5. ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

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

This sample collected was from both urban, semi-urban and rural regions of Thrissur district. The period of this collection of data from December 2011 to May 2012. A well structured questionnaire was prepared and each respondent was met personally by this investigator. The following analysis is made of the study area.

The results of study on “Impact of replacement migration on wages and employment on construction sector in Kerala” are discussed and presented in the following heads.
5.1 BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF THE RESPONDENTS

5.1.1 Profile of the migrant workers
5.1.2 Age composition of workers
5.1.3 Educational status of the respondents
5.1.4 Classification of workers by religion
5.1.5 Classification of respondents by community
5.1.6 Type of family of the respondents
5.1.7 Size of the family
5.1.8 Marital status of the respondents

5.2 WORK PROFILE OF THE MIGRANT WORKERS

5.2.1 Type of work
5.2.2 Work status
5.2.3 Nature of work
5.2.4 Nature of labour contracting
5.2.5 Activity wise distribution of workers in various occupations in the construction sector of study area
5.2.6 Duration of work
5.2.7 Duration of stay
5.2.8 Mode of transport to working place
5.2.9 Mode of payment
5.2.10 Income earned by the respondents
5.2.11 Motivational factors of migration
5.2.12 Source of information
5.2.13 Visiting native places by the respondents

5.3 EXPENDITURE PATTERN OF THE RESPONDENTS

5.3.1 Nature of savings
5.3.2 Indebtedness of migrant workers
5.3.3 Asset position of respondents
5.3.4 Family expenditure and amount of remittance of the respondents

5.4 PROSPECTS AND PROBLEMS FACED BY THE RESPONDENTS

5.4.1 Facilities provided by the employers in the present living area
5.4.2 Additional benefits provided by the employers
5.4.3 Benefits of migration
5.4.4 Workers possessing health card
5.4.5 Type of Stay
5.4.6 Form of spending the leisure time
5.4.7 Responses of the migrant workers for their satisfaction of job
5.4.8 Responses about the extent of satisfaction with the present job
5.4.9 Status before migration
5.4.10 Problems faced by the respondents
5.4.11 Future plans

5.5 CONSEQUENCES OF MIGRATION
5.1 BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF THE RESPONDENTS

5.1.1 Profile of the migrant workers

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

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

The profile of the present study which was carried out on these workers are given in Table 5.1
Analysis of the Data

Table 5.1
PROFILE OF WORKERS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>From which state the workers migrated to Kerala</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bengal</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>52.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bihar</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Odissa</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uttar Pradesh</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tamil Nadu</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey  \[ r^2 = 0.1799 \]

In this investigation, the first thing was to know the native place of the migrant labour. As displayed in Table 5.1 large number (52.5 per cent) were from the state of Bengal followed by 35 percent from Bihar. About 5 percent of the sample migrants were from Odissa, rest of 4.5 percent from Uttar Pradesh, 3 percent from Tamil Nadu. On the whole it can be concluded that the majority of the migrant labourers were from Bengal and Bihar. To analyse state wise influence on wages, employment and nature of work regression analysis was applied. \[ r^2 = 0.1799 \], which reveals that only 17.99 percent relationship is between state wise migration and nature of work. The remaining 82.01 percent was influenced by other variables. It implies that there is no importance for the state wise migration. The contractors are interested to get the workers
whenever they are in need and they are not bothered about the place of origin of these workers.

**Fig. 5.1**

**PROFILE OF WORKERS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Workers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bengal</td>
<td>52.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bihar</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Odissa</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uttar Pradesh</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tamil Nadu</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.1.2 Age composition of workers

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

Table 5.2 shows the observed distribution of workers in construction sector by different age group.
Analysis of the Data

Table 5.2

AGE WISE CLASSIFICATION OF WORKERS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 20</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-40</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-50</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 50</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey

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

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

relatively young and they belonged to the age group of less than 30-44 years. The migrants from rural areas were younger than those from urban areas.

5.1.3 Educational status of the respondents

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

Table 5.3 shows educational status of the respondents.

