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**SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF TAMIL MIGRANTS IN MALAPPURAM DISTRICTS OF KERALA****FASALURAHMAN.P.K.PATTERKADAVAN****ASST. PROFESSOR****DEPARTMENT OF ECONOMICS****CENTRAL UNIVERSITY OF KASHMIR****SRINAGAR****MUHAMMED MUSTHAFA M.****RESEARCH SCHOLAR****GANDHIGRAM RURAL INSTITUTE-DEEMED UNIVERSITY****GANDHIGRAM****ABSTRACT**

*This article is an attempt to study about socio – economic conditions of Tamil migrants in Malappuram district of Kerala. The study is based on primary data. The researcher with well prepared schedule went to the field and collected relevant information regarding socio-economic conditions of the workers. A sample of 300 Tamil workers from different regions of the said district, say Perinthalmanna (50), Nilambur (50), Malappuram (50), Kottakkal (50), Manjeri (50) and Arcode (50) were selected for the study. And the study mainly used 2001 census data. The main objectives of the study are: i) To know about the socio- economic conditions of Tamil migrant workers in Malappuram, Kerala. ii) To understand the education level of Tamil migrants in Malappuram. iii) To find out occupation and wages of Tamil migrant workers. iv) To know the native places and marital status of Tamil migrants in Malappuram, v) To know religion and caste of Tamil migrants in Malappuram, Kerala. The study found that the distribution of Tamil migrants in the migrated villages mainly from those districts in Tamil Nadu which had close relation with Kerala boundary. In the case of educational status of migrants, more than ninety percent of them were not completed even formal education. The data on marital status of the migrants shows that seventy percent of the migrants were married while most of them did not bring their spouses to migrated places. Among female migrants most of them were coming with their husband to help them. The study found that about 85 percent of the migrants were belonging to Hindu religion while representatives of other religions were very low. Among Hindu, forty percent of the migrants were SC, others belong to OBC and general category. It also found that before migration and after migration, Most of the migrants were being un-skilled workers and engaged in less skill required works. While labours belong to skilled category were very low. Finding on wage indicate that there was high inequality or discrimination in giving wage between male and female migrants and between malayalee workers and migrant workers also. 57% of the migrant workers are getting less than 400 rupees per day for their work. It is also noteworthy that migrant workers are getting much more remuneration in migrated places than in their native villages.*

**KEYWORDS**

Tamil migrants, Malappuram district.

**INTRODUCTION**

**M**igration is defined as move from one area to another, usually crossing administrative boundaries made during a given migration interval and involving a change of residence (UN 1993).<sup>1</sup> According to the concise Oxford Dictionary, to migrate means to move from one place, country or town to another. Migration is the movement from one place to another within the country or outside it.<sup>2</sup> Everett S .Lee defines Migration very simply as “a permanent or semi-permanent change of residence”. The change in residence may be either permanent or semi-permanent or on a temporary basis (Premi 1990).<sup>3</sup> Due to expansion of communication and transport Migration has become a part of World Wide process of urbanization and industrialization. In most countries it has been observed that industrialization and economic development have been accompanied by large scale of movement of people from villages to town, from town to another town, from one country to another country.

People started to migrate since earlier period, for various reasons: some time in search of food, at other times to escape from natural calamities, threats, enemies or to seek adventure. Human migration takes place owing to lacks of social and economic opportunities at place one resides. Hence people start moving to those centers where they can meet their needs and miseries Migration from one area to another in search of improved livelihood is a key feature of human history. While people move, they consider the advantages and disadvantages of staying versus moving, as well as factors such as distance, travel cost, travel time and mode of transportation, terrain and cultural barriers. Migration in traditional society is largely forced and is a response to push factors, where in industrial or modern societies it is largely voluntary response to pull factors. Push factors push people of their former location i.e., famine, drought, natural disasters and poor living conditions of housing, unemployment and war, etc. Pull factors pull or attract people to some places, i.e., better climate, better food supply, employment, higher income, better health care, education, urban facilities, way of life, protection from conflict, etc ..., are the main causes of migration.<sup>4</sup>

**TYPES OF MIGRATION**

Migration is a term which includes a wide range of patterns from the geographical point of view. It may involve movement of people from one locality to another within the country or from one country to another. Such geographical mobility may take place from rural areas to rural areas, from rural to urban areas, and urban to rural areas, urban to urban. On the basis of duration of process migration may be classified in to

- a) Permanent migration
- b) Short term migration

Short term migration comprises seasonal migration and circular migration, involving the return of migrants to the place of origin. Further occupational migration can be brought off, which involve shift from one occupation to another, such as from agriculture to industrial or service occupation. Occupational migration may compass all occupational categories, un skilled labor to specialists and professionals. Broadly, migration may be of two types

- a) Internal migration
- b) International migration

Internal migration refers to a change of residence within national boundaries such as between states, provinces, cities and municipalities. An internal migrant is someone who moves to a different administrative territory. On other hand; International migration refers to change of residence over national boundaries. An international migrant is someone who move to different country.

<sup>1</sup> United Nations, Readings in Population Research and Methodology, United Nations Population Fund, New york, 1993.

