margin depends on the number of workers he actually employs and the actual amount of wage that he pays to them. 9 percent workers were getting their wage on daily basis.

Fig. 3.2
Nature of Labour Contracting



3.5 Activity Wise Distribution of Workers in Various Occupations in the Construction Industry of Study Area

The nature of building construction activity itself being a manifestation of different kinds of tasks at different phases, makes contractual relationships more legitimate and profitable. This makes the enterprises a highly fragmented system to a large extent, employment in the building industry is seasonal with a clear division of work-phases and labour. Given the types of jobs required to be performed at building sites, we may now take a look at the other actors in this industry. These mainly include independent masons (known as maistries in most parts of South India) and building contractors.

Table 3.5
Activity Wise Distribution of Workers in Various Occupations in the Construction Industry of Central Kerala

Worker types/Skilled & semi-skilled workers	Percentage of total work force	Worker types/Skilled & semi-skilled workers	Percentage of total work force
Sand blast operator	7.9	Centering worker	13.3
Carpenter	6.4	Steel bender	8.9
Plastering operator	4.0	Concrete mixer	6.3
Mason	9.3	Bricks layer	3.1
Tiles fitter	3.05	Glass fitter	2.9
Painter	3.05	Scaffolder	2.0
Plumber	2.4	Sub Total	36.5

Cement finisher	2.4	Worker types/Unskilled workers	Percentage of total work force
Glazier	1.7	Weight lifter	7.5
Electrician	1.5	Dust lifter	5.9
Pipe fitter	.7	Digging worker	4.3
Machine operator	.3	Watchman	2.1
White waker	.3	Waterman	0.7
Sub Total	43	Sub Total	20.5

Source: Field survey

The above table reveals that around 79.5 percent workers were in the occupations which would be classified as skilled or semi-skilled, 20.5 percent in unskilled occupations. The unskilled occupations have generally a larger proportion of the younger workers. Sand blasting (7.9 percent), tiles fitting (3.05 percent), plumbing (2.4 percent), electrical works (1.5 percent), machine operating (0.3 percent), white washing (0.3 percent) etc., were done by skilled or semi-skilled migrant workers. Weight lifting (7.5 percent), dust lifting (5.9 percent), digging works (4.3 percent) etc., were done by the unskilled workers.

Das (1992) observed that the skill categories of workers are quite often associated with their socio-economic characteristics. For example, a larger proportion of unskilled workers are illiterate whereas, a large share of skilled workers are literate. Among the workers found in the largest three of unskilled category of occupations, namely weight lifters, dust lifters and digging workers, illiterate constitute 84, 60 and 68 percent respectively.

3.6 Duration of Work

Duration of work of the respondents is given in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6
Duration of Work

Duration of work(in hours)	Frequency	Percentage
8hrs	59	29.5
10hrs	89	44.5
More than 10hrs	52	26
Total	200	100

Source: Field survey

As shown in Table 5.14, 44.5 percent respondents were working nearly 10hrs daily. 26 percent workers were working more than 10hrs a day.

The average number of hours of work per day was found to be nine. As high as 93 percent of the workers reported that they have to work for more than 8 hours on a working day. Thirty percent reported that they work for more than 9 hours (Kumar and Surabhi,2007).

3.7 Duration of stay

The below table 5.15 exhibits the duration of stay of migrant workers in Thrissur district.

Table 3.7
Duration of Stay

Years	Frequency	Percentage
1-2	124	62
3-5	61	30.5
More than 5	15	7.5
Total	200	100

Source: Field survey

62 percent workers were stayed in Kerala between 1-2 years. 30.5 percent had 3-5 years of experience in Thrissur district. Only 7.5 percent workers were stayed more than 5 years in the current study area.

3.8 Mode of Payment

The rate of wages paid to the different types of construction workers and consequently their earnings from this sector depend on a multitude of factors that include (i) the instability of demand and fluctuation in the market; (ii) segmented groups of different labour types, (iii) seasonal nature of employment; (iv) invisibility of principal employer-employee relations; (v) unregulated nature of the contractual relations; (vi) the control and dominance of labour contractors in the supply of labour; (vii) vulnerability of the worker caused by his economic conditions; and (viii) seasonal availability of employment and workers mobility between sectors or areas etc.

Table 3.8
Mode of Payment

Mode of payment	Frequency	Percentage
Daily	18	9
Weekly	92	46
Monthly	22	11
Half yearly	36	18
When they visit home	32	16
Total	200	100

Source: Field survey

Table 3.8 reveals that 46 percent workers had weekly payment. 18 percent workers had payment only two times in a year. 11 percent had monthly wages. 16 percent workers were acknowledged that they were getting their payment when they have visited their home. Only 9 percent workers had daily payment, most of them were self employed and very skilled workers.

Das (1992) revealed that the labour contractor raises money from the principal employer and disburses wages on a day to day work or a piece-rate work basis. Some among the skilled groups are also paid on a monthly or fortnightly basis. According to the 1979 study on a construction industry at Ahmadabad the sector is characterized by a rather low wage rate. The study records that “the average of wage rate prevailed in the building construction activity is around Rs.9 per day. The skilled workers are paid an average wage rate of Rs.10 per day; the unskilled workers Rs.6 and the Rs.8 of the semi-skilled workers wage falls in between but closer to the average wage rate of skilled worker”

3.9 Income earned by the respondents

Informal sector has a remarkable capacity to provide jobs and supply primarily the poorest part of the population with basic goods and services. Informal sector has out-stripped the formal sector in terms of numbers employed and shows a good prospect for further growth. Earning is an important factor for analysis of economic background of an individual.

