

**CHARACTERISTICS AND GROWTH OF THE URBAN  
INFORMAL SECTOR AND ITS SOCIO-ECONOMIC  
CONSEQUENCES IN SILIGURI MUNICIPAL  
CORPORATION AREA (SMCA) WITH SPECIAL  
REFERENCE TO RICKSHAW PULLERS AND  
CONSTRUCTION WORKERS**

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*By*  
**Nirupam Gope**  
Lecturer-in-Economics  
Dinhata College

*Under the Supervision of*  
**Dr. K. K. Bagchi, Professor**

**DEPARTMENT OF ECONOMICS  
NORTH BENGAL UNIVERSITY  
Raja Rammohunpur  
Darjeeling  
W.B. [India]**

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## Preface and Acknowledgements

The interest in “Unorganised Sector” was created in my mind by witnessing the role and potentiality of this sector in the development process of the developing countries. This sector has become an important segment of the economy of the developing world. In spite of the rapid industrialisation and expansion of the formal sector the urban areas of developing world have failed to provide employment to all those who have migrated to the cities and towns in search of employment. However the large numbers of rural migrants to the urban areas seem to have created their own employment opportunities by engaging themselves in various informal activities. In spite of multi facet growth profile of the informal sector National and State Governments have overlooked its interest and infrastructure requirements in their development strategies. The present study is based on primary data collected from Rickshaw Pullers and Construction Workers in different locations of Siliguri Municipal Corporation Area (SMCA). The study has been conducted to (a) identify growth of these two groups of informal sector workers ;(b) assess their socioeconomic conditions; (c) portray the working and living conditions; (d) nature of migration and (e) provide a general data base picturesque of the important segment of urban economy.

To me, ‘Making’ suggests the act of doing something with one’s hands. Obviously it entails more than ‘doing’: doing must be the final outcome of an amalgamation of many faculties interacting with one another and determining the final form of the thing made. Books on primary and secondary sources are of immense help to formulate my basic idea. In this context, I would like to express my sincere thanks to the librarians and staff of the central library, NBU; ISEC, Bangalore; ILO, New Delhi.

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Department of Economics  
North Bengal University  
Dated:

(Nirupam Gope)

## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

SMCA	: Siliguri Municipal Corporation Area
RP	: Rickshaw Puller
CW	: Construction Worker
NSSO	: National Sample Survey Organisation
ILO	: International Labour Organisation
LDC	: Least Developed Countries
ICLS	: International Conference of Labour Statisticians
SNA	: System of National Accounts
NAS	: National Accounts Statistics
ASI	: Annual Survey of Industries
OAE	: Own Account Enterprises
UIS	: Urban Informal Sector
CAGR	: Compound Annual Growth Rates
GDP	: Gross Domestic Product
NDP	: Net Domestic Product
NSAP	: National Social Assistance Programme
NOAPS	: National Old Age Pension Scheme
NFBS	: National Family Benefit
NMBS	: National Maternity Benefit Scheme
IAY	: Indira Awas Yojna
LICI	: Life Insurance Corporation of India
SEWA	: Self-Employed Women Association
NGO	: Non Government Organisations
SASPFWU	: State Assisted Scheme of Provident Fund for Unorganised Workers
ICDS	: Integrated Child Development Scheme
PDS	: Public Distribution System
ID	: Identity Card
SPSS	: Statistical Package for Social Science
MS	: Microsoft.
BPL	: Below Poverty Line

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## **CHAPTER-I**

### **INTRODUCTION**

*"The division of workers into formal and informal sectors creates an artificial duality. Through the creation of this artificial duality, the working class was segmented into the organized and unorganized, the formal and informal and was fragmented into urban and rural, male and female agricultural and industrial, and other clear cut black and white categories"*

Prof. John Bremen

*'Down and Out – Labouring under Global Capitalism'*

The above lines sum up the anguish of Prof. Bremen, a social activist of more than four decades standing; they also sum up our/attitude and approach in erecting a wall which is supposed to divide urban and rural, formal and informal and so on. Growth of the informal economy has reached unprecedented and unmanageable proportions adversely affecting quality of employment and working and living conditions.

#### **1.1 Introduction**

Labour markets in developing countries are characterized by a formidable reservoir of workers employed in the urban informal sector who on account of their disadvantageous position are unable to derive the benefits of development and contribute to the process of development to the full extent of their potential. In India more than 93% of the total work force of 380 million is engaged in informal

sector. In the urban areas this figure is close to 65%to 70% [National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO), 1999-2000]. The available evidence suggests that a sizeable proportion of the workers engaged in the urban informal sector are rural migrants. With their poor educational training and skill background, they land up in low paying, semiskilled or unskilled jobs, and lend themselves to a high degree of exploitation. The working environment is often poor; working hours are very long; most prerequisites of a decent employment are nearly conspicuous by their absence.

In India as in most other developing economies, macro economic policy biases against the informal sector, persisted for a long time. Again it is commonly believed that stringent labor laws, rigidities in the labor markets and growing international competition have encouraged the use of capital-intensive technology which has the growth of employment in the informal sector, forcing the informal sector to absorb most of the additional job aspirants.

As the urban informal sector expands, there is bound to be a proliferation of workshops and worksites or intensification in the use of 'informal economic locations'. This would breed and exacerbate environmental problems, such as traffic and health hazards, generally associated with the operation of informal economic activities. Therefore there is an increased demand for suitable sites for such activities with requisite infrastructure and services. Unless the urban development planning proceeds with the appropriate policy and programmes, the prospects for their growth and development cannot be initiated.

In Siliguri Municipal Corporation Area (SMCA) there are areas of visible agglomerations of such activities, particularly along the major transport arteries and streets and in road reservations in the city. They are also concentrated in the other areas, such as, public markets, commercial complexes and bus stations, where crowd congregate throughout day and night. These are people who have no

permanent structure or place for their economic activity. Though many of them tend to occupy the same area in the street for a period of time, they are nevertheless mobile. Some of them are those who push their cycle or cart around the street and have no fixed location. But even then most of them seem to have a defined area of trade.

Our survey of the economic activities undertaken in the informal sector of SMCA reveals that there is a huge diversity in the activities that are undertaken in respect of their type and nature. Activities undertaken range from legal to illegal, temporary and seasonal to permanent, low earning to high earning, dependent to independent and so on. However in spite of their large variety in types and nature they have certain common characteristics, such as, ease of entry, Low levels of fixed investment and labour capital mix, Labour relations based on verbal contract dominated by casual employment and social relations as opposed to formal contracts, skill acquired outside the formal sector, unregulated and competitive market, and tiny size etc. A close observation of the economic activities in the informal sector gives the impression that the size of this sector is growing very rapidly in SMCA. Although the ever increasing number of people engaged in this sector creates pollution, noise and congestion which hampers the qualitative life in Siliguri town, the hard reality is that this sector also provides refuge and employment for a huge number of illiterate/semi-illiterate, unskilled/semiskilled people not only of this bordering districts but also of other bordering districts of the neighbouring states as well as countries at large. The existence and ever expanding size of the urban informal sector is overwhelming in SMCA. This backdrop of SMCA has actuated to identify the characteristics and growth of informal sector of SMCA and its socioeconomic consequences.

It may be noted that SMCA has witnessed a remarkable increase of informal economic activities. The NSSO (55th round 1999-2000) informal sector data reveals that 92.7 % workers are engaged in

informal sector activities compared to 91.2% in 1993-94 in SMCA. 7.3% workers are engaged in formal sector activities compared to 8.8% in 1993-94 in SMCA. The city has specific geopolitical importance. Three foreign countries, viz., Nepal, Bhutan, and Bangladesh envelop this corporation town. In-migration to this area from neighboring countries as well as from other parts of India is one of many factors that expedite the informalisation process. Lack of industrialization, gradual closing down of tea gardens and above all shrinkage of formal sector jobs compel the unemployed people to migrate to this city and engage in informal economic activities.

However due to its enormity it is not possible for me to make an in depth survey of all types of activities in the informal sector. We therefore think it convenient to be selective in our approach so that we can keep our samples within manageable limit. A survey regarding the dominant type of activities in SMCA revealed that rickshaw pulling and work at different civil construction cites of the city are the two activities where a large chunk of informal sector workers are engaged everyday. More than one lakh people from different states and adjoining places come over to Siliguri everyday for different purposes. In 1991- 2006, population growth rate was 118% and population density was 14,159 per sq.km. (Siliguri Municipal Corporation, 2006). As far as rickshaw pulling is concerned, it is mainly an own account job, where obviously, the puller himself maybe the owner of the vehicle or may on hire. However most of the cases the pullers are found to hire rickshaw in lieu of a fixed rental from rickshaw owners. In the job of rickshaw pulling earnings are fairly good when compared with the unskilled and mainly illiterate position of the puller. This is the reason why Rickshaw Pullers (RPs) immigrate to Siliguri city from various parts of the adjacent regions. Occasionally, there are proposals on the part the corporation authority to ban plying of rickshaw through the main streets of the city or to stop the plying of rickshaws altogether

from the roads and streets to reduce the level of traffic congestion. But considering the immense humanitarian and political crisis that would follow as an aftermath of partial and total elimination of cycle rickshaws, the authority changes its position habitually. As far as civil construction works are concerned it is seen that with rapid growth of SMCA scores of such works are going on in and around the city. As a consequence, growing numbers of workers both male and female are crowding into the city. But due to different reasons, their working conditions do not conform to the standard of decent work prescribed by International Labour Organisation [ILO] recently. Since the RPs and the Construction Workers (CWs) form two dominant groups in the informal sector of SMCA, we have drawn samples from these two groups of workers for our research study.

In general, it can be said that labour standards in the informal sector are not in conformity with those that apply in the formal sector. Informal sector workers lack social security, economic support and legal protection. There are some needs that are differentiated among various groups of informal sector workers. They include:

- (i) Social needs - Job security, health care facilities and the promotion of occupational health and safety, protective clothing, protection against income losses during sickness, minimum wage, general infrastructure and environmental sanitation; and
- (ii) Economic needs - Training and education for skills development, basic tools, business premises, financial credit.

While labour legislation and practice widely provide for the interests of all workers, they however reveal some limitations with regard to informal sector workers. Labor legislation does not adequately cater for casual labor with respect to written contracts, worker's compensation, labour inspection, annual and maternity leave. With regard to

regulatory institutions, the ineffective functioning, where they existed at-all, of Public Employment Centers, Labor Inspectorate and Minimum Wage-Fixing and Monitoring Machinery have been noted. Similarly, the marked disuse of the wide discretionary powers of the public authorities for labor protection has been cited (Adu-Amankwah, 1997).

The basic justification to undertake this study is that, almost no study based on primary data has been done on urban informal service sector in SMCA. So we have felt it pertinent at this point of time to carry out an in-depth and meaningful study on the characteristics, growth and socioeconomic consequences of informal sector economic activities, with special reference to rickshaw pulling and construction work, on the household economy of the selected study area.

The present informal sector study has achieved the following goals:

- 1) Characteristics, types, nature and growth of informal service sector at SMCA.
- 2) Socioeconomic profile of RPs and CWs at SMCA.
- 3) Contribution of rickshaw pulling and construction work towards income generation.
- 4) Socioeconomic impact of these two sectors on the people who derive their livelihood from it.
- 5) Nature of migration persists in rickshaw pulling and construction work sector.
- 6) What the state could do to assist this sector.

An exhaustive study on the informal sector on SMCA with special reference to rickshaws and CWs is expected to facilitate the policy makers and planners of the city to adopt appropriate policies to draw

pragmatic plans not only for these two groups, but also for other groups of informal service sector workers in SMCA.

It is generally recognized that a fundamental characteristic of the informal sector is that it is “unorganized”. One of the main reasons why this has been the case is that the sector is very heterogeneous. As the ILO report observed, “the artisans, street vendors, transport operators, small shop owners and wage earners of the informal sector, all have very diverse interest and priorities. Moreover competition within these groups for very small markets may often be an obstacle to group solidarity”. Nevertheless evidences from developing countries suggest that organizations within specific activity or occupational groups or within specific location do emerge and do exist. Further, these organizations, how-ever small they may be, have often successfully defended their interests. They do not only serve as a vehicle to express their view and concern against specific policies and regulations that may be imposed on them without any prior consultation either by the local, regional or national authorities. They also play an important role in overcoming market imperfections especially in the context of subcontracting.

RPs are among the least protected workers in the unorganized sector. Conditions are not regulated nor are their social security issues addressed. The vulnerability of the RPs is further accentuated by the fact that the majority of those who pull rickshaws do not own the rickshaws by themselves. In a city like Siliguri illegal ownership and unlicensed plying add to the complexity of the conditions in the sector. Unorganized CWs can truly be described as sweat labor, and violation of laws on minimum wages, equal wages, child labor, contract labor, inter-state migrant workers, etc. is rampant in construction as in agriculture and home-based occupations. Unionization is not allowed or encouraged, and CWs like many others in the unorganized sector remain invisible and vulnerable, voiceless and un-unionized.

## **1.2 Review of Literature**

There has been a significant outpouring of national and international literature on informal sector in recent years. This has been due to recognition that informal sector play an important role in the economies of developing countries.

**Amin** (1987) made a sample survey in seven areas of the city of Dhaka. The findings of the survey based on four main headings; 1) informal sector activities and employment status, 2) labor force characteristics, 3) earnings and mobility and 4) the role of informal sector in industrial transition. He found that the informal sector is neither a secondary labor market nor merely a sponge to absorb to city's residual labor and it can play an important role in industrial relations.

**AMDA and CMDA** (1995) study reveals that low productivity, uncertainty and irregularity of employment are the major problem associated in informal sector. The study also reveals that employment is often limited to much smaller number of days than that for which the work is sought. The strong competitions among hawkers, waste pickers, RPs, etc., bring down their earnings, often below the statutory minimum wages.

**Anderson** (1998) conducted the first major study of the informal sector in Mongolia. The World Bank, made the study, which was based on a variety of sources of information, including key informant interviews, NSSO data, and an original survey of 770 informals in Ulaanbaatar. Anderson surveyed 308 taxicabs, 245 kiosks, and 217 outdoor market vendors and street informals (e.g. shoe shine, boot repair, outdoor billiards). His study found that while there are benefits

to being informal (non-wage costs of labor are lower, the system of registrations is simpler, access to facilities is easier), there remain clear disadvantages. Many take up work in the informal sector as a result of economic crisis and joblessness. They enter into business without subsidized credit, instead relying on self-financing or borrowing from family or friends. They enter into lines of work that are highly competitive and unregulated. They furthermore often have no permanent place of doing business, and income can be earned only through hard work - illness or disability can mean bankruptcy in the absence of insurance. However, for all the difficulties the informal sector faces, Anderson finds that Ulaanbaatar's informals have been remarkably successful.

**Banerjee** (1983) assumed in his basic hypothesis of probabilistic migration models that informal sector employment is a temporary staging post for new migrants on their way to formal sector employment. The empirical base of his study is a survey conducted from Oct 1975 to April 1976 of migrant's households in Delhi. Empirical evidence indicated that actual and potential mobility from the informal to formal sector was low, education and urban experience were rewarded at the same rate in both sectors and education was one of the important determinants of mobility between sectors. Again low earnings in the informal sector can be eliminated through human capital formation.

**Banerjee, N (1985)** in her work provided a comprehensive analysis of the working conditions of women in the unorganized sector of Kolkata. The objective of the study was three fold: first to get information on a wide range of features of Calcutta's informal sector. Second to examine the nature of women's employment with emphasis on unprivileged women workers. Third, to look at women's experience in

employment and to measure its impact on their status at home and in the society at large. The study conducted in 1976-77, draws a sample of 411 women workers, including some case studies. The main findings revealed that: 1) women's employment in the informal sector embraced a significant number of children and old people; 2) domestic work was no longer the main activity of women workers who were also involved in what were once predominantly male activities and even in new occupations; 3) self employment was not common among the respondents.

**Breman** (1980) regarding developing countries, the low rate of industrialization and productivity, and the presence of surplus labor are listed as principal reasons why a dualistic system arose in the cities of the third world. In addition, it is accepted that due to the old economic mechanism (low technology and intensive use of cheap unskilled and semi-skilled labor) that these countries have, informal activities emerge and grow quite rapidly. This is basically one of the reasons why the informal sector in less developed countries is considered to be a sector for survival.

**Bromley** (1978) studied the ice-cream vendors in Cali (Columbia) who are compelled to rent carts from specific ice cream companies, which obliges them to only, sell the products of that company. Since the price of the ice cream is standardized, the end result is that a fixed percentage of the total sales go to the company, leaving the vendor with a fixed "commission". In these situations it is easier for the vendor to use initiative in sales technique and territory to increase their gross sales and thus their level of income. Where the price of the product is not standardized, additional income may be made by improving the "presentation" of the product and thus increasing the retail price and the effective "commission". In either case, an

opportunity for returns to initiative exists that, albeit limited on the supply side, may allow "successful entrepreneurial" vendors to expand or move up the retail chain. Whether these workers are considered employees or independent contractors, the fact remains that their low overheads allow for a much broader distribution system for such products, and multi-nationals in these nations have deliberately aimed their distribution strategies to favor such small retailers.

**De Soto** (1989), in his work showed a radically different perspective on the informal sector, which was popularized, in the late 1980s in his account of the economic organization of housing, trade, and transport in Lima. For him, the informal economy is not a precisely defined sector, but comprises all extralegal economic activities, including market production and trade as well as direct subsistence production. The origins of the phenomenon are to be found not in the dynamics of the labor market, but rather in the excessive regulation of the state. The "mercantilist" Latin American state survives on the basis of granting the privilege of legal participation in the formal economy to small elite. Informality is the popular response that successfully breaks down this legal barrier.

**Gindling, and Terrell** (2002) in their study investigates the effects of legal minimum wages on the wages and employment of unskilled workers in two sectors – the informal and formal sectors – of a developing country with a complex minimum wage policy that varies both across and within industries over time. They use both individual and panel of data from the annual Costa Rican Household Surveys over the period 1980-1996 to provide estimates of the effects of changes in the lowest legal minimum wage in each industry in a given year on employment, hours worked and wages of unskilled workers. They examine the effect of workers in the informal/formal sector,

using two definitions: a) salaried/self-employed and b) salaried workers in firms with five or more employees vs. salaried workers in firms with less than five employees and self-employed. The results from the regression indicate that the elasticity of the wage to the minimum wage is a positive and significant in the formal sector (both definitions) and negative and significant in the informal sector (both definitions). That is, increases in the minimum wage are negatively impacting wages in the informal (uncovered) sector. With respect to an employment effect, they find evidence in the informal sector, that minimum wage increases have a small positive impact on employment. They also find evidence that the increase in employment in the informal sector occurred because of an increase in the number of part-time workers (while the number of full-time workers did not change significantly).

**Grice,** (1989) made a study in Singapore and Hong Kong. It has been shown that people ventured into hawking by their own choice and not because of lack of opportunities for employment. Obtaining higher income, gaining personal autonomy and achieving greater social and economic mobility were among the reasons given for choosing hawking as an occupation.

**House**, (1984) has focused on the complexity and heterogeneity of informal sector. Analysis show that Nairobi's informal sector is very diversified, both in terms of productivity and income levels generated. He further categorized the informal sector into two sub sectors: an intermediate sector, which appears as a reservoir of dynamic entrepreneurs, and the community of the poor, which contains a large body of residuals and underemployed labor. In Nairobi, the intermediate part of the sector succeeded in expanding and accumulating capital assets, despite the negative attitude pursued by

the public authorities. Linkages to the formal sector by way of subcontracts also appear as benign rather than exploitive.

**Jhabwala and Jumaní** (1988) have focused on the various categories of self employed workers in the informal sector. The authors delineate the informal sector in terms of three categories of self-employed workers; a) small scale vendors, petty traders and hawkers; b) home based producers such as weavers, potters, bidi makers and c) laborers selling their services. This category of workers comprises nearly 45 to 52 percent of the urban workforce in most of the metropolitan cities. Besides it is mostly the women who belong to this category.

**Keith Hart** (1973) has coined for the first time the term “Informal Sector” that is used to describe those activities in Ghana that are not registered with any government authorities and in which workers do not have any protection, includes both self-employment and wage employment. He identified a number of income and employment generating activities in the unremunerated sectors of urban area. The study assimilated that the workers engaged in the unorganized sector are self-employed as against the wage laborers in the organized sector. The new entrants in the urban labor market are particularly the migrants from rural origin were forced to work in the informal sector due to lack of experience and skills required for the formal sector employment.

**Lam**, (1981) conducted a study in Kuala Lumpur and Malacca, Malaysia, and found that the majority of the street hawkers had at least completed primary education. This study produced different findings. As shown, almost half of the hawkers had completed junior secondary school while about 27% have had primary school education.

As expected this shows that younger hawkers were more likely to be better educated than the older group. Generally, although night market hawkers came from lower educational backgrounds, they are by no means the worst educated groups. He pointed out the importance of family and household information in relation to the hawkers' involvement in the profession. Although on average, the night market hawkers have a typical household size; it is worth noting that the majority of them have more than 5 dependents to support. He also found that hawkers in three Malaysian cities of Kuala Lumpur, Malacca and Petaling Jaya had mostly engaged in hawking for positive reasons.

**Lomnitz**, (1977), has made a study about the so called "disguised workers" (informal workers) within the garment industry as well as other industries where the workers are provided material and sometimes equipment within their own home and are then paid a piece rate by the same people, who therefore operate both as their supplier and only "client". It is not difficult to see that these individuals are entirely dependent upon the broker or factory that provides their work, and the only difference between them and in-factory workers is that they are excluded from the legal protection and norms that are supposed to be enforced in factory labor and thus typically receive low salaries and no benefits of formal employment, as well as being unable to organize with their fellow workers because they are excluded from a central work place. As a result, such workers have little opportunity to manipulate the conditions of their work and pay through individual initiative except by working harder and including the labor of other dependents of the household. Furthermore, since the single "supplier/client" can manipulate all the economic conditions within which they work, the piece rate itself can be used to force such extra labor, thus increasing the level of primitive exploitation of the workers.

A study on street vendors in seven cities conducted by the **National Alliance of Street Vendors of India** (NASVI) showed that the lower income groups spend a higher proportion of their income in making purchases from street vendors mainly because their goods are cheap and thus affordable. Had there been no street vendors in the cities the plight of the urban poor would be worse than what it is at present. In this way one section of the urban poor, namely, street vendors, helps another section to survive. Hence though street vendors are viewed as a problem for urban governance, they are in fact the solution to some of the problems of the urban poor. By providing cheaper commodities street vendors are in effect providing subsidy to the urban poor, something that the government should have done.

**McGee** (1977), studied on street vending in Hong Kong. He notes that industrialists appealed to the colonial administration to repress street vending because of a labor shortage in the growing industrial sector at the time, attacking vendors for their "laziness" in choosing street vending over factory work. The fact is, McGee points out, that street vendors simply felt they could earn more on the streets than in the wage sector. In my own research vendors have many times claimed that street vending is also a life style choice, allowing them greater personal freedom and flexibility

**McGee, and Yeung** (1977), have made a study on perceive hawkers as part timers who hold one permanent occupation during the day and trade at night to earn an extra income. They are assumed to be part of "reasonably rich" group of people who are reaping a substantial amount of income through profits from their trading activities. They, in describing various attitudes towards hawkers, pointed out that at the extreme, hawkers are portrayed as shrewd entrepreneurs who have more financial resources than they appear to have.

**Mitra** (1990), analyzed the emergence of slums in the context of rural to urban migration and predominance of urban informal, sector in total employment. Sluggish employment prospects in the high productivity sector leads to a residual absorption of labor in the low productivity sectors and generates a low level of income for workers. Inadequate income in the face of rising land prices virtually rules out their access to land, thereby creating slums in the urban informal sector.

**Norman.V. Loayza** in his work presents the view that the informal economy arises when excessive taxes and regulations are imposed by governments that lack the capability to enforce compliance. The determinants and effects of the informal sector are studied in an endogenous growth model whose production technology depends essentially on congestible public services. The model concludes that changes, both in policy parameters and the quality of government institutions that promote an increase in the relative size of the informal economy will also generate a reduction in the rate of economic growth. The paper then uses data from Latin American countries in the early 1990's to test some of the implications of the model and to provide estimates for the size of the informal sector throughout these countries. The size of the informal sector is found to depend positively on proxies for tax burden and labor-market restrictions.

**Papola**, (1981) has discussed in general the various features of an urban informal sector in a developing economy and has considered the urban informal sector of the city of Ahmedabad as a case study. It also attempts to portray the structure of informal sector in terms of its various segments. The study aimed to estimate the income and employment generating capacity of the informal sector vis-à-vis the

formal sector. The chief hypothesis, which was tested here, pertains to the relative advantage of the informal sector in providing higher employment per unit of capital and output. This study accepts that the small establishments of the informal sector can contribute to the generation of income and employment. The capital intensity gap between sectors is fast declining. The degree of exploitation of workers is higher in the informal sector than the formal sector.

**Prosad and Yogi** (1991) made an attempt to examine the absorptions and mobility of migrant workers in the urban informal sector of Vijayawada city. In this study informal activities have been identified in terms of its employment size and on the heterogeneity of work criterion. All the workers have been into four categories: self-employed, casual worker, domestic worker and informal establishments. They have concluded that the city of Vijayawada has become a prominent center of immigration. It is also found that the number of migrant workers drawn into the informal sector has increased tremendously. The study revealed that the majority of the migrants work in the casual and domestic servant sector.

**Romalet** (1983) reviewed the concept of the informal sector and discusses the relevance and validity of the concept as applied to Calcutta's economy and suggested ways how it can be improved. The analytical framework is re-enforced by a survey of informal sector units – constituted predominantly engineering industries – in a Calcutta slum, pilkhana, Howra. The findings of the survey cover the following aspects: the employment characteristics of the participants; capital invested, turnover and value-added; working of the unit and attitudes and opinions of the entrepreneurs.



**Sethuraman**, (1981) the book contains the findings on informal case studies in Freetown, Lagos, Kano, and Kumasi. He discussed not only the conceptual and measurement problems but also the significance of the urban informal sector to development policy. It also discusses the relationship between the urban informal sector and the urban environment with particular reference to employment. He has shown a close relationship between a rural to urban migration and informalisation.

**Tansel** (2000) in his article considers covered and uncovered wage earners and the self-employed. The analysis is carried out for men and women workers separately in Turkey. The 1994 Turkish Household Expenditure Survey is used to examine how individuals are selected into the covered and uncovered wage earner and the self-employed categories. For the covered wage earners, men's expected wages are about twice the women's wages. For uncovered wage earners, men's wages are near parity with those of women. These results suggest segmentation for men along the formal and informal lines and substantial discrimination against women in the covered private sector.

**Teilhet-Waldrof and Waldrof** (1983) focusing on the informal sector in a neighborhood of Bangkok, offered an analysis of the work behavior of urban self employed categorized in three occupational groups: vendors, brick workers and shopkeepers. The study found that the average earnings of the informants were significantly higher than those of unskilled workers in the formal sector; about a third of the informants had moved from jobs in the formal sector; recent migrants among the self-employed tended to earn less than those born in the city but more after a period of assimilation.

**Thomas** (1988) in his paper illustrated that the informal sector serves as an incubator for a country's ongoing economic development. It acts as a dynamic training ground for the establishment of more formal businesses, and a major vehicle for reducing unemployment. Further, it serves as a vital component of the free market system by performing a number of functions, such as reducing the bargaining power of unions, preventing monopolies, and keeping inflationary pressures, caused by rising costs of rentals, rigid regulations, and high overheads in check.

**Turnham** (1993) has estimated the proportion of informal employment for groups of countries at different levels of development and found that the share of informal employment declines as the level of development rises. His definition of informal sector employment included the wageworkers in small enterprises and the self-employed excepting professionals and technicians.

**Venkat Ratnam**, (1997) has pointed out that a number of informal manufacturing units owe their existence to subcontracting of jobs by informal industries, usually on a piecemeal basis. He again found that there are links between the formal and informal sectors. A considerable percentage of workers belong to both the formal and the informal sector. Moreover, households are often part of both sectors, with one member — usually a male — working in the formal sector, and another member — generally a female — working in an informal sector job or running an informal sector business. Formal enterprises rely on informal workers to a very large extent to supply services, and the lower- and middle-income groups of the formal sector buy goods and services in the informal sector. The producers and traders in the informal sector have to buy most of their materials and merchandise in the formal sector; often they work as suppliers or subcontractors

for formal enterprises. This establishes a mutual dependence, though an asymmetrical one, since informal work can easily be substituted.

### **1.3 Research Hypotheses**

Our Study Has Examined The Following Research Hypotheses:

- 1) That Urban informal sector is rapidly growing in SMCA
- 2) That there are no major differences in the Characteristics of urban informal sector between SMCA to other Indian states.
- 3) That UIS plays a significant role in the household economy and the economy of SMCA.
- 4) That lack of rural employment opportunities as well as poverty is the most important causes behind rural urban migration to informal sector of the SMCA.

### **1.4 Conceptual Framework**

There is no consensus over what constitutes the informal sector. The informal sector is known by many different names according to different contexts and point of view. Variously referred to as the informal economy or unregulated economy or unorganized sector or unobserved employment sector, to cite but a few of its titles, all of them typically refers to both economic units and workers involved in a variety of commercial activities and occupations that operate beyond the realm of formal employment. In the urban context, informal sector refers to small enterprise operators selling food and goods or offering services and as such they become part of the cash economy and are involved on market transactions. This urban informal sector is largely more diverse than the rural one and includes a vast and heterogeneous variety of economic activities through which a substantial portion of urban families earn their livelihoods. Such

activities are generally found in street vending, hawking, domestic works, unlawful trade activities like smuggling etc.

