

**INTERSTATE LABOUR MIGRATION TO
KERALA WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE
CONSTRUCTION SECTOR**

*Thesis Submitted to the University of Calicut
For the award of the Degree of*

Doctor of Philosophy in Economics

By

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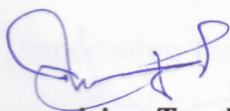
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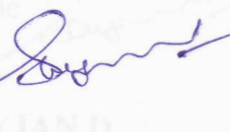
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DECLARATION

I, **MANIKANDAN K (THAYANKOTTUPURA)**, affirm that this thesis titled **“INTERSTATE LABOURMIGRATION TO KERALA WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THEONSTRUCTION SECTOR”** is a Bonafide record of research done by me under the guidance of **Dr. Chacko Jose P.**, Retd. Principal & Professor of Economics, St. Aloysius College, Elthuruth, Thrissur and **Dr. Shyjan D.**, Associate Professor, Department of Economics, University of Calicut. I declare that this thesis had not been submitted by me earlier for the award of any degree, diploma, fellowship or any other similar title.

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CONTENTS

Chapter	Title	Page No.
I	Introduction	1-17
II	Review of Literature	18-47
III	Theoretical Framework	48-63
IV	Exploring the Dynamics of migration: Understanding Types, Reasons, Impacts and Welfare programmes of Migration	64-88
V	Trends In Migration and Factors Influencing Inter-State Migration	89-105
VI	Interstate Labour Migration to Kerala's Construction Sector: Influential Factors and Economic Implications	106-200
VII	Summary of Findings, Conclusions and Recommendations	201-206
	Appendices	i-xi
	References	

LIST OF TABLES

Table No	Title	Page No
1.1	Registered migrants in Kerala	8
4.1	Factors cause migration	69
4.2	Legal support for the Migrants at the International level	74
4.3	Migration in India	76
4.4	Number of Migrants registered under AWAAZ Programme	86
5.1	Top five countries receiving/sending remittances (2005-2022) in USD billion	90
5.2	Size& growth rate of migrants by type of movement in India	91
5.3	Distribution of Migrants by Reason for Migration	92
5.4	Gender wise reasons for Migrations	93
5.5	In-migrants in Kerala Based on Place of Birth (POB)	97
5.6	Population size &growth rate of population in Kerala vis-à-vis select states	98
5.7	Per capita Income of Kerala and States of in-migrants (Constant price 2011-12)	99
5.8	Year wise growth rate of per capita GSDP of Kerala vis-à-vis select states	100
5.9	Wage rate in construction sector in Kerala vis-à-vis select states	103
5.10	Contribution of agriculture and allied activities to GSDP in Kerala vis-à-vis select states	104
5.11	Working Age population (20-64 years in Kerala in 1991 and 2011	105
5.12	District-Wise Registered Migrants in Kerala	106
6.1.1	Classification of the respondents based on place of residence in the native state	108
6.1.2	Classification of the respondents based on State of origin	109
6.1.3	Gender-wise classification of the respondents	109
6.1.4	Age-wise classification of the respondents	110
6.1.5	Descriptive Statistics Age of interstate migrants in Kerala	110
6.1.6	Educational Qualification of the interstate migrants in Kerala	110

6.1.7	Religion-wise classification of the respondents	111
6.1.8	Caste-wise classification of the respondents	111
6.1.9	Association between Education and Religion	112
6.1.10	Association between Education and Caste	112
6.1.11	Chi Square test of Association between Education and Religion	113
6.1.12	Chi Square test of Association between Education and Caste	113
6.1.13	Cross Tabulation with Education and State of Origin	114
6.1.14	Chi Square test of Association between Education and state of origin	115
6.1.15	Cross tabulation with Economic Status and Caste	115
6.1.16	Languages known to the respondents (n=400)	116
6.1.17	Number of languages known by the respondents	117
6.1.18	Distribution of the respondents based on family size	119
6.1.19	Type of house in the native place of the respondents	120
6.1.20	Nature of ownership of house in the native state	120
6.1.21	Classification based on period of arrival at Kerala as on 2022	121
6.1.22	Arrival of Migrants of different periods	121
6.1.23	Leaving the home for the first time	121
6.1.24	Details of facilities for accommodation in Kerala	122
6.1.25	Person Who arranged accommodation in Kerala	124
6.1.26	Number of occupants in the present dwelling	124
6.1.27	Source of drinking water	124
6.1.28	Amenities available in the present dwelling	125
6.1.29	Distance from the dwelling to worksite	125
6.1.30	Mode of conveyance to the work site	125
6.2.1	First work opted reaching here in Kerala	126
6.2.2	Number in terms of order the selection of construction sector as work	127

6.2.3	Duration of working in the construction Sector	127
6.2.4	Prior experience in construction work at the native place	128
6.2.5	The work in the construction sector got first in Kerala	129
6.2.6	The work in the construction sector presently doing	129
6.2.7	Reason for choosing construction work	130
6.2.8	Planning to shift from construction sector to any other sector of work	131
6.2.9	Satisfaction of the respondents in the construction sector work	131
6.2.10	Results of comparison of the promised number of works at the time of employment and the actual number of days of work presently getting	133
6.2.11	Descriptive statistics regarding wage rate received per day	136
6.2.12	Results of comparison of wage rate promised by the agent/contractor and what they are getting per day for usual work	136
6.2.13	Results of comparison of wage rate promised by the agent/contractor and total wage rate they get presently	137
6.2.14	Details of Doing Overtime work by the interstate migrants	137
6.2.15	Results of comparison of wage rate received at their native place and in Kerala	138
6.2.16	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Test	138
6.2.17	Total Variance Explained	139
6.2.18	Rotated Component Matrix	139
6.2.19	Social Factors	141
6.2.20	Economic Factors	142
6.2.21	Physical Factors	142
6.3.1	The channel through which migration took place	143
6.3.2	Person accompanying the migrants at the time of migration	144
6.3.3	Place of the contractor/agent	145
6.3.4	Source of information about the employment opportunity in construction work in Kerala	146
6.3.5	Source of information regarding construction work in Kerala	147
6.3.6	Person recruited to construction work in Kerala	147

6.3.7	Change of contractor after migration	148
6.3.8	Reason for changing the contractor after migration	148
6.3.9	Supplementary benefits received from the contractor/agent	149
6.3.10	Multinomial Logistic Regression Model: Results of Respondents' Ranking of Agents	150
6.4.1	The average amount of money spent in Kerala in a month	153
6.4.2	Details of having bank account in Kerala	154
6.4.3	Opinion regarding friendliness of banking service in Kerala	154
6.4.4	Type of deposits in bank	155
6.4.5	Descriptive statistics regarding the total amount of money available in the account	155
6.4.6	Having ATM card	156
6.4.7	Purpose of Using Internet Banking	157
6.4.8	Descriptive statistics regarding amount of money send to home in an year	158
6.4.9	Creation of assets from the remitted money	158
6.4.10	Nature of Assets created	159
6.4.11	Reasons for sending money to the home	159
6.4.12	Method of sending money to home	160
6.4.13	Descriptive statistics regarding the total amount of money remitted last year	160
6.4.14	Frequency of visit to the native place	161
6.4.15	Reason for visiting the native place	161
6.4.16	Analysis on saving and investment- Wilcoxon Signed Rank test Test Statistics	162
6.4.17	Wilcoxon Signed Rank test Test Statistics	163
6.4.18	Test Statistics	163
6.4.19	Ranks	164
6.4.20	Income, expenditure, and remittance pattern of respondents	164
6.4.21	Income, Expenditure, and Remittance among respondents according to their states of origin: ANOVA Test	165

6.4.22	Multiple comparisons- Tamhane's T2	166
6.5.1	Impact of income, expenditure, and remittance on the indebtedness of respondents: A Multiple Linear Regression Analysis	174
6.6.1	Classification based on year of registration	176
6.6.2	Classification based on having a migrant identity card	177
6.6.3	Having membership in any union	177
6.6.4	Respondents' opinion about the basis of discrimination (n=152)	180
6.6.5	Respondents who got the Accident Benefit	188
6.6.6	Logistic Regression	200

LIST OF FIGURES

Chart No	Title	Page No
5.1	Trend of International Migration in the world	89
5.2	Migrants as a Percentage of World Population	90
5.3	Inter-state and intra-state migration in India	91
5.4	Rural Urban and Gender wise Migration in India 2011	92
5.5	Emigrants from Kerala (1998-2018)	94
5.6	Poverty rate of Kerala vis-à-vis select states	94
5.7	Percentage of Rural-Urban Population in Kerala vis-à-vis select states	95
5.8	Percentage contribution of Construction Sector to Kerala's GSDP	96
5.9	Contribution of the Construction Sector in GSDP of Kerala (in Lakhs) constant price 2011-12	96
5.10	Contribution of the Construction Sector in GSDP of Kerala (in Lakhs) constant price	101
5.11	Unemployment rate of immigrant state in 2022-23	102
5.12	Literacy Rate of Kerala and Migrants Origin States	105
6.1.1	Malayalam Speaking Proficiency of the respondents	117
6.1.2	Marital status of the respondents	118
6.1.3	Nature of family of the respondents	118
6.1.4	Distribution of the respondents based on the economic status of the family	119
6.2.1	Have got work in the construction sector immediately after reaching Kerala	131
6.2.2	Period of waiting to get a job in Kerala	132
6.2.3	Nature of present employment	132
6.2.4	Nature Of First Job Received Vis-A-Vis the Present Job in Kerala	133
6.2.5	Push factors for migration	134
6.2.6	Pull factors for migration	134
6.2.7	Promised Number of days of employment in a week	135

6.2.8	The Scree plot	140
6.4.1	A Place where cash is kept	153
6.4.2	Use of Internet banking facility	156
6.4.3	Habit of Sending money to home	157
6.4.4	Periodicity of sending money to the home	158
6.6.1	Classification based on registered migrant	175
6.6.2	Person who helped to register in Kerala	176
6.6.3	The opinion that the membership will improve the information base and bargaining strength	178
6.6.4	Respondents Feelings of Being Exploited	179
6.6.5	The feeling of being discriminated at the work site in Kerala	180
6.6.6	Discrimination by the contractor/ Agent at worksite	181
6.6.7	Chance of leave to the migrants when they wish	182
6.6.8	Getting the promised wage rate in the contract	183
6.6.9	Experience of being ill-treated at the work site	184
6.6.10	The attitude of the native labourers towards Migrants labourers	184
6.6.11	The extent of language problems creating difficulty in understanding work	185
6.6.12	Having been isolated from native workers in Kerala	186
6.6.13	Having incidents of clashes between native labourers	187
6.6.14	Awareness about inter-state migrant Workmen Regulation Employment and Conditions Act 1979	187
6.6.15	Have met an accident in the workplace in Kerala	188
6.6.16	Having Come Under Any Social Security Scheme	189
6.6.17	The place where migrants approach for treatment	190
6.6.18	The severity of language as a barrier to communicating health problems to doctors	190
6.6.19	Get medical help at the immediate time	191
6.6.20	Admitted in hospital	191
6.6.21	Possession RSBY card	192

6.6.22	Getting subsidized food from PDS	192
6.6.23	Attitude of the native people towards Migrants as outside problem creators	193
6.6.24	Ranking of different problems based on the order of gravity	194
6.6.25	Having a life insurance policy	195
6.6.26	Do you supplied with Protective Measures at work site	195
6.6.27	Severity of difficulty faced finding jobs in Kerala	196
6.6.28	Level of interaction with local people by the migrants	197
6.6.29	Language as a barrier in using ATM by the migrants	197
6.6.30	Accessibility of legal help when needed	198
6.6.31	Experience of misbehavior from employer	198

ABSTRACT

Introduction

Migration is a leading indicator of fundamental social transformation (Sujathan and Azad 2022). It shows a permanent or transitory relocation of peoples' geographical boundaries driven by socioeconomic, environmental, and political factors. Internal migration which is defined as a vital movement within national borders has historically eased economic development, Labor redistribution and cultural exchange. Historically, migration facilitated infrastructural improvement and economic growth via skill transfer, labor mobility and remittance flows, as evidenced by the role of migrant labor in industrialization and urbanization globally (ILO, 2018). In contemporary contexts, internal migration remains pivotal to regional economies, particularly in labor-deficit regions like Kerala.

Kerala's Migration Context

Kerala is a classic example of a unique migration ecosystem transforming from an emigration hub to a prime destination for interstate migrants. By 2020, Kerala hosted around 3.2 million interstate workers, with construction encompassing 60% of this workforce. This influx unfailingly addresses serious labor shortages resulting from Kerala's aging population, below-replacement fertility and outmigration of skilled natives. Migrants are predominantly drawn from West Bengal (75.8%), Bihar (11.8%), Assam (3.8%), and Uttar Pradesh (3.0), with 95% originating from rural areas confronting unemployment in agriculture sector.

The Study

This study presents an empirical investigation into the socioeconomic conditions, motivational factors, financial behavior, and challenges experienced by interstate migrant workers in Kerala's construction sector. Focusing on four districts viz Ernakulam, Thiruvananthapuram, Kannur, and Palakkad, the research employs statistical methodologies, including exploratory factor analysis, Wilcoxon signed-rank tests, ANOVA, multiple linear regression, and multinomial logistic regression, to analyze primary data collected from 400 respondents.

Socioeconomic and Demographic Profile

The findings reveal that 95% of interstate migrants in Kerala's construction sector originate from rural areas, predominantly from West Bengal, Bihar, Assam, and Uttar Pradesh. The migration is overwhelmingly male-dominated (99.5% male), with the majority aged below 30, reflecting a youthful and dynamic workforce. Linguistically, nearly three-quarters of respondents speak Bengali highlighting the dominance of West Bengal migrants, while 54% are bilingual, typically proficient in Hindi and their regional language. Educational attainment is low: over one-third are illiterate and 60% have not completed secondary education, making them unskilled or semi-skilled construction work. Most migrants come from joint families (62%) with large household sizes (61% have more than five members), and a significant proportion (84%) belong to Below Poverty Line (BPL) families. Living conditions in their native places are poor, with two-thirds residing in thatched houses, although 98% own their homes.

Determinants of Migration and Preferences

The study identifies key push and pull factors influencing migration. Seasonal unemployment in agriculture acts as a primary push factor, while high wages, regular work availability, and established social networks in Kerala serve as strong pull factors. Exploratory factor analysis reveals that social factors (contact with existing workers and companionship), economic factors (high wages), and physical factors (regularity of work) are significant in shaping migrants' preferences for Kerala's construction sector. Interestingly, cheap accommodation and prior work experience do not significantly attract migrants, suggesting that economic gains and social support systems are more decisive.

Financial Behavior: Savings, Investment, and Remittances

A central focus of the research is the transformation in financial behavior post-migration. The Wilcoxon signed-rank test demonstrates a statistically significant increase in both savings and investment after migration. Monthly remittances are a regular feature, with 48% sending money home monthly and 35% bi-weekly. The mean monthly income of migrants is approximately ₹15,158, with average monthly expenditures of ₹4,009 and remittances averaging ₹10,292. ANOVA results indicate

significant interstate differences in income, expenditure, and remittance patterns, with West Bengal and Bihar migrants exhibiting notable variations.

Impact on Indebtedness

Multiple linear regression analysis uncovers that increases in income and remittances are associated with reductions in indebtedness, while higher expenditures exacerbate debt levels. Specifically, a one-unit increase in remittance or income decreases indebtedness by 0.53 and 0.10 units, respectively, whereas a similar increase in expenditure raises indebtedness by 0.43 units. This underscores the positive economic impact of migration on household financial stability, primarily through enhanced earning and remittance.

Role of Agents

The study delves into the multifaceted role of agents in the migration process, employing multinomial logistic regression to assess how variables such as age, income, education, and job regularity influence migrants' perceptions of agents as decision-makers, consultants, service providers or negotiators. The analysis reveals that higher-income, and more educated migrants are more likely to rate agents positively in roles beyond mere negotiation. Conversely, migrants from West Bengal, married individuals, and those with better health status tend to rate agents less favorably in these roles

Challenges and Conflicts

Logistic regression identifies health issues, inadequate accommodation, and exploitation by contractors as the most significant determinants of life challenges among migrants. While other factors such as lack of social security, language barriers, and ill-treatment by locals are present, their statistical significance is less pronounced. The findings highlight the vulnerability of migrants to occupational and social risks, despite the economic benefits of migration.

Conclusion

The study concludes that labour migration to Kerala's construction sector is influenced by the strong factors such as socioeconomic deprivation, economic opportunity, and

social networks. Migration yields tangible improvements in savings, investment, and debt reduction for migrant households. However, it also exposes migrants to significant life challenges, particularly in health, accommodation, and workplace exploitation. The research bridges a critical gap in the literature by empirically dissecting the determinants of migration, positive financial transformation, the role of intermediaries, and the lived experiences of interstate migrants in Kerala's vibrant construction sector.

**അന്യസംസ്ഥാന തൊഴിലാളികളുടെ കേരളത്തിലേക്കുള്ള കുടിയേറ്റം:
നിർമ്മാണ മേഖലയെ പ്രത്യേക പരാമർശത്തോടുകൂടിയുള്ള പഠനം**

സംഗ്രഹം

സാമൂഹികമായ മാറ്റങ്ങളുടെ ഒരു പ്രധാന ലക്ഷ്യമാണ് കുടിയേറ്റം. തൊഴിലിനും മെച്ചപ്പെട്ട ജീവിതസാഹചര്യങ്ങൾക്കും വേണ്ടി മനുഷ്യർ നാടുവിട്ടുപോകുന്നത് സമ്പദ്വ്യവസ്ഥയെ വളർത്താൻ സഹായിക്കുന്ന ഒരു കാര്യമാണ്. ഒരുകാലത്ത് വിദേശങ്ങളിലേക്ക് ആളുകളെ അയച്ചിരുന്ന നാടായിരുന്ന കേരളം, ഇന്ന് ഇതരസംസ്ഥാന തൊഴിലാളികളുടെ ഒരു പ്രധാന ലക്ഷ്യസ്ഥാനമായി മാറിയിരിക്കുകയാണ്. 2020-ലെ കണക്കുകൾ പ്രകാരം ഏകദേശം 32 ലക്ഷം ഇതരസംസ്ഥാന തൊഴിലാളികൾ കേരളത്തിലുണ്ട്. കേരളത്തിലെ ജനസംഖ്യയിലുള്ള മാറ്റം, യുവാക്കളുടെ കുറവ്, മലയാളികൾ വിദേശത്തേക്ക് ജോലിയി്കായി പോകുന്നത് എന്നിവ മൂലം ഇവിടെ ഉണ്ടായ തൊഴിലാളി ക്ഷാമമാണ് ഇവർ നികത്തുന്നത്. ഇതിൽ 60 ശതമാനവും പണിയെടുക്കുന്നത് നിർമ്മാണ മേഖലയിലാണ്. വെസ്റ്റ് ബംഗാൾ, ബീഹാർ, അസം, ഉത്തർപ്രദേശ് എന്നിവിടങ്ങളിൽ നിന്നാണ് പ്രധാനമായും ഈ തൊഴിലാളികൾ എത്തുന്നത്.

എറണാകുളം, തിരുവനന്തപുരം, കണ്ണൂർ, പാലക്കാട് എന്നീ നാല് ജില്ലകളിലായി 400 തൊഴിലാളികളിൽ നിന്ന് നേരിട്ട് വിവരങ്ങൾ ശേഖരിച്ചാണ് ഈ പഠനം നടത്തിയത്. ഈ പഠനത്തിൽ നിന്നും വ്യക്തമായത് 95 ശതമാനം തൊഴിലാളികളും ഗ്രാമങ്ങളിൽ നിന്നുള്ളവരാണെന്നാണ്. ഇതിൽ ഭൂരിഭാഗവും വെസ്റ്റ് ബംഗാളിൽ നിന്നുള്ളവരും മുപ്പത് വയസ്സിൽ താഴെയുള്ള ചെറുപ്പക്കാരായ പുരുഷന്മാരുമാണ്. 75 ശതമാനത്തോളം പേർ ബംഗാളി ഭാഷ സംസാരിക്കുന്നവരാണ്, എന്നാൽ പകുതിയിലധികം പേർക്കും ഹിന്ദിയും സ്വന്തം ഭാഷയും കൈകാര്യം ചെയ്യാൻ അറിയാം. ഇവർക്കിടയിൽ വിദ്യാഭ്യാസം താരതമ്യേന കുറവാണ്. മൂന്നിലൊന്നു പേർക്കും എഴുത്തും വായനയും അറിയില്ലെന്ന് മാത്രമല്ല, 60 ശതമാനം പേരും പത്താം ക്ലാസ് പോലും പൂർത്തിയാക്കിയിട്ടില്ലാത്തവരുമാണ്. ഭൂരിഭാഗം പേരും വലിയ കൂട്ടുകൂടുംബങ്ങളിൽ നിന്നുള്ളവരും ദാരിദ്ര്യരേഖയ്ക്ക് താഴെയുള്ളവരുമാണ്.

ഇവരെ കേരളത്തിലേക്ക് വരാൻ പ്രേരിപ്പിക്കുന്ന പ്രധാന ഘടകം സ്വന്തം നാട്ടിലെ കാർഷിക മേഖലയിലുള്ള തൊഴിലില്ലായ്മയാണ്. അതോടൊപ്പം കേരളത്തിൽ ലഭിക്കുന്ന ഉയർന്ന കൂലി, വർഷം മുഴുവനും ലഭിക്കുന്ന സ്ഥിരമായ തൊഴിൽ, നേരത്തെ ഇവിടെയെത്തിയ സുഹൃത്തുക്കളുടെ സാന്നിധ്യം എന്നിവയും ഇവരെ ഇങ്ങോട്ട് ആകർഷിക്കുന്നു. ഒരു തൊഴിലാളിക്ക് ശരാശരി 15,158 രൂപ മാസവരുമാനം ലഭിക്കുന്നുണ്ട്. ഇവിടെയുള്ള ഭക്ഷണത്തിനും താമസത്തിനുമായി മാസം ഏകദേശം 4,009 രൂപ ഇവർ ചെലവാക്കുന്നു. ബാക്കി തുകയായ ഏകദേശം 10,292 രൂപയോളം ഇവർ മാസംതോറും വീട്ടിലേക്ക് അയക്കുന്നു. കേരളത്തിൽ വന്നതിനുശേഷം ഇവരുടെ സമ്പാദ്യവും നിക്ഷേപവും വർദ്ധിച്ചിട്ടുണ്ട്. കൃത്യമായി പണം അയക്കുന്നത് വഴി നാട്ടിലെ കടങ്ങൾ വീട്ടാനും ഇവർക്ക് സാധിക്കുന്നുണ്ട്.

തൊഴിലാളികളെ കേരളത്തിലേക്ക് കൊണ്ടുവരുന്നതിൽ ഇടനിലക്കാർ അഥവാ ഏജന്റുമാർ വലിയ പങ്കുവഹിക്കുന്നുണ്ട്. വിദ്യാഭ്യാസം ഉള്ളവരും ഉയർന്ന വരുമാനമുള്ളവരുമാണ് ഏജന്റുമാരുടെ സേവനം കൂടുതലായി ഉപയോഗപ്പെടുത്തുന്നത്. സാമ്പത്തികമായി മെച്ചപ്പെട്ട അവസ്ഥയിലാണെങ്കിലും കേരളത്തിലെ ജീവിതത്തിൽ ഇവർ ഒട്ടേറെ വെല്ലുവിളികൾ നേരിടുന്നുണ്ട്. മോശമായ താമസസൗകര്യങ്ങൾ, ആരോഗ്യ പ്രശ്നങ്ങൾ, കരാറുകാരിൽ നിന്നുള്ള ചൂഷണം എന്നിവയാണ് ഇതിൽ പ്രധാനം.

ചുരുക്കത്തിൽ, സാമ്പത്തികമായ ബുദ്ധിമുട്ടുകളും തൊഴിലില്ലായ്മയുമാണ് ഈ തൊഴിലാളികളെ കേരളത്തിലെത്തിക്കുന്നത്. ഇവിടെ ജോലി ചെയ്യുന്നത് വഴി അവരുടെ സാമ്പത്തിക സ്ഥിതി മെച്ചപ്പെടുകയും കടബാധ്യതകൾ കുറയുകയും ചെയ്യുന്നുണ്ടെങ്കിലും, അവരുടെ ജീവിതസാഹചര്യങ്ങൾ ഇപ്പോഴും ദയനീയമായി തുടരുന്നു.

അന്തർ സംസ്ഥാന തൊഴിലാളികളുടെ കേരളത്തിലേക്കുള്ള കുടിയേറ്റം നിർമ്മാണ മേഖലയിലെ കേന്ദ്രീകരിച്ചുകൊണ്ടുള്ള പഠനം

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Abbreviations	Description
PDS	: Public Distribution System
NSSO	: National Sample Survey Office
UNDP	: United Nations Development Program
ATM	: Automated Teller Machine
CDM	: Cash Deposit Machine
ILO	: International Labour Organisation
ESI	: Employees' State Insurance
UNDESA	: United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
EPWRF	: Economic & Political Weekly Research Foundation
PLFS	: Periodic Labour Force Survey
APL	: Above Poverty Line
BPL	: Below Poverty Line
ANOVA	: Analysis of Variance
KILE	: Kerala Institute Of Labour & Employment

Chapter |1|
Introduction

“Man could not stay there forever. He was bound to spread to new regions, partly because of his innate migratory tendency and Nature's stern urgency”. Ellsworth

1919:12

Migration, a major catalyst in any country's social and economic development from time immemorial, has served as a means of alleviating poverty and as a mechanism of maintaining balanced developmental equilibrium between unequally developed regions. As J.K. Galbraith once observed *“Migration is the oldest action against poverty. It selects those who most want help. It is good for the country to which they go; it helps to break the equilibrium of poverty in the country from which they come. What is the perversity in the human soul that causes people to resist so obvious a good?”* (Galbraith, 1979. Pp.150)

India is the country of origin of the largest number of international migrants and stands first in international remittances of 111.22 USD billion in 2024, it constitutes 13.38% of the total international remittance (World Migration Report 2024). As per the World Migration Report 2024, of the total 281 million international migrants, 18 million people originate from India. Being the major recipient of international remittances from migration, India also served as the labour-supplying country, especially with the backdrop of major labour-supplying states like Kerala, Goa and Punjab. India with its wide geographical area and regional disparities in population distribution and development indicators was a centre of inter-state and intra-state migration from the historical period itself. According to the 2011 Census report, 449.9 million persons are enumerated as migrants based on the place of last residence which accounts for 37% of the total population in the country. It is predicted that based on the growth trend of migration in the previous census there will be about 589.9 million internal migrants in India in 2021 (Rajan and Bhagat, 2022). The growth of communication and transportation facilities along with industrialization and urbanization resulted in unprecedented growth in the internal migration process in India.

In the development trajectory of Kerala, the role of international remittances from migration is immense, especially in the well-known development model of Kerala. Kerala, with its unique geographical location, hospitality, and development experience, was a place of attraction for people from the neighboring states, accounting for more than 3 million in both the formal and informal sectors (Parida and Raman, 2021). The

informal sector of Kerala's economy is largely occupied by migrants. This tendency has accelerated in recent decades, mainly due to demographic changes such as falling fertility and high outmigration, resulting in a shortage of domestic labour supply. The upsurge in the service sector attracted the white-collar aspirations of the educated young population of Kerala, devouring the informal labour market. The mismatch in the demand for and supply of labour in the informal sector led to a stable and continuous upward movement in the wage rate in the unorganized sector of Kerala. The growth of construction in housing and other social and economic infrastructure in Kerala necessitated a continuous and inevitable demand for casual labourers for blue-collar jobs (Kannan and Hari, 2002).

The high wage rate and large, regular, uninterrupted employment opportunities in Kerala became a centre of attraction for the uneducated, unskilled, and poor landless households of the adjacent neighboring states, such as Tamil Nadu and Karnataka. The construction sites and junctions of small towns in the mornings of the late 1990s were crowded with these Tamil migrant labourers. The small labour groups consisted of two or three families, comprising husband, wife, and children of all ages. Work was done either on a daily wage basis or on a contract basis, as decided by the owner and the main labourer of the group. Mostly, they stayed in tents built on roadsides, in buildings under construction, and so on. This paved the way for employing them in large construction sites by contractors and construction agents in tasks such as foundation digging and transportation of heavy materials like steel bars, which mostly require low-paid unskilled workers. These Tamil migrant families still constitute a significant portion of the inter-state migrants in Kerala, especially in the bordering districts, viz., Thiruvananthapuram, Palakkad, Idukki, and Ernakulam, while labourers from Karnataka found job opportunities in Wayanad, Kannur, and Kasaragod districts, which are close to Karnataka.

Among the Tamil migrants, a new group of labourers from North India began to occupy the informal sector of Kerala over the last two decades. Contrary to the inverse relationship between distance and volume of migration proposed by Ravenstein's migration theory, there has been a large inflow of migrants from the distant states of West Bengal, Bihar, Assam, Uttar Pradesh, Jharkhand, Odisha, and Manipur, among others. These migrants have become an inevitable component of Kerala's unorganized

labour market. In the first phase, they were primarily engaged in the plywood industry and later in the construction sector. Today, it is hardly possible to find any sector where these guest labourers are not employed. The unorganized labour market in Kerala is now largely dominated by these 'Bhais'.

According to the Migration D-Series data (2011), the total number of inter-state migrants in Kerala was enumerated as 615,849 persons. A study conducted by the Gulati Institute of Finance and Taxation (GIFT), an autonomous government institution in Kerala, estimated that around 2.5 million inter-state migrants find their source of livelihood in the state, with their numbers increasing by an average of 2.35 lakh each year as they venture into new and often unfamiliar occupations (Narayana and Venkiteswaran, 2013). Furthermore, based on a baseline study by the Kerala State Planning Board, it is estimated that approximately 3.1 million inter-state migrants were employed in Kerala during 2017–2018.

Higher wages for unskilled labourers, continuous job opportunities, low risk of finding employment, the relatively less non-discriminatory character of the labour market, the pleasant social and political environment of Kerala, direct train facility from the native place, an improved communication system which reduced the magnitude of distance, etc. made these inter-state migrants to regard Kerala as their "Gulf"¹. The social networking system among the migrants and the intermediaries accentuated and helped the potential migrants to make Kerala their destination and mass inflow of labourers to Kerala. From the big construction companies who are engaged in the construction of National Highways, Airports, Kochi metro, Railway station expansion, Cochin refinery works, harbour ports, and Flats to the minor construction units of individuals who began to use their labour power in Kerala making their supply inevitable. A Qualitative study conducted by the Centre for Migration and Inclusive Development found that migrants from 194 districts covering 25 states in India are working in Kerala in various jobs (CMID Study Report 2017).

¹During the 1970s and 1980s, Kerala, a state in southwest India, witnessed a large-scale migration of its citizens to the Gulf states. The "Kerala Gulf Boom" refers to this time frame. The majority ethnic group in Kerala, Malayalees, made up the majority of the migrants. Even now, albeit in fewer numbers, migration is still occurring. Likewise, interstate migrants are attracted to Kerala for a better and more secure life through utilizing the large employment opportunities.

1.1. Background of the study

Migration with its complex process and multiple dimensions is becoming an area of discussion in the political, socio-economic, environmental, cultural, and demographic scenarios of all countries. The push-pull factors of migration deliberated in the literature need not be sufficient to explain the phenomenon of migration, which is dynamic and complex. There are enormous changes and shifts in the patterns of migration beyond the usual push-pull framework (Prasad, 2006). The UNDP Human Development Report of 2009 estimates that about 740 million people are internal migrants in the world accounting for four times the international migrants (UNDP 2009, P.22). Though Indians are comparatively immobile in character, three out of every 10 Indians are internal migrants (Srivastava, 2011). From the last 2 decades onwards a large flow of migrants from different parts of the country have made Kerala their green pasture. The real consequences at the place of origin and destination in terms of change in the socio-economic set-up due to this migration are large. Nowadays, migrant labourers are the panacea for the chronic labour shortage that emerged from the Gulf migration through a stream of replacement migration. Over the years they became the major participants in the informal labour market in terms of their number and contribution to the labour force of Kerala. It is paradoxical that despite high-level unemployment and being the major supplier of global migrant workers to the world, Kerala becomes the destination point of migrants from far distant North and North Eastern states.

Among the reported sectors of employment, the concentration of migrants dominates in the construction sector by 60% (GOK, 2016). The mediation by the agents and contractors in the procurement and supply of labour is easy in the case of migrant labourers which seems to be advantageous for the employers also. However, as observed by Narayana and Venkiteswaran, 2013, the plight of these labourers is pitiable. They live in relatively less-hygienic situations with limited access to sanitation and drinking water facilities. The working conditions are arduous, with a high probability of injuries and risks to life, which may even lead to death. The absence of organized labour unions leads to the denial of basic human needs and exploitation by various means. The communication barrier emerging from different languages creates a lot of confusion and chaos at the worksite and in public places. The pathetic situation of

the inability to communicate properly about health problems often creates tension in matters of health. The existing mechanism does not provide a chance for the portability of social security schemes and other benefits from the government, resulting in the denial of these benefits, including the food security ensured through the PDS. At this juncture, the present study tries to focus on inter-state labour migration to the construction sector of Kerala and its socio-economic implications.

1.2. Research Problem

The study is an investigation into the dynamics of the migrant labour market in the construction sector of Kerala. The existing studies mainly focus on inter-state migration to Kerala, but the specific reasons for the concentration of migrant labourers in the construction sector are not explored. Further, the stream of migration to the construction sector of Kerala for employment does have economic implications that warrant an exhaustive evaluation. With its multiplier effects on the economy, the income and expenditure patterns of the migrants affect the real variables of the host economy to a great extent. There are far-reaching consequences in the states of origin too, through remittances made by migrants, which can, in turn, impact their savings, investment, and indebtedness. Reckoning the implications of migration on the domestic labour market, it also looks into the competition posed by migrant labourers in Kerala to the native labourers in the construction sector. Networks of friends, relatives, and agents may also increase the present tempo of migration, which is also an area to be explored. In the backdrop of the continued stream of migration, identification of the specific problems and challenges faced by the migrants in the construction sector of Kerala is called for, as it will enable the formulation and improvement of existing welfare initiatives into a new, innovative, efficient, equitable, and forward-looking governance structure for the migrants in Kerala.

1.2.1. Research questions

1. What are the push and pull factors of interstate migration to the construction sector of Kerala?
2. How do they spend their earnings in Kerala?
3. What is the size and nature of remittances made by the migrant labourers to their native place?

4. Whether the migration and resulting remittances to their native place have any impact on their indebtedness?
5. Is there any specific issue or problem faced by the migrant labourers in the construction sector of Kerala?
6. Do the agents play vital roles in the migration process; specifically in attracting labourers from other states to the construction sector of Kerala?
7. Whether the migrants aware of the existing migrant welfare schemes in Kerala and have they been able to avail those benefits?

1.3 Research objectives

The overall objective of the study is to demystify the reasons and issues of the inter-state migrants who are fluxed in the construction sector of Kerala. The specific objectives of the study are

1. To analyze the factors influencing the preferences of interstate migrant workers to work in the construction sector of Kerala.
2. To investigate the role of intermediaries in interstate labour migration to the construction sector of Kerala.
3. To analyze the pattern of saving and investment before and after in-migration to the construction sector of Kerala
4. To analyze the effects of savings, investment, and remittances on the indebtedness of in-migrants
5. To explore the issues, challenges and conflicts faced by the migrants in relation to native workers in the construction sector of Kerala.

1.4. Hypothesis

A comprehensive evaluation of the reasons for the influx of migrant labourers into the construction sector of Kerala is the primary focus of the study. Reckoning the economic rationale for migration, the focus has also been placed on analyzing the economic implications of labour migration to Kerala. In contrast to the proposition of a high marginal propensity to consume among low-income groups, the study hypothesizes a higher saving ratio vis-à-vis the consumption ratio for migrant labourers. In line with the higher saving ratio presumed for the migrants, investment too has been hypothesized to be higher in the post-migration period for the migrant labourers.

Reckoning the gravity of the indebtedness of the migrant labourers, the research has hypothesized a favorable effect of income and remittances on indebtedness. However, a rise in the expenditure of migrant labourers is presumed to produce an adverse impact on their indebtedness. The effects of networks on the continued stream of migration to the construction sector of Kerala have also been brought into the ambit of the current research.

In an attempt to corroborate the propositions of Migration Network Theory, the study hypothesizes that intermediaries play a vital role in multiple capacities in inter-state migration. Against the backdrop of the continued influx of migrants into Kerala's construction sector, identification of any kind of unhealthy practices inflicted on these migrant labourers, such as exclusion, discrimination, and exploitation, is crucial to redressing these pressing issues. Hence, the probability of encountering multiple life challenges by migrant labourers is hypothesized to be dependent upon a host of factors such as access to social security measures, access to health facilities, communication hurdles posed by the lack of proficiency in the Malayalam language, exploitative behaviour of the contractors, and the attitudes of local communities and native workers, etc. As institutional support is crucial to the beneficial living and working conditions of migrant labourers, the research proposes to analyse the effectiveness of governmental policies on the well-being of migrants focusing on the extent of reach of the host of governmental legislations and schemes among the migrant labourers of Kerala in the construction sector.

1.5 Methodology

1.5.1. The macro perspective: secondary data

The two major sources of data regarding internal migration in India are the decennial Population Census and the quinquennial NSSO data. It was only from the 1971 Census onwards that data on internal migration was counted and captured as the difference between a person's place of birth (POB) and place of last residence (PLR). The NSSO began to incorporate information on migration from its 38th round conducted in 1983. Migration D-Series data provided by the Census presents national-level data on total migrants, age categories, sex, different migration streams from urban and rural areas, reasons for migration, and duration. The NSSO publishes data on migrants regarding the consumption expenditure of migrant households, educational attainment,

occupational details at the place of origin, and information on migrants' remittances. Information from the 64th NSSO Round (2007–08) and the Census data from 1981 to 2011 are used in the present study to analyse the factors affecting inter-state migration to the construction sector of Kerala.

1.5.2 The micro perspective: Exploring further through primary data

The insufficient or incomplete data available from official secondary sources on migration necessitated the collection of primary data through a field survey. The total inter-state migrants residing in Kerala in search of livelihood constitute the population of the study. The population is spread across the neighboring states, viz., Tamil Nadu, Karnataka, and Andhra Pradesh, to migrants from far-off states like Assam and Manipur, and the Union Territory of Jammu & Kashmir. Reliable official statistics about the total number of inter-state migrants in Kerala are not available, partly due to their inherently floating nature, which acts as a barrier to proper documentation, and also due to their unawareness and the absence of proper identity cards among the migrants. Unofficial records, based on different methodologies adopted for counting the number of migrants and the fieldwork studies conducted by the Gulati Institute of Finance and Taxation (GIFT, 2013) and the Centre for Migration and Inclusive Development (CMID, 2017), estimate that about 3 to 3.5 million inter-state migrants make their living in Kerala. The Government of Kerala has taken initiatives to count the migrants in the state to implement various welfare programmes for the so-called “guest labourers” in Kerala. The registration process is in progress under the Kerala Construction Workers' Welfare Board, an undertaking of the Government of Kerala.

Table 1.1 Registered migrants in Kerala

District	Number
Thiruvananthapuram	73441
Kollam	25754
Pathanamthitta	18480
Alappuzha	19261
Kottayam	26586
Idukki	49958
Ernakulam	74526

Thrissur	42157
Palakkad	73955
Malappuram	34140
Kozhikode	48842
Wayanad	22738
Kannur	40974
Kasaragod	65037
Kerala	615849

Source: Census 2011 Migration D series data

The above-given Table 1.1 shows the details of the registered migrants in Kerala which actually fails to give a complete picture. Since the total number of registered migrants is far below the actual number of migrant people in Kerala. Moreover, the moving character of the migrants creates the problem of finding and collecting information from the registered sampling unit from the address filled in the application form. In many cases, the registration process is done by the contractors without the knowledge of the migrants. The completion of work will automatically release the migrants who sever their bond with the contractor and move in search of new avenues and opportunities. Data collection from the registered migrants is found to be practically difficult. In this context, an alternative method was sought to get a clear idea about the migrants in Kerala. The possible way suggested by the research committee and the experts in migration studies is to identify and locate the areas of migrants' concentration in the various districts of Kerala.

The construction sector employs the largest proportion of inter-state migrants in Kerala. As per the estimates of the Kerala State Planning Board, around 1.75 million inter-state migrants are engaged in the construction sector of Kerala, followed by the manufacturing sector. The construction sector consists of two different categories: the first is large-scale construction, such as central or state government projects, hospitals, big malls, railway stations, etc., and the second is minor projects like individual houses, offices, etc. In the above-mentioned first category, large projects are undertaken by companies that operate across India. They hire skilled and unskilled labourers in large numbers until the completion of the project, providing them with accommodation and transportation facilities if needed, free of cost. The migrants working under this

category mostly stay in temporary sheds made of sheets or on the premises of ongoing projects. Their employment is similar to contract employment. Although tied till the end of the given work, they are safe and secure with regular employment, prescribed working hours, and weekend holidays. This category of migrants comes under seasonal construction workers. With limited fluctuations in employment and income, they remain outside the shadow of the usual problems faced by migrants, unless there is an occurrence of any external factors.

The second category of minor or small construction project employees consists of footloose workers employed on a daily wage basis, commonly known as the *Naka* market. *Naka* is a word that originated from Marathi, meaning a junction point or street corner where informal workers congregate in the morning in search of jobs or wait to be picked up by contractors or employers. This market is dominated by migrant workers employed in the construction sector. Labourers in this category stay within a commutable distance from the junction and assemble at the *Nakas* in search of work early in the morning, around 6 a.m., waiting for prospective employers or contractors who arrive and pick up labourers ranging from masons to helpers, depending on the requirement. In some cases, the labour contractor acts as a middleman between the employer and the worker. *Naka* workers provide their labour power for a long duration in urban areas, in contrast to seasonal migrants who move from one place to another after the completion of specific work. The wage rate they receive is higher compared to seasonal migrants since they are paid daily and remain outside the purview of any social benefits other than wages. Fluctuations in income due to irregular employment and associated hardships are a common phenomenon among these groups (Mukerjee, Paul, and Pathan, 2010). The present study focuses on the specific issues faced by migrants, the pattern of income and expenditure, the role of agents in finding jobs, and awareness about social security schemes among *Naka* workers employed in the construction sector of Kerala

1.5.3 Sample size and sampling method

Slovin's formula is a statistical tool used to determine the sample size for a given population when conducting research. It is particularly employed in situations where there is not enough information about the population behaviour or distribution of a

population. The formula is named after Mirko Slovin. By using this method, the sample size is derived as follows.

$$\frac{N}{1 + N(e^2)}$$

where N is the total population and e is the acceptable margin of error

The total interstate migrant population as per the Migration D series data is 615849 which is taken as N, so the resultant sample size is

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{615849}{1 + 615849 \times 0.05^2} \\ &= 400 \end{aligned}$$

The required sample size is 400 and the sample units are selected randomly from the selected four districts.

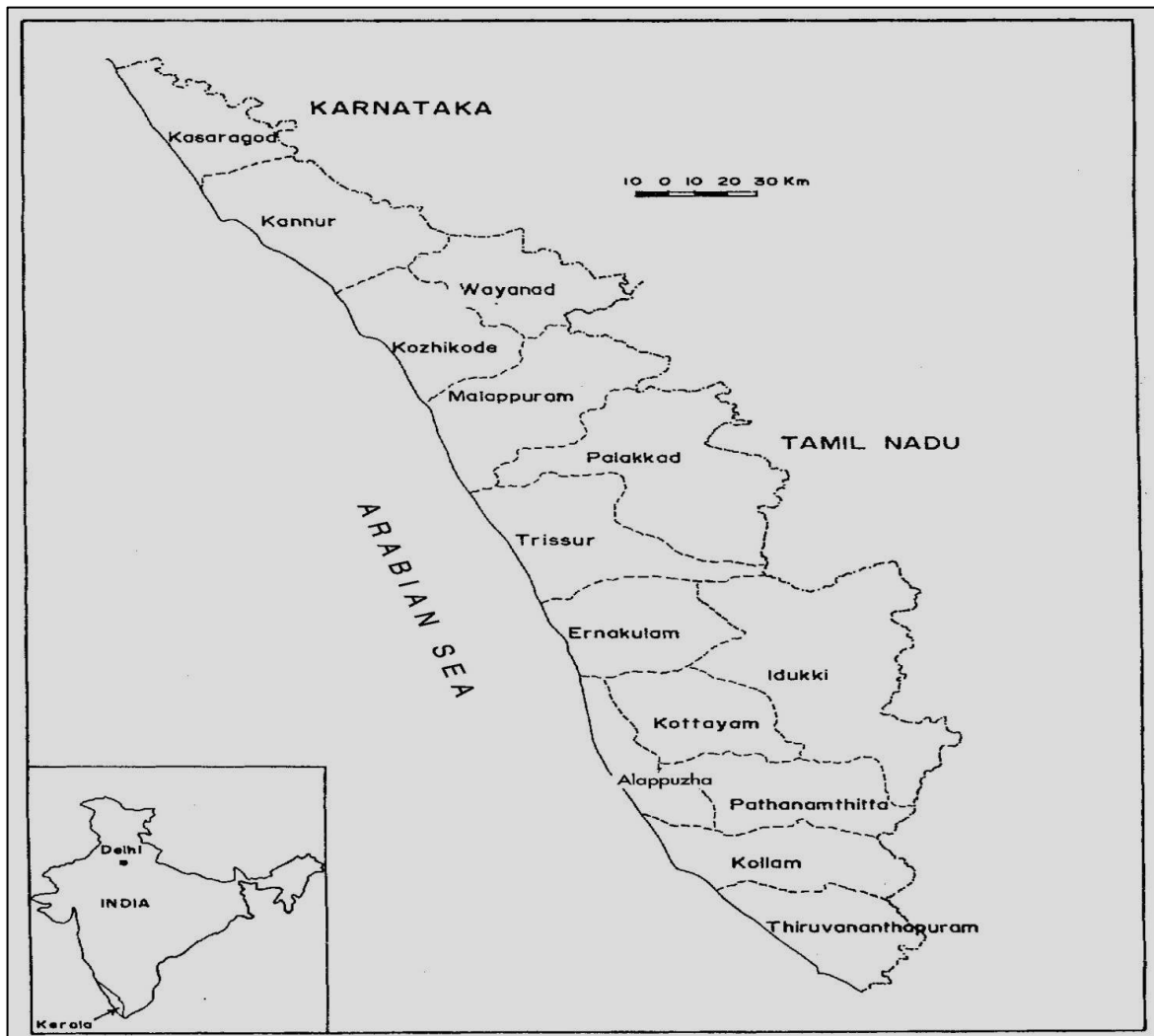
To explore the specific reasons for the concentration of migrants in the construction sector of Kerala, especially the role of agents and contractors in drawing them to the construction sector, and also to investigate expenditure and saving patterns of these migrant labourers along with the issues and challenges faced by them in the construction sector of Kerala, a survey was conducted across the 4 identified districts in the state. As per the Economic review 2016 of Govt. of Kerala, among the districts of Kerala interstate migrants are concentrated in Ernakulam. Perumbavoor of Ernakulam district with its specific geographic location and Rail transport connectivity has attracted migrants from Assam and North Eastern states to the emerging plywood industry from the early 90's onwards. The high concentration of migrants in Ernakulam and especially in Perumbavoor gave way to Perumbavoor as the "capital of migrant labourers in Kerala" The official number of registered migrants in Kerala at the disposal of the Govt of Kerala re- establishes the same. Ernakulam is acclaimed as the most urbanized district in Kerala (GOI, 2011) and the industrial and construction hub of Kerala becomes the unavoidable district in the present study. So, Ernakulam has been purposively selected as one of the districts for the primary data collection.

Reckoning the need for creating a representative sample, care was taken to include 3 other districts of Kerala; Thiruvananthapuram, Palakkad, and Kannur one each from the South, Central, and Northern parts of the state. Thiruvananthapuram, the Capital of Kerala, located in the southernmost part of the state represents the southern part of

Kerala in the present study. Besides being the district with the second highest migrant population as per the GOK, 2016, Thiruvananthapuram also enjoys a booming major and minor construction sector and hence is selected for the study.

Palakkad, the middlemost district of Kerala, being part of the erstwhile Tamil Nadu was famous for its Tamil migrant settlement and migration of peoples from Tamil Nadu through the passage of Palakkad Gap in the Western Ghats. The Gap acts as a major trade passage for road and rail transportation from the South and North India enters into Kerala State at the Palakkad district. The geographical location of Palakkad makes it historically relevant in terms of internal migration as the district sharing boundary with Tamil Nadu recorded the highest number of registered migrants in the state in 2015 (Economic Review, 2015). This justifies the selection of Palakkad district for the sample collection.

Among the northern districts of Kerala, Kannur is selected as the district for the collection of data because of its construction sector boom. It is the district that is near to Karnataka after Kasaragod; (the last formed district in Kerala separating some areas from the Kannur) that can truly represent the northern districts of Kerala in the present study with its growing construction sector.

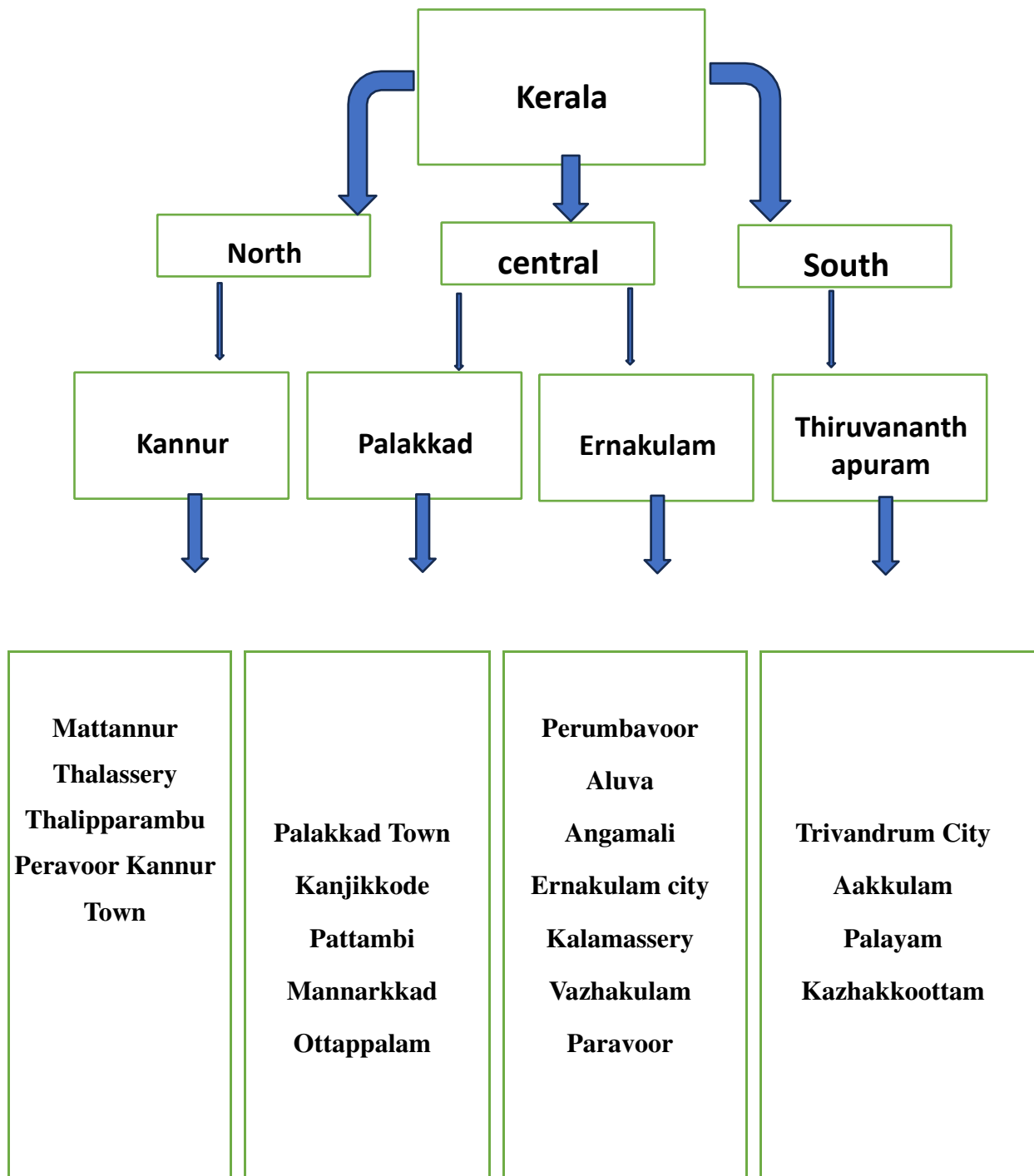


1.5.4 Data collection

The study relied on the migrants' clustered living areas identified by the agencies as part of the *Migrant Suraksha Project* and the mission of conducting awareness campaigns by social workers. The *Migrant Suraksha Project*, an initiative of the Central Government as part of the National Rural Health Mission, was launched to make migrants aware of the menace of sexually transmitted diseases, especially AIDS, and to conduct awareness campaign programmes by social workers to identify the migrants' concentrated living areas. Along with this, the areas found to be migrant-clustered in their fieldwork study for estimating the total migrant population were used to identify the locations for sample data collection from the four districts. The localities recognised as migrants' crowded areas by both agencies were selected for the sample

data collection from the four districts. A total of 400 samples were selected from the identified areas of the four districts.

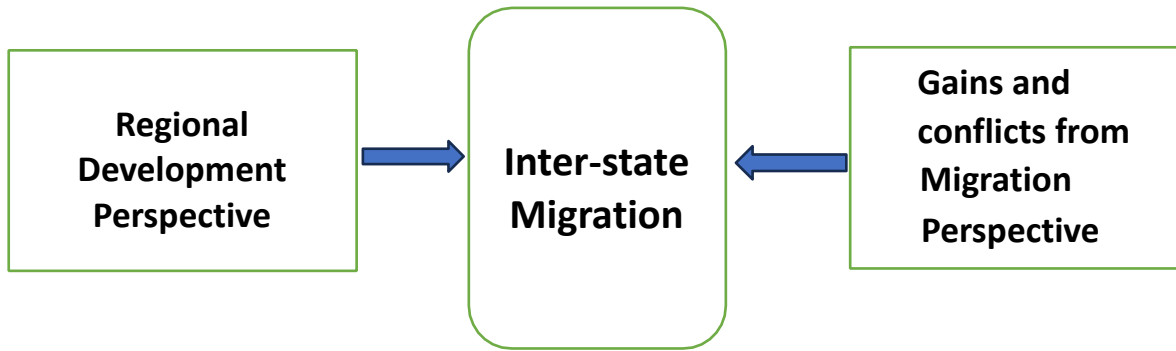
Figure 1 Sampling Frame of the data collection



A structured interview schedule was prepared, and the data were collected from August 2021 to March 2022, covering the questions about the socio-economic conditions in the home state, their working conditions, expenditure patterns, saving patterns, remittance behavior, and the issues, conflicts and challenges faced by them in Kerala. An in-depth interview was conducted at their places of stay near the junctions or Naka market on holidays and Sundays. To find their places of accommodation and lodges, snowball sampling was used. A Focused Group discussion was also conducted with some migrant groups to express and share the issues and challenges experienced in Kerala. Uncontrolled observations were conducted at their dwelling places in the evening after they returned from work, at various migrant gathering areas during the holidays, and also at ATM /CDM premises for acquiring information regarding the living conditions, the state of their shelter, their access to various amenities including safe drinking water and also to get insights into how the migrants spend their leisure hours and their saving and investment inclinations. Further, uncontrolled observations also served to find out safety and security issues they face and also the different modes of discrimination and isolation they encounter based on language, state of origin, etc.

