

Advocating Interstate Migrant Workers' Protection



A Survey on the Status of Interstate Migrant Workers in India

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BOSCONET



A Survey on the Status of Interstate Migrant Workers in India

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Abbreviations

DAS	Depression Anxiety Stress
ESCAP	Economic and Social Survey of Asia and Pacific
ESI	Employee State Insurance
ISM	Inter-State Migrant
NELM	New Economics of Labour Migration
NGO	Non-Government Organization
NSSO	National Sample Survey Office
PDS	Public Distribution System
SMILE	Sustained Migrants Livelihood and Empowerment
UN	United Nation

Abstract

India has a large number of interstate migrant workers. Migrant workers contribute significantly to the GDP growth of this country. Despite this, the migrant workers are still invisible. The government has enacted numerous laws to protect the rights of the interstate migrant workers. But the implementation of such laws in reality is questionable. The outbreak of COVID and the consequent lockdowns exposed the vulnerability and exploitation of inter-state migrant workers across India.

This study is an attempt to explore the status of interstate migrant workers in India. The survey was conducted in Andhra Pradesh, Telangana, Karnataka, and North Tamil Nadu states. A total of 995 interstate migrant workers were interviewed. The study brought out the socioeconomic and demographic characteristics of the interstate migrant workers, their migration pattern, level of awareness about the provisions ensured by various migrant workers and labour laws, the level of adherence, the impact of migration, viz. perceived mental health status, and quality of life. The findings of the study would help to various NGOs / CSOs working for the migrant workers and the policy makers.

This study is a part of the “Sustained Migrants Livelihood and Empowerment” (SMiLE) program, which aims at building the capacity of interstate migrant workers by promoting awareness about the various laws, rights, welfare schemes, entitlements, etc. for the interstate migrant workers by the central and state governments and handholding them to access their rights – implemented by BOSCONET (a national network of Don Bosco community development non-government organizations in India) in the above-mentioned four states with the partnership of Bosco Seva Kendra (BSK), Hyderabad; Don Bosco SURABI, Chennai; and Don Bosco BREADS, Bangalore. The entire program was funded by Jugend Eine Welt, Austria.

Chapter 1: Introduction

1. The Context

“The basic reason for migration is lack of employment, prevalence of under-employment and intermittent employment which work as push factors. The recruitment system through contractors and their agents is exploitative. These manifest in the inhuman working and living conditions and acquiescence by the migrants of the terms and conditions of employment as they do not have any option, however violative of law these may be”.

- National Commission on Rural Labour

Migration can be broadly explained as the change of residence of person/s, permanently or temporarily for various reasons, mainly due to disparity between the origin and destination locations. Migration plays a significant role in the human civilization. Humanity and development of human society is rooted by migration. The Constitution of India, under Article 19(1) ensures the freedom to move freely throughout the country and to practice any legal profession or occupation. Nearly one-third of India’s population is migrant population. Migrant workforce in India is playing a significant role for the Indian economy and contributes nearly 50% of India’s GDP (Lakshmi Puri) but still they are invisible. Despite the existence of Interstate Migrant Workmen Act 1979 there was no reliable central registry of interstate migrant workers. This exposes the marginalization of migrant workers, who significantly contribute to Indian economy, who are from poor and socially disadvantaged sections.

Despite various laws to protect and safeguard the interest, wellbeing, and rights of migrant workers, they are subjected to persistent violation of such laws and even basic human rights and labour laws. Poor education and awareness of laws and their rights have led to the vulnerability and defencelessness against exploitation of migrant workers. For instance, the outbreak of COVID-19, particularly the unprecedented and unplanned nationwide lockdown, brought to light the vulnerability and exploitation of interstate migrant workers in India.

In this background, BOSCONET conceptualized and implemented a program with the thankful funding support from Jugend Eine Welt and implementation support from the Don Bosco Planning and Development Offices SURABI – Chennai, BREADS – Bangalore, and BSK – Hyderabad, educated and promoted awareness for more than 6,000 interstate migrant workers in four states, viz. Karnataka, Telangana, Andhra Pradesh, and Tamil Nadu. This study was conducted as a part of the program with the aim to bring out the migrant workers’ status in the destination states, their knowledge and awareness about the various protection measures guaranteed through various laws, and to what extent they were able to avail such legitimate benefits and protections guaranteed.

2. Interstate Migrant Workers in India

India has been witnessing a significant growth of migrant workers from one state to another for better livelihood, particularly from economically poor and rural population. Migrant population is steadily

increasing in India. As per Census of India (2001), India had 309 million migrants or 30 per cent of the population. According to National Sample Survey Office (NSSO) (2007-09), there were 326 million internal migrants. As per Census 2011, there were 456 million migrants. Within this, 98 per cent were internal migrants – 86.8 per cent were intrastate migrants and 11.8 per cent were interstate migrants. Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan are among the major origin states. Delhi, Kerala, Maharashtra, Kolkata, Gujarat, and Tamil Nadu are the most targeted destination states for the migrant workers (Kamal, 2018). Mumbai, Delhi, and Kolkata are the main destinations for migrant workers.

Table 1.1: State wise Number of persons who moved in for work & Employment as per Census - 2011 (Seasonal Migrant Workers)

State	No of Persons	No of Males	No of Females
ANDAMAN & NICOBAR ISLANDS	52,129	47,229	4,900
ANDHRA PRADESH	37,37,316	30,51,811	6,85,505
ARUNACHAL PRADESH	1,19,244	93,441	25,803
ASSAM	5,72,064	4,93,877	78,187
BIHAR	7,06,557	5,39,176	1,67,381
CHANDIGARH	2,06,642	1,91,668	14,974
CHHATTISGARH	10,21,077	8,65,897	1,55,180
DADRA & NAGAR HAVELI	63,779	60,588	3,191
DAMAN & DIU	73,782	70,592	3,190
GOA	1,15,870	99,913	15,957
GUJARAT	30,41,779	26,85,190	3,56,589
HARYANA	13,33,644	11,47,374	1,86,270
HIMACHAL PRADESH	2,96,268	2,36,454	59,814
JAMMU & KASHMIR	1,22,587	1,00,680	21,907
JHARKHAND	8,24,259	7,24,065	1,00,194
KARNATAKA	28,87,216	23,67,901	5,19,315
KERALA	7,13,934	5,59,263	1,54,671
LAKSHADWEEP	6,135	5,375	760
MADHYA PRADESH	24,15,635	20,27,884	3,87,751
MAHARASHTRA	79,01,819	68,19,915	10,81,904
MANIPUR	22,750	16,441	6,309
MEGHALAYA	52,797	38,769	14,028
MIZORAM	62,828	45,688	17,140
NAGALAND	1,10,779	88,923	21,856
NCT OF DELHI	20,29,489	18,98,884	1,30,605
ODISHA	8,51,363	7,14,603	1,36,760
PUDUCHERRY	70,721	60,366	10,355
PUNJAB	12,44,056	10,60,487	1,83,569
RAJASTHAN	17,09,602	14,45,847	2,63,755
SIKKIM	46,554	38,703	7,851
TAMIL NADU	34,87,974	27,74,086	7,13,888
TRIPURA	92,097	74,594	17,503
UTTAR PRADESH	31,56,125	25,91,421	5,64,704
UTTARAKHAND	6,17,094	5,50,465	66,629
WEST BENGAL	16,56,952	14,29,130	2,27,822
INDIA	4,14,22,917	3,50,16,700	64,06,217
Source: Ministry of Labour and Employment. Data on Seasonal Migrants, 07 Apr 2022. https://pib.gov.in/PressReleasePage.aspx?PRID=1814543 .			

There are different patterns of migration, viz. permanent, temporary, seasonal, voluntary, forced, seasonal or circular migration. Migration was also classified as interstate, intra-state, inter-district, intra-district, 'rural to rural', 'rural to urban', 'urban to rural' and 'urban to urban'.

Table 1.2: State-wise migration rate

State	In-migration rate	Out-migration rate
Andhra Pradesh	0.010	0.013
Arunachal Pradesh	0.053	0.018
Assam	0.006	0.011
Bihar	0.004	0.036
Chhattisgarh	0.021	0.014
Goa	0.111	0.035
Gujarat	0.037	0.011
Haryana	0.073	0.036
Himachal Pradesh	0.034	0.035
Jammu & Kashmir	0.008	0.017
Jharkhand	0.025	0.025
Karnataka	0.031	0.020
Kerala	0.011	0.020
Madhya Pradesh	0.016	0.020
Maharashtra	0.038	0.014
Manipur	0.003	0.019
Meghalaya	0.018	0.012
Mizoram	0.021	0.010
Nagaland	0.029	0.014
NCT of Delhi	0.152	0.056
Odisha	0.009	0.017
Punjab	0.047	0.023
Rajasthan	0.017	0.025
Sikkim	0.059	0.020
Tamil Nadu	0.013	0.013
Tripura	0.013	0.010
Uttar Pradesh	0.010	0.029
Uttarakhand	0.064	0.044
West Bengal	0.010	0.013
$\text{Immigration rate} = \frac{\text{Volume of immigration to the state}}{\text{Enumerated population of the destination state}}$		
$\text{Outmigration rate} = \frac{\text{Volume of outmigration from state}}{\text{Enumerated population of the origin state}}$		
Source: Kumar, Neeraj, Interstate Migration in India.		

There is a wide disparity in planning, development, and priority between rural and urban areas, which makes the rich more rich and poor more poor. This social or economic gap lead to very poor job opportunity and economic development in the rural areas. This triggers the migration from rural to urban.

3. Theoretical perspective of Migration



Fig 1.1: Push Pull Factors

Migration is basically influenced by two broader factors, i.e., 'push' and 'pull' factors. Push factors are the reasons to move from a place and pull factors are the reasons to move to that particular place. Lee's theory of migration (1965) is based on the interrelationship between four factors, viz. (1) factors associated with the area of origin; (2) factors associated with the area of destination; (3) Intervening obstacles, and (4) personal factors. Intervening obstacles are factors which may control migration, viz. environment, cultural differences, challenges, etc.

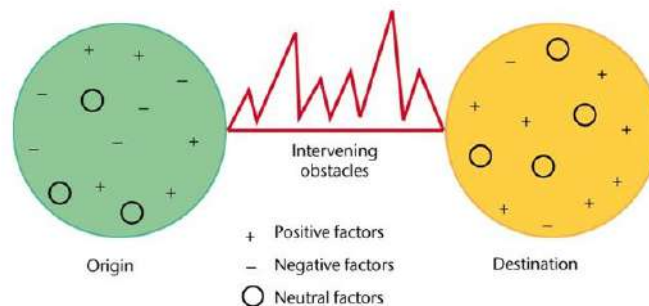


Fig 1.2: Lee's theory of migration model

Ernst Ravenstein is one of the earliest theorists of migration. Ravenstein's theory states that migration is caused primarily because of external economic opportunities; volume of migration and distance of migration are inversely associated; migration occurs in stages; migration is bilateral; and gender, social class, and age impacts the migration.

According to the theory of New Economics of Labour Migration (NELM), the family and not the individual is the key decision-maker; considers many conditions, mainly wage differentials.

4. Problem Statement

Interstate migrant workers employment system has become an exploitative system (Mandal). Despite the government's efforts to clamp down on the exploitative practices of migrant workers, the problems seem to be increasing (Prabhakaran and Santhosh, 2007). Since mostly the interstate migrants are illiterates and are in dire need of job and income for their survival, they are not in a position to bargain or fight for their rights with the contractors or employers. The contractors or employers take advantage of their helplessness and weaker position (Mishra and Pandey, 2011).

Many reports have painted the misery of interstate migrant workers at the destination. They live in shabby dwellings or temporary shelters without even basic amenities, such as clean and adequate water, toilets, etc. Study by Jayapathi *et al.* (2016) exposed the deplorable condition of the interstate migrant workers – also brought to light that the employers, predominantly, take efforts not to show any record of their employment, so that they can be hired and fired at will. Cases of food poisoning, suicide, accidents, coercing injured persons to work, etc. are also reported (Ashok, 2014). The proportion of bonded labours among the migrants is higher. The condition of women migrant workers is still worse – they face the risk of sexual harassment and exploitation, wage parity (Acharya 1987, Sardamoni 1995).

Most of the interstate migrant workers have no identity proof, lack political representation, no proper housing, low wages, feel insecure, and engaged in hazardous work, lack of access to healthcare services and education for their children, exclusion from state services (UNESCO / UN-HABITAT, 2012). Interstate migrant workers do not have Public Distribution System (PDS) cards and have to buy food grains, etc. at a higher price in the open market (Mandal) which is quite high for the migrant workers. Mishra and Pandey (2011) also brought to light the absence or limited access to basic needs, such as safe houses, lack of access to public services viz. education, health, protection of labour laws, problems in social integration, human rights violations, exploitation. Often the presence of interstate migrant workers creates a sense of fear among the local work force and the local people.

Lack of awareness about the various laws and regulation and fear of losing the job prevent the migrant workers from exposing true information about their actual living and working conditions and to fight for their rights. Moreover, there are no strong labour unions to protect the migrant workers from exploitation. Implementation of protection outlined in the Interstate Migrant Workmen Act, 1979 (ISMW) was very poor (Standing Committee on Labour, 2011). John *et al* 2020 reports, the areas of human rights violations are poor access to health services, social protection, education services, housing and sanitation, food and water and other utility services.

COVID-19 and Exploitation of Migrant Workers

The COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and the subsequent nationwide lockdown with just four hours' notice have brought misery in the lives of migrant workers. The employers just abandoned their migrant workers, violated human rights, labour laws, and migrant workers' rights and laws.

“Across India, crores of migrant workers, their livelihoods devastated by the nationwide COVID-19 lockdown, without money, food, shelter, were walking hundreds of kilometres in an attempt to get back to their home villages. Approximately 120 of them died in accidents along the way back to their home. While the Centre mounted a massive mission called “Vande Bharat” to bring back Indians stranded overseas, it has not shown the same zeal in trying to get poor workers' home. The state and

central governments took about one month to just talk about the stranded, shelter-less, starving migrants, and their families.

Their efforts to leave the cities before the lockdown, and the extraordinary efforts some put in to get back home, suggest that they have very low resilience to stay in cities without employment; they were ignorant of the various laws that protect their rights; have no support system in times of distress or emergency. They fall through the cracks of India's social security net, and the government response has shown a significant gap between the intentions reflected in existing laws and their implementation.

Impacts of Migration (interstate migration)

The impact has both sides, i.e., positive and negative impacts. The positive impacts are mostly at macro level, viz. mitigation of unemployment, economic growth of the region, support to children's education, etc. The negative impacts are mainly, declined mental and physical health, exploitation due to their vulnerability, decline in agriculture in the origin areas, low wages due to competition at the destination, etc.

5. Objectives of this Study

1. To study the socioeconomic and demographics of the interstate migrant workers.
2. To examine the level of awareness of the interstate migrant workers about the various legal protection measures and entitlements provided under various laws.
3. To investigate the extent of adherence of legal protective measures provided by various laws for the interstate migrant workers, by the duty-bearers at the destination.
4. To assess the perceived impacts and quality of life of interstate migrant workers.

6. Study Method

This is a cross-sectional survey. Data were collected from both primary and secondary sources. Primary data was collected from the selected interstate migrant workers and secondary data was collected from various previous studies and reports published in research journals and authentic websites.

Sampling: All the interstate migrant workers in Andhra Pradesh, Telangana, Chennai, and Karnataka states constitute the universe of the samples. A total of 955 interstate migrant workers, both male and females, working in the above-mentioned destination states, who participated in the Sustained Migrants Livelihood and Empowerment (SMiLE) program. The SMiLE program, was funded by Jugend Eine Welt, an Austrian aid organization, coordinated by BOSCONET, Delhi, with the participation of Bosco Seva Kendra (BSK) Hyderabad; Don Bosco SURABI, Chennai; and Don Bosco BREADS, Bangalore, as implementing partners of the SMiLE program.

Primary Data Collection Instrument: A detailed well-structured closed-end questionnaire was developed to collect data. Section 1 contained questions on few relevant personal information reflecting their economics, family, education, etc. The second section focused on their migration and

related issues. The third section collected information on their awareness about the various legal protections, entitlements and to what extent they were actually able to avail such entitlements. The fourth section consisted of questions to measure the level of mental health problems and the interstate migrant workers' perceived quality of life.

Mental health issues were assessed using the self-reporting 21-item Depression Anxiety Stress (DAS) scale (Lovibond, Lovibond, 1995). Degree of mental health issues were scored by the respondents using a 4-point Likert scale, ranging from 4 = Almost always, 3 = Often, 2 = Sometimes, and 1 = Never. Higher score means poor mental health and vice versa. Perceived quality of life was measured with a 10-item self-developed, closed-end self-reporting scale. The level of satisfaction of each parameter was scored by the respondents on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 5 = highly satisfied to 1 = highly dissatisfied. Higher score indicates higher level of satisfaction and vice versa.

Data Collection: As most of the respondents were illiterates or with less education, the interviewer read and explained one question at a time in their local language. Proper ethics were followed during the interview and data collection. The respondents were assured of anonymity (no names, mobile numbers or other contact details were collected) and confidentiality of the data. They were informed that they can withdraw participation from the survey at any time without mentioning any reason at all.

Data Analysis and Tools: Quantitative methods of analysis were used in this study. Both descriptive and inferential statistical tools were applied. Appropriate charts were used for better understanding.

7. Legal Protection for Interstate Migrant Workers:

India has specific laws to protect and prevent exploitation of migrant workers, The Interstate Migrant Workmen (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Act 1979, which has not been subsumed in the Occupational Safety, Health, and Working Conditions (OSH) Code 2020, which stipulates decent working conditions, minimum wages, grievances redressal mechanisms, toll free helpline, protection from abuse and exploitation, and social security to all category or organized and unorganized workers. The Interstate Migrant Workmen (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Central Rules, 1980 is based on the above Act, regulates the employment of interstate migrant workmen and provides for their conditions of service and for matters connected with. Besides there are various labour laws, viz. The Minimum Wages Act 1948, Employees State Insurance Act 1948, Industrial Disputes Act 1949, Industrial Disputes Decision Act 1955, Payment of Bonus Act 1955, Personal Injuries (Compensation Insurance) Act 1963, Contract Labour (Regulation and Abolition) Act 1970, Bonded Labour Systems (Abolition) Act 1978, Equal Remuneration Act 1976, The Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act 1986, etc.

The salient features of the Interstate Migrant Workmen (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Act 1979 are:

1. Ensure regular payment of wages in time,
2. Equal or better wages for the similar nature & duration of work applicable for the local workmen or stipulated minimum wages under the Minimum Wages Act, 1948 whichever is more,

3. Displacement allowance (Section 14),
4. Home journey allowance (Section 15) including payment of wages during the period of journey,
5. Suitable residential accommodation and medical facilities, protective clothes, free of charge on mandatory basis.
6. Termination of employment after the contract period without any liability.
7. Right to lodge complaint with the authorities within three months of any incident, accident, etc.