The terms “formal” and “informal” activities have been acknowledged in anthropological studies since 1960s, with meanings closely analogous to their current usage in development theories and employment policies. Yet, they were not widely adapted in the development studies literature until the early 1970s (Bromley, 1979:1035). While most scholars generally recognized that Keith Hart (1971) was the first to use the term “informal sector”, the credit should also be given to Reynolds (1969) who coined the term earlier, as well as to the International Labour Organization (ILO), which launched and popularized the concept into development policies and programmes in its momentous country mission to Kenya in 1972 (Bromley, 1979; Moser, 1979; Charms, 1990).

The term “informal sector”, coined by an ILO mission to Africa in the early 1970s, is invoked to refer to street vendors in Bogotá; shoeshine boys and RPs in Calcutta; garbage collectors in Cairo; home-based garment workers in Manila, Montreal, Madeira, or Mexico City; and home-based electronic workers in the Leeds, Istanbul, and Kuala Lumpur. Some observers feel the sector is simply too varied or heterogeneous to be meaningful as a concept (Peattie 1987). However, in the early 1970s and again in the late 1990s, several independent schools of thought converged on the fact that the informal sector as a whole accounts for a significant share of employment and output and cannot, therefore, be dismissed or disregarded. As we enter the 21<sup>st</sup>. century, it is clear that the informal sector needs to be better understood for its rapid appearance in the economy. In addition, given its large size and diversity, as well as the increasing ties and overlaps with the formal sector, many have expressed the opinion that instead of describing it as a “sector” it would be more appropriate to use the term “informal economy”. Here of the most backward linkages – such

as production, collection and processing – are still carried out informally. Many industrial home workers face insecure jobs and poor working conditions including cramped quarters, poor lighting, long hours, and low wages. Many self-employed producers face increased competition. Very often their access to markets is seen curtailed. It may be true that if the home workers to benefit from new work opportunities are to be endowed with increased bargaining power and more secure contracts. And for home-based producers if they are to get benefit from emerging markets, they need to have increased bargaining power and greater market access.

#### Informal Workers: who are they?

Those who work on the streets or in the open-air are the more visible occupational groups in the informal economy. The streets of cities, towns, and villages in most developing countries – and in many developed countries – are lined by barbers, cobblers, garbage collectors, waste recyclers, and vendors of vegetables, fruit, meat, fish, snack-foods, and a myriad of non-perishable items ranging from locks and keys to soaps and detergents, to clothing. In many countries, head-loaders, cart pullers, bicycle peddlers, RPs, and camel, bullock, or horse cart drivers jostle to make their way down narrow village lanes or through the maze of cars, trucks, vans, and buses on city streets. But the informal economy also includes activities and workers that are less visible and, even, invisible. Less visible informal workers work in small shops and workshops. On the street corners of most cities, towns, or villages, even in residential areas, are countless small kiosks or stalls that sell goods of every conceivable kind. On the crowded lanes of most cities, towns, or villages are small workshops that repair bicycles and motorcycles; recycle scrap metal; make furniture and metal parts; tan leather and stitch shoes; weave, dye, and print cloth; polish diamonds and other gems; make and embroider

garments; sort and sell cloth, paper, and metal waste; and a many more.

The least visible informal workers, the majority of them women, sell or produce goods from their homes: garment makers; embroiderers; incense-stick rollers; bidi- binders; cigarette-rollers; paper bag makers; kite makers; hair band makers; food processors; beauticians and others. These least visible workers are not confined to developing countries. Only home-based workers are to be found around the world, including: garment workers in Toronto; embroiderers on the island of Madeira; shoemakers in Madrid; and assemblers of electronic parts in Leeds. Some of these home-based workers work on their own account, while others work on a piece-rate basis for a contractor or a firm. Other categories of informal work are common in both developed and developing countries: casual workers in restaurants and hotels; sub-contracted janitors and security guards; casual or day laborers in construction and agriculture; piece-rate workers in sweatshops; and temporary office helpers or off-site data processors. Most workers in all of these categories of work are informally employed, without secure contracts, worker benefits, or social protection.

Conditions of work and the level of earnings differ markedly among those who scavenge on the streets for rags and paper, those who produce garments on a sub-contract from their homes, those who sell goods on the streets, and those who work as temporary data processors. Even within countries, the informal economy is highly segmented by location of work, sector of the economy, and status of employment and, across these segments, by social group and gender. But most workers in the informal economy share one thing in common: the lack of formal labour and social protection.

Despite the heterogeneity of the informal economy, those who work in the informal sector can be grouped into several basic employment categories:

**Employer:**

- ◆ Owners of informal enterprises
- ◆ Owner operators of informal enterprises

**Self-Employed:**

- ◆ Own-account workers
- ◆ Heads of family businesses
- ◆ Unpaid family workers

**Wage Workers:**

- ◆ Employees of informal enterprises
- ◆ Casual workers without a fixed employer
- ◆ Home workers (also called industrial outworkers)
- ◆ Domestic workers
- ◆ Temporary and part-time workers
- ◆ Unregistered workers

Of course, some persons belong to more than one of these basic categories: those who change jobs or activities across any given unit of time (day, month, and year) and those who hold more than one job or have engaged themselves in more than one economic activity at any given time.

Over the past 30 years different concepts of informal sector have emerged under different context and point of view, which are as follows: -

**Anthropological Concept**

Reynolds (1969:91) generated a model containing two urban sectors: one of them was the trade service sector, which emerged in the cities

of Less Developed Countries (LDCs). He described it as 'The multitude of people whom one sees thronging the city streets, sidewalks and back alleys in the LDCs: the petty traders, street vendors, coolies and porters, small artisans, messengers, barbers, shoe-shine boys and personal servants.' Reynolds' idea of the "other sector" in the urban economy, however, was not noticed for some time, until Hart's presentation at a conference on Urban Unemployment in Africa held at the Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex in September 1971, which attracted a great deal of interest (Thomas, 1992). His article on Informal Income Opportunities and Urban Employment in Ghana was based on his work in the low-income neighborhood of Lima, Accra in Africa, and was then published in 1973. In that article, Hart (1973) provided a list of activities, which could be divided into formal income opportunities (wage-earning formal sector) and informal income opportunities (self-employed informal sector), either legitimate or illegitimate. Though his definition did not give a clear demarcation between informal and criminal activities - hence received quite a lot of criticism - his definition served as a springboard for the informal sector concept.

### The I.L.O Concept

I.L.O. approach of defining informal sector excluded the illegal activities from the informal sector and concentrated in the productive characteristics, economic efficiency and profit making characteristics of informal activities. They characterized informal sector as: 1) ease of entry; 2) reliance on indigenous resources; 3) family ownership; 4) small scale production; 5) labor intensive adaptive technology; 6) unregulated and competitive market etc.

### Sethuraman Concept

Sethuraman's definition of informal sector was considered an interpretation of ILO's characterization. Sethuraman concentrated his attention in certain operational aspects regarding enterprises rather than the activities of informal sector. He defined the informal sector as "small scale units engaged in the production and distribution of goods and services with the primary objective of generating employment and income". He identified nine employment characteristics of the enterprise which are likely to be found in manufacturing, construction, transport, trade and service sectors:

- (1) It employs 10 persons or less (including part-time and casual workers),
- (2) It operates on an illegal basis, contrary to the government regulations,
- (3) It employs family members or relatives,
- (4) It does not observe fixed working hours or days of operation,
- (5) It operates in a semi-permanent or temporary structure or in a shifting location,
- (6) It does not use electricity in the manufacturing process,
- (7) It does not depend on formal financial institutions for its credit needs,
- (8) It produces and distributes outputs, which are normally intended to reach the final consumer in a direct basis, and
- (9) it employs workers who mostly only have fewer than six years of formal schooling.

### PREALC concept

This concept focuses on the labor market. It described informal sector as alternative to open unemployment. Informality according to this concept is the combined result of high urbanization rates and incapacity of the modern sector to absorb them. Rural to urban migration, slow expansion of formal employment are some of the characteristics under this view. It mentioned some criterion for informal sector as:

- 1) Servants, casual workers, own account workers, less than five workers in an enterprises and
- 2) Income below some minimum level.

#### Petty commodity product concept

This is the Marxist view of defining informal sector concept. This concept was developed by Garry, Bromley and Birkbeck. They mentioned exploitative and unequal interdependence between the formal and informal economy, specially, focusing its attention in exploring the capacity of some informal activities to provide several basic inputs that the capitalist firms are unable to produce profitably. Garry and Bromley developed the category of casual work employment. This new category was used to show continuum stretching from stable wage work to true self-employment. They characterized informal sector as:

- 1) Activities outside the capitalist production.
- 2) Coexistence with modern economy.
- 3) Opportunities for additional earnings.

#### Institutional concept

Another perspective of the informal sector vastly popularized since the late 1980s has been that proposed by De Soto and his team of researchers of the Institute of Liberty and Democracy. He never associated informality with a precise sector but relates the informality to "economic activities that contravene official regulations but that do not involve murder, theft, violence or other obvious criminal acts. Informality under this view is a rebellion from below against the regularity constraints derived from the negative and erroneous role of the state.

### Structuralist concept

The informal economy under this view does not constitute a set of marginal activities excluded from the benefits of the formal sector. Instead it represents an integral part of modern economy, which is present even in developed economy. Informality cannot be associated with poverty nor activities performed by destitute people on the margin of society, rather a procyclical mechanism of firms to withstand the crisis and international competition through decentralization of production and avoidance of taxation.

For the purposes of the present study of informal sector workers of SMCA with special reference to RPs and CWs we shall follow the concept given by Sethuraman. He has identified nine employment characteristics of an informal sector enterprise of which some of the characteristics are common in the case of the two activities selected by us.

### **Linkages with the Formal Economy**

There are three well-known schools of thought regarding the links between the informal and the formal economies: the proponents of these schools are referred to as, respectively, the dualists, the structuralists, and the legalists. The stylized views of each of these schools can be summarized as follows.

The dualists view the informal economy as a separate marginal sector – not directly linked to the formal sector – that provides income or a safety net for the poor (ILO 1972). They argue that the informal economy exists or persists because economic growth or industrial development has failed, as yet, to absorb those who work in the informal economy.

The structuralists view the informal economy as being subordinated to the formal economy (Castells and Portes 1989). They argue that privileged capitalists in the formal economy seek to erode employment

relations and subordinate those who work in the informal economy in order to reduce their labour costs and increase their competitiveness. The legalists view informal work arrangements – or, more specifically, unregistered businesses - as a rational response to over-regulation by government bureaucracies (De Soto 1990). They argue that those who run informal businesses do so to reduce their own costs and increase their own wealth.

In brief, what distinguishes each of these schools is their underlying model of power or power relationships. The dualists subscribe to the notion that there are few (if any) power relationships between those who work in the informal and the formal economies. The structuralists subscribe to the notion that the formal economy exerts a dominant power relationship over the informal economy in its own interests. The legalists subscribe to the notion that informal entrepreneurs exercise their own power – or choice – to operate informally as a response to unreasonable bureaucratic controls.

### **Factors Responsible for Informalisation**

Over the past two decades, despite predictions to the contrary, employment in the informal economy has risen rapidly in all regions of the developing world and various forms of non-standard employment have emerged in most regions of the developed world. In the developing world, it was only the once-rapidly-growing economies of East and Southeast Asia that experienced substantial growth of modern sector employment. However, in the wake of the financial crisis, most of these countries experienced a substantial decline in formal wage employment and a concomitant rise in informal employment. How many retrenched workers have been reinstated in formal jobs as these economies have begun to recover from the crisis is not yet known. Even before the Asian crisis, official statistics indicated that the share of the informal economy in the non-agricultural workforce ranged from

over 55 percent in Latin America to 45-85 percent in different parts of Asia to nearly 80 percent in Africa (Charmes 1998a).

Why has the informal economy continued to expand and grow? There is no simple answer to this question as different causal factors are at work in different contexts. However, some mix of the following sets of factors would explain the persistence or expansion of the informal economy in most countries, regions, or industries. The first set of factors relates to the pattern of economic growth. Some countries have experienced little or no economic growth, while others have pursued capital-intensive growth or what some observers call "jobless growth". In both such contexts, not enough jobs are created for all those seeking work. Many frustrated formal job seekers find employment or create their own work in the informal economy. Another pattern of economic growth - "high tech" growth - tends to create more high-skill service sector jobs than lower-skill manufacturing jobs. In such contexts, those without the skills to compete for high-tech formal jobs find work or continue to work in the informal economy. There is another, more optimistic, scenario: namely, "growth from below". In some regions, countries, or industries, the small business and micro-business sectors are more dynamic and create more jobs than the formal sector.

The second set of factors has to do with economic restructuring and economic crisis. Available evidence suggests that during periods of economic adjustment, whether due to economic reforms or economic crises, the informal economy tends to expand. This is because, retrenched workers move into the informal economy when public enterprises are closed or the public sector is downsized. This is also because households need to supplement formal sector incomes with informal earnings in response to inflation or cutbacks in public services.

The third set of factors relates to the globalization of the world economy. Global trade and investment patterns tend to privilege capital, especially companies that can move quickly and easily across borders, and to disadvantage labor, especially lower-skilled workers that cannot migrate easily or at all (Rodrik 1997). To increase their global competitiveness, more and more investors are moving to countries that have low labor costs or shifting to informal employment arrangements. Furthermore, there has been a radical restructuring of production and distribution in many key industries characterized by outsourcing or subcontracting through global commodity chains. The net result is that more and more workers are being paid very low wages and many of them have to absorb the non-wage costs of production. Globalization also tends to privilege large companies who can capture new markets quickly and easily to the disadvantage of small and micro entrepreneurs who face difficulties gaining knowledge of - much less access to - emerging markets. In sum, globalization puts pressure on low-skilled workers and petty producers by weakening their bargaining power and subjecting them to increasing competition.

Available evidence suggests that globalization of the economy tends to reinforce the links between poverty, informality, and gender. This is because global competition tends to encourage formal firms to shift formal wage workers to informal employment arrangements without minimum wages, assured work, or benefits and to encourage informal units to shift workers from semi-permanent contracts without minimum wages or benefits to piece-rate or casual work arrangements without assured work, minimum wages, or benefits. This is also because globalization often leads to shifts from secure self-employment to more precarious self-employment, as producers and traders lose their market niche. With these shifts, and as more and more men enter the informal economy, women tend to be pushed to the lowest

income end of the informal economy: for example, as petty traders or as industrial outworkers.

But globalization can also lead to new opportunities for those who work in the informal economy in the form of new jobs for wageworkers or new markets for the self-employed. However, a collaborative effort on the part of grassroots organizations of those who work in the informal economy with sympathetic representatives of non-governmental, research, government, private sector, and international development organizations is needed to enable the most vulnerable segments of society to seize these opportunities.

As the pace of globalization and economic liberalization pick up in the coming years, and the formal sector jobs require more education, training and skill, it is the informal sector that can emerge as a saviour of the unskilled and semiskilled jobs aspirants whose number is increasing.

Until recently government policy has given little attention to the informal sector. However it was considered that with economic growth, the formal sector would witness a sizeable expansion and that most of the surplus labor would be absorbed by it. In India in spite of a reasonably strong growth of around 5%to 6%; this has not happened. On the contrary, the informal sector has continued to grow, along with worsening employment and living conditions.

For this to happen, there needs to be a much more detailed picture of those who crowd in the informal economy and their nature of work, at the same time a more detailed analysis of how globalization, particularly trade and investment policies, are affecting the employment arrangements and income sources of those who work in the informal economy.

## **1.5 Chapterisation**

Our Study Constitutes the Following Chapters:

Chapter-1: Introduction

Chapter-2: Characteristics and Growth of Urban Informal Sector in India and West Bengal.

Chapter-3: Nature, Magnitude and Causes of Growth of Urban Informal Sector in Siliguri Municipal Corporation Area

Chapter-4: Income, Employment and Living Conditions of Rickshaw Pullers and Construction Workers.

Chapter-5: Characteristics of Migrant Rickshaw Pullers and Construction Workers.

Chapter-6: Consequences of Migration of Rickshaw Pullers and Construction Workers on Their House Hold Economy and the Economy of Siliguri Corporation Area.

Chapter-7: Need for Social Security in These Two Sectors in SMCA.

Chapter-8: Summary ~~and~~ Conclusions and Suggestions.

## **1.6 Research Methodology**

The area of study is SMCA in the district of Darjeeling of the state of west Bengal. The people who are engaged in construction work and rickshaw pulling in Siliguri corporation area is our universe of study. Three types of sampling have been followed, viz., the stratified, random and purposive sampling. For collecting primary data on RPs we purposively had chosen 12 rickshaw stands at busy road crossings from different locations of the city. Again for collecting primary data from CWs, we purposively had chosen select 12 civil construction sites from different parts of the city. Selected RPs and CWs of all age groups were interviewed using a more detailed structured questionnaire and were compensated for the time. The unit of observation is an individual RP and an individual CW. The total size of

the sample is 410 workers comprising of 205 RPs and 205 CWs. Primary data has been collected through personal interaction with the respondents using structured questionnaires designed to elicit quantitative and qualitative data. In total 2 sets of questionnaires have been used each for the workers of RPs and CWs. Secondary data has been collected from sources like NSSO, different Census reports, books, journals, bulletins, official documents and reports, unpublished PhD thesis and other relevant sources.

### **1.7 Data Collection**

Data on the magnitude and growth of the informal sector in India, west Bengal and Siliguri municipal corporation area has been collected from secondary sources as noted above from various offices of the central and state government and from the office of the SMCA. Primary data have been collected on the nature, characteristics and magnitude of the informal service sector in Siliguri city. Data from selected respondents have been collected on their income, consumption, employment, migration and other facets of their life having relevance with the stated objectives of our study.

### **1.8 Data Processing**

Manual calculation as well as computer programming is used for data processing. Some descriptive and inferential statistics have been used. Different frequency distributions along with their percentage, relative frequencies have been presented. For those frequency tables, Pearsonian chi-square tests of significance for (a) Goodness of Fit, (b) Homogeneity, and (c) Independence have been done.

For the variables like individual income, household income, individual savings, household savings, individual consumption, household consumption etc, measures of central tendencies like arithmetic mean (along with standard error), dispersions like standard deviation,

coefficient of variations, (along with minimum and maximum values) have been calculated to compare the averages and variabilities. Test of significance for equality of means have been done by t-test and F-test. Bivariate and Multivariate regression analysis along with their test of significance have been done. In this case t-test and F-test have been done. Multiple co-relation co-efficient have been shown with regression analysis.

Pie chart and column bar charts have been done for graphical presentations. \* and \*\* have been shown to indicate significance labels ( $p<.05$ ) and ( $p<.01$ ) respectively. Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) and Microsoft (MS)-Excel and other softwares have used for the above purpose.

## **CHAPTER-II**

### **CHARACTERISTICS AND GROWTH OF URBAN INFORMAL SECTOR IN INDIA AND WEST BENGAL**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

The term 'informal sector' has been debated much during the last decade for want of a universally acceptable definition. Various issues relating to the concept and definition of the informal sector were discussed in the Fifteenth International Conference of Labour Statisticians held in January 1993 (ICLS-1993) at Geneva and a Resolution (Resolution-II) concerning statistics of employment in the informal sector was adopted at the end of the conference. Later, the System of National Accounts (SNA) (1993) recommended by United Nations also endorsed this resolution with regard to the concept of informal sector. The concept and definition of the informal sector as per the resolution adopted at the Fifteenth International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS-1993) is briefly presented below.

(a) Informal sector may be broadly characterized as consisting of units engaged in the production of goods or services with the primary objective of generating employment and incomes to the persons concerned. These units typically operate at low level of organisation, with little or no division between labour and capital as factors of production and on a small scale. Labour relations, where they exist, are based mostly on casual employment, kinship, or personal or social relations rather than contractual arrangements with formal guarantees.

(b) The production units in informal sector have characteristic features of household enterprises. The owners of these production units have to

raise the necessary finance at their own risk and are personally liable, without limit, for any debts or obligation incurred in the production process. Expenditure for production is often indistinguishable from household expenditure. The capital goods<sup>1</sup> may be used indistinguishably for the business and household purpose. The fixed and other assets used do not belong to the production units as such but to their owners.

(c) Activities performed by production units of the informal sector are not necessarily performed with the deliberate intention of evading the payment of taxes or social security contributions, or infringing labour or other legislations or administrative provisions. Accordingly, the concept of informal sector activities should be distinguished from the concept of activities of the hidden or underground<sup>2</sup> economy.

## **2.2 Definition of Informal Sector**

(a) For statistical purpose, the informal sector is regarded as a group of production units, which form part of the household sector as household enterprises<sup>3</sup> or equivalently, unincorporated enterprises owned by households.

(b) Within the household sector, the informal sector comprises of '*informal own account<sup>4</sup> enterprises*' and the '*enterprises of informal employers*'.

(c) The informal sector is defined irrespective of the kind of work place where the productive activities are carried out, the extent of fixed capital assets used, the duration of the operation of enterprise (perennial, seasonal or casual), and its operation as a main or secondary activity of the owner.

According to the United Nations System of National Accounts (SNA) (Rev. 4), *household enterprises* (or equivalently unincorporated enterprises owned by households) are units engaged in the production of goods or services, which are not constituted as separate legal

entities independently of the households or household members that own them, and for which no complete sets of accounts are available which would permit a clear distinction of the production activities of the enterprises from the other activities of their owners. The household enterprises include unincorporated enterprises owned and operated by individual household members or by two or more members of the same household as well as unincorporated partnerships formed by members of different households.

### **2.3 Informal Sector in the Indian Context**

(a) The expert group, constituted by Department of Statistics, Government of India, for defining the informal sector in its meeting held on November 5, 1998 felt that 'Informal Own Account Enterprises' and 'Enterprises of the Informal Employers' as mentioned in the resolution adopted at the Fifteenth International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS-1993) are conceptually close to that defined in the Indian Statistical System', i.e., 'Own Account Enterprises' and 'Establishments' with at least one hired worker. This definition which is enterprise based provides a good coverage of enterprises to work out the value added by industry groups required for the National Accounts Statistics. The group also felt that the work force in the Informal Sector could be better measured through the household surveys by taking into account the principal and subsidiary activities of each member of the household. In India, the term 'informal sector' has not been used in the official statistics or in the National Accounts Statistics (NAS). The terms used in the Indian NAS are 'organised' and 'unorganised' sectors. The *organised sector* comprises of enterprises for which the statistics are available regularly from the budget documents or reports, annual reports in the case of Public Sector and through Annual Survey of Industries in case of registered manufacturing. On the other hand, the *unorganised sector* refers to those enterprises

whose activities or collection of data is not regulated under any legal provision and or those which do not maintain any regular accounts. Non-availability of regular information has been the main criteria for treating the sector as unorganised. This definition helps to demarcate organised from the unorganised. For example, units not registered under the Factories Act 1948 constitute unorganised component of manufacturing on account of activity not regulated under any Act. In case of the sectors like trade, transport, hotels & restaurants, storage and warehousing, and services, all non-public sector units constitute the unorganised sector. However, the enterprises covered under Annual Survey of Industries (ASI) do not fall under the purview of unorganised sector survey.

(b) The NSSO conducted the first ever nation-wide survey on informal sector non-agricultural enterprises during 55th round (July 1999 - June 2000). Information on workers including those working in the proprietary and partnership non-agricultural enterprises was also collected for each member of the household during employment-unemployment survey. In this survey, all unincorporated proprietary and partnership enterprises were defined as informal sector enterprises. This definition differs from the concept of unorganised sector used in National Accounts Statistics. In the unorganised sector, in addition to the unincorporated proprietary or partnership enterprises, enterprises run by cooperative societies, trusts, private and public limited companies (Non ASI) are also covered. The informal sector can therefore be considered as a subset of the unorganised sector.

The informal nature of farm and non-farm activities in rural areas causes this trend of overwhelming presence of unorganized sector in India. Thus, nearly 95 percent of rural workforce is engaged in unorganized activities whereas barely five percent of rural workers are found in formal economic activities. The gender break-up of

workforce in informal sector in rural areas suggest that roughly 97 percent and 94 percent of male and female workers are found in unorganized sector respectively. On the other hand, roughly two-third of the urban labourers constituting around 76 percent are engaged in unorganized sector and the rest one-third of them are engaged in organized segment. As far as male and female break-up is concerned, the results shows that the former accounted for little over one third while the latter around 80 percent in the urban unorganized sector (55<sup>th</sup> round NSS, 1999-2000).

Although the informal nature of farm activities in rural areas is well documented, even non-agricultural activities appear to be extremely unorganized in nature in India. Estimates derived from non-agricultural sector reveals that nearly 80 percent of the workers are unorganized and the rest belongs to the category of formal employment. Further, nearly 80 percent of rural non-farm activities are found to be in the informal sector, while the share of the informal sector in urban areas accounts to around 75 percent (55<sup>th</sup> round NSSO, 1999-2000).

About 369 million workers constituting 92.9 per cent of the total workforce in our country are employed in the informal sector as per NSS Survey 1999-2000. It plays a vital role in terms of providing employment opportunity to large segment of the working force in the country and contributes to the national product significantly. The contribution of the informal sector to the net domestic product and its share in the total Net Domestic Product (NDP) at current prices has been over 60% (NAS, 2003). In the matter of savings the share of household sector in the total gross domestic saving mainly informal sector is about three fourth. Thus informal sector has a crucial role in our economy in terms of employment and its contribution to the NDP, savings and capital formation. At present Indian economy is passing through a process of economic reforms. It has been experienced that

formal sector could not provide adequate opportunities to accommodate the workforce in the country and informal sector has been providing employment for their subsistence and survival. Keeping in view the existing economic scenario, the informal sector will expand further in the years to come. Thus, it needs to be strengthened and activated so that it could act as a vehicle of employment provider and social development.

**Table-2.1**

**Share of Organised and Unorganised Workforce in India, 1999-00**

<b>Sector</b>	<b>Organised Workforce</b>			<b>Unorganised Workforce</b>			<b>(In Percent)</b>
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	
<b>Overall Workforce</b>							
Rural India	6.39	3.11	5.23	93.60	96.89	94.77	
Urban India	24.23	19.57	23.30	75.77	80.43	76.70	
All-India	10.91	5.28	9.10	89.07	94.67	90.87	
<b>Non-Farm Workforce</b>							
Rural India	16.15	9.49	14.72	83.95	90.51	85.28	
Urban India	25.66	23.30	25.24	74.34	76.70	74.76	
All-India	21.14	15.91	20.12	78.86	84.09	79.88	

*Source: Computed from Unit Level Records of Employment-Unemployment Survey, 55th round of NSSO, 1999-00*

## **2.4 Characteristics of Workers in Informal Sector**

Those who work on the streets or in the open-air are the more visible occupational groups in the informal economy. The streets of cities, towns, and villages in most developing countries – and in many developed countries - are lined by barbers, cobblers, garbage collectors, waste recyclers, and vendors of vegetables, fruit, meat, fish, snack-foods, and a myriad of non-perishable items ranging from locks and keys to soaps and detergents, to clothing. In many countries, head-loaders, cart pullers, bicycle peddlers, RP, and camel, bullock, or horse cart drivers jostle to make their way down narrow village lanes

or through the maze of cars, trucks, vans, and buses on city streets. But the informal economy also includes activities and workers that are less visible and, even, invisible. Less visible informal workers work in small shops and workshops. On the street corners of most cities, towns, or villages, even in residential areas, are countless small kiosks or stalls that sell goods of every conceivable kind. On the crowded lanes of most cities, towns, or villages are small workshops that repair bicycles and motorcycles; recycle scrap metal; make furniture and metal parts; tan leather and stitch shoes; weave, dye, and print cloth; polish diamonds and other gems; make and embroider garments; sort and sell cloth, paper, and metal waste; and a many more.

The least visible informal workers, the majority of them women, sell or produce goods from their homes: garment makers; embroiderers; incense-stick rollers; bidi- binders; cigarette-rollers; paper bag makers; kite makers; hair band makers; food processors; beauticians and others. These least visible workers are not confined to developing countries. Only home-based workers are to be found around the world, including: garment workers in Toronto; embroiderers on the island of Madeira; shoemakers in Madrid; and assemblers of electronic parts in Leeds. Some of these home-based workers work on their own account, while others work on a piece-rate basis for a contractor or a firm. Other categories of informal work are common in both developed and developing countries: Casual workers in restaurants and hotels; sub-contracted janitors and security guards; casual or day laborers in construction and agriculture; piece-rate workers in sweatshops; and temporary office helpers or off-site data processors. Most workers in all of these categories of work are informally employed, without secure contracts, worker benefits, or social protection.

Conditions of work and the level of earnings differ markedly among those who scavenge on the streets for rags and paper, those who produce garments on a sub-contract from their homes, those who sell

goods on the streets, and those who work as temporary data processors. Even within countries, the informal economy is highly segmented by location of work, sector of the economy, and status of employment and, across these segments, by social group and gender. But most workers in the informal economy share one thing in common: the lack of formal labour and social protection.

## **2.5 Magnitude of Workforce Engaged in the Informal Sector**

According to NSSO (1999-2000), the total employment in both formal and informal sector in the country was of the order 397 million. Out of this, 28 million (7.1 per cent) were in the formal sector and the balance of 369 million (92.9 per cent) were in the informal sector [Table-2.2]. The break-up of the informal sector reveals that 237 million (59.7 per cent) were employed in agriculture, 17 million (4.3 per cent) were employed in construction, 41 million (10.3 per cent) in manufacturing and 37 million (9.3 per cent) in trade, transport and communication and 37 million (9.3 per cent) in personal and community services.

