

FORCED MIGRATION OF WORKERS: A STUDY OF SOME SELECTED LABOUR CHAURAHAS IN UTTAR PRADESH

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This study is an attempt to bring out the factors associated with migration of labour and the socio-economic background of the migrant workers. It studies urban job practices, social network, and employment pattern, working and living conditions of the Labour Chaurahas (squares). This study is based on Labour Chauraha workers in million-plus city of Uttar Pradesh, namely Allahabad, Agra, Kanpur, Lucknow, Meerut and Varanasi. These labourers are seasonal migrant in nature in the unorganised sector. They transit between root and destination. We found that the migration of these workers is essentially seasonal and rural-urban. This paper traces the trajectories of employment and survival migrant labourers.

INTRODUCTION

Migration from one area to another in search of improved livelihood is a key feature of human history. Indeed, some regions and sectors fall behind in their capacity to offer employment opportunities to population, therefore, people move ahead to grab these emerging opportunities outside their native place (Srivastava and Sasi Kumar, 2003, p.1). Migration is the relocation of the people from one geographic location to another, involving permanent, semi-permanent or temporary settlement. The region where people are leaving is referred as source (root) region whereas the region to which people are entering is known as destination. Migration can be within the country, i.e. internal migration, which can be within district, intra/inter district or intra/inter-state. It can be international migration.

Internal migratory flows are diverse and complex in terms of their direction (rural-rural, rural-urban, urban –urban and urban-rural migration): composition (men only, women only spouse entire² families) as well as duration (seasonal, circular and permanent). In time frame, migration is both short term and long term. In space, migration occurs for both short distance and long distance. By types, there may be (i) long distance short-term migration, (ii) long distance long-term migration, (iii) short distance short-term migration and (iv) short distance long-term migration. Generally, migration by a single individual is generally short-term while, long distance migration of whole family is generally long-term (Majumder, 2011, p.02).

Internal migration in India is mostly influenced by social structures and pattern of development. The pace of industrialisation has widened the gap between rural and urban areas with industrialisation inducing a shift of the workforce toward the centres of activities. The movement of people within a country indirectly reflects the level of development and regional imbalance in economic opportunities (Singh, 2005, p.271). Regional imbalances in development within the country along with rising unemployment have accelerated the pace of internal migration (NCEUS, 2008, p.96). Similarly, Oberai and Singh (1983, p. 48) argued that rural-urban migration can also be viewed as a factor causing uneven development. The development policies since independence

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have accelerated the process of migration. An increasing trend of migration has been empirically evidenced from rural to urban areas. In fact, workers move-out from rural land based activities to urban industrial activities. On the other hand, the rural population may not be easily absorbed in urban industrial sector. Evidences suggest that they are absorbed in work like rickshaw pulling, vegetable vending etc. The development models based on the rural urban transfer loses much of its validity (Papola, 1982, p.136-137). Inter-state migration has always been prevalent in the Indian economy. The high growth rates and pace of development have brought to inter-state migration across the country.

FORCED MIGRATION

'Forced' migration is mainly an urban phenomenon, when the worker feels compelled (forced) to leave the root (village and land linked activities), at least, temporarily to migrate to urban region in search of any job for support income. Migrations generally occurs due to a complex interaction of push and pull factors and it generally takes place when the positive pull factor at the place of destination is outnumbered by negative push factors at the place of origin. The migration motivated with pull factors refers to the kind of the attraction and personal willingness of people that attracts them into the cities and urban migrate due to some economic compulsions, natural calamities, political and cultural pressure etc. However, the magnitude of rural-urban migration is affected more as a result of the push factors because of declined employment opportunities rural agricultural sector, poverty and higher employment opportunities in urban modern industrial sector. Migrants belong to very poor and landless and illiterate are found to be having higher frequency of migration, which is due to the fact that their poor socio-economic condition forces them to migrate. Similarly, in her study in Coimbatore city in Tamil Nadu, Sundari (2005, p.2296) has found that agriculture is a seasonal occupation and regions that are not well developed and are drought prone fail to absorb labour, hence, people are forced to migrate to urban areas. Hence, it is not surprising to find that the majority of those who migrate fall within the categories of landless workers and sub-marginal peasants (Gopalakrishnan and Sreenivass, 2009, p. 10). In his study in south Gujarat, Breman (1885, p. 206) observed that for survival in the tribal hinterland of Surat has come to depend on the regular migration of labour to the plain. In sum, forced migration is the occupational characteristics of workers. Forced migration is 'forced'. It is forced by absence of work, in absence of support income and employment at root, for survive labour is forced migrate.

