CHAPTER – 1

INTRODUCTION

Human beings are constantly on move. Migration in the present contexts is studied as the phenomena of the flow of people over shorter or longer destinations either for temporary or permanent settlement. Labour migration may be defined as a form of labour mobility towards districts or states or outside where work in available.

In the absence of a detailed study on brick kiln migrant labour in Haryana. The present work is an attempt to understand the vital streams of migration, the socio-economic conditions of the migrant labour, the plight of the persisting problems being faced by the migrant labour. The nature of hiring, working conditions, indebtedness, forced labour etc. were analysed keeping in mind the underlying reasons of migration and it socio-economic sequel.

The pull of social and economic changes in rural India has been rapid during the past two to three decades. This is generally attributed to such factors as the implementation of Land reforms, introduction of a package of high-yielding technology and several socio-economic welfare and development measures. During the last two decades, it has been explained in various forms of globalization and economic reforms. In deed, studies of rural change in India particularly migration related studies tended of focus on contexts of several economic impetuses. The findings of such studies, have tended to project moderate to radical changes in the economic, social or cultural life of the people and their institutions. The most commonly identified changes have been the erosion of traditional institutions, near disappearance of patron-client relationships, increased tensions conflicts and emergence of individualism and ‘Modern’ patterns of life.
During the British period a number of economic and social changes took place in India. “The establishment and consolidation of British rule brought in greater opportunities of mobility to the people, and while initially the higher castes benefited from them far more than the others, at a later stage the domination peasant castes, minority groups and other succeeded in obtaining access to political power and education, and entered the professions and the bureaucracy. (Srinivas, 1976)

Though there was mobility of people during British period, Indian and to pay a very high price for it. Dutt (1949) stated that East India Company blocked the emergence of an Indian bourgeoisie in the eighteenth and early nineteenth century, by plundering Indian monopolistic merchant capital. The East India Company was not a trading company in the strict sense, it acted more like a new feudal Lord, exploiting the peasants and the Indian merchants alike. By 1813 the supremacy of East India Company in India has been undermined by British manufacturing bourgeois. With this change, India was forcibly transformed into an agricultural colony of British Manufacturing capitalism. Millions of Indian artisans were ruined due to competition from the machine-made wares imparted from abroad.

The imports of machine-made wares and goods especially the cotton textiles continued unabated throughout the nineteenth century. The British Rulers introduced a number of such conservative features that the weak Indian industrial bourgeoisie could not grow and the natural course of development was thwarted. The ruination of Indian traditional production was not accompanied by a simultaneous growth of higher from of industry. In reality this ruination of Indian Industries made the British Industrial revolution a success. For the promotion of British industrial interest, in the first half of the nineteenth century, Britishers introduced modern capitalist enterprises in India, Mainly mining and plantation. After the mid-nineteenth century, new and
‘modern’ enterprises such as, the jute and cotton textile industries, were introduced. In the Jute Industry, British Capital dominated while in cotton textile it was Indian capital which performed the Major role. (Singh, 1990-35, 36)

Other scholars have also stated that in the pre-British era India was the largest producer of cotton goods in the world. The plunder of Indian people and anti-India policies of British East India Company made India, by 1836, the biggest importer of machine-made cotton goods. From 1818 to 1836 the imports of cotton yarn from Britain increased more than five thousand times (Marx, 1853).

India was the exporter of cotton goods, lead and metal to the whole world. By the middle of nineteenth century, British rule made her such an importer country, where great parts of British consumer products were exported. Indian markets were over-flowing with British manufactured goods especially the cotton textiles and this destroyed the artisans in villages and cities. Since no alternative job to the uprooted artisans was available the burden of labour (both men and women) increased on agriculture (Medovoy, 1965).

Though Modern factories were established during the British period after 1860’s, yet these factories were modern from the point of view of capital only. The workers (both males and females) employed in them were not given any modern facility. They were treated as lesser human beings (Singh, 1990-36). After independence, the growth of the economy was envisaged through centralized planning. The blue print for growth was projected in the constitutions of India adopted in 1950. Five-year plans and industrial policy Resolution of 1956. Five-year plans and Industrial policy resolutions emphasized the rapid growth of heavy Industry and simultaneous promotion of small industry so that along with balanced economic growth, social justice
could also be achieved (Singh, 1990-41). Constitution of India provided that there will be no discrimination on the basis of sex. The five-year plans, besides putting up forward the strategy of India’s balanced economic development at a sustained rate of growth, gave special emphasis to the problem of migrant labour vis-à-vis economic development. Besides provisions in various welfare schemes for unorganized labour in the sixth plan a chapter on unorganized labour was inserted. In the eight plans a statement is put. It is recognition of the dignity of labour and a proper understanding of its dimensions and contribution in the Indian context (Swaminathan, 1991)

The thrust areas identified by the draft approach of Eighth plan (1990-95). Included the following:

1. The basic approach would be to unorganized labour by raising their status and bringing them into the mainstream of National development not as a mere beneficiaries but as contributors and partakers along with men.

2. Existing lacunae in the conceptual frame and database will be connect and applied research encouraged for this purpose.

3. Determined steps will be initiated for identification of unorganized labours and their registrations, there by adding to their visibility and acknowledge their contribution.

4. Constraints and hurdles will be removed in order to expand their access to and control over resourced through legal and administrative actions.

5. The criteria and processes for determination of wages and social security will be reviewed and rationalized to provide recognition and equitable return for women’s work of all kinds.
6. Unorganized labour who have been victims of what on the destruction of their fragile survival system will be encouraged to get organized so as to play a leadership role in ecological regeneration.

7. Unorganized labour will be encouraged to mobilize them to join cooperatives, trade unions, associations and other democratic organization with a view to realizing their full potential for development.

The five-year plans have taken the welfare of the unorganized labour on the priority basis along with the establishment of large scale industries spread over May regions in the country. Establishment of large-scale industry again threw open to the unorganized labour (F. Engles – 1948). Viswanathan (1992-93) stated the “popular my theology tells us that during the age of industrialization, unorganized labour at long gained liberation from the confines of the home, entered the organized labour force in large numbers and began to enjoy the economic benefits of modernization and development.”

With the development of large numbers of Modern urban centres throughout the country, rapid system, spread of higher professionals and technological education. India labour force of rich and upper middle classes, especially in urban centre’s and who happen to come mainly from higher castes have benefited the most and they have entered various field and profession which were earlier confined to the domain of men.

**Conceptual Classification**

Migration is more or less permanent movement of people across a boundary on permanent or semi-permanent basis, it may be voluntary or involuntary nature of the act, Lee (1997) did not even distinguish between internal and external migration when a person leaves his native place or village,
comes to an urban and rural setting, takes up a job and starts living there, he is known as a migrant and his move is referred as migration. It is response of human organism to economic, social, political and demographic force in the environment. Migration plays an important role in the distribution of the population of any country and determines the growth of labour force in any area. Migration is thus an important symptom of social change in a society. In recent times, Migration is being accepted as a global phenomenon.

Migration, like fertility and Mortality holds a place of prominence in analysis of population change in any area. Migration is a process of cultural diffusion, social integration and economic development (Chandan, 1986)

According the concept of migration now has much wider dimension then what has been conceptualized conventionally. Now the whole spectrum of migration various from daily communing to some nearby place on the one hand to permanent shift of residence to some distance place on the other beside the since rural migrates. The nature and pattern of migration also various from one to another social groups of migrants.

History of migrant labour in India in big way dates back to colonial period when they were sent to work in British colonial of Fiji, Jamaica, Trinidad, Guyana, Malaya, Sri Lanka, Burma and other British colonial for their rubber, sugarcane, oil plantation, rice cultivation etc. Independent India sends large chunks of labour to Middle East and Gulf countries. In addition to those international migration increasing pressure on land and population growth led people rural and backward areas of the country to migrate in areas / states within the country in search of employment opportunities fast developing sectors like transport, industry, mines, service etc. and metropolitan cities. This intra country migratory labour most of who fall below poverty Line (BPL) category is of concern for administrator, implements and research for varied
reasons. India is concerned for labour interest is reflected in directive principles of state policy (Articles 41 and 42) of the Indian Constitution. No of central Acts and legislation emerged from the directive for safeguard interest of labour applicable to these that of the country however the benefit of these Acts and schemes mostly have not come automatically to all labour’s especially to labour’s of informal sector. A recent adult in this issue is “The unorganized sectors worker’s security scheme” which is to be implemented on plot basis for 25 lakh in worker in 50 districts of the country.

