

Rebuilding the Lives of **MIGRANT WORKERS** in India

Primary Research Study



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The report brings empirical evidence of the realities of migrant workers from seven states of India. The first part is the overview of the overall findings, followed by the details of all the states. The study traces what is common in all the states and what is distinctive in each state. The data from the destination is presented first, followed by the source.



Foreword

Migrant workers are a product of the fast-moving world of Capitalism and often face the harshest challenges while migrating to other places for professional or personal reasons. Rebuilding the lives of Migrant workers in India complement the overall mission of Caritas India's commitment to empower and restore the human dignity of the poor and marginalized migrant workers by partnering with intermediary organizations in extending support and facilitation and advocating for their rights.

This study investigates the socioeconomic, political, and educational circumstances of the internal migrant workers from seven Indian states. The ground realities of Delhi, Uttar Pradesh, Haryana, Tamil Nadu, Gujarat, and Chhattisgarh, as well as those of Madhya Pradesh, are being investigated based on the information gathered from the migrant workers. The focus of the project is to gather evidence from migrant workers' sources (states of origin) and their current destinations. The source data is drawn from Madhya Pradesh and Chhattisgarh, and other states are treated as destinations as they have a major influx of migrant workers representing North, South, and Central India.

The report brings empirical evidence of the realities of migrant workers from seven states of India with an overview of the findings and details of all the states. The study traces what is common in all the states and what is distinctive in each state. The first section of the report covers the reasons for migration, the main occupation of migrants in both the source and destination states, living conditions of migrants, social security, state of health, and the position of women and children. The second part of the report is on the living conditions of the family. The third part covers the social security of migrants; fourth part is on the status of women and children; and the last part cross-verifies the policy concerns and actions. I hope that this detailed study report intrigues you to understand the situation of migrant workers and gives an understanding on how Caritas India and its partners lead the regional effort to rebuild the lives of migrant workers and advocating for their rights.

I hope this study report will help to streamline our work towards working for the emancipation of the well being of our migrant friends.

My sincere gratitude to Caritas Australia for their assistance and fulfilling the vision and mission of Caritas India.

Fr (Dr.) Paul Moonjely
Executive Director
Caritas India



Acknowledgment

The Project Rebuilding the Lives of Migrant Laborers in India is a unique journey into the socio-economic reality of the internal migrant workers whose stories have been explored both from their source and the states of destination. Caritas India aims to empower migrant workers through poverty alleviation and resilience building programmes to enable them to sustain themselves against all odds, and also promote their development and growth.

This report reveals the study on how the communities of migrant workers, who are among the most at-risk groups, are vulnerable in regard to job, food security, living circumstances, education, and refusal of various social security benefits. The COVID-19 outbreak in India's retrograde movement gave the worst conceivable picture of their weakness.

The details mentioned in this report about the living conditions of the migrant workers from the states of Delhi, Uttar Pradesh, Haryana, Gujarat, Tamil Nadu, Madhya Pradesh, and Chhattisgarh, speaks strongly for the required efforts from various sectors to ensure dignified living conditions for the migrant workers. A strong need to ensure social security benefits for migrant workers gives Caritas India the right opportunity to implement projects focusing on the migrant workers. This study covers the different dimensions where the migrant workers face challenges and which all areas they need to be empowered.

I exhibit sincere words of appreciation to Dr. Jolly Jose, Principal Investigator/Assistant Director Research, Amity School of Communication and Dr. Ashima Singh, Co-Principal Investigator, Amity School of Communication, Amity University Noida who did an extensive task of gathering information from various parts of the country and collating it. We are grateful to all the migrant workers who cooperated with the team and all the people willing to be interviewed and add value to this study.

My sincere gratitude to Caritas Australia for providing their support and cooperation in this endeavor.

Fr (Dr.) Jolly Puthenpura
Assistant Executive Director
Caritas India

Executive Summary

Migration is regarded as an ongoing process that depends on the different resources available in the eco system. The internal migrants who relocate within the country fall into one of four groups, according to Amin (2018) and Kishore and Kiran (2013): urban-rural, rural-rural, urban-urban, and rural-urban. The communities of migrant workers, who are among the most at-risk groups, are vulnerable in regard to job, food security, living circumstances, education, and refusal of various social security benefits. The COVID-19 outbreak in India's retrograde movement gave the worst conceivable picture of their weakness.

The study investigates the socioeconomic, political, and educational circumstances of the internal migrant workers from seven Indian states. The ground realities of Delhi, Uttar Pradesh, Haryana, Tamil Nadu, Gujarat, and Chhattisgarh, as well as those of Madhya Pradesh, are being investigated based on the information gathered from the migrant workers. The focus of the project is to gather evidence from migrant workers' sources (states of origin) and their current destinations. The source data is drawn from Madhya Pradesh and Chhattisgarh, and other states are treated as destinations as they have a major influx of migrant workers representing North, South, and Central India.

The primary factors are being investigated, by applying both quantitative and qualitative methods. This covers the reasons for migration, the main occupation of migrants in both the source and destination states, living conditions of migrants, social security, state of health, and the position of women and children. It provides proof of the many ethnic groups that make up each destination state. The economic aspects explore the average earning members of the family, the number of working days, average income, mode of payment, saving habits, and expenditure. The second part of the report is on the living conditions of the family. The third part covers the social security of migrants; the fourth part is the status of women and children; and the last part cross-verifies the policy concerns and actions. The data from the source was covered using focus group discussions from multiple sections of the villages. On the basis of the cross-verified data, the common emerging pattern was sought. The destination data was gathered from multiple sections and as per their duration in the destination; the types of job they are engaged in, as well as from various age group, and gender specification such as youth, middle-aged men, women, and children.

The study reveals that the migrant workers do not just work in one state but move between different states. The highest number of flow is from Bihar to all the five states and second biggest number is from Jharkhand. The unskilled labour market is unsteady for a daily labourer in the cities. A few of them still do not find jobs every day, even in their destination. It further shows that the living conditions of the migrant workers are extremely poor, and most of them are forced to live near garbage dumping areas, drainage, and even on roadside temporary shelters. The result unveils that no documentation of the migrants is still available, either at the source or destination. Although migration has given more job opportunities to women, a good number of them are victims of domestic violence and are in other vulnerable situations.

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Abbreviations

ST	Scheduled Tribes
OBC	Other Back Word Community
MSME	Micro, Small & Medium Enterprises
MP	Madhya Pradesh
PPS	Probability Proportional to size
UP	Uttar Pradesh
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
NGO	Non-Government Organization
APL	Above Poverty Line
BPL	Below Poverty Line
ASHA	Accredited Social Health Activist
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
COVID	Corona Virus Disease

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1 Introduction

Migration has been a historical phenomenon with multiple factors linked to this process. In the recent past, several factors have impacted the internal migration of people in India. The uneven growth pattern of agriculture, non-agriculture sectors, and rural and urban areas has steadily widened in the past decades. These growing inequalities have impacted the movement of labourers and vulnerable sections of society searching for a better economic perspective.

Though the cause of rural migration is heightened as "human distress"¹, it has played a significant role in bridging the gap in the living standards of various sections of society. The migration literature emphasises factors like the vulnerable farming conditions of the small farmers who depend widely on rain as the major cause of migration from rural to urban India. Seasonal² or permanent migration is the only option for their survival. They looked for supplemental income to settle their debts or to meet their daily needs. India's statistical systems are inadequate to capture the flow of such labour.³ Of late, better infrastructure, like roads and telecommunications, has positively contributed to the mobility of the labour market to several parts of the country⁴.

As per the National Sample Survey of India, 'a migrant is a person residing in a place other than his/her place of birth or one who has changed his/her usual place of residence to another place'. The report on migration in India 2020–21 released by the National Statistical Office shows that the migrant rate in India is 28.9%. Based on the report 'migration in India 2020-21', a large number of men and women continue to migrate within the country looking for better employment and quality life.

¹ Chandrasekhar, C. P., & Ghosh, J. (2007). Growth and employment in organised industry
Also see C.P. Chandrasekhar, The Progress of "Reform" and the Retrogression of Agriculture

² The usual explanation given for seasonal migration is under-employment in rural areas - the practice of being for migrants to work away from their villages for one or two months, before going back again in order to cultivate their crops.

³ See *Srivastava, R.S. (2003). An Overview of Migration in India, Its Impacts And Key Issues*
Korra, V. (2011). Short duration migration in India: an appraisal from census 2001

Korra, V. (2011). Labour migration in Mahabubnagar: Nature and characteristics. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 67-70.

⁴ See *Srivastava, R. (2011). Internal migration in India. Human Development in India*. Also see *Srivastava, Ravi (2012b) "Internal Migration in India: An Overview of its Features, trends, and Policy Challenges". National Workshop on Internal Migration and Human Development in India Workshop Compendium Vol. II: Workshop Papers October 2012. New Delhi: United Nations Educational.*

Table: A Migration rate (percentage of migrants in the population) in India

Migration Rate	Rural: 26.5%	Urban: 34.9%	percentage of migrants in the population in India: 28.9%
	Male: 5.9%	Male: 22.5%	
	Female: 48.0%	Female 47.8%	

Source: Report on migration in India 2020-21

The cause of labour migration has been the result of the demand for labour in plantations and in the industries in the cities. Deforestation, communal violence, and natural calamities also force people to move to fresher locations. Eventually, it created a new cultural and sociological conception of migrant communities (people started to move in groups and live in the new location for a longer duration). In colonial India, a large number of such communities emerged from the eastern districts of Uttar Pradesh, Eastern Madhya Pradesh, and West Bihar⁵. Their primary destination was Calcutta (Kolkata), the industrial hub of the time; the tea estates in Assam; and labourers were also recruited to work in mines and on the construction of railways. A single-line migration from Ratnagiri to Bombay (Mumbai) in the 1920s was the result of the attraction of factories and cotton mills. Besides the agriculture sector, there were semi-skilled and skilled weavers who became unemployed due to the upcoming factories in the cities. (Weavers lost their jobs as mills came up in the cities). In these sectors, unskilled and semi-skilled males dominated the migrant communities.

According to Bates (2000), for the elite, migration is a careful, conscious choice. Their occupation is specialized. The monopolised communities in different streets of bigger cities like Kolkata, Mumbai, Delhi are an example where the 'push' factor is materialized. The other nature of migrants is seasonal. This big section populates cities as well as the areas of a specific job. Workers in the rice mills and sugar cane farms in Uttar Pradesh are one such group. They live in temporary shelters if they come with their families, or they rent the house or share the shelter with other occupants⁶.

Migrants' occupation varies according to the nature of labour demand in a given location. Certain industries required both male and female labour, and the females were paid less. This created a unique job market for female migrants.

The manner in which the labourers are recruited indicates the source and supply of labourers⁷. Bengalis were the major workforce throughout the 19th century, and non-Bengalis were constituted from *Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, and Orissa*, and mostly they belong low-caste groups and tribal communities. They were deployed as labourers in tea gardens in Assam, the mines of Tata Iron and Steel Company in *Singhbum* and *Chota Nagpur*. A large number also work on roads, drains and in botanical and vegetable gardens, new railway construction, and dock work⁸. Besides the financial constraints in the place of origin, better employability (including women), access to housing, school, and medical facilities, and connection with kin for support⁹ in the destination are found to be the push factors for migration.

⁵ See Bates, C. (2000). *Coerced and migrant labourers in India: The colonial experience*. Edinburgh: Centre for South Asian Studies, University of Edinburgh.

⁶ This phenomenon has observed by the research team

⁷ Cited by Ranajit Das Gupta, 1996, from the original article de Haan, A. (1995). Migration in eastern India: Das Gupta, 'Structure of the Labour Market', in his work. 1781. describes the labour market as a 'complex multiplicity of market structures within the colonial economy'.

For example, the Labour Enquiry Commission reported that 'thousands of emigrants find their way to the neighbourhood of Calcutta where they get work in the mills and other employment, and it has been always a matter of astonishment that so few of these travellers have hitherto stopped to work at the mines'. Quoted in Das Gupta, 'Structure of the Labour Market', p. 1782. Simmons noted: 'it is difficult to understand why so many people seemed to prefer travelling such vast distances [to tea plantations] when the comparatively nearby colliery areas were providing expanding employment opportunities ...' 'Recruiting and Organising an Industrial Labour Force', p. 472. At present, various forms of segmentation still exist. For example, Banerjee describes traditions about divisions of workers between occupations in Calcutta, such as rickshaw pulling (usually carried out by Biharis), tailoring (generally by Hindi-speaking Muslims or by Hindu refugees from East Bengal), and biriyani making (usually by Muslims). But she concludes: 'One does not know anything about the barriers which work to maintain these divisions, nor how rigid they are in the context of rapidly changing conditions of workers and residents.' Nirmala Banerjee, *Women Workers in the Unorganized Sector. The Calcutta Experience*, Hyderabad, 1985, p. 37

⁸ See Salve W.N. Labour Rights and Labour Standards for Migrant Labour in India

⁹ See Saurabh Sethi, Ranjit Singh Ghuman and Wilfred Isioma Ukpere (2010), Socio-economic analysis of the migrant labourers in Punjab Also see Cheng, S.J.A. (1999). Labor Migration and International Sexual Division of Labor: A Feminist Perspective

For internal migration, similar criteria have remained constant over the years. According to Migration in India 2020-21, the primary reasons for migration is seeking a job or a better job (22.8%), Other factors are looking for business, proximity to a job, or a transfer (20.1%). The first and second categories, however, do not specify the distinction while stating the reason as seeking a job. The third reason for migration reveals that 6.7% of people migrate because of job loss, unit closure, and lack of job opportunities. In general, it can be concluded that 49.6% of people move for better jobs or they are jobless. Parental or family income-earning member accounts for 17.5% of the cause of migration. The reason behind lack of employment is not found in the study¹⁰. The same report unveils the cause of migration among women is marriage (86.8%). Another 7.3% move as the result of parents' migration or another earning member has migrated. Housing problem is the cause for 0.8%. It does not point out the exact problem related to housing. A small minority move to take up some employment, or better employment or business or proximity to place of work and due to transfer.

According to the census report 2011, the total number of persons moved for work as migrant is 41.42million in the country. Out of them 3.56 million are in 12 states as shown in the table B. The movements of the migrants are not limited to one sector or region, instead it is rural to rural, rural to urban, urban to rural and urban to urban.

Table B: Number of persons moved in for job

Sl.No	State/ UT	No. of persons moved in for job
1	Punjab	1244056
2	Haryana	1333644
3	West Bengal	1656952
4	Rajasthan	1709602
5	NCT of Delhi	2029489
6	Madhya Pradesh	2415635
7	Karnataka	2887216
8	Gujarat	3041779
9	Uttar Pradesh	3156125
10	Tamil Nadu	3487974
11	Andhra Pradesh	3737316
12	Maharashtra	7901819
	Total	35622684

Source: census 2011

Both male and female constitute this heavy flow in search of job and a better opportunity. Table C and D provides the details of last location of the migrants who lives in rural and urban area.

Table C: Location of migrants by last usual place of residence in the Rural area

Category of Migrants	Location of last usual place of residence		
Male	Rural: 44.6%	Urban: 51.6%	Another country: 3.9%
Female	Rural: 88.8%	Urban: 11.0%	0.2%

Source: Migration in India: 2020-21

¹⁰ See Report Migration in India, 2020-21 table F and G for reason for migration for women

Table D: Location of migrants by last usual place of residence in the Urban area

Category of Migrants	Location of last usual place of residence		
Male migrants in urban area	Rural: 53.7%	Urban: 44.6%	Another country: 2.3%
Female migrants in urban area	Rural: 54.0%	Urban: 45.6%	0.4%

Male to female migration from rural to rural is 44.6 percent for men and 88.8% for women. While urban migration is 11 percent for women and 51.6 percent for men, respectively. When taking into account of the urban data, migration to urban areas is nearly equal for both males and females (Table D) Male and female migration rates are 53.7 percent and 54.0 percent from rural to urban, and 44.6 percent and 45.6 percent from urban to urban, respectively.

Study by Chant and Radcliffe ¹¹highlight that women's dominant migration is gender-selective towards urban areas in Latin America, Africa East, and Southeast Asia and is not necessarily associational—related to the movement of the male (Dickenson 1983). Females are in high demand in Southeast Asia, as well as in the Latin American service sector. The study by Chant and Radcliffe also conclude that most of the decisions of female migrants are autonomous and made within the family, which are the result of social and cultural constraints. However, the report 'migration in India 20-21' shows that the cause of 86 percent of female migration is marriage. The migrant women work, on construction sites, service sector, agriculture sector and in domestic work sector. Nevertheless, they are one of the vulnerable groups made to work till the last stage of their pregnancy and resume soon after delivery. Women who work in sugar cane are expected to work for 20 hours¹². Often, they are exposed to harassment and sexual exploitation by their supervisors. However, various scholars emphasise¹³ that female migration is a strategy of economic diversification, a desire for personal growth, and autonomy.

Along with the changes in the socio-economic situation, changes are also found in the work patterns of migrant workers. Rural migrants, generally working in the agricultural sector, have changed their work status as they migrate to urban locations, and take up non-agriculture work.

Seasonal and short-term circular migrants mostly reside at work sites or in the open, and some might eventually become long-term circular migrants. They are part of the informal economy and generally work as contract or casual workers¹⁴. But the National Sample Survey didn't capture the magnitude of the issues of seasonal migrants¹⁵. According to the Monthly Per capita Expenditure, 80-90 million migrant workers are vulnerable, with 49-65 percent of the urban labour force having lived in the city for less than two years¹⁶. They concentrate on the informal economy and spread across construction, agriculture, manufacturing, mining, and the service sector.

Circular migration is no longer a new phenomenon in India. Evidence from 1991 indicates that this huge migration pushes the most vulnerable communities to leave their areas in order to manage their economic difficulties. However, the size of the rural labour circulation largely surfaces from 1990s as a direct result of economic structural changes. According to various publications, the reason for seasonal or circular migration is the consequence of a 'partial or total collapse of rural employment generation, the economic constraints of

¹¹See Chant and Radcliffe (1992) cited by Aha Tollefsen Altamirano in the work Feminist Theories and Migration Research-Making Sense making sense in the data Fest 1997

¹² Abdul Jaleel C P and Aparajita Chattopadhyay, 2019 Livelihood Crisis and Distress: Seasonal Migration in Beed District of Maharashtra

¹³ See Standing, H. (2022), Bogdanova, E., Filant, K., Sukhova, E., Zabolotnikova, M., Filant, P., Raheem, D., ... & Lobanov, A. (2022)

¹⁴ See Srivastava (2020), R. Growing Precarity, Circular Migration, and the Lockdown in India.

¹⁵ See Srivastava, Ravi (2012c) "Social Protection for Workers in India: Struggling for Basic Rights under Increasing Labour Market Flexibility".

¹⁶ See Srivastava, R. Growing Precarity, Circular Migration, and the Lockdown in India

agriculture, and the absence of other work possibilities in underdeveloped regions of the country'. In actuality, a large number of poor people living in underdeveloped agricultural areas today adopt it as their livelihood strategy.

As per the 1991 National Commission report on Rural Labour, there were 6 million internal migrants, the majority of them belonged to Scheduled Castes (SC) and Scheduled Tribes (ST). They are relatively inexperienced and youthful. According to Breman (1993), the majority of the circular migrants were from the lower class and the disadvantaged. Later study conducted by Rani and Shylendra in 2001 shows that the lack of resources in the rural sector is the cause of seasonal migration., Which includes lack of land, insufficient rainfall, less fruitful land, and jobs unrelated to agriculture. Additionally, according to Deshingkar et al. (2009), the seasonal relocation of the SC and ST groups is a forced "coping technique" to meet their basic necessities. Studies conducted by scholars from other parts of the country in 2010, 2012, 2019 (see notes, 15, 16 and 17) reveal unchanging reality of the migrant workers.



The migrant workers employed in the labour sectors are mostly unskilled and do not follow labour standards. They also keep a low profile in their workplace and are held responsible for theft or conflict. They adapt to social conditions and live in the shadows¹⁷. There is also impossibility of participating in the mainstream economy of the urban setting while remaining invisible to social programmes that directly target them in rural settings. The central government neither recognised the magnitude of the nature of vulnerability nor the centrality of the issue¹⁸.

1.2 COVID: Pandemic and Migrant Workers

The COVID-19 Pandemic is one of the biggest humanitarian disasters that brought economic and social-cultural challenges to humans in recent history. Due to existing disparities in economic growth, distribution of facilities, and recovery of life situation, the Pandemic had a disproportional effect on society. One of such sections is the migrant workers, who completely lost their jobs and were forced to go for reverse migration and remained without a job for a longer period. The government of India has declared several relief programmes and packages to support and improve their economic conditions, health status, and social situations.

Most of the Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises (MSME) employ migrant workers, they contribute to the 45 percent of the export from India. The transient nature of their work neither ensure the support of the government of their source (Where they come from) or the destination (where they work). Interstate migrant workers Act (1979) is the major supportive force for the migrant workers. COVID +19 pandemic stranded the work for 45 million self-employed under privileged non-agricultural workers like barbers, rikshaw/ ola/uber drivers and petty traders etc. The vulnerable section also includes 150.6 million regular wage earners¹⁹. With the enforcement of lockdown the daily wagers become jobless and frustrated due to the cessation of their daily income. They could not meet the needs of their family, and livelihood came to a standstill. In addition to this, *"their life has been found that the perils of sickness and deaths vary colossally by social location as race, social class gender, age, ability and geographic location"*. Five studies conducted in 2020 state about the economic condition affected with Pandemic lockdown. Another three studies carried out in 2009 and 2020 (Jesline, J., Romate, J., Rajkumar, E. et

¹⁷ See Picherit, D., 2019. Labour migration brokerage and Dalit politics in Andhra Pradesh: a Dalit fabric of labour circulation Also see Korra Vijay ,2010

¹⁸ See footnote 14.

¹⁹ See Jesline, J., Romate, J., Rajkumar, E. et al.

al. 2020) shows suicidal attempts by people from economically vulnerable sections stemming out of their loss of job. Around 100 million migrants were stuck in a migrant land with no means to live. The migrants were spread to the major growth centres like Delhi, Tamil Nadu, Kerala, Andhra Pradesh and Maharashtra. A secondary source analysis shows that only 45 percent of the total population of the migrants received rations allotted by the government,²⁹ percent did not received rations even being a ration card holder. Almost 90 percent faced loss of pay or deduction in their payment. The estimated decline in the payment of wage by post lockdown was 22.6 percent. Studies also suggest for interventions by government, revival of existing policies, taking new initiatives, Further problems of migrants did not get settled after reverse migration²⁰

Migration happens at individual, family and at community levels. Multiples reasons attributes to the cause of migration in India. The major cause of migration among the unorganized section of the workers is lack of job, poor living condition, and infrastructure. An improved living condition is the ultimate focus of the migration. Besides the labour privileges, the migrants face language, administrative challenges. They also face socio-cultural and language barriers in the destination. Substance abuse, poor access to health care, poor living conditions and financial scuffles are challenges of migrating to a new state. Further, majority of the migrants are slum dwellers Babu et al. (2017), deprived of nutritious food and healthy diet²¹. There is no government machinery to address their concerns/grievances. They also do not have any privileges in the destination. During lockdown, in most of the states, they were the weakest and socially neglected section. The reverse migration²² in India by the migrant workers were the outcome of this vulnerable situation of the migrants.

Harris-Todaro (1970)²³ focuses on the argument that economic considerations are the primary driver of rural-urban migration. According to this assumption, a person's decision to move would be influenced by predicted higher income (real wage differentials) and their likelihood of finding employment in an urban area. According to Lee's (1966)²⁴, migration is caused by both push and pull causes. Pull considerations at destinations include better jobs, greater earnings, better quality of life, and prospects for good health and education. Contrarily, push (distress) factors at home including unemployment, low wages, agricultural failure, debt, drought, and other natural calamities drive migration.

The lack of quality data has become a huge concern in identifying and preparing proper relief and long-term plans for the migrant population in India, especially during the pandemic and the post-pandemic situation.

2.3 Objectives of the study

The study explores to determine the socio-economic, educational and political condition of the internal migrant workers. Data was gathered from seven states of India representing North, South and Central India as the migrants' movements are not restricted and a good majority move from rural North and Eastern states to the cities regardless of the distance. Data from destination (Place of living as migrant) and the source (place of origin) are gathered by using both quantitative and qualitative method.

The main objective of the study is:

To develop a deeper understanding of the overall situation and vulnerabilities of migrant workers (both at

²⁰ See Mishra A, Sayeed N (2020)

²¹ See Jesline, J., Romate, J., Rajkumar, E. et al. The plight of migrants during COVID-19 and the impact of circular migration in India: a systematic review. *Humanit Soc Sci Commun* 8, 231 (2021). <https://doi.org/10.1057/s41599-021-00915-6>

²² Failure in the implementation of the government's assurance to provide basic necessities such as food and water forced thousands of migrant labourers to flock to the city's bus terminals. Those could not find a conveyance, even started to walk to their state of origin. It was started in Delhi-NCR. The government then regularized the travel. The situation was found the same across the country. A huge number of migrants returned to their place of origin, for food and social secueiry.

²³ See Harris, J.R and M.P. Todaro (1970), 'Migration, Unemployment and Development: A Two-Sector Analysis: American Economic Review, Vol. 60, no.1. pp. 126-42., Cited by Corra Vijay

²⁴ See Kumpikaite, Vilmane ; Zickute, Ineta(2012) Synergy of Migration Theories, *Inzinerine Ekonomika-Engineering Economics*, 2012

Source & Destination States) with regard to their:

- Economic condition, livelihood, and food security
- Living conditions
- Employment opportunities or challenges, working conditions, and social security (rights & entitlements)
- Status of Health
- Situation of children of migrant workers in terms of their education, nutrition & health
- Other factors i.e., social prejudice, political exclusion, and discrimination

The document has four chapters the present chapter is the introduction followed by Concepts and Definition, methodology, analysis of data from destination, analysis of Source data and findings.

1.4 Concepts and Definitions

Stay Together: Migrant worker live in the destination with his/her spouse.

Destination: The location to which the migrant worker has moved for a job

Source: The place of origin or the birthplace of a migrant worker is where the person has moved for a job.

State of Origin: Place of birth of the migrant worker or where the person has grown up as mentioned by the person.

Migrant worker: A person who is a migrant within the country works mostly as an unskilled worker in the unorganised sector for a daily wage. Some of them may also be semiskilled or skilled and move from one location to another for a certain period as per the labour demand.

Family occupation: The traditional occupation of the family



Earning Member: It is the adult who is a contributing member. Even if a child is found to be earning, they are not counted as an earning member.

Access to electricity: Any kind of electricity connection to the house, authorised or unauthorized, is considered having access to electricity.

Native place: Place of origin, or where the migrant worker lived and worked before migrating to another location.

Asked by anyone to vacate the house: A migrant worker is being asked to vacate by any authority as he or she is living in an unauthorised place or building or asked to move as the place is being declared for any official purpose, or asked to vacate after knowing that the person is merely vulnerable and can be easily moved by any individual, group, or organization.

Safe to live: feeling of safety in terms of physical attack, the safety of women from any source. It does not include any natural calamity.

Subsidised gas: The subsidy given by the government to the poor family.

Asha (ASHA) Worker: A community health worker employed by the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare as a part of India's National Rural Health Mission is known as an Accredited Social Health Activist.

Extra Work: The work requested of the labourer in exchange for an additional hour(s) of work or being asked to do something other than the work requested. For example, a woman may be asked to come early and do cooking and cleaning, or a man to do shopping, calling, or the personal work of the owner.

Operates Bank account: The day today activities such as money deposits and withdrawals, as well as money sending and receiving. It may be physical or on line.

Sexually Harassed: Any type of harassment involving the use of explicit or implicit sexual overtones, including the unwelcome and inappropriate promises of rewards in exchange for sexual favours.

Children as supportive person in work: Involving children in a portion of the work done by the parents or anyone else requested by the job provider or the parents themselves or as helper by cooking food or fetching water and the related work.

Local school: Any school near the residence of the migrant workers either in the destination or source.

Industrial labour: working in any small or big industry or subsection of a particular industry.

Skilled Labour: Any work required specific skill and training to perform in an industry or traditionally performed work like carpentry, mason, weaving are considered in this group

Subjects: The term is used to indicate the respondent of the interview

Negative data: False information provided by responders Poor people frequently give false information regarding their living circumstances, income, and children's educational level. The quality of the assistance they receive will depend on how well the negative data is documented. All parents are obligated to send their kids to school, but the majority of migrants prefer that their kids stay behind to help support them and to lessen the stress of continuing their education. It was normal to assume negative data about women, especially when the data was sensitive.

Harassment: Any conduct that results in another person's pain on a physical, mental, or emotional level It can

be a threat from a spouse, a co-worker, job provider or by anyone. Migrants are more vulnerable to harassment as they are strangers and keeping a low profile (they mostly live in temporary shelters or in slums; they are physically different from the people of the new destination and are comparatively less educated or illiterate). Harassment also can be sexual abuse, use of offensive language, or a touching. It might occur anywhere, even at work or at home.

Illegal work: Any work which is banned by the government as illegal by the government of India such as selling of liquor without licence, drugs, agents of drugs, keeping or selling of banned tobacco products, theft, agent to child or human trafficking. Question 45 in the survey questionnaire is being focused answer the question with yes or no answer whether any one is forced to do any such activities.

Support from health care: The primary care centre, 'anganwadi' worker, and ASHA worker are the ground-level health workers who are expected to visit the homes and keep track of the health follow-up of the pregnant and nursing women and children up to five years. They also keep a formal record of the community's health. These services are free and comes under the health plan of the government. Anganwadi worker is the person work in Anganwadi Services (under Umbrella Integrated Child Development Services Scheme) was launched in 1975 with the objectives to improve the nutritional and health status of children in the age-group 0-6 years and to lay the foundation for proper psychological, physical and social development of the child.

Poverty in India: According to the planning commission 2021, poverty line in terms of consumption, expenditure would amount of ₹ 4,080 per month in rural areas and ₹ 5,000 per month in urban areas. The poverty line, however, will vary from state to state.

The study explores to determine the socio-economic, educational and political condition of the internal migrant workers.

2.1 Geographical coverage

The study covered seven states of India, representing northern states where there is a heavy flow of migrants as destination and source. Representative sample of North India, Central India, and South India, which include Delhi, Haryana, Uttar Pradesh UP), Chhattisgarh, Madhya Pradesh, Gujrat, and Tamil Nadu were taken as sample for the study (see appendix II for the brief demography of the states).

2.2 Sample Design

Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used to gather the data at the destination. Qualitative data was used to gather data from the source. Delhi, Haryana, Gujarat, and Tamil Nadu were treated as destinations. Chhattisgarh and Madhya Pradesh, on the other hand, were treated as source states. According to the 2011 census report, these states are among the top 12 states with the highest number of migrants. Uttar Pradesh is both a source and a destination for migrants. As a result, urban areas in UP are treated as destinations, while rural areas are treated as sources.





II Methodology

2.3 Data from Destination

For the destination, 'snow ball' technique was used to identify the migrant workers who are scattered in multiple parts of the city. A stratified multistage sampling technique was used to identify the migrants from the northern, eastern, southern, and western parts of the cities. Migrants were classified based on the variety of occupations they pursued and the clusters in which they lived or worked. At the first stage, the migrants' locations were identified, and at the second stage, they were interviewed as per the sampling frame developed based on the duration in the present location and the age. The ultimate units were the individual migrants in urban clusters. Clusters were selected using Probability Proportional to Size (PPC) sampling procedure with replacement considering the number of migrants lived or worked in a particular cluster.

A sample frame was developed using an interval scale based on the duration of the current place of residence. (1) Fresh migrants (those in the destination up to one year), (2) New migrants (those in the destination from one to four years), (3) Old migrants (those in the destination from five to nine years), (4) Very old migrants (those in the destination for more than 10 years). Each category was divided into three sections: (1) young migrants who are up to 30 years old; (2) Middle age (30 to 55 years) (3) Elderly, above 55 years. Data was collected as per the availability of the sample from both male and female workers.

Five broader categories of employment area were identified at the initial stage, (1) domestic job, (2) construction workers, (3) small vendors, (4) cycle ricksha pullers or e rickshaw drivers or any (5) other daily wagers. As the data progressed, more employment areas were identified and they were also included in the category. Each state had various employment focus and they were targeted accordingly. Children's data was collected separately using the survey questionnaire, observation method, interview of the adult and Focus Group Discussion. A separate set of questions were used in the survey questionnaire to gather the data on women and children.

