

**OCCUPATIONAL HEALTH HAZARDS OF MIGRANT
WORKERS IN INFORMAL SECTOR**

**SUBMITTED BY
RAHAMATH NISHA.A
(14PEC007)**

**A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO
AVINASHILINGAM INSTITUTE FOR HOME SCIENCE AND
HIGHER EDUCATION FOR WOMEN, UNIVERSITY
COIMBATORE-641 043**

**IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR
THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS IN ECONOMICS**

APRIL 2016

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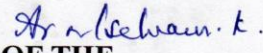
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CERTIFIED AS BONAFIDE RESEARCH WORK


SIGNATURE OF THE

HEAD OF THE DEPARTMENT


SIGNATURE OF THE

SUPERVISOR

Acknowledgement



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Introduction



CHAPTER-I

INTRODUCTION

Unorganised or informal sector constitutes a pivotal part of the Indian economy. More than 90 percent of workforce and about 50 percent of the national product are accounted for by the informal economy. A high proportion of socially and economically underprivileged sections of society are concentrated in the informal economic activities. Informal employment is generally a larger source of employment for women than for men in the developing world (Mohapatra, 2012). Other than in North Africa where 43 percent of women workers are in informal employment, 60 percent or more of women workers in the developing world are in informal employment (outside agriculture). The informal economy in India employs about 86 percent of the country's work force and 91 percent of its women workers. Many of these women workers are primary earners for their families. Their earnings are necessary for sheer survival. Low income earning men and women workers, especially in the informal sector form one of the most vulnerable groups in the Indian economy. The reasons for their vulnerability are-(a) irregular work, (b) low economic status, (c) little or no bargaining power, (d) lack of control over earnings, (e) need to balance paid work with care for children and homework, (f) little or no access to institutional credit, training and information, and (g) lack of assets. Unequal gender relations play a very important role in defining their insecurities. Given their vulnerable status at home and at work, income generation alone may not improve the socio-economic status of women attached to the informal sector. Their economic empowerment needs to go along with political empowerment, which could improve their bargaining power both in household and at work.

The character of the labour market is undergoing a massive change in both the developed and developing countries as a result of globalization. Informal employment has grown over the years and self employment is on an increase with a decline in wage employment. In India, although as per the estimate of the sixtieth round (2004-05) of the National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO) the employment growth rate has increased from an annual 0.98 percent in the period 1993-94 to 2.89 percent in the period 1999-2000, yet bulk of the increase has happened in the informal sector (NCEUS, 2009). As per the NSS data for the year 2004-05, total

wage employment has gone down compared with 1999-2000, and the proportion of self-employed has increased significantly both in rural as well as urban areas (Rangarajan et al, 2006; Jha 2009).

The growth of the informal economy implies increasing income insecurity and vulnerability of the workers. The workers in the informal sector are entitled to certain social security benefits, while hardly any such benefits accrue to workers in the informal sector. This at times creates a link between informality and poverty in most of the developing world (Sethuraman, 1998; Jeemol Unni and Uma Rani, 2002). One of the basic insecurities facing workers in informal employment is with regard to their health. Illness can create economically detrimental impact and can cause household impoverishment through income losses and medical expenses that trigger a spiral of asset depletion, indebtedness and cuts to essential consumption (Kabir et al, 2000). The financial impact of ill health consists of both direct and indirect costs. The direct costs include increased household expenditure on treatment, travel, user fees, and proper nutrition for the patient, while the indirect costs include the opportunity costs of expenditure and income foregone to the meet daily needs, a relatively small expense on treatment or loss of wage can trigger the process of impoverishment (Wagstaff and Doorslaer, 2003). The issue of health security therefore emerges as an important factor regardless of labour force participation or employment status. It is the function of the health care financing system to ensure that large and unpredictable costs of health care do not have catastrophic effects for individual households (ILO, 2000). However, many workers, particularly those who are outside regular wage employment, do not have any satisfactory health coverage in most developing countries.

The most important feature of Indian labour market scenario is increased migration rate from rural and backward areas in job search. Migration has become a way of life in rural India. It acts as a lifeline for people from the regions that face frequent shortage of rainfall or suffer floods, or where population densities are high in relation to land. Areas facing unresolved social or political conflict also become prone to high outmigration. Poverty, lack of local options becomes the forces that push for rural out-migration. Circular and seasonal migration is a part of livelihood portfolio, especially in rural India. The migrants maintain close links with their areas of origin where they return regularly and remit substantial part of their incomes (Rani and

Shylendra, 2001). Rural to urban migration is both cause and effect of social economic change in response to regional economic development, urbanization and industrialization (Bisht and Tiwari, 1997). While some regions and sectors fall behind in their capacity to support population, others move ahead and attract migration to encash the emerging opportunities. Industrialization has widened the gap between rural and urban areas that induces a shift of the workforce towards these areas. This has increased the concerns like economic, social and political situation of migrant workers particularly the unskilled ones from insufficient and lowered regions to find employment and living. Hence, migration is apprehended to be stimulated by the extent of social groups' thereby resulting in the susceptibility increase at the destination point. Movement for job is livelihood strategy in India, and unorganized sector plays a crucial role in providing job opportunities to the migrants. In the present complex and Competitive environment, stress level is increased among migrant workers in unorganized sectors due to various reasons. Stress is physical, mental and chemical reasons to circumstances that frighten, confuse and irritate. Stress is the general term applied to the pressures, people feel in life. The presence of stress at work is almost unavoidable in many Works.

Labour migration has been a phenomenon that has been studied by different scholars for the last two centuries. Classical economists regarded migration as a consequence of macroeconomic factors such as cycles of expansion and contraction of the economy or geographical concentration of means of production leading to urbanization. The neo-classical approaches to understanding labour migration use economic variables such as differentials in wage, income and unemployment rate. The most popular approach to the study of the phenomenon of labour migration has been the Push-Pull framework of analysis. However, labour migration is not merely an economic phenomenon. People, who migrate in search of employment, do not do so for economic reasons alone. There are social factors that influence migration decisions. Besides, migrant workers have to build their social capital by developing their social networks in order to survive and succeed in the place of destination. These social networks of migrant labour influence relationships in the labour markets of the place of destination.

In the developing countries, internal migration is a survival strategy for many labourers in search of a better livelihood and opportunities. Historically and culturally, internal migration as a

coping strategy for earning a livelihood has been a pronounced trend in the entire world. There is ample evidence of both voluntary and forced migration, which may result from cultural and religious practices, natural disasters, developmental projects such as dams, a failed monsoon and the consequent famine, and the search for better livelihood options. Poverty and indebtedness are the most important factors that lead to migration. Workers migrating within a country usually move from less developed regions to more developed ones. In India, there are significant inequities in the development of the various states, with states such as Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Gujarat and Maharashtra having attained a higher level of development than Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Jharkhand and Chhattisgarh. Thus people move from the underdeveloped to the developed states. The total number of migrants as per the census of 1971 was 167 million. This rose to 213 million in 1981, 232 million in 1991 and 315 million in 2001 and they work long hours, are paid low wages and work in unsafe environment, besides the other ills of social isolation and poor access to basic services, such as education, water, sanitation and health (Ajoke et al, 2014).

Construction industry is one of the stable growing industries of the world and construction labour form 7.5 percent of the world labour force. In India, it is the largest economic activity after agriculture and since it is a labour-intensive industry consist 44 percent of all urban unorganized workers. The work force comprises 55 percent of unskilled labour, 27 percent of skilled labour and rest as the technical and support staff. Construction workers in both categories are at a greater risk of developing certain health disorders and sickness than workers in many other industries. They are exposed to multiple physical, chemical and biological agents, which make them vulnerable to various health problems that include - injuries, respiratory problems, dermatitis, Musculo-skeletal disorders and gastro-intestinal diseases. The work is hard physical labour, often under difficult conditions like adverse weather conditions and the nature of work, hours of work, low pay, and poor living conditions with lack basic amenities and separations from family, lack of job security and lack of access to occupational health services make the situation worse. Due to ergonomic issues they are also vulnerable to degenerative disorders. Apart from this, in most of construction projects the workers employed are unorganized in nature and often not guided by the legislations made for the health and welfare of the workers and hence are not eligible for free or subsidized care.

Inadequate safety and health standards and environmental hazards are particularly evident in the case of the informal sector. Poor working environment including inadequate premises and often very unsatisfactory welfare facilities, as well as practically non-existent occupational health services are causing large human and materials losses, which burden the productivity of national economics, impair health and general well-being as well as the quality of life of informal workers and their families. The protection of the health and welfare of informal sector workers is a challenges which should be faced with an integrated approach to health promotion, social protection and quality employment creation and therefore has, to be part of a strategy to improve the basic living conditions of the urban poor.

Interventions aimed at raising the health status and productivity of workers in informal sector's activities should be developed through the promotion of health and safety at work and the establishment of self-sustainable health insurance schemes. The development of measures which effectively combine services to enable informal activities to increase their income and services to assist them in improving their working conditions and health would also contribute to increased productivity and enterprise growth and to allow for capacity-building within the informal sector itself.

In the context of above features, the current study has been undertaken with the following objectives:

1. To study the economic and demographic background of the sample respondents.
2. To assess their working conditions.
3. To review the motivational factors in migration.
4. To examine the various health problems faced by the respondents and
5. To find out the impact of health on the livelihood of the respondents.

Review of Literature



CHAPTER-II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The literature pertaining to the topic on “**Occupational Health Hazards of Migrant Workers in Informal Sector**” is presented under the following heads:

- I. Theories on Migration
- II. Conceptual framework on Migration and Informal economy
- III. Studies on the impact of Migration

I. Theories on Migration

Lee’s Theory of Migration:-

Revanstein’s laws of migration (1885) were restated by Evertt Lee in 1956. To him, the forces exerting an influence on migrant perceptions into ‘push’ and ‘pull’ factors, which force migrants to leave origin areas, while the latter are ‘positive’ factors attracting migrants to destination areas.

Dualistic theory:-

Lewis in (1954) developed his approach to rural urban migration on the basis of dualistic nature of third world countries. This model assumes a dual economy, consisting of two sectors (i) traditional agricultural sector with zero or very low productivity surplus labour and (ii) a high productivity modern urban industrial sector. This absorbs labour from the subsistence sector through gradual transfer.

The Lewis theory of dualistic economics not only explains the rural-urban migration but also focuses the growth of employment in the modern sector. The labour migrations from rural to urban employment growth are caused by output expansion in the modern sector. The acceleration of the progress depends upon the rate of investment. Capital investment is possible when there is excess of modern sector profits over wage under the assumption that capitalists regularly reinvest all their profits. The level of wages in the industrial sector is assumed to be constant and taken as

a fixed premium over the subsistence level of wages in the traditional agricultural sector (urban wages would have to be fixed at least 30 percent higher than average rural wages in order to include the rural labour to urban sector). The process continues till the surplus labour in the agricultural sector is exhausted or the wage gap in both the sectors is minimized.

Sjaastad's Human Capital Approach:-

In 1962, Sjaastad advanced a theory of migration, which considers the decision to migrate as an investment decision involving an individual expected costs and returns over time. The components of costs consists at transport expenses, subsistence until getting a job in the destination, cost of income foregone in the origin, cost of adjustment in a new surrounding/ destination, cost of income foregone in the origin, cost of adjustment in a new surrounding/ social customs, food habits and so on. Similarly benefits constitute both monetary and non monetary components i.e. the present value of expected aggregate income over the lifetime and psychic benefit's as a rural of locational preferences. If an expected benefit in terms of these stream earnings over the future years exceeds the costs moving from the region, the individual concerned would move. This theory helps to explain why most of the migrants belong to younger and productive age groups, since for them the psychic cost of adjustment in the lowest, refraining is less arduous; income foregone in the native place is low, while the expected gain of the movement over the life time is much greater.