Because of the conventional approach of defining migration, the intensity of migration is generally reported to be very Low in India. The two major sources of data on migration in India are the census and Nation Survey Sample. (N.S.S. 1999)

It covers only permanent or semi-permanent with the seasonal migration party overlapping with the category of shortest duration migration (Srivastava, 1998) However even the definition of permanent or semi-permanent migration adopted in the census and the NSS don’t consider long-term migration.

As a result the coverage of these two data sources has become so restrictive that both of these report show decaling trends of migration over the year, Kundu & Gupta (1996) contrary to this the National Commission on Rural Labour (NCRL, 1991) found increasing tread of seasonal and temporary migrants over the year’s. Besides this many of micro-studies dealing with the issue of migration in the theoretical context report much higher incidence of out migration, particularly in the case of under developed regions (Breman 1978; Ghosh & Sharma 1995).
Migration labour in pre-reforms period played a very important role in the agrarian economic of India. Before focusing on the effect of liberalization, it is important to place migration in perspective.

a. “International Migration” is a term used to refer to change of usual residence between nations. The term ‘immigration’ is used to denote the flow of person’s establishing a usual residence in a given nation. The term ‘Emigration’ in used to denote the flow of persons relinquishing a usual residence in a nation to establish residence in some other nation. Net International Migration means the difference between the numbers of persons emigrate and immigrate that nation in the same period.

b. Internal Migration occurs within the boundaries of a given country at census time as at the data of origin internal migration may be further classified –

i. Inter-state line in a different place but within the same state.

ii. Inter-state line in different state.

c. Migration flows:

i. In migration is comprised of migrants arriving at a particular destination with no reference to the place of origin.

ii. Out migration is comprised of migrants moving from a particular area with no reference to the place of destination. (Borgatta, 2000)

One of the most important problems faced by the developing countries like India today is the rapid growth of population, poverty, scarcity of food materials etc. Because of this people have been facing cultural, political and
economic problems in their daily life and the structure of the society is undergoing drastic changes.

In the context of social change several factors are playing a vital role and population seems to be the major factors. It consists of three components migration, fertility and mortality. Migration is the prime factor which steers the mobility of society. Apart from migration, fertility is also in flouncing social change immensely.

Migration is unknown as the movement of people from one permanent residence to another permanent and temporary residence for a substantial period of time by breaking social and culturalistic. A migrant is a person who changes his normal place of habitation by crossing an administrative boundary, chiefly for economic reasons.

Migration is thus associated with urbanization and Modernization, as well as with development. However, rational individual choice is not the only factor which affects labour migration in India. The second explanation emphasizes the fact that capitalist developments have always needed cheap labour.

The reason for migration is also rooted in subsistence and arises because of the need to supplement in come in order to fill the gaps of seasonal employment. Such communities often migrate for shorter periods and do not ordinarily travel very far from their homes.

By now, system of migration has become regularized and various types of contractual system have emerged. Migrant labourers have not only become an integral part of Haryana economy, but also important constituents of the society. Since the migrant labour is considered an ‘outsider’ in a cultural, linguist and class sense, the focus is always on ‘the migrant as a problem’
rather than the ‘problem of the migrant’ In a state from where pioneers and entrepreneurs have migrated, settled and contributed to the economies of many countries, domestic migrant labourers deserve for better treatment. Migration to Punjab and Haryana occurs from almost all north western states, as well as from states in central and eastern India. Migration occurs from rural to urban areas, as well as between rural areas.

Migration according to the census of India is determined mainly with reference to person’s place of birth. Major factors that operate on the physical mobility of the people include occupational reasons, search for better wages, academic purposes, marriage, natural and manmade calamities and uneven socio-economic development across the country. People migrate in groups of family, kin, caste, village etc. or individually.

Human migration involves changing of the place of aboard permanently or temporarily for an appreciable duration for example as in the cause of seasonal workers. It is used symbolically in the transition from one surrounding to another in the care of human life.

Bhide and Jara Kanithkar (1982) define migrant labour “as a move from one migration defining area to another made during a given migration internal and involving a change residence”

Thus the term ‘migrant labour’ is not only a changers of residence, Journey to work of diffusion of ideas and information, it indicates symptoms of social problem migration a life, fertility and mortality holds a place of prominence in the analysis of population change in any area. Migration is process of cultural diffusion, social integration and economic development. There was, thus, no question of existence of any bonded labour. Seasonal causal labour migration in India has conventionally been understood as the results of extreme poverty where by villages are forced to become migrants for
the dry six month to subsist or nearly survive,. Independence from parents or live out prohibited amorous relationship. It is suggested that in Jharkhand activities and policy markers Constructive of such migration as a ‘problem’ is a much about their vision of how the new tribal state out to be as about exploitation.

**Pull & Push Factor**

This is true in both internal as well as international migration. Two basic factors which motivate migration may be termed as ‘pull factors’ and ‘push factors’. In other words it is to see whether people migrate due to compelling circumstances which push them out of the place of origin or they are lured by the attractive condition pull factors in the new place.

Push factors are those that compel a person, due to different reasons, to leave that place and go to some other place. For instance, low productivity, unemployment and underemployment, poor economic conditions and natural calamities may compel people to leave their native place in search of better economic opportunities. In most of the developing countries, land man ratio has declined due to population explosion resulting in significant increase in unemployment and underemployment. Interdiction of capital intensive methods of production into the agriculture sector and mechanization of certain process has reduced labour requirements in rural areas. The non-availability of alternative sources of income in rural areas is another important factor for migration. Even sub-division of land leads to migration as the small landholding fails to support a family.

Pull factors refer to those factors which attract the migration to an area, such as, opportunities for better employments higher wages, better working conditions and amenities etc. As rapid growth of industry, commerce and business takes place it leads to city-word migration. In recent years the high
rate of migration of people from India as well as from others developing
countries to Britain, America, Canada and the middle east is due to better
employment opportunities, higher wages and the changes of attaining a higher
standard of living.

Incidence and Nature of Bonded Labour in India

Bonded labour was outlawed in India through an ordinance in 1975 and
then through legislation in 1976. The first systematic survey of bonded labour
was carried out by the Gandhi Peace Foundation and the National Labour
Institute during May to December 1978 and placed the total number of bonded
labourers at 2.62 million (Sarma, 1981). The estimate was based on a survey of
1000 villages in 10 states. In the survey, 61.5% of the bonded labourers were
members of Scheduled Castes (SC) and 25.1% were members of Scheduled
Tribes (ST). Among the employers, 89% were agriculturalists. The survey
categorised bondage into inter-generational bondage; child bondage; loyalty
bondage; bondage through land allotment; and widow bondage. The 32nd
Round of the National Sample Survey Organisation gave an estimate of
343,000 bonded labourers in 16 major states.

The National Commission on Rural Labour (NCRL), 1991, basing itself
on the Study Group on Bonded Labour, chaired by B. N. Yugandhar,10
presented the first comprehensive picture of the nature and incidence of
bonded labour, its causes, and strategies for its abolition. It also made
recommendations for amendments to the 1976 legislation. The NCRL saw
bondage of agricultural labourers as still being the main form of bondage in
India. The Commission concluded that agricultural labour bondage was higher
in States and districts characterised by a high percentage of rural labourers, low
irrigation and agricultural productivity and poor infrastructure. However, there
were bonded labourers also in the plantation sector: for example, bonded
labourers from Orissa and Bihar were employed in the plantation sector in Assam and Tripura.

The NCRL mentioned the following non-agricultural sectors as having a high incidence of bonded labour (although it is conceded that they have not been adequately surveyed): stone quarries; migrant labour; brick kilns; system of joginis and devdasis; fishermen; forest labour; bidi workers; carpet weavers; pottery; weavers; head loaders; child labour in match and fireworks; carpet weaving etc.