1.6 Analytical framework

This study aims to analyse the labour inflow into Kerala's construction sector from other states due to variations in factors influencing migration decisions between Kerala and other states, including wage disparities, job opportunities, and regional economic inequalities. Kerala, a state far ahead of many others in terms of human development, attracts labourers from regions suffering from extreme poverty, high unemployment rates, low wages, and limited social development. Potential migrants are said to be influenced mainly by regional disparities in development when deciding whether or not to relocate to Kerala. By employing this analytical framework, researchers can systematically investigate the complex dynamics of interstate migration, providing a comprehensive understanding of the factors, processes, and implications associated with income, savings, investment, and their impact on the indebtedness of families resulting from the movement of people between states.



1.7 Limitations

When conducting a study "Interstate labour migration to Kerala with special reference to the construction sector" purely based on primary and secondary sources of information, many hurdles are encountered while completing the work. Here are some limitations associated with this study.

- ✦ The major limitation faced during the study was the absence of systematic records on the total number of inter-state migrants working in Kerala and in particular the migrants engaged in the construction sectors. The official records regarding the registered migrants kept at the Kerala Construction Workers Welfare Board merely contain only a small portion of the total interstate migrant workers in Kerala.
- ✦ Due to the migratory nature, it was difficult to find the migrants based on the address given during the time of registration.
- ✦ The existing available latest secondary data sources are NSSO with a special focus on migration conducted during 2007-2008 and census 2011 migration D-series data are more than one decade old and do not depict the current migration scenario of the county.
- ✦ The illiteracy and language barrier were a major problem faced during the data collection. Permission was denied in many cases by the employers and contractors to collect data during working hours from the work site. So, the real issues faced by the migrants engaged in the construction sector during the work could not be captured.

1.8 Organization of the Thesis

The present study is structured into seven chapters. Chapter 1 serves as an introduction, delineating the research problem, objectives, research questions, and methodology. In Chapter 2, the existing literature is examined in depth, with a focus on empirical research in the area of labour migration from international, national, and regional viewpoints.

In Chapter 3, the main theories of migration are used to examine the key factors that contribute to labour migration as well as its effects. Chapter 4 examines topics including the typology of migration, the causes behind migration, its effects, and significant legal safeguards in India for migrant workers. In Chapter 5, the research delves into the existing regional variations within India and examines their role in driving labour migration to Kerala, utilizing secondary data for analysis. In Chapter 6, the study comprehensively examines and extrapolates the economic implications of labour migration in Kerala, leveraging primary data to provide a detailed analysis of the phenomenon and its effects on interstate migrant workers employed in the construction sector of Kerala. Finally, Chapter 7 consolidates the study's conclusions, summarizing key insights, discussing contributions to existing knowledge, and suggesting avenues for future research in the field. Through this structured approach, the study endeavours to shed light on the critical issue of the influx of migrant workers from various parts of India into Kerala's construction sector.

Chapter |2|
Review of Literature

Migration has emerged as a powerful response to the uneven distribution of resources, opportunities, and employment across regions. In recent decades, Kerala has become a major destination for interstate migrant workers, especially in the construction sector, due to its relatively higher wage levels, consistent demand for labour, and declining local participation in manual jobs. The process of migration is influenced by a variety of push and pulls factors—ranging from poverty, lack of employment, and agrarian distress in the source regions to better earnings, job availability, and improved living standards in the destination. The role of agents and intermediaries is central in shaping the migration experience, often acting as facilitators of employment while simultaneously being sources of exploitation and control. Migrants, driven by the aspiration to improve their economic conditions, engage in various forms of saving and investment, which play a crucial role in supporting their families back home. However, the migration journey is not without challenges. Migrant workers often face issues such as language barriers, lack of identity documents, poor housing, exclusion from social security schemes, and health risks. These challenges, coupled with high living costs and irregular income, often lead to a cycle of indebtedness. This chapter explores the key dimensions of the migration experience—focusing on the motivating factors, the role of intermediaries, financial behaviours, and the structural issues that impact the livelihood and well-being of interstate migrant workers in Kerala.

The existing reviewed literature is thematically arranged on the basis of the following;

1. Reviews based on push and pull factors
2. Reviews based on the role of intermediaries and networks in the migration process
3. Reviews based on income, expenditure, saving investments and their impact on indebtedness.
4. Reviews based on issues and challenges faced by in-migrants.

1. Reviews based on push and pull factors of Migration

Sjaastad (1962) tries to analyze migration as an equilibrating mechanism to balance the income disparities between two regions. The paper portrays migration as a means of efficient resource allocation. By identifying the spatial differences in earnings, migration is considered as a search for opportunities in the areas and sectors where pay is higher than the current earnings. Migration involves monetary cost, the out-of-pocket expenditure associated with travelling, food, and other expenses associated with the

migration process, and the non-monetary cost comprising the cost of forgone earnings in the source areas, and the psychic costs of parting from families, friends' familiar environments, etc. resulting from migration. Migration is perceived as an investment in human capital since it enhances the productivity of human resources from the present level. The study highlights the fact that migration cannot be analyzed in isolation without considering the importance of complementary investment in the human agent. The results of the study stem from the idea that age is an indispensable variable in analyzing the earning differential between different spaces and occupations in the migration process

Bhagavati (1972), in his work *Economics and World Order* argues that the migration process helps the rural population to cope with the issues associated with natural disasters in the agricultural sector. Migration is a safety valve to escape from the consequences of distress in the agriculture economy which is a common phenomenon in India. The main positive impact of migration on the migrants is the acquisition of new skills and reinforces the economic cycle.

While formulating a theoretical background for the process of migration Stark and Bloom, (1985) proposed the New Economics of Labor Migration as an alternative model. In contrast to the inputs or commodities, human beings are characterized by independent feelings and which will also be reflected in the migration phenomenon. Migration is viewed as an alternative strategy to overcome the relative deprivation from the reference group or as a means to change one's position within that group. The paper states that the migration decision is not made solely by the migrant, but jointly by the migrant and non-migrants which is clear from the remittance pattern which is a culmination of an inter-temporal contractual agreement between the migrant and his family. By portraying migration as an interdependent and calculated optimizing strategy of the social entity like a household rather than an independent optimizing strategy against nature, the New Economics of Labour Migration gives a new vision of the migratory behaviour of the individuals. This mutual interdependence as a strategy of risk diversification is found very useful in the migration process.

Stark and Yitzhaki (1988) explore the incentives for rich and poor individuals to migrate under relatively different economic conditions of life. When a person does not

have a commodity, they are compelled to forgo the utility derived from it, which is a condition of deprivation. Utility stems from having and deprivation arises from not having. The study by making an elaborative analysis of relative deprivation postulates that relative deprivation is not having a thing and is an increasing function of the number of individuals in the reference group who have it and establishes that an individual who feels deprived in his or her community will tend to migrate. Identifying two types of relative deprivation; one being deprived among the origin community as the reference group in the short run and the other being deprived compared to the new host community as the reference group, the paper concentrates on the relative deprivation among the host community as the reference group. The study concludes by observing that inequality in income of the sending and receiving States exerts influence on migration by positive correlation with the income inequality in the origin and negative correlation with income inequality at the destination.

Lusome and Bhagat (2006) examine the trends and patterns of internal migration using Census data. The study finds that internal migration accounts for around 30% of the total population and the majority of the internal migrants are females in India. Although intra-district migration shows a continuous declining trend, inter-district and inter-state migrations have shown an increasing trend during the study period. The main reason behind the migration was observed as employment for males and marriage for females within which marriage was the significant reason behind the intra-state migration and inter-state is determined mainly by employment.

Mora and Taylor (2006) explains the selectivity of the migration process in deciding destinations like internal and international and sectors of employment like farm and non-farm sectors in the context of Mexico. The study states the inevitability of migrant labour in some sectors at the destination places. The wage of the prospective migrant is found to be a function of the skill that the migrant can perform in the source and destination region. The study result conveys the idea that schooling has a positive effect on total migration and its effect is in favour of migration to the non-farm sector and has negative effects on the farm sector. Work experience has a positive impact on international migration to both farm and non-farm sectors. There exists an inverted U-shaped relationship between age and migration preferably to the nonfarm sector. Male

migration overwhelms in both farm and nonfarm migration. Landholdings and wealth affect internal migration negatively while livestock possession does not show any significant effect on migration. The presence of non-agriculture enterprises in villages discourages migration in general. The extent of integration of the village with the outside markets exerts great influence on the migration to the non-farm sector. Among the community variables, the insecurity to market access significantly affects the total migration process and also the selection of destination

Etzo (2008) in his study concentrates on the major macroeconomic variables which influence the intensity and direction of migration flows. Characteristics specific to the individuals that prompt them to migrate and the spatial features that exert influence on migrations are treated separately. Bifurcating the migration models into micro and macro models, the study points out that demographic characteristics like age, sex, educational qualifications, etc. as the major selective factors influencing the individual propensity to migrate and the spatial features of the source and destination areas like gravity variables, economic variables, labour market variables, and environmental variables are the factors affecting migration flows at the macro level.

Bhagat (2009) in the paper Internal Migration in India: Are the underclass more mobile focuses his attention on the migration process in India after the implementation of the new economic reforms of 1991. The study indicates that the recent changes in migration have contributed to the transformation of the Indian economy after the liberalized régime; the progressive shift of the workforce from the primary sector to the secondary and tertiary sectors, the increase in the level of education and the development of transportation and communication technology are a few among them. The findings of the study throw light on the fact that both in and out migration keep a positive relationship between per capita income, the percentage of workforce engaged, and the share of GSDP originating from the non-agriculture sector of the economy. The findings propose that the areas of high outmigration also are high in migration areas. The analysis of per capita monthly expenditure or social categories of households does not put forward the thesis that migrants largely come from the disadvantaged section of the community and rather indicates that better off section of the people are more

migratory in the new liberalized era in the wave of capturing the new horizons of job opportunities.

Mukherjee, Paul, and Pathan (2010) analyse the socio-economic status of migrant workers in urban India and the influence of migration on living and human development conditions and mechanisms adopted by migrants to cope with deprivations. By adopting a descriptive analysis of the Naka workers and seasonal construction workers they found that Naka workers face irregular jobs, but get higher wages compared to the seasonal labourers. A Naka migrant worker arranges their accommodation mainly in a rented home usually in a crowded set-up. Their job is mediated by the contractors who act as an intermediary between the employer and the workers. The backwardness of agriculture and its inability to provide sufficient income in rural areas is the main push factor behind the migration and higher wages and continuity in jobs are the pull factors to urban areas. Moreover, social networking plays an important role in the propensity to migrate in both cases. Various health issues are prominent among migrants. An employer prefers migrant labour intending to employ them for long hours, low wages, and easy dismissal from the job without any additional hurdles. Seasonal workers, basically transitional decide to move from their native place mostly due to a lack of job opportunities, low wages in the agriculture sector, large family size, and small unprofitable agriculture sector. Skill dominates as a major factor in wage determination and the process of learning skills takes place in an informal from working with peer groups and friends. Amounts saved are remitted through banks or relatives and are used for meeting household expenses, health expenses, marriage, or educational expenses of the children at home. The contractor's role in finding new jobs, accessing the worksite, and providing them with protection in the construction sector is immense in the case of seasonal workers but on the other side, they are exploitative. Housing arises as a major issue for the footloose workers and they normally stay in the worksite or the 'jhuggis' built near the construction site. Diseases emerging from unhygienic living conditions like malaria, and lung diseases are common making health expenditure an unavoidable expense.

Bhagat (2010) focuses his attention on the trends and patterns of internal migration in India by using Census and NSSO data on migration. The findings indicate that inter-

state migration in contrast to intra-state migration is long distance and the socially and economically backward communities like SC and ST are less migratory than the other communities. The decade 1991- 2001 has shown a higher percentage of inter-state migration compared to previous decades and it is mainly towards the economically better-off states of the country. Among the streams of migration, rural to urban dominates the scene and the increasing tendency of women migration is a notable one. The structural change from the agriculture to the non-agriculture sector had a positive impact on migration and outmigration. Likewise, the economic reforms of 1991 also promoted the process of migration in India but the reforms and the resultant migration were found mainly in the economically well-off section or richer sections of the society

Baruh (2010) tries to focus on opportunities and challenges faced by women workers in the urban area based on the empirical study at Ahmedabad. By providing about 51% employment to women workers, the construction sector stands as one of the second fastest growing sectors in India after agriculture. The study identifies that women workers are marginalized or excluded from skilled construction work. Liberalization and concomitant inflow of MNCs or transnational construction companies resulted in the adoption of the latest technology and machinery in the construction sector leading to a gradual fall in the demand for unskilled laborers particularly women workers and an increase in the demand for male skilled workers in the construction sector. Based on the three stages survey by the Self-Employed Women's Association, it is observed that most of the women workers identify themselves as unskilled; employed with half wages compared to male counterparts; work in an unsecured job with the absence of basic amenities to protect against injuries and an overall decline in the opportunities for women.

Piesse (2014) in the strategic analysis of factors influencing migration and population movements, the author investigates the socio-political, economic, and ecological factors that influence migration. Migration takes place in two situations; humanitarian migrations where the people move as asylum seekers or as refugees and economic migration persuaded by the higher opportunities and circumstances that prevail at the area of origin and destination. The socio-political factors contribute more to the humanitarian migration resulting from the ethnic, religious, racial, and cultural

persecutions categorized as social factors while political transition and internal conflict are recognised as political factors. The unfavorable economic forces push the prospective migrants from the domicile state and the attractive conditions at the destined area pull them to move which gets aggravated by technological advancements, and improvements in transportation and communication technology. The paper points out that the ecological factor which becomes a growing concern in the future fuels the migration process by pushing behind the socio-political and economic factors.

Sasikumar (2015) reported that the ongoing demographic transition of consistently falling dependency ratio has a considerable impact on the labour market in the short run and long run. By describing the dichotomy of the labour market in the form of organized and unorganized and between the formal and informal, the study highlights the overwhelming increase in informal jobs in the organized sector in the post-liberalized regime. The declining share of agriculture and the concomitant fall in total employment gave way to the movement of people from the less productive primary sector to the informal construction and the low-end service sector. The emerging construction sector absorbed the low-educated migrants from the rural areas claiming the proportion of construction workers up to 20% of the non-agriculture labour force in 2011-12. Regarding the trends in wages, the main findings were the increase in the average wage rate over the last three decades coupled with a widening gap in the wages of regular and casual workers. Indian labour force with its low skill base due to lack of vocational training is identified as the major factor behind the employability of labour in the different sectors.

Bhagat (2017), re-establishes the role of migration and urbanization as a means of enhancing human development, equity, and well-being. With the propositions of the neo-classical theory, the author asserts that migration transfers the surplus labour from the traditional agriculture sector to the modern industrial sector and the resulting urbanization as a source of increasing productivity and economic growth. The migration benefits the destination area through agglomeration, cost reduction, enhancement of productivity, promotion of innovation, expansion of the consumer and capital market, and maintaining equilibrium in the labour market by making demand and supply variations in different regions. The sending areas of migrants benefit

through the remittances from migration, transfer of information and innovation, and the return of migrants with acquired skills and competencies from the urban area. Urbanization promotes economic growth by ensuring the availability of basic amenities of life to a large segment of the population which is conducive to economic growth. Nevertheless, urbanization accentuates the proliferation of slums, environmental pollution, congestion crowding, etc. The study highlights the positive role of urbanization in alleviating poverty and increasing innovation and economic growth.

Kumar (2017) while discussing the aspects of human migration in 21st century India makes a broad analysis of the causes and consequences of the exponential growth in the migration process in India from the 1960s onwards. The current impetus in migration is approached as a boon in rural areas as a coping mechanism for the people who suffer a lot to make a livelihood in the sluggish development of rural agriculture, off-season unemployment, and overburdening debts. Migrants with their bridging nature with home and host areas are seen as a leverage tool for the development. The study identifies the significance of the structural context in which the brain drain like loss of human capital and brain gain facilitating the dissemination of knowledge and positive economic externalities emerging from the returns of skilled migrants can cumulate the process of development in the areas of origin and destinations of the migrants. Distress migration to the urban unorganized informal construction sector and other activities creates housing, unemployment, poverty, and urban problems. The study notes that among the various socio-economic and demographic factors causing migration, male migration from the rural areas is determined by the community level factors and women migration as the function of individual characteristics. In Bihar the main factors leading to season migration are found to be the effects of the dwindling employment opportunities with increasing population pressure, the backwardness of agriculture with its inherent inability to provide work in all seasons, low growth of the industrial sector, and the tendency of the people to escape from bonded labour and the exploitation of the landlords, etc. Although migration is desirable and essential for the development of a country, it cannot be promoted if the distressed migration results in the overcrowding of cities and mushrooming of slum areas. MGNREGA acts as an alternative to check the momentum of rural-urban migration by providing employment opportunities in rural areas in the lean and off seasons.

Malhotra and Devi's (2017) research article finds out the changing pattern and determinants of internal migration in various states in India in connection with the socio-economic indicators. The study points out that indicators like per capita income, the level of urbanization, percentage of people living below the poverty line, per capita credit available to agriculture etc have a major influence on the migration process. The per capita income of the state affects the volume of outmigration negatively while the Human development index and income index positively attract migration. Educational attainment and the propensity to migrate are found to be directly related and among the states, migration was found to be high in Maharashtra followed by Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal. From the factor analysis, the variable with the highest loading was found to be the Per Capita Net State Domestic Product.

Ajithkumar (2020) in the working paper exploring the drivers of long distance labour migration to Kerala examined the drivers of migration of laborers from far off states to Kerala found that the coexistence of several factors in the state helped interstate migrants to overcome the friction of physical, linguistic and cultural distance between the states of origin and Kerala. The study observed the high wage rates and opportunities for year round employment in Kerala as the primary drivers of migration to Kerala and the high economic growth and the structural change in the economy in favor of tertiary and construction sectors as the facilitating factors of the drivers of the long distance migration to Kerala from the far off states in East, North East and North Indian states.

2. Reviews based on the role of intermediaries and networks in the migration

Anand (1986) in his work discusses the Tamil migrants who have played an important role in the construction sector of Kerala's Economy since the 1970s. The study states that Tamil Nadu, being the border-sharing state with many districts of Kerala, was able to capture the high demand for labour driven by the remittance-boosted construction sector of Kerala. The wage gap that existed between Kerala and Tamil Nadu together with the channel provided by the 'jobber-contractors' opened the way for obtaining job opportunities in the individual house construction sector of Kerala to the unskilled labourers from Tamil Nadu.

Peter and Gupta (2012) in their research investigate worker migration to Kerala, a state in Southern India, to work in the plywood sector. Nine out of ten migrants are from remote areas of Eastern India, especially North-Eastern Assam and Western Orissa, which are well-known for their sedentary lives and extreme poverty. According to the research, Assam led the Indian plywood industry until 1996, mostly because it relied on forest timber. To preserve the tropical wet evergreen forests of Arunachal Pradesh and Assam, the Supreme Court outlawed veneer and plywood manufacturers in forest areas in December 1996. As a result, the rubber wood- dependent economy in Kerala grew, whereas the Assamese industry collapsed. One explanation for this was the existence of distressed migrant workers from Western Orissa in the Kerala wood sector. By using the situational advantage, Kerala with its abundantly available rubber wood instead of forest wood came to the forefront of plywood production. Ban of judiciary on forest-related activities doesn't disrupt the plywood industry in Kerala rather it flourished while in the Other States, plywood industries are suffering. Perumbavoor, the Nerve Centre of the timber industry in the Kunnathunadu Taluk in Ernakulam district in Kerala in the late 90s was suffering from the shortage of electricity and with the lazy and unwilling native workers who were not ready to unload the wood which came late in the night. In this context, the sawmill owners began to use cheap labourers from places like Gujarat where they supplied their products. In corollary, the acute unemployment problem that emerged from the closure of the plywood industry in Assam and nearby States compelled the jobless youth to move to the urban areas of relatively developed states like Gujarat. The sawmill owners of Kerala began to mobilize these migrant labourers from Assam, Odisha, West Bengal, Andhra Pradesh etc., by offering accommodation facilities in the premises of the factory itself and a high wage rate compared to the wage available in their native place. This offer was a boon to many of the landless, indebted, poor unemployed youths from the marginalized communities of the Northern states and the momentum got accelerated through the network of friends, relatives, etc. The following years witnessed an unprecedented flow of migrants destined for Kerala with the expectation of higher wages, regular jobs, and free accommodation and began to spread to the other sectors including construction, iron and steel, hotels and restaurants etc making Kerala green pastures for the inter-state migrants.

Kumar (2012) in his case study, unearths the reasons for the present long-distance migration into Kerala from the North and North Eastern States to Kochi, the commercial capital of Kerala. This qualitative study tries to find the factors that offset the friction of distance despite the significant distance and diversities in the language, culture, and social factors. Survival problems with the low wages and limited income due to the shortage of employment opportunities made the rural unskilled workers move from their native areas. The huge wage gap between Kerala and other States with the former offering high wages for the informal workers, job opportunities created in the service and construction sector due to the new development trajectory of Kerala, the excessive young labour outmigration creating a deficit in the supply of local labour and the demographic challenge of the problem of ageing together with fast-growing urbanization attracted the long-distance migrants to Kerala. The study observes the prime importance of the information available through the native labourers who already reached Kerala as the channel of migration. The tolerant attitude of the long distance migrants with the poor living conditions in Kerala and contended attitude with the high wage (although it is lower than the wage paid to the local or Tamil labourers), made it profitable for the employer to employ the interstate migrants in the menial and dangerous job which are unwilling to be undertaken by the native labourers. The study reveals that in the first phase of migration, the role played by the push factors dominated the migration process but in the subsequent stages, the large inflow of migration is attributed to the pull or attracting factors to Kerala.

Narayana and Venkiteswaran (2013) tried to explore the stock of migrants, their distribution in the state, the nature of employment, accommodation, and social and cultural problems. By enumerating migrants coming in the long-distance train through the survey method, the study estimated around 2.5 million migrants as the stock of migrant population in Kerala in 2013 and around 2.5 lakhs newly arriving migrants are adding to the stock year by year. The study noticed migrants from almost all States in India nevertheless the significant proportion of them from West Bengal, Bihar, Assam, and Uttar Pradesh was noticeable. The majority of the migrants are male under the age group of 18-29 years and a chunk of the migrant population belongs to the religious group of Hindus and Muslims. The role of friends as channels of migration to Kerala and the contractors as the main source of information about the availability of jobs are

found remarkable. The booming construction sector employed about 60% of the migrants and unemployment among the migrants is found almost nil. Living in pathetic conditions of crowded rooms without having enough basic facilities and deprived of social security of life, migrants can save and send remittance to their native place an amount of Rupees 70000/year a person. Low levels of wages, insufficient employment opportunities, and backward remunerative agriculture are quoted as the push factors, and high wages for the casual workers, regular employment opportunities, and the presence of friends and relatives in Kerala were the pull factors behind the migration.

3. Reviews Based on Economic behavior of the migrants

In a study, Nair (1986) concluded that at the time of migration nearly 4/5 of the migrants were young nearly below 35 years of age, and 50% of them were unmarried, mostly unskilled and unemployed. The information regarding the opportunities for migration was through friends, relatives, and neighbors of the Gulf region

Fawcett (1989) in his paper “Networks, Linkages and Migration Systems” tries to explore the nonpeople linkages in migration systems. The study discusses the four categories as state-to- state, mass culture connection, family and personal networks, and migrant agency services, and explains three types of linkages tangible, regulatory, and relational linkages. The state-to-state linkages are the tangible manifestation of trade relationships and these economic and political relationships also boost the movements of peoples between countries. The mass media by providing ideas and images of the large space to a wide audience and persuading them to move comes under the category of tangible mass culture connection. The migration process under the third category emerges from the family and personal networks which is conducive to migration by remittance of money, gifts, and written communications nexus between network members of the source and destination places. The fourth category highlights the significant role played by the agency services at the origin and destination places making migration flow an easy venture.

The regulatory linkages encompass legal or contractual policies associated with the migratory process. The regulatory state-to-state relationship operates through the policies of immigration, emigration, workers, student exchange, and other policies affecting migration. The regulatory mass culture connections are linked with the

societal norms of outmigration and the community acceptance of migrants. Regulatory family and network connection through the person-to- person connection end up in family and chain migration. The size and characteristics of the flow of migrants are affected by the rules and procedures formulated under the guise of regulatory migrant agency services. The study finally points out the linkages that are formed by comparisons of the areas and conditions of the places of origin and destination. The study concludes that the flows and counter flows in the migration system are the result of diverse linkages.

Subramanian and Hegde, (1997) shed light on the increased labour migration witnessed in the recent decades to the urban areas of Udupi Taluk of Dakshina Kannada District, especially in the construction sector where the work potential is very high. The study found that most of the migrants are intra-state migrants and the rest of them belong to the neighboring states like Tamil Nadu and Kerala. Three patterns are identified in the migrant patterns such as the tendency of the adult member to migrate first, followed by a part of the family and last the whole family migrates. The chunk portion of the migrated community belonged to Hindus and the average number of persons in the households was found to be 7. The remittances sent to the native place were used for settling the old debts and among the migrants it is noticed that although they don't have any long term vision or perspective of their life, their caste and religious consciousness among them was found to be very high.

Kannan and Hari (2002) to quantify the remittance income from abroad to the Kerala economy since 1972 and to examine the extent to which remittances have influenced income, consumption, and savings in the Kerala economy found the significant role of remittances in the share of state income. Remittances to Kerala increased the per capita income of the people in Kerala and helped to increase consumption which is evident from the shift of per capita consumption expenditure which stood below the national level till 1977-78 to a level exceeding the national average and ultimately reaching a figure of 41 % above the national figure in 1999-00. Remittances from Gulf migration accentuated the non-resident India deposits in banks making a positive impact on savings. The average propensity to consume of the people of Kerala declined which is

visible from the tremendous increase in the saving rate of Kerala since the early nineties.

Zacharia and Rajan, (2007) While examining the short-term trend and long-term term-implications of Migration, remittances, and employment found that the situation of gaining importance to emigration in the northern districts of Kerala and emigration had a significant salutary impact on the unemployment situation of Kerala. Surpassing Saudi Arabia, and UAE as the upcoming emigration destinations of Kerala, there has also been an increasing tendency on the part of people of Kerala to emigrate to new destinations like the USA and the UK beyond the Middle Eastern nations. The study noticed a decline in the outmigration from Kerala in terms of the outmigration rate and the absolute numbers. Among the outmigration, unemployed persons dominated the scene followed by the students. The remittances from international migrants accounted for about 20% of Kerala's NSDP in 2006-07, although it showed a declining trend compared to 26% in 1998, it may have a considerable long-term impact on the regional development within Kerala. The existence of communal divergence as the Muslim community receives about 50% of the remittances and the northern districts of Kerala are the major remittance-receiving district in effect will result in the different handicapped development trajectory of Kerala. In the employment scenario of Kerala, the study noted a complete turnaround of increased employment opportunities in the private sector and self-employment sector and a resultant decrease in the unemployment rate in all sections of the population. The remarkable observation relevant to the present study is that in the early period of construction workers' emigration, as the remittances were used for subsistence household consumption, education of children, and construction and renovation of houses, the shortage of casual native labourers in the construction sector of Kerala was inevitable.

Prakash (2011) in his study titled 'In Migration of workers to Kerala: an enquiry into causes and consequences makes an empirical analysis of the personal, demographic, social backgrounds, housing status, reasons for migration, and the impacts of migration on individual, family, and community based on the sample selected from the Alappuzha district of Kerala. The irregularity of jobs and the low wages in the native places in the home states is found to be the major reason for the migrants to migrate with their

neighbors or relatives. The study concluded that although Kerala stands at the forefront of the protection of the rights of the workers through various laws, it has only laws on paper with insignificant impact in the case of migrant labourers employed in Kerala. The most pronounced effect on migrant households is found in the post-migration consumption expenditure, in the repayment of debts, and in acquiring and renovating houses and other assets.

Korra, (2011) states that the majority of the short-duration migrants mainly dominated by males come from less developed states like Maharashtra, Gujarat, Rajasthan, etc. who suffer from problem of lack of employment opportunities, especially in the off seasons of the agriculture. Citing a positive relationship between employment opportunities and migration, the study proposes the probability of increasing migration of rural people to urban areas if the development activities increase in the urban areas. Regarding the destination of migrants, the study observed that migrants who migrated with family are mainly inter-state migrants and in the case of male migration also large proportion consisted of inter-state migrants followed by inter-district migrants. Short duration migrants for employment purposes are mainly from the most deprived regions that are forced to move from their homes to find a source of livelihood.

Siddiqui (2012) makes a probe into the impact of migration on poverty and development by conducting an extensive literature survey. The study by evaluating the UN bodies' migration policy, research, and governance asserts the role of migration in reducing poverty and promoting social and economic development. By increasing livelihood, employment opportunities, and financial income, migration is found to be economically beneficial. Besides the common vulnerabilities of migration, sector-specific work, and health issues increasing health risks and deadly diseases like HIV/AIDS make migration a painful choice for both males and females. The paper identifies remittances from migration as insurance to the household to mitigate the unforeseen contingencies of life. Along with the poverty reduction role, the use of remittances in education and health will promote human capital formation in the native place. Migration of the male head of the household in effect offers both a challenge and opportunity to the left behind women. The left behind women by taking the responsibility of the family get an opportunity in independent decision-making power

along with the control and management of remittances from migration. On the other side, in the absence of a male counterpart, the women suffer a lot in executing migration added responsibilities, problems of bringing up the children alone, insecurity, and loneliness which makes them physically fatigued and mentally stressed and strained. From the side of aged parents at home, the migration of their children creates a vacuum at the much-needed care age. International Migration plays a positive role in promoting the welfare of the community at the origin by ensuring the provision of services and donations to educational, religious, social, and cultural institutions. The philanthropic remittances sent to the native community towards food, clothing, and health care needs serve as a safety net for poor families in alleviating their hardships of life. Remittances can also make miraculous developments in the local economy through a multiplier effect by increasing employment, stimulating the demand for local goods, and the development of different sectors by investment accumulation. The study comes with the findings that from the national level perspective, the role of migration in the reduction of poverty is of great significance.

Dwivedi, (2012) in his article examines the continuing process of migration in different parts of India and how the livelihood status of the migrants is getting improved through migration. The landless poor mostly belonging to the indigenous communities and economically backward regions form the chunk of the migrants in India. The intrusion of the peoples into the tribal area and deforestation culminated in the migration of local tribes and rural people to the urban developing areas which was accentuated by the non-remunerative nature of Indian agriculture. Among the types of migration, he found the peculiar nature of the migration trend in India as the dominance of the rural-to-rural migration, the predominance of intra-state migration in connection with the distance of migration within which rural to rural constitute the major percentage, and the overwhelming nature of female migration in the migration stream. Seasonal and circular migration occurs as the livelihood strategy of the poor in the rural areas to find employment opportunities as freelance in the construction sector.

The regional variations in the pressure of population on land, the problem of poverty differences in the development of infrastructure among states, the development of the industrial sector, and the modernization of the agriculture sector have also played an

important role in the increase of migration in India. Migration being an expensive and risky process is characterized by the denial and lack of essential services.

Chandrasekhar, Das and Sharma (2014) in the working paper Short-term Migration and Consumption of Households in Rural India attempted to impact remittances on the monthly per capita consumption expenditure of the households. The short-term migrants are found to be low educated, skilled unemployed people who seek employment in the low productive contractual jobs as a part of distress diversification to find their jobs where the earnings are not so high. By defining a short-term migrant as a person who stays outside of the village for more than one month but less than 6 months, the study results pointed out that in the context of exclusionary urbanization monthly per capita consumption expenditure and monthly per capita food expenditure are found lower among the households having a short-term migrant.

Saikia (2015) focuses its attention on the replacement migration that is happening in Kerala necessitated by the large outmigration and the socio-economic conditions of the interstate migrants in Kerala with special emphasis on the nature of work and living conditions, reasons and impacts of migration, and the remittance behaviour based on the empirical study conducted at Thiruvananthapuram district. The poor financial condition at the native place and the overwhelming debt burden of the family compelled the unemployed youth to long-distance migration with the expectation of regular employment with high wages. Migrants from West Bengal and Assam dominated the sample whose concentration is facilitated by the informal networking among the migrants. For the 2/3rd of the migrants, this was their debut attempt. About 75% of the interstate migrants are found to be engaged in unskilled operations before migration which even continued after migration but the financial position improved after the migration due to the high earnings in Kerala compared to the native place. About 92% of the migrants are found to be living in groups in the unhygienic and deplorable conditions of living. The study found poor savings habits among the migrants which are remitted to the native places to their left back.

Bhagat (2017) Migration with its immense potential for human development is viewed as a means of escaping from the vicious circle of poverty through improved health, high income, education, and skill, etc. Internal migration through remittance increases

income and creates a convergence of welfare in the source areas. Network migration which operates through friends, relatives, religious groups etc culminates in the knowledge and skill transfer to a wide community. Migration is identified as intrinsic to the path of development which necessitates formulating pro-poor migration policies to reduce the costs of migration, constrain the discrimination against the migrants, and protect their basic rights of life in the host community.

Parida and Raman (2021) in their paper attempt to estimate the stock of interstate migrants in Kerala based on a baseline survey conducted throughout Kerala. The number of interstate migrants who find employment in Kerala ranges from the lower limit of 28.2 lakhs to 34.5 lakhs within which 16 lakhs to 19.2 lakhs are employed in the construction sector stands first in employing the interstate migrants followed by manufacturing and agriculture and allied activities in 2017-18. The study also exposes the fact that about 80% of the sample migrants make a seasonal migration to Kerala for employment.

4. Reviews Based on Issues and challenges faced by migrants

Pillai (1996) in the article Social Security for Workers in Unorganized Sector Experience of Kerala focused on the social security schemes for the unorganized sector with special emphasis on the head load labour market in Kerala, working of the Kerala Headload Workers' Welfare Scheme, financing of the scheme and its economic impacts. The peculiar features of the unorganized labour market are its irregularity of work, fluctuating income, lack of legal protection to income, employment, and health and safety measures. The Kerala Head Load Workers (Regulation of Employment and Welfare) Scheme formulated in 1983 has brought about drastic changes in the living conditions of the workers both socially and economically. Nevertheless, the schemes had only limited coverage of 4% among the target groups. The study observes that the welfare fund scheme of financing is much more superior to the Government social assistance measure since the former works similarly to the self-financing mechanism and the latter depends on budgetary resources.

An empirical study related to the construction workers conducted by the Self-Employed Workers Association (SEWA, 2000) points out the shortage of work for the local women construction workers due to the overwhelming flow of migrant labourers to the urban construction sector and the exploitation by the contractors. The majority of

women workers employed in the construction sector were unskilled and only a small minority were semi-skilled. The existence of wage discrimination on a gender basis was prevalent as males earn double the wage of females. The incidence of physical strain was higher in the case of females and on-site physical injuries were suffered by

Srivastava and Sasikumar, (2003) in their paper discuss the main issues in internal and external migration with special emphasis on nature, pattern, trend, and policy issues. The study based on the NSSO and Census data concludes that migration is the subsistence strategy of the households predominantly for males, in the face of social, cultural, demographic, and other constraints. Based on the National Commission on Rural Labour (NCRL) report the study states that the labourers and land poor are more migratory than the rest. Inter-regional disparity, disparity in the development of different socio-economic classes, post- independent development policy accelerated the process of migration in India. The intrusion of people into the tribal areas, displacement, and deforestation significantly influence the movement decisions from the tribal regions of India. Migration was found to be selectively affected by factors such as age, educational qualification, possession of land, productivity, wealth, etc. In the host communities' potential labour market, the migrants are confronted with uncertainties, risks, and costs which are often lessened by the middlemen, kinship-tied migration, etc. The study identifies both positive and negative impacts on the migrants and their families. Deplorable living conditions, occupational health problems, vulnerabilities to various diseases, and a high probability of work-related accidents make the life of the migrants a horrible one. Migrants are usually subjected to a double slap, one being the labourers mainly employed in the informal sector and the other being migrants faced with problems. The study identifies that the existing provisions in the Constitution and labour laws are incapable and inefficient in fulfilling its proposed objectives of protecting the interest of the migrants. The study suggests pro-poor development policies, food, and credit-based interventions, improving the information base and bargaining strength, enhancing the role of Panchayat, and stringent enforcement of labour laws as the panacea for the sufferings of the migrants.

Madheswaran and Attewell, (2007) by using the NSSO data try to examine the wage gap between the forward caste and the socially and economically backward classes of SC and ST in the urban labour market. The paper analyses inequalities in employment,

occupation, and earnings between SC, ST, and OBC compared to forward communities by decomposing the discrimination into two: one of the basis of discrimination is due to the existence of explained differences or arising from the differences in the endowment of skills, education, difference in experience etc. and the other component of discrimination is the unexplained difference, the basis of such discrimination are the state of origin, religion or caste etc. By using the Blinder- Oaxaca decomposition method the study points out that there exists discrimination both in the public sector and private sector against the SC and ST communities in the urban labour market of India. Discrimination exists in accessing jobs and in the unequal pay for the same job; both are adverse in the case of the backward communities and favorable to the forward communities. The mathematical analysis points out that in discrimination; the endowment component overweighs the discrimination components implying that pre-market discrimination in terms of availability of education, health nutrition, etc.

Surabhi and Ajithkumar, (2007) examined the socio-economic characteristics of the Tamil migrant labourers in Kochi and their working, and living conditions and their implications on future governance. The high wages offered in urban Kochi were the major attraction to the rural illiterate migrants from the adjacent and distant districts with rail connectivity from Tamil Nadu. They remitted a large portion of their income to their native place and the social networks of friends and relatives helped them in the migration process. The study revealed that their concentration in particular areas is a means of establishing and maintaining the network connectivity of the same linguistic and culturally identical groups. Although most of them stayed with family in Kochi they found time to visit their native place once in a month. Non-availability of safe drinking water, lack of sanitation facilities in the crowded living site, and clashes with native labourers in the worksite were the major problems.

Srivastava (2011) while discussing the availability and use of social protection in India by internal migrants defines social protection measures as a set of public measures initiated by the state to meet its national and international obligations to eliminate poverty, deprivation, and extreme vulnerabilities. As proposed by ILO, a set of public measures that a society provides for its members to protect them against economic and social distress caused by the absence or a substantial reduction of income as a result of various contingencies and these include the provision of health care and the provision

of benefits for families with children (ILO, 2004). It aims to make avail of geographical and financial access to essential services such as water, sanitation, sufficient nutrition, health, education, and social transfers in terms of cash and in kind paid to the poor and vulnerable to provide minimum income security and access to essential health care. The paper identifies the hindrances in the strengthening of social protection measures for internal migrants in India due to the less favorable way of integration into the labour market in the form of debt locking, isolation, sub-contracting etc coupled with formidable difficulties in establishing claims and entitlements and weaker social networks than the non-migrants.

The institutional structure of the social protection schemes itself is not migrant-friendly in India in their design, delivery, and mechanism of financing. The entitlement portability problem often acts as a barrier to availing the wide range of food-based and other social security schemes in India for internal migrants. Establishing the claim to entitlement is even a challenge in front of the migrant labourers since most of them do not have registration and identity cards to prove. Migrants are deprived of the subsidized food grains distributed through the PDS due to a lack of ration cards in the destination, migratory nature initiates problems like dropping out of their children from the education system. The degree of vulnerability in health issues is higher in the case of migrants since they are more prone to occupational, non-occupational as well and sexually transmitted diseases. The study also examines the problem of shelter, an unavoidable basic human right that is neither provided by the govt nor provided by the contractors in the case of migrants in India. Although various laws including the Interstate Migrant Workmen Act 1979 propose the provision of basic living for the migrants in India; in reality, they are devoid of even basic human rights and resume their dreadful life.

Borhade, (2011) enquires about the exclusion of migrants from mainstream health facilities in the country. Migrants' health is affected by numerous factors including insufficient nutrients in food, poor housing amenities, unfavorable and risky working situations, and inability to access health services and so on. The depth of enquiry and fieldwork reveals the fact that the migrant's morbidity patterns are high which is the result of the work they handle and, the high presence of infectious diseases like malaria, hepatitis, typhoid fever, and respiratory infections. Mobile in nature and due to the little

access to information, the prevalence of HIV/AIDS among male migrants is more compared to non-migrant counterparts. The paper also throws some light on the mental strain borne by the migrants due to the uncertain jobs, separation from the family, poor housing conditions, and lack of recreation and the manifestation of this mental strain and stresses in the form of relationship problems, substance abuse, heavy alcohol usage, risky sexual behaviour, etc. By making a detailed examination of the current health policy and programme environment in India, the paper proposes the need to have an improved definition of the migrants, the necessity of mapping the internal migrants at the country level, a well-informed health care service delivery mechanism, providing with better living, working conditions, ensuring food and nutrition availability through the PDS across States, improvising the capacity building programmes among migrants and encouraging research for the best practices among the migrants.

Moses and Rajan (2012) explore the extent to which the inter-state migrants are diffused into the society of Kerala and the challenges confronted by them. International or internal migration of labourers poses challenges and threats to the local labourers through a decline in the bargaining capacity amid the migrant labourers who are readily available to do work at low wages. By using empirical data collected from the four districts of Kerala the study examines how much the interstate migrants are integrated into the local labour market of Kerala. The labour unions with their established immense power in Kerala exert high impacts on the wages and working conditions of the Labourers of Kerala. The results of the study reveal that due to the language differences, the migrant labourers find it difficult to establish contact with the local labourers are unaware of the prevailing wage and working conditions in Kerala and hence are prone to exploitation by employers due to their asymmetric information. The study results point out that a major percentage of the inter-state migrants came as a group, without the help of agents or contractors, and are coming to Kerala for the first time; which increases the chance of unfamiliarity with the labour market conditions of Kerala. Staying onsite or within the premises of the worksite dip down the contacts with the local community. Unaware of the migrant organizations and welfare programmes of the govt mainly due to their inability to provide valid ID proofs is found among the major portions of the study group. Isolation from the local workers and the

lack of information about the working conditions, wage levels, rights, and benefits make inter-state migrants vulnerable to exploitation since the local unions are uninterested in integrating them and providing a chance to raise their problems like mainstream native labourers of Kerala.

Thimothi and Sasikumar (2012) in their paper try to explore the migration process, consequences, and problems associated with the women's migration from South Asian countries to the Gulf region in the context of increasing feminization of the international migration. By tracing the large-scale women migration from the colonial period, the study states that female migrants from South Asia are mostly employed as domestic workers and low-end service providers, and the women migrants are engaged in semi-skilled and minimum-skilled jobs. By identifying the increasing nature of demand for low-end service providers in the future years, the paper focuses its attention on the specific issues of discrimination and vulnerabilities faced by women migrants from the pre-migration to the returning stage of the migration cycle. By asserting the positive impact of the pre-departure programmes of the government and non-government agencies in reducing the vulnerabilities of migrants, particularly women migrants, the study ends with the hope that the intervention of the stakeholder will help to promote and sustain the safe migration of women in the future.

Lazar (2013) focuses her attention on the socio-economic, living, and working conditions of interstate migrants in Kerala through an empirical study conducted at Thrissur City. The major findings show that a major chunk of migrants belonged to the age group of 18-24 years without proper schooling. Better employment opportunities and high wages are the major motivating factors to migrate to Kerala. Though they were employed in the agriculture sector before the migration, after migration they found employment opportunities in the informal construction sector. Interstate migrants are satisfied with the wages paid in Kerala despite the discontent that the cost of living in Kerala is comparatively high as expenditure on food and accommodation constituted the major part of expenditure. Crowded accommodations in the unhygienic situation along with the problems of communication emerging from the language problem are the main issues confronted in Kerala.

Ashok and Thomas (2014) in their paper try to unearth the socio-economic background and the housing issues faced by the inter-state migrant labourers in Kerala. With their

floating character, the study identifies housing as the major problem of the inter-state migrants in Kerala. India amid the increasing urbanization process has witnessed a large rural-urban migration process during the past few decades. The analysis, reveals that Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh, Kerala, and Karnataka are the major migrant-receiving states in India and the various welfare Schemes, Acts and programmes failed to address the real issues and could not create any impact on the welfare of the migrants in Kerala. Being a migrant, the poor inter-state migrant workers in Kerala encounter social exclusion, racial discrimination, and non- acceptance from the host society in the midst of the unhygienic, shabby, and crowded accommodation devoid of water and sanitation facilities.

Naraparju (2014) found that the Naka workers who seek employment in the informal construction sector are dominated by the young male workers below the age of 45 coming from the socially and economically backward communities mostly faced with a natural disaster like drought. They are either landless or have only marginal land and do not possess any major assets. Rented houses or dwellings made of plastic sheets in which they live are exposed to heavy rain and summer. The lack of ration cards in the destination area and the inability to avail of PDS or any other social security schemes make their living pathetic. Access to electricity, safe drinking water, sanitation, and health facilities is very poor among the Naka workers. Most of them have debt at the time of migration and are mostly taken from traditional money lenders and relatives for marriage or other ceremonies, for meeting health expenditures, or for household expenditures. Nevertheless, they save their income but most of them do not have any bank account making financial inclusion a mere dream. Non-payment of wages amid low wages is common even though they are subject to the risk of occupational health hazards. They are deprived of any social security schemes and reimbursement schemes reflecting a different story from that of other workers.

James and Manoj (2014) based on the empirical study examined the human rights issues and other social security issues in the context of the unorganized labors engaged in the housing construction of Kerala in Ernakulam city of Kerala. The study results revealed that the construction sector of Ernakulam city is engaged by the young labourers belonging to the socially and economically backward communities arrived mainly with the help of friends and relatives. Highly contended with their job due to the

high wages in Kerala they are mostly forced to do overtime work for the completion of work in the stipulated time. Only less than 40% of the labourers are provided with accommodation by the contractors as stipulated in the Inter-State Migrant Workmen Act 1979 and 30% are gone through the proper registration process.

Recognizing the crucial role played by the unorganized and informal sector in the development scenario of India, Upadhyaya, (2015) analyses the various labour legislations of the informal labour market in India. The study concludes that despite the constitutional provisions and the wide umbrella network of the legislative framework in India, the major share of the workers in the informal sector in India still lies outside the purview of the social security schemes since they always belong to the category of “outsiders”.

Ghosh, (2015) makes a probe into increasing insecurity and the vulnerabilities of the informal workers employed in the unorganized sectors of India. The study tries to point out the weak bargaining power of the labourers in India as the outcome of the increasing contract labour mechanism and the poor enforcement of laws. In the absence of access to sufficient health facilities and sustaining occupational diseases, the economy will suffer with a 10-20% fall in GNP. The meagre percentage spending of the government in the health sector coupled with the problem of the informal workers being outside the coverage of any health insurance scheme arise as a big challenge in India by increasing the out-of-pocket expenditure of the poor informal workers. The study necessitates the need for equity in the availability and accessibility of health security to all workers irrespective of the sector in which they are employed. Besides the implementation of the programme, the study argues for the efficient enforcement of the existing provisions to ensure that no one is left outside the deserving benefit.

Dsouza, Singh and Ranjan, (2015) try to investigate the trends in differential treatment observed in the informal sector depending on the individual's social identity. The study identifies this discrimination based on the structural disadvantage borne mainly by socially disadvantaged groups like SCs, STs, and Muslims. The informal labour market mainly consisting of poor migrants is susceptible to the so-called systematic discrimination or structural disadvantage in the context of the lack of support base in resources. By using the Mincerian earning equation to decompose the wage gap into the endowment and co-efficient effect and with the help of the Blinder Oaxaca techniques

the study concludes that besides the endowment effect emerging from education, experience, and variations in skill there also exists an increasing structural disadvantage against lower Hindus compared with Upper Hindus.

Haseena (2015) in her article, analyzed the interstate migrant worker's welfare scheme and found that although Kerala stands at the forefront among other states of India in formulating and implementing many social security schemes for the vulnerable section of the society particularly for the migrant's community, its coverage among the target group is limited. Inter State Migrant Workers Welfare scheme with its numerous financial aid provisions with a wide protective umbrella of social security to inter-state migrants in Kerala in their ailment conditions is featured for poor performance due to its limited enrollment due to lack of awareness. The chance of the migrants noting the advertisement appeared in Malayalam and English is little and a separate mechanism for making them aware of the welfare programmes should be worked out to improve the effectiveness and efficient working of the scheme. The study points out that Trade union with their collective organizational set up can make positive changes in the protection of the rights and welfare of migrants through extending their coverage by encompassing migrants also.

Jane (2016) focusing her study on the various issues and policies for the internal migrant labourers made reflections on the vulnerability of the migrant labourers to various health issues apart from the psychological distress and tension of adjusting to a new socio-cultural set-up. Occupation problems associated with employment in dirty, dangerous, and degrading jobs along with the exploitation by the agents and contractors make migrants' lives deplorable. Constitutional provision and legal support become helpless to an extent in the case of migrant workers and they are politically and financially excluded.

Pillai (2016). The research paper, focuses her attention on the role of migrant labour in the development process of Kerala and the burning issues faced by them Kerala. The inter-state migrant labourers in Kerala are becoming an inevitable part of the labour market of Kerala by engaging the low-grade blue-collar jobs in almost all sectors in Kerala despite the ground reality that they are treated as intruders, illegitimate citizens by the host community. A substantial number which is even increasing day by day is making enormous economic contributions to the economy of Kerala at the expense of

long hours of work in unhealthy and unsafe working conditions even being denied basic human rights and amenities. The study identifies the crucial role of the inter-state migrants in Kerala in the specific context of the Problem of Ageing of the Kerala population. Identifying inter-state migrants as an integral part of Kerala, the study makes the urgent need for addressing the language problems, housing and accommodations issues, long work schedules with low wages, political exclusion, social insularity, crime potentialities, and the exploitation by middlemen like agents and contractors by the Government authorities.

The arduous working conditions and deplorable living conditions of the migrants always stand as the burning issue. The paper on migrant labourers and their health and hygiene Chatterjee, (2016) focuses on the health and hygienic conditions among the migrants and the government's initiative in this regard. The study gives a clear picture of the pathetic situation of the migrants coming from the underprivileged sections of society who are habituated to the deprived medical treatment and social security framework of the government despite working for long hours in unhygienic situations prone to various diseases and accidents and injuries causing death. The study highlights the need for effective and efficient government mechanisms to protect migrants, the most vulnerable section of society by making them under the shade of the umbrella of the policy framework.

Maheswary (2016) in a research paper titled Migrant Crisis in Kerala Need to Change the Political Culture discusses interstate migrants who are employed in low-skilled jobs. The study suggests the importance of creating real interest in the matters of migrants and that actual inclusion is needed along with the provision of physical infrastructure and schemes.

Akoijam, et.al (2017) in their study Living conditions of internal labour migrants: a nationwide study in 13 Indian cities state that internal migration can enrich economic prosperity, increase social cohesion and promote urban diversity. Internal migrants face myriad challenges like limited access to basic needs, absence of social entitlements arising from the lack of identity, accommodation issues, denied health, and social and political exclusion. The study reports that migrants mostly live in the Katcha and Pacca houses with inadequate sanitation and drinking water facilities, without possessing

ration cards for availing food grains distributed through PDS, don't possess voter ID, etc subjecting them to a lot of vulnerabilities in the destinations.

Peter and Narendran, (2017) in their study conduct an exploration of the dynamics of labour migration to Kerala through a qualitative framework of research. A field study proved that Kerala provides livelihood opportunities to migrants from 194 districts of 25 states/union territories in India of which the majority belonged to the Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribes communities from far-off states like West Bengal, Bihar, Odisha, Assam, and Uttar Pradesh. High wage rates in the informal sectors in Kerala, regularity of the job, and the peaceful social environment constituted the pull factors for the migrants from distant States which are well known for the frequent occurrence of natural calamities of flood, drought, cyclones, and political and social conflicts along with low developed social and economic infrastructure. Their presence is visible in almost all fields of operation even though the construction sector overweighs the others. The blue-collar jobs necessitating high physical work in a dangerous environment liable to many health risks and fatal injuries are willingly accepted by the migrants without the notion that they are being discriminated against and exploited by the employers. The study points out the vital importance of modifying and formulating migrant-inclusive policies in Kerala in the context of the increasing tendency of migrant inflows in recent years.

Arun and Ajay (2017) is an investigation into the nature, pattern, reasons, and other dimensions of the migration aspects of Kerala. The study highlights the inevitability of inter-state migrant labour in the present demographic context of Kerala and its widening nature in the future years. The study by analyzing the migration D series data found an increase in the migrant population in India from 9.56% to 13.33% during the census period 2001-2011. The empirical findings point out that a major portion of the migrants consisted of youths within the age category of 18-35 of the agrarian families entangled with a decline in the profitability of agriculture operations. Economic reasons stand forefront among the reasons for migration and friends and relatives who already migrated formed the channel that brought them to Kerala. The construction sector employs the major percentage of the migrants in their study and the role of contractors is found to be conducive to getting regular employment in Kerala. Banks are the primary mode of remittance of funds to the native place among migrants and the

remitted amounts are usually withdrawn by the full amount within the week itself. A congested room with 5 to 8 migrants staying together that also served as a kitchen makes living pathetic. Giving high respect and value to the native population, language is posed as the major barrier among the migrants to integrate with the native peoples and workers in Kerala.

Nayak (2017) in a paper titled analyzed the reason for migration, employment and conditions of work, health and social security issues of the migrants based on a randomly selected sample of 240 workers from the 12 districts of Kerala. It is found that 20% of the workers are reported to be ill of which 6.2% are due to accidents at the worksite. The study observes that 70% of the construction sector of Kerala runs through the relentless service of migrant labourers despite the truth that the migrants are not entitled to any benefits from the Construction Workers Welfare Fund. The study necessitates the need to ensure health and safety standards coupled with protective measures for the migrants who constitute the unavoidable proportion of the labour force of Kerala

Anju (2017), in her research Paper titled Migration to Kerala: issues and Challenges, tries to analyze the socio – economic implication to migration to Kerala. The study concludes that the migrants are making a revolutionary change in the employment opportunities of service sector of Kerala, the vulnerabilities faced by the migrants in Kerala in terms of low paid, long hours of work, substandard accommodation, the exploitative employers, subcontractors illegal wage deduction and also the threats of the state of increasing number of crimes posed by the migrants in Kerala

Sreedharan and Murali (2018) study mainly focused on the migrant worker's attitude towards the native peoples of Kerala and the native peoples' attitude towards the migrant population in the context of social integration in Kerala. By using the two-dimensional model of Ethnocide to measure the integration level in Kerala and classifies the migration level into four stages: Assimilation, integration, marginalization, and separation. The wide difference in the culture and language always stands as a barrier in the assimilation and integration of the migrants into the Kerala community and elements of social exclusion are prevalent in varying dimensions in Kerala.

Viswanath (2019) revealed that the interstate migrants working in the unorganized sectors hail from poor socio-economic background and their marginal propensity to save and remit to their native places is high. Regarding the living and working conditions, migrant workers are highly satisfied with living in Kerala. The problem of discrimination and occupational problems are faced by the migrants in Kerala and the majority of the migrants are facing social security issues.

