

Exploring Rural-Urban Dynamics: A Study of Inter-State Migrants in Gurgaon



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*Researching Labour and Migration between
Home and Destination States and Developing
a Holistic Rural-Urban Approach*

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Executive Summary

In the light of on-going structural changes in India and consequently changing contours of the rural economy, the nature and pattern of migration has been changing over time. During the last two decades, there has been a general change in the destination of migration from rural-rural to rural-urban. However, the intensity of migration is generally reported to be low in India due to the conventional approach of defining migration.

Planning for the poor in the destination cities is conspicuous by its absence. As the mind-set of the urban planners is to treat migrants as outsiders and a burden on the existing civic infrastructure, they get excluded from most urban planning processes and mechanisms, compounding the problems that they are already plagued with.

Inter-State Migrant Workmen (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Act, 1979 was promulgated for the purpose of regulation of the service condition of the migrant workers, but in status today, it is an ineffective piece of legislation. In today's scenario, there is an urgent need to revisit the debate on legislation for the welfare of migrant workers.

Rationale of the Project

In order to address the injustice against migrant workers, it is pertinent that the strategies take into account not just the destination states but also the home states of migrants. With this understanding, Society for Labour and Development has begun to link with Bihar, UP, and Jharkhand- the predominant states from where migrant workers come to Gurgaon. The four-fold research undertaken by the Society for Labour and Development traces the forward and backward linkages of workers in Haryana who have migrated from villages in Uttar Pradesh, Bihar and Jharkhand. The research also analyses the factors that drive rural to urban migration, and the socio-economic profile of the migrant workers' families in the villages.

Methodology

In Gurgaon, migrants from five districts of U.P., Bihar and Jharkhand Rural Kanpur, Gorakhpur, Nalanda, Nawada and Hazaribagh - were selected for the purpose of this study, given their predominance among the migrant community. A survey was conducted among 200 migrant workers in garment, construction, auto parts and domestic workers, and self-employed migrants. Three focused group discussions (FGDs) were conducted with garment male workers, garment women workers and domestic workers. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with two lawyers representing workers in the labour court and with the chief medical officer (CMO) of the government health centre. Apart from collecting quantitative and qualitative data from the field, an extensive literature review was done to identify the gaps in existing resources on migration.

Respondents' Profile

A total of 81% of the respondents were male workers. The overwhelming number of respondents was in the age group of 18 to 40 years, which is 88%. Only 12% of the respondents were above the age of 41 years. This figure is also a reflection of the fact that rural to urban migrants are mostly youth, and in the case of Gurgaon, these are predominantly young men. 78% of the respondents were married. It was mainly the construction and domestic workers who either "could not read and sign" or just managed to "read and sign." All the domestic workers, who responded to the survey, were women. Among the respondents, 80% belonged to the Other Backward Classes (OBCs) group. Up to 14% and 4% belonged to the Scheduled Caste (SC) and Scheduled Tribe (ST) groups, respectively. Only 2% of the respondents belonged to the General Category.

Findings of the Survey

Economic Profile

Up to 70% of the respondents earn a monthly wage between Rs. 5001 and Rs. 7000, while 17% of the respondents' monthly income is between Rs. 7001 and Rs. 10,000. The monthly income of the family of respondent in a native village is less than this, which constitutes the major reason for migration.

Reasons for Migration to Gurgaon

In rural areas, income earned by a family is so meagre that at least one of the family members needs to venture out of the village in search of livelihood or job that can result in additional income source for the family. It was articulated in various ways by the respondents in terms of unemployment and low wages in villages and the desire to not indulge in agricultural work, etc.

The reason for choosing Gurgaon to migrate was mostly because of their personal contacts, however, the construction workers mostly came with contractors. Most of the respondents had been working in Gurgaon for more than two years with some of them having as much as 10 years or more of work experience in Gurgaon. More work experience, however, does not guarantee employment security or job stability. More than 55% of the respondents have changed/had to change their job more than thrice during their stay in Gurgaon.

Working Conditions

The workplaces are highly hierarchical and supervisors, floor in-charges act in authoritarian ways. Workers are also given punishments in the form of physical or verbal abuse or creating a fearful environment with the help of hired local goons. Most of the workers complained in the FGDs that even though they like the work they are doing, the work environment is not at all healthy and friendly.

The working hours for the respondents varies from 8 hours to more than 12 hours, excluding overtime. On an average, workers perform four to six hours of overtime each day. Exceptions to it could only be lack of work in the factories or worksites. During the heavy production season, workers are compulsorily asked to do overtime to fulfil the demand. Up to 76% of the workers work on six days each week, while 20% work on all seven days. Many a time, workers find themselves removed from the factory if they take more than 7-8 days to return from home.

Women respondents, who were either domestic workers or garment workers, reported discriminatory and inhuman practices with regard to maternity leave. Women workers find it uncomfortable to work in the men dominated factory floor in the last three months of their pregnancy. Hence, most of the garment women workers in Gurgaon leave job much before delivery and come back to search for a new job post-delivery.

Living Conditions of Migrant Workers

Migrants in Gurgaon live in places ranging from slums to rented rooms in *chawls* to rented rooms in multi-storeyed buildings. Most of the buildings where rented rooms are available consist of around 30 to 100 rooms. Generally rooms of the size of 10 X 10 feet are occupied by four to six workers. Many of the rooms do not have proper ventilation, full-time water and electricity supply, proper sewage and drainage systems and all weather accessible roads. Only 29% of the migrant workers said that they have more than 12 hours of electricity supply in Gurgaon. On the condition of toilets, only 2% have termed the condition of their toilet as good, 46% as OK, 18% as bad and 34% as very bad. Moreover, the toilets are mostly available on a shared basis where one toilet is constructed per five to eight rooms. Most of the workers buy LPG at the market price, i.e., Rs. 100 per kg, which comes to Rs. 1450 per cylinder.

Migrants face harassment from house owners in multiple forms. House owners do not agree to certify that the tenant is living in their house on a rented basis. This creates problem for workers in getting Voter Id, Bank account, LPG connection, etc., and increases their cost of living. There is a late payment fee for paying the room rent. Generally, tenants have to pay the rent by the 7th or 10th day of the month.

Most of the house owners run a grocery shop at the entrance of the building and make it compulsory for the tenants to buy from the same shop. In this practice, the shop sells the commodities in a higher price than what the workers can get in the market.

Migrant workers face verbal abuses from house owners. The latter blamed the workers for unhygienic conditions where the houses lack proper infrastructural facilities. The area where the migrants are living also lacks proper attention by the local authorities. Open and overflowing sewage drains are common sites in the locality.

Sexual Harassment and Violence against Women

Migrant women in Gurgaon have to cope with sexual harassment and violence on an everyday basis. They face harassment on the streets, at their workplaces and in public spaces, face threats and intimidation from landlords and upper-caste men, and have to endure violence in their own homes. Verbal abuse, lewd comments and gestures and eve-teasing were the most common forms of harassment that women faced. Women working in the factories similarly face verbal and physical abuse by male co-workers and supervisors on an almost everyday basis. The women narrate how supervisors and floor in-charges use abusive language, if they do not meet their production targets, and also physically abuse them at times by touching them at inappropriate places. Most women reported that due to rising cases of violence and sexual assault, they usually travel in groups and take longer routes to reach back home from work, which pass via the main road. Many also stated that often they are accompanied by their husbands late night. Women also expressed apprehension in sending their daughters alone to the market and said that they usually prefer sending their sons to buy groceries or other essential materials.

Cost of Living:

Migrant workers' cost of living majorly comprises of expenses for house rent including electricity bill, cooking fuel, groceries, medical aid, children's education, marriages at home, repayment of debt and festivals. On an average, the migrants in our survey earn Rs. 6720

per month. The average of their monthly spending including repayment of loan and remittances is Rs. 7350. This implies that on the whole the migrants are not earning but are falling under an average debt of Rs. 630 each month. In practice, it means that most of the migrants have to compromise on healthcare, children's education and sending remittances/repayment of loan. The residence, food, fuel and daily need costs are already bare minimum wherein the migrants have compromised as much as they could.

Remittances

A majority of the workers migrated to Gurgaon in order to send remittances. However, not all can manage to send money home. Up to 61% of the respondents said that they send money to their families while 12% said that they send money only to meet emergency expenses such as medical treatment or marriage. Those, who send remittances, struggle to maintain regularity. The amount of remittances is also meagre. The remittances are used by the family in a village for meeting monthly needs, construction of *pakka* house, repayment of loan, saving for marriage expenditure and children's education. Since most of the families have bank accounts in the village or nearby town, migrants use bank transfers to send money. However, a major difficulty in this regard is that banks are closed on Sundays, which is also an off day for most of the workers.

Identity Proof and Social Security Schemes

A major problem faced by migrants is inaccessibility of social security schemes due to lack of address proof in an urban area. As a consequence, migrants cannot receive cheap ration from government ration shops even though their economic condition makes them eligible for it. They also cannot get an LPG connection. Neither do they become eligible to receive other social welfare schemes of respective state governments such as financial assistance in medical treatment, guaranteed amount for daughter's marriage or old age pension, etc. Exclusion of a large migrant workforce from social security scheme is a major lacuna in poverty reduction policies of the government.

Satisfaction of the Migrants

Overall, the respondents were not satisfied with their work, salary and living conditions. They are also not willing to bring their families to Gurgaon. In fact, going back and bringing all the family members to Gurgaon are not the options available to them. The hardest part of the migration undertaken by the workers is to witness that their family's financial condition is not improving. The migrants in Gurgaon consider low wages and inflation of their food bill as big hurdles in improving the family's financial condition.

Key Issues

The key issues emerging from these findings are low wages of workers, inhuman living conditions of migrants, social and political exclusion of migrant workers, unsafe conditions for migrant women and migrant workers' close and inseparable bonding with the source village. In order to address this scenario, a three-pronged strategy is required; increasing employment and livelihood opportunities in rural area, raising minimum wages and including migrant workers in development planning in urban areas. This strategy has the potential to create a win-win situation for both rural and urban areas.

Internal migration has mostly helped the migrant's family to survive in difficult financial conditions, i.e., due to migration the family has not fallen into the trap of abject poverty. At the same time, the remittances by the migrant member have resulted in repayment of loan and bearing the cost of medical treatment to some extent. The remittances have helped some families to construct *pacca* houses and support children's education. These are no lesser achievements in rural areas. If the household's income rises in the village, there is ground to believe that the remittances sent by the migrants will be used more on health and education needs of the family as well as to increase the assets of the family.

The contribution of migrants to the GDP of the country goes unnoticed. It is estimated that the migrants contribute no less than 10% to the country's GDP.¹ Many other positive impacts as well as potentials through the migration process remain unrecognized. Migrants are an important component of social dynamism and material development of the society. They can also be tools of cultural amalgamation and innovation. The migration process is an important tool to break the old feudal bondages, including the caste system, in the rural area. Migrants bring back to the source place hoards of new information, skills, knowledge about new technology, new attitude and most importantly – rising aspiration. Due to lack of a comprehensive policy on migration, least on connecting rural--urban threads, the potentials arising through the migration process is not explored and the problems related to migration are not addressed.

Select Recommendations:

1. Revise design of Census and National Sample Surveys on migration to adequately capture sex disaggregated and age-disaggregated data on short-term migration, multiple reasons for migration, multiple reasons for women's migration and multiple reasons for children's migration. Conduct detailed countrywide mapping of internal migration (at panchayat level with the support of civil society organizations and labour departments).
2. Increase minimum wages across the sectors. Consider demand of all the Trade Unions to raise the minimum wage to Rs. 10,000 per month.
3. Identify urban conglomerations drawing migrants from rural areas and make appropriate financial allocation under Jawaharlal Nehru Urban Renewal Mission for expansion of public transport, hygienic services, public educational institutions, public banking and public health services. Construct low-cost housing on a massive scale to provide on minimal rent to migrant workers. Construct low cost hostels for migrant working women. Arrange night shelters and short-stay homes for migrants to provide seasonal and temporary accommodation for migrant workers in high in-migration states. Set-up of walk-in resource centres for migrants at destination places, which provide legal counselling and information on grievance handling and dispute resolution mechanisms.

¹ P. Deshingkar and S. Akter, *Migration and Human Development in India*, Human Development Research Paper, UNDP, 2009.

4. Revise the Inter-State Migrant Workmen (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Act (1979). Enact a comprehensive Migrants' Rights Legislation to ensure benefits of all the social security and welfare schemes to the migrant population as well as prohibiting any kind of discriminatory practices against the migrants. The legislation must include Complete portability in terms of registration, payment of premium (where applicable), and receipt of benefits of all centrally sponsored social protection programmes, irrespective of where migrants reside. Particularly, portability of benefits of cheap ration through public distribution system and LPG connection for subsidised cooking fuel must be ensured.
5. Mainstream migration in a comprehensive and focused manner in policy documents and national development plans such as Five Year Plans, MGNREGA, Rashtriya Swasthya Bima Yojana, Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission and City Development Plans. State governments should identify migration-prone districts where MGNREGS is not implemented properly. The district magistrate should be issued directives to address the problem on a war footing.

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Introduction

Internal migration is an essential and inevitable component of the economic and social life of a country. Migrants¹ constitute a floating and invisible population, alternating between source and destination areas and remaining on the periphery of the society. Socio-economic changes taking place in India in the epoch of globalization have a strong imprint of the internal migration process. Earlier, studies on internal migration have indicated a decline in population mobility up to 1990s.² However, the post-economic reform period has witnessed a spurt in internal migration, which is confirmed by Census of India, 2001, and NSSO study done during 2007--08. The economic reform policy aims to reduce governmental expenditure in order to reduce fiscal deficit, promotes export-oriented growth, lessens governmental controls and licensing, and encourages private participation for competition and efficiency. It is argued by the supporters of this policy as well as its opponents that the economic reforms would result in enormous increase in the internal migration of the population. The supporters argue that the impetus provided to investment and competition has resulted in a boost to economic growth and job opportunities. This has led to pull factors accelerating rural to urban migration. On the other hand, opponents of the economic reform argue that the new policy is adversely affecting agriculture as well as village and cottage industries resulting in impoverishment of rural population. This condition is pushing the people to migrate to urban areas in search of livelihood.³ Eminent journalist, P. Sainath, pointed out that in 1993 there was only one bus every week between Mehbubnagar in Andhra Pradesh to Mumbai. In 2003, there were as many as 45 buses plying every week between these two destinations excluding private bus services. The increase was a result of the people migrating to the Mumbai--Pune belt in search of employment. Sainath further pointed out that since 2008, the bus service has declined to 28 per week as a result of Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme

¹ According to the Indian Census, a person is considered as migrant if his place of birth is different from the place where he is being enumerated or if the place in which he is being enumerated during the census is other than his place of last residence.

² Amitabh Kundu and Shalini Gupta, "Migration, Urbanization and Regional Inequality," *Economic and Political Weekly*, XXVIII(29), pp. 3079--98, 1996.

³ Amitabh Kundu, "Trends and Structure of Employment in the 1990s: Implication for Urban Growth", *Economic and Political Weekly*, 32(4), pp. 1399--1405, 1997.

(MGNREGS).⁴ Another example is the demand on Indian Railways to increase its services during the festival season between particular destinations. For example, in 2011, the Northern Railways ran 74 special trains to clear the rush of passengers travelling during Chhhat festival. Similarly, in 2012, the Southern Railways ran special trains for passengers during Pongal festivities.⁵

Lead source states of internal migrants include Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Odisha, Uttarakhand and Tamil Nadu, whereas key destination areas are Delhi, Maharashtra, Gujarat, Haryana, Punjab and Karnataka. There are conspicuous migration corridors within the country: Bihar to National Capital Region (NCR), Bihar to Haryana and Punjab, Uttar Pradesh to Maharashtra, Odisha to Gujarat, Odisha to Andhra Pradesh and Rajasthan to Gujarat.⁶

Most of the internal migrants are excluded from the economic, social, cultural, and political life of the society. They are often treated as second class citizens by local authorities and sometime by the local community as well. Internal migrants face enormous difficulties in their day to day lives, such as, lack of local identity proof, lack of political representation, lack of local residency or tenant rights, lack of access to social security benefits such as cheap ration or free schooling for children, a hate campaign against them by local political or ethnic groups, involvement in low-paid insecure hazardous work. Despite the fact that Article 19 of the Constitution of India gives the right to all citizens to “move freely throughout the territory of India; to reside and settle in any part of the territory of India”; discrimination and prejudices against internal migrants are high and rising. A substantial number of migrant workers work in the informal sector, are mostly unorganized and have very little or no social security benefits. Also, their working conditions are mostly unsafe, exploitative and robbing the very dignity of workers. Despite the huge and ever-increasing number of internal migrants and many problems faced by

⁴ P. Sainath, “The Bus to Mumbai”, *The Hindu*, June 1, 2003 and P. Sainath, NREGA Hits Buses to Mumbai, *The Hindu*, May 31, 2008.

⁵ S. Chandrasekhar and Ajay Sharma, “On the Internal Mobility of Indians: Knowledge Gaps and Emerging Concerns”, WP-2012--023, Indira Gandhi Institute of Development Research, Mumbai, September 2012 (www.igidr.ac.in/pdf/publication/WP-2012-023.pdf).

⁶ UNESCO/UNICEF, National Workshop on Migration and Human Development in India, 6--7 December, 2011, Workshop Compendium, Vol. 1: Workshop Report, New Delhi, 2012.

them, they are at the bottom of priority in government policies. Inaction towards addressing internal migrants' problems or misconceived policies towards them are often the result of the misunderstanding about the migratory phenomenon and lack of awareness about the contribution they are making towards the country's economic growth and development. Internal migrants' condition is best summed up by Harsh Mander and Gayatri Sahgal as follows:

“Millions of footloose and impoverished men, women and children in India, migrate from the countryside each year to cities – in crowded trains, buses, trucks and sometimes on foot – their modest belongings bundled over their heads, in search of the opportunities and means to survive. Some arrive alone; some are accompanied by family or friends. Some stay for a season, some several years, some permanently. Many tend to drift quickly to low-end, low paid, vulnerable occupations – picking waste, pulling rickshaws, constructing buildings and roads, or working in people's homes. They service a city which does not welcome them. Forever treated as intruders and somehow illegitimate citizens, they live in under-served makeshift shanties, under plastic sheets, or on streets and in night shelters. Police and municipal authorities notoriously harass and drive them away. Laws protect them in theory, but rarely in practice. Their wage rates tend to be exploitative, illegal and uncertain, work hours long, and conditions of employment unhealthy and unsafe. They are often unable to easily access even elementary citizenship rights in the city, like the right to vote, a ration card, supplementary feeding for their children, and school admissions. Their numbers are substantial; their economic contributions enormous; yet internal migrants tend to remain in the periphery of public policy.”⁷

The internal migrants, whom the above description fits well, can be categorized under the term *Distress Migration*. It means movement from one's usual place of residence wherein the individual and/or the family perceive that under the existing circumstances the only option open to them to survive is to migrate to another place. Such distress is associated with extreme paucity of livelihood options, natural calamities, and social distress. Thus, migration is distress if it is motivated by extreme economic deprivation, natural and

⁷ Harsh Mander and Gayatri Sahgal, *Internal Migration in India: Distress and Opportunities*, A Study Commissioned by Dan Church India, 2010.

environmental disasters, or forms of intolerable or life-threatening social oppression.⁸ There are two dominant streams in the migration studies. The debate revolves around the structural logic of capitalist development versus individual rationality and household behaviour.⁹ One school of thought views migration as a “process of last resort” and the other school of thought looks at it as “a part of key human desire to improve the life standard.” The first stream believes that populations are historically immobile and migration is not a free choice for the people, particularly for poor in the society. According to it, the poorest strata, least educated and groups at the bottom of the social pyramid fall in this category. In the Indian context, they mostly belong to Scheduled Caste (SC), Scheduled Tribes (STs) and the Muslim community.¹⁰ They are deprived of assets and lack skills and capabilities. As a result, they are primarily absorbed in the informal sector of the urban economy, as casual labourers, construction workers, rickshaw-pullers, waste-pickers, etc.¹¹ In these sectors, the migrant workers face more exploitative and hazardous work conditions with limits on their personal movement and freedom to express and organize. Workers face conditions of debt bondage, long working hours and unhygienic environment.¹² Even then, people migrate to undertake work in such sectors because the rate of wages is often higher than what they would otherwise earn in the source area.¹³ Thus, this kind of migration pattern enables migrants and their families to ensure their survival, mainly on or close to the poverty line.¹⁴ It means that the migration has not resulted in uplifting their living standards but helped them avoid death by starvation.