Table 5.3
EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF THE RESPONDENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational Level</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Illiterate</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary incomplete</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary completed</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey

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

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

Table 5.4
CLASSIFICATION OF WORKERS BY RELIGION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Religion</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hindu</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>51.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muslim</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey

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

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

5.1.5 Classification of respondents by community

Occupational relations in Indian villages have been traditionally determined by caste. Members of higher castes generally owned land and controlled the production and distribution of food and allocation of services, while those of lower castes were primarily tenants of agricultural labourers
Analysis of the Data

rendering services to the members of higher castes (Kiass, 1980). The ritual hierarchy is based on land ownership and allocation of work in agriculture (Srinivasan, 1969). It has been suggested by some scholars (Betille, 1967) that an important pre-requisite for rural and agricultural development in India is the transformation of its “closed” agrarian structure determined by caste “open” system differentiated from the caste structure. However, a review of studies conducted in different regions of India (Sundari, 1991) confirmed that caste consideration continues to influence labour force participation (Rudhra, 1981; Moorthi, 1978) also in hiring agricultural labourers (Neale, 1972; Reddy 1978).

The distribution of workers among different communities is given in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5
CLASSIFICATION OF WORKERS BY COMMUNITY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Community</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Other backward caste</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>54.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scheduled caste</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scheduled tribe</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey

As it is well known, India is a country with many castes, creeds, religion, languages etc. from time immemorial that multiplicity had been the
Analysis of the Data

backbone of Indian society. In the current study, 54.5 per cent workers were belonged to other back ward castes. 36 per cent were scheduled caste workers and 9 per cent were in the category of scheduled tribe. Similar observations were exhibited by Jetley (1987) in “Impact of male migration on rural females” that male migrants in the sample area were mainly from two castes—peasant castes (58.7 percent) and low castes (38.1 percent) traditionally held untouchables (but referred to as “harijans” and listed in the Indian constitution as caste scheduled for special protection). The remaining few were from other castes.

5.1.6 TYPE OF FAMILY OF THE RESPONDENTS

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of family</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Joint</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>71.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nuclear</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>28.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey

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

Family size is an important factor which influences one’s standard of living. The average size of family in India is 5.6 (Census, 2001). The size of the household plays an important role in determining the employments in which people try to find employment somewhere even for lower wages. It is therefore essential to understand the family size of the workers.

The size of the family of the respondents covered in the study area are given in Table 5.7.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Size of family (no.of family members)</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>25.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 10</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey

It is evident from the table that 68 percent workers had the family size of 5-10 members. The family size of 25.5 percent workers was 1-5. Only 6.5 percent had the members more than 10. In the current study, 93.5 percent of workers came from medium size family, thus it can be said that when the size
Analysis of the Data

of family is big, income of the male members is not found to be sufficient and women are forced to work in the labour market.

5.1.8 Marital status of the respondents

The marital status of the workers was examined by the researcher for the purpose of analysing socio-economic conditions. Most of the migrated workers were married (Bal 2005, Neetha, 2004).

The details of all the respondents covered in the study by their marital status are given in the Table 5.8.

Table 5.8
CLASSIFICATION OF WORKERS BY MARITAL STATUS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>59.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>40.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey

Of the total labour force 59.5 per cent were unmarried. 40.5 per cent workers were married.
5.2 WORK PROFILE OF THE MIGRANT WORKERS

5.2.1 Type of work

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

The details of the nature of work carried out by workers is given in Table 5.9.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of work</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Permanent</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporary</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>38.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casual</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey

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

**Fig. 5.2**

**TYPE OF WORK**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Permanent</td>
<td>56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporary</td>
<td>38.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casual</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**5.2.2 WORK STATUS**

The following section explicitly focuses on those workers whose status of work after migration. These workers are divided into three categories: contact labourers, self-employed and others.
Table 5.10

WORK STATUS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contract labourers</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-employed</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>200</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey

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

5.2.3 NATURE OF WORK

To a large extent, employment in the building industry is seasonal with a clear division of work phases and labour. Every specific work, such as lifting of weight, excavation, concreting, wood work, steel bending, concrete mixing, scaffolding, plastering, plumbing, white washing etc. are carried out by different groups of skilled and unskilled workers. Activities involved in the building industry suggests the complexity of the work. The nature and the
different time points at which these jobs need to be completed make the labour market for this industry more segmented with the unskilled category being more vulnerable to higher exploitation (Das, 1992). The Table 5.11 reveals the nature of work of the migrant workers.

Table 5.11

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nature of work</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Skilled/Semi-skilled</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>79.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>workers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unskilled workers</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey $\chi^2=5.904$ $t=5.991$

$H_0$: Employment status and nature of work are independent.