In a study conducted under the Kerala Institute of Labor and Employment (KILE) by the investigator Shajeena (2020) on the topic 'Interstate migrant workers in Kerala: a study on their work and life,' the male-dominated interstate migration stream is catalyzed by the network of friends and relatives. The lack of awareness on the part of migrants acts as the major hindrance in accessing laws to safeguard themselves in Kerala. Only a meager percentage of the interstate migrants have social relationships with the native people denoting low cultural diffusion even though most of the migrants have stayed in Kerala for more than 5 years.

Khadar, et. al (2025) in their article named "interstate migration and food security in Kerala, India: unraveling interdependencies challenges and policy imperatives" indicates that although Kerala's longstanding rationing system and comprehensive institutional commitment to hunger mitigation and malnutrition reduction programs has played a pivotal role in ensuring food security, hunger mitigation and malnutrition reduction for its resident population but existing framework reveals a critical gaps when extended to interstate migrants and migrant workers in Kerala remains excluded mainly from accessing subsidized food grains and a significant proportion continues to face food security

Conclusion

From the ongoing discussion, it was found that numerous studies have explored labor migration, particularly emphasizing push-pull factors and regional development. However, there has been scant effort to analyze the precise reasons for the clustering of migrants in the construction sector and its impact on the migrant's savings, investments and indebtedness. Therefore, the current study holds significant relevance within this framework.

Human history is a history of migration. Migration in common parlance means a change of residence from one place to another. The reason behind this change may be due to voluntary or compulsory forces. It is normally considered and expected as a way to emancipate from the vicious circle of poverty. The existing socio-economic and demographic conditions of a place have a vital role in the migration process. The disparities in the labor supply in the form of deficit or surplus are mitigated by migration. Although the asymmetry in the level of economic development accentuates migration on the other side it works as a catalyst of social and economic development in the areas of origin and destination.

The history of trade contacts of Kerala to the Western and Middle Eastern countries dates back to 3000 BC. Exports of spices, sandalwood, and other handicrafts found markets abroad through the seaports of Kerala. Indians especially people of Kerala had a long tradition of migration to Gulf countries. A sudden spurt in the migration to the Gulf region was witnessed after the discovery of oil fields and the commencement of oil drilling on a commercial basis. The oil price hike that occurred in Gulf countries in October 1973 marks an efflux to the migration process. Oil price hikes and concomitant growth in wealth led to a boom in the construction sector and other economic activities witnessed a sudden upsurge. The result was the unprecedented demand for unskilled and semi-skilled laborers, which was captured by the labor community of Kerala.

The academic milieu always attempted to probe the causes and effects of the movement of people in a scientific manner through migration theories and models. The reasons for migration can be rational, driven by individuals and households seeking utility through higher emoluments, or structurally influenced by capitalist development-initiated views. The chaos in labor migration got its explanation from the first Development economist, Adam Smith as a function of the difference in the demand and supply of labor at different locations. Gravity model, a mathematical model tries to analyze the interaction between two or more places with the premise that the size of the masses and the degree of interaction is directly proportional and the degree of interaction is indirectly proportional to the distance. Stated otherwise the gravity model postulates that migration exhibits a positive correlation with the population and is negatively associated with distance between origin and destination. By applying the idea in geography, the pattern flow of migration can be examined by Ravenstein.

*Chapter |***3***|*
Theoretical Framework

The starting point for the work of migration is credited to Ravenstein, who formulated the “Law of Migration” (Ravenstein, 1885, 1889). The celebrated theory was based on the British Census of 1881, which was published in the Royal Statistical Society on March 17, 1885, and in June 1889. His laws attempt to list out the migration in the following way.

1. Migration and distance- “The great body of our migrants only proceed a short distance” “migrants proceeding long distances generally go by preference to one of the great centers of commerce and industry
2. Migration by stages.- “There takes place consequently a universal shifting or displacement of the population which produces’ currents of migration’ setting in the direction of the great centers of commerce and industry which absorb the migrants “ the inhabitants of the country immediately surrounding a town of rapid growth flock into it; the gaps thus left in the rural population are filled up by migrants from more remote districts until the attractive force of one of our rapidly growing cities makes its influence felt step by step to the most remote corner of the kingdom “ the process of dispersion is the inverse of that absorption and exhibits similar features
3. Stream and counter stream – “Each main current of migration produces a compensating countercurrent” Urban–rural differences in propensity to migrate. -“The natives of towns are less migratory than those of the rural parts of the country”
4. The predominance of females among short-distance migrants. - “Females appear to predominate among short-journey migrants
5. Technology and migration. - “Does migration increase? I believe so! ... Wherever I was able to make a comparison I found that an increase in the means of locomotion and a development of manufactures and commerce have led to an increase of migration “
6. Dominance of the economic motive. - “Bad or oppressive laws, heavy taxation, and unattractive climate, uncongenial social surroundings, and even compulsion (slave trade, transportation), all have produced and are still producing currents of migration but none of these currents can compare in volume with that which

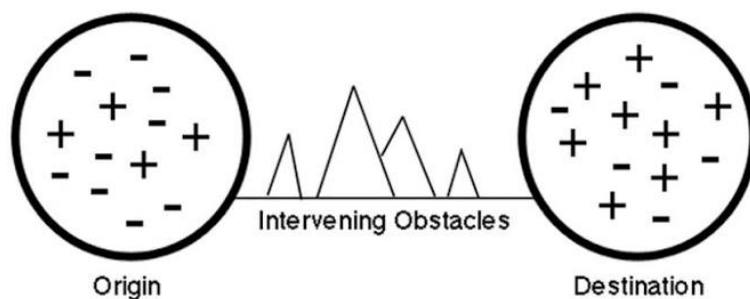
arises from the desire inherent in most men to ‘better’ themselves in material respects”(Ravenstien, 1885).

Everett S. Lee of the University of Pennsylvania in his “A Theory of Migration” (Lee,1966) defined migration as a permanent or semi-permanent change of residence. There is no restriction placed on the distance, voluntary or compulsory nature, or between external or internal aspects of the migration. However, he identified a migration involves an origin, a destination, and an intervening set of obstacles.

Four factors which enter into the decision to migrate and the process of migration are

1. Factors associated with the area of origin
2. Factors associated with the area of destination
3. Intervening obstacles
4. Personal factors

In every area, numerous factors act as attracting factors that will hold or compel the people to stay in that area itself but at the same time, there will be some other factors that repel them from that area resulting in a decision to migrate.



The attracting factors in an area are represented by '+', repelling factors as '-', and factors to which a person is indifferent as 0. As given in Bentham's Utilitarian principle, every human being calculates pleasure and pain and tries to maximize pleasure and minimize pain. A prospective migrant calculates the '+' and '-' of both the area of origin and the area of destination and migration is the result of the individuals' expectation of the attractive factors in the destination area being surpassed by the repelling factors of the origin. The factors that inhibit movement are family, attachment to native land, etc... but the loss of employment, racial, religious, or political persecution, natural disasters, etc. compel them to migrate. In effect, migration is the

result of “push and pull” factors of the origin and destination. The expected utility at the destination should be overwhelmed by the disutility of the origin area. Migration is the net result of the conscious calculation and comparison of the migrant about the ‘+’ and ‘-’ factors at origin and destination and is also influenced by the intervening obstacles or impediments like distance, cost of transportation, man-made barriers, etc... Lee also identifies the influence of personal factors like personal sensitiveness, intelligence, awareness about the destination area, and personal contacts in the destination area as a factor which promotes migration process.

Based on the above hypothesis, Lee returned to the same theme and restated Ravenstein’s law in the volume of migration under varying conditions, the development of stream and counter stream, and the characteristics of the migrants.

On the volume of migration

1. The volume of migration within a given territory varies with the degree of diversity in areas included in that territory
2. The volume of migration varies with the diversity of people
3. The volume of migration is related to the difficulty of surmounting the intervening obstacles
4. The volume of migration varies with fluctuations in the economy
5. Unless severe checks are imposed, both volume and rate of migration tend to increase with time
6. The volume and rate of migration vary with the state of progress in a country or an area

On the stream and counter-stream

1. Migration tends to take place largely with well-defined streams.
2. For every major migration stream a counter stream develops
3. The efficiency of the stream (ratio of the stream to counter stream or the net redistribution of the population affected by the opposite flows) is high if the major factors in the development of a migration stream were minus factors at the origin

4. The efficiency of stream and counter stream tends to be low if the origin and destination are similar
5. The efficiency of migration streams will be high if the intervening obstacles are great
6. The efficiency of a migration stream varies with economic conditions being high in prosperous times and low in times of depression

On the characteristics of migrants

Migration is selective

1. Migrants responding primarily to plus factors at destination tend to be positively selective
2. Migrants responding primarily to minus factors are overwhelming to entire population groups, they may not be selected at all
3. Taking all migrants together, selection tends to be bi-modal
4. The degree of positive selection increases with the difficulty of the intervening obstacles
5. The heightened propensity to migrate at certain stages of the life cycle is important in the selection of migrants
6. The characteristics of the migrants tend to be intermediate between the characteristics of the population at origin and the population at destination (Lee 1966, 295-7).

By denying any relationship between population mobility and distance the theory of intervening opportunity (Stouffer, 1940) proposes that the number of persons going to a given place is directly proportional to the number of opportunities at that distance and inversely proportional to the number of intervening opportunities (Stouffer, 1940).

3.1. Lewis – Fei- Ranis model of Rural-Urban migration

Rural-urban migration, the foremost component of the migration stream was well explained in the Neo-Classical macro framework. Asymmetry in the development of the level between rural and urban areas is the crucial factor behind migration. A formal model of rural–urban migration was formulated by Professor Arthur Lewis in 1954 in his famous book “Economic Development with Unlimited Supplies of Labour” (Lewis,

1954). In the Two-sector model, Arthur Lewis exhibits the economics of labor transfer from the rural subsistence sector to the urban industrial sector. With the assumption that an unlimited supply of labor is available in the subsistence sector, the higher wages paid in the urban capitalistic industrial sector attract labor from the subsistence sector; consequently, labor migrates from the rural area to the urban area by which surplus labor in the traditional agriculture sector is transferred to modern industrial sector.

Arthur Lewis's theory was formalized and extended by John Fei and Gustav Ranis in 1961.

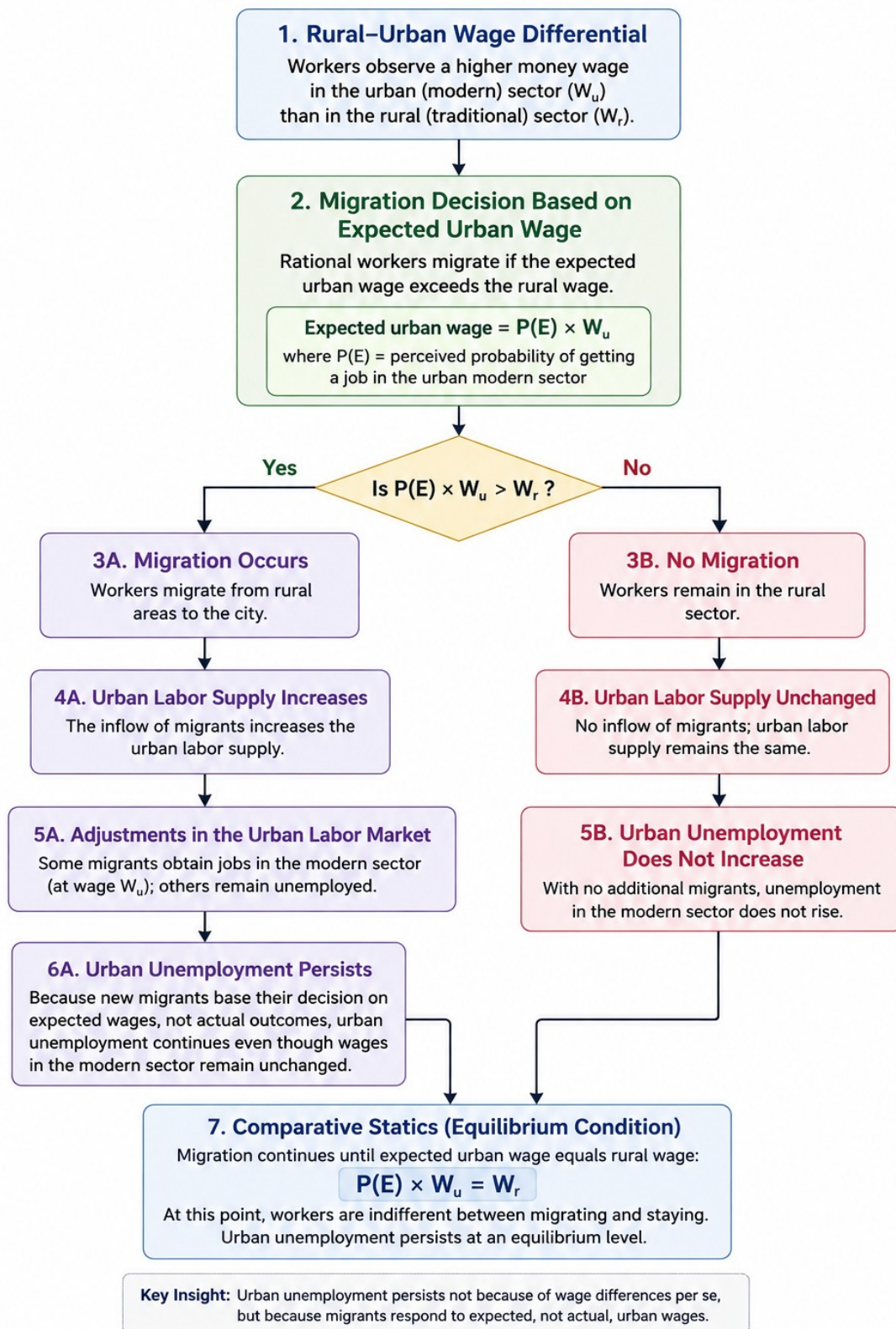
3.2. Todaro model

The rural-urban wage difference as the key determinant of labor migration was developed by the Todaro model (Todaro, 1969). The model postulated that migration proceeds in response to urban-rural differences in expected rather than actual earnings. Each migrant considers the expected gains from migration and whenever the expected gain is maximized the people have a propensity to migrate. The human capital characteristics of the migrants exert influences on the wage and the likelihood of getting a job at the destination. The basic characteristics of the migration models are as follows

1. Rational economic consideration of relative cost and benefits including financial and psychological factors stimulates migration.
2. The migration process is affected by the expected or anticipated rather than actual urban-rural real wage differences
3. The probability of getting an urban job is inversely related to the urban unemployment rate
4. Migration rates over urban job opportunity growth rates are not only possible but rational and even likely in the face of wide urban-rural expected income differentials.

TODARO MODEL (1969)

A Model of Labor Migration and Urban Unemployment



With the above propositions, the rural-to-urban migration is explained as a two-stage process, one being the migration of the unemployed or those employed in the agriculture sector to the urban areas and the second being those who are migrated to the modern sector which is characterized by higher earnings compared to the zero or low earning traditional sector.

3.3. Sjaastad's human investment theory

In the model of human investment of Larry, A. Sjaastad (Sjaastad, 1962) the people who decide to migrate are rational and they make a cost-benefit calculation and migration takes place whenever there is a positive net return from migration. In this model migration is just like an investment in human capital, a potential migrant considering his skill will make a judicious analysis of the material cost of travelling, the costs associated with moving and looking for work, the time and effort needed for adapting to a new language and culture and also the psychological cost of forgoing the old ties and getting mingled with new situations. Thus, human capital theory emphasizes that the migrant's age and human capital skills like education and training have a pivotal role to play in the decision-making process of a potential migrant which can be presented as

$$n ER(0) = \int_0^{\infty} [P_1(t) \cdot P_2(t) \cdot Y_d(t) - P_3(t) \cdot Y_0(t)] e^{-rt} dt - C(0) \quad 0$$

Where $ER(0)$ is the anticipated net return from migration which a prospective migrant calculates before the decision to migrate at time 0, t is the time

Zelinsky (1971) provided a framework for the territorial mobility of the population as the hypothesis of mobility transition. Proposing definite, patterned regularities in the personal mobility growth patterns, through space-time during the recent history, he establishes regularities as the inevitable component of the modernization process. Looking at migration from the broader perspective of migration and all forms of movements in society, he connects migration transition and vital transition in fertility and mortality as parallel. The simultaneous occurrence of the two processes in an interdependent manner affects the overall demographic and residential behavior of the society. He identifies five stages of mobility transition in connection with the characteristic features of the five stages socio-economic development of a society.

1. Pre-modern traditional society- Relatively stable population size, only little genuine residential migration, and limited circulation allowed by the customary practices are the features of this stage.
2. Early transitional society- this stage exhibits an upsurge in fertility accompanied by a migration of people from rural to urban areas, colonization of domestic and borderlands, and immigration of skilled persons from abroad along with increased circulation.
3. Late transitional society-population growth slows down naturally resulting in a reduction in rural-urban migration, and emigration is peculiar to this phase. Different forms of circulation show an increasing tendency in terms of magnitude and complexity.
4. Advanced society- a reduction in vital factors like fertility and mortality gives way to a limited increase in population. Although rural-urban migration continues at a slower pace, this stage is significant in the inter-urban and intra-urban migration.
5. Super advanced society-the fall in the residential migration exclusively limited to inter-urban and intra-urban and the increase and decline in various forms of circulation distinguishes this stage from the earlier ones. Strict control on the mobility within and between countries also makes this stage different from other stages.

The new economics of migration (Oded Stark and Bloom 1984) theory holds the idea that the decision to migrate is not taken by an individual autonomously but is also affected by the decisions of the larger social units like families or households. Wage differences between different regions are not a necessary condition for migration; along with it the incentives emerging from the family also motivate the migration process. Family not only tries to maximize expected income from migration but also reduce risks connected with various market failures and also maintain a diversified labor portfolio in the domestic and foreign labor market. Some of the family members are allocated to the economic activities of the domestic economy and some are sent to the labor market of the outside political boundary. This will help to keep the status quo even if the domestic or local economic condition becomes worse and fails to bring

sufficient income as that shortfall can be compensated with the help of remittances from the migrant laborers.

3.4. Dual labor market theory

The main proponent of this theory is Piore (1979), who proposes that international migration is the result of the constant demand for immigrant labor emerging from the developed regions. There is a chronic and unavoidable need for the migrant workers. This condition emerges from the four characteristics of the economically developed regions.

1. Structural inflation- the wage paid to the laborers reflects the demand and supply conditions of the laborers in the society along with the status, prestige, and social quality of the labor. Employers cannot attract workers for unskilled work at the bottom of the occupational hierarchy by offering a higher wage without making a corresponding proportionate increase in the job hierarchy. This problem of increasing wages throughout the job hierarchy to keep them in the same line of social expectation is known as structural inflation. This necessitates the import of migrant laborers who are ready to accept the low-wage
2. Motivational problem- occupational status plays a dominant role in the motivation of workers. Although income is the main motive behind any work, laborers are also concerned about the accumulation and maintenance of status in society. At the bottom of the job hierarchy, there is little chance for upward mobility so there are severe inescapable motivational problems. The migrant laborers view the bottom level of jobs as the means of earning money and no implications for the status or prestige
3. Economic dualism- there exists a duality between labor and capital. Capital which is a fixed factor of production can only be idle when there is lower demand but cannot be laid off. The cost of keeping capital idle is borne by the owners, labor being a variable factor of production, and reduction in demand results in the unemployment of laborers, the cost of which is borne by the labor itself. A rational capitalist will meet the stable permanent demand from the

capital and the seasonal demand by adding labor so that during fluctuations in demand they can release the labor without any cost.

Labourers engaged in the capital-intensive primary sector require considerable knowledge and experience to work and they work with the best equipment and tools. The specialized training and education undergone make them capable of getting stable employment. They are highly professionalized and there is a union working for their welfare. In contrast, the laborers engaged in the labor-intensive secondary sector are unskilled, confronted with unstable jobs, and are normally laid off during the off-season.

The existence of economic dualism results in the urge on the side of native laborers to seek employment in the primary capital-intensive sector where there are higher wages, security of jobs, and prospects for professional improvement. The unskilled, low-educated, unorganized, and unemployed migrant laborers find their employment and fill the shortfall in the labor-intensive secondary sector.

4. The demography of labor supply structural inflation along with motivational problems and economic dualism accentuates the demand for workers who are ready to do low-wage work under unpleasant and unstable working conditions with little scope for professional advancement. In the earlier days, this demand was filled by women and teenagers who are now replaced by migrant laborers from less developed regions.

The current issue of the large inflow of inter-state migrants from the northern and northeastern states to the construction, hotels, restaurants, and other sectors reflects in line with the predictions of the Dual labor market theory. Kerala is one of the states in pre-independent India known for the development initiatives implemented in the education system. Among the states in India, Kerala for the last several decades has been occupying first place in terms of literacy rate and low gender gap in educational attainment. The high human development and development of social infrastructure is incomparable with the other States. Kerala with its specific geographical position has been famous for outmigration since time immemorial. However, it flourished after the oil shocks of 1973. The oil crisis and the concomitant increased demand for laborers in

the Oil companies of the Gulf countries were captured as a means of earning income by the skilled and semi-skilled people of Kerala. The Gulf remittances enhanced the educational attainment among the new generation and had considerable implications in the state that witnessed unprecedented growth in the house construction sector due to migration. The highly educated and professionally qualified young population prefers to accept only white-collar jobs which confers them status and prestige. The emerging high demand for casual laborers in the construction sector placed a strain on the labor market. High outmigration coupled with the demographic change of falling fertility rates created a high demand for 3D (Dirty, Dangerous and Difficult) jobs in Kerala. The middlemen and contractors found it profitable to employ migrant laborers in these unskilled and unpleasant works in construction and other economic activities. The native laborers occupy the engineering and supervising areas which are not only safe and secure but also give some prestige and social status. However, the highly dangerous and risky jobs with low social status are filled by the unorganized and unskilled interstate migrants from far away States who are not bothered about income and do not consider status or prestige.

3.5. World systems theory

The theory of world systems associated with Immanuel Wallerstein (1974) analyzes international migration in connection with the capitalistic structure of the world market reckoning its tremendous expansion since the 16th century. Migration is analyzed as a consequence of the widening the capitalist economic relations into peripheral non-capitalistic societies. In the capitalistic development process, there occurs disruptions and dislocations which naturally result in the migration of laborers. As capitalism develops it tends to expand from the core regions or center to the peripheries or the larger portions of the world. Land, labor, and raw materials of the peripheries come under the dominance of the capitalistic market. Firms start production units in developing countries to take benefit of low wage rates which is accomplished through feminizing the workforce. The result is the creation of populations who are socially and economically uprooted and prone to migration in which some move to the cities and developed regions of the country and others move to the core capital originating

countries which are linked with the material and ideological conceptions of the modern globalized era.

3.6. Migration network theory (Edward J Taylor et al.,1986)

The momentum of migration is increased through the chain of networks. The interconnection between migrants; the migrants who have gone before and the non-migrants at the origin and destination are connected through kinship, friendship, and the shared community origin increases the channels of migration. Usually, migration takes place as a chain of networks. When the number of migrants in a particular area reaches its critical threshold, the expansion of networks will bring down the costs of migration and risks associated with migration. Lack of social ties in the new destination creates accommodation problems, language communication problems, documentation and identity proving problems, wastage of days in search of a job etc; If there is a critical threshold number of a network in an area, then migration becomes self-perpetuating. Networks are also a strategy for risk diversification.

Interstate labor migration to Kerala in recent years is a type of network migration. Those who came in the early 2000s became familiar with the places of Kerala and its languages to an extent. They have connections with local contractors and agents in Kerala. They bring their family members, friends, and relatives when they visit their native place. The potential migrants who are facing acute poverty and unemployment get information about job opportunities in Kerala. In the early days of migration, these networks were a blessing in finding jobs and accommodations which increased the propensity to migrate. The set of ties in the migrated place gives them confidence in the crisis and also helps them to communicate and enjoy weekends and holidays together. In markets, parks, theatres, beverage shops, grocery stores, vegetable shops, mobile shops, ATM/CDM centers, and even on buses in Kerala we can see the group of networks. A type of social gathering occurs in the parks and public places on holidays and weekends which ties up the migrants.

3.7. Institutional theory of migration

Institutional theory explains the emergence and role of private institutions and voluntary organizations to support, sustain, and promote the migration process. These institutions arise to cater to the needs of the migrants in the migrated countries or destination areas. They try to remove the hurdles erected in the destination areas that make the migration process difficult. They help to enforce the rights of migrants and to improve the treatment of the legal as well as undocumented migrants. They offer help to migrants in the form of counseling, social services, accommodation facilities, legal help, and insulation from immigration law enforcement authorities. The unprecedented inflow of interstate migrants creates a lot of chaos and tensions in the management of these migrant laborers throwing open a host of issues including accommodation problems in Kerala. Human rights violations and exploitations are emerging in many migrant agglomerated places like Perumbavoor, Aluva, and Kazhakkootam and the major migrant zones in Kerala. Voluntary organizations like the Centre for Migration and Inclusive Development, KISMAT etc. are the institution that ensures basic living conditions for migrants in Kerala.

3.8. Cumulative causation theory

This theory is associated with Gunnar Myrdal and Douglas S Massey (Myrdal; Massey, 1957, 1990). It states that international migration tends to sustain itself in other ways that result in more movement of people across countries over time. Each migration tends to make migration cumulative. So that subsequent migration and additional movement are likely to take place. Six socio-economic factors are identified as the potential factors that make migration a cumulative process. These include the distribution of income, the distribution of land, the organization of agriculture, culture, the regional distribution of human capital, and the social meaning of work.

The distribution of income: the main motive behind any migration is the increase in absolute income or diversification of the risk by a judicious distribution of labor force in the domestic market as well as in the outside market akin to the diversified portfolio method of risk reduction by not putting all eggs into one basket. Along with this motive, people also migrate to improve their relative income to which they compare

themselves in society. The motivation to migrate is influenced by the notion that some families in their group are moving up in the income ladder and hence they feel relatively deprived which promotes the propensity to migrate. Income inequality and relative deprivation go through a series of phases and accelerate outmigration (Stark, Taylor, and Yitzhaki 1986; Stark and Taylor 1989; Stark 1991; Taylor 1992).

The distributions of land: migrants originating from rural areas tend to invest their earnings in the purchase of land. The accumulation of land is done as a prestige value or to ensure safe income during the retirement period. International migrants use their higher earnings to own farmland which is left fallow during their migration period. This withdrawal of more land from production necessitates more pressure on local outmigration. (Rhoades,1978; Reichert,1981; Mines,1984; Wiest 1984).

The organization of agrarian production has high access to finance capital compared to non-migrant families, a migrant organizes agricultural operations on his land by using more capital-intensive techniques of production like machinery, herbicides, irrigation methods, use of fertilizers improved seeds, etc. This tendency will result in a type of technological unemployment or displacement of labor which perpetuates greater migration

The culture of migration-when a person migrates for the first time the main consideration will be to earn money or income generation. But subsequently, migration makes a change in the values and cultural perceptions in favor of future outmigration. Migration creates a stronger concept of social mobility, a change in the taste and style of life, and an inspiration to move again and again making migration cumulative

The regional distribution of human capital - Migration is selective as in the initial phases those who tend to migrate are the well-educated, skilled, and highly motivated people from a community but in the later stages, it becomes less selective due to the shortage of human capital in the sending areas accompanied by accumulation in the recipient areas. Over time the accumulation of human capital reinforces economic growth in receiving areas while its simultaneous depletion in sending areas exacerbates their stagnation, thereby further enhancing the conditions for migration (Myrdal, 1957; Greenwood, 1981,1985; Greenwood, Hunt, and McDowell,1987)

Social labeling- Once a significant number of immigrants are recruited into particular occupations in the long term, they become culturally labelled as immigrant jobs which later leads to the reluctance of the native laborers to engage in those jobs resulting in high demand for the immigrant's labor. In this way, immigration changes the social definition of work causing a certain class of jobs to be defined as stigmatizing and viewed as culturally inappropriate for native workers (Bohning,1972; Piore,1979)

Many of the propositions in this theory hold well in the case of interstate labor migration to Kerala. Focused Group Discussions with migrants in Kerala revealed that many of them have been staying and earning here in Kerala for more than 15 years. They are now able to speak and communicate with the local people as they wish. The dressing style and food habits etc changed a lot after the migration. Similar social labeling is taking place in Kerala. Jobs of cleaners, suppliers of food in hotels and restaurants, construction workers etc are being labeled in Kerala as the jobs of the so-called “bhais”.

3.9. Migration Zone theory

Propounded by G. Taylor (Taylor,1949), the Migration zone theory is an attempt to explain the diffusion and spread of population from the cradle land of Central Asia, situated in the vicinity of the Caspian and Aral seas. The main propositions such as the centrifugal movement of population from the cradle land of Central Asia to the nearby peninsulas and the existence of the several primitive racial zones in every continent can be cited as evidence of the successive migration. Furnishing the presence of the Diaspora of the primitive races in the peripheral areas as evidence, the theory establishes the movement of the population from the central zone areas to the periphery areas.

3.10 Conclusion

A comprehensive analysis of the major theories of migration shed light the fact that the root cause of migration is the existence of regional disparities in economic development prompting the people to move from the backward underdevelopment regions to the developed areas. These movements foster to improve the living conditions of the

migrants to a great extent. International migration is the manifestation of the inequality in the development among nations in the world and internal migration is the outcome of the unequal development of the states in a country. The push and pull factors of migration are the end result of these uneven developments between different areas. In addition to the above, migration theories reiterating interstate migration to Kerala can be attributed to the state's stark developmental contrast with other regions, coupled with notable advancements in transportation and communication infrastructure. Kerala's development trajectory, marked by significant investments in social sectors like education and healthcare, has led to comparatively higher living standards and human development indices. This stark disparity in development between Kerala and other states prompts individuals from less economically developed regions to migrate in search of better opportunities and improved quality of life. Furthermore, the improvements in transportation and communication facilities have facilitated easier access to Kerala from neighboring states and beyond. Enhanced connectivity through roads, railways, and airways, along with the widespread availability of communication networks, has reduced the barriers to migration, making Kerala an increasingly attractive destination for those seeking economic and social advancement

Chapter |4|

***Exploring the Dynamics of Migration:
Understanding Types, Reasons, Impacts, and
Welfare Programmes of Migration***

Migration is a complex and multifaceted phenomenon that plays a pivotal role in shaping the socio economic and demographic landscape of any region. It involves the movement of people from one geographical area to another, driven by a variety of factors ranging from economic necessity and employment opportunities to environmental distress, social obligations, conflict, and aspirations for a better quality of life. This chapter delves into the intricate dynamics of migration by systematically examining its various types—such as internal and international, voluntary and forced, seasonal and permanent—along with the underlying push and pull factors that motivate individuals and households to migrate. It also critically analyzes the wide-ranging impacts of migration on both the origin and destination regions, including labor market shifts, urbanization, social integration challenges, remittance flows, and changes in household livelihoods. Furthermore, the chapter evaluates existing welfare programs and policy interventions aimed at safeguarding migrant populations, ensuring social security, and facilitating inclusive development. Through this comprehensive exploration, the chapter seeks to offer a nuanced understanding of migration as both a survival strategy and a developmental opportunity in contemporary socio-economic contexts

Mobility is an inherent characteristic of all populations unless specific policies or other factors are in place that limit or control that mobility (Skeldon, 2018). The movement of population has been and remains an essential component of economic development, social change, and political organization (Jackson, 1969). This movement involves a disassociation from the existing usual and familiar surroundings to a n unfamiliar and unknown environment. Usually, the destination places will be entirely unfamiliar and distinct to the person, but in some cases, there will be some information and will be prepared for the new environment. In both cases, the person encountered the problem of accepting and adapting to the new challenging situation. Nevertheless, migration stands as a survival strategy for the poor and the landless people (Kundu, 1986).

Human mobility is of two kinds- Circulation and Migration. Circulation, as Zelinsky observed, is “ a great variety of movements, usually short term, repetitive or cyclical in character, but all having in common the lack of any declared intention of a permanent or longstanding change of residence”. (Zelinsky, 1971). Nomadic movements, transhuman pilgrimage, tourism, commuting, temporary movements associated with

natural disasters followed by a return to the same place after the disaster, etc. come under this category. On the contrary, Migration connotes a movement from one administrative unit to another which usually ends up in a permanent change of residence. Migration covers both internal when movements take place within the boundaries of a State or political, regional, and external when population mobility takes place between countries. Migrations are embarked from an area of origin and are completed at areas of destination (Kliot, 2004).

Migration constitutes the third component of population change after fertility and mortality. Migration with its deep roots in the history of mankind is a matter of concern for the demographers, politicians, anthropologists, sociologists, economists, and other disciplines of knowledge. With its long-lasting effects on the size and growth rate of the population at the origin and destination places migration becomes a demographic problem. Economists look at migration as stemming from the imbalances in the economic development between two regions and as the variations in the demand for and supply of laborers in the source areas and destination areas. By its cross-border movement characteristics involving two different political boundaries, it emerges as a political concern. Migration becomes an academic milieu for sociologists due to its capacity to influence the social structure and cultural system of the two distinct areas.

A migrant is a person who moves from one administrative unit to another. According to the Census of India, a person is considered to be a migrant if his place of birth or the place of last residence is different from the place of enumeration

Migration stream or migration current: group of migrants with a common origin and destination Gross migration or turnover of an area is the total number of in-migrants and out-migrants of an areas

If the analysis is restricted to two units connected by the migration stream, the total size of both stream and counter stream is called the gross interchange between the two areas and the difference between the two is referred to as the net stream or net interchange between the areas

4.1 Typology of migration

Migration can be categorized into various types based on different criteria such as distance, permanence, direction, motivation etc.

<i>Space</i>	: inter-continental, international, inter-state, intra-state
<i>Time</i>	: temporary (seasonal) or permanent
<i>Distance</i>	: long or short
<i>Boundaries crossed</i>	: internal, external
<i>Numbers involved</i>	: individual or mass
<i>Decision-making</i>	: voluntary, impelled, or forced

The political organization of migration: sponsored or free

<i>Causes</i>	: economic and non-economic
<i>Aims</i>	: conservative, innovative
<i>Stability aspect</i>	: casual, temporary, semi-permanent, permanent

4.2 Reasons for Migration

Migration occurs when an individual decides that it is better to move or depart than to stay in the existing place with the expectation that the difficulties of moving will be offset by the expected benefits in the form of high returns at the destination. The individual decision to migrate is generally explained as the manifestation of the interplay of the two forces- pressures or the dissatisfaction associated with the place of residence which compels the individual to move termed as 'push factors' or 'impulsive factors' and the attractive or persuading factors at the destination place inducing a person to move from the place of origin denoted as the 'pull factors' or the 'centripetal factors' in migration.

Migration is usually a result of multi-variant factors; nevertheless, in most cases single factor dominates the process holding back the other less noteworthy factors. Both internal and international migration shed light on the predominance of economic factors where the displacement of the population happens from the backward or stagnating region to the comparatively developed regions expecting better economic opportunities. Miserable economic conditions and insufficient opportunities push the people to search

for areas with ample opportunities fetching them higher incomes to emancipate them from the current state of hopelessness. Low productivity of the rural sector, unemployment, underemployment, low income, and low levels of consumption induces people to move towards urban areas expecting substantially better conditions. Population explosion and the consequent reduction in the per capita availability of cultivable land aggravating the issues of unemployment and underemployment make migration the only option for these people to lift their families out of the vicious circles of poverty. International and internal migration is motivated by a series of factors such as better amenities, higher wages, prospects for earning a higher income, regularity of employment, amenities of modern life, an advanced educational system, an improved health care system etc. These factors pull the people especially from the less developed areas to the developed urban regions. Higher industrialization, advancement in technology, developed transport and communication systems, and a prosperous commercial atmosphere mitigate the cost of migration and persuade prospective migrants toward urban centers. Highly talented and professionally skilled people find their destination in developed areas where they can find job opportunities to suit their abilities. Uneven distribution of population, different rates of growth of population across places work as demographic stimulants for internal migration. Rural areas characterized by higher fertility rates and consequent higher population drift the rural folk to move towards urban regions. In the internal migration stream, the mobility of women usually occurs as a result of marriage. The influence of socio -cultural factors, the urge to have freedom, the tendency to move away by breaking traditional constraints, family conflicts, community exclusion causing isolation etc exert heavy pressure on the younger population to decide to migrate. The leverage of government policies on migration acts as the institutional factor encouraging and sometimes discouraging factors affecting the movements of the population. Geographical and environmental factors causing climatic variations, drought, flood etc also have a profound influence on the migration process.

Table 4.1 Factors Cause Migration

Reasons for migration	Push factors	Pull factors
Economic demographic	The poverty of the family unemployment in the native place, Low wages in the domicile area, Large family size, High fertility rate, Indebtedness of the family, Agriculture backwardness, Landlessness of the family, Lack of educational opportunities, Irregularity of the work, Lack of industrial employment	Large employment opportunities, High wage rate, Chance of getting regular employment, Developed educational system, High Economic development and urbanization, Industrialization, Pressures from friends and relatives at the destination area, Pro-labour policies of international organizations
Political	Political violence and insecurity, Bad governance, Corruption Anti-national laws, Belongingness of Cultural and religious minority group	Safety of life, Political freedom, Security of living, Pro-migration laws and policies, Friendly relationship frontier countries
Social and cultural	Religious discrimination, Social exclusion, Gender discrimination, Marriage	Freedom from discrimination, Inclusive development, Family reunion

Source:- Mansoor A & B Quillin 2006

4.3 Impacts of migration

Migration with its inherent capacity can contribute to inclusive and sustainable development of both the places and people involved in it (UN, 2019). The impact of migration on the source and destination area is multifaceted. There exist divergent arguments encompassing the positive and negative impacts of migration in the sending and receiving states. All social scientists are of the unique opinion that migration is a dynamic process with its manifestations in the origin and destination place. It is argued that despite the poverty reduction effects, migration enhances the human capital formation of the migrant's family (Oberai, 1998).

The optimistic side looks at migration from the poverty reduction role in the source area by shifting the population from the low-income rural sector to the high-income urban areas. Besides, the movement of population will increase the income of the left-behind people in the source area. The households in the area of origin directly benefited from the remittances made by the migrants. The income multiplier effects resulting from the expenditure of the remittances receiving household will increase the income of the non-migrant households in the source area. The increase in the local economic activities that emerged from the additional spending of migrants in the destination area will create economies of scale and a multiplier effect. The inflow and concentration of immigrants in low-status and high-risk jobs will reserve good jobs for the native laborers. (Taylor, 2001).

The pessimistic counterpart of migration portrays migration as a curse on the sending and receiving countries. Approaching an increase in per capita income in the source economy through migration is possible only through a simultaneous sacrifice of a fall in income resulting from the leakage of the workforce from the domestic economy through migration. Migrants' remittances from the destination area cannot fully compensate for the loss of labor and capital arising from migration leading to less productive use of agricultural land and an increase in poverty. In effect, migration operates like a labor export from the source area and the remittances are the payments for the labor export. The effects of migration in the sending place will be like "Dutch disease". The result of migration is the adverse effect on local production and the fall in income is not advisable. The negative Income multiplier effect resulting from the fall in income and production turns the local economic activities further downward. Migration contextualizes native laborers to compete with the migrants in the labor market and the consequent flight of the native laborers to the less immigrant-affected labor market will have a diffusing effect of migration to all sectors and regions of the economy (Taylor, 2001).

The contribution of migrants' savings and remittances in stabilizing and improving living conditions is profound with its effect on the intra-household and inter-household relations and in the growth pattern and development of the sending areas. The impact of migration on labor market transformations, on the preferences of workers, and their

perceptions towards work though seem to be less tangible is of great significance (Ravi Srivastava, 2011). One of the most promising and significant effects of migration to the native region is the counter flow of remittances which accounts for the second largest financial flow to third world countries after FDI surpassing the Official Development Assistance. Among the South Asian Countries, India stands First as the remittance recipient (Thimothy & Sasikumar, 2012).

The effects of migration on the size of the population, growth rate, and fertility pattern are profound and long-lasting. By transplanting the most fertile young population from one area to the other, disturbing the normal family life, migration exerts its influence on the demographic indicators of sex ratio, birth rate and growth rate of population, and age structure of the sending and receiving regions alike. Migration by offering an opportunity for the flow of ideas and dissemination of information culminates as the catalyst for social change through cultural diffusion and social integration. In the aftermath of migration, cultural pluralism will be manifested when the migrants in the group try to recreate and practice their culture, customs, and food habits at the destination. Migrants, normally unidentified people, suffer from various kinds of isolation and dejection from society resulting in mental stress and strains probably making them liable to indulge in anti-social activities like crime, drug abuse, etc. adversely affecting the social setup.

The political effects of the movement of population are usually a risky affair. The lack of the right to vote in the destination areas reduces the bargaining capacity of the migrants and the formation of unions in the host place. Creating resilience in the administrative territory comprising of different races and creeds without any disputes and clashes necessitates framing suitable programs and policies inclusive of all. Environment, a migrating factor, is also impacted by the process of migration. The rural-urban migration puts overwhelming pressure on the urban settlement and results in the formation of slums and shanty colonies. The influx of population and inevitable overcrowding situation gives way to over-exploitation of natural resources, the problem of sewage and waste management leading to environmental issues. Internal labor migration has become an important livelihood strategy for many poor groups across the world (Deshingkar et al., 2009). Migrants are the most disadvantaged community in

every society devoid of various welfare programs and are constrained from mainstream education, health, basic living, and so on. They are always subjected to exploitation and harassment and are vulnerable to different adversities of life. In the asymmetric pattern of regional development, internal migration in India is characterized by the movement of the population from the most populous and poorest states to the comparatively developed and urbanized states of the country. Internal migration in its magnitude surpasses international migration in the world and India. Sometimes international migration gives way to internal migration by creating an imbalance in the form of deficit and surplus of labor force in some regions. Nevertheless, within the circle of internal migration stream, male migration dominates over female migration despite the Indian custom which necessitates female migration after marriage. Within the internal migration, rural areas with their concentration of poor, landless and unemployed people contribute a major chunk of Rural–urban migration.

4.4 Migration: International Perspective

The UN estimates that 272 million people of which two-thirds are laborers constituting 3.5% of the World are migrants. Determined by economic, geographic, and demographic factors international migration with its non-uniform character shows distinct patterns and corridors. Among the Continents, the data shows that Europe stands first by accommodating 82 million international migrants followed by North America. The unique feature of international migration is that two-thirds of the international migrants concentrate in a few numbers of 20 countries. The long-term trend of international migration accord from developing economies to larger economies such as the USA, Germany, Russian Federation, UAE and Saudi Arabia, and reports show that about 56% of the international migrants found their place of destination at more developed regions of the world (UN, 2019). The country-wise destination of inter- national migration shows a high inclination towards the USA where 51 million people constitute 19% of the international migrants' hosts followed by Germany and Saudi Arabia. India being the first largest populated country in the World occupies first position in supplying international migrants about 17.5 million people at the global level followed by Mexico and China with 11.8 million and 10.7 million people respectively Gender wise migration shows the preponderance of male migration

accounting for 52% of the international migrants. With considerable variations across developed regions and income groups, the average age of the international migrants is recorded as 39. (UN International Migration Report, 2019).

4.5 Legal Support for the Migrants at the International Level

An Exploration in the International Framework International Labour Organization (ILO), an agency of the UN has formulated many laws and policies to safeguard the interests and protect and ensure the human rights issues of migrants and their families from time to time. The major milestones in the formulation of legal support for migrants at the international level are the following:

The pioneer legal step associated with migration for employment found its place in the ILO Convention, 1949 which came into practice in 1952. This convention, particularly focusing its attention on recruitment aims to promote the working conditions of the migrants to a reasonable standard. It emphasizes the equal and unbiased treatment of the migrants and the nationals in laws, regulations, and administrative practices associated with the living conditions, working conditions, remunerations, social security measures, employment opportunities, taxes and their access to justice.

The 1975 ILO convention, which came into force in 1978 marks an antidote concerning migration in abusive conditions and the promotion of equality of opportunity and treatment of migrant workers constitutes the maiden multilateral attempt concerning irregular migration and to stand against traffickers of human beings. The distinct feature of the convention is that it emphasizes ensuring the basic human rights of all migrant workers as the obligation of the Member States. Legally equipping lawfully present migrant workers and their families with equal access to employment, the right to join trade unions, cultural rights and individual and collective freedom, the Convention establishes its unique identity. The protection of the Rights of all migrant workers and members of their families got attention in the International Convention of the 1990s with its entry into force in the year 2003 constitutes the most honorable international treaty on migrant rights. By introducing an international definition for the various categories of migrants, the treaty formalizes the responsibility of state parties in heaving the rights of migrant workers and their families. The initial attempt in the form

of a multi-lateral legal instrument to establish global labor standards for domestic workers ensuring the same basic rights as other workers got its prime importance in the ILO Convention of 2011, which emphasized the Decent Work for Domestic Workers. The treaty tries to assure domestic workers, regardless of their migration status, have the same and equal basic rights as other workers.

This convention stands for reasonable hours of work, fair and transparent terms and conditions of employment and demands the employers of domestic workers to give due consideration to their fundamental principles and rights at work encompassing the freedom of association enabling and enhancing the collective bargaining strength.

Table 4.2 Legal support for the Migrants at the International level

Year	International milestone	Legal support	Focus Area	Goal
1948	Universal declaration of Human rights	Established fundamental human rights and equality principles to applicable to all people including migrants	Human dignity Equality Nondiscrimination	Dignity Human Rights Access to justice for all Migrants
1951	Refugee convention 1951	Created international legal protection for refugees and established the principle of non-refoulement	Refugee protection Non-refoulement Access to rights	
1966	International covenants	Strengthened protection of civil, political , economic, social and cultural rights for all persons including migrants	Civil & political rights Economic ,social and cultural rights Equality before law	
1975	ILO migrant workers convention	Strengthened protection against exploitation, discrimination and abuse of migrant workers	Fair treatment Working conditions Equality of opportunity	
1990	UN migrant workers convention adopted	Adopted the international convention of the protection of the rights of all migrant workers and members of their families	Protection of rights Family unity Equality and non discrimination	
2003	Convention enters into force	Became legally effective, creating binding obligation for states parties to protect migrant workers and their families	Legally binding State obligations Rights enforcements	
2006	UN High level	Promoted international	Dialogue	

	dialogue on Migration and development	cooperation and policy dialogue on migration, development and rights	Cooperation Development	
2015	Sustainable Development Goals	Migration included in Global development Agenda; commitment to safe, orderly and regular migration and protection of rights	Safe migration Decent work Inclusion and development	
2016	New York Declaration for Refugees and Migrants	UN member states committed to strengthen cooperation on refugees and migrants and initiated process towards global compact	International cooperation Responsibility sharing Rights and protection	
2018	Global compact for safe, orderly and Regular migration	First comprehensive UN negotiated framework covering all dimensions of international migration. Non-binding but politically significant	Human rights Safe & regular migration Access to services International cooperation	
2022	First international Migration Review forum	Reviewed implementation of the Global compact and adopted the progress declaration to guide future actions	Review and monitoring Accountability Future cooperation	
2024	UN committee General Comment NO. 6	Clarified how the migrant workers convention and Global compact work together to better protect migrant workers and their families	Clarification of rights Stronger protection Alignment of frameworks	

4.6 Labour market dynamics and internal migration: Indian perspective

The uneven pattern of development and the diversified social structures played a profound influence on the size and pattern of internal migration in India. Structural change and corresponding changes in the economy after globalization had a devastating effect on the migration process. The major stream of migration in India the rural-to-urban migration stems from the survival strategy adopted by the rural landless, downtrodden, and backward communities of the less developed regions. The predominance of males compared to females which is observed in the world migration pattern is visible in the Indian migration too.

Table 4.3 Migration in India

Census year	Total migration (in millions)
1971	167
1981	213
1991	232
2001	315
2011	450

Source: Census Migration D Series Data

The inter-state migration exceeds the international migration in India due to the diversities in the pattern of development between different states which motivates the internal migration stream. The migration history of India shows some states like Punjab, Haryana, Delhi, etc. always received migrants from various parts of the country, while states like Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Odisha, etc. acted as the labor-sending states in the inter-state migration stream. The peculiar features of the Indian labor market are its high dependence on agriculture, the predominance of the informal sector, lack of unemployment insurance, the overwhelming nature of self-employed, gender bias in wages, and sector preference in employment along with seasonal migration. Social institutions like caste, tribe, kinship etc also play a major role in access to job opportunities. Inequality exists in various dimensions; organized vis-a-vis unorganized employment, across occupational sectors, wages and pay structures, quality of work, and the access to labor market. Labour market segmentation also poses issues with inequalities. Besides economic factors, increasing occupational and geographical mobility aggravates the problem of wage differential in the Indian context. The Indian labor market is well known for its segmentation based on occupational skill, industry-wise, and sector-wise. (Dev, 2017).

The share of informal sector and informal employment in the total employment is very high in India constituting 85% and 93% respectively in 2011-12 (Ghose, 2016). The unprecedented growth of informal employment in the formal and informal sectors in recent years warrants the need for formulating appropriate policies for improving the working conditions and enhancing the emolument to the workers in the informal sectors. (Kannan, 2014). There exists inequality in the wage both in the rural and urban

areas among regular and casual workers and it is significantly increasing after the 1980s onwards. Although differences in the endowment of skills and qualifications are the basis for the inequality, casual workers due to low educational attainment and technical attainment are the disadvantaged group among the laborers in India. Another significant observation regarding the labor market in India is the increasing tendency of inequalities among different social groups along with the segmentation caused by caste and community. Labour market discrimination is high among socially and economically disadvantaged communities like SCs and STs who also suffer from the lack of basic amenities like housing, sanitation, education health etc. Among the major States, like Gujarat, Chhattisgarh, West Bengal Haryana, etc. income and wealth inequalities are high and it is increased significantly during 2004-05 and 2011-12. The growth of the agriculture wage rate is abysmally low and it is only around 1% during the period 2013-14 to 2016-17. The construction industry is one of the fastest-growing industries and the second-largest employment-providing sector in India after agriculture contributing about 5% of the Country's GDP and providing job opportunities to about 30 million people (Baruah, 2010).

The migrant laborers mostly belong to the casual labor market where regular job contracts don't exist. The casual labor market is further characterized by the absence of social security benefits and low wages compared to the informal sector. A significant portion of the casual labor market in India consists of migrant laborers (Farrington, 2006). The employment in the informal construction sector coupled with the hardships faced in the host region exposes the migrant laborers to multiple vulnerabilities. Unawareness and lack of support for the grievance mechanism in the destination often culminate in the physical torture of long hours of work without sufficient basic amenities and rest and verbal abuse at the work site. The informal labor market encompassing the workers of daily wage is known as the Naka market. "Naka" the word originated from Marathi which means a junction point or the street corners where the informal workers congregate in the morning in search of jobs or waiting to be picked in the contractors or employers. This market is dominated by the migrant workers employed in the construction sector.

Labors staying within a commutable distance from the junction assemble at the “nakas” in search of a job in the early morning at 6 am and wait for the prospective employers or the contractors to arrive and pick up the labor ranging from mason to helper depending on the need. In some situations, the labor contractor is the middleman between the employer and the worker. Naka workers provide their labor power for a long duration in an urban area in contrast to the seasonal migrants who float from one place to another after the particular work is over. The wage rate received will be high compared to the seasonal migrants since they are hired daily and are outside the purview of any social benefits other than wages.

4.7 Migration and Kerala

Migration is deeply rooted in the history as well as the perennial development trajectory of Kerala. With its specific geographic location and renowned handicraft products attracting the worldwide market, Kerala found its unique place in the migration history from time immemorial, and its impact is felt in every nook and corner of life in Kerala. Migration and remittance embellished the world-acclaimed development model of Kerala as praiseworthy. The educated youths of Kerala found migration as a means of emancipation from the economic backwardness and unemployment problem especially after independence which has been accentuated since 1970. The oil boom in the Gulf countries augmented the migration process and altered the destination from other areas of the Globe to the Gulf Countries intemperately and its pretty impacts are ostensibly found in the economic, social and political development of Kerala.

The earlier studies state that inhabitants from the neighboring States like Tamil Nadu and Karnataka found their way gratuitously to Kerala making it a net in-migration state. This incessant trend was reversed during and after the Second World War making Kerala a net- Migration State (Mathew and Rajan, 2003). The Kerala Migration Survey 2023 conducted by the GIFT found that 2.2 million people from Kerala are living across the world of which 19.1% are women migrants, the remittances to Kerala are estimated at Rs. 216893 crores. The persistent declining trend is observed in the out-migration from the last decades onwards. A significantly low population growth coupled with the lack of a local workforce in unskilled jobs left a vacuum in the labor

demography of Kerala, which was occupied by laborers from the other states of the country. It is estimated that there are more than 2.5 million migrant workers in Kerala Majority of them coming from the five states of West Bengal, Bihar, Assam Uttar Pradesh, and Odisha.

4.8 Migrant laborers and major vulnerabilities

Interstate migrants provide a significant impetus to the economic force of the state, with their seasonal and floating nature and the problem of non-registration creates the problem of including them in the gamut of social security protection still a distant goal to be realized. It has been observed by various researchers that migrants in Kerala find it difficult to assimilate with the 'Malayalee society' owing to the tangible differences in culture, cuisine, language and lifestyle.

Unlike the migrant laborers from the southern states, those from the northern regions of the country who constitute the majority of migrant workers in Kerala are completely insular from the local population. Rather than settling in any part of the state, they tend to be mobile across the state in search of jobs. This makes them very well integrated into the domestic economic sector, but not its culture of society as a result the society and government often view them as inferiors and as a threat to the security and health of the local community. The workers who brought their families along with them also find it difficult to enroll their children in school, leading to educational backwardness among them. However the social insularity present among the migrants and the disempowerment of their rights as citizens and labors work to the advantage of a few; the contractors, agents and the employers.

The social exclusion faced by the migrant laborers in Kerala can be accounted to a few reasons, one being the lack of hygiene among them. The crowded and unhygienic settlement they live in, which also pollutes local water resources has often led to complaints from the local communities. The initiatives by the Govt of Kerala to build accommodation facilities for the migrant workers are encouraging but their success is questionable as a lot of the migrant workers are not registered with the state labor department. Added to this the clustering of the migrant settlement along caste/ community lines could also trigger communal discordances among them which might

disturb the relatively better social harmony in Kerala. The demography of migrant workers in Kerala indicates that they are predominantly young males, who have left their families in their respective states; this poses a serious problem as they lack opportunities for leisure and their emotional and sexual needs remain unmet. As a corollary, prostitution is rampant among them, carried out under extreme secrecy to avoid the attention of the police and local communities. Along with this, the complete ignorance about the safe sex use of condoms or sexually transmitted diseases makes them extremely vulnerable to fatal infections and diseases like HIV and AIDS.