Duties of Contractors:

1. To issue to every interstate migrant workman a passbook affixed with a passport size photograph of the workman and indicating in Hindi and English languages, and where the language of the workman is not Hindi or English, also in the language of the workman.
2. To furnish in respect of every inter-State migrant workman who ceases to be employed, a return in such form and in such manner as may be prescribed, to the specified authority in the State from which he is recruited and in the State in which he is employed, which shall include a declaration that all the wages and other dues payable to the workman and the fare for the return journey back to his State have been paid.
3. The contractor shall maintain the pass book referred to in sub-section (1) up-to-date and cause it to be retained with the inter-State migrant workman concerned.

Wage rates and other conditions of service of interstate migrant workmen:

1. The wage rates, holidays, hours of work and other conditions of service of an inter-State migrant workman shall (a) in a case where such workman performs in any establishment, the same or similar kind of work as is being performed by any other workman in that establishment, be the same as those applicable to such other workman; and (b) in any other case, be such as may be prescribed by the appropriate Government: Provided that an inter-State migrant workman shall in no case be paid less than the wages fixed under the Minimum Wages Act, 1948 (41 of 1948).

Displacement Allowance:

1. There shall be paid by the contractor to every inter-State migrant workman at the time of recruitment, a displacement allowance equal to fifty per cent. of the monthly wages payable to him or seventy-five rupees, whichever is higher.
2. The amount paid to a workman as displacement allowance under sub-section (1) shall not be refundable and shall be in addition to the wages or other amount payable to him.

Journey Allowance etc.:

A journey allowance of a sum not less than the fare from the place of residence of the inter-State migrant workman in his State to the place of work in the other State shall be payable by the contractor to the workman both for the outward and return journeys and such workman shall be entitled to payment of wages during the period of such journeys as if he were on duty.

Other Facilities:

It shall be the duty of every contractor employing inter-State migrant workmen in connection with the work of an establishment to which this Act applies

1. To ensure regular payment of wages to such workmen.
2. To ensure equal pay for equal work irrespective of sex
3. To ensure suitable conditions of work to such workmen having regard to the fact that they are required to work in a State different from their own State.
4. To provide and maintain suitable residential accommodation to such workmen during the period of their employment.
5. To provide the prescribed medical facilities to the workmen, free of charge.
6. To provide such protective clothing to the workmen as may be prescribed; and
7. in case of fatal accident or serious bodily injury to any such workman, to report to the specified authorities of both the States and also the next of kin of the workman.

Role of Principal Employers:

1. Registration of all principal employers who employs or employed directly or indirectly five or more Interstate Migrant Workmen on any day of the preceding 12 months.
2. Maintain the registers indicating the details of interstate workers and make available for scrutiny by the statutory authorities.
3. Every principal employer shall nominate a representative duly authorized by him to be present at the time of disbursement of wages by the contractor and it shall be the duty of such representative to certify the amounts paid as wages in such manner and may be prescribed.
4. Principal employer shall be liable to bear the wages and other benefits to interstate workers in case of failure by the contractor to effect the same.
5. Liable for the prescribed punishments for violations committed under this Act.

Major Government Initiatives:

- The Ministry of Skill Development and Entrepreneurship (MSDE) has launched “Atma Nirbhar Skilled Employee Employer Mapping” (ASEEM) portal to assist people for sustainable livelihood opportunities.
- A “National Migration Information System” (NMIS), an online dashboard by the National Disaster Management Authority (NDMA).

8. Operational Definitions

Interstate Migrant Worker: The Interstate Migrant Workmen Act, 1979 defines an interstate migrant worker as “any person who is recruited by or through a contractor in any state under his agreement or other arrangement for employment in an establishment in another state, whether with or without the knowledge of the principal employer of such establishment” (Chapter 1, 2(e)).

Workmen: “means any person employed in or in connection with the work of any establishment to do any skilled, semi-skilled or unskilled, manual, supervisory, technical or clerical work for hire or reward, whether the terms of employment be express or implied, but does not include any such person— (i) who is employed mainly in a managerial or administration capacity; or (ii) who, being employed in a supervisory capacity, draws wages exceeding five hundred rupees per mensem, or exercises, either by the nature of the duties attached to the office or by reason of the powers vested in him, functions mainly of a managerial nature

Contractor: “contractor”, in relation to an establishment, means a person who undertakes (whether as an independent contractor, agent, employee or otherwise) to produce a given result for the establishment, other than mere supply of goods or articles of manufacture to such establishment, by the employment of workmen or to supply workmen to the establishment, and includes a sub-contractor, *Khatadar*, *Sardar*, agent or any other person, by whatever name called, who recruits or employs workmen” (Chapter 1, 2(b)).

9. Limitations of this Study

The sample respondents were from four southern destination states only. Opinion of interstate migrant workers in other destination states may differ. Secondly, this study was a cross-sectional survey, in which data were collected at only one particular time. Opinion may vary in time and change in the social, political, or cultural environment. As such the findings of this study pertain only to that particular time and locations, and may not be generalized.

Chapter 2: Data Analysis

Section 1 – Demography

2.1. Source location of the interstate migrant workers

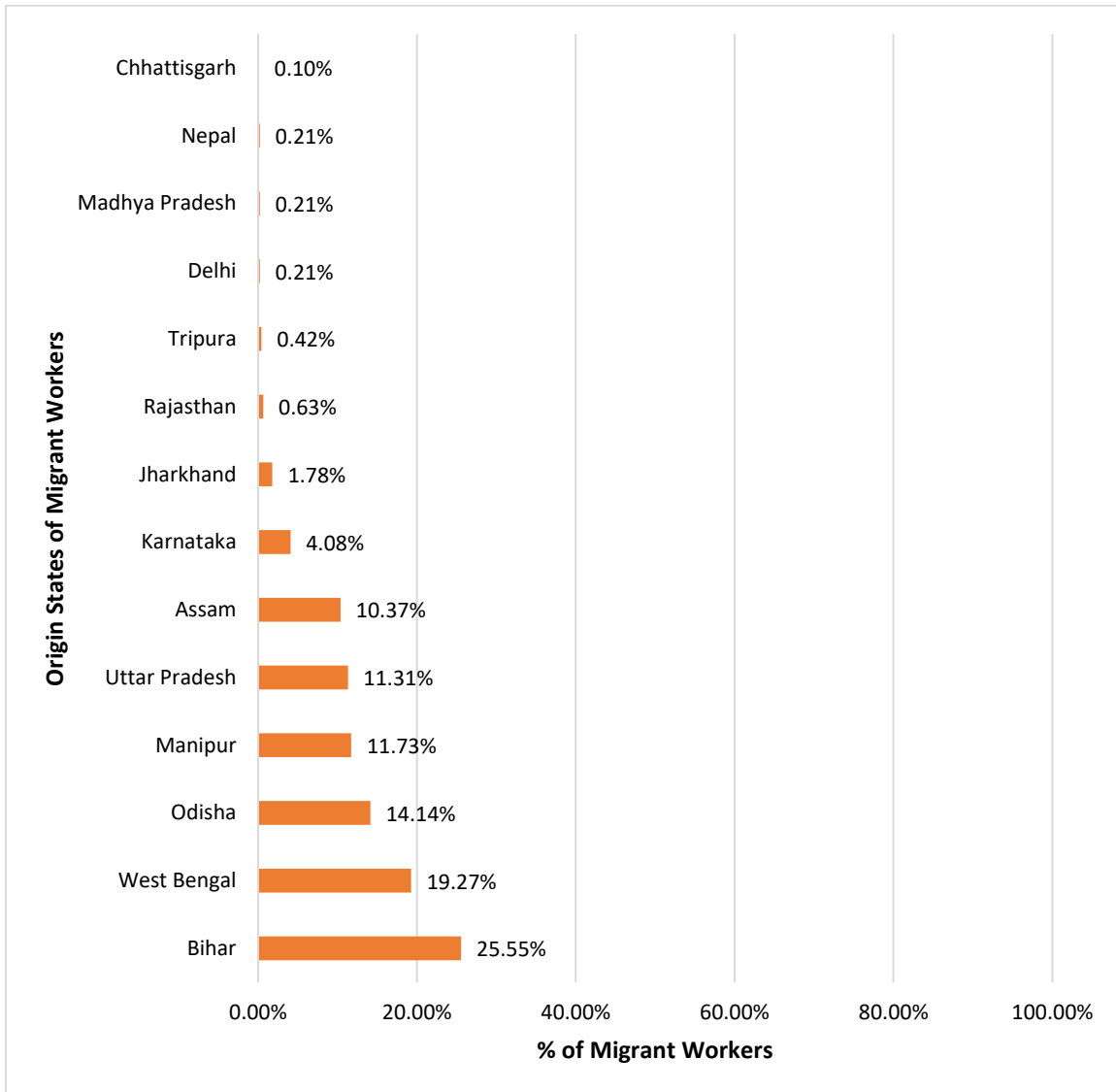


Fig 2.1: % of migrant workers by the origin state

Mostly the migrant workers at the five destination states, viz. Andhra Pradesh, Telangana, Karnataka, Kerala, and Goa were from north and northeast states. Majority of the migrant workers were from Bihar state (25.55%), followed by West Bengal (19.27%), Odisha (14.14%), etc. Very few migrants were from Chhattisgarh, Nepal, Madhya Pradesh, Delhi, and Tripura states.

2.2. Source Location Type

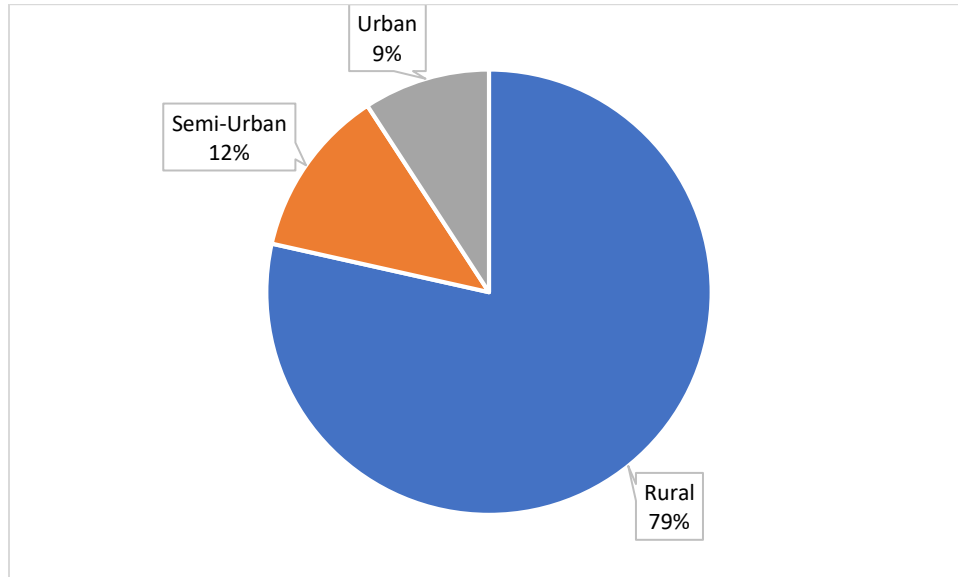


Fig 2.2: Origin location type

An absolute majority (79.0%) of the migrant worker respondents were from rural locations. Lowest (9.0%) were from urban locations.

2.3. Distribution of migrant workers by gender

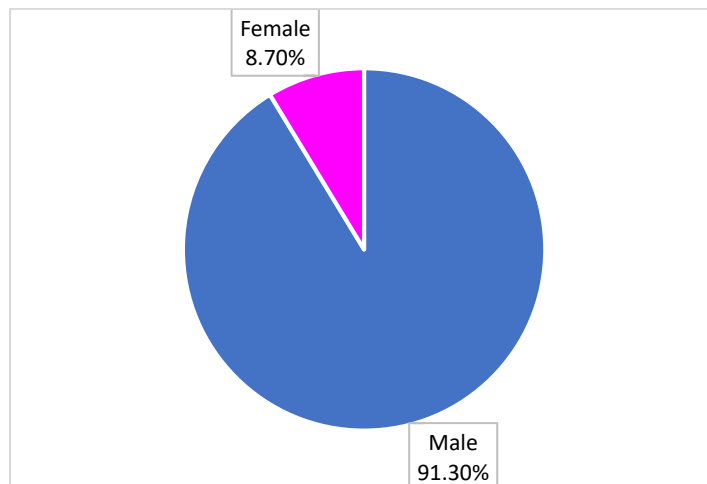


Fig 2.3: % of migrant workers by gender

Both male and females migrate to other states for search of job and income, though females were less. Among the respondent interstate migrant workers, majority of them were males (91.3%) and

the remaining were female migrant workers. Census 2011 reports males dominate in interstate migrants, particularly from rural to urban. However, within the state migration, majority of the migrants were females (Census 2001).

2.4. Distribution of migrant workers by their age group

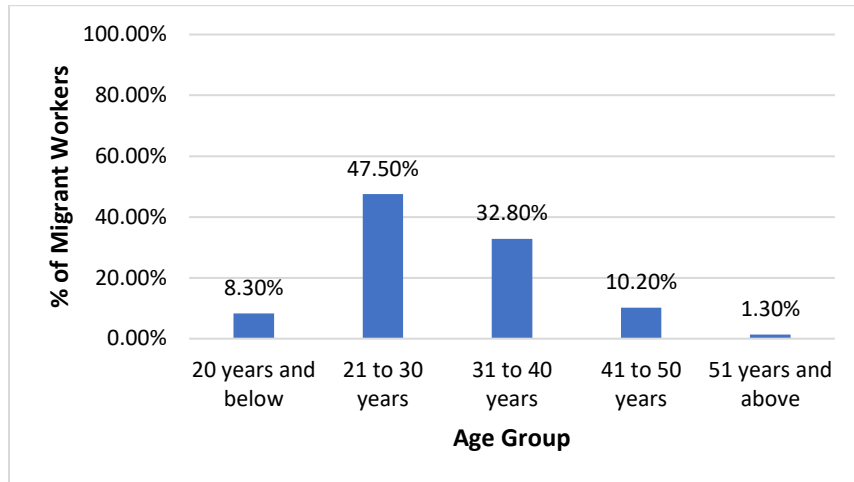


Fig 2.4: % of migrant workers by their age

Unemployed young people start looking for jobs in other states at a very young age. Age of the migrant workers ranged from 18 to 59 years. Mean age of the respondents was 30.47 (± 7.79) years. Most of the migrant workers (80.3%) were 21 to 40 years of age.

2.5. Distribution of migrant workers by their marital status

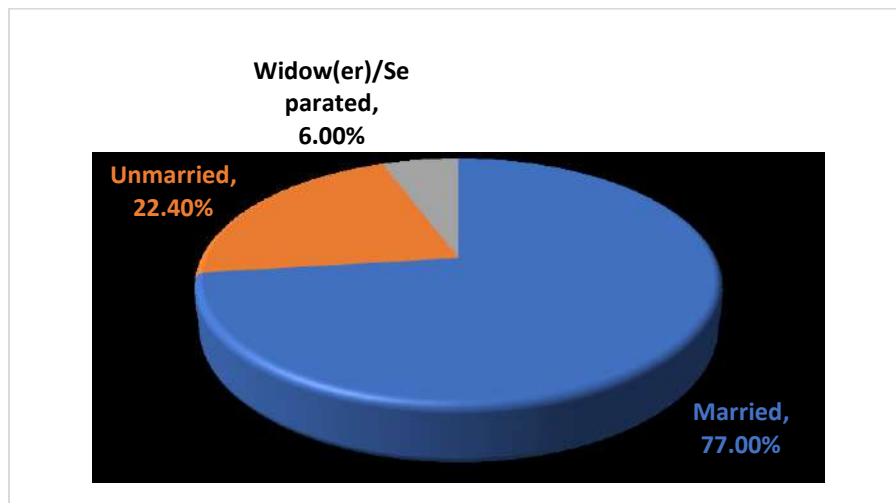


Fig 2.5: % of migrant workers by their marital status

Majority of the migrant workers (77.0%) were married and 22.4 per cent of the migrant workers were unmarried. Possibly, marriage could be one of the push factors for migration as they need sustained as well as adequate income to meet the family expenses.

2.6. Distribution of migrant workers by No of dependents in their family

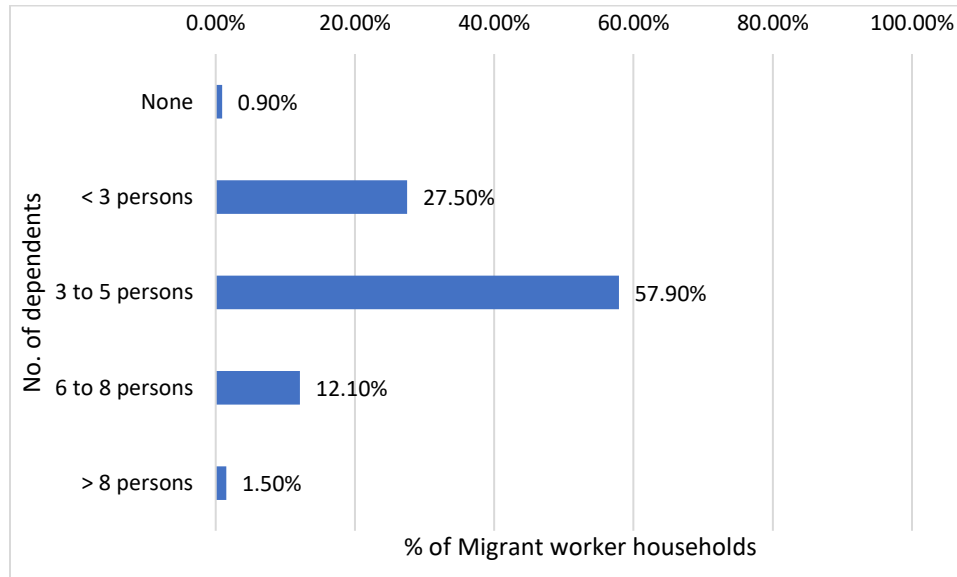


Fig 2.6: % of migrant worker households by No of dependents

No of dependents increases the household expenses. Here, more of the migrant workers' households had 3 to 5 dependents. Nearly one-fourth (27.5%) of the migrant workers' households had less than 3 dependents.