⁸ Harsh Mander and Gayatri Sahgal, *Internal Migration in India: Distress and Opportunities*, A Study Commissioned by Dan Church India, 2010.

⁹ A. de Haan and B. Rogaly, Introduction: Migrant Workers and their Role in Rural Change, *Journal of Development Studies*, 37(5), 2002.

¹⁰ K Bird and P Deshingkar, “Circular migration in India”, ODI Policy Brief No. 4, 2009.

¹¹ P. Deshingkar, S Akter, J Farrington, P Sharma and S Kumar, “Circular Migration in Madhya Pradesh: Changing Patterns and Social Protection Needs”, *The European Journal of Development*, 612–628, 2008.

¹² P. Deshingkar, S Akter, J Farrington, P Sharma and S Kumar, “Circular Migration in Madhya Pradesh: Changing Patterns and Social Protection Needs”, *The European Journal of Development*, 612–628, 2008.

¹³ K Bird and P Deshingkar, “Circular migration in India”, ODI Policy Brief No. 4, 2009.

¹⁴ H Waddington and R. Sabates Wheeler, “How Does Poverty Affect Migration Choice? A Review of Literature”, IDS Working Paper, T3, 2003.

The second stream believes that migration has the potential to improve various dimensions of human development.¹⁵ It regards migration as a fundamental component of human freedom and a key feature of human history.¹⁶ Migration undertaken by slightly better off groups, which are generally equipped with comparatively higher levels of education, skill, assets and a higher social standing, can be counted in this category. In the Indian context, Other Backward Castes (OBCs) as well as poor people from Upper Castes tend to predominate in this kind of migration. They undertake work in small industrial units, security services, plumbing, carpentry etc.¹⁷ These jobs too are located in the informal sector; however, work conditions can be termed as better than the first category. Studies have shown that these migrant workers are more successful in applying accumulative strategies enabling their households to lift themselves significantly above the poverty line.¹⁸

In fact, both the perspectives are interrelated and subjective. Push factors such as low income, low literacy, dependence on agriculture and high poverty are cited as some examples associated with sources of migration. On the other hand, high income, high literacy, spread of industry and services, are the pull factors associated with destination places. It is a combination of both of these factors that results in migration.



¹⁵ UNDP, India Urban Poverty Report, 2009.

¹⁶ Harsh Mander and Gayatri Sahgal, *Internal Migration in India: Distress and Opportunities*, A Study Commissioned by Dan Church India, 2010.

¹⁷ P. Deshingkar, S Akter, J Farrington, P Sharma and S Kumar, "Circular Migration in Madhya Pradesh: Changing Patterns and Social Protection Needs", *The European Journal of Development*, 612–628, 2008.

¹⁸ P. Deshingkar, S Akter, J Farrington, P Sharma and S Kumar, "Circular Migration in Madhya Pradesh: Changing Patterns and Social Protection Needs", *The European Journal of Development*, 612–628, 2008 and H Waddington and R. Sabates Wheeler, "How Does Poverty Affect Migration Choice? A Review of Literature", IDS Working Paper, T3, 2003.

Sources of Migration Data

Census of India and the National Sample Survey Organization's (NSSO) studies are the two authentic sources to get the data on migration in India. Historically, information on migration has been collected since 1872. It was confined to seeking information only on place of birth till 1961. The scope of collecting information on migration was enlarged by including the rural or urban status of the place of birth and duration of residence at the place of residence in 1961. Since the 1971 Census, data is being collected on the basis of place of last residence in addition to the question on birth place. Question on "Reason for migration" was introduced in 1981. The following reasons for migration from place of last residence are captured: work/employment, business, education, marriage, moved after birth, moved with household and any other.

Migration in the Census of India is of two types – migration by birth place and migration by place of last residence. When a person is enumerated in Census at a place, i.e., village or town, different from her/his place of birth, she/he would be considered a migrant by place of birth. A person would be considered a migrant by place of last residence, if she/he had last resided at a place other than her/his place of enumeration.

The data on migration by last residence in India as per Census 2001 show that the total number of migrants was 31.4 crore. In the decade 1991--2001, about 9.8 crore persons migrated to a new place from their place of last residence. Out of these migrants by last residence, 8.1 crore were intra-state migrants, 1.7 crore inter-state migrants and 7 lakh international migrants. The largest volume is confined to migration from one part of the state to another. Migration on account of change of residence by women after marriage constitutes a significant proportion of these migrants. There are different streams of migration generally relating to the degree of economic and social development in the area of origin as well as the area of destination. The most important component among the streams is the rural to rural migration. As per 2001 Census in 1991--2001, about 5.3 crore persons migrated from one village to another. The number of migrants from villages to

towns was about 2.1 crore. Similarly, the number of migrants from towns to villages was about 62 lakh and from one town to another about 1.4 crore.

The number of net migrants by last residence during the past decade, i.e., the difference between in-migrant and out-migrants for each state, showed Maharashtra at the top of the list with 23.8 lakh net migrants, followed by Delhi (17.6 lakh), Gujarat (6.8 lakh) and Haryana (6.7 lakh) as per Census 2001. Uttar Pradesh (–26.9 lakh) and Bihar (–17.2 lakh) were the two states with the largest number of persons migrating out of the two states.

Migration into large metropolises was significant in 1991--2001 with Greater Mumbai drawing about 24.9 lakh migrants, Delhi about 21.1 lakh migrants, Chennai about 4.3 lakh migrants to name the largest three urban destinations in the country. As the trend in migration to large urban agglomerations continued, the Census 2011 is likely to show a spurt in population in these places. In fact, Indian Institute of Human Settlement (IIHS) has come out with data claiming that Delhi, excluding the rest of NCR, attracts the maximum number of migrants. The concerned IIHS study is based on Census of India 2001, NSSO 2007--08 and the preliminary data of Census 2011. It is no secret that the rest of NCR, which is a fast growing urban residential and industrial hub, too attracts substantial number of migrants. While Delhi has the highest per capita income and income growth among Indian metros, the NCR in totality has a huge concentration of wealth, resources, infrastructure and a relatively high quality of urban services. There is large number of service sector jobs on offer in the NCR, more so in the informal sector.¹

Internal migration in India accounted for a large population of 309 million, which is nearly 30% of the total population as per the Census 2001 data. The NSSO survey in 2007--08 reveals that about 326 million people or the 28.5% of the population are internal migrants. About 30% of the total internal migrants belong to the youth category in the 15--29 years age group² while 70% of the total internal migrants are women. It is also estimated that about 15 million children are internal migrants.³ Yet, women and children remain as

¹ Anahita Mukherjee, "Flow of Migrants Highest to Delhi, not Maharashtra", *TNN*, Dec 6, 2011.

² I S Rajan, *Internal Migration and Youth in India: Main Features, Trends and Emerging Challenges*, New Delhi, UNESCO, 2013.

³ Smita, "Distress Seasonal Migration and its Impact on Children's Education", Brighton, CREATE Pathways to Access Research Monograph No. 28, 2008.

invisible component of the migrant population. Even though the maximum number of migrant women is categorized into “migration due to marriage” category, scholars feel that many of them would be working in the informal sector after marriage. Since Census only registers the primary reason of migration, the actual number of migrant women earning for their households could be much higher than estimated.

Internal Migrants as Percentage of Total Population in India, 1971-2001⁴

Table 1: Migration as per Place of Last Residence Criterion

Census Years	All Areas			Rural			Urban		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1971	29.12	17.46	41.66	27.18	12.88	42.25	36.92	35.00	39.16
1981	30.30	17.22	44.30	28.29	12.06	45.34	36.80	33.24	40.84
1991	26.94	14.05	40.85	25.56	9.71	42.45	30.91	26.28	36.10
2001	30.07	17.04	44.05	27.98	11.14	45.79	35.51	31.98	39.44

In the 2001 census the percentage of lifetime migrants⁵ has increased by 3.13 percentage points. The decade of 1991--2001 has seen a profound change in our economic policy. The country adopted a new economic policy in 1991 with the underlying principles of liberalization and privatization. Due to this policy, private investments, both domestic and foreign, it has been argued, were attracted to areas that were already developed and well endowed with infrastructural facilities. As a result of the new approach, the interregional inequality in income levels has sharply widened and it seems to have affected the migration process in the country.⁶

⁴ Census of India (Various Years), Migration Tables (D-01 and D-02).

⁵ It denotes the persons enumerated in a given area at a particular Census who were born outside the area of enumeration

⁶ R B Bhagat, “Internal Migration in India: Are the Underclass More Mobile?” A paper presented in the 26th IUSSP General Population Conference held at Marrakech, Morocco, 27 Sep--2 Oct 2009.

Table 2: Age Composition of Migrants by Residence and Sex in India, 2001 (in %)⁷

Age	Total Migrants			Rural Migrants			Urban Migrants		
	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F
0 - 14	12.6	22.31	8.59	11.22	27.81	6.86	15.57	17.44	13.88
15 - 29	29.35	27.24	30.24	29.47	2568	30.46	29.10	28.64	29.54
30 - 34	11.13	8.90	12.07	11.44	8.12	12.32	10.48	9.58	11.30
25 - 39	10.58	9.08	11.22	10.65	8.33	11.26	10.46	9.74	11.10
40+	36.07	32.20	37.30	37.02	29.78	38.93	34.15	33.34	33.97
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

The age-wise distribution of migrants shows that the largest proportion of migrants is in the 15--29 age group. However, one could also see a concentration of migrants in the 40--59 working age group. If we group it into five-year categories for analysis, the highest number of migrants reported is for the age group 25-29 years, and the same is true for both men and women as well as for rural and urban areas. No major difference in this trend exists between rural and urban areas. In other words, nearly one-third of the migrants are youth, indicating that most men primarily migrate for employment. The concentration of migrants among children (0--14 age group) may be due to the inclusion of children who moved immediately after birth or moved along with family members.



⁷ S Irudiya Rajan, Discussion Paper – Internal Migration and Youth in India: Main Features, Trends and Emerging Challenges, UNESCO, 2013, p. 7.

Table 3: Percentage Distribution of Migrants by Marital Status and Age⁸

Status	Never Married	Currently Married	Widowed	Divorced or Separated
All Ages	30.72	67.11	1.88	0.29
0 - 9	100	0	0	0
10 - 19	60.75	39.03	0.13	0.09
20 - 29	9.76	89.39	0.59	0.26
30 - 39	2.95	94.74	1.64	0.67
40 - 49	1.66	92.95	4.63	0.76
50 - 59	1.76	85.09	12.47	0.68
60 - 69	2.64	67.22	29.47	0.67
70 - 79	3.60	54.02	41.84	0.54
80+	6.34	45.20	47.97	0.49

The age composition of migrants with reference to their marital status divulges that migrants in the younger age group (10--19 years) are mostly never married, confirming that they migrate mainly when they accompany parents or family members, or for educational purposes. The migrants with “currently married” status are largely concentrated in prime working-age groups (20--49), which includes the top tier of the youth bracket (20--29). For instance, 9 out of 10 migrants between the ages of 20 and 29 were married.



⁸ S Irudiya Rajan, Discussion Paper – Internal Migration and Youth in India: Main Features, Trends and Emerging Challenges, UNESCO, 2013, p. 8.

Table 4: Percentage Distribution of Migrants by Reasons for Migration and Sex, 2001 Census⁹

Education Level	Person	Male	Female
Illiterate	48.25	25.76	57.75
Literate without Educational Level	1.94	2.02	1.91
Literate but below Matric/Secondary Level	31.24	39.27	27.85
Matric/Secondary but below Graduate Level	12.69	21.04	9.17
Technical Diploma or Certificate not Equal to Degree Level	0.54	1.32	0.21
Graduate and above other than Technical Degree	4.48	8.63	2.73
Technical Degree/Diploma Equal to Degree/Post-Graduate Degree	0.86	1.97	0.39

The educational profile of migrants reveals the ways in which educational attainment configures migration trends. The above table shows the educational status of migrants. It is clear that the proportion of illiterates among migrants in India is very high. More than half of the female migrants (57.8%) and 25.8% of the male migrants were found to be illiterate. The second largest share of migrants, both male and female, has the educational level “literate but below matric/secondary”. The share of migrants with the educational level “matric/secondary but below graduate”, was 12.7% in 2001, with male migrants having a larger share of 21%. The gender aspect reveals that the proportion of migrants with a higher educational level is very low, particularly among females. This less than optimal track record reveals a compelling area of future state support and policy action. Increased investment in education and ensuring access to education for all is necessary to bolster the skill level and employability of India’s young workforce. Current figures show that migration in India is predominantly characterized by the illiterate working class, which migrates primarily in search of employment.

⁹ S Irudiya Rajan, Discussion Paper – Internal Migration and Youth in India: Main Features, Trends and Emerging Challenges, UNESCO, 2013, p. 8.

Different Flows of Migration

There are four flows of migration, i.e., rural to rural, rural to urban, urban to urban and urban to rural.

Table 5: Distribution of Internal Migrants by Distance Categories in India 2001¹

Distance Categories	Percentage of Internal Migrants		
	Total	Male	Female
Intra-district	62.57	52.20	66.87
Intra-state	86.69	78.94	89.91
Inter-state	13.31	21.06	10.09

The intra-state migrant stands at 86% of the total internal migrants in India whereas inter-state migrants constitute a little above 13% of the total internal migrants. The share of male population in inter-state migrants is decisively higher (21.06%) than female population (10.09%). Economic reasons drive men to move to distant places leaving behind their family in the village. On the contrary, intra-state migration is dominated by females. Further, out of the total intra-state migrants nearly 63% have changed their residence within a district boundary. Only 24% have moved from one district to another district in the same state.

Table 6: Distribution of Internal Migrants by Streams in India 2001²

Migration Streams	Percentage of Internal Migrants		
	Total	Male	Female
Intra - State Migrants			
Rural - Rural	60.5	41.6	68.6
Rural - Urban	17.6	27.1	13.6
Urban - Urban	12.3	18.3	9.7
Urban - Rural	6.5	8.6	5.6
Unclassified	3.1	4.4	2.6

¹ Census of India (2001), Migration Tables (D-02).

² Census of India (2001), Migration Tables (D-02).

Inter - State Migrants			
Rural - Rural	26.6	20.7	32.7
Rural - Urban	37.9	44.7	30.9
Urban - Urban	26.7	25.9	27.5
Urban - Rural	6.3	6.1	6.4
Unclassified	2.6	2.6	2.5

Rural-to-Rural Migration:

This is a dominant migration stream in the country. As shown in the above table, this stream assumes a high proportion among intra-state migrants (60.5%) as well as inter-state migrants (26.6%). The agricultural economy of the country is reflected through this stream. In this stream, females are more mobile than males. However, much of the female migration is registered as induced by marriage.

Rural-to-Urban Migration:

This is the second dominant stream in the country. This stream also indicates migration of people from agriculture to non-agriculture fields. Among the inter-state migrants, the highest number of people comes under this category, which is 37.9% of the total inter-state migrants. Also, the number of male migrants from rural to urban area far surpassed that of women in both the categories. Among inter-state migrants, 44.7% of men migrate from rural to urban area as compared to 30.9% of women. Among intra-state migrants, 27.1% of men migrate from rural to urban area as compared to 13.6% of women.

Urban-to-Urban Migration:

This stream of migration, also known as “Step Migration”, is mainly motivated by economic factors. It is particularly driven by people’s desire to move from one urban centre to another with a view to improve their employment prospects. Among inter-state migrants, this is the second largest category wherein 26.7% of them migrate from urban to urban area. Among intra-state migrants, 12.3% of the total migrants move from one urban area to another urban area. Interestingly, the percentage of men and women inter-state migrants in

this category is almost the same, which is 25.9% and 27.5%, respectively. It can be inferred that the entire family migrates from one urban place to another urban place.

Urban-to-Rural Migration:

It is relatively less important phenomena accounting for only 6.3% and 6.5% of the total inter-state and intra-state migrants, respectively. There are three prominent reasons for the existence of this stream. One, the high cost of living in urban areas has led people to reside on the fringe of towns; two, people retiring from government services as well as private jobs in the cities move to their native places; three, migrants (including both – internal and international) returning to home village to settle down there.

Table 7: Situation of Internal Migrants in Rural and Urban Areas of India, 2007-08³

States	Rural households with at least one internal migrant (%)	% of male migrants in rural areas	% of Urban households with at least one internal migrant (%)	% of male migrants at in urban areas	% of internal migrants among 15--29 age group in rural areas	% of internal migrants among 15--29 age group in urban areas
Andhra Pradesh	3.5	14.1	2.9	19.1	76.6	23.4
Bihar & Jharkhand	16.6	NA	9.5	NA	92.6	7.4
Delhi	8.7	60.5	3.8	33.7	13.4	86.6
Goa	2.8	30.2	2.9	31.0	43.3	56.7
Gujarat	1.9	6.3	2.5	19.5	54.6	45.4
Haryana	14.9	57.4	20.3	49.2	63.2	36.8
Himachal Pradesh	20.4	53.7	13.1	53.7	92.8	7.2
Jammu and Kashmir	5.2	42.8	4.2	38.2	84.8	15.2
Karnataka	4.0	17.9	3.0	20.7	71.8	28.2
Kerala	11.5	21.2	10.1	20.8	77.1	22.9
Maharashtra	3.1	9.1	3.3	17.3	56.4	43.6
MP & Chhattisgarh	3.0	NA	4.5	38.4	69.8	30.2

³ NSSO 2007--08 data on migration.

North-East	3.0	NA	4.0	37.1	80.7	19.3
Odisha	12.0	58.6	8.0	56.2	89.3	10.7
Punjab	5.1	24.9	4.5	28.9	64.2	35.8
Rajasthan	12.1	50.0	8.2	36.2	82.4	17.6
Tamil Nadu	3.6	19.5	3.1	21.3	60.1	39.9
Union Territories	6.3	28.1	7.8	43.5	47.5	52.5
UP & Uttarakhand	17.3	NA	9.1	NA	86.9	13.1
West Bengal	7.6	48.2	6.7	47.3	76.2	23.8
All India	9.0	NA	5.4	NA	80.7	19.3

There are several measures to assess the intensity of internal migration, such as households with at least one internal migrant and the number of internal migrants per 1000 households. In 1993, households with at least one internal migrant were reported at 3% in India, which increased to 8% in 2007--08. According to the latest round of the NSS, approximately 1 in 10 households reported an internal migrant. The highest proportion of households with internal migrants was reported for Himachal Pradesh (20%), Haryana (17%), Bihar and Jharkhand (16%), Uttar Pradesh (15%) and 11% each for Kerala, Rajasthan and Odisha. The number of internal migrants per 1000 households was reported as 41 persons in 1993, which increased to 122 persons in 2007--08, indicating the pace at which internal migration is growing in India. Much like the earlier measures among the states, 306 persons per 1000 households were reported for Himachal Pradesh, followed by Haryana (275 persons), Uttar Pradesh (266 persons) and Bihar and Jharkhand (223 persons).



Reasons for Migration

The question about the reason for migration was canvassed for the first time in 1981 in the Census of India. The same list of reasons continued in 1991 and 2001 census, except that the reason “business” was added in 1991 and the reason “natural calamities” was dropped from the list in 2001. An additional reason was also added to this list: “moved after birth”. This reason was added in the 2001 Census as it was felt that a large number of women moved to either their natal residence or to a place with better medical facility for delivery. Whereas these women are not treated as migrants at these temporary places or residences, the children born are treated as migrants when they accompany their parents to their place of normal residence.

Table 8: Reasons for Migration of Migrants by Last Residence¹

Reasons for Migration	Percentage to Total Migrants		
	Total	Male	Female
Work/Employment	14.7	37.6	3.2
Business	1.2	2.9	0.3
Education	3.0	6.2	1.3
Marriage	43.8	2.1	64.9
Moved after Birth	6.7	10.4	4.8
Moved with Households	21	25.1	18.9
Other	9.7	15.7	6.7

As the above table shows, the reasons for migration in case of males and females vary significantly. Whereas work or employment was the most important reason for migration among males (37.6%), marriage was the most important reason cited by the female migrants (64.9%) to move from the place of last residence. It is interesting to note, that 6.7% persons cited “moved after birth” as the reason for their migration.

¹ Census of India, 2001, Tables D-1, D-2, D-3.