2.4 Data from Source

Source data was collected from Five districts of Two states Madhya Pradesh and Chhattisgarh. Same data was

collected from one districts of Uttar Pradesh. Storified random sample was used to select the communities. Semi-structured group discussion was conducted from three selected circles of the sections of the community. Districts were selected according to the censuses 2011 data and the findings of the 'Caritas India team' who is already working in those states with first-hand information on migration from those districts. Data was gathered based on the pre-visit made to the village and the information gathered from the Grama panchayath on the migration of the communities. Purposive sampling procedure was used to select the block, panchayat, village and the subsets (streets). Three subsets from a village represented three sets of communities: adults (Men), Women, youth and children. Three villages from five Panchayaths were selected using PPC procedure. Both panchayats and villages were also selected representing highest number of migration, moderate number of migration and minimum number of migration. Semi-structured group discussion was conducted among adults (Men), Women, youth and children from the three subsets.

2.5 Focus Group Discussion

Focus Group Discussion (FGD) is used to obtain data from a purposely selected group. This conversation-based exploration would help to gather unbiased data from the specific group. This was conducted with the community representatives and women after checking the data requirement. A total number of 15 FGD is being conducted from five destination states both as explorative method and a validity measure. FGD questions are attached in the appendix.

2.6 Observation:

The method is used to systematically gather data on the behaviours and the socio-economic context of the migrant community. Observation was also used to understand the status of children. The field data has been collected from the people from the places they work and live. Most of the data is collected by meeting them in their area of residence, where the living condition of the migrants are being observed and charted.

2.7 Data on children

The status of the children was gathered from the interview of the adults, observation and qualitative data. Children were also interviewed with the permission of an adult. FGD was conducted with children from source.

2.8 In-depth Interview

A total of 12 in-depth interviews were being conducted. Seven were with the subject experts and persons working in NGOs on migrant workers to propel the policy and practises related to migrant workers and their welfare. Five in-depth interviews were conducted with the respondents from destination as a validity measure, such as children, youth, the elderly, women, and fresh migrants. It was observed that there was a tendency to give wrong information related to migration as the group tended to give more negative data, expecting to get support from any agency



or government machinery. Therefore, an ongoing review was conducted with the data collector, and verification was done throughout the sample collection based on the In-depth interview conducted simultaneously with the respondents. It was also observed that at the initial stage of data collection, a very small number of migrants were found at the initial stage of the data collection and in two months' time, a large number of migrants were moving into the city after the reverse migration.

2.9 Sampling and data collection

The total sample covers 3843. The survey targeted a random number of 600 respondents from five states and after cleaning the data 2631 samples were considered from five states for quantitative data analysis. Semi-structured group discussion from three source states covering 13 villages and 40 sub section (including UP, UP data is not coded in the major data. It is used as cross validation) focused 900 participants. Focused group discussion from five states included 300 participants' and the in-depth interview were conducted with 12 individuals. The data was collected between the month of May to August 2022. Manual coding was used to analyse the Focus group discussion. Thematic analysis was used to analyse the qualitative data and Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) was used to analyse the quantitative data.

A questionnaire with 78 questions was used to gather the quantitative data from the migrants of their destination. Data has been gathered after mapping the locations of the migrants based on the diversity of labour and after conducting informal discussions with them. A face-to-face survey is conducted by the trained field investigators in all the states of destination. Data was collected from the locations of jobs, settlements, and other locations where they are being found. The *labour chowk* in Delhi and Noida was one of the locations where the daily labour waited in the early morning to be called for a job by a contractor. The people were approached in the early morning around 7.00 am before they left for work, on Sundays when they stay back at home, in the early evening as the small vendors usually start to set up their shops, and in the evening from 7.00 pm onwards, when they are mostly available at home, during the day at their work site as and when they are free to connect, and during the day in their place of living if they didn't have a job on that particular day. Source data was gathered after identifying the availability of most of the respondents found in their location. Quantitative data was analysed using SPSS. And qualitative data was coded manually. The field data collectors personally met the respondents and the data was entered after conversing to them in their own language. The Focus group discussion form the source was entered in Hindi first and it was translated in English for analysis.

Table E Details of Sample

Destination Data (5 states)		Source Data (2 States)		In-depth Interview
Survey Respondents	2631	Semi Structured Group Discussion participants	900	12
FGD Participants	300	No. of villages	14	
		Number of subsections	40	
TOTAL				3843

2.10 Validity measures

The field data collectors of each state were trained on various aspects of the study. Separate sessions were conducted to gather data from both source and destination. The field data was checked by the district coordinators frequently. A pre- discussion with the community was conducted before they data was collected. The purpose of the study was informed and the consensus was sought from the respondents before the data collection. Certain

data such as the daily wage was not informed correctly by the respondents. In such cases, the data was cross verified while discussing with those work in the same filed and calculated. The living situation and the place of work was personally visited by the researchers' team and the subsects were finalized accordingly. For the qualitative data the data provided by one section of the community was cross verified during the discussion and after the coding. The average of the information shared was calculated to draw the conclusion. Both the source and destination states were selected based on the migrants data and the possibility of collecting data from the migrants with a face to face interaction. ((see appendix II for the brief profile of the states)



III Analysis of Destination Date

III.I Profile of Migrants

The Study explored understanding the demography of the migrants, such as age, gender, educational background, marital status, ethnicity, and religious affiliation in seven states of the country. Furthermore, the quantitative survey focused on determining the economic status, living conditions, social security, and the status of women and children in the destination. In addition to this focus group discussion, interviews and observation were used to validate the qualitative data and explore the details. The data covers 2361 samples from migrant workers.

Table 1 provides the distribution of migrants in five states, namely Tamil Nadu, Gujarat, Delhi, Uttar Pradesh, and Haryana.

Table: 1 Distribution of Migrant Workers by state

Name of the state	Frequency	Valid Percent
Tamil Nadu	600	25.4
Gujarat	131	5.5
Delhi	513	21.7
Uttar Pradesh	544	23
Haryana	573	24.3
Total	2361	100

Table :2 Distribution of migrants by age

Age of the Respondent	Frequency	Percent
18-25 years	501	21.4
26-40 years	1233	52.8
41-60 years	551	23.6
Above 60 years	52	2.2

As per table 2, 52% of the respondents belong to 26- 40 years, 23.6% are between the age group of 41-60 years, 21.4% are 18-25 years, and 2.2% are above 60 years.

Table 3: Distribution of Migrant Workers by Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	1515	64.4
Female	836	35.6

As per table 3, 64.4% are male respondents, and 35.6% are females.

Table 4: Distribution of Migrant Workers by Religion

Religion	Percent
Hindu	93.4
Muslim	5.2
Christian	0.2
Other	0.8

Table 4, shows that 93.4% of migrants are Hindus, 0.2 % are Christians, 5.2% Muslim and other constitute 0.8 %

Table 5: Distribution of Migrant Workers by education

Education	Frequency	Percent
No schooling	386	17
Below 5th	563	24.8
5-7 th class	482	21.2
Up to class 10	457	20.1
Completed higher education	384	16.9

According to table 5, 17% of the migrants have not gone to school, 24.8% have studied below class 5, 21.2% have completed the education between 5-7 class, and 20.1% studied up to class10. A small number 16.9% have completed their higher education.

Table 6: Distribution of Migrant Workers by Marital status

Marital status	Frequency	Percent
Single	516	22.1
Married	1807	77.5
Divorce	10	0.4

As per table 6, the majority of the migrants are married (77.5%), 22.1% are single, and 0.4 are Divorce.

Table 7: Distribution of Migrant Workers by monthly income

Monthly income	Frequency	Percent
Less than Rs 3000	77	3.5
Rs 3001-6000	501	22.7
Rs 6000-9000	688	31.2
Rs 9000 and above	941	42.6

Table 7 provides the details of the current earning status of migrant workers. About 42.6% earn more than 9000 per month, 31.2% between 6000- 9000, 22.7% between 3000- 6000, and 3.5% less than 3000 per month.

Table 8: Distribution of Migrant Workers by Location of Spouse

Location of children	Frequency	Percent
Staying together	965	55.6
Native place	678	39.1
Along parents	93	5.4

Table 8 gives the details of the location of the spouse. It is found that 62.9% of the spouse stay with their partners, 35.1% of migrants leave their spouses in their native place, and 2% live with their parents.

Table 9: Distribution of Migrant Workers by Location of children

Duration in the current state	Frequency	Percent
Less than 1 year	256	11.4
1-4 years	923	41
4-9 years	573	25.4
More than 10 years	501	22.2

As per table 9, 55.6% of parents have their children with them, and 39.1% have their children in their native place, 5.4% have left them with their parents and moved to a new location.

Table 10: Distribution of Migrant Workers by the duration of living in the current state

Location of Spouse	Frequency	Percent
Staying together	1114	62.9
Native place	622	35.1
Along parents	35	2

As per table 10, 11.4% of the migrants are in the current location for less than one year, 41% are in their present location for one to four years, 25.4% are in their location between four to 9 years, and 22.1% are there for more than 10 years.

Table 11: Distribution of Migrant Workers by mode of migration

Mode of migration	Frequency	Percent
Self	794	35.4
Relatives	794	35.4
Agent	657	29.3

As per the table 11 provides the mode of migration to various locations. More than one-third of the migrants (35.4%) move out with their relatives and by themselves, and 29.3% migrate through an agent.



III.II Demographic Profile of Migrants across the destination states

Table 2.1: Age of the Respondents by state

Age of the Respondent	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
18-25 Years	32.3	15.3	13.5	14.9	25	21.4
26-40 Years	59.3	58.8	57.1	60.3	32.6	52.8
41-60 Years	8.2	22.1	27.9	23.3	37	23.6
Above 60 Years	0.2	3.8	1.6	1.5	5.5	2.2

As per the table 2.1, the highest number of migrants in Tamil Nadu, Gujarat, Delhi, and Uttar Pradesh (UP) belong to the age group of 26- 40 years (59.3%, 58.8%, 57.1%, 60.3%). On the other hand, the age group of 18- 25 years is highest in Tamil Nadu, and the age group of 41-60 years is highest in the states like Gujarat(21.1%), Delhi (27.9%), and Uttar Pradesh (23.3%). Whereas the highest number of migrants in Haryana belongs to the age group of 41- 60 years(37%) and the second highest number (32.6%) belongs to 26-40 years, and one-fourth of the migrants(25%)belongs to the age group of 18-15 years. On the other hand, 15.3% of migrants in Gujarat, 13.5% in Delhi, and 14.9% in UP belong to the age group of 18-25 years.

Table 2.2: Gender Distribution of Migrant Workers By State

GENDER	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
Male	91.2	67.9	51.4	25.7	84.1	64.4
Female	8.8	32.1	48.6	74.3	15.9	35.6

Table 2.3: Religion of Migrant Workers by state

Religion	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
Hindu	95.5	91.6	100	84.2	94.2	93.4
Muslim	1.7	8.4		15.6	3.1	5.2
Christian	2.2	0.00	0.00		0.2	0.6
Other	0.7	0.00	0.00	0.2	2.5	0.8

As per table 2.3, most migrants belong to Hindu Religion across all the states. They are more than 90 Percentage. Uttar Pradesh has 15.6% of Muslims, Haryana has 3.2 %, and Gujarat Haryana and Tamilnadu also have a Muslim community in migration with 8.4 %, 3.1%, and 1.7%, respectively.

Table 2.4: Educational status of migrant workers by state

EDUCATION	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
No Schooling	10.4	23.4	22	23	11.7	17
Below 5th	43.9	23.4	20	21.2	12.2	24.8
5-7 th Class	26.1	23.4	17.5	15	25.2	21.2
Up to class 10	15.9	19.5	19.2	16.7	29.3	20.1
Completed Higher Education	3.6	10.2	21.2	24.1	21.6	16.9

Table 2.4 shows that, among the migrants of Tamil Nadu,10.4% are not gone to school, 43.9% studied up to class 5, 26.1% have done their middle school,15.9%

up to class 10, and 3.6% have completed higher education. Among the migrants of Gujarat, 23.4% have not gone to school, 23.4% studied up to class 5 and have done their middle school,19.5% up to class 10, and 10.2% have completed higher education. The educational status of migrants in Delhi shows that 22% have not gone to school, 20% studied up to class 5, 17.5% have done middle school,19.2% up to class 10, and 21.2% have

completed higher education. In Haryana, 11.7% are not gone to school, 12.2% studied up to class 5, 25.2% have done middle school, 29.3% up to class 10, and 21.6% have completed higher education.

The family situation of the migrants is explored in three different variables: marital status, location of the spouse, and the children. Table 2.5 shows that majority of emigrants are married. For example, among the migrants of Tamil Nadu, 72.8 % are married, 27.1% are single, and 0.2% are divorced. Similarly, the Gujarat situation shows that 83.2 % are married, 16.8% are single, and no data on divorces. Among the migrants in Delhi, 83.2 % are married, 16.2% are single, and 0.62% are divorced. In UP, 79.7 % are married, 19.7% are single, and 0.6% are divorced. In Haryana, 73.8 % are married, 25.71% are single, and 0.5% are divorced.

Table 2.5: Marital Status and location of the spouse of Migrant Workers

MARITAL STATUS	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
Single	27.1	16.8	16.2	19.7	25.7	22.1
Married	72.8	83.2	83.2	79.7	73.8	77.5
Divorce	0.2		0.6	0.6	0.5	0.4
LOCATION OF SPOUSE						
Staying Together	25.7	85.3	84.5	71.4	65.3	62.9
Native Place	74.3	10.1	15	28.6	27	35.1
Other Place	NA	4.6	0.5	NA	7.7	2

As per table 2.5, each state has a different situation for migrant families. In Tamil Nadu, 25.7% of a spouse lives together. On the other hand, 74.3% of migrants leave their spouses in their native places. There is a different scenario in Gujarat; 85.3% of the married life with their spouse, 10.1% live in their native area, and 4.6% live in other places. In Uttar Pradesh, Delhi, and Haryana, the majority stay together, 85.5%, 71.4%, and 65.3%, respectively. In Delhi, 15% live in their native places, 0.5% in the place. In UP, 28.6% live in their native place, and in Haryana, 27 % live in their native place, and 7.7% live in other places.

Table 2.6: Location of the children of migrant workers by state

Location of Children	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
Staying Together	26.3	88.6	74.3	56.1	59.4	55.6
Native Place	73.7	6.7	18	35.2	35.1	39.1
Other Place	0.00	4.8	7.7	8.7	5.4	5.4

Table 2.6 shows the location of migrant workers' children. In Tamil Nadu, 26.3% of parents take their children with them, and 73.7% leave their children in their native place. In Gujarat, 88.6 % live with them, 6.7% live in their native place, and 4.8% in other places. In Delhi, 74.3 % live with them, 18% live in their native place, and 7.7% in other places. In UP, 56.1 % live with them, 35.2% live in their native area, and 8.7 % in other places. In Haryana, 59.4 % live with them, 35.1% live in their native place, and 5.4 % in other places. Less than 45% percent of the children of migrants do not live with their parents.

Table 2.7: Distribution of Migrant Workers by duration in current state

Duration in Current State	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
Less than 1 year	19.5	6.9	6.5	10.9	8.6	11.4
1-4 years	66	18.3	24	26.5	49.9	41
4-9 years	10.9	5.3	35.3	34.5	28.1	25.4
More than 10 years	3.6	69.5	34.1	28.2	13.5	22.2

As per table 2.7, the demography of the migrant workers shows that The migrant workers in Tamilnadu, 19.5%

are less than one year, 66% are 1- 4 years, 10.9% are 4- 9 years, and 3.6% are more than ten years. Among the Gujarat respondents, 6.9% are less than one year, 18.3% are 1- 4 years, 5.3 % are 4- 9 years, and 69.5% are more than ten years. Of the Delhi respondents, 6.5% are less than one year, 24 % are 1- 4 years, 35.3 % are 4- 9 years, and 34. 1% is more than ten years. Uttar Pradesh respondents, 10.9 % are less than one year, 26.5 % are 1- 4 years, 34.5 % are 4- 9 years, and 28.2 % are more than ten years. Haryana respondents, 8.6 % are less than one year, 49.9 % are 1- 4 years, 28.1 % are 4- 9 years, and 13.5 % are more than ten years.

Table 2.8: Distribution of Migrant workers by mode of Migration by state and earlier work status

Mode of Migration	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
Self	0.00	59.5	47.3	60	33.1	35.4
Relatives	22.9	40.5	50.3	34.5	35	35.4
Agent	77.1		2.4	5.4	31.9	29.3
Work in another state previously						
Yes	1.8	97.7	44.5	43.6	44.7	36.2
No	98.2	2.3	55.5	56.4	55.3	63.8

Table 2.8 shows that a large set of migration in Tamilnadu is through an agent (77.1%). In Haryana, less than one-third of migration (31.9%) occurs through an agent. 40.5% of migrants in Gujarat, 50.3% in Delhi, and 34.5% of UP migrant move along with their relatives. More people move by themselves without the influence of agents or relatives—59.5% in Gujarat, 47.3% in Delhi, and 33.1% in Haryana. Even though Delhi, UP, and Haryana are nearby states, most migrants (60%) in UP move alone without external agents.

In Tamil Nadu, 98.2 % have not worked in other states, whereas in Gujarat, 97.7 % have worked in another state. In Delhi, 44.5%, UP, 43.6%, and Haryana, 44.7% have worked in other states. It is evident that the laborers do not work in just one state, and they move between the states. All of them have been to some other state before moving to the current location.

Table 2.9: Distribution of Migrant Workers having a Ration card

Type of Ration Card	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
APL	5.4	74.1	25.3	27.3	12	17.7
BPL	94.6	25.9	74.7	72.7	88	82.3

Table 2.9 and Figure 1 give the details of ration card owned by the migrant workers.

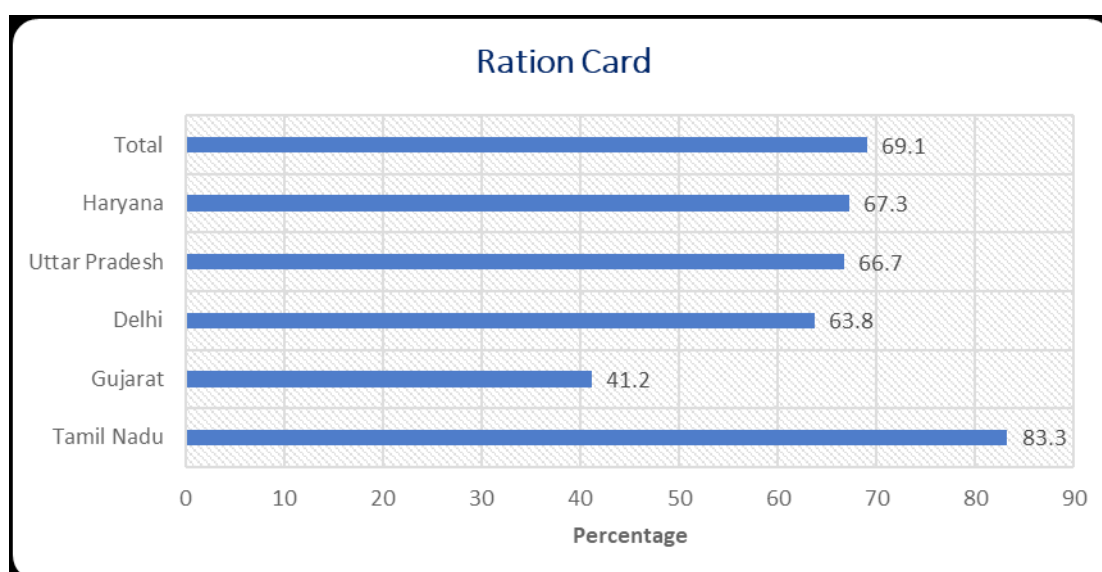


Figure 1: Percent of Migrant Workers having Ration card in the current location

As per figure 1, a significant majority got their ration card. 83% own in Tamil Nadu, 41.2% in Gujarat, 63.8 % in Delhi, 66.7% in Uttar Pradesh, 67.3% in Haryana. In general, only 69.1% of migrants own ration cards. But it has to be noted that it is in its native place. The long procedure to shift it to the current place of living, no proper address to produce, and the concern for the family members left behind in the native place to get the essentials are reasons not to change it to the current location.

The Focus Group Discussion results in Delhi and Uttar Pradesh reveal the actual reason.

'I paid Rs. 200 to the sarpanch to get my ration card here. They asked me to come after one month, and it is impossible for me to go, as it is expensive to travel frequently, and I also lose my job.' 16 Participants of the FGD in Noida sector 73 had the same opinion that they don't have the ration card in the current place.

'I have a Ration card in my native place. Here it is too difficult to transfer. My children live with them and can get the ration in the village.'

'We buy wheat and essentials from the regular shop; we don't have ration cards here. So to shift it to our name, we don't have a proper house number, electricity bill details, or gas address in our name to produce.'

Owning a ration card is the assurance of food security. The family certainly gets subsidized food grains supplied by the government. It is also the identity of the person. Once the Aadhar card is issued, it is produced as a personal identity. The migrant worker uses ration cards and Aadhar cards to identify the children's admission to school, get a bank account, etc.

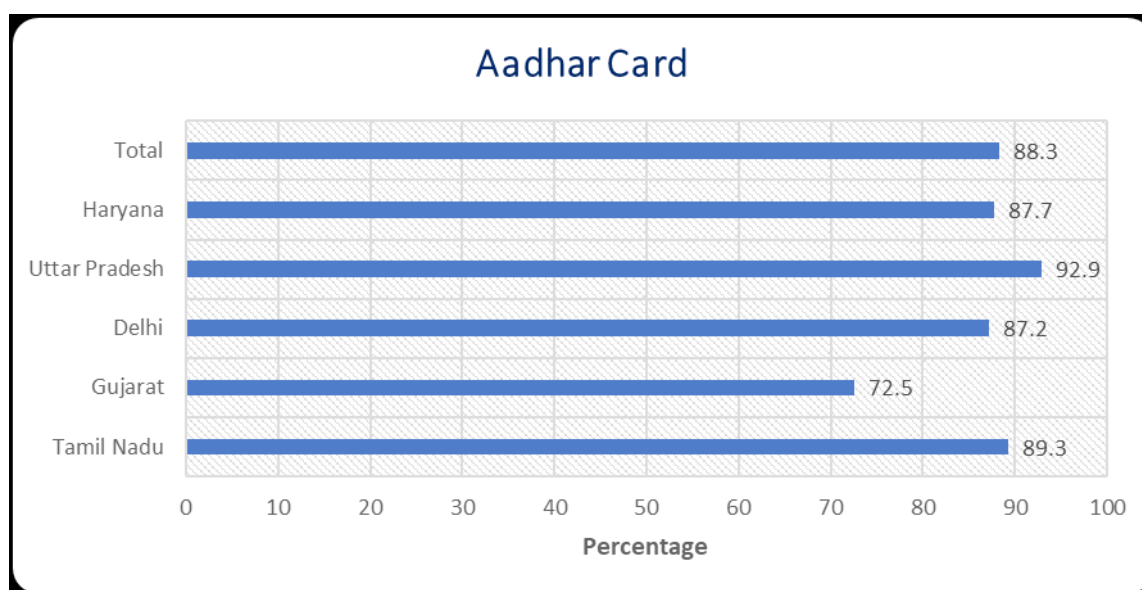


Figure: 2 Percent of Migrant Workers have an Aadhar card

More members have their Aadhar card compared to owning a ration card in their native places. As per figure 2, in Tamil Nadu 89.3%, Gujarat 72.5%, Delhi 87.2%, Uttar Pradesh 92.9%, Haryana 87.7% got their Aadhar card. It must be noted that among the adults, 11.7% do not have their Aadhar cards.

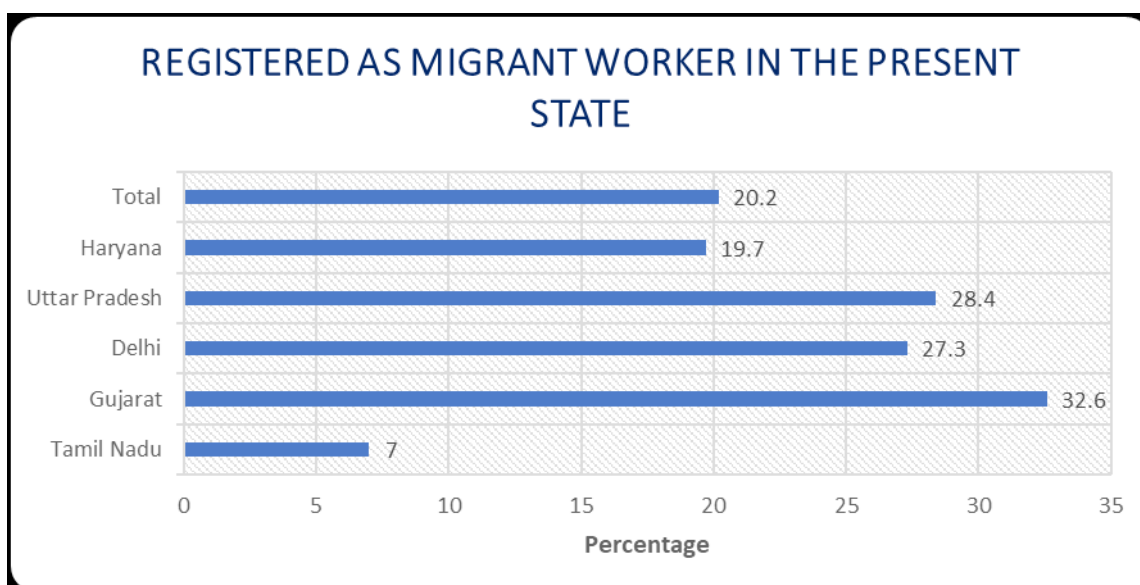


Figure: 3 Percent of Migrant Workers got registered in their current location

As per figure.3, Gujarat has the highest number of migrants got registered (32.6%), followed by UP (28%), Delhi has 27.3% registered, Haryana, 19.7%, and Tamil Nadu has the least number got registered (7%). The entire data shows that only 20.2% got registered as migrant workers. The worker in Uttar Pradesh got their e-Shram card.

III.III Socio-Economic and Livelihood Condition

Migrants often face job insecurity, environmental threats, and ill health and are denied human rights. They face hazardous conditions and live in unhygienic places. They have their temporary shelters above the sewage, roadsides, and in overcrowded slums; some even have shelters amid garbage dump areas of the city. A significant number of them live in unauthorized slums and often face threats to leave the locality from the police and the administration. Most of the single men share a house or room rented by another; families make their temporary shelter or share the facilities of other families in the beginning. Those who lived more than ten years in the migrant location also lived in rented houses.

Table 3.1 Percent of monthly Income and Expenditure of the Migrant Workers

	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
MONTHLY INCOME						
LESS THAN Rs 3000	0.00	3.1	6.1	2.8	5.9	3.5
Rs 3000-6000	1.1	18.3	31.7	26.2	36.7	22.7
Rs 6000-9000	21.6	47.3	32.3	36.7	30.7	31.2
Rs 9000 and above	77.4	31.3	29.9	34.3	26.7	42.6
MONTHLY EXPENDITURE						
Less than Rs 3000	32	4.6	20.9	20.1	23.1	23.2
Rs 3000-8000	67.7	56.5	53.6	55.4	41	54.8
Above 8000.00	0.3	38.9	25.5	24.4	35.9	22

As per table 3.1, a significant majority of migrants earn more than Rs. 9000 per month in Tamil Nadu. In UP, one-third of them (34.3%) earn more than Rs. 9000. Those who earn between Rs. 6000- 9000 in Tamil Nadu is 21.6%, between Rs.3000- 6000 is 1.1%, and less than 3000 is nil.



The highest earning category in Haryana is between Rs. 3000- 6000. (36.7%), whereas in UP and Gujarat, and Delhi, it is Rs. 6000- 9000 with a percentage of 36.7%, 47.3%, and (32.3%) respectively.

Among the migrants in Delhi, one-fourth (25.5%) of them earn more than Rs.9000. UP, 24.4%, and in Gujarat, 38.9%, earn more than Rs.9000.

For the highest category, monthly expenditure falls between Rs.3000-8000 across all the states. In Tamil Nadu 67.7%, Gujarat 56.5%, Delhi 53.6%, UP 55.4%, Haryana 41%. The monthly expenditure above Rs.8000 is for 0.3% in Tamil Nadu, 38.9% in Gujarat, 25.5% in Delhi, 24.4% in UP, 35.9% in Haryana. It is less than Rs.3000 for 32% in Tamil Nadu, 4.6% in Gujarat, 20.9% in Delhi, 20.1% in UP, and 23.1% in Haryana.

Table 3.2 Percent of number of earning members among the Migrant Workers

NUMBER OF EARNING MEMBERS	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
One	16.2	45.8	22.5	32.3	34.4	27.1
More than One	83.8	54.2	77.5	67.7	65.6	72.9

According to Table 3.2, the majority of the family have more than one earning member. 83.8% of migrants in Tamil Nadu, 54.2% in Gujarat, 77.5% in Delhi, 67.7% in UP, and 65.6% in Haryana have more than one earning member in the family. And 16.2% in Tamil Nadu, 45.8% in Gujarat, 22.5% in Delhi, 32.5% in UP, and 34.4 % in Haryana have only one member in the family who is currently earning. The national average is 72.9% of migrants have more than one earning member, and 27.1% have one earning member in the family.

Table 3.3: Percent of availability of Jobs in the current location and the native place of Migrant Workers

WORKING DAYS IN A WEEK	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
1-2 DAYS	1	49.6	44.5	15.2	69.2	34.5
2-5 DAYS		4.6	0.6	2.9	0.2	0.9
5-6 DAYS		6.9	8.3	6.5	1.1	3.6
7 DAYS	99	38.9	46.6	75.4	29.6	60.9
Job at Current Place						
LESS THAN 6 MONTHS	0.00	28.2	14	8.4	12.6	9.5
6-9MONTHS	32.5	20.6	13.6	3	4.9	14.8
9-12 MONTHS	40.7	21.4	43.3	33.2	31.2	36.2
THROUGHOUT THE YEAR	26.8	29.8	29.1	55.5	51.3	39.4
Job in Native place						
LESS THAN 6 MONTHS	99.5	74.8	44.7	33.8	40.4	58.8
6-9MONTHS	0.2	6.1	17.4	10.7	17	10.4
9-12 MONTHS	0.2	4.6	27.8	31.6	12.9	15.4
THROUGHOUT THE YEAR	0.2	14.5	10.2	23.8	29.7	15.3

Table 3.3 shows the weekly availability of jobs and the job availability throughout the year in the current location and in the native place.

Of the migrant workers in Gujarat, 49.6% gets job 1-2 days a week, 4.6% get job 2-5 days, 6.9% 5-6 days a week, and 38.9% gets 7 days a week. Among the Delhi migrants, 44.5% gets job 1-2 days a week, 0.6% get job 2-5 days, 8.3% get jobs 5-6 days a week, and 46.6% gets 7 days a week. In UP, 15.2% gets job 1-2 days a week, 2.9% get jobs 2-5 days, 6.5% 5-6 days a week, and 75.4% gets 7 days a week. In Haryana, 69.2% get jobs 1-2 days a week, 0.2 % get jobs 2-5 days, 1.1% get jobs 5-6 days a week, and 29.6% get jobs 7 days of a week.

More than one-fourth of the Migrant Workers get jobs in Tamil Nadu throughout the year. 40.7% get works for 9 to 12 months, and 32.5% have a job for 6 to 9 months. Whereas the availability of job in their native place is very low. For 99.5% get a job in less than six months.

In Gujarat, about 30% get jobs throughout the year in their current location, whereas around 20 percent get jobs throughout the year in their native place and for 9 to 12 months of the year. At the same time, Gujarat does not provide a job for migrants throughout the year in their current location. Here 28.2% of the migrant workers get jobs less than six months of the year in the current location. Unemployment in their native place shows that 74.8% have jobs less than 6 months of the year, and around 6% have jobs 6 to 9 months of the year.