Expected Income Theory of Todaro:-

In the body of economic literature known as the Harris Todaro (Harries and Todaro, 1970) model explores that the decision to migrate from rural to urban centre is fundamentally related to two principal variables (i) urban-rural area income differentials, and (ii) the probability of obtaining a job in an urban area. Falling job probabilities resulting from the rising urban unemployment will be factor in discouraging migration.

The influx of new migrants add themselves to a pool of unemployed or underemployed urban residents which turns off the migrants to the urban area is that the 'expected' urban income for any new migrant drops. The flow of migrants is absolutely stopped when the 'expected' urban income equals the expected rural income.

This model therefore, emphasized the negative impact of migration in terms of increasing unemployment, under employment and urban poverty in the destination. The influx of new migrants lead to increased demands for civic amenities, mounting expenditure for maintaining proper sanitation and health condition, law and order problems and environment. The unemployed and underemployed tend to settle in illegal squatter colonies, thereby avoiding tax payment, but increasing the pressure on existing civic amenities accompanied by deterioration of sanitation and health.

A major weakness of the Harris-Todaro model is its assumption that potential migrants are homogeneous in respect of skills and attitudes and have complete information for working out the probability of finding out a job in the urban formal sector. Moreover, it does not consider the non-economic factors such as pressure of population resulting the high man-land ratios, fragmentation of land ownership, inequalities in the distribution of land ownership, technological change biased against labour etc.

Harris and Todaro (1970), in their study entitled, “Migration, Unemployment and Development: A Two-Sector Analysis” were able to disclose a vital rural urban migration theory that the migration is fundamentally driven by economic implications. The theory states that migration is decided based on the expectation of higher wages and greater chances of finding jobs in urban areas.

Taylor (1999), in his study entitled, “The New Economics of Labour Migration and the Role of Remittances in the Migration Process” examined the growth potential of remittances by emigrants who have moved to foreign country for better opportunities. The article stated that remittances have potential to aid economic development.

II. Conceptual framework on Migration and Informal economy

Rizvi and Hashim (1983), in their article entitled, “Patterns of Seasonal Migration: A Study of a Tribal Area” described the tribal migrants from the Gujarat’s Vadodara District on socio-economic characteristics. Majority of the migrants are from agricultural background like farmers or agricultural workers. They migrate due to the issues faced with agriculture like failure of monsoon, severe droughts, depleted soils, mounting debts etc. The migrants work for low

wages in various sectors like quarry, mining, cultivation etc., to support their livelihood and majority of them are women. Larger families in the area are more inclined to migrate.

Emerson (1989), in his study entitled; “Migratory Labour and Agriculture” stated that farm workers react positively for seasonal migration due to economic benefits. The economic model consisted of different wage structure for migratory and non-migratory work, and migration specific reservation wage is detailed to indicate the choice between migratory and non-migratory work. The model adjusted for self-selectivity in the sample and establishes that the theory of comparative advantage is emulated by the domestic farm workers by aligning themselves into migratory and non migratory workers and also propositions for immigration, government employment and training programs are considered.

Yadava and Yadava (1995) stated in their study on “Cross-cultural Prospective on Migration, Urbanisation and Economic Development” that urbanisation occurs when differences in living conditions between rural and urban areas are on the increase and people migrate internally from rural to urban areas. On the developing countries, where majority of the people still live in rural areas, migration to urban areas is likely to increase because of the availability of more and better jobs and improved economic conditions in the urban areas; the study further indicated that migration is a more family oriented rather than a person-oriented process in India; to reduce the socio-economic, demographs and cultural disparities between the rural and urban areas, it is desirable to encourage rural out-migration.

Bencivenga and Smith (1997), in their study on, “Unemployment, Migration, and Growth” stated that rural to urban migration normally occurs when economic development happens and it is often correlated with urban underemployment due to issues with selection process in labour markets. Both the factors are significant in the development process. The authors consider neoclassical growth model with rural-urban migration and urban underemployment. They demonstrated that these two factors would be a hurdle in development and leads to longer growth period followed by a severe recession for a short duration.

Rao and Rana (1997), expressed in their study on, “Women’s Labour and Migration: The Case of the Santhals” revealed that tribal women get into labour market as migrants due to factors like decline of traditional livelihood and insufficient opportunities in the local area. They

enter the labour market despite the issues like poor living and working condition, absence of health care facilities and chances of sexual abuses, as they are left with no other choice for survival.

Sensarma (1997), in his article entitled, “Migrant Labour in Urban Areas: Dimensions and Determinants” made an attempt to study the migration of labourers in urban areas of India and various issues in migration. Migration rates and factors influencing the migration were examined as part of the study. Apart from the normal rural-to-urban migration flow, the author analyzed the important factors in migration of people and labourers between urban areas.

Saravanan (1998) analysed in his article on, “Economic Transformation of Tribals in Tamil Nadu: Causes of Migration and its Employment Pattern, 1972-1991” analyzed the reason for migration of tribal and its consequences. The study also examined their migration trend during colonial period and rural-urban migration and its pattern during post-colonial period. The reason behind the scenario is that development measures were minimal during colonial period and comprehensive development measures were available during post-colonial period. The study revealed that there is no major shift in migration of tribal to rural area.

Sundari and Rukmani (1998), in their article entitled; “Costs and Benefits of Female Labour Migration” analyzed the pattern of women migration from Tamil Nadu to Delhi. The study highlighted that lack of employment opportunity in Tamil Nadu and continuous opportunities in the form of domestic work in Delhi forms the push and pull factor. Though the migrants have certain benefits they still have issues with accommodation, illiteracy, job security and children education which seek policy amendment on priority basis.

Singh and Aggarwal (1998), in their article entitled, “Rural-Urban Migration: The Role of Push and Pull Factors” examined the data collected from 1991 census for 25 districts of north-western Uttar Pradesh to determine the factors influencing migration. OLS regression model was used to analyze the different variables on rural-urban migration. The study revealed that size of the farm and irrigation facilities were significant variables in controlling the outflow of rural workers.

Kumar and Mahapatra (1998) in their study on “Labour Migration from a Backward Region of Orissa” discussed that in an agrarian economy of the labour households is primarily determined by the prevailing socio-economic conditions of the households, patterns of employment and availability of various employment opportunities, prevalence of assured irrigation and adoption of modern technology. Absence of employment opportunities in the non-farm sector accompanied by lack of assured irrigation generally motivates the poverty stricken rural households to seek employment in various major cities of our country. The study made an attempt to examine the underlying factors behind labour migration from a backward agriculture of Orissa. The role of caste in the determination of profession and the association of poverty and out migration has been investigated. The extent of income earned by various groups of households and the patterns of consumption and the saving amount has been analyzed. A comprehensive analysis of extent of out migration from an irrigated village has also been attempted.

Duraiswamy and Narashimhan (1998) conducted a study on “Migration, remittances and family ties in urban informal sector”. The study examined the urban-to-rural remittance behaviour of the migrants in the urban informal sector using a primary survey data from the Chennai metropolitan areas. The theories of remittance are presented and the implied hypotheses are specifically empirically. Two factors viz., family ties and inheritance emerge as the key determinants of the remittance. The data showed that about 69 percent of the migrants remit about 18 percent of their income. The empirical results provide strong evidence of the positive association between migrant family ties and remittances. Theories of remittance point to the fact that there are three motives of remittance, namely altruism, self-interest and contractual arrangements. The postulates of the theory led to certain testable hypotheses which are empirically verified by estimating a remittance function applying ordinary Least Squares and Maximum Likelihood Tobit methods. The share of urban income remitted has a strong relationship with the indicators of family ties. A strong positive relationship was also observed between remittance and the number of school-going children’s in the intension to return home.

De Haan (1999), in his study entitled, “Livelihoods and Poverty: Role of Migration – A Critical Re view of the Migration Literature” noticed that migration is not opted by poor as an option but issues like poverty, abuse, hostile condition etc., in the origin place leaves them with

no other choice. Which led to mass migration between rural and urban areas in developing countries.

Gaumont and Mesnard (2000), in their article entitled; “Altruism and International Labour Migration” assessed the significance of altruism on the international labour migration pattern in an overlapping generation model. It is revealed that the differences in influencing factors like altruism across countries generate two-way migration flow. Restrictions on labour migration are relaxed when the region becomes self-sufficient. Factor prices are similar across countries during the temporary post-migration equilibrium. In each economy at least one individual is worse off after the occurrence of migration. Few of the individuals would prefer a self-sufficient economy while others choose integrated world economy.

The informal activity in the developing world consists primarily of unregulated but productivity, generally seen as a survival strategy of the very poor. According to ILO (2002) report, in India, 86 percent of women in the non-agricultural labour force are engaged in informal activity, and 83 percent are found in non-agricultural employment in Asia, 40-97 percent in Africa and 30-75 percent in Latin American Caribbean region.

Harris (2003), in his study entitled, “Migration of Labour: Constructing Transitional Arrangements” summarized that though migration has become integral part of economy and is necessary in certain instances, suitable regulation has to be framed by government for the employment of local workers compared to the foreign migrant workers.

Sarkar (2005) in his work on, “Survey Method and Approach to the Informal Economy”, the phenomenal intensification of the informal economy and the rising interaction and interdependence of the formal and informal sectors have led to a growing interest in studies of the informal economy among researchers and policy- makers. The terms ‘informal sector ’ and ‘informal economy’ are used interchangeably to denote the segment of the economy and labour market that has absorbed significant numbers of job seekers and unemployed workers outside government regulations and formal systems of labour and social protection.

Sundari (2005) in the study on “Migration as a Livelihood Strategy”, based on a sample study of female migrant workers in Tamil Nadu, highlighted the trades, pattern and nature of

female migration in Tamil Nadu; the push and pull factors of migration and finally the role of migration as a livelihood strategy. The major push factor was lack of employment opportunities in the place of origin caused by drought and the pull factor was a favourable employment situation in the destination areas. After Migration there seems to be a sizeable improvement in self-employment and regular salaried jobs for women. But the concentration of women in the informal sector to the extent of 82 percent is an indication of their disadvantaged position in the urban labour market. Weighing the gains and losses, the study concluded that migration has helped migrant households avoid hunger, starvation and death, though it has failed to improve the economic well-being of about 43 percent of the families, particularly the female headed households. To alleviate poverty, the government's attention should be directed towards combating population movement via rural development and also improving the living conditions of those who had already moved.

Ambiga Devi, Geetha and etal, (2009) in their study on, "Rural Out- Migration Two Group Discriminant Analysis", highlighted that migration occurs in search of survival, fulfilment and a better life. Among the classified migrants, census-2001 reported that rural out migrants constituted the majority of 75-80 percent. Majority of migration was from one rural area to another due to "marriage" in the case of females and in search of work in the case of males. Lack of balance between rural urban migration and urbanization carried a threat of major social and economic difficulties and it may actually block social and economic progress. The research work analysed the determinants of rural out- migration in Coimbatore city, which stands third in the number of immigrants (census 2001) in Tamil Nadu. A total of a hundred rural migrants in the sample area were contacted. An empirical analysis was carried out on the nature, size, type and other characteristics of migration workers. Further the economic impact of migration and its determinants were also assessed. The study concluded that rural out- migration occurs at a younger age mainly for seeking a better job. The disintegration of joint families has led to declining family income causing males to migrate to nearby cities in a larger proportion. The empirical analysis strengthened the various theories on migration, both neo-classical and sociological. From the findings of the study, it can be concluded that by providing adequate infrastructure and institutional supports in rural areas, the rural out- migration could be restricted preventing the unbalanced tilt towards cities.