The researcher in her study reveals that 79.5 percent workers were claimed that they were very skilled or semi-skilled workers in the construction industry. Only 20.5 percent were admitted that they were not highly skilled workers in this sector. To analyse was there any influence on employment status and nature of work, chi-square test was carried out. The results obtained are given in below the Table 5.11. At 5 percent level of significance the table value is 5.99, which is greater than computed valued (5.904). So we accept our null hypothesis. That is employment status and nature of work are independent.
It implies that these workers were dependent on the wages of the work, not the nature of employment.

5.2.4 NATURE OF LABOUR CONTRACTING

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

Table 5.12

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nature of labour contracting</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tools and materials provided</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily wage provided</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wage on piece work</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey  \( r=0.786 \)  \( r^2=0.617 \)

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

To know the relationship between type of work and nature of labour contracting the correlation analysis was carried out. The results indicate that there is high degree of correlation between type of work and nature of labour contracting. In other words, $r^2=0.617$. It reveals that 61.77% relationship is between these variables. The remaining 38.22 percent was influenced by other variables.

**Fig. 5.3**

**NATURE OF LABOUR CONTRACTING**

![Bar Chart](chart.png)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tools and materials provided</th>
<th>Daily wage provided</th>
<th>Wage on piece work provided</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>86</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.2.5 ACTIVITY WISE DISTRIBUTION OF WORKERS IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS IN THE CONSTRUCTION INDUSTRY OF STUDY AREA

The nature of building construction activity itself being a manifestation of different kinds of tasks at different phases, makes contractual relationships more legitimate and profitable. This makes the enterprises a highly fragmented system to a large extent, employment in the building industry is seasonal with a clear division of work-phases and labour. Given the types of jobs required to be performed at building sites, we may now take a look at the other actors in this industry. These mainly include independent masons (known as maistries in most parts of South India) and building contractors.
Table 5.13
ACTIVITY WISE DISTRIBUTION OF WORKERS IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS IN THE CONSTRUCTION INDUSTRY OF CENTRAL KERALA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Worker types/Skilled &amp; semi-skilled workers</th>
<th>Percentage of total work force</th>
<th>Worker types/Skilled &amp; semi-skilled workers</th>
<th>Percentage of total work force</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sand blast operator</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>Centering worker</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carpenter</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>Steel bender</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plastering operator</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>Concrete mixer</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mason</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>Bricks layer</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tiles fitter</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>Glass fitter</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Painter</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>Scaffolder</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plumber</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>Sub Total</td>
<td>36.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cement finisher</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>Worker types/Unskilled workers</td>
<td>Percentage of total work force</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glazier</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>Weight lifter</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrician</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>Dust lifter</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pipe fitter</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>Digging worker</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Machine operator</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>Watchman</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White washer</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>Waterman</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub Total</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>Sub Total</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

5.2.6 DURATION OF WORK

Duration of work of the respondents is given in Table 5.14.

Table 5.14
DURATION OF WORK

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duration of work(in hours)</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8hrs</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>29.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10hrs</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>44.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 10hrs</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey
Analysis of the Data

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

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

5.2.7 Duration of stay

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

Table 5.15

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DURATION OF STAY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Years</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey

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

5.2.8 MODE OF TRANSPORT TO WORKING PLACE

The Table 5.16 reveals the mode of transport to working place of the migrant workers in the study area.

Table 5.16

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode of transport to working place</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bus</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>29.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Living in the working area Bus</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By foot</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>24.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contractors vehicles</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey

The mode of transport to working place of the migrant workers tell us that 29.5 percent were reached the working area by bus, 28 percent were staying in temporary shelters of the work site itself, 24.5 percent by foot, and for the remaining 18 percent they had contractors vehicles to reach the working area.

5.2.9 MODE OF PAYMENT

The rate of wages paid to the different types of construction workers and consequently their earnings from this sector depend on a multitude of factors that include (i) the instability of demand and fluctuation in the market; (ii) segmented groups of different labour types, (iii) seasonal nature of employment; (iv) invisibility of principal employer-employee relations; (v)
Analysis of the Data

unregulated nature of the contractual relations; (vi) the control and dominance of labour contractors in the supply of labour; (vii) vulnerability of the worker caused by his economic conditions; and (viii) seasonal availability of employment and workers mobility between sectors or areas etc.

Table 5.17

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode of payment</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Daily</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekly</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monthly</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Half yearly</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When they visit home</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey

Table 5.17 reveals that 46 percent workers had weekly payment. 18 percent workers had payment only two times in a year. 11 percent had monthly wages. 16 percent workers were acknowledged that they were getting their payment when they have visited their home. Only 9 percent workers had daily payment, most of them were self-employed and very skilled workers.