**Table-2.2**  
**Total employment in formal and informal sector [1999-2000]**

	Number (million)	% of total
<b>1. Organized sector</b>	28	7.1
<b>2. Unorganized sector</b>	369	92.9
a. Agriculture	237	59.7
b. Construction	17	4.3
c. Manufacturing	41	10.3
d. Trade, transport and Communication	37	9.3
e. Personal ad community services	37	9.3
<b>Total (1+2)</b>	<b>397</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: *The Ministry of labour in its annual report 2004-05 (Para 8.2)*

Out of 41 million workers in informal manufacturing sector, about 24 million (65 %) are in rural areas and about 13 million (35%) are in urban areas [Table-2.2]. Percentage of female workers to the total workers is 20.2 percent. It reveals that over a decade, the employment in the informal sector has been almost stagnant or slightly declined. The workers in unorganised sector fall into various categories but a large number of them are home based workers which are engaged in occupations like beedi rolling, agarbatti making, papad making, tailoring, jari and embroidery work. From the various reports it is evident that current data (after 1999-2000) regarding unorganised workers is not available. However reports also does not contain any specific data to ascertain the magnitude of contract and casual workers working in organised sector industries or public sector industries in India.

**Table-2.3**

**Workers in Organized and Unorganized Sector in India [1999-2000]**

Sr. no.	<b>Sectors</b>	<b>Total</b>  1	<b>Organized Sector</b>			<b>(In million)</b> <b>Unorganized Sector</b>	
			<b>Public Sector</b>	<b>Private Sector</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>5=1-4</b>	<b>5 as % of 1</b>
			2	3	4	5	6
1	<b>Agriculture</b>	190.94	0.52	0.87	1.39	189.55 (61.40)	99.30
2	<b>Mining &amp; Quarrying</b>	2.26	0.93	0.09	1.02	1.24 (0.40)	54.90
3	<b>Manufacturing</b>	40.79	1.57	5.18	6.75	34.04 (11.00)	83.50
4	<b>Electricity, Gas &amp; Water Supply</b>	1.15	0.96	0.04	1.00	0.15 (0.00)	13.00
5	<b>Construction</b>	14.95	1.11	0.07	1.18	13.77 (4.50)	92.10
6	<b>Trade, Hotels &amp;</b>	37.54	0.16	0.32	0.48	37.06	98.70

	<b>Restaurants</b>					(12.00)	
7	<b>Transport, Storage &amp; Communications</b>	13.65	3.08	0.07	3.15	10.50 (3.40)	76.90
8	<b>Finance, Insurance, Real Estate &amp; Business Services</b>	4.62	1.30	0.35	1.65	2.97 (1.00)	64.20
9	<b>Community, Social &amp; Personal Services</b>	30.84	9.79	1.70	11.49	19.35 (6.30)	62.70
	Total	336.75 (100.00)	19.42 (5.77)	8.70 (2.58)	28.11 (8.34)	308.64 (100.00)	91.66

Note-Column percentage in brackets

Source: NSSO, 1999-2000.

Employment in the organized sector has been hardly 8.34 per cent, of which public sector accounts for 5.77 per cent and private sector only 2.57 per cent in the total employment generated in 1999-2000. The main source of employment generation is the unorganized sector of the economy including self employment and small business with 92 per cent of the total employed labour force. Among all other activities mentioned in the Table-2.3, small and medium enterprises contribute to nearly 80 per cent of manufacturing employment and its employment elasticity is 3.8 times more than the organized sector.

**Table-2.4**  
**Output, Employment and Productivity of Organized and Unorganized Sector in India**

(In percentages)

Variables	Year	Organized Sector	Unorganized Sector	Total
<b>Value-added (at 1993-94 prices)</b>	1993-1994	36.80	63.20	100.00
	1999-2000	41.10	58.90	100.00
<b>Growth Rate %</b>		8.50	5.27	6.52
<b>Employment (million)</b>	1993-1994	8.60	91.40	100.00
	1999-2000	8.35	91.65	100.00
<b>Growth Rate %</b>		0.56	1.12	1.07
<b>Employment</b>		0.066	0.213	0.165

Elasticity				
<b>Labour Productivity (Per cent per annum)</b>		7.88	4.10	5.38

Source: Ruddar Dutt (2003): *Employment Policies and Unorganized Sector (p.206)*  
*Economic Reforms, Labour and Employment - Deep and Deep Publications*  
*Put.Ltd, Delhi.*

Value added at 1993-94 prices (Table-2.4) is more in unorganised sector than organised sector with 58.9% bur rate of growth in organised sector is higher than unorganised sector. Employment growth rate of unorganised sector is much higher than the organised sector. In case of employment elasticity, unorganised sector accounts more than organised sector with .213. But labour productivity in unorganised sector is far less than organised sector.

## **2.6 Growth of Unorganised Employment in India: Residual Estimates**

The broad employment trends for the organized and unorganized sector are depicted in Table-2.5 for the years 1983, 1987-88, 1993-94 and 1999-2000<sup>5</sup>. It is evident from this Table that throughout this period an overwhelmingly large portion of the workforce in India is found to be employed in the unorganized sector. Out of 399 million workers in 1999-2000, it is estimated that 371.2 million workers (nearly 93 per cent) are employed in the unorganized segment of the economy whereas only 27.8 million workers (7 per cent) are engaged in the organised sector. The share of unorganized employment in the economy did not fluctuate notably for the period under study. The share of informal employment has risen from 92 per cent (nearly 276 million out of 300 million) in 1983 to 93 percent in the 1999-2000. It is clear that employment opportunity in organised sector has remained more or less stagnant, showing only a marginal increase from 24 million in 1983 to 27.8 million in 1999-2000.

**Table-2.5**  
**Size of Workforce in Organised and Unorganised sector in India**

<b>Year</b>	<b>Organised</b>	<b>Unorganised</b>	<b>All</b>	<b>(In million)</b>	
				<b>(%)</b>	<b>(%)</b>
1983	24.0	275.6	299.6	8.0	92.0
1987-88	25.4	301.9	327.3	7.8	92.2
1993-94	27.4	348.8	376.2	7.3	92.7
1999-00	27.8	371.2	399.0	7.0	93.0

*Source: Organised Employment figures are taken from Annual Reports (1983 & 1988) and Quarterly Employment Review (1994 & 2000), DGE&T. Unorganised Employment Figures are calculated using Residual Method.*

The near stagnancy of employment opportunity in organised sector becomes evident from Table-2.6, where the compound annual growth rates of employment in the organised and unorganised sector is represented.

**Table-2.6**

**Compound Annual Growth Rates for Employment in Organised and Unorganised Sector**

<b>Year</b>	<b>Organised</b>	<b>Unorganised</b>	<b>All</b>
<b>1983 ~ 1987-88</b>	1.25	2.05	1.99
<b>1987-88 ~ 1993-94</b>	1.26	2.43	2.34
<b>1983 ~ 1993-94</b>	1.26	2.27	2.19
<b>1993-94 ~ 1999-00</b>	0.34	1.25	1.19

*Source: Calculated from Table-2.5*

Employment in the organised sector has registered a growth of 1.25 per cent between 1983 and 1987-88 and 1.26 per cent between 1983 and 1993-94. But during the decade of 90s, we witness a sharp decline in the employment opportunities. During this period organised employment grew by only 0.34 per cent. Overall, the decade of 90s in India is characterized by slow growth in employment opportunities. This is also true for the unorganised sector of the economy.

The stagnancy of the employment opportunities in the organised sector in the 1980s is to a large extent compensated by a significant expansion of workforce in the unorganised segment of the economy.

We observe that during 1983 to 1987-88, employment in unorganised sector grew by 2.05 per cent while during the period of 1983 to 1993-94, the growth rate was around 2.27 per cent. This fact clearly indicates that unorganised sector acted as a buffer for the workforce when the employment opportunity in organised sector had dwindled. However, unorganised sector had also undergone sharp slump during 90s with the growth rate of employment falling to 1.25 per cent.

## **2.7 Trends in Industry-Wise Employment**

In the following table (Table 2.7) the size of the workforce employed in different sub-sectors is presented. One can observe that over the last two decades, agriculture, hunting, forestry & fishing industry claims the bulk of the workforce in the Indian economy. Moreover, unorganised pattern of cultivation is most prominent. The size of unorganised workforce in this category was 203.8 million in 1983, 209.9 million in 1987-88, 238.3 million in 1993-94 and 238.6 million in 1999-2000 respectively. The prominence of unorganised employment on this category of industry is shown in Table 2.7.

**Table-2.7**

**Industry-wise Employment in Organised and Unorganised Sector  
(In million)**

Industry	1983			1987-88			1993-94			1999-00		
	Og	Uno	All	Og	Uno	All	Or	Uno	All	Og	Uno	All
<b>Agriculture, Hunting, Forestry &amp; Fishing</b>	1.3	203.	205.	1.4	209.	211.	1.4	238.	239.	1.4	238.	240.
		8	1		9	3		3	7		6	0
<b>Mining &amp; Quarrying</b>	1.0	0.8	1.8	1.0	1.3	2.3	1.1	1.6	2.7	1.0	1.3	2.3
<b>Manufacturing</b>	6.3	25.7	32.0	6.3	29.9	36.2	6.4	33.4	39.8	6.5	37.2	43.7
<b>Electricity, Gas &amp; Water</b>	0.8	0.1	0.8	0.8	0.3	1.2	1.0	0.4	1.4	1.0	0.3	1.3
<b>Construction</b>	1.2	5.5	6.7	1.2	11.0	12.2	1.2	11.0	12.2	1.1	16.4	17.5

<b>Trade, Hotels &amp; Restaurants</b>	0.4	18.5	18.9	0.4	22.8	23.2	0.5	28.0	28.5	0.5	40.1	40.6
<b>Transport, Storage &amp; Communication</b>	2.9	4.5	7.4	3.0	5.7	8.7	3.1	7.4	10.6	3.1	11.4	14.5
<b>Services</b>	10.2	15.1	25.2	11.2	19.2	30.4	12.6	27.2	39.9	13.2	24.7	37.8

Source: Same as Table 2.5

Note-Og=Organised; Uno=Unorganised.

It is clear that Table 2.8 shows that during 80s and 90s, 99 per cent of employment in agriculture, hunting, etc. can be categorized under unorganized segment. Employment in trade, hotels & restaurants is also highly unorganised. Share of unorganised employment in this category varied from 98 per cent to 99 per cent for the period under consideration. Construction and manufacturing sector are the other two sectors that are witnessing rapid informalisation of the workforce. In construction industry, share of unorganised employment has increased from 82 per cent in 1983 to 90 per cent in 1987-88 (an increase of 8 per cent points). In the post liberalization period, this share further increased to 94 per cent in 1999-2000 (an increase of 12 per cent points between 1983 and 1999-2000). As far as the manufacturing sector is concerned, the share of unorganised employment has increased from 80 per cent in 1983 to 83 per cent in 1987-88. And in the next decade, this share has further risen to 84 per cent in 1993-94 and in 1999-2000 the share is found to be 85 per cent (an increase of 5 per cent points between 80s and 90s). Careful examination of Table 2.8 also reveals that during the 80s, informalisation of the workforce is most prominent under electricity, gas & water supply industry where, the share of unorganised worker has increased by 19 per cent points (from 9.3 per cent in 1983 to 28.7 per cent 1987-88). But in the next decade, transport, storage & communication industry claims the top slot for rapid informalisation

of the workforce where the share of the unorganised workers has increased by 8 per cent points (70.3 per cent in 1993-94 to 78.45 per cent in 1999-2000). In fact, this particular category of industry has experienced the fastest informalisation of the labour employed here registering an increase of 17 per cent points in the share of unorganised employment (from 61.2 per cent 1983 to 78.5 per cent in 1999-2000).

**Table-2.8**

**Share of Organised and Unorganised Employment for Eight Industrial Categories**

Industry	1983		1987-88		1993-94		1999-00	
	Or	Uno	Or	Uno	Or	Uno	Or	Uno
<b>Agriculture, Hunting, Forestry &amp; Fishing</b>	0.6	99.4	0.7	99.3	0.6	99.4	0.6	99.4
<b>Mining &amp; Quarrying</b>	55.5	44.5	44.2	55.8	40.7	59.3	43.2	56.8
<b>Manufacturing</b>	19.7	80.3	17.3	82.7	16.1	83.9	14.9	85.1
<b>Electricity, Gas &amp; Water</b>	90.7	9.3	71.3	28.7	69.7	30.3	79.0	21.0
<b>Construction</b>	17.7	82.3	10.1	89.9	10.0	90.0	6.5	93.5
<b>Trade, Hotels &amp; Restaurants</b>	2.1	97.9	1.8	98.2	1.6	98.4	1.2	98.8
<b>Transport, Storage &amp; Communication</b>	38.8	61.2	34.8	65.2	29.7	70.3	21.5	78.5
<b>Services</b>	40.3	59.7	36.8	63.2	31.7	68.3	34.8	65.2

Source: Calculated from Table 2.7;

Note- og=organised; uno=unorganised.

In Table-2.9, the compound annual growth rates for the unorganised workforce distributed over the eight broad industrial categories are represented. In the pre liberalization period, informalisation of Work-force involved in the electricity, gas and water supply industry

**Table-2.9**

**Industry-wise Compound Annual Growth Rates (CAGR) of Unorganised Workforce in India**

Industry	1983 to 1987-88	1987-88 to 1993-94	1983 to 1993-94	1993-94 to 1999-00
<b>Agriculture, Hunting, Forestry &amp; Fishing</b>	0.65	2.14	1.50	0.02
<b>Mining &amp; Quarrying</b>	11.29	3.74	6.91	-4.56
<b>Manufacturing</b>	3.42	1.86	2.53	2.17
<b>Electricity, Gas &amp; Water</b>	38.11	4.18	17.56	-9.05
<b>Construction</b>	16.58	-0.05	6.76	8.32
<b>Trade, Hotels &amp; Restaurants</b>	4.72	3.49	4.02	7.45
<b>Transport, Storage &amp; Communication</b>	5.01	4.63	4.79	8.93
<b>Services</b>	5.57	5.98	5.81	-1.98

*Source: Calculated from Table 2.7*

most rapidly (unorganised workforce in this industry grew by 18 per cent between 1983 to 1993-94). Growth rates for unorganised workers in mining & quarrying and construction industry were also quite high for this period (7 per cent growth for each of these industries). But in the post liberalization phase, the situation changed dramatically. Between 1993-94 and 1999-2000, the highest growth rate for the unorganised workers was observed for transport, storage and communication industry (compound annual growth of 9 per cent). Growth rates for unorganised workers in construction industry (8 per cent growth rate) and in trade, hotels & restaurants (7 per cent growth rate) were quite high. But for electricity, gas & water supply industry and mining & quarrying industry, growth rates for unorganised workers were found to be negative. This suggests that in the post

liberalisation era, informalisation of the workforce is most prominent in the transport industry, construction industry and for wholesale and retail trade and hotel industry.

## **2.8 State-Wise Unorganised Workforce in India**

In this section, we analyse on state-wise distribution of the unorganised workforce. Due to non-availability of reliable estimates for some of the states and union territories, the analysis is confined only to the major sixteen states of India<sup>6</sup>. The largest pool of workforce (including organised and unorganised together) is found to be originating from Uttar Pradesh throughout the period of study. But by looking into the distribution of organised and unorganised workforce within each state [Table-2.10], we find that informalisation of workforce in 1999-2000 is most prominent in Haryana (96 per cent of employment is in unorganised sector). In most of the states, 90 per cent or more of the employment is concentrated in unorganised segment. Only in Assam (88 per cent) and Himachal Pradesh (78 per cent) the share of unorganised sector employment is found to be less than 90 per cent. This degree of informalisation has shown inconsistent pattern for the states we have considered here. For example, in 1983 Orissa is the state where informalisation was highest (95 per cent) and in 1993-94 Uttar Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh was the prominent states in this regard where we find 95 per cent of the workforce is engaged in unorganised sector. As far as west Bengal is concerned, the share of unorganised sector workers to total workforce is increasing day by day. 1999-2000 data shows that unorganised sector workforce accounts 91.7% to total workforce as compared to previous years. Similarly the contribution of organised sector workforce to total workforce is decreasing day by day with only 8.3% in 1999-2000.

**Table-2.10**

**Employment in Organised and Unorganised Sector for the Major  
Sixteen States of India (in million)**

States	1983			1987-88			1993-94			1999-00		
	Or	Uno	All									
Andhra Pradesh	1.6 (5.8)	25.9 (94.2)	27.5 (100.0)	1.6 (5.3)	29.2 (94.7)	30.8 (100.0)	1.9 (5.2)	34.4 (94.8)	36.2 (100.0)	2.1 (5.7)	34.3 (94.3)	36.4 (100.0)
Assam	0.9 (13.1)	5.7 (86.9)	6.6 (100.0)	0.9 (12.4)	6.6 (87.6)	7.5 (100.0)	1.1 (12.9)	7.2 (87.1)	8.3 (100.0)	1.1 (12.4)	8.0 (87.6)	9.1 (100.0)
	1.6 (5.8)	25.2 (94.2)	26.8 (100.0)	1.6 (5.8)	26.1 (94.2)	27.7 (100.0)	1.7 (5.4)	29.9 (94.6)	31.6 (100.0)	1.6 (4.6)	33.6 (95.4)	35.2 (100.0)
Gujarat	1.4 (9.5)	13.8 (90.5)	15.2 (100.0)	1.5 (9.2)	15.2 (90.8)	16.8 (100.0)	1.7 (8.9)	17.5 (91.1)	19.2 (100.0)	1.7 (7.9)	19.7 (92.1)	21.4 (100.0)
	0.5 (11.5)	4.2 (88.5)	4.7 (100.0)	0.6 (9.8)	5.3 (90.2)	5.9 (100.0)	0.6 (9.7)	5.9 (90.3)	6.5 (100.0)	0.3 (4.40)	6.6 (95.6)	6.9 (100.0)
Himachal Pradesh	0.3 (11.5)	1.9 (88.5)	2.2 (100.0)	0.3 (12.0)	2.1 (88.0)	2.4 (100.0)	0.3 (9.9)	2.6 (90.1)	2.9 (100.0)	0.6 (22.3)	2.3 (77.7)	2.9 (100.0)
Karnataka	1.2 (6.9)	16.0 (93.1)	17.2 (100.0)	1.3 (7.1)	17.3 (92.9)	18.6 (100.0)	1.5 (6.8)	20.8 (93.2)	22.4 (100.0)	1.9 (7.9)	21.7 (92.1)	23.6 (100.0)
	1.1 (10.4)	9.1 (89.6)	10.2 (100.0)	1.1 (10.1)	9.7 (89.9)	10.8 (100.0)	1.2 (10.6)	10.2 (89.4)	11.3 (100.0)	1.2 (10.2)	10.9 (89.8)	12.1 (100.0)
Madhya Pradesh	1.4 (5.7)	23.6 (94.3)	25.0 (100.0)	1.5 (5.6)	26.1 (94.4)	27.7 (100.0)	1.7 (5.3)	30.2 (94.7)	31.8 (100.0)	1.6 (4.6)	32.6 (95.4)	34.2 (100.0)
Maharashtra	3.4 (11.3)	26.7 (88.7)	30.1 (100.0)	3.5 (10.7)	29.5 (89.3)	33.0 (100.0)	3.8 (9.9)	34.4 (90.1)	38.2 (100.0)	3.7 (9.1)	37.1 (90.9)	40.8 (100.0)
	0.6 (5.3)	10.8 (94.7)	11.4 (100.0)	0.7 (5.7)	11.6 (94.3)	12.3 (100.0)	0.8 (5.6)	13.4 (94.4)	14.2 (100.0)	0.8 (5.5)	13.9 (94.5)	14.7 (100.0)
Punjab	0.7 (9.0)	6.8 (91.0)	7.5 (100.0)	0.7 (9.2)	7.3 (90.8)	8.0 (100.0)	0.8 (10.4)	7.2 (89.6)	8.0 (100.0)	0.8 (9.0)	8.5 (91.0)	9.4 (100.0)
	0.9 (5.6)	16.0 (94.4)	16.9 (100.0)	1.1 (5.7)	17.4 (94.3)	18.4 (100.0)	1.2 (5.6)	20.7 (94.4)	21.9 (100.0)	1.3 (5.5)	21.8 (94.5)	23.1 (100.0)
Rajasthan	2.1 (8.8)	21.4 (91.2)	23.5 (100.0)	2.2 (8.5)	23.4 (91.5)	25.6 (100.0)	2.4 (8.4)	25.9 (91.6)	28.3 (100.0)	2.5 (8.7)	26.4 (91.3)	28.9 (100.0)
	2.5 (5.7)	42.0 (94.3)	44.5 (100.0)	2.6 (5.6)	44.7 (94.4)	47.4 (100.0)	2.7 (4.9)	51.5 (95.1)	54.2 (100.0)	2.5 (4.4)	54.9 (95.6)	57.4 (100.0)
West Bengal	2.6 (12.4)	18.2 (87.6)	20.8 (100.0)	2.5 (10.7)	21.0 (89.3)	23.5 (100.0)	2.3 (8.8)	24.3 (91.2)	26.6 (100.0)	2.3 (8.3)	25.3 (91.7)	27.6 (100.0)
	24.0 (8.0)	275.6 (92.0)	299.6 (100.0)	25.4 (7.8)	301.9 (92.2)	327.3 (100.0)	27.4 (7.3)	348.8 (92.7)	376.2 (100.0)	27.8 (7.0)	371.2 (93.0)	399.0 (100.0)

Source: Organised Employment figures are taken from Annual Reports (1983 & 1988) and Quarterly Employment Review (1994 & 2000), DGE&T. Unorganised Employment Figures are calculated using Residual Method; og=organised; uno=unorganised

### **Estimated Number of Informal Sector Workers**

Comparisons between India and west Bengal regarding the estimated number of informal sector workers is shown in Table-2.11.

**Table-2.11  
Estimated Number of Informal Sector Workers by Sex**

	Male			Female		
	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
<b>West Bengal</b>	3326102	2654478	5980580	1719573	388244	2107817
<b>India</b>	29407056	34238048	64645104	10401228	5736123	16137351

Source: NSSO, 1999-2000

The Table shows that out of total 8088395 informal sector workers in west Bengal, predominant majority of workers are male with 74%. In India male workers in the informal sector constitutes 81% which is higher than state percentage. Thus we can say that compare to India, higher percentage of female workers are engaged in informal activities.

### **Informal Sector Enterprises According to Activities**

Manufacturing enterprises comprises highest percentage of informal activities in west Bengal (40.5%). In India, trading and repairing services accounts highest percentage among the informal sector activities (39.67%) [Table-2.12].

**Table-2.12  
Informal Sector Enterprises in India and West Bengal**

Activities	West Bengal	India
<b>Manufacturing</b>	1877682[40.5]	12351048[31.8]
<b>Construction</b>	139221[3]	1698149[4.38]
<b>Trading and repair</b>	1580863[34]	15392866[39.67]

<b>services</b>		
<b>Hotels and restaurants</b>	126492[2.72]	[3.54]
<b>Transport, storage and communications</b>	566263[12.2]	353548[9.11]
<b>Financial intermediation</b>	12122[.26]	118429[.30]
<b>Real estate, renting and business activities</b>	42354[.91]	571760[1.5]
<b>Education</b>	83071[1.8]	404855[1.04]
<b>Health and social work</b>	74305[1.6]	627319[1.61]
<b>Other community, social and personal service activities (excluding domestic services)</b>	135252[2.9]	2724681[7.02]
<b>Total</b>	4637626	38798948

Source: NSSO, 1999-2000.

Note-Column percentage in brackets

### **Estimated Number of Informal Enterprises**

Among all rural informal enterprises in west Bengal Own Account Enterprises [OAE] accounts most with 96.74% and in India it is 94.36% [Table-2.13]. In urban areas, 80.72% OAE comprise in west Bengal and in India it is 78.27%. In aggregate 91.54% OAE comprise in west Bengal and 87.36% OAE comprise in India. Thus we see that both in India and west Bengal OAE comprise higher percentage than the establishments.

**Table-2.13**  
**Estimated Number of Informal Enterprises in India and West Bengal**

	Rural		Urban		Total	
	W B	India	W B	India	W B	India
<b>OAE</b>	3312383	23656857	1325344	15142091	4637626	38798948
<b>Establishments</b>	111569	1411483	316576	4201998	428145	5613481
<b>All enterprises</b>	3423951	25068340	1641820	19344089	5065771	44412429

Source-NSSO 1999-2000 survey on informal sector

## **Estimated Number of Workers by Type of Worker and Nature of Employment in India and West Bengal**

In west Bengal and as well as in India, working owner category of workers accounts most in OAE and hired workers accounts most in establishment type enterprises [Table-2.14]. In aggregate working owner category workers comprise most in OAE as well as establishment type enterprises.

**Table-2.14**  
**Estimated Number of Workers by Type of Worker and Nature of Employment in India and West Bengal**

	Working owner	Hired workers	Helpers	All workers['000]
<b>OAE[rural+urban]</b>				
West Bengal	5413149	140395	810057	6363.60
India	48100074	965418	7192606	56258.10
<b>Establishment[rural+urban]</b>				
West Bengal	532699	1119673	72424	1724.80
India	7415388	15050570	1059200	23525.16
<b>All enterprises[rural+urban]</b>				
West Bengal	5945648	1260068	882481	8088.40
India	55515461	16015988	8251806	79783.26

Source —NSSO, 1999-2000

## **Estimated Annual Value Added Per Worker in Informal Sector**

Annual value added per worker in informal sector is low in case of west Bengal than India which draws attention to the lower productivity of informal sector workers in west Bengal in respect of India [Table-2.15].

**Table-2.15**  
**Estimated Annual Value Added Per Worker [Rs]**

	Value added[Rs]
West Bengal	17908.00
India	24242.00

Source—NSSO, 1999-2000

### **Notes**

- 1 Building and vehicles of the workers.
- 2 Characteristics of underground economy involving evasion, avoidance, circumvention, abuse and corruption of the rules, as well as accompanying efforts to conceal this illicit behaviour from the view point of public authorities.
- 3 An enterprise is an undertaking which is engaged in the production and distribution of goods and services meant mainly for the purposes of sale whether fully or partly.
- 4 Run by household labour without any hired worker employed during the last one year.
- 5 Employment figures correspond to usual principal and subsidiary status. A person spends relatively longer time pursuing some activities during last 1 year is called principal status and pursuing relatively shorter time is called subsidiary status.
- 6 More than 95% of the total employment in India is generated by these sixteen states.

## **CHAPTER- III**

### **NATURE, MAGNITUDE AND CAUSES OF GROWTH OF URBAN INFORMAL SECTOR IN SILIGURI CORPORATION AREA**

#### **3.1 Nature**

Siliguri, the gate way to the North East India is not only of vital importance to the State of West Bengal but India as a whole. Located at the foot of Himalayas on the verge of Terai, it presents the picturesque glimpse of the Himalayan ranges establishing its inmate charm to a visitor. Though the settlement started initially with the tea plantation and a junction station to change over to the Toy train for Darjeeling in 1880 it acquired the status of Sub Divisional town in 1907. Though by thirties it had gained weight age as a town, it was confirmed Municipal status only in 1950.

Siliguri municipal corporation area, with a population of 4, 72,374, is one of the cities of West Bengal with a large presence of informal sector operators and workers. More than one lakh people from different states and adjoining places come over to Siliguri everyday for different purposes [SMC, 2006]. Their hustling activities can not escape any visitor's attention. Wide range of activities including street food or market vendors, small automotive or machine repair shops, RPs, CWs and scavengers are seen everywhere. Others are not readily visible, such as home workers in the garment industry, families producing shoes and leather items and small producers of handicrafts and furniture. All informal sector activities whether in or out of the homes, provide incomes for a large segment of the city's population. Without this income the socio-economic pressure would be

unthinkable. Many informal sector establishments hire a small number of helpers or engage immediate family members. The informal sector generally described as “sponge” that absorbs people who are unemployed or unable to find employment in the formal sector, particularly those who migrated from the other districts or different regions of the same districts.

### **Box 3.1**

#### **Workers in the Informal Sector of SMCA**

<b>Farm and farm related:</b> Self Employed, Very Small Land Holders, Daily Wage Earners, Poultry, Kitchen Gardening, Dairy, Fisheries, and Sericulture.
<b>Trading:</b> Street Vendors, Hawkers, Related to Different Products including Very Small Traders.
<b>Craft workers:</b> Related to metal bamboo and wood etc.
<b>Construction:</b> Normally daily wage workers related to building industry.
<b>Transport:</b> Porters, cleaners, khalashi, loaders, rickshaw pullers, auto drivers, and helpers, taxi drivers.
<b>Micro enterprise:</b> Family based enterprise workers in various types of production and services.
<b>Other services:</b> Domestic servants, barbers, cobblers, tailors, blacksmith, etc..

While increasingly it is found that the informal sector comprises household of urban residents, a significant section of the informal sector has common roots in dismal poverty, insecurity in land tenure, poor education, lack of institutional support and weak organisations. It emerges from the inability of the modern economy to absorb the rising labour force in productive employment. The sector is closely associated with poverty and squatter slums.