<sup>2</sup> United Nations, Multilingual Demographic Dictionary. p.4

<sup>3</sup> K G Joshi, " Migration and Mobility," Himalaya Publishing House, Bombay

<sup>4</sup> C.W.Kanmeyer Kenneth Population Studies: Selected Essays and Research, Rand Monally College Publishing Company, Chicago, 1978, p.170

International migration is further classified as legal immigrants, illegal immigrants and refugees. Legal immigrants are those who moved with the legal permission of the receiver's nation, illegal immigrants are those who moved without legal permission, and refugees are those who crossed an international boundary to escape persecution.<sup>5</sup>

Other types of migration are

- **Impelled Migration** (also called "reluctant" or "imposed" migration): Individuals are not forced out of their country, but leave because of unfavorable situations such as warfare, political problems, or religious persecution.
- **Step Migration:** A series of shorter, less extreme migrations from a person's place of origin to final destination—such as moving from a farm, to a village, to a town, and finally to a city.
- **Chain Migration:** A series of migrations within a family or defined group of people. A chain migration often begins with one family member who sends money to bring other family members to the new location. Chain migration results in migration fields—the clustering of people from a specific region into certain neighborhoods or small town
- **Return Migration:** The voluntary movements of immigrants back to their place of origin. This is also known as circular migration
- **Seasonal Migration:** The process of moving for a period of time in response to labor or climate conditions (e.g., farm workers following crop harvests or working in cities off-season; "snowbirds" moving to the southern and southwestern United States during winter).
- **Involuntary or forced migration:** It takes place when a government forces large group of people out of a region, usually based on ethnicity or region.<sup>6</sup>

## MIGRANTS IN KERALA

In India migrations are not required to be registered either at the place of origin or at the place of destination. In the absence of such system, the two major sources of data on internal migration in India are the Census-2001 (Tabulated in D series) and the National Sample Survey for 1999-2000 (NSS)<sup>7</sup>. It may be noted that Census and NSS capture only permanent and semi-permanent migration. One way of categorizing the migrants in the Census of India is by place of birth.<sup>8</sup> As per this categorization, migrants are classified into:

i. Those who migrated from other districts of the state (intra-state migration)

ii. Those who migrated from other states (inter-state migration)

According to the Census 2001, 1.3 per cent of the population of Kerala is migrants (by place of birth) from other states. The largest number of in-migrants in the state is from the neighboring state of Tamil Nadu. Significant number of migrants also came from Karnataka, Maharashtra. While 67.8 per cent of those who have migrated to Kerala from other states had their place of birth in Tamil Nadu, 13.5 per cent had their place of birth in Karnataka. Other regions from where people have migrated to Kerala include Maharashtra (4.5 %), Andhra Pradesh (2.3%), Pondicherry (2.1%), Uttar Pradesh (1.4 %) and West Bengal (1.0%). 49.1 per cent of the migrants from other states are female migrants.

The NSS data, which differs from the census data due to differences in definition of migrant, also points to the massive inflow of migrants from other states to Kerala. According to NSSO data, migrants to the State in 1999-2000, numbered 10, and 05,000. It may be noted that both these surveys were conducted 5-6 years back. It is highly probable that larger number of people has migrated during the last few years.

According to Census 2001, the total number of in- migrants in Kerala was 412849, among the districts, Ernakulam district recorded (55977) the highest inflow of migrants from other states. Nearly 60 per cent of the migrants from other states in Ernakulam district came from the neighboring state of Tamil Nadu. Next in importance are the migrants from Maharashtra and Karnataka. Idukki was registered second position in in-migration of in- migrants (53056), third went to Thiruvananthapuram (48575). The district Malappuram registered ninth position (22092), the migrants came mainly from Tamil Nadu. The table shows that in-migrants was lowest in Aleppy (11180) and Pathanamthitta (13683).

## OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1. To understand the socio-economic characteristics of Tamil migrant labours in the district of Malappuram in Kerala.
2. To understand the education level of Tamil migrants in Malappuram.
3. To find out occupation and wages of Tamil migrant workers in Malappuram districts of Kerala.
4. To know the native places and marital status of Tamil migrants in Malappuram,
5. To know religion and caste of Tamil migrants in Malappuram, Kerala.

## DATA AND METHODOLOGY

The study is based primarily on a sample survey conducted among Tamil migrant workers in different regions at Malappuram district in Kerala. The study is of a pilot nature on internal migration in Kerala with a limited sample size of 300 casual workers, seeking work in the labour market on a day-to-day basis. Equal number of male and female workers was selected. The respondents were selected randomly from some of the major wards in the Panchayat where the migrant workers wait for the employers. Pre-tested semi-structured schedule was employed for collecting information from the respondents. The sample survey was supplemented by in-depth interviews with a few migrant workers, employers and local labours.

## SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The study focuses on the socio- economic characteristics of in-migrants, the distribution of labours on basis of their native place, the mode of occupation, and the condition of the wages they are getting in the villages. It further examines the educational level, marital status, religion and castes of these Tamil migrant labours.

## DELIMITATION AND LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The present study is a micro level study. The study does not cover all aspects of migration due to time and cost constraints. The data used here to study in-migration is on 2001 Census, due to absence of availability of migration data 2011 Census. The findings of the study cannot be generalized as it is done within some selected regions at Malappuram district. Besides, the sample size is 300 (150 men, 150 women) and does not cover all the areas. Therefore findings and suggestion of the study would be applicable to areas with similar features as the study area. However, every attempt has been made to make the present study a comprehensive one.

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Kerala is witnessing large inflow of migrant labour from different parts of the country in the recent years. Though labours from the states as far as West Bengal, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh and Orissa now flock to Kerala, those from Tamil Nadu outnumber others by big margin. Large majority of them are unskilled or semiskilled workers engaged in construction and road works, pipe laying etc. The shortage of local workers because of high Gulf migration from the state led to both

<sup>5</sup> International Labour Migration and Development: The Perspective 61th Session of the General Assembly High Level Dialogue on International Migration and Development, New York, 2006, p.3.

<sup>6</sup> www.google.com

<sup>7</sup> The latest report on migration is "Migration in India- 1999-2000", Report No. 470, NSSO 55th Round, September, 2001.

<sup>8</sup> The other classification in the Census is based on place of last residence



increase of employment opportunities and wage for un skilled workers and also led to the massive influx of migrant labour to the state .Following are some of the literature review.