The NCRL found a high incidence of migrant bonded labour: Bihari labour in the fields of Punjab, Haryana and Uttar Pradesh; in brick kilns of these states; in sugarcane fields in Gujarat; in stone and slate quarries and mines; in plantations of Assam; and even in the seaports of Gujarat. The Commission highlighted bondage among women on account of social as well as economic factors and mentioned the joginis of Andhra Pradesh and the devdasis of Karnataka. In the Jaunsar-Babbar area, the Commission’s report highlighted the indebtedness-induced prostitution of women and children. The Commission mentioned a high incidence of child labour and child bondage in a number of sectors. The Commission also highlighted the well-entrenched system of tribal exploitation, expropriation and bondage in many parts of the country including the Santhal Parganas. In examining the regional spread of bonded labour, it found the practice widespread in all parts of the country.

The Commission noted the interesting and significant phenomenon of the same region both supplying and importing bonded migrant labour. Labourers from Andhra Pradesh outmigrate for work in quarries and kilns in Haryana, Punjab and Madhya Pradesh whereas labourers from other states are in bondage in the quarries of Andhra. Similarly, a two-way traffic of migrant bonded labour existed from Chhattisgarh and out of Singhbhum and in the sugarcane farms of Maharashtra and Gujarat. The Supreme Court appointed on
March 6, 1995, a two member commission comprising Mr. Siraj Saith and Mr. Felix Sugirtharaj to verify the contents of the affidavit of the Government of Tamil Nadu in Writ Petition No. 3922 of 1985 that there were only stray cases of bonded labour in the State of Tamil Nadu. The Commission submitted its report to the Court on October 31, 1995 (Sugirtharaj and Sait, 1995, hereafter referred to as the Tamil Nadu Commissioners’ Report 1995). In an exhaustive report, based on a large survey, the Commissioners concluded that there were over one million bonded labourers in Tamil Nadu, spread over 23 districts and 20 occupations, of which 10 percent were bonded child labourers (with a higher rate among girls). Scheduled Caste (SC), Scheduled Tribe (ST) and Most Backward Caste (MBC) bonded labourers formed 76% of the total. The concentration of the low castes was higher in the quarry industry. In almost all cases, the element of bondage was found to be debt.

In the course of a hearing on a Writ Petition filed by the People’s Union for Civil Liberties (PUCL) in April 1985 on the engagement of bonded labour in Tamil Nadu and Madhya Pradesh, the Supreme Court issued a direction in May 1994 to all the State Governments, inter alia, to collect information on the prevalence of bonded labour, to identify bonded labourers and to rehabilitate them. The State governments subsequently carried out surveys to ascertain the ground situation with regard to bonded labour. However, in most cases, the figures obtained and presented by the State governments subsequently turned out to be significantly underestimated.
Table 1.1

Bonded Labourers identified in the 1996 surveys, and those subsequently identified and rehabilitated till March 31, 2004

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.No.</th>
<th>State</th>
<th>Identified in the 1996 Surveys</th>
<th>Identified and Released till March 31, 2004</th>
<th>Rehabilitated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Andhra Pradesh</td>
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<td>37988</td>
<td>31534</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Bihar</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>13370</td>
<td>12552</td>
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<td>3.</td>
<td>Karnataka</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>63373</td>
<td>57121</td>
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<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Madhya Pradesh</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>12822</td>
<td>11897</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Orissa</td>
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<td>50010</td>
<td>46882</td>
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<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Rajasthan</td>
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<td>7488</td>
<td>6331</td>
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<td>7.</td>
<td>Tamil Nadu</td>
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<td>65573</td>
<td>65573</td>
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<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Maharashtra</td>
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<td>1319</td>
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<td>9.</td>
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<td>237</td>
<td>28195</td>
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<tr>
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<td>710</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>Haryana</td>
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<td>49</td>
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<td>Total</td>
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<td>285379</td>
<td>265417</td>
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</table>

**Source:** Director General Labour Welfare, Ministry of Labour, Government of India.

Table 1 presents the number of bonded labourers identified in the 1996 surveys, and those subsequently identified and rehabilitated till March 31, 2004. The regional picture that emerges is a high concentration of bonded labourers in the three Southern States of Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu and Karnataka and in Uttar Pradesh. However, as we show throughout this paper, although there is widespread evidence of bonded labour throughout the country, our information depends upon scattered evidence and we do not have a clear and systematic basis for inferring regional or sectoral trends.
The NHRC constituted an Expert Group in 2000, chaired by Mr. S. R. Sankaran, for identification of bonded labour prone districts, industries and occupations and for various aspects relating to legislation and implementation. The Expert Group, in its Report submitted to the NHRC in 2001, concluded that although the Ministry of Labour had identified 13 states and 172 districts as being bonded labour prone, the system is prevalent in almost all states (NHRC, 2001).

The Expert Group also concluded that bonded labour in agriculture has a high incidence in the States of Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Haryana, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Orissa, Punjab and Tamil Nadu. In the non-agricultural sector, it concluded that bonded labour is rampant in brick kilns, stone quarries, beedi manufacturing, carpet weaving and construction, and child bonded labour in the silk industry. It further concluded that migrant bonded labour involving states such as Bihar, Jharkhand, Chhatisgarh, Tamil Nadu, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, Punjab and Haryana represented an aggravated form of deprivation and exploitation (NHRC, 2001).

The Group felt that, owing to the efforts made by the NHRC through its Special Rapporteur system, the process of identification, release and rehabilitation of bonded labourers had received a fillip. For example, till 2001, 1,069 cases of bonded labour had been identified in Karnataka and another 1,212 were being investigated. In Tamil Nadu, since the survey of 1996-97, 10,850 cases had been identified. In Andhra Pradesh, 3,122 cases of bonded labour had been identified, mostly in 2001. Although systematic, non-official surveys of bonded labour are difficult to come by, there are several surveys in different parts of the country and different industries which give an idea of the continued nature of the problem. Moreover, non-governmental organizations which have taken up issues relating to bonded labourers and been leading the process of identification and release, have compiled extensive documentation.
We refer to these surveys and statistics in our analysis below, although their findings are often not accepted by State governments or other official investigating agencies.

For example, in Punjab, where the State government has till quite recently denied the existence of bonded labour, the NHRC has assiduously been pursuing complaints regarding bonded labour in agriculture, brick kilns and other sectors, and has upheld these complaints in a few cases. The Volunteers for Social Justice (VSJ), a non-governmental organisation based in Punjab, has filed over 2,000 cases on behalf of both local and migrant bonded labourers released from agriculture, brick kilns and other sectors mainly in Punjab (Singh, 2003). A majority of the cases referred to bonded labourers belonging to the Scheduled Castes (59% of the complaints made to the NHRC pertained to Scheduled Castes). Between 1998 and 2004, the VSJ was able to secure the release of 1,832 bonded labourers through the intervention of the NHRC, the Punjab State Human Rights Commission (PSHRC), Punjab and Haryana High Courts, the District Administration and the SC/ST Commissioner, but rehabilitation had taken place in only four cases (Singh, 2004). This is suggestive of the chasm between civil society organisations and government on the issue of bonded labour, which has so far not been bridged despite the efforts of the Supreme Court and the NHRC.

**Historical background of Brick-kiln**

The brick kiln industry occupies a very important place in relation to the industrial structure of the state. Unfortunately it has remained in a state of neglect, without any serious efforts to understand and analyses the problems affecting this industry.
The most pressing human being need for the survival of life in housing. House not only protects us from inclement weather but also serves as a fortification against all sorts of enemies and predators. The age of log cabin has long been over. Since the price of timber had touched a peak beyond easy reach, the use of wood and timber is made in a house only for the most indispensable part of construction. Brick-kiln, both kachha and pucca have been the source of civilization through the ages. Today the pucca bricks and stone constitute the major building material. Stone machinery is selective in nature, depending upon technical necessity and its availability. However, in everyday use an ordinary man just cannot think of building a house without bricks as a major building material.

The history of brick kiln reveals that thousands of years ago mainly kachha bricks were prepared out of mud and clay, and often used in mixture with chopped Straus. The sub dried kachha bricks had a shorter life span as
they weather away in about fifty years or so under the influence of inclement weather.