Although it is not easy to identify informal groups through the number of persons or the types of activities the establishments are engaged in, it is not easy to accurately describe the sector. Therefore, distinguishing characteristics such as smallness of operation and legal status (whether licensed or not) have often been used to identify

the sector. The informal sector has been described by the ILO as comprised of very small scale economic activities that produce and distribute goods and provides services (Sethuraman 1981).

Most informal sector workers and operators work long hours under hazardous or unhealthy environment without sufficient returns to keep them above the official poverty level. Low wages, uncertain income, absence of adequate social protection, increasing participation of women without relief from traditional domestic responsibilities, child labour and poor working conditions prevail in the sector.

### **3.2 Characteristics of the Urban Informal Sector Workers in SMCA**

The informal sector comprehends a wide variety of operational units and activities with high rates of turnover and considerable mobility, thus differing from those in the formal sector in technology, economies of scale, use of labour intensive processes for producing goods and services, and a virtual absence of well maintained accounts. The informal sector is informal in the sense that it is not regulated by government under any statute. Since there is very little control over informal economic activities, the probability of exploitation is very high. For example the unskilled construction labour works 8 hours per day in lieu of 55 rupees only.

Some of the dominant characteristics of the informal sector in SMCA are:

1. Range of production from petty commodity to small factories: Garment makers; Embroiderers; Incense-stick roller workers; Bidi-binders; Cigarette-rollers; Tea bags maker; Paper bag makers; Kite makers; Hair band makers; Food processor workers; Beauticians; Phenyl makers; Grill factory workers; Candle makers.

2. Low and limited structure and coverage of organisation: The informal sector workers do their work not in a broad frame of structure or organisations. They perform their activities in their homes or in a place where requires small investments.
3. Low levels of fixed investment and labour capital mix: Informal sector workers do not have the capacity to invest huge capital. Their activities require low level of capital or we can say that they do not invest lot in a fixed manner. Their activities require lot of physical labour than capital and it is very difficult to account the labour and capital separately.
4. Difficulties in separating business and personal or household expenses leading to insecure working capital: It is very difficult for the informal sector workers to isolate their household expenditure from working capital for business as because most of them are survived with hand to mouth.
5. Lack of access to training leading to low productivity as informal workers lack skills: There is no option for the informal sector workers to access training facilities provided by the government or local municipal corporations and as a result of that they lack high productivity.
6. Labour relations based on verbal contract dominated by casual employment and social relations as opposed to formal contracts: Most of the informal sector workers are performing their work with verbal contract with the employee e.g. CWs, RPs, sweet shop assistants etc.
7. Home based- family based pattern of production: Garments production; tea stall; grocery shops; kite makers, etc.
8. Lack of capacity to identify, understand, reach, or use specific markets: They lack proper assessments of market demand for their goods and as a result of that they can not get profit up to the level or we can say that lacks productivity.

9. No social protection to workers against contingencies: No informal sector workers get protection either from government or from employer in SMCA.
10. Diverse character of wages: There is no fixed wages for the same kind of work. For instance, different RPs pay different rent for their hired rickshaw or CWs gets diverse wages for the same work.
11. Lack of innovation because of isolation and lack of research and development: No initiatives either from the part of government or others has been taken for improvement of their working environment or skill up gradation, so that development could take place in this sector also.
12. Output not fully accounted in the national accounts: Output of informal sector workers or shadow workers is not accounted in national level.
13. Low coverage by trade union movements: Most of the informal sector workers are not attached with any kind of trade unions. The reason is that most of them are migrants or does not want to involve in the union or we can say that they are not unionized.
14. Increasing number of immigrants in informal economic activities: Most of the informal sector workers in SMCA are migrants from other districts or others states as well. In SMCA 80% permanent migrants are from Nepal, Bangladesh and Bhutan.
15. Workers under various kinds of harassments in comparisons to the formal sector: Informal sector workers face physical as well as mental tortures e.g. sweet shop assistants, garage workers etc.

### **3.3 Magnitude**

Area of SMCA has increased from 15.54 sq. Km. in 1991 to 20.10 sq. Km in 2001. More than one lakh people from different states and adjoining places come over to Siliguri everyday for different purposes [SMCA, 2003]. Siliguri municipal corporation area have marked high

rate of population growth owing to the process of natural growth supplemented by migration. Decadal population growth rate in SMCA is 118% during 1991-2006 [SMCA, 2006], which is highest among all cities and towns in west Bengal. Total number of workers has increased from 72734 (33.32%) in 1991 to 96390 (33.90%) in 2001, showing a growth of 32.52% during 1991-2001. Percentage of non workers has decreased from 66.47% in 1991 to 66.11% in 2001 [Darjeeling district census handbook, 2004] [Table-3.1].

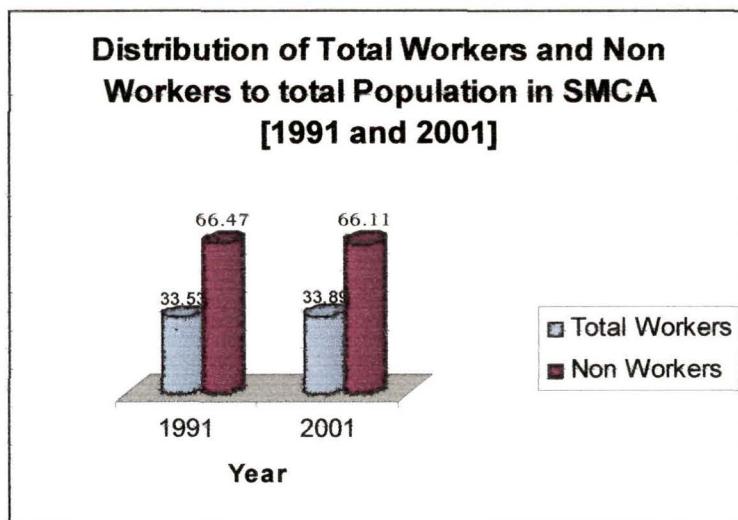
**Table-3.1**  
**Distribution of Total Workers and Non Workers in SMCA**

	<b>1991</b>	<b>20001</b>
<b>Total workers</b>	72734[33.53]	96390[33.89]
<b>Non workers</b>	144216[66.47]	188212[66.11]
<b>Total population</b>	<b>216950[100]</b>	<b>284602[100]</b>

Source: District census handbook 2001, 2004

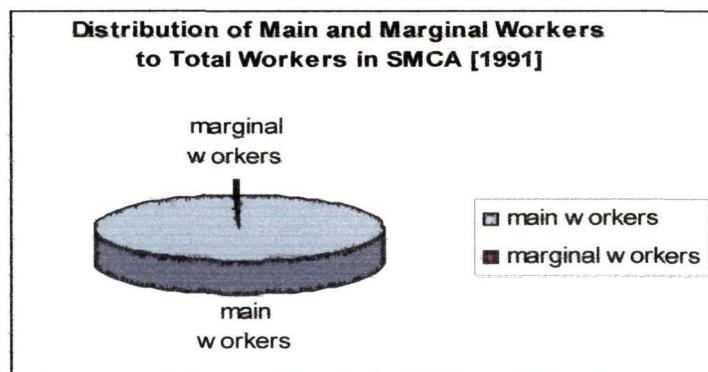
Value in the parenthesis shows column percentage

**Chart-3.1**



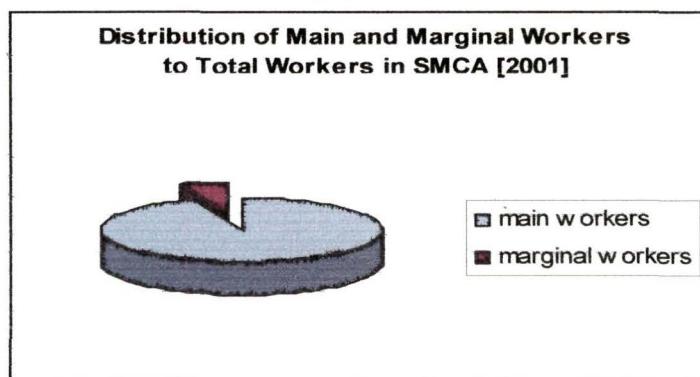
Percentage of main workers to total workers has decreased from 99.38% in 1991 to 94.50% in 2001. Percentage of marginal workers to total workers has increased from 0.62% in 1991 to 5.50% in 2001 [Chart-3.2 and 3.3].

### Chart-3.2



Source: District Census Handbook 2001, 2004  
(Darjeeling District)

### Chart-3.3

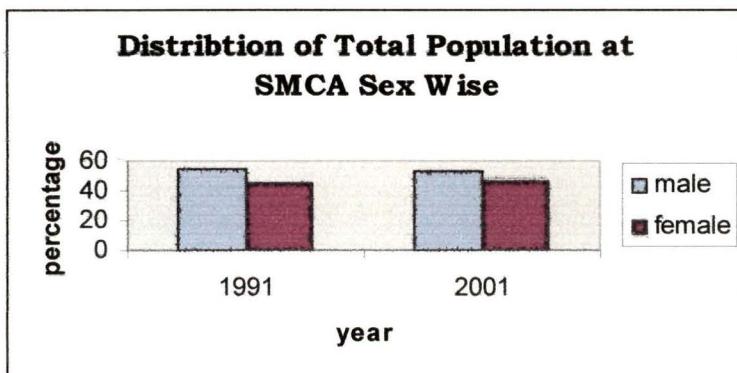


Source: District Census Handbook 2001, 2004  
(Darjeeling District).

Total number of male population has decreased in relation to female population at SMCA during 1991-2001 [Chart-3.4]. The total number of household also increased from 28938 in 1981 to 57600 in 2001. Population density in SMCA has increased from 13961 in 1991 to 14160 in 2006. The NSSO (55th round 1999-2000) informal sector data reveals that 92.7 % workers are engaged in informal sector activities compared to 91.2% in 1993-94 in SMCA. 7.3% workers are engaged in formal sector activities compared to 8.8% in 1993-94 in SMCA. Thus we can say that the contribution of informal sector to the

total workforce is increasing and formal sector contribution is decreasing with the passage of time.

**Chart-3.4**



Source: District Census Handbook 2001, 2004.  
(Darjeeling District).

### **3.4 Causes of Growth of Urban Informal Sector:**

It may be noted that SMCA has witnessed a remarkable increase of informal economic activities during the last couple of years, nearly 65% to 70% of the total workforce engaged in informal activities [decadal population growth rate was 31.18 % during 1991-2001 and population density was 14,159 per sq.km (district census hand book, 2004)]. Siliguri is the only corporation town in North Bengal. The city has specific geopolitical importance. Three foreign countries, viz., Nepal, Bhutan, and Bangladesh envelop this corporation town. Immigration to this area from neighboring countries as well as from other parts of India is one of many factors that accelerate the informalisation process. Lack of industrialization, gradual closing down of tea gardens and above all shrinkage of formal sector jobs compel the unemployed people to migrate to this city and engage in informal economic activities.

Each individual, working in the informal sector, appears to be some common motives which expedite the growth of urban informal sector in the SMCA are illustrated below:

## **Reasons for Joining Informal Sector**

Mere survival
Income opportunities
Flexible labour
Labour costs
Easy entry
Small scale
Accessible facilities

### **✓ Mere Survival**

Activities in the informal sector may be associated with mere survival or new opportunities. For many workers in the SMCA employment in the informal sector is not a choice but a necessity. It represents a means of obtaining necessary to survive whether as a supplement to meager earnings and pension payments eroded by inflation or as the sole source of income for the worker and household. According to an informal sector worker "We are not working to get rich but only to earn daily food for the family".

### **✓ Income Opportunities**

As elsewhere in the world, a wide range of profits and wages is earned by entrepreneurs and employees in SMCA. Some street traders earn barely enough or not enough for food and shelter. Other "informals" earn more than civil servants. Anderson in his research in 1997 said "it is not at all uncommon to find doctors cleaning houses or skilled engineers driving taxicabs. Indeed the informal sector surveys revealed numerous examples of people who did not want to work in the formal sector simply because salaries were so low. It is particularly instructive that kiosks, which are viewed by local officials as a means of alleviating poverty, generate incomes greater than

earned by judges on the Supreme Court [Anderson, 1998, p.24]." SMCA is acting as the commercial hubs of the entire north Bengal, north eastern states and some parts of Bihar, Sikkim, Nepal and Bhutan. The total number of commercial establishments in Siliguri is 45230 of which 67% are unregistered or informal in nature (from various business organisations in Siliguri). The important commercial centers in SMCA are Bidhan market, Nivedita market, Khalpara market, Mahabirstan market and Hong Kong market. Hong Kong market holds importance for the local people as well as tourists who visit the city for its cheaper foreign goods. The total number of shops in this market is 550 and all are informal in nature. At about 1375 people are earning their livelihood which is much higher than the formal sector workers. Their daily earnings from selling foreign goods hold minimum Rs.500-1000 per day (field survey). Thus it is evident that people are attracting SMCA for higher income opportunities.

#### ✓ **Flexible Labour**

The fact that most payments in the informal sector are made according to informal arrangements rather than imposed by the labour law has made the use of labour more flexible and less costly. There is no fixed time of work for the informal workers as because their earnings do vary according to their needs. We have seen in the case of RPs in SMCA that their working hours vary according to their need. The "helpers" in sweet shops, garages, restaurants and in various informal activities are bound to work as instructed by their employers or the "working owner" category of workers continue their course of work as long as their customer demands.

#### ✓ **Labour Costs**

One of the reasons of informal sector growth is lower production cost. There are many ways that production costs are lowered in the informal sector. A key bargain is through low cost labour inputs made possible by working long hours, employing family workers, and using

kin labour. The labour cost of unskilled CWs ranges from Rs. 50 to Rs. 55 per day. And for the semiskilled and unskilled CWs the average labour cost is Rs. 75 and Rs. 100 per day. Each CWs again have to pay Rs. 10 to Rs. 20 to their middleman. The per day average earnings of the helpers in sweet shops or garages is Rs. 20 to Rs 30. So per day labour cost for the informal workers is very low in SMCA.

✓ **Easy Entry**

Compared to the formal sector it is relatively easy to set up business in the informal sector, but this does not mean that it is easy to obtain start up capital and business permit. For instance, in the case of both RPs and CWs no financial investment is required or those who want to engage in these sectors can engage without any prior work permit. Even in the case of rickshaw pulling, no peddler license is needed or they have not to worry about rickshaw license also. They just come to the city and just hire rickshaw for Rs. 20 or Rs. 25 and can ply as much as they can.

✓ **Small Scale:**

One aspect of easy entry is small scale. This helps to solve the credit problem. Many of the informal sector operators set up businesses by drawing on saving or borrowing from relatives. Sometimes business are financed by loans from tiny shops. as for example garment makers; embroiderers; incense-stick rollers; bidi- binders; cigarette-rollers; tea bags maker; paper bag makers; kite makers; hair band makers; food processors; beauticians; phenyl maker; grill factory; candle maker; are all small scale in nature.

✓ **Accessible facilities:**

There are fewer demands in the informal sector for finding a business place as in the case of formal sector. A formal enterprise privately owns the market space is then rented to informal operators. This provides a business venue with greater flexibility for informal sales. This is seen especially in Hong Kong market where all the

informal business man is doing business with rented accommodation. They are also selling foreign goods in temporary establishments called "dalas" which is also on rented basis. Actually the "dalas" are occupied by other members and then rented to the informal operators. Many a times we see in SMCA that some informal operators are selling "cloths" or "momo" or "toys" etc in front of the formal operators by giving to the owner of the place Rs. 200 to Rs. 300 per day ( field survey).

There are several other reasons for the rapid growth of the urban informal sector in SMCA. Some of these reasons are discussed below.

✓ **Dynamic Economic Activities that Escape Local Regulatory Processes And Taxation**

Local authorities generally have categories – usually defined by the national government – for the types of business that should be registered, regulated and taxed. However, today's local economies are changing rapidly. New types of business and new ways of doing business are escaping the attention of the authorities, even though they may be high-value activities. Selling garments without having fixed location of business, selling foreign goods in the local market of SMCA, goods smuggled from native Nepal and Bangladesh borders, medicine retailers (67% unregistered in SMCA-information from BCDA), are some of the many examples in SMCA.

✓ **Slow Growth of the Formal Economy**

The increase in the labour force is directly proportional to the increase in population of working age. The labour force has been increasing in countries at a rate greater than the capacity of the economy to generate jobs in the formal sector. As a consequence, underemployment and unemployment have been growing. Many of those who cannot find work in the formal labour market find employment or engage in informal economic activities in order to survive. Others, however, do so out of choice. The NSSO 1999-2000

informal sector data reveals that 92.7 % workers are engaged in informal sector activities compared to 91.2% in 1993-94 in SMCA. 7.3% workers are engaged in formal sector activities compared to 8.8% in 1993-94 in SMCA. Thus we see that formal sector jobs are shrinking day by day and more people are engaging themselves in unorganised sectors.

✓ **Inadequate Rural and Urban Development Programmes**

Migration from rural areas is a significant component of the growth of SMCA today. Some of this migration is temporary or seasonal but much is also permanent. This migration is in part a reaction to the poor standards of living in the rural areas. As it is, rural development programmes in North Bengal aimed at providing adequate income levels to rural populations have often been ineffective where strong policies have been followed up with only weak implementation initiatives. Three broad categories of centrally sponsored programme are under implementation-(i) Aiming at employment generation/creation of supplementary wages employment; (ii) Creating assets and infrastructure; and (iii) Social welfare/ assistance oriented. S.G.S.Y comes under category (i) of the above-mentioned types of programme and JGSY under category (i) and (ii) both. IAY is under category (ii) and NFPS and NMBS; NOAPS are essentially welfare/assistance oriented programme i.e. category (iii). District wise data reveals that under employment assurance scheme, 57.51% employment achieved in 1999-2000 as percentage of targeted and only 1.77% in 2001-2002. The physical performance in 2001-2002 under JGSY is also declining compared to 1999-2000 (man days generated in 1999-2000 is 5.4 lacs and 1.35 lacs in 2001-2002).

✓ **Poor Absorption of Migrants and Immigrants into Urban Life**

Attraction to urban amenities and promises of higher income levels motivates intra and inter district migration and also encourages rural people to migrate to SMCA. However, many immigrants and most

rural migrants do not have the education or skills to compete effectively in the formal labour market. As a consequence, they take up informal economic activities and reside in informal settlements. Urban development programmes have tended to focus strongly on infrastructure development to the neglect of economic and social programmes to help immigrants and migrants adapt to urban conditions and particularly to the fully monetarised system of urban life. The slum population in SMCA has grown immensely during 1991 (46200 persons) [census 1991] to 2001[census 2001] (168217 persons). The decadal growth rate of slum population in SMCA during 19991-2001 is 264.10%. The area under slum also increased from 3.02 square kilometer in 1991 to 7.82 square kilometer in 2001. The literacy level in SMCA shows higher percentage compared to west Bengal both in 1991 and 2001. It is evident from the Table-3.2 that the literacy level of the people living in slums is much lower than the people of non slum area. The rate of growth of literacy rate (24.50%) in SMCA is much lower than the rate of growth of population in SMCA (118%).

**Table-3.2  
Literacy Level (percentage)**

	<b>1991</b>	<b>2001</b>
<b>West Bengal</b>	57.70	68.64
<b>SMCA</b>	63.70	79.31
<b>Slum area (SMCA)</b>	23.70	25.69
<b>Non slum area (SMCA)</b>	65.14	83.37

*Source: population census 1991 and 2001.*

#### ✓ **Informal Sector Participation to Supplement Income**

Inflation can result in income levels in the formal as well as the informal economy no longer being adequate to maintain a decent

standard of living or even threatening the survival of urban families. Confronted with this situation, people often turn to part-time participation in informal economic activities to augment their incomes. 'Moonlighting' is very common among government/semi government personnel in SMCA, including functionaries and teachers, who resort to out-of-hours second jobs or to selling goods during office hours and so on.

### **Box-3.2**

#### **Income Supplement from Secondary Occupation**

I am forty five years old man born in Coochbehar. I migrated to Siliguri at about twenty years back, permanently. I live with my wife and three children at deshbandhupara. I am now working as a typist in a private tea company located at khalpara, Siliguri. My schedule working time started from 10am to 5pm each day except Sunday. I have only been paid three thousand rupees per month. My income from Tea Company as a typist makes up about 60% of my family expenditure. To cover the remaining expenditure of my family I have started working as an accountant for different shops. My work as an accountant begins from 6pm to 10pm daily and whole day in Sundays. Sometimes I take the assignments to homes and work out there. From this occupation I usually earn Rs.2000 to Rs. 2500 per month. In this way I somehow maintain my family expenditures and feed, dress and educate my children.

#### **✓ Complicated Bureaucratic Procedures**

There are many cases where entrepreneurs working in the informal sector expand their operations and are in a position where they can and should become registered and in general qualify to become 'formal sector' operations. In some cases, entrepreneurs are offered

various incentives to register that are to their advantage. However, becoming registered can also incur significant costs to enterprises. Obtaining the necessary permits from local authorities is often an unnecessarily complicated and lengthy process and can be an additional deterrent. Because it takes too much time to follow up papers from local authorities, some informal sector operators opt to remain informal. This is the case in SMCA, where workers report that obtaining permits and licenses is cumbersome. Box-3.3 represents a collage of complaints given by workers interviewed for this study.

### **Box-3.3**

#### **Bureaucratic Problems Faced**

1. I sell detergent (cloth), phenyl in the markets of SMCA. Till now, I am producing these products in a small scale with manual labour (informally). Now the demands of my products are increasing day by day. I am planning to start the business in a large scale and for that I have to install machine. But the administration works with a lot of bureaucracy. They hassle me by demanding pollution clearance, municipality permissions, company seals, business registrations which involves various payments.
2. I have opened an ice-cream, Xerox, stationeries shop. The main difficulty I faced bureaucratic hierarchy for license and permits.
3. I have the permission from the Bidhan market administration to sell flour in the market. I have to give sample of the flour to the hygiene authority each time so that I can get permission to sell it. I also pay a daily tax. I really don't understand what this tax is for.

## **CHAPTER IV**

### **INCOME, EMPLOYMENT AND LIVING CONDITIONS OF RICKSHAW PULLERS AND CONSTRUCTION WORKERS**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

In Siliguri municipal corporation area (SMCA), the urban poor survive by working in the informal sector. Since, permanent protected<sup>1</sup> jobs in the organized sector are shrinking; therefore, even those having the requisite skills are unable to find proper employment. For these people work in the informal sector are the only means for their survival. This has led to a rapid growth of the informal sector in Siliguri town. For the urban poor in SMCA area, rickshaw pulling and working in construction sites are the two important means of earning livelihood, as it requires minor financial input and the skills involved are low. Hence for these people, men and women, rickshaw pulling and working in construction sites are the easiest form for earning their livelihood. RPs and CWs continue to provide livelihood to lakhs of people in SMCA. Traditionally, rickshaw pulling and construction work are two of the most preferred avenues of employment in the city for the unskilled and illiterate but able-bodied<sup>2</sup> persons who migrate from rural areas. Rickshaw pulling and construction work two instant sources of employment, a job for which much technical skill or investment is not required. It offers great respite to rural migrants when agricultural employment is not available in the village. It is necessary to examine relevant factors associated with these professions.

## **4.2 Profile of Rickshaw Pullers and Construction Workers**

For collecting primary data on RPs we purposively chose 12 rickshaw stands at busy road crossings from different locations of the city. Again for collecting primary data from CWs, we purposively chose select 12 civil construction sites from different parts of the city. Selected RPs and CWs of all age groups were interviewed using a more detailed structured questionnaire and were compensated for the time.

### **4.2.1 Basic Characteristics of Construction Workers**

The level of Skills possessed by CWs is an important determinant, both of the workers' level of productivity as well as the type and quality of buildings they can construct. Usually couples are found to be working on the same worksites. CWs may be broadly classified as skilled, semiskilled and unskilled. In our survey we have found 34.14% skilled, 26.84% semiskilled and 39.02% unskilled workers.

Looking at the literacy profile of CWs (Table-4.1), it can be found that 56.10% of the total respondents are literate. The percentage of literate people is high in skilled type workers (74.28%). Similarly percentage of illiterate people is high in unskilled type workers (67.50%). Among the total illiterate workers, unskilled workers contribute most with 60% and among the total literate people; skilled workers contribute most with 45%. Thus there is a definite positive correlation between literacy

**Table-4.1**  
**Literacy in Relation to Skill Level [CWs]**

Skill Literacy	Skilled	Semiskilled	Unskilled	Total
Illiterate	18(20) [25.72]	18(20) [32.72]	54(60) [67.50]	90[100] [43.90]
Literate	52(45) [74.28]	37(32) [67.28]	26(23) [32.50]	115[100] [56.10]

<b>Total</b>	<b>70(34.14)</b> [100]	<b>55(26.84)</b> [100]	<b>80(39.02)</b> [100]	<b>205[100]</b> [100]
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*Note: Row percentage in brackets side  
Column percentage in brackets below*

rate and skill attainment. Table-4.2 shows that only 26.95% of the total respondents have studied beyond primary school. Thus, the study shows that a significant proportion of the construction labour force is illiterate and only 1/3rd of the workers are educated above primary

**Table-4.2**

**Educational Level in Relation to Skill Status [CWs]**

<b>Skill Status</b>	<b>Skilled</b>	<b>Semiskilled</b>	<b>Unskilled</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>Education</b>				
Primary	36(43) [65.46]	26(31) [78.78]	22(26) [81.49]	84(100) [73.05]
Up to class viii	15(65) [27.27]	5(22) [15.15]	3(13) [11.11]	23(100) [20]
Madhayamik	4(50) [7.27]	2(25) [6.07]	2(25) [7.40]	8(100) [6.95]
<b>Total</b>	<b>55(47.84)</b> [100]	<b>33(28.69)</b> [100]	<b>27(23.47)</b> [100]	<b>115[100]</b> [100]

*Note: Row percentage in brackets side  
Column percentage in brackets below*

school level. It also appears that there is a definite correlation between literacy level and skill attainment. Just a little over 34% of the skilled workers, are educated beyond primary level, whereas for semiskilled and unskilled workers these percentages are, 21.22% and 18.51% respectively. Among the unskilled workers we have found 7.40% of Madhayamik educated workers which show better percentage than skilled (7.27%) and semiskilled workers (6.06%).

#### **4.2.2 Basic Characteristics of Rickshaw Pullers**

Let us now examine the case of RPs. Education level among RPs is highly associated [ $p < 7.8391 \cdot 10^{-10}$ ]. It is very important to know about

**Table-4.3**  
**Educational Level of RPs**

<b>Education</b>	<b>RP</b>
Primary	82[55.78]
Up to class viii	47[31.98]
Madhayamik	16[10.88]
Above Madhayamik	2[1.36]
<b>Total</b>	<b>147[100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

the educational background of the rickshaw pullers as because education enhances the communication skills which help the pullers to interact with tourists in Siliguri city where many tourists come with cosmopolitan background. Better communication skills mean better income opportunity of the pullers. In total about 70% pullers are literate and among them about 56% are primary educated and 44% are post-primary educated (Table-4.3).

#### **4.2.3 Comparison between Rickshaw Pullers and Construction Workers by Duration of Work at SMCA**

Duration of working at SMCA both for RPs and CWs affects their earnings, working conditions, etc. It is therefore imperative to compare the average age of both RPs and CWs by duration of work which is

**Table-4.4****Distribution of RPs and CWs by Average Age and Duration of Work at SMCA**

Age [Years]	Duration of Construction Work at SMCA				Duration of Rickshaw Pulling at SMCA			
	1-4	5-14	15-20	Total	1-4	5-14	15-20	Total
Average age [years]	23.4	32	37.11	<b>29.98</b>	26.11	32.44	44.33	<b>31.72</b>

Note : 1-4 years=new joiners; 5-14 years=core joiners; 15-20 years=deep joiners

exemplified in Table-4.4. An examination of the Table reveals that average age of the CWs is lower (29.98 years) than that of RPs (31.72 years). Average ages of core joiners in both the cases are same (about 32 years). It is clear from the Table that younger people are getting attracted to construction work for the last five years, as because most of pullers in pulling believe that there is no honour in plying rickshaws. In case of deep joiners (15-20 years), the average age difference between the RPs and CWs is (7 years), as because the rickshaw industry in SMCA is grown-up earlier than the construction industry and that's why people in the past (>15 years ago) were usually captivated in pulling rather than in the construction sites.

**Table-4.5****Mean Age of CWs Sex Wise**

Age Sex	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	CV[%]	Min	Max
Male	29.38	7.87	.89	26.79	14	53
Female	32.09	7.37	1.57	22.97	20	50
<b>Total</b>	<b>29.98</b>	<b>7.81</b>	<b>.78</b>	<b>26.05</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>53</b>

**Table-4.6****Mean Age of RPs**

<b>Age</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>S.D.</b>	<b>S.E.</b>	<b>CV[%]</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>
Rickshaw Pullers	31.72	9.09	.91	28.66	16	55

Table-4.5 shows that there is no significant [ $p>.05$ ] difference in age of the male and female CWs. Again in between CWs and RPs there is no significance difference in ages (Table-4.6).