LABOUR CHAURAHAS: AN INTRODUCTION

An urban area provides large scope for entry of both types of workers, skilled and unskilled people. Unskilled workers, characterized by low literacy-level and rudimentary work skills, try to move into specific sectors where jobs are consistent with their inherited skill. Ultimately, they end their journey by standing on the Labour Chauraha. Labour Chaurahs (squares) in an urban phenomenon. Labour Chaurahas (squares) is a geographical space in city, which occupied public space in the city. The squares are also not pre-fixed or earmarked by the local administration; workers in search of job assemble at a particular public location, generally a location that may draw the attention of the potential employers. Labour Chauraha workers have to natural tendency to assemble at these places because the buyers find it convenient to hire them. Generally, the Labour Chaurahas are located near bus station, railway station, old markets and other similar types

of places in the city. Notable, that these labour chaurahas (squares) are not worksites- these are geographic links for circulation of labour that show the possibilities of temporary employment in nearby locations. These workers are free hand, excepting a few like the workers skilled to work as mason, carpenter.

They assemble because of the needs to have support income that agriculture fails to provide. The labourers who assemble at these labour chauraha in search of work are of three kinds namely, daily commuters, seasonal/temporary migrants and permanent migrants. Once the vehicles/bikes of their buyers stop, these workers flock like honey bees gathering around nest. Daily commuter, those who live on the outskirts of selected million- plus cities and who travel to and fro each day by cycle, bus or train. They go back to their house in the evening whether or not they succeed in getting work at the labour chauraha. Second are the seasonal migrants who live in nearby district and third are those who live in other states of the country. After obtaining work the workers have to negotiate with the potential employers for their wages. Both skilled (mason, plumber, painter) and unskilled workers assemble at the labour chauraha. These workers are hired by contractors, individual person for different types of work like carpentry, painting, digging, headloader, construction, plumbing and other manual works for long and short duration. Often, worker is picked by the employer in labour chaurahas on a daily basis. Thus, cities are economic powerhouses that drive the economy.

Box 1

List of Total Labour Chaurahas in Selected Million-plus Cities in Uttar Pradesh.

Name of the City	Total Labour Chaurahas*	Selected Labour Chaurahas
Agra	Kamal Nagar, Belan Ganj, Loha Mandi, Khandari Chauraha, Heda ki Mandi, Trance- Yamuna Colony, Sahgan, Sikandra, Budhi ka Nagla, Shadra, Godhara	Kamal Nagar, Loha Mandi, Shadra, Sikendra.
Allahabad	Rambag, Rajapur, Allapur, Jushi, High Court, Kareli, Sulem Sarai, Teliyer Ganj, Kutchery, Civil Lines, Govindpur, Bamrauli, Phaphamau, Naini, Chowk	Rambag, Rajapur, Allapur Jhusi
Kanpur	Labangla, Mulganj, KDA, Kutchery, Govindpur, Jajamau, Tatmil, Nayaganj, Kalyanpur, Rawatpur	Lalbangla, Mulganj, KDA, Govindpur
Lucknow	Engineering college, Goyal, Khuram Nagar Chauraha, Rahim Nagar, Indira Nagar C-block Lekhraj Dhal, Patraakaarpuram, Husadiya, Narahi, Shriram Towar, Royal Hotel, Charbagh, Alambagh, Aminabad, Golaganj, Daliganj Chawk, Telibag, Udayganj Nishatganj, Keserbag, Basmandi, Puraniya, Chinhat	Engineering college, Uday Ganj, Nisaht, Goyal
Meerut	Phulawa Colony, Bagpat Adda, Metro, Sagasa, Jailchungi, Begam Bridge, Sastri Nagar, Madhuban Adda, Lalkurti	Begam Bridge, Jail Chungi, Bagpat Adda, Sagasa
Varanasi	Hukul Ganj, Nayi Bazar, Chetganj, Gurudham, Sonar Pura, Durga Kund, Kacheri, Sarai, Maidagini, Lanka, Lahurabir, Godoulia, Ardari Bazar, Ram Nagar	Chetganj, Gurudham, Maidagini Durga Kund

Note: *As per recorded during the field Study, 2011-2012.