**Gordon I Clark** (1982) his study on Dynamics of US interstate labour migration is considered in light of conventional assumptions regarding regional growth and decline. Both in-migration and out migration are modeled separately using Box-Jenkins techniques and focusing upon the underlying temporal processes (auto regressive, moving average and or some combination of both) and estimated parameters. Gross flows are cross correlated for a selected group of states to establish lead and lag relationship analysis indicates that gross migration is subject to distinct fluctuations over the short run and each set of flows is closely synchronized in time. Difference in parameter estimates and identified processes do, however, exist between growing and declining states. He found that interstate migration in south and south west is highest among rapid growth states. Why there are differences in net migration between growing and declining areas. The answer is that there are not enough job opportunities in slow growth states. Voluntary turnover is significantly less in these types of states. He revealed that job switching that involves out migration can of course occur with ease. However, job switching that involves in-migration is less likely because of the more limited set of the destination opportunities.

**Speare, Kobrin and Kingkade** (1982), their study applied to interstate migration, the notion that dissatisfaction with residence or community presages movement. The other side, the view that disposition to move is inhibited by satisfaction with job and place of residence and by social bonds is tested using data from a panel study in Rhode Island for the period 1969-1979. The study traced a panel of 1081 adults who were interviewed in 1969 and who at that time constituted a representative sample of the adult population living in households in that island. The panel members were reinter viewed in 1970, 1971 and again in 1979. The 1979 reinter view tracing results will be used to determine migration over a ten years period, in 1979, the location of all but 23 of the 1081 still living original respondent was ascertained and 72% were re interviewed. The results of this study provide support for a model of household migration which emphasizes non-economic factors. People with strong social bonds in the state were less likely to have left the state than those with weak social bonds. Employment, which was predicted to retard migration, turned out to have the opposite effect, all though the couples with two jobs were less likely to move than those with one job. The general question on wish to move has a strong net effect. However, wish to move is restricted to those persons who either specified a location outside the island or failed to specify a location and thus focused directly on out-of-state migration. In contrast, the level of satisfaction with the community and job did not have as strong relationship to migration as had been expected.

**N.D Kamble** (1983), in his study on labour migration to Kerala and from Kerala, told that size population in a region is the net result of births over deaths and in-migration over out-migration. He told that migration is generally is determined by economic opportunities and net quantitative and qualitative benefits .Migration of labour force in India was a) From rural areas to rural areas b) From rural areas to urban areas, c) From urban areas to urban areas, d) From urban areas to rural areas.

Each proceeding type is larger than succeeding one. The objective of the study were to know about Gross and net volume, type and direction of both in and out migration, their educational levels and employment patterns. He made use the data on migration from and to Kerala, was mainly collected from the Census of India Report of 1961 and 1971. The study was based on the quantitative secondary data hence, simple statistical tools of analysis such as percentages, proportions, migration linkages and coefficients were used. He found that levels of education of migrant's workers are generally higher than those of non migrant workers in various economic activities. Migration of Keralites is relatively less than non - keralites. Most of the migration in Kerala is from neighboring states.

**S.S Mehta** (1987), the objective of this paper is to map the magnitude and the pattern of interstate migration in India during the sixties and seventies, with the accompanying economic factors. He relates migration to certain economic factors. As migration take place from less developed states to developed states .such regions become victors in this process. He presented the data with the help of report eighth finance commission and 1981 census. He told that migration is natural process and it is associated with high growth and high per capita income of many states. Therefore all barriers to migration should be removed. It needs to have a central scheme to implement the interstate migrant act effectively.

**Kundu and Gupta** (1996) focus on the dynamics of migration and urbanization in the context of changing structure of economic development in India. An attempt was made to examine whether there had been a slowing down of internal population mobility over the decades since independence and whether that attributed to investment in backward areas to decline regional imbalances. Data for the study were obtained from migration tables and Census of India, task force of urban development (1983) Report and National Sample Surveys. The study was carried out during 1961-81 completely and also data available for few states from 1991 Census. Percentages, averages and co-efficient of variation methods were used for the analysis. The study showed that mobility of population declined both in rural as well as urban areas during 1961-81. The percentage of inter censual male migrants (rural and urban and combined) with in the country had gone down from 11.3% in 1961 to 9.4% in 1971 and further to 8.8% in 1981. This declining trend posed major challenges for un balanced strategy followed by India. The study suggested to adopt a policy of balanced regional development and disperse economic and employment opportunities to backward regions through a planned effort.

**Haberfeld, Menaria, Sahoo and Vyas** (1999) attempted to study Seasonal migration of rural labors at Dungarpur district in Rajasthan. It also examines the determinants and impact of seasonal migration .For the data collection, the district Durgapur is divided in to 5 blocks. The sampled villages participating in the project were randomly selected from the population of all participating villages in each block. Overall, 8 villages were drawn in to the sample. Since the primary purpose of data collection was to evaluate the impact of project, 8 more villages from the population of non-participant villages were added to the sample. These villages were matched with participating sampled villages in terms of block –geo-physical conditions, size and socio-economic structure. Each village was then divided in to three spatial segments based on geographical neighborhoods (Phalas) and 13 households were randomly selected from each village segment. All these sampling procedures yielded a sample of 264 households. Over all 540 individuals belonging to 348 of the sampled households migrated from these 16 villages during 1995-96. The findings indicate that seasonal migration among rural laboures is wide spread. This migration improved their well-being by both reducing the impact of inferior conditions and raising the household income. This also found that these migrants' households are characterized by the lower education, income from agriculture.

**Indani Gupta and Mitra** (2002) examined the links between the duration of migration and distance of migration, occupation and incidence of poverty in slum areas in Delhi. The primary data were collected from 1000 sample and respondents from seven zones at Delhi in 1996. They employed three stratified random sampling framework and used proportion cluster stand in each zone and employed multinomial logic model in their studies. The study revealed that most of the migrants in slum areas in Delhi were engaged in informal tertiary activities. And poverty was highest among those who migrated 1-5 years ago, lowest among those who have been in Delhi for 12-25 years. They found that with experience the migrants more likely to move from low income casual jobs to high income and regular jobs. This leads to increase in standard of living

**Solaki** (2002) made an attempt to study the migration of artisans from rural to urban area in the district of Rohtak (Haryana) and Nagpur (Rajasthan). The primary data were collected from the artisans during the period of 1996 to 2000. The methodology employed for the study was questionnaire technique. The study shows that due to lack of money artisans were in-capable to buy raw materials in bulk and not able to make high inventory needed for sake marketing. The paper suggested that financial institution should liberalize their terms and conditions .And this also suggested that NGO's should inject confidence in these artisans.