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

5.2.10 Income earned by the respondents

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

The earnings of the respondents from their employment are given in Table 5.18 and Figure 5.4
Table 5.18
CLASSIFICATION OF WORKERS BY PAST AND PRESENT MONTHLY INCOME FROM EMPLOYMENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Monthly income</th>
<th>Before</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>After</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1000-5000</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5000-10000</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10000-15000</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15000&amp;above</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey \( \chi^2 = 182.36 \quad t = 9.488 \)

\( H_0 \): Migration status and income are independent.

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

The respondents were asked to state the monthly wages which they get from their job. The majority of the migrant workmen were placed to the monthly income group of Rs.600 to Rs. 800 and some are in the income group
Analysis of the Data

of Rs.800 to Rs.1000 per month whereas very small percentage of the migrant workmen were grouped in the income slab of Rs.400 to Rs.600 (Cherunilam 1992).

To analyse migration influence on income structure chi-square test was carried out. At 0.05 level of significance the table value is 9.488, which is smaller than computed value \( (x^2=182.36) \). So we reject our null hypothesis. That is migration status and income are dependent. Workers are migrated to Kerala because of higher wages and higher income. That had helped them to lead good standard of living in their native place.

\[ \text{Fig. 5.4} \]

CLASSIFICATION OF WORKERS BY PAST AND PRESENT MONTHLY INCOME FROM EMPLOYMENT

![Bar Chart]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Income Range</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Present</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1000-5000</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5000-10000</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10000-15000</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15000&amp;above</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

111
5.2.11 MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS OF MIGRATION

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

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

The major factors according to them for their migration are shown in Table 5.19.
Table 5.19

MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS OF MIGRATION

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

Source: Field survey

Factors which forced the migrant workers to leave their native places for destination state and the factor which attracts the migrant workers to the migrant state are closely correlative with motivational aspect. The factors which have forced the migrant workers to leave the native place for the migrant place could be easily identifiable as per the responses of the workers. However, since the construction workers in the cities are often migrants it would be pertinent to inquire into the factors that motivate them to migrate. Enquiries at various sites revealed that people had left their native village for working in
Analysis of the Data

this sectors mainly owing to lack of income, job opportunities and indebtedness prevalent in those areas. The chief factors which were instrumental to attracting the migrant workers to the destination state have been identified by the workers as follows.

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

Fig. 5.5

MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS OF MIGRATION

- I moved out of place of origin to get rid of the debt
- Lack of job opportunities compelled me to migrate
- Poor economic condition of family forced me to migrate
- I was attracted to this place due to better job opportunities
- I was called by my friends in Kerala
- Comparatively higher wages in Kerala attracted me
5.2.12 Source of information for migration

Migrant workers are forced to have a substantial role in the decision to migrate. In the absence of employment opportunities for male members, women are forced to migrate to support the family and children.

The Table 5.20 and Figure reveals the source of information for migration for migrant workers.

**Table 5.20**

SOURCE OF INFORMATION FOR MIGRATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sources of information</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Relatives</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contractors</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>17.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Own will</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spouse</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey
The data on major agents of the migration of the migrants revealed that majority of respondents (52 percent) came to the study area with the help of their relatives while 21 percent were helped by their friends. However, 8.5 percent of the respondents came to Kerala with their own efforts generated largely by their needs. The responses of the workers clearly indicated that the migrant workers from time to time have lured by the contractors (17.5 percent) whereas 1 percent workers reached the place on their spouse advice. Thus, it indicates that relatives were the major force of migration.

Cherunilam (1987) made an attempt to study about “Motivational aspect of migration”. In the study large numbers of the workers migrated by the persuasion through intermediaries (agent contractors). The responses of the workers (125: 62.5 percent), employers (5: 41.6 percent), contractors (7: 46.6 percent) and the inspectors (4: 66.6 percent) clearly indicated that the migrant workers were adopted by the agent, contractors. However some percentage of the workers migrated by the persuasion of villagers: workers (45: 22.5 percent), employers, (2: 16.6 percent) contractors (3: 20 percent). Fifteen percent workers reached the study area by their own will.
5.2.13 Visiting native places by the respondents

Most of the workers have been brought up in rural natural surroundings, where contact is retained with the village, there is usually some kind of home to fall back upon in case of need and emergency. The Royal Commission on Labour has in this connection rightly observed “In sickness and in maternity, in strikes and lockouts, in unemployment and old age, the village home is a refuge for many and the fact that it exists, affords, a sense of security, even when it is required.” Thus the village homes provide a shelter where the workers get into difficulties owing to illness, epidemics, strikes, disability, old age or unemployment.
Table 5.21 exhibits the frequency of visit made by the migrated workers.