In Delhi, around 39% get jobs throughout the year, 43.3% have the job for 9 to 12 months of the year in the current location, 13.6% get jobs for 6 to 9 months, and 14%, have less than 6 months of the year. Job availability in their native place shows that around 45 percentage have jobs less than six months of the year, 17.4% have jobs within 6 to 9 months of the year, 27.8% are able to find a job in 9 to 12 months, and around only 10% have jobs throughout the year.

In Uttar Pradesh, more than half of them (55.5%) get jobs throughout the year, and around one-third (33.2%) of them have jobs for six to nine months in their current location. The same community has a different job reality in their native place. Around 23% have jobs throughout the year, and 31.6% get jobs between 6 to 12 months. Around one-third of them have jobs less than six months in a year, and 10.7% get jobs for 6 to 9 months.

Half of the migrant workers in Haryana get jobs throughout the year, and around one-third of them (31.2%) get jobs between 6 to 9 months in the current location. Less than 12.6% have jobs in less than 6 months. The job availability in the native place of the migrant workers in Haryana shows that 44% have jobs for less than six months, 17% get jobs for 6 to 9 months, around 30% have jobs throughout the year, and 12.9% get jobs for 6-9 months of the year. It is evident that employment is much higher in the current location.

Table 3.4: Percent of previous work experience of migrant workers

PREVIOUSWORKEXPERIENCE	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
Unemployed	35.2	57.5	23	17.1	10.1	23.1
Agriculture Labour	17.8	13.4	21.2	24.6	27.8	22.4
Industry Labour	0.8	15	17	26.4	11.6	14.1
Daily Labour	46.2	14.2	38.9	31.8	50.5	40.4

Table 3.4 reveals the previous work experience of the workers before they got migrated to the current state. Of those in Tamil Nadu, 35.2% were unemployed, 17.8% were agriculture labourers, 0.8% were Industry workers, and 46.2% were working as daily labour. The previous work of the migrants in Gujarat shows that 57.5% were unemployed, 13.4% were agriculture labourers, 15% were Industry workers, and 14.2% were working as a daily labour. Those who migrated to Delhi, 23% were unemployed, 21.2% were agriculture labourers, 17 % were Industry workers, and 38.9% were working as daily labour. Of the migrants in UP, 17.1% were unemployed, 24.6% were agriculture labourers, 26.4 % were Industry workers, and 31.8% were working as a daily labour. Among the Haryana migrants, 10.1% were unemployed, 27.8% were agriculture labourers, 11.6% were Industry workers, and 50.5% were working as a daily labour. The previous work experiences of the migrants who moved to the city showed that the majority of the migrants are daily labours (40.4%), those who are following agricultural practices consist of 22.4%, and the remaining 23.1% constitute unemployed.

Table 3.5: Percent of Mode of payment in the current working place of Migrant Workers

MODE OF PAYMENT	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
Daily	10.7	45	56.8	75.3	45.3	43.8
Weekly	18.3	4.6	8.4	3.4	26.2	14.6
Monthly	71	50.4	34.8	21.3	28.5	42.5

According to table 3.5, 43.8% are paid daily, 14.6% are paid weekly, and 42.5% are paid monthly. In Tamil Nadu, 71% are being paid monthly, 18.3% are paid weekly, and 10.7% are paid daily. In Gujarat, 50.4% are being paid monthly, 4.6% are paid weekly, and 45% are paid daily. In Delhi, 34.8% are being paid monthly, 8.4% are paid weekly, and 56.8% are paid daily. In Up, 21.3% are being paid monthly, 3.4% are paid weekly, and 75.3% are paid daily. In Haryana, 28.5% are being paid monthly, 26.2% are paid weekly, and 45.3% are paid daily.

Table 3.6: Percent of Migrant Workers paying Rent in the current location

RENT PAID PER MONTH (Rs)	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
More than 5000	17.2	57.8	23.5	13.1	30.7	23.5
NO RENT	36.6	0.8	13.1	15.3	43.1	26.8
LESS THAN 1000	40.9	32.8	52	31.9	19.9	35.6
Rs 1001-3000	5.3	7.8	10.8	31	5.3	11.9
Rs 3001-5000	0.00	0.8	0.6	8.6	1.1	2.2

Table 3.6 shows the rent paid by the migrant workers in their current living situation. 35.6% pay less than Rs.1000, 26% do not pay any rent, 23.5% pay more than Rs. 5000, 11.9% pay 1001- 3000, and 2.2% pay Rs 3001 – 5000.

The state-wise data is as below: In Tamil Nadu, 40.9% pay less than Rs.1000, 36.6 % do not pay any rent, 17.2% pay more than Rs. 5000, 5.3% pay 1001- 3000, and none pay Rs30001 – 5000. In Gujarat, 32.8 % pay less than Rs.1000, 0.8 % do not pay any rent, 57.8 % pay more than Rs. 5000, 7.8 % pay 1001- 3000, and 0.8% pay Rs 30001 – 5000. In Delhi 52 % pay less than Rs.1000, 23.5% do not pay any rent, 0.6% pay more than Rs. 5000, 10.8% pay 1001- 3000, and 0.6% pay Rs30001 – 5000. In UP, 31.9% pay less than Rs.1000, 15.3% do not pay any rent, 13.1% pay more than Rs. 5000, 31% pay 1001- 3000, and 8.6 % pay Rs 30001 – 5000.

Table 3.7 Destination states of the migrant workers as per the states in Percent

	Destination States					
Birth States	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
Bihar	43.0	3.1	30.6	31.8	47.1	36.3
Jharkhand	30.5	2.4	7.1	6.6	3.0	12.0
Assam	9.3	0.0	0.6	0.4	0.6	2.8
Uttar Pradesh	6.5	24.4	37.6	29.0	25.3	23.9
Odisha	6.3	0.0	1.0	1.9	0.8	2.5
Kerala	1.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4
Rajasthan	1.2	3.1	3.3	5.6	7.6	4.2
Karnataka	0.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2
Madhya Pradesh	0.5	11.8	3.7	5.1	2.8	3.4
Tamil Nadu	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1
Maharashtra	0.2	46.5	0.4	0.7	0.0	2.9
West Bengal	0.0	0.0	6.1	3.9	3.8	3.1
Chhattisgarh	0.0	0.8	1.2	1.7	0.2	0.7
Manipur	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.1
Punjab	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.9	0.2	0.3
Uttarakhand	0.0	0.0	3.1	5.4	0.2	2.0
Haryana	0.0	0.0	1.4	4.5	1.6	1.7
Gujarat	0.0	7.1	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.6
Telangana	0.0	0.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Jammu and Kashmir	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.1
Andhra Pradesh	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0

Delhi	0.0	0.0	2.2	0.4	6.4	2.0
Himanchal Pradesh	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.6	0.0	0.3
Nepal	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.7	0.0	0.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100

Table 3.8: Diversification of composition of the migrant in destination states

States	HHI
Uttar Pradesh	2026.92
Delhi	2482.37
Tamil Nadu	2951.84
Gujarat	2973.52
Haryana	2992.34
Total	2106.45

Lower the value higher the diversification in migrant composition

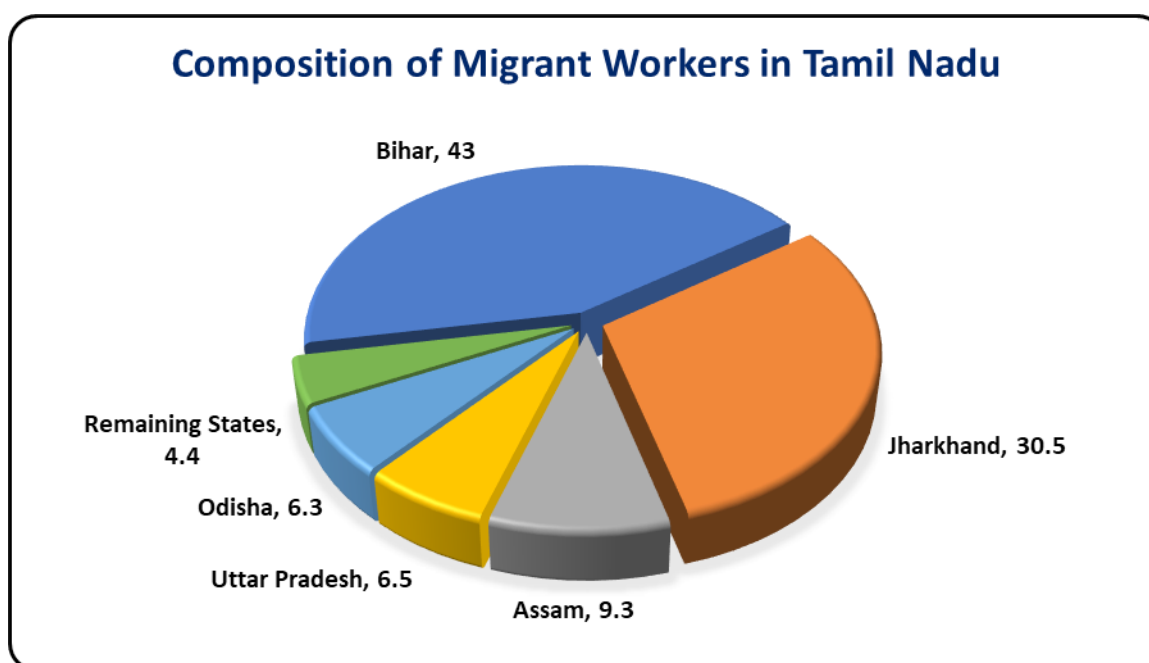


Figure 4: Percent of Composition of Migrant Workers in Tamil Nadu

Table 3.7 and 3.8 presents the diversification of migrant workers in five different states. Uttar Pradesh has a highly diverse composition of migrants with an HHI value of 2026.92, and Haryana has comparatively less diverse migrant workers. The five states have migrants from across 23 states and also from the neighbouring country, Nepal. Figure- 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8 gives the details of the compositions of the migrants in the five destination states.

Tamil Nadu has 43% of migrants who are from Bihar, 30.5% from Jharkhand, 9.3% from Assam and 6.3% from Odisha, 6.3% from Uttar Pradesh, and 4.4% from other states. The majority of the migrants are from Bihar, followed by Jharkhand.

According to figure 5, Delhi has the highest number of migrants from Uttar Pradesh (37.6%), followed by Bihar (30.6%). 7.1% of its Migrants are from Jharkhand, 6.1% from West Bengal, 3.7% from Madhya Pradesh, 3.3% from Rajasthan, 3.1% from Uttarakhand, and the remaining states constitute 8.5%

Figure 6 shows the composition of Migrant Workers in Haryana. The highest number is from Bihar (47.1%), it

has 25.3% from Uttar Pradesh, 7.6% from Rajasthan 6.4% from Delhi, 3.8% from West Bengal, and 9.8% from other states.

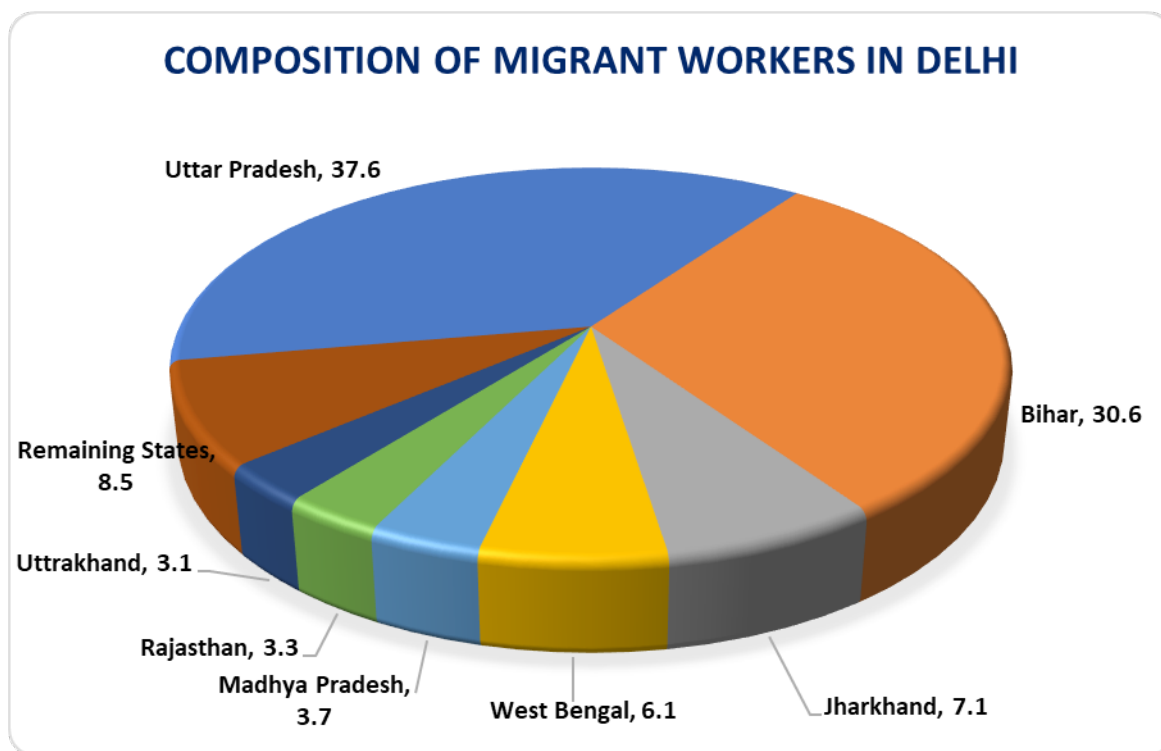


Figure:5 Percent of Composition of Migrant Workers in Delhi

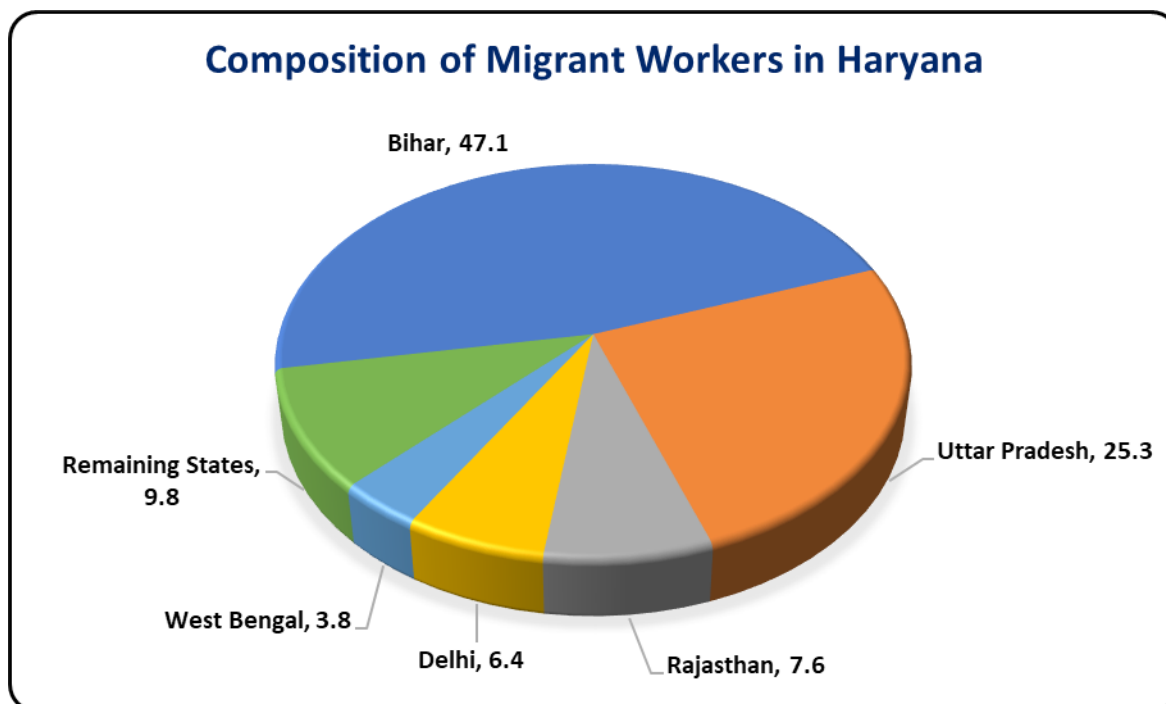


Figure:6 Percent of Composition of Migrant Workers in Haryana

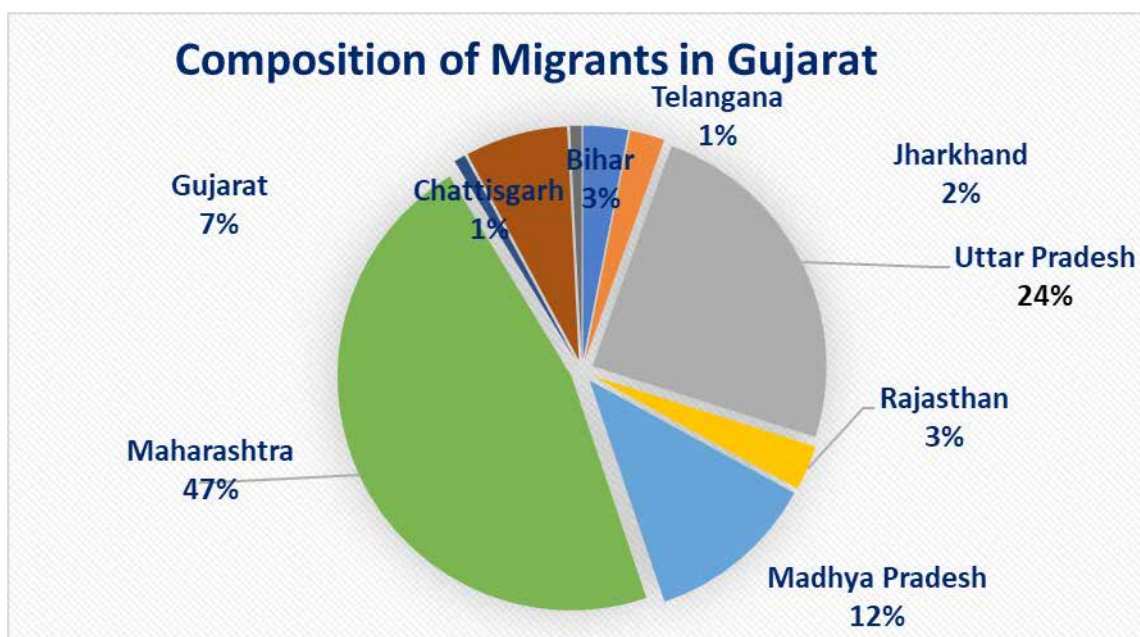


Figure: 7 Percent of Composition of Migrant Workers in Uttar Pradesh

As per figure 7, Uttar Pradesh has 31.8 % of Migrant Workers from Bihar, Uttar Pradesh 29%, Jharkhand 6.6%, Rajasthan 5.6%, Uttarakhand 5.4%, Madhya Pradesh 5.1%, Haryana 45%, West Bengal 3.9%, And 8.1% are from other states.

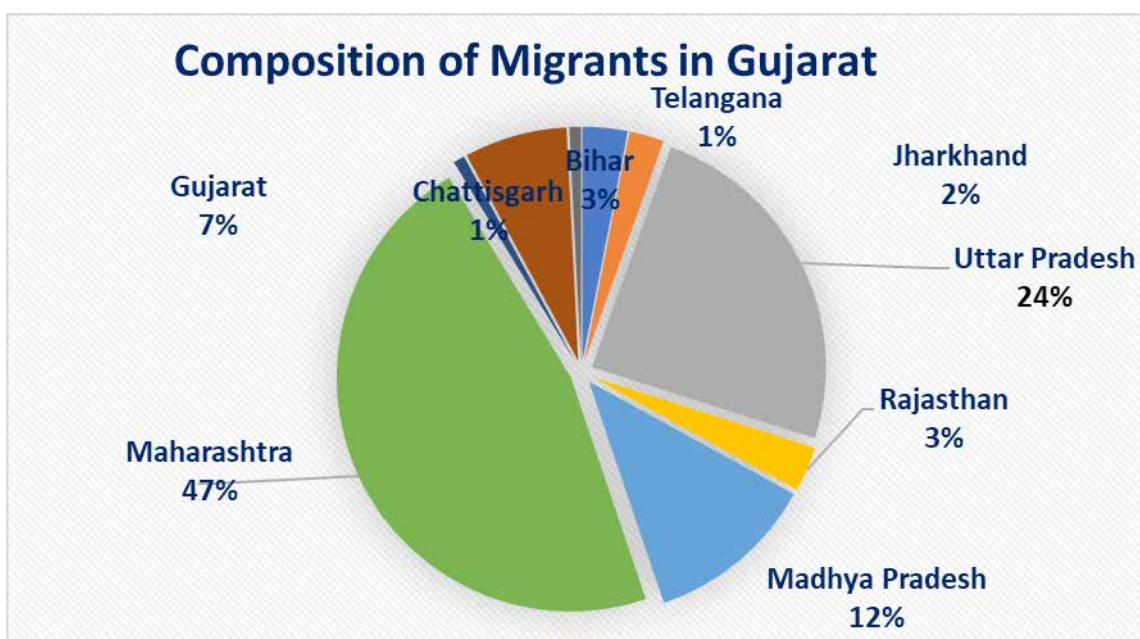


Figure:8 Percent of Composition of Migrant Workers in Gujarat

As per figure 8, Gujarat has the highest number of Migrant Workers from Maharashtra (47%) followed by Uttar Pradesh (24%), and Madhya Pradesh 12%. Seven percent of them are from Gujarat itself, three percent from Rajasthan and Bihar, other states constitute two percent of the Migrant Workers.

Table: 3.9 State wise Distribution of Occupation of the Migrant Workers in Native Place

Occupation	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
Daily Labour	52.09	32.82	50.79	52.29	36.28	46.92
Farming	33.89	32.82	14.03	16.03	30.27	24.60
Unemployed	7.01	4.58	7.91	8.02	1.59	5.98
Small Vendor	6.01	6.11	5.53	1.91	7.43	5.33
Skilled labour	0.50	7.63	3.95	5.73	2.48	3.31
Auto rikshaw	0.17	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.04
Construction worker	0.17	1.53	1.58	0.38	5.10	2.03
House maid	0.17	0.76	2.77	4.20	1.06	1.89
Agriculture Labour	0.00	0.00	0.20	2.67	0.00	0.65
Blacksmith	0.00	0.76	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.04
Brick Kiln	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.18	0.04
Business	0.00	1.53	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.09
Color work	0.00	1.53	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.09
Driver	0.00	2.29	0.20	0.19	0.00	0.22
Farming Labour	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.38	0.53	0.22
Furniture	0.00	0.76	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.04
Industrial Labour	0.00	0.76	7.91	7.06	1.77	3.78
Money lender	0.00	0.00	0.40	0.00	0.00	0.09
Sanitation Labour	0.00	3.82	3.95	1.15	12.39	4.34
Security Guard	0.00	0.00	0.79	0.00	0.00	0.17
Small Business	0.00	1.53	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.09
Stall keeper	0.00	0.76	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.04

Table: 3.10 State-wise Distribution of Current Occupation of the Migrant Workers

Occupation	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
Daily Labour	60.33	40.46	27.45	38.83	24.82	38.55
Skilled Labour	33.83	12.21	9.02	8.52	5.99	14.72
Agriculture Labour	3.33	0.00	2.16	0.57	0.70	1.63
Small Vendor	1.67	11.45	12.55	10.61	26.06	12.54
House maid	0.50	0.76	13.53	11.36	10.39	8.22
Industrial Labour	0.17	4.58	6.27	3.60	0.53	2.61
Auto Driver	0.00	0.76	1.57	0.00	5.63	1.75
Blacksmith	0.00	0.76	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.04
Business	0.00	0.76	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.04
Construction Worker	0.17	7.63	4.12	1.52	13.06	5.04
Dimond work	0.00	0.76	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.04
Driver	0.00	3.05	3.53	2.27	2.11	1.97
E-Rickshaw driver	0.00	0.00	2.35	4.36	0.00	1.50
Farming	0.00	0.00	0.98	0.76	1.23	0.68
Furniture	0.00	0.76	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.04

Guard	0.00	0.00	0.20	0.76	0.00	0.21
House hold work	0.00	0.76	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.04
House wife	0.00	0.00	0.39	0.19	0.18	0.17
Industry Daily Labour	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.19	0.00	0.04
Momo Stall	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.18	0.04
Nanny	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.18	0.04
Rag Picker	0.00	1.53	0.78	0.00	0.00	0.26
Rickshaw puller	0.00	0.76	4.90	7.95	1.06	3.17
Road construction	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.70	0.17
Sanitation Worker	0.00	6.11	4.90	4.55	3.35	3.25
Saree work	0.00	0.76	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.04
Security Guard	0.00	0.00	0.78	1.52	1.23	0.81
Small Business	0.00	0.76	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.04
Stall keeper	0.00	3.05	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.17
Student	0.00	0.00	0.20	0.19	1.06	0.34
Unemployed	0.00	1.53	3.73	1.70	0.53	1.41
vendor	0.00	0.00	0.20	0.00	0.00	0.04
Watchman	0.00	0.00	0.39	0.57	0.00	0.21
Workmanship	0.00	0.76	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.04

Table 3. 11 Distribution of Occupation of the Migrant Workers in Native Place as per gender

Occupation	Male	Female
Daily Labour	46.29	48.33
Farming	27.52	19.21
Small Vendor	6.70	2.73
Sanitation Labour	5.04	2.73
Unemployed	4.84	8.05
Skilled labour	2.92	4.09
Industrial Labour	2.25	6.69
Construction worker	2.19	1.73
House maid	0.93	3.72
Driver	0.27	0.12
Farming Labour	0.27	0.12
Business	0.13	0.00
Color work	0.13	0.00
Money lender	0.13	0.00
Small Business	0.13	0.00
Agriculture Labour	0.07	1.73
Auto rikshaw	0.07	0.00
Brick Kiln	0.07	0.00
Stall keeper	0.07	0.00
Blacksmith	0.00	0.12
Furniture	0.00	0.12
Security Guard	0.00	0.50

Table: 3.12 Percentage Distribution of Occupation of the Migrant Workers in the Current Location and Gender

Occupation	Male	Female
Daily Labour	39.71	36.64
Skilled Labour	17.80	8.95
Small Vendor	13.04	11.40
House maid	6.75	10.91
Construction Worker	5.76	3.9
Sanitation Labour	2.85	3.92
Auto Driver	2.32	0.61
Industrial Labour	2.12	3.55
Agriculture Labour	2.05	0.86
Rickshaw puller	1.99	00.00
Driver	3.55	0.00
Unemployed	0.93	2.33
Farming	0.86	0.37
Security Guard	0.66	1.10
E-Rickshaw driver	3.31	0.53
Student	0.33	0.37
Rag Picker	0.26	0.25
Road construction	0.26	0.00
Stall keeper	0.26	0.00
BUILDER	0.07	0.00
Business	0.07	0.00
Momo Stall	0.07	0.00
Caretaker	0.07	0.00
Watchman	0.07	0.49
Workmanship	0.07	0.00
Blacksmith	0.00	0.12
Dimond work	0.00	0.12
Furniture	0.00	0.12
Guard	0.00	0.61
Household work	0.00	0.12
Housewife	0.00	0.49
Industry Daily Labour	0.00	0.12
Saree work	0.00	0.12
Small Business	0.00	0.12
vendor	0.00	0.12

Table: 3. 13 Distribution of Family Occupation of the Migrant Workers and their duration in the current location

Occupation	Less than 1year	1-4 years	4-9 years	More than 10 years
Daily Labour	58.23	46.54	46.19	42.89
Farming	21.29	26.23	24.60	25.45
Small Vendor	4.82	5.82	3.36	6.61
Skilled labour	4.42	1.87	5.31	3.21
Industrial Labour	3.61	3.62	4.25	3.41
Sanitation Labour	2.81	4.06	4.96	3.81

Unemployed	2.81	6.37	5.84	6.61
Agriculture Labour	1.20	1.32	0.00	0.00
Construction worker	0.80	2.53	2.65	1.00
Auto rikshaw	0.00	0.11	0.00	0.00
Blacksmith	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.20
Brick Kiln	0.00	0.00	0.18	0.00
Business	0.00	0.11	0.00	0.20
Colorwork	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.40
Driver	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
Farming Labour	0.00	0.22	0.53	0.00
Furniture	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.20
House maid	0.00	0.88	2.12	3.81
Money lender	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.40
Security Guard	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.80
Small Business	0.00	0.22	0.00	0.00
Stall keeper	0.00	0.11	0.00	0.00

Value is in percentage.

Table 3. 14 Distribution of Current Occupation of Migrant Workers and their duration in the current location

Occupation	Less than 1year	1-4 years	4-9 years	More than 10 years
Daily Labour	52.4	40.1	35.2	32.5
Skilled Labour	15.2	20.7	10.2	9.2
Small Vendor	6.4	9.0	13.4	18.3
House maid	4.0	6.6	10.9	10.8
Unemployed	3.6	0.8	1.1	2.2
E-Rickshaw driver	3.2	1.2	1.4	1.6
Agriculture Labour	2.8	1.8	1.8	0.8
Sanitation Labour	2.8	3.0	4.2	3.2
Construction worker	2.8	5.5	6.0	3.8
Industrial Labour	2.0	2.3	3.2	2.8
Auto Driver	1.6	2.4	1.6	0.8
Driver	1.2	1.7	2.1	3.0
Farming	0.8	0.7	1.2	0.2
Student	0.8	0.3	0.4	0.2
Housewife	0.4	0.2	0.0	0.2
Blacksmith	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2
Builder	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0
Business	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2
Dimond work	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2
Furniture	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2
Guard	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.6
Household work	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2
Industry Daily Labour	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0
Momo Stall	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0
Caretaker	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0
Rag Picker	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.8
Rickshaw puller	0.0	2.5	4.6	4.8

Road construction	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.0
Saree work	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2
Security Guard	0.0	0.1	2.3	0.6
Small Business	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2
Stall keeper	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.6
vendor	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2
Watchman	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.0
Workmanship	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2

According to tables 3.9, 3.10, 3.11, and 3.12, a maximum number of Migrant Workers are daily labours in their native place (46.92%).

In Tamil Nadu and Uttar Pradesh, more than half of them were engaged in daily labour in their native place. They are from Bihar and Jharkhand (Figure 4, 6,7). The Second majority of the migrants are from the farming sector and moved out to the five states. Small Farmers are the second majority of the Migrant Workers in Tamil Nadu (33.89%), Gujarat (32.82%), and Haryana (30.27%). The Migrant Workers in Delhi Constitute a combination of Small Farmers (14.03%), Unemployed (7.9%), Small Vendors (6.11%), Skilled Labours (7.63%), and also a small percentage constitute construction workers, sanitation workers, domestic workers, and drivers. Uttar Pradesh also attracts almost similar types of migrant workers. They constitute skilled labours (5.73%), Housemaids (4.20%), Agriculture labours (2.67%), and industry labours (7%). It is evident that Migrant Workers in all the states are from multiple unorganized sectors.

The Migrant Workers essentially take up their jobs in the unorganized sector. A significant majority in Tamil Nadu work as daily labours (60.33%). Gujarat 40%, Uttar Pradesh 38.83%, Delhi 27.45%, and Haryana 24.82% work as daily labours. Various types of skilled labour are the second category of the job taken up by them. Tamil Nadu has the highest number in this category (33.83%), followed by Gujarat (12.21%). The third job category is the small vendor, and they primarily engage in Haryana (26.06%). Delhi, Gujarat, and Uttar Pradesh are also locations of small vendors (12.55%, 11.45%, 10.61%). Construction work is another category where Migrant workers find a job. In Haryana, 13.06% engage as construction workers. Gujarat has 7.63% take up the job as construction workers. This includes both building and construction of Roads. The next significant area of occupation is House maid. Delhi, Uttar Pradesh, and Haryana have the highest number of jobs in this sector (13.53%, 11.36%, and 10.39%). Drivers, Rikshaw Pullers, E rikshaw are found in 2 to 4% in Delhi, Uttar Pradesh Haryana and Gujarat. The sanitation sector is another sector engaged by the Migrant Workers in Delhi (6.11%), Uttar Pradesh (4.55%), Haryana (3.35%), and Gujarat (4.90%). There is also a cumulative percentage of 1.41% of Unemployed migrants from unorganized sectors found in the destination states.