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

The unit of analysis of the present study is the individual labour chaurahas (squares) workers in selected million-plus cities in Uttar Pradesh namely, Allahabad, Agra, Kanpur, Lucknow, Meerut and Varanasi (Census of India, 2001). It is difficult to estimate the exact number of migrant workers standing on labour chaurahas (squares) for several reasons. First, the number of such

floating labourers varies seasonally the number reaches its peak during the slack agricultural season. Secondly, they are not uniformly distributed in different areas of the state. Thirdly, there is no official data on number of migrant workers standing on labour chaurahas (squares).

For selection labour chauraha, we have adopted stratified sampling methods. We listed all million plus cities of Uttar Pradesh on the basis of alphabetical order and then we made pilot visits to collect preliminary information regarding existing number of total labour chaurahas (squares) in selected cities. In second stage, we have taken personal interviews with local aged people, labour contractors, labour unions members, NGO (non government organization) works on migrant issues and labourers to assess the accurate numbers of labour chauraha (squares) in the city. Subsequently, we listed all the labour chaurahas. In the third stage, we grouped all the labour chaurahas in geographic basis of the city in alphabetical ordered. Further, we selected one labour chauraha (square) from each direction of the selected cities. In case, during the selection of labour chaurahas in each city, we found existence of more than one labour chaurahas in same alphabetical ordered, then we have randomly selected one labour chauraha from each direction of the city (see Box 1).

For selection of worker, we have made pilot visits of each selected labour chaurahas (squares) and organised informal discussion, focus group discussion with labourers, labour union members, and labour mates. To understand the total number of labourers (obtained approximate figure) who assemble everyday on the selected labour chaurahas (squares) in early morning, we have prepared a list of each labour chauraha containing approximate number of total labourers by their working sector. Thus, we have used purposive sampling method for selection of labourers. Keeping in mind minimum loss of their work opportunity and time of labourers. We also fixed the suitable time for conducting personal interviews with them. A semi-structured questionnaire, based on the objectives of the study was used. Both closed and open-ended question were included in questionnaire. Subsequently, focus group discussion (FGD) was conducted with five to ten workers in each labour chauraha (squares). This session helped in understand of the common issues of workers. Thus, we have interviewed ten (10) labourers from each labour chaurahas (squares) through structured schedule and finally we conducted personal interview with forty (40) labourers in each selected cities. Thus, we have covered 240 labourers from selected six million plus cities.

PROFILE OF THE LABOUR CHAURAHA WORKERS

The following sections show the possible outcomes of the present study and the corresponding percentages for these outcomes, which are represented by values within parentheses. In the percentage section, the socio-economic profiles of the labour chaurahas based on primary data are explained.

Demographic and Social Profile

The study shows that in labour chauraha (squares) workers are basically intra-state migrants (80.8 per cent), but the proportion of inter-state migrants is also in significant number. The present study demonstrates that out of the total migrating workers (240), 90.0 per cent are male, while 10.0 per cent female. In terms of region, 84.2 per cent workers are from rural areas and 15.8 per cent are from urban areas (table 1). In terms of caste composition, in this present study, 45.0 per cent labour chaurahas (squares) workers belongs to OBCs, 29.6 per cent of the migrating workers are

from Schedule Caste (SCs), and 15.0 per cent belongs to the General Caste and 2.5 per cent from the Schedule Caste (Table 1).