2.7. Distribution of migrant workers by their educational level

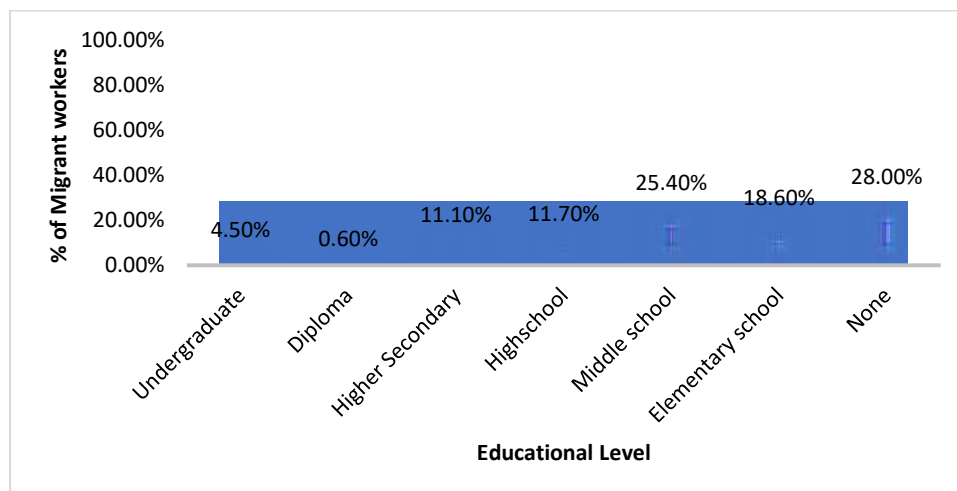


Fig 2.7: % of migrant workers by their educational qualification

More than one-fourth (28.00%) of the migrant workers did not have any education at all. Another one-fourth (25.4%) had middle school level education; 18.6 per cent had only elementary level education. Very few 4.5 per cent were undergraduates and 0.6 per cent were diploma holders. Low level of education and lack of vocational skills were the other driving factors of migration.

2.8. Household members' education and job status

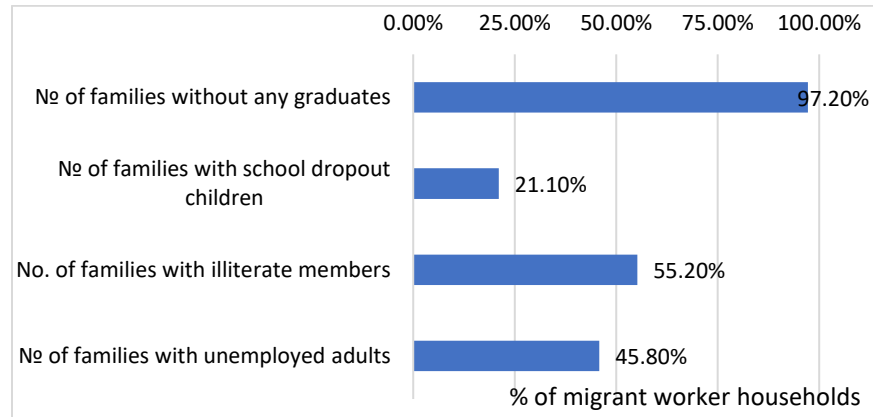


Fig 2.8: % of migrant worker households by education and job status

There were no graduates in about 97.2 per cent of the migrant families; 2.5 per cent of the families had only one graduate and 0.3 per cent had two graduates in their family. 55.2 per cent of the migrant families had at least one illiterate person. 3.9 per cent of the families had three or more illiterates. School dropout was prevalent in the migrant households. About 12.3 per cent of the families had one dropout; 4.2 per cent had two dropout children; 2.1 per cent had 3 dropout children and 1.6 per cent reported to have four school dropout children in their families. There was at least only one unemployed person in more than 45 per cent of the migrant families.

2.9. Distribution of migrant workers by the No of earning members in their family

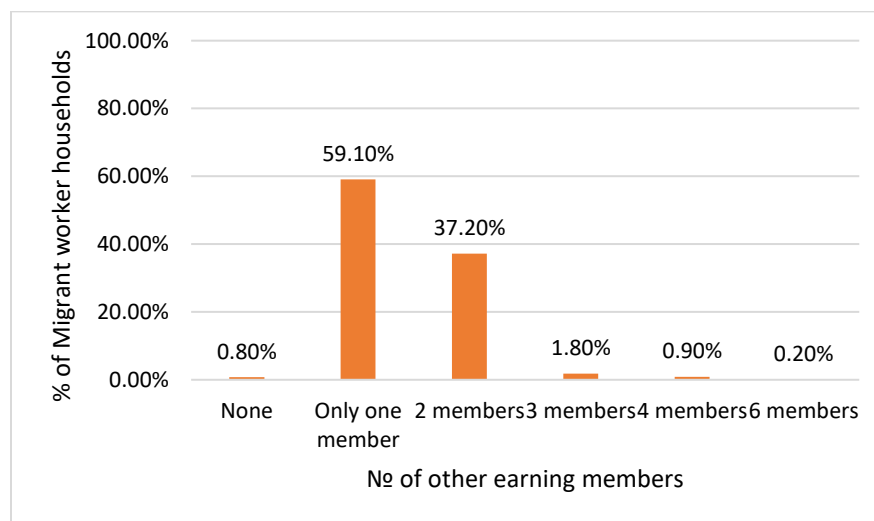


Fig 2.9: % of migrant worker households by the No of earning members

In most (59.10%) of the migrant workers' households, only the migrant worker was the earning members. About one-third (37.20%) of the households there were two earning members. However, there were more than two earning members in the remaining migrant workers' families as shown in the above chart.

2.10. Distribution of migrant workers by their household average monthly income

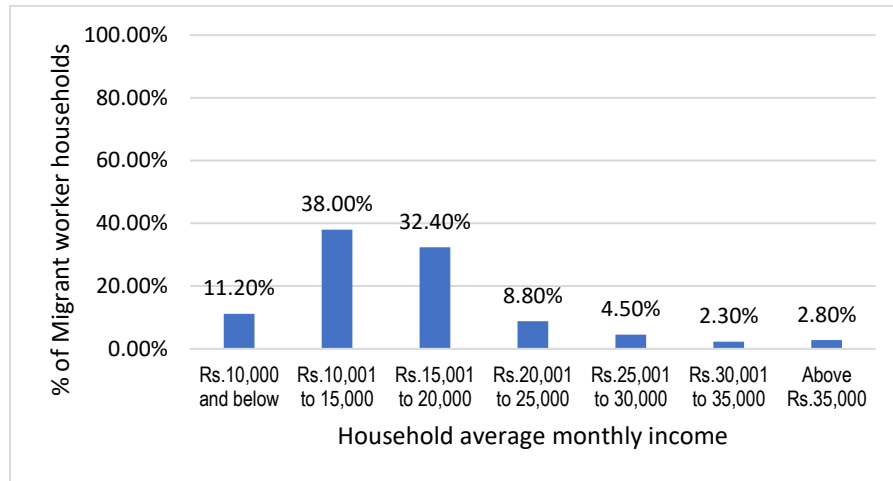


Fig 2.10: % of migrant worker households by the total average monthly income

Migrant workers were grouped based on their household average monthly income into seven groups as shown in the above chart. Most (70.4%) of the migrant workers' household monthly average income ranged from INR.10,001 to 20,000. Only very few households (11.20%) were earning INR 10,000 or less. However, about 2.8 per cent of the migrant workers' household income was above INR.35,000 per month.

2.11. Occupation before migration

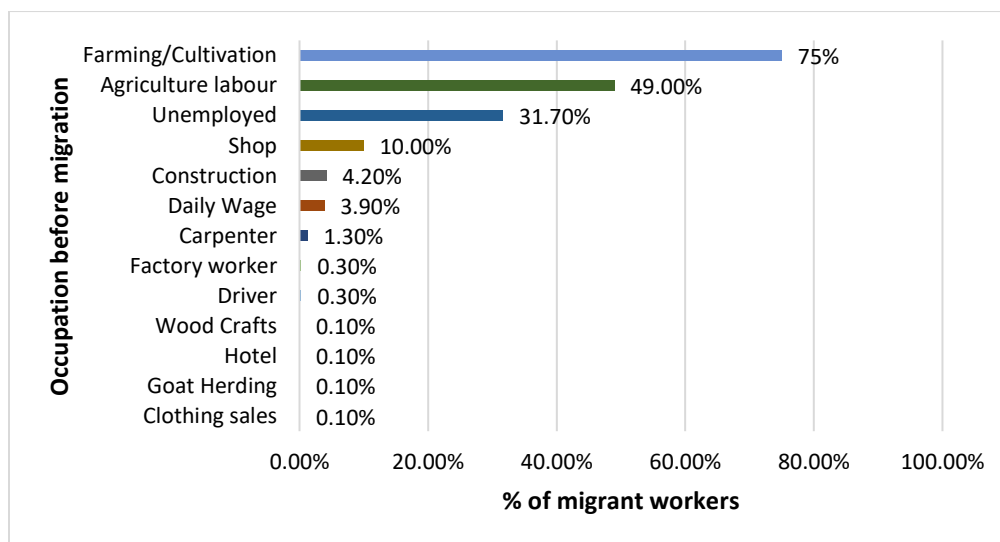


Fig 2.11(a): % of interstate migrant workers by occupation before migration

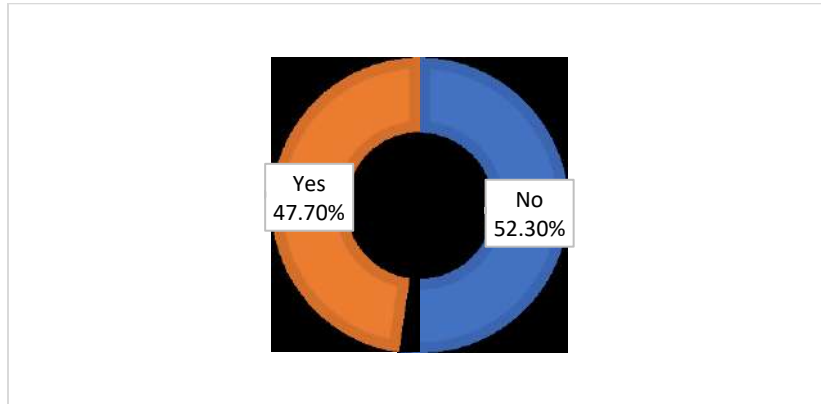


Fig 2.11 (b): % of migrant worker households having own cultivable land

Agriculture has become a seasonal and unreliable occupation. The data of this study shows that about 47.7 per cent of the migrant workers were land-holders. Climate change, failure of monsoon, non-availability of agriculture labour, increasing cost of inputs and labour, and other factors could be resulted in abandoning agriculture and seek other jobs. Though lack of vocational skill leads to unemployment and low wage, acquiring job-oriented skills for the rural youth becomes one of the factors to move out of their village to seek jobs related to their technical skill, which is not available in their village. Agriculture failure is also a major push factor of migration. Study by Jayapathi and Crossian (2016) found that climate change, land infertility, drought, failure of rain results in distress migration. The Hindu Business Line observes that migration of agricultural labour is a normal feature of the development process due to increased challenges and risk, low income (Jadhav, 2021).

Section 2: Migration

2.12. Age at the time of first migration

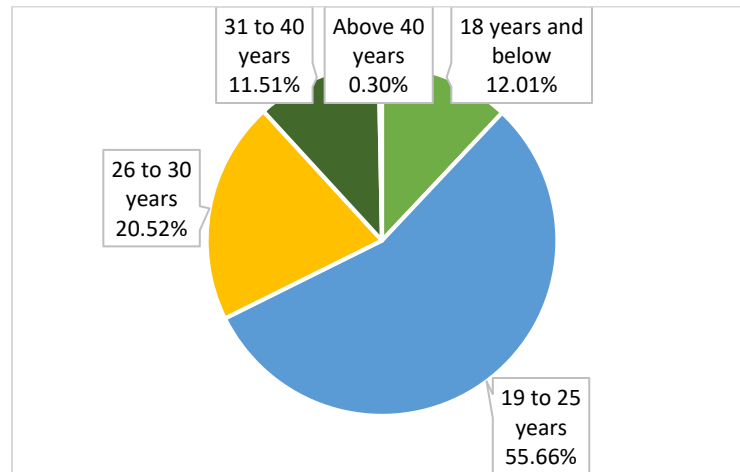


Fig 2.12: % of interstate migrant workers by the age at the time of 1st migration

It seems migration begins even before 18 years of age. Nearly 12.01 per cent of migrant worker respondents first migrated before their 18 years of age. However, majority of the migrant worker respondents first migrated between 19 to 30 years of their age.

2.13. No of destinations migrated

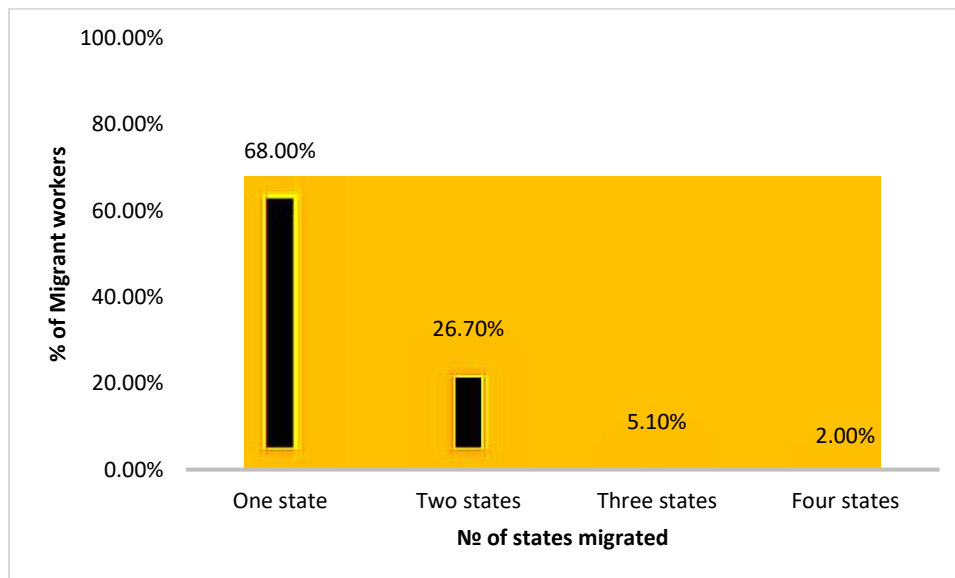


Fig 2.13: % of interstate migrant workers by No of states migrated

Majority (68.0%) of the migrant workers had migrated to only one state. The remaining had migrated to more than one states.

2.14. Reasons for migration

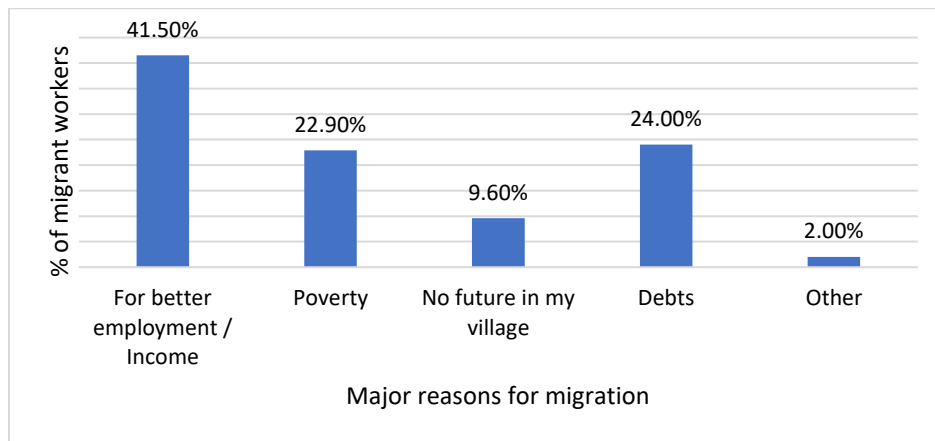


Fig 2.14: % of interstate migrant workers by reasons of migration

Various push and pull factors play a significant role as reasons for migration. Studies have found that low wage, lack of job opportunities, family problems, debts, etc. are the push factors, whereas, more job opportunities, better wage, access to basic amenities, better quality of life, etc. are the pull factors (Ashok and Thomas, 2014). In this survey, seeking better employment, repayment of debts and poverty were the foremost driving factors of migration. Lack of opportunity or future in their native place and other factors forcing to migrate.

2.15. Source of information to choose the destination for migration

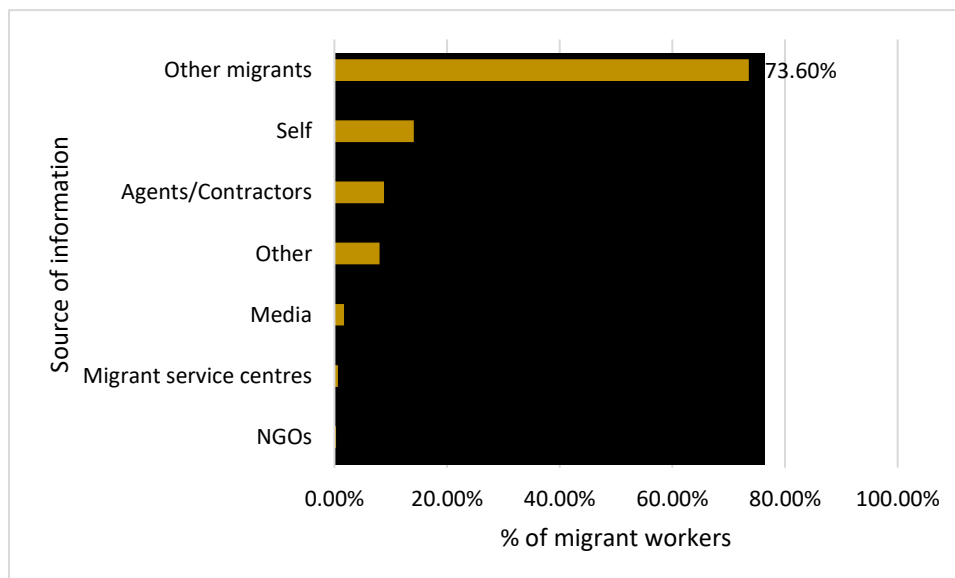


Fig 2.15: % of interstate migrant workers by source of information about destination

Information about demand for workers, sectors of work, destination locations, etc. are obtained from different sources such as friends, other migrant workers, etc. Source of information for selecting the

target destination for migration was examined. Mostly, (73.6%) other successful migrants (peers) were source of information. Second main source was self (14.1%). Agents or contractors, media, migrant service centres, NGOs, were other sources of information. Recruitment agents, who operate in the source areas also play a significant role in sending the ruler workers to destination states. Interestingly migrant service centres and NGOs’s role was very low.