**Harris** (2005) studied migration and development in developing and developed countries. The internal migration has significant role in re-distributing income between poor and rich areas and eradicating poverty. This study showed that migration is the only one factor which re-distributes income from rich areas to poor areas and remittance sending from developed countries to developing countries. This study found that these unskilled labors from developing countries were returning to their home countries as skilled labours. It is because they have been enriched with experience and training at abroad. So that the migration has been enhancing the human capital in developing countries and thereby reducing the poverty.

**Surabhi and Ajithkumar** (2007) studied the migration of Tamil labours at Kochi in Kerala .The higher wages for unskilled labour in Kerala, large opportunities of employment and shortage of local labour lead to massive influx of migrant labour to the state. Their study was based on limited sample size of 100 casual labours from Tamilnadu seeking work at selected centers on a day to day basis. The sample was drawn from city of Kochi. Their study conclude that the migrant labours get much higher monetary wages than in their native places, but they work for longer hours and their real wage may be lower as they have to incur higher cost of living. They presented the data from Census of India 2001 D-series. This study aims at altering the policy makers, planners and administrators, at

states as well as at the local level on some of the issues resulting from the rapid growth of migrant population in Kerala. In the view of rising in- migration, questions related to governance, public health and sanitation, housing and education, law and orders etc...warrant greater attention at the level of policy planning and implementation.

**Sabates, Wheeler and Ricardo Sabates, Castaldo** (2008) attempted to study whether migration improved the livelihoods of migrants in Ghana and Egypt. The data for this paper comes from the survey of pull and push factors of international migration managed by NIDI and collected in the year 1997-98. The primary data on migration was collected 8 countries ( southern and east Mediterranean area and from sub Saharan Africa to the European union) .Within this 5 are sending and 3 are receiving countries. But this paper made use the data only from 2 sending countries Ghana, Egypt .And one receiving county Italy. In sending countries four regions were selected on the basis of a number of criteria related to their development and migration history. Migrants and non migrants were sampled. And in each of the four regions above independent multi stage stratified disproportionate probability sampling took place to sample the target population for the survey. The sampling design of the Italian survey required a different approach. First, cities were chosen throughout the country based on ex ante knowledge of in migrant communities in these areas. In each area interviewees were randomly selected so that the total number of units would be roughly proportional to the total number of Egyptians or Afghanians living in that area. This authors also used probit model in this paper to estimate the current poverty status for poor and non poor. Authors found that for Ghana, migrants are statistically less likely to consider themselves to be poor than non migrant. While in Egypt, this model shows that migration is not a significant of current poverty status. In both countries past poverty is a significant of current poverty status. Due to migration, in Egypt both very poor and poor are more likely to have a livelihood improvement than other groups.

## PROFILE OF THE STUDY AREA

### KERALA STATE

**Kerala**, regionally also **Keralam**, is a state located in the south-west region of India on the Malabar Coast. It was formed on 1 November 1956 per the States Reorganization Act by combining various Malayalam-speaking regions. Spread over 38,863 km<sup>2</sup> (15,005 sq mi) with a population of 33,387,677, of which male and female are 16,021,290 and 17,366,387 respectively (as per 2011 census data). In 2001, total population was 31,841,374 in which males were 15,468,614 while females were 16,372,760. Out of total population of Kerala, 47.72% people live in urban regions. The total figure of population living in urban areas is 15,932,171 of which 7,617,584 are males and while remaining 8,314,587 are females. Kerala is bordered by Karnataka to the north and north east, Tamil Nadu to the east and south, and the Laccadive Sea to the west. Thiruvananthapuram is the state capital among the 14 districts; other major cities include Kochi, Kozhikode, Kollam and Thrissur. The state has the highest Human Development Index (HDI) in the country with 0.790 according to the Human Development Report 2011. It also has the highest literacy rate; 93.91%.

Kerala has witnessed significant emigration of its people, especially to the Persian Gulf countries during the Kerala Gulf boom during the 70s and early 80s, and its economy depends significantly on remittances from a large Malayali expatriate community.