Table 1
Socio-Demographic Profile of the Workers

Indicators		Workers Migrating		Total (%)
		Form within UP (%)	From outside UP (%)	
Gender	Male	181 (75.4)	35 (14.6)	216 (90.0)
	Female	13 (5.4)	11 (4.6)	24 (10.0)
	Total	194 (80.8)	46 (19.2)	240 (100.0)
Region	Rural	157 (65.4)	45(18.8)	202 (84.2)
	Urban	37 (15.4)	01 (0.4)	38(15.8)
	Total	194 (80.8)	46 (19.2)	240 (100.0)
Caste	SCs	63(26.3)	8 (3.3)	71(29.6)
	STs	5 (2.1)	1 (0.4)	6(2.5)
	OBCs	81(33.8)	27(11.3)	108(45.0)
	General	28(11.7)	8 (3.3)	36 (15.0)
	Minority	17(1.7)	2(0.8)	19 (7.9)
	Total	194(80.8)	46(19.2)	240 (100.0)
Marital Status	Married	150(62.5)	39 (16.3)	189 (78.8)
	Unmarried	34 (14.2)	7 (2.9)	41(17.1)
	Widower	4 (1.7)	0 (0.0)	4 (1.7)
	Divorcee	3 (1.3)	0 (0.0)	3 (1.3)
	Widow	3 (1.3)	0 (0.0)	3 (1.3)
	Total	194 (80.8)	46 (19.2)	240 (100.0)
Age (years)	Below 18	6 (2.5)	0 (0.0)	6 (2.5)
	18 to 35	91 (37.9)	16 (6.7)	107 (44.6)
	36 to 60	88 (36.7)	29 (12.1)	117 (48.8)
	Above 60	9 (3.8)	1 (0.4)	10 (4.2)
	Total	194 (80.8)	46 (19.2)	240 (100.0)
Education	Illiterate	76 (31.7)	24 (10.0)	100 (41.7)
	Literate	21 (15.0)	4 (2.9)	25 (17.9)
	Primary	27 (19.3)	7 (5.0)	34 (24.3)
	Upper Primary	38 (27.1)	7 (5.0)	45 (32.1)
	High School	23 (16.4)	2 (1.4)	25 (17.9)
	Intermediate	6 (4.3)	0 (0.0)	6 (4.3)
	Graduate & above	3 (2.1)	2 (1.4)	5 (3.6)
	Total	194 (80.8)	46 (19.2)	240 (100.0)

Source: Field Survey, 2011-12.

Educational Profile

The education level among labour chauraha workers is generally low as indicated in Table 1. Out of the total migrant workers, 41.7 per cent are illiterate. The distribution of literate migrating workers by educational level shows that, 17.9 per cent only sign their names (literate) , 32.1 per cent were educated at upper primary level, 24.3 per cent have acquired only primary level education and 3.6 per cent were graduates and above. Most of the literate migrant workers had education to high school level (Table 1). They had come to city in search of better-paid jobs in the formal sector but finally end their journey by standing on the labor chaurahas. Standing on the labour chaurahas is not only one of the easiest means of earning for livelihood but also skill less/semi skill job for them. Age component plays an important role in migration, since

populations in the working age group are in a better position to enter the workforce at the place of migration. Migration begins at an early age in case where the households are at very low levels of income. The migrants not only reduce the family burden at his native place but can also at times remit money to supplement the low income of his households. The distribution of migrating workers by age brackets shows that out of total (240), 48.8 per cent workers were between 36 and 60 years. Overall, 93.4 per cent of the total migrating workers were in the productive age-brackets. The migration decision of an individual is influenced by marital status. It is observed that the distance moved by a migrant is found closely associated with the marital status and depends, to some extent on his/her responsibilities towards the family. The present study shows that, of the total migrating workers (240), 78.8 per cent were married, 17.1 per cent were unmarried and 1.3 per cent was widow (Table 1).

Economic Profile

When talking about migration, we usually begin with the state of agriculture in the area. People migrate, it is argued, because of the failure of their agriculture activities to provide an adequate livelihood. In particular, landlessness is often pointed out as a major factor in driving out people that is migration. Most cultivators in India lack sufficient land to use as a productive means to produce adequate for at least self-consumption survive. The pressure of population, resulting in a high man-land ratio, has been widely recognized as one of the important causes of poverty and rural out-migration. The distribution of size of landholding of migrating workers shows that out of total (240), 54.6 per cent workers were landless and 45.4 per cent workers having small piece of land. Workers pose land in not sufficient for them to survive (Table 2).

Table 2
Distribution of Land of Migrants Workers

Landholding of Workers (In Acres)	Workers Migrating				Total	
	From Within UP		From Outside UP		No.	%
	No.	%	No.	%		
landless	112	57.7	19	41.3	131	54.6
Up to 1.0	26	13.4	12	26.1	38	15.9
1.0 to 2.0	28	14.4	8	17.4	36	15.0
2.0 to 4.0	19	9.8	4	0.9	23	9.6
4.0 to 6.0	3	1.5	1	2.2	4	1.7
Above 6.0	6	3.1	2	4.3	8	3.3
Total	194	100.0	46	100.0	240	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2011-12.