The earnings of the respondents from their employment are given in Table 3.9 and Figure 5.4

Table 3.9
Classification of Workers by Past and Present Monthly Income from Employment

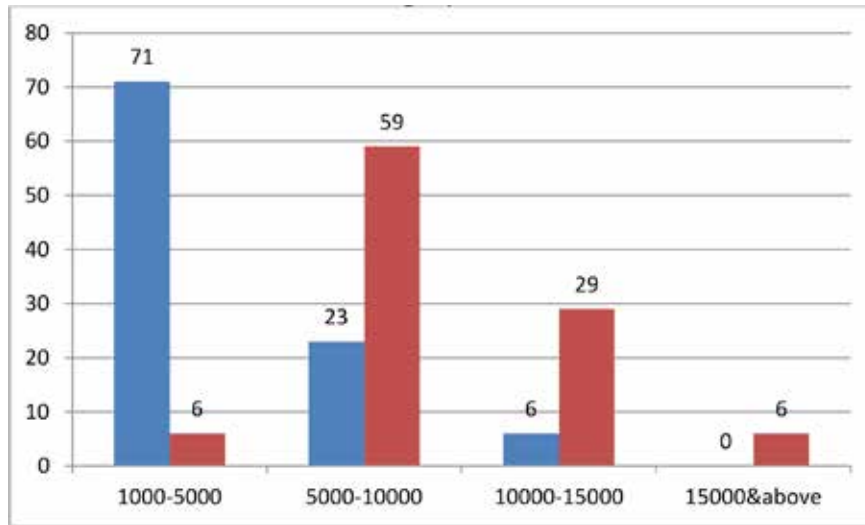
Level of Monthly income	Before	Percentage	After	Percentage
1000-5000	142	71	12	6
5000-10000	46	23	118	59
10000-15000	12	6	58	29
15000&above	-	-	12	6
Total	200	100	200	100

Source: Field survey

The above table clearly indicates the motivational aspect of migration. 71 percent respondents had earned an income between 1000-5000 before migration. But after migration only 12 respondents were in this category. 59 percent respondents seemed to have earned monthly income in the range of 5000-10000 per month after migration. 29 percent workers had the skill to earn the income between 10000-15000 per month. 6 percent respondents had the income between 15000and above after their migration. The workers were found skilled enough to suit construction industry.

The respondents were asked to state the monthly wages which they get from their job. The majority of the migrant workmen were placed to the monthly income group of Rs.600 to Rs. 800 and some are in the income group of Rs.800 to Rs.1000 per month whereas very small percentage of the migrant workmen were grouped in the income slab of Rs.400 to Rs.600 (Cherunilam 1992).

Fig. 3.3
Classification of Workers by Past and Present Monthly Income from Employment



3.10 Motivational Factors of Migration

Migration is a movement from one place to another, permanent or semi-permanent. It is interesting to know why some people migrate while others do not. The important factors which motivated people to move may broadly be classified into five groups: economic factors, demographic factors, socio-cultural factors, political factors and miscellaneous factors: despite the relevance of non-economic factors most of the studies (Bremen, Jan, 1985., Das, Biswaroop 1994., Das Gupta and Lashley, 1975., 1988 Dubay et.al, 1996., Gill 1998, Kumar Sudheer, 1992., Kindu, Amit, 1998., Sidhu et.al 1997, Singh and Agarwal 1998., Srivasthava 1998) indicated that migration is primarily motivated by economic factors.

The investigator in her attempt to get information on the various factors for their movement, many factors was listed. Surprisingly no one responded to the factors like to get rid of the impact of draught, lack of adequate agricultural land, lack of job which they liked, discrimination on the ground of caste, industrial development of the destination, urban amenities, agricultural development, to enjoy freedom of nuclear family.

The major factors according to them for their migration are shown in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10
Motivational Factors of Migration

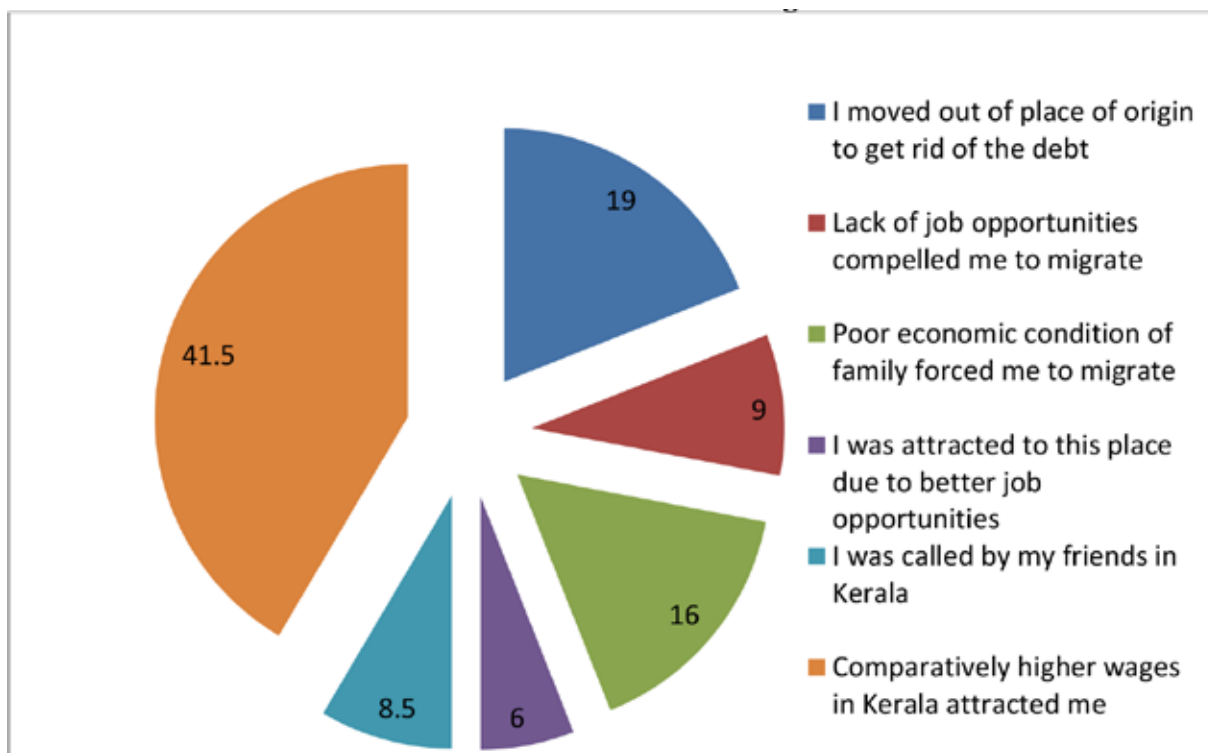
Sl.No	Statement	Opinion	Percentage
1	I moved out of place of origin to get rid of the debt	38	19
2	Lack of job opportunities compelled me to migrate	18	9
3	Poor economic condition of family forced me to migrate	32	16
4	I was attracted to this place due to better job opportunities	12	6
5	I was called by my friends in Kerala	17	8.5
6	Comparatively higher wages in Kerala attracted me	83	41.5