Hence use of fire baked (pacca) bricks were started long ago because these bricks had double the life-span extending up to 100 years. Originally, the fuel used in those days consisted of firewood, twinges and dung cakes. It seems that with the introduction of coal as a fuel it becomes possible to bake bigger size bricks more efficiently and with the passage of time a pucca brick measuring come to be accepted as the standard size however, smaller moulds / bricks continued to remain in use to meet specific needs, but the standard size in now in vogue throughout the country.

From excavations of Mohan – Joddaro and Harappa we have the sample of bricks that were used in ancient Indian civilization (Brick and Tiles News Annual November, 1984). In other parts of the world excavations along the banks of Nile and Tigris have revealed the use of kiln baked by Babylonians over 6000 years ago. Some of these bricks even bear even bear the inscriptions of that age. Anyway in our country it can be safely assumed that bricks and tiles have been used by people since the times of Mahabharata. (Encyclopedia, America) In big towns the expert potters (Kumhars) prepared bricks baked them in clamps (Pazawas) on the out skirts of the town to Maintain supplies at the prevalent prices. Such clamps prepare 25000 to 100000 bricks and it takes three months to finish the process of burning and cooling. (Brick and Tiles News Annual November, 1985) The vestiges of this traditional Method can still be seen on the out skirts of big villages and towns. The most common practice for producing the standard size bricks measuring consists of trench-type brick kilns with a use of coal as full. So far the use of fuel is concerned, solar energy, petroleum; gas and even electricity are being used as new devices and means so as to find an economical and efficient technique. In short, the pucca remains the most important building material today and would continue to be a greater
demand for decades to come in view of constantly increasing population. Search for a substitute for bricks continues unabated and many alternatives are being tried, such as a mixture of saw, dust, ash, plastic, chemicals etc. But no such real substitute is foreseen in the near future.

Brick kiln are indispensable component of each and every construction activity. These are made of clay and other material which are processed in to a workable consistency. Formed to standard sizes and fixed in a brick kilns to make them strong, durable and attractive. Brick kilns are inexpensive building materials. Their law cost and structured versatility have led to their wide use for walls, floors, pavements and other structures.

Because of basic characteristic of the industry, brick kilns are always observed to be located on the out skirts of cities, towns or near places of construction activity. As the production and processing in the industry has to be done in the open its continuance depends on climate conditions. The work being sensitive to rainfall, the industry stops functioning during the rainy season and therefore seasonal in nature. Though the brick kiln industry is several thousand years old even today it is highly labour intensive. So far as India is concerned, this industry depends on the rural migrant labour. In has order to study the brick kiln industry for the sociological relevance one to examine to socio-economic conditions of the labour force engaged in the production process and the relationship of the habit with the owners, the relation are determined by the made of production. This being the theoretical premise, we examined the force of production and the relations of production in maxima paradigm.
Occupational Classification in Brick-kiln Industry

- **Contractor**

The contractor is the proprietor of the industry who organizes and manages all the affairs of the industry. The main factor which concerns the contractor is labour. The labour is more less than preordained according to the size of the project. This expenditure falls in to a uniform pattern and has a direct relationship with the production capacity of the kiln. The booking of labour for the project is made at the very start, and for this reason sufficient amounts are advanced to engage labour and technical experts about three or four months in advance.

The contractor in the brick kiln has to frame plane at various step from the very start or from the very idea to have such a business. Plans can however, focus attention on purposes. The contractor has to plan for a good site having good quality clay in abundance so that the kiln can function for a long time. In order to keep up with the demand of bricks, the contractors, (Thankurta, Guha, 1991) at the association level plan to bring the team of moulders and start the kiln not earlier than November. Thus a sort of planned production of bricks is done by minimizing the number of rounds to the number of round to be production of bricks is done by minimizing to be produced. It is quite interesting to mention here that in this business, planning of any type can be made for one season because the climate or the time is a limiting factor. Some contractors are clever and educated. Who are financially sounds store pucca bricks to sell the same at higher rates during and after rainy season till fresh production starts in the next season. No budgets are framed. Forecast, which is prediction about the future shape of things, wavers because of the very nature of this industry and is also not based on any data. But by limiting the production and creating a fake short supply the contractor state price. The contractors hardly make and a plan regarding the storage of coal since finance
is a limiting factor. The brick kiln industry being labour intensive, the contractor has to organize the resources well in advance and that too by making advance payments. As the contractor, who may be a sole proprietor or a partner, is the supreme administrator as well as manager there is no delegation of authority. There are various class formations of the brick kiln workers.

Jammadars

Jammadars, come next in rank and they shoulder the responsibility of organizing labour activity for example to obtain the desire daily output of work. The selection of the staff i.e. the labour force for the brick kiln, as already mentioned is done by the “Jammadars” on behalf of the contractor by making an advance payment. There are no hard and fast rules regarding the amount of advance money. No doubt, the contractor has to decide in advance about the number of team of moulders.

Work process and division of labour in brick kiln

Brick kiln making is a low technology industry which is characterized by distinct ‘Division of labour’ starting from moulding till extraction of the baked bricks from the kiln. The division of labour may be broadly categorized as fallows.

Patners (Moulder)

While examining the division of labour we observed that the process of brick-making helped us for a better understanding of the nature of the work and the wage rates. First, earth is dug up after the approximate quantity of earth required has been dug water is poured on it to make it wet. The wet soil is then mixed well to be ready to make raw bricks. This part of the brick-making process can be called the Soil preparation stage; this stage takes three to four house and both the main labour and the co-labour equally participate in it. It the
second stage, a ground us prepared to lay the brick and on. After the surface is made even, a very thin layer of sand is spread to make sure that when the brick is laid it does not stick to the ground. The ground is mostly reported by the co-labour.

When the ground is prepared, the mixed soil is taking to the ground by means of a wooden plate with two long handles on each side. The soil is usually mixed at a lower-level surface, normally in a pit that was created gradually as the soil was dug for brick making. Therefore, lifting it to the ground is a hard job. Loads of mixed soil weighting about 40-55 kg are brought on the wooden plate to the ground by the main labour and co-labour together on holding the front handless and the after the back-handless. This is the hardest part of brick making and is done for nine to eleven hours every working day. The raw bricks are laid by (both) both the labour and this is usually done for nine to eleven hours a day. If the co-labour is a young boy only the main labour does the laying.

Laid-out raw bricks must be turned at least once to dry them well before they are ready for baking in the kiln. If both the labourers are adults, turning the brick done by both; if the co-labour is a young boy or old man, he does the turning. The dried raw bricks are then stacked in such a manner that there are spaces between the bricks to facilitate the process of drying if they were not well-dried when they were stacked. The top of the stack is covered with palm
leaves to perfect the dried raw bricks from rain. The responsibilities for making raw bricks and with arrangement of the bricks are stocks per 1000/218 and tiles 1000/241.

**Loader (Bharaiwala)**

They carry the kachha (unbaked dried bricks) to the kilns. They use their own horses and rehdees for the carrying purpose. They are also called bhariwala labour. They are paid in advance to buy the horse, and rehdee. This category of labour are also paid per 1000/98 bricks.

**Beldar (Stacker)**

One who arranges the bricks are in the kiln for firing and paid per 1000/72 bricks.

**Repaswala**

They level the stacked bricks are with earth and make them ready for the burning process and paid monthly Rs. 4230/-.
Jalaiwala (Fireman)

They are the ones who burn bricks are within the kiln by pouring coal round the clock at very short intervals. The quality of bricks and saving in consumption of fuel, coal i.e., depends a lot on their skill which helps in cost reduction and paid Rs. 5000/-.

Nikasiwala

They are employed to take out the baked bricks from the kilns and sort and stack the according of the grade of bricks and paid 1000/72.

Graders

They are the persons who are engaged in sorting out the burnt brick according to the classes of bricks. They sort out and stock the bricks’ outside the kiln.

‘Mistry’ or Mechanic

He is the head fireman or a foreman over the fireman. He is to control, supervise and guide the fireman as and when it becomes necessary.
‘Munshi’ or Accountant

He is the person who maintains and records the daily transaction numbers of bricks are moulded per moulder, number of bricks filled per loader, number of bricks unloaded from the kiln by the grader, quantity sold etc. He is to supervise all the workers at the kiln, particularly in the absence of the contractor. So he is the second in the hierarchy of the management of the industry.