The distribution of availability of works at root shows that 41.3 per cent of the total workers (240) got work opportunity for a period less than three months per year of which 40.7 per cent migrated from within UP and 43.5 per cent from outside UP. 1.7 Per cent of the workers got opportunity to work for nine (9) months or more of which 0.5 per cent migrated from within UP and 6.5 per cent from outside UP. Most of the workers (82.6 per cent) migrating from outside UP get work opportunity to work at root for a period of less than six months per year. Hence, migration from outside UP is mainly for non-dependable work opportunity at the root. In case for workers migrating from within UP, 77.8 per cent of the workers work at root for a period of less than six months (Table 3).

Table 3
Availability of Work Opportunity of Workers at their Root

Availability of Works (by Months)	Workers Migrating				Total	
	From Within UP		From Outside UP			
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Less than 3 Months	79	40.7	20	43.5	99	41.3
3 to 6 Months	72	37.1	18	39.1	90	37.5
6 to 9 Months	42	21.6	5	10.9	47	19.6
9 Months and above	1	0.5	3	6.5	4	1.7
Total	194	100.0	46	100.0	240	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2011-12.

REASONS FOR MIGRATION

The livelihood opportunities available to the rural poor are hardly keeping pace with the increase in their numbers. Thus, declining work opportunity is one the main driving factors of out migration. Migration of people from rural to urban areas may be an alternative solution for the unemployment and underemployment in the rural areas (Mishra, 2004, Pp. 7). Employment opportunity at destination is the most important economic factor of migration. Urban informal sector provides vast scope of employment in industries, transportation, trade, construction and other sectors. Therefore, they attract migrants from different parts of country and the process of rural-urban migration takes place. Reasons for migration of workers are varied and complex. It may be the need for additional income or a desire for employment of consumer goods and consumer durables or to invest in business and/or education. Land fragmentation, drought, increasing severe ground water scarcity and the consequent inability of agriculture in many areas to provide more than a single season's employment, as well as the increasing uncertain financial environment, falling farming all help to 'push' labourers into other occupations.

Table 4
Reasons for Migration of Migrating Workers.

Reasons for Migration	Workers Migrating				Total	
	From Within UP		From Outside UP			
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
For livelihood	97	50.0	19	41.3	116	48.3
Non-Availability of Work at village	48	24.7	12	26.1	60	25.0
Repayment of Loan	22	11.3	8	17.4	30	12.5
Attraction of city life	11	5.7	5	10.9	16	6.7
Family problem	16	8.2	2	4.3	18	7.5
Total	194	100.0	46	100.0	240	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2011-12.

On the other side, rapid urban growth and its demand for labourers in construction, brick-making and small scale services; all help to 'pull' workers into new areas and occupations, despite the risks and isolation from family that migration process. The economic pull of urban areas, where non-agricultural incomes are more than agricultural incomes, and where, urban income is also secure than rural ones. Not only availability of limited employment opportunity of rural areas is confined exclusively to rural areas but also lack of year-around employment has been one of the

main reasons for out-migration. the reasons for migration of migrating workers shows that out of total(240), 48.3 per cent workers reported that livelihood is one of the main push factor that compel labour to move-out from their root of which 50.0 per cent migrated from within UP and 41.3 per cent from outside UP (Table 4).

Table 5

Sources of Information for Workers in Labour Market

Types of Sources	Source of Information	Workers Migrating				Total	
		From Within UP		From Outside UP			
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Informal/ Social Network	Friends and Relatives	54	27.8	25	54.3	79	32.9
	Neighbors	56	28.9	16	34.8	72	30.0
	Self Search	84	43.3	5	10.9	89	37.1
Formal	Print / Electronic Media	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Total		194	100.0	46	100.0	100	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2011-12.

IN MIGRATION PROCESS OF WORKERS

Information networkers between the root and the destination are especially important in shaping rural-urban migration stream. Information regarding the availability of work opportunities and prevailing wage rate passes through these networks and functions to encourage or discourage probability of migrants accordingly. Further, the information about the job prospects in the urban labour market is spread by the migrants during the visit of their root. Social network plays a vital role in adaptive function for the migrants once they reach to their destination (Lee, 1966, Pp. 51).

Informal information or social network was the only source of information of migrating workers. Of the total(240) migrating workers, 32.9 per cent migrated based on information provided by friends and relatives 30.0 per cent based on neighbours, and 37.1 per cent by circulation of the self in uncertainty (without any prior information) (Table 5).

Table 6

Methods of Recruitment of Migrating Workers.