Source: Field survey

Factors which forced the migrant workers to leave their native places for destination state and the factor which attracts the migrant workers to the migrant state are closely correlative with motivational aspect. The factors which have forced the migrant workers to leave the native place for the migrant place could be easily identifiable as per the responses of the workers. However, since the construction workers in the cities are often migrants it would be pertinent to inquire into to the factors that motivate them to migrate. Enquiries at various sites revealed that people had left their native village for working in this sectors mainly owing to lack of income, job opportunities and indebtedness prevalent in those areas. The chief factors which were instrumental to attracting the migrant workers to the destination state have been identified by the workers as follows.

- a) Comparatively higher wages in Kerala (41.5 percent attracted)
- b) Get rid of debt (19 percent)
- c) Poor economic condition of family forced to migrate (16 percent)
- d) Lack of job opportunities compelled to migrate (9 percent)
- e) Invited by friends in Kerala (8.5 percent)

Fig. 3.4
Motivational Factors of Migration



EXPENDITURE PATTERN OF THE RESPONDENTS

4.1 Nature of savings

Most of the income earned by the respondents has been spent on household item, education of their children or in fulfilling their basic necessities like food, food grains, health treatment, emergencies etc, after meeting these expenses a very meagre amount only was left with the respondents for savings.

The details on the mode of savings is given in table 4.1

Table 4.1
Nature of Savings

Mode of savings	Frequency	Percentage
Bank	86	43
Local chit funds/money lenders	82	41
Chiti funds	15	7.5
Post office	3	1.5
No savings	14	7
Total	200	100

Source: Field survey

Saving habit of migrant workers shows that 43 percent were invested in banks in the migrant place for their transactions. 41 percent workers were invested in local chit-funds or in money lenders of their working or native places and relatives of their migrant place, because through these investments they could earn higher rate of interest for their investment. 7.5 percent workers invested in chit-funds. Only 1.5 percent workers had invested in post –office. 7 percent workers had no savings even after their migration.

4.2 Indebtedness of migrant workers

One of the motivational aspects of migration of the workers were to get rid of their old debt. Table 5.23 exhibits the worker's indebtedness in the study area.

Table 4.2
Indebtedness among Respondents

Debt	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	188	94
No	12	6
Total	200	100

Source: Field Survey

The analysis of workers indebtedness reveals that the workers were forced to spend more than their earnings. Burdened with their old debts increase in expense of children's education, large number of dependents seeped themselves deep in debts. 94 percent of workers had borrowed money from various sources and the remaining 6 percent workers did not have any borrowings or large indebtedness after their migration.

4.3 Asset Position of Respondents Before and After Migration

Remittances from out migration have a favourable impact on the living status of the respondents.

Details of type of house and ownership of consumer durables which the respondents had acquired before and after migration is given in Table 5.24

TABLE 4.3
Asset Position of Respondents Before and After Migration

Ownership of house	Before	Percentage	After	Percentage
Own	18	9	114	57
Rented	122	61	86	43
No house	60	30	-	-
Type of house				
Thatched	102	51	76	38
Tiled	30	15	112	56
Terraced	8	4	12	6
Consumer durables				
Radio	25	12.5	81	40.5
Television	9	4.5	78	39
Fan	15	7.5	102	51

Stove/Gas	2	1	18	9
Sewing machine	0	0	8	4
Bicycle	12	6	62	31
Motorcycle	0	0	4	2

Source: Field survey

An enquiry into the nature of house ownership revealed that 9 percent had only their own houses before migration; the remaining 61 percent had stayed in rented houses. 30 percent had no houses before their migration. But after their migration because of good financial conditions 57 percent had built their own houses; the remaining 43 percent were stayed in rented houses. Among the houses 51 percent workers were living in thatched houses whereas 15 percent lived in tiled houses before their migration. After their migration 56 percent were in tiled houses and 6 percent had terraced houses.

Remittance from out migration of workers have a favourable impact on the household durable goods and other labour saving devices. 40.5 percent had radio, 39 percent occupied television sets, 51 were used fans regularly, 9 percent had cooked their food with the help of stove/gas, 31 percent had their own bicycle.