Relation between education level and duration of pulling (Table-4.7) is imperative in the sense that it measures whether the new comer RPs and CWs is better educated than core and deep joiner RPs and CWs. Education level of CWs is not associated with duration of work but in case of RPs it is associated [ $p<.0002$ ]. In aggregate, RPs (71.71%) is more educated than the CWs (56.10%). Post primary educated people are predominant in case of RPs (30.81%) than the CWs (14.31%). Illiteracy among the new joiner CWs is showing a downward tendency

**Table-4.7****Distribution of RPs and CWs by Education Level and Duration of Work at SMCA**

[years] Education	Duration of Construction Work at SMCA				Duration of Rickshaw Pulling at SMCA			
	1-4	5-14	15-20	Total	1-4	5-14	15-20	Total
<b>Education level</b>								
Illiterate	20(22) [31.74]	58(65) [46.77]	12(13) [66.66]	90[100] [43.90]	8(14) [11.76]	36(62) [31.87]	14(24) [58.33]	58[100] [28.29]
Primary	32(38) [50.79]	50(60) [40.32]	2(2) [11.11]	84[100] [40.97]	30(37) [44.11]	46(56) [40.70]	6(7) [25.00]	82[100] [40.00]
Up to class viii	9(39) [14.30]	10(44) [8.06]	4(17) [22.23]	23[100] [11.23]	18(38) [26.47]	27(58) [23.90]	2(4) [8.33]	47[100] [22.93]

Madhayamik	2(25) [3.17]	6(75) [4.85]	0 [00]	8[100] [3.90]	10(62.5) [14.70]	4(25) [3.53]	2(12.5) [8.34]	16[100] [7.81]
Above Madhayamik	0	0	0	0	2(100) [2.96]	0	0	2[100] [.97]
<b>Total</b>	<b>63(31) [100]</b>	<b>124(60) [100]</b>	<b>18(9) [100]</b>	<b>205[100] [100]</b>	<b>68(33) [100]</b>	<b>113(55) [100]</b>	<b>24(12) [100]</b>	<b>205[100] [100]</b>

Note: Column percentage in brackets below

Row percentage in brackets aside; 1-4years=new joiners; 5-14years=core joiners;  
15-20years=deep joiners

(31.74%) compared to core (46.77%) and deep joiner (66.66%) CWs and the same trends hold for RPs also. Incase of primary and post primary levels also, there an upward trend is witnessed in case of both the new joiner of RPs and CWs. Thus we can say that the new joiners of both rickshaw pulling and construction work are more educated than the core and deep joiners. This indicates a rising trend of literacy among rural population as most of the RPs and CWs come from such area.

Land holding in relation to duration of work is to some extent indicators of the economic background of RPs and CWs that is nit can be judged whether they have joined these occupations from land

**Table-4.8**

**Distribution of RPs and CWs by Land Holding and Duration of Work at SMCA**

[years]  Land Holding	Duration of Construction Work at SMCA				Duration of Rickshaw Pulling at SMCA			
	1-4	5-14	15-20	Total	1-4	5-14	15-20	Total
<b>Land holding</b>								
Up to 1 acre	12(19) [19.04]	46(72) [37.09]	6(9) [33.33]	64[100] [31.24]	22(34) [32.35]	34(53) [30.08]	8(13) [33.34]	64[100] [31.24]
Above 1 and below 2 acres	22(33) [34.92]	42(64) [33.87]	2(3) [11.11]	66[100] [32.16]	18(23) [26.47]	53(69) [46.98]	6(8) [25]	77[100] [37.56]
2 acres and 4 acres	24(92) [38.09]	0(00) [00]	2(8) [11.11]	26[100] [12.68]	2(100) [2.94]	0 [00]	0 [00]	2[100] [.97]
landless	5(10)	36(74)	8(16)	49[100]	26(42)	25(41)	10(17)	62[100]

	[7.95]	(29.03)	(44.44)	(23.90)	(38.23)	(22.12)	(41.66)	(30.24)
<b>Total</b>	<b>63(31)</b>	<b>124(60)</b>	<b>18(9)</b>	<b>205[100]</b>	<b>68(33)</b>	<b>113(55)</b>	<b>24(12)</b>	<b>205[100]</b>
	[100]	[100]	[100]	[100]	[100]	[100]	[100]	[100]

*Note: Column percentage in brackets below*

*Row percentage in brackets aside; 1-4 years=new joiners; 5-14 years=core joiners; 15-20years=deep joiners*

owning. Table-4.8 elucidates the comparison between land holding and duration of work between RPs and CWs. Land holding is highly associated with duration of work among the CWs [ $p<.000002$ ] but not at all associated in case of RPs. In the “landless” category and “greater than 1 but less than 4 acres” category RPs and CWs are homogenous [ $p<.0095$  and  $p<.00048$ ]. Landless people are predominant in rickshaw pulling (30.24) than the construction work (23.90). Land holding beyond 1 acre of land is greater in percentage among the CWs (about 45%) than the RPs (about 38%). Percentage of new joiner CWs (93.05%) holds more land than the new joiner pullers (61.96%). Thus new comers who hold more lands are coming towards construction work rather than joining rickshaw pulling. The probable reason is that CWs carry more prestige than RPs. Among the CWs the new joiner holds more land than the core and deep joiner CWs. But in case of RPs the deep joiners holds marginally higher percentage of land than the new joiner pullers. Holding of up to 2 acre of land is predominant among core joiners of both RPs and CWs, but the new joiners of both RPs and CWs holds beyond 2 acres of land. Thus we can say that the new joiners of both RPs and CWs have come from comparatively large land holding family.

Income from agriculture is another determinant of economic background of the workers in the origin as well as place of work. We have a comparison between RPs and CWs (Table-4.9) to look into the matter as to which group of workers (RPs or CWs) belongs to better economic background or whether the new joiner has come from better off stable family in both categories. In case of CWs, income from

agriculture is not associated with duration of work but for the RP it is associated [ $p < .0035$ ]. Majority of the CWS (67.33%) have no source of agricultural income and the same also holds for RPs (63.43%) but to a

**Table-4.9**

**Distribution of RPs and CWS by Income from Agriculture and Duration of Work at SMCA**

[years] (Rs)	Duration of Construction Work at SMCA				Duration of Rickshaw Pulling at SMCA			
	1-4	5-14	15-20	Total	1-4	5-14	15-20	Total
<b>Income from agriculture [Rs. Per month]</b>								
0-250	10(31) [15.87]	22(69) [17.74]	0(00) [00]	<b>32[100]</b> <b>[15.60]</b>	6(21) [8.82]	21(72) [18.58]	2(7) [8.33]	<b>29[100]</b> <b>[14.14]</b>
250- 500	13(42) [20.63]	16(52) [12.90]	2(6) [11.11]	<b>31[100]</b> <b>[15.12]</b>	4(12) [5.88]	24(70) [21.22]	6(18) [25]	<b>34[100]</b> <b>[16.58]</b>
500+	0 [00]	4(100) [3.22]	0 [00]	<b>4[100]</b> <b>[1.95]</b>	4(33) [5.88]	6(50) [5.30]	2(17) [8.33]	<b>12[100]</b> <b>[5.85]</b>
Nil	40(29) [63.50]	82(59) [66.14]	16(12) [88.89]	<b>138[100]</b> <b>[67.33]</b>	54(41) [79.42]	62(48) [54.90]	14(11) [58.34]	<b>130[100]</b> <b>[63.43]</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>63(31)</b> <b>[100]</b>	<b>124(60)</b> <b>[100]</b>	<b>18(9)</b> <b>[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b> <b>[100]</b>	<b>68(33)</b> <b>[100]</b>	<b>113(55)</b> <b>[100]</b>	<b>24(12)</b> <b>[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b> <b>[100]</b>

Note: Column percentage in brackets below

Row percentage in brackets aside; 1-4 years=new joiners; 5-14 years=core joiners; 15-20 years=deep joiners

lesser extent. Up to the level of Rs.500 income from agriculture, both RPs and CWS show the same trend but beyond Rs.500 income it is the RPs who hold the higher percentage (5.85%) than CWS (1.95%). No income from agriculture among new joiner is more prominent in RPs (79.42%) than CWS (63.50%) but in case of core joiner the opposite holds (RPs -54.9% and CWS - 66.14%). Thus we can say that though in the category of CWS more workers earn agricultural income but RPs on an average earn higher income from agriculture than CWS. Income over Rs. 250 per month among RPs and CWS is highly homogenous [ $p < 0.0475$ ].

## 4.3 Income Status

### 4.3.1. Construction Workers

Daily wages differ according to status of the workers and work efficiency. Reserved wages for skilled workers setting out between Rs.95 to Rs.135 for over 71% of the workers, Rs. 55 to Rs. 95 for 78% semiskilled workers and between Rs.50 to Rs. 95 for over 85% of

**Table-4.10**

**Daily Wages by Skill Status [Construction Work]**

Skill [Rs]	Skilled	Semi skilled	Unskilled	Total
Up to 55	0	0	22(100) [27.5]	22[100] [10.73]
More than 55-95	12(11) [17.16]	43(39) [78.18]	54(50) [67.5]	109[100] [53.17]
More than 95-135	50(78) [71.42]	12(18) [21.82]	4(6) [5]	66[100] [32.20]
More than 135-180	8(100) [11.42]	0(0) [00]	0(00) [00]	8[100] [3.90]
<b>Total</b>	<b>70(34.14) [100]</b>	<b>55(26.84) [100]</b>	<b>80(39.02) [100]</b>	<b>205[100] [100]</b>

Note: Column percentage in brackets below

Row percentage in brackets aside

unskilled workers (Table-4.10). Daily wages is highly associated with skill status [ $p < .000007$ ]. Per day net average earnings of CWs is Rs. 87.45. Majority of the CWs are migratory in nature and they have to depend on the “*thikadar*”<sup>3</sup> or labour agents to confirm their job availability and for that they have to pay Rs 10 to Rs. 20 per day to *thikadar*. As they need to remit money to their native places for survival they do not bargain effectively for higher wages rather they are more concerned to get their jobs regularly.

The income of the family members depicts the overall economic situation of family. Total house hold income of CW is highly associated with the skill status [ $p < .0284$ ]. Table-4.11 evidences that more than 76% of the CWs possesses monthly family income more than Rs.2500

**Table-4.11**

**Monthly Total Household Family Income and Skill Level  
[Construction Work]**

Skill [Rs]	Skilled	Semi skilled	Unskilled	Total
Up to 1500	0 [00]	2(40) [3.63]	4(60) [5]	6[100] [2.92]
1500-2500	8(21) [11.42]	8(21) [14.54]	22(58) [27.5]	38[100] [18.53]
2501-4000	26(36) [37.16]	23(31) [41.84]	24(33) [30]	73[100] [35.62]
4001-5000	22(40) [31.42]	16(30) [29.09]	16(30) [20]	54[100] [26.35]
5000+	14(41) [20]	6(18) [10.90]	14(41) [17.5]	34[100] [16.58]
<b>Total</b>	<b>70(34.14) [100]</b>	<b>55(26.84) [100]</b>	<b>80(39.02) [100]</b>	<b>205[100] [100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets below  
Row percentage in brackets aside*

and among them more than 16% posses more than Rs.5000 per month. Little over 50% of the skilled workers possessed family income in the range of Rs. 4000 to Rs. 5000+. As far as semi skilled workers are concerned, 71% of them possessed family income in the range of Rs. 2501 to Rs. 5000 and more than 60% of unskilled workers possessed family income up to Rs. 4000. From the Table it is clear that the skilled workers belong to predominantly better economic background family relative to semiskilled and unskilled workers.

Average monthly income of the male CWS is shown in Tabe-4.12 by age. Here we see that average income increases with the rise in age up to a certain point and after that declines. The average income of all

**Table-4.12**

**Monthly Individual Average Income of Male CWS by Age**

Age	Income	Average Income[Rs]
<18		1939.00
18-28		2454.82
29-39		2869.69
40 and Above		1686.25
<b>Total</b>		<b>2550.96</b>

categories of male CWS taken together is Rs.2550.96. Middle age group (26-39 years) workers earns higher monthly income than other age group. Table-4.13 shows that the individual monthly average income of women CWS (Rs.1734.77) is even below the average income of below 18 years of male CWS (Rs.2018). Here also the middle aged women workers earn the highest

**Table-4.13**

**Monthly Individual Average Income of Women Workers by Age  
[Construction Work]**

Age	Income	Average Income[Rs]
20-29		1617.50
30-39		1848.00
40 and above		1686.25
<b>Total</b>		<b>1734.77</b>

average monthly income (Rs. 1848) among all other age groups of women CWS. Thus it can be concluded that both men and women

middle aged groups CWs earn more income relative to other age groups and in aggregate male workers earn more than female workers.

Per day net earnings may be influenced by the skill status of the CWs. Per day net earnings among CW is highly associated with skill status [ $p < 3.598 \cdot 10^{-15}$ ]. Table-4.14 embraces that more than 85% of the skilled workers per day earns Rs. 81 to Rs. 120, more than 96% semiskilled workers per day earns Rs.61 to Rs. 100 and 95% of the

**Table-4.14**

**Distribution of CWs According to Skill Status and Per Day Net Earnings**

Skill [Rs]	Skilled	Semi skilled	Unskilled	Total
0-60	0 [00]	0 [00]	40(100) [50]	40[100] [19.51]
61-80	2(4) [2.96]	16(30) [29.09]	36(66) [45]	54[100] [26.34]
81-100	38(48) [54.28]	37(47) [67.27]	4(5) [5]	79[100] [38.53]
101-120	22(92) [31.42]	2(8) [3.64]	0 [00]	24[100] [11.72]
121-140	4(100) [5.71]	0 [00]	0 [00]	4[100] [1.95]
Above 140	4(100) [5.73]	0 [00]	0 [00]	4[100] [1.95]
<b>Total</b>	<b>70(34.14) [100]</b>	<b>55(26.84) [100]</b>	<b>80(39.02) [100]</b>	<b>205[100] [100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets below  
Row percentage in brackets aside*

unskilled workers per day earns up to Rs. 80. Thus here we see a positive co-relation between per day net earnings and proficiency in work. In aggregate more than 50% of the CWs per day earn Rs. 81 to Rs.120. Only a tiny section (5.71%) of skilled CWs earns per day Rs.140 and above. Per day net earnings of the CWs also may vary

according to the type of skill, which is shown in Table-4.15. The Table shows that highest per day net earnings i.e. Rs. 140 and above is predominant among the skilled electric and marble CWs. Per day net earnings of other types of workers vary between Rs. 101 to Rs. 120. Skilled marble and electric workers are highest paid as because these types of works requires special expertise. Unskilled workers across all

**Table-4.15**

**Distribution of CWs According to Per Day Net Earnings and Type of Skill**

[Rs] Type \		0-60	61-80	81-100	101-120	121-140	140+	Total
Carpenter	s	0	0	2	0	0	0	2[33.33]
	ss	0	0	2	0	0	0	2[33.33]
	us	0	2	0	0	0	0	2[33.33]
	<b>Total</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>6</b>
Electric	s	0	0	0	0	0	2	2[100]
	ss	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	us	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>
Marble	s	0	0	0	0	0	4	4[23.8]
	ss	0	0	9	2	0	0	11[28.6]
	us	0	6	0	0	0	0	6[47.6]
	<b>Total</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>21</b>
Mason	s	0	2	28	6	0	0	36[38.3]
	ss	0	12	4	0	0	0	16[17.02]
	us	30	12	0	0	0	0	42[44.68]
	<b>Total</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>94</b>
Painter	s	0	0	0	4	0	0	4[22.22]
	ss	0	4	6	0	0	0	10[565.55]
	us	2	2	0	0	0	0	4[22.22]
	<b>Total</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>18</b>

Plumber	s	0	0	0	4	0	0	4[33.33]
	ss	0	0	0	6	0	0	6[50]
	us	0	2	0	0	0	0	2[16.66]
	<b>Total</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>12</b>
Rod	s	0	0	10	6	2	0	18[52.94]
	ss	0	0	10	0	0	0	10[29.41]
	us	6	0	0	0	0	0	6[17.64]
	<b>Total</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>34</b>
Soil labour	Us [total]	2	12	4	0	0	0	18
	<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>54</b>	<b>75</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>205</b>

Note: Column percentage in brackets

types of workers earns per day up to Rs. 80. Average daily and monthly wages may vary by skill status of the workers. Table-4.16 illustrated that average daily and monthly wages of the skilled (daily wage- Rs. 111.85; average monthly wages- Rs.2947.7) CWs are higher compared to the semiskilled and unskilled workers.

**Table-4.16**  
**Relation between Work Type and Wages**  
**[Construction Work]**

Work Type \ Wages	Average Daily Wages[Rs]	Average Monthly Wages[Rs]
Skilled	111.85	2947.70
Semi skilled	87.80	2376.60
Unskilled	65.87	1080.80

In relation to the total family expenditure, more than 85% of the unskilled workers spend up to Rs. 3500 per month with significant 37.5% unskilled workers spend Rs.1500 to Rs.2500 [Table-4.17]. In relation to semiskilled workers, more than 81% of the semiskilled

workers spend up to Rs. 3500 per month with about 41.81% restricting their expenditure up to Rs.1500 to Rs.2500. In relation to skilled workers, more than 71% skilled workers spend up to Rs. 3500 with 34.28% restricting their expenditure up to Rs. 1500 to Rs.2500. A significant portion of the skilled workers (29%) spends per month above Rs. 3501. What we see from Table-18 is that monthly consumption pattern of unskilled workers is higher than the semiskilled family workers.

**Table-4.17**

**Monthly Family Household Consumption and Skill Status  
[Construction Work]**

Skill [Rs]	Skilled	Semi skilled	Unskilled	Total
Up to Rs. 1500	0 [00]	2(40) [3.63]	4(60) [5]	6[100] [2.92]]
Rs 1500-2500	26(33) [37.16]	23(29) [41.81]	30(38) [37.5]	79[100] [38.53]
Rs 2501-3500	24(31) [34.28]	20(26) [36.38]	34(43) [42.5]	78[100] [38.04]
Rs 3501-4500	10(38) [14.28]	10(38) [18.18]	8(24) [10]	28[100] [13.65]
Rs. 4500+	10(71) [14.28]	0 [00]	4(29) [5]	14[100] [6.86]
<b>Total</b>	<b>70(34.14) [100]</b>	<b>55(26.84) [100]</b>	<b>80(39.02) [100]</b>	<b>205[100] [100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets below  
Row percentage in brackets aside*

Despite low level of income, CWs saves significant portion of their income. Monthly individual savings of the CWs may also vary according to the skill status of the workers (Table-4.18). Monthly individual savings among CW is highly associated with skill status [ $p<1.692.10^{-11}$ ]. An examination of the table reveals that, in aggregate,

more than 70% of the workers saves up to Rs. 1000 per month. Those who save nothing are predominant among the unskilled workers with 22.5%.

**Table-4.18**  
**Monthly Individual Savings and Skill Status**  
**[Construction Work]**

Skill [Rs.]	Skilled	Semi skilled	Unskilled	Total
Nil	2(9) [2.86]	2(9) [3.64]	18(82) [22.5]	22[100] [10.73]
1-500	28(22) [40]	38(31) [69.09]	58(47) [72.5]	124[100] [60.48]
501-1000	34(64) [48.57]	15(28) [27.27]	4(8) [5]	53[100] [25.86]
1001-1500	4(100) [5.71]	0 [00]	0 [00]	4]100 [1.96]
1501-2000	2(100) [2.86]	0 [00]	0 [00]	2[100] .97]
<b>Total</b>	<b>70(34.14) [100]</b>	<b>55(26.84) [100]</b>	<b>80(39.02) [100]</b>	<b>205[100] [100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets below  
Row percentage in brackets aside*

In relation to skilled workers, more than 88% saves per month up to Rs. 1000 of which major portion (48.57%) saves in between Rs.500-Rs.1000. In case of semiskilled workers, more than 95% saves per month up to Rs. 1000 of which major portion (69.09%) saves in between Rs.1- Rs.500. In relation to unskilled workers, more than 72% saves up to Rs. 500. It is obvious that the unskilled workers save less than other types workers as their earnings is less compared to other types of workers.

Individual savings varies across the age of the workers, which is depicted in Table-4.19. In aggregate more than 60% of the CWs save

up to Rs.500. 11% saves nothing and 29% saves more than Rs.1000. About 60% workers of all age groups save up to Rs.500. workers below the age of 18 years and middle age group workers save more than the

**Table-4.19**

**Distribution of CWs According to Monthly Individual Savings Behaviour by Age Group**

(Rs) Age \ No Savings	1-500	501- 1000	1001- 1500	1501- 2000	Total
<18 yrs	2(10) [9.09]	12(60) [10.91]	6(30) [9.83]	0 [00]	0 [00] 20[100] [9.77]
18-25 yrs	8(23) [36.36]	20(59) [18.18]	6(18) [9.83]	0 [00]	0 [00] 34[100] [16.58]
26-39yrs	8(6) [36.36]	78(61) [70.92]	35(28) [57.37]	4(3) [100]	2(2) [100] 127[100] [61.95]
40 and above	4(17) [18.19]	14(58) [11.29]	6(25) [22.97]	0 [00]	0 [00] 24[100] [11.70]
<b>Total</b>	<b>22(11) [100]</b>	<b>124(60) [100]</b>	<b>53(26) [100]</b>	<b>4(2) [100]</b>	<b>2(1) [100] 205[100] [100]</b>

Note: Column percentage in brackets below  
Row percentage in brackets aside

younger age and older age workers. Savings more than Rs.1000 has been found among the middle age group workers with 5%. About 60% of all age group workers save up to Rs. 500. 30% of <18 years workers and 33% of middle age group workers saves more than Rs.500 per month which happens to be moderately higher than other age group workers. Thus it is clear that 94% of middle age group workers save, which is highest among all age groups and also belongs to higher savings group.

#### **4.3.2 Rickshaw Pullers**

Age happens to be an important determinant for earnings in rickshaw pulling as since rickshaw pulling requires lot of physical strength

which decreases with the age. Per day earnings of the RP is highly associated with their age [ $p<.0053$ ]. Table-4.20 demonstrates per day net earnings of RPs by age. The Table reveals that, 77% of the RPs earns up to Rs. 120 per day with significant 48% earns up to Rs.100 per day.

**Table-4.20**

**Distribution of RP by Per Day Net Earnings Net From Pulling and Age**

(Rs) Age \	80-100	101- 120	121- 140	140+	Total
<18 yrs	2(11) [2.06]	6(33) [10.16]	8(45) [21.05]	2(11) [20.00]	18[100] [8.78]
18-25 yrs	20(49) [20.40]	13(32) [22.03]	8(19) [21.05]	0 [00]	41[100] [20.00]
26-39 yrs	48(48) [48.97]	36(36) [61.00]	20(20) [52.64]	4(4) [40.00]	100[100] [48.78]
40 yrs and Above	28(61) [28.57]	12(26) [20.31]	2(4) [5.26]	4(9) [40.00]	46[100] [22.44]
<b>Total</b>	<b>98(48) [100]</b>	<b>59(29) [100]</b>	<b>38(18) [100]</b>	<b>10(5) [100]</b>	<b>205[100] [100]</b>

Note: Column percentage in brackets below  
Row percentage in brackets aside

Among the <18 years age group, 56% earns more than Rs.121 per day and among the older pullers the percentage is only 13%. 61% of the older age pullers earn below Rs. 100 per day which again reveals the fact that earnings from pulling decreases with the increase in age.

Savings behaviour among the RPs is illustrated by age group in Table-4.21. Monthly individual savings of RP is highly associated with their age [ $p<.004$ ]. It is remarkable that, in spite of low levels of earnings, all the RPs save some proportion of their income. In this respect RP are in better position relative to CWs where 11% of this latter group saves nothing out of their income.

**Table-4.21**

**Distribution of RPs According to Savings Behaviour per Month by Age Group**

(Rs) Age \ savings	No 1-500	501- 1000	1001- 1500	1501- 2000	2001- 3000	3000+ [100]	Total [100]	
<18 yrs	0	2(11) [2.38]	2(11) [2.81]	2(11) [8.33]	2(11) [16.66]	8(45) [66.66]	2(11) [100] [8.78]	
18-25 yrs	0	12(29) [14.28]	17(41) [23.94]	4(10) [16.66]	4(10) [33.33]	4(10) [33.34]	0(00) [00] [20.00]	
26- 39yrs	0	46(46) [54.76]	38(38) [53.52]	14(14) [58.33]	2(2) [16.66]	0 [00]	0 [00] [48.78]	
40 and above	0	24(52) [28.58]	14(30) [19.73]	4(9) [16.68]	4(9) [33.35]	0 [00]	0 [00] [22.44]	
<b>Total</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>84(41) [100]</b>	<b>71(34) [100]</b>	<b>24(12) [100]</b>	<b>12(6) [100]</b>	<b>12(6) [100]</b>	<b>2(1) [100]</b>	<b>205[100] [100]</b>

Note: Column percentage in brackets below

Row percentage in brackets aside

75% Of the pullers save up to Rs. 1000 per month and 25% saves more than Rs. 1000. Among the <18 years age pullers, 56% saves more than Rs. 2000 per month, where as middle age and older age pullers do not comprise to this saving group. 84% of the middle age pullers and 82% of the older age pullers saves up to Rs. 1000 per month and 30% of the young age group workers save more than Rs. 1000 per month. Thus savings from pulling is negatively correlated with the age of the pullers.

Average daily net earnings of the RP are Rs.110.3, which is very much close to the average daily net earnings of skilled CWs (Rs.111.85). Average monthly wages of the RP is Rs.3291.70, which is marginally higher than the skilled CWs (Rs. 2947.7).

### **4.3.3 Comparison between Rickshaw Pullers and Construction Workers by Income, Consumption and Savings.**

#### Earnings members

Earning members are more or less the same in the case of both RPs and CWs (Table-4.22). This is probably because of the fact that majority of the CWs and RP belongs to the same kind of socio economic background. Only 2.92% RPs are having more than three earning members.

**Table-4.22**

#### **Distribution of RPs and CWs on The Basis of Earnings Members in the Family**

<b>Earning Members</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>&gt;3</b>	<b>Total</b>
Rickshaw Pullers	97 [47.31]	84 [40.97]	18 [8.78]	6 [2.94]	<b>205 [100]</b>
Construction Workers	93 [45.36]	86 [41.96]	26 [12.68]	0	<b>205 [100]</b>

*Note: Row average in brackets*

#### Monthly individual income

Monthly individual income (income from primary work and other sources) of RPs and CWs are depicted in Table-4.23. Monthly individual income of RPs and CWs are not at all homogenous [ $p < 1.4214 \cdot 10^{-20}$ ]. About 55% RPs possess monthly individual income more than Rs. 3000 and more than 90% of the constructions workers possess up to Rs. 3000 with 34.16 % workers hold less than Rs. 2000. About 18% RPs belong to higher monthly individual income group [more than Rs. 4000] whereas only about 2% CWs comprise that group. Thus it is clear that RPs lie in the higher individual monthly income frame than CWs.

**Table-4.23****Distribution of RPs and CWs by Monthly Income [Income from Primary Work and Other Sources]**

<b>Earnings (Rs)</b>	<b>RPs</b>	<b>CWs</b>
1000-2000	0	70[34.16]
2001-3000	94[45.87]	114[55.61]
3001-4000	74[36.09]	17[8.29]
4001-5000	33[16.09]	2[.97]
5000+	4[1.95]	2[.97]
<b>Total</b>	<b>205[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

There are highly significant differences in monthly individual income sex wise among CWs [Table-4.24]. From Table-4.24 and 4.24A it can be said with confidence that the RPs has higher individual average monthly income than CWs [ $p < .01$ ].

**Table-4.24**  
**Monthly Individual Income of CWs by Sex**

<b>Income Sex</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>S.D.</b>	<b>S.E.</b>	<b>CV[%]</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>
Male	2550.96**	823.14	93.20	32.27	1320	7600
Female	1734.77	320.90	68.42	18.50	1155	2400
<b>Total</b>	<b>2371.40</b>	<b>815.05</b>	<b>81.50</b>	<b>34.37</b>	<b>1155</b>	<b>7600</b>

*Note- \*\*highly significant,  $p < .01$*

**Table-4.24A**  
**Monthly Individual Income of RPs**

<b>Income</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>S.D.</b>	<b>S.E.</b>	<b>CV[%]</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>
Rickshaw Pullers	3291.70**	685.16	68.52	-	2080	5400

*Note: \*\*highly significant,  $[p < .01]$*

### Monthly Individual income by age

Monthly individual income of middle age group RPs [29-39] is significantly higher than all other age group CWs. Up to the age of 39 individual income rises then falls. Thus a negative correlation holds between the age and monthly individual income of CWs [Table-4.25].

**Table-4.25**

#### **Monthly Individual Income of CWs by Age**

<b>Age</b>	<b>Income</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>S.D.</b>	<b>S.E.</b>	<b>CV[%]</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>
<18 yrs	1939.00	524.13	165.75	27.03	1365	3000	
18-28 yrs	2268.75	537.91	89.65	23.71	1210	3000	
29-39 yrs	2626.43	1033.51	159.47	39.35	1320	7600	
40 yrs and Above	2147.08	586.82	169.40	27.33	1155	3000	
<b>Total</b>	<b>2371.40</b>	<b>815.05</b>	<b>81.50</b>	<b>34.37</b>	<b>1155</b>	<b>7600</b>	

In case of RPs we have found that [Table-4.26] monthly individual income falls with the rise in age. Below 18 year's age group RPs hold highest monthly individual income than all other aged RPs. A comparison between RPs and CWs reveals that the average monthly individual income of all age group RPs constitutes significantly higher than all age group CWs. In sum, RPs holds significantly [ $p < .01$ ] higher monthly average individual income than CWs.