Most women migrant workers were daily labours (48.33%) in their native place. The second biggest category is small farmers (19.21%). Around 8% were unemployed, and 6.69 % were Industrial labours. Their job also includes housemaid (3.72%), skilled labour (about 4%), sanitation Worker (2.73%), and small vendor (2.73%) in their native place. Women take up diver jobs in the current location, such as daily labour (36.64%), Skilled labours 8.95%, Small vendors (11.40%), and Housemaids (10.91%). They also work as Industry labour (3.55%), Sanitation workers (3.92%), Security guards (1.10%), and Rikshaw drivers. A small percentage of women also do not take up any specific job.

Table 3.13 shows the family occupation of the migrant workers and their duration in the current location. The daily labour sector continues to be big and move out from their native place. The New migrants essentially constitute the daily labour sector. They primarily include the new migrants, 58.23%. Among the older migrants

(who migrated more than ten years back), around 25% were farmers, and among the recent migrants, 21.29% are from the farming sector. Compared to the older migrants, a smaller number of small vendors migrate. There is a shift from 6.61% to 4.82%. Almost the same number of industrial labours move out for the job. Compared to the older migrants less number of sanitation workers move out. One to four years and four to nine years back, around 4 to 5% of workers were sanitation labours, but among the new migrants, they are 2.81%. A small number of new migrants also constitute agriculture labours, 1.20% and 1.32%, who worked in their destinations for less than one year and one to four years.

Table 3. 14 shows the current work status of the Migrant Workers. Among the newest migrants (who have been in the destination for less than one year), 52.4 % take up a job as a daily labour. 15.2% are skilled labours. These continue to be the significant job sector for all migrants. It is the same for those in destination for new migrants (those 1-4 years in the destination). Among them, 40.1% are daily labours, and 20.7% are skilled labours. Among the new migrants, the highest job sector is daily labour. Comparatively less number of them are skilled labours (10.2%). It is still less among the oldest (who have been in destination for more than ten years) group. 32.5% are daily labours, and 9.2% are skilled labours. Small vendors are more among the older migrants (18.3% of the oldest and 13.4% among the old). Housemaids constitutes a more aged (10.9%) and most senior (10.8%) group compared to the new and newest migrants. The new job sectors for the latest migrants are E-rikshaw, agriculture labour, sanitation worker, Industrial labour, auto drivers, and drivers in which sanitation sector offer fewer jobs and e rickshaw offers comparatively more job to the new migrants who come to the city after the COVID. No newest migrants take up the job as Rikshaw pullers.



III. IV Living condition

Table 4.1 Percent of type of accommodation of the Migrant Workers

TYPE OF ACCOMODATION	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
TEMPORARY SHELTER	67.3	44.4	64.8	25.3	45.1	55.4
RENTED BY YOU	31.8	3.2	13.7	9.3	12.2	17.8
JOB PROVIDER	0.00	40.5	8.9	30.9	2.4	8.2
HOUSE OWNER	0.8		3.6	22.8	6.9	5.1
LIVE WITH OHER FAMILIES	0.00	11.9	9.1	11.7	33.4	13.6

Table 4.1 shows the living condition as per the type of accommodation the migrant has at their destination. 55. 4% live in a temporary house, 17.8% live in a rented house, 8.2% in the accommodation given by the job provider, 5.1% with the house owner, and 13.6% with other families. In Tamil Nadu, the majority (67.3%) live in temporary shelters, 31.8% in a rented house, and 0.8% with a house owner.

In Gujarat, 44.4% live in temporary shelters, 3.2% in rented houses, 40.5% given by the job provider 11.9% live with other families. In Delhi, the majority (64.8%) live in temporary shelters, 13.7% in a rented house, 8.9% with accommodation given by the job provider, 3.6% by some house owner, and 9.1% with other families. In UP, 25.3% live in temporary shelters, 9.3% in a rented house, 30.9% given by a job provider, 22.8 with other house owners, and 11.7% with other families. In Haryana, 45.1% live in temporary shelters, 12.2 % in a rented house, 2.4 % with a job provider, 6.9% with a house owner, and 44.4 % with other families.

Table 4.2: Percent of Pattern of food consumption by the Migrant Workers

FOOD PATTERN	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
SELF COOK	100	100	86.5	28.4	75.1	83.6
GROUP COOKING	0.00	0.00	9.9	45.2	20.3	12
PROVIDED BY OWNER	0.00	0.00	3.6	26.5	4.6	4.4

Table 4.2 reveals the pattern of food preparation which reveals the lifestyle of the migrant community. A significant majority cook their food by themselves (83.6%), 12% do group cooking, and 4.4% get food provided by their job owner. In Tamil Nadu and Gujarat, all of them cook their food by themselves. Delhi 86.5%, UP, 28.4%, and in Haryana, 75.1% prepare their own food. In UP, 45.2% do group cooking; in Haryana, 20.3% and 9.9% in Delhi go for group cooking. In Uttar Pradesh, 26.5% get their food provided by the owner, Haryana, 4.6%, and Delhi, 3.6% get their food provided by the owner.

As the data shown in table 3.6, the migrant worker needs to pay a good amount as rent or forced to live in temporary shelters.

Table 4.3 Percentage Distribution of Living Facilities

Source of drinking water supply	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
Public	78.3	99.2	39.3	36.3	66.7	60.7
Private well	21.7		11.6	7.3	19.1	15
Buy Water	0.00	0.8	49.1	56.4	14.1	24.3
TOILET FACILITY						
Private	57	88.5	50.2	35.8	46.3	50.5
Public Toilet	43	9.9	41.9	9.5	45	34.6
Open Space	0.00	1.5	7.9	54.7	8.6	15

Table 4.2 shows the other living facilities like drinking water and toilet facility. 60.7 % got access to the public water supply. 15% depends on Private wells, and 24.3% buy water. In Tamil Nadu, 78.3% get a public water supply, and 21.7% use private wells. In Gujarat, 99.2% get public water, and 0.8% buy water. In Delhi, 39.3% get public

water supply, 11.6% depend on a private well, and 49.1% buy water. In UP, 36.3% get public water supply, 7.3% depend on a private well, and 56.4% buy water. The picture of Haryana shows that 66.7% get a public water supply, 19.1% depend on a private well, and 14.1% buy water.

Toilet facilities of the migrants show that 50.5% use the private toilet, 34.6% use the public toilet, and 15% use open space. The state-wise data shows that in Tamil Nadu, 57% uses Private toilet, and 43% uses the public toilet. Gujarat, 88.5% use private toilets, 9.9 % use public toilet, and 1.5% use open space. In Delhi, 50.2% use private toilet, 41.9 % use the public toilet, and 7.9% uses open space. In UP, 35.8% use the private toilet, 9.5 % use the public toilet, and 54.7 % use the open space. In harayna, 46.3% use the private toilet, 45 % uses the public toilet, and 8.6% uses open space.

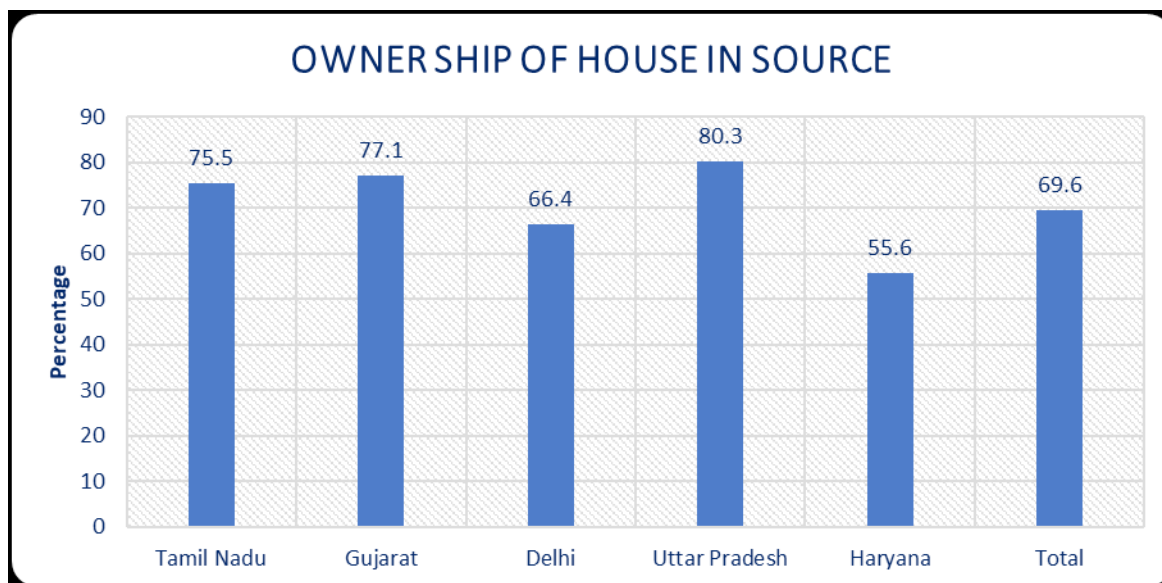


Figure 9 Percentage of Ownership of House in source

As per figure 10, 69% of the migrants own houses in their native place. Details from states show that the highest number of migrants in Uttar Pradesh own houses in their native place(80.3%). -75.5% of migrant workers in Tamil Nadu own their own house, 77.1% of Gujarat, 66.4% of Delhi, and 55.6% own house in their native places.

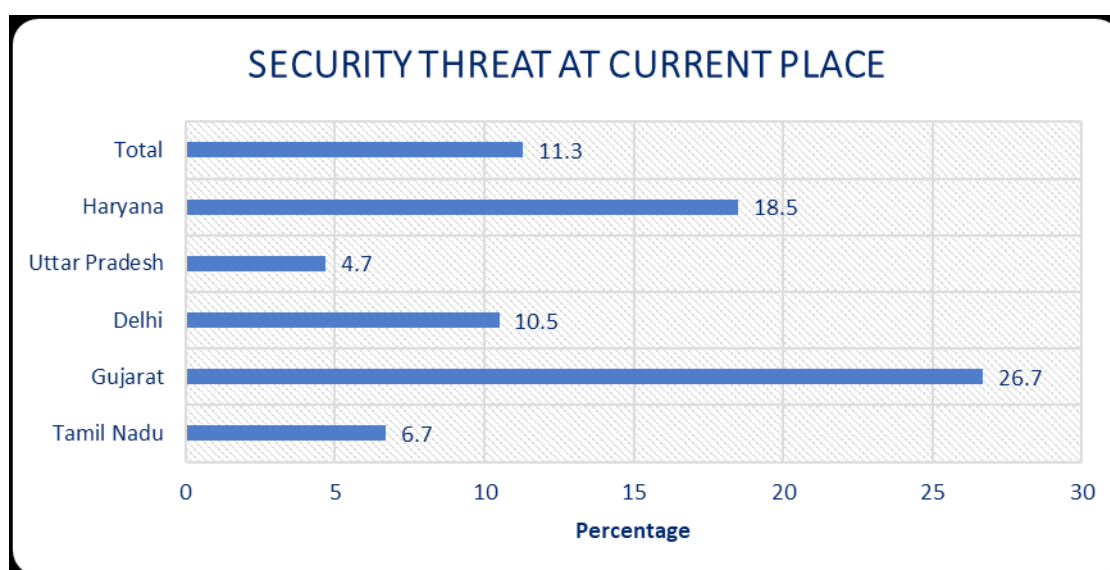


Figure 10. Percentage of Security threat faced by Migrant Workers in the current living place

As per the figure 11, more number of migrant workers in Gujarat face security threat (26.7%). Second higher number of worker face threst is in Haryana(18.5%, followed by Delhi (10.5%) and Tamil nadu(6.7%),

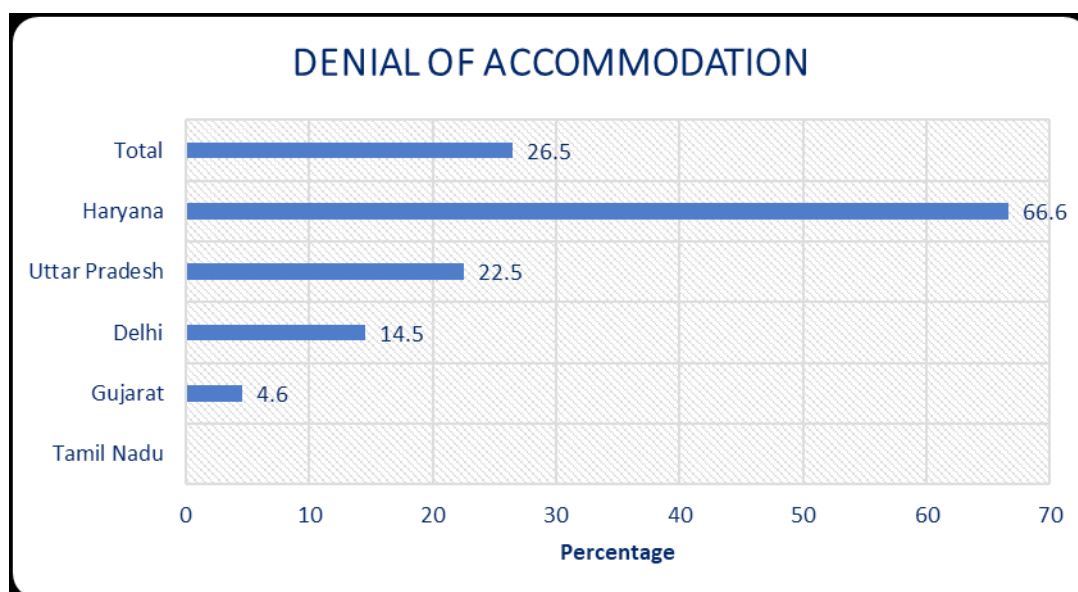


Figure 11 Percentage of Migrant Workers Denied Accommodation

According to the figure, 12, 66.6% in Haryana, 22.5% in UP, 14.5% in Delhi, and 4.6% in Gujarat are being denied accommodation as they are migrants. Tamil Nadu, nobody, got denied.

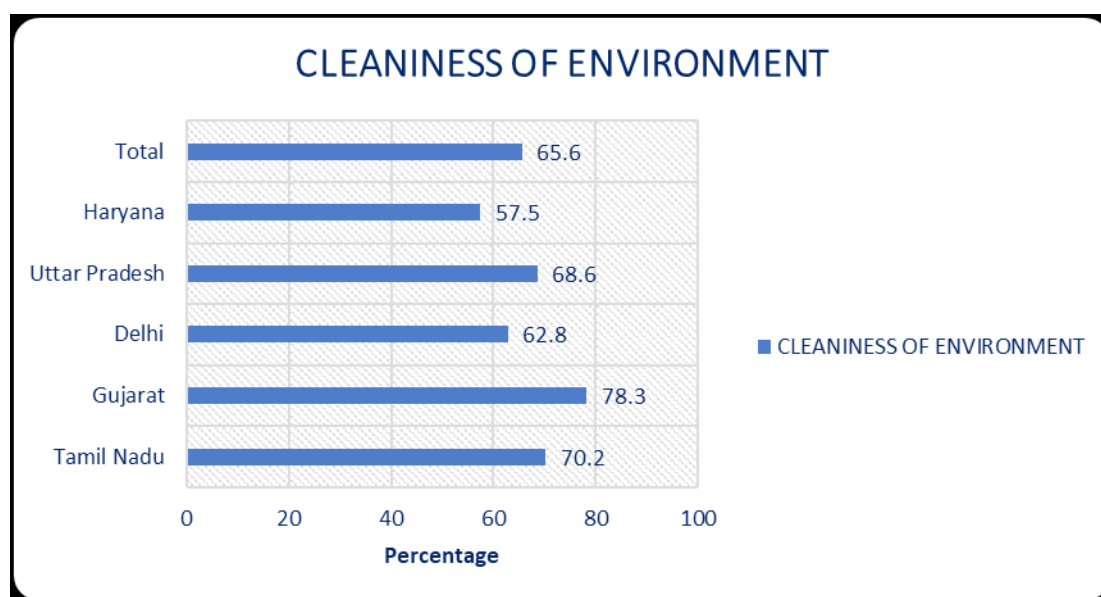


Figure 12, Percentage of Migrant Workers living in Clean environment as per States

According to figure 13, 78.3% of migrant workers in Gujarat, 70.2% in Tamil Nadu, 62.8% in Delhi, 68.6%in UP, and 57.5% in Haryana live in a clean environment. 35.4% of migrant workers live in unhygienic environments.

As per the figure:13, Tamil Nadu has no threat to the security migrants. In Gujarat, 88.5% feel safe, 65% in Delhi and 59.1% in Haryana feel safe in their living place. In Uttar Pradesh, only 21.8% feel safe in their living place. The reasons for feeling unsafe are different; those who live in roadside temporary shelters are under the fear that their house can be destroyed at any time by the Police or the administration “ I live in the temporary shelter made recently and live with the family, any time this can be removed by the police” Mrs.B.(ref. Indeapth Interview with who works as housemaid says. “We don’t have a house number, but we have a street number as address; the houses

are located on government property; a number of times, the authority had asked us to move. we had constructed a small temple in the locality, it got destroyed by the police ‘ Mr X says Sector 73, Noida. I am a newcomer here, started my barber shop roadside with a chair and my types of equipment, I paid some money to the police, so that I can keep my temporary shop here, I am unsure how long I can be here. I am from Bihar, this sawing machine is my shop, Two weeks before the Noida authority came and asked us to move, Now I am back here, this is the location, I get job daily for my family stays back in Bihar.(ref. FGD and audio interview)



Figure 13: Percentage of Migrant Workers feel Safety in living places

III.V Social Security

Most of the migrant workers work in the unorganized sector. The data focus to explain the working hours and the social security at their workplace.

As per figure 15, 43.9% work for 8 hours per day, 37.6% are being expected to work more than 8 hours, and 18.5% are to work any time of the day. In Tamil Nadu, 69.3% work more than 8 hours, and 30.7% work 8 hours. In Gujarat, 68.7% work 8 hours, 25.2% more than 8 hours, and 6.1% any time. In Delhi, 60.2% work 8 hours, 17.6% more than 8 hours, and 22.2% don't have a fixed time. In Uttar Pradesh, 39.9% work 8 hours, 12.4% more than 8 hours, and 47.7% any time. In Haryana, 39.2% work 8 hours, 39.8% more than 8 hours, and 20.9% any time. In Tamil Nadu, 69.3% work more than 8 hours, and 30.7% work 8 hours. In Gujarat, 68.7% work 8 hours, 25.2% more than 8 hours, and 6.1% any time. In Delhi, 60.2% work 8 hours, 17.6% more than 8 hours, and 22.2% don't have a fixed time. In Uttar Pradesh, 39.9% work 8 hours, 12.4% more than 8 hours, and 47.7% any time. In Haryana, 39.2% work 8 hours, 39.8% more than 8 hours, and 20.9% any time. In Tamil Nadu, 69.3% work more than 8 hours, and 30.7% work 8 hours. In Gujarat, 68.7% work 8 hours, 25.2% more than 8 hours, and 6.1% any time. In Delhi, 60.2% work 8 hours, 17.6% more than 8 hours, and 22.2% don't have a fixed time. In Uttar Pradesh, 39.9% work 8 hours, 12.4% more than 8 hours, and 47.7% any time. In Haryana, 39.2% work 8 hours, 39.8% more than 8 hours, and 20.9% any time.

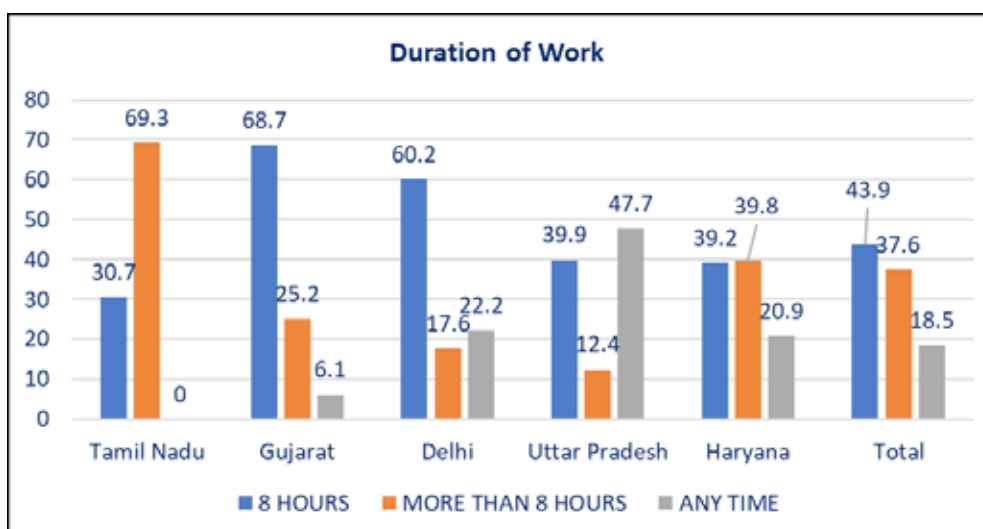
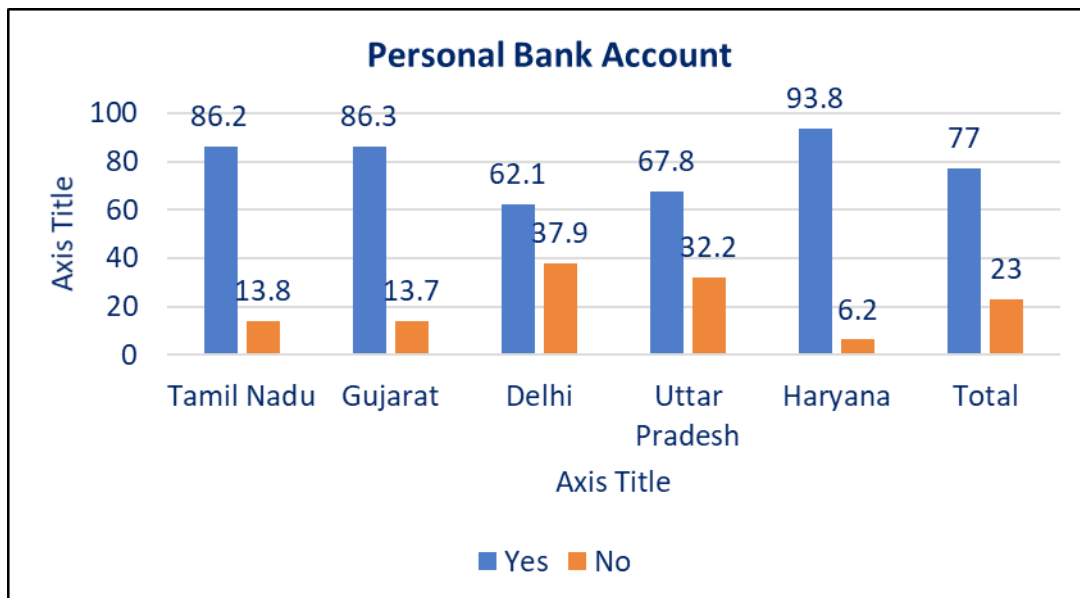


Figure 14: Percentage of Migrant Workers and their Duration of work

Table: 5.1 Percentage Distribution of Migrant Workers demanded to do excess work

Demand to do Excess Work Without Pay	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
NEVER	91.7	80.2	46	19.9	63.5	63.3
OFTEN		13.7	15.9	25.8	10.9	10.9
Sometime	8.3	6.1	38.1	54.3	25.6	25.8

According to table 5.1, 63.3% never being asked to do excess work, 10.9% often asked to do excess work, and 25.5% asked sometimes. In Tamil Nadu, 91.7% are never asked, and 8.3% are sometimes asked to do excess work. In Gujarat, 80.2% are never asked, 13.7% are often, and 6.1% are sometimes asked to do excess work. In Delhi, 46% are never asked, 15.9% are often, and 6.1% are sometimes asked to do excess work. In UP, 19.9% are never asked, 25.8% are often, and 54.3 % are sometimes asked to do excess work. In Haryana, 63.5% are never asked, 10.9% are often, and 25.6% are sometimes asked to do excess work. According to the data, it's evident that Uttar Pradesh, working situation is not friendly and does not follow the work ethics and policies 80% of the workers are demanded to do excess work, followed by Delhi, more than 50% of the workers are expected to work more than 8 hours. 20% of the work demand excess hours work in Gujarat. Tamil Nadu shows the comparatively better working condition the migrant workers.

**Figure: 15 Personal bank accounts of the respondents**

As per the figure 15, 77% of the migrant got their own bank account, and 23% do not have. In Tamil Nadu, 13.8% do not have and 86.2% got their bank account. In Gujarat, 13.7 % do not have, 86.3% go their own account. Delhi, 37.9% do not have and 62.8% got their bank account in their name. almost similar situation is found in UP, 67.8% got bank account and 32.9% do not have it. In Haryana 93.8% got their bank account and 23% do not have it.

Table 5.2 Percentage Distribution of Migrant Workers by mode of payment

Mode of Payment	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
CASH	54.3	74.8	84.9	74.9	88.1	72
BANK	45.7	25.2	14	1.3	10.3	22.3
OTHER PERSON	0.00		1.1	23.8	1.5	5.7

According to the table 5.2, 72% of the payment is done as cash, 22.3% through bank account of the person and 5.7 % payment is done through another person. Tamil Nadu has highest payment done via bank, 45.7%, UP has least transaction via bank 1.3%. Highest payment done via third person is also in UP (23.8%). In Gujarat and Tamil Nadu no payment is done via third person. In Delhi 1.1% payment is done vis third person. However, the data shows that most of the payment is done as cash to the individual. In Tamil Nadu 54.3%, Gujarat 74.8%, Delhi 84.9% Uttar Pradesh 74.9% and in Haryana 88.1%

Table 5.3 Percentage of Migrant Workers Using of Bank Account

Access To Bank Account	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
SELF	100	89.4	52.7	60.9	86.5	78.6
OTHER FAMILY	0.00	0.00	8	5.6	5.3	3.7
EMPLOYER	0.00	0.00	21.9	15.3	5.3	8.9
OTHERS	0.00	10.6	11.8	9.7	0.6	5.6
FRIENDS	0.00	0.00	5.6	8.5	2.3	3.2

Table 5.3 shows the use of bank accounts by migrant workers. 78.6% use their own self-account, 3.7% use the accounts of other family members, 8.9% are managed by their employer, 5.6% were managed by others, and 3.2% use their friends' accounts. In Tamil Nadu, 100 accounts are used by themselves, Gujarat 89.4% manage their own account, Delhi 52.7%, Uttar Pradesh, 60.9%, and in Haryana 86.5% manage their own account. Other family members manage 8% of the Delhi respondents, 5.6% of Uttar Pradesh, and 5.3% of respondents from Haryana; in the case of Delhi Migrants, 21.9% of account is managed by the employer, 15.3% in UP, 5.3% in Haryana. Others managing their accounts is another reality- Delhi is 19.6%, 11.8 in UP, and 0.6 in Haryana. The respondents use their friend's accounts, and their accounts are managed by their friends. State-wise, Delhi it is 5.6%, UP 8.5%, and Haryana 2.3%.

Table 5.4 Distribution of Migrant Workers get Social Security at the workplace

Accident Claim at Workplace	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
Yes	22.3	4.6	14.4	16.5	40.8	23.5
No	30.5	86.9	46.8	6	44.6	37.7
Not Aware	47.2	8.5	38.8	77.5	14.7	38.8
Met with an accident during work						
Never	100	91.6	84.5	88.2	75.9	87.5
Many Times,		2.3	2.2	1.4	5.6	2.4
A Few Times		6.1	13.3	10.4	18.5	10
TYPE OF HOSPITAL ADMITTED AFTER ACCIDENT						
Government	73.1	92.3	72.6	13.3	76.7	70.2
Private	17.7	7.7	8.6	23	3.4	10.9
Traditional Treatment	9.2		18.8	63.7	19.9	18.8

Table 5.4 presents the security received by the respondents at their workplace. 23.5 % get their accident claim, 37.7% don't, and 38.8% are unaware of it. In Tamil Nadu, 22.3% say yes, Gujarat 4.6%, Delhi it is, 14.4%. UP it is, 16.5%, Haryana, 40.8%. at the same time, 30.5% in Tamil Nadu, 86.9% in Delhi, 46.8% in Uttar Pradesh, and 44.6 % in Haryana do not get any access. A good number are not aware of any security measures across the states.

Table 5.5 Distribution of Health Concerns among Migrant Workers as per the states

Health Issues	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
Respiratory	0.00	14.3	16.3	87.4	97.4	69.2
Skin	0.00	14.3	21.2	1	1.4	4
Anemia	0.00		31.7	3	1.2	5.1
STD	0.00	2.4	9.6	4	0.00	2.6
Other	100	69	21.2	4.7	0.00	19.1

Table 5.5 shows the health concerns among migrant workers. In Tamil Nadu, there are no health concerns raised by migrant workers. In Haryana and Uttar Pradesh, Respiratory issues rank high(97.4%) and 87.4%) respectively. Respiratory issues are found among 16.3% of migrant workers in Delhi and 14.3% in Gujarat. The highest health problem in Delhi is Anemia (31.7%), followed by skin issues (21.2%), and 14.3% of Respiratory issues found in Gujarat. STD is being found among 2.6% across the states. The percentage is 9.6% in Delhi, 4% in Uttar Pradesh, and 2.4% in Gujarat. Other diseases are found among migrant workers in Gujarat (69%) and Delhi (21.2%).

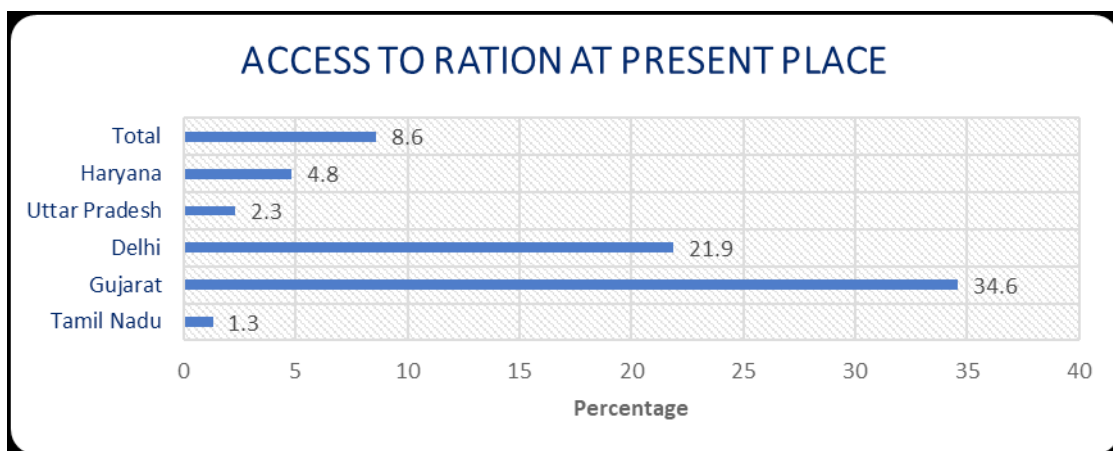


Figure 16: Percentage of Migrant Workers with access to ration card in the place of work

As per the figure 16, 8.6% got access to ration cards. Tamil Nadu has a percentage of 1.3%, Gujarat has a percentage of 34.6%, Delhi has a percentage of 21.6%, UP has a percentage of 2.3%, and Haryana has 4.8%.