4.4 Family Expenditure and Amount of Remittance of Respondents

Remittances from migrants comprise a significant share of the total household income and expenditure. The proportion of remittances to total household income is about 50 percent. The average household income of long term migrants is generally higher than short term migrants, since the long term migrants have better wages, regular employment opportunities. Moreover, migrants from the same households pool their savings and sent them back to their relatives at home (Paris, Singh et al, 2005).

Family expenditure and remittances of respondents are shown in Table 4.4

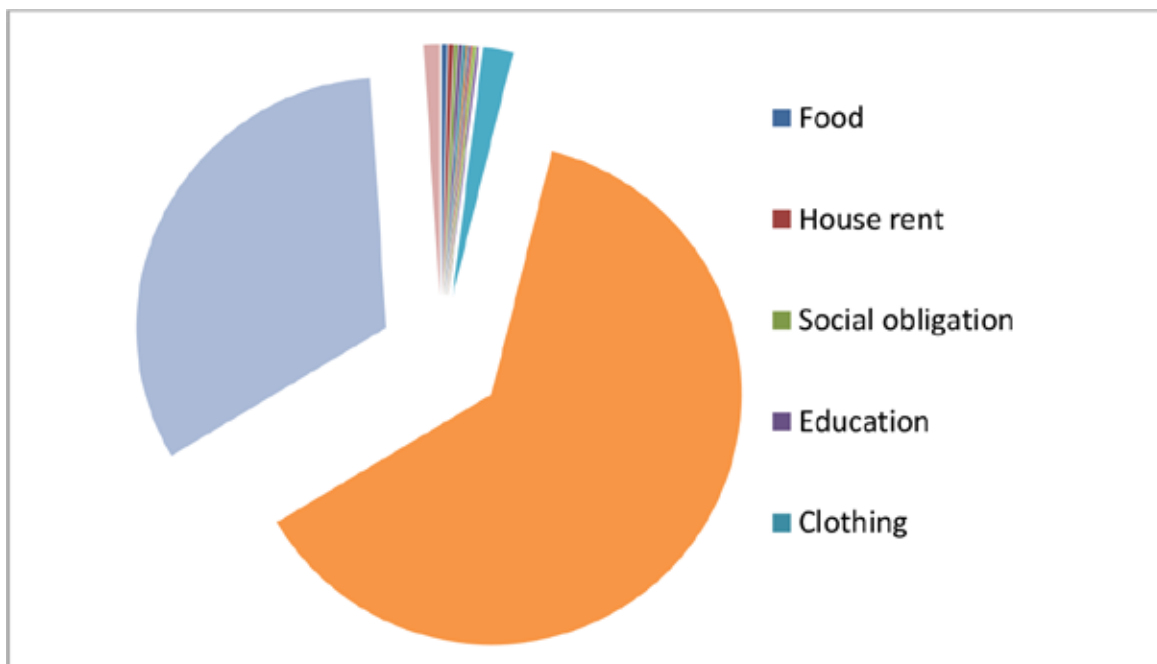
Table 4.4
Family Expenditure and Amount of Remittance of Respondents

Expenditure items	Disbursement of remittances (percent)
Food	17
House rent	15
Social obligation	12
Education	11
Clothing	9
Recreation	7
Debt payment	5
Asset purchase	6
Miscellaneous	10

Medicine	8
Total	100
Average monthly income	3213
Average amount of remittances	1671
Percentage of remittances	52

Source: Field survey

Fig. 4.1
Family Expenditure and Amount of Remittance of Respondents



In general remittances help their families left behind to sustain food security (17 percent), house rent (15 percent), meet expenses on a education (11 percent), social and religious obligations (12 percent) were also large expenditure. Most of the migrant households (6 percent) spent their remittance for asset accumulation. However, while remittances provide a significant source of income for the migrant households, the impact of migration depends on the size and use of remittances. Migrants in general sent their remittances through banks, trusted friends or by other family members according to the need of the household. Some of the migrants saved some part of their income at their working or native places. Despite the earnings from remittances, less than 50 percent were sent to their families as they had to spend for their accommodation, food and other personal expenses in the work place.

The complexity and wide range of impact of remittances in rural areas has been illustrated in a study carried out in Philippines which showed that: a) for some families, remittances were a survival strategy that ensures subsistence but did not lead to a significant improvement in living standards., b) for other families, remittances were a means which were invested in agriculture or in their children's education, and c) relatively better-off families use remittances to invest in productive activities through purchasing agricultural land and growing cash crops (Trager, 1984).

PROSPECTS AND PROBLEMS FACED BY THE RESPONDENTS

5.1 Facilities Provided By the Employers in the Present Living Area

All the workers had the following facilities in their living area. They had light, pipe water or bore wells, kitchen, bath room, toilet and washing place in their living area. They did not get water at the regular times. For water they depend on neighbourhood families.

Table 5.1
Facilities Provided by the Employers in the Present Living Area

Facilities provided by the employers	Frequency	Percentage
Light	186	93
Pipe water & Water facility	138	69
Kitchen	72	36
Bath room	96	48
Toilet	102	51
Washing Place	48	24

Source: Field survey

The basic amenities such as toilet, bath rooms, drinking water in almost all the living places of the migrants were found inadequate. The bath rooms and toilets were found only to show that it is existing. That means so many of them were compelled to use the minimum possible number of these amenities. The fact is that most of the migrant workers were unaware about the facilities to be extended by the contractors to them with regard to the living conditions.