William Joe (2009) on “Migration and Urban Poverty In India” , expressed decision to migrate is mostly a choice - except in compelling circumstances of conflict and insecurity - and therefore needs to be examined in terms of its economic outcomes. The research paper dealt with migration decisions to urban areas that are backed by economic rationale and attempts to understand gains accruing to individuals from migration, in terms of poverty outcomes. The analysis was based on the 55th round survey data on Employment - Unemployment Survey 1999-2000 (EUS) provided by the National Sample Survey Organization. Further it gave a broad descriptive socio-economic profiling of the migrant households in urban India and explores the dynamics of poverty among interstate as well as intrastate migrants to urban destinations. Further, the study evaluated the impact of migration on the economic status of migrants by analyzing the characteristic of ‘duration since migration’.

Singala and Allamraju (2011), in their study entitled “The Economics of Migrant Workers’ Remittances to India” analyzed the remittance pattern in India and its correlation with growing global migration trend. The study revealed that the inward remittance has been increasing steadily since the economic and financial reform initiated in 1991, suggesting migrants’ positive perception of Indian economy. The RBI data suggested that the change in share of remittances from different geographical corridor is due to factors like revolution of technology sector that commenced during 1999 in US. Most part of the remittance is utilized for family maintenance while smaller ratio gets into investment. The increase in the share of formal channels has brought in transparency, reduction in cost of remittance, legal and regulatory environment etc. The challenges and regulatory concerns caused by the remittance inflow like asset price inflation, canalizing the flow for economic growth, minimizing financial abuse and providing cost effective transfer service has to addressed by appropriate financial and policy innovation.

Bakhtiar (2012), in his study entitled “International Migration from Bangladesh: Nature, Cost and Remittances” revealed that many households in rural region of Bangladesh have opted for international migration to survive. The author analyzed various aspects of emigration from Bangladesh including the significance of inward remittances for development. The study revealed that migration happens in early stage of their life. About 1/4th of the migrant population did not have any formal education and few of them migrated through illegal channels. The

migration costs a significant amount which is mainly sourced by personal savings and loan from money lender at a higher interest. The migrant family utilizes the remittance amount towards family maintenance, house construction and renovation, health and education. The share of utilizing the amount towards saving instruments or small business was very low.

III. Studies on the impact of Migration

Djajic (1989), in his study entitled, “Skills and the Pattern of Migration: The Role of Qualitative and Quantitative Restrictions on International Labour Mobility” developed a two-country model of international migration. The model was developed to analyze the role of qualitative and quantitative restrictions on international migration. Individual characteristics like age and ability were captured enabling the model to analyze factors which influence the age and skill profile of migrants, as well as the flow of migrants and pattern of factor reward in the two economies. The immigration policy in the host country and emigration restrictions in the origination country influences certain parameters in the model.

Keely and Nga (1989), in their article entitled, “Remittance from Labour Migration: Evaluations, Performance and Implications” described two aspects about worker remittances which are contradictory to each other. The negative view depicts that remittances increase dependency, contribute to economic and political instability which would result in decline of the economy. This would outweigh the interim benefit for few who are fortunate. The positive view depicts remittances as competent feedback to market forces, contributing to development which otherwise is unsustainable. They provide better income and living standard compared to the other existing development methods. The view was tested for origination countries whose people have migrated to Europe and Middle East and the demonstration of negative view was not supported.

Chakrapani and Kumar (1994), in their study entitled, “Migration Pattern and Occupational Change (A Study of Palamur Labour in Andhra Pradesh)” suggested that multiple issues were faced in both urban and rural areas in case of large-scale emigration. They will not be part of developmental programmes due to continuous migration. People migrate for better job due to conditions like drought and majority of the shift is to non agricultural work. The study further suggested that migrants prefer to move towards urban area and the incomes have

increased considerably. Few of the suggestions were given by migrants to reduce large scale migration include providing self-employment opportunities and distribution of land.

Hazari (1994), in his article entitled, “An Analysis of out Migration on Unemployment, Income and Structural Change” described that his study was based on the extended version of Harris-Todaro. The study demonstrated that the unskilled labours in the origination country are affected by the emigration of skilled labours. The emigration is likely to increase the unemployment level of unskilled in urban area and lower income in the origination country. Urban and rural non-traded goods price might go up. The policy makers in the origination country have to deal with such issues.

Chopra (1995), in his article entitled, “Maps of Experience: Narratives of Migration in an Indian Village” stated that the identity of the seasonal migrant workers who move from Bihar and Uttar Pradesh to Punjab villages is shaped by material and cultural conditions. The author revealed the relationship between employer and worker, as well as locals and migrants in destination communities, based on the information collected from migrants. The conclusion summarized that there are different categories to bring out the identity of a migrant and requests for analyzing the underlying aspects of each representation of a migrant.

Gustavo Yamada (1996), “Urban Informal Employment and Self- employment in Developing Countries: Theory and Evidence”, the study of urban informal self- employment has a positive message for policy makers in developing countries. From two data sets reflecting drastically different economic conditions, this research found evidence of competitive earning and voluntary choice in informal self employment. This was true even when excluding independent professional data the evidence indicated that only individuals who do well in informal self- employment stay in the sector. Others with less entrepreneurial ability leave informal self- employment for other more suitable employment options.

Srinivasan (1997), in his study entitled, “Breaking Rural Bonds through Migration: The Failure of Development for Women in India” studied the opportunities available for women and the impact with respect to development programmes and migration. The details collected from them reveal that bond of caste and gender appears stronger in rural areas compared to urban areas. Development programmes continue the traditional gender and caste roles making the

conditions worse for women in rural India. This would result in migration of women to urban areas unless the policies are amended for enforcing impartiality based on gender and castes. The policy makers also have to support the liberty of women in rural areas. The change in rural area can be promoted with the help from social organization of women.

Patrick (1998) in his study on “Discrimination, time allocation and migration: A Study of unorganised women” focused on the problem of the sales women working in registered shops and establishments by analyzing the aspects of discrimination, analyzed in terms of wages, was revealed by the fact that the sales women not only received a low wage packet but were also discriminated against in relation to men of the same category. The time allocation of sales women, analysed in context of the theory of time allocation, discussed the problem of allocation with regard to non-market time. The value of house work quantified with the help of wage earning function and opportunity cost of time approach exposes the household level discrimination. The analysis of migration aspect led to conclusion that it is the push factors rather than the pull factor which played a major role.

Lal (2000), in his study entitled, “Issues of Internal and International Migration in Tarai Region of Nepal” discovered that migrants in agricultural sector have caused the shortage for pasture land by carrying out cultivation in most of the areas and also have negative impact on other resources like fuel wood. Migration has increased the unemployment to the extent that trading of fuel wood and other resources were the only available opportunities. The study also highlighted the fact that inadequate rainfall, decline in soil fertility and unusable fertile land in certain parts of Tarai were the result of environmental stress.

Rani, Uma and Shylendra (2001), in their study entitled, “Seasonal Migration and Rural- Urban Interface in Semi-Arid Tropics of Gujarat: A Study of Tribal Village” revealed that factors like limited cultivable land, inadequate soil fertility and unavailable water source other than irregular rainfall resulted in seasonal migration. The rural workers were forced to migrate during the lean agricultural season due to unavailability of employment opportunities in the local area.

Peter and Abusaleh (2004) in their paper on, “Rural Non-Farm Employment in India” made an attempt to assess the contribution of the non-farm sector to household income across

population quintiles. The correlates of employment in the non-farm sector have also been examined. The study was based on rural data from 32,000 households in 1765 villages across India, collected by the NCAER in 1993-94. The analysis showed that non-farm incomes account for a significant proportion of household income in rural India, with considerable variation across quintiles and across India's major states. Education, wealth, caste, village level agricultural conditions, population densities and other regional effects influence access to non-farm occupation. The direct contribution of the non-farm sector to poverty reduction was possibly quite muted as the poor lack assets, but it has been found that the growth of certain non-farm sub a sector was strongly associated with higher agricultural wage rates.

Kumar and Sidhu (2005), in their article entitled, "Pull and Push Factors in Labour Migration: A Study of Brick-Kiln Workers in Punjab" discovered that migrants moved to Punjab for several factors like industrial development, better job opportunity and comparatively high wages. The push factors included insufficient agricultural land, poor economic condition and lack of development. The study further revealed that economic factors play a major role in the decision to migrate.

Lyon (2006), in his article entitled, "The Organization of Care Work in Italy: Gender and Migrant Labour in the New Economy" focused on the gender and race based discrimination found in the elder care work globally and in particular Italy. The women who were traditional care takers in Italy have moved to labour force resulting in the employment of migrant female worker as care taker. The traditional gendered notions of division of labour between men and women was not challenged by this trend but resulted in race and class based divisions between Italian women and migrant carers. The migrant characteristics like working for low-wages and willingness to work without protest were used to devalue their work in contrast to the scenario prevailed during the period of traditional care takers.

Kainth (2009), in his article entitled, "Push and Pull Factors of Migration: A Case of Brick Kiln Industry of Punjab State" revealed that large scale migration from Uttar Pradesh and Bihar has occurred to cater the need of agricultural and industrial opportunities in Punjab but factors like migrant characteristics, reason behind migration were not analyzed at micro level. This study attempted to analyze the socio-economic conditions of migrant workers in brick-kiln.

It also revealed that the major deciding factor for migration is better job opportunity, industrial development and significantly higher wages.

Misra (2009), in his study explained, “Rural-Urban Migration in India” an overview of the rural-out migrants and also revealed the reason for migration both at individual and household level which can help planners and social activists with extension of rural development program. Further the study can act as base to understand the causes for migration and its trend.

Ruma Ghosh (2010) examined, “Health Insecurities of Workers in Informal Employment”, the paper explored the health insecurities of workers in informal employment based on an empirical study conducted in Delhi. The analysis indicated the high cost burden of illness covering direct as well as indirect costs. The study highlighted the fact that besides quality improvements in the public health care system, extending health insurance cover for out-patient care should be considered in order to protect informal sector households from health related contingencies.

Sethi, Ghuman and Ukpere (2010), in their study entitled “Socio-Economic Analysis of the Migrant Labourers in Punjab: An Empirical Analysis” analyzed migrant workers’ socio-economic conditions in Patiala city. The author studied various factors associated with migration like nature, size, type etc., and the extent to which it has improved the economic condition of migrants and their families. The study examined the benefit for the host region and outlined the issues faced by migrant workers during migration. It also covers the policies developed by the central and state government to safe guard the interest of migrant workers. Poor labours have a tendency to migrate in their younger age due to poverty and unemployment.

Naagarajan (2010) in the research work on “Social Security of Informal Sector Workers in Coimbatore District, Tamil Nadu”, analysed the social protection measures available to informal sector workers in the Coimbatore district of Tamil Nadu. The problem was approached with the objective of studying the working conditions, the security of employment and income, the health status and health security of workers, the nature of relationship between employer and employees, and the willingness of workers to participate in a contributory insurance scheme. The respondents have been selected by using a random sample from the foundry and pump units in Coimbatore. The descriptive analysis clearly showed that workers in the Coimbatore informal

sector face a high degree of employment and health insecurity. Workers are found to toil for long hours. Gender-based wage discrimination was widely prevalent. An interesting feature observed was the high casualisation of labour. The workers have nobody to turn to, the government is indifferent, the casual mechanism is tardy, and there is a major dilemma about the unions. Due to the unhealthy and unhygienic nature of the production process, around two-fifths of the workers were affected by occupational health hazards. No specific healthcare protection was made available to these workers either by the government or by the employers. Such insecurity is further pronounced through the following factors: long waiting period; high labour turnover; informal employer-employee relationships; and rising unemployment and under-employment.

Adsul et al. (2011), in their article entitled “Health Problems among Migrant Construction Workers: A Unique Public-Private Partnership Project” outlined that the construction sector is a booming industry within unorganized sector and living condition of migrant workers are below standard in the sector resulting in various health issues for migrants. A cross-sectional study at one of the construction site was done to analyze migrant profile and morbidity pattern with the help of Department of Community Medicine, a unique Public Private Partnership. The study reveals the existence of various health problems in migrant workers and correlation between occupation and morbidity status. The suggestions include behaviour change communication to address diseases like hypertension, addiction and use of protection gear to prevent injuries. The cases like persistent fever should be given priority and treated to avoid the instance of man-made malaria. The author concluded that the benefit of public private partnership to construction industry exists in the form of healthy work force as well as opting for certificates in occupational health and safety assessment.