There have also been increased incidence of reporting migrant workers getting involved in criminal activities including murder and theft, the famous Jisha murder case of 2016 in which migrant labor from Assam was incriminated for the gruesome killing of a young girl in Perumbavur, widely upped the ante against migrant workers in Kerala. There have also been instances where innocents have been arrested because of their inability to access legal services. As per the rules, the agents must register each worker they bring to the local labor office for a refundable deposit of rupees 1000. However, it has been noticed that labor contractors and middlemen exert their influence to manipulate the numbers. Although employers and contractors claim that they provide reasonable pay for decent accommodation to migrant laborers, the ground reality is starkly different. Most of the workers, especially those in the construction sector live in makeshift shacks with inadequate food, lack of access to potable water, and unhygienic toilet facilities. Though a 9-hour work time is the norm migrant workers are usually asked to work for more than 12 hours daily, mainly in physically demanding activities, but sadly it has been seen that when they get caught in occupational hazards the support from the employers and the police has been unsatisfactory.

It is being observed that migrant workers in Kerala are slowly getting integrated into society. With them learning to communicate in Malayalam, and a greater number of Malayalees familiarizing themselves with Hindi, the linguistic cleavage has slowly been waning. Similarly appreciative have been the actions taken by the government to improve their living and working conditions. Along with it, the onset of Smart phones with cheap internet data packages has made them feel less away from home. With their indigenous cinemas and music a few clicks away, and with facilities for talking to their

loved ones over video calls, life has never been so much better for the migrant workers in Kerala.

4.8.1 Denied Health

The different vulnerabilities associated with the migrant laborers arise from various factors like the congested and deplorable living conditions with lack of proper sanitation facilities, malnutrition food, and unavailability of safe and pure drinking water in the destination areas. Various studies highlight the prevalence of high morbidity patterns among migrants, the possibility of the presence of infectious diseases, occupational diseases and poor social and mental health.

4.9 Migrants and Legal Protection in India

4.9.1 Payment of Wages Act, 1936

The main aim of this Act is to regulate the payment of wages to certain classes' engaged in factories, construction activities; plantation works etc. to avoid unnecessary delay in wage payment, making wage payment transparent without any unnecessary deduction etc. This Act applies to employees who draw wages up to rupees 18000 per month. This Act ensures the payment of wages if an establishment employs up to 1000 persons on or before the seventh day of the month and before the 10th day of the month it employs workers 1000 or more. Regarding the mode of payment, the Act insists the payment should be made in current coins or currency notes, or can be credited to a bank account or through a cheque if there is proper authorization from the employee. Deductions from the wages viz. income tax, life insurance premium, ESI contribution etc can be made from the wages but their maximum limit is fixed up to 50% of the wage. The Act also envisages penalties for the infringement of law including imprisonment and imposition of cash fine for the delayed payment of wages or the violation of the provisions in the act.

4.9.2 Minimum Wages Act, 1948

This Act is intended to provide and ensure minimum wage and its timely revision to the employees who are employed either directly or through contractors and also its timely revision. From time to time, the minimum wages for the various industries /employments will be fixed by the government. It is the responsibility of the employer

to pay the minimum wage without making deductions other than the prescribed deductions. This Act also makes provision for the payment of wages double the normal wage rate for overtime work. The employer is entrusted to file annual returns in the prescribed form within the prescribed period and has to maintain records / register for overtime work, wage register, a muster roll and also has to issue wage slips to the employees. For breach of the provision of the Act, punishment in the form of fine or imprisonment is contained in the Act.

4.9.3 Contract Labour (Regulation and Abolition) Act, 1970

The objective of the Act is to eliminate the exploitation of contract labor and to provide satisfactory working conditions for the workers. By this Act, a workman is deemed as contract labor if s/he is hired for the work of the establishment or through a contractor. Employers of the establishment/ contractor employing 20 or more workmen come under the purview of this Act. This Act states that the contractor must provide a canteen facility, facilities for First Aid, restroom, washroom facilities, and drinking water if he employs 100 or more workers. In the case, that the contractor fails, the principal employer is liable to provide the above-mentioned facilities. The Act makes it obligatory for the principal employer to keep a register of contractors in every establishment in the prescribed format. The contractor must maintain a Muster Roll, Register of Wages in Form XVI and Form XVII, register for deduction for damage or loss, register for advances, register for fines, and register for overtime work. Wage slip should be issued to the worker by the contractor and proper documentation including signature/ thumb impression should be obtained in the register of wages. It becomes the duty of the contractor to issue an employment card to each worker and to issue the certificate of service in the prescribed form in case the worker is terminated from the job. Without making registration, the Act denies the principal employer the right to employ contract labor. Punishment in the form of fines and imprisonment is incorporated in the Act for the contravention of any of the provisions.

4.9.4 Inter-state Migrant Workmen Act 1979 (Regulation and Employment and Conditions of Service)

This act was enacted to improve the employment, and working conditions and to safeguard the interests of interstate migrants in India. Every establishment which

employs 5 or more interstate men comes under the purview of this Act. The main provisions under this Act are:

1. Every principal employer of an establishment who employs or intends to employ 5 or more inter-state migrant workmen has to register.
2. Every contractor of an establishment who employs 5 or more interstate migrants has to take an employment license.
3. Prohibition against employment of interstate migrant workers without registration.
4. The contractor has to obtain a recruitment license from the state from where the workers are recruited (original state) and an employment license from the state where they are employed (recipient state).
5. Contractors should furnish the particulars regarding recruitment and employment and must employ workmen within 15 days from the date of recruitment.
6. The contractor should issue to every interstate migrant workman a passbook affixed with a passport-size photograph with the following particulars: date of recruitment, date of employment, wage period, etc.
7. Conditions of services are the same as the other workmen.
8. Displacement allowance has to be paid by the contractor to the inter-state migrant workmen equal to 50% of the monthly wage payable to them.
9. There is a provision for providing journey allowance to the inter-state migrant, equal to a fair amount of the journey from the area of origin to the destination place.
10. Defaulters are liable to imprisonment and a fine.

4.9.5 Building and other construction workers (Regulation of Employment & Conditions of Service) Act, 1996

This Act applies to government, corporate, individual, or association of individuals employing 10 or more building workers in any building or construction work. The main intention behind the formulation as notified in the Act is to regulate the employment and conditions of services of the workers engaged in the building or construction works and also to ensure their safety through welfare-promoting measures. With the

provisions contained in the Act, it becomes mandatory for the employer to give prior notice with complete details regarding the commencement of the construction work 30 days before the start of the work. This Act makes it compulsory for every employer to get registered within 60 days from the initiation of the construction work. Employers who come under this Act are obliged to pay wages to the worker employed by them, to offer weekly paid rest, remuneration for overtime work, and arrange welfare amenities like crèches, first aid, canteen, restrooms, etc., for the worker. The employer who comes under the purview of the Act should pay a cess of the cost of construction of the building to the concerned Building & other construction workers Welfare Board of the State. It becomes the duty of each State government to constitute the Building & Other Construction Workers Welfare Board to perform the following assigned functions

1. Provide financial assistance to the beneficiary who is met with an accident
2. Payment of pension to the beneficiaries who completed 60 years of age
3. Sanction loans and advances for the construction of a home within the framework of prescribed conditions.
4. Arranging payment mechanisms for the premium of group insurance for the beneficiaries concerned.
5. Making financial assistance for the education of the children of the beneficiaries
6. Meeting the expenses of the medical treatment in connection with major ailments of the beneficiary or the dependent concerned.
7. To provide maternity benefits to the women workers in the construction field who come under the scheme.
8. To make provisions for the arrangement of other welfare measures and facilities prescribed in the Act.

A welfare fund is to be constituted by the Board as Building and Other Construction Workers Welfare Fund as a source of finance to undertake various activities and to improve the welfare of the building and construction workers registered as beneficiaries in the Act. The source of the fund is the loans and advances given by the Central Government to the board, beneficiaries' contributions to the fund, and all other amounts received from the Central Government earmarked to the Board.

1. The official bodies to enforce the provisions in this Act are the Chief Labour commissioner at the Union level and the officials of the State labor department at the state level.
2. A penal provision is also included in the Act in the form of violation of the Act will result in punishment with imprisonment and a maximum fine of Rupees 2000.

4.10 Major Social protection programs for the welfare of the migrants in Kerala

The authorities responsible for formulating and implementing policies and programs for protecting migrants in India rest with the Ministry of Labour at the Union level and the Department of Labour at the State level. The main aim behind the existing laws is to protect the migrants from exploitation by middlemen and ensure a basic human living in the host region, where the probability of vulnerabilities is the highest. Govt. of Kerala have initiated a number of welfare programme. They are

4.10.1 Apna Ghar

The accommodation problem is one of the challenging problems in front of any migrant. Usually, they live in shanty, unhygienic and crowded places either in the worksite itself or in a rented house on a shared basis which often lacks basic facilities, safe drinking and sanitation facilities. A small room occupied by more than 5 members is a normal situation in a place where migrants live together. This exposes a migrant to health issues. The basic reason for the preference of low-cost housing facilities is to minimize expenses and maximize the amount to be remitted to the native place. “Apna Ghar” is one of the pioneer initiatives by the Kerala government among the other Indian States to provide a safe, economical and hygienic rental accommodation for interstate migrants in the country. The first project was started in Kanjikkod, Palakkad under the supervision Labour Department of Kerala and constructed by the Bhavanam Foundation was inaugurated in 2019 and the Kerala government also aims to launch similar projects in the migrant booming districts of Kerala viz Ernakulam, Trivandrum and Kozhikode. Apna Ghar, built in three blocks with 64 rooms, 32 kitchens, 96 bathrooms, 8 dining halls and cloth drying areas is a boon to around 640 migrants. This helps the interstate migrants to get a decent accommodation facility at a reasonable rate

of less than 1000 rupees per month. Kerala, which is famous for its hospitality, provide a “home away from home” to the migrants.

4.10.2 AWAAZ

Migrants are usually in a disadvantaged position as compared to the native laborers in terms of health. They are usually employed in dangerous jobs which the usual native laborers are unwilling to accept. They are vulnerable to being confronted with various health problems as they are exposed to such dirty, degradable, and dangerous work. AWAAZ is a health insurance scheme for interstate migrants employed in Kerala implemented in 2016. The targeted population of the scheme is migrant laborers between the age of 18-60 employed in the various sectors of Kerala. The scheme facilitates the members a free treatment worth Rs.25000 per year in all Govt hospitals and empaneled private hospitals of Kerala. This scheme also ensures an accident benefit of 2 lakhs. The Kerala Labour Department is in charge of the enrolment of beneficiaries and the distribution of identity cards.

Table 4.4 Number of Migrants registered under AWAAZ Programme

Sl No	Districts	Registered Numbers
1	Ernakulam	111594
2	Thiruvananthapuram	61444
3	Kozhikode	44170
4	Thrissur	41898
5	Alappuzha	36926
6	Kottayam	32908
7	Malappuram	29856
8	Kannur	28723
9	Kollam	24849
10	Pathanamthitta	24059
11	Palakkad	24694
12	Idukki	19551
13	Kasaragod	15855
14	Wayanad	11558
	Total	508085

Source: Kerala Govt Labour Department

4.10 .3 Changadhi Programme

The programs were initiated in 2018 to help the migrant laborers to learn the native language Malayalam and Hindi. The programs were implemented as a pilot programs in Perumbavoor of Ernakulam district, which is well known for the concentration of migrant laborers in Kerala. The acquisition of knowledge will help the migrants to overcome social exclusion and will enable them to fuse with the Kerala culture. Kerala Literacy Mission Authority conducts 5 hours of class per week for migrant laborers. Besides there are study centers comprising five to ten clusters with each consisting of 15 to 20 participants guided by an instructor, who is fluent in Hindi and Malayalam. The study centers are arranged at schools, libraries, and workplaces and even at the shelters of migrant workers. The State is planning to implement the program across the state.

4.10.4 Roshni project

Language and communication barriers are one of the greatest challenges of a migrant in any place. Migrants face difficulty in communicating ideas due to their absence of knowledge in their native language. This is one of the major reasons for the exploitation of the migrant people. Roshni is a project aimed to teach Malayalam to the kids of migrants. This is introduced as a pilot project in the selected Govt schools of Ernakulam district. This will help the young kids to learn Malayalam and help them to adapt to the new situations of Kerala.

4.10.5 Kerala Migrant Workers Welfare Schemes 2010

Kerala is the first state in India to introduce this scheme on 1st May 2010 for the migrant workers. The scheme ensures a registered migrant various benefit which include accident or medical care assistance up to 25000, an amount of 1 lakh rupee as a death benefit to the family if a migrant faces death in Kerala, children education allowance and a termination benefit of 25000 after 5 years of work in Kerala. When a migrant worker dies, the Welfare Fund provides the embalming of the body and air transportation to their native place. There is also a provision for the assistance of Rs. 3000 per year for the education of the children of the migrant laborers who are studying above the Tenth standard in Kerala. A retirement benefit of Rs.1000 per annum subject

to a minimum of Rs.10000 and a maximum of Rs. 25000 for the registered migrant who worked continuously for 3 years in Kerala are the other benefits. The annual contribution is just Rs. 30 per year. The scheme is implemented through the Kerala Construction Workers Welfare Fund Board.

4.11 Conclusion

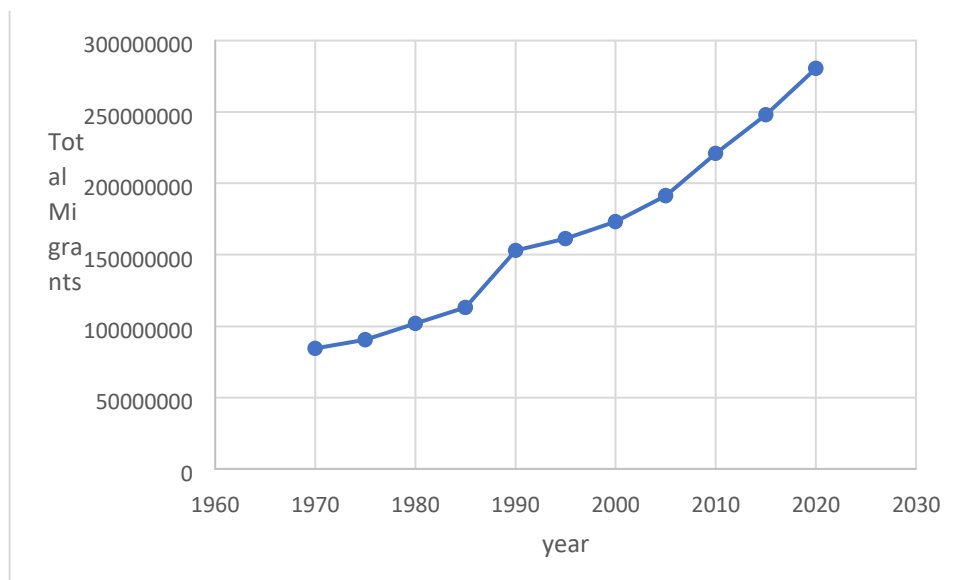
From the above discussion, it is found that numerous laws and programs are being implemented by both national and state governments aimed at safeguarding the rights of migrant workers in destination states. The typologies, motivations, and consequences of migration—both internal and international—reveal that economic disparity, social exclusion, environmental distress, and aspirations for improved living conditions are central to the decision to migrate. While migration contributes significantly to poverty reduction, remittance flows, and skill mobility, it also generates negative externalities such as labor exploitation, demographic imbalances, cultural tensions, and pressure on public services in destination areas. The Kerala case offers a microcosmic lens into these broader dynamics, highlighting both progressive policy interventions like Apna Ghar, AWAAZ, and Roshni, and the persistent vulnerabilities faced by migrant workers, especially interstate migrant laborers. Despite an impressive legal framework in India and targeted welfare initiatives at the state level, the efficacy of these protections is undermined by poor implementation, lack of awareness, informal employment structures, and language or social barriers. Therefore, migration governance must move beyond policy formulation to ensure inclusive integration, enforcement of rights, and active participation of migrants in host societies. Only then can migration become a true vehicle for inclusive and sustainable development.

Chapter |5|

Trends In Migration and Factors Influencing Inter-State Migration

Migration within India has witnessed significant changes over the decades, driven by a complex interplay of socio-economic, demographic, and political factors. The chapter also delves into the factors influencing inter-state migration, including push factors such as poverty, unemployment, and agrarian distress in sending states like Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, and Odisha, and pulls factors such as higher wages, better job prospects, and improved living standards in receiving state like Kerala. Through a detailed analysis of census data, surveys, and policy frameworks, this chapter provides insights into the causes, consequences, and regional patterns of inter-state migration in India's changing economic and social landscape.

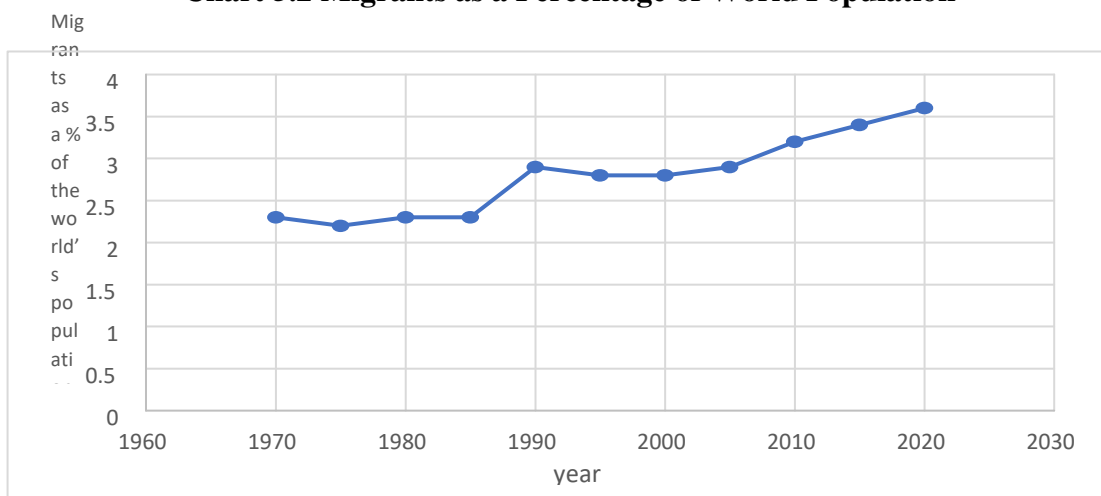
Chart 5.1: Trend of International Migration in the world



Source: UNDESA World Migration Report 2023 International Migrants (1970-2020)

The trend of international migration reveals the fact that there is an upward slope or hike in international migration in absolute and relative terms especially after the 1990s. The opening up of all economies in the globalized era and the improvements in transportation and communication influenced migration process in a great way along with the push and pull factors of migration.

Chart 5.2 Migrants as a Percentage of World Population



Source: UNDESA World Migration Report 2023

The global trend of international migration shows the fact that there has been a sudden spurt in international migration from the 1990s onwards which continues throughout the last three decades. More than 1/3 of the world's population migrates in nature in the changed global economic policies which are conducive to the free movement of labour and capital and may have accelerated the migration process which reestablishes the world system theory which indicates that the capitalist development process resulting in the migration of labors.

Table 5.1: Top five countries receiving/sending remittances (2005-2022) in USD billion

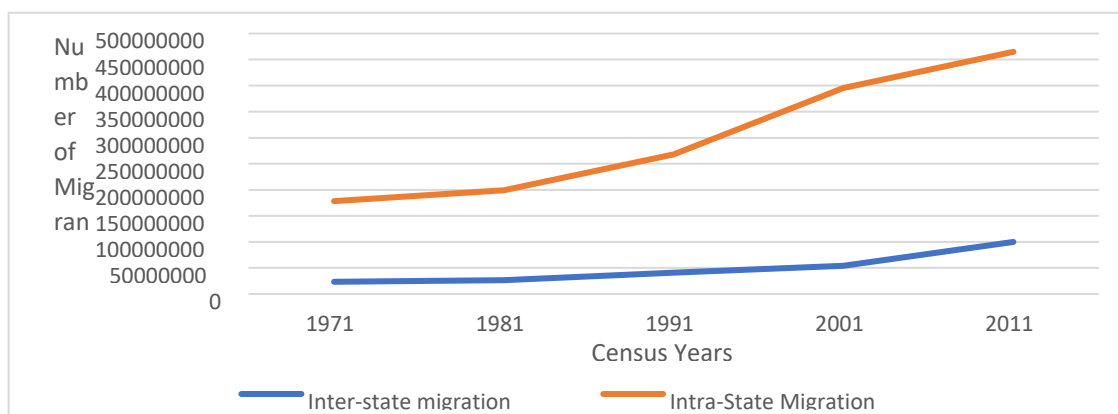
2005		2010		2015		2020		2022	
China	23.63	China	52.46	China	63.94	India	83.15	India	111.22
Mexico	22.74	Mexico	22.08	Mexico	26.23	China	59.51	Mexico	61.10
India	22.13	India	53.48	India	68.91	Mexico	42.88	China	54.00
Nigeria	14.64	Philippines	21.56	Philippines	29.8	Philippines	38.88	Philippines	38.05
France	14.21	France	24.06	France	24.06	Egypt	29.60	France	30.04

Source: UNDESA World Migration Report 2023

The direction and drift of the world migration scenario is also observed in the international migration from India and the resulting remittance to India. India stands first in international remittance surpassing China from 2005 onwards. India, despite

being the most populous country in the world with its associated problems of poverty, unemployment etc. seems to be forging ahead to the top position in the world by propelling the wheels of migration.

Chart 5.3: Inter-state and intra-state migration in India



Source: Census of India 1971-2011

The two major components of internal migration are interstate migration and intrastate migration. Interstate migration leading a cross-border movement of people from one State to another State is found growing at a low pace compared to the intra-state migration in India.

Table 5.2 Size & growth rate of migrants by type of movement in India

	Size (in Million)		Percentage distribution (%)		G	rowth percentage (%)		
Type of movements	2001	2011	2001	2011	1971-81	1981-91	1991-2001	2001-11
Intra-district	193.5	277.5	61.6	60.8	24.9	8.3	37	43.4
Interdistrict	74.6	118.1	23.7	26	44.3	13.7	26.3	58.36
Inter state	41.1	54.3	13.1	12	28.1	11.7	53.6	32.02
International migrants	5.1	5.5	1.6	1.2	-9.1	-6.1	-13.4	7.6
All migrants	314.3	455.8	100	100	27	9.8	34.7	45.01
Total population	1028.6	1210.8			24.7	23.7	21.4	17.7

Source: census 1971-2011

The analysis of the growth rate of migrants by type of movement shows that intra-district migration shows a continuously increasing trend. However inter-district migration has almost doubled in growth rate in the 2011 census for the decade 2001-11.

All over India interstate migration growth rate shows a decreasing tendency in the 2001-11 period. This is in contrast to the increasing interstate migration into Kerala.

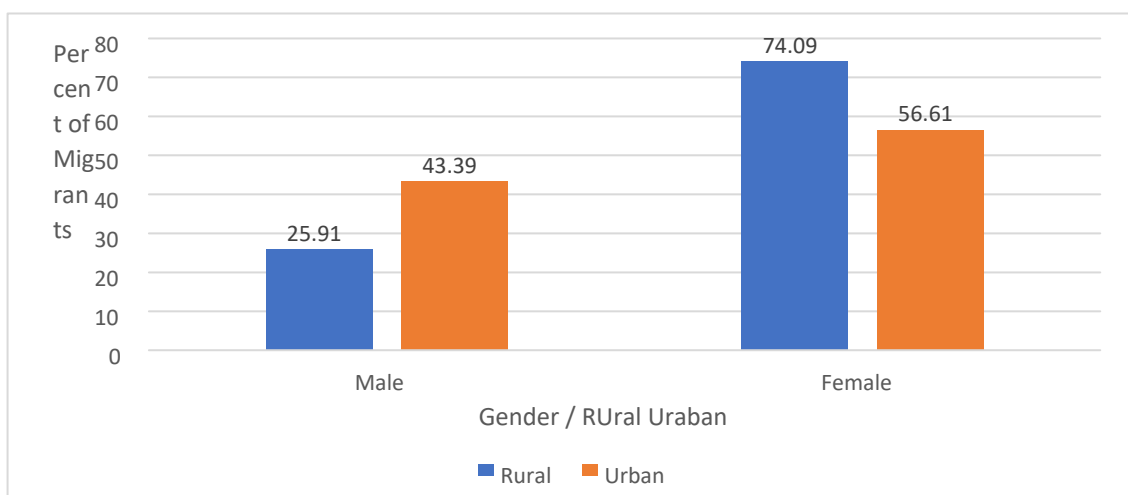
Table 5.3 Distribution of Migrants by Reason for Migration

Reason for migration	Migrated in			
	Rural		Urban	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
	64 th round (2007-2008)			
Employment related reasons	28.6	0.7	55.7	2.7
Studies	10.7	0.5	6.8	2.2
Marriage	9.4	91.2	1.4	60.8
Movement of parents/ earning member	22.1	4.4	25.2	29.4
Other reasons	29.2	3.2	10.9	4.9
All	100	100	100	100

Source: Report no 533 (migration in India 2007-2008 NSSO)

The analysis of rural-to-urban migration and rural-to-rural migration differs in their motives. While marriage emerges as the prime reason for rural-to-rural migration especially due to the employment opportunities in the urban areas. The present phenomena of the inflow of interstate migrants from the rural areas of West Bengal, Bihar, Odisha, UP etc. to Kerala opportunities sudden spurt in the construction sector and urbanization process after the 1990s.

Chart 5.4: Rural Urban and Gender wise Migration in India 2011



Source: Census of India 2011

The chart highlights a clear gender and rural-urban divide in migration patterns. Among males, a higher percentage migrate from urban areas compared to rural areas reflecting that male migration is largely driven by employment and better livelihood opportunities typically available in urban settings. But female migration is significantly higher in rural areas than in urban areas reflecting that rural female migration is predominantly influenced by social factors such as marriage and family responsibilities. Economic factors play a major role in male migration, especially in urban areas, female migration, particularly from rural regions, continues to be shaped by social and cultural factors since Marriage being the most important reason for female migration.

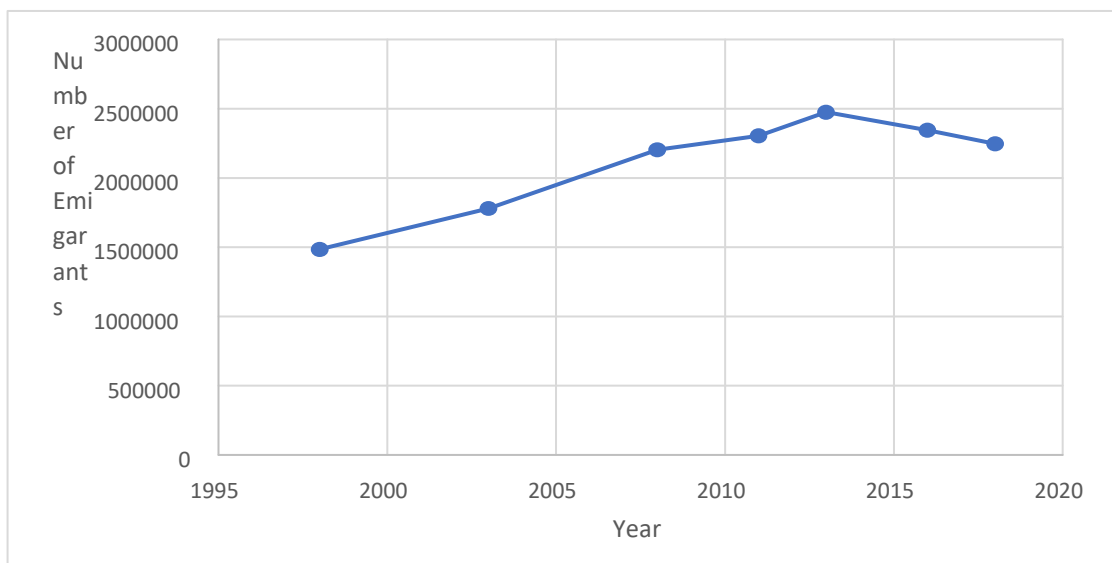
Table 5.4
Gender wise reasons for Migrations

Reason Sex	Work	business	Education	Moved with household	Marriage	Moved after birth	others
Male	38,999,861 (84.08%)	3,219,565 (74.09)	4,776,882 (59.63%)	31,483,085 (45.10%)	6,017,923 (2.68%)	28,523,392 (59.47%)	27,941,572 (52.46%)
Female	7,383,905 (15.92%)	1,125,453 (25.91)	3,232,77 (40.37%)	38,319,284 (54.90%)	217,864,787 (97.32%)	19,435,802 (40.43%)	25,317,673 (47.54%)
Total	46,383,766	4,345,018	8,009,653	69,802,369	223,882,710	47,959,194	53,259,245

Source: Report No 533 (migration in India 2007-2008 NSSO)

Migration is a matter of choice in the case of males and a compulsory phenomenon in the cases of females who are displaced from their own homes to their husband's homes after the marriage. This is reflected in the reason for migration, 84% of the male migration is for work and 97% of the female migration is due to marriage. Here it is evident that male-dominated inter-state migration to Kerala is attracted by the employment opportunities and the shortage of laborers for low-skilled and unskilled work.

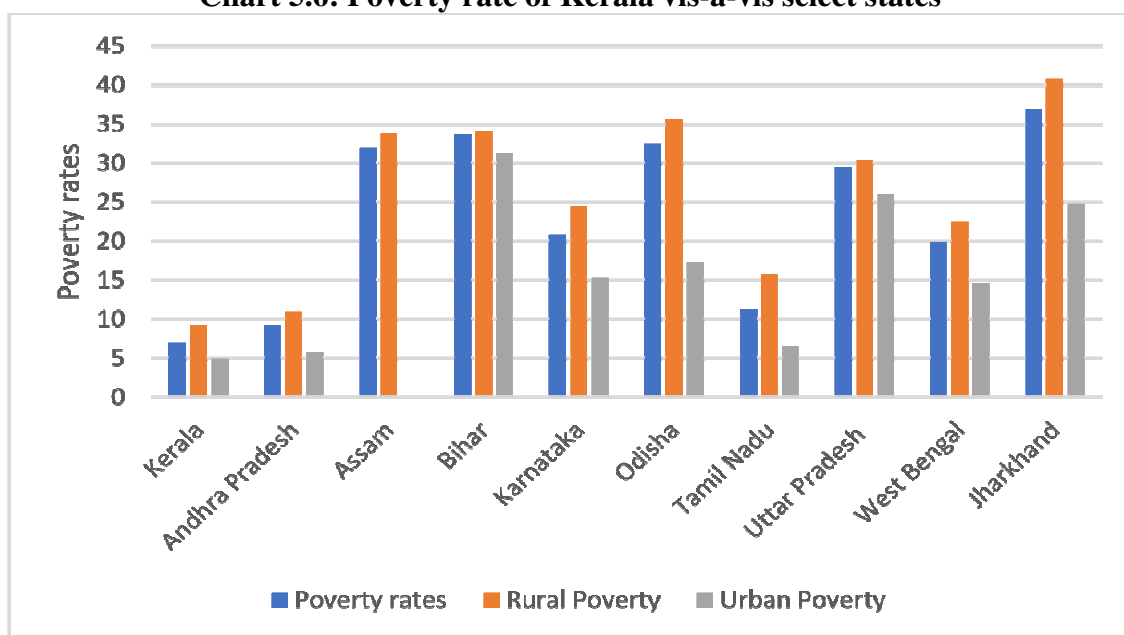
Chart 5.5: Emigrants from Kerala (1998-2018)



Source: Economic review, GOK2022

The well-known history of migration of people from Kerala to other countries is visible from the statistical data of emigration from Kerala. From the graph, it is clear that there are immigrants culminated in the shortage of working youth in the economy leading to a replacement migration from other states to fill the gap of shortage of laborers in the labour market of Kerala.

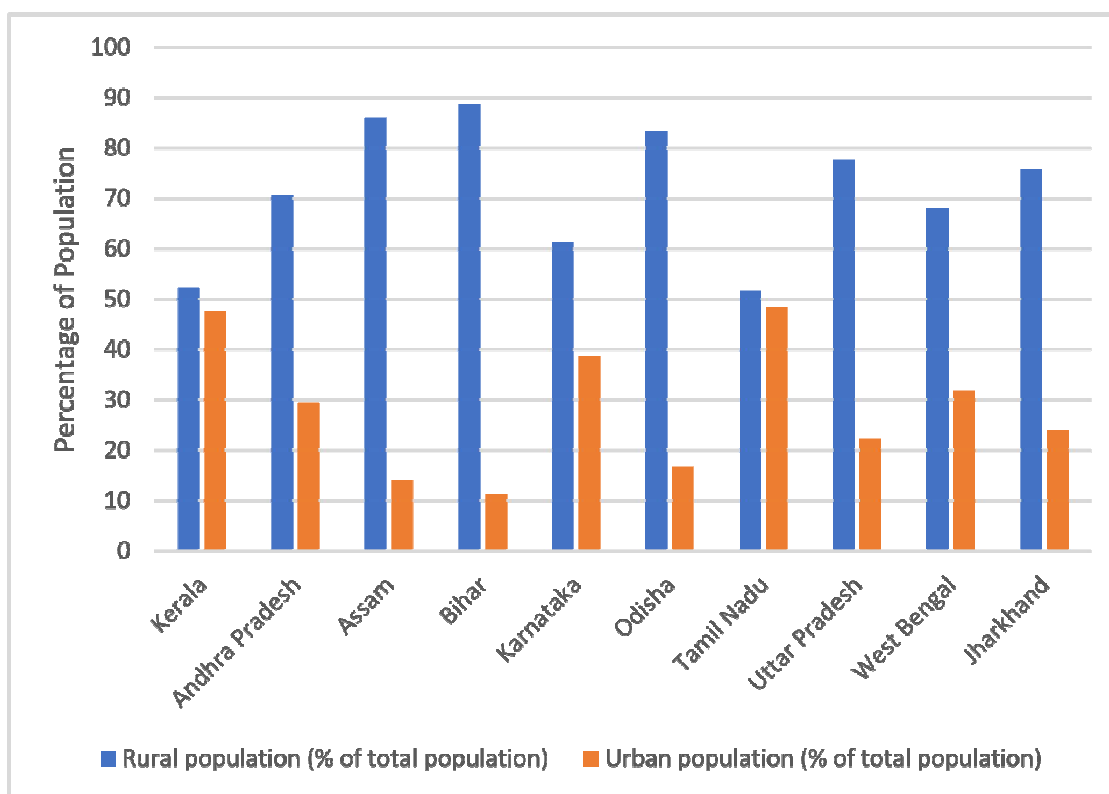
Chart 5.6: Poverty rate of Kerala vis-à-vis select states



Sources. EPWRF

Poverty of the family is the major driving force of migration. The poverty rates of Kerala and the States from which a major proportion of migration occurs show that poverty rates are high in these Migrants sending States and migration is seen as a mechanism to ameliorate the poverty of the family by the youth members often resulting in the new streams of migration.

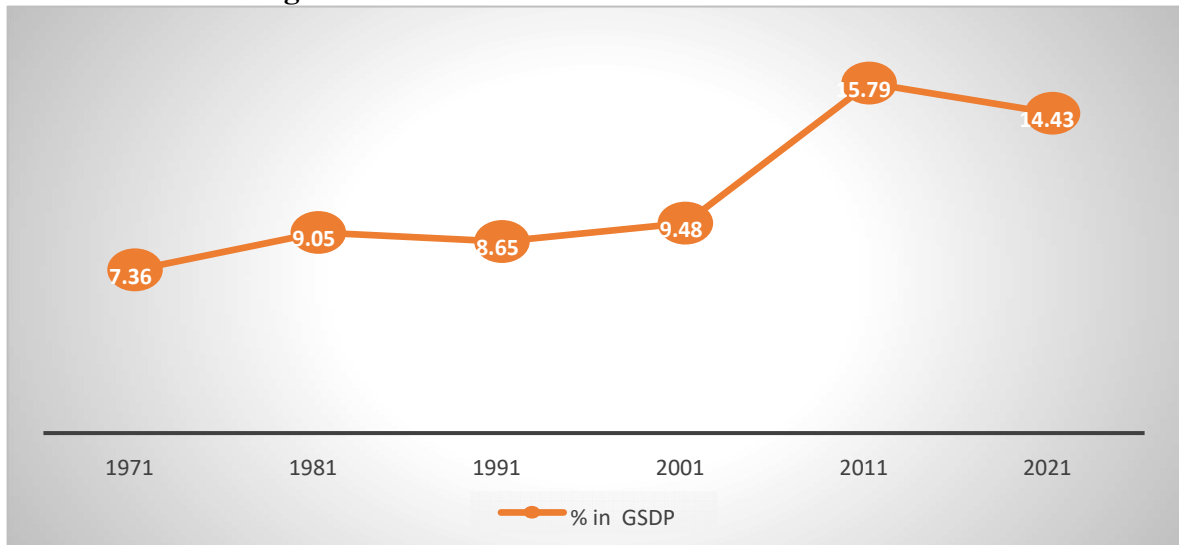
Chart 5.7: Percentage of Rural-Urban Population in Kerala vis-à-vis select states



Source: Census 2011

The propensity to migrate is always biased towards the urban areas from the rural areas. Agriculture, the industry of the rural are crowded with illiterate laborers all over India. The comparison of the proportion of rural-urban populations displays the fact that all the states proceed to have more rural populations and less urbanization.

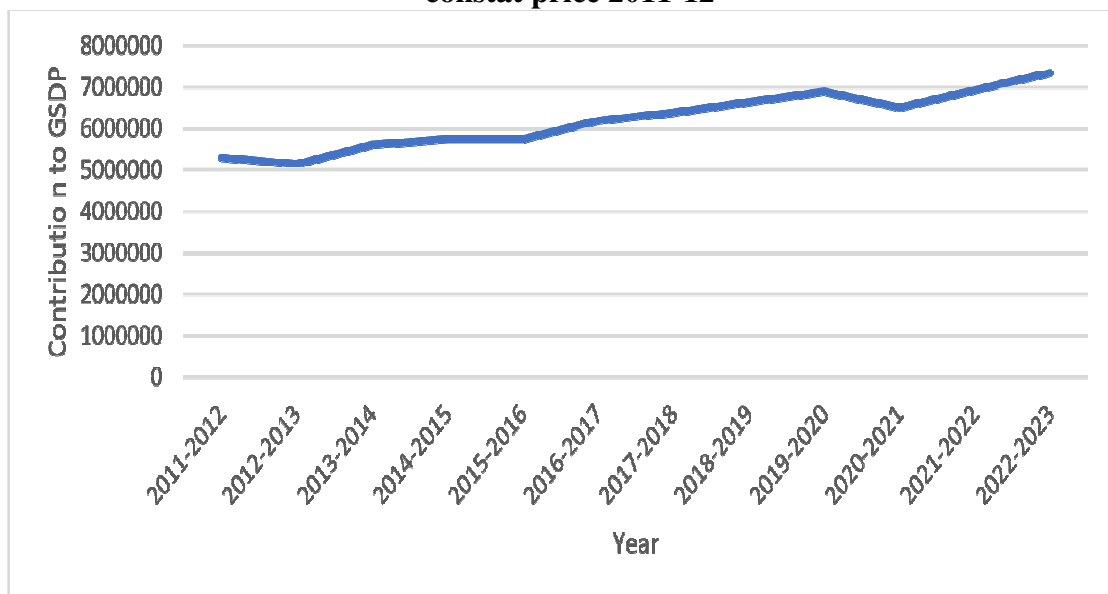
Chart 5.8 : Percentage contribution of Construction Sector to Kerala's GSDP



Source: Economic review, GOK of various years

The construction sector of Kerala is one of the most benefitted sectors from the Gulf remittance. Although the structure of the construction sector is heterogeneous consisting of housing and infrastructure and allied sectors, a sudden spurt in all these construction activities in Kerala creating a demand for migrant laborers from other States witnessed a crowning moment of interstate migration to the construction sector of Kerala.

Chart 5.9: Contribution of the Construction Sector in GSDP of Kerala (in Lakhs) constat price 2011-12



Source: EPWRF

The contribution of the construction sector to the Gross State Domestic Product (GSDP) of Kerala at constant 2011–12 prices, spanning from 2011–12 to 2022–23. The data reveals a steady upward trend, highlighting its vital role as a provider of employment opportunities, particularly for migrant labourers.

Table 5.5 In-migrants in Kerala Based on Place of Birth (POB)

STATES	No of migrants				
	1971	1981	1991	2001	2011
Tamil Nadu	188635 (75.82)	252506 (74.01)	266735 (66.94)	279702 (67.75)	327476 (53.17)
Karnataka	25800 (10.37)	40552 (11.89)	55824 (13.98)	55685 (13.49)	101136 (16.4)
AP	3545 (1.42)	5007 (1.47)	7482 (1.88)	9442 (2.29)	14174 (2.3)
UP	2700 (1.08)	2484 (0.73)	4540 (1.14)	5887 (1.43)	11580 (1.8)
West Bengal	1475 (0.59)	2036 (0.6)	2560 (0.64)	4232 (1.06)	31641 (5.1)
Bihar	1080 (0.43)	1689 (0.5)	2640 (0.66)	3337 (0.81)	10763 (1.7)
Odisha	625 (0.25)	931 (0.27)	1470 (0.37)	3327 (0.81)	12387 (2.01)
Assam	335 (0.13)	916 (0.27)	1075 (0.27)	1179 (0.29)	8262 (1.3)
Others	24580 (9.88)	35035 (10.26)	56228 (14.11)	50058 (12.12)	106692 (17.3)
Total	248775 (100.0)	341159 (100.0)	398470 (100.0)	412849 (100.0)	615849 (100)

Sources: Census 1971-2011

Ravenstein(1885), the pioneer in migration studies observed that a great body of migration occurs over short distances which was valid in the case of inter-state migration to Kerala from neighboring states like Tamil Nadu, Karnataka etc. till the 1990s. One of the notable changes in the pattern of immigration to Kerala observed in the last two Census data is a sudden reduction in the Tamil migrants and an increase in the proportion of migrants from other states like West Bengal, Odisha, Bihar, Assam etc. Development of technology, transport and communication along with the economic

motive of migration culminated in this sudden paradigm shift in the migration process to Kerala.

Table 5.6: Population size & growth rate of population in Kerala vis-à-vis select states

State	Total population (2011)	% of Indian population	Decadal growth rate 2001-2011
Kerala	33406061	2.76	4.9
Andhra Pradesh	49577103	4.1	11.01
Assam	31205576	2.58	17.7
Bihar	104099452	8.6	25.4
Karnataka	61095297	5.05	15.6
Odisha	41974219	3.47	14
Tamil Nadu	72147030	5.96	15.6
Uttar Pradesh	199812341	16.5	20.2
West Bengal	91276115	7.54	13.8
Jharkhand	32988134	2.73	22.4

Sources Census 2011

A comparison of the total population, % share of population and decadal growth rate of the population of Kerala vis-a-vis the migrant contributing states of India reveals that the latter is faced with the problem of huge population size as the decadal growth rate of population is more in all these states than in Kerala. The high population creates challenges in the form of unemployment, poverty, housing problems etc. In this context, the young population find it better to move from their home states to find new green pastures.

**Table 5.7: Per capita Income of Kerala and States of in-migrants
(Constant price 2011-12)**

Year	AP	Bihar	Karnataka	Kerala	Odisha	Tamil Nadu	UP	WB	Assam	Jharkhand
2011-12	69000	21750	90263	97912	48387	93112	32002	51543	41142	41254
2012-13	68865	22201	94375	103551	50769	97257	32908	53157	41609	44176
2013-14	72254	22776	101858	107846	54209	102191	34044	53815	43002	43779
2014-15	79174	23223	105697	112444	54361	107117	34583	54520	44809	48781
2015-16	88609	24064	116813	120387	57806	115875	36973	57255	50642	44524
2016-17	94115	25455	131186	129251	66416	123206	40847	60618	53575	48826
2017-18	103177	26719	140745	137181	71032	133029	41771	64007	57835	52277
2018-19	108853	29092	149024	147347	75421	141844	42333	68195	59943	56133
2019-20	110587	29798	156086	147951	76462	144845	43061	69559	61519	55658
2020-21	105880	26820	149030	132531	73357	143482	39735	63562	61304	51464
2021-22	117464	28679	164471	148810	81178	154557	43420	69890	65726	56559
2022-23	123526	31280	176383	.	87361	166727	47066	75561	69826	60033

Sources. RBI website

Economic development of a state is usually assessed based on the per capita income of the state and the volume of migration varies positively with the state of progress. The unbalanced development results in the movement of people from the less developed regions to the more developed regions of the country. The internal migration in the country after independence was mainly geared towards the developed cities of the country like Delhi, Mumbai, and Kolkata from the less developed states and regions. In this context, the flourishing Kerala economy emerged as the new destination for the migrants.

Table 5.8: Year wise growth rate of per capita GSDP of Kerala vis-à-vis select states

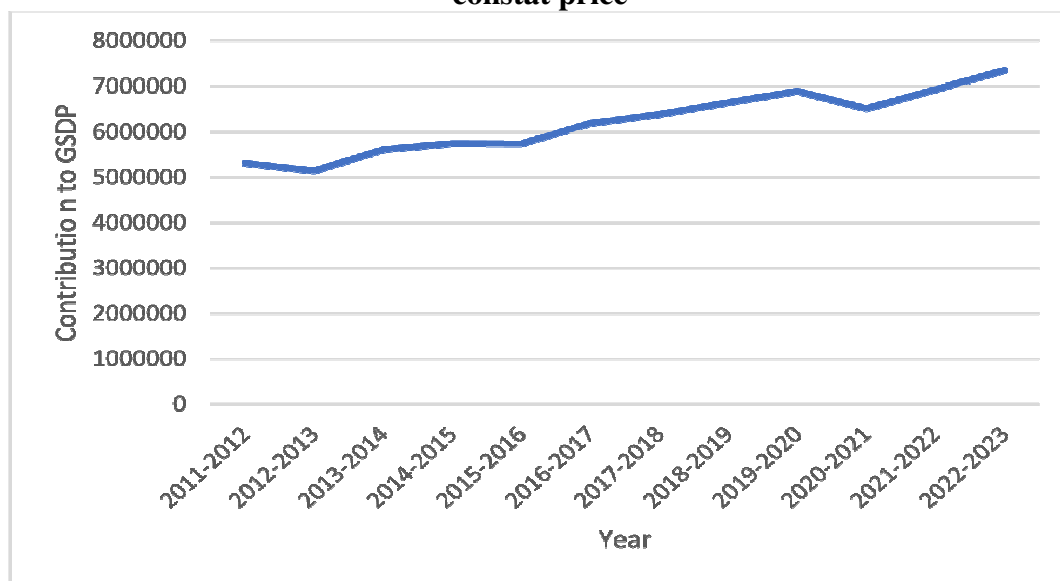
Year	Andhra Pradesh	Bihar	Karnataka	Kerala	Odisha	Tamil Nadu	Uttar Pradesh	West Bengal	Assam
2011-12									
2012-13	-0.20	2.07	4.56	5.76	4.92	4.45	2.83	3.13	1.14
2013-14	4.92	2.59	7.93	4.15	6.78	5.07	3.45	1.24	3.35
2014-15	9.58	1.96	3.77	4.26	0.28	4.82	1.58	1.31	4.20
2015-16	11.92	3.62	10.52	7.06	6.34	8.18	6.91	5.02	13.02
2016-17	6.21	5.78	12.30	7.36	14.89	6.33	10.48	5.87	5.79
2017-18	9.63	4.97	7.29	6.14	6.95	7.97	2.26	5.59	7.95
2018-19	5.50	8.88	5.88	7.41	6.18	6.63	1.35	6.54	3.64
2019-20	1.59	2.43	4.74	0.41	1.38	2.12	1.72	2.00	2.63
2020-21	-4.26	-9.99	-4.52	-10.42	-4.06	-0.94	-7.72	-8.62	-0.35
2021-22	10.94	6.93	10.36	12.28	10.66	7.72	9.27	9.96	7.21
2022-23	5.16	9.07	7.24		7.62	7.87	8.40	8.11	6.24

Sources. RBI Website

The year-on-year growth rate of per capita GSDP across Indian states from 2011–12 to 2022–23 highlights varying economic performances and regional disparities. Southern states like Karnataka, Kerala, and Tamil Nadu generally recorded higher and more consistent growth. The high per capita GSDP growth is an indicator of economic development achieved by Kerala which also serves as attracting force of interstate migration to Kerala.

The propensity to migrate is always biased towards the urban areas from the rural areas. Agriculture, the industry the rural are crowded with illiterate laborers all over India. The comparison of the proportion of rural-urban populations displays the fact that all the states proceed to have more rural populations and less urbanization.

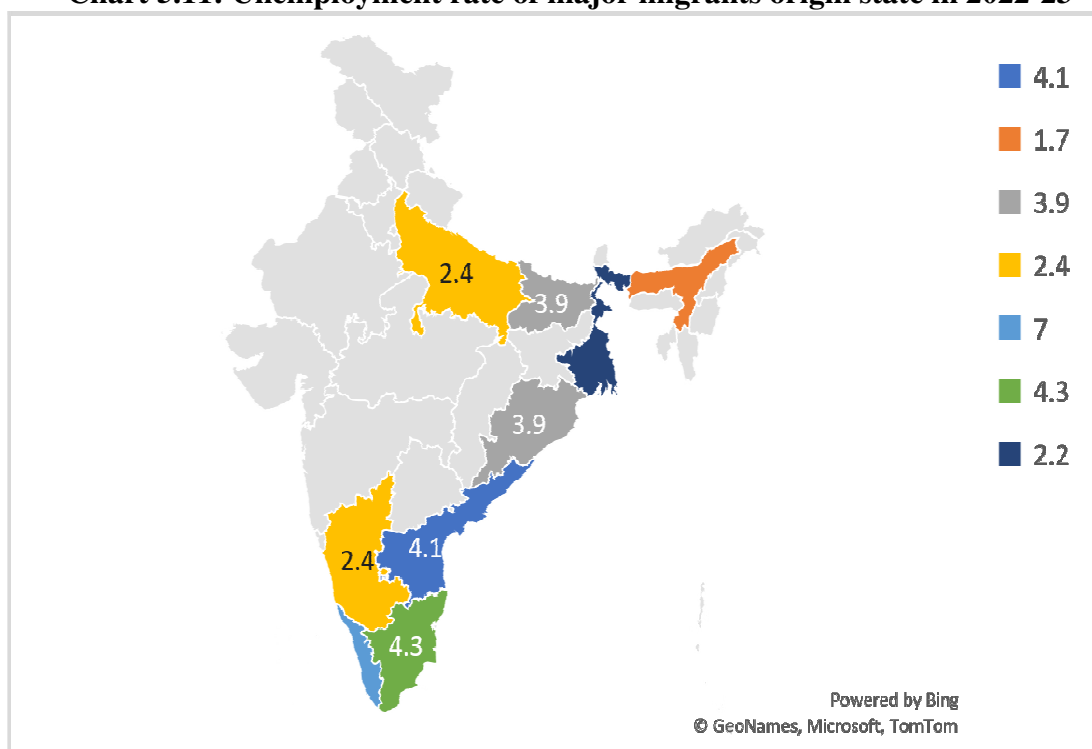
**Chart 5.10: Contribution of the Construction Sector in GSDP of Kerala (in Lakhs)
constat price**



Source: EPWRF

The contribution of the construction sector to the Gross State Domestic Product (GSDP) of Kerala at constant 2011–12 prices, spanning from 2011–12 to 2022–23, reveals a steady upward trend, with the sector's contribution increasing from around ₹52 lakh crore in 2011–12 to approximately ₹75 lakh crore in 2022–23, signifying the sector's growing importance in Kerala's economy. highlighting its vital role as a provider of employment, particularly for interstate migrant labourers.

Chart 5.11: Unemployment rate of major migrants origin state in 2022-23



Source: PLFS 2022-23

The map highlights significant inter-state variation in unemployment rates, with Kerala (4.1%), Tamil Nadu (4.3%), and West Bengal (3.9%) maintaining relatively moderate unemployment levels despite being prominent destinations for inter-state migrants. These patterns suggest that while some states continue to attract large numbers of migrant workers due to perceived economic opportunities, internal disparities in employment access persist.

Table 5.9 Wage rate in construction sector in Kerala vis-à-vis select states

year	All-India	Kerala	West Bengal	Bihar	Assam	Uttar Pradesh	Odisha	Karnataka	Andhra Pradesh	Tamil Nadu
1999	64.74	100.00	45.32	49.62	49.77	61.70	49.60	51.06	48.80	64.13
2000	65.24	100.00	47.76	48.75	51.42	64.97	53.81	52.77	50.41	66.25
2001	61.90	100.00	48.84	50.13	50.47	66.86	56.68	57.15	51.02	69.56
2002	62.18	100.00	50.01	53.78	53.40	66.30	55.80	56.77	51.77	69.35
2003	63.68	100.00	50.72	56.98	56.76	68.59	58.90	56.19	52.40	71.80
2004	64.99	100.00	51.71	59.82	59.68	69.94	61.59	54.83	54.06	69.82
2005	62.91	100.00	48.11	58.01	60.18	68.00	59.16	53.94	51.59	69.03
2006	61.61	100.00	48.64	56.71	59.15	66.20	57.05	53.53	51.58	66.93
2007	61.25	100.00	50.48	54.06	60.18	66.16	55.60	52.49	51.46	68.16
2008	60.42	100.00	47.66	55.69	57.53	62.29	52.55	53.00	55.39	69.34
2009	56.49	100.00	42.02	49.32	51.62	55.69	48.44	49.82	58.54	68.26
2010	56.15	100.00	40.83	48.55	48.36	57.50	46.92	48.50	59.18	79.69
2011	54.98	100.00	38.81	45.92	46.61	57.90	48.01	48.84	58.12	79.35
2012	52.63	100.00	39.02	48.46	44.56	58.01	45.75	44.99	53.01	75.22
2013	53.89	100.00	42.14	49.50	49.34	57.79	47.93	43.61	50.88	78.32
2014	52.14	100.00	42.31	47.89	47.04	52.27	43.06	47.95	46.73	75.03
2015	53.92	100.00	44.21	47.48	49.93	53.79	46.64	48.46	49.06	76.19
2016	53.50	100.00	42.60	47.23	48.54	54.59	46.06	48.71	48.87	74.51
2017	54.35	100.00	44.88	46.64	46.74	55.59	46.28	52.20	52.70	73.89
2018	55.07	100.00	45.73	48.83	49.43	56.57	45.73	55.02	53.97	73.40
2019	55.38	100.00	44.39	49.15	49.51	56.95	45.90	57.55	56.54	72.65
2020	55.73	100.00	44.77	50.58	48.60	57.14	47.87	59.32	59.72	74.68
2021	57.61	100.00	45.93	52.12	50.59	57.43	50.23	59.55	62.83	76.52
2022	59.48	100.00	46.25	53.51	52.56	60.36	51.29	63.73	67.14	79.18
2023	60.15	100.00	46.42	53.18	51.78	61.25	51.24	63.26	71.32	81.65

Source: EPWRF

Among the economic motives of migration, a high wage rate always stands top among the pull factors of migration. This is also evident from the Kerala scenario. The comparative wages are nearly 3 times higher than the wages of other States in India. This is profitable to the employer as it facilitates the employment of low-wage migrant

labour instead of native laborers and at the same time beneficial to interstate migrants too as they are offered a regular job with an attractive wage transforming Kerala to be Gulf to the interstate migrants.