5.2 Additional Benefits Provided by the Employers

Migration has far reaching impact not only on the migrants but also on the families back in villages. The respondents reported that they found their lives more satisfying after migration as now they were able to earn and save more money. This is very clear from the below table 5.27

Table 5.2
Additional Benefits Provided by the Employers

Additional benefits provided by the employers	Frequency	Percentage
Bonus	25	12.5
Cloth	22	11
Advance payment	12	6
Medical benefit	18	9
Welfare fund	52	26
Free food	5	2.5
Festival allowance	18	9
Income for emergency	48	24
Total	200	100

Source: Field survey

An attempt has been made to bring out the additional benefits received by the respondents. 26 percent workers had welfare fund, it is a protection from the government. The premium for the insurance was paid by the employers. 24 percent were getting income for emergency purposes. 12.5 percent had bonus during Onam season. 11 percent were received cloths and other gift articles from the employer when they visit home. 9 percent had medical allowances and another 9 percent had festival allowances.

5.3 Benefits of migration

The migrant workers were asked to give merits of migratory work. The Table 5.3 indicates the level of the individual job satisfaction of the respondents.

Table 5.3
Benefits of Migration

Benefits of migration	Frequency	Percentage
Helped in repaying debt	54	27
Improved standard of living	47	23.5
To buy assets	36	18
To meet emergencies	28	14
Better status in family	28	14

Gained knowledge	4	2
Gained confidence	3	1.5
Total	200	100

Source: Field survey

A critical analysis of above table shows that the migrant workers were satisfied with the present job, because such a job gives them enough income. This is clear from the responses of the migratory workers. It helped to improve the standard of living of construction workers (23.5 percent). While some workers felt that they could repay their old debt (27 percent) and reduce the burden of present debt. Moreover that they gained knowledge (2 percent) and became expertise in their field (1.5 percent), better status in family and society (14 percent), buy asset (18 percent) and to meet emergencies (14 percent) through their migratory work.

Mehtha (1979) critically analysed the “Motivational aspect of migration”. In that study he has made a modest attempt to responses of the migrant workmen for their satisfaction of job. There were three types of category namely principle employer, contractor, migrated workmen and inspectors. The study revealed that the migrant work man felt extensively satisfied with the job, they were engaged in at the migrant working place, because such job give them enough income (25: 62.5percent), they are liking with the present job, because there is a sense of security of job (25:12.5percent). The statistical figures states that the majority of the migrant workmen felt satisfied with their job in which they engaged in.

5.4 Workers Possessing Health Card

The present study also focuses its attention on the consequences of the migration of labour on the local population. Among environmental and health problems, increase in the number of slums followed by increase in the incidence of AIDS and unhygienic surroundings were the major problems (Singh and Kaur, 2007).

Table 5.4
Workers Possessing Health Card

Health card holders	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	118	59
No	82	41
Total	200	100

Source: Field survey

The above table showed that 59 percent workers had health card and the 41 percent had no health card. With this card they could visit the government hospitals and primary health centres when it was necessary. The card was issued by the department of health, Kerala .

5.5 Type of Stay

The Table 5.30 shows the type of stay of the workers. 79 percent workers were living in the contractor’s houses or arranged houses. Their accommodation was free. Contractors were owners of these workers. 15 percent were living with their friends, 6 percent in the rented houses.

Table 5.5
Type of Stay

Type of stay	Frequency	Percentage
Contractor's houses or arranged houses	158	79
With friends	30	15
Rent	12	6
Total	200	200

Source: Field survey

5.6 Form of Spending the Leisure Time

The Table 5.31 tells us that the different forms of spending the leisure time of the migrant workers

Table 5.6
Form of Spending the Leissure Time

Form of spending the leisure time	Frequency	Percentage
Find some other works	62	31
Chatting through mobile phones	59	29.5
Seeing films	42	21
Go to bar/eating panmasala	28	14
Go back to native place	5	2.5
Sitting idle	4	2
Total	200	100

Source: Field survey

Respondents had different forms of spending their leisure time. 31 percent had gone for some other works in the working area, if they were free from the present work. 21 percent had gone for films, 14 percent enjoyed with liquor in the bar or eating panmasala. Chatting through mobile was another form of spending their leisure time (29.5 percent). 2.5 percent had visited their native place if they had received long holidays. 2 percent were sitting idle during their leisure time.

5.7 Status Before Migration

Zacharia and Gopinathan Nair (2001) made an attempt to study on 'Return Emigrants in Kerala-Rehabilitation problems and development Potential'. In this study they revealed that return emigrants had been in general engaged in casual jobs or in self-employment before emigration. About 42 percent had been engaged in casual employment and 17 percent in self-employment. Only 18.5 percent had been engaged in any regular employment. One surprising factor is that, among the return emigrants only 13 percent had been unemployed at the time of emigration.

Table 5.7
Status before Migration

Status before migration	Frequency	Percentage
Farmer	82	41
Wage earner	66	33
Temporary workers	42	21
Jobless	10	5
Total	200	100

Source: Field survey

In this current study majority of the migrants were engaged in agriculture and allied sectors before their migration to Kerala (41 percent). About 33 percent were wage earners and 21 percent were engaged in casual employment. 5 percent workers were unemployed before their migration. None of the workers had any regular employment before their migration to Kerala.

5.8 Problems Faced By the Respondents

Large scale population mobility and the consequent redistribution of population have a number of economic, social, political, ecological and demographic effects.