Methods of Recruitment		Workers Migrating				Total	
		From Within UP		From Outside UP			
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Informal	Direct Employer	98	50.5	21	45.7	119	49.6
	Contractor	68	35.1	15	32.6	83	34.6
	Other Labourers (friends and Relatives)	22	11.3	10	21.7	32	13.3
	Labour Mate	4	2.1	0	0.0	4	1.7
	Others	2	1.0	0	0.0	2	0.8
Formal	Advertisement/ Interview	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Total		194	100.0	46	100.0	240	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2011-12.

RECRUITMENT METHODS OF THE WORKERS

Often people settled locally (village) move in a state of limited knowledge about the job opportunities. This limited knowledge is derived from the past practice of the same individual or

the practice of his past generation, or the information provided by the local migrated neighbours' friends and relatives.

The recruitment process of migrating workers shows that, of the total (240), 49.6 per cent workers were hired by direct employers, 34.6 per cent workers found jobs through contractors. The recruitment process of unorganised sector workers was found to be very different from that of the organised sector. We did not find a single case of recruitment through formal method (advertisement and interviews). Usually, workers standing on Labour Chaurahas are hired by employers though open competition (negotiation). This shows informality in the recruitment process of Labour Chaurahas workers (Table 6).

Table 7
Distribution of Working Days per Month at Destination

Working Days (Per Month)	Workers Migrating				Total	
	From Within UP		From Outside UP		No.	%
	No.	%	No.	%		
Less than 10 days	4	2.1	1	2.2	5	2.1
10 to 15 days	77	39.7	21	45.7	98	40.8
15 to 20 days	77	39.7	13	28.3	90	37.5
20 to 25 days	27	13.9	7	15.2	34	14.2
25 days and above	9	4.6	4	8.7	13	5.4
Total	194	100.0	46	100.0	240	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2011-12.

OCCUPATION AND DESTINATION

The labour Chauraha workers are mostly engaged in construction sector. Construction sector contains a variety of jobs, skilled, semi-skilled and un-skilled. Skilled workers comprise, engineers, electricians, etc., in semi-skilled: mason, plumber and painter and un-skilled categories included, beldar, loading/unloading, earth digging, etc. The field data shows, all the labor chauraha workers are engaged in diverse categories of construction sector. About 76.2 per cent workers are beldars, followed by 12.5 per cent masons, 7.1 per cent painter, 1.7 per cent carpenter and 2.5 per cent are hotel workers. Thus, two-thirds of the total workers are engaged in manual work (earth digging, sand mixing, etc.).

The distribution of working days per month shows that out of total (240) migrated workers, 40.8 per cent workers got works between 10 to 15 days in a month and only 2.1 per cent got works less than 10 days in a month. Of the total migrated workers, 88.3 per cent got works between 10 and 20 days (Table 7).

LIVING CONDITIONS & PATTERN

Of the total (214) migrating workers, 33.6 per cent workers used footpath (including railway stations/ temples) for reside of which 37.5 per cent workers from within UP and 19.6 per cent from outside UP. 19.6 per cent of the workers have no fixed place to reside at destination (Table 8).

The living pattern of migrating workers in UP shows that 34.2 per cent of the workers were staying with family where 33.0 per cent migrated from within UP and 28.3 per cent from outside UP. 10.8 per cent workers were daily commuters of which cent per cent workers migrated over short distance (within UP). The majority of workers (55.5 per cent) live as individuals and a few

with members in extended family friends. The workers migrating over long distance (from outside UP) migrate with spouse (Table 9).

Table 8
Place of Residence of Migrating Workers at Destination

Place of Residence	Workers Migrating				Total	
	From Within UP		From Outside UP		No.	%
	No.	%	No.	%		
Registered Slum area	15	8.9	3	6.5	18	8.4
Unregistered Slum area	16	9.5	6	13.0	22	10.3
Main Mohalla	15	8.9	15	32.6	30	14.0
In a fixed place adjoining the city	24	14.3	6	13.0	30	14.0
Footpath (Railway station/ temples)	63	37.5	9	19.6	72	33.6
No fixed place	35	20.8	7	15.2	42	19.6
Total	168	100.0	46	100.0	214	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2011-12.

Note: Daily Commuting workers excluded from calculation. Mohalla means recognised residential place.