Table 9: Reasons for Migration by Streams and Distance Categories in India²

Migration Type	Percentage Share of Total Internal Migrants							Total
	Employment	Business	Education	Marriage	Moved after Birth	Moved with Household	Others	
Male								
Intra-District	15.28	1.80	2.38	3.17	12.62	16.51	48.24	100
Intra-State	35.54	3.06	3.35	1.99	9.71	22.61	23.74	100
Inter-State	52.25	3.87	2.14	0.93	4.87	19.89	16.05	100
Female								
Intra-District	1.01	0.16	0.35	73.85	2.82	6.93	14.88	100
Intra-State	2.50	0.25	0.63	66.03	3.38	15.54	11.67	100
Inter-State	4.02	0.34	0.64	54.63	3.01	26.78	10.58	100

It is significant to note that 52.25% of inter-state men migrants cited employment as the main reason for their migration. 15.28% of men migrating in the same district and 35.54% of men migrating in the same state cited employment as the key reason. In the inter-state category, among women as well, citing employment as the reason was as high as 4.02% whereas only 1.01% of women migrating within the same district and 2.5% of women migrating to a different district within the same state cited employment as the primary reason for migration.

Since about half the total number of migrants has cited “marriage” as the reason for migration, predominantly by the females, an examination of this dataset, excluding this particular reason, would help understand other reasons that are important. If one takes away those migrants who moved due to marriage, the total number of migrants falls from 98.3 million to 55.2 million (as per Census of India 2001). The total number of migrants among males and females were 32.2 million and 22.9 million, respectively, more even in terms of the ratio between the two sexes than when the reason “marriage” was included. The following table enumerates this detail:

² Census of India, 2001, Migration Table (D-03).

Table 10: Reasons for Migration of Migrants (Marriage Excluded) by Last Residence³

Reasons for Migration	Percentage to Total Migrants		
	Total Migrants	Male	Female
Work/Employment	26.2	38.4	9.0
Business	2.1	2.9	0.8
Education	5.3	6.3	3.8
Marriage	Excluded		
Moved after Birth	11.9	10.6	13.7
Moved with Households	37.3	25.6	53.7
Other	9.7	15.7	6.7
Total	100%	100%	100%

The most important reason for migration among males was due to work/employment (38.4%), followed by those who cited “moved with households” as the reason for migration (25.6%), who had to move when the households moved for any reason. Among female migrants, 53.7% reported migration due to “moved with household” as the reason. The number of females migrating due to work/employment is 9% of the total female internal migrants in the country.



³ Census of India, 2001, Tables D-1, D-2, D-3.

Inter-State Migration

Noticeably, the migration of population across the boundary of a state rose sharply by 54.5% from about 27.2 million in 1991 to about 42.1 million in 2001.⁴ State-wise data on inter-state migrants by place of birth would help to identify the most preferred destinations for inter-state migrants. As a table below shows, the most important five states in terms of inter-state migration have registered more than 1 million in-migrants by place of birth from outside the state, as well as from other countries. This includes both old migrants as well as the recent migrants. Maharashtra is at the top of the list with 7.9 million in-migrant population, followed by Delhi (5.6 million) and West Bengal (5.5 million). The percentage of the in-migrants to the total population in these three states were, 8.2%, 40.8% and 7.0% respectively, accounting for about 39.5% of the total inter-state migrants in the country.

Table 11: Total Inter-state Migrants by Place of Birth in Major States⁵

States	Total Population	Total In-migrants	% In-Migrants to Total Population	Share of Total Migrants
Delhi	13,850,507	5,646,277	40.8	11.6
Haryana	21,144,564	2,951,752	14.0	6.1
Punjab	24,358,999	2,130,662	8.7	4.4
Maharashtra	96,878,627	7,954,038	8.2	16.4
West Bengal	80,176,197	5,582,325	7.0	11.5

Migration to Urban Agglomerations

Migration is one of the important factors contributing to the growth of urban population. The total urban population of the country (excluding Jammu and Kashmir) increased from 217.6 million in 1991 to 283.6 million in 2001 registering a growth rate of 30.3%. The migration data of 2001 Census indicates that 20.5 million people enumerated in urban areas are migrants from rural areas who moved in within the last 10 years. There are

⁴ Data Highlights, Census of India, 2001, Migration Tables, p. 10.

⁵ Data Highlights, Census of India, 2001, Migration Tables, p. 11.

6.2 million migrants who have similarly migrated from urban areas to rural areas. Thus, the net addition to urban population on account of migration is 14.3 million. This works out to be 6.6% of the urban population in 1991. In other words, out of the urban growth of 30.3%, 6.6% is accounted for by migration to urban areas.⁶

The 2001 Census data present migration data by last residence for each urban agglomeration (UA) and city in the country. The inflow of migrants depends upon the size of the UA/city as in large UAs and cities the availability of work/employment is greater. However, in terms of amenities and services, in-migration causes a severe pressure, as these are not commensurate to high growth in population. A table below provides a comparison of migrants by last residence during the past 10 years into important UAs and their share to total UA population. It provides an insight into the fast pace at which migration is taking place in these centres.

Table 12: Number of In-migrants by Last Residence into Important UAs

Name of the UA	2001 Population	In Migrants			Total In-migrants	% of In-Migrants to Total Population
		Intra-State	Inter-State	International		
Greater Mumbai	16,434,386	892,706	1,571,181	25,665	2,489,552	15.1
Delhi	12,877,470	77,663	1,988,314	46,383	2,112,363	16.4
Chennai	6,560,242	334,972	94,964	5,684	435,620	6.6
Kolkata	13,205,697	470,601	297,279	54,509	822,389	6.2
Hyderabad	5,742,036	407,861	88,216	2,406	498,483	8.7
Bangalore	5,701,446	401,932	353,156	6,397	761,485	13.4

The total number of in-migrants during 1991--2001 was the largest in Greater Mumbai UA, the main component being those who are coming from outside the state. Delhi UA, on the other hand, received 1.9 million migrants from other states, the largest among the UAs shown above. Bangalore UA, which received 0.3 million in-migrants from other states, more than Chennai and Kolkata, is likely due to its growing opportunities in information technology-related work and a consequently booming construction industry. In

⁶ Data Highlights, Migration Tables, Census of India, 2001.

terms of proportion of in-migrants to total population in these UAs, Delhi UA was at the top, with in-migrants constituting 16.4% of the population. Greater Mumbai UA (15.1%) and Bangalore UA (13.4%) were the next two in terms of proportion among the UAs listed above.

Internal migration remains grossly underestimated due to empirical and conceptual difficulties in measurement. The two major sources of data on migration in India, the Census and the National Sample Survey (NSS) cover only permanent or semi-permanent migration with seasonal migration partly overlapping with the category of short duration migration. However, even the definition of permanent or semi-permanent migration adopted in the Census and the NSS has its limitations. For example, they do not count migrants who are staying in the cities for long as 'long-term migrants' if those migrants retain their place of residence and identity in the village. As a result, the coverage of these two data sources becomes so restrictive that both of these report declining trends of out migration over the years. Several studies have pointed out that migration is not always permanent and seasonal and circular migration is widespread, especially among the socio-economically deprived groups, such as the Scheduled Castes (SCs), Scheduled Tribes (STs) and Other Backward Castes (OBCs), who are asset poor and face resource and livelihood deficits.⁷ Seasonal and circular migrants, constitute a "floating" population, as they alternate between living at their source and destination locations, and in turn lose access to social protection benefits linked to the place of residence. The National Commission on Rural Labour finds increasing trends of seasonal and temporary migrants over the years. Besides this, many of the micro studies dealing with the issue of migration reported much higher incidence of out-migration, particularly in the case of underdeveloped regions. Besides, there is a considerable change in the nature and cause of migration -- in recent years proportionately more migration is taking place among the labour force in search of their livelihoods, which is mainly for relatively longer terms, without discontinuing their residences and other belongings in the villages.

⁷ P. Deshingkar and S Akter, *Migration and Human Development in India, Research Paper, 2009/13, Human Development, UNDP, 2009.*

In light of the on-going structural changes and consequent changing contours of rural economy, the nature and pattern of migration has also been changing over time. Accordingly, the concept of migration now connotes much wider dimension than what has been conceptualized conventionally. Now the whole spectrum of migration varies from daily commuting to some nearby places on the one hand, to permanent shift of residence to some distant places on the other hand. Besides this, since rural migrants are not a homogenous group, the nature and pattern of migration also varies from one to the other social group of migrants.

Growth in Rural-to-Urban Migration

During the past two decades, the phenomenon of migration from rural areas has taken an alarming proportion. Rural people are migrating in large numbers in search of better employment outside the agricultural sector, which is evident on the basis of both village-based inquiries and macro evidence. During the course of time not only the absolute number of out-migrants increased but also the rate of out-migration has jumped manyfolds over this period. During the past two decades, the intensity and pattern of migration has changed. The proportion of migrants has become widespread. Besides this, the nature of migration has changed from short term to long term. This is attributed to the fact that unlike in the past now workers constitute a majority of the total migrants. In terms of choice of destination, migration is now more widespread. During the early 1980s the most important destination was rural areas of Punjab and Haryana. By the end of 1990s the highest concentration of migrants is in metropolitan cities and areas adjacent to it, such as the Delhi--Gurgaon area. There has been a general change in the destination of migration from rural--rural to rural--urban.

Even though migration data from Census 2011 is awaited at the time of writing this report, the initial release of the population data shows high growth in the urban population of India. In 2011, India's urban population was 91 million higher than it was in 2001. For the same period, rural population grew by 90.6 million. It was for the first time since 1921 that India's urban population goes up by more than its rural population. The data of 2001 Census

show the vastness of this phenomenon. In 2001, rural population had grown by 130 million since 1991 and the urban population by 68 million. Thus, in 2001 rural India's population growth was 45 million more than that of urban India. In 2011, urban India's population growth is 0.5 million more than that of rural area. Projections indicate that internal migrants may increase in number to approximately 400 million in Census 2011.⁸ The Census cites three possible reasons for this phenomenon: migration, natural increase and inclusion of new areas as "urban." The IHS study claims that "natural growth" is the primary reason for urban population growth. While acknowledging that there has been a marginal decrease in the natural growth over the past one decade, it said that rural-to-urban migration has only marginally increased from 21.2% in 1991--2001 to 24.1% in 2001--11. Hence, "natural growth" stands out as the primary reason.⁹ On the other hand, P. Sainath argues that the above mentioned three factors applied in the past too, yet the rural population far outstripped those to the urban population.¹⁰ As far as "natural increase" is concerned, Registrar General and Census Commissioner of India, Dr. C. Chandramouli made it clear in following words:

"Fertility has declined across the country. There has been a fall in numbers even in the 0-6 age group, as a proportion of the total population. In fact, in absolute numbers too, this group has declined by 5 million, compared to the previous Census. This would suggest migration as a significant factor in urban growth. But what kind of migrations we can only ascertain or comment on when their patterns emerge more clearly. The Census in itself is not structured to capture short-term or footloose migrations."¹¹

As far as "inclusion of new areas as urban" could be the reason behind urban population growth is concerned, the facts state it otherwise. In 2011, the number of

⁸ S Irudiya Rajan, *Discussion Paper: Internal Migration and Youth in India: Main Features, Trends and Emerging Challenges*, UNESCO, 2013.

⁹ Anahita Mukherjee, "Flow of Migrants Highest to Delhi, not Maharashtra", *TNN*, Dec 6, 2011.

¹⁰ P Sainath, "Census Finding Point to a Decade of Rural Distress", *The Hindu*, Sept 25, 2011 (<http://www.thehindu.com/opinion/columns/sainath/census-findings-point-to-decade-of-rural-distress/article2484996.ece>)

¹¹ *Ibid.*

“statutory towns”¹² increased by mere 241 since 2001. In the preceding decade, this increase was a whopping 813.¹³ In contrast to this, the number of “census towns”¹⁴ nearly tripled since 2001 to 3894. In the earlier decade, there was decline in census towns from 1702 to 1361. It meant that in a decade since 2001, the male workforce in the agriculture has sharply declined in thousands of villages across the country.¹⁵ The logical conclusion of it is that this workforce migrated from agriculture to informal sector in the urban areas, thus, resulting in the growth of urban population surpassing that of rural for the first time since India’s Independence.

Inter-state migration of workers and the resulting impoverishment of the lives of migrants and their families has been a well-identified issue for some time. However, the struggle for protection of such workers, who live without citizenship rights within their own country, has been relatively weak. Despite the irreversible phenomenon of migration into urban areas, the migrants are looked upon as “outsiders” by the local host administration and as a burden on the system and resources at the destination. Planning for the poor in the urban spaces where the migrants ultimately reach in search for a livelihood is conspicuous by its absence. As the mind-set of the urban planners is to treat migrants as outsiders and a burden on existing civic infrastructure, they get excluded from most urban planning processes and mechanisms, compounding the problems that they are already plagued with. In India, migrants’ right to the city is denied on the political defence of the “sons of the soil” theory, which aims to create vote-banks along ethnic, linguistic and religious lines. Exclusion and discrimination against migrants take place through political and administrative processes, market mechanisms and socio-economic processes, causing a gulf between

¹² A statutory town is an urban unit with a municipality, corporation, cantonment board or notified town area committee.

¹³ P Sainath, “Census Finding Point to a Decade of Rural Distress”, *The Hindu*, Sept 25, 2011 (<http://www.thehindu.com/opinion/columns/sainath/census-findings-point-to-decade-of-rural-distress/article2484996.ece>)

¹⁴ Census town is a village or other unit of population declared as a town when: its population crosses 5,000; when the number of male workers in agriculture falls to less than 25% of the total; where population density is at least 400 per square kilometer.

¹⁵ P Sainath, “Census Finding Point to a Decade of Rural Distress”, *The Hindu*, Sept 25, 2011 (<http://www.thehindu.com/opinion/columns/sainath/census-findings-point-to-decade-of-rural-distress/article2484996.ece>).

migrants and locals.¹⁶ This leads to marginalization of migrants in the decision-making processes of the city, and exacerbates their vulnerabilities to the vagaries of the labour market, poverty traps and risks of discrimination and violence. There remains no concerted strategy to ensure portability of entitlements for migrants.¹⁷ Planning for migrant families, which are not settled but on the move, warrants a fundamental rethinking of development approaches and models.¹⁸

The growth of Gurgaon in Haryana, the densest industrial belt in the NCR, is a classical manifestation of reckless development that has resulted in one of the largest undocumented underclass populations in India, numbering in tens of lakhs of migrant workers whose circumstances force them to live “like rats”. They are officially uncoun- ted, with no identification, but are estimated to number 15--20 lakhs in Gurgaon. Their forced invisibility creates an underground economy and helps to perpetuate with impunity, illegal and exploitative practices by those in positions of power vis-à-vis workers – in matters of housing, education, public distribution system, voter ID system, employment, law and order, and so on. In addition, children without access to education are entering a future generation of child labour.

Among migrant workers, men have been more visible than women. Women work in factories, in the informal sector, as well as are homemakers. The women in the slums or housing colonies face greater hardship than their male counterparts -- such as lack of proper bathrooms, lack of privacy, harassment from male residents, landlords, etc. Lack of clean water and electricity are major problems. Women workers face informalization, low wage, sexual harassment, domestic violence, abandonment and the double burden of homecare and wage-related work. Women also face the consequences of uncared-for and uneducated children as they themselves struggle with employment and lack of schools and

¹⁶ R B Bhagat, *Migrants' (Denied) Right to the City*, M-H Zerah, V Dupont, S Tawa Lama-Rewal (scientific eds.) and M. Faetanini (publication ed.), *Urban Policies and the Right to the City in India: Rights, Responsibilities and Citizenship*, New Delhi, UNESCO/Centre de Sciences Humaines, 2011, pp. 48—57.

¹⁷ P Deshingkar and J Farrington, *Circular Migration and Multilocational Livelihood Strategies in Rural India*, New Delhi, Oxford University Press, 2009.

¹⁸ Smita, *Locked Homes Empty Schools: The Impact of Distress Seasonal Migration on the Rural Poor*, New Delhi, Zubaan, 2007.

childcare. The growth of the urban underclass is closely linked to the socio-economic conditions prevailing in migrants' home states. Therefore, strategies that take a holistic rural--urban approach are needed to address the disparities and develop common agendas.

Rationale of the Project

A way to address the injustice against migrant workers is based on the analysis that the strategies need to include not just the destination states but also the home states of migrants. The need for SLD to engage at the source of migration emerged during the course of its intervention with the migrant workers in Gurgaon. SLD's work in Bihar, UP, and Jharkhand has been preliminary, and plans are underway for deepening and expanding this part of the work. The SLD has begun to link with Bihar, UP, and Jharkhand the predominant catchment areas from where migrant workers come to Gurgaon. This has included visiting the districts from which migration is taking place, meeting with local organizations and also families of those migrants, who are especially active in SLD's work. These visits are geared towards building at first communication links and sharing of concerns. Migrant workers' own families and communities in home states know very little about the conditions that their migrant relatives and friends face; this gap in knowledge leads to false notions about the destination states and ignorance about the hurdles of migrant workers. Also, the source states face multinational and corporate encroachment as much as the destination states and yet, there is virtually no sharing of a common agenda for development.

Part of this research would trace the forward and backward linkages of workers in Haryana who have migrated from villages in other states, particularly in two sectors, construction and garment. In-depth qualitative sample study of families across rural--urban divide would also give insight into specific situations and trends. The research focuses on social economic issues, such as education, health, wages, processes of migration and its regulation in source and destination states. The research tries to document gender aspects of migration -- for example, the social and familial responsibilities entrusted on women who are left behind by their husbands (responsibility of children, of aged in-laws and relatives, of small pieces of farm land, etc.) and the undue pressure that these responsibilities bring on them. This enriches our understanding of migrant women workers, double roles, etc.

Objectives of the Project

Following are the major objectives of this project:

1. To understand labour mobility in terms of push factors, pull factors, scale and changes in workers' lives, etc.
2. To capture socio-economic profile of the migrants.
3. To understand the process of migration.
4. To capture the developmental and industrial changes in both states, i.e., the home state and destination state.
5. To capture the scenario of civic rights, facilities and availability of government's welfare schemes for migrants in destination state.
6. To understand gender-related problems arising out of migration.
7. To comprehend relevant laws and institutions, etc., related to migration and migrants.
8. To identify other social justice organizations working in the above-mentioned four states among the migrants and their families.
9. To explore the role of local self-government bodies in the process of migration.
10. To train local constituencies and raise their awareness about the issues discovered in the research report.

Target Groups

Migrant workers, workers' families, governments, elected offices, social services such as schools and health services, labour and employment departments, social justice organizations.

Methodology

This study is a contribution to the emerging literature in India on the dynamics of rural–urban linkages in the process of migration. Though there has been a set of literature on the reasons for migration, the condition of migrants and whether migration has resulted in improved financial situation of the family, Gurgaon did not figure prominently in the existing literature. Gurgaon in the National Capital Region has emerged as one of the fastest growing urban industrial hub where hundreds of migrants from Uttar Pradesh (U.P.), Bihar, Jharkhand, West Bengal, Chhattisgarh, to some extent from Rajasthan and from other districts of Haryana pour in every day in search of employment. Out of these states, migrants from five districts of U.P., Bihar and Jharkhand were selected for the purpose of this study, given their predominance among the migrant community in Gurgaon. These districts are Rural Kanpur, Gorakhpur, Nalanda, Nawada and Hazaribagh. Other than this study, three other studies were conducted at the source villages in the above-mentioned districts. The findings of these studies are not included in this report but an integrated report will be published at a later stage of the research.

In Gurgaon, a survey was conducted among 200 migrant workers from the above-mentioned districts in garment, construction, auto parts and domestic workers, and self-employed migrants. Since many migrants reside in adjacent areas of Delhi, the survey was conducted near their worksites to include only those people working in Gurgaon. Help was sought from Mazdoor Ekta Manch (MEM) and Nari Shakti Manch (NSM) – local associations engaged in organizing the workers – in identifying worksites and migrant workers from the above-mentioned districts. A gender balance among the respondents was tried to be maintained, however, it could not be achieved. The reason is disproportionate representation of women, including migrant women, in Gurgaon’s workforce.

Three focused group discussions (FGDs) were conducted with the help of MEM and NSM. One FGD was conducted with garment male workers and one each with garment women workers and domestic workers. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with two lawyers representing workers in the labour court and with the chief medical officer (CMO) of the government health centre.