2.16. Source of assistance to seek/secure the job

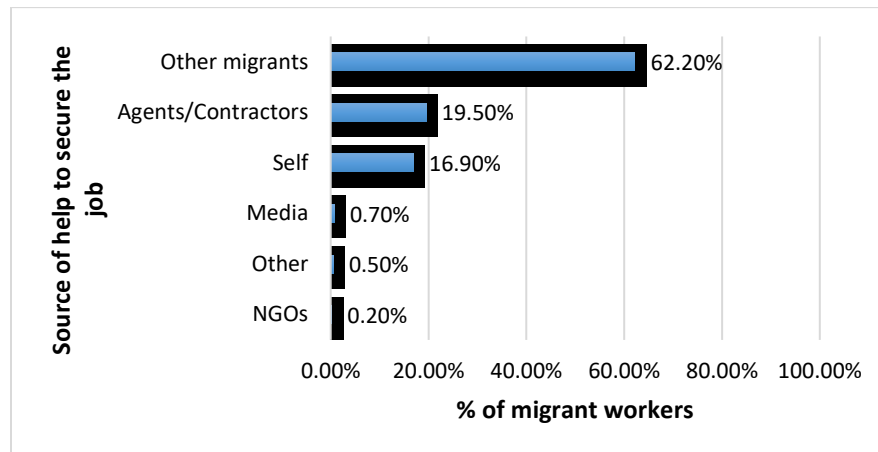


Fig 2.16: % interstate migrant workers by source of assistance for job

Migrants need to have some information about the availability of jobs, types of jobs, benefits, other conditions etc. The major source of such information was from other migrants (62.2%). Followed by agents or contractors (19.5%), self (16.9%). Media was also an insignificant source of information. However, role of NGO’s was very minimum (0.2%).

2.17. Duration of Stay in the Current Location

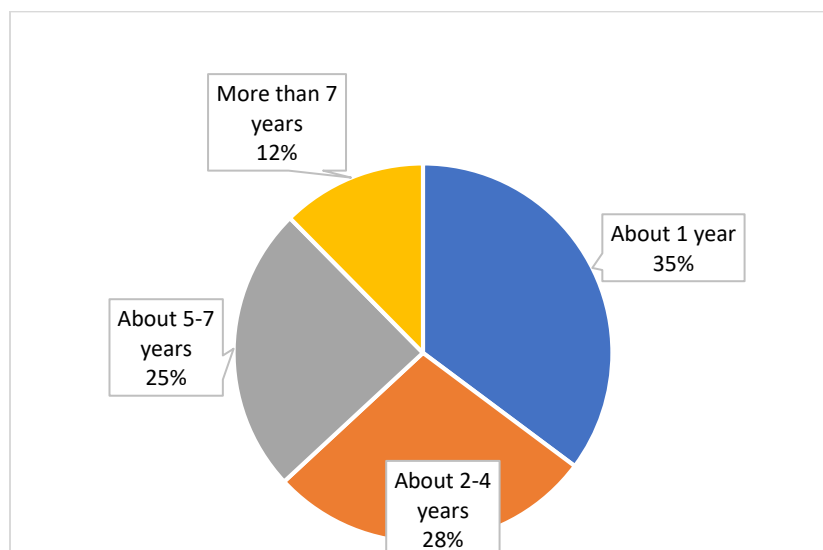


Fig 2.17: Duration of stay in the current location

Duration of stay by the migrants in one location varies. More of the migrant workers likely to stay for a short period in one location at the destination. For example, in this study, about 35% of the migrant workers had been staying in the current location at the time of survey. Only 12% were staying for more than 7 years.

2.18. Frequency of home visit

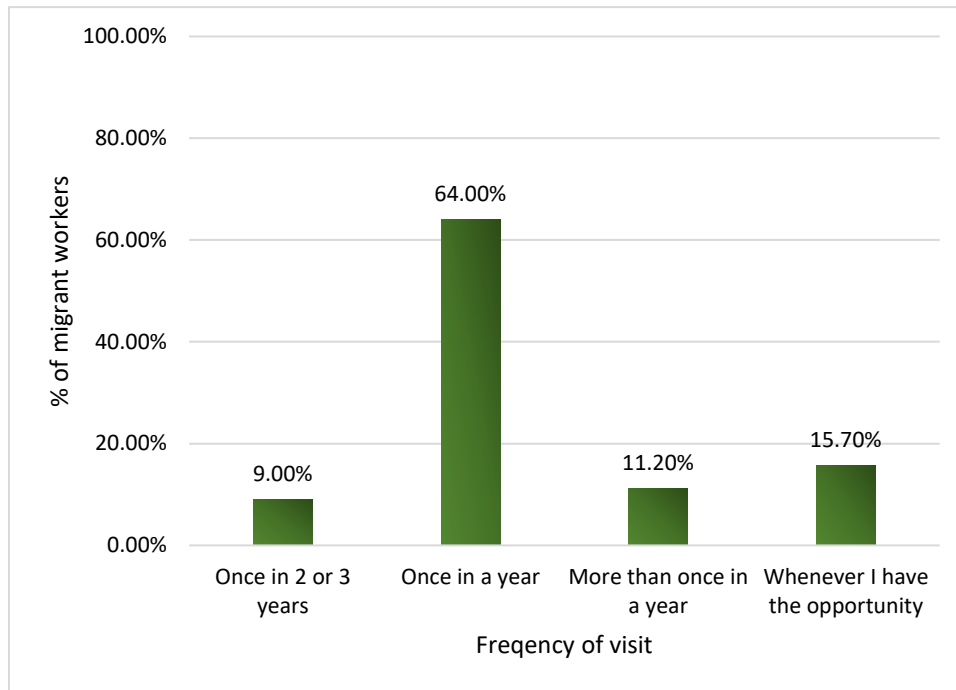


Fig 2.18: % of interstate migrant workers by frequency of visit to home

Migrant workers once in a while go back to their home in their village. However, the periodicity of visiting home differed. Most of the migrant workers (64.0%) visit their home once in a year. Secondly, 15.7 % of the migrant workers have no fixed periodicity – they visit whenever they have the opportunity. However, 9.0 per cent of the migrants visit their home once in two or three years – which is a longer period.

2.19. No of migrant workers in the family

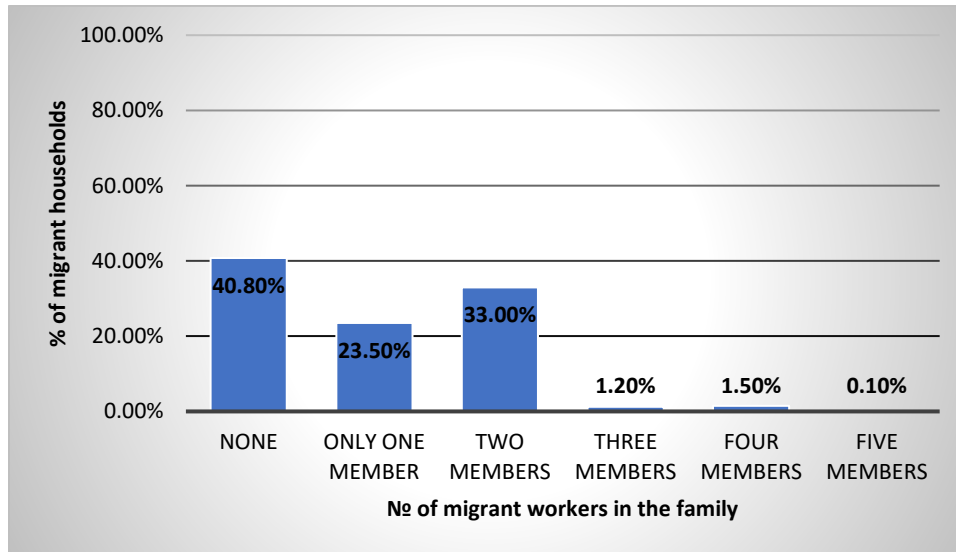


Fig 2.19: No of migrants in the migrant workers' family

About 35.80 per cent of the respondents' households have two or more persons had migrated to other states. About 40 per cent of the families there were no one had migrated.

Section 3: Work

2.20. Working sector

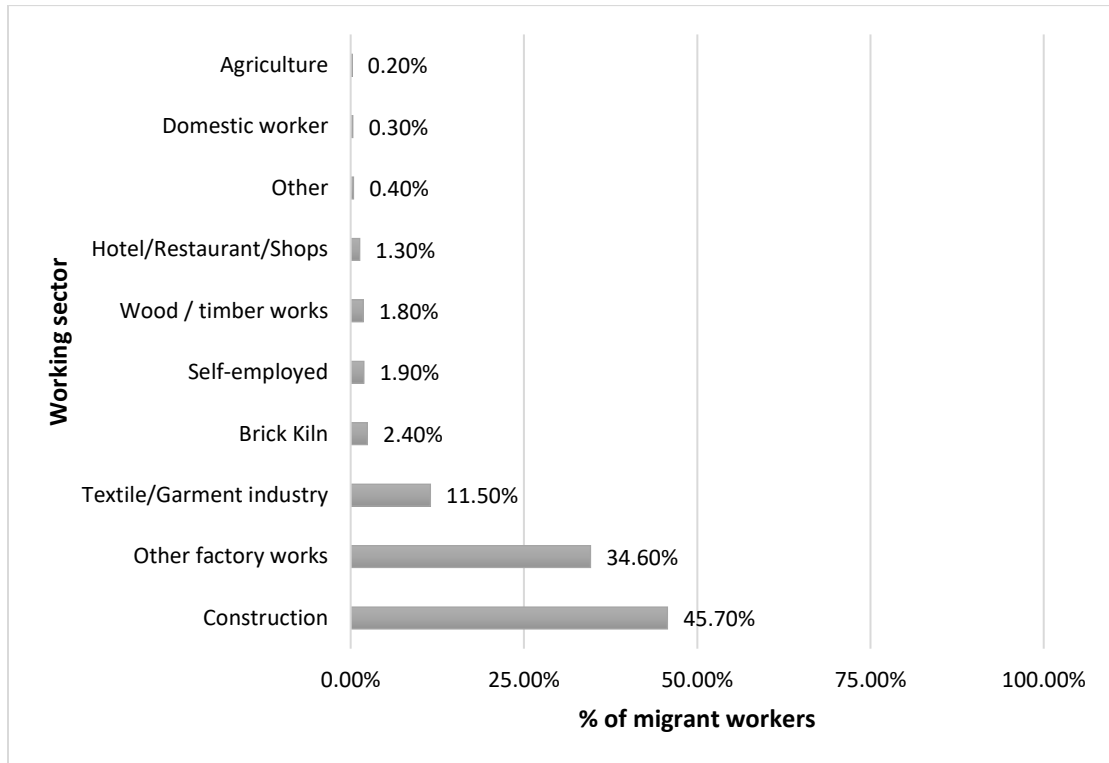


Fig 2.20: % of interstate migrant workers by working sector

Migrant workers work in diversified sectors. Most of the migrants (45.7%) were working in Construction sector. Followed by Factory works (34.6%), and Textile and garment industry (11.5%). Other sectors which provide employment for the inter-state migrants were Brick kiln, wood/timber industry, Hotel/restaurant/shops, Domestic worker, and Agriculture. The low income and high-risk construction sector is one of the most attractive sectors for interstate migrant workers with no or less education and unskilled. Majority of interstate migrant workers are employed in the unorganized sectors. Compared to other sectors, construction or brick kiln are the most exploitative sectors with no or poor access to health services, social protection, education, and other basic amenities (India Water Portal).

2.21. Nature of job



Fig 2.21: % of interstate migrant workers by nature of job

Nature of job varies. Majority (70.7%) of the migrant workers were Unskilled labours. More than one-fourth (26.5%) were Skilled workers. Very few (0.2%) were working as Supervisors and the remaining were working in other capacities.

2.22. Job status

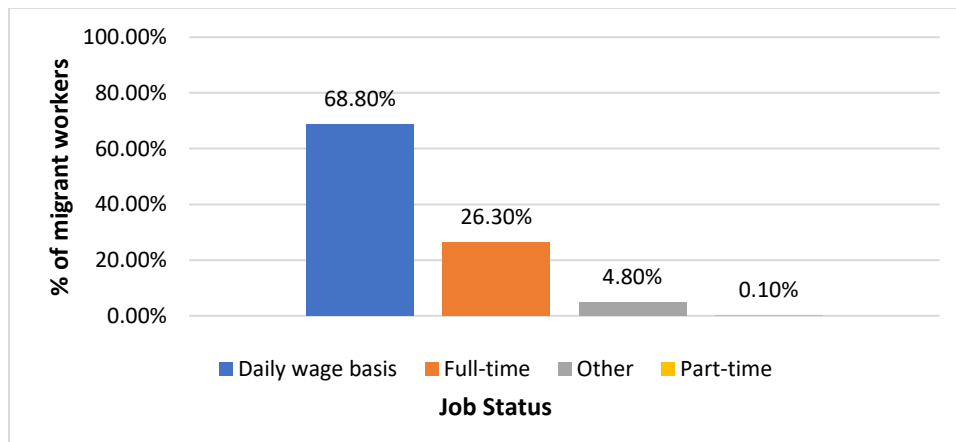


Fig 2.22: % of interstate migrant workers by their job status

Not all the migrant workers were employed as full-time workers or as permanent employees. Majority (68.8%) of the migrant workers were employed as Daily wage labourers. About 26.3 per cent of them were engaged as full-time workers.

Some of the migrant workers were employed or engaged in various type of works before migration. Majority (75.0%) of the migrant workers were agriculturists. The second highest number of (49.0%) migrant workers were agriculture labourers, and 31.7 per cent were Unemployed. Though most of the migrant workers were working as construction workers at the destination, only 4.2 per cent had

worked in construction sector before their migration. Other jobs were daily wage, carpenter, factory worker, driver, wood crafts, hotel, goat rearing, and sales of clothes, etc.

2.23. Monthly average income of the migrant worker

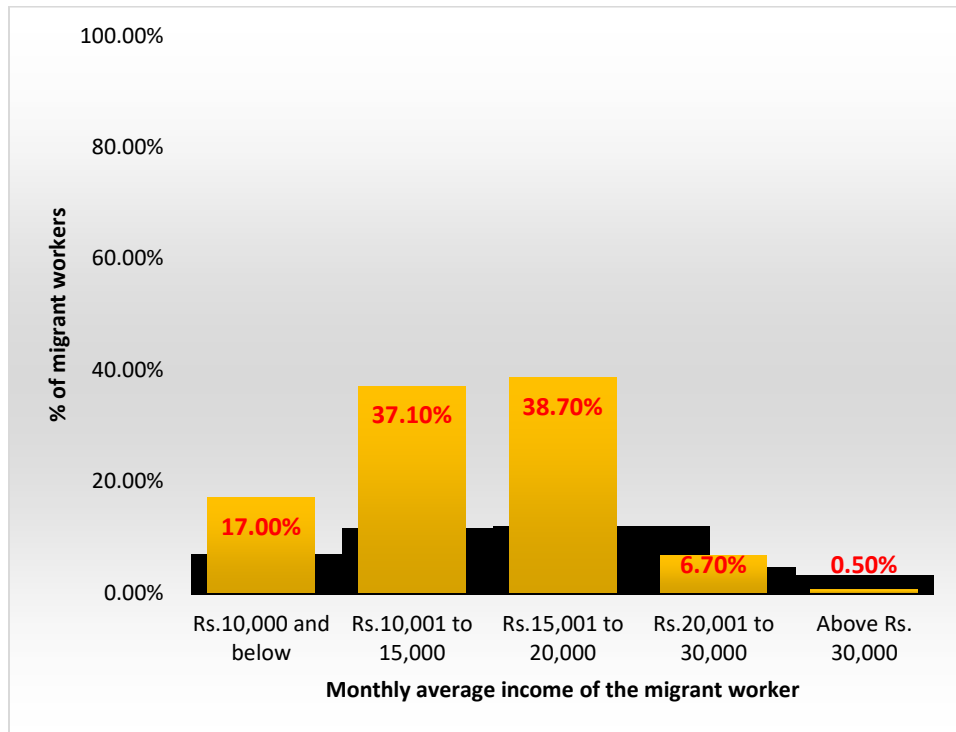


Fig 2.23: % of interstate migrant workers by their average monthly income

Average income earned by the migrant workers at the destination ranged from less than INR.10,000 to more than INR.30,000 per month. Majority (75.80%) of the migrant workers were earning INR>10,001 to 20,000 per month. About 17.0 per cent of the migrant workers were able to earn less than INR.10,000 per month. Average income of the migrant workers was Rs.15,953.40 (\pm 9723.64). Standard deviation shows that variation in the income earned by the respondent migrant workers was very high. The income the interstate migrant workers earn at the destination is significantly higher than what they can earn at the source. Mishra and Pandey (2011) also concluded that interstate migrant labourers earn much higher monetary wages than in their native states/places but they work for longer hours. At the same time, the cost of living also will be higher at the destinations than compared to their native places.

2.24. Average working hours per day

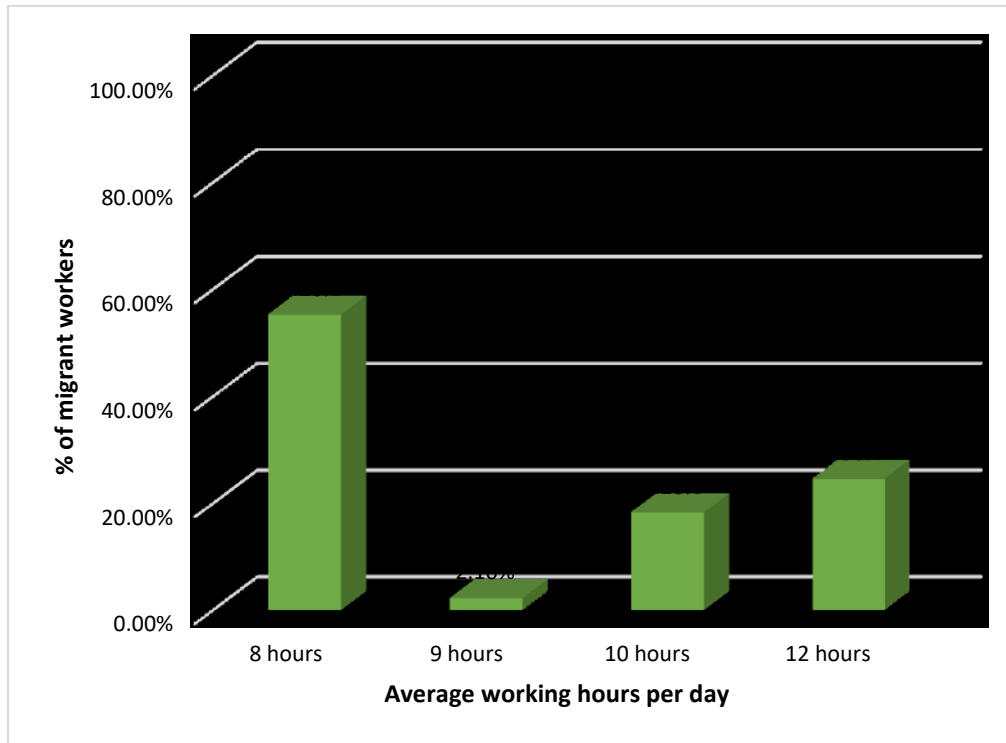


Fig 2.24: % of interstate migrant workers by average working hours per day

More than half (55.0%) of the migrant workers were working for eight or less hours. But about one-fourth (24.5%) of them were working up to 12 hours per day. The remaining 18.2 per cent and 2.10 per cent were working for 10 and 9 hours respectively. This implies that 45.8 per cent of the migrant workers were engaged for more than eight hours per day. This shows that eight-hour work schedule has not been strictly followed. The Hindu reported that eight-hour schedule has little relevance for the migrant workers and reported that in many cases 12-hour work is the norm (The Hindu, Tuesday, March 13, 2007)

Section 4: Basic Amenities, Welfare, and Wages

2.25. Clean toilet facility



Fig 2.25: % of interstate migrant workers by provision for clean toilet facility

About one-third (32.9%) of the migrant workers were not provided with toilet facilities. Only 29.2 per cent of migrant workers were provided toilets and within this 31.9 per cent reported that these toilets were unhygienic, unclean and not usable.