Table 5.6 Distribution of ration card as per the category

Type of Ration Card	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
APL	5.4	74.1	25.3	27.3	12	17.7
BPL	94.6	25.9	74.7	72.7	88	82.3

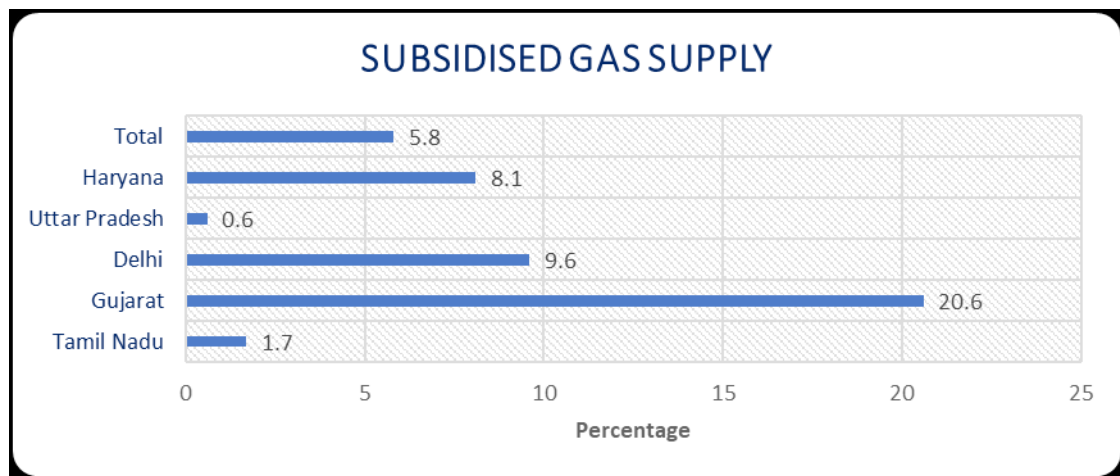


Table 5.6 indicates that 17.7% of migrants have their ration category in Above Poverty Line (APL) and 82.3% in below Poverty line. Majority of the migrants in Gujarat are listed in APL. Above 25% of the migrants in UP and Delhi are also listed in the same category.

Figure 17: Percentage of Migrant Workers with access to Access to Subsidised Gas Supply

According to figure 17, 5.8% get subsidised gas. Gujarat has 20.6%, Delhi has 9.6%, Haryana has 8.1%, Tamil Nadu has 1.7%, and Uttar Pradesh has 0.6% get the Subsidised gas supply. A significant majority did get access to subsidised gas supply.

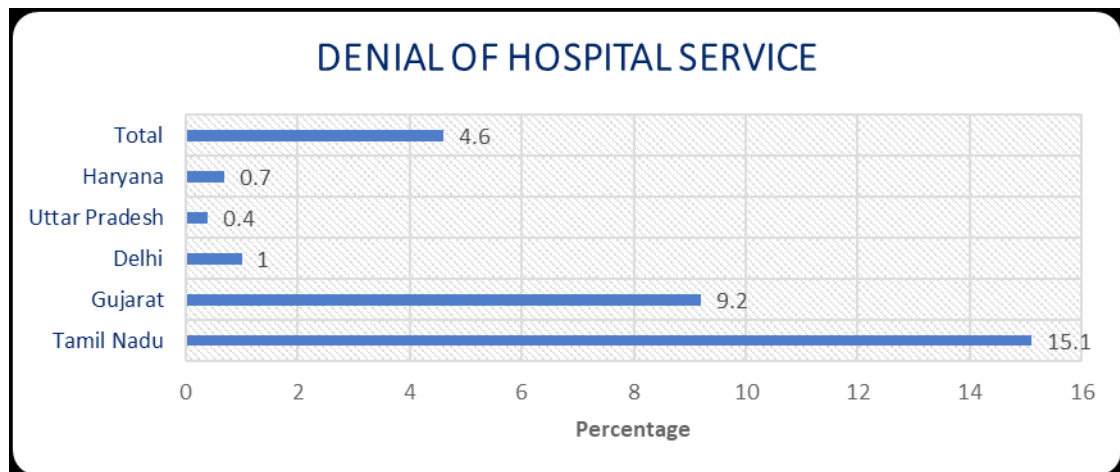


Figure 18: Percentage of Migrant Workers Denied by Hospital Service

Figure 18 shows the migrant workers denied hospital services. In Tamil Nadu, 15.1%, Gujarat 9.1%, Delhi 1%, Uttar Pradesh 0.4%, and Haryana 0.7% are denied by hospital services.

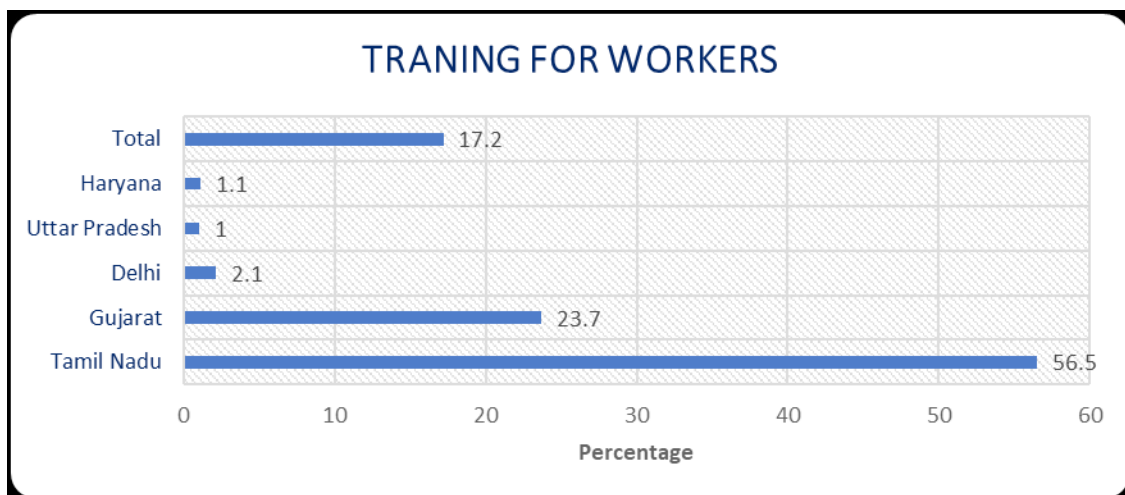


Fig: 19: Percentage of Migrant Workers got training to take up a new job in the new destination

According to figure 19, 56.5% in Tamil Nadu, 23.7% in Gujarat, 2.1%, 1% in Uttar Pradesh, and 1.1% In Haryana get training to take up the new jobs. A total of 17.2% get the training.

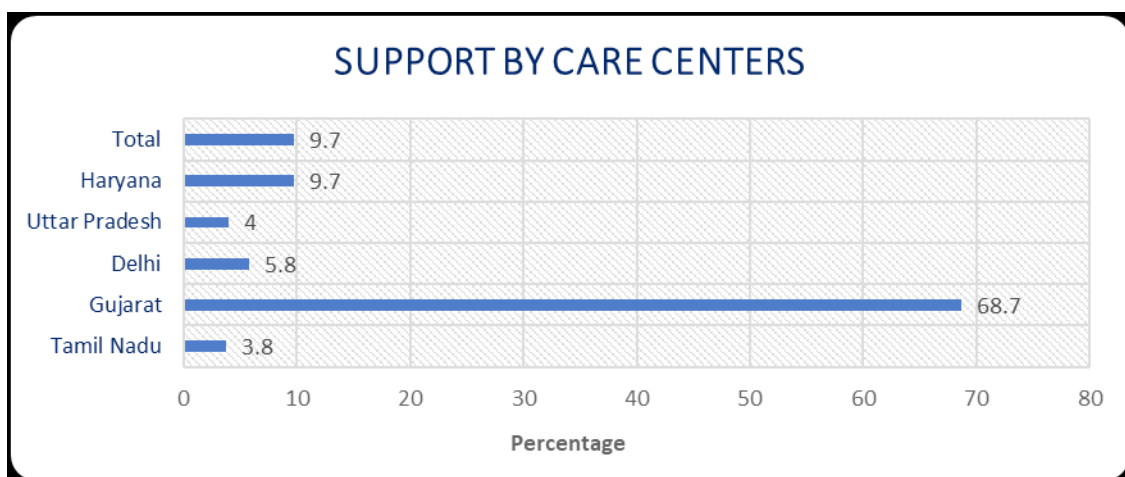


Figure:20 Percentage of Migrant Workers who received Support from the health care centre

Figure 20 shows the support received from the care centres. Only 9.7% of migrants receive support from the centres. Out of it, 68.7% in Gujarat, 9.7% in Haryana, 5.8% in Delhi, 4. % in Uttar Pradesh, and 3.8% in Tamil Nadu receive support from the care centres.

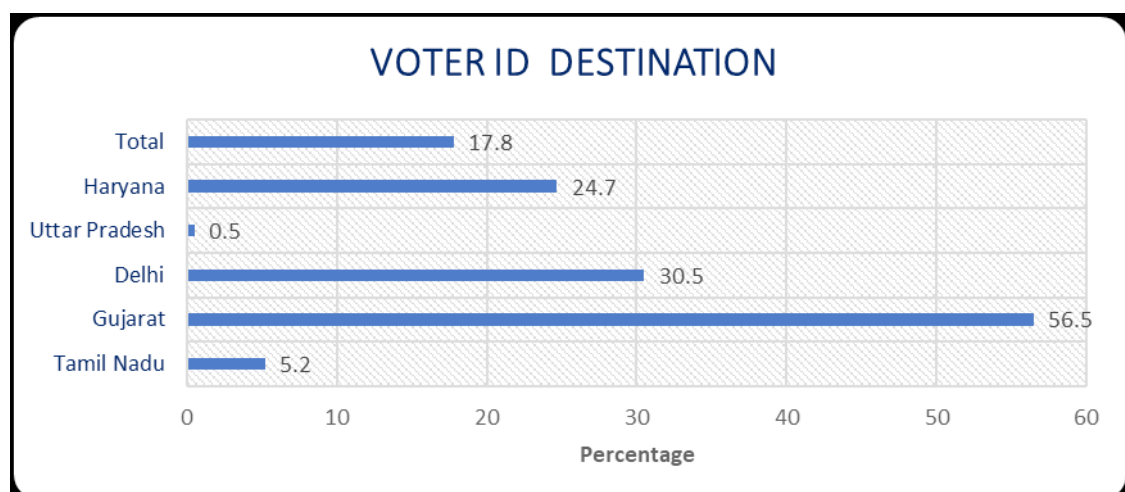


Figure 21 Percentage of Migrant Workers having Voter id in the current location

Figure 21 depicts the voter id owned by the migrant workers. A total number of 17.8% got voter IDs from their migrant location. In Gujarat 56.5%, Delhi 30.5%, Haryana 24.7%, Tamil Nadu 5.2% got the voter IDs. The majority of them do not have voter IDs in their destination of migration.

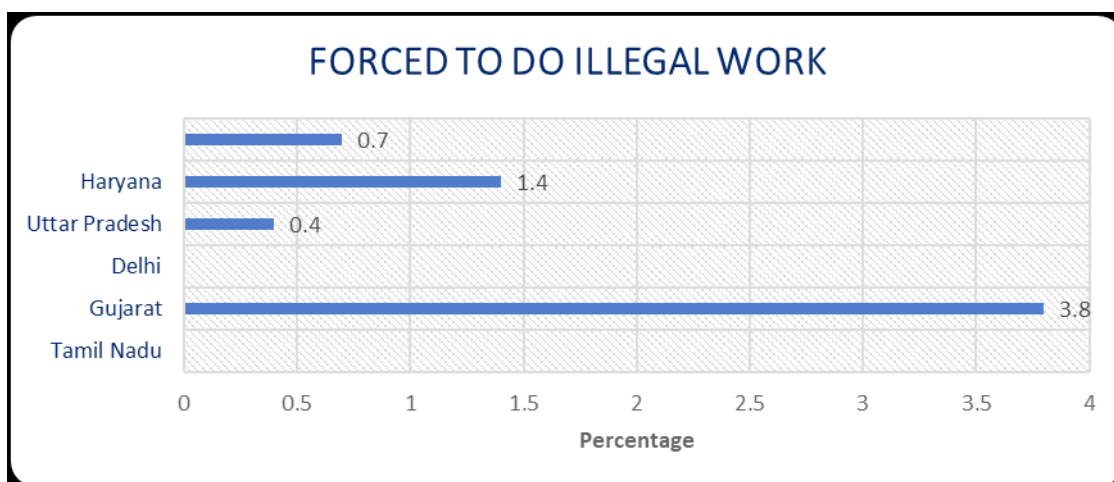


Figure: 22 Percent of Migrant Workers Forced to do illegal work

According to figure 22, 0.7% of the migrants are forced to do illegal work. Gujarat, 3.8%, Haryana, 1.4%. Uttar Pradesh 0.4, Delhi and Tamil Nadu, imposition of illegal work was not found.

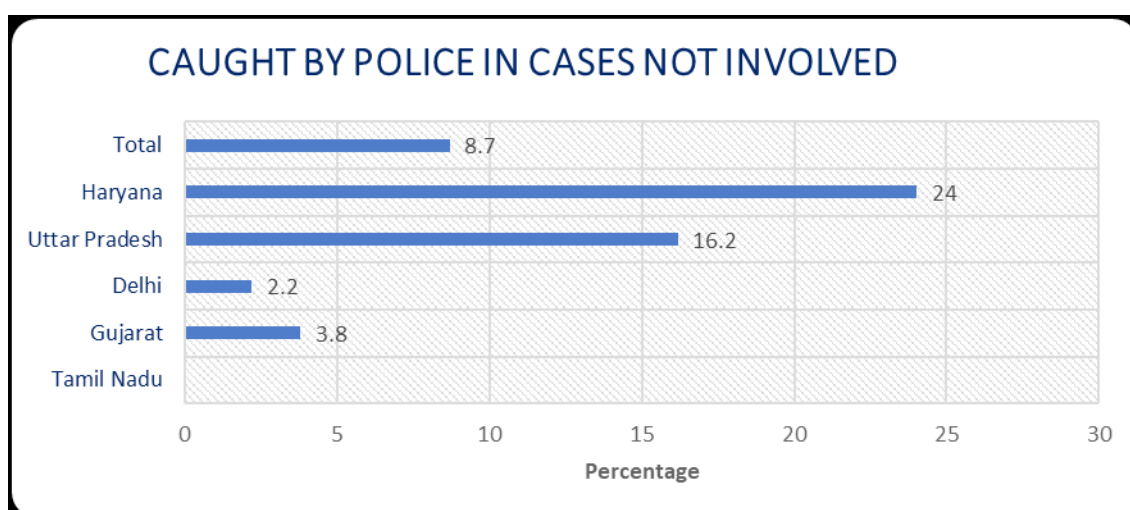


Figure: 23 Police Case against the Migrants

Figure 23 shows that no false case was found on migrants in Tamil Nadu. However, in general 8.7% of migrants were either having filed with FIR, not filed with FIR or convicted on false accusations, where Haryana ranks first with 24% and 16.2% in Uttar Pradesh, 3.8% in Gujarat, and 2.2% in Delhi, respectively.

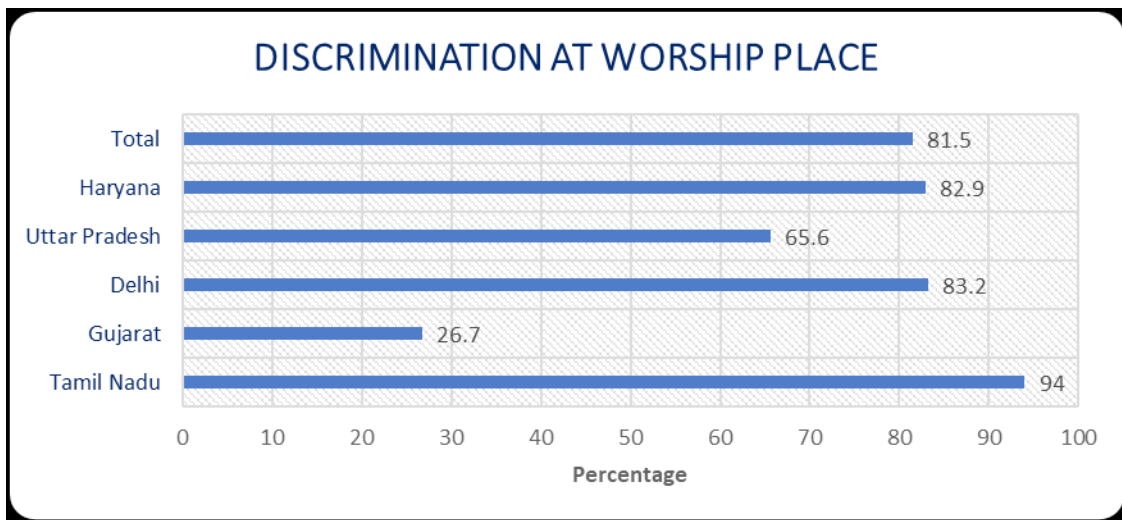


Figure: 24 Discrimination at worship place

There is a clear discrimination felt by the people at their worship place in their new destination. 81.5% of the migrants feel that they are being discriminated in the worship place. Tamil Nadu shows the highest (94%), discrimination, followed by Haryana (82.9%) and Delhi (83.2%), Uttar Pradesh 65.6%, and Gujarat showing less discrimination.

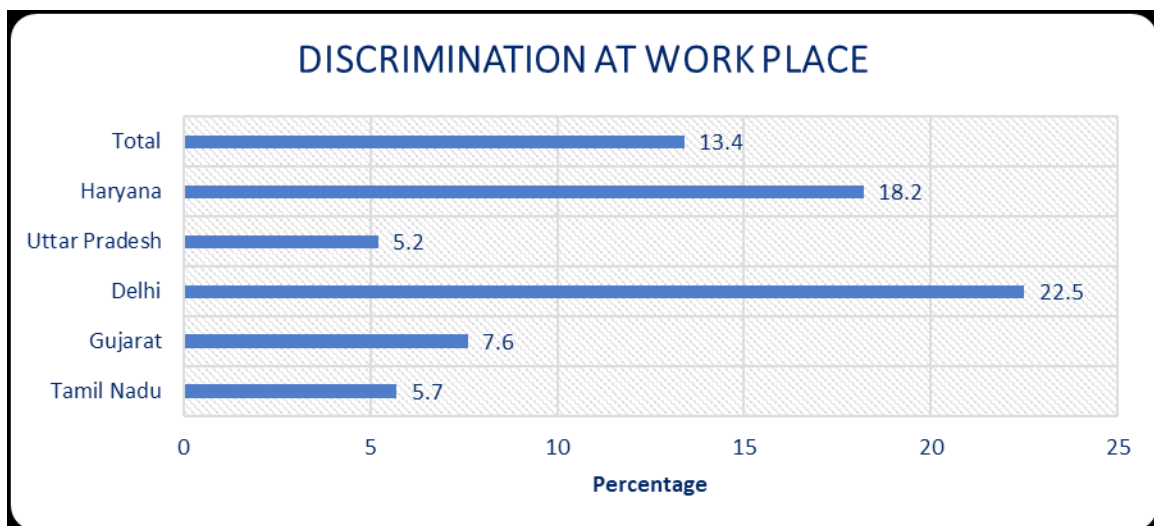


Figure: 25 Discrimination at the Workplace

As per figure 25, 13.4% of migrants feel that they are being against at their workplace. They are being paid less compared to other workers. Discrimination was felt in terms of not being paid the full wages or denial of the wage; among them, 22.5% are from Delhi, 18.2% are from Haryana, and 7.6% are from Gujarat, followed by Tamil Nadu (5.7%) and Uttar Pradesh (5.2%). Discrimination at work is less common than at home.



III. VI Status of Women and Children

Among the migrant communities, most of the family has more than one earning member. It has made women also as a significant earning member of the family.

Table 6.1: Management of income earned by women

Management Of Income by Women	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
Spouse/Father	71.1	12.2	30.7	15.8	66.7	28
Self	28.9	87.8	69.3	84.2	33.3	72

As per table 6.1, 72% of women manage the money themselves which is earned by them. For 28%, it is managed by the spouse or the father. In Uttar Pradesh, 84.2% of women manage their money; in Gujarat, 87.8%, Delhi, 69.3%, and in Haryana, 33.3% manage their income. In Haryana, 66.7% are managed by their spouse or the father, 71.1% in Tamil Nadu, and 15.8% in Uttar Pradesh, 30.7% in Delhi, and 12.2% in Gujarat.

Table 6.2: Consideration during Pregnancy

Consideration for pregnant Women at Workplace	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
Always	100	9.5	17.6	5.9	68	23.3
Sometimes	0.00	17.6	43.5	44.9	8	33.4
Never	0.00	73	38.8	49.2	24	43.3

According to table 6.2, Migrant expecting women in Tamil Nadu get concerned in their workplace. Across the states, 43.3% never got consideration, 33.4% sometimes, and 23.3% always.

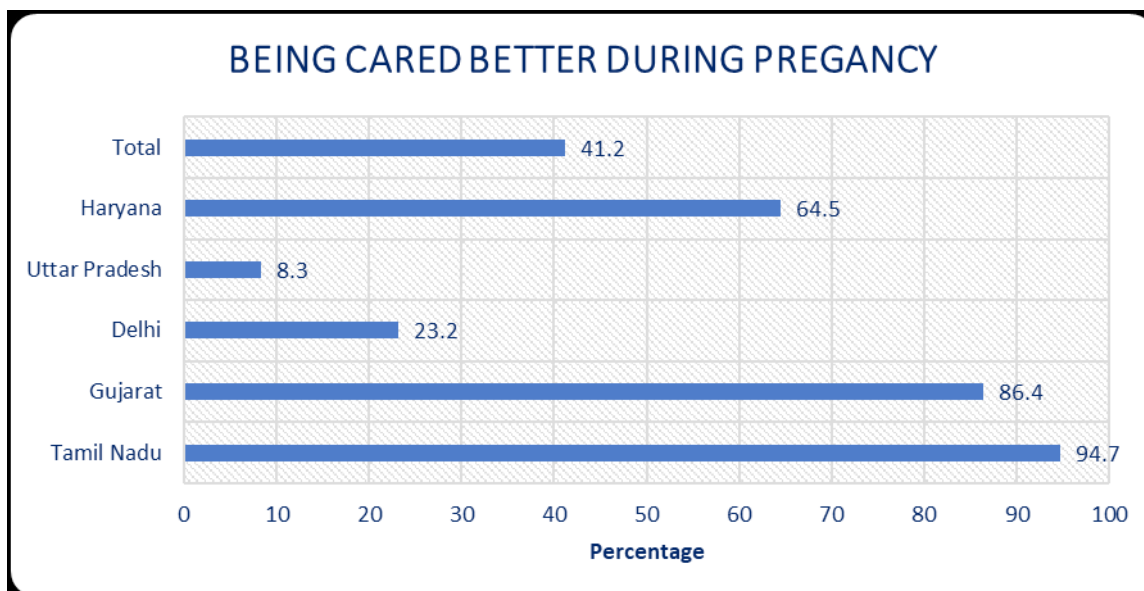


Figure: 26: Care during pregnancy

Figure 26 shows that 41.2% of women are being cared for better during pregnancy in their current place of living. In Tamil Nadu 94.7%, Gujarat 86.4%, Delhi 23.2%, Uttar Pradesh, 8.3% and in Haryana 64.5%.

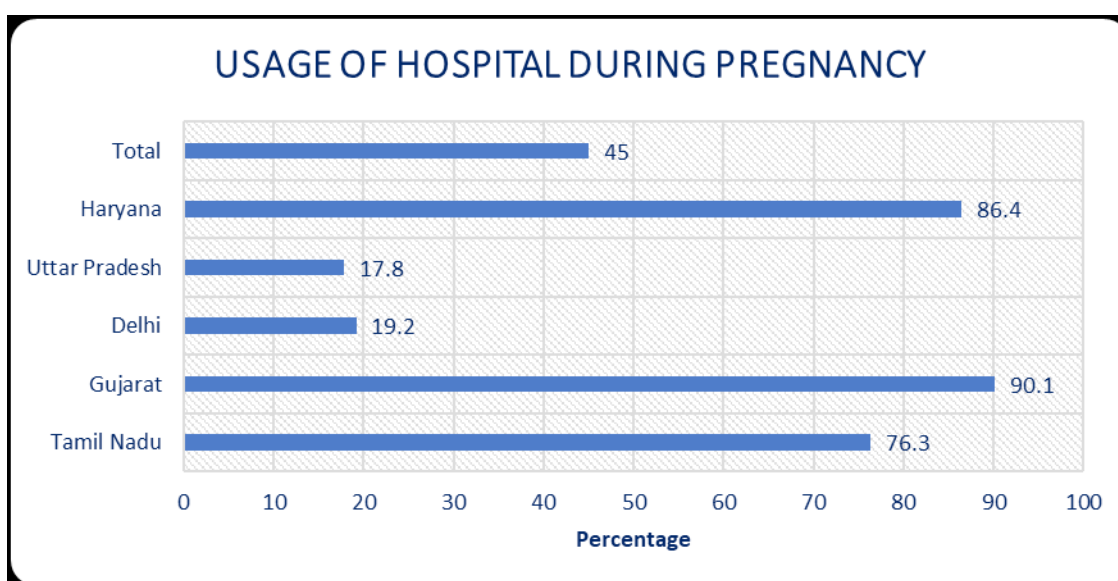


Figure: 27: Usage of hospital services during pregnancy

As per figure 27, 45% of pregnant women use hospital services during their pregnancy. In Tamil Nadu, 76.2%, Gujarat 90.1%, Delhi 19.2%, Uttar Pradesh 17.8%, and Haryana 86.4% use hospital Services during their Pregnancy.

Table 6.3: Women facing harassment from husband

HARASSMENT FROM HUSBAND	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
Never	84.2	71.9	72	91.2	100	78.3
Frequently	0.00	0.00	25.5	5.9	0.00	13.3
Often	15.8	28.1	2.5	2.9	0.00	8.4

As per table 6.3, 78.3% of women never face any physical harassment from their husbands, 13.3% frequently face harassment, and 8.4% often face harassment. 84.2% of migrant workers in Tamil Nadu, Gujarat 71.9%, Delhi 72%, Uttar Pradesh 91.2%, and 100% in Haryana never faced Harassment. Delhi and Uttar Pradesh, 25.5% and 5.9%, respectively, frequently face harassment. In Tamil Nadu, 15.8%, Gujarat, 28.1%, Delhi, 2.5%, and Uttar Pradesh, 2.9% often face harassment from husbands.

It is being observed that most of the children were between the ages of 3 and 12 years. Most of them are boys. Less girls were seen playing in the street, near a less crowded metro station, or on lonely roads. Mostly girls were found staying at home. They are, however, fewer in number. Both boys and girls were attending the parallel school conducted by NGOs in Noida, (This was not found in other states). These classes were conducted for an hour or lightly more. Some of the classes were found in temporary shelters or on the side of the road.

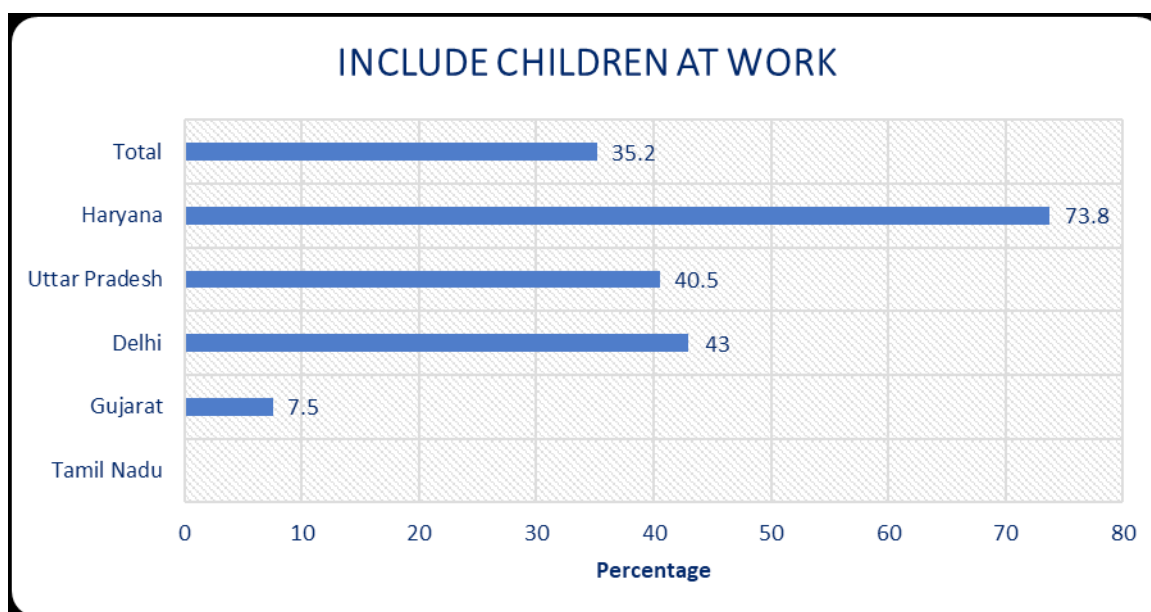


Figure: 28: Inclusion of Children at work

According to figure 28, 35.2% of include children at their work. In Tamil Nadu they do not include. Haryana 73.8%, Uttar Pradesh 40.5%, Delhi 43%, and in Gujarat 7.5% of parents include their children in their work.

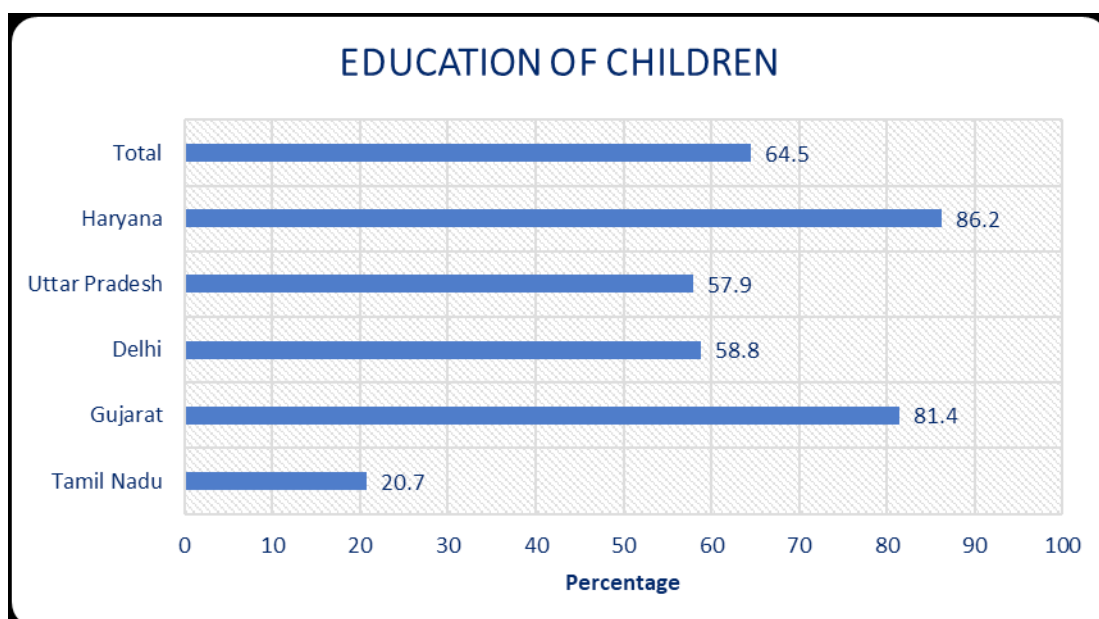


Figure: 29: Children sent to school

According to figure 29, and table 6.4, 64.5% of the parents send their children to school. Among them, 86.2% are in Haryana, 81.4% in Gujarat, 58.8% in Delhi, 57.9% in Uttar Pradesh, and 20.7% is in Tamil Nadu.

Table 6.4: Percent of children sent to school and their admission in local school

Parents Agree to Send Their Children To School	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
Yes	20.70%	81.40%	58.80%	57.90%	86.20%	64.50%
No	79.30%	18.60%	41.20%	42.10%	13.80%	35.50%
CHILDREN ADMITTED IN LOCAL SCHOOL	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	
Yes	6.90%	42.70%	57.90%	27.00%	86.50%	47.90%
No	93.10%	57.30%	42.10%	73.00%	13.50%	52.10%

The table further reveals that as per the parents, more than one third of the children are not sent to school in the destination. It is also to be noted that some parents also may not give accurate information as there is a social expectation to send their children to school, and if they say no they may be undermined by others. Therefore, there is a chance to give false information too.