There are positive and negative effects of migration. The problems faced by the respondents are given in the following Table 5.8

Table 5.8
Problems Faced by the Respondents

Problems	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Health problems	137	63			
Inadequate income		172			
Long hours of work	32				
Conflicts in the working place	5	15	35	97	48
Inadequate time to visit home	32	118	15		35
Long distance	107	10	2		

Source: Field survey

As shown in the table most of the workers had different types of problems that were mentioned above. Due to migration, the health of the workers (100 percent) was adversely affected by variety of factors. For example, different climate and condition of work, a defective dietary pattern, excessive congestion and lack of sanitation, etc. A high degree of risk and danger is involved in this work. The work proceeds in most dangerous situations under sun, cold, heat, rain, dust, etc. The magnitude of accidents and occupational diseases associated with this work is appallingly high and complex. It is because most of

the operations are labour – intensive with the presence of inadequate safety measures , low quality of materials used, non-identification and non-recognition of risky actions non-analysis of accidents and lack of training of workers on safety. In addition to these dangers at work sites, continuous inhaling of cement dust causes irritation of lungs and eyes, plastering materials affect the skin, working at higher elevations lead to blood pressure, excessive sound affects hearing, causing stress, and repetitive works lead to sprains and rheumatism. They (16 percent) had to work for long hours under strict control. 75 percent did not get enough time to visit their native place. 58.5 percent reported that covering long distance was their main problem.

Fig. 5.1
Problems Faced by the Respondents



5.9 Future Plans

Has migration caused any real change in the economic activity of the workers. The Table 5.36 pointed out that the future plans of the migrant workers.

Table 5.9
Future Plans

Future plans	Frequency	Percentage
Permanent return to village	10	5
Do not know	96	48
Bring family to migrant place	18	9
Missed system	76	38
Total	200	100

Source: Field survey

From the above table we can realise that the workers had no plans about their future(48 percent).They were not thinking about tommorrow.38 percent did not respond to this question. Only 9 percent had the intention to bring their family to migrant place. Permanent return to village was their another future plan (5 percent).

In the study 'Return Emigrants in Kerala: Rehabilitation Problems and Development Potential' (Zhacaria and Nair, 2001) explains that after coming back to Kerala the emigrants went back to the agricultural sector(24.8 percent).

5.10 Consequences of migration

The present study also focuses its attention on the consequences of the migration on the local population. The investigation brought out that there was quite a high intensity of migrant labourers living near the vicinity of the local respondents (60 families surveyed) who were having very frequent contacts with each other. In the opinion of a majority of the local respondents, migrant labourers were advantageous to them as they were easily available and that too at cheaper wage rates. The local respondents reported that no doubt the migrant labourers were advantageous but at the same time they were also responsible for causing a number of problems such as environmental, health, social, psychological and economic. During the data collection, local respondents also held that migrant labourers were responsible for increasing evils like drug addiction, rape cases and alcoholism and as a result the local youth is getting addicted to these evils.

In spite of all these problems and evils, the general impression of the local respondents was favourable towards the migrant labourers. A majority (58 percent) of the local respondents had supported the fact that migrant labourers should be allowed to migrate in Kerala as the industrial, agricultural, construction and household work were being done by such labourers.

The above empirical verification of the study area conducted across the district of Ernakulam was very revealing problems encounter by the replacement labour could be clearly understood. Most of the workers living in unhygienic conditions, though most of them are unaware of it. The reason is hygiene is something alien to these helpless individuals. Economically, they have benefited due to their stay in this state but in terms of quality of life there has been very little improvement. In this , under such circumstances that this researcher proposes to enter the concluding chapter.

Chapter 6

IMPACT OF DEMONETIZATION ON MIGRANT WORKERS

6.1 Duration of Work

Table 6.1
Duration of Work

Duration of work(in hours)	Frequency Before	Frequency After	Before Percentage	After Percentage
8hrs	59	109	29.5	54.5
10hrs	89	89	44.5	44.5
More than 10hrs	52	2	26	1
Total	200	200	100	100

Source: Field Survey

The above table shows the duration of work before and after demonetization. Before the implementation of demonetization 29.5 percentage of them had 8hrs of work. But after demonetization 54.5 percentage had 8hrs of work. Only 1 percentage had more than 10hrs of work.

6.2 Income Status during Demonetization Period

Table 6.1
Income Status During Demonetization Period

Level of Monthly income	Before	Percentage	After	Percentage
1000-5000	12	6	82	41
5000-10000	118	59	110	55

10000-15000	58	29	6	3
15000&above	12	6	2	1
Total	200	100	200	100

The above table explains the income status during demonetization period. Before implementation of demonetization only 6 percentage workers were in the income range of 1000-5000. But implementation 41 percentage workers were in this category. The shows low level of income at the time of demonetization period.

Type of work	Frequency Before	Percentage	Frequency After	Percentage
Permanent	72	36	42	21
Temporary	62	31	82	41
Casual	66	33	76	38
Total	200	100	200	100

6.3 Demand For Laboures

Demand for workers at the time of demonetization was very less. Before demonetization the demand for permanent workers were 36 percentage , but it was come down to 21 percentages

Chapter 7

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

With the steady decline in the growth of the formal sector in India following the introduction of the structural adjustment programme, a large section of the growing labour force is being absorbed in the unorganized informal sector resulting in a progressive increase in employment in the informal sector. Subsequently, various factors such as the extension of the small-scale sector and the increasing trend towards subcontracting of work, accentuated by the process of globalization and export-oriented industrialization, have contributed to the growth of the informal sector in the economy. Many studies are not available on the issue of migrant, labour force in Kerala especially Ernakulam district.