2.26. Drinking water facility

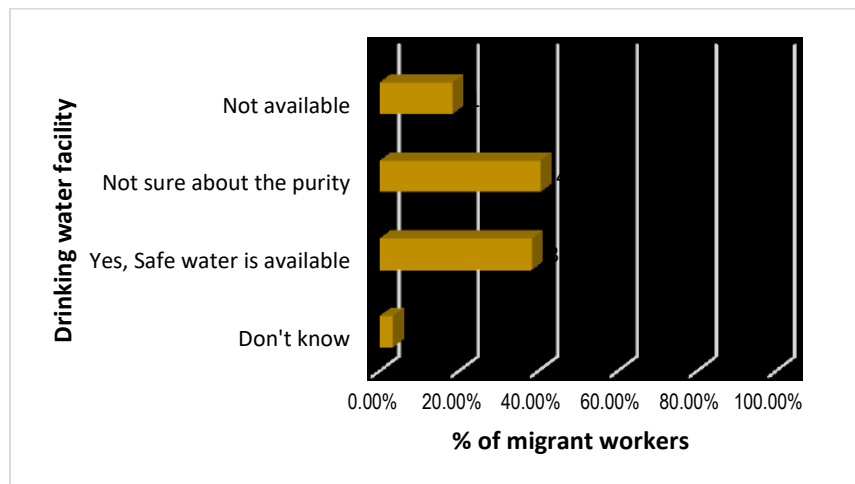


Fig 2.26: % of interstate migrant workers by availability of safe drinking water

Provision for safe drinking water was not available for 18.2 per cent of the migrant workers.

2.27. Accommodation

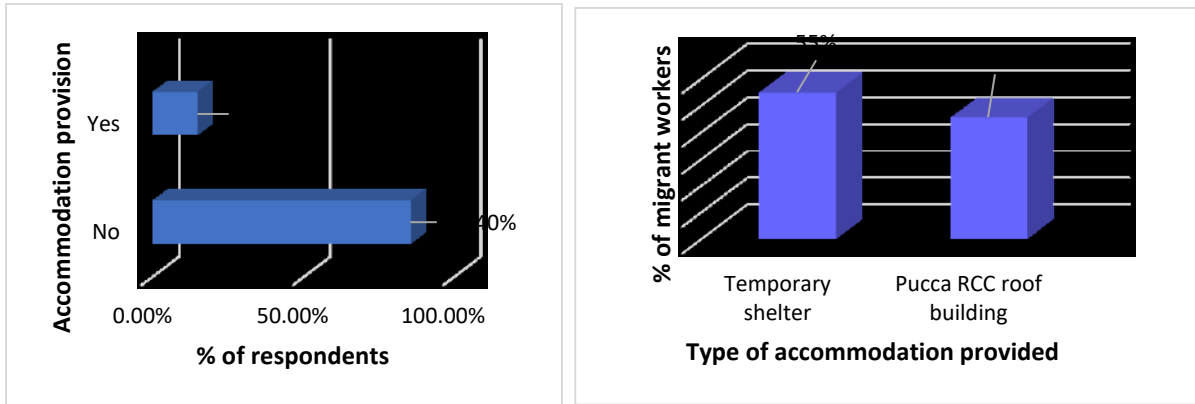


Fig 2.27: % of interstate migrant workers by provision for accommodation

Poverty and poor economic condition force the inter-state migrant workers live in tattered and unhygienic temporary shelters or tents. Consequently, there is a concern about these unhygienic and unplanned settlements leads to over-burden to the local administration, pollution, spread of diseases, etc. Accommodation was not provided by the employers of 85.4 per cent of the migrant workers. Only 139 (14.6%) respondents reported to have provided accommodation. Within the 14.6 per cent who received the accommodation, 55 per cent were provided with temporary shelter and the remaining 45 per cent were provided with pucca RCC roof structure.

2.28. Medical Care Support

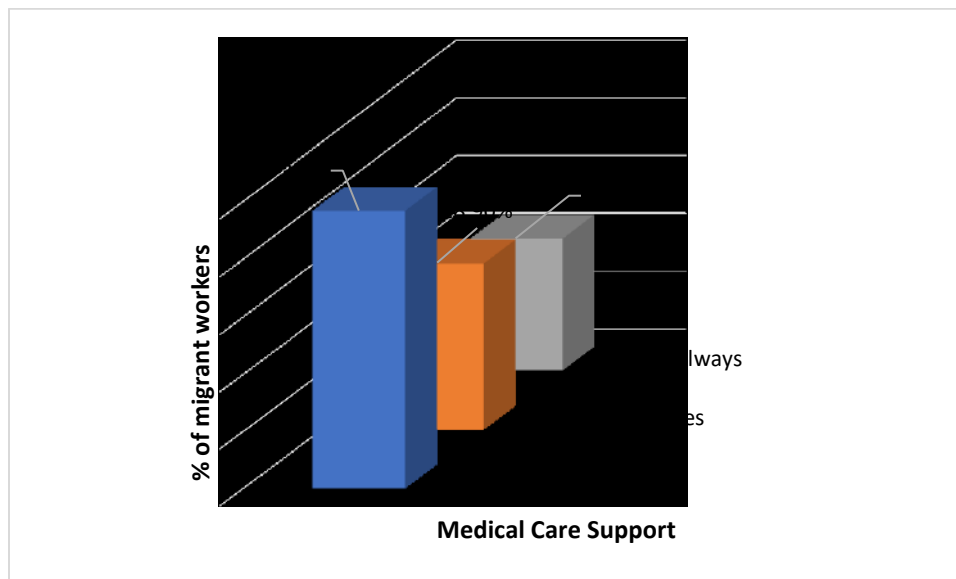


Fig 2.28: % of interstate migrant workers by access to medical care

Though most (69.5%) of the migrant workers reported work-related health problems, about 48.3 per cent of the migrant workers reported that they did not have access to medical care support and 28.9 per cent had access to medical care some times.

2.29. Prior training

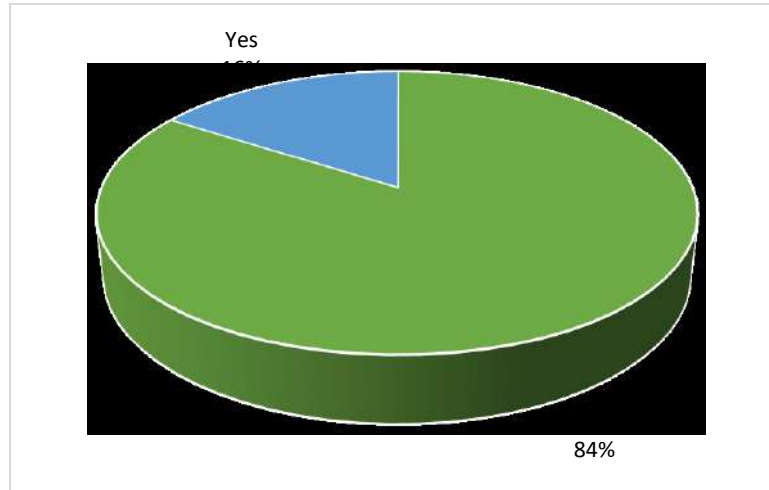


Fig 2.29: % of interstate migrant workers by prior training

Most (70.7%) of the migrant workers were unskilled (see chart -----), 84.0 per cent of the migrant workers reported that they were not given any prior training.

2.30. Periodicity of salary payment

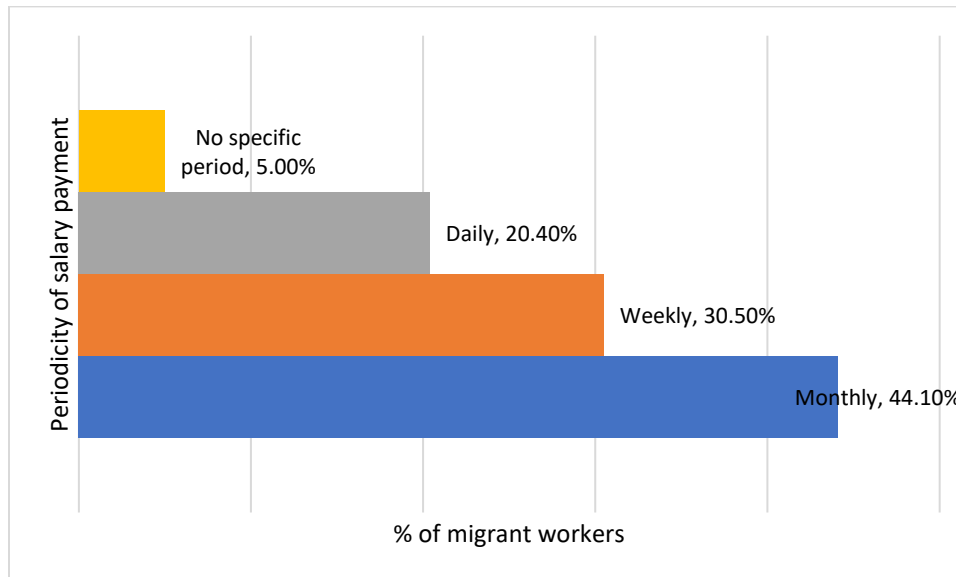


Fig 2.30: % of interstate migrant workers by periodicity of salary payment

Majority of the migrant workers (44.1%) were paid once in a month. About one-third (30.5%) were paid weekly; 20.4 per cent received their salary daily and 5.0 per cent were did not paid by a specific period.

2.31. Timely payment of salary

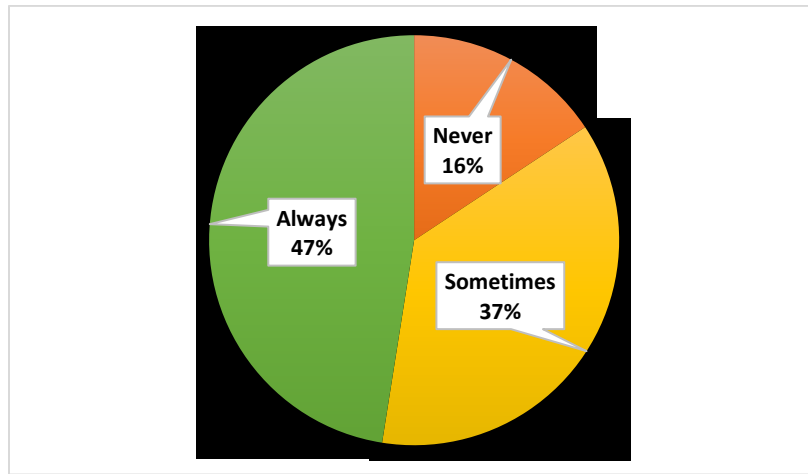


Fig 2.31: % of interstate migrant workers by timely payment of salary

About 47.0 per cent of the migrant workers reported to receive salary in time. About sixteen per cent reported that their salary payment was never in time and 37 per cent received their salary in time only some times.

2.32. Unauthorized deduction from the salary

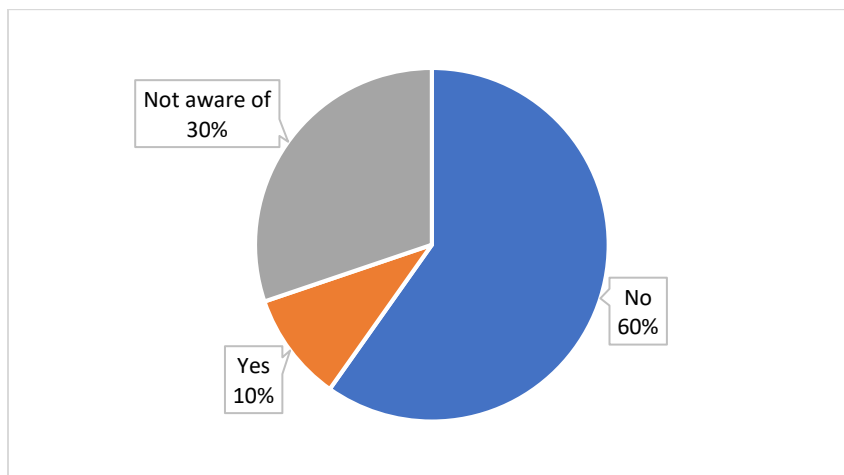


Fig 2.32: % of interstate migrant workers by deduction from the salary

Only 10 per cent of the respondent migrant workers reported that unauthorized deductions were made from their salary. But about 30 per cent of the migrant workers were not aware whether any deductions had been made from their salary.

2.33. Salary sent back to home

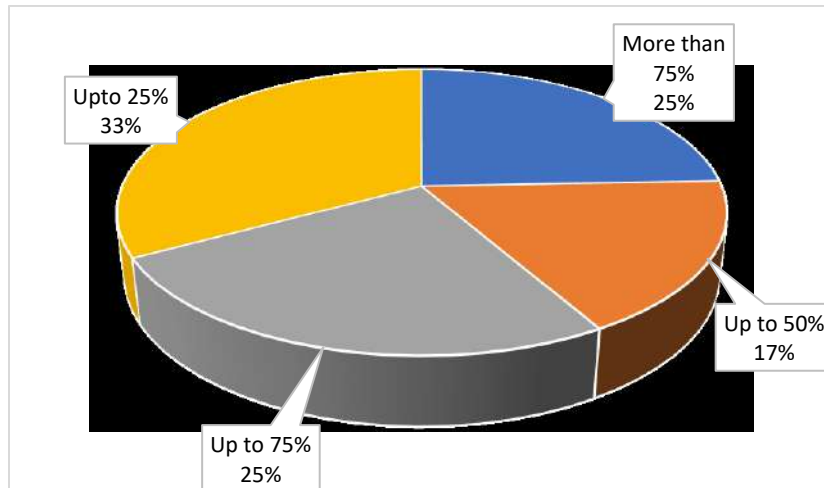


Fig 2.33: % of interstate migrant workers by % salary sent to home

One of the major reasons for migration is lack of or inadequate income to maintain their family. Migrant workers, who are staying at the destination, without their family, send a part of their salary back to their family at their home place. About one-fourth (25.0%) of the migrant workers send more than 75 per cent of what they earn at the destination. Another one-fourth (25%) send up to 75 per cent of their income. Seventeen per cent of the migrant workers send up to 50 per cent of their earnings; The remaining (33.0%) send up to 25 per cent of their income to their family.

2.34. Force to work more than 8 hours per day

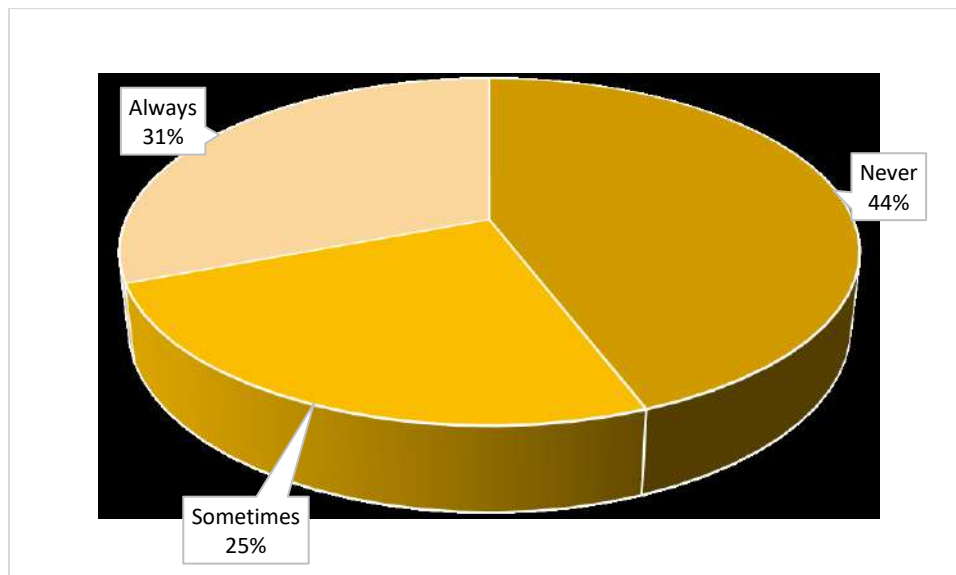


Fig 2.24: % of interstate migrant workers by forced to work > 8 hrs/day

About 56 per cent of the migrant workers were forced to work more than eight hours per day. Out of this 31 per cent reported that they were always working more than eight hours per day.

2.35. Availability of weekly holidays

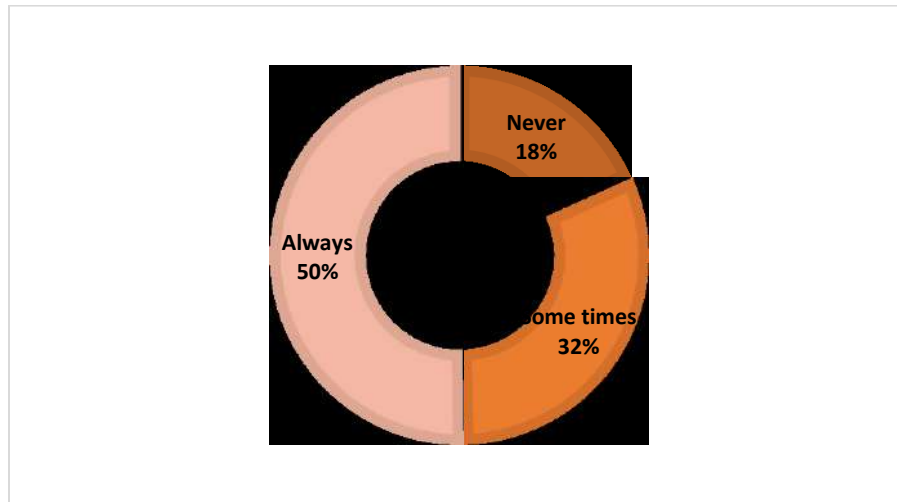


Fig 2.35: % of interstate migrant workers by availability of weekly holidays

Weekly holidays were not available regularly for about 50 per cent of the migrant workers. Eighteen per cent of the respondents reported that they never had weekly holidays.