**Table-4.26**

#### **Monthly Individual Income of RPs by Age**

<b>Age</b>	<b>Income</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>S.D.</b>	<b>S.E.</b>	<b>CV[%]</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>
<18 yrs	3947.78**	450.77	150.26	11.42	3380	4800	
18-28 yrs	3350.00**	808.11	147.54	24.12	2160	5400	
29-39 yrs	3216.58**	568.07	92.15	17.66	2160	4500	

40 yrs and Above	3083.04**	631.73	131.72	20.49	2080	4200
<b>Total</b>	<b>3291.70**</b>	<b>685.16</b>	<b>68.52</b>	<b>20.81</b>	<b>2080</b>	<b>5400</b>

Note-\*\*highly significant,  $p < .01$

### Individual per capita income

Per capita individual income of RPs and CWs is not homogenous at all [ $p < .0000016$ ]. More than 79% RPs comprise individual per capita income up to Rs. 1500 with 20.48% belonging to below Rs.500 (Table-4.27). For CWs, more than 96% hold individual per capita income up to Rs.1000 with more than 45% belonging to below Rs.500. Thus it is clear from the above Table that

**Table-4.27**

### **Distribution of RPs and CWs According To Individual per Capita Income [Income from Primary Work+ Income from Other Sources]**

<b>Income (Rs)</b>	<b>RPs</b>	<b>CWs</b>
1-400	42[20.48]	91[45.00]
501-1000	151[73.65]	106[51.70]
1001-1500	2[1.00]	4[1.87]
1500+	0	4[1.95]
<b>Total</b>	<b>205[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

on the whole larger percentage of RPs belong to higher individual per capita income than CWs. As the family size of both RPs and CWs happens to be more or less same, the higher per capita income for RPs must be accompanied with higher individual monthly earnings of RPs than CWs.

**Table-4.28**  
**Individual Per Capita Income Sex Wise [CWs]**

Age Sex \ Age	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	CV[%]	Min	Max
Male	879.33	396.09	44.85	45.05	270.00	2680.00
Female	850.82	379.29	80.36	44.58	357.00	1875.00
<b>Total</b>	<b>873.05</b>	<b>390.74</b>	<b>39.07</b>	<b>44.76</b>	<b>270.00</b>	<b>2680</b>

**Table-4.28A**  
**Individual per Capita Income of RPs**

Per Income	Capita	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	CV[%]	Min	Max
Rickshaw Pullers		871.67	324.91	32.49	37.27	303.75	1780.00

Table-4.28 depicts that there lies a significant difference in average per capita income among the male and female CWs. From Table-4.28A it is clear that there is no significant difference in average per capita income between RPs and CWs.

#### Monthly Individual Consumption

Monthly individual consumption expenditure of both RPs and CWs is illustrated in Table-4.29. Monthly individual consumption of RPs and CWs is not at all homogenous [ $p < 4.10^{-27}$ ]. Majority of the RPs (44.87%) spends between Rs.2001 to Rs. 2500 and majority of the CW (39.04%) spends between Rs.1500 to Rs. 2000. More than 60% RPs spend more than Rs. 2500 for their individual consumption (with 16.57% pullers spend more than 3000), whereas in case of CWs it is only about 12%. Thus RP spends more money per month than CWs.

**Table-4.29**
**Distribution of RPs and CWs According to Monthly Individual Consumption Expenditure**

<b>Consumption (Rs)</b>	<b>RPs</b>	<b>CWs</b>
Less than 1500	0	27[13.17]
1500-2000	14[6.82]	72[35.12]
2001-2500	70[34.14]	80[39.04]
2501-3000	92[44.87]	20[9.75]
3000+	29[16.57]	6[2.92]
<b>Total</b>	<b>205[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

A male CW has higher individual consumption than female worker [Table-4.30]. It can also be said with strong confidence from Table-4.30 and 4.30A that RPs has higher individual consumption than CWs [ $p < .01$ ].

**Table-4.30**
**Monthly Individual Consumption of CWs by Sex**

<b>Consumption</b> <b>Sex</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>S.D.</b>	<b>S.E.</b>	<b>CV[%]</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>
Male	2262.21	617.76	69.95	27.30	880	6000
Female	1645.00	313.76	66.89	19.07	1000	2400
<b>Total</b>	<b>2127.20</b>	<b>619.63</b>	<b>61.96</b>	<b>29.13</b>	<b>880</b>	<b>6000</b>

**Table-4.30A**
**Monthly Individual Consumption of RPs**

<b>Consumption</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>S.D.</b>	<b>S.E.</b>	<b>CV[%]</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>
Rickshaw pullers	2644.77	418.51	41.85	15.82	1500	3550

### Monthly Individual Savings

As far as monthly individual saving is concerned, RPs and CWs are not homogenous at all [ $p < 2.6762 \cdot 10^{-16}$ ]. About 27% RPs hold monthly individual savings more than Rs. 1000, with 6.84% saves more than Rs. 2000 (Table-4.31).

**Table-4.31**

#### **Distribution of RPs and CWs According to Individual Savings [Monthly]**

Savings (Rs)	RPs	CWs
< 100	8[3.90]	52[25.36]
100-1000	142[69.26]	147[71.70]
1001-2000	41[20.00]	6[2.94]
2000+	14[6.84]	0[00]
<b>Total</b>	<b>205[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

Whereas, only 2.94% CWs saves more than Rs. 1000 per month. It can be found that about 97% CWs saves up to Rs. 1000 per month, whereas about 72% RPs save the same. Thus it is clear that RPs belong to higher monthly individual savings group than CWs.

**Table-4.32**

#### **Individual Savings of CWs by Sex**

Sex \ Savings	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	CV[%]	Min	Max
Male	413.92**	363.70	41.18	87.87	0	1900
Female	121.14	133.83	28.53	110.48	0	465
<b>Total</b>	349.51	348.62	34.86	99.75	0	1900

*Note: \*\*highly significant, [p < .01]*

**Table-4.32 A**  
**Individual Savings of RPs**

Savings	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	CV[%]	Min	Max
Rickshaw	792.80**	685.42	68.54	86.46	10	3950
Pullers						

Note: \*\*highly significant, [p<.01]

Male CWs have significantly [p<.01] higher individual savings than female workers [Table-4.32]. Comparison with Table-4.32A, it can be said with high confidence [p<.01] that, RPs have higher individual savings than CWs.

#### Monthly household income by sex

Table-4.33 depicts that there is no significant difference in monthly household income between male and female among the CWs. Once again it is evident from Table-4.33A that RPs have higher monthly household income than CWs.

**Table-4.33**  
**Mean of Total Household Income of CW by Sex**

Age Sex	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	CV[%]	Min	Max
Male	3927.64	1922.89	217.72	48.96	1350	13400
Female	3533.86	1381.09	294.45	39.08	1430	5920
<b>Total</b>	<b>3841.01</b>	<b>1818.60</b>	<b>181.86</b>	<b>47.35</b>	<b>1350</b>	<b>13400</b>

**Table-4.33A**  
**Mean of Total Household Income of RPs**

Income	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	CV[%]	Min	Max
RPs	4446.67	1741.03	174.10	39.15	2250	10100

Contribution to Monthly household income

How much individual RPs and CWs contribute to their total family income is embraced in Table-4.34. As far as contribution to the monthly household income is concerned, both the RPs and CWs are not homogenous [ $p < 2.87 \cdot 10^{-21}$ ]. Our study reveals that contribution of more than Rs. 3000 per month to the monthly household income is predominant among the RPs (51.71%) (with 15.62% contributing more than Rs.4000) than the CWs (about 7%). About 48% RPs contribute up to Rs.3000 to the household income where as about 93% of CWs contribute up to Rs. 3000 to the household income with 33.65% contributing less than Rs. 2000 per month.

**Table-4.34**  
**Contribution of RPs and CWs to Monthly Household Income**

Income (Rs)	RPs	CWs
<2000	0	69[33.65]
2000-3000	99[48.29]	120[58.53]
3001-4000	74[36.09]	12[5.87]
4000+	32[15.62]	4[1.95]
<b>Total</b>	<b>205[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

Table-4.35 depicts that there is no significant difference in monthly household income between male and female among the CWs. Once again it is evident from Table-4.35A that RPs hold significantly [ $p < .01$ ] higher monthly household income than CWs.

**Table-4.35**  
**Monthly Household Income of CW by Sex**

Age Sex	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	CV[%]	Min	Max
Male	3927.64	1922.89	217.72	48.96	1350	13400
Female	3533.86	1381.09	294.45	39.08	1430	5920
<b>Total</b>	<b>3841.01</b>	<b>1818.60</b>	<b>181.86</b>	<b>47.35</b>	<b>1350</b>	<b>13400</b>

**Table-4.35A**  
**Mean of Total Household Income of RPs**

Income	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	CV[%]	Min	Max
RPs	4446.67**	1741.03	174.10	39.15	2250	10100

*Note: \*\*highly significant, p<.01*

#### Per capita Household income

RPs and CWs are not homogenous [Table-4.36] in terms of per capita household income [ $p<.00927$ ]. Per capita household income more than Rs.1000 is predominant among the RPs with about 28% (with 1.92% contributing more than Rs.1500) than the CWs (24%) (with 9.28% contributing more than Rs.1500), Thus it is clear from our study that CWs belong to higher per capita household income group than RPs.

**Table-4.36**  
**Distribution of RPs and CWs According to Per Capita Total Household Income**

Income (Rs)	RPs	CWs
1-400	20[9.75]	18[8.78]
500-1000	120[58.53]	138[67.31]
1001-1500	55[26.80]	30[14.63]
1500+	10[1.92]	19[9.28]
<b>Total</b>	<b>205[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

### Monthly Household consumption

There is no significant difference in monthly household consumption sex wise among CWs [Table-4.37]. From Table 4.37 and 4.37A it is evident that RPs have significantly [ $p < .01$ ] higher monthly household consumption than CWs.

**Table-4.37**

#### **Monthly Household Consumption Sex Wise [CWs]**

<b>Age Sex</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>S.D.</b>	<b>S.E.</b>	<b>CV[%]</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>
Male	3115.45	1299.55	147.14	41.71	1350	10000
Female	2772.73	881.45	187.93	31.79	1430	4900
<b>Total</b>	<b>3040.05</b>	<b>1224.21</b>	<b>122.42</b>	<b>40.27</b>	<b>1350</b>	<b>10000</b>

**Table-4.37A**

#### **Monthly Household Consumption of RPs**

<b>Consumption</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>S.D.</b>	<b>S.E.</b>	<b>CV[%]</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>
RPs	3322.01	916.25	91.63	27.58	2000	6000

### Monthly Household savings

Monthly household saving of RPs and CWs is not at all homogenous [ $p < .00068$ ]. The majority of the RPs hold monthly household savings in the range of Rs.1001 to Rs. 2000 and the same also holds for CWs with 53.65% (Table-4.38). Again the Table shows that, more than 43% RPs possesses monthly household saving of more than Rs. 1000 with 15.13 % belonging to more than Rs.2000 savings category. In the case

**Table-4.38**
**Distribution of RPs and CWs According to Monthly Household Savings**

Savings (Rs)	RPs	CWs
<100	4[1.95]	35[17.07]
100-1000	112[54.63]	110[53.65]
1001-2000	58[28.29]	50[24.39]
2000+	31[15.13]	10[4.89]
<b>Total</b>	<b>205[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

of CWs about 29% possesses monthly household savings of more than Rs. 1000 with only 4.89% lies in the range of more than Rs.2000 savings category. On the other hand, 17.07% CWs lie in the savings category of less than Rs.100 per month while in case of RPs it is only 1.95%. Thus it is apparent that majority of the RPs lies in upper savings range than the majority of CWs.

**Table-4.39**
**Monthly Household Savings Sex Wise [CWs]**

Age Sex \	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	CV[%]	Min	Max
Male	811.29	806.93	91.37	99.46	0	3780
Female	757.50	705.93	150.51	93.19	0	2795
<b>Total</b>	<b>799.46</b>	<b>782.72</b>	<b>78.27</b>	<b>97.91</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>2780</b>

**Table-4.39A**
**Monthly Household Savings of RPs**

Savings	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	CV[%]	Min	Max
Rickshaw Puller	1134.20	1017.28	101.73	89.69	40	4700

There is no significant difference in monthly household savings among CWs sex wise [Table-4.39]. RPs hold higher monthly household savings than CWs [Table-4.39A].

#### **4.4 Income, Expenditure and Savings Differentials between Rickshaw Pullers and Construction Workers by Duration of Work at SMCA**

##### Monthly Individual income

Our survey reveals that 5-9 years duration CWs hold significantly higher monthly individual income than 1-4 years duration CWs [Table-4.40]. Again, 10-14 years duration CWs hold significantly higher monthly individual income than all other duration CWs.

**Table-4.40**

##### **Monthly Individual Income of CWs by Duration of Work**

Income Years	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	CV[%]	Min	Max
1-4 yrs	1967.07	488.35	90.68	24.83	1210	3000
5-9 yrs	2438.08	652.14	104.43	26.75	1155	4500
10-14 yrs	2772.73	1208.83	257.72	43.60	1320	7600
15-20 yrs	2401.00	647.60	204.79	26.98	1320	3240
<b>Total</b>	<b>2371.40</b>	<b>815.05</b>	<b>81.50</b>	<b>34.37</b>	<b>1155</b>	<b>7600</b>

From Table-4.40A it is revealed that the 5-9 years duration RPs embrace significantly higher individual income than all other duration pullers. Again except 10-14 years duration RPs, all other duration categories of RPs hold significantly [ $p<.01$ ] higher monthly individual income than that of CWs.

**Table-4.40A**

**Monthly Individual Income of RPs by Duration of Work**

<b>Income Years</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>S.D.</b>	<b>S.E.</b>	<b>CV[%]</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>
1-4 yrs	2888.57**	711.98	269.10	24.65	2250	4350
5-9 yrs	3334.69**	546.50	96.61	16.39	2160	4500
10-14 yrs	3098.82	697.41	169.15	22.51	2160	4200
15 yrs and Above	2985.88**	457.00	110.84	15.31	2080	3800
<b>Total</b>	<b>3291.70**</b>	<b>685.16</b>	<b>68.52</b>	<b>20.81</b>	<b>2080</b>	<b>5400</b>

Note: \*\*highly significant [p<.01]

Monthly House hold income

No significant difference in monthly household income has been found among all duration categories of CWs [Table-4.41].

**Table-4.41**

**Monthly Household Income of CWs by Duration of Work**

<b>Income Years</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>S.D.</b>	<b>S.E.</b>	<b>CV[%]</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>
1-4 yrs	3869.14	1631.23	302.91	42.16	1485	7640
5-9 yrs	3446.56	1206.92	193.26	35.02	1350	6600
10-14 yrs	4712.27*	2553.87	544.49	54.20	1950	13400
15-20 yrs	3381.00	1991.45	629.75	58.90	1800	8500
<b>Total</b>	<b>3841.01</b>	<b>1818.60</b>	<b>181.86</b>	<b>47.35</b>	<b>1350</b>	<b>13400</b>

Note: \*significant [p<.05]

It can be found that 1-4 years duration RPs possess significantly higher monthly household income than all other duration RPs [Table-4.41A]. The 10-14 years duration CWs hold significantly higher monthly household income than that of RPs. It also appears that 1-4 years and 5-9 years duration of RPs acquire significantly [p<.01] higher monthly household income than that of CWs.

**Table-4.41A****Monthly Household Income of RPs by Duration of Work**

<b>Income Years</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>S.D.</b>	<b>S.E.</b>	<b>CV[%]</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>
1-4 yrs	5032.85*	2120.58	363.68	42.13	2250	10100
5-9 yrs	4401.16**	1434.37	253.56	32.59	2460	8900
10-14 yrs	3590.35	1015.79	246.36	28.29	2370	5800
15 yrs and Above	4216.29	1700.83	412.51	40.34	2430	8700
<b>Total</b>	<b>4446.67**</b>	<b>1741.03</b>	<b>174.10</b>	<b>39.15</b>	<b>2250</b>	<b>10100</b>

Note: \*\*highly significant [p<.01]; \*significant [p<.05]

Monthly Individual consumption

The study reveals that 1-4 years duration CWs possess significantly lower monthly individual consumption compared to all other duration of CWs [Table-4.42].

**Table-4.42****Monthly Individual Consumption of CWs by Duration of Work**

<b>Consumption Years</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>S.D.</b>	<b>S.E.</b>	<b>CV[%]</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>
1-4 yrs	1827.76	446.93	82.99	24.45	880	2800
5-9 yrs	2160.00	520.85	83.40	24.11	1000	3800
10-14 yrs	2427.27	869.69	185.42	35.83	1300	6000
15-20 yrs	2207.50	413.33	130.71	18.72	1650	2900
<b>Total</b>	<b>2127.20</b>	<b>619.63</b>	<b>61.96</b>	<b>29.13</b>	<b>880</b>	<b>6000</b>

In case of RPs, 5-9 years duration pullers hold significantly higher monthly individual consumption than 1-4 years duration RPs. Again except 10-14 years duration RPs all other duration RPs comprise significantly [p<.01] higher monthly individual consumption than that of CWs [Table-4.42A].

**Table-4.42A****Monthly Individual Consumption of RPs by Duration of Work**

<b>Consumption Years</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>S.D.</b>	<b>S.E.</b>	<b>CV[%]</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>
1-4 yrs	2521.18**	492.24	84.42	19.52	1500	3500
5-9 yrs	2747.03**	423.70	74.90	15.42	2000	3550
10-14 yrs	2662.47	343.19	83.23	12.89	2090	3150
15 yrs and Above	2681.76**	251.50	61.00	9.38	2220	3000
<b>Total</b>	<b>2644.77**</b>	<b>418.51</b>	<b>41.85</b>	<b>15.82</b>	<b>1500</b>	<b>3550</b>

Note: \*\*highly significant [p<.01]

Monthly Household consumption

Table-4.43 shows that 10-14 years duration CWs hold significantly higher monthly household consumption than 1-4 years and 5-9 years duration CWs and the case is also same for RPs [Table-4.43A].

**Table-4.43****Monthly Household Consumption of CWs by Duration of Work**

<b>Consumption Years</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>S.D.</b>	<b>S.E.</b>	<b>CV[%]</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>
1-4 yrs	3030.69	915.30	169.97	30.20	1485	5500
5-9 yrs	2711.54	801.80	128.39	29.57	1350	5400
10-14 yrs	3690.91*	1783.43	380.23	25.81	1900	10000
15-20 yrs	2916.50	1490.95	471.48	51.12	1800	6840
<b>Total</b>	<b>3040.05</b>	<b>1224.21</b>	<b>122.42</b>	<b>40.27</b>	<b>1350</b>	<b>10000</b>

Note: \*highly significant [p<.01]

It can be found that 5-9 years duration RPs hold significantly higher monthly household consumption than that of CWs. In aggregate, the

monthly household consumption of RPs is significantly higher than CWs.

**Table-4.43A**

**Household Consumption of RPs by Duration of Work**

Consumption Years	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	CV[%]	Min	Max
1-4	3525.00	1114.79	191.19	31.63	2000	6000
5-9	3335.78	800.22	141.46	23.99	2150	5000
10-14	2927.76	569.56	138.14	19.45	2180	4300
15 and Above	3284.71	900.93	218.51	27.43	2220	6000
<b>Total</b>	<b>3322.07</b>	<b>916.25</b>	<b>91.63</b>	<b>27.58</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>6000</b>

Note: \*\*highly significant [p<.01]

Monthly Individual savings

It is revealed from our survey that core duration [5-14 years] CWs comprise significantly higher monthly Individual savings than new [1-4 years] and deep [15-20 years] duration CWs [Table-4.44].

**Table-4.44**

**Monthly Individual Savings [Rs.] of CWs by Duration of Work**

Savings Years	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	CV[%]	Min	Max
1-4 yrs	224.14	238.66	44.32	106.48	0	900
5-9 yrs	424.26	388.14	62.15	91.49	0	1900
10-14 yrs	425.91	391.29	83.42	91.87	0	1400
15-20 yrs	253.50	258.84	81.85	102.11	0	675
<b>Total</b>	<b>349.51</b>	<b>348.62</b>	<b>34.86</b>	<b>99.75</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1900</b>

In the case of RPs, the new duration [1-4 years] pullers have significantly higher monthly individual savings than the core [5-14 years] and deep [15-20 years] duration RPs [Table-4.44A]. In aggregate, the RPs per month saves significantly more than the CWs.

Again the monthly individual savings of 1-4 years and 5-9 years duration RPs is significantly higher than that of CWs.

**Table-4.44A**

**Monthly Individual Savings of RPs by Duration of Work**

Savings Age \	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	CV[%]	Min	Max
1-4 yrs	1079.32**	918.01	157.44	85.05	50	2550
5-9 yrs	786.62**	495.06	87.51	62.94	110	1900
10-14 yrs	583.76	461.60	111.95	79.07	73	1400
15-20 yrs	440.41	357.60	86.73	81.20	10	1160
<b>Total</b>	<b>792.80**</b>	<b>685.42</b>	<b>68.54</b>	<b>86.46</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>3950</b>

Note: \*\*highly significant [p<.01]

**Monthly Household savings**

It can be found that 10-14 years duration CWs comprise [Table-4.45] significantly higher monthly household savings than the new [1-4 years] and deep [15-20 years] duration CWs.

**Table-4.45**

**Monthly Household Savings of CWs by Duration of Work**

Savings Age \	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	CV[%]	Min	Max
1-4 yrs	838.45	941.97	174.92	112.35	0	3780
5-9 yrs	735.03	580.57	92.97	78.99	0	2795
10-14 yrs	1014.55	925.05	197.22	91.18	0	3400
15-20 yrs	464.50	546.01	172.66	117.55	0	1660
<b>Total</b>	<b>799.46</b>	<b>782.72</b>	<b>78.27</b>	<b>97.91</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>3780</b>

The new duration RPs [Table-4.45A] embrace higher household savings per month than the core [10-14 years] and deep [15-20 years] duration RPs. A comparison between RPs and CWs reveals that RPs

hold significantly higher monthly household savings than CWs. Again the Table shows that 1-4 years and 5-9 years duration RPs entail significantly higher monthly household savings than that of CWs.

**Table-4.45A**

**Monthly Household Savings of RPs by Duration of Work**

Savings Age \	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	CV[%]	Min	Max
1-4 yrs	1510.79**	1228.74	210.73	81.33	170	4700
5-9 yrs	1061.94*	803.71	142.08	75.68	110	3900
10-14 yrs	718.47	539.96	130.96	75.15	73	1800
15-20 yrs	932.76**	1098.91	266.52	117.81	40	4700
<b>Total</b>	<b>1134.20</b>	<b>1017.28</b>	<b>101.73</b>	<b>89.69</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>4700</b>

Note: \*\*highly significant [p<.01]; \*significantly [p<.05]

Per capita individual income

As far as individual per capita income is concerned, no significant difference has been found among CWs [Table-4.46].

**Table-4.46**

**Per Capita Individual Income of CWs by Duration of Work**

Income Age \	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	CV[%]	Min	Max
1-4 yrs	869.82	407.36	75.64	46.82	450	2426
5-9 yrs	856.75	319.51	51.16	37.29	270	1875
10-14 yrs	918.32*	488.79	104.21	53.23	400	2580
15-20 yrs	846.44	409.52	129.50	48.38	420	1800
<b>Total</b>	<b>873.05</b>	<b>390.74</b>	<b>39.07</b>	<b>44.76</b>	<b>270</b>	<b>2680</b>

Note: \*significantly different [p<.05]

In case of RPs [Table-4.46A], new duration [1-4 years] and 5-9 years duration pullers embrace higher individual per capita income than the

10-14 years duration pullers. Notably, 10-14 years duration CWs have significantly higher per capita income than that of RPs.

**Table-4.46A**

**Per Capita Individual Income of RPs by Duration of Work**

Income Age	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	CV[%]	Min	Max
1-4 yrs	968.19	359.60	61.67	37.14	433.33	1740
5-9 yrs	907.20	274.48	48.52	30.26	492	1780
10-14 yrs	690.74	212.04	51.43	30.70	321.83	1000
15-20 yrs	792.67	363.05	88.05	45.80	303.75	1740
<b>Total</b>	<b>871.67</b>	<b>324.91</b>	<b>32.49</b>	<b>37.27</b>	<b>303.05</b>	<b>1780</b>

## **4.5 Employment Status**

### **4.5.1 Construction Workers**

Now we are to see the age profile of CWs in relation to skill level which is depicted in Table-4.47. Age group of the CW is highly associated with skill status [ $p<.0015$ ]. In our survey we have found that, in aggregate, 9.75% of workers belongs to <18 years of age, 16.58% of CWs belong to the age group 18-25 years (young age group), 61.95% belongs to the age group 26-39 years (middle age group) and 11.72% belongs to the age group 40 years and above (older age group). 60% of the below 18 years age group workers, 52% of young age group workers and 58% of older age group workers belong to unskilled status. Majority of the middle age group workers (43%) belong to the skilled status. In our survey we have found

**Table-4.47**

**Age Group Profile In Relation to Skill Status [CWS]**

<b>Age \ Skill</b>	<b>Skilled</b>	<b>Semiskilled</b>	<b>Unskilled</b>	<b>Total</b>
<18 yrs	4(20) [5.71]	4(20) [7.27]	12(60) [15.00]	20[100] [9.75]
18-25 yrs	8(24) [11.42]	8(24) [14.54]	18(52) [22.50]	34[100] [16.58]
26-39yrs	54(43) [77.14]	37(29) [67.27]	36(28) [45]	127[100] [61.95]
40 and Above	4(17) [5.73]	6(25) [10.92]	14(58) [17.50]	24[100] [11.72]
<b>Total</b>	<b>70(34.17) [100]</b>	<b>55(26.84) [100]</b>	<b>80(39.02) [100]</b>	<b>205[100] [100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets below  
Row percentage in brackets aside*

those, among 70 skilled, 55 semiskilled and 80 unskilled workers, major contributors are the middle age group peoples. Thus it is understandable that, middle age group workers are the larger provider of skilled worker and semiskilled types of CW and unskilled type is visible among the other age group workers with more or less same percentage.

Length of experience in construction work is a parameter which helps in acquiring skill among the workers. Majority of workers are graduated to skilled status only through experience in their work or on the job training. Table-4.48 attempts to find out some relation in between work experience and skill status. Construction work experience of CW at SMCA is highly associated with skill status [ $p < .000005$ ]. Workers with more than 15 years of work experience comprise 67% skilled workers, 11-15 years work experience workers consists 46% of skilled workers, 5-10 years work experience workers comprise 40% skilled workers and workers with up to 5 years of experience comprise 17% skilled workers. Thus, it

**Table-4.48**

**Length of Construction Work Experience and Skill Status [CW]**

Skill Years \	Skilled	Semiskilled	Unskilled	Total
Up to 5	14(17) [20.00]	18(23) [32.72]	48(60) [60.00]	80[100] [29.02]
5-10	34(40) [48.57]	29(34) [52.72]	22(26) [27.50]	85[100] [41.46]
11-15	10(46) [14.28]	8(36) [14.56]	4(18) [5]	22[100] [10.73]
15-20	12(67) [17.15]	0 [00]	6(33) [7.50]	18[100] [8.79]
<b>Total</b>	<b>70(34.17)</b> <b>[100]</b>	<b>55(26.84)</b> <b>[100]</b>	<b>80(39.02)</b> <b>[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b> <b>[100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets below*

*Row percentage in brackets aside*

is apparent from the table that there exists a positive co relationship between work experience and skill ness among the workers. The same reasoning also holds in case of semi skilled workers. But it is interesting to note that among more than 15 years work experience workers, none was found semiskilled status as because earlier there was no division like semiskilled status and that is why they were either skilled or unskilled type workers.

Work availability or job opportunity is a parameter which determines the influx of people migrating to SMCA for work in construction sites.. Table-4.49 depicts the work availability by skill status. Majority of the skilled (51.44%) and unskilled (50%) workers gets job more than 29 days per month and in case of semi skilled workers it is 43.63%. In aggregate more than 86% CW gets work more than 22 days with 48.78% getting work for more than 29 days per month and only 14.16% CW getting work less than 21 days per moth. Thus as far as

work availability is concerned, the job opportunity for skilled workers is higher than the semiskilled and unskilled type workers.

**Table-4.49**

**Work Availability per Month and Skill Status [CW]**

Skill Days	Skilled	Semiskilled	Unskilled	Total
Up to 21	8[11.42]	9[16.36]	8[10.00]	29[14.16]
22-25	14[20.00]	8[14.54]	14[17.50]	36[17.58]
26-28	12[17.14]	14[25.45]	18[22.50]	44[21.48]
29-30	36[51.44]	24[43.65]	40[50.00]	100[48.78]
<b>Total</b>	<b>70[100]</b>	<b>55[100]</b>	<b>80[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

The level of Skills possessed by CWs is an important determinant, both of the workers' level of productivity as well as the type and quality of buildings they can construct. Usually couples are found to be working on the same worksites. It would be found that 33% of the CW joined through relatives, 39% through friends and 28% through personal search. Workers engaged with commercial buildings, have joined through their friends with highest percentage (42%) and the same also holds for the private residential buildings (4%). But in case of government projects, majority of workers joined through their relatives (58%). Table-4.50 shows that highest numbers of skilled and semiskilled workers were employed at the construction sites of private residential buildings (63%) which were under construction of building flats for general people. The lowest levels of skilled workers (21%) were employed in government projects which are high quality buildings.