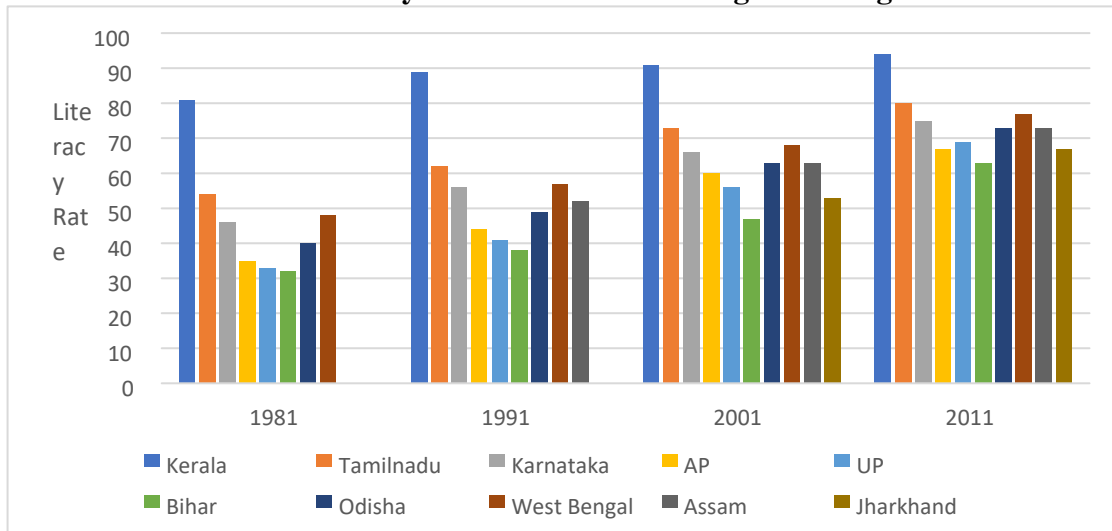
Table 5.10: Contribution of agriculture and allied activities to GSDP in Kerala vis-à-vis select states

Year	KERALA	WEST BENGAL	BIHAR	ODISHA	UTTAR PRADESH	ASSAM	ANDHRA PRADESH	KARNATAKA	TAMIL NADU
2011-2012	4837594	11710585	6206655	3934538	18325197	2848113	9400805	7554868	8773221
2012-2013	4906807	12156539	6803952	4558109	19161813	3314074	9783109	7169532	7818877
2013-2014	4597159	12150254	5951632	4368529	19071717	3209159	10835268	7687781	9161346
2014-2015	4598265	12694116	5934907	4711024	18685675	3295165	11219987	8017992	9836476
2015-2016	4363785	12766739	6073530	4111533	19479107	3433874	12151829	7227764	10091573
2016-2017	4335472	13237639	6666773	4930743	20695953	3500559	13971716	7452338	9928662
2017-2018	4426954	13866885	7190492	4389513	21466259	3614529	16519151	9094110	11127061
2018-2019	4334271	14060903	7118646	4773229	22446325	3638721	17103517	8765842	11849027
2019-2020	4223374	14355064	7193551	5418966	22687674	3929547	18558456	10350666	12749166
2020-2021	4289942	14593354	7777610	5813283	23080052	3867451	18910050	11826021	13321030
2021-2022	4500756	15034423	8106231	6014338	26557309	4223306	20755352	12501441	14061584
2022-2023	4540051	15554304	8640301	6548520	28448500	4512614	21378288	12856904	14615450

Source: EPWRF

A remarkable structural change happening in Kerala is the continuous decrease in the contribution of agriculture and allied activities to the GSDP which is considered as a symbol of economic development in the development literature. On the contrary, the general tendency among the labour-supplying states shows a gradual increase in the contribution of agriculture and allied sectors. This is also certifying the interstate labour migration from the far-off states to Kerala as guaranteed by the migration theories.

Chart 5. 12: Literacy Rate of Kerala and Migrants Origin States



Sources: Census Various years

Literacy rate and educational qualifications are considered indicators of Human development and quality of labour. An interstate comparison of literacy rates among the migrants contributing states shows that the literacy rate of those states is far below when compared with the literacy rate of Kerala. The high literacy and educational achievements helped the Keralites to secure white-collar supervisory jobs in the emerging service sector and abroad creating a vacuum in the blue-collar job market in Kerala. This opportune time paved the way for the interstate migration to Kerala.

Table 5.11: Working Age population (20-64 years) in Kerala in 1991 and 2011

Age group	Population – in 1991	Population in 2011	Share in working age population in 1991	Share in working age Population in 2011
20-34	7878650	7725402	50.3	38.3
35-49	4871010	7340701	31.1	36.4
50-64	2911250	5085224	18.6	25.2
20-64	15660910	20151327	100	100
Share of working age population (20-64 years) in total population	53.8	60.3		

Source : Rajan and Aliyar (2004) and N Ajithkumar (2020)

The above table shows the fact that although the share of the working age group in the total population has increased from 54% in 1991 to 60 % in 2011, the share of young workforce (20-34) in the working age populations shows a decline from 50 % in 1991 to 38 % in 2011 due to the demographic transition taking place in Kerala. This may be the one of the reason for the increased inflow of interstate migrants to Kerala which shows an upward trend from 1990s onwards (Ajithkumar 2020)

Table 5.12 : District-Wise Registered Migrants in Kerala

Sl No	District Total	Registered Migrants
1	Thiruvananthapuram	63788
2	Kollam	24946
3	Pathanamthitta	24119
4	Alappuzha	36927
5	Idukki	19587
6	Kottayam	34251
7	Ernakulam	115053
8	Thrissur	41900
9	Palakkad	24694
10	Malappuram	29856
11	Kozhikode	44628
12	Wayanad	11839
13	Kannur	28874
14	Kasaragod	15858
	Total	516320

Source: Economic Review 2022

The only source of registered inter-state migrants in Kerala is the Kerala Construction Workers Welfare Board. According to the latest data available, there are 516320 registered inter-state migrants in Kerala which only represents a small percentage of the actual number of migrants working in Kerala. The district-wise data shows Ernakulam comes in the first position with a bulk portion of 22% of the interstate migrants in Kerala, getting the nickname of the Capital of interstate migrant workers in Kerala.

Conclusion

By analysing the trend of migration and its influential factors shows that inter-state migration in India is driven by significant disparities in socio-economic development between states. Kerala, with its higher per capita income, better wages, and robust construction sector, has attracted and Kerala emerged as a major destination for migrants from less developed states like Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, and Odisha. Push factors

such as poverty, unemployment, and agrarian distress in sending states, combined with pull factors like higher wages, ample employment opportunities, higher growth rate and improved living standards in Kerala, underscore the role of unbalanced regional development in shaping migration patterns. The construction sector, fuelled by remittances and urbanization, has particularly attracted migrant labour as a major destination.

Chapter |6|

Interstate Labour Migration to Kerala's Construction Sector: Influential Factors and Economic Implications

Interstate labour migration to Kerala's construction sector has emerged as a significant socio-economic phenomenon, reshaping the labour dynamics within the state. This chapter aims to explore the various factors that influence migrant workers' preferences for employment in this sector, considering both push and pull elements. A key area of focus is the role of intermediaries, such as contractors and agents, who often facilitate the migration process and shape employment conditions. The chapter further enquire into the economic behaviours of migrant workers, particularly examining shifts in their saving and investment patterns before and after migration. Additionally, it assesses how these financial practices, along with remittances, influence their levels of indebtedness. Lastly, the chapter critically investigates the challenges faced by migrant workers, especially in their interactions and competition with native workers.

6.1. Socio-Economic and Demographic features of respondents

The following tables reveal the divergent socio-economic and demographic features of the respondents. General Information

Table 6.1.1
Classification of the respondents based on place of residence in the native state

Place of residence	Frequency	Percent
Rural	380	95.0
Urban	8	2.0
Semi-urban	12	3.0
Total	400	100.0

Source: Primary Data

The study results show that majority of the interstate migrates working in the construction sector in the Kerala hails from rural areas of migrant sending states. This is probably due to the fact that the in-migrants might be experiencing seasonal un employment at the native place and hence they flock to Kerala to bridge the un employment period. This result also confirms the findings of the Bhavati, 1972, Dwivedi, 2012.

Table 6.1.2
Classification of the respondents based on State of origin

State	Frequency	Percent
Andhra Pradesh	5	1.3
Assam	15	3.8
Bihar	47	11.8
Odisha	8	2.0
Orissa	5	1.3
Tamil Nadu	4	1.0
Tripura	1	.3
UP	12	3.0
West Bengal	303	75.8
Total	400	100

Source: Primary Data

Majority of interstate migrant workers in Kerala's construction sector hail from West Bengal, comprising more than three-fourths of the total respondents, followed by smaller proportions from Bihar, Assam, Uttar Pradesh, and other states. This trend closely aligns with the findings of Narayana and Venkiteswaran (2013), who identified West Bengal, Bihar, Assam, and Uttar Pradesh as the major source states for migration to Kerala.

Table 6.1.3
Gender-wise classification of the respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	398	99.5
Female	2	0.5
Total	400	100.0

Source: Primary Data

Although internal migration in India and Kerala is dominated by female migration resulting from marriage, the study results show that inter-state migration to the construction sector is purely a male migration. The migration from Kerala to the Gulf countries in the 1990s was almost an 'all-male' phenomenon. Similarly, inter-state migration to the construction sector of Kerala also has an overwhelming proportion (99.5%) of males. Females engaged in the construction sector are found mainly from the nearby State of Tamil Nadu who undertake the digging activities of the construction sector along with their husbands and family members. The young inter-state migrants from the far-off states of India which dominate the construction sector of Kerala find it

difficult and burdensome to keep their families along with them due to the extra costs that must be incurred in finding food and accommodation for the family.

Table 6.1.4
Age-wise classification of the respondents

Age group	Frequency	Percent
≤ 20	73	18.3
21-25	120	30.0
25-30	89	22.3
30-35	59	14.8
Above 35	59	14.8
Total	400	100.0

Source: Primary Data

Table 6.1.5
Descriptive Statistics Age of interstate migrants in Kerala

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Completed years of age	400	17	70	28.04	8.628
Valid N (listwise)	400				

Source: Primary Data

Ravenstein's (1885) migration theory propounds that the young dynamic category of the population is more migratory compared to other age categories which are also found to be the same as in the case of interstate migration to Kerala. About 70 % of the migrants engaged in the construction sector belonged to the age of below 30. The vacuum created by the migration of the youth to the Gulf countries is filled by these young people from different parts of the country who are ready to take up jobs that involve high physical effort and are risky, fatal, and hazardous to health.

Table 6.1.6
Educational Qualification of the interstate migrants in Kerala

Education Qualification	Frequency	Percent
Illiterate	123	30.8
LP	53	13.3
UP	87	21.8
HS	117	29.3
HSE	14	3.5
DEGREE	3	0.8
DIPLOMA	3	0.8
Total	400	100

Source: Primary Data

The education qualification data reveals that a significant portion of migrant workers in Kerala's construction sector have limited formal education. The largest group (30.8%) is illiterate, followed by those with basic schooling—13.3% have Lower Primary (LP) education, and 21.8% have Upper Primary (UP) education. Nearly 30% have completed High School (HS), indicating some secondary education. However, very few have higher qualifications—only 3.5% have Higher Secondary Education (HSE), and a negligible proportion (0.8% each) hold a degree or diploma.

Chart 6.1.7
Religion-wise classification of the respondents

Religion	Frequency	Percent
Hindu	191	47.8
Muslim	191	47.8
Christian	6	1.5
Others	12	3.0
Total	400	100.0

Source: Primary Data

The study results exposed the fact that both Hindus and Muslims dominate the migration stream and are equal in proportion to the migration. Moreover, it was found that Murshidabad, the major migration corridor had a Muslim population accounting for over 60 percent. The percentage of Christian migrants was very low. This finding closely mirrors the observations made by Narayana and Venkiteswaran (2013), who also reported that the majority of migrants to Kerala belong to the Hindu and Muslim communities.

Table 6.1.8
Caste-wise classification of the respondents

Caste	Frequency	Percent
SC	72	18.0
ST	74	18.5
OBC	191	47.8
Others	10	2.5
General	53	13.3
Total	400	100.0

Source: Primary Data

The existence of differences in the migration patterns among the different social groups is observed in the study. The persons belonging to the marginalized communities viz backward community, Scheduled Tribe, and Scheduled caste communities are far ahead

in their number compared to the persons belonging to the General category. This pattern aligns closely with Naraparaju's (2014) findings on Naka workers in the informal construction sector, where migrants predominantly came from marginalized sections of society facing socio-economic hardships and environmental vulnerabilities.

Table 6.1.9
Association between Education and Religion

		Educational Qualification							Total
		Illiterate	LP	UP	HS	HSE	DEGREE	DIPLOMA	
Religion	Hindu	38	23	50	89	13	1	3	217
	Muslim	83	30	37	28	1	2	0	181
	Christian	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Total		123	53	87	117	14	3	3	400

Source: Primary Data

The cross tabulation between religion and educational qualification reveals distinct patterns among migrant construction workers in Kerala. Hindu migrants, the largest religious group (217 out of 400), show relatively higher educational attainment, with a significant portion having completed at least Upper Primary (UP) or High School (HS). In contrast, Muslim migrants (181 out of 400) have the highest proportion of illiteracy (83 out of 123 illiterate workers) and lower representation in higher education levels, with only 1 out of 14 having Higher Secondary Education (HSE) and none holding a diploma. Christians form a negligible group (only 2 workers), both of whom are illiterate. The data suggests that while Hindu migrants have slightly better access to basic education, Muslim migrants—despite being the second-largest group—face greater educational disadvantages, with most having minimal or no formal schooling.

Table 6.1.10
Association between Education and Caste

		Educational qualification							Total
		Illiterate	LP	UP	HS	HSE	DEGREE	DIPLOMA	
Caste	SC	16	6	15	24	5	3	2	71
	OBC	83	40	66	75	6	0	1	271
	ST	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	4
	General	23	6	6	17	2	0	0	54
Total		123	53	87	117	14	3	3	400

Source: Primary Data

This crosstabulation results shows that OBC migrants, despite being the largest group, face the most severe educational disadvantages, while SC workers—though still largely undereducated—have marginally better access to schooling. The near absence of higher education across all caste groups reinforces the trend of Kerala's construction sector relying on low-skilled, often illiterate labourers from marginalized communities. These disparities may stem from structural inequalities in their home states.

Table 6.1.11
Chi Square test of Association between Education and Religion

	Value	d.f.	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Significance
Pearson Chi-Square	66.692	18	0.000***	—
Likelihood Ratio	99.218	18	0.000***	—
Fisher's Exact Test	—	—	—	-
Linear-by-Linear Association	- 0.389 [†]	—	0.000*** (Spearman, r)	—
N of Valid Cases	400			

Source: Primary Data

The chi-square analysis between religion and educational qualification shows a Pearson Chi-square value of 66.692 with 18 degrees of freedom and a highly significant p-value ($p < 0.001$), indicating a strong association between the two variables

Table 6.1.12
Chi Square test of Association between Education and Caste

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	39.777 ^a	18	0.002
Likelihood Ratio	33.084	18	0.016
Fisher's Exact Test	35.308		
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.997 ^c	1	0.008
N of Valid Cases	400		

Source: Primary Data

The chi-square test examining the relationship between education and caste among in-migrant workers in Kerala reveals a Pearson Chi-square value of 39.777 with 18 degrees of freedom and a significant p-value of 0.002, indicating a meaningful

association between caste and educational attainment. This suggests that educational levels vary significantly across caste groups. The Likelihood Ratio Chi-square also supports this with a value of 33.084 and a p-value of 0.016, reinforcing the presence of this association. Thus, the data indicates that caste plays a significant role in shaping the educational profile of migrant workers in Kerala.

Table 6.1.13
Cross Tabulation with Education and State of Origin

		Educational qualifications							Total
		Illiterate	LP	UP	HS	HSE	DEGREE	DIPLOMA	
State of origin	Andra Pradesh	3	0	1	1	0	0	0	5
	Assam	4	2	3	6	0	0	0	15
	Bihar	25	3	9	8	0	0	2	47
	Odisha	2	0	1	5	0	0	0	8
	Orissa	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	5
	Tamil Nadu	0	1	0	2	0	0	1	4
	Tripura	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	UP	1	2	2	4	1	2	0	12
	West Bengal	85	42	71	91	13	1	0	303
Total		123	53	87	117	14	3	3	400

Source: Primary Data

The distribution of educational qualifications by state of origin among in-migrant workers in Kerala shows significant variation. The majority of migrants from **West Bengal** form the largest group (303 out of 400) and are spread across all education levels, though most are concentrated in the illiterate, lower primary (LP), upper primary (UP), and high school (HS) categories. States like **Bihar** and **Assam** also contribute notable numbers, but mainly with low to mid-level education. Higher education qualifications such as degrees and diplomas are rare overall, with only a few individuals from **Uttar Pradesh (UP)** and **Bihar** holding such credentials. This pattern reflects that most in-migrant workers in the construction sector in Kerala come from educationally disadvantaged backgrounds.

Table 6.1.14
Chi Square test of Association between Education and state of origin

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Monte Carlo Sig. (2-sided)		
				Significance	90% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Pearson Chi-Square	126.970 ^a	48	0	.017 ^b	0.014	0.019
Likelihood Ratio	72.433	48	0.013	.001 ^b	0	0.001
Fisher's Exact Test	84.28			.001 ^b	0.001	0.002
N of Valid Cases	400					

Source: Primary Data

The chi-square analysis reveals a statistically significant association between state of origin and educational qualification among in-migrant workers in Kerala, with a Pearson Chi-square value of 126.970 (df = 48, $p < 0.001$). However, since 85.7% of the cells have expected counts less than 5, the reliability of the asymptotic p-value is limited. To address this, a Monte Carlo simulation with 10,000 samples was conducted, yielding a corrected p-value of 0.017 with a 90% confidence interval between 0.014 and 0.019, confirming the significance of the association. The Likelihood Ratio ($\chi^2 = 72.433$, $p = 0.013$) and Fisher's Exact Test ($p = 0.001$) further support this result, indicating that educational attainment among migrant workers varies meaningfully across different states of origin.

Table 6.1.15
Cross tabulation with Economic Status and Caste

		Caste				Total
		SC	OBC	ST	General	
Economic status	BPL	65	238	4	48	355
	APL	6	33	0	6	45
Total		71	271	4	54	400

Source: Primary Data

The cross-tabulation shows the distribution of economic status across different caste groups among migrant workers. A large majority of respondents belong to the **BPL (Below Poverty Line)** category across all castes, with **SC (65 out of 71)**, **OBC (238 out of 271)**, **ST (4 out of 4)**, and **General (48 out of 54)** falling under BPL. The

APL (Above Poverty Line) category is relatively small across all caste groups, with the highest number in OBC (33) and very few in SC (6), General (6), and none in ST. This indicates that poverty is widespread among migrant workers, cutting across caste lines, though it is more concentrated within OBC and SC groups in absolute numbers due to their higher representation in the sample.

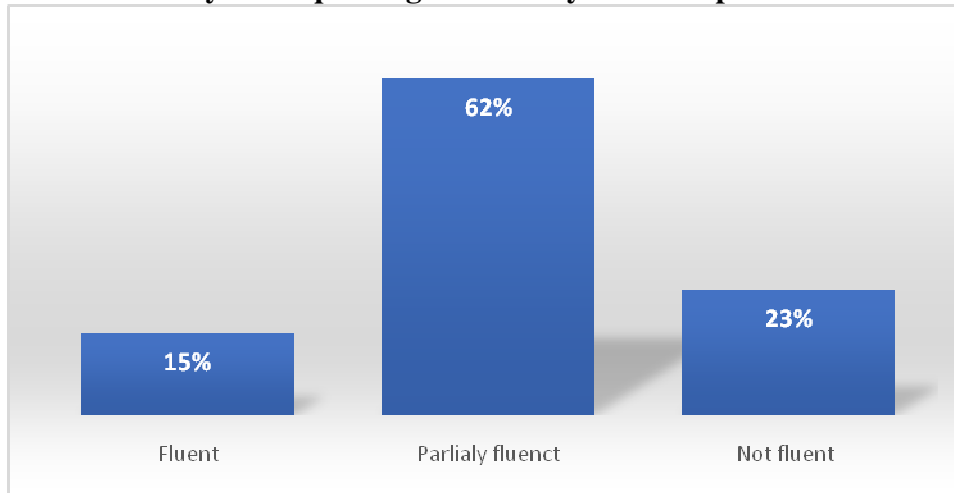
Table 6.1.16
Languages known to the respondents (n=400)

Languages	Per cent
Not responded	6.0
Hindi	85.8
Oriya	7.0
English	4.5
Bengali	73.3
Malayalam	14.8
Tamil	1.5
Gujarati	1.3
Marati	0.3
Assamese	1.5
Behari	1.3
Telegu	1.0
Others	4.3

Source: Primary data

The recent trend shown by the Census 2011 is the rapid increase in the migrants from West Bengal, Bihar UP, Odisha, and North Eastern States as against the results of Census 2001 and earlier which is characterized by the predominance of migrants from Tamil Nadu and Karnataka. This study results reveal the fact that almost three-fourths of the respondents know the Bengali language which is a sign of the dominance of inter-state migrants from West Bengal in the construction sector of Kerala. The knowledge of Malayalam opined by the respondents is the result of the acquisition of linguistic skills after the migration process since most of the migrants have been staying in Kerala for more than two years.

Chart 6.1.1
Malayalam Speaking Proficiency of the respondents



Source: Primary Data

The data on the proficiency of interstate migrant workers in speaking Malayalam reveals that a majority of the respondents have at least some abilities to communicate in the local language, with over half being partially fluent and a smaller segment being fully fluent. This indicates a gradual linguistic adaptation among migrant workers, which is likely driven by the need to navigate daily life and work-related communication in Kerala. However, a notable proportion still lacks fluency, suggesting barriers in social integration and potential difficulties in accessing services or asserting workplace rights. The prevalence of partial fluency also reflects the informal and on-the-job nature of language learning, as most migrants may not have access to formal training. This linguistic trend aligns with the broader patterns observed in migration studies, where adaptation is often practical and driven by immediate necessity rather than structured learning.

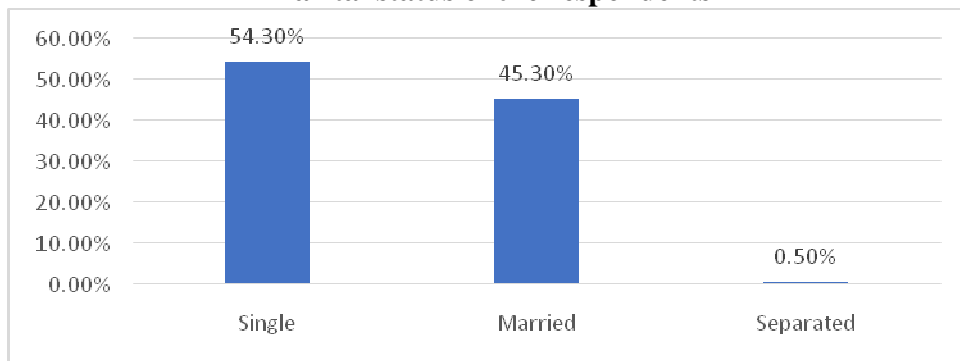
Table 6.1.17
Number of languages known by the respondents

Number of languages known	Frequency	Percent
Only languages known	94	23.5
2 languages known	216	54
3 languages known	78	19.5
More than 3 languages known	12	3
Total	400	100

Source: Primary Data

The decision to migrate by the potential migrants is always hurdled by the knowledge of the language at the destination and their ability to communicate. The study reveals the fact that about 54 % of the migrants employed in the construction sector know two languages of which one is Hindi and the other their regional language. About one-fifth of the respondents opined that they can understand the meaning of Malayalam spoken by employers, supervisors, and contractors and can reply in broken Malayalam to the queries of the employer since they have been familiar with that language for many months. Only very few respondents know the English language.

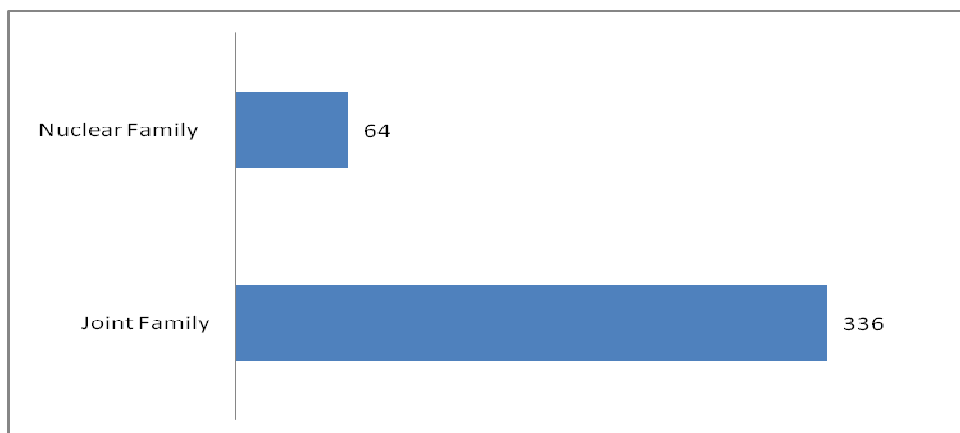
Chart 6.1.2
Marital status of the respondents



Source: Primary Data

Regarding the marital status of the long-distance inter-state migrants to the construction sector of Kerala, single rather than married outweighs the scene. This is partly because the major proportion of the respondents belongs to the age category of less than 25.

Chart 6.1.3
Nature of family of the respondents



Source: Primary Data

The nature of the family exerts influence on the propensity to migrate. The joint family with a greater number of dependent persons compels the youth to migrate as a mechanism to escape from poverty and the indebtedness of the family. About 84% of the interstate migrants were coming from joint families and migration is found as a safety valve to escape from the pathetic situation of the family.

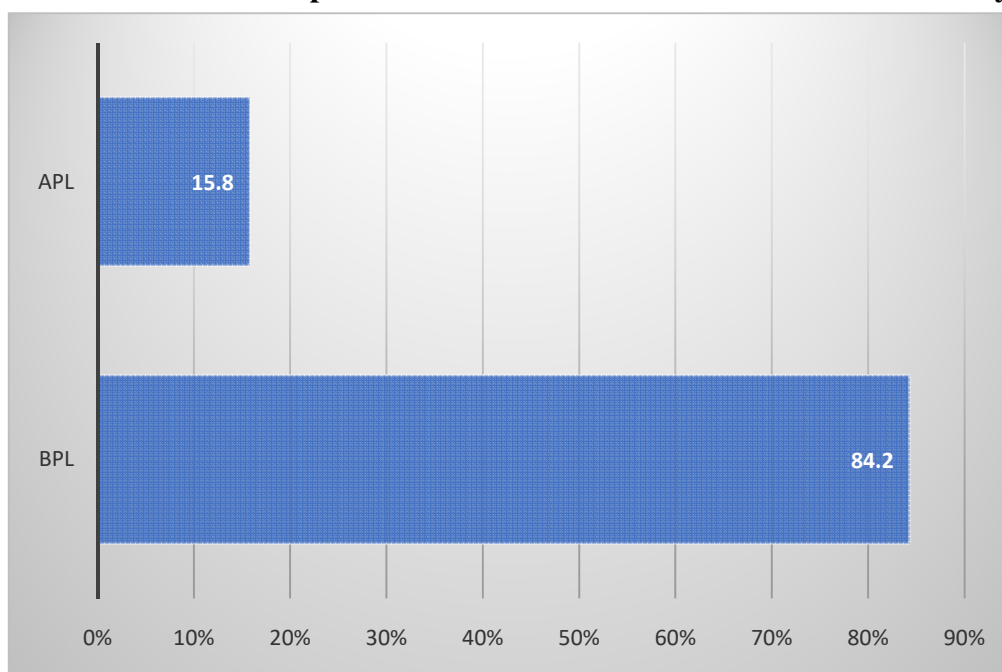
Table 6.1.18
Distribution of the respondents based on family size

Family size	Frequency	Percent
2-4	117	29.3
5-8	244	61.0
Above 8	39	9.8
Total	400	100.0

Source: Primary Data

The major chunk of the internal migration comprises of lowest quintiles of monthly per capital income which in turn is determined by the size of the family. The study found that about 61% of the migrants' family size is more than 5 members.

Chart 6.1.4
Distribution of the respondents based on the economic status of the family



Source: Primary Data

Poverty and unemployment are the economic factors that act as major catalysts for the migration process. The Chart 6.1.4 shows that about 84% of the interstate migrants employed in the construction sector belong to BPL families and the major migrants-sending states rank top in Poverty compared to Kerala.

Table 6.1.19
Type of house in the native place of the respondents

Type	Frequency	Percent
Thatched	256	64.0
Tiles	41	10.3
Concrete	92	23.0
Others	11	2.8
Total	400	100.0

Source: Primary Data

The living conditions of the migrants in the native places shows that 2/3 or of them are having only thatched roof of straw, water reed etc. for roofing. Since they are born and brought up in such a situation, the migrants feel comfortable in staying in the premises of the worksite or even in the crowded rooms on sharing basis in Kerala even though it is not hygienic and feels deplorable

Table 6.1.20
Nature of ownership of house in the native state

Ownership	Frequency	Percent
Owned	393	98.3
Rented	1	0.3
Others	6	1.6
Total	400	100.0

Source: Primary Data

Regarding the ownership condition of the house at native place, the results show a favorable situation that 98% of the migrants own their house at native place but they possess basic dwellings. The high rate of ownership may also highlight their migratory nature and reluctance or inability to settle permanently in the host state.

Table 6.1.21
Classification based on period of arrival at Kerala as on 2022

Period	Frequency	Percent
1-5 years	129	32.3
6-10 years	166	41.5
11-15 years	78	19.5
>15 years	25	6.3
Not responded	2	0.5
Total	400	100

Source: Primary Data

The results of the study reveal the fact that interstate migration to Kerala is not a seasonal one since most of the respondents about (41.5%) lives in Kerala for 6 to 10 years and 32.3 % of the migrants employed in the construction sector of Kerala has informed that their duration in Kerala is less than five years. it is observed that 19.5 % of the migrants are staying in Kerala for more than 11 years. This finding is in aligns with the study conducted by Shajeena, 2020.

Table 6.1.22
Arrival of Migrants of different periods

Response	Frequency	Percent
Yes	101	25.2
No	299	74.8
Total	400	100

Source: Primary Data

The study found that about $\frac{3}{4}$ of the respondents have not stayed in Kerala in their prior time period. This shows that Kerala is their first migrant destination for the far-off North-Eastern states of India

Table 6.1.23
Leaving the home for the first time

Response	Frequency	Percent
Yes	315	78.8
No	85	21.3
Total	400	100

Source: Primary Data

To understand whether the Kerala is the first place of migration data was collected whether they are leaving their native place first time. The result shows that 78% of the migrants are leaving the home for the first time. 1/5 of the respondents comprising the age group of more 25 years of age replied that they made migration to other places also and Kerala is not their first destination of their migration.

Table 6.1.24
Details of facilities for accommodation in Kerala

Characteristics	Response	Frequency	Percent
Nature of dwelling	House	20	5.0
	Individual room	3	0.8
	Shared room	261	65.3
	Premises of worksite	105	26.3
	Labour camp	11	2.8
Electrified	Yes	365	83.7
	No	65	16.3
Availability of toilet	Common	391	97.8
	Individual	9	2.2
Fuel used in the house	Wood	311	77.8
	Kerosene	31	7.8
	Wood and Kerosene	3	0.8
	Gas	1	0.3
	Kerosene and Gas	2	0.5
	Others	50	12.5
	Kerosene and others	2	0.5
Nature of roof	Tarpaulin	18	4.5
	Sheet	157	39.2
	Tiled	50	12.5
	Concrete roof	151	37.8
	Sheet and tiled	9	2.3
	Sheet and concrete	12	3
	Tiled and concrete	3	0.8

Source: Primary Data

To know the living conditions of the migrants engaged in the construction sector the nature of dwelling, the availability of electricity, toilet facility, fuel used for the cooking and the nature of roof in which they are staying in Kerala were asked and it is found that majority constituting 65 % of the respondents are living in a room on a shared basis and 26 % of the respondents are staying in the premises of the worksite as their dwelling. The reason for staying at the worksite itself was preferred in order to escape from the room rent and to avoid the cost and problems of travelling to the worksite with the tools and kits. Discussion with the agents and contractors regarding the benefits of keeping the migrant workers at the worksite itself is found as blessings to the construction work for the timely completion of the proposed work and to employ them for overtime work ranging to 9 pm. Regarding the availability of electricity at the living place the situation is found to be in a better position since 83.7 % of the migrants staying in the electrified dwelling. The most pathetic living situation of the migrants is found in the availability of toilet. 97.8 % of the respondents are using the common toilet on shared basis. The use of common toilet by ranging 15-20 migrants in a house necessitates awaking early in the morning to make use of the toilet by all. They informed that they usually practice common bath in the surrounding by all using the water from the cement tank or well .it is found that the use of cooking gas limited among the migrants since it found difficult to get a gas connection to the floating population without any proper proof for permanent address compelling them to use wood purchased from the market or kerosene for the purpose of cooking, the filed survey observed that most of the migrants are living in the houses with roofs or in the concrete roofed houses which are usually abandoned house by the native owners either due to its ruined nature or in a bad state of repairs. This also supports the findings of Lazar, 2013, which establishes significant proportion of migrants reside in shared rooms or directly at the worksite to avoid rent and transportation costs, a practice that also benefits contractors by ensuring timely work completion and availability for extended hours.

Table 6.1.25
Person Who arranged accommodation in Kerala

Person	Frequency	Percent
Employer	59	14.8
Contractor	115	28.8
Myself	44	11.0
Friends & relatives	182	45.5
Total	400	100

Source: Primary Data

The crucial role played by the friends and relatives in the migration process by ensuring the accommodation facility in the new area is clear from the results that staying facility for about 45.5 % of the respondents is done by friends and relatives. Apart from the friends and relatives the generous contractors and the employers is also aids in arranging dwelling to the migrants.

Table 6.1.26
Number of occupants in the present dwelling

No. of person	Frequency	Percent
1-5	164	41.0
6-10	61	15.3
11-15	47	11.8
Above 15	128	32.0
Total	400	100

Source: Primary Data

No. of persons living in a house range in between 1 to 40 with a mean number of persons in a house is 12.57. The respondents explained the usual practice among them as hiring a home for rent by a group of migrants and sharing a room by more than 5 members.

Table 6.1.27
Source of drinking water

Source	Frequency	Percent
Open well	41	10.25
Public tap	151	37.8
Public well	32	8.0
Others	160	40.0
Own tap	16	4.0
Total	400	100.0

Source: Primary Data

Public tap is emerged as the major source of drinking water for the respondent's followed by open well and public sources. Own tap facility is available only to limited 4% of the respondents.

Table 6.1.28
Amenities available in the present dwelling

Amenities	Frequency	Percent
Radio	12	3.00
TV	65	16.25
Cable	35	8.75
Fridge	7	1.75
Mixer	2	0.50
Grinder	98	24.50
Fan	18	4.50

Source: Primary Data

Regarding the amenities available at home the results show the limited availability of essential amenities in their living place which indirectly increases physical as well as mental hardships of migrants at their staying place in addition to the hazardous work at the construction site.

Table 6.1.29
Distance from the dwelling to worksite

Source	Frequency	Percent
<500 meters	122	30.50
500mtrs to 2km	98	24.50
More than 2 km	180	45.00
Total	400	100.0

Source: Primary Data

About 55% of the respondents opined that they stay within the radius of 2 km from the worksite, but about 45 % are staying more than 2 km away from the worksite.

Table 6.1.30
Mode of conveyance to the work site

Source	Frequency	Percent
Vehicle arranged by employer	158	39.50
Line bus	69	17.25
Two-wheeler	13	3.25
By walking	77	19.25
Vehicle arranged by employer and Line bus	68	17.00
Vehicle arranged by employer and Two-wheeler	1	0.25
Vehicle arranged by employer or by walking	1	0.25
Line bus or two-wheeler	2	0.50
Line bus or walking	2	0.50
Vehicle arranged by employer, Line bus or walking	9	2.25
Total	400	100

Source: Primary Data

Vehicle arranged by the employer is the major mode of conveyance to the worksite to the migrants. They expressed their preference in using the vehicle arranged by the employer as a coping mechanism to escape from the communication problems arising while using the public transportation system regarding the lack of knowledge and information about the places of their destination and the work place. Walking in group to the workplace is also used as a means to reach the worksite by about 1/5 of the total respondents.

6.2 Preference for selecting construction sector

Kerala's construction boom, driven by remittance-fuelled investments and urban expansion, has created a massive demand for manual labour that the local workforce increasingly educated and aspirational is unwilling to fulfil (Rajan and Zachariah ,2019). This aligns with Breman's (1996) observations on how economic development in destination states creates a "vacuum effect" in low-skilled sectors, attracting migrants from poorer regions. The high wage and regularity of employment opportunities existing in the construction sector attracts the unskilled and semi-skilled workers. Kerala's construction wages are significantly higher than those in Bihar, Odisha, or West Bengal—often by 200-300%—making it a rational choice for income-maximizing migrants (Deshingkar and Akter, 2009) . The informal nature of the industry, with minimal entry barriers (no skills/credentials required), also facilitates absorption.

The current study examines the specific reasons for preferring the construction sector of Kerala by the in-migrants.

Table 6.2.1
First work opted reaching here in Kerala

First work	Frequency	Percent
Construction	371	92.75
Industrial work	15	3.75
Hotels and restaurants	10	2.50
Agriculture	2	0.50
Total	400	100.0

Source: Primary Data

The study results reveal the fact that construction work is selected and opted as their job in Kerala for the first time about 92.75% of the migrants. The attraction of higher wages offered in the construction sector of Kerala and the regular availability of the work in the construction sector acts as the pull factor in selecting the construction sector as their job in.

Table 6.2.2
Number in terms of order the selection of construction sector as work

Order of selection	Frequency	Percent
First	336	84.0
Second	16	4.0
Third	48	12.0
Total	400	100.0

Source: Primary Data

In the order of selection also the construction sector stands first in terms their selection of the job in Kerala which indicates that the construction sector in Kerala is their pre-determined work in Kerala as motivated by friends, relatives and agents & contractors in Kerala

Table 6.2.3
Duration of working in the construction Sector

Period	Frequency	Percent
For last six months	70	17.50
2 years	78	19.50
More than 2 years	239	59.75
Total	400	100.0

Source: Primary Data

The study's finding that around 60% of inter-state migrants have been working in Kerala's construction sector for more than two years strongly resonates with the observations made by Peter and Narendran (2017) in their qualitative study on labor migration to Kerala. Their research revealed that Kerala has become a crucial destination for migrant workers, particularly from Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe communities in states like West Bengal, Bihar, Odisha, Assam, and Uttar Pradesh, who are drawn by the relatively higher wages, job regularity, and peaceful social environment despite the hazardous nature of construction work. This long-term engagement of migrants in Kerala's construction sector highlights a critical labor market dynamic where the state's educated native youth increasingly shun blue-collar

jobs due to their perceived low status and physical risks, creating a dependency on migrant labor to sustain the booming construction industry. Peter and Narendran's findings about migrants willingly accepting dangerous working conditions and potential exploitation due to limited alternatives in their home states further contextualize why these workers remain in Kerala for extended periods, even in difficult jobs. Their study's emphasis on the need for migrant-inclusive policies becomes particularly relevant given the current research's demonstration of migrants' sustained participation in Kerala's labor market, underscoring the urgency of addressing workplace safety, social security, and equitable treatment for this indispensable workforce that underpins a key sector of Kerala's economy.

Table 6.2.4
Prior experience in construction work at the native place

Experience	Frequency	Percent
No experience	128	32.00
Helper	196	49.00
Brick worker	1	0.25
Mason	44	11.00
Tiles worker	7	1.75
Plastering	6	1.50
Others	12	3.00
Helper and mason	2	0.50
Mason, brick worker and helper	4	1.00
Total	400	100

Source: Primary Data

Most of the reports of the Kerala government and the study reports reveal the fact that about 60% of the interstate migrants in Kerala find their jobs in the construction sector. On the basis of the above, for assessing the high concentration of migrants in the construction sector, it is enquired about their past experience in the construction sector in their native state. The results of the study shows that about 49% of the respondents have worked as helper in the construction sector in their native states which can be done by any unskilled labour without any prior experience or similar background. But 32 % have informed that they have no prior experience in the construction sector. About 11% of the respondents are already worked as Mason in their state in the construction sector. These peoples have upgraded as the skilled labourers after the migration.

Table 6.2.5
The work in the construction sector got first in Kerala

Type of Work	Frequency	Percent
Helper	324	81.00
Brick worker	5	1.25
Mason	42	10.50
Tiles worker	13	3.25
Plastering	5	1.25
Others	11	2.75
Total	400	100

Source: Primary Data

In corollary to the dual labour market theory which propounds that there exists primary market which employs native skilled labourers with high wage and skilled, management jobs and the secondary market which is characterised by the short term employment relationship, no prospects for internal promotion and discrimination of wages between the native labourers and migrants labourers in a same field, the major chunk of migrants (81%) in the construction sector are employed as helper in Kerala which are categorised and done mostly by the unskilled workers and are getting only low wage compared to the other workers in the construction field.

Table 6.2.6
The work in the construction sector presently doing

Type of Work	Frequency	Percent
Centering	4	1.00
Concrete work	9	2.25
Fabrication	2	0.50
Helper	243	60.75
Main contractor	2	0.50
Mason	117	29.25
Painter	7	1.75
Plaster of Paris work	2	0.50
Plastering	10	2.50
Supervisor	1	0.25
Supervisor cum engineer	1	0.25
Tile work	2	0.50
Total	400	100

Source: Primary Data

The study results shows that even after the migration, the high proportion (60 %) is still employed as helper in the construction and about 29.25 % of the migrants are employed

as mason which is skilled job in the construction sector. The table empirically validates Dual Labor Market Theory: Kerala's developed economy structurally depends on migrant labor for undesirable jobs, while locals dominate skilled/managerial roles. This duality sustains Kerala's construction boom but highlights systemic inequality in labor conditions.

Table 6.2.7
Reason for choosing construction work

Reason	Frequency	Percent
High wage	373	93.25
Regularity of work	362	90.50
Companionship of friends and relatives in the work site	297	74.25
No need for special accommodation expenses	102	25.5
Experience in the work	186	46.5
Due to contract	12	3.0
Others	9	2.25

Source: Primary Data

The selection of the construction sector in Kerala by inter-state migrant workers can be effectively explained through Everett S. Lee's "A Theory of Migration" (1966), which emphasizes the push and pull factors between the place of origin and destination. Migrants are pushed from their native places due to seasonal unemployment and irregularity of work in the agricultural sector, while they are pulled toward Kerala by the high wages and regular employment available in the construction sector—factors that outweigh the disadvantages of leaving home. Lee also highlights the role of intervening obstacles and personal factors; in this case, the companionship of friends and relatives already employed in Kerala acts as a support system, reducing emotional and logistical barriers to migration. The decision to migrate, therefore, is a rational response to maximize economic gain and minimize uncertainty, where the expected benefits at the destination surpass the hardships at the origin. This aligns not only with Lee's theory but also with the migration network theory of Edward J Taylor (1986), showing how social connections facilitate and sustain migration flows.

Table 6.2.8
Planning to shift from construction sector to any other sector of work

Response	Frequency	Percent
Yes	30	7.50
No	370	92.50
Total	400	100

Source: Primary Data

Although migrants are migratory in nature, but regarding the sector they prefer to continue was demystified in the study and it is found that 92.5% of the respondents are not willing to shift from the construction sector as they are highly satisfied in working in the construction sector although job in the construction sector is precarious and tedious.

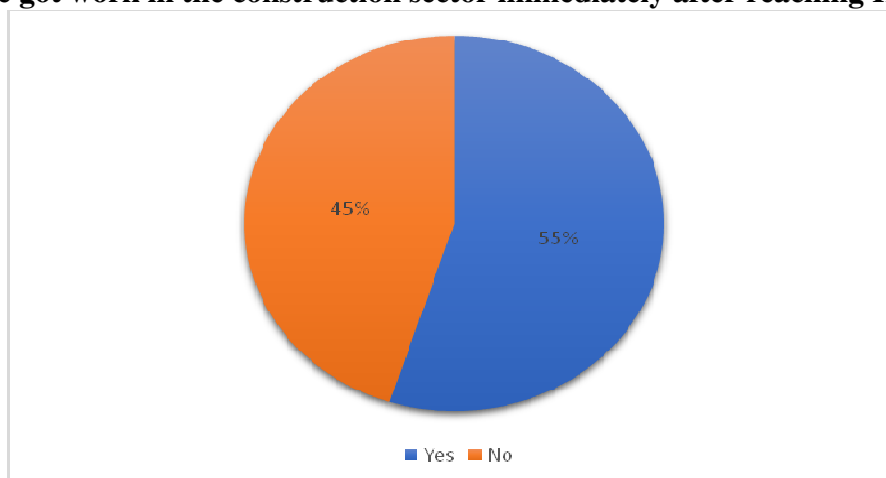
Table 6.2.9
Satisfaction of the respondents in the construction sector work

Response	Frequency	Percent
Yes	278	69.5
No	122	30.5
Total	400	100

Source: Primary Data

The results of the study reveal the fact that although guest workers are filling the vacuum created by the gulf migration and the unwillingness of the domestic youth labourers to take up the blue-collar job in the construction sector, the semi-skilled and unskilled migrant labors are satisfied in the construction sector as their sector of employment.

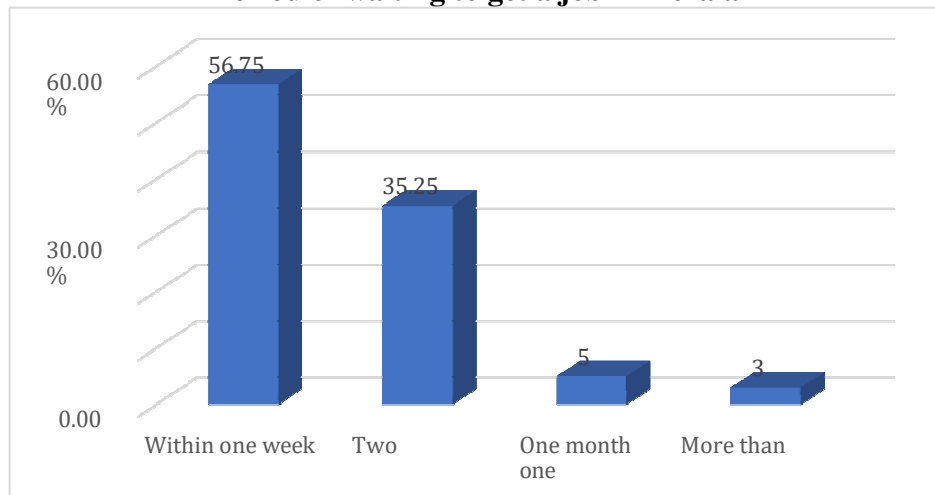
Chart 6.2.1
Have got work in the construction sector immediately after reaching Kerala



Source: Primary Data

The study results reveal that 55 % of the migrants got work in Kerala immediately after reaching Kerala which reinforces the existence of employment opportunities for blue-collar jobs in the construction sector of Kerala amidst the high unemployment rate in Kerala.

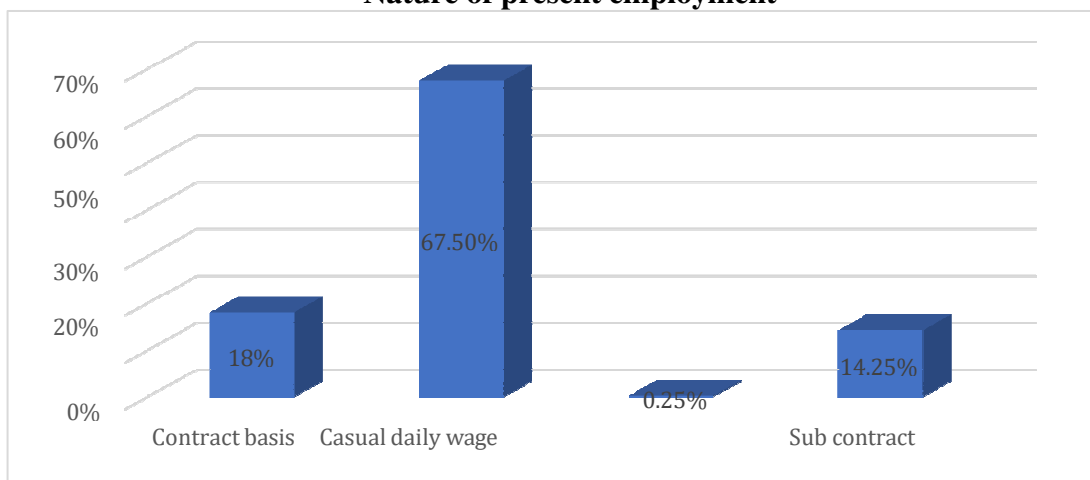
Chart 6.2.2
Period of waiting to get a job in Kerala



Source: Primary Data

The existence of high social networks in the form of friends, relatives, contractors, and agents reduces the duration of job search and frictional unemployment scenario among migrant workers in Kerala. The finding of the study shows that about 92% of the migrants working in the construction sector of Kerala got work within two weeks.

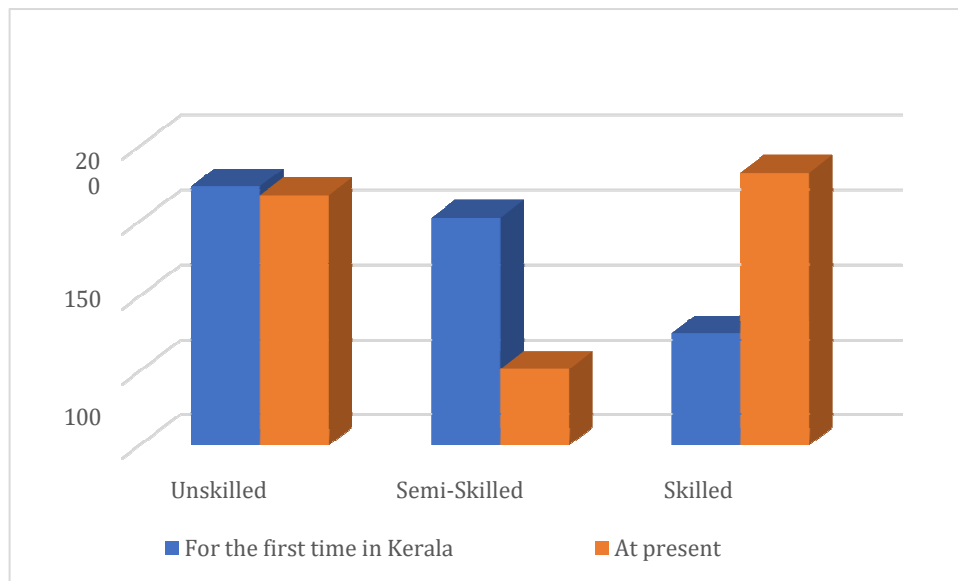
Chart 6.2.3
Nature of present employment



Source: Primary Data

The nature of employment of the migrants in the construction sector shows that about 67.5 % of the respondents are employed on a casual daily wage basis and 18% of the respondents are employed on a contract basis. It is found that about 14.25 % of them are taking work as subcontracts from the main contractors.

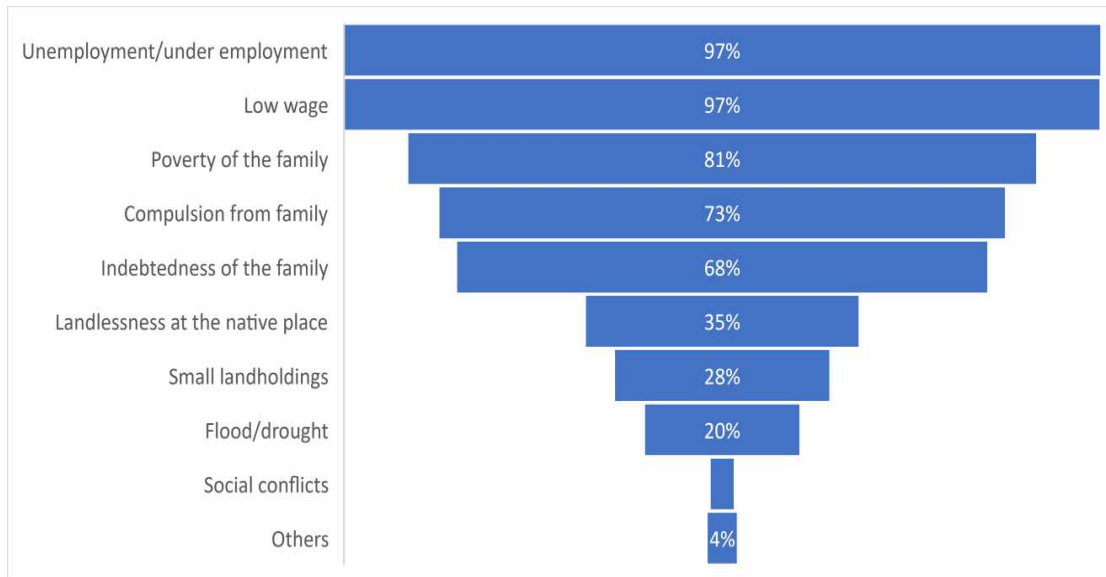
Chart 6.2.4
Nature Of First Job Received Vis-A-Vis the Present Job in Kerala



Source: Primary Data

By engaging in the same activity, people have acquired the necessary skills that facilitate efficiency enhancement and saving time made possible by the famous dictum of ‘learning by doing’. Likewise, migration had a positive impact on the skills of the labourers. In the study, it is found that there is a significant change in the skills of the labourers as they progress from their first employment to the present employment status. Unskilled and semi-skilled workers are transformed into skilled workers after migration and being employed in the same activity of construction in Kerala. Though only 18.75 % of the migrants are reported as skilled workers at the time of entry to their first employment, about 45.5 % of the respondents informed that they are now engaging in skilled work in the construction sector of Kerala. This increase in skills and efficiency also enabled them to bargain higher wages after migration and to send more remittances to their family in their native place.

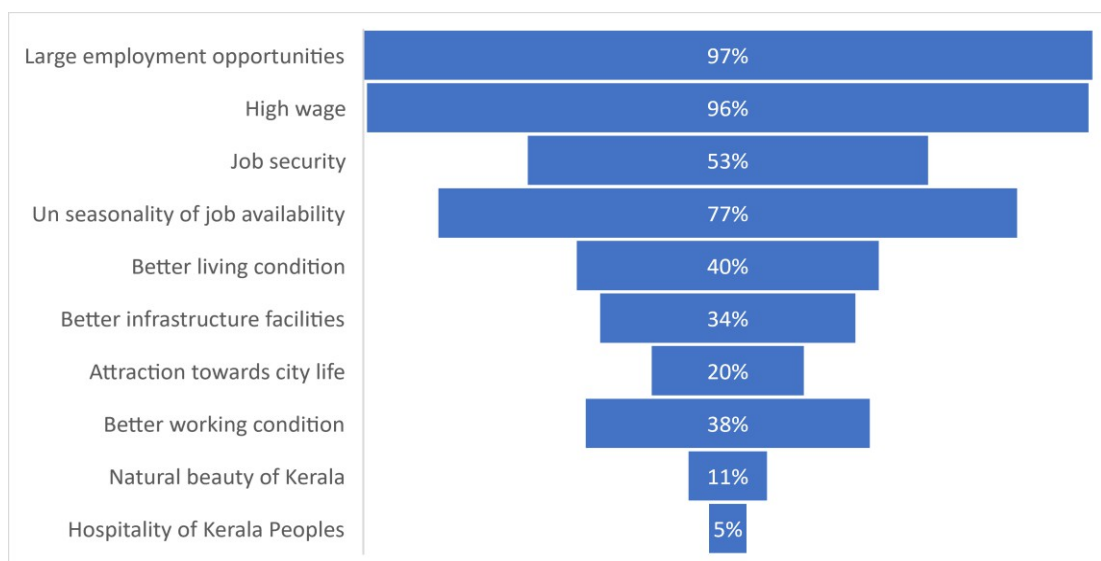
Chart 6.2.5
Push factors for migration



Source: Primary Data

The prime push factor for the interstate migration to the construction sector of Kerala is identified as the unemployment or underemployment existing at the native place followed by the low wage at the state of origin. The poverty of the family and the resulting compulsion from the family members and indebtedness also aggravate the migration decision of the migrants as per the data.