2.36. Compensation for injury

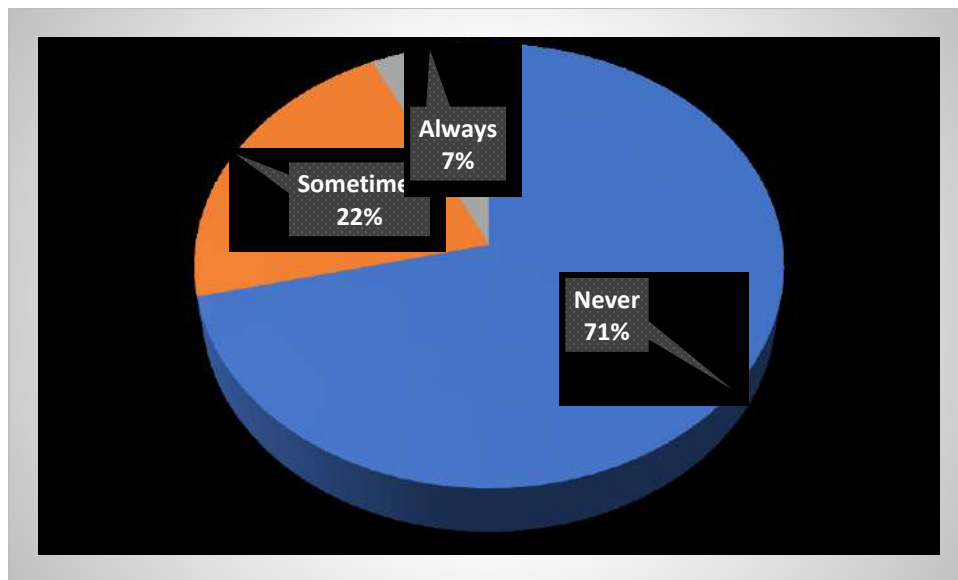


Fig 2.36: % of interstate migrant workers by payment of compensation for injury

About 71 per cent of the respondent migrant workers were never given compensation for work-related injury. Another 22 per cent reported that they sometimes received compensation for injury.

2.37. Harassment by other local workers

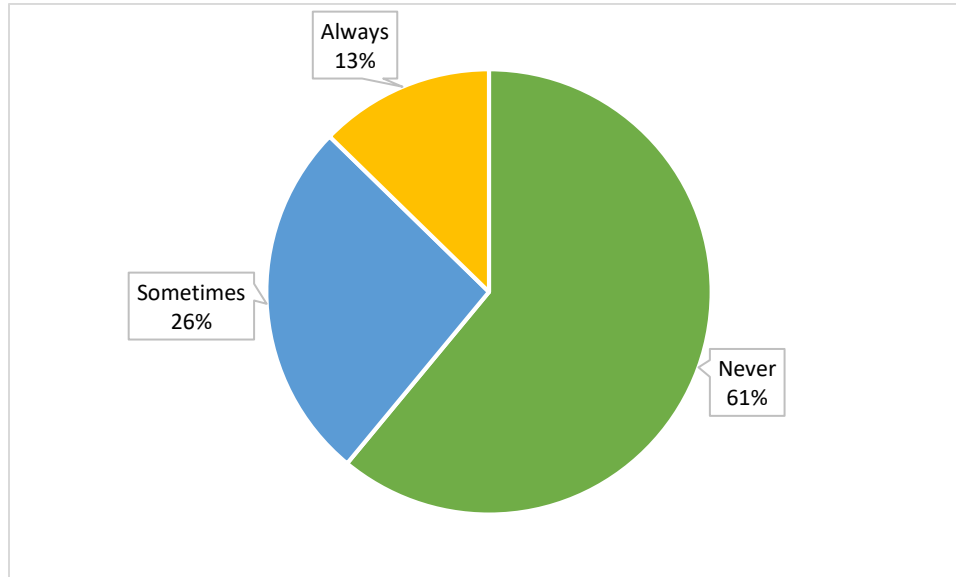


Fig 2.37: % of interstate migrant workers subjected to harassment

Harassment by local workers was reported by 13 per cent of the respondent migrant workers all the time. About 26 per cent had subjected to harassment by the local workers.

2.38. Work-related health problems

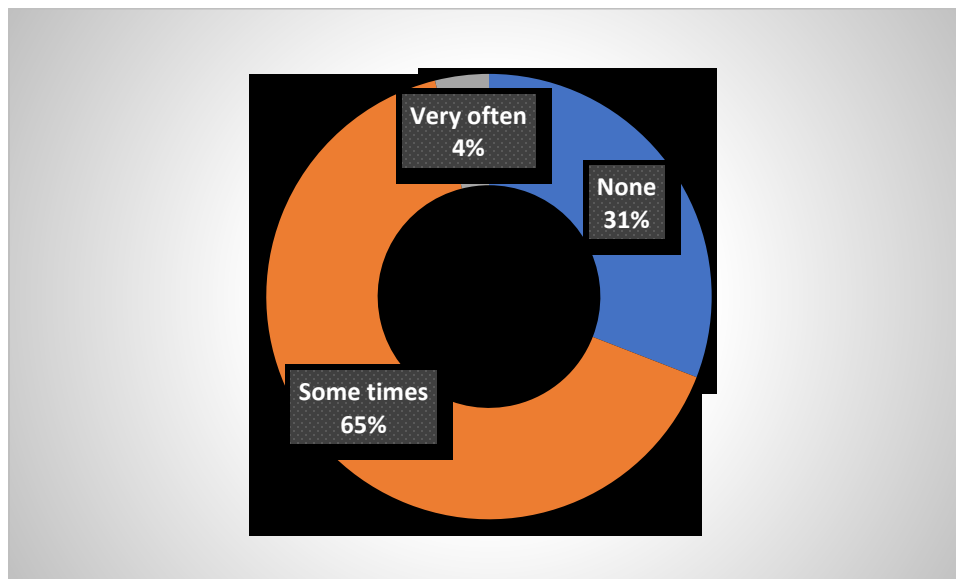


Fig 2.38: % of interstate migrant workers by work-related health problems

Work-related health problems were reported. Four per cent of the migrant workers had health problems very often; 65 per cent had some times and the remaining 31 per cent did not report any work-related health problems. This shows that most (69.5%) of the migrant workers experience work-related health issues.

Section 5 – Awareness

2.39. Awareness on various legal entitlements

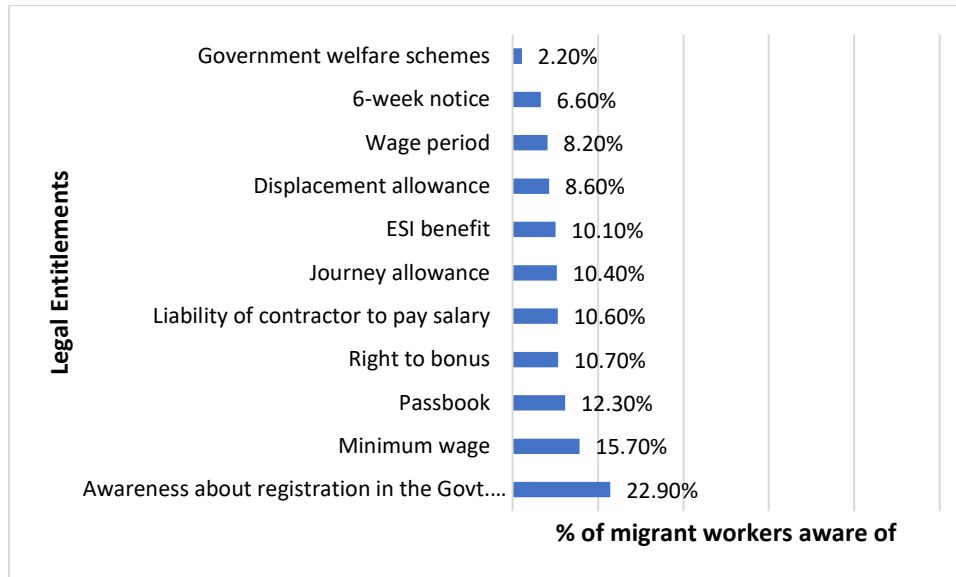


Fig 2.39: % of interstate migrant workers by level of awareness

Regarding the government welfare schemes, out of the remaining 97.2 per cent of the migrant workers, 26.1 per cent was aware of the welfare schemes only to some extent. Hence that per cent was not added with those who were fully aware of.

More than 97 per cent of migrant workers were not aware of various government welfare schemes; 93.4 per cent were not aware of 6-week notice for termination; 91.8 per cent were not aware of rules of wages; 91.4 per cent were not aware of the liability of the employer to pay displacement allowance; 89.90 per cent were not aware about ESI and its benefits; 89.6 per cent were not aware of journey allowance; 89.4 per cent were not aware of the liability of the contractor to pay the salary in lieu of the principal employer; 89.3 per cent were not aware of their right for bonus; 87.7 per cent were not aware of the liability of the contractor to provide a passbook for each migrant worker; 84.3 per cent were not aware of the minimum wage act; 78.1 per cent of the migrants were not aware of the mandate to register on the government web portal.

Majority of the migrant workers are not aware of labour laws. Also, more than 90.0 per cent of the migrant workers were not covered by the labour laws; not covered by health insurance; non-issue of ID cards – ultimately the migrant workers are kept invisible (Jayapathy *et al.* 2016). The Standing Committee on Labour reported that registration of interstate migrant workers under the ISMW Act was low.

2.40. Migrant workers availed their entitlements

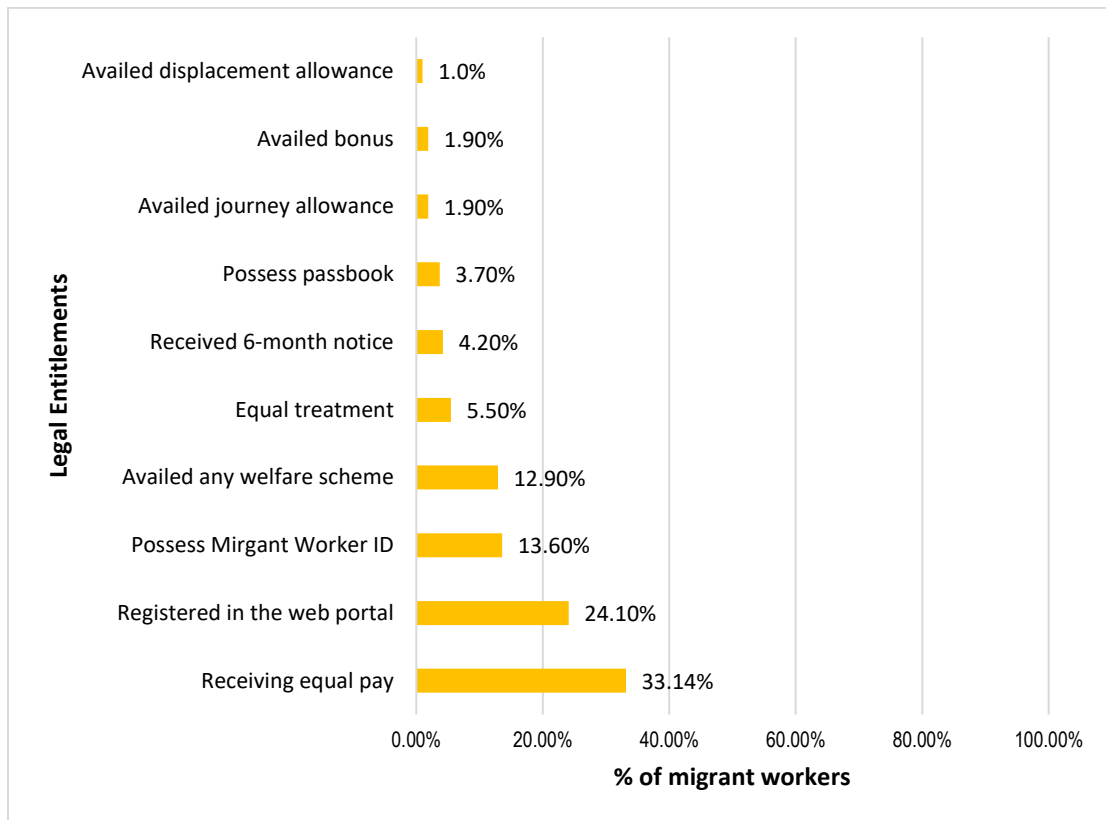


Fig 2.40: % of interstate migrant workers by legal entitlements availed

To what extent the migrant workers are able to ensure their rights as envisioned in the various Acts for migrant workers, was assessed.

Overall awareness was very poor. Ninety-nine per cent of the migrant workers had not received their displacement allowance; 89.1 per cent did not avail bonus or journey allowance; 86.7 per cent of the respondents did not possess the passbook; 95.8 per cent were not issued 6-week notice prior to termination; 94.5 per cent experienced discrimination; 87.5 per cent did not avail any government welfare scheme benefits; 86.4 per cent had not registered in the web portal; 66.9 per cent were subject to pay disparity.

Various reports indicate that a large number of interstate migrant workers are unregistered. This leads to a wide gap and challenge to enforce the various protective laws and legislations and these unregistered interstate migrant workers are invisible (India Water Portal).

Section 6 – Effect of Migration

2.41. Perceived Mental Health Problems of Migrant Workers

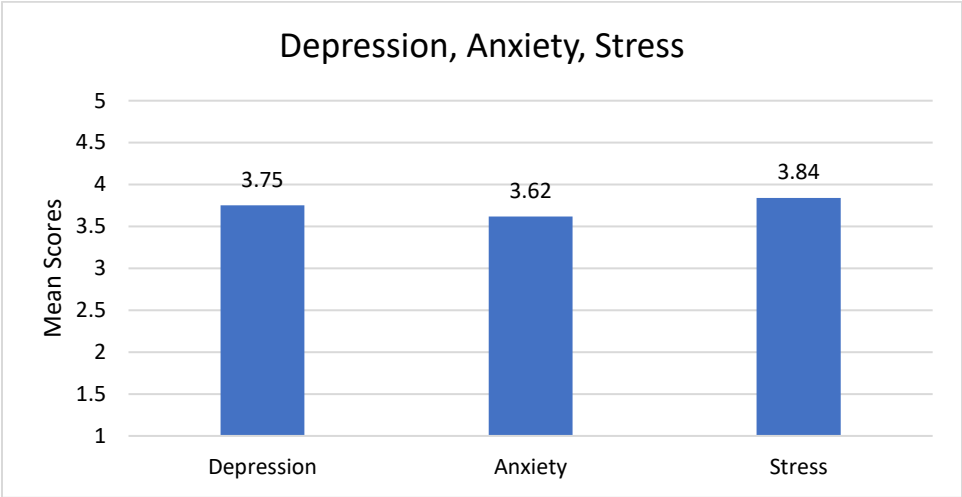


Fig 2.41: Level of Depression, Anxiety and Stress

New environment, helplessness, exploitation affect the mental health of the migrant workers at the destination. The three indicators of mental health problems, viz. depression, anxiety, and stress are reported to be high among the respondent migrant workers. Mean scores indicate that stress was higher (3.84), followed by Depression (3.75), and anxiety (3.62).

2.42. Presence of family and mental health problems of the migrant workers

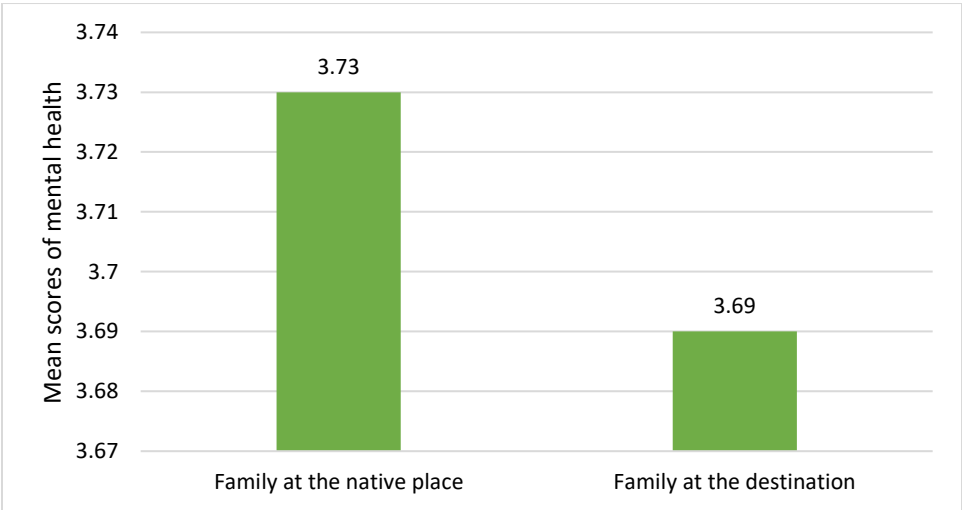


Fig 2.42: Mental health problem scores of migrant workers

Not all the migrants are staying with their family at the destination. Most of the families stay in the native place (origin) while the migrant member alone stays at the destination. Staying away from the family is also a significant factor that affects the mental health of the migrants. Mean scores show that mental health was poor among the migrants who stay away from their families than the migrants who stay with their family at the destination.

2.43. Perceived quality of life of Migrant Workers

Table 2.1 (a): Level of satisfaction on the quality of life

Dimensions of Satisfaction in Life	Highly dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Average	Satisfied	Highly satisfied
1. Social condition	5 0.5%	347 36.3%	332 34.8%	271 28.4%	0 0.00%
2. Work life	1 0.1%	387 40.5%	469 49.1%	98 10.3%	0 0.00%
3. Salary / income	1 0.1%	343 35.9%	183 19.2%	425 44.5%	3 0.3%
4. Personal safety	0 0.00%	424 44.4%	306 32.0%	224 23.5%	1 0.1%
5. Physical health	24 2.5%	333 34.9%	235 24.6%	359 37.6%	4 0.4%
6. Mental health	37 3.9%	316 33.1%	602 63.0%	0 0.00%	0 0.00%
7. Leisure time	18 1.9%	442 46.3%	181 19.0%	314 32.9%	0 0.00%
8. Progress in life	2 0.2%	339 35.5%	182 19.1%	391 40.9%	41 4.3%
9. Support to family	1 0.1%	387 40.5%	136 14.2%	265 27.7%	166 17.4%
10. Future prospect	0 0.00%	506 53.0%	222 23.2%	227 23.8%	0 0.00%

Table 2.1 (b): Mean scores of satisfaction level of migrant workers

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Social condition	2.91	.813
Work life	2.70	.648
Salary / income	3.09	.902
Personal safety	2.79	.800
Physical health	2.99	.918
Mental health	2.59	.565
Leisure time	2.83	.916
Progress in life	3.14	.963
Support to family	3.22	1.156
Future prospect	2.71	.826
Overall satisfaction of quality of life	2.89	.62183

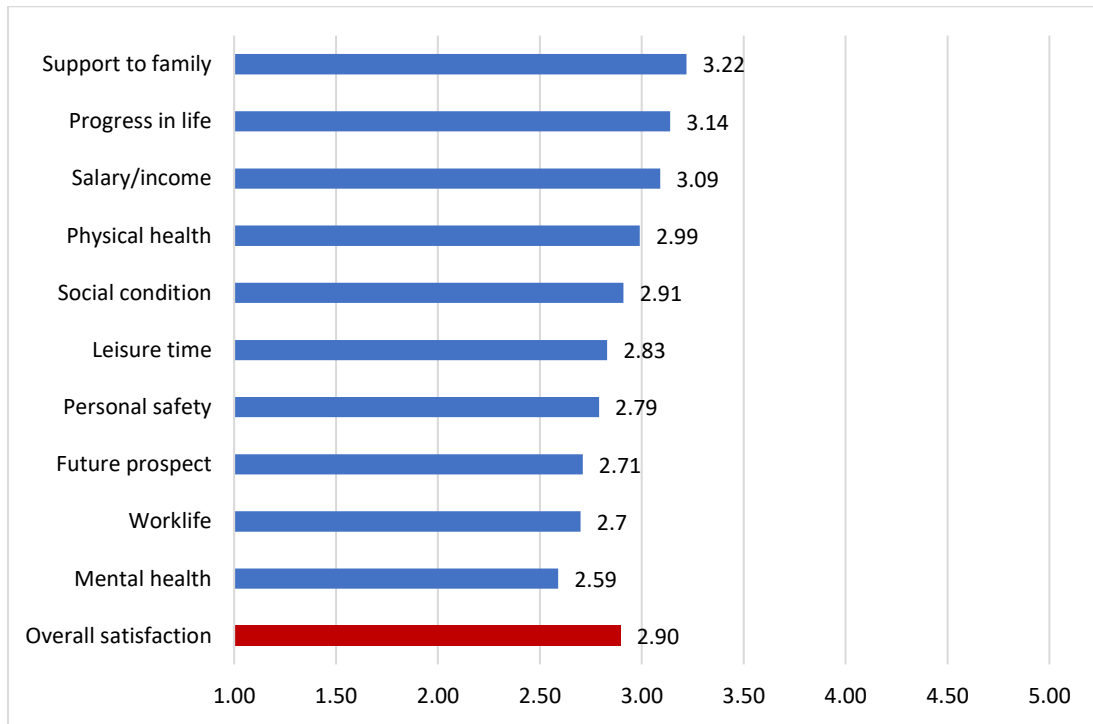


Fig 2.43: Mean scores of dimensions of level of satisfaction on quality of life of migrant workers.