➢ On skilled labour

Helpers

They are the ones who are to help the moulder in the regular supply of mortar and sand while the bricks are being moulded.

Driver

These are the persons who have to transport the bricks from the field to the kiln for loading / setting purposes. The transportation is done with the help of trucks. There are other persons who are to unload bricks and help the sector in the kiln.

Watchman or peon

He has to perform multifarious activities at the kiln.

Types of Bricks

Bricks are broadly classified in the two categories –

a. Katcha or green bricks or sun dried bricks or un-burnt brick with after moulding are dried in the sun.

b. Burnt bricks or pakka bricks. The pakka bricks are further classified as under:

i. First class Bricks (Avval)
These are sound well-burnt Bricks of a uniformed size and color. All the faces are uniform and smooth. These are free from cracks or flows. Two first class bricks, when struck together, give a sharp metallic ringing sound. These are called “Avval”

ii. Second class Bricks (Lal Petti)

Lal petti or Doyam as these are popularly known. These are also well burnt bricks but of the somewhat irregular shape and may have a slightly rough surface. Their colour is more reddish than the first class bricks.

iii. Third class Bricks (Pilli Petti)

These are light in colour soft and a little under burnt. These give a dull sound when struck against each other.

iv. Over burnt Bricks (Jhama bricks)

Popularly known “Chattca”. These are over burnt bricks. Being near the fire in the kiln, they get fased and sometimes lose their shape a bit or get vitrified.

v. Under burnt (Pilla bricks)

These bricks are those which remain half burnt and have a yellowish colour. These bricks are easily breakable.

vi. Classification as per ISI

Common burnt clay bricks are classified on the basis of their average compressive strength. This classification, being technical is out of the purview of our theism and therefore, has not been mentioned.
vii. Pressed bricks

These are used for a high quality brick-work or where they will be subjected to great pressure. These bricks are stronger and are more compact than ordinary bricks. They do not require drying and can be burnt directly. These are heavier, stronger, more impervious, have shop edges, regular and smooth external surfaces.

viii. Modular Bricks

The word “modular” are a Latin word meaning small dimension. It is a unit of measurement which can be inches, centimeters or a smaller fraction. Recognizing the advantages of modular consciousness ordination. The Indian standard institute has brought out the standard (15 – 107) for common brunt clay building bricks, which specified the modular bricks size as 19 cm, 9 cm and the W.B.O. has also been instrumental in introducing the modular size bricks 20×10×10 cm., combined with modular planning in considerable economy.

➢ Tools of the Bricks-kilns

Wooden or stell moulder “Sancha”

It is a rectangular box, which is used to for the soft plastic clay into the shape of a brick. Normally, sand is thrown in to the mould before butting the clay in it. Sand is thrown in to the mould before butting the clay in it. Sand helps in easy formulation and keeps the clay from becoming stickled in the mould. This method of making green bricks is widely used in India.
Dampers

These are iron sheets of the size of the depth of the trench, which are used in front of the chimneys to make the brick burning airtight. This helps to retain the gases of combustion.

Coal Tubs

These are big iron tubs used to store the coal on the top surface of the bricks in the trench near the opening where form coal is poured in to the kiln.

Fire Pans

These are iron pans with a hook which helps in their handling. These fans are used to cover / close the coal feeding mouth on the trench and helps in making burning airtight.

Chimney

Chimney is used to let the smoke out. The height of the chimney varies up to 120 ft. The kiln divided into various chambers which are connected to the chimney though the drains.

Iron Rod

It is to dig / brick the coal burning in the kiln to avoid coal silting on the surface which cans nominee the fuel / coal consumption.

Iron Rings

These rings are used to make the surface where green bricks are to be molded. The ordinary tools for everyday use comprise of spades, buckets, and lanterns electrical motor or engine combined with pump etc. is also put into service wherever necessary.
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Migrant labour in bricks kilns are seen by them a threat to the purity and regulation of social and sexual tribal citizen. This moralizing perspective creates a climate that, paradoxically, encourages many young people flee to the bricks where they can live ‘freely’. In this way, the new Puritanism at home helps to reproduce the conditions for capitalist exploitation and the extraction of surplus value.

Suneet Chopra (1985) in a study had shown that the element of bondage originates in the villages where the labour comes from and because the creditor, landowner and brick-kiln owner is often one and the same person this helps establish the relationship of bondage more cleanly. But where there is a break in the chain of creditor of the village where the labour come from and the owner of the kiln where the labour is at peasant employed it becomes difficult to establish the relationship of bondage if there is on it is between the labour and the contractor, who from the same village / district from where they recruit the labour. There is a great deal of debate as well as short coming in method of research that would and could help to reveal the element of bondage labour relations in the kiln. Only on the basis of case studies conducted at the micro level, from analysis of case that are registered with the district magistrate office and case reported and declared from unions of brick-kiln worker can such relationship be established. (Breman 1978)

According to International Encyclopedia of Social Science (1972) in its most general sense migrant labour is ordinarily denied as the relatively permanent norms of persons over a significant distance. Generally wages of migrant labour at the place of employment at destination are large than those prevailing at the place of origin. It is however observed that migrant labourers
are fewer wages than the local labour and at times is even lower that the minimum wages fixed for the employment.

A study in Punjab, Sindhi & Grewal (1984) observed that migrant laboures work at lower wages than the prevailing wages for local labour. A study in Gujarat, Breman (1995) points out that migrant are cheaper than local labour. In an Andhra Pradesh study it was found that the casual local labours at destination get much higher wages than the wages rates paid to the migrant. (Krisna, 1997)

There is considerable change in the nature and cause of migration in recent year. Relatively more migration is taking place among the labour forced in search of their livelihoods, for relatively longer terms Rodgers, Sharma (2000) migrant process especially for the sake of employments, such as socio-economic impact on the migrant workers in terms of wages, working conditions, implementing of labour laws. Impacts of the migrant labour on the local labour market, impact of remittance on the migrant households’ problems face by local population due to the migration labour, problem of health and environment due to migration, role of trade unions for the right of migrants workers, creation of slums and squatters etc.

Chand (2004) in his study of informal labour in brick-kiln need for regulation this paper report makes a study of two brick-kiln operations in northern India. These kilns operate largely and remain outside the purview of workplace owner by the system of advance payment. Several committees have made recommendation to improve working condition, but few of these have been implemented. The workers reported no tension between themselves on the lines of caste or religion, but did mention that they do have arguments amongst themselves over the children and their fight with other children.
Gupta Joyti (2003). Have brought out the appalling conditions of work of the migrant points out that they are highly interpreted, work for long hours and the female workers are not provided the basic amenities like toilets, crèche, medical facilities etc. Their study “beggar” and bandage among the migrant labour in brick-kiln in Punjab. Show that if they are unable to replay Peshgi (advance) at the end of season, they will not be allowed to go back home J.John &Nasser Ateeq (2003).

These workers are also mostly seasonal migrants. The season of migration depends on the agro climate features of the area of origin of migration and fit in to the October to June cycle when the kilns operate all over India. The kilns shut down during the monsoon.

The workers are recruited through ‘Jammadars’ (labour agents contractors) of the kiln owners and such recruitment is accompanied by a payment of advance to the workers for a specified period of employment. The entire family (excluding old, disable dependent person) comprising husband wife and children move to the brick-kiln and work as one unit for the full season of the operating kiln.

The advance paid to the workers is a system that has developed from a certain correlation of the demand and supply side economic labour. The kiln operates at a time when they can get the maximum number of seasonal workers who are freed from the land. As the kiln operates only seven to eight months a year there is a great production. The demand factor plays an important role in determining the extent of advance the employers and ready to part with for booking the labour for the season. The labourers are on the other hand being miserly agricultural labourers or margined farmers experience a lean season once the sowing season for the monsoon crop is over between July and September. They cannot hope to save from their meager earning to be able to
invest in the next season crops or build a house or make any plans for themselves and their children. The use that the advance are put into reveals that the advances were for consumption alone they could have been much less and the wages would have been lower then what workers receive at present.