### TABLE 5.21

VISITING NATIVE PLACES BY THE RESPONDENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Visiting native places by the respondents</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Once a year</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twice a year</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than thrice</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than that</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey

56 percent workers report that they have visited their family at least once in a year. 37 percent and 5.5 percent had visited their native place twice in a year and more than thrice a year respectively. Researcher found all the migrants did visit their native place at least once during their stay. “Impact of male migration on rural females” by Jetley (1987) has analysed about the visit of the migrant workers in their native place. In that study he found that in the initial years of struggle in the city, a migrant does casual work and thus going home means the loss of daily wage. It is only when they obtained regular work that the migrants start visiting the family, at least once in a year. Those whose employment is not secure come more frequently but stay for shorter periods. To attend funeral of close relatives, litigation with a neighbour, attend the social ceremony necessitate an emergency visit. Similar situation was found in the current study also.
5.3 EXPENDITURE PATTERN OF THE RESPONDENTS

5.3.1 Nature of savings

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

The details on the mode of savings is given in table 5.22

Table 5.22

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode of savings</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bank</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local chit funds/money lenders</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chiti funds</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post office</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No savings</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey

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

5.3.2 Indebtedness of migrant workers

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Debt</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey

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

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ownership of house</th>
<th>Before</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>After</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Own</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rented</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No house</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of house</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thatched</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tiled</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terraced</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Consumer durables</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Radio</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>40.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Television</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fan</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stove/Gas</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sewing machine</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bicycle</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motorcycle</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey
Analysis of the Data

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

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

5.3.4 FAMILY EXPENDITURE AND AMOUNT OF REMITTANCE OF RESPONDENTS

Remittances from migrants comprise a significant share of the total household income and expenditure. The proportion of remittances to total household income is about 50 percent. The average household income of long term migrants is generally higher than short term migrants, since the long term migrants have better wages, regular employment opportunities. Moreover, migrants from the same households pool their savings and sent them back to their relatives at home (Paris, Singh et al, 2005).
Family expenditure and remittances of respondents are shown in Table 5.25.

Table 5.25
FAMILY EXPENDITURE AND AMOUNT OF REMITTANCE OF RESPONDENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expenditure items</th>
<th>Disbursement of remittances (percent)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Food</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>House rent</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social obligation</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clothing</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recreation</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Debt payment</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asset purchase</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicine</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average monthly income</td>
<td>3213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average amount of remittances</td>
<td>1671</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of remittances</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey
In general, remittances help their families left behind to sustain food security (17 percent), house rent (15 percent), meet expenses on education (11 percent), social and religious obligations (12 percent) were also large expenditure. Most of the migrant households (6 percent) spent their remittance for asset accumulation. However, while remittances provide a significant source of income for the migrant households, the impact of migration depends on the size and use of remittances. Migrants in general sent their remittances through banks, trusted friends or by other family members according to the need of the household. Some of the migrants saved some part of their income at their working or native places. Despite the earnings from remittances, less than 50 percent were sent to their families as they had to spend for their accommodation, food and other personal expenses in the work place.
The complexity and wide range of impact of remittances in rural areas has been illustrated in a study carried out in Philippines which showed that: a) for some families, remittances were a survival strategy that ensures subsistence but did not lead to a significant improvement in living standards., b) for other families, remittances were a means which were invested in agriculture or in their children’s education, and c) relatively better-off families use remittances to invest in productive activities through purchasing agricultural land and growing cash crops (Trager, 1984).

5.4 PROSPECTS AND PROBLEMS FACED BY THE RESPONDENTS
5.4.1 FACILITIES PROVIDED BY THE EMPLOYER IN THE PRESENT LIVING AREA

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Facilities provided by the employers</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Light</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pipe water &amp; Water facility</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kitchen</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bath room</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toilet</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Washing Place</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