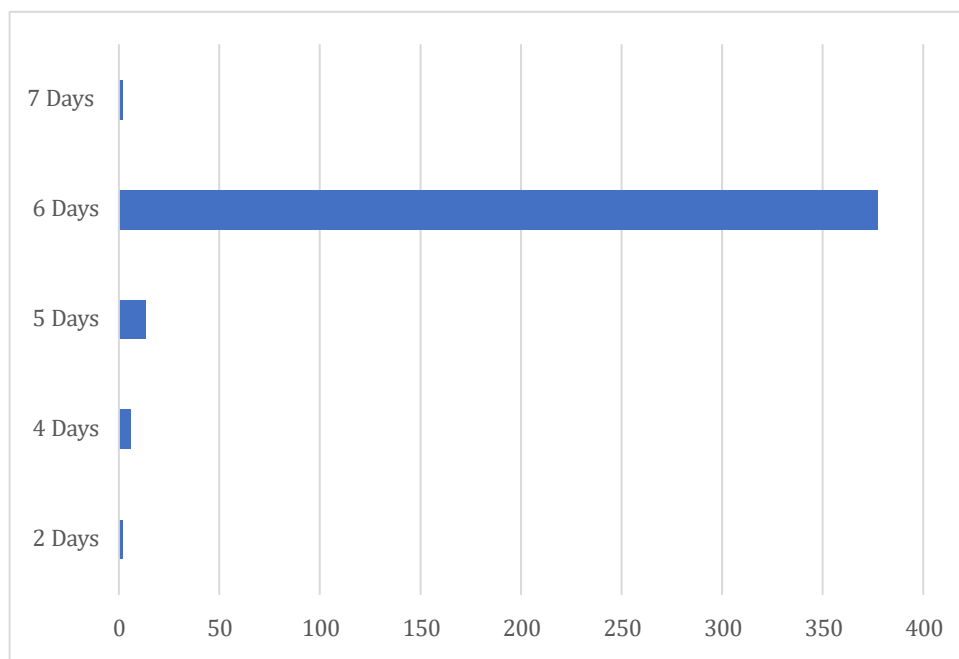
Chart 6.2.6
Pull factors for migration



Source: Primary Data

The study results indicate that the existence of large employment opportunities in the construction sector is the prime pull factor of migration to Kerala. Along with the ample employment opportunities, the high wages offered in the construction sector secured continuous jobs are also cited as the reason for opting for the construction sector of Kerala by more than 50 % of the respondents. It is also noted that the Natural beauty of Kerala, the hospitality of the people, and the high degree of urbanization also prompt the young migrants to Kerala. From the discussion with the young respondents, it comes to know that they have travelled across the state and have enjoyed the beauty of Munnar and other major tourist places of Kerala during the off days of work like Onam and Pooja holidays.

Chart 6.2.7
Promised Number of days of employment in a week



Source: Primary Data

Null Hypothesis 2. There is no difference in the number of days of work in a month promised at the time of employment and the actual number of days of work in Kerala Paired t-test was done to test the above hypothesis

Table 6.2.10
Results of comparison of the promised number of works at the time of employment and the actual number of days of work presently getting

Place	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-value	P-value
At the time of employment	400	23.69	1.659	13.326**	0.001
At present	400	21.64	2.810		

** Significant at 0.01 level

The result given in the above table shows that the p-value is less than 0.01. Hence, the t-value is significant and so, the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted. Hence there is a difference in the average quantity of work promised in a month at the time of employment and an actual number of days of employment. The average number of man-days in a month promised at the time of employment was 23.69 and presently they get 21.64 days indicating that there is a reduction in the quantity of work they are engaged in presently compared to what they are promised at the time of employment.

Table 6.2.11
Descriptive statistics regarding wage rate received per day

Variable	N	Minimum m	Maximum m	Mean	Std. Deviation
Wage promised	387	250	1000	667.65	112.683
Wage received for usual work	240	50	875	646.23	141.259
Wage for overtime work	191	25.0	450.0	78.141	63.6563
Total wages received	343	100	1150	699.90	136.488

Source: Primary Data

The wage rate promised by the agents/contractor ranges between Rs. 250 to Rs. 1000 and the wage presently paid ranges between Rs. 100 to Rs. 1150. The wage earned at the upper end is found to exceed the maximum wage promised by the agents/contractors owing to the extra payment they receive for the overtime work that often ranges between Rs. 25 to Rs. 450 per day.

Null Hypothesis 3. There is no difference in the wage rate promised by the agent/contractor and what they are getting per day for usual work Paired t-test was done to test the above hypothesis

Table 6.12
Results of comparison of wage rate promised by the agent/contractor and what they are getting per day for usual work

Place	Mean	SD	t-value	P-value
Wage rate promised	665.79	114.22	4.913**	0.001
Presently getting	644.26	141.71		

** Significant at 0.01 level

The result given in the above table shows that the p-value is less than 0.01. Hence, the t-value is significant, and can be inferred that there is a difference in the wage rate promised per month at the time of employment and the wage they are presently getting. The average wage rate promised per day at the time of employment was

Rs. 665.79 and presently they get Rs. 644.26 per day for usual work; implying a reduction in the wage rate received presently compared to what they are promised at the time of employment.

Null Hypothesis 4. There is no difference in the wage rate promised by the agent/contractor and the total wage rate they are getting presently Paired t-test was done to test the above hypothesis

Table 6.2.13
Results of comparison of wage rate promised by the agent/contractor and total wage rate they get presently

**

Place	Mean	SD	t-value	P-value
Wage rate promised	665.75	113.10	7.724**	0.001
Presently getting	698.26	136.51		

Significant at 0.01 level

Results given in table shows that the p-value is less than 0.01. Hence, the t-value is significant suggesting a difference in the wage rate promised per month at the time of employment and total wages received presently. The average wage rate

promised at the time of employment was Rs. 665.75 and presently they get Rs. 698.26. This indicates that there is an increase in the total wage they receive presently compared to what they are promised at the time of employment primarily due to overtime work.

Table 6.2.14
Details of Doing Overtime work by the interstate migrants

Response	Frequency	Per cent
Yes	191	47.75
No	209	52.25
Total	400	100

Source: Primary Data

Null Hypothesis 5. There is no difference in the wage rate at their native place and in Kerala Paired t-test was done to test the above hypothesis

Table 6.2.15
Results of comparison of wage rate received at their native place and in Kerala

**

Place	Mean	SD	t-value	P-value
Native place	301.82	84.0	37.143**	0.001
In Kerala	649.09	130.80		

Significant at 0.01 level

Results given in table shows that as the p-value is less than 0.01, the t-value is significant and so is inferred that there is a difference in the wage rate received at their native place and that received in Kerala. The average wage rate that received at their native place was Rs. 301.82 and that they are receiving in Kerala is Rs. 649.09. A significant result indicates that there is a significant hike in wage rate in Kerala compared to their native place.

The Preferences of Inter-State Migrant Labourers to the Construction Sector of Kerala- Exploratory Factor Analysis

Under factor analysis, each variable is shown as a linear combination of the factors. The co-variation among the variables is interpreted in terms of a minimum number of common factors along with a unique factor for all variables which may not be always observed. The factor model is represented below.

$$F_i = W_{i1} F_1 + W_{i2} F_2 + W_{i3} F_3 + \dots + W_{ik} F_k$$

Were

F_i = Estimate of i^{th} factor W_i = Weight score coefficient K = Number of variables

The weights or factor coefficients can be selected so that the first part will explain the largest part of the total variance. Then the second factor could be selected and so on. For additional factors, additional weights could be applied. Here, the preferences of respondents concerning their selection of the construction sector of the labour market are ranked as least preferred (1) to 5 (strongly preferred) using a five-point Likert Scaling technique. The analysis was performed using SPSS and the following results were obtained

Table: 6.2.16
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Test

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin	Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.527
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	82.410
	df	15
	Sig.	.000

Source: Analysis from Primary Data

The KMO test as can be seen in the Chart shows that there is a 0.527 % of sampling adequacy in the said model and the P value 0.000 shows that the significance level among variables is the highest.

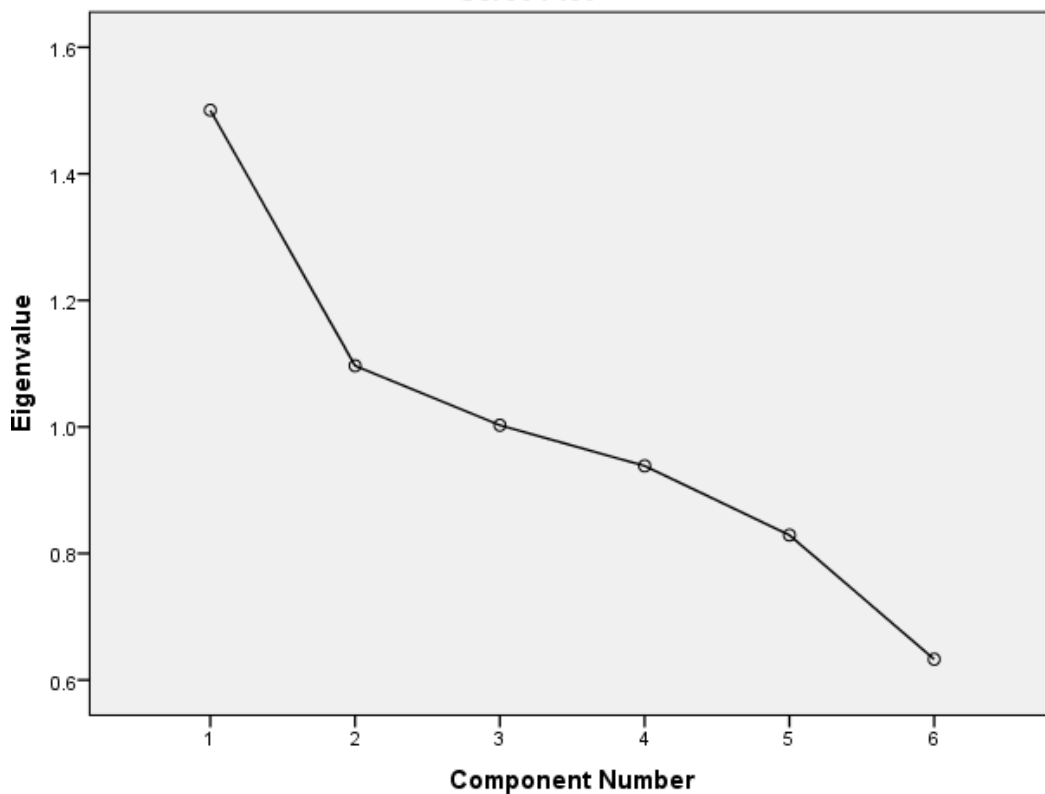
Table 6.2.17
Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Extraction			Eigen values Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.500	25.008	25.008	1.500	25.008	25.008	1.216	20.265	20.265
2	1.097	18.278	43.286	1.097	18.278	43.286	1.212	20.198	40.463
3	1.003	16.712	59.998	1.003	16.712	59.998	1.172	19.534	59.998
4	.938	15.639	75.637						
5	.829	13.817	89.454						
6	.633	10.546	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

The chart shows three factors extracted from the analysis done along with their Eigen values, the per cent of the variance, the cumulative variance of the factor, and other factors. There are three factors extracted viz 1.5, 1.09 and 1.003 as Eigen value is greater than 1. The eigenvalues convey the total variance in the data which is explained by a factor. These factors are retained in the model and others are excluded from the analysis. These three factors explain a total of 60% of the variance. The first extracted factor explains 20.265% of the variance in

Chart 6.2.8
The Scree plot
Scree Plot



all six variables, the second one is 20.198%, and so on

Chart 6.3.1 shows the scree plot which is a graphical representation of the three eigenvalues greater than one which are being considered for extraction.

Table: 6.2.18
Rotated Component Matrix

	Component		
	1	2	3
Regularity of Work	0.798		
Companionship and presence of relatives	.563		
contact		.863	
high wage	.340		
work experience		-.737	
Cheap accommodation			-.277

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Here rotation is employed to ease the process of a factor analysis. The basic idea of rotation applied here is to chop down the number of factors for which the variable has higher loading. Table explains the rotated factor loadings of 3 factors having 6 variables which show the preferences of respondents towards the construction sector. As can be seen above, a total of three factors, four variables with the highest positive, and two factors with negative factors are extracted. That is to say, the variables ‘Regularity of work’, ‘contact’, ‘companionship and presence of relatives’ and ‘high wage’ are found to be coming under positive factor loading wherein the immigrants are positively influenced to enter the construction sector of Kerala. Similarly, ‘work experience’ and ‘cheap accommodation’ are found to be coming under negative factors which implies that these variables negatively influence the entry of immigrants into the construction sector. Of these six variables, ‘contact’; and ‘companionship & presence of relatives’ can be brought under ‘social factors. The variables ‘cheap accommodation’, ‘high wage’, and ‘work experience’ do come under ‘economic factors. Similarly, one variable viz ‘regularity of work’ is brought under ‘physical factors.’

Table 6.2.19
Social Factors

Sl. No	Variables	Factor Loadings	Eigen Value	% Variance
1	Contact	0.863	1.216	20.265
2	Companionship and presence of relatives	0.563		

From the table, factor 1 has a higher loading of 0.863 (contact) and 0.563 (companionship and presence of relatives) as the factor loading of these variables is greater than 5%. From the analysis, it becomes clear that the respondents have a higher preference to work in the construction sector of Kerala thanks to these two variables. The preferences of the respondents and these two variables are positively related as both factor loadings have positive signs. High contact of the immigrants with the workers in the labour market and the friends of immigrant workers who are already working in Kerala's construction sector are the social factors that pull other state workers to work in Kerala.

Table 6.2.20
Economic Factors

SI No	Variables	Factor Loadings	Eigen Value	% Variance
1	Cheap Accommodation	-0.277	1.212	20.198
2	High wage	0.340		
3	Work experience	-0.737		

From the Table factor 2 has a higher loading on -0.277 (cheap accommodation), higher wage (0.340), and work experience (-0.737). It is noteworthy that the preferences of the respondents are negatively related to cheap accommodation and work experience as the factor loadings have negative signs. However high wage is positively associated with the preferences of the immigrants to work in the construction sector of Kerala. That is to say, cheap accommodation and work experiences do not appear as the driving forces for the respondents to throng the labour market in Kerala. But high wage is the catalyst for the workers to enter Kerala's labour market.

Table 6.2.21
Physical Factors

Sl.NO	Variables	Factor Loadings	Eigen Value	% Variance
1	Regularity of work	0.798	1.172	19.534

From the Table Factor 3 has a higher loading of 0.798 (regularity of work). The respondents have preferred to work in the construction sector in the state of Kerala thanks to the regular availability of work. This is probably because the continuous availability of working hours must have scaled up their earnings for sending remittances to their family. We have seen that during the post-migration scenario, there is a marked increase in the savings of the workers. This finding corroborates such a fact.

6.3 Role of intermediaries and Networks in the interstate labour migration to the construction sector of Kerala

Interstate labour migration into the construction sector in Kerala has witnessed a significant increase, especially after the past two decades. Migrant workers from north and north eastern states such as West Bengal, Bihar, Assam, Odisha, and Jharkhand are now an essential part of Kerala's construction workforce. A crucial factor accelerating this labour movement is the presence and functioning of intermediaries, including agents, contractors, subcontractors, and labour suppliers. Their role is best explained by Migration Network Theory, which emphasises the importance of social and institutional connections in reducing the costs and uncertainties associated with migration.

According to Migration Network Theory, migration, along with economic push and pull factors, the interpersonal ties and institutional arrangements that connect migrants in the destination area with their communities of origin, also work as a crucial factor in the migration process. Intermediaries act as vital nodes in these networks, linking potential migrants with job opportunities, facilitating transportation, arranging initial accommodation, and sometimes even advancing wages. In the construction sector, where work is often informal and unregulated, these intermediaries play a pivotal role in labour recruitment, placement, and mobility.

In Kerala, where the local population increasingly moves away from manual labour, intermediaries have become central to managing the inflow of migrant workers who fill this labour vacuum. Their influence extends beyond recruitment—they shape the conditions of employment, access to social protection, and overall livelihood experiences of migrant labourers. Thus, understanding the role of intermediaries within the framework of migration networks provides critical insights into both the opportunities and vulnerabilities faced by interstate migrants in Kerala’s construction sector.

Respondents’ Rating on the Role of Intermediaries and Networks

Table 6.3.1
The channel through which migration took place

Reason	Frequency	Per cent
With pre-arranged job	40	10
With suggestions from friends	104	26
Suggestion from relatives	31	7.75
With the help of a contractor	16	4
With the help of an agent	0	0
Without any suggestion	39	9.75
With a pre-arranged job and with suggestions from friends	56	14
With a pre-arranged job and Suggestion	5	1.25
With a pre-arranged job and with the help of a contractor	29	7.25
With suggestions from friends and relatives	57	14.25
With a pre-arranged job, With suggestions from friends and relatives	11	2.75
With a pre-arranged job, With suggestions from friends, and with the help of a contractor	2	0.5
With suggestions from friends and relatives and with the help of a contractor	9	2.25
With a pre-arranged job, With suggestions from friends and relatives, and with the help of the contractor	1	0.25
Total	400	100

Source: Primary Data

Suggestions from friends and relatives emerge as a significant reason for migrations accounting for 33% of migration to Kerala followed by the suggestions and help offered by the contractors since the cost of migration constitutes a barrier to the

potential migrants from the far-off states of India to Kerala. Another reason for migration to Kerala is that about 10 % of migrant respondents came to Kerala and opted to work in the construction sector by their own self decision indicating the presence of voluntary migration where the migrant's discretion determines the choice of migration and selection of the place and work at their destination.

Table 6.3.2
Person accompanying the migrants at the time of migration

Response	Frequency	Percent
Not responded	55	13.8
Agent	2	.5
Alone	1	.3
Brother	25	6.3
Company	2	.5
Agents & Contractor	47	11.8
Father	2	.5
Friends	200	50.0
Friends and relatives	10	2.5
Friends and villagers	6	1.5
Native	4	1.0
Relatives	24	6.0
Son	2	.5
Villagers	16	4.0
Villagers and relatives	4	1.0
Total	400	100.0

Source: Primary Data

Regarding the channels of migration, friends emerged as the most single significant agent covering 50% of the respondents accompanying the migrants at the time of migration followed by the agents, contractors' family members and relatives respectively. The data reveals that a majority of interstate migrant workers were accompanied or guided by friends, followed by agents, contractors, relatives, and villagers during their migration to Kerala, underscoring the critical role of social networks in the migration process. This finding aligns with Mukherjee, Paul, and Pathan (2010), who highlighted that social ties such as peer groups and friends are central in influencing migration decisions and facilitating access to employment, especially in the informal construction sector.

Chart 6.3.3
Place of the contractor/agent

Response	Frequency	Percent
Within Kerala	373	93.25
Outside Kerala	27	6.75
Total	400	100

Source: Primary Data

The study found that 93.25% of the migrant labourers have been channelled to the construction sector of Kerala by contractors or agents within Kerala. This reveals the fact that a group of intermediaries of contractors and agents is emerging in the construction sector of Kerala that is engaged primarily with the supply of migrant labourers from the far-off north Indian states, who are ready and willing to take risky jobs in the construction sector at a low wage without any hesitation and laziness in the work. The Malayalam films like “ njan Prakashan”, “Bhai Bhai”, etc. clearly depicts the role of these agents and contractors in deputing and supplying the migrant labourers in the early morning to the various construction sites according to their requirements and a commission is charged as their remuneration from the wages of the migrant's labourers in returns for their service of finding works for them.

Table 6.3.4
Source of information about the employment opportunity in construction work in Kerala

Source	Frequency	Percent
Family members	85	21.25
Friends and relatives	226	56.5
Agency	17	4.25
Contractors	59	14.75
Self-enquiry	11	2.75
Media	2	.50
Total	400	100.0

Source: Primary Data

Friends, relatives and family members constitute the prime source of information about the job opportunities in the construction sector of Kerala covering 78% of the

respondents and contractors also act as a source of information about the work opportunities in the construction sector of Kerala.

Table 6.3.5
Source of information regarding construction work in Kerala

Source	Frequency	Per cent
Friends	189	47.25
Relatives	115	28.75
Agents	6	1.50
Contractors	48	12.00
Previous visit	1	0.25
Others	10	2.50
Friends and Relatives	16	4.00
Friends and previous visit	2	0.50
Relatives and contractors	1	0.25
Previous visit and others	11	2.75
Relatives, previous visit and others	1	0.25
Total	400	100

Source: Primary Data

The prominent source of information regarding the work in Kerala constitutes friends and relatives which establish that the interstate migration to Kerala is by the migration network theory. Moreover, the migration to Kerala can be seen as a sequential migration and chain migration since there are both elements of customary obligation and the old migrants consisting of friends and relatives serving as a channel link for the migratory process to Kerala. Agents and contractors engaged in the construction sector also play a significant role in the migration of labourers to the construction sector of Kerala.

Table 6.3.6
Person recruited to construction work in Kerala

Person	Frequency	Percent
Friends and relatives	274	68.50
Agency	60	15.00
Contractors	47	11.75
Self-decision	19	4.75
Total	400	100.0

Source: Primary Data

Friends and relatives is the recruiting agent in the construction sector to 2/3 of the respondents in the construction sector of Kerala.

Chart 6.3.7
Change of the contractor after migration

Response	Frequency	Per cent
Yes	225	56.25
No	175	43.75
Total	400	100

Source: Primary Data

The nomadic migratory instinct of migrant peoples is also observed in the inter-state migration to the construction sector of Kerala. About 56.25 % of the migrants reported that they had changed their contractor after the migration.

Table 6.3.8
Reason for changing the contractor after migration

Response	Frequency	Per cent
Lack of regularity of job	187	83.11
Exploitation	24	10.67
Preference s higher wage	4	1.78
Other reason	4	1.78
Lack of regularity in the job and exploitation	3	1.33
Lack of regularity in job and preference for higher wage	4	1.78
Total	225	100

Source: Primary Data

The reasons for moving away from the contractor who gave them their first employment to other contractors have been sought in the study. The respondents who changed contractors after migration claimed that the absence of a regular job with the concerned contractor was the prime reason for quitting (about 83%) from the employment of that contractor to a new one. About 11 % of the respondents left the first contractor due to their exploitation. The study results show that migrant workers in the construction sectors are subject to exploitation by their contractors. The lack of unions among the migrant workers for the protection of their rights and unable to raise their voices against exploitation and inability to maintain the dignity of life still exists as a bane to the migrant labourers in Kerala which is to be considered as a serious issue in the state of Kerala, which is famous for its political awareness and where all native labourers under the shadow of trade unions.

Table 6.3.9
Supplementary benefits received from the contractor/agent

Benefits	Frequency	Per cent
No Benefit	311	77.75
Food	16	4.00
Clothing	11	2.75
Accommodation	71	17.75
Vehicle	19	4.75
Others	14	3.50
Medical facilities	6	1.50
Insurance	2	0.50

Source: Primary Data

Enquiries regarding the additional benefits received from the contractors or agents are enquired. The study results show that about three-fourths of the migrant labourers in the construction sector are not getting any supplementary benefits other than wages from their contractors for their work. Some of the migrants, even though only a minor percentage of 4 % informed that they will be provided with food and clothes during the day of the housewarming or in the opening session of the buildings etc. as a token of love for their dedicated and sincere work which is a major factor and reason for the timely completion of the work/ projects. About 17.75 % of the respondents shared their view of providing or arranging accommodation as an additional benefit given by their contractors or agents. The pathetic situation observed in the study is that, even though there is legislation to protect the health and welfare of migrant labourers by their employing contractor, only a meagre percentage of the respondents receive its benefit in the form of medical expenses and insurance.

Role of Intermediaries in Interstate Labour Migration: Multinomial Logistic Regression Model

Here we want to analyse the rating of immigrants with respect to the role of agents as a decision maker, consultants, and service providers given the role of agent as negotiator as reference category based on nine independent variables ranging from age to regularity of job. In other words, it attempts a random utility model to analyses the perception of respondents on the role of agents. It assumes that an individual chooses from four mutually exclusive alternatives: decision maker, consultant, service provider, and negotiator. The rating of respondents is determined by a pairwise comparison of the utilities of the given alternatives.

$$W_i = \sum \beta_k A_{ki} + e_i \dots \dots \dots k1$$

Where, W_i is the respondents' rating on the role of agents, and the β s are the associated regression coefficients; A_{ki} represents k explanatory variables. It includes age, total income, total expenditure, marital status, origin of states, health status, education, nature of occupation and regularity of job,

Table 6.3.10
Multinomial Logistic Regression Model: Results of Respondents' Ranking of Agents

Sl.NO	Variables	Rating on Agents as Decision Makers	Rating on Agents as Consultant	Rating on Agents as Service Provider
1	Age	0.534* -0.074	0.658** -0.042	-0.984** -0.027
2	Total monthly income	0.256*** 0	0.253* -0.058	0.147*** 0
3	Total monthly expenditure	-0.001 -0.135	-0.002 -0.72	-0.533** -0.001
4	Marital status (Dummy variable) 1: Married 0: Not Married	-0.1105	2.257 -0.198	1.91 -0.998
5	Origin of states (Dummy Variable) 1: West Bengal 0: Other states)	-0.1105	-6.612 -0.038	-8.277** (0.012)
6	Health status (Dummy Variable) 1: Good 0: Bad	0.279** (0.003)	-8.505 -0.691	-0.0548
7	Education (Dummy Variable) 1: Below Primary 0: Above Primary)	1.406 -0.14	0.552*** (0.001)	1.065 -0.513
8	Nature of Occupation (Dummy Variable) 1: Skilled 0: Others	-22.47 -0.938	-7.474 -0.94	13.20* (0.005)
9	Regularity of job	-1.222*** 0	0.129* -0.026	0.797** -0.003
	(Dummy Variable) 1: Yes 2: No			

	Intercept	8.469** -0.005	15.132 -0.987	32.281 -0.983
	Observations	400		
	Pseudo R2 (Cox and Snell)	0.864		
	-2 Log likelihood	280.946 0		
	Chi-Square	798.14		

Source: Analysis from Primary Data

Note: 1) Rating on Agents as Negotiator is a reference category

*2) *** Significance at 1 percent ** significance at 5 percent * significance at 10percent*

Source: Estimated from a sample survey

The chart explains the multinomial logistic regression model to predict dependent variables with four levels. Let us begin with the variable 'age.' There is a direct and positive relation between 'age' and the other three categories given the reference category 'agent as negotiator.' It is seen that the highest coefficient is 0.984 corresponding to 'agent as service provider.' It implies that the rating of the respondent on the probability of acting as a service provider by the agent is low if the age increases. It has statistical significance also as the probability value is less than 5% level of significance (0.027). However, the probability of the agent's role as decision maker and consultant rise as age increases which is having statistical validity. The covariates having a positive association with the dependent variable rating of agents are total monthly income and education implying that the higher the monthly income and education, the higher the rating of agents. Regarding monthly income, it is seen that the highest coefficient is 0.253 where the rating of the respondents on the probability of an agent working as a consultant is highest as monthly income increases. Similarly, regarding education, it can be deciphered that the highest coefficient is 0.165 which corresponds to the role of the agent as a service provider. However, it does not have statistical significance as the probability value is 0.513. As regards the variable 'origin of states' it is learned that the probability of an agent working in any of the three ways as a decision maker, consultant or service provider is negative if the respondent is from West Bengal. Regarding marital status, the probability of the agent working as a

decision-maker is negative if the immigrant is married, but positive if the agent works as a consultant or service provider. As regards health status, it can be concluded that the probability of the agent working either as a consultant or service provider is negative if the respondent's health is good. However, it is positively associated with the role of the agent as a decision-maker. If the respondent is skilled, his rating on the probability of an agent working as the service provider is positive. If the respondent has having regularity of jobs, his rating on the probability of an agent working as a consultant or service provider is positive. Conclusively, we may say that different variables exert either positive or negative influence on the probability of any of the three dependent variables given the excluded category 'negotiator.'

Migration and Financial Transformation: Analysing Saving and Investment Patterns of Interstate Migrants in Kerala's Construction Sector

Migration acts as a critical mechanism for economic upliftment of the migrates and inter-regional capital flow in Favor of the state of origin. This section seeks to analyse the patterns of saving and investment among migrant workers, specifically comparing their financial behaviour before and after migrating to Kerala. Grounded in the broader objective of understanding how migration affects household financial strategies, this analysis reveals key aspects of how labour mobility translates into improved economic resilience. The study highlights that a substantial portion of migrants exhibit a low marginal propensity to consume in Kerala, resulting in higher savings and remittances sent to their native states. This shift not only supports daily consumption and debt repayment back home but also facilitates asset creation, such as house construction, land purchase, and acquisition of durable goods.

Using both descriptive statistics and the Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test, the chapter systematically assesses the significance of changes in savings and investment behaviours. The empirical evidence suggests a statistically significant improvement in both saving and investment levels after migration, reflecting a critical paradigm shift in the economic well-being of migrants and their families. The findings further underline how remittances serve as a potential tool for poverty reduction and asset formation in the sending regions, creating broader developmental implications beyond individual households.

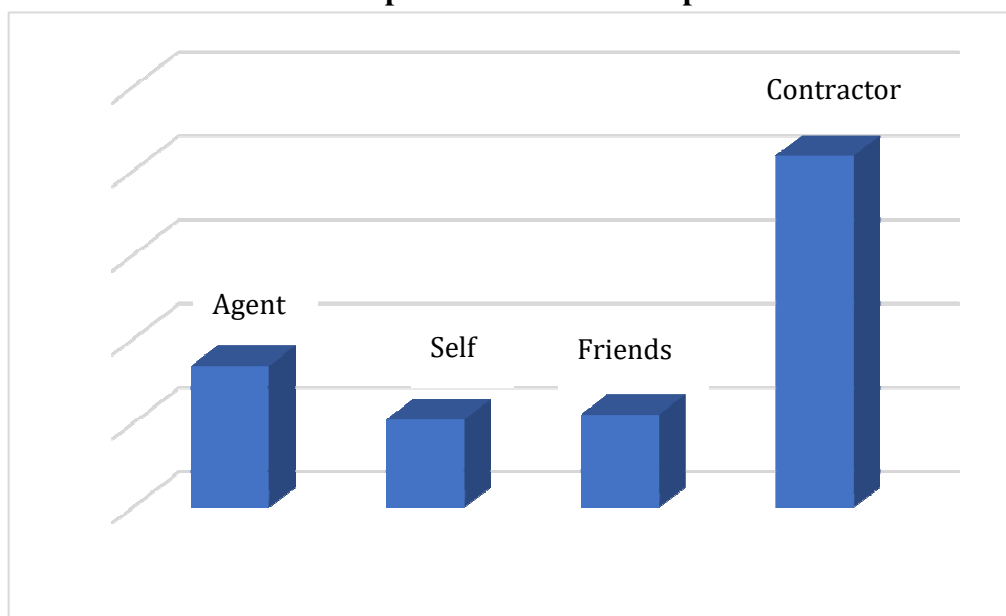
Table 6.4.1
The average amount of money spent in Kerala in a month

Response	Frequency	Percent
< 5000	355	88.75
5000-10000	45	11.25
Total	400	100

Source: Primary data

The study results reveal the fact that about 89% of the migrants engaged in the construction sector only spend less than Rs. 5000 in Kerala which deciphers the idea that the marginal propensity to consume of the migrants staying in Kerala is low resulting in a low multiplier effect of spending in Kerala economy and conversely the high marginal propensity to save will have a direct positive effect on the economic conditions of their family and also in the economy in their native place. Concomitantly there is a possibility of a paradigm shift in the economic status of the migrants sending states in the future as a result of the expenditure of the remitted amount from Kerala in their economy.

Chart 6.4.1
A place where cash is kept



Source: Primary Data

The amount of income earned from working is mostly kept in the hands of contractors/ agents after availing a small portion of their wage to meet their daily expenses and is borrowed in bulk from the contractors at the weekend or bi-weekly to remit to their native place who are waiting eagerly for this money at home. The risk of keeping money in their custody while traveling forces them to rely on contractors, agents, and friends for the safe custody of their hard-earned money.

Table 6.4.2
Details of having bank account in Kerala

Response	Frequency	Percent
No Bank Account	214	53.5
SBI	153	38.25
Canara Bank	7	1.75
Other nationalised bank	23	5.75
Private Bank	3	0.75
Total	400	100

The problem of not having their bank account for the 53.5 % of the respondents creates dependency to other intermediaries, friends and relatives to send remittances to their native places. Many often this results in the charging some amount of money for the service of transferring money to the peoples in the native area. The persons who have bank account with SBI and other nationalised banks like Canara bank opined that it they are able to transfer the money to their family through Cash Deposit Machines which are usually done in the late night or early morning . The preference for this time by the migrants was because of low crowd of native peoples at that time and as a coping mechanism to escape from the harsh words of native peoples for making more time for depositing the amount by them.

Table 6.4.3
Opinion regarding friendliness of banking service in Kerala

Response	Frequency	Percent
Not responded	50	12.50
Friendly	279	69.75
Not friendly	71	17.75
Total	400	100

The friendliness of providing the banking services in Kerala was responded by 69.75% of the respondents although there is minor percentage of migrants are dissatisfied with

the banking services in Kerala due to difference in the behaviour and attitude of the banking officials towards migrants and native people. The illiterate migrants find it difficult to fill up the forms for sending money and due to the lack of proficiency in the Malayalam language creates hindrance in communicating the details to the banking officials. Most of the respondents conveyed the blessings of the existence and accessibility of Different bank's ATMs and CDMs at their premises within a walk able distance as a blessing to transfer their money to their native place whenever they wish without affecting the regular work and earnings in the day time.

Table 6.4.4
Type of deposits in bank

Response	Frequency	Percent
No deposits	209	52.25
Savings	178	44.5
Fixed	7	1.75
Both	6	1.50
Total	400	100

Source: Primary data

The study results show that 52.25 % of the respondents have no deposits with the bank. This actually shows the poor financial background of the migrants in Kerala. This lack of bank account results in depending friends or relatives or agents for the transfer of funds to their native place and commission is charged by these peoples for the fund transfer for each transactions.

Table 6.4.5
Descriptive statistics regarding the total amount of money available in the account

Variable	N	Minimum m	Maximum m	Mean	Std. Deviation
The total amount of money available in account	14	300	8100	2914.29	2888.933

Source: Primary data

Only 14 individuals responded about the total money available in their account. From the analysis, it is clear that the mean amount of money held in their account is Rs. 2914.

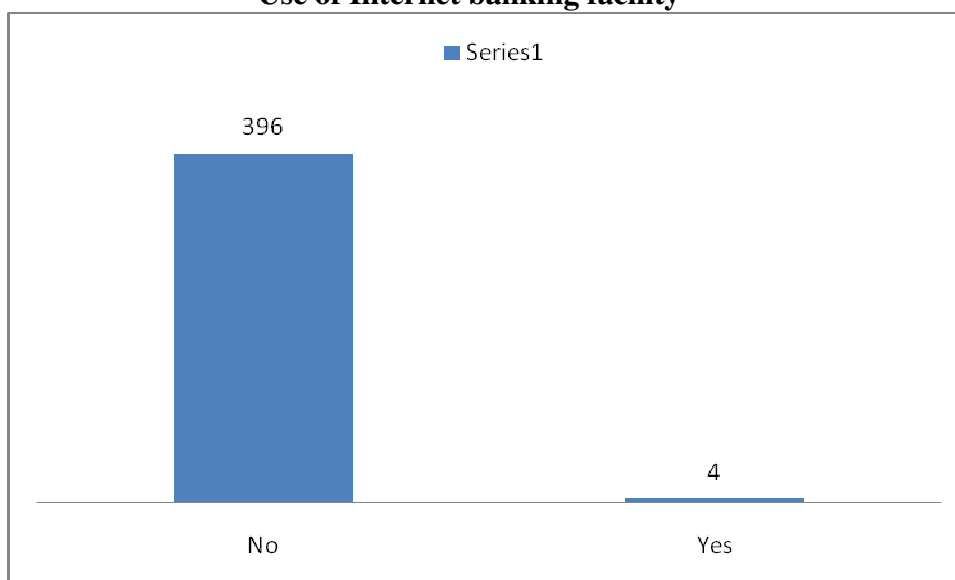
Table 6.4.6
Having ATM Card

Response	Frequency	Per cent
Yes	149	37.3
No	251	62.8
Total	400	100

Source: Primary data

The majority of the migrants (62.8%) do not have ATM cards which ultimately results in dependency on the part of migrants to remit money to their native places. The vast majority of illiterate migrants above the age of 40 are found to not have ATM cards as they are scared of relying on banking services for fear of loss of money. Besides, they are unable to read and comprehend the messages during the banking transaction.

Chart 6.4.2
Use of Internet banking facility



Source: Primary data

Even though it is found that the majority of the young migrants have and are using their smartphones, only 7 % of the respondents are found to be using the internet banking facility. This ultimately shows the need for conducting a mass campaign and making

them aware of the Internet banking facility which is extremely helpful and also the safest method for them to send the remittances to their native place without any brokerage fees or commission by the agent at their convenient time.

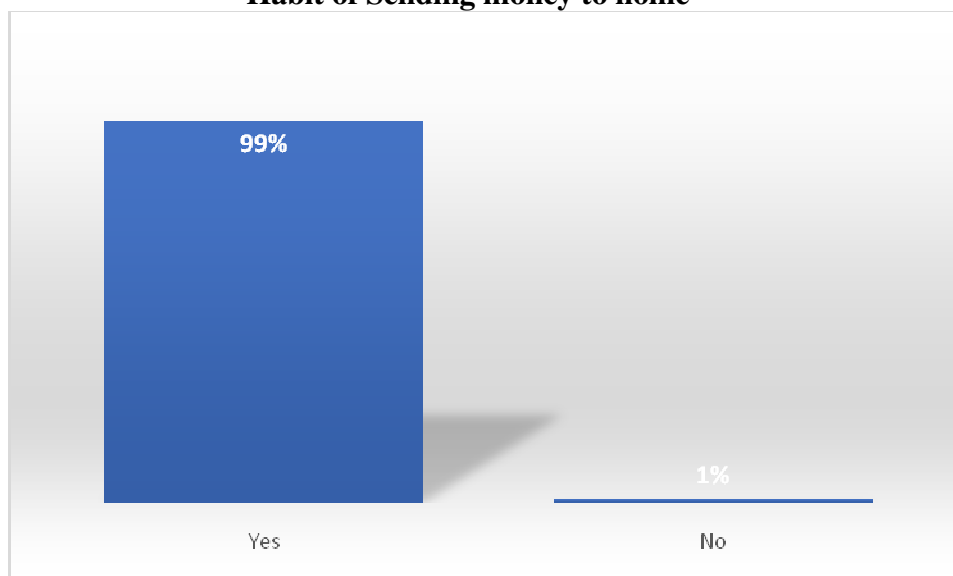
Table 6.4.7
Purpose of Using Internet Banking

Purpose	Frequency	Per cent
Not using	372	93.0
Remittance of money	12	3.0
Ticket booking	7	1.75
Ticket booking and mobile recharging	2	0.50
Mobile recharging and online shopping	4	1.0
Online shopping	1	0.25
Others	2	0.50
Total	400	100

Source: Primary data

Among the users of Internet banking, about 42.8 % are using it for remitting money to their native place followed by ticket booking mobile recharging, and online shopping. This reveals the fact that the migrants are not well versed with the new innovative practices in the banking sector although they are regular customers of the bank for transfer of money.

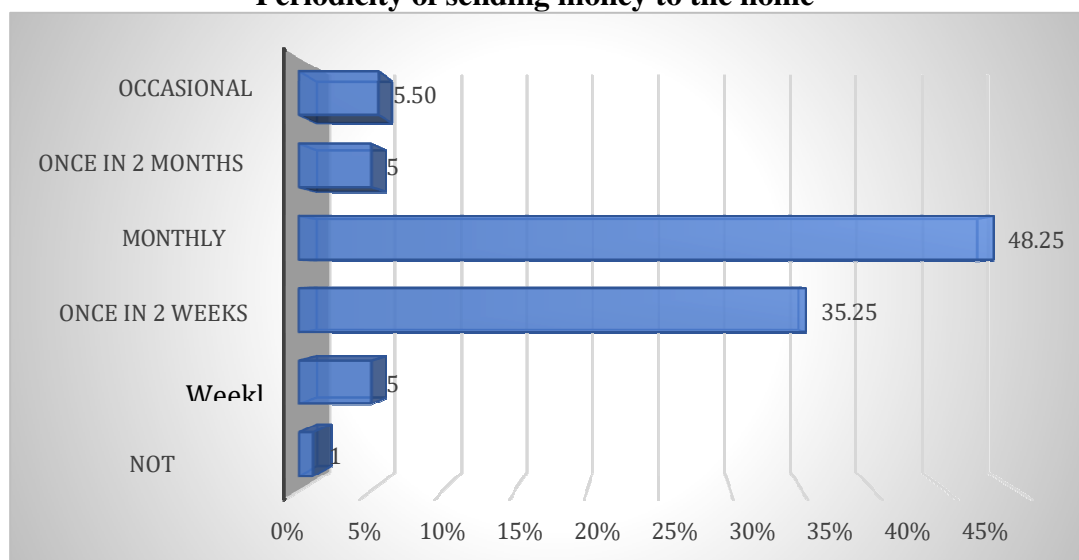
Chart 6.4.3
Habit of Sending money to home



Source: Primary data

The crucial impact of migration is the flow of money from the destination area to the native state. The study exhibits that 99% of the migrants are sending money to their homes. The remitted money is expected to create a positive impact on poverty reduction and alleviation of the indebtedness of the family.

Chart 6.4.4
Periodicity of sending money to the home



Source: Primary data

Regarding the frequency of remittance to the home state, 48.25 % remit money once every month while 35.25 % remit money once every two weeks.

Table 6.4.8
Descriptive statistics regarding amount of money send to home in an year

Variable	No. of person responded	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Amount of money send to home	386	5000	100000	11366.58	9276.682

Source: Primary data

Table 6.4.9
Creation of assets from the remitted money

Response	Frequency	Percent
Not responded	53	13.25
Asset Created	276	69.00
No Asset Created	71	17.75
Total	400	100

Source: Primary data

Majority of the migrants opined that the remitted money here from Kerala to their native state is utilised to add the asset base of the family in their native place .17.75 % of the respondents informed that the amount money send from here is utilised to meet the day to day expenses of the family so that no asset is created usually. Poverty and the joblessness of the family members, who entirely depends on this remitted money to meet the essential needs of the family, are not in a position to create any assets in their state even after migration.

Table 6.4.10
Nature of Assets created

Assets	Frequency	Percent
No assets created	71	17.75
Land	56	14.00
House	168	42.00
Jewellery	19	4.75
Vehicles	25	6.25
Durable goods	164	41.00
Others	14	3.50

Source: Primary data

Just as in the case of migration from Kerala to the Gulf countries, in which the Gulf remittances were mostly invested in the construction of houses in Kerala, the interstate migrants in the construction sector are also engaged in the construction, repairing, and modification of their houses in the native place. About 41% of the respondents are of the view that they usually acquire electronic goods such as TVs, fans, Fridge, etc. through the remitted money which is not available in their home before migration.

Table 6.4.11
Reasons for sending money to the home

Reason	Frequency	Percent
To meet consumption expenditure of the family	320	80.00
To supplement earning of the family	279	69.75
For repayment of debt	106	26.50
To support unemployed persons in the home	111	27.75
For other purposes	22	5.50

Source: Primary data

The primary purpose of utilisation of remitted money was to meet the consumption expenditure of the family. Inter-state migration was found to be a safety valve for the family from the problems of acute poverty, chronic and seasonal unemployment of the family members in the area of origin, and the resultant indebtedness of the family. This is a major cause for sending money to the native place regularly.

Table 6.4.12
Method of sending money to home

Method	Frequency	Percent
Through own account	72	18.00
CDM	254	63.50
Through Others bank account	260	65.00
Net banking	9	2.25
Post office	3	0.75
Through relatives	5	1.25
Through friends	14	3.50
Through agents	16	4.00
Through contractors	2	0.50

Source: Primary data

Regarding the mode of sending money to their home states, it is found that all methods are used by the migrants in varying degrees for the transfer of money. The principal mode of transfer done by migrants is through another bank account since most of them lack their accounts. This also saves them from the trouble of the loss of one day's job for visiting the bank during bank hours. Sending money through CDM emerged as the second important mode used by the migrants to send the money. CDM helps the migrants to transfer the money at their convenient day and time without sacrificing their work and earnings.

Table 6.4.13
Descriptive statistics regarding the total amount of money remitted last year

Variable	No. of person responded	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Amount Remitted	315	6000	200000	87753.97	31845.38

Source: Primary data

Table 6.4.14
Frequency of visit to the native place

Response	Frequency	Percent
Once in 6 months	167	41.8
Once in a year	124	31.0
Once in 2 years	14	3.5
Occasionally	95	23.4
Total	400	100

Source: Primary data

Most of the interstate migrants come under the young population category and the families are left in their state. The developed communication system has reduced the distance between migrants by enabling virtual meetings through video and audio calls. Regarding the frequency of visits to their native place, 41.8% of the migrants employed in the construction sector make a home visit once in 6 months and 31% replied that they visit their home state only once a year. Occasional visits are also common among them.

Table 6.4.15
Reason for visiting the native place

Response	Frequency	Per cent
To meet family members	366	91.5
To celebrate festivals	288	72.0
Attending marriage of Friends & relatives	271	67.8
To give money at home	39	9.8

Source: Primary data

Although various reasons are cited for visiting native places, the predominant factor identified was to meet the family members. The intense desire to celebrate festivals like Durga puja etc. with family members is also expressed as the reason to visit the native Place. Attending the marriage functions of close friends and relatives also prompted the inter-state migrants to visit home.

Saving and Investment of respondents before and after migration

Saving and Investment of respondents before and after migration: The Wilcoxon Signed Rank test

The Wilcoxon signed-rank test employed here is a non-parametric statistical test that helps compare the two paired groups to assess whether their population's mean ranks differ or not. The respondents in the extant study are seen engaged in both saving and investment of their earnings. It is attempted to analyse whether there exists any significant mean difference in the saving and investment behaviour before and after immigration. The respective hypotheses are

H₀: There is no significant difference in the savings and investment behaviour of workers before and after migration.

H₁: There is a significant difference in the savings and investment behaviour of workers before and after migration.

Table 6.4.16
Analysis on saving and investment- Wilcoxon Signed Rank test

	savings before migration - savings after migration
Z	3.078 ^b
Asymp. Sig. (2- tailed)	.002

1. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test
2. Based on positive ranks.

The corresponding probability value concerning savings before and after immigration is 0.002 which is below a 5% level of significance. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected implying that there exists a significant difference among respondents regarding their accumulated savings. The following table, therefore, shows the extent of the difference in savings

Table 6.4.17
Wilcoxon Signed Rank test Statistics

		N	Mean Rank	Some of Ranks
savingsbefore migration -	Negative Ranks	144 ^a	150.01	21601.50
	Positive Ranks	183 ^b	175.01	32026.50
	Ties	73 ^c		
	Total	400		

Source: Analysis from Primary Data

1. *savings before migration < savings after migration*
2. *savings after migration > savings before migration*
3. *savings after migration = savings before migration*

The Chart reveals that positive ranks exceeded negative ranks which conveys the fact that there is an increase in the amount of savings during the post-migration period compared to the pre-migration period. While 183 respondents experienced a hike in accumulated savings after migration, 144 respondents stated otherwise, and savings neither increased nor decreased after migration for 73 respondents. The average rank of savings of respondents after migration is 175 whereas before migration it is 150 only.

Table 6.4.18
Test Statistics

	Investment before migration - Investment after migration
Z	.754 ^b
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.045

1. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test
2. Based on positive ranks.

The corresponding probability value concerning investment before and after immigration is

0.045 which is below 5% level of significance. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected implying that there do exist significant differences among respondents regarding their

accumulated investment. The following table, therefore, shows the extent of the difference in investment.

Table 6.4.19
Ranks

	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Investment before migration - Investment after migration	168a	169.41	28460.50
Negative Ranks			
Positive Ranks	177b	176.41	31224.50
Ties	55c		
Total	400		

Source: Analysis from Primary Data

1. *Investment before migration < Investment after migration*
2. *Investment after migration > Investment before migration*
3. *Investment after migration = Investment before migration*

The Chart reveals that positive ranks exceeded negative ranks which conveys the fact that there is an increase in the amount of investment during the post-migration period compared to the pre-migration period. While 177 respondents experienced a hike in accumulated investment after migration, 168 respondents stated otherwise, and investment neither increased nor decreased after migration for 55 respondents. The average rank of investment of respondents after migration is 176 whereas it is 169 only before migration.

Table 6.4.20
Income, expenditure, and remittance pattern of respondents

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
Total monthly income	400	4000	40000	15157.75	6453.993
Total expenditure	400	1000.00	7400.00	4009.0400	990.19082
Amount of remittance	400	3300	24000	10292.00	2603.581
Valid N (listwise)	400				

Source: Analysis from Primary Data

It is explicit from the table that immigrants' minimum and maximum income, expenditure, and remittances are Rs 4000, Rs 40000, Rs 1000, Rs 7400, Rs 3300, and Rs 24000 respectively. The immigrants are, therefore, considerably engaged in sending remittances to periodically by adjusting their income and expenditure.

However, as part of analysing further whether there exist significant differences across immigrants of different states of origin concerning their total monthly income, expenditure, and total remittances, an ANOVA test was conducted and the result is as under. The hypothesis formed in this regard is

H0: There is no significant difference in the total monthly income, total monthly expenditure, and monthly remittance of the respondents concerning their states of origin.

H1: There is a significant difference in the total monthly income, total monthly expenditure, and monthly remittance of the respondents concerning their states of origin.

Table 6.4.21
Income, Expenditure, and Remittance among respondents according to their states of origin: ANOVA Test

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Total monthly income	Between Groups	609381464.1	6	101563577	2.49	0.02
	Within Groups	16010574511	393	40739375.3		
	Total	16619955975	399			
Total expenditure	Between Groups	16978856.82	6	2829809.47	2.97	0.01
	Within Groups	374231808.5	393	952243.788		
	Total	391210665.4	399			
Amount of remittance	Between Groups	135422104.1	6	22570350.7	3.45	0
	Within Groups	2569252296	393	6537537.65		
	Total	2704674400	399			

Source: Analysis from Primary Data

It is evident from Table that there exists a significant difference among the respondents on their total monthly income, total monthly expenditure, and monthly remittance across different states from which they came to the construction sector of Kerala. The different

states to which the immigrants belong are Assam, Bihar, Tamil Nadu, Andra Pradesh, Odissa, Uttar Pradesh, and West Bengal. The corresponding probability values concerning total monthly income, total monthly expenditure, and monthly remittance are 0.022, 0.008 and 0.002 respectively which are below the 5% level of significance and hence, the null hypothesis is rejected. Now, as part of analysing the extent to which difference exists among respondents on total monthly income, total monthly expenditure, and total monthly remittance across their states of origin, a post hoc test was run and the result is as follows.