**Table-4.50**  
**Site Wise Distribution of CWs by Skill Status**

<b>Sites</b>	<b>Skill</b>	<b>Skilled</b>	<b>Semiskilled</b>	<b>Unskilled</b>	<b>Total</b>
Private Residential Buildings	30[39]	18[24]	28[37]	76[100]	
Commercial Buildings	[42.85]	[32.73]	[35.00]	[37.07]	
Government Projects	34[34]	26[26]	40[40]	100[100]	
	[48.57]	[47.27]	[50.00]	[48.78]	
<b>Total</b>	<b>70[100]</b>	<b>55[100]</b>	<b>80[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>	

*Note: Column percentage in brackets below  
Row percentage in brackets aside*

Skill status by type of skill among CW is highly associated [ $p<6.9194 \cdot 10^{-7}$ ]. In aggregate majority of CW belongs to mason type of skill (45.85%), [Table-4.51]. Number of skilled labour is highest in electrical works (100%). Rod workers posses second highest with 53% skilled workers. Among the painter and marble type, the percentage of semiskilled workers is highest. Mason and soil type accounts highest percentage of unskilled workers. Out of 205 surveyed CWs, we have observed that the demand for mason and workers skilled in rod works is highest among all other types with 45.85% and 16.58% respectively.

**Table-4.51**  
**Distribution of CWs According to Skill Status and Type of Skill**

<b>Type</b>	<b>Skill</b>	<b>Skilled</b>	<b>Semiskilled</b>	<b>Unskilled</b>	<b>Total</b>
Rod	18(53)	10(29)	6(18)	34	
	[25.71]	[18.18]	[7.50]	[16.58]	
Plumber	4(33)	6(50)	2(17)	12	
	[5.71]	[10.90]	[2.50]	[5.85]	
Painter	4(22)	10(56)	4(22)	18	

	[5.71]	[18.18]	[5]	[8.79]
Mason	36(38)	16(17)	42(45)	94
	[51.46]	[29.09]	[52.50]	[45.87]
Marble	4(19)	11(52)	6(29)	21
	[5.71]	[20.00]	[7.50]	[10.24]
Electric	2(100)	0	0	2
	[2.85]	[00]	[00]	[.97]
Carpenter	2(33)	2(33)	2(33)	6
	[2.85]	[3.65]	[2.50]	[2.92]
Soil labour	0	0	18(100)	18
	[00]	[00]	[22.50]	[8.78]
<b>Total</b>	<b>70(34.14)</b>	<b>55(26.84)</b>	<b>80(39.02)</b>	<b>205[100]</b>
	[100]	[100]	[100]	[100]

Note: Column percentage in brackets below  
Row percentage in brackets aside

Nature of payment to the CW is highly associated with their skill status [ $p<.0013$ ]. In aggregate, highest percentage of CWs is paid according to weekly basis (60.97%), [Table-4.52]. All the workers are paid by piece work basis are from unskilled category. Majority of the skilled and unskilled workers are paid on weekly basis with 77% and 55% respectively. Majority of the semiskilled workers are paid according to daily basis with 51%.

**Table-4.52**

**Distribution of CWs According to Nature of Pay and Skill Status**

Nature of Work Status	Piece work	Daily	Weekly	Monthly	Contractual	Total
Skilled [s]	0 [00]	14(20) [19.46]	54(77) [43.2]	0	2(3) [100]	70 [34.14]
Semi skilled[ss]	0 [00]	28(51) [38.88]	27(49) [21.6]	0	0 [00]	55 [26.84]
Unskilled [us]	6(8) [100]	30(37) [41.66]	44(55) [35.2]	0	0 [00]	80 [39.02]

<b>Total</b>	<b>6(2.92)</b> [100]	<b>72(35.12)</b> [100]	<b>125(60.97)</b> [100]	<b>0</b>	<b>2(.97)</b> [100]	<b>205[100]</b> [100]
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*Note: Column percentage in brackets below*

*Row percentage in brackets aside*

Majority of the CWs (65%) pay commission to middleman or called “SARDAR” (Table-4.53). Commission ranges from Rs.10 to Rs. 25 per day. It is interesting to note that our survey revealed that 74.28% of skilled workers, who belongs to marginally higher socio economic class than semiskilled and unskilled workers, paid commission to middleman which is higher compared to semiskilled and unskilled workers.

**Table-4.53**

**Distribution of CWs According to Commission to Middle Man and Skill Status**

Skill status \ Commission	Skilled	Semi skilled	Unskilled	Total
Commission to Middleman	Yes	52[74.28]	33[60.00]	48[60.00]
	No	18[25.72]	22[40.00]	32[40.00]
<b>Total</b>	<b>70[100]</b>	<b>55[100]</b>	<b>80[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

Majority of the CWs (46.34%) revealed that the working condition is “average” at sites (Table-4.54). While 20.48% reported “poor” 32.19% reported “well”. Among the skilled workers, more than 82% revealed average or well and the same is also hold for semiskilled workers with 85%. 27.50% unskilled workers reported “poor” which is higher compared to skilled and semiskilled workers. Thus it is evident that

unskilled workers undertake work in a comparatively bad condition than skilled and semiskilled workers.

**Table-4.54**  
**Distribution of CWS According to Skill Status and Working Condition**

Skill Status working Condition	Skilled	Semi skilled	Unskilled	Total
Very well	0[00]	2[3.63]	0[00]	2[.97]
well	24[34.28]	22[40.00]	20[25.00]	66[32.19]
Average	34[48.57]	23[41.83]	38[47.50]	95[46.36]
Poor	12[17.15]	8[14.54]	22[27.50]	42[20.48]
<b>Total</b>	<b>70[100]</b>	<b>55[100]</b>	<b>80[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

#### 4.5.2 Rickshaw Pullers

Average age among the deep joiner pullers is comparatively less (12 years) than the new and core joiner pullers (Table-4.55). Average age of new joiner and core joiner is same with 13.3 years.

**Table-4.55**  
**Average Age of RPs at the Time of First Employment**

Age	Duration of rickshaw pulling at SMCA			
	1-4	5-14	15-20	Total
Average age (years)	13.3	13.3	12	13.16

*Note: 1-4 years=new joiners; 5-14 years=core joiners; 15-20 years=deep joiners*

Table-4.56 shows the agencies through which our surveyed RPs joined the occupation. Duration of pulling and years of joining Rickshaw Pulling is highly associated among RPs [ $p<0.0428$ ]. It is revealed that majority of the pullers joined rickshaw pulling through their friends

[55.12%]. Again while 34.15% pullers joined through personal search, another 10.73% joined pulling through relatives. If we compare with CW then we will see that, here more workers are joined construction through their relatives with 33%. None of the deep joiner RP joined pulling through their relatives. They either join through their friends or through personal search. Comparatively higher percentage of new joiner RPs joined pulling through their relatives, compared to core and deep joiner pullers. Thus, it is apparent that now-a-day's people are coming in pulling through their relatives. Thus we can say that in case of joining CW, "family" plays a vital role and in case of RPs, it is the "friends" through which they join pulling.

**Table-4.56**

**Join Rickshaw Pulling by Duration of Pulling**

Join Years	Duration of Rickshaw Pulling at SMCA			
	1-4	5-14	15-20	Total
Relatives	12[17.64]	10[8.84]	0	22[10.73]
Friends	38[55.88]	63[55.77]	12[50.00]	113[55.12]
Personal	18[26.46]	40[35.39]	12 [50.00]	70[34.15]
<b>Total</b>	<b>68(33)</b>	<b>113(55)</b>	<b>24(12)</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

*1-4 years=new joiners; 5-14 years=core joiners; 15-20years=deep joiners*

It is very important to know why people choose (whether migrant or non migrant) pulling as a profession instead of joining other informal sector activities. Why do rural migrants accept rickshaw pulling as an occupation, despite its grueling nature? While a variety of reasons

**Table-4.57**

**Opt for Rickshaw Pulling By Duration of Pulling**

Years	Duration of Rickshaw Pulling at SMCA			
	1-4	5-14	15-20	Total
To Earn more Money	22[32]	24[21]	6[25]	52[25]

Freedom in Pulling	16[23]	34[30]	10[42]	60[29]
Certain Income	14[20]	27[24]	6[25]	47[23]
No job in Village	0	14[12]	0	14[7]
Income more than Agriculture	10[15]	10[9]	2[9]	22[11]
No other Option	6[10]	4[4]	0	10[5]
<b>Total</b>	<b>68[100]</b>	<b>113[100]</b>	<b>24[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

Note: Column percentage in brackets

1-4 years=new joiners; 5-14 years=core joiners; 15-20 years=deep joiners

influence this choice, the most common ones, cited by 29% of the sample RPs, is ‘freedom in pulling’ (Table-4.57). Other reasons given include: rickshaw pulling provides a certain income and helps in earning more money. For new joiner pullers reasons like “to earn more money”, “freedom in pulling” and “certain income” acted relatively larger role in decision making, while “no job in village”, “freedom in pulling” were the most considerations for core duration pullers. “Income more than agriculture” and “no job in villages” are the important considerations that were cited by the pullers with 11% and 7% respectively. Opt for pulling and duration of pulling among RPs are highly associated [ $p<0.0043$ ].

Rickshaw ownership by duration of pulling among RPs are highly associated [ $p<0.0004$ ]. Of the sample RPs, only 12.68% own rickshaw themselves. The 87.32% sample RPs charter rickshaws to pull (Table-4.58). Deep duration pullers are more likely to own their own rickshaw: 16.66% of them are owner-cum-pullers compared to 10.62% among core joiners and 14.71% among new joiners.

**Table-4.58**

**Rickshaw Ownership by Duration of Pulling**

Years  Ownership	Duration of Rickshaw Pulling at SMCA			
	1-4	5-14	15-20	Total
Rented	58(32) [85.29]	101(57) [89.38]	20(11) [83.34]	179 [87.32]
Owned	10(39) [14.71]	12(46) [10.62]	4(15) [16.66]	26 [12.68]
<b>Total</b>	<b>68(33.17) [100]</b>	<b>113(55.13) [100]</b>	<b>24(11.70) [100]</b>	<b>205[100] [100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets below*

*Row percentage in brackets aside*

*1-4 years=new joiners; 5-14 years=core joiners; 15-20years=deep joiners*

However, large majority of the RPs who have been pulling rickshaw for more than 15 years still rent a rickshaw. This observation indicates that there are troubles in possessing a rickshaw and it is not considered to be a judicious venture by the RPs because of the unsettled life style, change of jobs and frequent visits to rural areas. All these could make rickshaw ownership difficult especially for rural migrants. All the pullers who possess rickshaws are native, because for migrants, space to keep rickshaw is difficult to find in cities.

As far as repairing cost of rickshaws are concerned, about 83% rickshaws are covered up by owner of the rickshaws (Table-4.59) and rest by self. As there are 87.32% rickshaws are hired so we can say that some of hired rickshaw's repairing costs are born by the peddlers.

**Table-4.59**

**Repairing Cost Born By Duration of Pulling**

Years  Repairing Cost	Duration of Rickshaw Pulling at SMCA			
	1-4	5-14	15-20	Total
Self	12[17.65]	19[16.82]	4[16.66]	35[17.08]

Owner	56[82.35]	94[83.18]	20[83.34]	170[82.92]
<b>Total</b>	<b>68[100]</b>	<b>113[100]</b>	<b>24[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

*1-4 years=new joiners; 5-14 years=core joiners; 15-20years=deep joiners*

Hours spent in pulling by duration of pulling is highly associated [ $p<0.001$ ]. Of the surveyed RPs, more than about 50% pullers pursue the occupation for greater than 11 hours per day. The number of hours spent in pulling varies noticeably between those who joined the occupation recently and the long duration pullers. Among the new joiner pullers, more than 67% ply rickshaw up to 10 hours per day as opposed to about 43% of the core duration RPs and about 22% of deep duration ones (Table-4.60).

**Table-4.60**

**Hours Spent In Pulling By Duration of Pulling**

Years Hours	Duration of Rickshaw Pulling at SMCA			
	1-4	5-14	15-20	Total
<8 Hours	8[11.76]	4[3.53]	4[16.66]	16[7.80]
8-10 Hours	38[55.88]	44[38.93]	4[16.66]	86[41.95]
11+ Hours	22[32.36]	65[57.54]	16[66.68]	103[50.25]
<b>Total</b>	<b>68[100]</b>	<b>113[100]</b>	<b>24[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

*1-4 years=new joiners; 5-14 years=core joiners; 15-20years=deep joiners*

Of the sample RPs, more than 92% pullers charged different fair from the passengers. About 60% of the pullers find it debatable while negotiating with the passengers regarding rickshaw fair charged (Table-4.61). Deep joiner pullers (66.66%) find more debatable than the new joiner (64.70%) and core joiner pullers (55.75%).

**Table-4.61****Charged Different Fair by Duration of Pulling**

Years  Different Fair	Duration of Rickshaw Pulling at SMCA			
	1-4	5-14	15-20	Total
Yes	62 [91.17]	103 [91.15]	24 [100]	189 [92.19]
No	6 [8.83]	10 [8.83]	0 [00]	16 [7.81]
<b>Total</b>	<b>68[100]</b>	<b>113[100]</b>	<b>24[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

Note: Column percentage in brackets

1-4 years=new joiners; 5-14 years=core joiners; 15-20years=deep joiners

Introduction of city auto in SMCA has come in to existence at about 5-6 years ago. The routes of city auto more or less overlap with the routs of RPs. Table-4.62 examines the fact that whether RPs experiencing any problem due to introduction of city auto. It is expected that about

**Table-4.62****Problems in Negotiating With Passengers by Duration of Pulling**

Problems  Years	Duration of Rickshaw Pulling at SMCA			
	1-4	5-14	15-20	Total
Yes	44[64.72]	63[55.75]	16[66.66]	123[60.00]
Yes but Rare	12[17.64]	24[21.23]	4[16.66]	40[19.52]
No	12[17.64]	26[23.02]	4[16.68]	42[20.48]
<b>Total</b>	<b>68[100]</b>	<b>113[100]</b>	<b>24[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

Note: Column percentage in brackets

1-4 years=new joiners; 5-14 years=core joiners; 15-20years=deep joiners

80% of the total surveyed RPs reported experiencing problems due to introduction of city auto. Of the total RPs who have experienced problems, 55% reported that their [Table-4.63)

**Table-4.63**

**Experiencing Any Problem Due to Auto by Duration of Pulling**

Types of Problems	Years	Duration of Rickshaw Pulling at SMCA			
		1-4	5-14	15-20	Total
<b>Yes</b>					
Traffic Jam has Increased		8(36) [20]	12(55) [11]	2(9) [8]	22[100] [13]
No Entry for Rickshaws has Increased		0	7(100) [7]	0	7[100] [4]
Police Torture has Increased		10(21) [23]	26(54) [24]	12(25) [50]	48[100] [28]
Income Reduced Substantially		24(25) [57]	62(65) [58]	10(10) [42]	96[100] [55]
<b>Total</b>		<b>42(24) (62)</b>	<b>107(62) (95)</b>	<b>24(14) (100)</b>	<b>173[100] (84)</b>
<b>No</b>		26(81) [38]	6(19) [5]	0	32[100] [16]
<b>Total</b>		<b>68(33) [100]</b>	<b>113(55) [100]</b>	<b>24(12) [100]</b>	<b>205[100] [100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets below*

*Row percentage in brackets aside*

*1-4 years=new joiners; 5-14 years=core joiners; 15-20years=deep joiners*

income has reduced substantially due to city auto. Other problems reported include increased traffic jam (13%), increased police torture (28%) and increased no entry areas. In peak hours RPs reported that if police finds any rickshaw to be in the "no entry area" (but for the auto it is entry area) then, they either took off the valve tube or seat of the rickshaws. Some times, without any reasons, police do this type of tortures with the pullers and these tortures have been aggravated after the introduction of city auto. RPs also reported that their per day earnings from pulling has decreased by Rs.10 to Rs.20.

Nature of rickshaw pulling by duration of pulling among RPs are highly associated [ $p<0.0001$ ]. Majority of the pullers [35%] are of the opinion that it is a physically tiring job with 35% (Table-4.64). Other

reported characteristics of rickshaw pulling include "well as compared to agriculture", "not honourable job", "hard work" etc. as many as 64% of the new joiner pullers agree with the view that pulling is physically tiring as well as not an honourable job to perform. Majority of the core and deep joiner pullers have the same opinion that it is a job which is physically tiring and involves hard work.

**Table-4.64**

**Nature of Rickshaw Pulling by Duration of Pulling [in hours]**

Nature of Pulling	Years	Duration of Rickshaw Pulling at SMCA			
		1-4	5-14	15-20	Total
Well, as compared to Agriculture		2[3]	14[12]	2[8]	18[8]
Risky		0	2[2]	0	2[1]
Physically Tiring		22[32]	39[35]	10[42]	71[35]
Not Honorable Job		22[32]	18[16]	0	40[20]
Hard Work		18[28]	32[28]	8[33]	58[28]
Good		4[6]	8[7]	4[17]	16[8]
<b>Total</b>		<b>68[100]</b>	<b>113[100]</b>	<b>24[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

1-4 years=new joiners; 5-14 years=core joiners; 15-20 years=deep joiners

As the rickshaw pulling is hard and physically tiring job compared to construction or other informal sector activities, majority of the pullers [77.08%] do not want to continue pulling (Table-4.65). As many as 33.34% deep joiner pullers do not want to continue pulling as

**Table-4.65**

**Willing to Continue Rickshaw Pulling By Duration of Pulling**

Conti Pulling	Years	Duration of Rickshaw Pulling at SMCA			
		1-4	5-14	15-20	Total
Yes		52	90	16	158

	[76.47]	[79.64]	[66.66]	[77.08]
No	16 [23.53]	23 [20.36]	8 [33.34]	47 [22.92]
<b>Total</b>	<b>68[100]</b>	<b>113[100]</b>	<b>24[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

Note: Column percentage in brackets

1-4 years=new joiners; 5-14 years=core joiners; 15-20 years=deep joiners

Compared to 23.53% of new joiner pullers. On Interviewed, we came to know, that, if they get any opportunity of equal or better earning elsewhere, then they will accept the offer immediately. So many as 87% of the pullers agree with the view that pulling is risky job of which 93% pullers admits that pulling is very much prone to vehicular accidents (Table-4.66). Among the 26 pullers who believe that pulling is not risky or dangerous, 69% are from new joiner pullers. Pulling is risky by duration of pulling among RPs are highly associated [p<0.0033].

**Table-4.66**

**Opinion about Insecure Nature of Rickshaw Pulling by Duration of Pulling**

Opinion	Years	Duration of Rickshaw Pulling at SMCA			
		1-4	5-14	15-20	Total
yes					
Prone to Vehicular Accident		46[92]	97[91]	22[100]	167[93]
May suffer Physical Mutilation		22[44]	40[37]	6[27]	68[38]
May contact Disease/get Sick		14[28]	24[22]	8[36]	46[26]
<b>Total</b>		<b>50[74]</b>	<b>107[95]</b>	<b>22[92]</b>	<b>179[87]</b>
<b>No</b>		<b>18[26]</b>	<b>6[5]</b>	<b>2[8]</b>	<b>26[13]</b>
<b>Total</b>		<b>68[100]</b>	<b>113[100]</b>	<b>24[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

Note: Column percentage in brackets

1-4 years=new joiners; 5-14 years=core joiners; 15-20 years=deep joiners

Of the surveyed 205 pullers, 67.81% [Table-4.67] is of the opinion that they are not happy with plying rickshaws of which majority are from new joiner pullers (70.58%).

**Table-4.67**

**Satisfaction with Pulling by Duration of Pulling**

Years Satis- faction	Duration of Rickshaw Pulling at SMCA			
	1-4	5-14	15-20	Total
Yes	20(30) [29.42]	38(58) [33.63]	8(12) [33.34]	66 [32.19]
No	48(34) [70.58]	75(54) [66.37]	16(12) [66.66]	139 [67.81]
<b>Total</b>	<b>68(33) [100]</b>	<b>113(55) [100]</b>	<b>24(12) [100]</b>	<b>205[10]] [100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets below*

*Row percentage in brackets aside*

*1-4years=new joiners; 5-14 years=core joiners; 15-20years=deep joiners*

#### **4.5.3 Comparisons between Rickshaw Pullers and Construction Workers**

Let us now compare between RPs and CWs regarding job description before coming to construction work and rickshaw pulling (Table-4.68). Table shows that majority of CWs and RPs were previously engaged as an agricultural labour before coming to these professions with 43.90% and 40.97% respectively. Among the deep joiner CW, 44.45% workers had come from “no job” background. Among the new joiner CW, besides agricultural background, about 27% workers had come with “no job” background and 15.87% workers were engaged as shop assistants. Among the core joiner CW, 12.94% workers were engaged with factory works in other places. Incase of RPs, among the new joiners, other than engaged in agriculture, 29.43% pullers had come with “no job” background. Among the core and deep joiner pullers, besides agriculture, 12.38% and 33.34% pullers were previously

engaged as shop assistant. Other mentioned job descriptions are "bamboo business", "cultivator", "motor garage worker", "radio, TV mechanic" etc.

**Table-4.68**

**Details of Previous Job by Duration of Pulling**

[Years ] Previous Job	Duration of Construction Work at SMCA				Duration of Rickshaw Pulling at SMCA			
	1-4	5-14	15-20	Total	1-4	5-14	15-20	Total
Agriculture labour	28 [44.44]	60 [48.38]	2 [11.11]	90 [43.90]	28 [41.17]	42 [37.16]	14 [58.33]	84 [40.97]
Business	0 [00]	10 [8.06]	0 [00]	10 [4.87]	6 [8.82]	6 [5.30]	0 [00]	12 [5.86]
Factory worker	0 [00]	16 [12.94]	2 [11.11]	18 [8.78]	2 [2.94]	8 [7.07]	2 [8.33]	12 [5.86]
Shop assistant	10 [15.87]	6 [4.85]	2 [11.11]	18 [8.78]	2 [2.94]	14 [12.38]	8 [33.34]	24 [11.70]
Cultivator	0 [00]	2 [1.61]	2 [11.11]	4 [1.95]	0 [00]	6 [5.30]	0 [00]	6 [2.92]
Motor garage worker	2 [3.17]	10 [8.06]	0 [00]	12 [5.85]	2 [2.94]	11 [9.73]	0 [00]	13 [6.34]
Radio, TV mechanic,etc	0 [00]	0 [00]	0 [00]	0 [00]	0 [00]	2 [1.76]	0 [00]	2 [.97]
Tuition	0 [00]	0 [00]	0 [00]	0 [00]	2 [2.94]	0 [00]	0 [00]	2 [.97]
Others	6 [9.54]	6 [4.82]	2 [11.11]	14 [6.82]	6 [8.82]	20 [17.69]	0 [00]	26 [12.68]
No job	17 [26.98]]	14 [11.29]	8 [44.45]	39 [19.05]	20 [29.43]	4 [3.52]	0 [00]	24 [11.70]
<b>Total</b>	<b>63 [100]</b>	<b>124 [100]</b>	<b>18 [100]</b>	<b>205 [100]</b>	<b>68 [100]</b>	<b>113 [100]</b>	<b>24 [100]</b>	<b>205 [100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

*1-4 years=new joiners; 5-14 years =core joiners; 15-20years=deep joiners*

Reasons for leaving previous job are presented in Table-4.69. Majority of both CWS and RPs stated that income was not adequate to sustain the livelihood with 37.07% and 53.65% respectively. "Lack of job

opportunity in villages" as a reason, was also reported by many CWs and RPs with moderate percentage. Other reasons cited were "increased torture", "Loss in business", "No freedom", "Irregular payments" and "Family matters". The reason which was cited most by both CWs and RPs is justifiable on the ground that majority of the CWs and RPs have come from agricultural labour background and they are loosing jobs in villages day by day due to introduction of mechanized apparatus in agriculture or they are getting lower wages due to their decreased demand.

**Table-4.69**

**Reasons for Leaving Previous Jobs by Duration of Pulling**

Years Reasons	Duration of Construction Work at SMCA				Duration of Rickshaw Pulling at SMCA			
	1-4	5-14	15-20	Total	1-4	5-14	15-20	Total
Income not Adequate to Sustain	26 [41.27]	44 [35.48]	6 [33.33]	76 [37.07]	30 [44.12]	60 [53.09]	20 [83.33]	110 [53.65]
Risky	0 [00]	6 [4.85]	2 [11.11]	8 [3.90]	4 [5.88]	2 [1.78]	2 [8.33]	8 [3.90]
Increased Torture by Employer	0 [00]	2 [1.61]	0 [00]	2 [.97]	0 [00]	12 [10.64]	0 [00]	12 [5.85]
Lack of Job Opportunity	14 [22.22]	38 [30.66]	2 [11.11]	54 [26.34]	8 [11.77]	12 [10.62]	2 [8.34]	22 [10.73]
Loss in Business	0 [00]	4 [3.22]	0 [00]	4 [1.95]	4 [5.88]	8 [7.09]	0 [00]	12 [5.85]
No freedom	4 [6.35]	10 [8.06]	0 [00]	14 [6.83]	0 [00]	11 [9.73]	0 [00]	11 [5.36]
Irregular Payments	0 [00]	4 [3.22]	0 [00]	4 [1.96]	0 [00]	2 [1.76]	0 [00]	2 [.97]
Family Matters	2 [3.18]	2 [1.61]	0 [00]	4 [1.96]	2 [2.94]	2 [1.76]	0 [00]	4 [1.95]
NA	17 [26.98]	14 [11.29]	8 [44.45]	39 [19.02]	20 [29.41]	4 [3.53]	0 [00]	24 [10.74]
<b>Total</b>	<b>63 [100]</b>	<b>124 [100]</b>	<b>18 [100]</b>	<b>205 [100]</b>	<b>68 [100]</b>	<b>113 [100]</b>	<b>24 [100]</b>	<b>205 [100]</b>

Note: Column percentage in brackets

NA- Not Applicable

1-4 years=new joiners; 5-14 years=core joiners; 15-20years=deep joiners

Monthly work days between RPs and CWs are not at all homogenous [ $p < 6.9519 \cdot 10^{-10}$ ]. In Table-4.70 a comparison between RPs and CWs has been made with respect to monthly working days. It is clear from the table that all the RPs worked more than 25 days per month while 20.97% of CW worked less than 25 days per month. The reason is that more than 31% CWs get work less than 25 days per month. It is also revealed that 85.05% of RP worked more than 28 days per month while 49.77% CW do the same. Thus it is evident that the RP worked more days per month than CW.

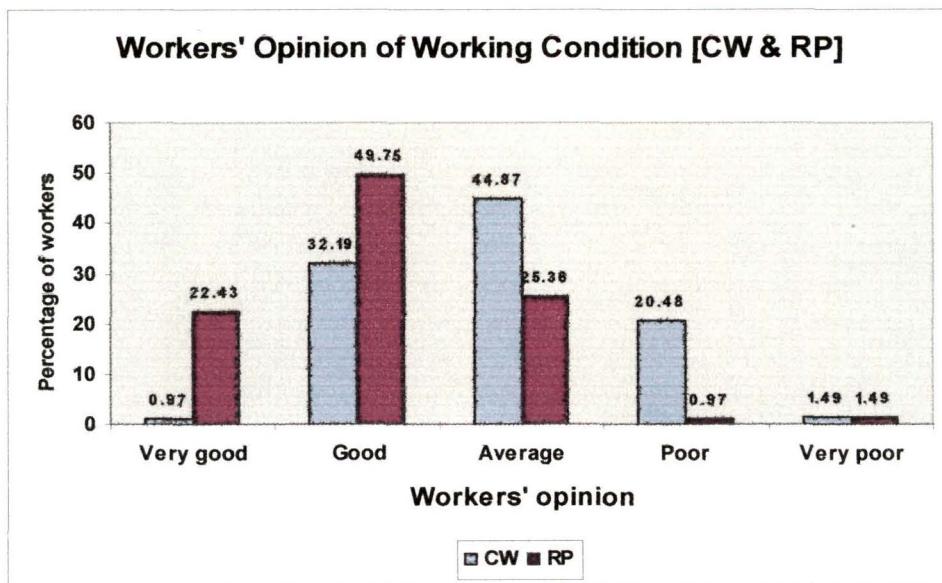
**Table-4.70**

<b>Days Worked Monthly by RPs and CWs</b>		
<b>Days Worked</b>	<b>Rickshaw Pullers</b>	<b>Construction Workers</b>
<25	0	43[20.97]
25-27	49[23.95]	60[29.26]
28-30	176[85.05]	102[49.77]
<b>Total</b>	<b>205[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

Workers opinion regarding RPs and CWs is illustrated in Chart-4.1. Workers opinion about working condition between RPs and CWs are not at all homogenous [ $p < 2.9306 \cdot 10^{-20}$ ]. Majority of the RP (49.75%) is of the opinion that working condition is good and majority of the CW (44.87%) termed working condition as average. Poor working condition is higher among the CW with 20.48% as opposed to RP with 0.97%. 22.43% RP graded rickshaw pulling as "very good" and only 0.97% in case of CW. Thus it is clear that RPs are working with better working condition than CW.

**Chart-4.1**



Note- CW-Construction Workers; R-Rickshaw Pullers

This supports the conclusion that irrespective of duration, rickshaw pulling is physically exhausting work. The situation worsens in combination with the depletion of energy linked to the ageing process and aggravates with duration. It appears that the reason behind the comparative depressed condition of CW is that, CWS can not enjoy the freedom of work. Everyday they have to work for at least 9 hours with 30 minutes break for lunch. The "thikadar" doesn't allow to gossip or take rest within the scheduled hours of work. Besides this, the CWS have to pay commission to the "sardar" for getting everyday job. But in case of rickshaw pulling pullers need not to pay any commission to anybody. They are free to ply rickshaws whenever and wherever they want. They can adjust their time by taking rest or doing gossip to each other.