Profile of Gurgaon

Gurgaon district in the state of Haryana has grown exponentially to become one of the world's largest urbanized hubs. It is one of the 21 districts of Haryana. In past 20 years, the state and the central governments initiated economic liberalization policies that have effected Gurgaon's industrial development. The government shifted its focus from agrarian development of the district and adjoining region to develop manufacturing and service industry. The growth of these two industries has resulted in the growth of the construction industry in Gurgaon. The district's inclusion in the NCR Territory and its proximity to Delhi has led to its rapid urbanization. In order to facilitate foreign direct investment (FDI), export-oriented policies have been implemented rigorously by the state and the central governments.

There are three phases of industrial development of Gurgaon. The first one began in 1980s when Maruti Udyog Limited was established in Gurgaon in collaboration with Suzuki Motors. This was followed by Hero Honda, Honda Motors, Suzuki Motor Cycles, and several ancillary units supplying parts for these automobile companies. The second phase began in 1990s with the commencement of the Central Government's economic liberalization policies. Readymade garments and home furnishing industry got a boost in Gurgaon during this period. The exclusive zone of high fashion readymade garments and home furnishing production units were developed at Udyog Vihar, Khandsa and Manesar. These units export clothes to several multinational brands in Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries such as GAP, NEXT, H&M, American Eagles, etc. The third phase began in 2003 with further liberalization of the FDI policy and the enactment of the Special Economic Zones Act by the Central Government in 2005. In this phase, the Information-Technology (I-T) and I-T enabled service industry mushroomed in Gurgaon. Many well-known I-T companies such as Hughes Software, Silicon Graphics, GE Capital, Tata Consultancy Services, Alcatel, HCL and Siemens established their units in Gurgaon. During the third phase, the state government of Haryana initiated a policy to create "social infrastructure" such as education hubs and Medicity. This has boosted realty developers' business in Gurgaon manifold. Industrial development requires hardworking skilled and unskilled workers. This demand has been fulfilled by migrants from other states as well as from other districts of Haryana.

According to Census 2011, Gurgaon has a population of 14,15,085. It is likely that the number of people residing in Gurgaon at any point of time since 2011 and afterwards is much higher than the official census figure. Many of the migrant workers are undocumented and unregistered with the local authorities. No reliable government data or any other research data are available about this migrant population. The official website of Gurgaon District Administration claims that the industrial policy has generated over 2,00,000 jobs, which is a gross underestimation of the number of people working in the districts. In October 2008, *Hindustan Times* carried a report citing Gurgaon Police Commissioner that said: "Gurgaon now has 5 lakh dwelling units and nearly 30 lakh residents. The Census (2001) figures and voters lists do not reflect the actual population of Gurgaon. We recently carried out a survey on our own and were shocked to discover that Gurgaon has a population touching 30 lakhs." This was substantiated by the district electoral officer who said: "Population in Gurgaon has been rising by 10% each year and this is very conservative estimate." About 90% of the workers are estimated to be employed in the manufacturing sector while the rest of the workers are employed in services and retail.

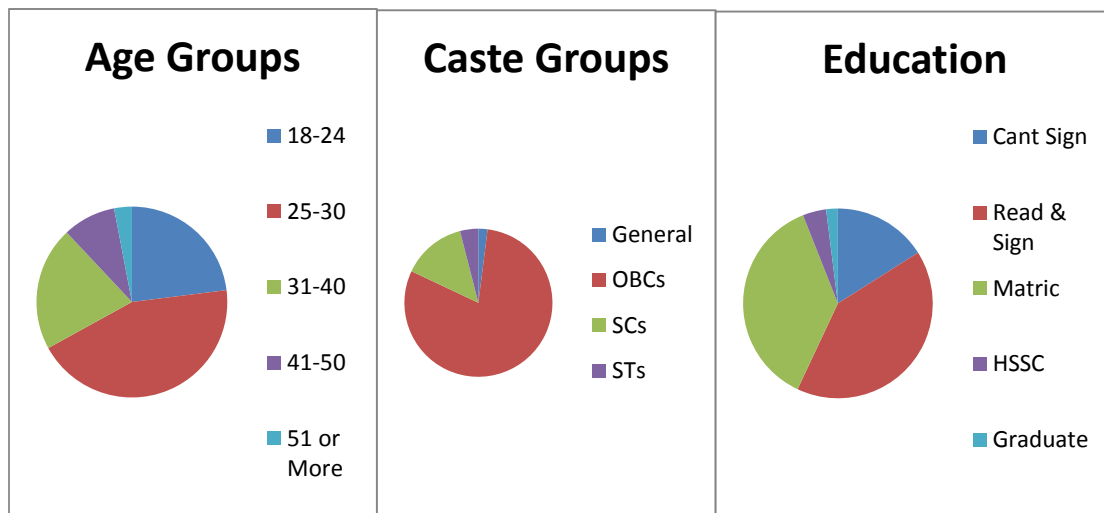
Gurgaon has multiple government and developmental authorities whose work overlap with each other. Apart from the state administration of Haryana, Gurgaon also comes under the National Capital Region Planning Board. This board coordinates the development of all the districts in the NCR. The Haryana Urban Development Authority (HUDA) and Haryana State Industrial Corporation (HSIDC) have special emphasis on Gurgaon in their policies. The HSIDC is mandated to *serve as a catalyst for promoting and accelerating the pace of industrialization in the state*, while HUDA was established to plan the development of urban areas in the state.

Inter-State Migrants in Gurgaon – A Reality Check

Respondents' Profile

In Gurgaon, the questionnaire was responded to by a total of 200 migrants from the districts of Rural Kanpur, Gorakhpur, Nalanda, Nawada and Hazaribagh. A total of 81% of the respondents were male workers. The overwhelming number of respondents was in the age group of 18 to 40 years, which is 88%. Only 12% of the respondents were above the age of 41 years. This figure is also a reflection of the fact that rural to urban migrants are mostly youth, and in the case of Gurgaon, these are predominantly young men. Seventy-eight per cent of the respondents were married.

Figure 1: Distribution of Workers by Age, Caste & Education



Only 2% of the respondents were graduates while 4% had passed HSSC. Among the respondents from the garment industry, no one belonged to the category of those who “could not read and sign.” It was mainly the construction and domestic workers who either “could not read and sign” or just managed to “read and sign.” All the domestic workers, who responded to the survey, were women. Interestingly, among those having education up to the matriculation or above level, 41% had undertaken some kind of technical training. This mostly includes repairing of electrical goods ranging from home electrical equipment to pumping motors to generators, etc. The garment workers, who were into tailoring, said during the group discussion that they learnt the technique at a local tailor in

Gurgaon. They worked as “unpaid helpers” with the tailor to learn the trade, which later helped them find jobs in garment factories.

Table 13: Industry-wise Representation of Respondents

Garment Workers	61%
Construction Workers	14%
Domestic Workers	11%
AutoParts Workers	7%
Self-employed	7%

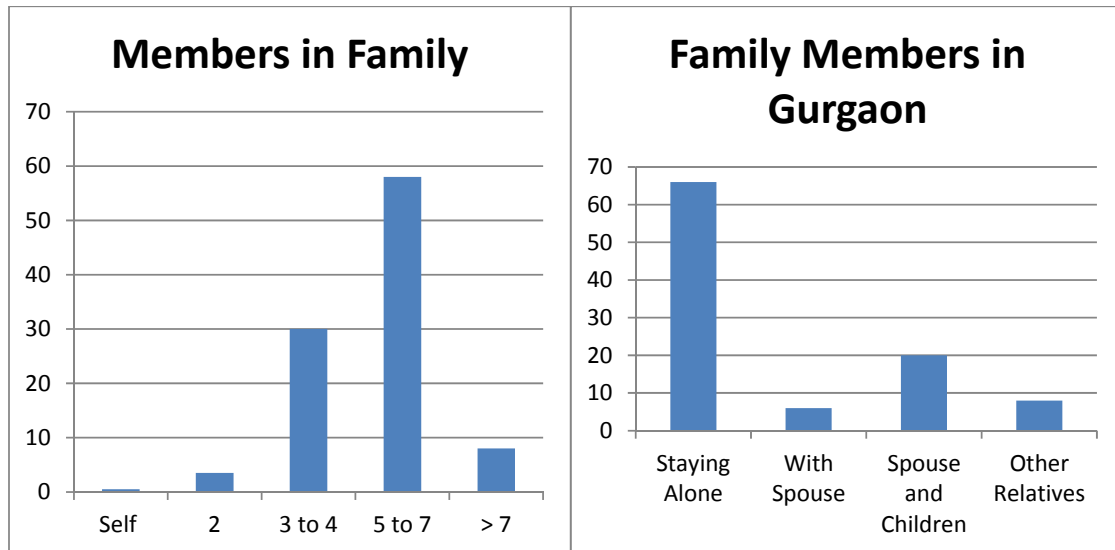
Among the respondents, 80% belonged to the Other Backward Classes (OBCs) group. Up to 14% and 4% belonged to the Scheduled Caste (SC) and Scheduled Tribe (ST) groups, respectively. Only 2% of the respondents belonged to the General Category. An overwhelming majority of construction workers belonged to either the SC or ST group. An overwhelming majority of garment workers belonged to the OBC group. Migrants from Hindu and Muslim communities constitute the religious profile of workers in Gurgaon. Up to 76% of the surveyed workers were Hindus and the rest were Muslims from the OBC category. Many of the migrants/their families owned land in their villages.

Table 14: Distribution of Land Owning Workers

Social Category	Owning Land in Village
Hindu OBCs	78%
Muslim OBCs	12%
SCs	10%
STs	10%
General Category	100%

A majority of the respondents had a family of four or more members. Up to 53% of the respondents said they have a joint family. A majority of the respondents stay alone in Gurgaon.

Figure 2: Distribution of Workers by Size of Family



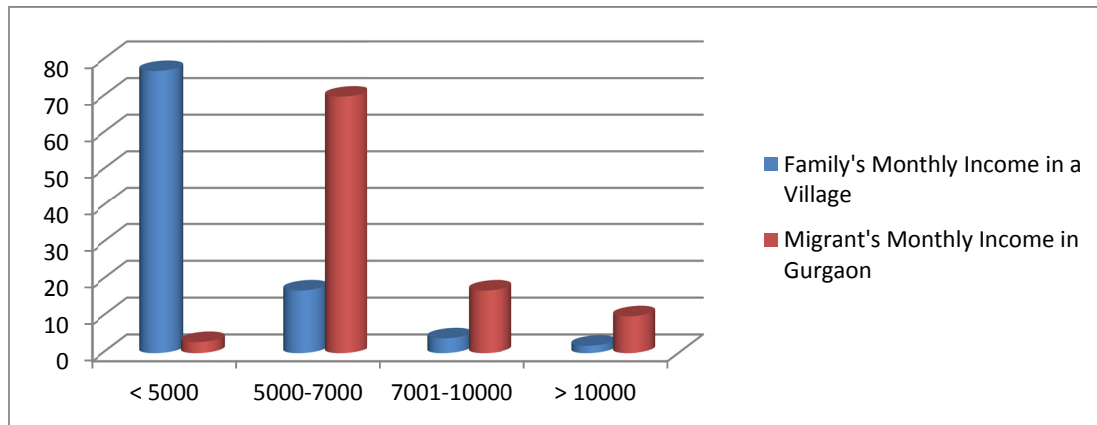
Those whose families are back in the villages cited various reasons for not bringing them to Gurgaon. The most common reasons are low wages and the high cost of living. If a worker is alone in Gurgaon, he can share room rent, cooking fuel expenses, etc., with similar co-workers to reduce expenses. Also, if he stays alone, he can manage in a small room on a sharing basis. But family would require comparatively bigger space to live entailing more expenses.

Table 15: Reasons for Staying Alone in Gurgaon

Low Wages & High Cost of Living	61%
Family Looking after Land in Village	23%
Young Members Taking Care of Elders in Village	12%
Children Enrolled in Village School	5%

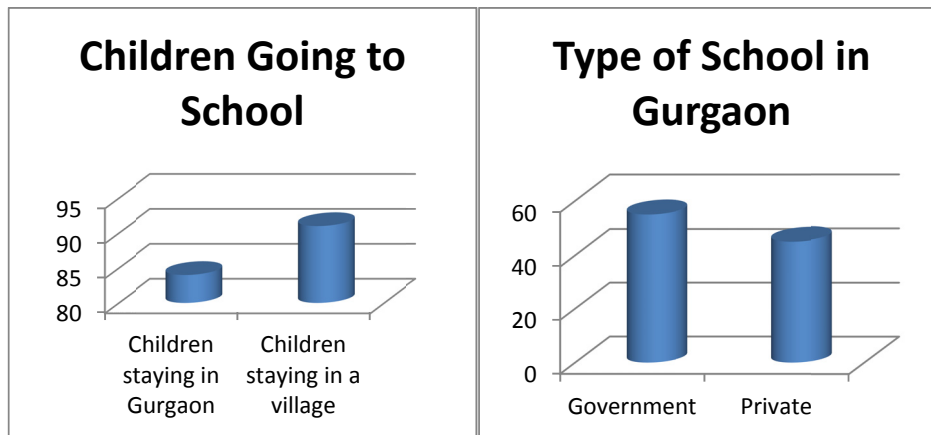
Up to 70% of the respondents earn a monthly wage between Rs. 5001 and Rs. 7000, while 17% of the respondents' monthly income is between Rs. 7001 and Rs. 10,000. Up to 10% of the respondents earn more than Rs. 10,000 a month, while 3% earn less than Rs. 5000 a month in Gurgaon. Workers in all the sectors on an average earned this level of wage. The monthly income of the family of respondent in a native village is less than this, which constitutes the major reason for migration.

Figure 3: Workers Distribution by Monthly Income



Not all the migrants had enrolled their children in a school. This is true for both the categories; migrants' children staying in Gurgaon and migrants' children staying in villages. In fact, enrolment is slightly higher in villages than in Gurgaon. Migrants complain that lack of address proof in Gurgaon is a major hindrance in getting their children admitted to school.

Figure 4: Enrolment of Workers' Children in School



Reasons for Migration to Gurgaon

In rural areas, income earned by a family is so meagre that at least one of the family members needs to venture out of the village in search of livelihood or job that can result in additional income source for the family. It was articulated in various ways by the respondents in terms of unemployment and low wages in villages and the desire to not indulge in agricultural work, etc. Once in an urban area, the migrants get more reasons to reside in the city such as better educational opportunities for their children, chances to bring more family members to city for employment, availability of electricity and electronic goods in an urban area, and their ability to provide logistical support to family members if the latter got admitted to a hospital in the city. The garment workers mentioned these points during a group discussion.

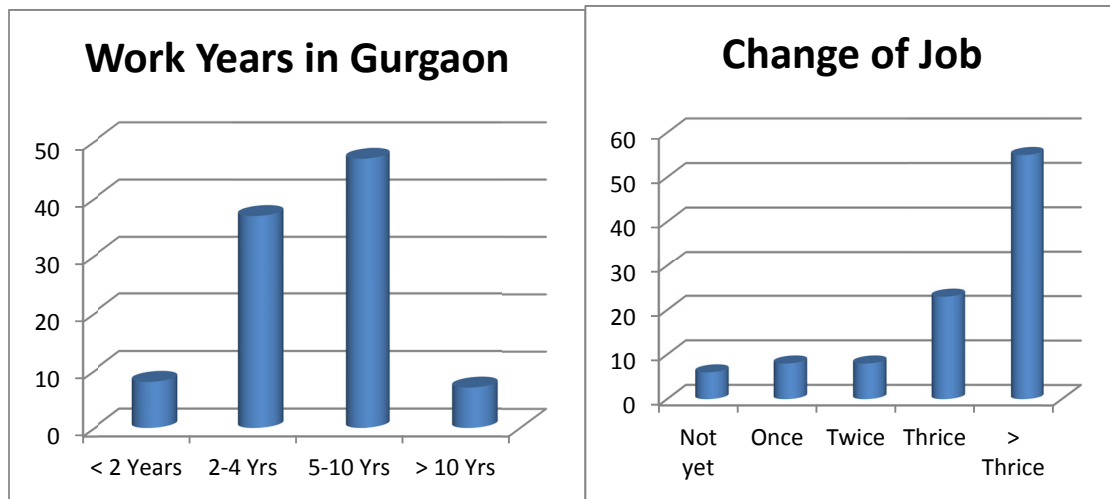
Table 16: Reasons for Migration

Unemployment in Villages	81%
Do not Like Agricultural Work	17%
Low Wages in Villages	2%

The reason for choosing Gurgaon to migrate was mostly because of their personal contacts. Up to 91% of the respondents were told by their relatives or friends about employment possibilities in Gurgaon while 9% were brought by contractors. It is mostly the construction workers who came with contractors. Up to 2% of the respondents got employment the very first day of their arrival in Gurgaon while 36% had to wait up to one week. Construction workers were mostly employed within a week's time. A majority of the migrants, i.e., 54% of the respondents, got into employment within one to two weeks'. Garment workers were mostly absorbed in the industry within two weeks of their arrival and autoindustry workers got jobs during the second week of their search in Gurgaon. Up to 7% of the respondents were absorbed within three to four weeks' while 8% had to wait for more than a month to get employment. It was mostly domestic workers and the self-employed who needed more than two weeks' time to start earning.

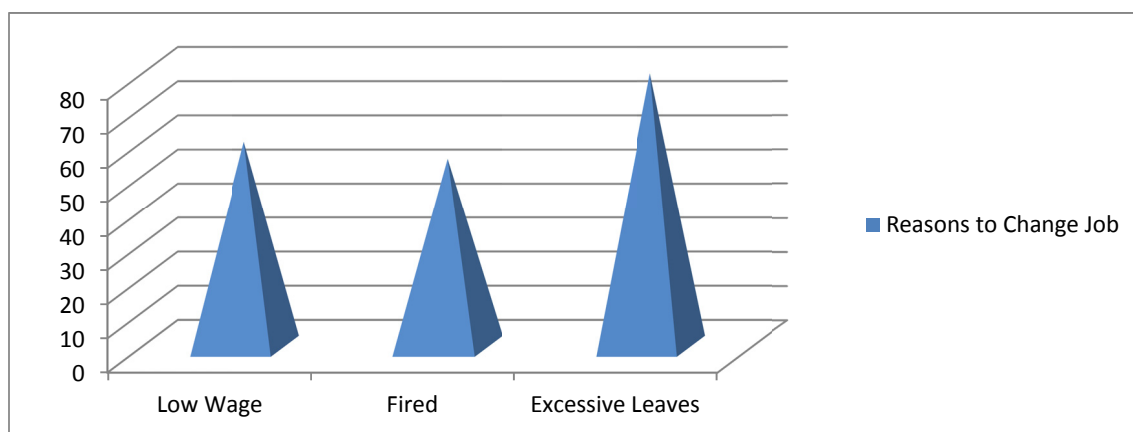
Most of the respondents had been working in Gurgaon for more than two years with some of them having as much as 10 years or more of work experience in Gurgaon. More work experience, however, does not guarantee employment security or job stability. More than 55% of the respondents have changed/had to change their job more than thrice during their stay in Gurgaon.

Figure 5: Workers’ Distribution by Work Experience



The situation leading to change in job varied with each respondent and those who did it more than once had several reasons for doing so. In 60% of the incidences of job change, the decision was triggered by low wages in the existing jobs. In 25% of the instances, workers had to search for another job as they were fired without any reason while in 30% of the instances workers were fired due to their involvement in union building activity leaving no alternative to the workers but to look for another job. In 80% of the instances, workers found themselves jobless when they returned to work after going on a leave and this made them look for another job. The leaves were necessitated due to their home visits or sicknesses.