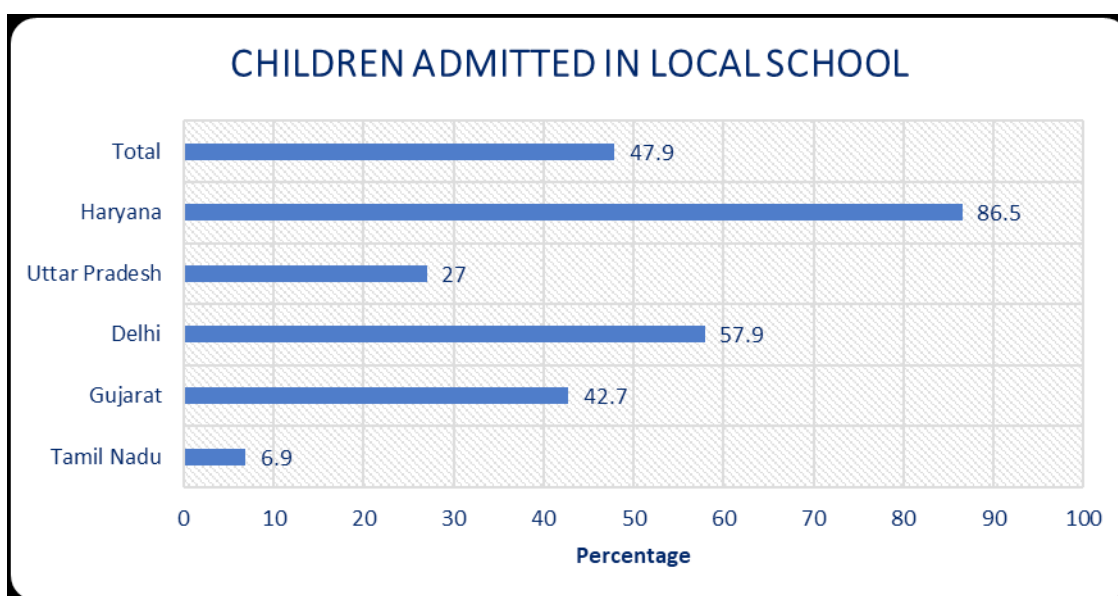


Figure: 30: Children Admitted to Local School

Figure 30 shows that 47.9% of children are admitted to Local schools. Haryana 86.5%, Uttar Pradesh 27%, Delhi 57%, Gujarat 42%, and Tamil Nadu 6.9% are admitted to a local school. It can be concluded that 47% of children actually go to school, other may be attending informal education or they are sent to school in their native place, who are not monitored by the parents.

Table 6.5: Reason for not sending children to school

Reason For Not Sending Children To School	Tamil Nadu	Gujarat	Delhi	Uttar Pradesh	Haryana	Total
LEARNING NEW LANGUAGE	100	45.5	20	70.2	81.6	55.7
DENIAL OF ADMISSION	0.00	54.5	45.3	0.00	0.00	18.1
HIGH SCHOOL EXPENDITURE	0.00	0.00	15.8	9.6	2.6	9.6
NEED CHILD SUPPORT AT WORKPLACE	0.00	0.00	3.2	19.2		8.5
NO IMPORTANCE	0.00	0.00	15.8	1	15.8	8.1

According to table 6.4, the reason for not sending their children to school in Tamil Nadu is learning a new language. Gujarat, Delhi, Uttar Pradesh, and Haryana also responded with the same issue with a percentage of 45.5%, 20%, 70.2%, and 81.6%, respectively. Denial of admission to the school is another reason for 54.5% in Gujarat and 45.3% in Delhi. Unaffordable expenditure is another reason for 15.8% in Delhi, 9.6% in Uttar Pradesh, and 2.6% in Haryana. Across the state, 3.2 % of respondents in Delhi do not send their children to school as they are being kept as support in their workplace, and 19.2% in Uttar Pradesh. Both in Delhi and Haryana, 15.8%, and in Uttar Pradesh, 1% do not send as they do not consider their children's education is important.

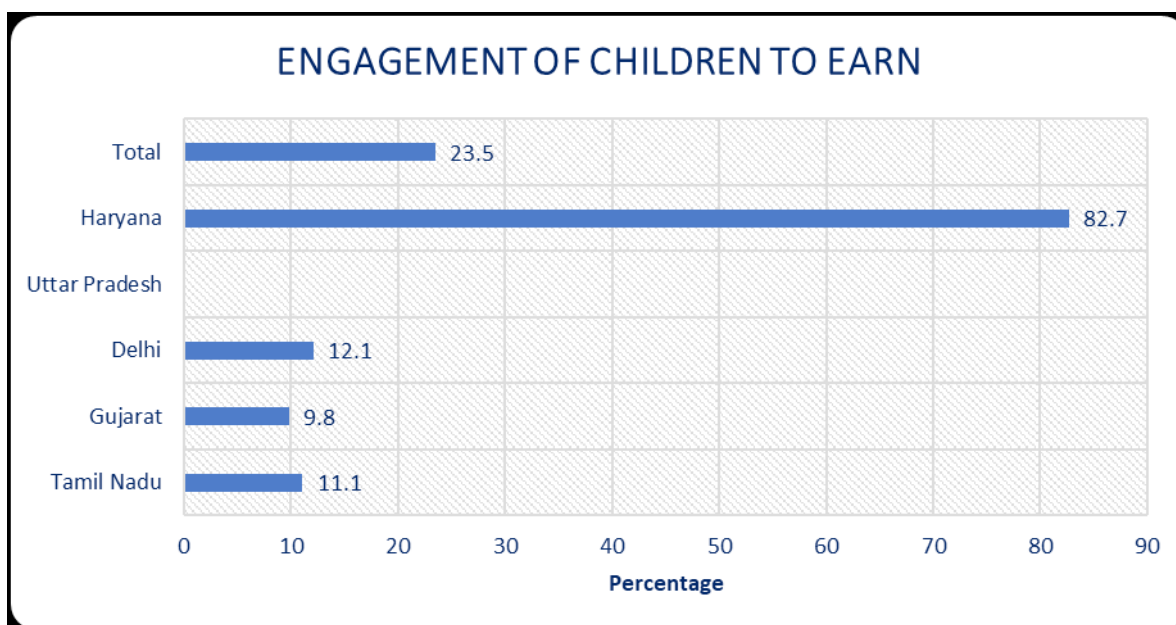


Figure: 31: Engagement of children in Earning

According to figure 31, 23.5% engage children in earning. Haryana has the highest figure (82.7%). Delhi 12.1%, Gujarat 9.8%, Tamil Nadu 11.1%, and in Uttar Pradesh, it is not found

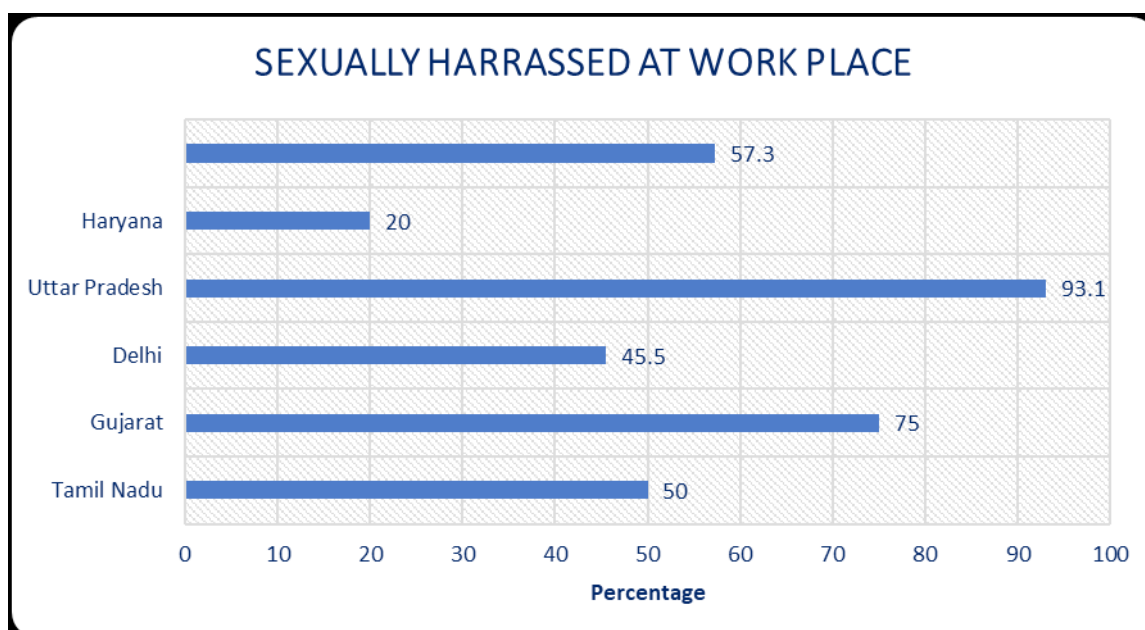


Figure: 32. Sexual Harassment of Women in the Workplace

Figure 32 depicts the picture of women being sexually harassed at their workplace. 57.3% were found sexually harassed at their workplace. Uttar Pradesh 93.1%, Gujarat 75%, Tamil Nadu 50%, Delhi 45.5%, and in Haryana, 20% of women were found sexually harassed at the workplace.

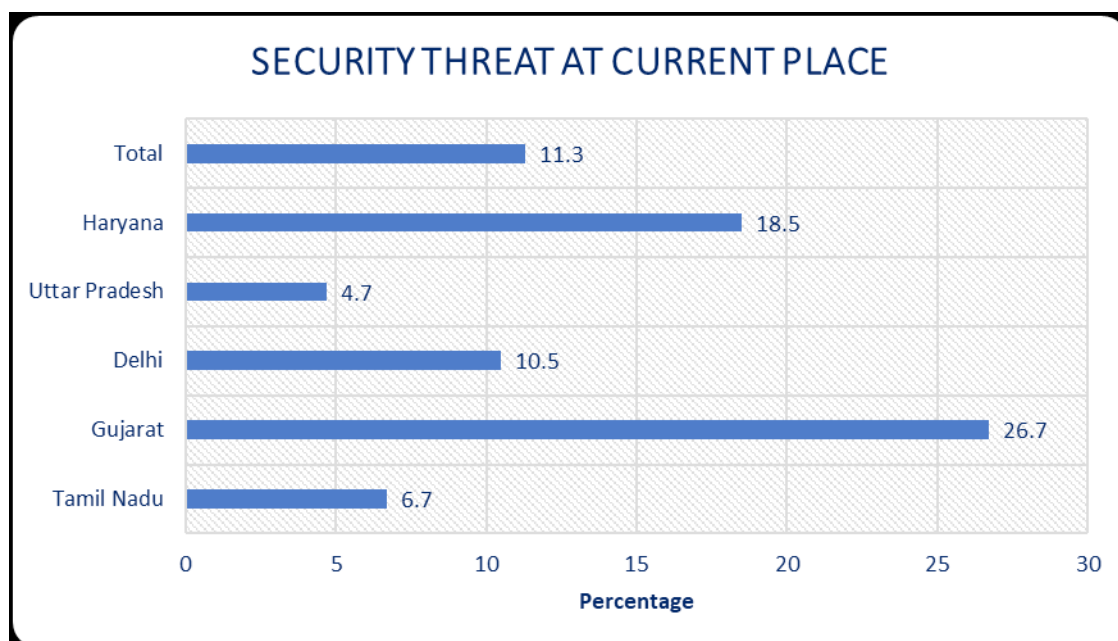


Figure: 33 Security threat at living place

Figure 33 provides the information on the security threat faced by the migrant community. Gujarat (26.7%) is comparatively unsafe compared to other places. UP, Delhi and Tamil Nadu are less threatening locations for the migrant workers.

Figure 34 shows that, as per the migrant's community, they live in clean environment. 65% of them feel that they live in clean place. Whereas the researchers have noted that most of the migrants houses are clean, but the location they live are not clean. Number of houses are located next to the drainage, and even over the drainage, houses area located at waste dumping area of the city. However, around 60% and above migrants live in clean area. This is contradictory as it varies according to the perception of the people.

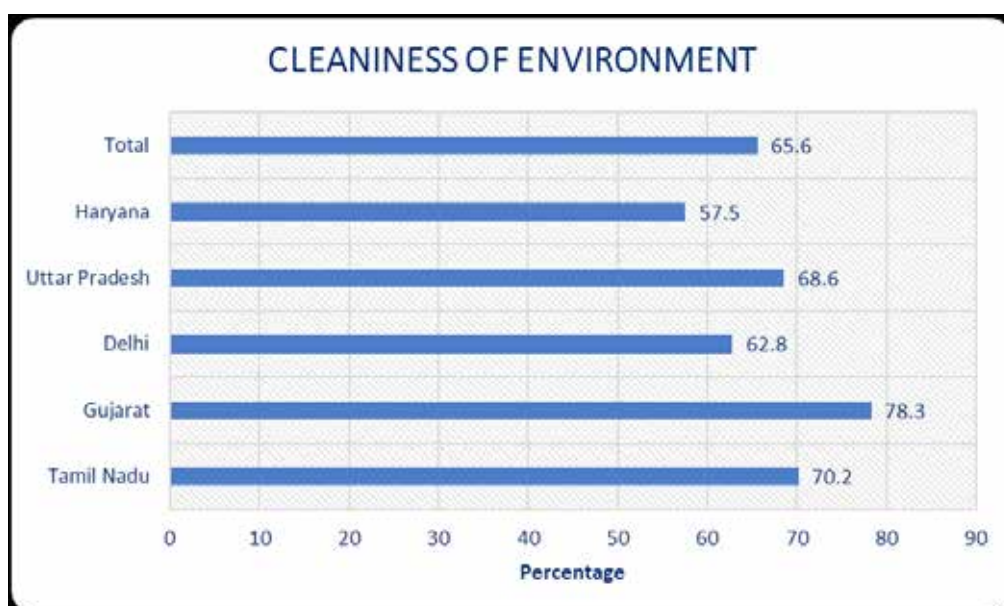


Figure 34 Cleanliness of Environment

According to the figure 35, 5% got some sort of savings. Haryana 97.1%, Delhi 41.8%, Gujrat 33.6%, Tamil Nadu 21.4% and Uttar Pradesh 4.5% got savings.

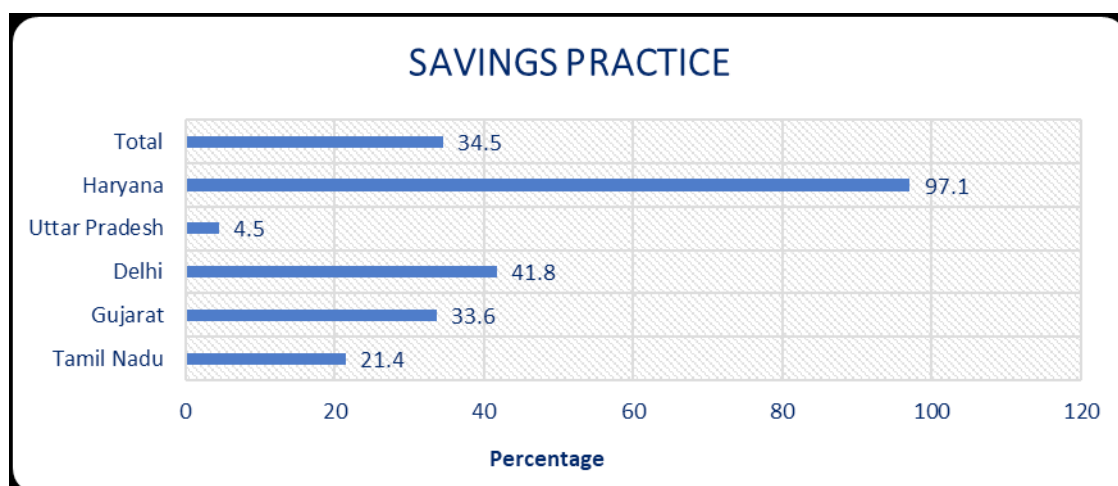


Figure 35 Saving practice of the migrant workers

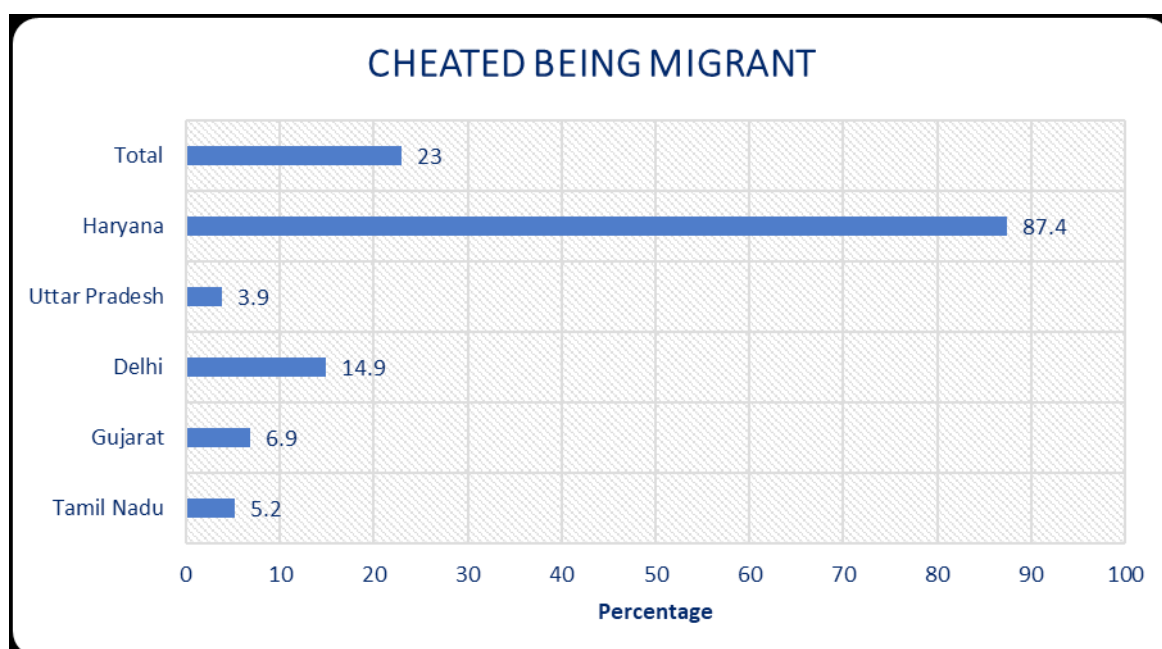


Figure 36 Migrant being cheated in their destination

As per the figure 36, 23% found being cheated as migrant. The highest number is in Haryana (87.4%), Delhi 14.9%, Gujrat 6.9%, Tamil Nadu 5.2% and in Uttar Pradesh it is 3.9%

Figure 37 shows that 63.8% of the migrant feel protected. More than one fourth do not feel protected is a concern. In Uttar Pradesh, only 5.2% feel safe and protected in their new location. Haryana, Gujrat and Tamil Nadu are better places for Migrant workers in terms of protection (96.3%, 84% and 80.2% respectively). Delhi below 50% feel protected (46.4%).

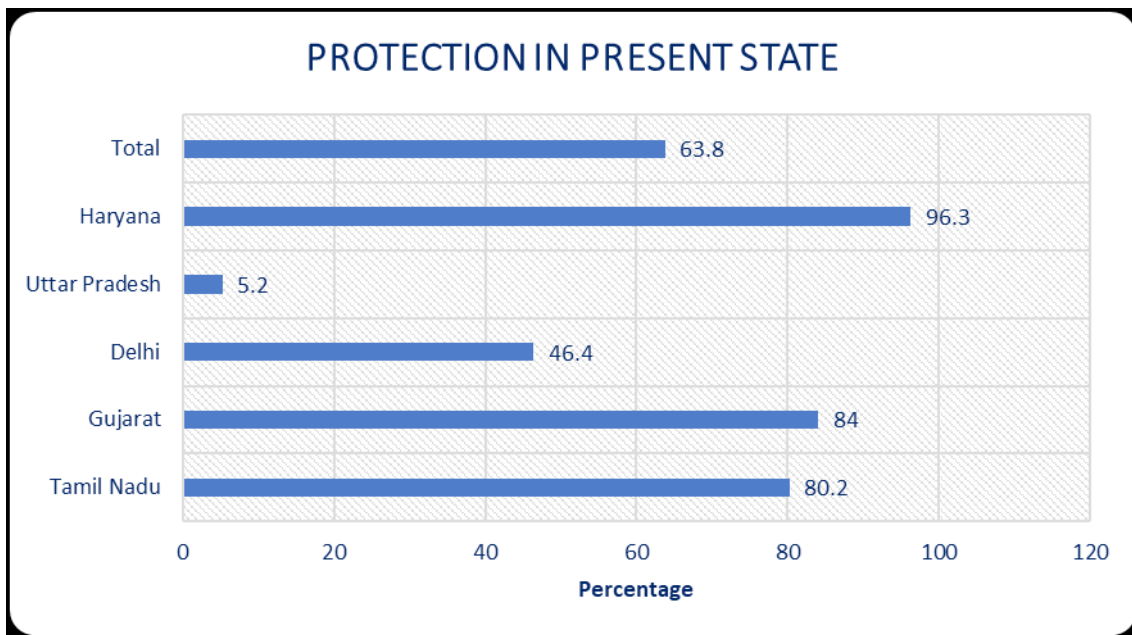


Figure 37 protection in the destination

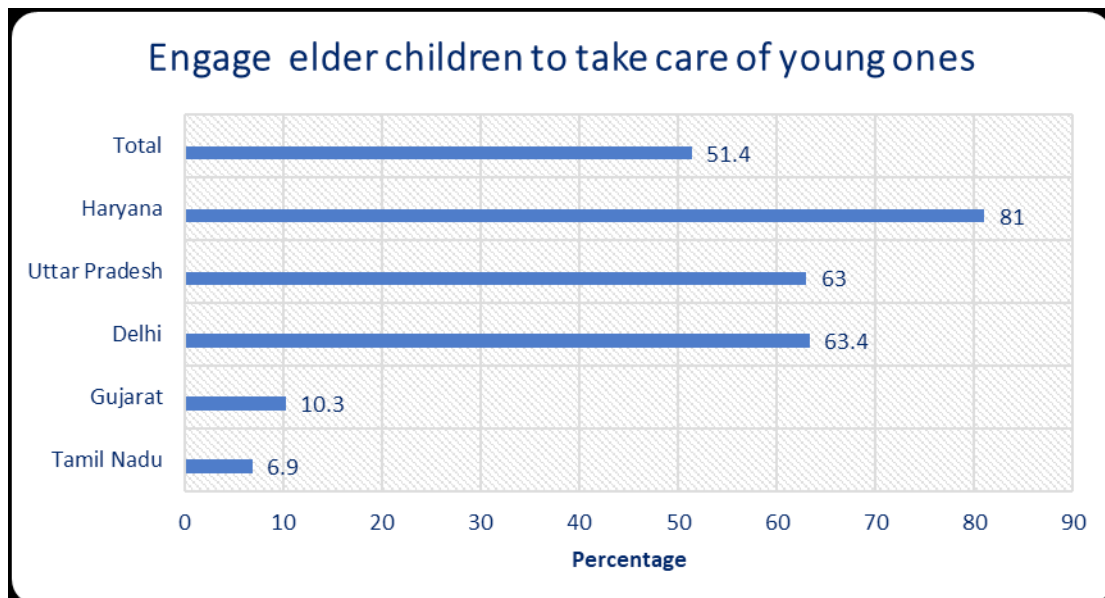


Figure 38 Children engaged to care for family members

According to the figure 38, around half of the parent engage their children to take care of their young ones in their new location. The data from the source also confirms that most of the parents take the girl child to support them in their job. They are engaged to care for the young ones and also to cook for the family. The figure shows that in Tamil Nadu and Gujarat less number of them engage their children. It is 6.9% and 10.3% respectively. Haryana has the highest figure in this regard (81%). Delhi and Uttar Pradesh have almost the same number (63.4% and 63% respectively).

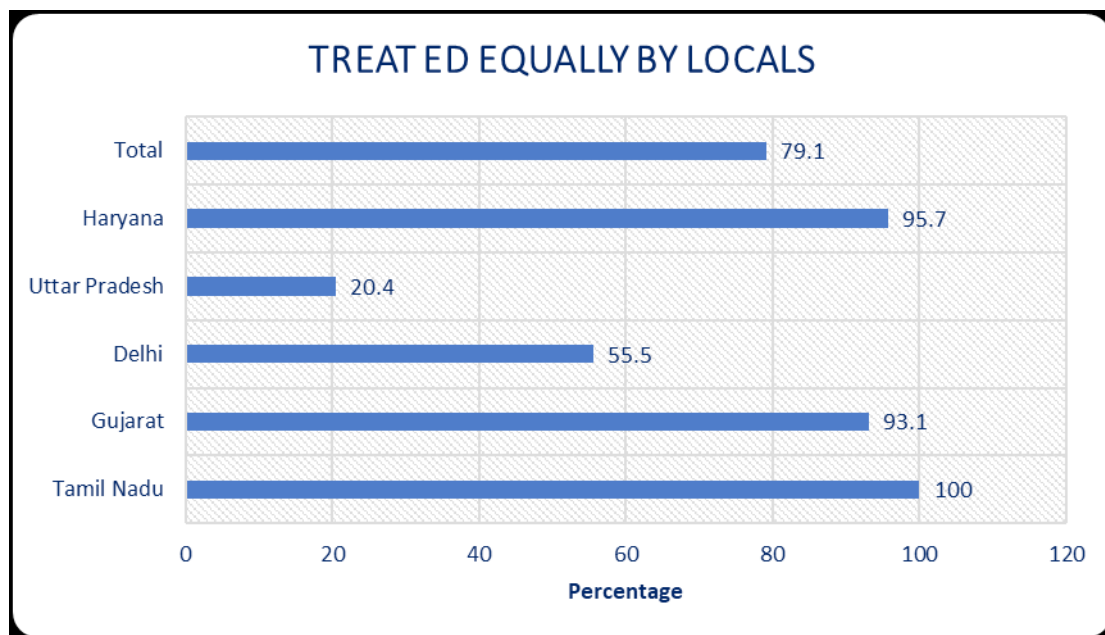


Figure: 39 Treatment of the local as equals

According to figure 39, 79% across the state feel that they are being treated equally by the others. Tamil Nadu is 100%, Haryana 95.7%, Gujarat 93.1%. In Delhi and Uttar Pradesh, they feel discriminated. Delhi 55.5% feels treated equally and Uttar Pradesh only 20.4% feel that they are treated equally.

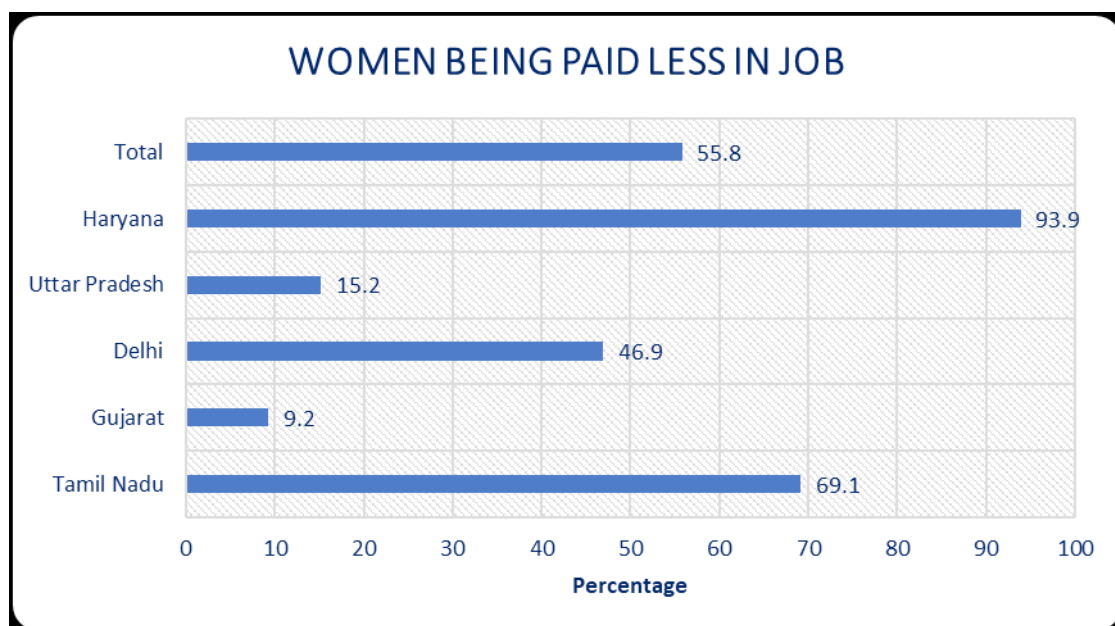


Figure 40 Discrimination in the wage of women.

According to the figure 40, across the states 55.8% feel that they are being paid less. Haryana 93.9%, Tamil Nadu 69.1% feel that they are being paid less. Delhi 46.9% feels it. In Gujarat and Uttar Pradesh, 9.2% and 15.5% feel that they are being paid less in their new destination.



III. VII Analysis of Source Data

Chhattisgarh & Madhya Pradesh



7.1 Data from Source

The Source data focused to explore the push- pull factors of migration from the districts of Madhya Pradesh and Chhattisgarh. The data was gathered through the focus group discussion, and observation. Big group gathering was banned as there was election announced in these places. Data was gathered from three villages of two districts each. The three villages were divided in to three subsections as per the location of the highest, moderate and low number of migrants reside in the village and they were treated as the sub sections. Focus Group Discussion was conducted among the representatives of the subsets- (i)Adult and Elderly (male and female) (ii)Youth, (male and female) and (iii)Children (male and female) were the participants. Data was verified among the subsets and the subgroups. The data was analysed manually by tracing the common pattern to determine the below assumptions from both the destination states.

Rural to Urban migration is influenced by predicted higher income with a wage differential in an urban area and caused by both push and pull causes.

The Pull factors at destinations include better jobs, greater earnings, better quality of life, and prospects for good health and education. Contrarily, the push factors at home includes unemployment, low wages, agricultural failure, debt and drought.

Questions were focused on understanding the living conditions of the villagers, their source of income, nature of expenditure, availability of jobs, educational and health facilities, the relative number of individuals and families migrating, and the status of children in the village.

According to the census report 2011, 36.6% people in Madhya Pradesh are poor. The Planning report Madhya Pradesh, 2021, shows that Dindori District has 50 percent higher poverty than the state average. As per the NITI Aayog²⁵ study 2021, 29.91 percent of Chhattisgarh's residents live below the poverty line (BPL). In terms of the number of cases of malnourished persons, Chhattisgarh has come out on top. The scheduled caste literacy rate in Raipur district is 63.9 percent, while the scheduled tribe literacy rate is 52.2 percent. Chhattisgarh is in the central part of India. The state shares its border with Madhya Pradesh and Maharashtra in the west, Uttar Pradesh in the north, Odisha and Jharkhand in the east, and Andhra Pradesh in the south. It is among the richest Indian states in terms of mineral wealth, with 28 varieties of major minerals, including diamonds. In April 2021, Chhattisgarh accounted for ~14.4% of the total mineral production in India. Literacy rate in Chhattisgarh has seen upward trend and is 70.28 percent as per latest population census. Of that, male literacy stands at 80.27 percent while female literacy is at 60.24 percent. Chhattisgarh is India's 18th most populous state and home to 26 million people, 10 million of who are poor. The state has the highest poverty rate in the country.

Data was gathered from villages of Dindori and Mandala districts of Madhya Pradesh: and six villages randomly selected from the districts of Raipur, Rajnandgaon, Raigarh and Bilaspur of the state Chhattisgarh. The data is coded based on the details given by the villagers based on the focus group discussion. The numbers and percentage given by the villagers are random numbers and are not exact numbers. These numbers are cross verified with other groups and the average numbers are considered for the analysis. Three sets of data were verified are from the groups of women, youth, adult form three subsections of the village. The table is generated as per the theme emerged from the discussion.

²⁵ The NITI Aayog serves as the apex public policy think tank of the Government of India, and the nodal agency tasked with catalysing economic development, and fostering cooperative federalism through the involvement of State Governments of India in the economic policy-making process using a bottom-up approach.

7.1.2 PROFILES OF VILLAGES: CHHATTISGARH

7.1.2.1 JUNUWANI

Junwani village is located in Raigarh tehsil of Raigarh district in Chhattisgarh, India. which is both district & sub-district headquarter of Junwani village. Nawapara is the gram panchayat of Junwani village. Out of 700 households, 400 families got migrated to various parts of the country. The village has access to electricity, good roads, and water supply reaching every street. It also has a primary health centre. There are six irrigation ponds in the village. A high school is located 3 KM from the village, a primary and middle school and an 'angawadi', is nearby and a college is located 10 KM distant. Majority of the villagers (98%) have their own houses and most of them are in the names of women. The richest category in the village got their own job, ownership of land, and farm products.