Perceived satisfaction on the quality of life of the migrant workers were measured over a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = Highly dissatisfied to 5 = Highly satisfied and 3 = average level of satisfaction. The above bar chart shows the perceived satisfaction on the 10 dimensions of quality of life in the descending order based on the mean scores. Migrant workers were satisfied above average on their ability to support their family, progress in life, and salary or income they manage to earn at the destination. The migrant workers were less happy – i.e., below the average level on other aspects

of life. Mental health, work life and future prospects were a serious concern for the migrant workers. Overall, the perceived quality of life for the migrant workers was below average.

Almost all the respondent migrant reported dissatisfaction about their mental health. More than 89 per cent of the migrant workers were not happy with their work-life; 76.4 per cent were worried about their personal safety; 76.20 per cent were not positive about their future prospect; 71.6 per cent were not satisfied with the social condition; 67.2 per cent reported that they had no leisure time; 55.2 per cent were not satisfied with their salary; 54.8 per cent were not satisfied with the progress in life and the support to their family.

Study by Chinnadurai (2021) also corroborated the findings of this study. He reported that more than 92 per cent of the migrant workers were not happy about their quality of life, particularly about their living places; more than 84 per cent do open defecation as they did not have toilet facilities.

Section 7 – Inferential Analysis

2.44. Influence of awareness to claim their rights / entitlements

Table 2.2: Impact / Influence of Awareness on Initiatives to Claim their Rights and Entitlements

Awareness on	Impact	Pearson “R”	Sig
Registration	Registered on the web portal	.485	.000
	Possess migrant ID	.256	.000
Work passbook	Possess passbook	.403	.000
Displacement allowance	Received displacement allowance	.010	.759
Journey allowance	Received journey allowance	.231	.000
6-week notice	Received 6-week notice	.050	.125
Right to bonus	Received bonus	.134	.000
ESI	Availed ESI benefit	.235	.000
Government welfare schemes	Accessed / availed government scheme	.058	.045

Whether migrant workers’ level of awareness or knowledge about their various entitlements / rights results in accessing such entitlements / rights was examined. Results showed positive and significant association. Migrant workers who were aware of their entitlements / rights tend to avail such entitlements / rights and vice versa. For example, migrant workers who better awareness on the need for registration had registered themselves and availed ID cards and other benefits. Those who were aware of their right to displacement allowance, journey allowance, bonus, ESI, and government welfare schemes, managed to get those benefits. Hence, knowledge or awareness results in behaviour.

2.45. Education vs. Level of Awareness on Migrant Workers' Rights/Entitlements.

ANOVA

Overall awareness

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.805	6	.134	3.467	.002
Within Groups	36.674	948	.039		
Total	37.479	954			

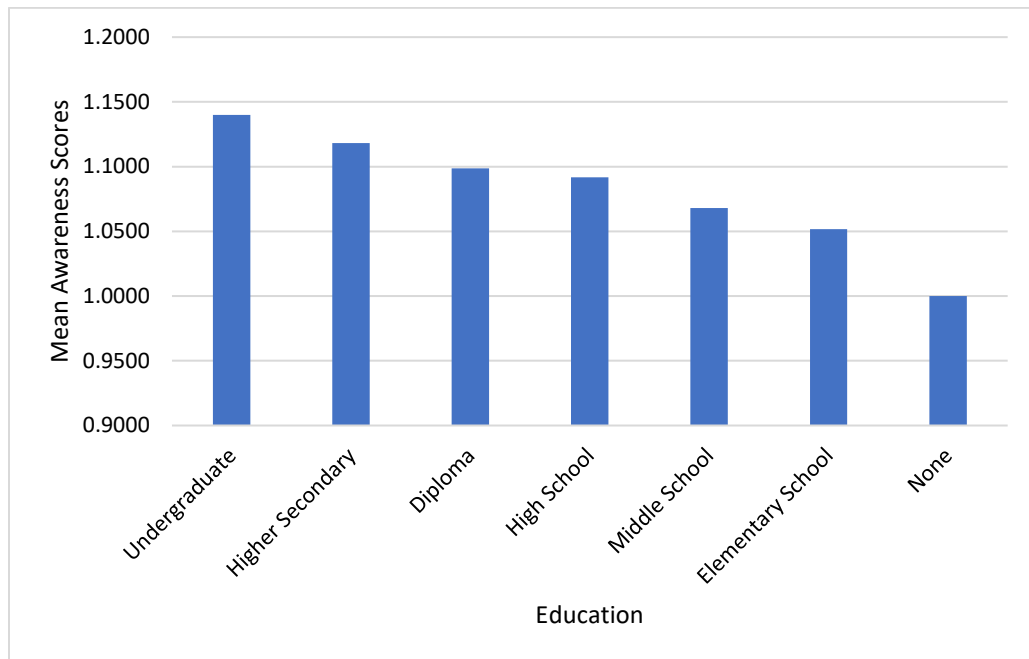


Fig 2.45: Education vs. awareness

2.46. Significance of income towards better quality of life

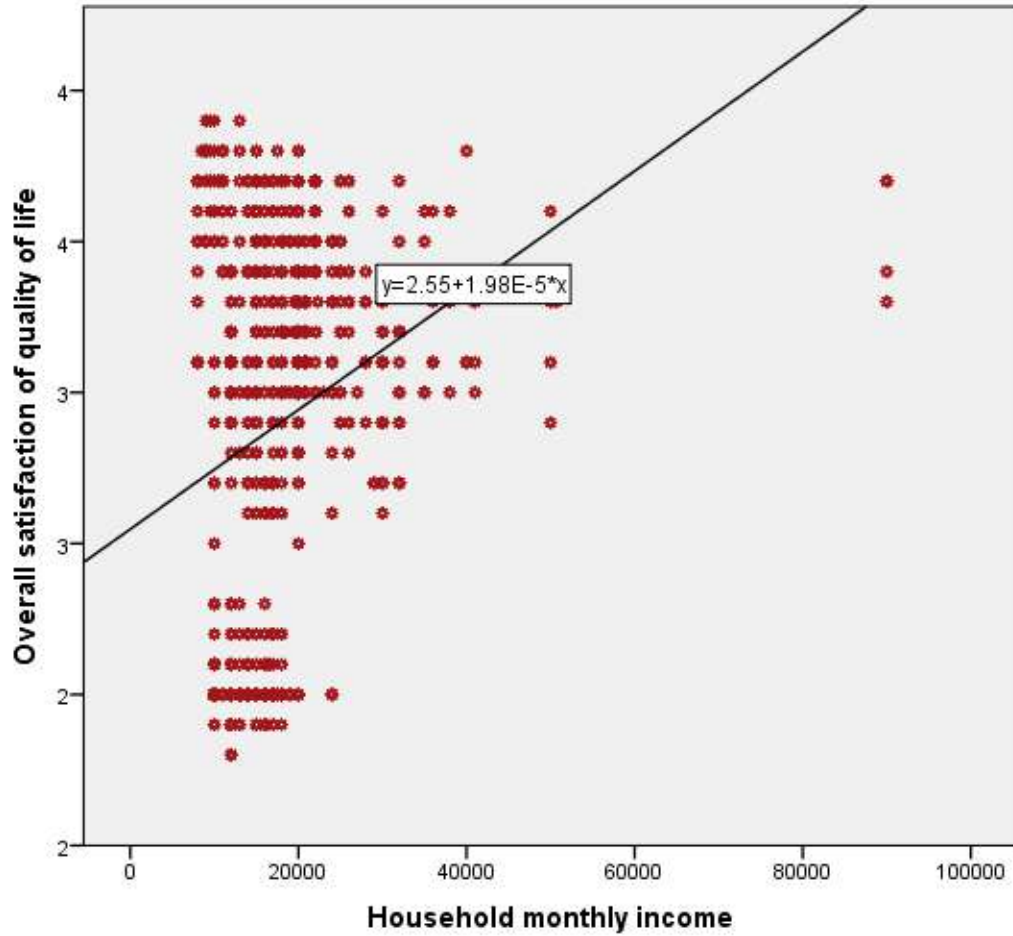


Fig 2.46: Income vs. quality of life

2.47. Educational level vs. income

ANOVA

	N	Mean income (INR)	Std. Deviation	ANOVA
Undergraduate	43	10953.49	2419.696	df = 6, 948 F = 4.937 Sig. = .000
Diploma	6	18000.00	4647.580	
Higher Secondary	106	17778.30	16284.682	
Highschool	112	15925.89	3376.595	
Middle school	243	17437.04	14394.300	
Elementary school	178	16433.15	4510.186	
None	267	14329.59	4002.112	
Total	955	15953.40	9723.642	

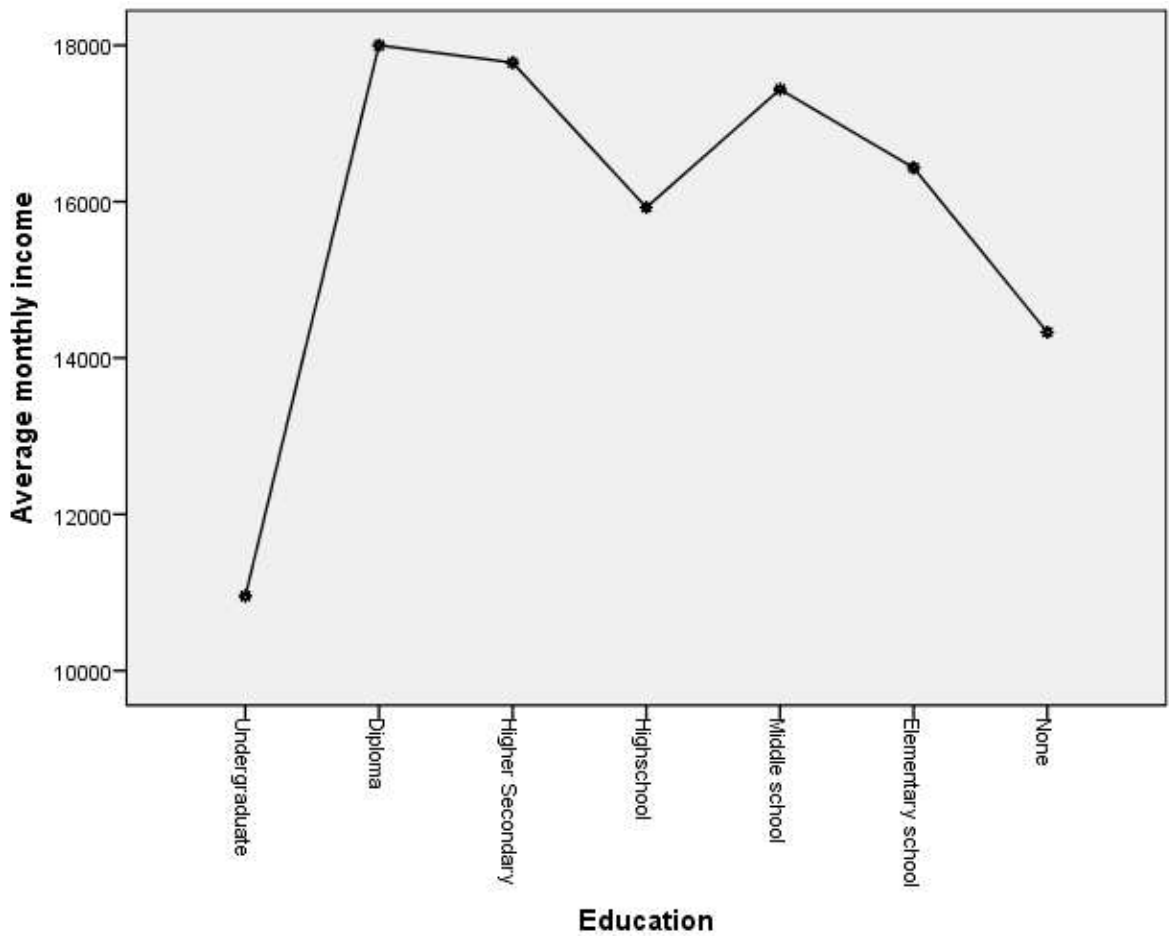


Fig:2.47: Education vs. income

Significant impact of educational attainment on income earned was observed [$F(6, 948) = 4.937, p = .000 < .01$]. However, the relationship was not linear. Interestingly, undergraduate migrant workers reported the lowest earning, secondly the illiterates. Migrant workers with school-level education were earning better than the undergraduates and illiterate migrant workers at the destination.

2.48. Age at the time of migration vs. income

Table : Age vs. income

		income
Age at the time of first migration	Pearson Correlation	-.057
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.080
	N	955

Results indicate an inverse but not significant association between age at the time of first migration and income of the migrant worker [$t = -.057, p = .080 > .05$]. Those who migrated in their early years were earning more compared to those who migrated at a later age. This may be due to the reason

that early-age migrant workers have the opportunities and time to gain knowledge and experience in choosing the right and potential destination location, right source of information, put in more years of service, gain work experience, and right job that would fetch higher wages in the right sector.

2.49. Gender vs. earning

Table: Gender vs. income

	Sex	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Test Results
Monthly average earning	Male	872	16018.92	10121.036	t = .675 p = .040
	Female	83	15265.06	3377.957	

Income earned at the destination significantly differed between male and female migrant workers [t = .675, p = .040 < .05]. Female migrant workers reported less earnings (M = 15,265.08) at the destination than the male migrant workers [M = 16,018].

2.50. Income and No. of migrated locations

Table: No of migrated locations vs. income

No of states migrated	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig
Only one state	649	18729.12	9131.598	14.391	.000
Two states	255	15325.49	3376.904		
Three states	49	14755.10	3139.338		
Four and more states	2	12000.00	.000		

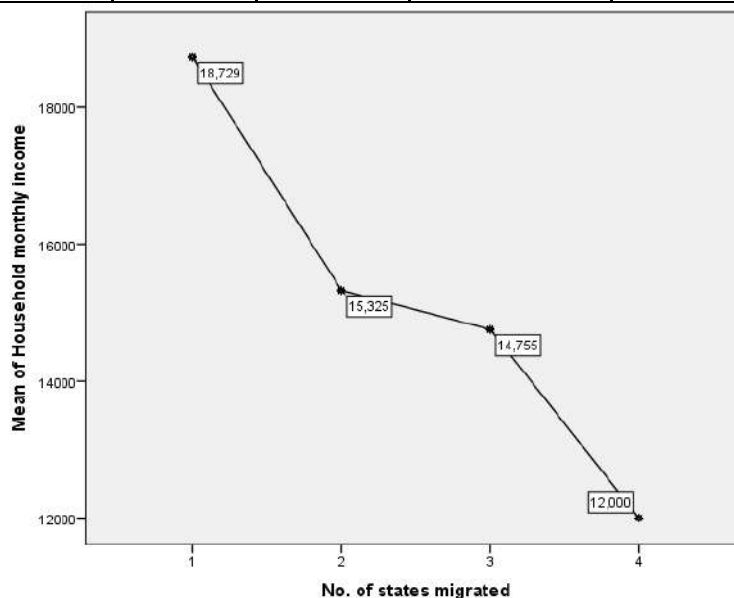


Fig: No of migrated location vs. monthly income

Results showed significant association between household income and No of states migrated. Low earning migrant workers tend to migrate to more destinations and vice versa. Need for higher income is one of the major push factors for migration. Hence, low-income earning migrant workers will be always looking for opportunities and searching jobs at different locations for a higher income.