Figure 6: Reasons to Change Job

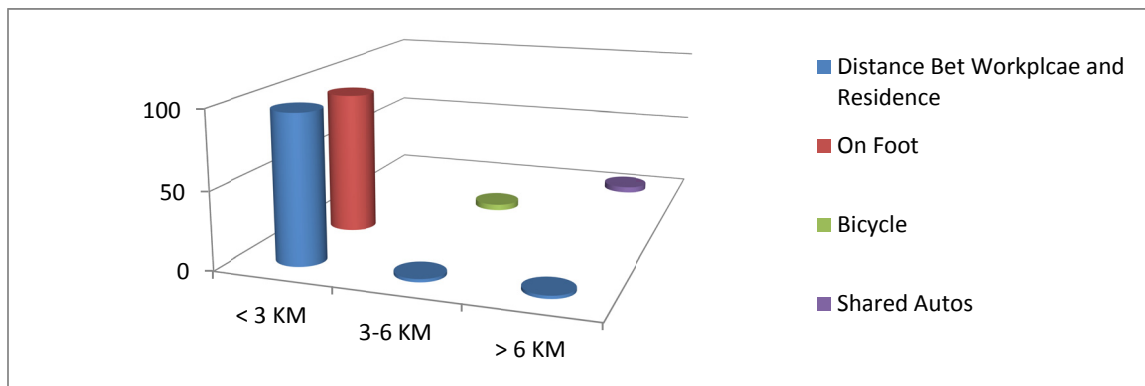


On the availability of jobs in Gurgaon, 75% of the respondents felt that it depends on the season. For example, in the garment industry, the demand for production increases before the festival season in the country where clothes were to be exported. During such a period, it's easier to get a job while during the post-festival period, getting employment becomes difficult. Up to 7% respondents said that it's easy to find a job in Gurgaon and 21% said they found it very difficult to find a job in Gurgaon.

Working Conditions

Most of the migrant workers live close to their working place in Gurgaon. While all of the respondents work in Gurgaon, many of them live in Delhi adjacent to Gurgaon. An overwhelming majority of them reach the work station on foot while a few use bicycles or *shared autos*. Most of the domestic workers had residences up to 3 Km or more from their workplaces. No respondent claimed to use the public transport system in Gurgaon.

Figure 7: Distance Between Workplace and Residence

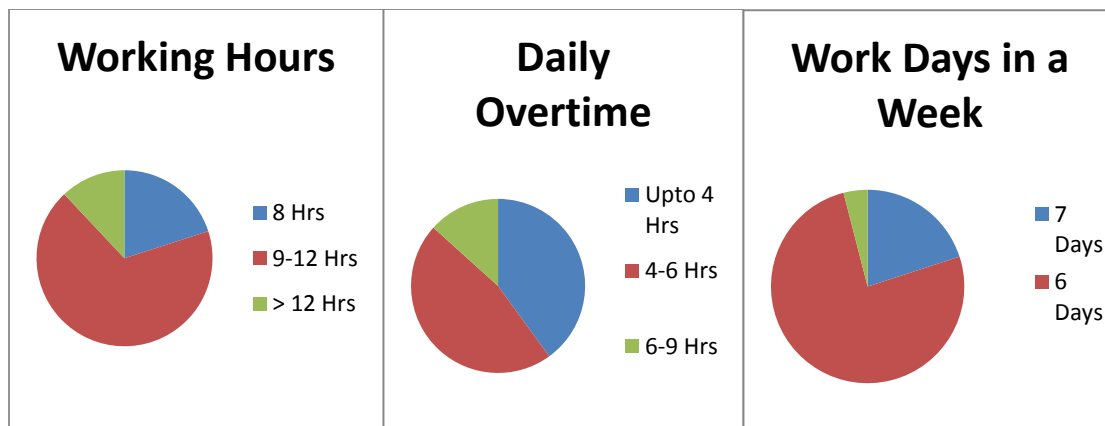


The working hours for the respondents varies from 8 hours to more than 12 hours, excluding overtime. This time excludes lunch and tea breaks as well as travel time between home and workplace.

Most of the workers prefer to do overtime. Although they are not satisfied with the overtime payment, nonetheless, it helps them add to their meagre salaries. There are two sides to the overtime work. One, workers want to do overtime for the above-mentioned reason. On an average, workers perform four to six hours of overtime each day. Exceptions to it could only be lack of work

in the factories or worksites. Two, during the heavy production season, workers are compulsorily asked to do overtime to fulfil the demand. Many a times, workers are forced to undertake overtime work up to 12 hours a day or even more than that. There are instances when workers in garment factories work round the clock. Even before their weekly off, workers are asked to do overtime ranging from four to eight hours. Most of the workers go to work on national holidays. Even if some factories remain closed on national holidays, factory managements ask workers to perform overtime work up to 12 hours to compensate for the subsequent offday. Construction workers, who often work for more than 10 hours a day, many a time do overtime of up to 8 hours. However, they do not receive overtime payment from the contractor.

Figure 8: Workers’ Distribution by Daily Work Hours



Up to 76% of the workers work on six days each week, while 20% work on all seven days. Most of the domestic workers and workers in the self-employed category work on all seven days of a week. Construction and domestic workers do not get any extra leaves. Garment and auto sector workers are entitled to 1.5 days’ leaves each month, i.e., 18 annual leaves. However, in reality, they get only 7–8 annual leaves. This mostly involves their visiting home in the village. As mentioned in a section above, many a time, workers find themselves removed from the factory if they take more than 7–8 days to return from home. Since, the families of most of the workers reside in the village, it becomes imperative for them to visit home. Medical emergencies at home or any other urgent matter compel them to stay back for more than the stipulated time period, which results in their losing the job. Sometime, factories allow workers to join work but as a fresh recruitment. Discontinuation in service has other implications as they lose their seniority at the workplace, continue to work on contractual

basis and often lose the benefits of gratuity and other social security policies. Since workers' ties with their home in the village remain strong, and despite the fact that many of them have been working in Gurgaon for more than two years, they want to visit family and sometimes circumstances force them to rush back home.

Table 17: Frequency and Reasons for Home Visits

Frequency of Home Visits		Reasons for Home Visit	
Once a Year	78%	To Attend Marriages	27%
Twice a Year	12%	During Festivals	41%
Once in Two Years	7%	To Meet Family	12%
Yet to Visit Home	3%	To Attend to Emergencies	20%

Sick leaves are also not granted. If a worker leaves the factory premise early due to being unwell, he/she would be denied a day's salary. Women respondents, who were either domestic workers or garment workers, reported discriminatory and inhuman practices with regard to maternity leave. The domestic workers do not get maternity leave from their employer. They are left with no other option but to leave the job. The garment workers complain that they had to go to their village for delivery and stay there for at least two months post-delivery. Since family members can look after them in the village, they chose to go back. Also, they were apprehensive that delivery in the city would cost a lot of medical expenses, which they could not afford. Garment factories generally grant a month's unpaid leave in the last month of pregnancy. However, women workers said that they find it uncomfortable to work in the men dominated factory floor in the last three months of their pregnancy. Hence, most of the garment women workers in Gurgaon leave job much before delivery and come back to search for a new job post-delivery.

Workers in garment and auto industries have the Employees' State Insurance (ESI) cards provided to them by their employers to facilitate medical treatment. However, ESI facilities are not accessible to the workers. These facilities are not located in their residential areas and their timing does not suit the workers. In case of accidents at the worksite, the employer or contractor takes the worker to a private hospital and bears the cost of the first-day treatment. Later on, workers have to bear the cost of follow-up visits and medicines. Government-run health centres are not preferred by

employers and contractors, despite the availability of free treatment, as they are keen to avoid documentation of accidents at worksites.

The workplaces are highly hierarchical and supervisors, floor in-charges act in authoritarian ways. Workers are also given punishments in the form of physical or verbal abuse or creating a fearful environment with the help of hired local goons. Most of the workers complained in the FGDs that even though they like the work they are doing, the work environment is not at all healthy and friendly.

Table 18: Workplace Punishments

Verbal Abuse	51%
Corporal Punishment	18%
Verbal and Corporal Punishment	16%
Use of Boxers against Workers	9%
Friendly Management	6%

Living Conditions of Migrant Workers

Migrants when they arrive in Gurgaon stay with their relatives, friends or acquaintances. Some of them continue to stay at their first residence in Gurgaon while many of them look for alternative arrangement after a few days. Very few respondents said that they could find a rented house with ease. Up to 86% took help from friends or relatives looking for a rented house. Employers do not play any role in helping the migrants search for a rented place.

Table 19: Comfort in Finding Rented House

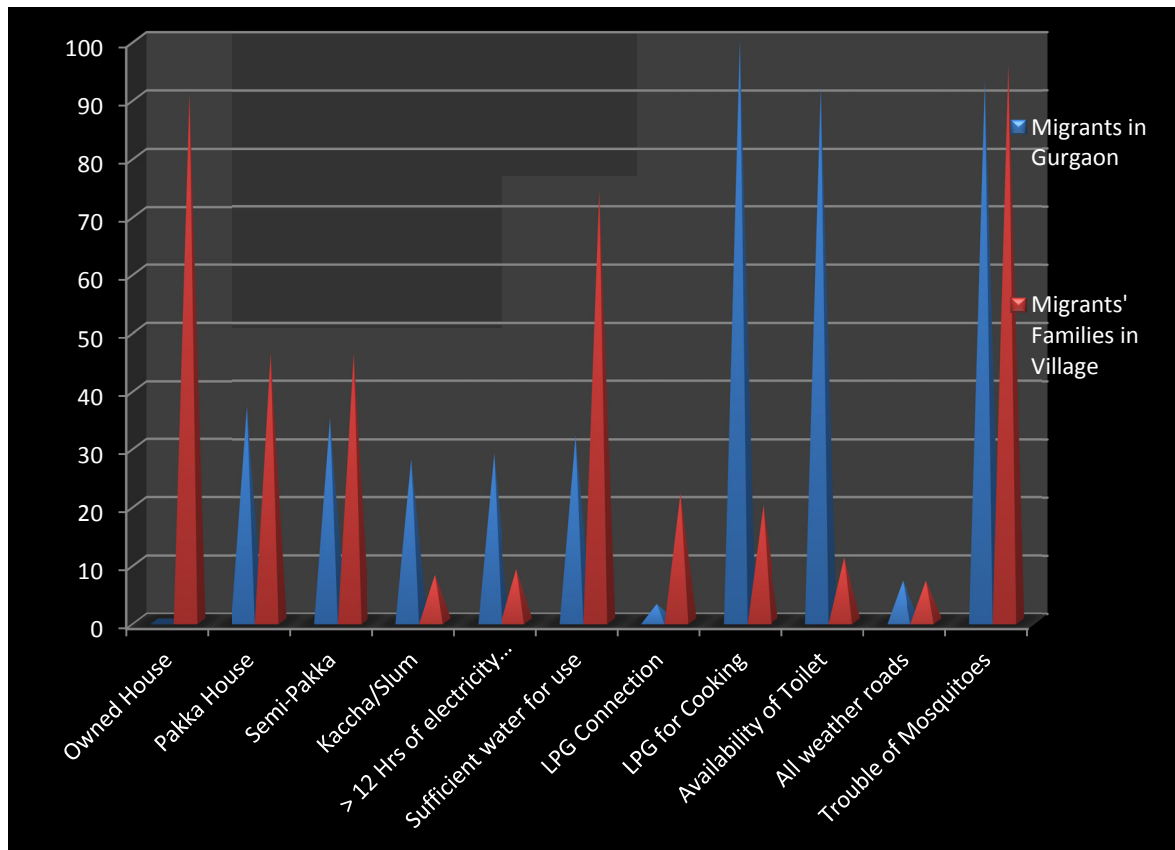
House Search		Medium of Search		Number of Houses Changed	
Very Easy	7%	With the Help of Friends/Relatives	87%	Never	28%
Not Easy	43%	Self-search	13%	1--2 Times	26%
Difficult	50%	With the Help of Employer	0%	3 or more Times	46%

Migrants in Gurgaon live in places ranging from slums to rented rooms in *chawls* to rented rooms in multi-storeyed buildings. Most of these are illegal constructions without sanctions from local municipal authorities. Most of the buildings where rented rooms are available consist of around 30 to 100 rooms. Generally rooms of the size of 10X10 feet are occupied by four to six workers. Many of the rooms do not have proper ventilation, full-time water and electricity supply, proper sewage and drainage systems and all weather accessible roads. The contrast -- as shown in the graph below -- in the housing of workers in Gurgaon and in their villages is significant.

The workers have, indeed, compromised on their living space when they migrated from a rural to urban area. It is only the supply of electricity that is comparatively better in Gurgaon than the home state of the migrants. Yet, only 29% of the migrant workers said that they have more than 12 hours of electricity supply in Gurgaon. On the other hand, availability of toilets in Gurgaon cannot be posed as better living condition compare to a village. Among the respondents in Gurgaon, only 2% have termed the condition of their toilet as good, 46% as OK, 18% as bad and 34% as very bad. Moreover, the toilets are mostly available on a shared basis where one toilet is constructed per five to eight rooms. Thus, one toilet is shared by *at least* 20 people. While only 3% of the respondents have an LPG connection in Gurgaon, 98% of them said that they use LPG for cooking as no other fuel is readily available to them. All of them buy LPG at the market price, i.e., Rs. 100 per kg, which comes to Rs. 1450 per cylinder.



Figure 9: Comparison of Workers' Living Conditions in Gurgaon and Native Place



Migrants face harassment from houseowners in multiple forms. House owners do not agree to certify that the tenant is living in their house on a rented basis. This creates problem for workers in getting Voter Id, Bank account, LPG connection, etc., and increases their cost of living. There is a late payment fee for paying the room rent. Generally, tenants have to pay the rent by the 7th or 10th day of the month. If they fail to pay the rent within the stipulated deadline, they have to pay late payment fine, which ranges from Rs. 100 to Rs. 300 per day. Workers have reported the cases during the FGD where house owner asked the tenant to immediately vacate the building on his refusal to pay late fine.

Most of the house owners run a grocery shop at the entrance of the building and make it compulsory for the tenants to buy from the same shop. In this practice, the shop sells the commodities in a higher price than what the workers can get in the market. The shops also keep count of how much grocery each tenant is buying each month. If the tenant buys less than what

he/she had purchased in past months, the shopowner showers abuses on the tenants alleging that the tenant is buying grocery from outside. Women migrant workers told in the FGD that some of them even faced “search” on the suspicion that they were buying rice from the market and taking it inside the building hiding it in their Saris.

Migrants complained during the FGD that they face verbal abuses from houseowners. The latter blamed the workers for unhygienic conditions where the houses lack proper infrastructural facilities. The area where the migrants are living also lacks proper attention by the local authorities. Open and overflowing sewage drains are common sites in the locality. Up to 82% of the respondents said that open and overflowing drains are a reality throughout the year in their locality. During the rains, the situation becomes worse with the impending danger of outbreak of seasonal diseases. The CMO of an ESI centre said, “The entire population in this area is sitting on a time bomb. We are not equipped to handle the cases beyond certain numbers. A simultaneous outbreak of two or more diseases in the area will result in a great human tragedy. The migrants, if suffering for dengue, malaria, typhoid etc, tend to go back home as we have no capacity to admit them in the government hospital. At home in the village, at least family members can look after their needs.” Up to 46% of the respondents go to a doctor or hospital at least once in two months while 50% seek medical help at least once in four months. There are only three ESI clinics in Gurgaon and those are merely dispensaries. Therefore, most of the workers go to the medical facilities located on the Delhi--Gurgaon border.

Table 20: Last Disease Afflicting the Respondent in Gurgaon

Fever/Cold/Viral	40%	Malaria	6%
Diarrhoea	34%	Jaundice	5%
Dengue	11%	Typhoid	4%

Sexual Harassment and Violence against Women

Migrant women in Gurgaon have to cope with sexual harassment and violence on an everyday basis. They face harassment on the streets, at their workplaces and in public spaces, face threats and intimidation from landlords and upper-caste men, and have to endure violence in their own homes. In this survey, composed of 81% men and 19% women, a majority of the respondents said that women are not safe on roads. At the same time, only a few respondents agreed that sexual harassment of women does take place at workplaces.

Table 21: Sexual Harassment of Migrant Women

	Happens Often	Happens Sometimes	Never Happens
Incidences of Verbal Abuses on Road	37%	51%	12%
Incidences of Molestation on Road	7%	90%	3%
Sexual Abuses at Workplace	7%	5%	88%

The issue of migrant women’s safety, sexual harassment and domestic violence were explored in-depth during the FGDs. The help of Nari Shakti Manch, an organization working on women’s safety and empowerment, was sought to enable women to speak out freely. The pamphlet (shown in the following page), with its combination of pictorial and textual content, served as an effective tool to steer forward the group discussions, and enable women to speak out. Women easily identified with the caricatures of someone from behind pulling a woman’s duppatta, and that of staring, and spoke rather freely with the research team.

All the women we interacted with through the course of the focus groups and other informal meetings expressed having faced harassment in one form or the other, on the streets and in their workplaces. Verbal abuse, lewd comments and gestures and eve-teasing were the most common forms of harassment that women faced. The women reported how men pass lewd comments such as “yeh maal accha hain”(“This item is good”), and such incidents occurred even more if women happened to pass across liquor shops on their way back home from work, or from the marketplaces. A few women narrated incidences of stalking and of having faced eve-teasing while travelling in

buses, and shared auto-rickshaws. Apart from verbal forms of harassment, the women narrated how in crowded places, men often deliberately hit and touch in inappropriate places as they walk along (“takkar marke chalte hai”).

“If two women are walking [on the streets], or if a woman is walking alone, and if two men are passing by, then something or the other [indecent] they have to utter from their mouths, they cannot walk by quietly, decency is nowhere to be seen.”

“The way they [the men] stare at us after getting drunk -- this is a bad road”.

क्या आपने अपने आप को कभी इस प्रकार से असुरक्षित महसूस किया है ?



छेड़ खानी



घूरना

अश्लील गाने

अश्लील बातें
और इशारे

आवाज़ उठाए

आपकी सुरक्षा आपका अधिकार है

सहायता के लिए कॉल करें:

महिला हेल्पलाइन: 1091

अथवा

नारी शक्ति मंच

राव माई चंद कॉम्प्लेक्स, प्लॉट नंबर १

(मिंटिटी स्टेशन के सामने)

पुरानी दिल्ली गुडगाँव रोड

गुडगाँव, हरियाणा

9716017772; 0124-4385478

Pamphlet designed for campaign against sexual harassment in public spaces that was used as an aid in conducting focus groups

Women working in the factories similarly face verbal and physical abuse by male co-workers and supervisors on an almost everyday basis. The women narrate how supervisors and floor in-charges use abusive language, if they do not meet their production targets, and also physically abuse them at times by touching them at inappropriate places. Male co-workers, the women note, pass lewd comments and use double meaning language, such as saying that the “maal” (literally meaning item -- here referring to the women) is very good, and is of high quality. In addition, the women narrated instances of contractors telling a few women to leave early from work, and accompany them, indicating clearly extraction of sexual favours.

“We have huge boards outside our factory saying that abusing is not allowed inside the factory premise but even the floor in-charge abuses us.”

“In-charge/manager asks us to work quickly by patting us on our thighs/ waist.”

The above accounts point to us that sexual harassment of women is rampant in public spaces and at workplaces, and largely hinders their mobility in public life. But women endure harassment and sexual violence also within the private sphere of their homes. While domestic violence was not the primary focus of this research, very subtle indications of its prevalence came out in the interactions with a few working women, who expressed how their husbands discouraged them from working, arguing there was no need for them to work if they [the husbands] could provide for them. As one worker put it, “pati bolta hai company jayegi toh taange toodh dunga” (“My husband says if you go to work in the company, I will break your legs”). All this indicates an abysmally low situation for migrant women’s safety and security, with incidence of sexual harassment and violence in public spaces and workplaces, being compounded by cases of domestic violence.

Most women reported that due to rising cases of violence and sexual assault, they usually travel in groups and take longer routes to reach back home from work, which pass via the main road. Many also stated that often they are accompanied by their husbands late night. Women also expressed apprehension in sending their daughters alone to the market and said that they usually prefer sending their sons to buy groceries or other essential materials. However, this is not to say that women passively accept the situation as it is. During the FGDs, many remarkable stories of courage and conviction emerged, two of which are outlined in the box below. In addition, overwhelmingly many young women, when asked whether they should raise their voice against such incidences, replied in the affirmative, and said, “Haan, Humein Awaaz Uthana Chahiye (Yes, we should raise our voice)”. A young woman narrated to us an incident of eve-teasing in her neighbourhood, and how they retaliated:

“One day a man was misbehaving with a woman of our neighbourhood. We asked him why do you do so. We women got together and beat him up. He picked up his cycle and ran away”.