Table 6.4.22
Multiple comparisons- Tamhane's T2

			Mean			90% Confidence Interval	
			Difference (I-J)				
Dependent	(I) Source	(J) Source		Std. Error	Sig.	Lower	Upper
Variable	states	states					
Total monthly income	West Bengal	Assam	280.333	1444.5	0.006	-4403.4	4964.02
		Bihar	2900.741*	658.953	0.001	1012.88	4788.6
		Tamil Nadu	-319.67	3548.63	0.009	-19790	19151.2
		Andra Pradesh	-2319.7	2016.87	1	-12951	8311.65
		Odissa	237.476	1802.8	1	-5733.7	6208.65
		Uttar Pradesh	-3953	1671.58	0.529	-9652.4	1746.41
	Assam	West Bengal	-280.33	1444.5	1	-4964	4403.35
		Bihar	2620.41	1488.38	0.877	-2127.5	7368.29
		Tamil Nadu	-600	3791.28	1	-18070	16870
		Andra Pradesh					
		Odissa	-42.857	2243.02	0.001	-6941.6	6855.92
		Uttar Pradesh	-4233.3	2138.98	0.726	-10865	2398.56
	Bihar	West Bengal	-2900.741*	658.953	0.001	-4788.6	-1012.9
		Assam	-2620.4	1488.38	0.877	-7368.3	2127.47
		Tamil Nadu	-3220.4	3566.72	0.042	-22481	16040.3
		Andra Pradesh					

		Pradesh	-5220.4	2048.53	0.699	-15551	5110.4
		Odissa	-2663.3	1838.15	0.979	-8674.3	3347.76
		Uttar Pradesh	-6853.741*	1709.64	0.005	-12582	-1125.3
	Tamil Nadu	West Bengal	319.667	3548.63	0.009	-19151	19790.5
		Assam	600	3791.28	1	-16870	18070
		Bihar	3220.41	3566.72	0.042	-16040	22481.2
		Andra					
		Pradesh	-2000	4044.13	1	-19065	15065
		Odissa	557.143	3941.74	1	-16289	17403.1
		Uttar Pradesh	-3633.3	3883.48	0.004	-20706	13438.9
	Andra Pradesh	West Bengal	2319.67	2016.87	1	-8311.7	12951
		Assam	2600	2418.43	1	-6535.9	11735.9
		Bihar	5220.41	2048.53	0.699	-5110.4	15551.2
		Tamil Nadu	2000	4044.13	0.967	-15065	19065
		Odissa	2557.14	2648.08	0.21	-6750	11864.3
		Uttar Pradesh	-1633.3	2560.55	0.008	-10898	7631.24
	Odissa	West Bengal	-237.48	1802.8	1	-6208.7	5733.7
		Assam	42.857	2243.02	0.001	-6855.9	6941.63
		Bihar	2663.27	1838.15	0.979	-3347.8	8674.29
		Tamil Nadu	-557.14	3941.74	1	-17403	16288.8
		Andra					
		Pradesh	-2557.1	2648.08	1	-11864	6750
		Uttar Pradesh	-4190.5	2395.57	0.871	-11593	3212.15
	Uttar Pradesh	West Bengal	3953	1671.58	0.529	-1746.4	9652.41
		Assam	4233.33	2138.98	0.726	-2398.6	10865.2
		Bihar	6853.741*	1709.64	0.005	1125.25	12582.2
		Tamil Nadu	3633.33	3883.48	0.004	-13439	20705.6

		Andra					
		Pradesh	1633.33	2560.55	0.008	-7631.2	10897.9
		Odissa	4190.48	2395.57	0.871	-3212.2	11593.1
Total expenditure	West Bengal	Assam	-561.21	251.927	0.006	-	261.912
						1384.34	
		Bihar	-365.02	150.401	0.001	-802.1	72.051
		Tamil Nadu	22.12	529.329	0.009	-	2929.97
						2885.73	
		Andra Pradesh	-217.88	218.036	1	-	881.372
						1317.13	
		Odissa	496.406	260.091	0.027	-365.01	1357.82
		Uttar Pradesh	463.787	301.828	0.968	-574.41	1501.99
	Assam	West Bengal	561.213	251.927	0.006	-261.91	1384.34
		Bihar	196.19	282.327	1	-677.12	1069.5
		Tamil Nadu	583.333	580.756	1	-	3121.46
						1954.8	
	Assam	Andra					
		Pradesh	343.333	323.462	1	-724.68	1411.35
		Odissa	1057.62	353.179	0.001	-22.223	2137.46
		Uttar Pradesh	1025	384.952	0.256	-170.7	2220.7
	Bihar	West Bengal	365.023	150.401	0.001	-72.051	802.097
		Assam				-	
			-196.19	282.327	1	1069.5	677.117
		Tamil Nadu				-	
			387.143	544.455	0.042	2364.69	3138.98
		Andra					
		Pradesh	147.143	252.549	1	-814.76	1109.05
		Odissa	861.429	289.636	0.139	-44.138	1767
		Uttar Pradesh	828.81	327.63	0.005	-234.27	1891.89

	Tamil Nadu	West Bengal	-22.12	529.329	0.009	- 2929.97	2885.73
		Assam	-583.33	580.756	0.125	- 3121.46	1954.8
		Bihar	-387.14	544.455	0.042	- 3138.98	2364.69
		Andra				-	
		Pradesh	-240	566.877	0.113	2867.82	2387.82
		Odissa	474.286	584.344	0.008	- 2052.17	3000.74
		Uttar Pradesh	441.667	604.078	0.004	- 2037.35	2920.69
	Andra Pradesh	West Bengal	217.88	218.036	1	-881.37	1317.13
		Assam	-343.33	323.462	1	- 1411.35	724.679
		Bihar	-147.14	252.549	1	- 1109.05	814.763
		Tamil Nadu	240	566.877	1	- 2387.82	2867.82
		Odissa	714.286	329.86	0.639	-374.58	1803.16
		Uttar Pradesh	681.667	363.676	0.008	-518.06	1881.39
	Odissa	West Bengal	-496.41	260.091	0.027	- 1357.82	365.012
		Assam	- 1057.62	353.179	0.001	- 2137.46	22.2233
		Bihar	-861.43	289.636	0.139	- 1767	44.1383
		Tamil Nadu	-474.29	584.344	0.008	- 3000.74	2052.17
		Andra Pradesh	-714.29	329.86	0.639	- 1803.16	374.585
		Uttar Pradesh	-32.619	390.344	1	-	1180.46

						1245.7	
	Uttar Pradesh	West Bengal	-463.79	301.828	0.968	-	574.413
						1501.99	
		Assam	-	384.952	0.256	-	170.701
			1025			2220.7	
		Bihar	-828.81	327.63	0.005	-	234.268
						1891.89	
		Tamil Nadu	-441.67	604.078	0.004	-	2037.35
						2920.69	
		Andra Pradesh	-681.67	363.676	0.008	-	518.057
						1881.39	
		Odissa	32.6191	390.344	1	-	1245.7
						1180.46	
Amount of	West Bengal	Assam	-286.67	604.271	0.006	-2252.6	1679.29
		Bihar	906.531	407.839	0.001	-278.94	2092
		Tamil Nadu	-2520	928.97	0.009	-7500.9	2460.85
		Andra Pradesh					
			-3020	814.239	0.321	-7331.2	1291.24
		Odissa	-1077.1	518.331	0.027	-2770.3	616.03
		Uttar Pradesh	-178.33	454.465	1	-1691.1	1334.45
	Assam	West Bengal	286.667	604.271	0.006	-1679.3	2252.62
		Bihar	1193.2	696.783	0.886	-937.57	3323.96
		Tamil Nadu	-2233.3	1087.27	0.81	-6484	2017.31
		Andra Pradesh					
			-2733.3	991.039	0.385	-6426.3	959.67
		Odissa	-790.48	766.708	1	-3137	1556.04
		Uttar Pradesh	108.333	725.061	1	-2130.4	2347.11
	Bihar	West Bengal	-906.53	407.839	0.001	-2092	278.94

		Assam	-1193.2	696.783	0.886	-3324	937.57
		Tamil Nadu	-3426.5	991.639	0.042	-7918.1	1065.01
		Andra					
		Pradesh	-3926.531*	885.07	0.089	-7756.7	-96.38
		Odissa	-1983.673*	623.724	0.069	-3874	-93.37
		Uttar Pradesh	-1084.9	571.754	0.005	-2814.2	644.51
	Tamil Nadu	West Bengal	2520	928.97	0.009	-2460.9	7500.85
		Assam	2233.33	1087.27	0.81	-2017.3	6483.98
		Bihar	3426.53	991.639	0.042	-1065	7918.07
		Andra					
		Pradesh	-500	1216.55	1	-5191.2	4191.24
		Odissa	1442.86	1041.96	0.993	-2886	5771.69
		Uttar Pradesh	2341.67	1011.71	0.004	-2085	6768.35
	Andra Pradesh	West Bengal	3020	814.239	0.321	-1291.2	7331.24
		Assam	2733.33	991.039	0.385	-959.67	6426.34
		Bihar	3926.531*	885.07	0.089	96.38	7756.68
		Tamil Nadu	500	1216.55	1	-4191.2	5191.24
		Odissa	1942.86	941.107	0.81	-1780.5	5666.21
		Uttar Pradesh	2841.67	907.499	0.008	-949.33	6632.66
	Odissa	West Bengal	1077.14	518.331	0.027	-616.03	2770.32
		Assam	790.476	766.708	0.001	-1556	3136.99
		Bihar	1983.673*	623.724	0.069	93.37	3873.98

		Tamil Nadu	-1442.9	1041.96	0.993	-5771.7	2885.98
		Andra	-1942.9	941.107	0.81	-5666.2	1780.5
		Pradesh					
		Uttar Pradesh	898.81	655.162	0.986	-1126.5	2924.11
	Uttar Pradesh	West Bengal	178.333	454.465	1	-1334.5	1691.12
		Assam	-108.33	725.061	1	-2347.1	2130.44
		Bihar	1084.86	571.754	0.005	-644.51	2814.23
		Tamil Nadu	-2341.7	1011.71	0.004	-6768.4	2085.02
		Andra	-2841.7	907.499	0.008	-6632.7	949.33
		Pradesh					
		Odissa	-898.81	655.162	0.986	-2924.1	1126.49
	*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.1 level.						

Source: Analysis from Primary Data

Multiple comparison shows the extent of difference state-wise on the total income, total expenditure, and total remittance of the immigrants working in the construction sector in Kerala. It is quite manifest that the probability value is found to be significant for 51 cases only (< than 10% level of significance.). That is to say, a significant difference exists among the immigrants across states regarding the total monthly income, expenditure, and remittance as regards the difference in terms of income state-wise, it is learned that there is a difference between the states West Bengal and Assam and West Bengal and Bihar whose probability values are 0.006 and 0.001 respectively and that the reference category is West Bengal. There is a mean difference of 280.333 and 2900.741 implying that compared to the reference category West Bengal, there is an increase in the total monthly income of the immigrants of Assam and Bihar as much as 280.33 and 2900.74. Similarly, compared to the reference category Assam, there is a decline in the total monthly income of 6941 of the immigrants from Odessa. Such a pattern is observed in the case of total monthly expenditure and total monthly remittance.

6.5. Impact of Income, expenditure, and Remittance on the Indebtedness of Immigrants: Multiple Linear Regression

It endeavours to analyse the impact of income, expenditure, and remittance on the indebtedness of the respondents from different states. As we are aware, one of the potent reasons for the immigration of respondents to the construction sector of Kerala is economic. The respondents used to send money to their relatives in their hometown. How far it impacted their indebtedness is to be analysed. The study used the Multiple Linear Regression model to explore the influence of income, expenditure, and remittance on the indebtedness of the respondents. In this modelling approach, the dependent variable is the indebtedness of the respondents while the independent variables include income, expenditure, and remittance.

The Multiple Linear Regression model is expressed using the following formula:

$$Y=\beta_0+\beta_1X_1+\beta_2X_2+\beta_3X_3+\epsilon$$

In this formula

Y represents the dependent variable, which is the indebtedness of the immigrants, β_0 is the intercept showing the constant or baseline value of the dependent variable when all independent variables are considered zero.

β_1 , β_2 , β_3 are the coefficients for the independent variables viz income, expenditure, and remittance. These coefficients show the change in the dependent variable for a one-unit change in each corresponding independent variable when all other variables are constant. X_1 , X_2 , X_3 represent the independent variables. ϵ denotes the error term, which captures the unexplained variation in the dependent variable.

Table: 6.5.1
Impact of income, expenditure, and remittance on the indebtedness of respondents: A Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	5980.980	559.095		10.698	.000
Total expenditure	.434	.110	.153	3.937	.000
Total amount of remittance	-.531	.044	.491	12.140	.000
Total monthly income	-.106	.017	.242	6.113	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Indebtedness

Source: Analysis from Primary Data

Table 6.5.1 reveals that the covariates are total expenditure, total income, and total remittance and the dependent variable is indebtedness. Both the dependent and independent variables are quantitative. The probability value concerning each of the above is 0.000 which is below 5% level of significance. The hypotheses are as follows.

H0: Indebtedness and total expenditure, total income, and total remittance are not related

H1: Indebtedness and total expenditure, total income, and total remittance are related

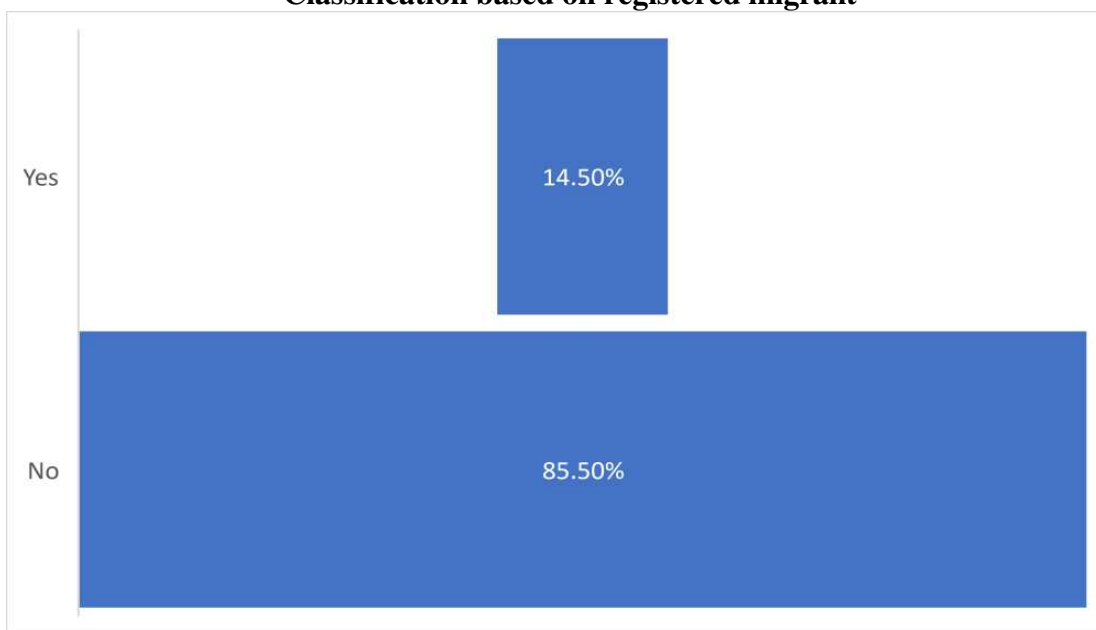
A one-unit increase in the total expenditure brings about a 0.43-unit increase in indebtedness. However, the impact of remittance and income on indebtedness is negative such that a unit increase in total remittance and total income causes a 0.53 and 0.10 units to decline in the indebtedness driving home the fact that the burden of indebtedness is minimised by the increase in income and remittance. We, therefore, reject the null hypothesis. We can, therefore, conclude that labour migration caused a decline in indebtedness as a result of the spike in total income and total remittance.

6.6 Issues and Challenges Faced by Migrant Workers Amidst Native Workers in Kerala's Construction Sector

The construction sector in Kerala, a major contributor to the state's economy, has witnessed a significant influx of migrant workers from various parts of India. These workers often take up physically demanding and low-paid jobs that are less preferred

by the local workforce. Despite their vital role in sustaining the sector, migrant workers face numerous issues and challenges, particularly when compared to their native counterparts. These include language barriers, wage discrimination, lack of social security, poor living conditions, and limited access to healthcare and legal protection (Ashok and Thomas 2014). Moreover, social exclusion and workplace discrimination further widen the gap between migrant and native workers, making it difficult for migrants to integrate and secure stable livelihoods in the state.

Chart 6.6.1.
Classification based on registered migrant



Source: Primary Data

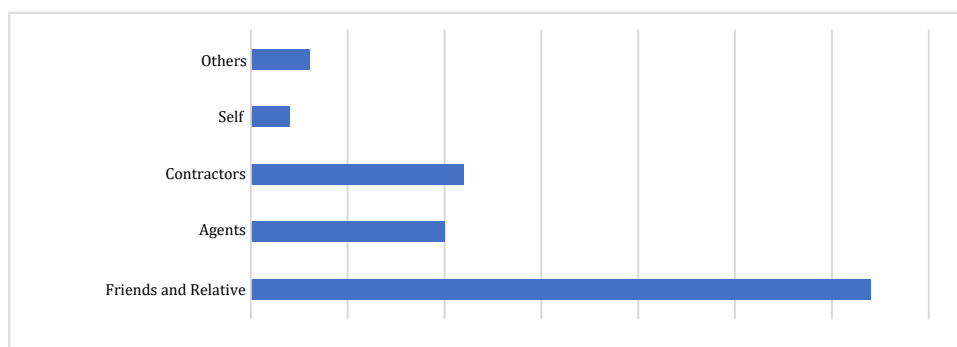
Although the majority of interstate migrants possess one of the identity cards, the study results show that about 85.5% of the respondents are not registered. This creates a problem on the part of govt and policymakers to formulate and implement programmes since the actual number of migrants registered constitutes a very small proportion of the total interstate migrants in Kerala. Moreover, the unregistered migrants are denied all social security and welfare programmes of the government, which are restricted to the registered migrants.

Table 6.6.1
Classification based on year of registration

Year	Frequency	Per cent
2004	2	3.45
2006	2	3.45
2007	2	3.45
2008	3	5.17
2009	2	3.45
2011	2	3.45
2012	1	1.72
2013	2	3.45
2014	4	6.90
2015	2	3.45
2016	2	3.45
2017	2	3.45
2018	4	6.90
Not Mentioned	28	48.28
total	58	100

The table shows that only a very small proportion of the migrants are registered. This reflects either a lack of awareness, poor record-keeping, or informal employment arrangements, which complicates efforts to ensure proper regulation and effectiveness of migrant welfare provisions in the state. As Haseena (2015) observed, despite Kerala's commendable efforts in initiating inclusive welfare programs for migrant workers, their actual coverage remains limited. The Inter-State Migrant Workers Welfare Scheme, although comprehensive in design, suffers from poor performance due to low enrollment, largely attributed to language barriers and inadequate dissemination of information among the migrant population.

Chart 6.6.2
Person who helped to register in Kerala



Source: Primary Data

The migration process is always a matter of networks or channels. This predominates in the case of registration of the migrants also. Among the registered migrants, more than half of them (55.2%) are helped in their registration process by their friends and relatives, followed by contractors and agents. The Interstate Migrant Workmen (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Act of 1970 requires that registration is mandatory for the employment of migrant labourers.

Table 6.6.2
Classification based on having a migrant identity card

	Frequency	Percent
Having Identity Card	28	7
No identity card	372	93
Total	400	100

Source: Primary Data

The migrant identity card is issued to every registered migrant. In the study, it was found that only 7.5 % of the migrants possess a migrant identity card. The lack of migrant identity cards results in the native peoples and police officials casting a suspicious look on them as if they were the problem creators. Many attempts made by the government and agents to register the migrants still have not reached the targeted goal due to different constraints.

Chart 6.6.3
Having membership in any union

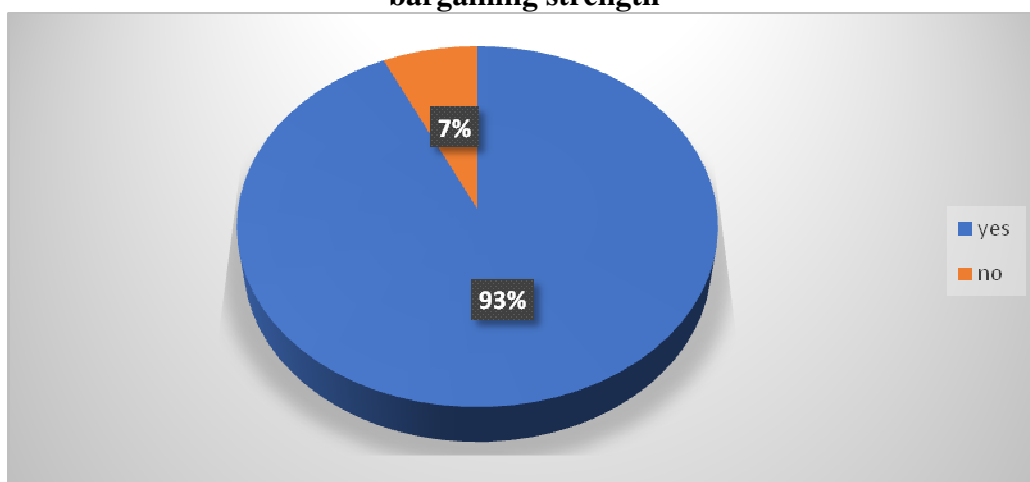
	frequency	Percent
Have Membership	20	5
no member ship	380	95
Total	400	100

Source: Primary Data

It is an established idea that collective bargaining is more powerful and effective than individual bargaining which is the ultimate base for the formation of associations and trade unions. Trade unions take collective action to improve the working and wage conditions and overall welfare of its members. Kerala is well known for its trade unions for the workers in the organized as well as unorganized sectors. To a great extent, it has improved the job status, working, and living conditions by providing welfare funds for the members and their family members. But the most unfortunate state of the migrant workers working in the most dangerous and precarious job is that there are no associations or unions for them even though they have been working in Kerala for many years and have emerged as a major labour force of the state. In the present study, it is

found that 95.3 % of the migrants working in the construction sector of Kerala do not come under the purview of any unions or associations. This results in their low and weak bargaining power and are prone to more exploitation in terms of long working hours with low wages and lack of any other social security benefits from the employer's side other than the agreed contractual wage.

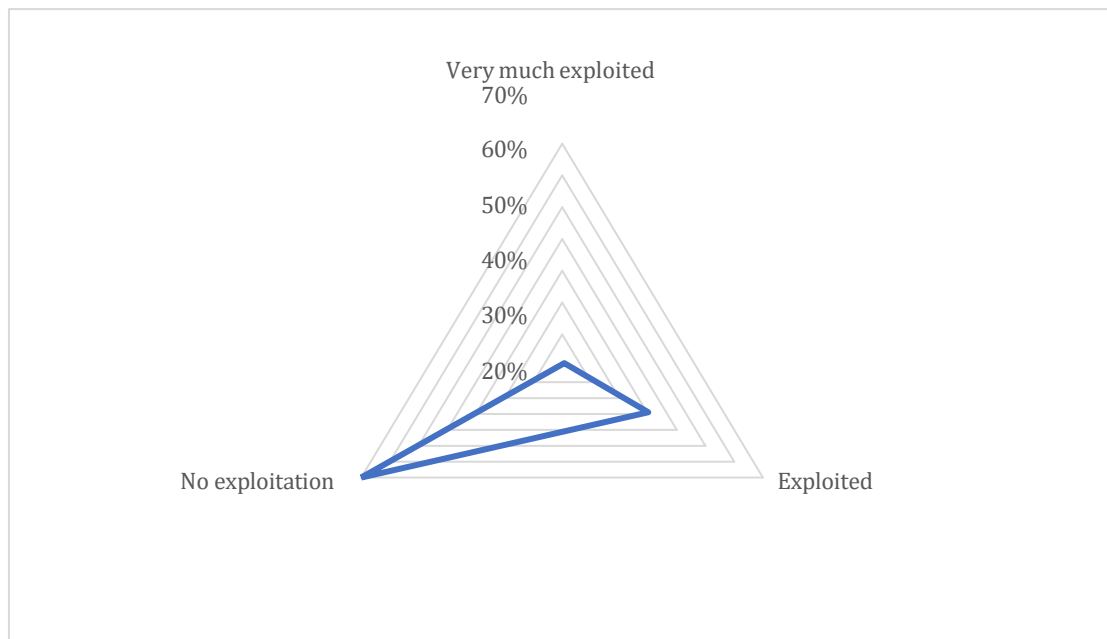
Chart 6.6.3
The opinion that the membership will improve the information base and bargaining strength



Source: Primary Data

The study results show that an overwhelming majority of migrants have felt the need for associations or unions as they are under the impression that such collective efforts will serve to accentuate the information base and strengthen their bargaining capacity. This directly reflects the fact that in their respective native places, they are not used to such collectivisation. The migrants are found to be happy in their well-built groups of friends, relatives, and persons from their states. During the holidays and on Sundays, they gather together at marketplaces as they are seen in large groups at Perumbavoor, Broadway in Ernakulam, Kazhakkoottaam, Ulloor in Trivandrum, Kanchikode-Walayar and Mannarkkad in Palakkad and Thaliparambu and Payyannur in Kannur. These gatherings and meetings are found to be the major source of information regarding new works, new contractors who need labourers, and the major worksites.

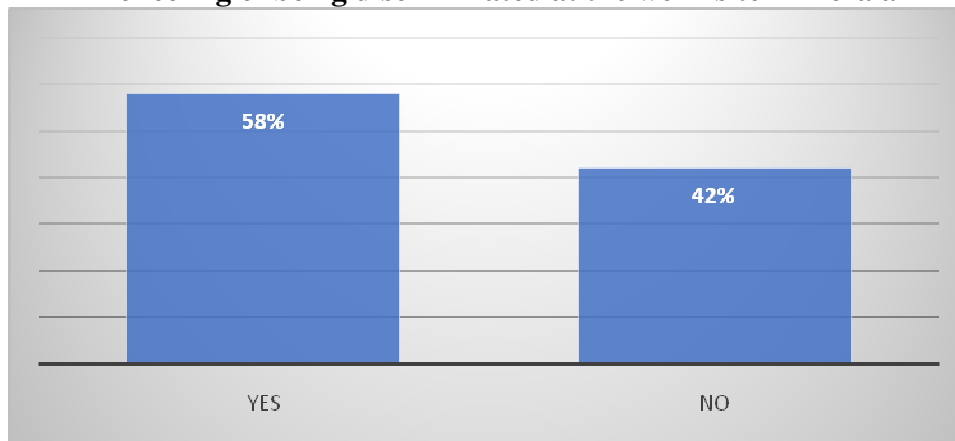
Chart 6.6.4
Respondents Feelings of Being Exploited



Source: Primary Data

In the earlier studies on the working and living conditions of the migrants in Kerala, it was found that the migrants are subjected to exploitation of varied degrees in different sectors. However, the study results show that the migrants employed in the construction sector are less subject to exploitation since only 29% of the migrants are of the view that they are exploited, and 70% of the migrants believe that there is no exploitation. Staying in Kerala for many years has reduced the asymmetry in the information on the part of migrants, which is negatively associated with exploitation. Nowadays, the migrants are said to be more aware of their due wage and are bold enough to demand the wage from their employers.

Chart 6.6.5
The feeling of being discriminated at the work site in Kerala



Source: Primary Data

ual labour market theory propounds that economic dualism exists in the labour market which ultimately results in employing the native skilled labours in those areas which require the services of experienced labourers who are paid higher wages while the interstate migrant labourers are hired for the blue collared jobs in the construction sector where wage offered is low and is subject to dangerous work. The lack of information to the migrant workers regarding the present working conditions and wage rates of the native labourers of Kerala is always used as a means of discriminating between native labourers and migrant labourers in the same worksite by the employers. This study also asserts that about 38% of the migrants are of the view that they are discriminated against in the workplace in different modes.

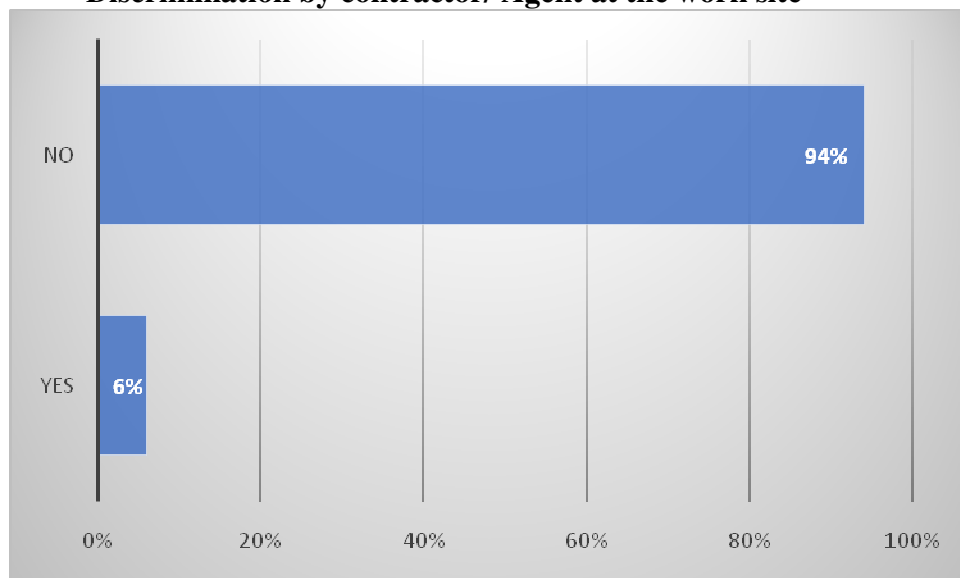
Table 6.6.4
Respondents' opinion about the basis of discrimination (n=152)

Basis of discrimination	Frequency	Percent
Wage discrimination	110	72.37
Working hours	114	75.00
Caste-based discrimination	15	9.87
Language base	43	28.29
State of origin base	9	5.92
Experience base	47	30.92
Qualification base	19	12.50
Cheated by contractor	13	8.55
Over burden of work	10	6.58
Poor accommodation facility	6	3.95

Source: Primary Data

Among the different modes of discrimination, wage discrimination between the native and migrant labour ranked first as for the same wage paid the latter was made to work for longer hours vis-avis the former. Experience, language difference, state of origin, and caste-based discrimination were also encountered by the workers in the construction sector of Kerala which needs special attention. Article 15 of the Indian constitution forbids all discrimination based on religion, race, place of birth etc. And the existence of discrimination on these bases between the native labourers and the migrant labourers is the violation of fundamental rights ensured by the constitution to all citizens of India.

Chart 6.6.6
Discrimination by contractor/ Agent at the work site

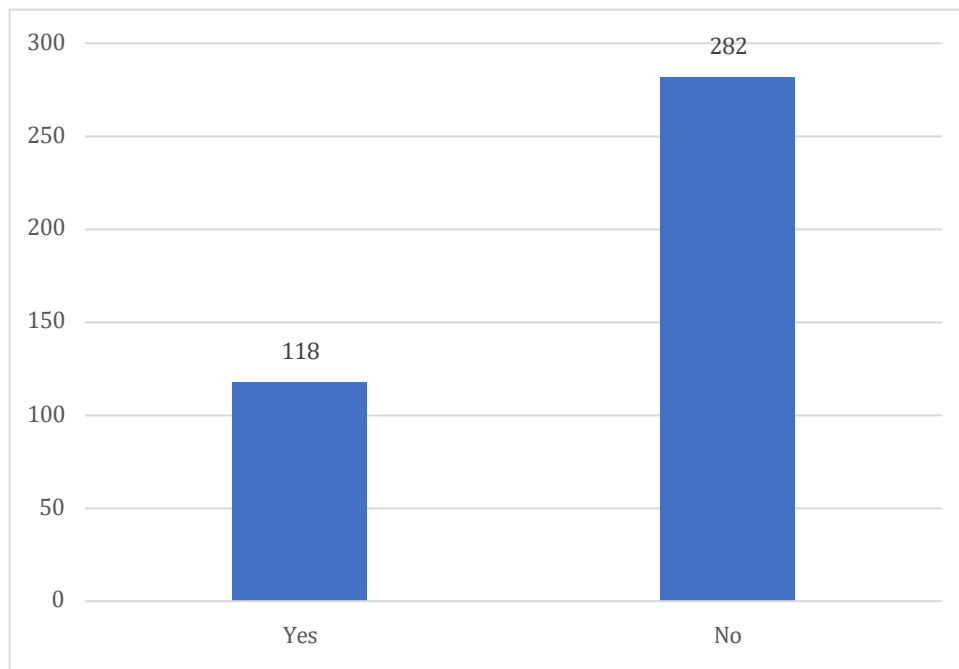


Source: Primary Data

The main channel of migration and the prime source of information regarding the availability of work in the construction sector are the agents and contractors. These contractors or agents discriminate against the migrants at the worksite. Data shows that one-fourth of the interstate migrants expressed a discriminatory attitude toward the contractors or agents.

Chart 6.6.7

Chance of getting leave to the migrants when they wish

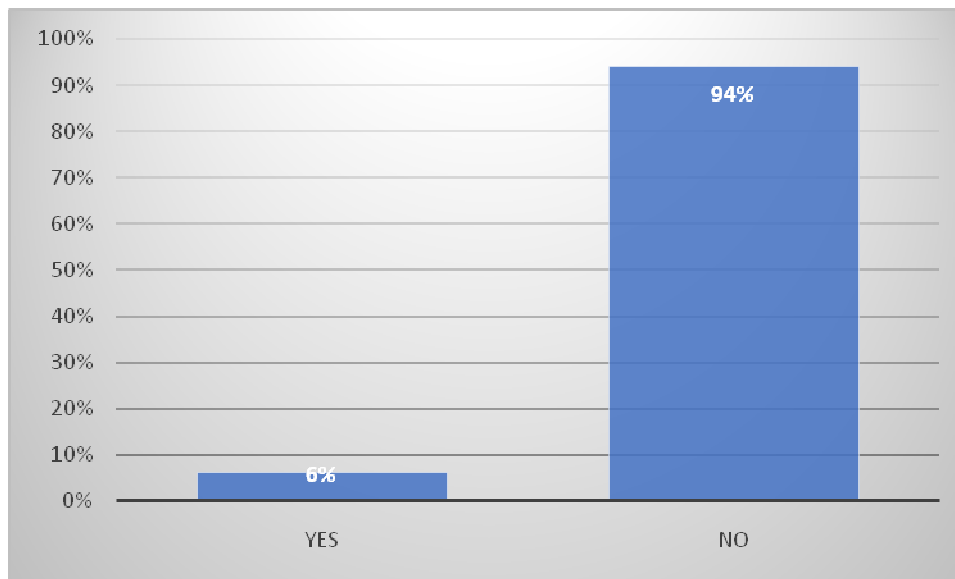


Source: Primary Data

Works in the construction sector are mostly in the form of contractual work offered by the employer or contractor. This is beneficial to both the employer and the employee as for the former such a practice leads to the timely completion of the proposed work and for the latter, they can complete the stipulated work on time and can move to another worksite. The regularity of work without taking unnecessary leaves or absence from work compared to the native labourers is one of the major attractions of employing migrant labourers in the construction sector. The existing system of contractual work acts as a hurdle in availing leave. About 70% of the migrant respondents expressed that they couldn't take leave according to their wish.

Chart 6.6.8

Getting the promised wage rate in the contract

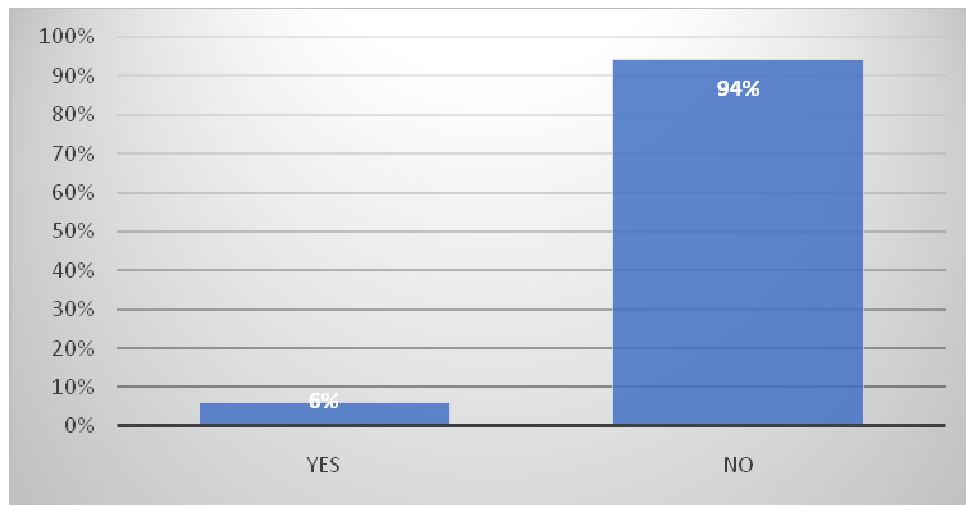


Source: Primary Data

A higher wage rate at the destination is one of the pull factors of migration. A potential migrant makes his decision to migrate from his origin when the expected earnings at the destination are much higher than the actual earnings. After migration, it usually happens that due to various bottlenecks, they get less than the promised wage rate. About 30 % of the respondents raised the issue of failing to get the promised wage from the contractors who often dodge their responsibility of paying the promised wage by citing the defects in their work in the construction sector like lack of perfection, lack of proper knowledge of the work, etc.

Chart 6.6.9

Experience of being ill-treated at the work site

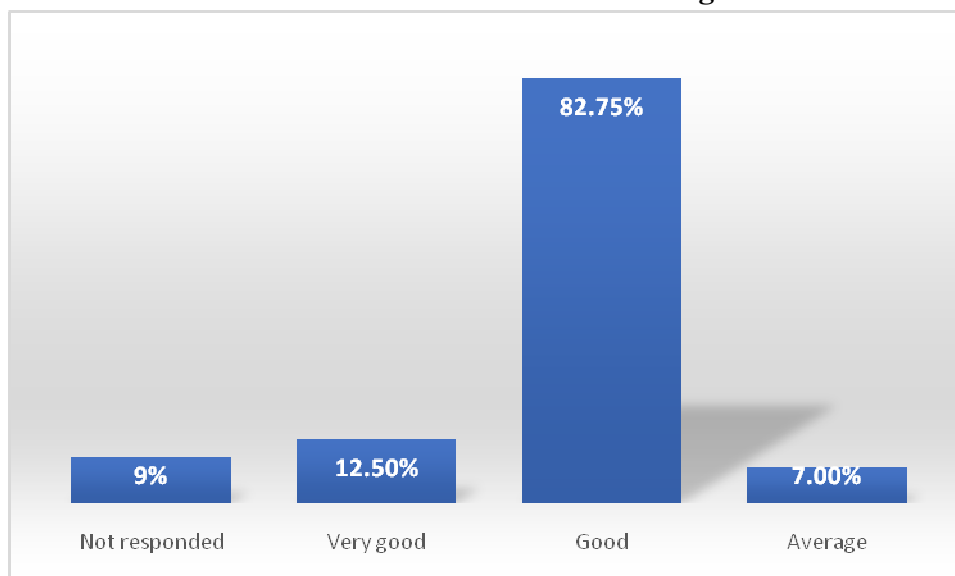


Source: Primary Data

Mal-treatment by the contractors and agents deputed for the work, and also by the native co-workers, is a common phenomenon. A migrant labourer is always treated mentally and physically as an alien. One-third of the respondents are affected at the worksite either physically or emotionally. Very often, the feeling of being suffocated is silently borne by the migrants for fear of losing their jobs.

Chart 6.6.10

The attitude of the native labourers towards Migrants labourers

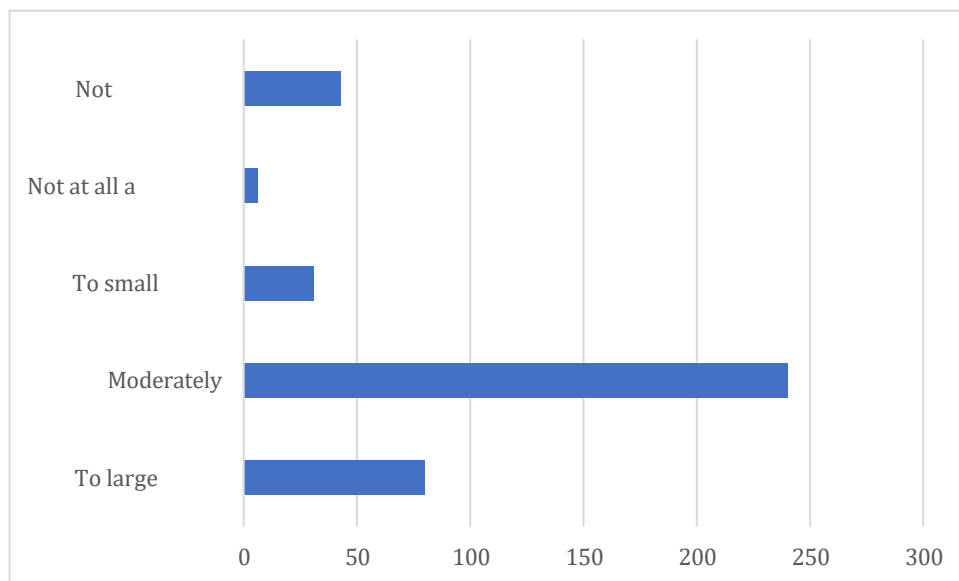


Source: Primary Data

Regarding the attitude of the native labourers towards migrant labourers, 82 per cent of them found it satisfactory or good. This suggests an overall favourable perception of migrants by the local workforce within the construction sector. However, as highlighted by Sreedharan and Murali (2018), this surface-level acceptance does not necessarily equate to genuine social integration. Their study, employing the two-dimensional ethnocide model, categorises migrant integration into four stages—assimilation, integration, marginalisation, and separation—and observes that deep-seated cultural and linguistic differences continue to hinder full assimilation and integration of migrants into Kerala’s society. Elements of social exclusion, therefore, remain prevalent despite seemingly positive workplace relations.

Chart 6.6.11

The extent of language problems creating difficulty in understanding work



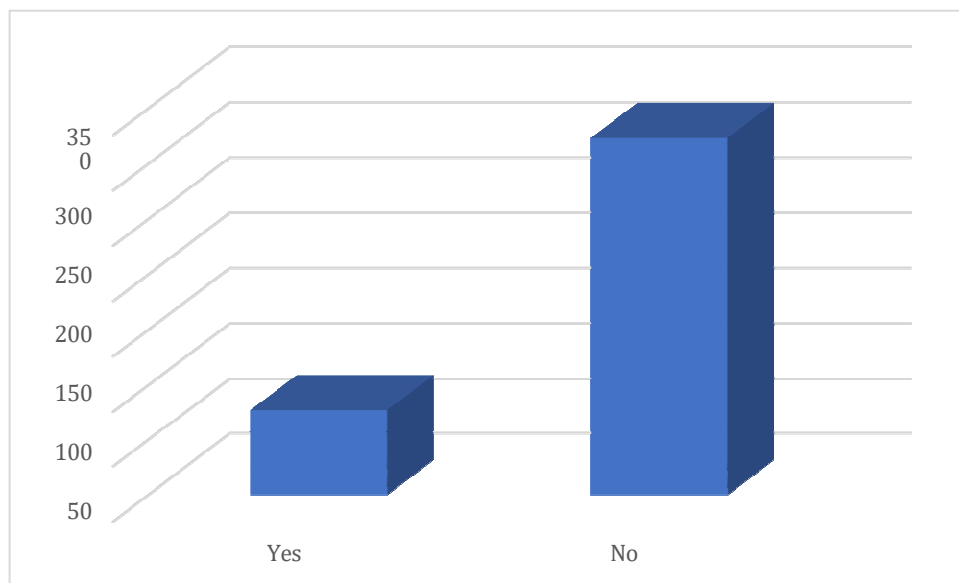
Source: Primary Data

One of the major hindrances in the migration process is the difference in language which always emerges as a barrier to communicating as well as comprehending the originally intended idea. This affects mostly the worksite where some instructions and ideas have to be understood properly to do work in the right manner. The study results show that 20 % of the respondents face acute language problems in properly

understanding the work as conceived by the contractor or employer. This often culminates in abuses and blaming for the work done by them. As many of the migrants are staying in Kerala for more than 2 years resulted in a language proficiency in understanding the work as a moderate one to 60% of the migrants.

Chart 6.6.12

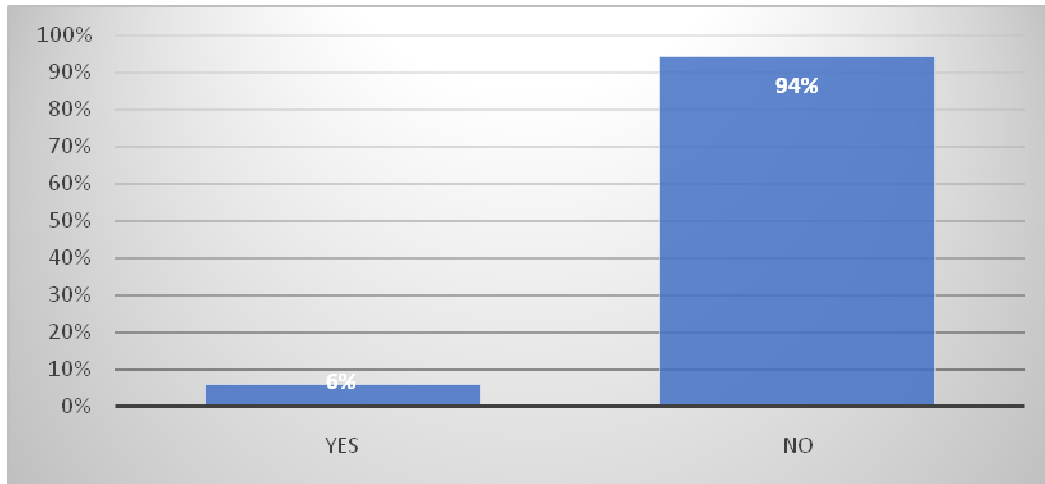
Having been isolated from native workers in Kerala



Source: Primary Data

Differences in language and areas of origin are bound to create an emotional separation and isolation from the native labourers of Kerala. Nearly 20% of the migrants felt that they felt isolated from the native workers, and the majority, 80% of the respondents, have no such feeling of separation or isolation since they are fusing into the work culture of Kerala along with the native co-workers. However, as highlighted in the study conducted by Shajeena (2020) under the Kerala Institute of Labour and Employment (KILE), deeper social integration remains weak. Despite many migrants having lived in Kerala for more than five years, only a small percentage have built social relationships with native residents. This reflects a low level of cultural diffusion, pointing to the fact that while workplace integration may occur, broader social inclusion of migrants within the local community is still limited.

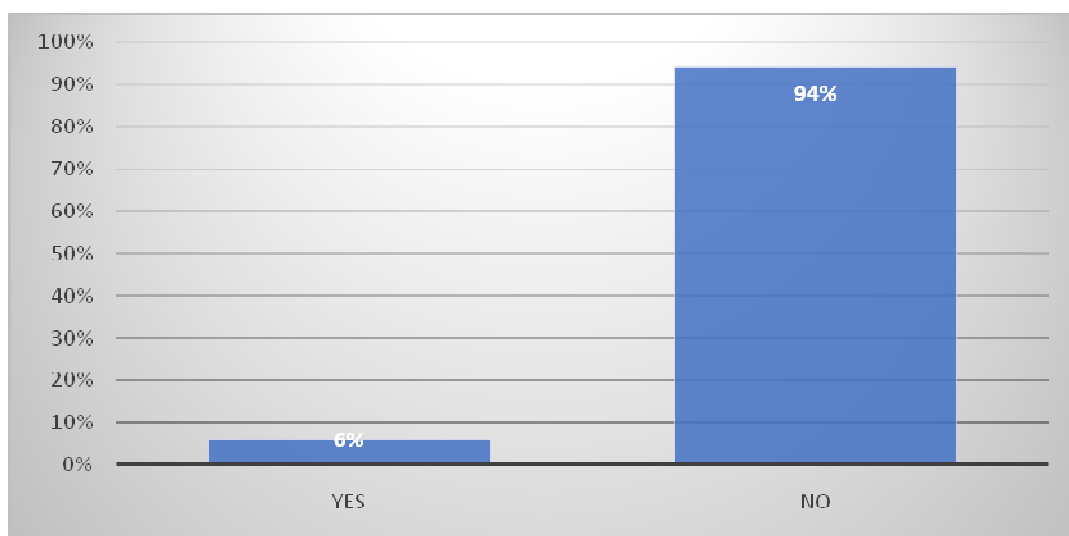
Chart 6.6.13
Having incidents of clashes between native labourers



Source: Primary Data

Even though there exists discrimination between native and migrant labourers in the matters of wage, working time, and support benefits at the work site, the study reveals that merely 3.5% of the migrants have faced incidents of clash between native labourers and them. It also supports the idea that the hospitality and friendly attitude of the people of Kerala is one of the reasons that persuaded them to migrate to the southernmost state of Kerala from the north and northeastern states travelling more than 2000 kilometres.

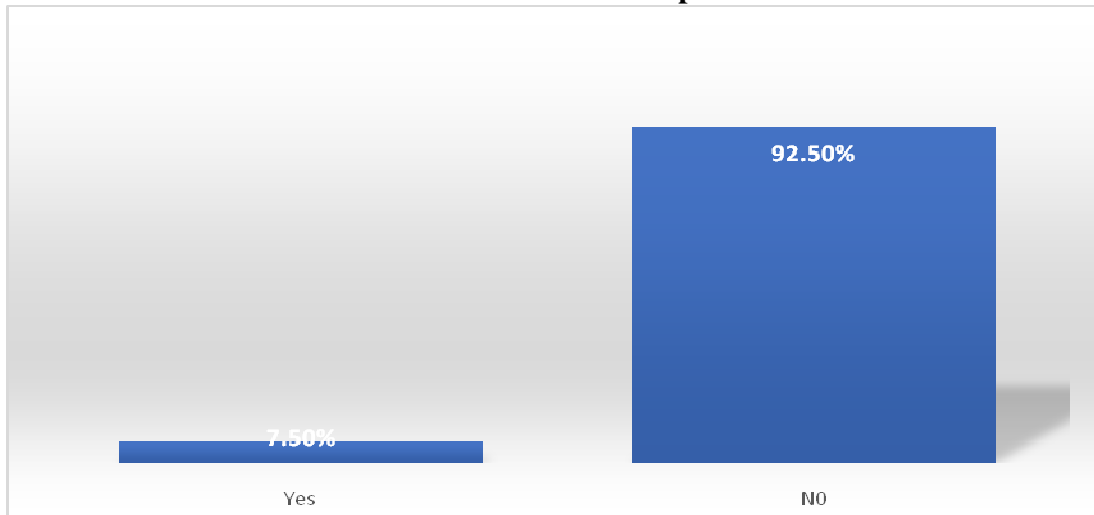
Chart 6.6.14
Awareness about inter-state migrant Workmen Regulation Employment and Conditions Act 1979



Source: Primary Data

The Interstate Migrant Workmen Regulation Employment and Conditions Act 1979 envisages and stipulates a legal framework for the employment and working conditions of migrant workmen in India. It makes it mandatory for all establishments that hire migrant labourers to be registered and to get a license from the proper authorities before employing a migrant worker. However, the plaintive and pitiable result shows that only 1% of the respondents are aware of this act. This shows the dire need to conduct an awareness programme for educating migrants about the legal provisions available to them as migrants so that they can have a self-restored life in their destination.

Chart 6.6.15
Have met an accident in the workplace in Kerala



Source: Primary Data

Construction workers are more prone to accidents, as they are engaged in dangerous jobs especially working in heights without wearing safety measures. The data shows that 7.5 % of migrant workers have met with an accident at the worksite. Provision of essential safety things like helmets, gloves, etc. to the migrants must be made mandatory and measures must be taken to promote the use of this safety wear by the migrants.

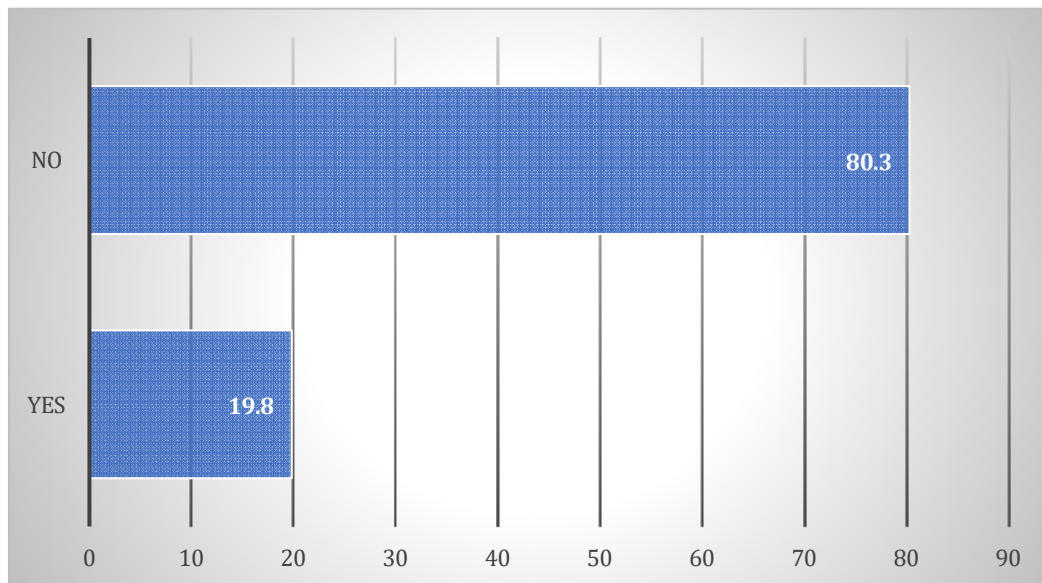
Table 6.6.5
Respondents who got the Accident Benefit

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	16	53.67
No	14	46.33
Total	30	100.00

Source: Primary Data

Among those who met with an accident, four families got benefits from the government, 9 got benefits from contractors, two got benefits from employers and one got benefits from a union. Only two of them heard about the Kerala migrant welfare scheme in March 2010.

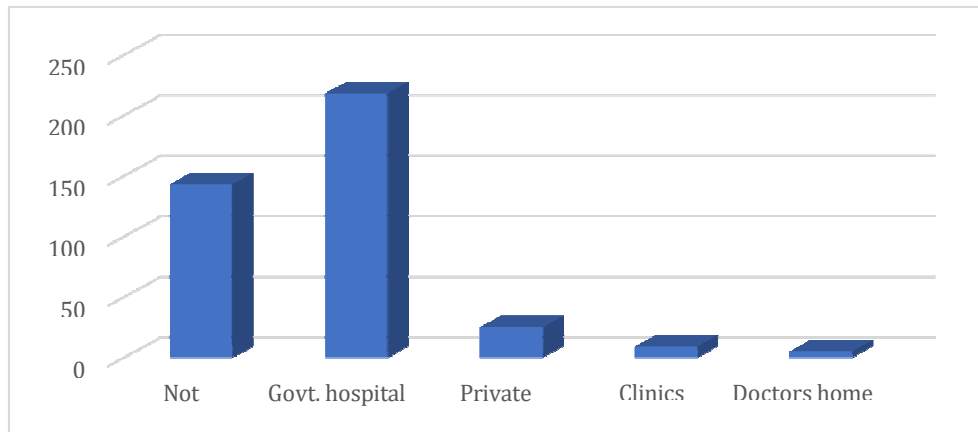
Chart 6.6.16
Having Come Under Any Social Security Scheme



Source: Primary Data

Chart 6.6.16 reveals that only 19.8% of the migrant workers surveyed are covered under any social security scheme, while a substantial 80.3% remain excluded. Among those enrolled, nearly all are beneficiaries of the Aawaz scheme and possess an Aawaz insurance card, with only one respondent reporting coverage under a life insurance policy. This data highlights a significant gap in social protection for migrant labourers in Kerala. Viswanath (2019) also observed that most interstate migrants in the unorganised sector come from economically disadvantaged backgrounds, and while their savings and remittance behaviour are strong, they often lack access to essential welfare schemes. Despite expressing satisfaction with their living conditions in Kerala, migrants continue to face challenges such as workplace discrimination and the absence of adequate social security.

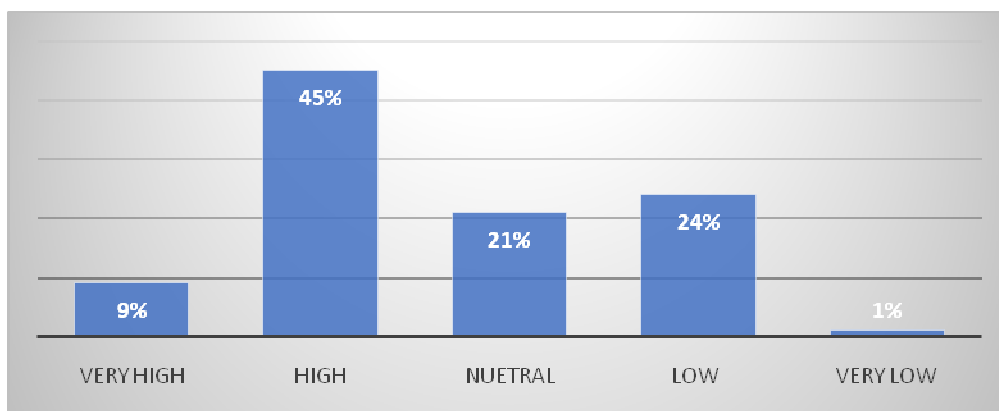
Chart 6.6.17
The place where migrants approach for treatment



Source: Primary Data

The major chunk covering 54.5 respondents depended on govt hospitals for treatment when they fell ill or when they met accidents at the work site. Around one-tenth of the respondents depend on private health care services rather than public health care services when they face health issues as in the latter they have to spend almost one day sacrificing their work and income of that day. The working hours of the primary health centres and community health centers is not migrants –friendly.