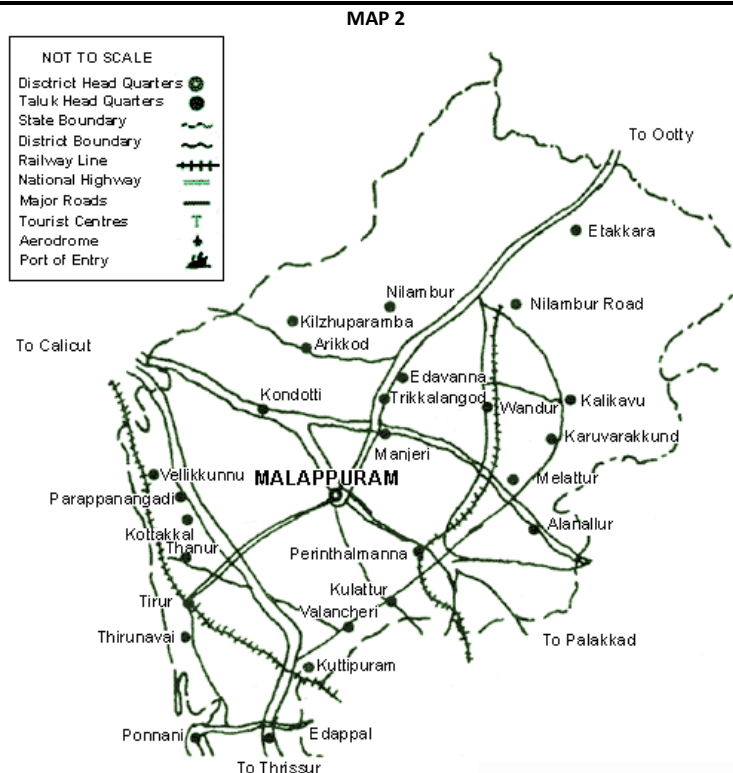
MAP 1



Economy depends significantly on remittances from a large Malayali expatriate community. Hinduism is practiced by the half of the population, followed by Islam and Christianity. Malayalam is the major spoken language. It is considered as the "cleanest state in India", however, the morbidity rate, at 118, is the highest in the country. Culture of the state traces its roots from 3rd century CE. It is a synthesis of Aryan and Dravidian cultures, developed over centuries under influences from other parts of India and abroad. The region had been a prominent spice exporter from 3000 BCE to 3rd century. The Production of pepper and natural rubber contribute to a prominent part of the total national output. In the agricultural sector, coconut, tea, coffee, cashew and spices are important. The state has 590 km of coastal belt, and around 1.1 million people of the state are dependent on the fishery industry which contributes to 3% income of the state. With 145,704 kilometers (90,536 mi) of roads, the state constitutes 4.2% of total India's roadways. There are three existing and two proposed international airports. Waterways are also used as means of transportation. The state has the highest media exposure in India with newspapers publishing in nine different languages; mainly English and Malayalam. Kerala is an important tourist destination, with the backwaters, beaches, Ayurvedic tourism, and tropical greenery among its major attractions.

### MALAPPURAM DISTRICT

Malappuram district is a district in the state of Kerala, south India with headquarters at the city of Malappuram. The district was formed on 16 June 1969. The classic medieval center of Vedic learning and local politics, Thirunavaya, home of the traditional Ayurveda medicine, Kottakkal and one of the oldest centre of education of Islam the region, Ponnani are situated in Malappuram district along with rapidly expanding towns like Manjeri, Perinthalmanna, ChEMmad and Edappal. In 1921, present day Malappuram district witnessed a series of devastating revolts and massacres known as the Moplah rebellions followed by decades of frozen economical, social, and political development. In the early years of the Communist rule in Kerala, Malappuram saw large land reforms under the Land Reform Ordinance. In the 1970s, huge oil reserves of Persian Gulf were opened to commercial extraction, and thousands of unskilled people migrated to "the Gulf" seeking fortunes. They sent money home, propping up a sleepy rural economy, and by late 20th century, the region had achieved first-world health standards and near universal literacy. The present development, both economical and social, of the Malappuram District owes to the Kerala Gulf Diaspora.



The district lies in northern Kerala and is bounded on the north by Wayanad and Kozhikkode districts, on the northeast by Tamil Nadu, on the southeast and south by Palakkad District, on the southwest by Thrissur District, on the west by the Arabian Sea, and on the northwest by Kozhikkode District. At present Malappuram District consists of 2 revenue divisions, 6 taluks, 135 villages, 15 blocks, 7 municipalities and 100 panchayats.

Malappuram district comprises a vast wildlife collection and a number of small hills, forests, little rivers and streams flowing to the west, backwaters and paddy, areca nut, cashew nut, pepper, ginger, pulses, coconut, banana, tapioca, and rubber plantations. Malappuram is one of two Muslim majority districts; it is the most populous district in Kerala. The populations include Muslims, Hindus, and Christians, various tribal religion believers, Buddhists, Sikhs, Jains and others. In 2011, Malappuram had population of 4,110,956 of which male and female were 1,961,014 and 2,149,942 respectively. In 2001 census, Malappuram had a population of 3,625,471 of which males were 1,754,576 and remaining 1,870,895 were females. Its population growth rate over the decade 2001-2011 was 13.39%.

The density of Malappuram district for 2011 is 1,158 people per sq. km. In 2001, Malappuram district density was at 1,021 people per sq. km. Malappuram district administers 3,550 square kilometers of areas. Average literacy rate of Malappuram in 2011 were 93.55 compared to 89.61 of 2001. If things are looked out at gender wise, male and female literacy were 95.78 and 91.55 respectively. For 2001 census, same figures stood at 93.25 and 86.26 in Malappuram District. Total literate in Malappuram District were 3,328,658 of which male and female were 1,608,229 and 1,720,429 respectively. In 2001, Malappuram District had 2,754,509 in its district. With regards to Sex Ratio in Malappuram, it stood at 1096 per 1000 male compared to 2001 census figure of 1066. The average national sex ratio in India is 940 as per latest reports of Census 2011 Directorate. In 2011 census, child sex ratio is 960 girls per 1000 boys compared to figure of 960 girls per 1000 boys of 2001 census data.

### SOCIO-ECONOMIC CODITIONS OF TAMIL MIGRANT

This chapter includes the socio-economic profile of the sample respondents. The primary data is being collected from the regions of Perinthalmanna, Nilambur, Malappuram, Kottakkal, Manjeri, and Arcode belongs to Malappuram District in Kerala through well scheduled questionnaire. The analysis of this sample survey is presented in the following section.