2.51. Education vs. No of destinations migrated

ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	36.223	6	6.037	19.217	.000
Within Groups	297.823	948	.314		
Total	334.046	954			

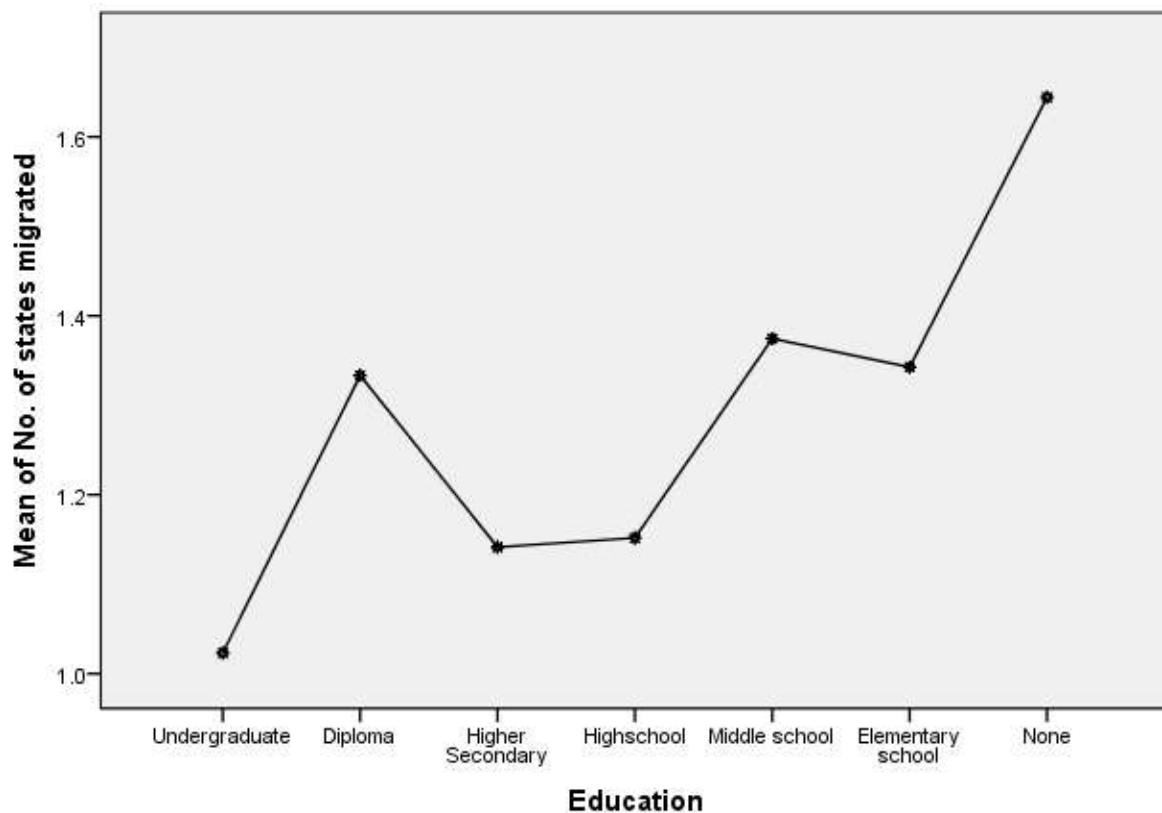


Fig: Education vs. No of locations migrated

Educational qualification was significantly associated with No of states / destinations migrated. Interstate migrants with low qualification tend to switchover their destinations frequently as they search jobs which satisfies their needs, particularly monetary benefits.

2.52. Job Skill vs. Sustaining the Job

ANOVA

Duration of this present job

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	168.309	3	56.103	3.736	.011
Within Groups	14281.142	951	15.017		
Total	14449.451	954			

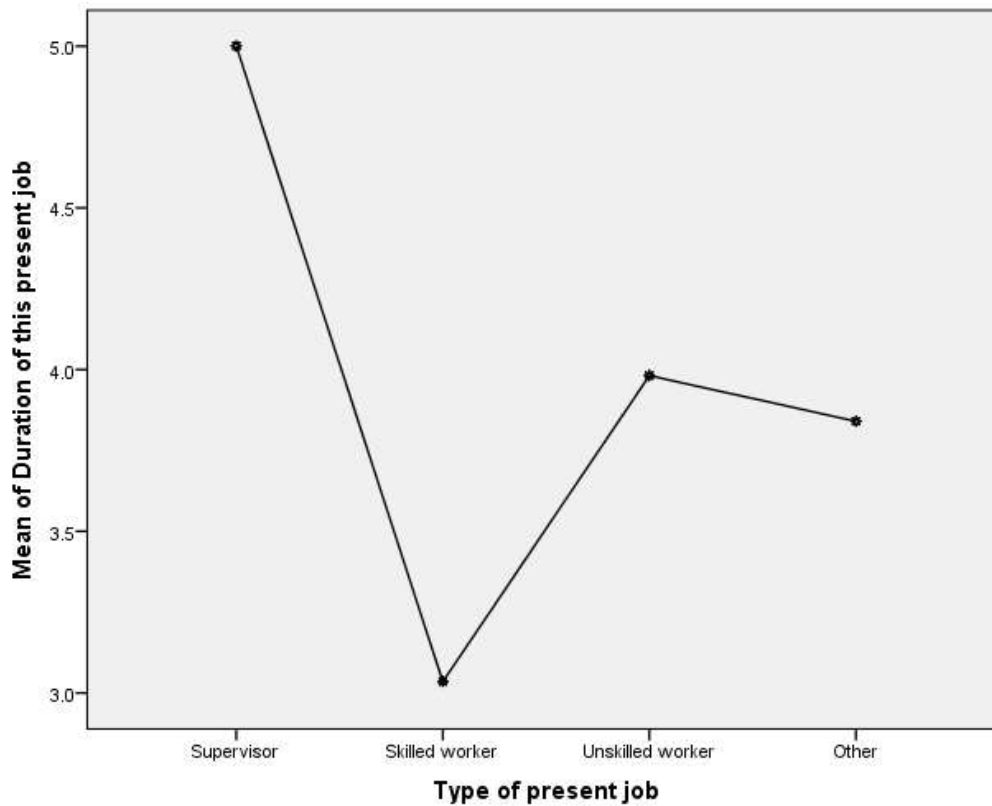


Fig: Nature of job vs. migration of job

Unskilled workers, compared to the skilled workers, would likely to stick in a job for a longer period. This may be due to the reason that skilled workers always look for a better job with better remuneration. Whereas, unskilled workers tend to stick to the current job due to the uncertainty of whether they will get another job, if they loose this job.

2.53. Location of family vs. № of school dropout children in the family

t-test

Staying with the family	N	Mean № of Dropped out Children	Std. Deviation	Test Result
1) Only myself staying at the migrated destination	675	3.56	.801	t = 2.722
2) Staying along with my family at the migrated destination	280	3.71	.778	p = .007

School dropout was found to be prevalent in many of the migrant families. Whether migrating the whole family results in more school dropouts was explored. Results indicated significant difference in the № of school dropout children between the migrant families staying at the destination and staying in their native place. № of school dropout children seems to be significantly more in the families staying at the destination along with the migrant workers, compared to families staying in their native place. Since most of the migrant workers were from the north and northeast states, the language issue could be one of the reasons for non-school-going children in the families staying in the destination states. Also, the migrant worker cannot stay for a long period as he has to look for another job when the work at the present site is completed.

2.54. Impact of household income on the children's education

Correlation

IV		Household monthly income
No. of dropped out children	Pearson Correlation	-.197**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	955

Inadequate household income is one of the significant reasons for school dropouts was well established in various studies. Results of this survey also corroborate this. Results show a significant and inverse association between household income and № of school dropout children in the family [t=197, p = .000 < .05]. This implies that more № of children tend to dropout from school in low-income families.

2.55. Age vs. Mental health problems of migrant workers

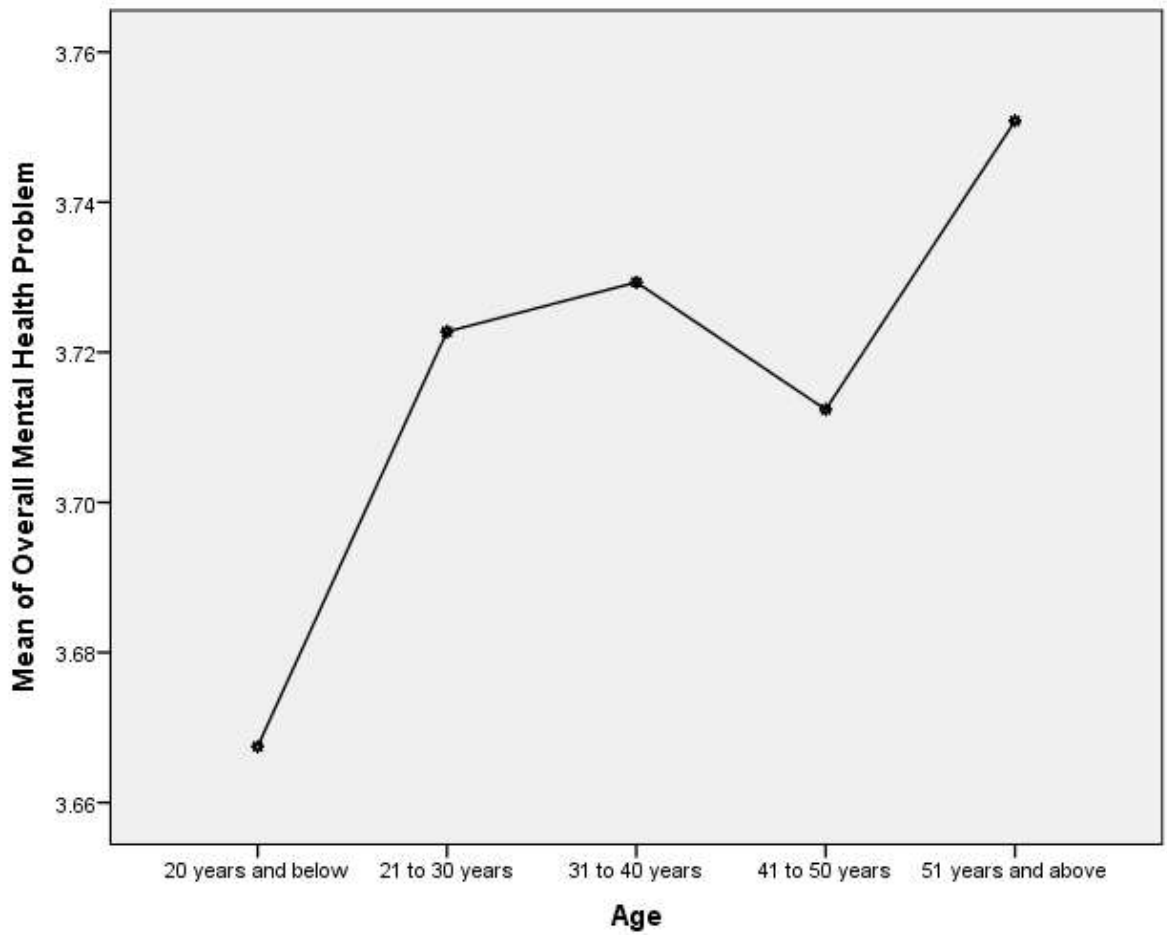


Fig: Age vs. perceived level of mental health issues

Data shows that the perceived mental health problems aggravate with age. Older migrant workers would likely to have severe mental health issues than compared to younger migrant workers.

Chapter 3: Key Findings & Conclusion

Demography of the respondent migrant workers

Extreme difference in socioeconomic status induces migration of people in search of economic reasons. National Sample Survey (NSS) and the India Human Development Survey (IHDS) report that mostly, migrant workers are from rural areas, economically poor sections of the society and belong to lower social classes viz. Scheduled Caste (SC), Scheduled Tribes (ST), or other Backward Classes (OBC) (Shahare, 2020).

- Mostly, the interstate migrant workers in the **destination** states were from Bihar, West Bengal, Odisha, Manipur, Uttar Pradesh and Assam states.
- About 79 per cent of the migrants were from rural areas.
- The mean age of the respondent migrant workers was 30.47 (± 7.79) years. Majority of the respondents were between 21 and 40 years of age.
- More than 77 per cent were married.
- More than one-fourth of the interstate migrant workers were illiterates. More than half of the respondents had high school or below level of education.
- At least one member is illiterate in about 55.0 per cent of the migrant worker households.
- None of the members was a graduate in 97.2 per cent of the migrant workers family.
- About 21.0 per cent of the families had at least one school dropout.
- More than 45.0 per cent of the migrant household families had unemployed adults.
- Most (70.4%) of the migrant workers' household monthly average income ranged from INR.10,001 to 20,000.
- More than 75 per cent of the respondents were in farming and cultivation activities before the migration.

Migration

Reasons for migration varies. But the foremost reason – the push factors of migration were better income and poverty. No of members / dependents and No of earning members in the family are also associated with migration. More the number of members or dependents or less the No of earning members in the family, more will be the need for family income which results in migration.

- Better employment and income and the consequent poverty was the foremost reason (64.4%) for migration – main push factors.
- More than 55 per cent of the inter-state migrant respondents were in the age group of 19 to 25 years.

- More than one-third of the respondents had **migrated** to more than one destination in search of job.
- Most (35%) of the respondent migrant workers were in the current location for about one year. Nearly 37 per cent were staying for more than 5 years.
- Most (64.0%) of the migrant workers visit their home once in a year.
- Peers were the main source of information regarding choosing the destination and seeking / assisting for a job.
- More than one person was an interstate migrant in about one-third of the migrant workers' families.

The income, the interstate migrant workers earn at the destination may be significantly higher than what they were able to earn at their native (origin) state (Mishra and Pandey, 2011), but they work for longer hours and encounter many challenges and discriminations at the destination.

- The main **sectors of employment** in the destination locations were construction, production units, and garment industries.
- Majority of them were employed as unskilled labourers on daily wage basis.
- Income earning at the destination was significantly higher than what they can earn at their native places. (pull factor)
- About one-fourth (25.0%) of the migrant workers send back home more than 75 per cent of what they earn at the destination. (pull factor)

Migrant Workers' Rights – Awareness and Adherence

Interstate migrant workers in India are mostly illiterate or have very few years of education and they mainly migrated due to economic reasons. They are not aware of the protection measures or legal entitlements guaranteed by laws. Their ignorance, helplessness, lack of bargaining power, fear of losing the job/income, etc. lead to exploitation of these poor illiterate migrant workers. Violations of human rights, various labour laws, interstate migrant laws, are highly prevalent. The most obvious violations were, wage parity, illegal deduction from the salary, more working hours, non-payment of compensation, absence of basic amenities, viz. water, shelter, toilets, etc. Majority of the interstate migrant workers live in unauthorised spaces with just something to protect from the sun and rain. Evidences have been reported that poor working and living condition make the migrant workers prone to a number of diseases. In addition to all these, migrant workers are stigmatized and perceived to be a threat by the local workforce.

- Overwhelming majority of the migrant workers were not aware of at least one **labour law** and protective measures. If at all, level of awareness was very low.
- Majority of the migrant workers had not availed their various legal entitlements.
- Accommodation was not provided by the employers of 85.4 per cent of the migrant workers.
- About one-third (32.9%) of the migrant workers were not provided with proper toilet facilities.
- Provision for safe drinking water was not available for 18.2 per cent of the migrant workers.
- About 70 per cent of the migrant workers did not have access to medical care.

- More than 80 per cent of the migrant workers were not given any training prior to engaging into job.
- More than 50% of the workers did not receive their wages in the specified time.
- More than 50 per cent of the migrant workers were forced to work for more than eight hours.
- Availability of weekly holidays was not regular.
- Most of the migrant workers were affected by work-related health problems.
- In most cases, compensation for injury during the job was not given to the migrant workers.
- Harassment by local workers was reported – though not much.
- Interestingly migrant service centres and NGOs’ role was very low.

Impact of Migration

- The migrant workers are under severe depression, anxiety, and stress at the destination. Mean scores indicate that stress was higher (3.84), followed by Depression (3.75), and anxiety (3.62).
- Though all the migrant workers reported poor mental health, those who live alone at the destination without their family reported higher levels of depression, anxiety, and stress compared to those migrant workers who live with their family at the destination.
- Overall perceived quality of life of inter-state migrant workers was very low. Major issues were mental and physical health problems, work-life balance, uncertainty of future.
- Mental health problems viz. stress, depression, and anxiety were higher among the migrant workers.

Findings of Inferential Analysis:

- Awareness promotion for the interstate migrant workers significantly motivates to access their rightful entitlements.
- No linear relationship was found between educational level and income. Migrant workers with school-level education were earning better than the undergraduates and illiterate migrant workers at the destination.
- Those who migrated during their early ages tend to secure jobs with better income.
- Male migrant workers earn higher compared to their female counterparts.
- Migrant workers, who were unable to secure adequate monetary benefit tend to move multiple destinations in search of job and better salary.
- Less educated are likely to move to multiple locations seeking better jobs and better income.
- No of school dropout children was higher in the families that are staying at the destination with the migrant worker, compared to families staying in their native places.
- Low-income households had more school dropout children.
- School dropout rate is higher in the families where the migrant worker is at the destination and his family at the native place (origin).

- Mental health issues were severe among the migrants who alone live than those who live with their parents at the destination.
- The perceived mental health problems aggravate with age. Older migrant workers would likely to have severe mental health issues than compared to younger migrant workers.
- Migrant workers with more household income eventually were more satisfied with their quality of life.

Conclusion

Decent life and better living are the very minimum basic rights for all human beings. All forms of discrimination at all levels, whatever may be the reasons, should be checked and corrected. Migration is seen as the impact of disparity/discrimination/inequality in planning, allocation of resources, and development between people or locations (U.N., ESCAP, 1991, 1-12). The inter-relationship between development disparities and migration has been well-established. According to Lee's theory (1965), higher the level of regional disparities, greater will be the volume of migration. Hence, mitigation of disparity in development plans, addressing the needs of the origin locations, and protecting the rights of the migrant workers are the key issues to be addressed.

The government has taken much initiatives to protect the rights of the interstate migrant workers through various laws, rules, regulations etc. However, implementation or adherence to these legal protective measures by the duty-bearers is always under criticism. Adherence by the duty-bearers to the various legal provisions is very minimum. The duty-bearers, particularly the employers, contractors, and other stakeholders always look for every possible way to by-pass these legal provisions. The COVID exposed the awful exploitative status of the interstate migrant workers in India and the inhuman indifference by the duty-bearers, violation of even fundamental human rights, which emphasizes the urgency for the government to take effective initiatives for the betterment of the migrant workers. Implementation of the provisions of the laws is neither effective nor there is any dedicated system to monitor and enforce the laws. Government should ensure the adherence of laws – if not, just enacting numerous laws itself is meaningless.

Since the major sources of information and guidance are peers and middlemen/contractors, the possibility of exploitation is higher. Response showed the impact of NGOs is very minimum. Either the migrant workers were not aware of such organizations that help them or the NGOs have not taken up this issue seriously. NGOs can address these migrant workers both at the source and at the destination and ensure safe migration.

Difficult procedures in the portability of entitlements (e.g.: ration card), preferential norms in educational institutions, and domicile requirements for state government jobs (Kone *et al* World Bank Report), are the major challenges for the interstate migrant workers in accessing their rights, which lead to their invisibility, vulnerability, and exploitation.

On the other side, knowledge and awareness of the rights-holders, about their rights and entitlements decreed by various laws is also very low. Further, their weaker bargaining position is taken as an advantage by the duty-bearers. As the work force of interstate migrant labourers is much more, the

employers take the upper hand. The rights-holders, in this context, the interstate migrants, do not have the capacity or support to demand their rightful entitlements.

Though better income, better financial contribution back to home are few positive benefits of migrating for work, it is not without the negative impacts. The major negative impacts were, poor mental and physical health, viz. depression, anxiety, stress, injuries, lack of health care, exploitation by the duty-bearers, sense of uncertainty, etc. School dropout rate is also higher among the migrant workers' families.

Non-profit organizations have a major role in educating the poor, vulnerable, and weak interstate migrant workers about the legal provisions, protections, enshrined by the government through various laws and regulations. Also, should take effort to advocate towards adherence of the various laws, securing such entitlements and protection from violation by the duty-bearers to the rights holders.

Investing and empowering the migrant workforce, with 65 per cent of which is below 35 years of age is crucial towards “Atma Nirbhar Bharat” (self-reliant India) – will contribute towards achieving the SDG.

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