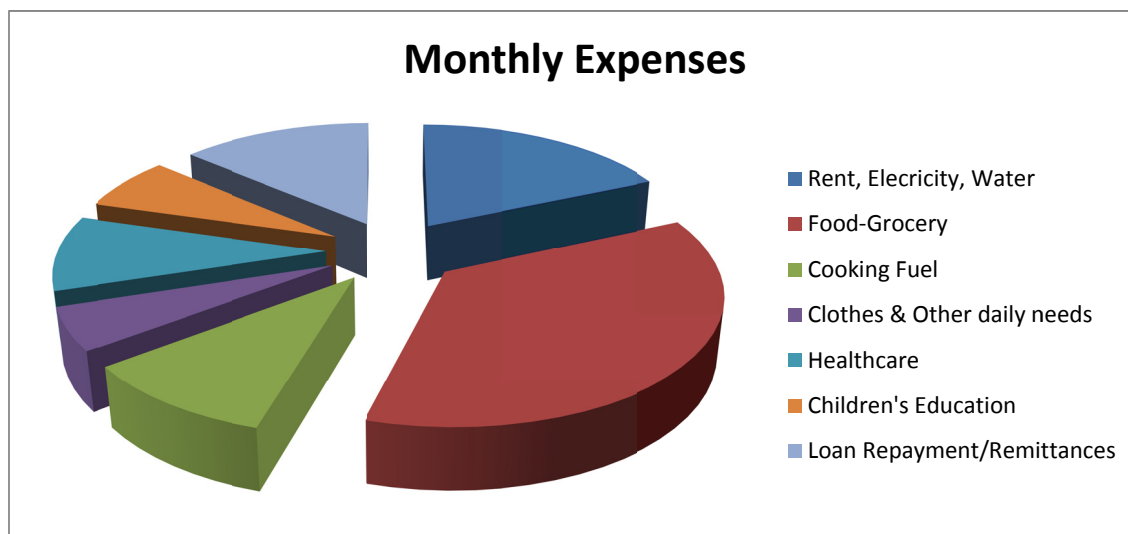
A garment factory worker was thrown out of her house by her local landlord, and when she resisted, she was threatened that she would be beaten up. She lost some cash and jewellery because of this act of the landlord as her belongings were thrown on the street. *Nari Shakti Manch* (NSM) supported her and she fought back. She filed a complaint against the landlord with the police who later made arrangements to put her belongings back at her home but refused to pay her for her losses. After consistent negotiation with police and *Nari Shakti Manch*, he agreed to pay her for her losses. This story not only demonstrates perseverance but also the courage a single migrant woman gathered against a local landlord and otherwise unhelpful law authorities.

In another case an eight-year-old girl in a migrant family was raped by an unknown person. The parents of the girl were threatened and asked to leave the premises where they lived and to go back to their native village and not pursue that case further. But a community member reported the case to NSM who convinced the parents that they must file a case with police so that action can be taken. But even after the case was filed, the police did not take action and only after public demonstrations by the NSM and community members, did the police get into action and released the sketch of the rapist. The girl was later paid compensation by the government. The rapist, however, is still at large, and the struggle continues.

Cost of Living:

Migrant workers' cost of living majorly comprises of expenses for house rent including electricity bill, cooking fuel, groceries, medical aid, children's education, marriages at home, repayment of debt and festivals.

On an average, the migrants in our survey earn Rs. 6720 per month. The average of their monthly spending including repayment of loan and remittances is Rs. 7350. This implies that on the whole the migrants are not earning but are falling under an average debt of Rs. 630 each month. In practice, it means that most of the migrants have to compromise on healthcare, children's education and sending remittances/repayment of loan. The residence, food, fuel and daily need costs are already bare minimum wherein the migrants have compromised as much as they could.

Figure 10: Monthly Expenses of Workers in Gurgaon

Financial Debts

A majority of the migrants' families in the villages have accumulated financial debt. The families have expectations from the migrants that they would share a major burden in repaying the loan. However, less than half of the migrants are able to send money to repay the loan. In fact, some of the migrants have accumulated debt on themselves during their stay in Gurgaon, which they are paying in instalments. The reasons for the accumulation of debt vary from health emergencies to expenses in marriages to crop failure. Among those, who are repaying the loan, a majority of the respondents are paying it in monthly instalments of up to Rs. 1000.

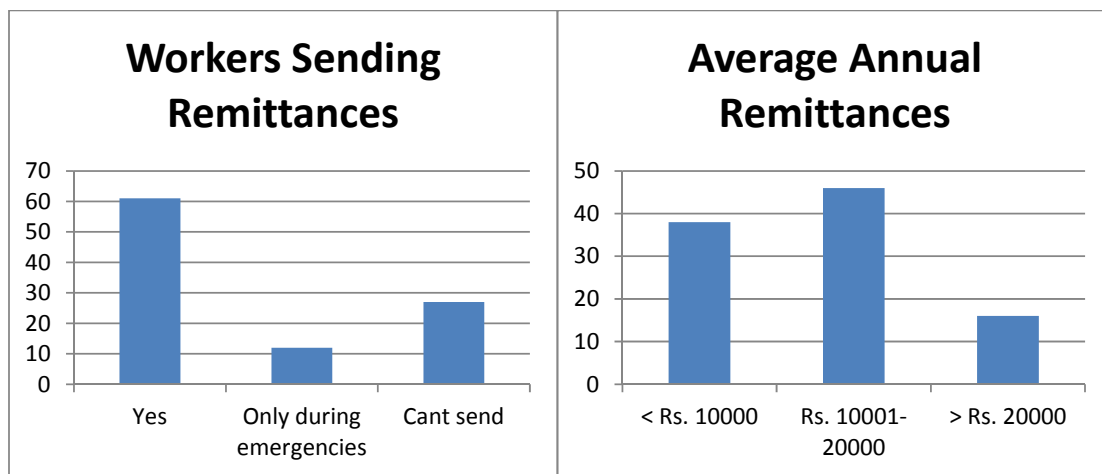
Table 22: Repayment of Debt

Repayment of Debt		Monthly Repayment		Reasons for Debt	
Repaying Debt on Family	32%	Upto Rs. 1000	74%	Health Emergencies	37%
Family has Debt but is Unable to Repay It	40%	Rs. 1001--2000	25%	Crop Failure	28%
Accumulated Debt in Gurgaon	22%	Rs. 2001--3000	4%	Expenses on Marriages	25%
No debt	6%	>Rs. 3001	0%	Construction of <i>Pakka House</i>	10%

Remittances

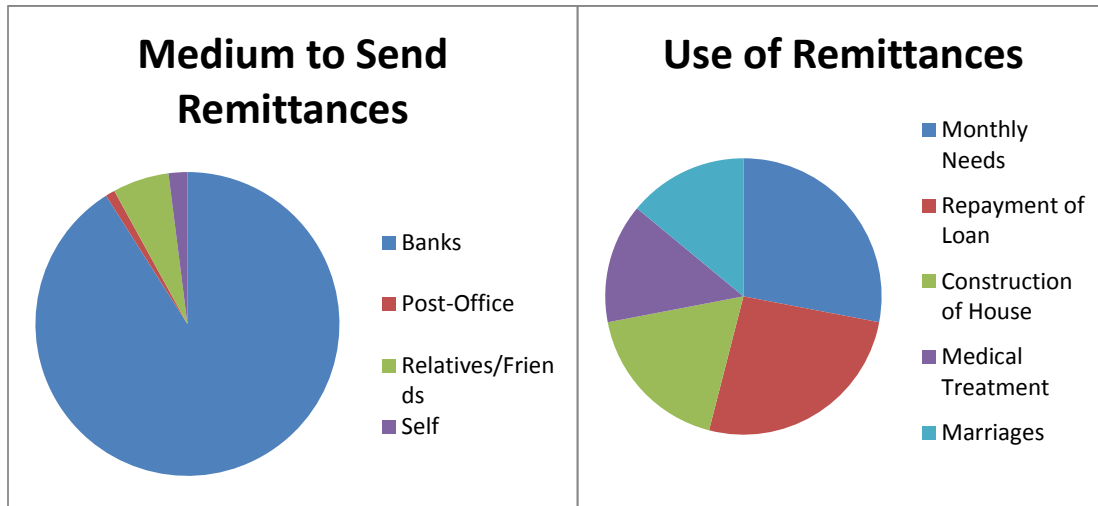
A majority of the workers migrated to Gurgaon in order to send remittances. However, not all can manage to send money home. Up to 61% of the respondents said that they send money to their families while 12% said that they send money only to meet emergency expenses such as medical treatment or marriage. Those, who send remittances, struggle to maintain regularity. The amount of remittances is also meagre.

Figure 11: Distribution of Workers by Frequency and Amount of Remittances



The remittances are used by the family in a village for meeting monthly needs, construction of *pakka* house, repayment of loan, saving for marriage expenditure and children’s education. Since most of the families have bank accounts in the village or nearby town, migrants use bank transfers to send money. However, a major difficulty in this regard is that banks are closed on Sundays, which is also an off day for most of the workers.

Figure 12: Medium to Send Remittances and Use of Remittances

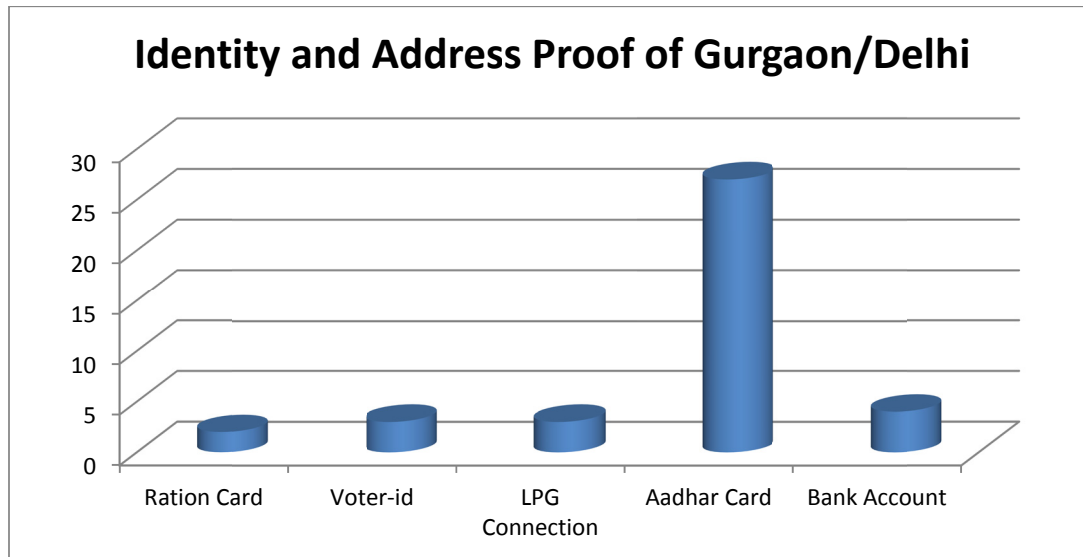


Identity Proof and Social Security Schemes

A major problem faced by migrants is inaccessibility of social security schemes due to lack of address proof in an urban area. There are three reasons for non-availability of address proof to the workers. One, frequent migration from one workplace to another does not provide enough window to workers to apply for local ration card and voter ID card, which are considered basic identity and address proof in India. However, this reason does not apply to the migrants in Gurgaon as most of them have been residing and working there for more than two years. Two, migrant workers do not get support from their employers or house owners to apply for ration card and voter ID card. Three, the uncertainty of job in an urban area and claim on the land in a village are factors preventing them from surrendering their ration card or voter ID card. According to the existing rules, migrants have to ensure that their names are struck off from the family's ration card if they have to apply for a new card elsewhere. The same applies to the voter ID card. As a consequence, migrants cannot receive cheap ration from government ration shops even though their economic condition makes them eligible for it. They also cannot get an LPG connection. Ration card and LPG connection could bring down their cost of living effectively. Neither do they become eligible to receive other social welfare schemes of respective state governments such as financial assistance in medical treatment, guaranteed amount for daughter's marriage or old age pension, etc. Some workers have acquired the Aadhar Card. However, they had to use their village address to use it. Moreover, it is not valid as an address proof. The workers possessing Aadhar Cards are neither entitled to any benefits under the

social welfare schemes of the government. Exclusion of a large migrant workforce from social security scheme is a major lacuna in poverty reduction policies of the government.

Figure 13: Distribution of Workers by Identity/Address Proof



Satisfaction of the Migrants

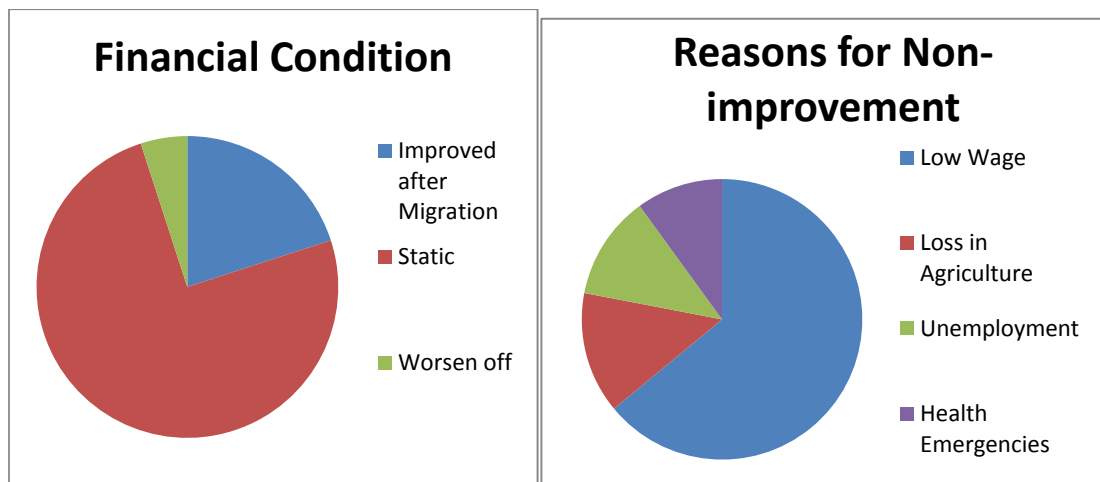
Overall, the respondents were not satisfied with their work, salary and living conditions. They were also not considering changing the industry. They think that they do not have skills to work in any other industry. At the same time, none of the respondents said that they are considering going back to the village. They are also not willing to bring their families to Gurgaon. In fact, going back and bringing all the family members to Gurgaon are not the options available to them.

Table 23: Workers’ Satisfaction Level

	Working Conditions	Wage/Salary	Salary with Overtime	Living Conditions
Satisfied	15%	4%	34%	1%
Unsatisfied	85%	96%	66%	99%

The hardest part of the migration undertaken by the workers is to witness that their family’s financial condition is not improving. The migrants in Gurgaon consider low wages and inflation of their food bill as big hurdles in improving the family’s financial condition.

Figure 14: Financial Conditions of Workers’ Family After Migration



The key issues emerging from these findings are low wages of workers, inhuman living conditions of migrants, social and political exclusion of migrant workers, unsafe conditions for migrant women and migrant workers’ close and inseparable bonding with the source village.

Industrial development *per se* can not be a problem in Gurgaon as it is providing employment to hundreds of thousands of migrants from poor rural regions. However, the policy priorities are concentrated on attracting capital and developing infrastructure for

industries. In this top-down approach, no attention is paid to make the working conditions more tolerable and living conditions more human. The migrants do not find a place in decision-making, therefore, excluding their priorities from government policies. As a result, development of Gurgaon has resulted into creation of one of the largest underclass of invisible and undocumented population in India. This population is driving India's GDP growth without experiencing upliftment of their own living standards. Since labour market in Gurgaon is yet to reach a saturation point, influx of rural migrants is going to continue in foreseeable future. In order to address this scenario, a three-pronged strategy is required; increasing employment and livelihood opportunities in rural area, raising minimum wages and including migrant workers in development planning in urban areas. This strategy has the potential to create a win-win situation for both rural and urban areas.

Conclusion

It is a combination of push and pull factors that results in migration from rural to urban areas. The push factors are inadequate employment opportunities in rural areas, inability of agriculture to fetch decent income and low wages accompanied by rising aspirations of the rural people for economic prosperity. The pull factors in the urban areas are availability of unskilled and semi-skilled work, perception of possibility of upward mobility in the cities, availability of transportation to reach out to urban areas and use of mobile phones to remain in contact with family in the village. Majority of the migrants own the land, however, size of the cultivable land is small for almost all the land-owning families ushering into migration to cities. Also, profitability in the agriculture is illusive and which depends on weather, effectiveness of seeds and fertilizers and minimum support prices provided by the government. Loss in agriculture directly impacts employment opportunity and income of agricultural labourers. As a result, small landholders and non-landholders need additional source of income to meet the family's basic needs. Very little presence of cottage-, small- and medium-scale industry further compounds the problem since it diminishes the possibility to get work in the village or a nearby area. The traditional livelihood sources such as silk production and its trade have not expanded beyond a level, therefore employment in this sector is restricted to those who have skills in this work. There are other factors because of which people do not find incentives to stay back in the village. These factors are lack of quality health care, lack of quality education and non-implementation of many of the government's welfare measures such as construction of *pacca* houses or non-availability of ration to all the households, etc. The MGNREGA, although implemented with much vigour and fanfare, has not helped in diminishing the flow of migration from rural to urban area. The minimal level of payment and only a maximum 100 days' work availability are the two factors, which have rendered the MGNREGA less effective than intended. Also, the delays in the transfer of payment in the bank or post-office accounts has made it less attractive for the poor whose survival depends on receiving regular money to meet daily expenses.

Internal migration has mostly helped the migrant's family to survive in difficult financial conditions, i.e., due to migration the family has not fallen into the trap of abject poverty. At the same time, the remittances by the migrant member have resulted in repayment of loan and bearing the cost of medical treatment to some extent. The remittances have helped some families to construct *pacca* houses and support children's education. These are no lesser achievements in rural areas. Estimates of the domestic remittance market were roughly \$10 billion for the year 2007--08.¹ Another study has estimated that Bihari migrants remitted Rs 4.5 billion in 2006 through post office transfers and in an equal or higher amount through post office savings.² As this study has shown that post-office transfers are a small and often less preferred form of remittances by migrants to families, the amounts transferred by migrants in Bihar are likely to be much higher.

If the household's income rises in the village, there is ground to believe that the remittances sent by the migrants will be used more on health and education needs of the family as well as to increase the assets of the family. Even though remittances have proved to be helpful, most of the migrants do not have access to bank accounts or post offices to send money.

The problems faced by the family due to migration of a key family member are mostly unnoticed, undocumented and hence remain unaddressed. The *Information-Technology* revolution has not gone beyond mobile phones as far as connectivity between migrants and their families are concerned. The temporary nature of work in the informal sector in the urban areas where most of the migrant workers get employment is a cause of concern for families in the village. When a migrant visits home; uncertainty of continuance of his employment after his/her return, is a major worry for the families in the village as well as for the migrant himself/herself. Impact of migration on women is a less explored, less known area so far. The women who migrated for work shoulder the double burden of responsibilities – at household and at the workplace. They have to adjust to different cultural and social set-up. While they lack the support of family members in case of need

¹ C. Tumble, *Remittances in India: Facts and Issues*, Working Paper No. 331, Indian Institute of Management, Bangalore, India, 2011.

² Deshingkar et al., 2008.

(e.g., illness, etc), at the same time, they feel empowered and liberated in a certain sense as their behaviour and movement are not under the constant monitoring of other family members. Similarly, the women in the family – particularly the wives -- who are left behind by the migrant members constantly need to guard one's honour and dignity. Many of them are viewed at with suspicion of extra-marital relationship by villagers, their own family members and some time by the husband also. At the same time, many women feel empowered with the sense that they are taking care of children, elders in the family and managing the financial affairs of the family. Sometimes, they also receive special importance as their husbands are contributing significantly to the family's income and welfare.

Government institutions and elected local bodies such as panchayats and municipalities do not keep records of the migrants. Due to lack of comprehensive official data on number of migrants, destination places and nature of work there and remittances, "migration" has remained a least priority area in government policies. In fact, it can be argued that due to the least priority accorded to the migration issue, governments have not taken initiatives to establish data gathering and registration mechanisms. This applies to the urban administration as well Author: Please check the edit made here. There are no help desks or resource centres for migrants in urban areas, who are mostly depend on their acquaintances – close or remote – or contractors to locate work and accommodation in an urban area.