#### PLACE OF ORIGIN

**TABLE 1: DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE MIGRANTS ACCORDING TO THE NATIVE DISTRICT (%)**

| District         | Male         | Female       | Total        |
|------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| Madurai          | 40.0         | 61.0         | 50.5         |
| Dindigul         | 22.0         | 18.0         | 20.0         |
| Theni            | 13.0         | 5.0          | 9.0          |
| Thiruchirappally | 8.0          | 6.0          | 7.0          |
| Selam            | 5.0          | 4.0          | 4.5          |
| Karoor           | 5.0          | ---          | 2.5          |
| Thanjavur        | 3.0          | ---          | 1.5          |
| Toothukudi       | 2.0          | ---          | 1.0          |
| Pudukkottai      | ---          | 4.0          | 2.0          |
| Ramanathapuram   | 2.0          | 2.0          | 2.0          |
| <b>Total</b>     | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> |

Source: Primary Data

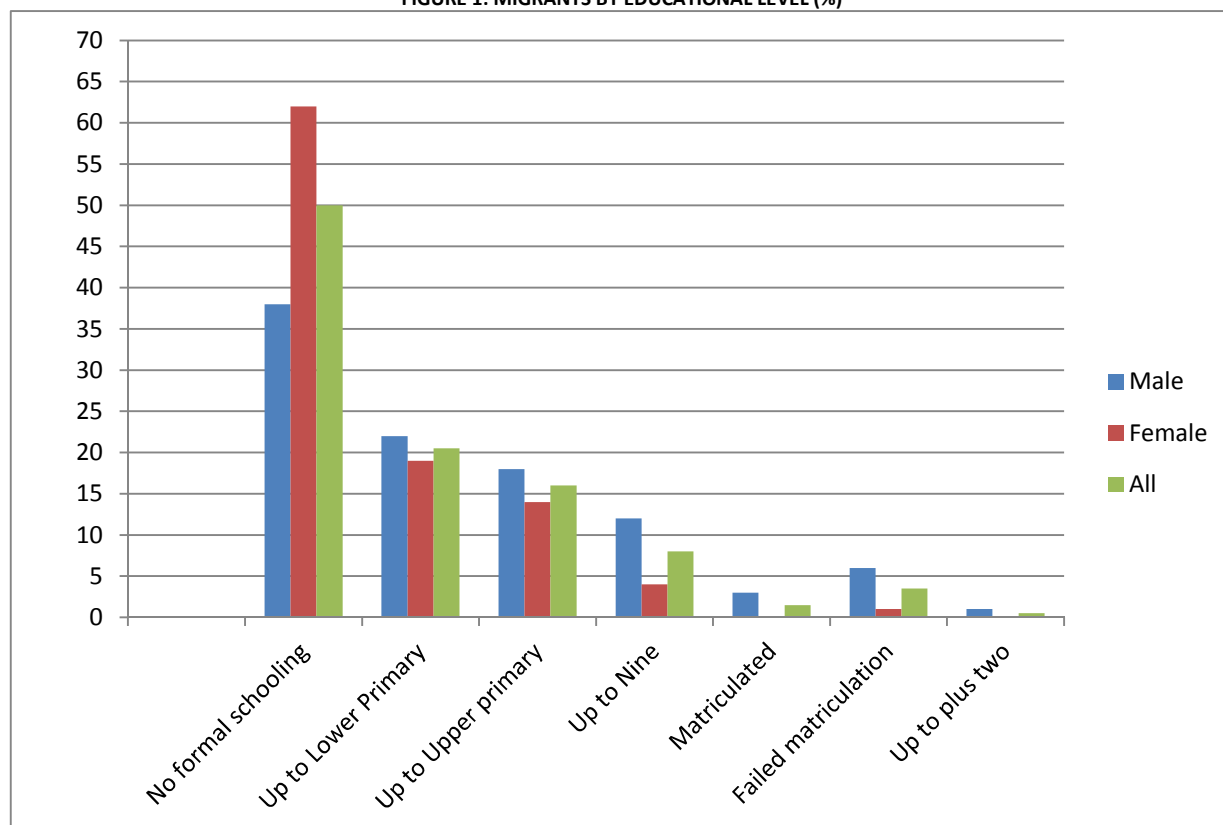
Table 1 provides the details about the native districts of the respondents. Of the 32 districts in Tamil Nadu, migrants from only 10 districts found a place in the sample. Of this, migrants from district Madurai constitute more than half (50.5 per cent) of the sample. Other districts found to have significant representation in the sample include Dindigul (20.0 per cent), Theni and Thiruchirappalli (9, 7 per cent simultaneously). Thus, 86 per cent of the Tamil migrants in our sample were from the four districts mentioned above. While Dindigul, Theni and Madurai are neighboring districts with the first two having borders with Kerala, Thiruchirappally district is located far off from Kerala border. It is possible that the regular daily train services to some of those districts and unfavourable conditions of labours in there have facilitated migration from these far off districts. Most of these migrant workers came from the rural areas of Tamil Nadu.

#### EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

Figure 1 shows that half of the respondents did not have any schooling. The proportion of female workers with no formal schooling was very high that of male workers. It was found that 62 per cent of female were having no formal education, while it was 38 percent for male. However, 1.5 per cent of the male migrants

were matriculates; there was no female migrant completed matriculation. Among male migrants only one fellow completed plus two. It is surprising that about 95 percent of migrants did not complete even matriculation.

FIGURE 1: MIGRANTS BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL (%)



Source: Primary Data

**MARITAL STATUS**

The Table 2 shows that seventy percent of migrants were married. Only 21 percent of migrants were leading single life. However 4 percent of migrants were either widowed or separated. Unmarried workers were more among the males, widowed/separated were more among the females. While migrants leading single life was more than female. Fifty two per cent of the married respondents reside in villages with their spouses while the remaining left their spouse in the village. Among the married male migrants, 62 per cent left their wives in the village. Only 13 per cent of the married women have come to migrated Village leaving their husbands in the home village (not shown in the Table).

TABLE 2: MARITAL STATUS OF MIGRANT LABOURERS (%)

| Marital status | Male         | Female       | All          |
|----------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| Single         | 30.0         | 13.0         | 21.5         |
| Married        | 65.0         | 76.0         | 70.5         |
| Widowed        | 5.0          | 3.0          | 4.0          |
| Separated      | ---          | 8.0          | 4.0          |
| <b>Total</b>   | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> |

Source: Primary Data

**RELIGION**

Table 3 shows large majority of the sample workers are Hindu (86 per cent). Eleven of them are Christians and the remaining two is Muslim. Among female migrants 95 percent of them were Hindus, while for male it was 17 percent less of female. Another notable thing that among migrants there was no single Muslim female migrant and female Christian migrants were also low.