- 7.1 Of the total 200 workers surveyed 52.5 percent workers were from the state of Bengal, 35 percent from Bihar, 5 percent from odissa, 4.5 percent from Uttar Pradesh, 3 percent from Tamil Nadu. Traditionally Kerala the largest number of workers used to come from Tamil Nadu. In fact, there are in Kerala many Tamilian colonies consisting of labour come from Tamil Nadu. This trends seems to have been reversed to when it comes to replacement labour.
- 7.2 The most common important reason for voluntary migration is economic. Better economic opportunities attract the labourers to move from one place to another. In the current study 41.5 percent of workers were attracted to Kerala because of higher wages and higher income in Kerala. The analytical results show that 71 percent respondents had earned an income between 1000-5000 before migration. But after migration only 12 respondents were in this category. 59 percent respondents seemed to have earned monthly income in the range of 5000-10000 per month after migration. 29 percent workers had the skill to earn the income between 10000-15000 per month. 6 percent respondents had the income between 15000 and above after their migration. The workers were found skilled enough to suit construction industry.
- 7.3 Remittances from out migration have a favourable impact on the living status of the respondents. Details of type of house and ownership of consumer durables which the respondents had acquired before and after migration is explained here. An enquiry into the nature of house ownership revealed that 9 percent had only their own houses before migration; the remaining 61 percent had stayed in rented houses. 30 percent had no houses before their migration. But after their migration because of good financial conditions 57 percent had built their own houses; the remaining 43 percent were stayed in rented houses. Among the houses 51 percent workers were living in thatched houses whereas 15 percent lived in tiled houses before their migration. After their migration 56 percent were in tiled houses and 6 percent had terraced houses. Remittance from out migration of workers have a favourable impact on the household durable goods and other labour saving devices. 40.5 percent had radio, 39 percent occupied television sets, 51 were used fans regularly, 9 percent had cooked their food with the help of stove/gas, 31 percent had their own bicycle. From the above results we could realise that migration to Kerala has a favorable impact on the migrant workers

- 7.4 The opinions were differed in the severity of problems they suffered in the migrated area. A high degree of risk and danger is involved in this work. The work proceeds in most situations under sun, cold, heat, rain, dust etc. The magnitude of accidents and occupational diseases associated with this work is appallingly high and complex. In addition to these dangers at work sites, continuous inhaling of cement dust causes irritation of lungs and eyes, plastering materials affect the skin, working at higher elevation lead to blood pressure. The health of the workers was adversely affected by variety of these factors (7.5 percent). Besides they (16 percent) had to work for long hours under strict control. 75 percent did not get enough time to visit their native place.

Policy Suggestions

- 1 In the current study the researcher found that there is a high degree of exploitation is faced by the these migrant workers from various sources such as in bus stand, railway stations, retail shops etc. As these migrant workers face the problem of communication and they often fall prey in front of culprit agencies. At present, the state government has no agency to provide correct information relating to various aspects of migration such as travel, work permit requirements, working conditions in the migrant area etc. Due to lack of knowledge the prospective migrants is totally ignorant of the conditions in the migrant area. In this context, it is suggested that a special information cell attached to the panchayaths, municipalities and corporations should be started for the purpose. Another alternative is to recognize some of the leading travel agents as agents for providing information to the public. Government may also publish a pamphlet for this purpose. Thus we can reduce the exploitation of these migrant workers in Kerala
- 2 In the current study 5 percent workers were self employed workers. These workers were not under the hands of contractors. They had their own freedom to find and do the woks in Kerala. They reported that they are interested and capable of undertaking their own projects here and in their state. The only obstruction before them to go ahead with the plan is the lack of finance. If the government can come forward to assist them in the required area of finance the researcher feel this particular group of migrant employees will prove better. So, it is to be suggested that the state governments should take initiatives to provide loans to the migrants who wish to engage in self-employment or gainful employment. This can be done through financial institutions coming under the state governments such as co-operative banks, state financial enterprises, finance corporations, co-operative credit societies etc. It will increase employment opportunities and reduce the cost of production of construction industry all over India.
- 3 it is to be suggested that the government should conduct a detailed study to assess the trend, pattern, magnitude and causes of the migrants. A detailed examination about the changes in the labour market, migration policies, problems faced by the migrants and causes of the migrants in the major migrant areas should be attempted. The study should also assess the present and future skill requirements of the migrant workers in Kerala. Based on the study, measures have to be taken to sustain the migration and to find alternative destination for these workers. Over and above under the supervision of the District Collector and agency can operate to monitor and do the day to day follow-up liaison work between the government and the migrant workers. Then only a fruitful result will come up on spending such a huge amount on these workers.
- 4 At the same time the researcher could feel that in the panchayaths, municipalities, and city corporations these government bodies are not having any record of these workers. So in this context, it is to be suggested that to reduce the negative consequences of migration at the point of destination proper and strict identification and regulation of migrant labour should be done by the government through local bodies. The each migrant should have a labour card issued by those government bodies

and in this card their name, age, name of their contractor, blood group etc. should be included. And there is a periodical or random checking of these workers should be carried out by the local bodies. Thus, we can maintain peace and order and amicable settlement with these labourers and we can utilise these workers other sectors as well.