7.1.2.2 Kewatadih

Kewatadih village is located in Masturi tehsil of Bilaspur district in Chhattisgarh, India. It is 30 kilometres from Masturi's sub-district headquarters (the tehsildar office) and 48 kilometres from Bilaspur's district headquarters. Kewatadih is the gramme panchayat of Kewatadih village. The village consists of 500 households. About 45 percent got their own house. The basic facilities of the village show that it has electricity supply, does not have a community health centre, no water supply, people depend on hand pumps, and that there is a river and pond next to the village. Some roads are properly constructed and some are muddy. There are two schools—primary and middle—near the village. The high school is 20 KM away. People wear clean clothes, and the surroundings are quiet and clean. Around 25 percent of the villagers are educated and 75 percent are illiterate.

7.1.2.3 SUKULKARI

Sukulkari village is located in Masturi tehsil of Bilaspur district in Chhattisgarh, India. It is 27 kilometres from Masturi's sub-district headquarters (the tehsildar office) and 44 kilometres from Bilaspur's district headquarters. Sukulkari village is also a gramme panchayat. The total population of the village is 4,500. The village has electricity supply, a proper road and water supply. The village also has six ponds for irrigation. All the houses have toilets. The village has 700 households. Among them, 400 migrated to various cities.

7.1.3.4 Tulsi

Tulsi I village is located in Arang tehsil of Raipur district in Chhattisgarh, India. It is situated 20km away from sub-district headquarter Arang (tehsildar office) and 55km away from district headquarter Raipur. As per 2009 stats, Tulsi is the gram panchayat of Tulsi village. Everybody has their own house. A good majority are illiterate and almost all of them do not own property in their name, maximum property owned by the village is one to two acres. The village has electricity supply, a proper road and water supply, and a primary health centre. The village has a primary and middle school that teaches up to class 8th, with four teachers each in each school. Generally, all the children do not get to school every day. Among the villagers, around thirty percent are educated. There is one policeman in the village, who works in the locality, and other educated people move out. Around 15–20 have completed high school.

7.1.2.5 Gukhera

Gukhera village is located in Arang tehsil of Raipur district in Chhattisgarh, India. It is situated 15km away from sub-district headquarter Arang (tehsildar office) and 50km away from district headquarter Raipur. As per 2009 stats, Gukhera village is also a gram panchayat. Arang is nearest town to Gukhera for all major economic



activities, which is approximately 15km away. Almost everybody has their own house in the village. Those who do not own a home and live with others. The village has electricity supply, proper road and water supply, and a primary health centre. The village also has primary and middle school up to class 8th, with three teachers.

7.1.2.6 Bhothali

Bhothali is a Village in Dongarghar Tehsil in Rajnandgaon District of Chattisgarh State, India. It is located 38 KM towards west from District head quarters Rajnandgaon, 6 KM from Dongarghar. 110 KM from State capital Raipur. Around 200-230 families got their own houses, and 150-180 families have land in their name and it is a maximum of one acre. Despite the fact that the village has a school within 500 meters, approximately 180-200 of the residents are illiterate and belong to scheduled castes and other backward communities. The village has electricity supply, proper road and water supply, and a primary health centre. The village has primary and middle school up to class 8th, with three teachers each in each school.

7.1.3 Village Economy

The village economy mainly depends on agriculture and agriculture-related jobs. Agriculture depends on rainfall in all the villages. The average earning for men is Rs. 300 per day, while women earn Rs. 200 in Sukulkari and Junuwani. In Kewtadih village the wage is more compare to other villages. Where men are paid Rs.500 and women Rs.300 any child is involved in the job, their work is counted along with the parents'.

In the village Tulsi, majority are daily labourers. About 50 percent of them work in the agriculture sector and

own less than an acre. Generally, they cultivate vegetables and prepare cow dung as manure. People start to move out in the month of October.

In Gukhera Village, about 60 percent of them work in the agriculture sector and mostly cultivate wheat. The average wages in the village are Rs. 130-150.

In Bhothli Village, around 60 percent of the villagers are farmers, and also work as daily labour. Wheat is the major crop. The other job provider in the village is their neighbours. Men are paid Rs.204. Some of them get jobs in processing palm oil and they get an average of Rs. 350-450. The wages in the village are Rs. 130-150. Some of them also work with the contractors.

March, April, and May are the months that provide most jobs for the villagers. Maximum availability of job in the village is for 4-5 months, which is around 100 days. From June to February, hardly any jobs are available in the village. A good majority is jobless for, almost nine months of the year. Most of the job is for men. The alternate income is the work through *manrega* (a government scheme to provide jobs). It offers Rs.204 for both men and women, but they are not being paid on time. In a year, five to six months people go out looking for jobs. People start to move out in the month of October. The pattern that emerges from the data is that *the rainfed agriculture is the major source of income for the villagers. The alternate source of income through the employment guarantee scheme is not dependable due to its irregularity in payment and availability.*

7.1. 4 Pattern of expenditure

Four months of the year, the villagers find job around them and almost eight months of the year they are without job. The common practice to meet the daily needs of those months is to borrow money from the money lenders within or outside the village to meet their basic needs like food, clothing and health. Debt is a common phenomenon in every family. Even what the villagers earn during agriculture season is just enough to meet their food in those months. In addition to that, they also are forced settle their debts. Additional income is required for better protein rich food, education of children, better clothing, marriage, construction of houses, and health expenditure. The ration card holder with 2 family members get 20 Kg rice for a month (through the public distribution system), and 35Kg for 3 to 5 members. Ration also include 1 kg sugar, 1 packet (1 kg) salt, (According to the villagers, it is mostly not usable). For extremely poor around 1 to 2 kg *chana* (Chick peas) is also provided. The ration is too less for the family to meet their basic requirements. Generally, the intake of protein such as pulses, milk or soyabean is very rare in these villages. The ration does not provide the necessary protein like milk, soyabean, or any grain. The families are not able to provide protein-rich food to its members within their limited income. 'We have to feed our children with some milk, *dal* (common term used for all pulses) etc. lending money is the ultimate option' says the heads of the family. 'We also borrow money for cultivation, marriage, clothing for the family, and those going to other places for job also borrow money.' The community is forced to lent money to meet the basic needs. The pattern that emerges from the data is that *the villagers end up borrowing money to meet their basic necessities when they do have other means of income. It is evident that the poor economy leads to poor health status of the villagers and indebtedness.*

7. 1. 5 Migrant status

The average migration rate in is 64 percent, 58 percent and 57percent respectively in Junwani, Kewatadih and Sukulkari²⁶. In Junwani village from one subset, out of 350 households,250 are already are in migration and only 100 families are left in the village. It is evident that more than half of the villagers moved out either as individual or as family in search of better income. Among the migrants 40 percent belong to scheduled caste.

²⁶ The date is not the exact number but random numbers expressed by the villagers. The calculation is cross verified across the subsections.

Table 7.1.5.1 Migration status of the villages in Bilaspur and Raigargh Districts.

Name of the village	Junuwani	Kewatadih	Sukulkari
Number of house holds	700	600	700
No.of households migrated	400	350	400
Nature of migrants	SC&OBC40% HigherCaste- 10%	SC-40%	SC and OBC-40% Higher Caste- 10%
Married male/ Female	15%	10%	20%
unmarried	5%	10%	10%
Young and middle age Married with family	60%	60%	60%
Location of migration	UP-70% Gujrat- 30%	UP-50% Maharastra- 25% Gujrat- 15 Hyderabad- 05	UP-80% Gujrat-10% Other places- 10%
WithAgent	95%	90%	NIL

As per the table from the villages of Junuwani, Kewatadth and Sukulkari, a significant majority move out, along with their family. Young men in Junuwani do not wait for the agriculture season to move out. They do not want to take up the families' traditional work and moreover, they are less paid compared to the city. Among the migrant communities 20 percent are Scheduled Caste and 10 percent belong to other backword communities.

Table 7.1.5.2 Migration status of the villages in Raipur and Rajnandgaon Districts.

Name of the village	Tulsi	Bhothili	Gukhera
Number of house holds	500	300	130
No.of households migrated	70%	60%	30-40 families
Nature of migrants	SC&OBC	SC/OBC-100%	OBC-SC/ST
Married male/ Female	15%	20%	80%
unmarried	>60%	10%	11%
Young and middle age Married with family	70-75 family	70%	10-15 Family
Location of migration	Odisha,Raipur, Nagpur	Odisha,Raipur, Nagpur	Odisha, Raipur, Nagpur, Ahamadabad Mumbai
WithAgent	Friends and relatives	Friends and relatives	Friends and relatives
With the support of Family /friends	5		
	79 returned during lockdown	Not available	Not available

Form the villages of Tulsi, Bhothili and Gukhera, majority of the migrants are young and married men and women. Form the village of Tulsi, a significant number of youth are migrants. In all the three villages Scheduled caste and Other Back works communities are migrants. From the village of Tulsi, 79 members considered to be permanent migrants and they hardly visit the village. The destination for the three villagers are Nagpur, Raipur and Odisha. The pattern that emerges from this data is that *the majority of migrants are young and middle age, and they migrate with their families. Around 15- 20% of them are married but migrate as single.*

7.1.6 Nature of work

In all the three villages, majority of the Scheduled caste community are agricultural labours and they also got their own small farm to cultivate. Around 30% are daily labours. Besides this selling milk, small business is also their source of income. Those belong to OBC, do agriculture related work in their own farm or work as agricultural labours. They are also a big section who move out to other states.

From the village of Kewatadih, among the back word community, around 5% of them work as tailors, 7% do

mesons and 10% move out for education purpose. Compared to men, women get less employment opportunity in the village. From the village Tulsi 70-75 villagers are permanent migrants and they rarely visit the village

The pattern emerges from the villages are that *the Scheduled Caste and Other Back word communities largely engaged in agriculture relate economy which depends on rain. They are labours in their own farm or work for others. A very few of them also take up the job such as running small shop or selling milk or as tailors. Though majority of them move for better earning, around 10% move out for education purpose.*

7.1.7 Mode of migration

The Junwani, village 95 percent move out through the agent or contractor²⁷, others move with other family members who are already a migrant or any known migrant person. From Kewatadih and Sukulkari villages also a great majority (around 90%) move to another location with the support of the agent. Around 10 peecent go by themselves or with the support of the family or a known person. Uttar Pradesh and Gujrat are the most favourable location for the villagers. From Junwani village around 70% move to Uttar Pradesh, and 30percent move to Gujrat. From Kewatadih, 50% move to Uttar Pradesh and 15% to Gujrat. For 25% the destination is Maharashtra. And 05 percent move to Hyderabad. From Sukulkari almost 80% of them move to Uttar Pradesh and 10percent move to Gujrat and 10% to other location. The pattern on the mode of migration is *that the villagers migrate through the agent and largely they migrate to another state. The biggest attraction of destination is Uttar Pradesh. Gujrat is the second major destination followed by Hyderabad. From one of the villages they also migrate to Maharashtra.*

7.1.8 Reason for migration

Similar reasons are being raised by all the cross sections of the village. Migration from the three villages are mostly due to eight reasons: unemployment, landlessness, debt, better education for the children, marriage, law wage, ineffectiveness of employment scheme and, the survival of the family. Multiple groups have provided various explanations for their relocation, but we have focused more repeated ones. People who migrate for other reasons such as to construct a house and follow those who travel for survival.

The months of March to May are the busiest for villagers in terms of employment. The rest of the time, they are jobless. The majority who are landless are daily labours. Some of them run petty shops or sell milk. Those own very less land for cultivation also become jobless as the season gets over. Certain villagers own some property in their names. But they do not have actual knowledge of it, on the amount of land they own or the specifics of its documentation. It has to be noted that the literacy rate in Chhattisgarh is 64.7%, and the literacy rate among the SC communities in the district is 63.9 percent. This is one of the reasons people are unaware of their property ownership. Illiteracy is also the reason they are not able to articulate their rights. Such as to negotiate for the payment of wages from employment scheme on time.

As noted above, the basic reason for debt is to meet the daily necessities during the months they do not have a job. Some of them also borrow money for agriculture expenditures, health reasons, marriage, and house construction. Many of them even mortgage their gold and property in order to obtain loans, and when they are unable to repay them, they are forced to sell their assets and migrate. It is a habit that those who move out as migrants also borrow around



²⁷An agent is the person who is a mediator to provide any job in the destination and take the migrants. A contractor takes the villagers for a specific job.

Rs. 20,000–30,000 from the agent or money lender for migration. "Their entire life is devoted to repaying these debts." They are unable to satisfy any of their other interests and will remain migrants for the rest of their lives. Some villagers also take loans and, with the inability to repay them, are forced to sell their homes and properties and migrate to other states. Accumulated debt is visible among the migrants from these villages. Even though the employment guarantee scheme is executed in all the three villages, the biggest job provider in the village is the land owner. There is no industry or other sources of job available in these villages. The economic condition is too bad that the family even forgo the education of their children and move out along with their family.

The pattern that emerges from these villages are that *the major reasons for migration are survival, earnings and debt. Debt is a major reason to hold them as migrants. The village agriculture provides less profitability and less labour opportunities. The employment guarantee scheme is not reliable as they do not receive the wage on time and also the wage is comparatively less.* They are offered Rs. 204 per day.

Migration can occur at various points in time and for varying lengths of time for the migrants. The specifics of this data are unknown at this time. October-November is the time of moving out. This is the time they complete the agriculture work. Majority of the people, on the other hand, tend to leave in the month of October. The villagers of Sukulkari also move out for job between the month of March to June. The migrants are the only ones who can feed their children and families. They have better food with milk, green vegetables, dal, and even meat. When they come back to the village, they are not able to afford these. Migration is largely motivated by relatives and neighbours who can afford better food and take care of their families. The villages do not have good educational and health care facilities. This is also an attractive factor for migration. Majority of the migrants visit their village twice a year.

8.1.9 Social Security

Around 90 percent of the villagers got their ration card in Junwani village; in Kewtadih village, around 85 percent got their ration card; and in Sukulkari village, almost every one (99%) got their ration card. Those who do not have their card may be a new household in the village, have been away from the village for an extended period of time, or are so illiterate that they do not know how to obtain one. The amount of rice (20 Kg for 2 member family & 30 kg for 3- 5 member family), sugar (1 Kg) and salt (1 kg) provided are insufficient. The rest of the need for food is met by borrowing money from others when there is no job available for the households. The government's programmes to enhance the economic status are agriculture, handicrafts, animal husbandry, and production units. It is not effective to enhance their economy.

The pattern derived from the data is that *there is no food security for the villagers, even if there is a public distribution system available. The system may be corrupt or inefficient to meet the needs of the people.*

7.1.10 Political participation

In all three villages, the eligible names are added to the voter list. But there are some who do not have their voter ID. All of them got their Adhar cards. The villagers mostly vote as per the instructions of others. 98-99% of villagers do not vote based on their own preferences. This is again the outcome of illiteracy and ignorance. The pattern that emerges from the villages is that *the villagers are not active participants in political matters, including casting their vote.*

7.1.11 Health condition the migrants

The health conditions of the migrants are not very good. Due to the changes in the city, they are more prone to

getting the common cold, fever, being anaemic, and having pain in their hands and legs. No serious sickness is found among the migrants.

7.1.12 Safety of women

The safety of female migrants is a major concern. Those women who stay with men are better secured in their migration destination. Those who go alone for a job have more risk at their destination. Some of the women are not offered the same wage offered by the agents. There are also variations in their wages according to the person in charge of the labour, which changes often. Misbehaviour toward women is more common among those working as daily labour. Women were not free to express their concerns related to such insecurities out of fear and humiliation.

The agent who transports the people profits from the labour. Some of them also take a share of their daily wage in their destination. The women who go out without their families get to be seduced by such agents. Both men and women felt uneasy about speaking about it in detail. It's evident that women are being approached to engage in sexual work by offering additional money. Try to approach multiple ways.

At the same time, it was noted that no false cases were being charged against the migrants.

The pattern to be drawn from all the data is that *women migrants who are forced to work alone have more risk and tend to be the victims of agents and contractors.*

7.1.13 Status of Children

The quality of education is very poor in the village. The villagers are not motivated. "There is no specific support to carry on the education. The negligence of the teachers is a major reason for poor quality education. Children get a uniform, a midday meal, and books. In the months of June and July, they leave the school and join the family for agricultural work.

Generally, children are sent to school by the parents. Around twenty-five percent of boys study up to class twelve, and fifteen percent of girls up to class 10. Those children left in the village, their education is not taken care of by anyone. They are left to take care of the elderly. Parents' commitment ends with sending the money.

The family takes the children along with them to get the support to take up a job in the new place. The parents engage them to cook, take care of the young child, etc.



The school year starts in June. Both the primary and middle schools have an average of two to three teachers.

Parents are not happy to send their children to school because they feel that the teachers do not attend to them or teach them well. Those who attend government school receive uniform, books, and mid-day meal. A private school does not offer any of this. Even though school starts in June or July, children do stay back at home to help the parents with farming. Girls typically stop attending school after class 10 and prepare to marry. Parents prefer to take the girls with them to do the work at home while they go to work. Those who are educated do not get any specific jobs, and they usually prefer to migrate to some other place.

The pattern found about the status of children is that *children are the victims of migration. They are not cared for either in the village or at their destination. They are being forced to take care of the younger ones and the elderly in the village or to support the parents in the destination by way of cooking and caring for the young children. However, children above 12 years are not taken to the destination.*

7. 2 Profile of the Villages: Madhya Pradesh

7.2.1 Harrabhat

The village of Harrabhat is located in the Bichhiya tehsil of Madhya Pradesh, Mandla district, India. It is 62 km from the district headquarters in Mandla and 12 km from the sub-district headquarters in Bichhiya (the tehsildar office). The settlement has a total land area of 606.5 hectares. The literacy rate in the village of Harrabhat is 50.73 percent, as per the 2011 census. According to the villagers, around 80-100 persons are illiterate, and they belong to the OBC and Schedule Tribes. In the settlement of Harrabhat, there are roughly 216 households. Among them 70 percent are employed in agriculture and earn a daily wage. In a 500-meter building with four teachers, the school educates students up to class 12. The nearby school has classes up to 8th grade with four teachers. Sixty percent of the people are daily labourers and engage in agriculture.

7.2.2 Keolari

Keolari is a village in the Indian state of Madhya Pradesh's Bichhiya Tehsil in the Mandla District. It is a part of the Jabalpur Division, 27 KM to the east of Mandla, the district headquarters, and 389 KM from Bhopal, the state capital. The literacy rate is 70 percent, and female literacy is 33%. Around 60 percent of the villagers are daily labourers. There is a school next to the village with seven teachers and an anganwadi. The village has 156 households, among them 96 households got their own house. Around 106 families own around 2 acres of land. There is a school next to the village that has classes up to 12. Around 80 to 100 members are illiterate, and they belong to the Scheduled Tribe. Sixty percent of the people are daily labourers and engage in agriculture. The nearby school provides education up to class 10 with seven teachers.

7.2.3 Lapti

Lapti village is located in Madhya Pradesh's Bichhiya tehsil in the Mandla district. It is located 56 kilometres from Mandla's district headquarters and 6 kilometres from Bichhiya's sub-district headquarters (tehsildar office). A gramme panchayat is also present in Lapti village. As per the census of 2011, Lapti is populated by 1,533 individuals, 727 of whom are men and 806 of whom are women. Around 150–200 villagers are illiterate. Lapti village is made up of about 372 households, and among them, 324 got their own house, and 372 households got two acres of land each. The school has seven teachers and students from class one to eighth grade.

7.2.4 Padariya

Padariya is a small village in Mandla Tehsil in Mandla District of Madhya Pradesh State, India. It comes under Padariya Panchayath. It is part of the Jabalpur Division. Padariya is one kilometre east of Mandla's district headquarters and 366 kilometres from Bhopal, the state capital. As per the 2011 census, in Padariya there are

1,380 inhabitants in total, 682 of whom are men and 698 of them are women, and around 112 are illiterate. The village has a middle school with four teachers. In the village of Padariya, there are roughly 333 homes. Around 245 households got their own house, and they own two acres of land.

7.2.5 Bamhani

The village of Bamhani is located in the Jabalpur tehsil and Jabalpur district in the Indian state of Madhya Pradesh. Bamhani village's district and subdistrict headquarters are both in Jabalpur, which is 47 kilometres away. Bamhani Dhavai is the gramme panchayat for Bamhani village. The village has 211 households. Around 193 households got their own house, and they own around 2 acres of land. The literacy rate in Bamhani village is 67.56, with 72.23 percent of males and 62.62 percent of females being literate. Seventy percent of the villagers engage in agriculture and daily labour. The nearby school has five teachers and serves students up to the eighth grade. Around 80 to 100 people are illiterate, and they belong to the OBC and scheduled castes.

7.2.6 Jhanki

Jhanki is a village in the Indian state of Madhya Pradesh's Dindori district's Karanjiya Tehsil. The Shahdol Division owns it. It is located 70 kilometres to the east of Dindori, the district headquarters. 508 kilometres from Bhopal, the state capital. Jhanki has a total population of 908 people, of whom 459 are male and 449 are female, as per the 2011 census. The village contains roughly 225 households. One kilometre away is a school with nine teachers. Among the villagers, 402 got their own house, and 400 got a small property of around 2 acres. Eighty percent of the people work in daily labour and agriculture. The data is collected from one subsection of the village with 96 households. The community has 219 illiterate members.

7.2.7 Prempur

Prempur village is located in Dindori tehsil of Dindori district in Madhya Pradesh, India. It is situated 27 kilometres away from Dindori, which is both the district and sub-district headquarters of Prempur village. As per 2009 statistics, Prempur is the gramme panchayat of Prempur village. The total geographical area of the village is 163.96 hectares. Around 342 households have their own house, and 298 of them have two acres of property. Data is collected from the sub section of the village with 140 households. About 80% of the villagers' livelihoods are agriculture and daily labour. Around 159 are illiterate, and they belong to the OBC and the Scheduled Tribe. The village has a middle school with four teachers.

7.2.8 Village Economy

Agriculture and agriculture-related jobs are the main sources of income in the village. The livelihood of the farmers in the village depends on rainfall. Men earn Rs. 400–500 per day, while women earn Rs. 200 in Harrabhat village. A limited number of villagers of Keolari, Lapti, and Bamhani also work in a brick factory and earn Rs. 350–450. For the people of Jhanki, Padariya, and Prempur, agriculture-related jobs are the only job opportunities. Generally, children are not involved in any job. March through June are the months that provide the most jobs. From June to February, hardly any jobs are available. For nearly nine months, the majority of the villagers have little or no work. *Manrega*, the government's scheme to provide jobs, bring jobs for 100 days. It offers Rs. 204 for both men and women, but they are not being paid on time. The pattern that emerges from the data is that *the village economy heavily depends on rainfed agriculture. The government's programme for generating additional income is insufficient to meet the daily expenses.*

7.2.9 Pattern of expenditure

Aside from food and clothing, the villagers' major expenditures are on health, marriage, and agriculture-related expenses. The villages find work four months of the year, and they don't have work for nearly eight months of the year. Almost every family incurs debt to meet their daily needs. They borrow money from bank, money lenders and are forced to pay compound interest upon failure to repay. The major reasons for debt are agriculture and marriage expenditures; for some families, health expenditures also lead them into debt. Padariya -116, Lapti, Keolari, and Bamhani -8 to10, Harrabhat -12to15, Jhanki -102 and Prempur -118 families are in heavy debt. Rationing is the major means of feeding the family.

The ration (the public distribution system) provides 5 kg of rice per head for a month. In addition, the ration shop distributes 1 kg of sugar, 1 packet (1 kg) of salt, and 1 litre of kerosine. For the extremely poor, around 1 to 2 kg of chana (chickpeas) is also provided. The ration is too low for the family to meet their basic requirements. Unresolvable debt is common in all the villages. The pattern that emerges from the data is that *the villagers end up borrowing money to meet their basic necessities when they do not have other means of income.*

7.2.10 Migrant status

The average migration rate is 18 percent in Padariya, 25.5 percent in Lapti, 19.2 percent in Keolari, 14.2 percent in Bamhani, 35 percent in Harrabhat, 43 percent in Jhanki and 35.7 percent in Prempur. On an average 27.7percent of the villagers migrate looking for job and to meet their daily needs. They belong to OBC and Scheduled Tribe communities. More than 60 percent of the migrants are young, middle age and married. A significant majority move out, along with their family. Forty percent of migrants from Padariya, Jhanki and Prempur are youth, and 14 percent of the migrants in Lapti, 0.9 percent in Keolari, and in Harrabhat 13 percent of the migrants are youth. They move out as individual or and with family.

The pattern that emerges from this data is that the *majority of migrants are young and middle age, and they prefer to migrate with their families. Around 60 percent of the migrants are married.*



It can be concluded that more than one fourth of the villagers move as migrants to meet their daily needs

Name of the village	Harrabhat	Keolari	Bamhani	Lapti	Padariya	Jhanki	Prempur
Number of house holds	216	156	211	372	333	96	140
No. of households migrated	350 members-35 families	240 members 30 families	180 members 30 families	450 m 95 Families	150 members/60 families	112 members/42 families	156 members 50 families
Nature of migrants	SC&OBC	ST	OBC& ST	ST-100%	OBC and ST	OBC and ST	OBC&ST
Youth migrated	13.1%	0.9%	35.5%	14%	40%	40%	41.6%
Young and middle age Married with family	69.4%	56.2%	62%	66%	60%	60%	58.3%
Location of migration	Chhattisgarh Raipur Kerala	Odisha, Kerala, Raipur, Nagpur	Kerala, Odisha, Raipur, Nagpur	Kerala, Odisha, Raipur, Nagpur	Maharashtra, Chhattisgarh, Kerala, Rajasthan	Maharashtra, Kerala, Karnataka, Bhopal(MP)	Chhattisgarh, Kerala, Rajasthan
With Agent	37%	0	0	0	0	0	Agent-12% /
With the support of Family /friends	43%	100%	100%	100%	16%	23%	Relatives-19%
No. members returned & stays back	43	26	17	42	25	17	10

7.2.11 Nature of work

Majority of the villagers are OBC and ST. Around 60 to 70 percent are agriculture labours. The villagers cultivate in their small farm. But it does not give good yield and it is insufficient. The employment guarantee scheme is a relief. But it provides Rs. 204 for 100 days. This is too little for them to meet their needs. Women comparatively get less job than the men. Agriculture related work provides around Rs. 350- 450 for men. Where as women are paid around Rs. 200. The job providers are the other farm owners of their village or nearby village. It is evident that, unemployability is the push factor to migrate. The pattern emerges from the villages the *Back ward community and Scheduled Tribe own a very small size of land. They are labours in their own farm or work for others. Unemployability and low wage is a major push factor for migration.*

Table: 7.2.11 Migration status of villages in Mandala, Jabalpur and Dindori Districts

7.2.12 Mode of migration

In Harrabhat and Prempur, some of the villagers move out with the help of the agents—37 and 12 percent, respectively. In all the other villages they migrate with the help of the family members, relatives, friends or by themselves. The migrants are motivated by those who are already migrated and their accomplishing stories of better earning capacity, possibilities of job with better payment, educational facilities for their children etc. The pull factors also include the potential of ending their debt trap. The most favoured destination for all the villagers are Kerala, Chhattisgarh, Odisha, and the near by city Raipur and Nagpur. From Padariya and Jhanki People also migrate to Maharastra. Rajasthan is also a destination for Prempur villagers. From Jhanki they also migrate to Bhopal the Capital city of the State.

The pattern observed is that *most villagers relocate with the assistance of a family member, friend, or relative, A few villages are being moved by agents as well. Destination ia almost same for all the villages*

7.2.13 Reason for migration

Similar reasons are being raised by all the cross sections of the village. Migration from all seven villages are

mostly due to eight reasons: unemployment, landlessness, debt, better education for the children, marriage, low wage, ineffectiveness of employment scheme and ,the survival of the family. Multiple groups have provided various explanations for their relocation, but we have only used the most significant ones. People who migrate for other reasons such as to construct a house and follow those who travel for survival.

The months of March to June are the busiest for villagers in terms of employment. The rest of the time, they are jobless, besides the employment guarantee scheme. Most of the households own around two acres of land in their names. The majority of the landless work as day laborers. Those who own very little land for cultivation also become jobless as the season gets over. Male literacy in Madhya Pradesh is 78.7 percent, and female literacy is 59.2 percent. The average literacy rate among the ST communities is 63 percent. In five villages, on average, one hundred and fifty to two hundred adults are illiterate. Illiteracy can make them more vulnerable to calculating their debts, planning their income and expenditure, and articulating their rights. On an average 25 migrants have stayed back in the village after they returned during Pandemic. The reason to stay back is not found in this study.

As mentioned early, the primary cause for debt is to meet the daily expenses during the months when they are jobless. Some of them also take out loans for the needs like marriage, house construction, healthcare, and agricultural expenses. Many of them even put up security—gold and property — for obtaining loans, and when they are unable to pay them back, they are compelled to sell their possessions and leave the village. The study has not found the data on how many such families are there in the area. It is a custom for those who migrate to additionally borrow between Rs. 25,000 and 30,000 from the agent or money lender. They will continue to be migrants for the rest of their life because they are unable to pursue any of their other hobbies. Several villagers.

There are no other employment opportunities in these villages other than a brick factory in another village that employs some residents of these two communities. Women have no jobs except during the agricultural season. The family's financial situation is so poor that they even decide not to send their kids to school, instead move out together.

The pattern that emerges from these villages are that *the major reasons for migration are survival, earnings and debt. Debt is a major reason to hold them as migrants. The village agriculture provides less profitability and less labour opportunities. The employment guarantee scheme is not reliable as they do not receive the wage on time and also the wage is comparatively less.* They are offered Rs.204 per day.

The specifics of migration data in terms of its exact duration is unknown at this time. Moving out happens mostly between October and November. This is the time they complete the agriculture work. It is evident that the migrants are the only ones who can feed their children and families well. Therefore, migrants continue to be a migrant. According to the villagers, who returned also did not carry any specific diseases. It was also observed by the researchers. In general, migration improves the image of villages and brings better fortune to them in terms of having better food, clothing and giving relief from their debt. They do not leave the village once they have migrated. At least once or twice a year they visit the village, for marriages and other specific functions. Marriages between migrants and spouses from the same community are common. Even though the village has schools and educational facilities, children generally stop their studies after the completion of class 12. The villages do not have good educational and health care facilities. Better living facility in the city is also an attractive factor for migration. Migration has not motivated the villagers to send their children for better education.

7.2.14 Social Security

Around 98 percent of the villagers got their ration card in all the villages they also got their Aadhar card. Those who do not have their card may be a new household in the village, have been away from the village for an

extended period of time, or are so illiterate that they do not know how to obtain one. The amount of rice (5 Kg per head & 30 kg for 3- 5-member family)), sugar (1 Kg) and salt (1 kg) provided are insufficient. The rest of the need for food is met by borrowing money from others when there is no job available for the households. No NOGs or other organisations provide employment opportunities for both men and women in any of the villages. No record of the migrants is being reported in any of the government records. The village panchayath or any other office does not keep any information on villagers who leave.

The pattern derived from the data is that *there is no food security for the villagers, even if there is a public distribution system available. The system may be corrupt or inefficient to meet the needs of the people.*

The only economic support programme is employment guarantee scheme. No new income generation programmes are introduced in the village.

Even after the announcement of starting rural employment, it is evident that no programmes have started until the time of data collection, and no data on the migrants is recorded. Very low literacy is common in all the villages.

7.2.15 Political participation

In all the villages, majority are added to the voter list (95-98%). But there are some who do not have their voter ID. They mostly vote as per the instructions of others. This is again the outcome of illiteracy and ignorance. The pattern that emerges from the villages is *that they own voter id and Aadhar card. They vote as per the decision of the village head.*

7.2.16 Health condition the migrants

No major decease is found among those returned. they are more prone to getting the common cold, fever, being anaemic, and having pain in their hands and legs. No serious sickness is found among the migrants.