One surprising thing is that, Compared to Muslims and Christians, Hindus tempt to migrate more. People from Muslim community and Christian were economically forward than Hindus.

TABLE 3: RELIGIOUS STATUS OF MIGRANT LABOURERS (%)

| Religion     | Male         | Female       | All          |
|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| Hindu        | 78.0         | 95.0         | 86.5         |
| Christian    | 18.0         | 5.0          | 11.5         |
| Muslim       | 4.0          | ---          | 2.0          |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> |

Source: Primary Data

**CASTE**

Table 4 shows that scheduled Castes constituted 40 per cent and Scheduled Tribes three per cent of the sample. While both general and other back ward class were 28 each.

This sample is giving valuable information that temptation of migration was very high among Hindu Religion particularly among Schedule caste. It was found that Poverty and Poor standard of life among SC were the main cause for the migration of them to Kerala.



TABLE 4: CAST OF MIGRANT LABOURERS (%)

| Cast         | Male         | Female       | All          |
|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| General      | 31.0         | 26.0         | 28.5         |
| OBC          | 23.0         | 33.0         | 28.0         |
| SC           | 42.0         | 39.0         | 40.5         |
| ST           | 4.0          | 2.0          | 3.0          |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> |

Source: Primary Data

**OCCUPATION**

The details of primary occupation of workers before their migration to villages are given in Table 5. One-fourth of the migrant workers were engaged in agriculture and 4 percent of migrants were running small scale businesses in their native places. Majority of them (56%) were unskilled workers, these include shop keepers, helpers for construction of buildings/houses and wood cutters. While skilled labours were only 13 percent, in the skilled labours 'other skilled jobs' constitutes painters, carpenters etc.

Table proved that agriculture was the unique sector which provides majority of employment opportunities, but low price of agricultural products and continuous loss made them force to think differently and migrate to Kerala.

TABLE 5: OCCUPATION – BEFORE OF THE MIGRATION OF LABOURERS (%)

| Category                    | Per cent of respondents |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------|
| <b>Skilled Labour</b>       |                         |
| Mason                       | 5.0                     |
| Gold smith                  | 2.0                     |
| Industrial worker           | 2.0                     |
| Other skilled jobs          | 4.0                     |
| <b>Skilled – Total</b>      | <b>13.0</b>             |
| <b>Agriculture</b>          | <b>24.0</b>             |
| <b>Small Scale business</b> | <b>4.0</b>              |
| <b>Unskilled labour</b>     | <b>56.0</b>             |
| No occupation               | 3.0                     |
| <b>Grand – Total</b>        | <b>100.0</b>            |

Source: Primary Data

Table 6 shows that among migrants 15 percent were engaging in agriculture on the basis of daily wage in the migrated villages and only 1.5 percent were doing small scale business like making of Papa dam. It also shows that about 70 percent of the migrated people were un-skilled workers, while only one by ten migrant were skilled labours and eight percent of female migrants were not going for any work, because they were house wives.

TABLE 6: OCCUPATION – AFTER THE MIGRATION OF LABOURERS (%)

| Category                    | Male         | Female       | Total        |
|-----------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| <b>Skilled Labour</b>       |              |              |              |
| Mason                       | 7.0          | 2.0          | 4.5          |
| Carpenter                   | 3.0          | ---          | 1.5          |
| Gold Smith                  | 2.0          | ---          | 1.0          |
| Painter                     | 2.0          | ---          | 1.0          |
| Other skilled work          | 2.0          | 2.0          | 2.0          |
| <b>Skilled- Total</b>       | <b>16.0</b>  | <b>4.0</b>   | <b>10.0</b>  |
| <b>Un-Skilled Labour</b>    |              |              |              |
| Road Work                   | 23.0         | 42.0         | 32.5         |
| Building/Home Construction  | 33.0         | 31.0         | 32.0         |
| Shop keeper                 | 3.0          | 7.0          | 5.0          |
| <b>Un skilled-Total</b>     | <b>59.0</b>  | <b>80.0</b>  | <b>69.5</b>  |
| <b>Agriculture</b>          | <b>22.0</b>  | <b>8.0</b>   | <b>15.0</b>  |
| <b>Small Scale Business</b> | <b>3.0</b>   | <b>---</b>   | <b>1.5</b>   |
| No Occupation               | ---          | 8.0          | 4.0          |
| <b>Grand -Total</b>         | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> |

Source: Primary Data

Among un-skilled labours, about 80 percent of the migrants were engage in Road work, construction of Home and building and shop keepers. In these, most of the female migrants were working in Road making work (42%) then in Home construction (21%).

It was noticed during the survey that the Tamil labours were ready to take up any job. For instance, the respondents who work in a construction site one day will go for digging wells the next day, cleaning the drain or well. But majority of the respondents reported that they have their own primary employment. Most of the respondents whom we met are unskilled labours. Only nine per cent of them were engaged in some form of skilled jobs. Skilled migrant labourers were engaged in masonry work, painting and plumbing.