Table 9
Living Pattern of Migrating Workers at Destination

Living Pattern	Workers Migrating				Total	
	From Within UP		From Outside UP		No.	%
	No.	%	No.	%		
Individual	58	29.9	13	28.3	71	29.6
With family*	64	33.0	18	39.1	82	34.2
With some family	7	3.6	8	17.4	15	6.3
With other workers	39	20.1	7	15.2	46	19.2
Daily Commuters	26	13.4	0	0.0	26	10.8
Total	194	100.0	46	100.0	240	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2011-12.

Note: *Wife and children, ** Other than wife and children

CONCLUSION

Although, the State of Uttar Pradesh is prominent for out-migration zone across the country (India). In the state of UP there is sizeable in-migration from neighboring states, namely, Madhya Pradesh, Bihar, Chhattisgarh, and Jharkhand. These are underdeveloped regions. The present study shows that significant per cent of inter-state migrants. That explains that inter-state migration from more economically backward regions to less economically backward regions. Workers, who migrated from within Uttar Pradesh, mostly come from rural areas. Hence, essentially it shows rural-urban migration.

Declining employment opportunity at root compelled the workers to move out from their root. Majority of workers migrated in search of work (job) because at root agriculture is a seasonal occupation and provides employment for short and seasonal duration. As the workers reported frequent crop-failure, rain-fed cultivation, drought and flood force them to move out from their root to search for jobs in other regions during off agricultural season.

In the root they are engaged mainly in agriculture and related activities for their livelihood. Agriculture is a seasonal occupation and does not provide employment opportunity throughout the year. Work opportunity by duration of work for workers at the destination is greater than that at

the root. The absence of continuous work opportunity forced them to move out from their root place in order to search for additional employment opportunities.

Social network between the root and the destination plays a very important role in shaping rural-urban migration. Workers receive information regarding the availability of work opportunity and existing wage-rate through informal information sources. This informal information sources comprise of friends, relatives and neighbouring workers (from same village or different village). Further, the information about the job prospect in urban informal sector is spread by the migrants during visits back to their root. However, individual efforts play an important role in overall migration process.

The recruitment process of the unorganised sector workers was found to be very different from that of the organised sector. We did not find a single case of recruitment through formal method (advertisement and interviews). Usually workers standing on labour chaurahas are hired by employers though open competition (negotiation). The most common method of recruiting migrant labour is through a thekedar (contractor), who acts as the intermediary between the capitalist (or between next levels of contractor) and worker. The second form of recruitment method is hired by the direct employers. This tends to be common with short term migration, and is for instance the standard method of recruitment for migrant in construction workers. Labour prefers to direct recruitment method instead of contractor in terms of wage-securities, self-stream etc.

In unorganised sector, there is no job security as well as social security. Migrant workers employed in construction activity are highly vulnerable segments of the labour force. The workers in construction industry are vulnerable to the inherent risk to their life and limbs. Construction activities are also characterized by poor training, temporary relationships between the employer and the employee, (hire and fire policy) uncertain working hours, lack of basic amenities, inadequacy of welfare facilities, and casual approach of employers towards the problems of employees. These workers are employed on hire and fire policy. They are hired only for as long as they are willing and are fit enough to work, and fired when there is a downturn in the demand for their labour power or when they have lost their capacity to work.

Health hazards are a serious problem for migrant workers. Working in multi-stories building and shopping malls has involved hard labour and risks. In the case of accident (work related) there are no first aid facilities offered by employers or contractor. The migrant workers are residing in very deplorable and unhygienic conditions. Workers who migrated with family or some family members they are reside in registered slum area, unregistered slum area and main mohalla, other than individuals. Few of the workers (in case of family migration) reside in rented houses. While, individual stays on footpath (on the squares and pavement). The availability of basic amenities is almost negligible. They often depended on public sources for their basic amenities such as, water, electricity and sanitation. In fact, these workers are susceptible to infections diseases because of crowded and unhygienic living conditions. The main problems faced by migrant workers are that they are often not able to get work on all the days of the month. There is large gap between willingness to work and access to actual work. We recoded the on an average workers remained idle for one-and-half weeks in a month. In sum, an urban area provides large scope for entry of both types of workers, skilled and unskilled. Unskilled workers, characterized by low literacy-

level and rudimentary inherited work skills, try to move into specific sectors where jobs are consistent with their inherited skill. Regardless of skill, the migrated population can find diversified livelihood opportunities with various incomes in the towns and cities. Hence, poor people consider migration a livelihood coping strategy.

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