Jindal and Meena (2013) examined in their study on “Employment, wages and wellbeing in urban informal sector: a study of migrant child workers of Chandigarh city, the study dealt with the various social, economic, educational and work related aspects of the child labourers working in the urban informal sector. The analysis was based on the primary data collected from 300 migrant child workers. The main objectives of the study were to examine wage rate, mode of payment, hiring practices, duration of employment, working conditions, welfare scenario, health, duration of migration, place of birth and reasons for entry of migrant children into workforce. The hypothesis that have been tested in the study were that the urban

informal sector migrant child workers live below officially defined poverty line, they are illiterate or semi literate, They move as part of family which affects their schooling and they have been devoid of all forms of welfare, basic amenities and health care set up provided by the state. The analysis showed that large majority of migrant child workers belonged to rural areas; most of them belonged to mainly 11 states. It was found that children between 12 to 14 years of age group were more prone to fall in child labour supply. The major portion of child labour belonged to backward and other backward classes. Migrant child workers were found to be illiterate or less literates. The migrant workers have been found to be involved in 24 types of occupations or tasks. Majority of them did not receive any kind of training, they were entering in to labour force through the family network. The phenomenon of child labour was inherently complex and as with all other economic activities it too has demand and supply components thereby necessitates action on both sides. Action need to be taken on all the factors which directly, indirectly and remotely promote and sustain the child labour including the economic and social institutions and practices.

Kumaran (2013) in his work on, “Socio Economic Impoverishment Risks in Displacement of Tribes (Under Polavaram Irrigation)” highlighted that development through displacement is part and parcel of the ongoing process of planned development. Annually, on an average 10 million people across the globe are getting affected by forced displacement to accommodate belong to poor and marginalized sections of the society. The number of people so far displaced in India by different such projects range from 7.5 to 20 million. The involuntary displacement and resettlement often causes certain problems which have socio- economic and cultural and appreciate the nature and magnitude of social and economic risks of impoverishment being undergone by the project- affected tribal families in the event of their displacement. Impoverishment risks were examined with special reference to customary rights and privileges, land alienation and livelihood security. In the study area, it was found that many of the respondents were living in inaccessible areas that respondents were living in inaccessible areas that even lack minimum basic services and facilities. However, the newly constructed resettlement colonies with most of these facilities did not necessarily attract as a pull factor for them to leave their original habitat. Similarly, some of the study areas were often affected by floods and the respondents’ incurred huge loss in physical property like houses, crops, plantations, trees, etc.

Aswini (2014), “Safety Net Measures For Unorganised Workers In India: Critical Gaps And Challenges”, there is an over whelming number of working and non- working poor in India who are subject to multiple deprivations and this was the root cause of social insecurity. This study provides an overview as well as performance of existing safety Net measures in India and concluded that either the coverage and quantum of benefits under going social security schemes are very low or there are not reaching the intended beneficiaries. Against this backdrop, this study suggested effective implementation of the unorganised workers Social Security Act, 2008.

Ramesh Deswal (2014) in “Migrant Labour in Brick-Kilns–A Case Study Haryana State” expressed that Human beings is constantly on move. Migration in the present context in studied as the phenomena of the flow of people over shorter or longer destinations either for temporary or permanent settlement. Labour migration may be defined as a form of labour mobility towards districts or states or outside where work in available. The present work was an attempt to understand the vital streams of migration, the socio-economic conditions of the migrant labour, the plight of the persisting problems being faced by the migrant labour. The nature of hiring, working conditions, indebtedness, forced labour etc. were analysed keeping in mind the underlying reasons of migration and it socio-economic sequel. In order to fill in the gaps between the various issues raised by the scholars, the present study was undertaken. The present study was by and large, an exploratory one, whereby an attempt has been made to understand and raise certain issues regarding the brick kiln migrant Labour, which may help investigation in depth, the socio-economic conditions of the respondents in the developing rural economy in Haryana. The study employed interpretive methodology for this study. This method helped in understanding the phenomena with its underlying values and meanings. The study relied on both qualitative as well as quantitative techniques for data collection. For gathering the quantitative data was used the interview scheduled method and for the qualitative data the case study method was employed. The total 2681 brick kilns were functioning in Haryana -2012. From all the 21 districts, two districts were selected; one was having the highest number of brick-kilns and the other district occupying the second rank in the number of brick-kilns. At this stage Jhajjar and Sonipat were selected. While selecting villages from the two districts all the villages of the districts individually were ranked on the basis of registered number of brick-kilns with the district small scale industries department, Government of Haryana. The two villages namely Dulhera and Goyala Kalan from Jhajjar district and two villages namely Khanda and

Kheri Dahiya from Sonapat district were selected for the present study. The incidence of indebtedness was observed to be playing significant role in the employment of the family labour. During the field work it was observed that the contractor gives advance money to the labour. By lending the money the contactors hire the labour on his own terms. The process of hiring the labour in the brick kiln by the contactors advancing the payment of wages in majority of cases was prevalent in the two studied districts of Haryana. It was observed that due to the parental debt many children were forced to work under very harsh conditions to help their families. Their children were forced to work to pay off their parents' debt. Another observation made at the brick kiln site was that there children were forced to work to maximize the income of the head of the family. Their children were shown to be getting education in the brick kiln schools but in reality they were working as "forced labour" in order to supplement their parents' income. During the field work children were often found knee deep in mud, water, clay, straw, ash and coal dust, kneading the brick mix. These children were also have to mold the bricks, carry them to the baking centre, and then let them dry under the Sun. Further it was observed that these migrant labours did not have any documentation; no identity cards. Social security cards, medical benefits or any other benefit enjoyed with the permanent employer. In conclusion, it has been established that the children of the brick kiln labourers sacrifice a lot to work in the brick kilns. They were subjected to unhealthy working conditions, and are exposed to abuse and lack of care by the owners.

Jayakrishnan and Thomas et al, (2016), "Occupational health problems of construction workers in India", construction industry is one of the stable growing industries of the world and in India it is the largest economic activity after agriculture. Construction workers are at a greater risk of developing certain health disorders and sickness than workers in many other industries. Very little research has been done on the occupational health, hazards and psychosocial problems of these workers especially in Asian countries like India. The aim of this study was to understand the occupational health problems of construction workers – building and civil, to compare the morbidities among these two categories of workers. The cross-sectional study was conducted at Kozhikode district of Kerala, India. Construction projects were selected by simple random method and all workers (N=410) were enrolled as study subjects. Data was collected by the team consisting of investigators, doctors and social worker using a pre tested validated structured proforma. Most of them belonged to the young age group (26.8 years). The prevalence of past

morbidity like tuberculosis (1percent), malaria (13.7 percent) and jaundice (10.6 percent), typhoid (3.4 percent) was higher than the general population in both groups without any statistically significant difference between them. Prevalence of injury was higher among civil work group (17.2 percent and 6.6 percent). Current fever, respiratory infections, eye disease were higher among Group I, skin and Musculo-skeletal problems were similar. The study concluded that measures are needed to improve the work environment of construction workers by ensuring availability of protective gears, sanitation facilities at the sites along with an accessible, accountable occupational health services.

Methodology



CHAPTER-III

METHODOLOGY

The methodology followed for the study on “**Occupational Health Hazards of Migrant Workers in Informal Sector**” is presented under the following heads:

- I. Selection of the topic
- II. Concepts and definitions used
- III. Sources of data
- IV. Tools used
- V. Tabulation and presentation of data

I. Selection of the Topic

Human spatial mobility started about two decades ago for various systemic, economic and individual reasons, but there is a lack of systematic information and health-risk assessment among the mobile population. The specific socio-demographic structure, that is, age, sex, education, attainment, occupation and income, determines the context in which migration takes place and their health-risks are predetermined by certain factors at the destination areas. They are

- **Government-related factors** such as national policies, public service system, community development, development and housing;
- **Employer-related factors** such as work site safety, living conditions, insurance coverage, women worker’s maternal and reproductive health benefit, etc;
- **Health-sector related factors** such as health/preventive network, service coverage and approaches, service items and prices; and
- **Individual-related factors** like social support at the destination, health awareness, health beliefs, health behaviour and help seeking behaviour, impacts the individual and collective health risk of migrants.

At the start of the new millennium, spatial movement of the human population has become more pronounced. Migratory movements characterized by increased quantitative growth and qualitative differentiation along the lines of migratory patterns, nature of migrants, their quality and final destination have facilitated a differentiated development pattern creating spaces of vulnerability.

Migrants have always been conceptualized as problematic in the context of policies both nationally and internationally. This mindset has led to complex public health issues posed by migration. Migrants and their human rights have to be understood from the existing contradictions within and across countries between skilled and voluntary migrants at one end of the spectrum to the other end comprising of the poor and unskilled migrant population destined to be excluded and obscured from the fabric of the host societies. In India there are mostly migrants from remote villages, often are less educated and not cautious about different preventive measures. Most of them are inter-state migrants and has poor language skills that prevent them from understanding the safety precautions given and to voice their problems. Their health and safety are also neglected and accident and occupational disease statistics are not accurately available. In the era of globalization construction and other related work is a fast growing area and very little research has been done on the occupational health hazards and psychosocial problems of these workers especially in Asian countries like India. This study addresses the issue of migration and its public health implications within the human rights framework. Disaggregated information on the types of migrants in India, their magnitude and their vulnerability impacting their health and access to health care has been presented. The migrants are vulnerable at the source, throughout the migratory process and at the destination areas. The degree of vulnerability of migrants in India is different in different situations and so are the challenges that migration poses for health policy-makers. Understanding migration through human rights framework helps explain the health needs of migrants in the context of the current migration patterns.

II. Concepts and Definitions Used

In-migration is the process of people moving into a new area in their country to live there permanently. The movement of non-native people into a country in order to settle

there where government employees examine the passports, visas, etc of foreign nationals entering the country

Out-migration is the process of people moving out of their area in their country to move to another area in their country permanently. Emigration is the act of leaving one's resident country with the intent to settle elsewhere. Conversely, immigration describes the movement of persons into one country from another. Both are acts of migration across national boundaries.

Skilled labour refers to labour that requires workers who have specialized training or a learned skill-set to perform the work. These workers can be either blue-collar or white-collar workers, with varied levels of training or education. Very highly skilled workers may fall under the category of professionals, rather than skilled labour, such as doctors and lawyers. Examples of skilled labour occupations are: electricians, law enforcement officers, computer operators, financial technicians, and administrative assistants. Some skilled labour jobs have become so specialized that there are worker shortages.

A skilled employee is one who is capable of working efficiently of exercising considerable independent judgment and of discharging his duties with responsibility. He must possess a thorough and comprehensive knowledge of the trade, craft or industry in which he is employed.

Unskilled labour does not require workers to have special training or skills. The jobs that require unskilled labour are continually shrinking due to technological and societal advances. Jobs that previously required little or no training now require training. For example, labour that was once done manually now may be assisted by computers or other technology, requiring the worker to have technological skills. Examples of remaining unskilled labour occupations generally include farm labourers, grocery clerks, hotel maids, and general cleaners and sweepers.

Unskilled labour is a segment of the work force associated with a low skill level or a limited economic value for the work performed (human capital). Unskilled labour is

generally characterized by low education levels and small wages. Work that requires no specific education or experience is often available to workers who fall into the unskilled labour force.

Informal Sector:

The informal sector plays an important and controversial role. It provides jobs and reduces unemployment and underemployment, but in many cases the jobs are low-paid and the job security is poor. It helps alleviate poverty, but in many cases informal sector jobs are low-paid and the job security is poor. The size of the informal labour market varies from the estimated 4-6% in the high-income countries to over 50% in the low-income countries. Its size and role in the economy increases during economic downturns and periods of economic adjustment and transition.