**WAGES**

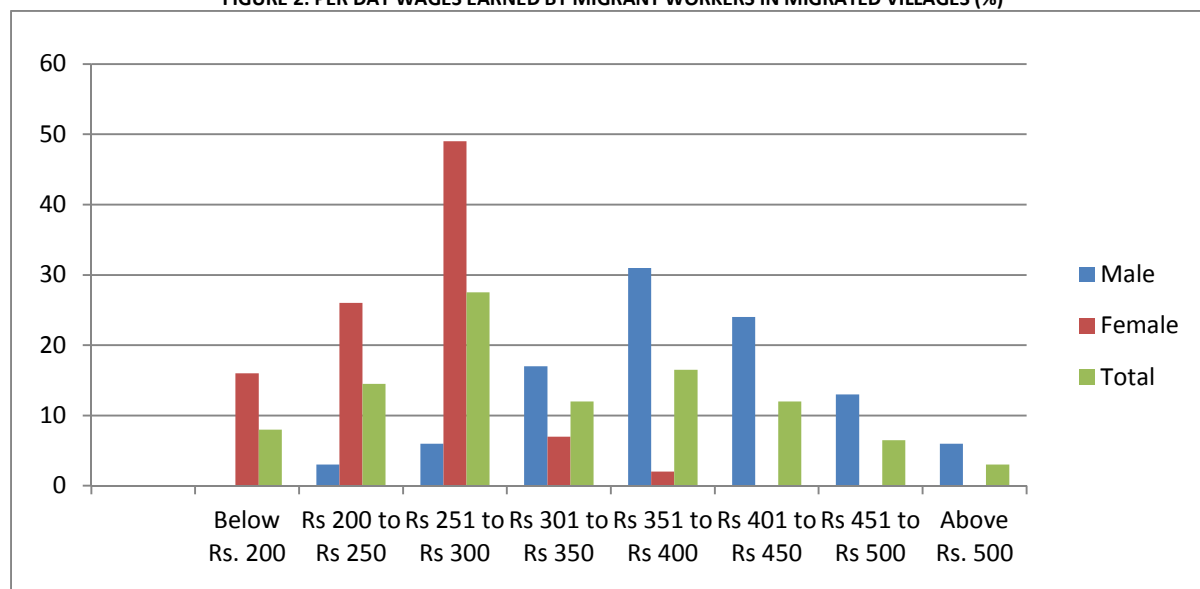
Another important finding in respect of wages of migrants getting in migrated villages shows that about 28 per cent of the migrants have been working for the wage between Rs.251 and Rs.300. And about 17 percent of migrants have been getting the wage rate between Rs.351 and Rs.400 and 15 percent between the wage rate of Rs.200 and Rs.250. It also found that migrants getting wage between Rs.401 and Rs.450 were 24 and more than Rs.450 getting were only 19 percent respondents (figure 2).

The analysis of the sample convinced that all female migrants were getting below the wage rate of Rs.400. Among those, 16 percent of female migrants have been getting below Rs.200 wage. While only 57 percent of the male migrants were getting wage below Rs.400. In that only 3 percent had wage rate below Rs.250. Rest of the male migrants have been getting above Rs.400.

The findings show that there is great in-equality or discrimination in wages between male and female. However both male and female migrants were getting wages higher than what they could earn in their home land.



FIGURE 2: PER DAY WAGES EARNED BY MIGRANT WORKERS IN MIGRATED VILLAGES (%)



Source: Primary Data

The migrant labours were asked about the current wages in their home village. The results are presented in Table 7

TABLE 7: AVERAGE WAGE RATES IN THE VILLAGES AND IN THE PLACES OF ORIGIN

| Particulars         | Wage in Villages | Wage in Home Village |
|---------------------|------------------|----------------------|
| Male                | 377.7273         | 237.3684             |
| Female              | 250.2717         | 144.8387             |
| Total               | 319.6782         | 200.828              |
| Gender Parity Index | 66.257           | 61.018               |

Source: Primary Data

The earnings of the workers after migration were very higher than their earlier earnings in Tamil Nadu. The difference was much higher in the case of women migrants. While women migrant workers get about Rs.250 in migrated villages, they get Rs.144 in their home villages for a day's work. Male migrants get Rs.377 in the migrated villages, while they get Rs.237 in their home villages. The differentials in wage rates of men and women in migrated villages were more than in their native villages as may be seen from the more favorable gender parity index of wage rates. As against 61.012 in the villages of Tamil Nadu, the index for migrated villages was 66.26.

While there is substantial difference between the monetary wages for casual work in migrated villages and in the rural areas of Tamil Nadu, it is important to note that the difference in real wage rates to the migrant workers may not be as high, as they have to incur much higher costs for living in migrated villages than in their native places (e.g. Rent, cost of hotel food, transportation.,).

## MAJOR FINDINGS AND POLICY IMPLICATION

Kerala State has been witnessing large inflow of migrant labour from different parts of the country for the years. Even though labourers from UttarPradesh, Bihar and Orissa, West Bengal now flock to Kerala, those from the neighboring state of Tamil Nadu are big margin. Higher wages for unskilled labour in the state, large opportunities for employment and shortage of local labour led to the massive influx of migrant labour to the state. The sign of rapid growth of state's economy and the increase in activities particularly in the infrastructure and construction sectors are the main cause of in-migration to Kerala.

### MAJOR FINDINGS

The study found that the distribution of Tamil migrants in the migrated villages mainly from those districts in Tamil Nadu which had close relation with Kerala boundary. Regular train service from those places to Kerala was also reason for migration to Kerala. From the total 32 districts it is found that migrants came from 10 districts only.among these Madurai dominate with 50.2% then Dindigul (20%).

In the case of educational status of migrants, more than ninety percent of them were not completed even formal education. Compared to male migrants Female migrants were more uneducated. 62% of female migrants have no formal schooling while it is 38% in the case of male migrants.

The data on marital status of the migrants shows that seventy percent of the migrants were married while most of them did not bring their spouses to migrated places. Among female migrants most of them were coming with their husband to help them.

The study found that about 85 percent of the migrants were belonging to Hindu religion while representatives of other religions were very low. Among Hindu, forty percent of the migrants were SC, others belong to OBC and general category.

It also found that before migration and after migration, Most of the migrants were being un-skilled workers and engaged in less skill required works. While labours belong to skilled category were very low. After migration big portions (32%) of migrants have been engaging in both road and construction works.

Finding on wage indicate that there was high inequality or discrimination in giving wage between male and female migrants and between malayalee workers and migrant workers also.57% of the migrant workers are getting less than 400 rupees per day for their work. It is also noteworthy that migrant workers are getting much more remuneration in migrated places than in their native villages.

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