Naturally, the contribution of migrants to the GDP of the country goes unnoticed. It is estimated that the migrants contribute no less than 10% to the country's GDP.³ Many other positive impacts as well as potentials through the migration process remain unrecognized. Migrants are an important component of social dynamism and material development of the society. They can also be tools of cultural amalgamation and innovation. The migration process is an important tool to break the old feudal bondages, including the caste system, in the rural area. Migrants bring back to the source place hoards of new information, skills, knowledge about new technology, new attitude and most importantly – rising aspiration. Due to lack of a comprehensive policy on migration, least on connecting rural--urban threads, the potentials arising through the migration process is not explored and the problems related to migration are not addressed.

³ P. Deshingkar and S. Akter, *Migration and Human Development in India*, Human Development Research Paper, UNDP, 2009.

Recommendations

Fill Knowledge and Research Gaps to Enable Evidence-Based Policy-Making

Reasons, processes and impacts of internal migration are not adequately captured in macro databases such as Census and NSSO. This has hampered formulation of policies to prevent distress migration, facilitate inter-state migration and design schemes to be delivered to the migrants. The data and knowledge gap prevent multiple but coordinated interventions by the Central Government, state governments and non-governmental organizations to facilitate migration and ensure integration of migrants into the economic, social, political and cultural life of the country.

1. Revise design of Census and National Sample Surveys on migration to adequately capture sex disaggregated and age-disaggregated data on short-term migration, multiple reasons for migration, multiple reasons for women's migration and multiple reasons for children's migration.
2. Conduct detailed countrywide mapping of internal migration (at panchayat level with the support of civil society organizations and labour departments).
3. Encourage state-level research institutions to develop state migration profiles, including state-wise mapping of nature, timing, duration and magnitude of migration cycles.
4. Build capacity of panchayats to maintain a database of migrant workers (with details of number of migrants and recruitment by contractors) and also to register returned migrants.
5. Adopt harmonized definition and methodology for recognizing migrant children in the data on out-of-school children and school dropouts through revision in categories and sampling strategy to include migrants.
6. Undertake detailed mapping of type, pattern, scale and geographical and sector-wise spread of child migration across and within states (to be carried out by the panchayati raj Institutions with the support of schools).
7. Increase research on sector-wise contribution of migrants in different industries of the economy, including their contribution to GDP and domestic remittances.
8. Increase research on sector-wise contribution of women migrants in different industries of the economy, including their contribution to GDP and domestic remittances.

Develop a Coherent Development Policy Framework on Migration

1. Increase minimum wages across the sectors. Consider demand of all the Trade Unions to raise the minimum wage to Rs. 10,000 per month.
2. Identify urban conglomerations drawing migrants from rural areas and make appropriate financial allocation under Jawaharlal Nehru Urban Renewal Mission for expansion of public transport, hygienic services, public educational institutions and public health services.
3. Construct low-cost housing on a massive scale to provide on minimal rent to migrant workers. Construct low cost hostels for migrant working women. Arrange night shelters and short-stay homes for migrants to provide seasonal and temporary accommodation for migrant workers in high in-migration states.
4. Promote setting up of walk-in resource centres for migrants at destination places, which provide legal counselling and information on grievance handling and dispute resolution mechanisms.
5. Promote setting up migrant resource centres offering pre-departure counselling, access to labour market information and institutionalized access to jobs, including training, placement and skill up-gradation.
6. Create labour helplines at both the source and the destination places.
7. Develop seasonal hostels to promote retention of children in schools in source areas, set up worksite schools at the destination with systems to transfer enrolment, attendance and credits to formal schools, undertake bridge courses and remedial education for return migrant children.
8. Equip worksites in on-site or near-site ICDS anganwadis for children.
9. Establish mobile crèches, early childcare and/or day-care centres at or close to worksites for children in the age group 0–14 years.
10. Ensure access to formal banking facilities for migrants and their families. Facilitate secure transfer of remittances of migrants, through banking correspondents and mobile banking, while incorporating flexibility in bank procedures (such as modification of KYC norms and special banking hours).

11. Organize sensitization drives for policy-makers, local government officials, NGOs, employers and financial institutions regarding obstacles in accessing public services by migrants.
12. Promote targeted interventions for health protection that address health issues of high-risk migrant populations (for example, NACO strategy on HIV Intervention for Migrants and Red Ribbon Express trains).
13. Establish mobile health units to service health needs of migrant families and children.
14. Introduce Life Insurance and Workplace Accident Insurance Schemes exclusively for migrant workers.
15. State governments should identify migration-prone districts where MGNREGS is not implemented properly. The district magistrate should be issued directives to address the problem on a war footing.
16. Comprehensive district-level plans are required in migration-prone areas to boost irrigation and power supply to the villages. This should help in improving agriculture and living standard in the villages.
17. The National Rural Livelihood Mission needs to be properly implemented in migration prone districts.
18. Union and state governments need to develop a plan for giving incentives to small-scale industries to develop in the region so that more full-time/part-time jobs are created in the locality.

Develop a Coherent Legal Framework on Migration:

1. Gram panchayats should be authorized to certify a migrant worker before he leaves for the destination point. The migrant may be issued a certificate and a card with necessary phone numbers where he can call in case of any distress at the destination point.
2. Revise the Inter-State Migrant Workmen (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Act (1979) including the following gaps:
 - The Act applies only to migrants crossing state boundaries and, therefore, a large section of migrants are excluded from its ambit.
 - It does not monitor unregistered contractors and establishments.

- It remains silent on provisions for crèches, education centres for children or mobile medical units for the labourers.
 - It articulates no guidelines for inter-state cooperation.
 - It covers only regulation of employment and conditions of service of migrants and does not address access to social protection of migrants, their right to the city and the special vulnerabilities of children and women migrants.
 - Important provisions of the Act such as minimum wages, displacement allowance medical facilities and protective clothing remain unenforced.
3. Enact a comprehensive Migrants' Rights Legislation to ensure benefits of all the social security and welfare schemes to the migrant population as well as prohibiting any kind of discriminatory practices against the migrants. The legislation must include Complete portability in terms of registration, payment of premium (where applicable), and receipt of benefits of all centrally sponsored social protection programmes, irrespective of where migrants reside. Particularly, portability of benefits of cheap ration through public distribution system and LPG connection for subsidised cooking fuel must be ensured.
 4. Universal registration of workers and issuance of unique photo identity and/or smart cards by grass roots organizations.
 5. National Minimum Social Security Package for all workers consisting of a retirement benefit, a life cover, and a family health cover.
 6. Adopt recommendations on a National Minimum Social Security Scheme for informal workers suggested by the National Commission for Enterprises in the Unorganised Sector (NCEUS), with the following features.
 7. Prioritize implementation of existing labour laws, including the Minimum Wages Act (1948), Payment of Wages Act (1936), Contract Labour (Regulation and Abolition) Act (1970), Equal Remuneration Act (1976), Bonded Labour System (Abolition) Act (1976), Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act (1986), Workmen's Compensation Act (1923), Building and Other Construction Workers (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Act (1996), and Unorganized Workers Social Security Act (2008). Ensure working migrant women's rights through these Acts.
 8. Mainstream migration in a comprehensive and focused manner in policy documents and national development plans such as Five Year Plans, MGNREGA, Rashtriya Swasthya

Bima Yojana, Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission and City Development Plans.

9. Establish migrant labour cells in each state labour department with the support of the Labour Ministry.
10. Migrant workers are largely unorganized. Trade Unions, Kisan Sabhas and appropriate Ministries/Departments need to find ways of organizing migrant workers. Registration of unions/associations in the informal sectors should be made easy.

Implement Existing Government Programmes Benefiting Women and Children:

1. Increase financial and human resources for Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS), National Maternity Benefit Scheme and Rajiv Gandhi Creche Scheme in migration-prone areas.
2. Facilitate access of migrant women to Janani Suraksha Yojana to promote institutional delivery among pregnant poor women.
3. Enforce provisions for establishing crèches, as mandated under labour laws in the construction, mining and plantation sectors and at MGNREGA worksites.
4. Establish mobile crèches, early childcare and day care centres for children in the age group 0–14 years.
5. Provide Mid-Day Meals mandatorily for migrant children.
6. Increase coverage of ICDS in migrant labour camps and worksites, and improve facilities for pre-school education and growth monitoring.

Make Provisions for Educational Needs of Migrant Children:

1. Set up village or panchayat-based seasonal hostels in sending areas to provide residential facilities for children to stay back in the village and to promote retention of children in local schools.
2. Tap the Special Training Programme component of RTE to ensure age-appropriate educational competency of out-of-school and dropout child migrants.
3. Ensure child migrants' right to education by linking them to seasonal hostels or worksite schools in receiving areas to prevent child labour and to ensure that children are in adult care in a safe and clean environment and have an opportunity to learn and play.
4. Include migrant parents in School Management Committees.
5. Appoint para-teachers or mobile education volunteers conversant in the native languages of migrant children.
6. Arrange transport facilities for migrant children for easy access to schools in distant and uninhabited areas at the destination.
7. Provide bridge courses and remedial education for children in sending areas on their return from migration.

Annexure - 1

International Conventions and Declarations Concerning Migration

- UN Universal Declaration on Human Rights (1948)
- UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (1966)
- UN International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1966)
- UN International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (1966)
- UN International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families (2003)
- UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) (1979)
- UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) (1989)
- UNESCO Universal Declaration on Cultural Diversity (2001)
- UNESCO Convention for the Safeguarding of Intangible Cultural Heritage (2003)
- UNESCO Convention on the Protection and Promotion of the Diversity of Cultural Expressions (2005)
- Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children (2000), supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime
- ILO Migration for Employment Convention (Revised) (1949) (No. 97)
- ILO Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention (1952) (No. 102)
- ILO Equality of Treatment (Social Security) Convention (1962) (No. 118)
- ILO Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention (1975) (No. 143)
- ILO Maintenance of Social Security Rights Convention (No. 157) (1982)
- ILO Domestic Workers Convention (2011) (No. 189)
- ILO Migration for Employment (Revised) Recommendation (1949) (No. 86)
- ILO Protection of Migrant Workers (Underdeveloped Countries) Recommendation (1955) (No. 100)
- ILO Migrant Workers Recommendation (1975) (No. 151)
- ILO Domestic Workers Recommendation (2011) (No. 201)
- SAARC Convention on Preventing and Combating Trafficking in Women and Children for Prostitution (2002)³⁴
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Indian Legislations

- Workmen's Compensation Act (1923)
- Payment of Wages Act (1936)
- Minimum Wages Act (1948)
- Immoral Traffic (Prevention) Act (1956)
- Contract Labour (Regulation and Abolition) Act (1970)
- Bonded Labour System (Abolition) Act (1976)
- Equal Remuneration Act (1976)

- Inter-State Migrant Workmen (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Act (1979)
- Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act (1986)
- Building and Other Construction Workers (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Act (1996)
- Unorganised Workers Social Security Act (2008)
- Criminal Law (Amendment) Act 2013

Migration Networks

National

- National Coalition of Organisations for the Security of Migrant Workers (NCOSMW)
- Gender Youth Migration (GYM), Gender Community of Practice, UN Solution Exchange
http://www.solutionexchange-un.net.in/communities/gender_gym
- Strengthen and Harmonize Research and Action on Migration (SHRAM)
Forthcoming: www.shram.org
- Internal Migration in India Initiative (IMII)
www.unesco.org/newdelhi

International

- Asia Pacific Migration Resource Network
www.apmrn.usp.ac.fj
- Cities of Migration, Canada
www.citiesofmigration.ca
- Development Research Centre on Migration, Globalisation and Poverty, University of Sussex
www.migrationdrc.org
- European Migration Network
www.emn.intrasoft-intl.com/html/index.html
- European Network Against Racism (ENAR)
www.enar-eu.org
- Global Development Network
http://www.gdnet.org/cms.php?id=migration_theme80 Social Inclusion of Internal Migrants in India
- Global Forum on Migration and Development
www.gfmd.org/en
- Global Migration Group
www.globalmigrationgroup.org
- Human Rights, Children and Migration
www.hrcam.org
- Inter Press Service News Agency – Migration and Refugees
www.ipsnews.net/news/human-rights/migration-refugees
- Migration For Development
www.migration4development.org

- Migrant Forum in Asia
www.mfasia.org
- Migrating out of Poverty Research Programme Consortium
www.migratingoutofpoverty.dfid.gov.uk/
- Migrants Rights International
www.migrantwatch.org
- Migration Policy Institute
www.migrationpolicy.org
- Refugee and Migratory Movements Research Unit (RMMRU), University of Dhaka
www.rmmru.org
- The Hague Process on Refugees and Migration
www.thehagueprocess.org
- United Nations Institute for Training and Research (UNITAR)
www.unitar.org

Research Institutes, NGOs and Trusts working on Migration Issue

- Aajeevika Bureau
www.aajeevika.org
- Agrasar
www.agrasar.org
- Butterflies
www.butterflieschildrights.org
- Centre for Development Studies
www.cds.edu
- Centre for Education and Communication
www.cec-india.org
- Disha Foundation
www.dishafoundation.wordpress.com
- Eko India Financial Services Pvt. Ltd
www.eko.co.in
- FINO Paytech
www.finopaytech.com
- Ghoghardiha Prakhand Swarajya Vikas Sangh (GPSVS)
www.gpsvs.org.in
- Grameen Evam Samajik Vikas Sanstha (GSVS)
www.gsvsajmer.in
- Gram Vikas Parishad
www.gvpindia.org
- Gramin Vikas Trust (GVT)
www.gvtindia.org
- LabourNet
www.labournet.in

- Lokadrusti
www.lokadrusti.org
- Mahanirban Calcutta Research Group
www.mcrg.ac.in
- Mobile Crèches
www.mobilecreches.org
- National Aids Control Organisation (NACO)
<http://www.naco.gov.in/NACO>
- National Association of Street Vendors of India (NASVI)
www.nasvinet.org
- National Institute of Urban Affairs (NIUA)
www.niua.org
- Nirmana
www.nirmana.org
- Paryavaran Evam Prodyogiki Utthan Samiti (PEPUS)
www.pepus.org
- Rajiv Gandhi National Institute of Youth Development
www.rgniyd.gov.in
- Samarthan – Centre for Development Support
www.samarthan.org
- Sanlaap
www.sanlaapindia.org
- SETU
www.setuahmedabad.blogspot.in/2011/08/setu-centre-for-social-knowledge-and.html
- Youth for Unity & Voluntary Action (YUVA)
www.yuvaurbanindia.org
- Yugantar
www.yugantar.org.in

International Organisations working on the Issue of Migration

- International Council on Social Welfare
www.icsw.org
- International Labour Organisation (ILO)
www.ilo.org/newdelhi/aboutus/WCMS_166809/lang--en/index.htm
- International Organisation for Migration (IOM)
www.iom.int/cms/en/sites/iom/home/where-we-work/asia-and-the-pacific/india.html
- Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS)
www.unaids.org/en/regionscountries/countries/india
- The Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)
www.unhcr.org/pages/49e4876d6.html
- UNAIDS
www.unaids.org/en/regionscountries/countries/india

- United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF)
www.unicef.org/india
- United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)
www.in.undp.org/india/en/home.html
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO)
www.unesco.org; www.unesco.org/newdelhi
- United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-HABITAT)
www.unhabitat.org
- United Nation Population Fund (UNFPA)
www.unfpa.org
- UN Women, South Asia
www.unwomensouthasia.org
- World Health Organisation (WHO)
www.whoindia.org

Annexure – 2

Organizations Working among Migrants and Their Work:

National Coalition of Organizations for the Security of Migrant Workers (NCOSMW)

Around 30 NGOs working for migrant rights in the states of Maharashtra, Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan, Bihar, Odisha, Madhya Pradesh, and Gujarat have formed an umbrella organization - National Coalition of Organisations for the Security of Migrant Workers (NCOSMW). Prominent members of this coalition are Aajeevika Bureau, Disha Foundation, YUVA, Pratikar, PRAYAS, Mumbai Mobile Creches, PEPUS, Sahbhagi Siksha Kendra, Samarthan, Grameen Development Services and BASIX. The NCOSMW is focussing on drafting a national policy on migration, ensuring extension of social security for migrant workers and increasing state and national level visibility and recognition of the migration issue. Anjali Borhade and Rajiv Khandelwal are Convenor and Co-convenor of NCOSMW.

Aajeevika Bureau

Identity-Cards: Aajeevika Bureau has developed a system of doing registration of migrants and issuing identity cards to them. The worker applies for the identity card by filling out a simple registration form that captures demographic information including the duration of their migration cycle and his/her destination, trade and income. Migrants get this information verified by the *Sarpanch*. Following this, migrants are issued with an identity card that contains all relevant details, including their domicile, trade, education and contact details. This system was initiated in 2005. Ministry of Labour and Employment of Rajasthan recognised it as a valid proof of identity in December 2007. This authorisation has increasingly been accepted by employers, police and local administration as a credible proof of identity.

Now this card can also be used for opening of bank accounts and enrolment for social security services. The photo ID is also a critical document preventing migrants from

experiencing police harassment that is common place in cities. Aajeevika Bureau has registered over 70,000 migrants since 2005.

Sir Dorabji Tata Trust (SDTT) has supported about 32 organizations to replicate this system in 41 districts in states such as Odisha, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, and Rajasthan. These organizations are covering about 100,000 migrants in high out-migration states as well as key urban destinations. It is obvious that the scale of migration is so high that a much larger response with involvement of state, civil society and trade unions are required to address this identity crisis.

Shramik Sahayata evam Sandarbha Kendras: Aajeevika Bureau provides legal counselling for migrants who suffer due to the nature of the informal labour market. This service comprises of focussed programmes for legal literacy and direct legal help through mediation and litigation. In the case of a dispute, workers can just walk-in the *Shramik Sahayata evam Sandarbha Kendras* (or 3SKs) to register their case and seek counsel and aid. There are regular legal clinic days to resolve the cases. The legal clinic is replica of the formal court mechanism. The legal clinic mediates between the complainant and the offenders. An emphasis is on resolving disputes through negotiation rather than litigation as the latter can be expensive and time consuming for the workers. Over 1,000 cases were registered with the Aajeevika Bureau so far out of which 540 cases have been resolved, mainly through arbitration. This intervention has resulted in a settlement of over US\$ 100,000 in favor of workers.

Labour Line: In August 2011, Aajeevika Bureau has started a phone-based help line for workers in Udaipur, Rajasthan. The helpline involves a dedicated phone line answered by a trained counsellor. It allows workers to reach out for counsel in case of any problem related to wages, retrenchment or abuse. Labour Line is supported by a network of walk-in resource centres. The majority of cases that reach the counsellors are regarding wage payments.

Suvidha Rasoi Ghars: Aajeevika has collaborated with Hindustan Petroleum Corporation Limited (HPCL) to set up community kitchens or *Suvidha Rasoi Ghars* in Ahmedabad. These kitchens are spaces with stoves and LPG cylinders where groups of migrants can cook. The

installation cost is borne by the company. Now, the Aajeevika has also started a mobile kitchen initiative for migrant workers. This service is being run at ten different locations, benefitting more than 400 migrant workers across the city of Ahmedabad. This is not only cost-effective but also more hygienic resulting in better health outcomes for the migrant community.

Source: www.aajeevika.org

Labournet

Identity Cards: The Bangalore based LabourNet programme has also issued migrants with identity cards. Since 2006, it has registered over 40,000 workers. LabourNet operates through a network of *Worker Facilitation Centres* in Karnataka. It undertakes the registration of unorganised sector workers, including migrants, through referrals and direct field-based registration drives. It collects workers' details regarding their qualification, experience, family details and proof of address. The information is entered into a centralised database. An annual fee of Rs. 150 is charged from workers for registration. On the basis of this registration, workers are entitled for a laminated identity card, a bank account opened in their name and accident insurance coverage.

Workers Training Programme: LabourNet provides training support to the workers in order to create a more productive workforce. The trainings are given with the objectives to increase employability and improvement in remuneration. It imparts skills training through their Worker Facilitation Centres in Karnataka. The trained workers are issued certificates in a number of different trades such as carpenters, masons, electricians and beauticians. According to LabourNet, the programme has provided training for 6 300 workers, conducted skills assessments for 7 500 workers and provided job linkages to over 8000 workers.

Source: www.labournet.in

Strengthen and Harmonise Research and Action on Migration (SHRAM)

SHRAM is a research portal and data repository on migration and migrants. It is a first-of-its-kind interactive research and data portal on migration. It contains a searchable repository of migration research, and aims to facilitate researcher interaction and policy and strategy formulations, and to conduct virtual training programmes.