The concept of the informal sector was introduced into international usage in 1972 by the International Labour Organization (ILO) in its Kenya Mission Report, which defined informality as a “way of doing things characterized by (a) ease of entry; (b) reliance on indigenous resources; (c) family ownership; (d) small scale operations; (e) labour intensive and adaptive technology; (e) skills acquired outside of the formal sector; (g) unregulated and competitive markets”. Since that time, many definitions were introduced by different authors and the ILO itself. The ILO/ICFTU international symposium on the informal sector in 1999 proposed that the informal sector workforce can be categorized into three broad groups: (a) owner-employers of micro enterprises, which employ a few paid workers, with or without apprentices; (b) own-account workers, who own and operate one-person business, who work alone or with the help of unpaid workers, generally family members and apprentices; and (c) dependent workers, paid or unpaid, including wage workers in micro enterprises, unpaid family workers, apprentices, contract labour, home workers and paid domestic workers.

The informal sector covers a wide range of labour market activities that combine two groups of different nature. On the one hand, the informal sector is formed by the coping behaviour of individuals and families in economic environment where earning

opportunities are scarce. On the other hand, the informal sector is a product of rational behaviour of entrepreneurs that desire to escape state regulations.

Some of the characteristic features of informal employment are lack of protection in the event of non-payment of wages, compulsory overtime or extra shifts, lay-offs without notice or compensation, unsafe working conditions and the absence of social benefits such as pensions, sick pay and health insurance. Women, migrants and other vulnerable groups of workers who are excluded from other opportunities have little choice but to take informal low-quality jobs.

III. Sources of data:

For the purpose of the data, a detailed interview schedule was administered among a sample of 100 migrant respondents who were employed in various informal activities involved in construction work. The job categories included manual labours, earth workers, landscaping, digging, paving, masonry, cement workers, cement mixing, concrete pumping, concreting (unskilled) and scaffolding, cutter, jack span cleaning, carpentering, painting, plumbing, pipeline fitting, rod bending, steel fixing, welding, barb making, Lift/crane operating (Semiskilled). For the data collection, purposive sampling method was used. Judgement sampling is a non-random sampling and is also called purposive sampling or deliberate sampling. In this method of sampling, the investigator exercises his judgement in the choice and includes those items in the sample which he thinks are most typical of the universe with regard to the characteristics under investigation.

IV. Tool Used:

For analysing and representing the data, tools such as percentages and diagrams were used.

V. Tabulation and presentation of data:

The data obtained was scrutinized, tabulated and presented in the next chapter V.

Results and Discussion



CHAPTER - IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of the study on “**Occupational Health Hazards of Migrant Workers in Informal Sector**” are presented under the following heads:

- I. Socio-economic Conditions of Migrant Population
- II. Motivational factors in migration
- III. Working environment and conditions
- IV. Health conditions and health seeking behaviour
- V. Impact of health status on livelihood

I. Socio Economic Conditions of Migrant Population

In the process of industrialization and urbanization of a developing nation, like India, the inter-regional migration has important contribution to make. Inter-regional and inter-district migration may serve to some extent the developing needs of the nation by ensuring the use of human resources to the best advantage. Tanber (1959) reported that “Freedom of movement without hindrance to any part of the country was an important factor in developing national homogeneity”. Husian (1969) stated that the “Most important factor responsible for the urbanization was economic opportunities as well as social and cultural integration, increase in productivity in inter-regional movement of population.

The current study makes an attempt to understand the different aspects of demographic and economic conditions of migrant respondents. The main features of the socio-economic profile are, age composition, and family background of respondents, income, savings pattern and occupation of working condition. These variables could help us to know the socio-economic status of migrant population in the selected study area.

a) Age Composition:

Table-I presents age-wise classification of the respondents.

TABLE - I

AGE-WISE CLASSIFICATION OF RESPONDENTS

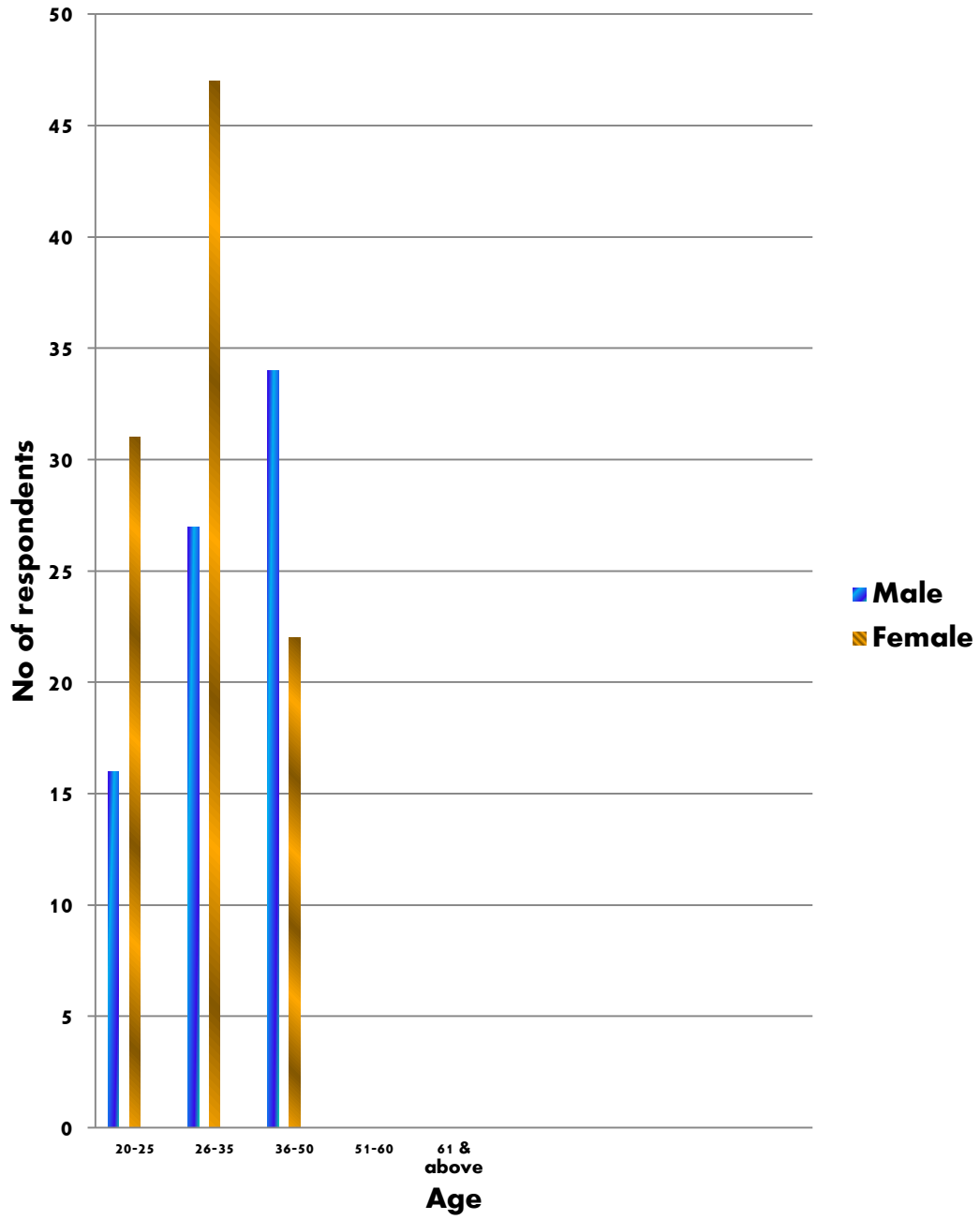
Age	Number of Respondents			
	Male	Percent	Female	Percent
20-25	11	16	10	31
26-35	18	27	15	47
36-50	23	34	7	22
51-60	12	-	-	-
61 & above	4	-	-	-
Total	68	100	32	100

Source: Field Survey

The above table indicates that 27 percent of male and 47 percent of female respondents belonged to 26-35 years of age. Only seven members of female group belonged to 36-50 years. No respondent was found in higher age group (above 60 years) among females. The respondents belonging to elder age group were prohibited from migrating from their places of origin mainly because of the reason that they may not fit into new area for work. People from younger age group moved to different places due to their family burden and for want of employment opportunities.

FIGURE - I

AGE-WISE CLASSIFICATION OF RESPONDENTS



b) Type of Family:

Family is the basic Unit of society, which assigns social status, roles and social responsibilities to every individual. Family is the most powerful medium through which value system can develop over the period of time and individual behaviour and attitude are determined by the family which he/she belongs to. Whether the family is joint or nuclear family system it also determines the status and role of migrant population.

TABLE - II

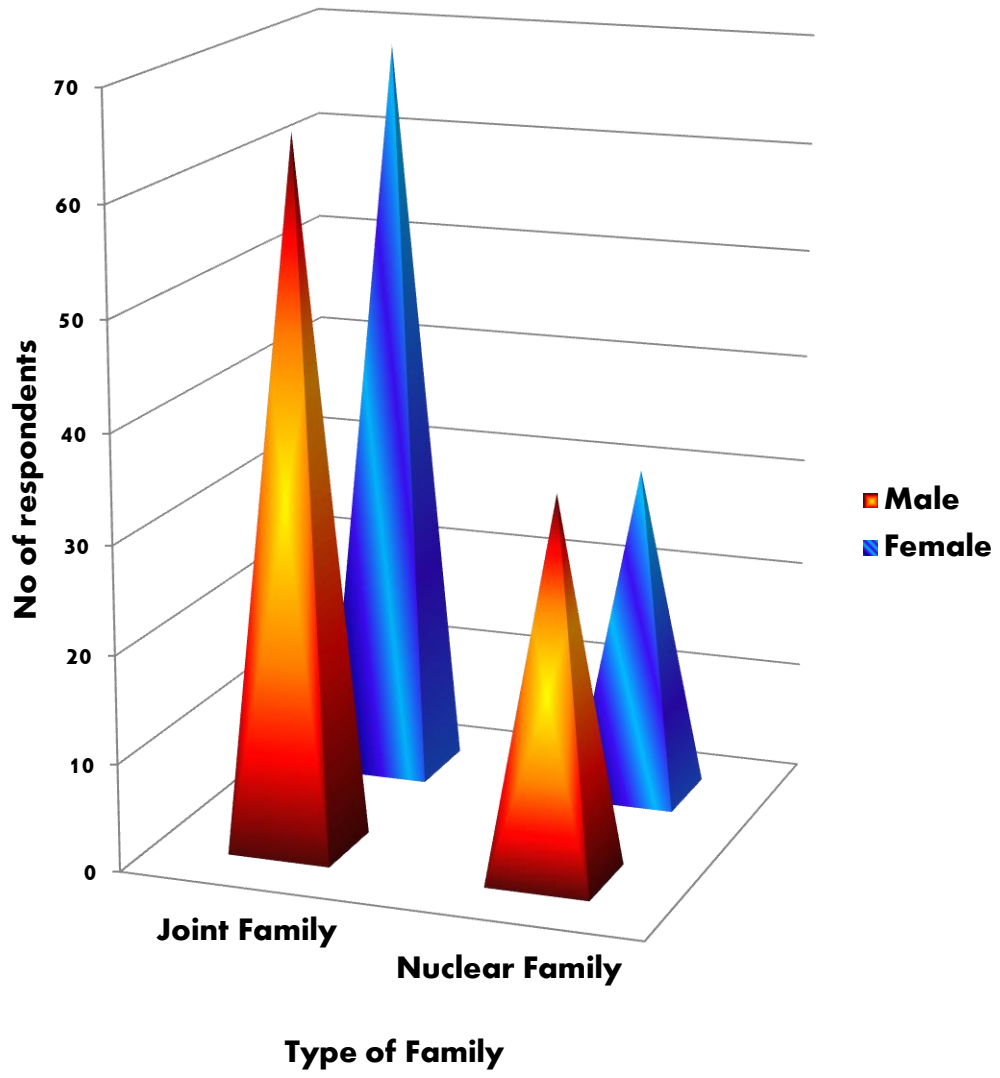
TYPE OF FAMILY

Type of Family	Number of Respondents			
	Male	Percent	Female	Percent
Joint Family	44	65	22	69
Nuclear Family	24	35	10	31
Total	68	100	32	100

Source: Field Survey

The above table shows that the 65 percent of the male respondents and 69 percent of female respondents belonged to joint family and the remaining belonged to nuclear family system. The data indicates that joint families were more than the nuclear families;

FIGURE - II
TYPE OF FAMILY



c) Marital Status:

Marriage is an institution, which exists in every part of society. It is not only a biological aspect but also a social contract and a bond contributing towards happiness and contentment in one's life. It gives the fruitful effects to the society with moral, social and spiritual values. Table III shows the marital status of the respondents.