The advance paid to the workers is adjusted at of the end season, some times during the working period no cornet interest is changed on the advance made to the works. The transportation cost (one way) is paid separately by the labour agent to the workers and that is paid for one number only the one who is going to be the muster roll of the kiln. The new recruiting agent than has to clear the advance due to the previous labour agent. These payments if not made directly by one labour agent to another but paid through the workers involved in the switch.

The system of advance payment and the verbal commitment to work and to return the advance has left much room for dispute between labourers, labour agents and kiln owners.

Interventions by the Government, NGO and the Union in the tension involved in the process of adjustment and disputes have focused less on factors such as low wages, inhuman living conditions, lack of social security, health facilities and unsafe working conditions. Even since the introduction of the abolition of the Bonded Labour Act in 1976, most of the disputes of the nature mentioned above have been dealt with by applying the Bonded labour abolition Act.

The kiln violate several other acts applicable to them as we shall see but the one that applies the most to the economic conflicts at the kiln is the abolition of Bonded Labour Act. The basic characters of bandage are element of force, below minimum wages, long hours of work on an average 12 – 16 hours a day, immobility. Consequences of bondages are restricted freedom of
movement, less a fright to sell labourers at prevailing market rates, loss of human dignity. It is not effective in stopping exploitation in the Brick Kiln Industry in particular and the informal sector in general.

Migration according to census of India is determined mainly with reference to a person’s place of birth, major factors that operate on the physical mobility of the people include occupational reasons, search for better wages, academic purposes, marriage, natural and manmade calamities and uneven socio-economic development across the country. People migrate in groups of family, kin, caste, villages etc. or individually. As per the census (2001:318) million person changed place of residence with in the country, out of which only 27.4 million or 12.3 per cent movement out for employment. The percentage share of Uttar Pradesh, Bihar and Rajasthan in the total number of inter-state migrant was 27.6 percent, 17.2 per cent and 8.9 per cent respectively. Uttar Pradesh and Bihar alone contributed one third of the inter-state. Migrate for employment reasons was 34.14 per cent for Uttar Pradesh and 19.67 per cent for Bihar. The underestimation of short-duration of circular migration has been often cited as a limitation of census and NSS figures on migration. The National Commission on Rural Labour (2001) estimates more than 18 million circular migrant in the rural areas. The commission notes that brick-kilns provide temporary employment to around 18 lakh labourers. According to the All India Bricks-kilns and Tiles Manufacturers Federation, there one 4250 brick kilns all over Haryana employing on an average 170-190 laboures per unit. According to a Moderate estimate given by the trade union such as “Lal Jandha Haryana Bhatta Mazdoor Union (LJHBMU) and all India Bricks and Tiles Association Haryana. Further, in Haryana they are employers as well as contractor who recruit them. The season of migration depends on the agro climatic features of the area of origin of migration and fits into the October to June cycle when the kilns operate all over Haryana. The kilns shut
down during the monsoon. The labourers are recruited through “Jammadars” of the kiln owners and such recruited in accompanied by payment of advances of the labourers for a specified period of employment. The entire family including old, disable dependent person comprising husband, wife and children move to the brick-kiln and work as on unit for the full season on the operating kiln.

Migrant Labour any where depicts existence of men, women and children crowding at the bottom of the urban economy in third world countries. A steam of empirical studies initially undertaken by Social anthropologist has revealed how labour’s succeed in living on the fruits of their labour outside the formal sector of economy generally referred as informal sector.

Accordingly this sector is synonym with the kaleidoscope of unregulated, poorly skilled and low paid workers. The underlying understanding of this sector and its labour force specially migrant labour refers to income from work performed either on one’s own account and at one’s own risk as waged labour for which no explicit written or oral contract stipulate the rights and obligations of the parties has been agreed there is no separate concerts government policy or legal protection for the conditions of employment and the activities are only summarily recoded in government account. These organization and activities are referred in focusing on the organization activity like small scale enterprise, familiar employment and property. These are characters by low capital intensive, simple technology, fluctuating production easy entry to and exit and lack of social protection / government support. The lack of social protection leads to a depending of their vulnerability and dependency in relation to their employers with voiceless less and exploitative situation. The workers and enterprises in question do not fall within one sector of economy but cut across many sectors and bay beyond the control of the State.
Analysis of labour migration is important to understand the people’s movement within the country as a response to changes in economic, political and cultural factors (Singh, 1998). In India, permanent shifts of population and workforce co-exist with the circulatory movement of populations between lagging areas and developed regions and between rural and urban areas, mostly being absorbed in the unorganized sector of the economy in 2001, India’s population exceeded one Billion, with 67.2 per cent of the population living in rural areas and the others 32.8 per cent in towns and cities of the total workforce, 73.3 per cent remained in rural areas, while the rest 26.7 per cent are in urban areas (Census 2001) Studies undertaken by social scientists pinpoint the plight of brick-kiln labour’s the nature of working conditions, wage structure and the human conditions of work.

Aggrwal (1959) in his study on the socio-economic condition of brick-kiln workers in the Gahazipur village near Lucknow found that lower caste Hindu outnumbered the intermediate castes, while the higher castes did not take up this Job. Illiteracy was common feature among them working conditions were far from satisfactory with in sanitary surrounding, dusty environment.

Gulati (1979) in her profile of women workers pointed out that women workers are employed exclusively for carrying head loads, while all skilled and semi-skilled work such as molding, shaping and stacking etc. is done by men only.

Chopra (1982) studied the bondage of brick-kiln workers of Muzaffarnager district of Uttar Pradesh and found that bulk of such labourers were scheduled castes and 75 per cent than were illiterate and bonded. Randeria and Yagnik (1983) in their article expressed concern over non-implement of labour laws in brick-kiln of Gujarat. It was primarily because the
brick-kiln workers are difficult to be organized as the kilns are scatter all over the country side in the state.

Panday, Sarup and Prakash (1985) examined the extent and pattern of employment of rural population through brick kiln industry. Brick manufacturing industry provided employment to skilled, semiskilled and unskilled workers of about 40-55 families for 120 to 150 days in a year. The surveys of the Labour Bureau, Government of India, carried out in 1988. Brick kilns have no fixed working house and usually the spread over was of 11 to 12 hours a day. The facilities of separate kitchen, bathrooms, attached or a latrine was nonexistent.

According to Saran and Sandhwar (1990) most of the migrant labourers are in the brick industry are treated as bonded. All sorts of inhuman measures like physical and mental torture, sexual abuses and kidnapping of kids etc. are adopted by the employers.

Migration is defined as a move from one Migration defining are to another usually crossing administration boundaries made during a given migration interval and involving a change or residence (UN 1993). The change is residence can take place either permanent or semi-permanent or temporary basis. (Premi 1990)

Punjab and Haryana’s prosperity in post independent period especially in “Green Revolution” and subs equity development in industrial sector, created situation by which large chunk of labour especially from Uttar Pradesh and Bihar find better employment opportunity in North-West India. Today people of other states are also reaching these areas in big number. At the same time the situation has become employer friendly i.e. for the convenience and benefits of employers. Migrant labour in contrast to local labour, from an underclass of lowest paid least organized workers within the social system.
History of labour movement has proved beyond doubt that “Trade Unions are indispensable to safeguard the interest of workers inducing migrant labour”. They are meant for protection and promotion of labour’s interest, through their collective bargaining power against management / employer. Workers can mitigate their problem fight for their rights through collective force. However, the situation of Punjab vis-à-vis immigration of labour from very poor and backward states have resulted a “No-win” situation for all workers. The migrants because of their “Fall Back” position back home and system of recruitment in Punjab are not in a position to bargain collectively. On the other hand, local workers also can’t fight for their cause, because of easy availability of migrant labour ready to accept all exploitation by employers. Net result is conflict of interest for both types of labour and ultimate gain is that of employer.

The large scale in migration of the labour to Haryana as seasonal as permanent is concern for many. People at the senior administration level in State Govt. views it from their objectives of state’s Development, Management, Law & Order as etc. local community and labour view this at time with doubts / suspicion for their self interest media gets business but away from all these a separate group researcher from various disciplines mainly economy and on local labour and their interest all are concern issues for the scholars / researchers of Punjab.