References

Books

- Amarthya Sen (2000), "Development as freedom", Oxford University Press, New Delhi, pp.13-16.
- Balbir Singh and Sangeeta Nagaich (1991), "Female migration and employment. Some aspects", Women and Employment, Sterling Publishers, New Delhi, pp.113.
- Banerjee, B. (1998), "Migration motivation, family links and job search methods of rural –to-urban migration in India", Migration, Urbanization and Development: New Directions and Issues,; United Nations Population fund and Kluwer academic publishers, New York, pp.187-210.
- Bremaan, J. (1985), "Of peasants, migrants and paupers", Oxford University Press, New Delhi.
- Caplov, T. (1975), "The sociological of work", Minnesota press, Minneapolis, pp.11.
- Chatterjee Partha (2000), "Development planning and the Indian state", in Zoya Hasan (Ed.), Politics and the State in India, Sage Publications, New Delhi, pp.121-123.
- Churchill, G.A. (1979), "Marketing research", Methodological foundation, The Dryden Press, Hindsdale, Illinois, pp.123-126
- Colin Clark, (1951). "The condition of economic progress", MacMillan and Company, London, pp.395.
- Connell, J.B; Das Gupta, Laish Ley and Lipton, H. (1976), "Migration from rural areas: The evidence from rural studies", Oxford University press, New Delhi.
- Dinesh Mehta (1966), "Behavioural approach to migration decision making", Asia Publishing House, pp.56.
- Everett, S. (1968), "A theory of migration", D.M.Heer(ed.), Prentice Hall, New Jersey, pp.184.
- Francis Cherunilam (1987), "Migration causes correlates, consequences, trends and policies", Labour economics, Himalaya publications, New Delhi, pp.19-32.
- Hair, J.F; Ralph E. Anderson, Ronald L. Tathom and William C. Black (1995), "Multivariate Data Analysis", Prentice Hall, New Jersey, pp.256-258
- Mangalam, J.J.(1955) "Human migration", A guide to migration literature in English, Methnenand Co., London, pp.3.
- Malhotra, Naresh K. (2002), "Marketing research: An Applied Orientation", Pearson Edu. (India Branch). New Delhi, pp.432-436
- Memoria and Matoria, (1956), "Some aspects of industrial labour in India", Kitab Mahal. Ahmedabad, pp.40-46.
- Oberai, A.S. et. al., (1989), "Determinates and Consequences of internal migration in India", Oxford University Press, New Delhi.
- Patel, S.K and Talati, R.C (2002), "Labour migration in India", Labour Economics, Himalaya Publications, New Delhi, pp.45-46.
- Prakash, B.A. (2004), "Kerala's Economic Development", Sage Publications, New Delhi, pp.61-62.
- Saxena, R.C. (1969), "Labour problems and social welfare", K.Nath and Co., Merrut, pp.16-29.
- Unni, J. and Rani, V. (2003), "Employment and income in the informal economy: A micro-perspective", New Structures of Employment, Sage publications, New Delhi, pp.113-116
- Weinberg, A.A. (1961), "Migration and Belonging" Methnon and Co., London, pp.3.

Journals

- Agarwal, S.K. (1995), "Social classes of migrants and their anxiety", Indian Psychological Review, Vol.44 (5-6), pp.5-9
- Amita Shah (2001), "Water security Induced migration, can watershed projects help?", Economic and Political Weekly, Vol. XXXVI (35), September, pp. 3405-3409.
- Amitabh Kundu and Nirajan Sarangi (2007), "Migration, employment status and poverty- An analysis across urban centers", Economic and Political Weekly, Vol. XLII (4), February 2, pp.299-302.
- Arpita, B. and Saraswati, R. (2009), "Gender mobility: Women migrants and work in urban India", Economic and Political Weekly, Vol. XLIV (28), July 27, pp.115-123.
- Arup Mitra (2006), "Labour market mobility of low income households", Economic and Political Weekly, Vol.XLI (21), May 27, pp.2123-2124.
- Banerjee, B. (1984), "Information flow, expectations and job search: Rural – to-urban migration in India", Journal of Development Economics, Vol. 15, pp .239-257
- Bhattacharya, P.C. (1996), "The role of the informal sector in structural transformation: Some Indian evidence", Journal of International Development, Vol. 8(1), pp.83-94.
- Bhattacharya, P.C. (1998), "Migration, employment and development: A three sector analysis", Journal of International Development, Vol.10 (7), pp.899-922.
- Bhattacharya, P.C. (1998), "The informal sector and rural to urban migration: Some Indian evidences"; Economic and Political Weekly, Vol. 33 (21), pp. 1255-1262.
- Bhattacharya, P.C. (2002), "Rural-to urban migration in LDCs: A test of two rival models", Journal of International Development, Vol.14, pp. 951-972.
- Biswaroop, Das (1992), " Migrant labour in the construction sector", Man and Development, March, pp.119-131.



INTER UNIVERSITY CENTRE FOR ALTERNATIVE ECONOMICS

Set up in 2015 by Professor Abdul Salim.A of the Department of Economics, University of Kerala, the Inter University Centre for Alternative Economics (IUCAE) promotes research and studies in alternative economics which would address the problems of the economy and society beyond the neo-classical mainstream ideas. The centre is attached to the department of Economics, University of Kerala in Karyavattom campus, within 15 Kilometers from the city of Thiruvananthapuram.

FOCUS AREAS

- Neuroeconomics
- Open Economics
- Institutional Economics
- Ecological/ Green Economics
- Gandhian Economics
- Marxian Economics
- Islamic Economics
- Law and Economics
- Economics of Human Capital
- Economics of alternative development paradigms

ACADEMIC ACTIVITIES

- ▶▶ Two months' internships to postgraduate and M.Phil students
- ▶▶ Two months' associateships for researchers and faculty members of regular colleges and universities
- ▶▶ One year Short term research projects
- ▶▶ Three years Ph.D. programmes.

RESEARCH THEMES

- ▶▶ Migration and institutions
- ▶▶ Institutions and economic development
- ▶▶ Social capital, human capital and development
- ▶▶ Financial institutions, human capital and development
- ▶▶ Globalisation and marine resources
- ▶▶ Environmental policy and economic development
- ▶▶ Ecology, Sustainability and Tourism
- ▶▶ Interest free banking system
- ▶▶ Globalisation and Islamic finance
- ▶▶ Islamic economics vs. neo classical economics
- ▶▶ Gandhian vs mainstream economics
- ▶▶ Gandhian path and sustainable development
- ▶▶ Marxism vs. liberalism
- ▶▶ Marxian analysis of inequality
- ▶▶ Capitalism and labour rights
- ▶▶ Cognitive science of economic decisions
- ▶▶ Uncertainty, rationality and neuroeconomics