TABLE - III
MARITAL STATUS OF RESPONDENTS

Marital Status	Number of Respondents			
	Male	Percent	Female	Percent
Married	31	46	24	75
Unmarried	22	32	3	9
Separated	3	4	4	13
Divorced	4	6	-	-
Widowed	8	12	1	3
Total	68	100	32	100

Source: Field Survey

The above table conveys that the majority of the respondents 46 percent and 75 percent were married members among males and females. Only few women were unmarried while 32 percent of male respondents were yet to be married.

d) Educational Status:

Education is the most powerful instrument for the development of society. Education is an important dimension in an individual life. It empowers one with the capacity to take rational decisions and analyse what is good and bad in a more realistic and pragmatic manner along with job opportunities and livelihood. In India, both men and women in rural areas in general, scheduled tribe population and migrant population in particular have been denied access to education and this contributes more or less even today. Table IV presents the educational status of the migrant respondents.

TABLE - IV

EDUCATIONAL STATUS OF RESPONDENTS

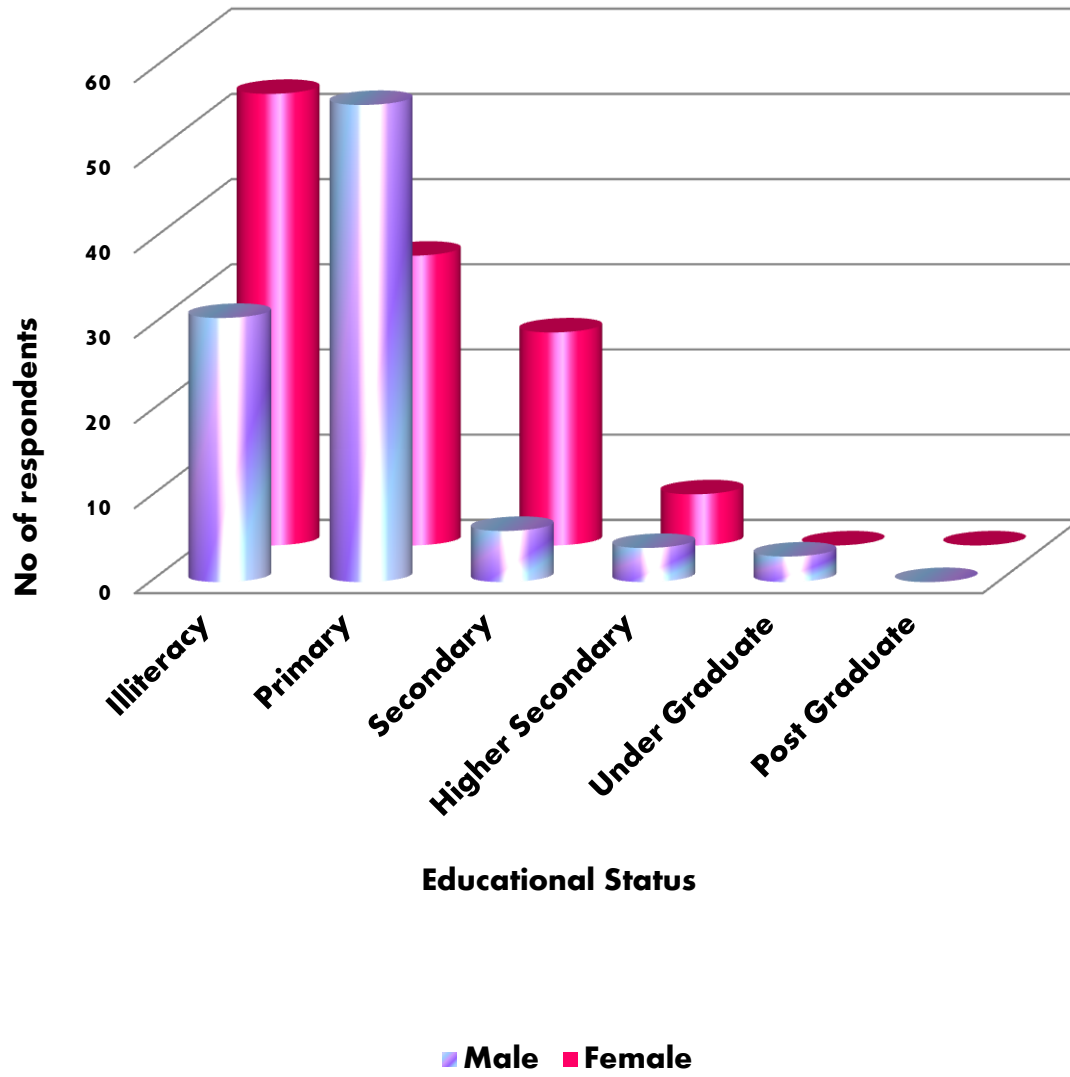
Educational Status	Number of Respondents			
	Male	Percent	Female	Percent
Illiteracy	21	31	17	53
Primary	38	56	11	34
Secondary	4	6	8	25
Higher Secondary	3	4	2	6
Under Graduate	2	3	-	-
Post Graduate	-	-	-	-
Total	68	100	32	100

Source: Field Survey

The table reveals that 31 percent of male respondents and 53 percent of female respondents were illiterates, 56 percent of the respondents have primary education. It was surprising to note that two out of total respondents had acquired education upto undergraduate level. In spite of the efforts of the popularizing literacy among rural people, many are lagging very much behind in education.

FIGURE - III

EDUCATIONAL STATUS OF RESPONDENTS



II. Motivational Factors in Migration

The various motivational factors regarding migration are as follows: Migration plays an important role in the life of rural as well as urban residents. But the causes of migration are even more important and significant, because only a proper understanding of the reasons of rural migration can help one to adopt a proper decision or policy in relation with it. Generally low income has been stated as the primary cause of migration in almost many studies on migration. Though non-economic factors have some bearing on migration, studies indicated that migrants leave their area of origin primarily because of lack of economic opportunities.

Desire for better employment opportunities and higher wages affect labour migration from home state to different place. Motivation is a process through which an individual strives towards accomplishment of a cherished or desired objectives. Cherrunilam (1987) opines that the most important factor that motivates migrant workers may be termed as the push factors and pull factors. An ILO (1996) study has also come to the same conclusion. Swanson et al (1979) in their study have examined the motivational factors by evaluating the relationship between both social restraints and economic incentives and an individual willingness to migrate. Sinha and Ataulah (1986) also viewed that migration motivation condition may be grouped in to physical, economic, demographic, political etc,

a) Push Factors:

The responses given by the respondents in respect of reasons or factors motivating their migration behaviour is reported in Table-V

TABLE - V

PUSH FACTORS IN MIGRATION

S.No	Factors	Number* Stating	
		Male	Female
1	Low income	22	26
2	Lack of availability of employment opportunities	16	12
3	Absence of facility for good education	7	4
4	Absence of facility for obtaining skill and training	8	4
5	Poor infrastructure facility	6	3
6	Poverty	28	16
7	Poor sanitation condition	4	2
8	Absence of religious harmony	6	4
9	Political instability	3	2
10	Higher cost of living in the origin	12	10

Source: Field Survey. *Multiple responses by respondents

The study showed that the major factor motivated the labourers to migrate for different places was economic distress being faced by them in their native places due to factors such as unemployment, underemployment, relatively low wages etc., A close examination of the Table reveals that 48 percent of workers in the study area were found migrated in to Coimbatore due to low level of income.

Similar conclusions were drawn in the existing studies carried out Tiwari and Goel (2002) which reported that economic factors such as expectation for future higher earning was found as the main cause for migration; Land scarcity and population pressure, wage and income differentials, unemployment, unequal distribution of resources, technological improvements and

mechanization and general economic conditions were found to be the major push factors influencing the migration decisions of the migrant workers in a study carried out by Ghaffari and Singh (2001).

b) Pull Factors:

The responses given by the respondents as the pull factors attracting them to get in to various informal activities in the study area are reported in Table-VI

TABLE – VI
PULL FACTORS IN MIGRATION

S.No	Factors	Number*Stating	
		Male	Female
1	High income	42	33
2	Adequate and better employment opportunities	12	7
3	Adequate facility for higher education	8	6
4	Lower cost of living	4	12
5	Favourable climate	8	2
6	Availability of better infrastructural facility	14	18
7	Proper sanitation condition	7	3
8	Absence of pollution	13	2
9	Adequate medical facility	26	16
10	Easy way of contacting the families at origin	13	9

Source: Field Survey. *Multiple responses by respondents.

The majority of the migrant workers in India enter into labour market at the place of destination due to economic compulsion and benefit of their economic contributions are likely to be indicated by the socio-cultural context of their work and their total work burden. As evident

from the table 75 percent of the migrants had reported that they had migrated to the place of destination only for securing higher income and obtaining adequate and good medical facility and to help their children to have an opportunity to get exposed to better education facilities, they had chosen Coimbatore as their place and destination. Research studies (Burdhan 1985; Desi and Jain, 1994, Kabeer 2000) also indicated that characteristics of work like regularity and availability of work and regularity of income earned will increase their employment potential. Similar conclusions were arrived at most studies on migrations which have concluded that income motives are the primary determinants of migration flows. Beals, Levy, and Moses (1967) in Ghana, Sabot (1972) in Tanzania and Carvaja and Geithman (1974) for Ceasta Riea found that inter-regional migration was positively elastic with respect to regional per capital income differentials.

III. Working environment and conditions

In the present study, since all of them were migrant workers which indicates the dominance of rural to urban migration as a result of deterioration in the land-man ratio in the agricultural sector. The migrants due to the limited opportunities in the formal sectors are absorbed in the informal sector, which is generally characterised by low productivity (Hoselitz, 1957). The major cause of migration could be traced to economic determinants. It was seen that in line with the probabilities model of migration (Harris Todaro, 1970) migration decision among the sample households were primarily based on rural-urban expected income differential. Thus inadequate employment opportunities in the rural areas coupled with better employment opportunities in the cities was the primary cause of migration.