Few Studies are available on causes of in migration to Haryana and impact of these migrant labours on local labour / employment their income generation, trade union movement etc. However most of these studies are sector specific some investigated the situation in Agriculture sector, some in sugarcane industry same in construction sector etc.
Ghosh & Sharma (1990) revealed that feudal exploitation and acute poverty are the main factors for distressed migration from Bihar. It is a survival strategy for people of landless families. Though a new trend of upper castes with small landholdings from rural Bihar are migrating to supplement their family earnings for better socio-economic condition (Kumar 1998).

A few studies have indicated attitude of local employer who generally prefer migrant workers for their (migrants) tolerant attitude towards low wage, more / difficult work as well as for non unionization practices. The plethora of services and Acts especially of the Department of labour, government of Punjab for safeguarding the interest of labour including migrant labour for instance the inter-state Migrant Workemen Act. (1979) although the state relies heavily on migrant labour, there is no mechanism in place to address the problems of migrants and to ease the situation of conflict in the state. Understanding the gravity of the issue, the Human Development Report (2006) of Haryana devoted a chapter on the issue of migration. The situation of migrant labour, there constraints, difficulties, sad plight could hardly draw the attention of researchers. Migrants are looked more as problems and a threat for locals. At the same time, various reports point to the fact that today Haryana need outside workers for various reasons. Therefore, more reasonable thing is to understand the migrants also their compulsions, expectations and to work out strategy for “Symbiotic Relation” between the local and migrants.

Upadhaya (1991) in his study provides an extensive review of studies in migration besides finding out the reasons of law living standards, poverty, indebtedness, illiteracy and unemployment of the workers in brick-kilns industry.

The debate on employment generation assumed intensity in view of the peculiar behavior of Job growth in the 1980s. Employment in the man
unfaltering sector grew rapidly in the 1970s. It has decelerated since then more importantly while employment grew respectably in the unorganized segment in the 1980s. It was negative in the organized segment especially during 1983-88. Employment growth in the organized segment picked up healthily in the first half of the 1990. While deceleration in the other segment continued. On the other hand, output in the manufacturing sector grew at an impressive seven per cent in the 1980s as compared to less than 5 per cent growth in the preceding decade. Thus high output growth was unaccompanied by poor even negative job growth. Several reasons were offered by analysts and employers.

Sharp increase in real wages (inducing) employers to employ labour substituting capital-intensive measures and stringent job security provisions (Fallon and Lucas 1991) are two important factors said to have stunted employment growth. Wage escalation was attributed to the increasing bargaining power of unions as reflected in the increasing trend in number of workday last due to strikes and lockouts (Lucas 1988). These analysts crust merely cite the lone study of impact of job security provision of ( 1976) on employment generation done by Fallon and Lucas (1991) this study showed that employment growth in the organized segment of man unfaltering sector would have been higher by 17.5 per cent in the absence of rigid provisions on job security. These ideas were not uncontested.

Few scholars, Sudha Desppande (1998) studying labour flexibility in 1987 and 1988 in Bombay, Sharms and Sarikumar (1996) surveying the firms in Ghaziabad covering the period 1991-95 and labour flexibility practices in 10 states and nine industries in India during 1991-98, revealed that firms increased their total employment during the period of all the three studies. The most interesting landing of the three studies is that firm was found to increase employment by increasing the share of non-permanent workers. Size of the firm did not seem to matter as both small and large firms varied employment.
In fact, it was the medium and large firms though supposedly constrained by unrestrictive laws and unions – that increased employment more than the small firm Sudha Deshpande (1998).

Let us turn to wage flexibility. Sudha (1998) found that the basic wage of unskilled male worker was largely based on minimum wage law. While collective bargaining and compulsory adjudication were not the main instruments of determination. It is also known that the minimum wage law can be and is by-passed. It is well known that the setting of minimum wages in India suffers from several short comings such that they are less likely to impose a burden on employers. It has been found that minimum wages are not revised frequently. When revised the new rates were often lower in real terms than the pre-revision rates in most cases the official minimum wages were below poverty-line wages (ILO – SAAT 1996:35) This surely is not a source of rigidity.

Sudipta Dutta Roy (1998) analyzing the ASI data for the period 1960-61 to 1993-94 found that job security regulations both 1976 and 1982 amendments considered have not been responsible for slow down in employment growth. Further she pointed out that fallen and Lucas “Coefficients on the donnas for job security regulations were negative in only 12 of the 35 industries considered significantly positive in one and insignificant in the rest” . Real wage growth was not found to be responsible for poor job growth for several reasons important high wages or earnings for Nagaraj (1994) were a result of increases in productivity Papola (1994) or increase in person day’s worked as point out those even employers have not pointed an accusing finger at high real wages. It was also pointed out that poor employment growth in the 1980’s was mainly due to a decline in employment in two significant labour employing industries such as textiles and food. It was pointed out that lockouts were more was possible for workdays to be lost than strikes and this reflects the increase
in the pertaining power of employer. Lucas as do most western analysts did not consider the distinction between strikes and lock outs.

Ozaki (1999) has noted that in recent years trade unions have toned down their resistance to flexibility and have come to see flexibility as a means of creating jobs and understand the inevitability of effecting flexibility in this age of intense competition. But union asserts that the flexibility decisions should be the result of social dialogue. Not surprisingly both trade unions and employers protested the former more vehemently. The trade unions fear stems from the possibility of abuse of the freedom of the right to hire and fire given to the employers: they do not believe in the employment generation potential of flexibility there exists Skepticism about the job creating abilities of the manufacturing sector in response to reforms (Debroy 1997).

The percentage share of permanent manual employment decreased during 1991-98 percentage share of casual among nonpermanent increased more than one-third of manual employment belonged to the non-permanent category temporary plus casual if contract labour is added then the share of non regular (non-permanent plus contract) is 42 per cent large firms thousands workers reported using more non-permanent especially casual labour – large firms employ a lion’s share of female labour among firms. The macro date affords support to flexibalisation tendencies in the labour market. The share of casual workers in the total workers (even in urban area where most of the organized sector is expected to be per cent) enumerated by the NSSO has been consistently increasing since 1977 – 78 Deshpande (2004). This category of workers does not enjoy the benefits and privileges that are enjoyed by regular salaried workers are even the self-employed (who may be better off than the other two in same case). The increasing casualisation of workers indicates decreasing quality of employment. But the question is they outsiders? Kept at bay by insiders i.e. by the regular salaries and unionized workers? It is
pertinent to note that flexible employment has grown since the early 1980 in many countries. The share of standard workforce full time and indefinite duration jobs in total employment declined in many countries (Ozaki 1999).

It may be instructive to cite international evidence on the impact of EPL on (UN) employment. OECD’s (1999) analysis of impact of EPL on unemployment found that “EPL strictness has little or no effect on overall unemployment” in OECD countries. Nickell (1997) EPL could ‘slow’ the adjustment of employment to unexpected shocks. Abraham and Houseman (1993) Secondly average job tenures in such a system are expected to be longer thus entry in to employment and exit out of unemployment is likely to be more difficult. This prolongs the duration of the unemployment which makes the unemployment the persistent – It has a social cost. Longer the unemployed a person is faster the irrelevance of his skills and greater the hesitancy of employers to employ such workers. As Nickell and Layard (1999) point out. These effects would certainly reduce short term unemployment via reduced inflow in to unemployment but would raise the long term unemployment via reduced out flow form unemployment. They also found no evidence to show that stricter labour standard or employment protection lead to higher unemployment the most recent survey.

Goldar (2000) examine that employment in organized manufacturing sector grew at 4.30 per cent annum during the first half of the 1990s. This growth has taken place despite prevalence of undeterred statutory regulation impacting on employment decision of the firms. Micro level studies that exist support the Macro level finding that employment growth has taken place in the 1990 has recently reported that 1.3 million employees (13 per cent of the workforce lost their job during the period 1995-96 and 2000-01. The question here is not about the impact of liberalization on employment, but variability of
employment. It is clear that firm choose to do what they want increase or decrease the workforce nothing restrains them.