5.4.2 ADDITIONAL BENEFITS PROVIDED BY THE EMPLOYERS

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

**TABLE 5.27**

**ADDITIONAL BENEFITS PROVIDED BY THE EMPLOYERS**

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

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

5.4.3 Benefits of migration

The migrant workers were asked to give merits of migratory work. The Table 5.28 indicates the level of the individual job satisfaction of the respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benefits of migration</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Helped in repaying debt</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improved standard of living</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>23.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To buy assets</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To meet emergencies</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Better status in family</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gained knowledge</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gained confidence</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Mehtha (1979) critically analysed the “Motivational aspect of migration”. In that study he has made a modest attempt to responses of the migrant workmen for their satisfaction of job. There were three types of category namely principle employer, contractor, migrated workmen and inspectors. The study revealed that the migrant work man felt extensively satisfied with the job, they were engaged in at the migrant working place, because such job give them enough income 125: 62.5 percent), they are liking with the present job, because there is a sense of security of job (25:12.5 percent). The statistical figures states that the majority of the migrant workmen felt satisfied with their job in which they engaged in.

5.4.4 WORKERS POSSESSING HEALTH CARD

The present study also focuses its attention on the consequences of the migration of labour on the local population. Among environmental and
Analysis of the Data

health problems, increase in the number of slums followed by increase in the incidence of AIDS and unhygienic surroundings were the major problems (Singh and Kaur, 2007).

Table 5.29
WORKERS POSSESSING HEALTH CARD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Health card holders</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey

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

5.4.5 TYPE OF STAY

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

#### Table 5.30

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of stay</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contractor’s houses or arranged houses</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With friends</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rent</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>200</strong></td>
<td><strong>200</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey

#### 5.4.6 Form of Spending the Leisure Time

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

#### Table 5.31

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

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

5.4.7 RESPONSES OF THE MIGRANT WORKERS FOR THEIR SATISFACTION OF JOB

The present study focuses its attention on the satisfaction of job of the migrant workers in Kerala. The Table 5.32 reveals the nature of work of the migrant workers.

Table 5.32
RESPONSES OF THE MIGRANT WORKERS FOR THEIR SATISFACTION OF JOB

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Satisfaction of job</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Liking with the job</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>17.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job gives enough income</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>57.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security of job</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congenial atmosphere provided by the colleagues</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Easy nature of job</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey
A critical analysis of the above mentioned table shows that the migrant workmen feel extensively satisfied with the job, they were engaged in at the migrant working place, because such job give them enough income. This is clear from the responses of the migrant workmen(115:57.5 percent) while some migrant workmen feel that they are satisfied with the job, because they have liking with the present job(35:17.5 percent); however there was a sense of security of job as per the responses of the workers(25:12.5 percent).

### 5.4.8 RESPONSES ABOUT THE EXTENT OF SATISFACTION WITH THE PRESENT JOB

The present study also focuses its attention on the extent of satisfaction with the present job of the migrant workers. The details on the extent of satisfaction with the present job is given in table 5.33

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Highly satisfied</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderately satisfied</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfied</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissatisfied</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey
The statistical figures state that the majority of the migrant workmen feel satisfied with their job in which they are engaged in. This is the response of the migrant workmen (124:62 percent). However, some significant population of the respondent workers state that they were dissatisfied with the job they hold (10:5 percent). The reasons for dissatisfaction when probed into could be in the form of disliking for the nature of the job, the job is not respectful, the job is less remunerative, and insecurity of the job because of its non-substantiative nature.

5.4. 9 STATUS BEFORE MIGRATION

Zacharia and Gopinathan Nair (2001) made an attempt to study on ‘Return Emigrants in Kerala-Rehabilitation problems and development Potential’. In this study they revealed that return emigrants had been in general engaged in casual jobs or in self-employment before emigration. About 42 percent had been engaged in casual employment and 17 percent in self-employment. Only 18.5 percent had been engaged in any regular employment. One surprising factor is that, among the return emigrants only 13 percent had been unemployed at the time of emigration.
Table 5.34

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status before migration</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Farmer</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wage earner</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporary workers</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jobless</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey

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

5.4.10 PROBLEMS FACED BY THE RESPONDENTS

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

There are positive and negative effects of migration. The problems faced by the respondents are given in the following Table 5.35
Table 5.35

PROBLEMS FACED BY THE RESPONDENTS

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

Source: Field survey

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

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

Fig. 5.8

PROBLEMS FACED BY THE RESPONDENTS

![Bar chart showing problems faced by respondents]

Legend:
- Strongly agree
- Agree
- Neutral
- Disagree
- Strongly disagree

136
5.4.11 FUTURE PLANS

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Future plans</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Permanent return to village</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not know</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bring family to migrant place</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missed system</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey

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

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

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

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

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