Chart 6.6.18
The severity of language as a barrier to communicating health problems to doctors

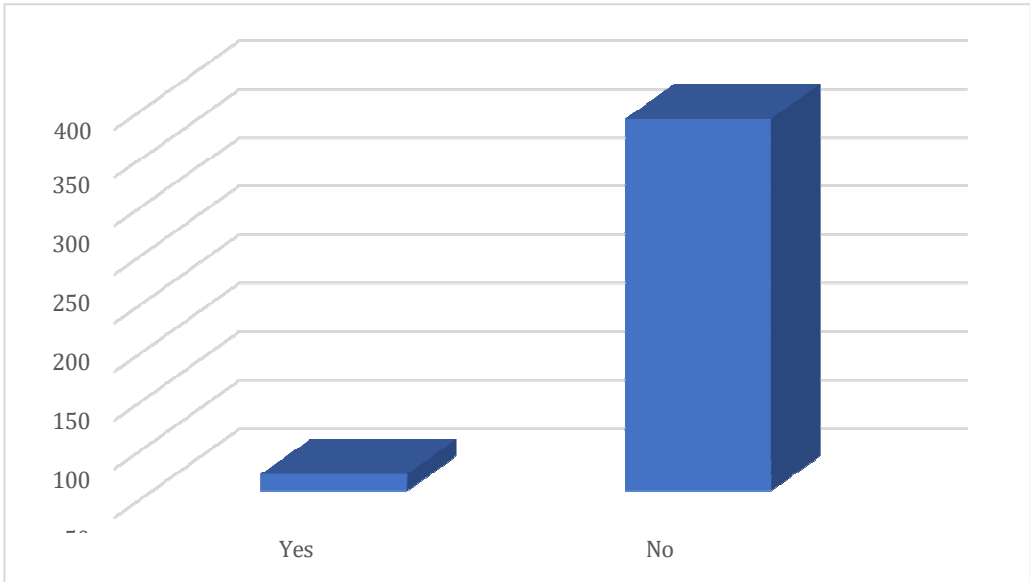


Source: Primary Data

One of the major issues posed by the migrants in the construction sector is their inability to communicate their health issues with doctors. This problem always results

in indulging in buying medicines from medical shops without any doctor’s prescription when they face health issues.

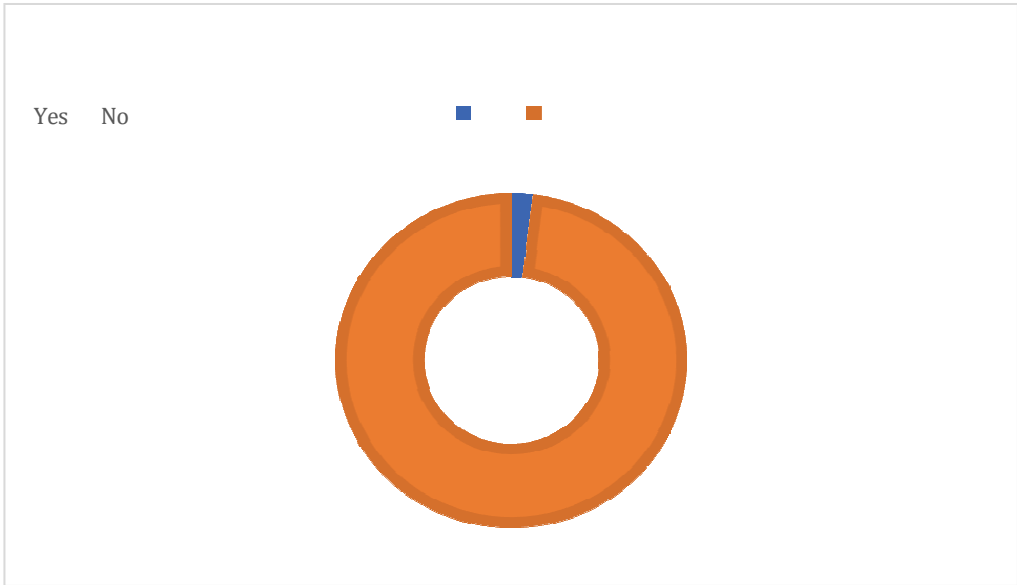
Chart 6.6.19
Get medical help at the immediate time



Source: Primary Data

From the information provided by the respondents in most cases, they are not getting any instant medical help when they suffer from medical or health issues.

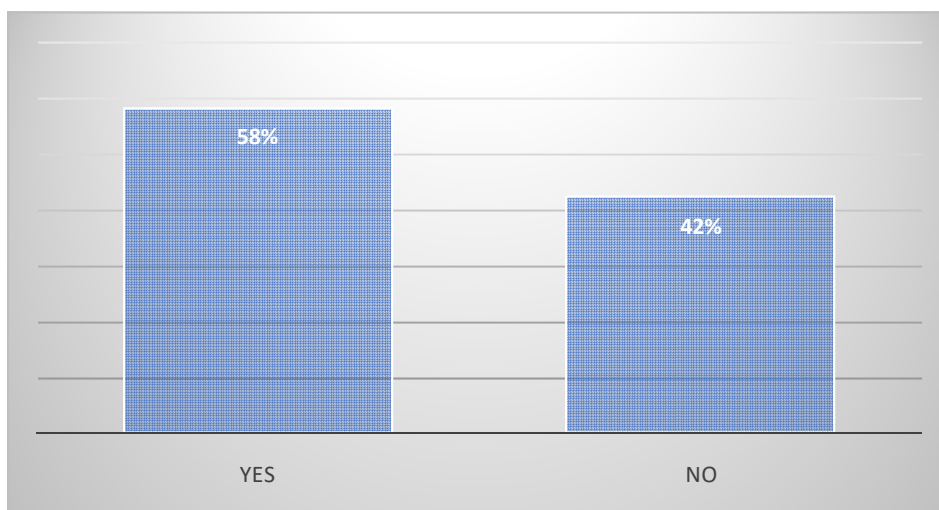
Chart 6.6.20
Admitted in hospital



Source: Primary Data

Due to the absence of bystanders in the hospital and due to the opportunity cost of missing the work, 98 per cent opined that they are not admitted to hospitals even though they suffer from severe health issues that necessitate hospitalization.

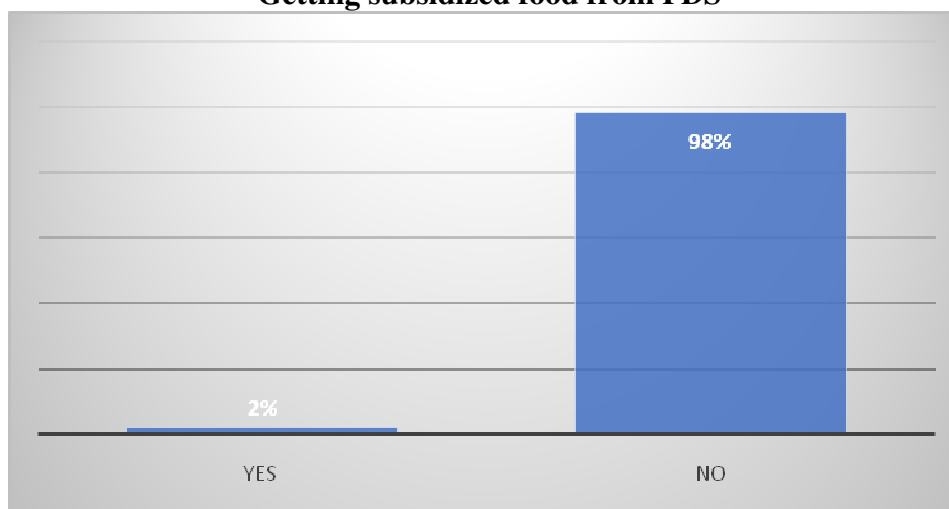
Chart 6.6.21
Possession RSBY card



Source: Primary Data

The Rashtriya Swasthya Bima Yojana – national health insurance for poor people in India helps to meet cashless insurance for hospitalization. However, the majority of the respondents do not possess RSBY cards often leading to out-of-pocket expenditures for meeting health expenses.

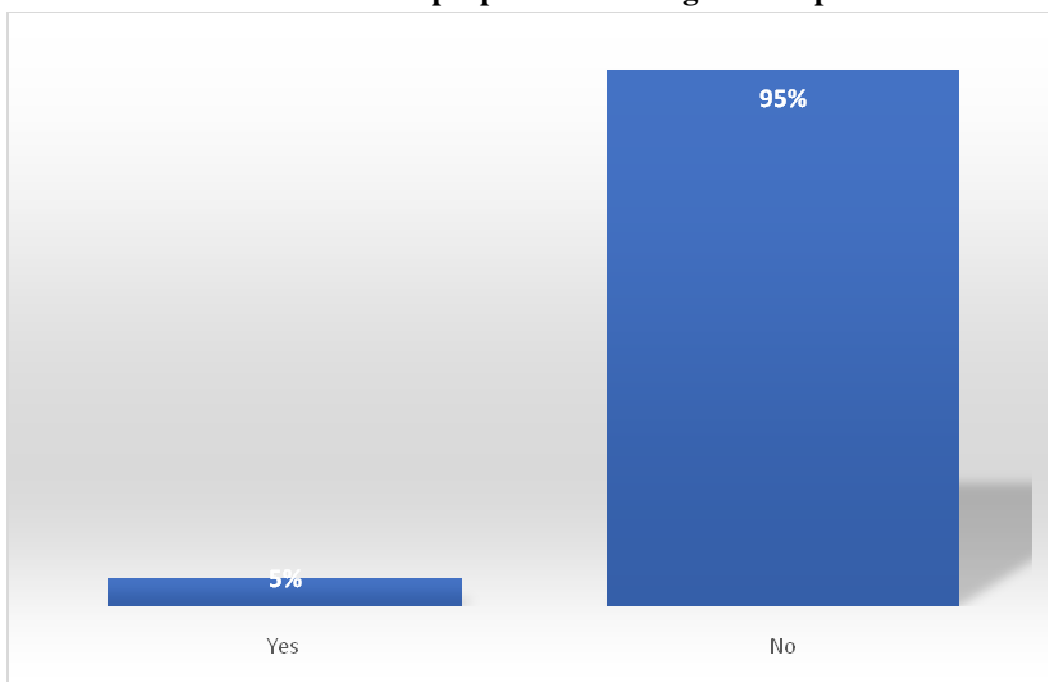
Chart 6.6.22
Getting subsidized food from PDS



Source: Primary Data

Access to the Public Distribution System (PDS) remains a critical challenge for migrant workers in Kerala's construction sector. Due to the lack of portability of ration cards and the non-possession of valid identification documents, a staggering 98% of migrant respondents reported being excluded from receiving subsidized food through the PDS. Moreover, the working conditions in the construction sector—particularly long and inflexible hours—further hinder their ability to visit ration shops, which typically operate during the same hours as their work time. These systemic barriers are not unique to Kerala. Akoijam et al. (2017), in their nationwide study on the living conditions of internal labour migrants across 13 Indian cities, found that migrants are commonly denied basic entitlements such as access to food grains through PDS due to the absence of identity documents and ration cards. Their study also highlights other associated vulnerabilities including poor housing, lack of sanitation and clean drinking water, health risks, and political exclusion. Despite the role internal migration plays in enhancing economic prosperity and urban diversity, migrants continue to face structural exclusion from essential welfare provisions like the PDS, reinforcing cycles of deprivation and insecurity at their destinations.

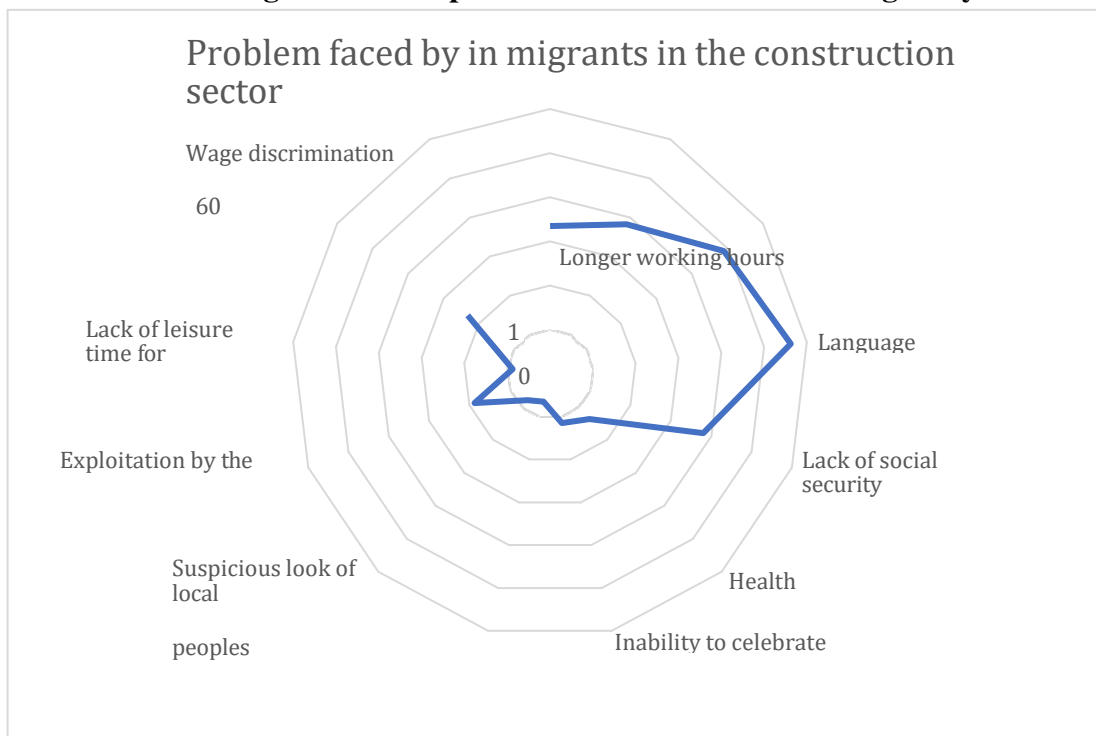
Chart 6.6.23
Attitudes of the native people towards migrants as problem creators



Source: Primary Data

Regarding the behaviour and attitude of natives towards in-migrants, 95 per cent are satisfied with the good manners of the people of Kerala. Only two people had the incident of suspicious looks by police and 5 per cent expressed their experience of misbehavior in buses and public places by the native people.

Chart 6.6.24
Ranking of different problems based on the order of gravity

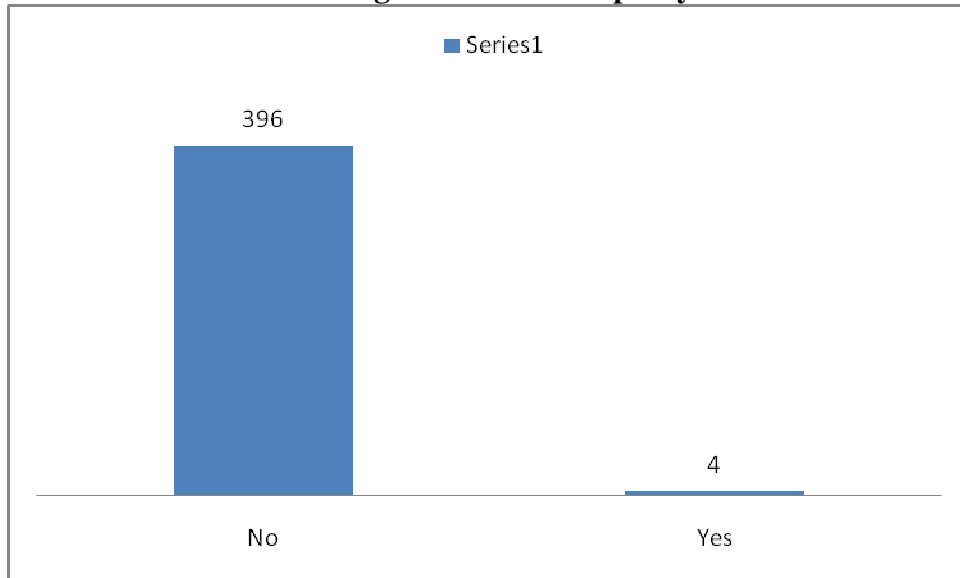


Source: Primary Data

The analysis presents the ranking of various problems faced by migrant workers in Kerala's construction sector based on their severity. The most pressing issue identified is language and communication barriers, which significantly hinder both social integration and workplace efficiency. This is closely followed by long working hours and wage discrimination, indicating the physical and economic vulnerabilities migrants endure compared to native workers. Other notable concerns include lack of social security, poor health conditions, and limited opportunities for cultural expression or celebration. Issues such as suspicion from locals, exploitation by employers, and absence of leisure time, although less severe, still impact the overall well-being of migrants. These findings align with Pillai's (1996) observations on the precarious

nature of the unorganised labour market in Kerala, characterized by irregular work, lack of legal protections, and limited access to welfare schemes.

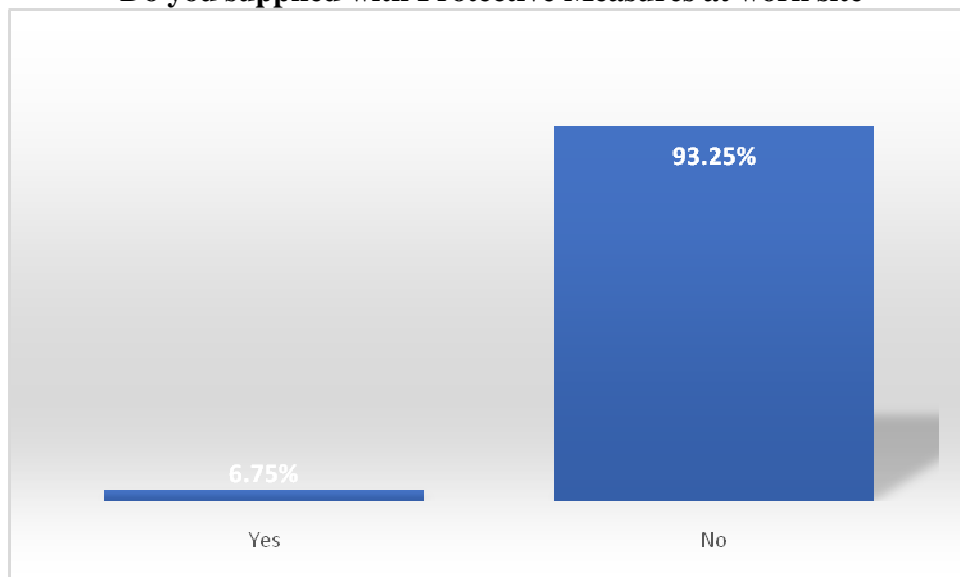
Chart 6.6.25
Having a life insurance policy



Source: Primary Data

Insuring life ensures a peaceful mind in the event of unexpected contingencies of the life. The study results show that 91.5 per cent do not have any life insurance policy.

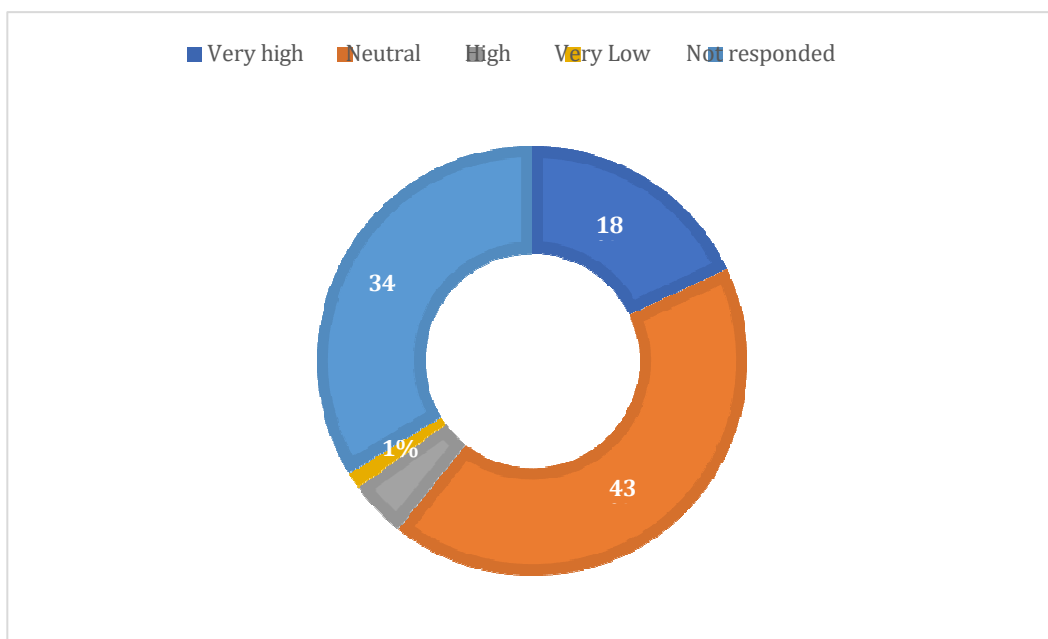
Chart 6.6.26
Do you supplied with Protective Measures at work site



Source: Primary Data

The works in the construction sector are highly risk-oriented and are prone to accidents since works are mainly done at heights standing on temporary platforms. So, the need for using protective and safe wear is very crucial for the safety of life and health. The paradoxical result is that although there are guidelines and regulations for providing helmets, gloves, and other protective means, 93.25 percent of those employed in the construction sector are not supplied with these safety measures.

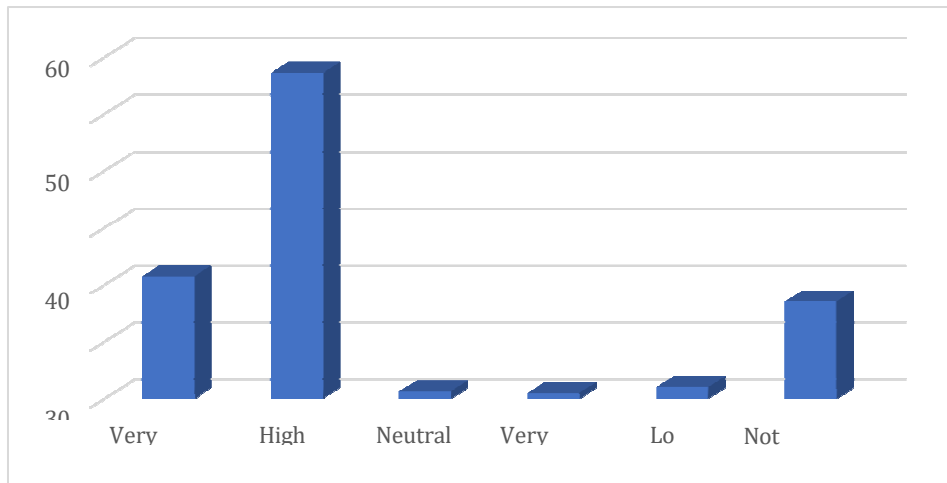
Chart 6.6.27
Severity of difficulty faced finding jobs in Kerala



Source: Primary Data

From the primary data, it is observed that about four-fifths of the respondents have not faced any serious issues in finding jobs in the construction sector. A wide network in the form of contractors, agents, friends, and relatives working in the construction sector acts as the interlinking mechanism to connect employers and migrants in the construction sector.

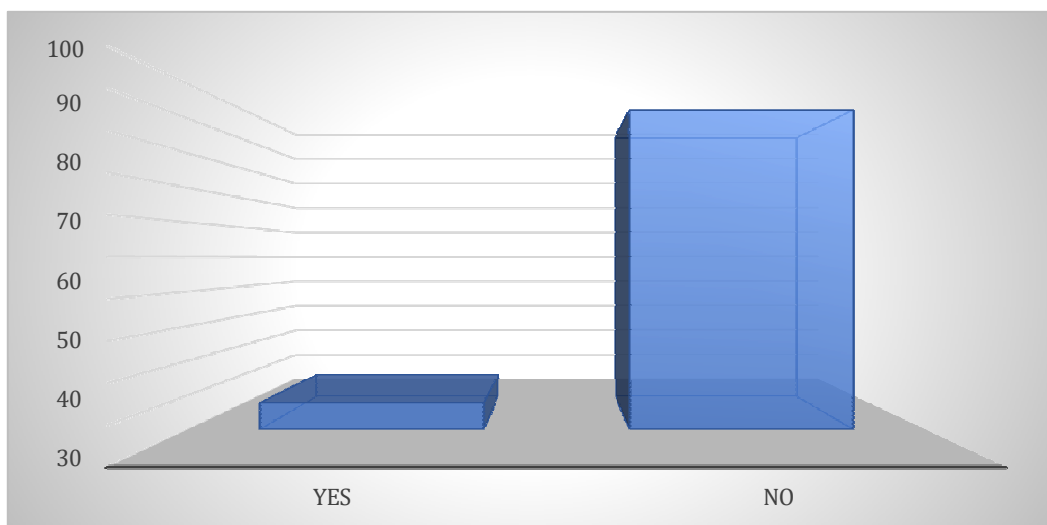
Chart 6.6.28
Level of interaction with local people by the migrants



Source: Primary Data

The permanent nature of migration to Kerala especially to the construction sector has been happening for a long time resulting in social integration with the people of Kerala. The long companionship in the worksite with the native labors results in very high interaction with local hosting people. However, they are not invited for the cultural or festival events in Kerala but are mostly invited for the housewarming and opening ceremony of the building in which they worked. The invitation to attend these programmes is mostly refused either due to hesitations to attend a public gathering or due to the loss of wage earned sparing the day for attending the function.

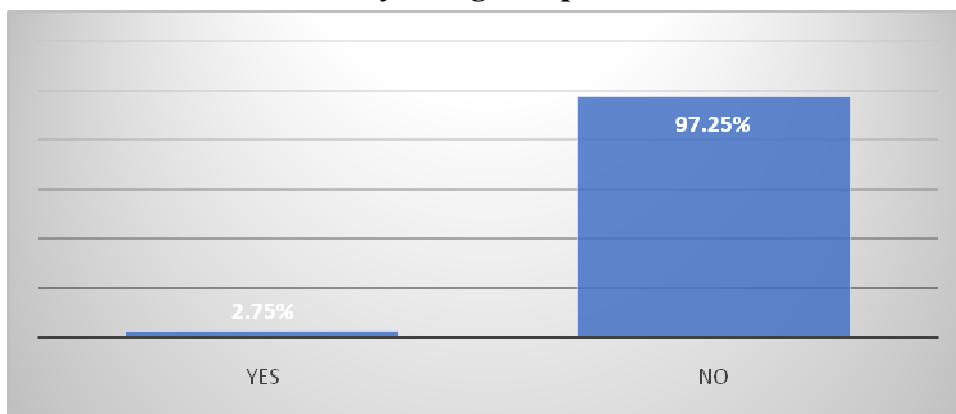
Chart 6.6.29
Language as a barrier in using ATM by the migrants



Source: Primary Data

Although the major percentage of the respondents have only a basic level of education or are illiterate, they do not find any problem in the handling of ATMs/CDMs in the transfer of funds, and their friends accompany them always. The spread of UPI cash transferring mechanism through smartphones also helps them in the transfer of funds to their native place.

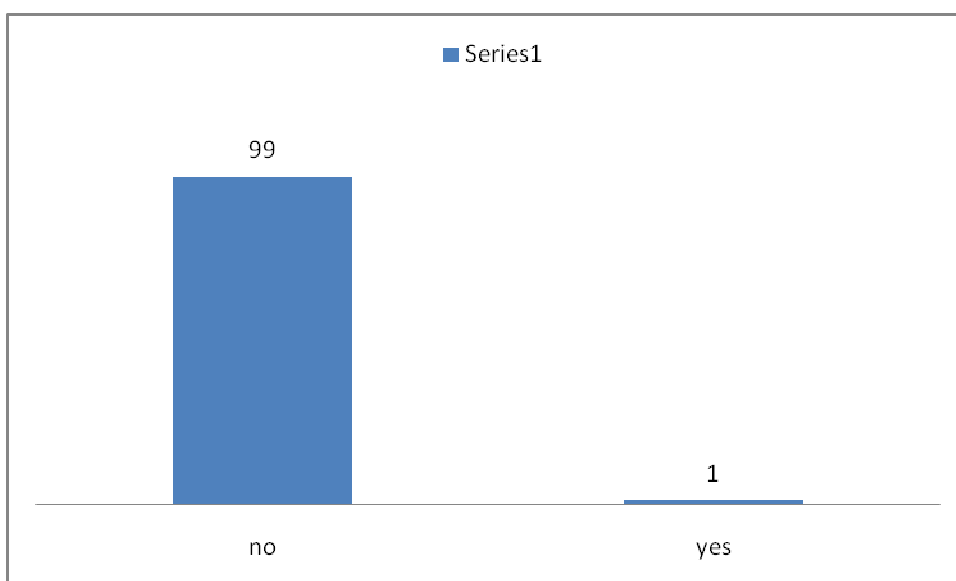
Chart 6.6.30
Accessibility of legal help when needed



Source: Primary Data

Amid various laws and rules to safeguard and protect the rights of migrants in Kerala about 97.25 percent are not getting any legal aid when they are trapped or caught in any offence or issues.

Chart 6.6.29
Experience of misbehavior from employer



The employers' behaviors towards interstate migrants employed in the construction sector are not faced with any misbehavior from the employer. The use of harsh words and ill-treatment are gradually disappearing when their experience and ability to understand and communicate in Malayalam increases over the years.

6.7 Factors influencing problems of in migrants: Results from Logistic Regression Analysis

The logistic regression model has been applied to find out the determinants of life problems of workers by taking life problems as a dependent variable whereas health issues, inadequate social security measures, lack of knowledge of native language, ill-treatment, suspicious behavior of local community and exploitation from the contractor as covariates. The logistic regression model is estimated by applying the Maximum Likelihood Method.

$$\hat{y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_3 + \beta_4 x_4 + \beta_5 x_5 + \beta_6 x_6 + \beta_7 x_7 + u$$

Where $\hat{y}$ = Problem of emmigrates a depenet variable

β_0 = Intercept

$\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_7$ are Slope co efficient

$x_1, x_2, \dots, x_7$ are explanattory variables

x_1 = Health Issue

x_2 = Lack of social Secuty measures

x_3 = inadquate accomadtion

x_4 = Lack of knowlege on native language

x_5 = illtreatment

x_6 = suspicious behaviour of local community

x_7 = Exploytation from the contactor

Table 6.6.6
Logistic Regression

Sl.NO	Determinants of life problems	Coefficients	P value
1	Health issue (yes=1, No=2)	0.713	0.008*
2	Lack of Social Security measures (yes=1, No=2)	-0.120	0.110
3	Inadequate accommodation (yes=1, No=2)	1.99	0.004**
4	Lack of knowledge of native language (yes=1, No=2)	0.056	0.487
5	Ill-treatment ((yes=1, No=2)	0.080	0.251
6	Suspicious behavior of the local community (yes=1, No=2)	0.011	0.898
7	Exploitation from the contractor (Severe=1, Not Severe=2)	0.519	0.008*
	Constant	2.937	(0.080)
	-2 Log Likelihood	78.941 (0.000)	
	Cox and Snell R square	0.11	

Source: Analysis from Primary Data

*Significant at 1% α

**Significant at 1% α

Table 6.6.6 reveals the determinants of life problems among workers which were obtained from logistic regression results. As regards the variable ‘health’, it is learned that the probability of having problems in life is as high as 0.71 if the respondent is wrestled with health issues. This is also having statistical support as the probability value is less than 1% α . Similarly, the variable ‘inadequate accommodation’ and ‘exploitation from contractor’ also have statistical significance. The probability of occurrence of life problems is very high if the accommodation is inadequate and the probability of extent of exploitation from the contractor is also as high as 0.52 which triggers off life problems of the immigrants. The probability of life problems is also related to the ill-treatment suffered by the immigrants. It is equally mentioned that the occurrence of life problems is associated with the exploitation by the contractor. The respondent thinks that the severity of life problems is as high as 0.52 if the exploitation from the contractor is severe. Similarly, the probability of life problems rises positively if the behavior of the local community is suspicious. However, it is not backed by statistical analysis as the P value is above 1% α .

The above analysis, drives home that health issues, inadequate accommodation, and exploitation from the contractor are the major regressors found to have statistical support in determining the life problems of immigrant workers. The other covariates are also crucial although they do not have statistical significance.

Conclusion

This chapter empirically investigated the socio-economic and demographic profile of the immigrant workers in the construction sector of Kerala, the pattern of saving and investment behavior, the nature of remittance and the impact on indebtedness, the major factors driving the journey of immigrants to Kerala's construction sector, the multiple roles of agents and finally the life problems encountered by the respondents. As part of empirically analyzing

them, the study used statistical tools like the percentage method, arithmetic mean, non-parametric test, and factor analysis and regression techniques. It was revealed that immigrants improved a lot in terms of their saving, investment, and remittance behavior which is having a positive effect on their burden of indebtedness. Similarly, the study dissected and identified the most vital factors influencing their entry into Kerala's labour market while classifying the agents as a decision maker, consultants, service providers, and negotiators. The most pressing reasons for the life problems of immigrants were also empirically found.

Chapter |7|

Summary of Findings, Conclusions and Recommendations

7.1 Introduction

The primary objectives of the study are to analyze the factors influencing the preferences of interstate migrant workers to work in the construction sector of Kerala, to investigate the role of intermediaries in interstate labour migration, to analyze the pattern of saving and investment of respondents before and after migration, to analyze the impact of saving, investment, and remittance on the indebtedness of the immigrants, and to examine the issues and challenges encountered by migrant workers in relation to native workers in the construction sector of Kerala. This chapter summarizes the conclusions drawn, suggestions, and scope for future research. .

The study is mainly based on primary data, but secondary data sources are also used.. There is no official data regarding the actual number of interstate migrants who find livelihood in Kerala, due to both their migratory nature and the absence of a proper registration system encompassing all interstate migrants in the state. The total number of migrant workers registered with the Kerala Construction Workers Welfare Board is taken as the population, and a sample of 400 migrants was derived as the sample size using Slovin's formula. Four districts—Thiruvananthapuram, Ernakulam, Palakkad, and Kannur—were selected for primary data collection, as these districts had the highest number of interstate migrants according to the 2011 census and the 68th round of NSSO data. Additionally, these districts geographically represent the southern, central, and northern regions of Kerala. Employing a clustered random sampling method, primary data was collected by administering an interview schedule among migrants in clustered areas of the selected districts. To understand the specific problems faced by migrant workers in the construction sector, qualitative tools such as focused group discussions, interviews, and observations by the investigator at construction worksites and in the dwelling areas of the migrants were employed.

7.2 Major Findings of the Study

The interstate migrants predominantly working in Kerala's construction sector are mainly from West Bengal, Bihar, Assam, and Uttar Pradesh and 95% of them are originating from the rural areas of their home states. The migration is characterized as purely male, and a majority of the migrants are young, with about 70% belonging to the

age group below 30. The respondents are relatively backward in educational attainments. About 35% are illiterate and 60% have less than a secondary-level school education. They overwhelmingly hail from financially disadvantaged backgrounds, with 84% belonging to Below Poverty Line (BPL) families and most having inadequate housing in their native places, with two-thirds living under thatched roofs of straw. About 62% of migrants come from joint families, often migrating to escape poverty and indebtedness. About 61% of migrants belong to the family size of more than five members. Hindus and Muslims dominate the migration almost equally, and persons from marginalized communities (Backward Community, Scheduled Tribe, and Scheduled Caste) are more numerous than those from the General category. A notable three-fourths of respondents speak the Bengali language, reflecting the dominance of migrants from West Bengal. 45% of the respondents are married.

Factors Influencing Preference for Kerala's Construction Sector.

The decision to migrate to Kerala's construction sector is a determined choice, not merely seasonal, as two-thirds of the respondents have been working in the state for more than five years. For 92% of migrants, the construction sector was their first choice of work in Kerala, confirming the deliberate nature of their employment. The economic motive of high wages serves as the primary pulling factor for workers entering Kerala's labour market. Furthermore, contact and companionship with workers and friends already in the sector, are important social factors that strongly pull these workers to Kerala. Conversely, factors like cheap accommodation and work experience do not appear to be major driving forces.

Migration network theory is strongly reaffirmed in this context, as the single most important channel for migrants entering the construction sector is through friends and relatives. This network also acts as the prime source of information about employment opportunities for 56% of respondents and is responsible for recruiting two-thirds of the workers. This demonstrates the network's risk-reducing function. A significant 75% of respondents are leaving their homes for the first time, and Kerala is their first destination, especially for young migrants below 30. Nearly half, 49%, had prior experience in the construction sector in their native place, which might be prompting

them to make use of the acquired skill and choose construction work in Kerala. Four-fifths of the workers reported that their first job in Kerala's construction sector was that of a helper, illustrating the manifestation of the dual labour market theory.

Role of Intermediaries and Remittance Behaviour

While migration is primarily network-based, contractors and agents play a secondary but strategic role, typically becoming involved after the migrants arrive in Kerala, particularly in job placement and labour deployment. Most intermediaries operate locally within Kerala, suggesting a locally grounded system of labour brokerage. This system is characterized by the dominance of informal recruitment and management, with limited regulatory oversight. Intermediaries exhibit a dual nature: they provide access to work but also exert control that often leads to exploitation and dependence. Dissatisfaction with initial work arrangements, often due to irregular job availability and unfair treatment, leads migrants to frequently change contractors. The influence of these intermediaries varies based on the migrant's background characteristics, such as age, income, and education.

The average wage migrants receive are Rs 647 per day and that 99% of respondents send money to their home states, with the average amount remitted being Rs. 11,366 monthly. Most migrants, about 90%, remit money within a gap of one month, with 48% sending money every month and 35% sending it every two weeks. The money is primarily used for the creation and addition of assets such as land and houses (69%), as supplementary income for day-to-day family expenses, and for repaying family debt. An average of Rs. 87,000 was sent to their native states in the last year, indicating a substantial flow of remittances. The study found a negative impact of remittance and income on indebtedness, meaning increases in income and remittance minimize the debt burden. It is clear that instead of sending the entire wage as remittance, a part of the wage they receive is kept as income and it is found from the study that minimum income per day is Rs100 and maximum Rs1150. Despite high remittances, more than half (53%) of the respondents do not have a bank account. However they send money through others' bank account, through friends and agents.

Challenges, Conflicts and Vulnerabilities Faced by Migrants

Interstate migrants in the construction sector face significant vulnerabilities, largely due to a lack of formal recognition and protection. A staggering 95% of respondents are not registered despite government initiatives, and 95% lack membership in any union, leaving them unaware of their rights and bargaining power. Furthermore, 99% of respondents have not heard of the Interstate Migrant Workmen Act of 1979, and 80% do not come under any social security scheme.

While only 30% of respondents felt exploited in terms of discrimination and payment of lower wage by their employer or contractor, a majority believe they are subjected to discrimination at the worksite in terms of wage rate, longer working hours, language, and state of origin compared to native workers. One-third of the respondents reported experiencing ill-treatment from the native workers at the work site. A major challenge is the lack of proficiency in the regional language, Malayalam, which creates difficulty for 80% of migrants at the worksite and hinders daily life activities like travel and purchasing basic goods. Inadequate social security measures, health issues, and exploitation by contractors are the major determinants of the overall life problems faced by these workers.

7.3 Suggested Interventions

To address the challenges faced by migrants, several interventions are suggested. The Apna Ghar project for better accommodation should be extended to all districts. To protect migrants from exploitation by middlemen, hands-on training on mobile banking and digital payment systems should be conducted. Laws must be enacted to ensure that migrant labourers are treated on par with native labourers regarding wages, working hours, and benefits.

To address language barriers, the help of Preraks, who were central to Kerala's literacy programme, should be utilized to teach basic Malayalam proficiency at the Panchayath level. Help desks with Hindi-speaking personnel should be established at migrant registration offices to overcome language hurdles in the registration process. To reduce mental stress and potential crime-inducing frustrations, recreation and cultural

programmes should be organized in migrant agglomerated areas on weekends. Finally, to ensure safety, strict rules on using protective wear (helmets, gloves, shoes) and proper official inspections should be implemented at construction sites.

7.4 Scope for further research

The extant study centered around the inflow of migrants to the construction sector of Kerala, and the resultant analysis of their savings, investment, remittance, and indebtedness brings out the rationale for the continuous stream of migration to the construction sector of Kerala. The multiple roles of agents in the process of facilitating migration have been extensively discussed. The research also sheds light on the host of life problems confronted by migrant labourers. However, the study has left some areas unexplored for future research. Firstly, a comparative study on the economic impact of in-migration on both the source state and the destination state is seldom discussed in academic literature. Secondly, although several schemes are underway for in-migrants in Kerala, the perception of in-migrants regarding the effectiveness of these schemes in ameliorating their socio-economic conditions is under-researched. Thirdly, the occupational mobility of in-migrants vis-à-vis their states of origin is another area for intervention. Fourthly, how labour migration from other states and the resulting competition with native labourers have impacted their attitudes toward work as well as their efficiency is still unexplored. Fifthly, the multiplier effect of additional investments arising from remitted money from Kerala to their home states needs to be researched. Sixthly, the demographic impact of the migration of young people on the fertility and birth rate of the migrant-sending states needs to be examined in detail.

7.5 Conclusion and Contribution made by the Researcher

The structural change of Kerala's economy in favour of the service sector created an unprecedented pull for non-agricultural labour. Added to this, the unfettered pace of urbanisation intensified the exodus of people to Kerala. There has been an uptrend in the housing sector, or rather, a boom in the construction sector, and as a result, the demand is met by the inflow of unskilled migrants from other states, triggered by Kerala's white-collar syndrome. Given the pull forces, the future of the Kerala labour market will be determined by the future age distribution of the state's population, trends

in Keralite emigration, the pattern and structure of economic development, and the decrease or increase in the pay disparity between Kerala and other states

This study delved deeper into the causative factors responsible for the in-migration of labourers from other states to Kerala's construction sector while investigating their patterns of saving, investment, indebtedness, the variegated role of agents, and conflicts of labour migrants. While studies so far have hovered more on the role of informal workers, living arrangements, and patterns of push and pull factors, no meticulous research on the determinants of in-migration, the role of agents, impact on indebtedness, and the like has been conducted so far, which is construed as an addition to fill the gap in the existing labor literature by the researcher. The study also brought to light the extent of disparities in wages between the native and in-migrant labourers and the need for institutional support to address the specific issues of exclusion and exploitation faced by them.

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Appendices

Interview schedule No

Section A

I. General information

1. Name:
2. Place of residence: Rural / Urban / semi-urban
3. District of origin.....
4. State/Union territory of origin.....
5. Sex : Male Female
6. Completed Years Of Age :
7. Languages Known: Hindi/Oriya/English/Bengali/Malayalam/Others
(Specify.....)
8. Marital Status: Single/ Married / Separated
9. Religion: Hindu/ Muslim/ Christian / Others (Specify)
10. Community: SC / ST / OBC / Others
11. Nature of The Family: Joint Family / Nuclear Family
12. Educational Qualification: Illiterate / LP / UP/ HS / HSE / DEGREE/
Diploma ITI/ Technical Qualifications If Any Specify

13. Household Composition :

Sl no	Name	Sex	Relationship with the migrant	Age	Marital status	Educational qualification	Migrant to any locality

14. Weather your family belongs to: APL / BPL
15. Type of the house :Thatched / Tiles / Concrete/Others Specify
16. Nature of ownership of home: Owned / Rented/ Others
17. Whether electrified: Yes/No
18. Number of rooms:

19. Source of drinking water: Public Well/Public Hand Pump/Shared Hand Pump/Own Well/Bore Well/Others

20. Do your house have toilet facility: Yes/No

21. Method of toilet facility used: Open air Defecation/ Shared Toilet /Own Toilet

22. Economic activity prior to migration:

Agriculture/Construction/Manufacturing/Hotel & Restaurant/Self-Employed/Unemployed

23. Daily wage rate in your native place:

24. Average number of working hours in your native place:

25. Average no of working hours in Kerala:

26. Average number of working days in a week:

27. Do you have the habit of taking over time working in your native place: Yes/No

28. Land holding of the family:

	Details	Area (in cent/ acres)
1	Cultivable	
1.1	Irrigated cultivable	
1.2	Unirrigated	
2	Uncultivable	
	Total	

24. Savings, Investments and indebtedness of the family

	Items	Before migration (Amount)	After Migration (Amount)
1	Savings		
2	Investments		
3	Debt		

25. Debt and outstanding liability details of the family

Sl no	Purpose	Source of fund	Amount (Rs)	Amount of debt repaid	Outstanding Amount
	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1	To meet family consumption				
2	Marriage purpose				
3	To repay old debt				
4	House construction				
5	To buy consumer durables				
6	Education purpose				
7	Agriculture purpose				
	Total				

Sl no	Place	Duration of stay

Sl no	Name	Relationship with migrant	Age	sex	Marital status	Educational qualification

Place of previous migration	Month and year of migration	Propose of migration	Year of returns	Reason for coming back

37. Number of persons staying with you in your house / room:
38. Is your home electrified :Yes/No
39. Availability of toilet facility: Common/Individual/ Open Defecation
40. Source and availability of food: Common Preparation/ Individual Preparation/ From Hotel/Others
41. Fuel used for cooking :Wood/Kerosene /Gas/ Others(Specify)
42. Source of drinking water : Open Well/Public Tap/Public Well/Others
43. Nature of roof :Tarpaulin/ Sheet/Tile/Concrete Roof
44. Amenities' available in the room : Radio/ TV/ Cable/Fridge /Mixer/Grinder/Bed
45. Distance from work site: Less Than 500mtr/500mtr To 2 Km/More Than 2km
46. Mode of conveyance to the work site :Vehicle Arranged By Employer/Line Bus/Two Wheeler/By Walking
47. Which is the first work you opted reaching here in Kerala: Construction/Industrial Work/Hotels & Restaurants/Agriculture/Others
48. What was the number in terms of order the selection of construction sector as work: first/second/third/fourth
49. When you started working in the construction sector: for last 6months/2years/more than 2 years
50. From where do you got employment opportunity in the construction sector of Kerala: From Family Members/Friends & Relatives/Agency/Contractors/Self-Enquiry/Media/Others
51. Who recruited you to the construction sector work: Friends & Relatives/Agent/Contractor/Self-Decision/Others
52. Rate agents in accordance with their role as (1. Service provider 2. Decision maker 3. Consultant 4. Negotiator)
53. Do you have any prior experience in the construction sector before coming to Kerala: yes/no
54. If yes what was the work done in your native place: helper/brick works/mason/tiles work/plastering /others
55. What is the work in the construction sector that you got first in Kerala and when: Helper/Brick Works/Mason/Tiles Work/Plastering /Others
56. What is the work that you are doing now:

57. Register your level of satisfaction for working in the construction sector in the 5-point Likert scale

(1. fully satisfied 2. Moderately satisfied 3. Somewhat satisfied 4. Least satisfied 5. Totally dissatisfied)

Sl no	Reasons for preferring construction sector	Level
1	High wage	
2	Regularity of work	
3	Companionship of friends and the relatives in the work site	
4	No need for special accommodation expenses	
5	Experience in work	
6	Due to contract	

58. Do you have any plan to shift from construction sector to any other sectors work if you get chance: Yes/No

59. Are you satisfied with the work in the construction sector: Yes/No

Section C : Factors Attracting to the construction sector of Kerala

60. Source of information regarding the work at Kerala:

friends/relatives/agents/contractors/previous visit/others

61. Did the migration took place: with prearranged job / With suggestion from friends/
Suggestion from relative/With the help of contractor / Help by the agent / Without
any suggestion

62. Did you have work immediately reach in Kerala: Yes/No

63. Period of waiting for a job: Within 1week/ 2week/1 Month/More Than 1 Month

64. Causes for migration: (if more than one reason please rank in ascending order).

Sl no	Push factors	Rank	Pull factors	Rank
1	Unemployment/underemployment		Large employment opportunities	
2	Low wage		High wage	
3	Indebtedness		Job security	
4	Landlessness		Un seasonality of job availability	
5	Small land holdings		Better living condition	
6	Flood/ drought		Better infrastructure facility	
7	Social conflicts		Attraction towards city life	
8	Completion from family		Better working condition	
9	Poverty of the family		Natural beauty of Kerala	
10	Others		Hospitality of Kerala's people	

65. Nature of present employment: contract basis/casual daily wage basis/ self-contract/
sub contract
66. Nature of the job you got first in Kerala: Unskilled Work/ Semiskilled
Work/Skilled Work
67. Present occupation nature: Skilled Work/Unskilled Work / Semiskilled Work
68. How will you arrange the work in the construction sector in ascending order:
dirty/dangerous/ degradable
69. How many days employment in a week is promised:
70. Actually, how many days of work are getting in Kerala:
71. Promised wage rate by the agent/contractor:
72. Wage income received per day: Usual Work_____
- Overtime work_____Total_____
73. If no how many days you are getting overtime work:
74. what is the wage rate given in your native place for the same work in your native
place
75. Do you change from the contractor after migration: yes/no
76. If yes specify the reason: Lack of regularity of job / Exploitation of the contractor/
Ill treatment of the native labors / Preference for higher wage / Any other(specify)
77. Is the contractor/agent being from native place or from Kerala:
78. Are you getting any supplementary benefit from your contractor in the form of:
Food/Clothing/Accommodation/Vehicle/Others/ Medical Facilities and Insurance.

Sl no	Item of expenditure	Amount
1	Room rent	
2	Expenses for food	
3	Travelling expenses	
4	Medical expenses	
5	Clothing expenses	
6	Drinking & smoking expenses	
7	Recharge expenses	
8	Visit to native place expenses	
9	Entertainment expenses	
10	Miscellaneous expenses	

SECTION D Income, expenditure , savings and remittance pattern

79. Average monthly income:
80. Average amount of money spends in Kerala in a month: <5000/5000-10000/10000-15000/15000-25000/>25000
81. Average monthly expenditure
82. Average monthly remittance?
83. Traveling expense incurred for going to home and return
84. Do you have a bank a/c in Kerala: Yes/ No
85. If yes in which bank: SBI/Canara bank/ Other Nationalized Bank/Private Banks
86. Do you feel banking services in Kerala is friendly to you: Yes/ No
87. What kind of address proof you have now? Aadhaar/ Election id/driving license/others
88. Type of deposit in bank: savings/fixed/current
89. Total amount of money available in your account now:
90. Do you have ATM cards: Yes/No
91. Do you know to use the net banking facility: Yes/No
92. If yes for what purpose: Remittance of Money/Ticket Booking/Mobile Recharging/Online Shopping/Others
93. Do you send money home: Yes/No
94. If yes how often do you send money home: Once in Two Weeks/Every Month/ Once In Two Months/Occasionally
95. Average amount of money sends to native place in a month:
96. Is the money send by you is utilized for increase in the investment/asset of your family: yes/no
97. If yes what is the investment/asset created: Land/House/Jeweler/Vehicles/Durable Goods/Others
98. Reason for sending money to home: to meet consumption expenditure of family/to supplement earnings of the family/ for the repayment of debt/to support unemployed persons in home/for other purpose(specify)
99. What is the amount remitted last& when?

100. How do you send money home: Through Own Bank Account/ CDM/ Through Others Bank account/Net Banking/Post Office/Through Relatives/ Friends/Agents/Contractors
101. Total amount of money remitted in the last month
102. Frequency of visit to the native place: Once in 6 Months/Once In An Year/Once In 2years/Occasionally
103. Particular reason for visiting native place

Sl no	Reason for visit	Rank
1	To meet family member	
2	To celebrate festivals	
3	Attending marriage of friend & relatives	
4	To view money at home	
5	Others	

SECTION E Problems encountered by the migrants and awareness about the migrants welfare schemes

104. Are you a registered migrant: Yes/No
105. If yes, year of registration
106. Who helped you to get registered: Friend & Relatives/ Agent/ Contractor/By Self /Others
107. Do you have migrant identity card: Yes/No
108. Are you a member of any labour union: Yes/No
109. If yes specify the name of the union
110. Do you think that the membership will improve the information base and bargaining strength of you: Yes/No
111. Do you have the feeling that you are exploited here: Yes/No
112. if yes nature of exploitation: Very Much Exploited / Exploited/ No Exploitation
113. . Do you have the feeling that you are discriminated in the work site in Kerala: Yes/No
114. If yes, the basis of discrimination

Sl no	Basis of discrimination	Rank
1	Wage discrimination	
2	Working hours	
3	Caste base discrimination	
4	Language base	

5	State of origin base	
6	Experience base	
7	Qualification base	
8	Others(specify)	

115. Do you feel that your agent/contractor is discriminating in the work site: yes/no
116. Can you avail leave when you wish: Yes/No
117. Are you getting the promised wage rate in the contract: Yes/No
118. Do you have the feeling that you are ill-treated in the work site you are a migrant: Yes/No
119. How will you assess the treatment of the native labourers in the work site?
120. Attitude of the native labors Mark where ever necessary
(Very Good / Good/ Average/ Bad)
121. language problem creates in difficulty in understanding work : Yes/ No
122. Do you have the feeling that you are isolated from the native workers of Kerala: Yes/No?
123. If there any incident of clash between native labourers and you: Yes/No
124. have you heard about inter-state migrant work men regulation employment and conditions of service act 1979: Yes/ No
125. Have you met ever an accident in the work site in Kerala: Yes/No
126. If yes, have you any accident benefit and amount you got
127. Is any of your friends or relative met with an accident in Kerala: yes/no
128. If yes did his family got any benefit from
Govt: -----Contractor: -----
Employer: -----Union: -----
129. Have you heard about Kerala migrant welfare scheme march 2010: Yes / No
130. if yes which benefits, do you get from Kerala migrant welfare scheme

Scheme	Amount
Medical treatment	
Educational grant	
Death benefit to the family	
Terminal benefit	
Special financial benefit to accident	

131. Do you come under any social security scheme: Yes/No
132. If yes, specify the name:
133. If you have any health problem where you will approach for treatment: Govt Hospital/Private Hospital/Clinics/Doctors Home/Self Treatment
134. Do you have RSBY card: Yes/No
135. Are you getting any subsidized food from PDS: Yes/No
136. Is native local peoples have attitude towards “out-side problem creator”: Yes/No
137. Is there any incident of suspicious looks by police on you: yes/no
138. Enumerate your problems

Sl no	Problems	Rank
1	Wage discrimination	
2	Longer working hours	
3	Poor accommodation facility	
4	Language problems	
5	Lack of social security measures	
6	Health problems	
7	Inability to celebrate festivals	
8	Ill-treatment of native labourers	
9	Suspicious look of local peoples	
10	Exploitation by the contractor/agent/employer	
11	Lack of leisure time for entertainment	

139. Do you have a life insurance policy: Yes/No
140. Do you provided with protection wears during work? Yes/No
141. Did you ever attend any health campaign organized by Kerala: Yes/No
142. Whether employer will be keeping their id in his custody: Yes / No
143. Do you have any safety measures in the working sites: Helmet/ Jacket/Gloves/ Shoes?
144. Difficulties faced finding jobs: Very high / Neutral / High / Very low
145. Is language a barrier to communicate health problems to the doctors: Very High/ High/ Neutral/ Low/ Very low
146. If any accident does you get medical help at the emergency time: Yes / No

147. Have you ever admitted hospitals: Yes/ No
148. If yes whether absences of care giver make problems in admitting in the hospitals: Yes / No.
149. If hospitalized whether employer will give the bill: Yes/ No.
150. Where your cash are keeping: Keeping Myself/ With Friend/ With Employer/ Agent.
151. How will you spend your holidays: Shopping / Film/ Resting in Room/ Wandering Here And There/ Visiting Other Places of Kerala/ Other (Specify).
152. Have you attended Changaathi programmes of Kerala govt: Yes / No
153. Whether you have got any institutional benefits from NGO any other institution. Yes / no.
154. Do you interact with local people: Very High / High/ Neutral/Very Low/ Low?
155. Language in your ATM creates any problem: Yes / No
156. If there is any problems to you have access the legal help: Yes / No
157. If you face any misbehavior from the part of employer (use abuse words) :Yes/ No