Source: www.shram.org

Disha Foundation

Identity Cards: Disha Foundation in Nashik has issued identity cards to 15,000 migrants employed in various sectors. Membership of the trade union and registration for identity card is entwined. Migrants are provided with official membership and a photo identity card for the union. Rs. 10 is charged for lifetime membership and it is offered to migrants in Nashik city as well as at source villages. These trade union cards have been validated by the *gram panchayats* of source villages. The identity card has been proved as a useful proof of identity to access public services in Nashik city.

Complaint Box: Disha Foundation and Department of Labour, Maharashtra, have jointly initiated a grievance handling cell pertaining to the migrants' employment, wages and related complaints. Two complaint boxes are kept at the two labour markets in the Nashik city. A complainant has to drop a complaint form in the box. A local committee, consisting of *Naka Workers* deals with lighter complaints and major cases are referred to the labour department.

Portability of Ration Benefits: The Maharashtra Government has issued a notification in November, 2000 (Resolution 1000/ GR 399/ 2000/ NP28) for facilitation of temporary ration card in a destination city for seasonal migrants. On the basis of this notification, Disha Foundation played a mediating role between the Department of Public Distribution System, state government authorities and the migrants. The government authorities made on-site visits with Disha foundation and issued an order to provide seasonal migrants with temporary ration cards for four months against their existing ration cards. It was made

extendable to 12 months. If migrants are going back to the home village, they have to cancel the temporary ration card at the destination city so that they avail subsidised food grain in their home villages. These temporary ration cards can be renewed on their return to the destination city. In this case, the destination city is Nashik in Maharashtra. Department of Public Distribution System relaxed the rules for migrant workers to acquire temporary ration cards. For instance, in place of proof of identity and residence, a letter from the contractor stating where the migrant works; a photo of the migrant with family members; a recommendation from another registered migrant from the same village; a Disha Union card and letter of recommendation from Disha are required for registration for ration card. Initially, Department of Public Distribution System issued new ration cards to 55 migrants of *Civil Naka* in Nashik. After the success of this experiment, 1200 more migrants were issued the temporary ration cards.

Sexual and Reproductive Health (SRH) of Migrants: Disha Foundation piloted a project designed to improve the sexual and reproductive health (SRH) of migrants in Nashik, Maharashtra. Disha Foundation introduced a formal referral process for migrants to government health services to provide better access to health care. A triplicate referral form was developed for migrants, health providers and Disha Foundation itself. The medical history and related details of migrants are provided in the form, while the reverse side of the form provides contact information of all available government health services in Nashik. The form is helpful for migrants in getting direct treatment from doctors without much delay and discussion.

Migration Resource Centre: The Migration Resource Centre works on fulfilment of two objectives: One, it will facilitate migration to Nashik city through livelihood skills building and job linkages; and two, it will focus on the better implementation of existing government programmes at source villages of migrants in Nashik district to reduce distress migration. The Migration Resource Centre plans to generate data on migrant flows for better informed programmes and policies. Establishment of this centre is a result of Disha Foundation's seven year's work to bring in the migration issue into policy level discourse. The Union Ministry of Tribal Affairs has sanctioned a grant for the construction of the Migration Resource Centre and the Maharashtra state government has financed the programme cost

for three years. The land for the construction of the centre has been allotted by the Urban Land Ceiling Department.

Source: www.dishafoundation.wordpress.com

Paryavaran Evam Prodyogiki Utthan Samiti (PEPUS)

Shramik Sahayata Kendra: *Paryavaran Evam Prodyogiki Utthan Samiti* (PEPUS) - means Society for Environmental and Technical Upliftment - is based in Jhusi, Allahabad, Uttar Pradesh. It facilitates the process of dispute resolution for migrant labourers and aims to reach a settlement through mutual dialogue. Migrant labourers submit a written complaint at the *Shramik Sahayata Kendra* (Migrant Resource Centre). After discussion, an information letter is issued by the Centre to the opponent party. In most of the cases, the opponent party is either the labour contractor or brick kiln owner or both. The letter comprises of details of the dispute and date of hearing. On the day of the dispute hearing, both parties assemble at the centre and a hearing took place. The Centre makes attempts to resolve the dispute by proactive mediation and arbitration. However, the unresolved cases are forwarded to an advocate of the High Court, who attends the centre on a regular basis and takes necessary action for dispute resolution. PEPUS' data shows that they have registered a total of 187 cases, of which 50 cases have been resolved, with a total of Rs. 7,39,141 unpaid wage arrears being accorded to labourers. PEPUS has also promoted the formation of a collective of migrant labourers working in brick kilns, known as *Bhatta Parivar Vikas Sewa Samiti*, i.e. Association for Development of Families of Brick Kiln Workers.

Source: www.pepus.org

Aide et Action

Village Migration Register: Aide et Action has started a practice to maintain a village migration register in source states like Odisha to keep a database of migrant families and the migrant children. The village migrant register is kept in 66 villages covering three

districts: Balangir, Nuapada and Bargarh. This register is also helpful in identifying probable migrant children for the next season. Aide et Action has identified these children and carries out advocacy with the *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyaan* (SSA) to retain these children at source villages in Odisha.

Seasonal Hostels: In Andhra Pradesh, Aide et Action 163 worksite schools in 10 districts. Similarly, in the Tiruvellur district of Tamil Nadu, Aide et Action has established 10 worksite schools catering to 430 migrant children of families working in brick kilns. The worksite owners and workers were involved in setting up these schools for migrant children. Along with it, it has established nine seasonal hostels in Srikakulam, Andhra Pradesh with the support of a local NGO, Action in Rural Technology and Service. These hostels are used to retain the children of the migrant fishing community. In 2013, Aide et Action, in collaboration with SSA Odisha, has planned to retain 5,000 children through seasonal hostels in the Balangir, Nuapada and Bargarh districts.

Source: www.aea-southasia.org

Lokadrusti

Seasonal Hostels: Lokadrusti has set up seven seasonal hostels in seven of the most migration prone villages in the Khariar Block of Nuapada district. Families from these villages have to often undertake distress migration to brick kilns in Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu. Since 2004, Lokadrusti has opened 168 seasonal hostels in the migration-prone villages of Nuapada district, preventing the migration of more than 4,000 children – both girls and boys - and subsequent dropping out of school. Many children have completed their education upto 12th standard by staying in these hostels and many of them are now enrolled for college education. It also runs bridge courses to re-enrol the returnee migrant children to the school. Lokadrusti is supported in its endeavour by America India Foundation.

The District Primary Education Programme of *the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan* in Odisha has adopted this model and started establishing seasonal hostels named as '*Residential Care Centres*' (RCC). The RCCs are maintained in the existing government schools of the respective villages with the support of village SHGs, school teachers, sub inspectors of schools and Panchayati Raj Institution members.

Source: www.aif.org and www.lokadrusti.org

Sanlaap

Sensitization Programmes: Sanlaap initially focussed on providing rehabilitation support to the rescued survivors of prostitution. The objective was also to prevent second generation prostitution. Gradually, Sanlaap realized the need to carry out human traffic prevention activities in the source area. Then Sanlaap has started to create awareness on safe migration, trafficking and violence against women in the source areas of migration. It undertakes sensitization programmes for *panchayat* members and district administration personnel on migration and trafficking. It involves Community-based Organisations in this process. On the other hand, the girls in the villages are connected to vocational trainings to ensure they are able to make a living, look after themselves and educate others about trafficking.

Shelter-Homes: Sanlaap also runs four shelter homes for about 250 girls in and around Kolkata for minors rescued from commercial sexual exploitation, girl children of women in prostitution and other vulnerable girl children. The shelter homes offer a holistic programme encompassing education, mental health intervention, vocational training and economic initiatives, dance movement therapy and legal aid.

The UN Women and Child Rights and You (CRY) are supporting Sanlaap since 2010.

Source: www.sanlaapindia.org

Butterflies

The Mobile Education Programme: Motto of Butterflies is “If the children cannot come to the school, let us take the school to them”. Under the Mobile Education Programme, the *Chalta Firta School* (Mobile Learning Centre) has brought the school to the children’s doorstep. This has benefitted the migrant children more because they cannot attend school due to lack of school certificates and other proofs of identification. Butterflies’ Mobile Education Programme also facilitates the admission of out-of-school children into formal schools. Innovative teaching methodologies are used to engage creatively with children, such as play methods and age-appropriate learning materials such as educational toys like

blocks, flash cards and multilingual educational books. Children also have access to different types of technology-based tools, like LCD TVs and laptops. Teachers, referred as 'child right advocates', provide computer education to children and share educational software. When migrant families go to their villages (for instance during harvest and Holi festival), a list of children is maintained so that they may be reintegrated once they return. In case parents migrate to new locations, Butterflies facilitates the process of making affidavits so that the children may go to formal schools at their next destination. Currently Butterflies reaches out to children across 11 project locations in Delhi and 4 project locations in the Haridwar district of Uttarakhand. It works in close coordination with State Education Departments in Delhi and Uttarakhand.

Source: www.butterflieschildrights.org

Mobile Crèches

Childcare Services: Mobile Crèches was founded in 1969 in Delhi and mainly operates in the National Capital Region to provide childcare services to migrant children on construction sites. It has developed a comprehensive day-care programme wherein it runs an eight-hour programme six days a week throughout the year. The programme is an integrated package of health, nutritional and educational services to respond to the different needs of children from birth to 12 years. It has three distinct sections: (i) the crèche for children below three years old; (ii) the *Balwadi* (pre-school) for children between the ages of three and six; (iii) the non-formal education for older children. Mobile **Crèches** operates 650 day-care centres and has developed partnership with 200 builders. Builders and contractors are increasingly accepting a greater responsibility in managing and financing the crèche. Mobile Crèches is also engaging the government authorities for implementation of the State Boards and welfare funds set up under the Building and Other Construction Workers Act of 1996.

Source: www.mobilecreches.org

The Tata Trust Migrant Support Programme

Under the Urban Poverty and Livelihoods portfolio of the Sir Dorabji Tata Trust and Allied Trusts, the Tata Trust Migrant Support Programme is reaching out to over 100,000 migrants

through 34 partners working in eight states. It has a special focus on Rajasthan, Odisha and Uttar Pradesh. A Centre for Migration and Labour Solutions is created in partnership with Aajeevika Bureau to act as a technical support unit to its network of migration patterns. Migration Resource Centres (MRCs) are established at various source and destination places to provide legal aid, counselling and facilitate access to social services.

***Shahri Adhikar Manch: Begharon Ke Saath* - (SAM-BKS)**

Shahri Adhikar Manch: Begharon Ke Saat (SAM-BKS) or 'Urban Rights Forum: With the Homeless' comprises of a coalition of over 30 voluntary organisations. SAM-BKS's sensitization drive for homeless citizens in Delhi and against the demolition of shelters for the homeless formed the background of the Delhi High Court's and the Supreme Court's directives to the Delhi Government in January 2010 to build at least one shelter per 100,000 inhabitants on a priority basis, and to make these 24-hour shelters, functional throughout the year. These directives were later given to all the States and Union Territories. SAM-BKS is supported by Indo-Global Social Service Society, Delhi (IGSSS).

Source: www.igsss.org

UNESCO's Gender, Youth and Migration (GYM) Sub-Community:

UNESCO is supporting the establishment of a knowledge management tool on Gender, Youth and Migration (GYM). The GYM is a sub-community of practice of the Gender Community of UN Solution Exchange, which is supported by UNICEF and UN Women. GYM will be a dedicated 'resource hub' that will bring together experts, researchers, NGOs and officials who share a common concern on the topic of gender, migration and youth. Their interaction is expected to deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area. The GYM sub-community would serve as a base for informing socially inclusive and sustainable policies.

Source: www.unesco.org/newdelhi

International Labour Organization (ILO)

The International Labour Organisation (ILO) has partnered with the Union Ministry of Labour and Employment and state governments to promote decent work. The objective of this

collaboration is to reduce the percentage of seasonal migrants turning into bondage labour, especially in the brick kiln sector. A pilot project was initiated in Tamil Nadu by the ILO and it is now being expanded to cover the brick kiln sector in the states of Andhra Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Odisha, Jharkhand and Chhattisgarh. The project aims to promote the decent work in the brick kiln sector. Promotion of decent work comprises of improvement of workplace conditions, transparency in wage payments, social dialogue to resolve workplace problems, enrolling migrant workers in government schemes at source and destination states, unionising workers and schooling opportunities for migrant children.

In order to tackle cases of bondage among inter-state migrant workers, the project aims to establish an inter-state coordination mechanism at the national level. On 8 June 2012, a *Memorandum of Understanding (MoU)* has been signed between a source state - Odisha and a destination state - Andhra Pradesh and the Ministry of Labour and Employment for inter-state coordination to reduce the vulnerability to bondage of migrant workers. Under this agreement, a Migrant Workers Cell was constituted to look into the issues of inter-state migrants and to provide assistance to the states and for facilitating resolution of grievances between the states. Similar MoUs are expected to be signed by Jharkhand, Uttar Pradesh, Chhattisgarh and Bihar with corresponding destination states.

Source: www.ilo.org/newdelhi and www.labour.nic.in

Bihar Government's Jeevika Programme

Bihar government, with support from the World Bank, has started a Bihar Rural Livelihoods Project within the framework of the National Rural Livelihoods Mission. It is named as Jeevika. The project is covering 400 villages and 7,00,000 households. Under this programme, government facilitates job fairs in which private companies such as Vardhaman Spinning of Oswal group, Orient Craft Fashion Institute of Technology and Matrix Clothing Pvt. Ltd, Gurgaon participate. The companies provide information on workplace, hostels and informing the youth regarding the salaries and incentives being offered. Community resource persons are also trained to mobilise the youth to participate in job-fairs. A dedicated call centre has been set up in Bodh-Gaya for this purpose. Jeevika also runs short-term training courses for migrant workers to facilitate a shift to higher incomes and

organised sector jobs. *Jeevika*, under the Labour department, has also planned to issue identity cards to the migrants to ensure entitlements of social security and to prevent exploitation by police on buses and trains. It also has a plan to introduce pensions to migrants. Migration Resource Centres are planned at the block level. The centres will build a data base of migrants with details of their destinations, income and name of contractor.

In addition to *Jeevika*, the Government of Bihar has also instituted the Bihar State Migrant Labour Accident Grant Scheme, which provides compensation to a deceased migrant family up to Rs. 1 lakh in event of death, Rs. 75,000 for permanent disability and Rs. 37,500 for partial disability. A Joint Labour Commissioner has also been positioned at New Delhi to address grievances of Bihari migrants.

Source: www.brllp.in

Shimla Municipality's Shelter Initiative

A young Deputy-Mayor of Shimla Municipality initiated a proposal to construct hostels for seasonal migrant workers. The construction workers from Bihar, U.P., Jammu and Kashmir and other parts of Himachal Pradesh stay in Shimla in temporary tents in extreme cold conditions. Now, municipality is constructing 3 hostels for migrant workers. The municipality is also considering bus services originating from these hostels. The workers may not find it convenient to stay in the hostels if transport is not available to and fro the worksites.

Government of Kerala's Initiatives

Kerala government has initiated a draft of the legislation titled Kerala Migrant Workers (Conditions of Service and Compulsory Registration) Social Security Bill. The state government has appointed state-level and regional level nodal officers for monitoring the complaints from migrant labourers. Awareness camps are being organized throughout the state among migrant workers on their rights and wages. Government has prepared a booklet containing the legal rights of the migrant workers and legal liabilities of the principal employers/contractors. The booklet is distributed free of cost.

The Inter-State Migrant Workers (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Bill, 2011

Of late, Government of India acknowledged the enormity of inter-state migration from rural to urban area. In order to address the issues arising out of millions of inter-state workers in various urban conglomerations in the country, the Ministry of Labour and Employment (MoLE) prepared a bill to replace the existing Inter-State Migrant Workmen (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Act, 1979. The act was enacted in 1979 to safeguard the interests of migrant workers. The Act applies to every establishment and every contractor who employs or who employed five or more Inter-State Migrant Workmen on any day of the preceding 12 months. The Act provides for:-

- (a) Registration of all principal employers/contractors employing migrant labour.
- (b) Licensing of contractors – no contractor can recruit any migrant labour without obtaining license from the appropriate Government.
- (c) Issue of passbook affixed with a passport-sized photograph of the workman indicating the name and the place of the establishment where the worker is employed, the period of employment, rates of wages, etc. to every inter-state migrant workman.
- (d) Payment of minimum wages fixed under the Minimum Wages Act, 1948. Principal employer to nominate a representative to be present at the time of disbursement of wages to the migrant workman by the contractor.
- (e) Payment of equal wages for inter-state migrant workmen performing similar nature of work along with the local labourers.
- (f) Payment of journey allowance including payment of wages during the period of journey.
- (g) Payment of displacement allowance.
- (h) Suitable residential accommodation.
- (i) Medical facilities free of charge.
- (j) Protective clothing.
- (k) Reporting by the contractor the incidence of fatal accident or serious injury of such workman to the specified authorities of both the States and also the next of kin of the workman.

The new bill is called The Inter-State Migrant Workers (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Bill, 2011. This bill was introduced in the Rajya Sabha on 18th August 2011. However, it was soon referred to the Standing Committee on Labour in Lok Sabha for detailed consideration. The new bill, ironically, only replaced the words such as workmen for workers to make it gender neutral. Later on, the MoLE announced constitution of the task force to prepare a detailed report on necessary changes in the earlier act (1979).

On 14th December 2011, The Standing Committee on Labour made the following observation and recommendation on the new Bill:

“The Committee note that the Government propose to amend the Inter-State Migrant Workmen (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Act, 1979 through the present Bill only to the extent by substituting the words ‘workman’ and ‘workmen’ with that of ‘worker’ and ‘workers’ in order to make it gender neutral. The proposed amendment is pursuant to the recommendation made by the Task Force constituted by the Government of India to suggest amendments in the labour laws concerning women and children. The Committee were informed by the representatives of the Ministry that a Committee has already been constituted to take a comprehensive view on the amendments required in the existing Act. The Committee also learnt that the Government have no data on the number of migrant workers in each State. Besides, the Government do not even have the information regarding licensed/unlicensed contractors in the States. More so, the Government have not made any concrete and fruitful efforts to ensure that contractors and employers mandatorily register the workers under them so that they can avail of social benefits under the Act. The Committee have also not come across any reported case(s) of gender discrimination under the present Act. The Committee are convinced that by mere substitution of the words ‘workman’ and ‘workmen’ with ‘worker’ and ‘workers’ will neither ameliorate the conditions nor address the substantial issues like registration, passbook, payment of minimum and equal wages, journey and displacement allowance, free medical facilities, suitable residential accommodation etc. of the migrant workers.

The Committee are of the considered view that Government should wait for the recommendations of the Committee already constituted to have comprehensive review of the Inter-State Migrant Workmen (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Act, 1979.

The Committee, therefore, recommend that the Bill should be returned to the Government with a request to bring a comprehensive amendment Bill so that the problems of the migrant workers could be addressed in entirety.”

Researching Labour and Migration between Home and Destination States and Developing a Holistic Rural-Urban Approach

Strategies to address the injustice against migrant workers need to take into account destination states and home states of migrants. With this understanding, Society for Labour and Development has begun to link with Bihar, UP and Jharkhand- the predominant states from where migrant workers come to Gurgaon. Migrant workers' own families and communities in home states know very little about the conditions that their migrant relatives and friends face; this gap in knowledge leads to false notions about the destination states and ignorance about the hurdles of migrant workers. Also, the source states face multinational and corporate encroachment as much as the destination states and yet, there is virtually no sharing of a common agenda for development. Therefore, strategies that take a holistic rural-urban approach are needed to address the disparities and develop common agendas. The present part of the research focusses on the socio-economic conditions of migrant workers in Gurgaon, Haryana that brings forth several aspects such as asymmetry in their wages and cost of living, gender oppression, lack of citizenship rights and social security net, and lopsided urban development.

SOCIETY FOR LABOUR AND DEVELOPMENT

Society for Labour and Development (SLD) believes in equitable development through social and economic well-being of labour, migrant rights, and cultural renewal among disenfranchised people. SLD engages in its work through collaboration and coalition-building, with a focus on the rights of workers and marginalised people. SLD works at the grassroots and believes in a rights-based framework.

SLD collaborates with various Social Justice and Rights-based organisations, to develop a grassroots model of solidarity based on principles of respect, reciprocity and autonomy.

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