Most of the migration respondents in the study had (62 percent) collected some kind of informal information about the job prospects in Coimbatore through their social net works and in many cases had pre-arranged a job before migrating. Their indicated the strong push and pull factors to absorption in the informal sector, which is facilitated by social network. As migration of worker to urban centres is much more than the urban employment opportunities, numbers of workers get into self-employment. In the present study, it was observed that this is a distinct relationship between years of migration and employment status-regular informal wage employment, casual daily wage labour and self-employment worker.

a) Period of Migration:

Table VII presents the period of migration by migrant respondents

TABLE - VII
PERIOD OF MIGRATION OF RESPONDENTS

Period of Migration	Number of Respondents			
	Male	Percent	Female	Percent
Before 2000	32	47.06	12	37.5
Between 2000-2005	14	20.59	7	21.88
Between 2005-2010	12	17.64	11	34.38
Between 2010-2015	4	5.88	2	6.25
After 2015	4	5.88	-	
Total	68	100	32	100

Source: Field Survey

Respondents who had migrated earlier before the year 2000 were staying in Coimbatore for a longer duration, had access to employment opportunities in the informal sector, such as a regular wage employment as compared to those who had migrated recently and involved in casual wage labour or self employment; out of 100 migrant workers, who were in different categories of activities, 5.71 percent depended on regular informal wage employment, 23 percent on casual daily wage labour and 6.0 percent were self-employed workers. This highlighted the fact that almost half of the respondents did not have a regular source of income and were prey to

tremendous uncertainty because of the unpredictability of income. It was reported in Chadrasekar and Ghoshi (2007) analysis that most of the self-employed workers were engaged in low productivity work, which provided little remuneration. Similarly Dubey et al (1998) using data from the NSS (1987-88 and 1993-94) analysed that households with regular salaried employees (both formal and informal) have the lowest probability of being poor. This shows that the large numbers of the workers in study sample were without a secure and stable source of income and are constantly under the threat of being discontinued from their work, which add to their insecurities.

The type of employment a migrant gets at the place of destination helps in deciding whether he would settle down or would migrate further. The level of social and economic satisfaction determines whether the reasons for which one migrated have been satisfied or not. Not only remuneration, but a work environment which includes type and nature of job, working hours etc. also play an important role in determining satisfaction of migrants. Migration often involves longer working hours, poor living and working conditions, social isolation and poor access to basic amenities. Various aspects related to work of the migrant labourers in Coimbatore city that were highlighted during the study are as follows:

b) Daily working Hours:

A labourer should not be forced to work for more than eight hours as per labour law. However, a labourer can work overtime according to his will or as and when demanded for which he gets an extra remuneration. Table- VIII exhibits that about 62 percent and 69 percent female members of the informal sector migrant workers had been working for eight hours/days, whereas the percentage of those who were (25 percent) working for more than eight hours, not being accounted as overtime. They were not paid extra or sometimes less amount only. This highlighted the plight of these workers who did not quit the job even though they were forced to work, without getting any remuneration for the same work.

TABLE - VIII

**DISTRIBUTION OF MIGRANT WORKERS ACCORDING TO DAILY
WORKING HOURS**

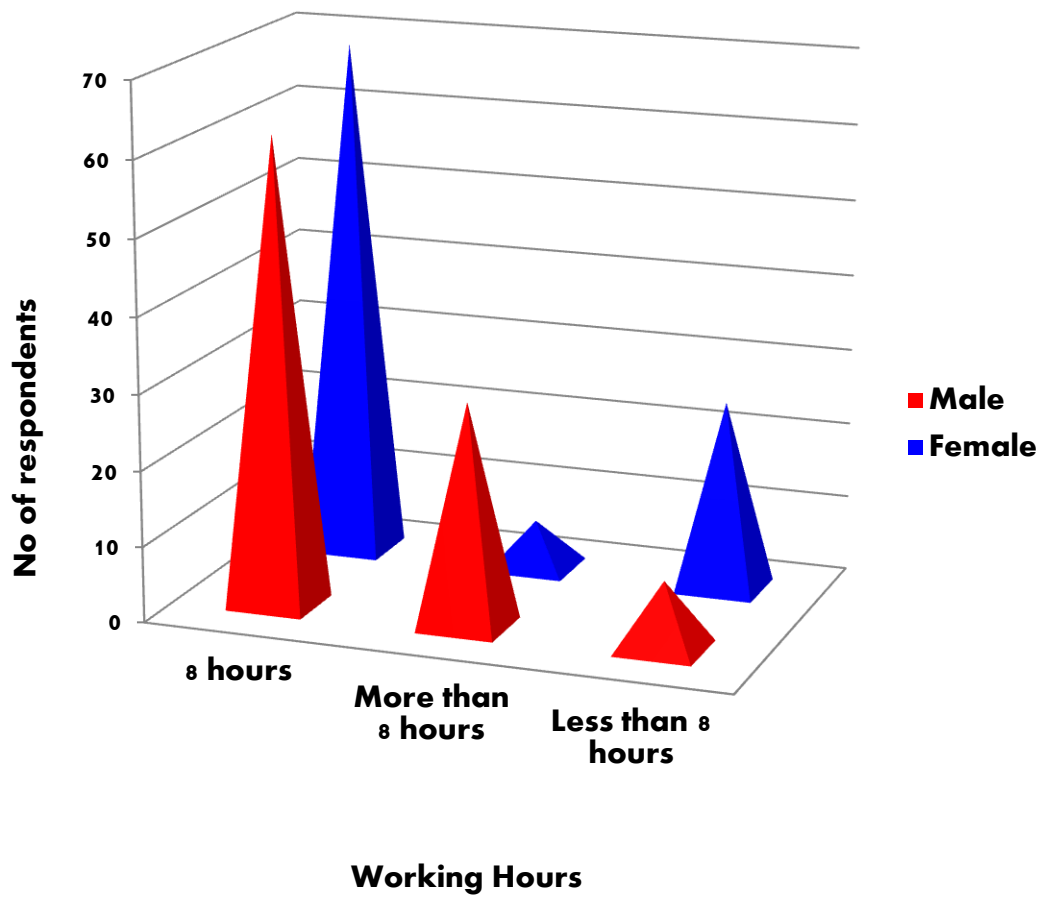
Working Hours	Number of Respondents			
	Male	Percent	Female	Percent
8 hours	42	61.76	22	68.75
More than 8 hours	20	29.41	2	6.25
Less than 8 hours	6	8.86	8	25.00
Total	68	100	32	100

Source: Field Survey

From the table, it is evident that both male and female migrant respondents found to be working for eight hours per day. Only 14 workers were seen working for less than eight hours as they were slightly elderly and the work they were doing happen to be hazardous to health. Poor migrants have very little bargaining power, and as they are employed in the unorganised sector, where there is the lack of regulation of wages etc. The motivation to do anything or to exert more to achieve the set target comes from the fact that an individual gets a suitable reward or return according to the work he does, further, and their source of motivation apart from earning money is the extra benefits they get like free coffee/tea, much etc., during the overtime hours.

FIGURE - IV

DISTRIBUTION OF MIGRANT WORKERS ACCORDING TO DAILY WORKING HOURS



IV. Health Conditions and health seeking behaviour

Health is a priority sector for any nation and public health has become a tool to ensure health and overall development of a nation. It is a term commonly used by health care providers, academicians, policy makers and other stake holders. It is stated that “Public health is the science and the art of preventing community from poor and sanitation environment, control of communicable infections, and educations of individual in personal hygiene, organisation of medical services for early diagnosis and preventive treatment of diseases and the development of social machinery to ensure everyone a standard of living adequate for the maintenance of health”.

a) Type of health problems

Good health is basic equipment for determining on quality the life and health of population can contribute to productivity and overall economic growth of the society. Health performance and economic growth are positivity associated. The role of health in influencing economic outcomes has been reported by several economists (Kaushik et al, 2006). Gupta and Mitra (2004) examined the relationship among health, poverty and economic growth in India. The study found that per capita public health expenditure positively influence, the health status of the people. Monetary factors attract labourers for a particular job/work. However in the longrun, monetary factors are not the sole determinant of employment, but there are other factors which influence the same. One of these factors is health and safety of the labourers at the work place. When the working conditions pose a threat to their health or safety then a monetary factors become secondary. However, the degree of threat varies and so does the decision to stay or leave a particular job, also varies from job to job.

TABLE - IX**DISTRIBUTION OF MIGRANT WORKERS ACCORDING TO EFFECT ON HEALTH**

Status	Number of Respondents			
	Male	Percent	Female	Percent
a. Health status being affected at work place				
Yes	58	85.29	30	93.75
No	10	14.71	12	37.50
b. Safety measures at work place				
Yes	42	74.41	20	66.67
No	16	27.59	10	33.33

Source: Field Survey

It is evident from the table that 85.29 percent of males, 93.75 percent of females reported that their health was affected by working at the respective work sites, which reflects the poor conditions of migrant labourer who were working in different type of activity. 74.41 percent of males and 66.67 percent of females of the workers mentioned that they made use of available safety measures at the work sites; others did not use the facilities available. Since one fourth of the workers were illiterate, lack of awareness about health choices and prevalence of health problems were high. The absence of recreational facilities, nature of work, and hours of work, low pay, poor housing and separation from family, lack of job security and lack of access to occupational health services cause anxiety to the migrant workers.

In most places, the workers were residing in make shift camps inside the project sites that expose them to health risks even after working hours. Due to poor environmental conditions at work sites, chances of diseases from poor sanitation and unsafe drinking water were high. Similar findings were reported by Kulkarni (2007); Gurav et al (2006). Since the migrant workers especially in construction sites, were working in the polluted dusty environment in different climatic conditions, they are prone to allergic and respiratory problems. In the current study, 21 percent of male workers and 18.75 percent of the female workers reported that they had respiratory complaints. These workers, who worked in buildings, would have been exposed to indoor pollution, exposure to dust, pain and allergies than outdoor civil work. The higher prevalence may be due to higher exposure to dust during and after working hours. Most of the complaints were cough and fever and breathing difficulties as reported by earlier reports Adsul, Howal (2011); scarcity of water, limited availability of medicines and other conditions hasten the informal sector workers, to find alternative job in other places. Table- X presents different type of health problems that the migrant workers suffer from in the destination area.

TABLE - X**TYPE OF DISEASES**

Type of Diseases	Number of Respondents			
	Male	Percent	Female	Percent
Fever	5	7.35	7	21.88
Jaundice	7	10.29	4	12.50
Skin Diseases	12	17.65	5	15.63
Eye Diseases	8	11.76	3	9.38
Joint Pain	10	14.71	2	6.25
Minor Injury	12	17.65	5	15.63
Respiratory Problem	14	20.59	6	18.75
Total	68	100	32	100