Heckman and Pages (2000) reviewing the studies for Latin American and Caribbean countries find that strict job security provisions in these countries lead to lower job turnover in the labour market and lower employment rates: they create a large proportion of self employment and a decline in the ratio of wage employment to population of young workers. Their own research suggests that “job security regulation have a substantial impact on employment to population of young workers. There own research suggests that “ Job security regulations have a substantial impact on employment and turnover rates both in Latin America and in OECD countries”. They also argue that job security provisions reduce the job prospects and possibly wages of younger and less experienced workers while protect the job and incomes of other workers this widens the inequality in the labour market. Thus job security provisions are both inefficient because they reduce the demand for labour and inequitable because they benefit some and hurt others. The issue becomes less theoretical and more empirical.

Betcherman (2001) Summaries the impact of job security rules as follows: “The impacts on employment and unemployment levels are modest and in the case of unemployment often statistically insignificant However the empirical findings are much stronger for the dynamic effects on labour turnover and job tenure job creation and job destruction and unemployment duration and on the types of jobs created overall rules to protect job security increase the number of stable jobs but all the price of more long term unemployment and non participation in the labour force and less opportunity for regular employment in the formal sector. This increases the vulnerability of certain groups of workers including woman and youth and the unsoiled or poorly educated. The most consistent explanatory variables of unemployment
were degree of bargaining coordination ‘a benign institutional variable reducing unemployment as centralized and highly coordinated bargaining internalizes externalities and promote wage restraint Shyam Sundar (2004) and the generosity and duration of unemployment benefits malign institutional variables. The evidence from Latin American countries appears to support the neoclassical theory of negative impact of strict EPL.

Even if argue that poor quality jobs would only be created. In other words they expect both job and income security be under threat. The recommendations would create unemployment adding to already alarming levels of unemployment. In fact the SP Gupta committee report had expressed a similar concern and advised against gnarling the unlimited right to hire and fire. The recommendations aiding labour market flexibility to employers would easily and soon be implemented and this would hurt the interests and bargaining power of the workers especially in the organized sector (Ghosh 2001).

A recent survey shows that census is the harvest source of information on internal migration at the cross-country level. A study show that 138 countries collected information on in-internal migration in their censuses compared to 35 through registers and 22 from surveys (Bell, 2003).

Deshpande et al. (2004) in his study found that smaller firms increased employment faster than large ones did but what is the definition of large is by no means clear. For instance they found firms employing 200 to 499 workers registered largest employment increase also found that small and medium firm were able to increase their employment but large firms registered a marginal decline in their employment. Flexibility would mean both an increase and decrease – It is not downward flexibility only as some refer Employers have been able and willing to increase labour employment knowing full well that
they would not be easily allowed downsizing latter. And if necessary they do reduce employment which means that they either ignore the law or make ideological noise. They know well that they can be passed the law or introduce backdoor flexible measures as they have been doing all these years.

Employers complain about dearness allowance. They point out that the linkage of dearness allowance with the consumer price index has over time increased its share in total wages ranging from 40 to 60 per cent. This has undermined the role of basic wages as a reward payable for work performance or skill of a worker (EFI 1987:156-57) It appears from the two surveys that most firms three-fourth in survey paid only a consolidates wage only a few 12 per cent mostly large firms paid a separate dearness allowance. Sudha & Deshpande note that the employers enjoy tremendous flexibility as for as way determination is concerned. The labour institutions do not impose rigidities on wages.

The campaign against trade unions grew louder in the era of liberalization. Micro-level studies have found that unions are not as pervasive and as numerous in a plant as made out to be. Union presence in just over one fourth of the firm’s surveyed multiplicity is less prominent. The post Bombay textile strike period witnessed more lockouts than strikes Shyam Sunder (2004) the former being an important managerial strategy to weaken union power and is a flexibility device. Again union presence was not a deterrent to changing employment in either direction specifically “three of every four firms reporting either an increase or a decrease in total or manual employment reported presence of a union” found that unionized firms were more likely to introduce technological changes. Change the product range and improve the quality of the product. It has to e submitted that union presence was slightly less conducive to growth of employment Leonard (1992). It may be that unions firm may be lad firms which are on decline Two observation are in order here
Venkata Ramen (2004) studying 2.34 per cent collective agreements struck in the 1990s found that unions were not a hindrance to introducing labour flexible measures in the firms and he cited several clauses of understanding reached between trade unions and management on this issue.

Amal Mandal (2005) in his book “Women Workers in Brick Factory” undertook a study of ascertaining socio-economic profile of women workers along with workforce participation, gender discrimination, work and workers of brick factory etc. The focus of the study is confined to the womenworkers of brick factories in one subdivision of Cooch Behar district of West Bengal.

Internal migration is now recognized as an important factor in influencing social and economic development, especially in developing. Indian censuses record that in 2001, 309 million persons were migrants based on place of last residence, which constitute about 30 per cent of the total population of the country. This is nearly double the number of internal migrants as records in the census of 1971 (159 million). This suggests that socio-economic changes in the last three decades have greatly affected the mobility of the population (Lusome, 2006)


Roy (2012) conducted a study, “Socio-Economic Conditions Of Women Workers In Some Selected Brick Kilns In West Bengal: An Empirical Study With Special Reference To Nadia District”. He pointed out that brick Industry is one of the informal/unorganized industries in India. This industry is booming with the expansion of real estate business. It is a labour intensive industry. The industry employs millions of workers. Sizable portions of the workers are women. They live in poverty. At work place, they are exploited, deprived and
do not get the status which the men workers enjoy. There are varied natures of problems the women workers are facing now. Their socio-economic conditions cause concerns. In this backdrop, an attempt has been made to ascertain and examine the socio-economic conditions of women workers engaged in brick kiln factories. The data collected in this regard have been interpreted through percentage analysis. The entire gamut of discussion reveals that women workers live in poverty and as a consequence they come to work in brick kilns. They and their children are mostly illiterate. Most of them are migrants and their land holdings are minimal. Their annual incomes are very small. They are not given the scope of doing skilled work. Very often they express dissatisfaction on working environments. Working environment needs to be improved so that workingwomen get motivated and enthused that may result in development of the kilns. Statutory benefits need to be given for their welfare.

Malik and Malhotra (2012) conducted a case study of effectiveness of labour laws in Haryana with special reference to Sonepat District. They pointed out that labour are workers, or group of workers who are employed in a company or industry to do physical work or a particular kind of work who accept challenging role to meet her personal needs and become economically independent for becoming capable of contributing values in both family and social life. The importance of labour in economic activities is a universal phenomenon. Since independence both legislation and public opinion have done a lot to better the condition of the Brick Kiln Workers but unfortunately it was not responded appreciably despite labour laws. The present case study relates to the employed labour for making bricks in Brick Kiln Industries of District Sonepat. The entire work of this case study is mainly based on primary data and the secondary data is also used up to some extent. A separate questionnaire was prepared for the collection of data from the workers employed in Brick kiln Industries of District Sonepat. After the processing of the data, it is tabulated and analyses have been made. By assessing the profile
of employed labour the conclusions are derived. Interesting thing is that, only 52% employed workers in Brick Kiln Industries were found awaked to some extent with regard to their rights and interest despite the labour protective laws. The unaware Brick Kiln Workers want to decrease the unawareness among them in future by the expansion of education.

Santha and Athena (2013) conducted a study to know the Socioeconomic Status of Brick Workers in Coimbatore. They observed that Brick-making is one of the most ancient industries. India is the second largest producer of clay fired bricks, accounting for more than 15 percent of global production. India is estimated to have more than 100,000 brick kilns producing about 150 – 200 billion bricks annually. Brick industry in India is employing large number of migrant workers including men & women and even children who work in the kiln on a temporary contract and low wages. Hence the researchers have made an attempt to study the socio economic condition of the brick workers in the selected brick kilns of Coimbatore.

For examining the above mentioned factor in relation for the migrant labour we have formulated the research methodology based on the objectives of research derived from the literature.

Keeping in view the above facts and factors in mind it becomes very important to evaluate the condition of migrant labours work in brick kilns of Haryana. Are they aware about their rights, are they aware about their health, education and other responsibilities and how they are treated by their owners. The study aims to find out the socio-economic conditions, indebtedness, working conditions, nature of hiring and firing of the migrant labour, health facilities, safety measures and education of these workers.