7.2.17 Safety of women

The safety of female migrants is a major concern. Those women who stay with men are better secured in their migration destination. Those who go alone for a job have more risk at their destination. Some of the women are not offered the same wage offered by the agents. Domestic violence is common (Wife beating). Misbehaviour toward women is more common among those working as daily labour. Women were not free to express their concerns related to such insecurities out of fear and humiliation.

The agent who transports the people profits from the labour. Some of them also take a share of their daily wage in their destination. The women who go out without their families get to be seduced by such agents. Both men and women felt uneasy about speaking about it in detail. It's evident that women are being approached to engage in sexual work by offering additional money. Try to approach multiple ways.

At the same time, it was noted that no false cases were being charged against the migrants.

The pattern to be drawn from all the data is that *women migrants who are forced to work alone have more risk and tend to be the victims of agents and contractors.*

7.2.18 Status of Children

The village's educational system is of very low quality. Every kid is admitted to school. However, a sizable portion of them do not consistently attend the class. Either they engage in play with other kids or go to graze the buffaloes. Once they have completed the educational options accessible to them in their village, most children

cease studying. Students receive a text book, uniform, and scholarships for those in grades IX and X. Children do not typically perform any labour. All female residents of the village of Keolari attend school. The majority of females are sent to school in other areas.

Children lack the drive to pursue higher education and established careers. Every community has 10 to 15 families who relocate while leaving the children behind. They are still with their family members or relatives. Being away from their parents, they feel abandoned and isolated. They are supposed to look after the elders in the family as well as their younger siblings. The relatives also don't pay much attention to those students' schooling. Rarely are those kids who have been moved by their parents sent to school. Once they reach puberty, it is not preferred to send girls to school. The pattern found about the status of children is *that children are the victims of migration. Education of the children is not attended well by the parents. Irregularity in school is very common. They are not cared for either in the village or at their destination. Children are forced to take care of the younger ones and the elderly in the village or to support the parents in the destination by cooking and caring for the young children. However, hardly children above 12 years are not taken to the destination.*

VIII Findings

8. 1 Findings of Quantitative data

The internal migrants of India mostly fall between the age group of 26 to 40 years. One fourth of them fall into the age group of 18 to 25 years and 41 to 60 years. Tamil Nadu has a lower number of migrants who are above 40 years old. Around sixty percent of them have primary education and or they are illiterate. This indicates that there is a high degree of ignorance about the laws, regulations, and practises related to wage and social security of the state and can be easily misled. There are only around twenty percent completed their class 10. The community moved out regardless of their religion.

There is a significant class that moves out, mostly to other states as migrant labour. As per the source data, all the migrants belong to Scheduled Caste (SC), Scheduled Tribe (ST) and other backward communities (OBC), which are the socially and economically underprivileged communities.

A significant number of the labours move to their destination alone, which runs counter to the tradition of labour movement through agents. Agents are also involved in the movement of migrants. Across the five states, around thirty percent move with the support of the agents. Tamil Nadu has the biggest number. It can be presumed that the distance and language barriers can create the need to signify the role of the agent. The role of agents can be another area of exploration, which is not explored in this study. Tamil Nadu has historically been supplying migrant labour. The state has number of migrant labours from other parts of the country.

The social security measures in the destination states have not stopped the migrant workers from staying back in their places of origin. The majority of the migrants responded are in the same state, from one to four years or from four to nine years. This is an indication that the migrant workers have either stayed back in their current location during the peak days of the COVID-19 pandemic or have come back to the same state after the COVID restrictions were lifted in the country.

Regardless of the duration of their stay in their current location, a significant majority live in unauthorised slums or roadside temporary shelters. The migrant workers often face threats to leave the locality from the police and the state administration. Most of the single men share the house or room rented by another. Those who lived more than 10 years in the migrant location are also found to live in such shelters. A very small minority are being supported by the job provider to find their accommodation.

The labourers do not work in just one state but move between different states. A substantial number of them have worked in other states, and less than one-fourth were unemployed. The highest flow of migrants is from Bihar to all the five states. The second big migrants are from Jharkhand spread in all the five states. Delhi, Uttar Pradesh, Haryana, and Gujrat are also major destinations for migrants from Uttar Pradesh. Migrants from Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, West Bengal, and Assam are spread across other states as migrant workers.

The major factor constitute for the cause of migration is continue to be the lack of job in the place of their origin which supports them to have a decent living. The welfare schemes of governments had not supported the migrants to build their economy. Both agriculture related jobs and Employment schemes are not able to provide income to the villages of Madhya Pradesh and Chhattisgarh. More than one third of the population from the villages of Chhattisgarh who belong to SC, ST and OBC communities migrated to other places after lifting the COVID+19 pandemic restrictions. Almost all the migrants returned from their destination during Pandemic have moved to various locations as unskilled migrant labours.

The unskilled labour job market is unsteady in the new city they move to. However, the dominant labour market is the daily labour sector. As it is unfixed, the migrant workers face uncertainty till they get a job for the day. On certain days, some of them do not get a job for the day. Women mostly work as house maids in the cities of Uttar Pradesh, Haryana, and Delhi. Farming related job in the second biggest job market for the migrant labours. Small businesses (mostly roadside vendors) are another important sector they work in. This is mostly done without a license, and they frequently have to pay money to police officers to keep their shop open. Small vegetable sellers and tailors who set up shop on pavements are highly vulnerable and frequently face eviction. Rickshaw drivers and owners are the new jobs discovered by migrant workers; rickshaw pullers are not the preference of new and young labours. However, a good majority pay rent for their accommodation. It is an added expenditure.

The living condition of the migrant workers are extremely poor. Most of the settlements are near garbage dumping area, next to drainage even over the drainage, near smash land where water get stagnated after the rain. No proper roads are found in most of the locality, roof of the houses are made out of tins and plastics and other waste materials. Though the respondents noted that their location is clean and neat, observations by the researchers are that a significant majority live-in unhygienic place. Except in Tamil Nadu, a small minority use open defecation. In certain location both public and private toilets are not available. Lack of awareness on cleanliness and hygiene is evident among the migrants.

Migrant workers are highly vulnerable to natural disasters like rain, wind, etc. As they are not in authorised settlement, the authorities do not address their concerns like electricity failure, water supply, etc.

The labourers do not get any training to take up jobs in the new sector. Even if they have to take up any semi-skilled job, Tamil Nadu provides training to its workers.

It depends on the nature of the job whether payment is made by the job provider daily, weekly, or monthly to the bank or in cash. Except Tamil Nadu, none of the states pay as per the minimum wage and nobody gets security or PF as it is an unorganised sector. Certain sectors in Tamil Nadu pay Minimum wage. However, they are paid much higher than their villages of origin, and wages are paid on time. In the city they migrated job is available throughout the year, though some of them find job four to five days a week. They are denied accident claims and a good number of them are unaware of it.

A predominant number of workers use their friend's bank account to manage bank transactions. even though majority of them have their own account. In Uttar Pradesh, Haryana, and Gujrat, some of the employers

themselves manage the bank accounts of their employees. There can be a risk element in this as most of them are illiterate or are just completed their primary school.

Overwork is common in the daily labour sector. More than half of them is required to work more than eight hours a day and are not paid for it.

Practices of group cooking as traditional among the migrants have changed in Tamil Nadu and Gujarat. In Delhi and Haryana, a significant majority still follow the same practice.

Most of the migrants move with their spouses and take their children along with them. Both spouses take up jobs in the destination. Some of them also engage children as their supportive hand.

Except in Tamil Nadu, the migrants are denied accommodation. Tamil Nadu provides comparatively favourable working and living conditions for the labour force.

The migrant workers generally feel safe and secure in their working environment. No physical risk is found in their working environment. When migrant workers meet with accident at work, they are usually admitted to a government hospital. The majority in Uttar Pradesh prefer their traditional treatment.

Respiratory issues are common among migrant workers in Uttar Pradesh and Haryana. Anaemia and other diseases are found among the labourers in Delhi. A small number of them also suffer from STDs. No other major sickness is reported among the migrants.

A very small percentage have access to ration cards and subsidised gas supplies at their destination. Most of them have ration cards in their village. Even if some of them wanted to shift their ration card, the process was found to be too long and it has not been done.

The migrant community does not have a proper address at the present location. This is one of the major reasons for not admitting their children in formal schools. Children are treated at the destination to support the parents who go to work. Generally, children remain at home and prepare food and take care of their younger siblings. In certain locations, (eg. NOIDA) children are sent to the parallel school run by the NGOs.

Discrimination against migrant workers is shown by denying hospital service in certain destination states. It is more dominant in Tamil Nadu. However, a small number have expressed it. Discrimination at worship places is shown across the states.

Access to public services is restricted to migrant workers. Generally, public health workers, *anganwadi* workers do not rent their services to them.

Though in small numbers, except in Tamil Nadu, in all four states, migrant workers are being suspected in police cases.

Ration card is available to all the families in their village of origin, generally rice, salt and kerosene are received through the ration shop. No protein is distributed via the ration shop. It is evident that the health status of the village is very poor.

The migrant families in their source village do not get jobs for more than four to five months. The wage received by them is around Rs. 150. Unemployment and low income lead families to borrow money from money lenders to meet their daily needs during non-working months, for the education of children, marriage, or for health expenses. They also take loans from the bank for agricultural purposes and for money to move into the city.

No documents pertaining to migrant workers are found in any of the states. None of the migrant workers are registered at their destination. In one of the panchayats in Madhya Pradesh, some of them inform while they move out.

8.1.1 The status of women and children

Migration has given more job opportunities to women. Compared to their place of origin, they earn more at their destination. Most women in Gujarat, Delhi, and Uttar Pradesh manage their money earned by themselves. Even though they gain more economic freedom, many men leave the family burden to their women. Men are found engaged in drinking. Wife beating is common among the migrant families. In Tamil Nadu, most of the income earned by women is managed by men.

Generally, women do not get any consideration in the workplace even if they are pregnant. This is different in Tamil Nadu. All pregnant women are treated with consideration. In Uttar Pradesh and Delhi, very few women use hospital services during their pregnancy. This is already a concern for the health sector. The ongoing situation is a concern because of the increased maternal and child mortality.

Women move along with their families to build their economy. Some of them get married to migrant labourers and move. Some others move by themselves. The agent also cheats women by offering a better income, and as they reach the destination, they are paid less.

Women are approached to engage in sexual work and are also offered favours by being asked to engage in unpleasant activities by the owner, agents, or other men. Women who have not moved out with men are concerned about their future and safety in their destination.

Migrant workers' children are generally denied an education. At the destination, they are not sent to school due to the inability to produce a local address, and the elder child is left to take care of the younger ones. Moreover, the parents do not seem to show much interest in sending them to school.

Children in native places are left under the care of the elderly, relatives, or by a neighbour. They are left to take care of themselves. Since their parents are not with them, their personal needs are not met. The caretakers do not provide enough support to continue the education. During cultivation, children are generally asked to work with their parents, and they miss their classes. Generally all the school provides uniforms, books, and a mid-day meal to children. The poor quality of education and the non-caring attitude of the teachers are other reasons for the students to discontinue education in their villages.

8.2 Findings of data from Destination

The rainfed agriculture is the major source of income for the villagers. The alternate source of income through the employment guarantee scheme is not dependable due to its irregularity in payment and availability. The Scheduled Caste and Other Backward communities largely engaged in agriculture relate economy which depends on rain. They are labours in their own farm or work for others. A very few of them also take up the job such as running small shop or selling milk or as tailors. Though majority of them move for better earning, around 10% move out for education purpose.

The major reasons for migration are survival. Debt is a major reason to hold them as migrants in Chhattisgarh. The village agriculture provides less profitability and less labour opportunities. The employment guarantee scheme is not reliable as they do not receive the wage on time and also the wage is comparatively less.

The village economy heavily depends on rainfed agriculture. The government's programme for generating additional income is insufficient to meet the daily expenses.

The villagers end up borrowing money to meet their basic necessities when they do have other means of income. It is evident that the poor economy leads to poor health status of the villagers and indebtedness.

The majority of migrants are young and middle age, and they migrate with their families. Around 15- 20 percent of the migrants from Chhattisgarh are married but migrate as single.

The villagers migrate through the agent and largely they migrate to another state. The biggest attraction of destination for the villagers of Chhattisgarh is Uttar Pradesh. Gujarat is the second major destination followed by Hyderabad. From one of the villages they also migrate to Maharashtra.

Eight reasons for migration are unemployment, landlessness, debt, better education for the children, marriage, low wage, ineffectiveness of employment scheme and the survival of the family.

There is no food security for the villagers, even if there is a public distribution system available. The system may be corrupt or inefficient to meet the needs of the people.

The villagers are not active participants in political matters, including casting their vote.

Women migrants who are forced to work alone have more risk and tend to be the victims of agents and contractors.

The families of Chhattisgarh take the children along with them to get the support to take up a job in the new place. The parents engage them to cook, take care of the young child, etc.

Children suffer more when the parents leave them and move out. They are not cared for either in the village or at their destination. They are being forced to take care of the younger ones and the elderly in the village or to support the parents in the destination by way of cooking and caring for the young children. However, children above 12 years are not taken to the destination.

The villagers of both states end up borrowing money to meet their basic necessities when they do not have other means of income.

Majority of migrants from MP are young and middle age, and they prefer to migrate with their families. Around 60 percent of the migrants are married.

More than one fourth of the villagers of MP move as migrants to meet their daily needs.

Backward community and Scheduled Tribe own a very small size of land. They are labourers in their own farm or work for others. Unemployability and low wage is a major push factor for migration.

Most villagers relocate with the assistance of a family member, friend, or relative in MP. A few villages are being moved by agents as well. Destination is almost same for all the villages.

There is no food security for the villagers, even if there is a public distribution system available. The system may be corrupt or inefficient to meet the needs of the people.

The only economic support programme is employment guarantee scheme. No new income generation programmes are introduced in the village.

Even after the announcement of starting rural employment, it is evident that no programmes have started until

the time of data collection, and no data on the migrants is recorded and very low literacy is common in all the villages.

Though the villagers own voter id and Aadhar card. They vote as per the decision of the village head.

Women migrants who are forced to work alone have more risk and tend to be the victims of agents and contractors.

Education of the children is not attended well by the parents. Irregularity in school is very common. They are not cared for either in the village or at their destination. Children are forced to take care of the younger ones and the elderly in the village or to support the parents in the destination by cooking and caring for the young children. However, hardly children above 12 years are not taken to the destination.

The migrant community prefer to marry form their own communities and follow their practices of worship and religious celebrations.

IX Conclusions

Due to the informality of migrant workers' employment, the majority of their different contributions to the economy and growth remain unrecorded. An estimated 518 million people, 20 percent of whom are migrant workers who mostly work in the informal sector, support India's 2.87 trillion-dollar GDP. In a workplace where contracts are poorly-defined and unprotected, tracing and tracking migrants has long been an issue. The communities of internal immigrants in India are distributed extensively. Some states are predominantly the destinations, whereas other one's act as both sources and destinations. For instance, Delhi is primarily a destination for migrant labourers, whereas Uttar Pradesh functions as both a source and a destination.

The COVID+19 pandemic has brought the picture of this community from various perspectives. A number of studies have brought empirical evidence on the living conditions, economic status, social security, and reachability of welfare programmes. This particular explorative study traces evidence after the declaration and implementation of government orders during and soon after the COVID+19 Pandemic. Both the central and state governments have rolled out measures of welfare for migrant workers as one of the most vulnerable sections. The data collected from May to August 2022 is significant to determining the changes and the challenges in the lives of migrant labour across the country. The quantitative data collected from the migrant workers from their destinations in the five states, namely, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh, Delhi, Gujrat, and Haryana have been validated with qualitative observations and in-depth and semi-structured interviews conducted with the migrant workers. Focus group discussions were also conducted to validate the data and to extract further related information. The source data includes six locations of migrants where there is huge flow of migration.

The rainfed agriculture is the major source of income for the migrant villagers. The alternate source of income through the employment guarantee scheme is not dependable due to its irregularity in payment and availability. The Scheduled Caste, Other Back word communities and Scheduled Tribes, depend on agriculture relate economy, largely constitute the migrant workers community across the country. They are labours in their own farm or work for others. A very few of them also take up the job such as running small shop or selling milk or as tailors etc. Though the major reasons for migration is survival, debt is a major reason to hold them as migrants. The village agriculture provides less profitability and less labour opportunities. The nine reasons for migration are unemployment, landlessness, poor agriculture possibilities, debt, better education for the children, marriage expenditure, law wage , ineffectiveness of the existing employment scheme and,the survival of the family. These are the push factors for migration to urban region.

Despite the fact that the family's occupation does not vary significantly, it has been found that migrant workers in the places where they settle in a variety of jobs. It differs from one state to the next. Their occupations as skilled employees and daily labourers vary depending on the industry, the availability of jobs, and the season. The majority of migrant workers make the adjustment from being a part of a close-knit family and village community to becoming unknowing strangers in a new neighbourhood. The number of people leaving the point of origin or when they arrive at any new destination is not recorded at either the source or the destination. It is also difficult to locate them and to make judgments based on a single or narrowly focused observation. The migrant workers are able to earn more money and feed their families well. Additionally, it should be mentioned that they do not get any training before starting a new work. They are unauthorised settlers in the new location, lacking a home and a proper address. In actuality, service providers are exploiting this vulnerability of the migrants. As a result, social security measures like rationing, gas subsidies, and children's school admissions (except in some part of UP and Delhi) are refused. Additionally, their illiteracy and lack of knowledge about their rights and wages make them easy prey for agents and other employers. No new government schemes have reached the migrants at either their source or their destination, nor has the state kept any records of them. Migrant women are frequently the targets of sexual assault and low pay.

Children are ignored both at the source and at the destination. Majority of children are left to wander at destination and neglected in the source. It can easily lead them to antisocial activities and become a victim of others. Even while some kids attend the NGOS's part-time educational programme, it is not enough to give them a quality education. Poor economic situations and parents' lack of motivation are the main issues affecting the education of the children both at source and destination. Children at the source are also unguided and end up performing poorly in school. One of the most significant victims of migration is children. Their physical, mental emotional health are totally unattended.

X Recommendations

Given the details of the living conditions of the migrant workers in the states of Delhi, Uttar Pradesh, Haryana, Gujrat, Tamil Nadu, Madhya Pradesh and Chhattisgarh, efforts from various sectors are required to ensure dignified living conditions for the migrant workers. The state government and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) must come forward to support the provision of decent housing and to refuse to allow people to live in garbage dumping areas and sensitive and unhygienic locations.

Implementation of welfare measures is urging the need to ensure subsidised electricity and water supply to all migrant workers. State governments must also ensure that migrant workers receive ration cards, subsidised gas supplies, and better cooking facilities at their destination. This would also support non-pollution by producing less carbon.

There is a need to ensure social security benefits as formal employees for those who have worked for longer years. They need to be included in social and political organizations.

Discrimination in accessing health services must be stopped, and the state and central health service providers need to approach and actively include them in all health programmes. Special provisions must be given to migrant workers in all the health care systems, both private and public. Subsidized health care, medicines, and other benefits must be made available to all state residents. This will also increase the country's health status as the migrants contribute the high maternity and child mortality rate especially in Uttar Pradesh and Delhi.

Migrant workers children are one of the big sectors remain illiterate and semi-literate. To continue these children's

education, special provisions must be made to admit them to the school in the destination. Education sectors need to give special focus to provide quality education to the children in the source states as well. Including opportunities to learn in their mother tongue.

Registration of migrant workers must be made mandatory to take up any job in any sector. A special cell must be made and monitored well for the same. Certain provisions, like temporary short-term shelter, has to be provided to the new migrants. This provision can be taken up by the government and by various other groups.

State must ensure that the job providers must give basic living facilities and clean sanitation amenities to migrants and their families.

Support must be provided to all the new migrants by way of providing training to take up any new job.

Literacy in banking and training in local languages must be provided to all migrants. This would enable them to go for better saving practices as well.

Children requires special attention in order to integrate them into the mainstream education system. Practical solutions must made by the institutions supported by an appropriate state policy. All state governments must have a special educational policy to ensure migrant children's education. Admission must be given with the address of their state of origin along with the parents' aadhar card or ration card. Additional options must be given to learn in their language.

To take care of the uncertainty of their job, special provisions must be made to foster the new entrepreneurial migrants.

To support the women, a special cell must be created to address the issues of migrant women like domestic violence and other security matters, including to address the dispute in wages.

Urgent economic packages must be implemented in source states to generate income and ensure food security and quality education.





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Appendix I

Questionnaire for survey

Rebuilding the lives of migrant workers in India

Section I Personal details

1. Name (Optional).....
2. Age:
3. Gender: (1) Male (2) Female.....(3) Other.....
4. Religion (1) Hindu(2) Muslim.....(3) Christian (4) other.....
5. What is your Mother Tongue?
6. Education:
(1) Not gone to school.....(2) Lower than class 5.....(3) 5-7 class..... (4) Up to class 10.....(5) Completed higher secondary.....
(6) Graduation and above.....
7. Marital status: (1) Single(2) Married.....(3) Divorcee.....
8. Which is the location of your Spouse?
(1) Staying together.....(2) In the home town/village.....(3)Stay in another place.....
9. Location of Children:
(1) Staying together.....(2) In the home town/village.....(3)Stay in another place.....
10. Which is your state of origin?
11. How long are you living in the current state?
(1) less than one year.....(2) 1-4 years..... (3) 5- 9 yeas.....(4) More than 10 years
12. What is your family's occupation?.....
13. What is your current occupation?.....
14. Have you worked in any other state before you came to this state?
(1) Yes.....(2) No.....
15. How did you get migrated to this place?
(1) By yourself.....(2) With your relatives(3) Through agent
16. Do you have a ration card ? (1) Yes.....(2) No.....
17. Do you have Aadhar Card? (1) Yes.....(2) No.....
18. What type of Ration card do you have?(1) APL.....(2) BPL.....
19. Have you got registered in as migrant worker? (1) Yes.....(2) No.....

Section II Income and Expenditure

20. What is your Monthly income?
 - 1) Less than Rs.3000.00
 - 2) Rs. 3001- 6000.00
 - 3) Rs. 6001.00- 9000.00

- 4) Rs.9001.00 and above
21. Number of earning members in your family
- 1) Only you.....(2) More than one
22. What is your Monthly Expenditure?
- 1) Less than Rs.3000.00
- 2) Rs. 3001- 8000.00
- 3) Above 8000.00
23. What is your Work experience before coming here as a labour?
- 1) Unemployed
- 2) Agricultural labour
- 3) Industrial labour
- 4) Other Daily labour
24. How many days in a week do you work?
- (1) 7 days (2) 5- 6 days.....(2- 5 Days)..... (1-2 days).....
25. How many months of the year do you get work in a year in the current place?
- 1) Less than 6 Months
- 2) 6- 9 Months
- 3) 9- 12 Months
- 4) Throughout the year
26. How many months of the year do you get work in a year in your native place?
- 5) Less than 6 Months
- 6) 6- 9 Months
- 7) 9- 12 Months
- 8) Throughout the year
27. How are you being paid for the job?
- 1) Daily
- 2) Weekly
- 3) Monthly

Section III Living condition

28. Do you have your own house in your state of origin?
- (1) Yes.....(2) No.....
29. What type of accommodation do you have in your present state?
- 1) Rented by you (2) provided by your job provider.....(3) I own a house.....(4) I live with other families.....(5) Live in temporary shelter.....
30. How much rent do you pay per month?
- (1) No rent.....(2) Less than Rs. 1000.....(3) Rs.1001- 3000.....(4) Rs.3001- 5000 (5) more than Rs. 5000.....
31. Do you have access to Electricity ?
- (1) Yes.....(2) No.....(3) Not full time.....
32. What type of drinking water supply do you have?

- (1) Public.....(2) Collect from private well/ pond.....(3) buy water....
33. What type of toilet facility you have?
 (1) Private/ attached to your house..... (2) Public toilet.....(3) Open space.....
34. How do you manage your food?
 (1) I cook my own food/ with family.....(2) group cooking along with other fellow tenants.....(3) Food is being provided by my owner/ job provider.....
35. Have you ever being asked by anyone to vacate the house by any one without any reason ?
 (1) Yes.....(2) No.....
36. Are you being denied accommodation because you are a migrant? (1) Yes.....(2) No.....
37. Are you living in a place which is clean and decent?
 (1) Yes.....(2) No.....
38. Do you feel safe to live in the same place?
 1) Yes.....(2) No.....

Section IV: Social Security

39. Do you get ration in the present place ?
 1) Yes.....(2) No.....
40. Do you get Subsidised gas supply in your present place?
 1) G.....(2) No.....
41. Have you ever been denied a hospital service / public hospital because you are a migrant?
 1) Yes.....(2) No.....
42. Do you get any training when you have to take up a new skilled job?
 1) Yes.....(2) No.....
43. Do Anganwadi / Asha workers visit / support you/family?
 1) Yes.....(2) No.....
44. Do you have a voter id in your present place?
 1) Yes.....(2) No.....
45. Did any one force you to do any illegal work? Selling drugs/ get in to theft/trafficking etc?
 1) Yes.....(2) No.....
46. Have you been caught in to any case by police for any case in which you were not involved?
 1) Yes.....(2) No.....
47. Do you feel free like the natives to go any worship place?(Temple/ Church/ mosque?
 1) Yes.....(2) No.....
48. Have you ever felt discriminated in your work place by giving less salary / not being paid the full salary/ denial of your salary?
 1) Yes.....(2) No.....
49. Have you ever being asked to do extra work and not paid for it ?
 (1).Never.....(2) Often.....(3) Some times.....
50. Do you get accident claim or being supported for any accident that took place at your work place?
 (1)Yes.....(2) No.....(3) Not aware of it

51. Have you being met with any accident and got admitted in any hospital during your work?
(1) Never.....(2) Many times.....(3) A few times.....
52. What type of hospital did you get admitted to?
1) Government(2) Private..... (3) You preferred your traditional treatment
53. What are your health concerns?
(1) Respiratory..... (2) Skin problems.....(3) Anaemia.....(4) STDs.....(5)Other....
54. How many hours per day do you work?
(1) 8 hours.....(2) More than 8 hours.....(4) Any time/ no specific hour is considered
55. How are you being paid for the job?
(1) Daily.....(2) Weekly.....(3) monthly.....
56. How are you being paid?
(1) by cash.....(2) by bank.....(3) paid vid other person.....
57. Do you have a bank account?
1) Yes.....(2) No.....
58. Who operates your bank account?
1) Self(2) Friends..... (3) some other family members.....(4)the employer (5) others.....
59. Do you have any other savings?
(1) Yes.....(2) No.....
60. Have you ever felt that you are being cheated because you are not able to negotiate/ bargain/ in your day today transactions- buying goods, negotiate for wage etc?
(1) Yes.....(2) No.....
61. Do you think that the present state govt will give you enough protection than your native place?
(1) Yes.....(2) No.....
62. Do you want to go back to your native place or settle here
(1) Go back.....(2) Settle here(3) Not sure.....
63. Does the people of this place help you in times of any need?
(1) Yes.....(2) No.....
64. Do they treat you as equal?
(1) Yes.....(2) No.....

Section V status of Women and children

65. . Have you ever felt that you are being paid less with the same job of a male counterpart.
(1) Yes.....(2) No.....
66. Do you get consideration being a pregnant woman at your workplace.
(1) Always.....(2) Sometimes(3) Never
67. Do you take the health service form a hospital in your pregnancy?
(1) Yes.....(2) No..... (3) Some times.....
68. Do you think that you are? Your wife is being cared better during the pregnancy in the new place compared to your native place?

- (1) Yes.....(2) No.....
69. Have you ever been sexually harassed/ attempted at:
(1) Workplace (2) Residence.....
70. Do you include your children as a supportive person in your work.
(1) Yes.....(2) No.....
71. Do you engage elder child to take care of your younger child.
(1) Yes.....(2) No.....
72. Do you send your children to school in the present place
(1) Yes.....(2) No.....
73. Do you get your children admitted in the local school in the present place?
1) Yes.....(2) No.....
74. The reason for not sending your child to school.
1. Learning up new language.
 2. Denial of admission in school.
 3. Unable to meet the school expenditure.
 4. You need your child as support at your workplace.
 5. Don't feel it as important
75. Does your husband beat you physically or torture you verbally.
(1) Never (2) Frequently..... (3) Often.....
76. Who manages the income for your work.
(1) Husband/Father(2) Yourself.....
77. Do you send your children to get money for food when you don't have a job or otherwise.
(1) Yes.....(2) No.....
78. Have you been pressurized by the owner/higher authority for sexual favors.
(1) Yes.....(2) No.....

Appendix II

Questions for Focus Group Discussion

I Status of Migration

1. On an average how many person/ families has moved out of this village for better living facilities?
2. What is the nature of moving out as family or as individual?
3. Explain various types of jobs taken up by the community?

II Educational context

1. What is your education?
2. Is there a school in your locality? If so, up to which class, does it offer?
3. If not, which is the nearest school? What is the distance?
4. Which months of the year do you get more work?
5. How many hours per day do you work?

6. How many among them own their own house?

III Nature of employment

1. Which months of the year do you get more work?
2. How many hours per day do you work?
3. How many among them own their own house?
4. Who is your job provider?
5. What is the wage for men and women? If the children are engaged in any job, are they being paid

IV Social Security

1. How many families among you have your own ration card? Is there any member not added in the ration card? If not, what is the reason?
2. Do you get the prescribed ration every month? How much of Wheat/ rice/ sugar etc you get?
3. How many of the villagers got your voter id and Aadhar card? / How many do not have?
4. Did anyone force you to do any illegal activities?
5. Do you feel safe to live in the same place?
6. Do you have a bank account?
7. Who operates your bank account?
8. What type of hospitals did you get admitted to?

V Details of migration

1. How many have been taken by the agent? How many by family/ relatives? On your own
2. Are there any cases of your women being badly treated in the migrated place? Any stories not revealed?
3. Do you want to go back to your native place?
4. How do you manage the education of your children in destination and here if they leave the children and move?

VI Concerns of migrant children and Women

1. Do the women feel insecure in the new location? If so what kind of insecurity?
2. Is there any sort of domestic violence you face? If so what?
3. Do you involve children in your job?
4. How are you taking care of your children?

Appendix III

Brief Demography of the Source and Destination States

Delhi: Delhi, India's capital territory, is a massive metropolitan area in the country's north. Delhi's economy ranks 13th among India's states and union territories. Average Literacy rate in Delhi for Urban regions was 86.32 percent in which males were 90.98% literate while female literacy stood at 69.06%

Uttar Pradesh: Uttar Pradesh is a state in northern India, with over 200 million inhabitants, it is the most populated state in India as well as the most populous country subdivision in the world. The literacy rate is 67.68 percent as per the latest population census. Of that, male literacy stands at 77.28 percent, while female literacy is at 57.18 percent.

Haryana: Haryana is a North Indian state that borders New Delhi on three sides. The Yamuna River runs along its

eastern border with Uttar Pradesh. In the urban region shared with Punjab, 12.39 percent of the total population was children (0-6). Haryana's average literacy rate for urban areas was 83.14 percent, with males literate at 88.63% and female literacy at 65.98%.

Tamil Nadu: Tamil Nadu is the tenth-largest state in India's southern region. More than 60% of the state is urbanized, which accounts for 10.6% of the country's urban population. It is rated as India's first economically free state by the economic independence ratings for the Indian states.

Gujarat: Gujarat is a state along the western coast of India. Total Population of 6.03 Crore which is approximately 4.99% of total Indian Population. Its literacy rate is 79.31%. Of that, male literacy stands at 87.23% while female literacy is at 70.73%. Urban Population of the State is 42.6%.

Chhattisgarh: Chhattisgarh is a heavily forested state in central India, Chhattisgarh has population of 2.56 Crores. Illiteracy rate in the state is 70.28 percent as per latest population census. Of that, male literacy stands at 80.27 percent while female literacy is at 60.24 percent. The state borders Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh, Orissa and Uttar Pradesh. Of the total population of Chhattisgarh state, around 76.76 percent live in the villages of rural areas.

Madhya Pradesh: This is the second largest state in the country falls in the centre of India. The Population of Madhya Pradesh according to the 2011 census stands at about 72 million Literacy rate in Madhya Pradesh has seen upward trend and is 69.32 percent. Out of total population of Madhya Pradesh, 27.63% people live in urban regions.

Rebuilding the lives of
MIGRANT WORKERS
in India

Primary Research Study



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