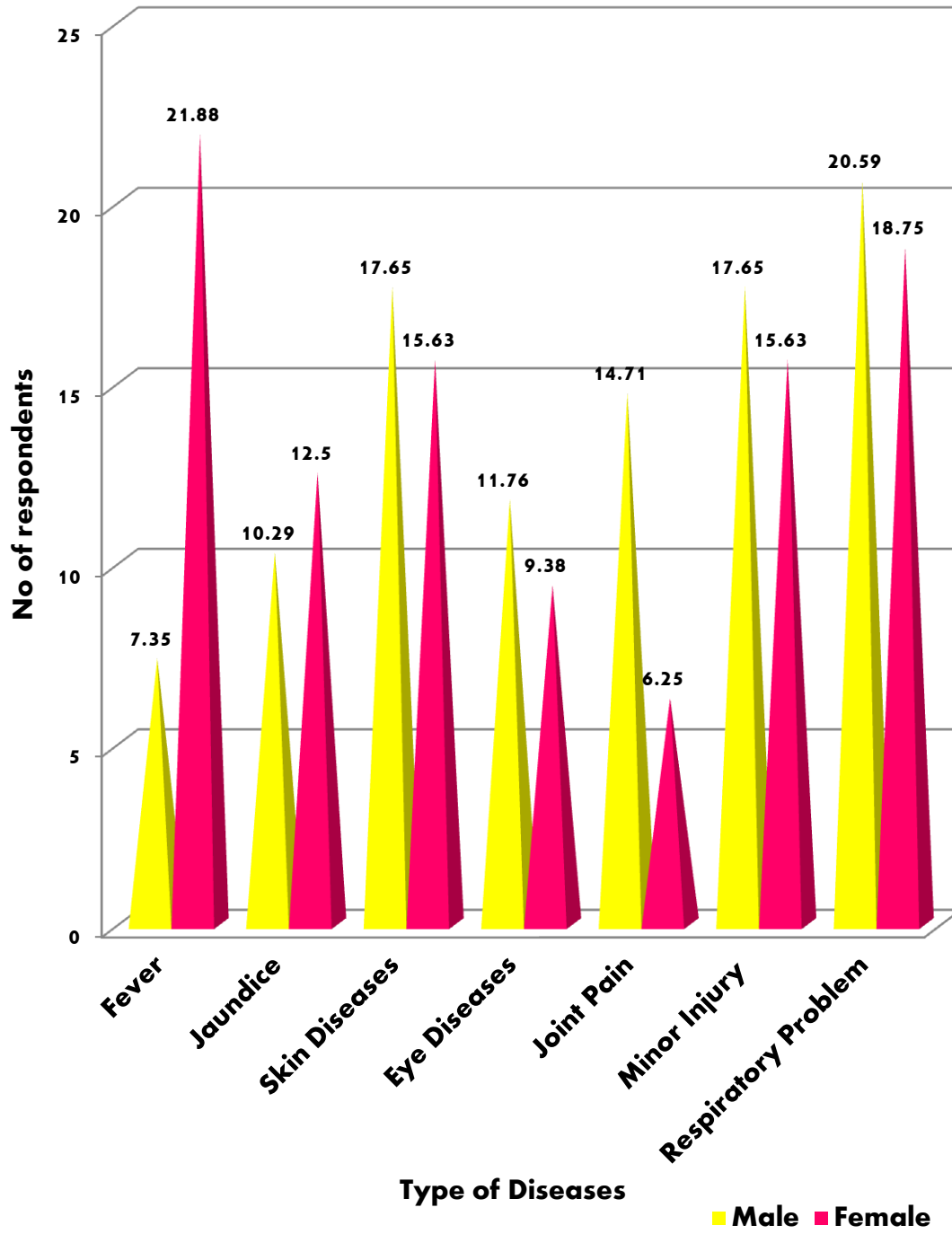
Source: Field Survey

From the table it is evident that the common health suffered by the respondents were cold, fever, headache and body pain. This may be due to severity of work, condition of work and the type of the activity they perform at the work sites. The reasons for incidence of such health problem, water, sleeping out of doors, malnutrition, dislike to use mosquito nets and unhygienic

environment. Besides these reasons, traditional health care practices, poverty, illiteracy, absence of safe drinking water, poor maternal and child health services were some of the factors for malnutrition and ill-health prevailing among migrant population.

The poor sanitary and living condition of the households had an adverse effect on the health outcome of the households residing in slums/resettlement colonies. Among the common illnesses faced by the households, water borne diseases (such as diarrhoea, cholera, typhoid, jaundice) and occupational diseases (such as lung diseases, joint pain and work related accidents) were some of the common health problems. Of the total 100 respondents, 89 percent reported that at least one family member suffered from some illness during the last one year and about 51 percent of the respondents perceived that their work had an adverse effect on their health. With regard to health benefits, except for 17 percent of the respondents who received partial assistance for their health problems, the remaining 83 percent did not receive any kind of health benefits and had to pay fully health services.

FIGURE - V
TYPE OF DISEASES



b) Details on health provider:

Taking into consideration the fact that majority of the households had reported some illness during the last one year, it was important to understand the type of health provider accessed by the respondents in the event of an illness and understand as well the reasons for their choice. Table- XI shows that only 32.35 percent of male respondents and 53.13 percent of female respondents' households availed the government health facilities (government hospital or a primary health centre). Of the remaining respondents, 55.88 percent of male respondents and 37.50 percent of female respondents' households visited private hospitals/ clinics and more than one-third of the households consulted untrained doctors who are otherwise known as quacks, or local pharmacists in the event of an illness. A few households (11.76 percent of male respondents and 9.38 percent of female respondents) also reported accessing the services of charitable clinics run in their area by trusts/NGOs.

TABLE - XI

TYPE OF HEALTH PROVIDER ACCESSED BY THE HOUSEHOLDS

Type of Health Provider	Number of Respondents			
	Male	Percent	Female	Percent
Government hospital (PHC)	22	32.35	17	53.13
Private hospitals/ clinics	38	55.88	12	37.50
Charitable clinics	8	11.76	3	9.38
Total	68	100	32	100

Source: Field Survey

Information was sought on the reasons for choosing a particular health provider and also the distance barred respondents from accessing the public facilities. The data obtained provided interesting inferences. It was seen that inspite of the fact that 85 percent of the households had access to a public health facilities within a range of five kilometres from place of stay, yet the accessibility of the government health facilities was less. The major reasons cited by the respondents for not accessing government health facilities were lack of proper attention and care

given by the doctors, lack of medicine and testing facilities which resulted in households spending money, and the long waiting time to consult doctors. Respondents, particularly those involved in casual work found accessing government facilities difficult as it led to wasting of substantial working time and therefore loss of income. Moreover, as free medicines and tests were not available from government hospitals/clinics, households preferred consulting local doctors for their day to day health problems. Although in some of the study areas charitable clinics were operated by NGOs, yet taking in to consideration that these clinics provided only basic health services and were operational during specific time period of the day, these facilities had limited utility only.

The findings showed that government health facilities which are meant to be used by the lower income group and therefore subsidized do not facilitate the urban poor. The fact that respondents had to pay for the medicines/tests and also lost their income due to the long waiting hours, dissuaded the poor informal workers from availing government facilities. As a result respondents visited private hospitals/clinics and local unregistered doctors, pharmacists in spite of the higher expenses.

V. Impact of health status on livelihood

Besides the direct expenses incurred by respondents in the form of medicines, tests, travel charges, etc. the indirect costs associated with illness such as loss of wages added to the burden of households. As a result, respondents resorted to coping strategies which ranged from selling assets, borrowing, to cost prevention strategies like ignoring illness/ non-treatment. These coping strategies have an adverse effect on the welfare and livelihood of the household. Table- XIII provides information on the type of coping strategies adopted by households in order to meet health related expenses on the event of an illness in the family lasting for five or more days. The findings showed that more than half of the respondents (35.29 percent of male respondents and 65.63 percent of female respondents) borrowed money and almost one-third of the respondents (32.35 percent of male respondents and 6.25 percent of female respondents) had to sell their productive assets in their native place if the illness lasted for a longer duration. Although the finding showed that very few respondents could save, yet 11.76 percent of male respondents and 12.50 percent of female respondents had to use their savings during health related contingencies. All these coping strategies were coupled by the fact that a substantial number of households

(20.59 percent of male respondents and 9.38 percent of female respondents) delayed or avoided treatment as long as possible.

TABLE - XII
STRATEGIES TO COPE WITH HEALTH EXPENSES

Strategy	Number of Respondents			
	Male	Percent	Female	Percent
Borrowing money	24	35.29	21	65.63
Use Savings	8	11.76	4	12.50
Delay/Avoid treatment	14	20.59	3	9.38
Sell/mortgage productive assets	22	32.35	2	6.25
Total	68	100	32	100

Source: Survey data

Although the direct costs of illness result in respondents adopting coping measure such as borrowing, distress, sale of productive assets (e.g. land, cattle), delays and abandonment of treatment, which affect the livelihood of the households, yet the indirect costs in the form of income and employment loss created a far greater devastating impact on livelihoods thereby causing impoverishment.

TABLE - XIII

IMPACT OF ILLNESS ON THE RESPONDENTS

Types of Impact	Number of Respondents			
	Male	Percent	Female	Percent
Loss of Employment	42	61.76	28	87.50
Loss of the Income	26	38.24	4	12.50
Total	68	100	32	100

Source: survey data

In the present study, as many as 38.24 percent of male and 12.50 percent of female respondents had reported loss of income due to illness and 61.76 and 87.50 percent of the respondents had lost their employment during the last one year as a result of illness-either of self or family member. It was seen that as many as 45 percent of the worker lost earning up to ten days on account of illness. For an informal sector household surviving on low wages, this loss of income creates additional burden on the households.

Summary and Conclusion



CHAPTER -V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Labour migration is a complex phenomenon that differs in duration, origin, destination and migrant characteristics. Migration of individuals in search of superior livelihood is key feature of human history. Migration brings along varied socio-economic impact on migrants and their families. The rural out-migration has been playing an active role in economic development, urbanisation and industrialisation both in developed and underdeveloped countries. They are forced to work in low-end, low-value jobs, perform hazardous work. Though they are demanded to work hard but are denied basic entitlements such as decent shelter, fair-priced food, better health services, training and education. The objective of the current study on “**Occupational Health Hazards of Migrant Workers in Informal Sector**” is to analyse the work environment of migrant labourers working in various activities of informal sector and also analyse the health conditions and health services availed by them. The study covered 100 migrant various southern districts of Tamil Nadu. They were mostly seasonal and temporary workers working in various informal activities.

The major findings emerged out of the study were:

I. Socio-economic conditions of Migrant Population

- Twenty seven percent of males and 47 percent of female respondents’ belonged to younger age group is 26-35 years of age.
- Around seventy percent of respondents belonged to joint family and remaining were in nuclear family system.
- Most of the respondents were married; only few women were unmarried.
- 56 percent of respondents had acquired education up to primary education. Two out of entire sample had studied upto college level.

II. Motivational factors in Migration

- Low income and poverty were the major push factors in migration. Other factors included lack of employment opportunities, absence of skill training, poor sanitation high cost of living etc.,.

- Security in income, better medical facility and availability of infrastructural facilities were found to be the prominent pull factors among migrant population.

III. Working environment and conditions

- Nearly 50 percent of the migrants had found to have migrated before the year 2000.
- Only few have migrated within a period of one year; they were found in temporary job.
- 62 percent of the workers were found to be working for eight hours per day.
- They were not paid extra amount or sometimes less amount only.

IV. Health conditions and health seeking behaviour

- Out of 100 respondents, 89 percent reported that at least one family member suffered from some illness during the last one year.
- 51 percent of the respondents reported that their work had an adverse effect on their health.
- Only 17 percent of the respondents received, only partial assistance for their health problems from their employers.
- Around 85 percent of the workers expressed that all of them were affected by various health problem.
- The major health problems were skin diseases, body pain, respiratory problems etc.,
- For treatment, the respondents sought the help of government hospitals, and private hospitals and clinics.
- Private clinics were found to be costly with quick treatment.
- To meet the medical expenses, borrowing money from others, selling assets, absenting from work were seen as coping strategies.
- Because of illness 62 percent of male members and 87 percent of female members had expressed that they lost employment because of the nature of work and type of labour.

Conclusion

The protection of the health and safety of workers in the informal sector needs to be faced having an integrated approach to health promotion, social protection, employment, seeking to achieve sustainable and equitable development. An occupational safety and health promotion programme for the informal sector workers should focus on raising awareness on occupational safety and health hazards and seeking institutional support for the provision of occupational health and preventive services for workers within the existing primary health care structure, which include first-aid, basic health care, health promotion programme, early detection of occupational health impairments and a preventive approach.

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Annexure



OCCUPATIONAL HEALTH HAZARDS OF MIGRANT WORKERS IN INFORMAL SECTOR

1 Name of Respondent:

2 Native Place:

3 Distance:

4 Period of Migration:

5 Age & Sex:

6 Size of the Family:

7 Occupation before Migration:

8 Type of Work after Migration

9 Wages earned before Migration

10 Wages earned After Migration

11 No. of days of employment before
Migration

12 No. of days of employment After
Migration

11 Reasons for Migration Push and
Pull factors:

12 Source of Information:

13 Nature of Migration

Temporary

Seasonal

Permanent

14 How often you visit your Native
Place?

15 Do you reemit money to your
Native place?

Yes No

Amount.....

16 What are the living conditions?

17 How often you fall sick?

18 Type of sickness?

19 Type of Health providers:

Government Hospital

Private Hospital

Private Doctor

Other

20 Average expenditure per month on
Health

21 How do you manage health
expenditure:

Borrow money

Use Savings

Avoid Treatment

Mortgage Assets