#### **4.6 Living Condition of Rickshaw Pullers and Construction Workers**

Family size between RPs and CWs is not at all homogenous [ $p < 3.1236 \cdot 10^{-6}$ ]. From our survey we have found that over 66% of RP belong to the family which comprises more than 5 family members and for CW it is near about 47% (Table-4.71).

**Table-4.71**

#### **Distribution of RPs and CWs According to Family Size by Duration of Pulling**

<b>Persons</b>	<b>1-2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>&gt;5</b>	<b>Total</b>
RPs	2[.97]	12[5.86]	54[26.35]	65[31.70]	72[35.12]	<b>205[100]</b>
CWs	6[2.92]	42[20.48]	62[30.25]	53[25.87]	42[20.48]	<b>205[100]</b>

*Note: Row percentage in brackets*

Majority of the RPs and CWs are from 1-2 acres category constitutes 37.56% and 32.16% respectively. Holding of more than 1 acre of land is higher among the CW (45%) than the RP (about 39%), [Table-4.72].

**Table-4.72**

#### **Distribution of RPs and CWs According to Land Holding**

<b>Land holding</b>	<b>Land less</b>	<b>&lt;1 acre</b>	<b>1-2 acres</b>	<b>&gt;2 acres</b>	<b>Total</b>
RPs	62[30.24]	64[31.24]	77[37.56]	2[.97]	<b>205[100]</b>
CWs	49[23.90]	64[31.24]	66[32.16]	26[12.68]	<b>205[100]</b>

*Note: Row percentage in brackets*

Living “with family” and “without family” between CWs and RPs is highly homogenous [ $p < 9.325 \cdot 10^{-5}$ ;  $p < 0.0048$ ]. Living arrangements by duration of work among CWs is highly associated [ $p < 6.3026 \cdot 10^{-6}$ ] but in case of RPs they are not associated. Table-4.73 depicts a comparative picture of the living arrangements of RPs and CWs. It can

be found that compared to RPs overwhelming majority of CW (80.98%), "Live with family" than the RP [53.65%], (Table-77). Majority of the new comer [66.67%] CWs "live with family" as opposed to 64.71 %new comer of RPs. Majority of the core (50.45%) and deep (58.34%) joiner RPs "live without family" as opposed to core and deep joiner CWs with 87.09% and 88.88% respectively.

**Table-4.73**

**Living Arrangements by Duration of Pulling**

Years	Construction Work at SMCA				Rickshaw Pulling at SMCA			
	1-4	5-14	15-20	Total	1-4	5-14	15-20	TOTAL
Live with Family	42 [66.67]	108 [87.09]	16 [88.88]	166 [80.98]	44 [64.71]	56 [49.55]	10 [41.66]	110 [53.65]
Live without Family	21 [33.33]	16 [12.91]	2 [11.12]	39 [19.02]	24 [35.29]	57 [50.45]	14 [58.34]	95 [46.35]
<b>Total</b>	<b>63 [100]</b>	<b>124 [100]</b>	<b>18 [100]</b>	<b>205 [100]</b>	<b>68 [100]</b>	<b>113 [100]</b>	<b>2 [100]</b>	<b>205 [100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

1-4 years=new joiners; 5-14 years=core joiners; 15-20years=deep joiners

Table-4.74 makes a comparison between RPs and CWs on the basis of duration of stay at place of work. Duration of stay between RPs and CWs are not homogenous [ $p < 1.9769 \cdot 10^{-6}$ ]. Of the total RPs and CWs surveyed, RP accounts for 43.41% of temporary migrants and CW accounts only 19.02%. More than about 68% RP goes home in less than 15 days interval and in the case of CW it is only about 23%. Thus it is evident that RP goes home frequently than the CW. The reason for frequent home visit, as reported by the respondents, is that their family depends upon them by economically as well as socially. They mainly go home in order to remit money to home. As far as RP are concerned, (they usually go home for 1 or maximum 2 days) as they can earn daily income from their pulling so it is possible for them to collect money within a week or 10 days and remit the same to the family with in a sort interval. But in case of CW, as they are paid in

weekly basis so they usually go home within a slight extended (15 to 30 days interval) interval after collecting money for their family.

**Table-4.74**

**Distribution of RPs and CWs on the Basis of Duration of Stay  
[Temporary Migrants]**

<b>Days</b>	<b>&lt;7days</b>	<b>&lt;15 days</b>	<b>&lt;30 days</b>	<b>&lt;90 days</b>	<b>&lt;180 days</b>	<b>Total</b>
RPs	8[8.98]	53[59.56]	26[29.22]	2[2.24]	Nil	<b>89[100]</b>
CWs	3[7.69]	6[15.39]	18[46.16]	12[30.76]	Nil	<b>39[100]</b>

*Note: Row percentage in brackets*

#### **4.7 Basic Amenities of Rickshaw Pullers and Construction Workers**

##### **4.13.1 Housing**

Housing at place of work is only applicable in case of temporary and permanent migrants of RPs and CWs. Quality of housing [ $p<0.0002$ ] and location of housing [ $p<3.411 \cdot 10^{-7}$ ] between RPs and CWs at origin is not at all homogenous. As far as type of housing is concerned, both in case of owned and rented house, CW account for greater percentage than RP with 19.05% owned house and 80.95% rented house (Table-4.75). Among the RP, 24.28% uses public places like clubs, footpaths etc for sleeping at night. As far as quality of housing is concerned, majority of both RPs and CWs dwell in semi-pucca house with 44.66% and 47.62% respectively. 42.86% CW dwell in kutchha houses which is higher than the RP (32.04%) and 23.30% RP dwell in pucca houses which is higher than CW (9.52). In respect of the location of housing, it could be seen that majority of both category workers live in non slum areas of the town. The figures for RPs and CWs are 52.43% and 47.63% respectively.

**Table-4.75**

**Basic Amenities [Housing at Place of Work] of RPs and CWs**

<b>Housing</b>		<b>Rickshaw Pullers</b>	<b>Construction Workers</b>
<b>Type of Housing</b>	Owned	6[5.82]	12[19.05]
	Rented	57[55.33]	51[80.95]
	Public Place	25[24.28]	0
	Owner's House	15[14.57]	0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>103(50.55)</b>	<b>63(30.74)</b>
	NA	102[49.45]	142[69.26]
<b>Total</b>		<b>205[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>
<b>Quality of Housing</b>	Kutcha	33[32.04]	27[42.86]
	Semi Pucca	46[44.66]	30[47.62]
	Pucca	24[23.30]	6[9.52]
	<b>Total</b>	<b>103(50.55)</b>	<b>63(30.74)</b>
	NA	102[49.75]	142[69.26]
	<b>Total</b>	<b>205[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>
<b>Location of Housing</b>	Slum Area	35[33.98]	24[38.09]
	Village	14[15.59]	9[14.28]
	Non Slum Area	54[52.43]	30[47.63]
	<b>Total</b>	<b>103(50.55)</b>	<b>63(30.74)</b>
	NA	102[49.75]	142[69.26]
	<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>205[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

*NA- Not Applicable*

At origin over 94% of both RPs and CWs have own house. Possession of semi pucca house at origin of RPs (22.94%) is higher than that of the CWs (8.29%), (Table-4.76). It is revealed that 85.85% of the CW's

house located at the slum area which shows higher percentage than that of RPs with 66.35%. Further, 27.80% of RPs resides in the non slum area of the town which is higher than that of CWs with 7.33%. Thus it is clear that RPs belongs to comparatively better housing condition than CWs.

**Table-4.76**

**Basic Amenities [Housing at Origin] of RPs and CWs**

Housing		Rickshaw Pullers	Construction Workers
Type of Housing	Owned	196[95.61]	194[94.64]
	Rented	9[4.39]	9[4.39]
	Public Place	0	2[.97]
<b>Total</b>		<b>205[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>
Quality of Housing	Kutcha	156[76.09]	184[89.76]
	Semi Pucca	47[22.94]	17[8.29]
	Pucca	2[.97]	4[1.95]
<b>Total</b>		<b>205[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>
Location of Housing	Slum Area	136[66.35]	176[85.85]
	Village	12[5.85]	14[6.82]
	Non Alum Area	57[27.80]	15[7.33]
<b>Total</b>		<b>205[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

#### 4.7.2 Water

Availability of drinking water at place of work is illustrated in Table-4.77. Water facility at place of work between RPs and CWs are not at all homogenous [ $p < 2.619 \cdot 10^{-5}$ ]. Table shows that majority of the RPs

avail the SMCA water supply with 52.42% as opposed to majority of CWS consume well water ( 47.63%).

**Table-4.77**

**Basic Amenities [Drinking Water at Place of Work] of RPs and CWS**

Water	Rickshaw Pullers	CWs
Well	16[15.55]	30[47.63]
Tube Well	31[30.09]	9[14.28]
Deep Tube Well	2[1.94]	0
SMCA Water	54[52.42]	24[38.09]
<b>Total</b>	<b>103(50.55)</b>	<b>63(30.74)</b>
<b>Na</b>	102[49.75]	142[69.26]
<b>Total</b>	<b>205[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

*NA-Not Applicable*

In their place of origin majority of both RPs and CWS uses drinking water from wells which are owned by them (Table-4.78). Only 7.80% of RP avail PHE water supply at rural areas.

**Table-4.78**

**Basic Amenities [Drinking Water at Origin] of RPs and CWS**

Water	RPs	CWs
Well	Own	96[46.82]
	Neighbour	22[10.73]
	Public	28[13.67]
Tube Well	Own	18[8.78]
	Neighbour	10[4.87]
	Public	15[7.33]
PHE Water	16[7.80]	0[00]
<b>Total</b>	<b>205[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

#### 4.7.3 Sanitation

Sanitation facility availed by CWs and RPs at place of work is shown in Table- 4.79. Sanitation facility at place of work between RPs and CWs is not homogenous [ $p<4.164.10^{-6}$ ]. From the Table it is apparent that, majority of CW (about 88%) owned private sanitation facility with 34.93% kutchas. In the same way, in case of RP, more than 50% pullers owned private sanitation facility with 25.25% having kutchas latrines. As far as sharing arrangements are concerned, higher percentage of RP (20.38%) availed kutchas sanitation facilities on sharing basis as compared to CW with only 7.93%. Thus CWs have better sanitation arrangements than RPs at place of work.

**Table-4.79**

**Basic Amenities [Sanitation at Place of Work] of RPs and CWs**

Sanitation		Rickshaw Pullers	CWs
Owned private	Kutcha	26[25.25]	34[53.96]
	Pucca	26[25.25]	22[34.93]
Sharing Arrangements	Kutcha	21[20.38]	5[7.93]
	Pucca	0	0
Public Toilet		24[23.30]	2[3.18]
Open Space		6[2.92]	0
<b>Total</b>		<b>103(50.55)</b>	<b>63(30.74)</b>
Na		102[49.75]	142[69.26]
<b>Grand Total</b>		<b>205[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

*NA-Not Applicable*

Other mentioned sanitation facilities availed by them are public toilet and open space which RPs uses with 23.30% and 2.92%, much higher than that of CWs. But at origin, majority of both RPs and CWs uses open space as a means of toilet. Apart from using open space, 12.68% of RPs and 8.78% of CWs uses pucca toilet which are owned by them

[Table-4.80]. Thus RPs and CWs are equally placed in terms of sanitation facility available at origin.

**Table-4.80**

**Basic Amenities [Sanitation at Origin] of RPs and CWs**

<b>Sanitation</b>		<b>Rickshaw Pullers</b>	<b>CWs</b>
Owned private	Kutcha	76[37.07]	68[33.17]
	Pucca	26[12.68]	18[8.78]
Sharing Arrangements	Kutcha	11[5.36]	15[7.31]
	Pucca	2[.97]	2[.97]
Open space		90[43.92]	102[49.77]
<b>Grand Total</b>		<b>205[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

#### **4.7.4 Electricity**

Electricity facility at place of work is not homogenous between RPs and CWs [ $p<0.162$ ] but at origin they are homogenous. Electricity facility availed by RPs and CWs at place of work is shown in Table-4.81, where preponderant majority of CWs availed permanent electricity facility which is higher than that of RPs (42.73%). A noticeable percentage of RPs (24.27%) availed illegal electricity arrangements.

**Table-4.81**

**Basic Amenities [Electricity at Place of Work] of RPs and CWs**

<b>Electricity</b>		<b>RPs</b>	<b>CWs</b>
Permanent		44[42.73]	38[60.31]
Temporary	Legal	0[00]	0[00]
	Illegal	25[24.27]	5[7.95]
None		34[33.00]	20[31.74]
<b>Total</b>		<b>103(50.55)</b>	<b>63(30.74)</b>

Na	102[49.75]	142[69.26]
<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>205[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets  
NA-Not Applicable*

Those who do not posses any electricity facility is also large in numbers. Most of the CW (69.28%) and RP (78.04%) do not avail any electricity facility at their origin (Table-4.82).

**Table-4.82**

**Basic Amenities [Electricity at Origin] of RPs and CWs**

Electricity		RPs	CWs
Permanent		46[22.43]	34[16.58]
Temporary	Legal	0	0
	Illegal	17[8.29]	11[5.38]
None		142[69.28]	160[78.04]
<b>Total</b>		<b>205[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

#### **4.7.5 Monthly Remittances to Native Places.**

As far as the monthly remittances to native place are concerned, 42.43% of RPs and 19.03% of CWs send money to their native places (Table-4.83). Monthly remittances to native places is not homogenous between RPs and CWs [ $p<2.30.10^{-5}$ ]. Overriding majority of RPs (about 88.50%) remit money to their native places more than Rs.1500 with 58.63% in the range Rs.1501 to Rs.2000 and majority of CWs (about 68.50%) remit money up to Rs.1500. The average monthly remittances of CWs to their native places are Rs1388.23 and for RPs it is Rs.1752.38. Thus we can say that RPs remit more money to their native places than CWs.

**Table-4.83****Skill Status and Monthly Remittances to Native Places [RPs and CWs]**

<b>Skill [Rs.]</b>	<b>Skilled</b>	<b>Semi skilled</b>	<b>Un skilled</b>	<b>Total [Construction Workers]</b>	<b>Total [RPs]</b>
Up to 500	0	1[6.66]	2[16.67]	3[7.69]	0
501-1000	0	4[26.67]	8[66.66]	12[30.77]	0
1001-1500	2[16.67]	8[53.33]	2[16.67]	12[30.76]	26[29.88]
1501-2000	8[66.66]	2[13.34]	0	10[25.66]	51[58.63]
2000+	2[16.67]	0	0	2[5.12]	12[13.79]
<b>Total</b>	<b>12[17.15]</b>	<b>15[27.27]</b>	<b>12[15.00]</b>	<b>39[19.03]</b>	<b>87[42.43]</b>
Na	58[82.85]	40[72.73]	68[85.00]	166[80.97]	118[57.57]
<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>70[100]</b>	<b>55[100]</b>	<b>80[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

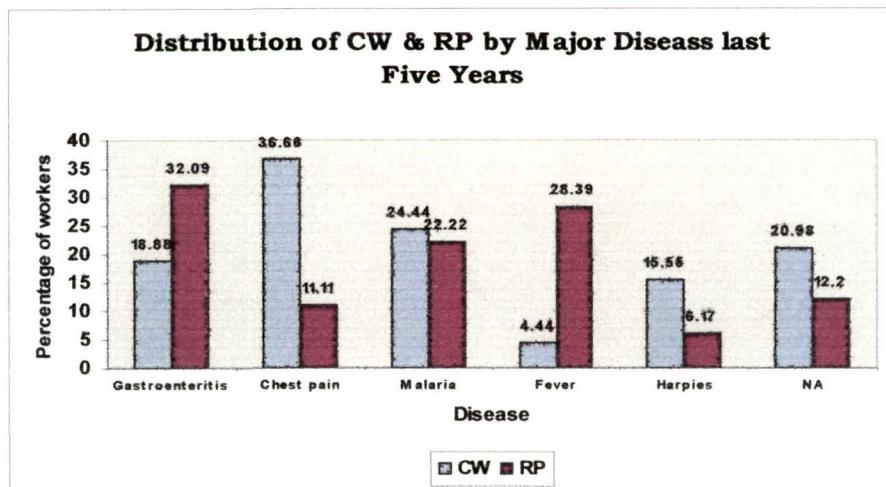
*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

*NA-Not Applicable*

#### 4.8 Health

It is fact that the RPs and CWs spend a sizable amount of their incomes to mitigate health shocks, indicating for them a high level of health vulnerability. This section deals with the health status of the pullers. Major diseases between CWs and RPs is not at all homogenous [ $p<1.24 \cdot 10^{-13}$ ]. Chart-4.2 depicts that majority of the RPs suffers from gastroenteritis (32.09%) and majority of the CWs suffers from chest pain (36.66%). Other major diseases reported are malaria, fever, harpies etc. Fever happens to be more frequent among the RPs (28.39%) than the CWs (4.44%).

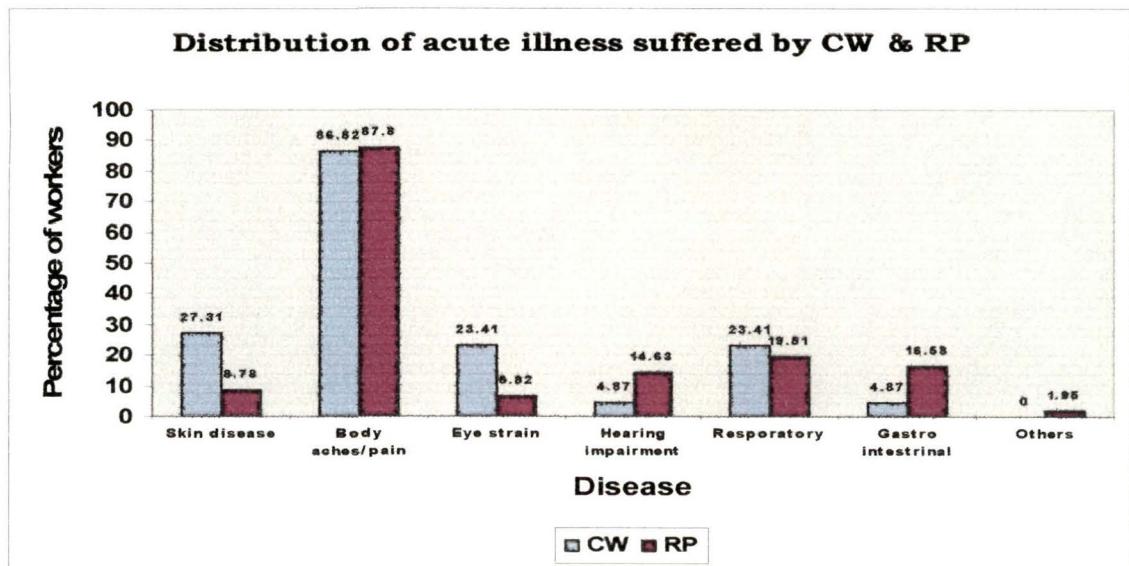
### Chart-4.2



Note- CW-Construction Workers; R-Rickshaw Pullers

Acute illness suffered between CWs and RPs is not at all homogenous [ $p<1.0001.10^{-11}$ ]. Among sample RPs and CWs, acute health problems arise primarily from few conditions: gastro enteric problems including acidity and ulcers; pains/aches; respiratory; hearing impairment. Majority of both RPs [87.8%] and CWs [86.82%] suffers from body aches (Chart-4.3).

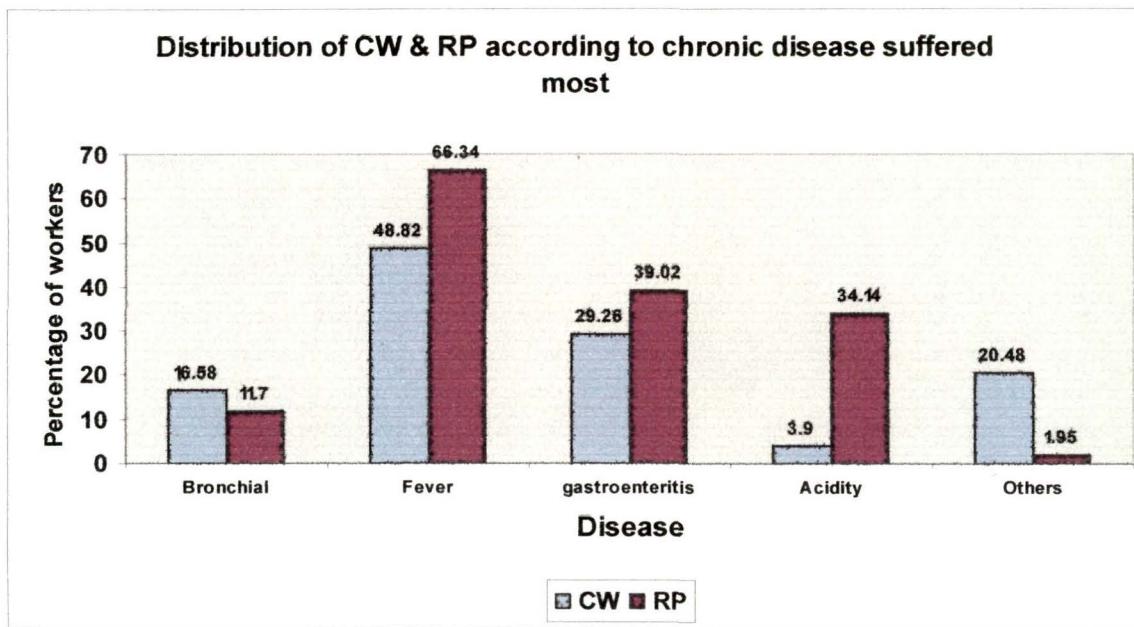
### Chart-4.3



Note- CW-Construction Workers; R-Rickshaw Pullers

Chronic diseases suffered most between CWs and RPs is not at all homogenous [ $p<3.5574.10^{-18}$ ]. Chronic illness of the RPs and CWs are linked primarily to gastro enteric problems, bronchial, and fever. The latter two make up about 78% of all chronic ailments, among RP and about 63% among CW [Chart-4.4]. Hence, a significant part of the health vulnerability of the pullers may be classified as occupational hazards.

**Chart-4.4**



While road accidents and injuries are straightforward examples among RPs and CWs, other possible job-related hazards pointed out by the RPs are: eating unhygienic food from roadside stalls, eating irregularly, rickshaw pulling in adverse weather conditions like scorching heat or incessant rains, and, of course, physical exhaustion. In aggregate 59.02% RP faced the accidents while pulling on roads and 40% of CW faced accidents while working on the sites. Cost born for accidents between CWs and RPs is not at all homogenous [ $p1-4.10.10^{-5}$ ].

Majority of the pullers (about 78.57%) did bear the cost of treatment by self and in case of CW, it is the employer who born the cost of treatment on accidents (Table-4.84).

**Table-4.84**

**Distribution of RPs and CWs According to Cost Born for Illness due to Accidents during Work**

<b>Cost born</b>	<b>RPs</b>	<b>CWs</b>
Employer	6[7.14]	40[47.61]
Parents	10[11.92]	0
Self	66[78.57]	36[42.85]
Others	2[2.38]	6[7.14]
Total	84[40.97]	82[40.00]
NA	121[59.02]	123[60.00]
<b>Grand total</b>	<b>205[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

*NA-Not Applicable*

## **4.9 REGRESSION RESULTS**

### **4.9.1 What Affects the Income of RPs**

For Monthly Individual Income of RPs a linear Regression has been estimated as Follows:

The monthly individual income of RPs is linearly related to the age of the RPs and number of working days. The relation between monthly individual income and age is negatively related. Monthly Individual income of RPs is positively related with the number of working days

$$RP_{INDI} = 695.896 - 16.994^* X_{AGE} + 113.928^* X_{WD}$$

[1375.322]	[7.291]	[45.766]
------------	---------	----------

$$R^2 = 0.125$$

$* = p < 0.05$

Where  $RP_{INDI}$  = Individual income of RPs .

$X_{AGE}$  = Age of RPs.

$X_{WD}$  = Number of working days.

For per capita income, estimated linear regression line is:

As far as per capita income of RPs is concerned, it is negatively related with the family size and positively related with total earning members of the family.

$$RP_{PCI} = 1116.579^{**} - 146.961^{**} X_{FS} + 320.156^{**} X_{TEM}$$

[66.399]	[13.600]	[30.999]
----------	----------	----------

$$R^2 = 0.600$$

$^{**} = p < 0.01$

Where  $RP_{PCI}$  = Per capita income of RPs

$X_{FS}$  = Family size of RPs

$X_{TEM}$  = Total earning members of RPs.

For monthly household income, estimated linear regression line is:

Monthly household income of RPs is positively related with the total earning members of the family.

$$RP_{HHI} = 1719.112^{**} + 1604.446^{**} X_{TEM}$$

[66.399]	[30.999]
----------	----------

$$R^2 = 0.540$$

$^{**} = p < 0.01$

Where  $RP_{HHI}$  = Household income of RPs

$X_{TEM}$  = Total earning members of RPs.

#### **4.9.2 What Affects Consumption of RPs**

For monthly individual consumption of RPs a linear regression has been estimated as follows:

Monthly individual consumption of RPs is positively related with monthly individual income and age of the RPs.

$$RP_{INDC} = 1566.039^{**} + 0.206^{**} X_{INDI} + 12.619^{**} X_{AGE}$$

[272.736] [0.060] [4.490]

$$R^2 = 0.141^{**}$$

\*\* = p<0.01

Where  $RP_{INDC}$  = Monthly individual consumption of RPs.

$X_{INDI}$  = Monthly individual income of RPs

$X_{AGE}$  = Age of the RPs.

For monthly household consumption of RPs a linear regression has been estimated as follows:

Monthly household consumption of RPs is positively related with monthly household income, family size and total earning members of the RPs.

$$RP_{HHC} = 864.823^{**} + 0.374^{**} X_{HHI} + 96.739^{**} X_{FS} + 162.508^{**} X_{TEM}$$

[136.698] [0.032] [24.992] [78.742]

$$R^2 = 0.833^{**}$$

\*\* = p<0.01

Where  $RP_{HHC}$  = Monthly household consumption of RPs.

$X_{HHI}$  = Monthly household income of RPs

$X_{FS}$  = Family size of RPs.

$X_{TEM}$  = Total earning members of RPs.

#### **4.9.3 What Affects Savings of RPs**

For monthly individual savings of RPs a linear regression has been estimated as follows:

Monthly individual savings of RPs is positively related with monthly individual income and household savings of RPs and negatively related with monthly household income of RPs. The reason behind the negative relation between individual savings and household income is that when other members of the house earn in a reasonable way then the propensity to save among rickshaw pullers decline.

$$RP_{INDS} = -1142^{**} + 0.582^{**} X_{INDI} - 0.134^{**} X_{HHI} + 0.469^{**} X_{HHS}$$

[206.150] [0.067] [0.047] [0.079]

$$R^2 = 0.776^{**}$$

\*\* = p<0.01

Where RP<sub>INDS</sub> = Monthly individual savings of RPs.

X<sub>INDI</sub> = Monthly individual income of RPs

X<sub>HHI</sub> = Monthly household income of RPs.

X<sub>HHS</sub> = Household savings of RPs.

For monthly household savings of RPs a linear regression has been estimated as follows:

Monthly household savings of CWs is positively related with monthly household income and negatively related with monthly household consumption of CWs.

$$RP_{HHS} = -11.233 + 0.975^{**} X_{HHI} - 0.961^{**} X_{HHC}$$

[40.904] [0.012] [0.024]

$$R^2 = 0.990^{**}$$

\*\* = p<0.01

Where RP<sub>HHS</sub> = Monthly household savings of RPs.

X<sub>HHI</sub> = Monthly household income of RPs.

X<sub>HHC</sub> = Monthly household consumption of RPs.

#### **4.9.4 What Affects Income of CWS**

For per capita income, estimated linear regression line is:

Per capita income of CWS is negatively related with family size and positively related with total earning members of the CWS.

$$CW_{PCI} = 965.008^{**} - 142.220^{**} X_{FS} + 333.539^{**} X_{TEM}$$

[101.682] [23.573] [57.687]

$$R^2 = 0.315^{**}$$

\*\* = p<0.01

Where  $CW_{PCI}$  = Per capita income of CWS.

$X_{FS}$  = Family size of CWS

$X_{TEM}$  = Total earning members of CWS.

Monthly individual income for male CWS, estimated linear regression line is:

Monthly individual income of male CWS is positively related with duration of work [years] and age of first employment.

$$CW_{INDI} = 1139.050^{**} + 44.970^{**} X_{DOW} + 82.645^{**} X_{AFE}$$

[486.542] [18.888] [34.192]

$$R^2 = 0.121^{**}$$

\*\* = p<0.01

Where  $MCW_{INDI}$  = Monthly individual income of male CWS.

$X_{DOW}$  = Duration of work

$X_{AFE}$  = Age at first employment at construction work.

Monthly individual income for skilled CWS, estimated linear regression line is:

Monthly individual income of skilled CWS is positively related with the age of first employment at construction work.

$$SCW_{INDI} = 1243.131^{**} + 135.659^{**} X_{AFE}$$

[101.682]	[23.573]
-----------	----------

$$R^2 = 0.193^{**}$$

$^{**} = p < 0.01$

Where  $SCW_{INDI}$  = Monthly individual income of skilled CWs.  
 $X_{AFE}$  = Age at first employment at construction work.

For monthly household income of CWs a linear regression has been estimated as follows:

Monthly household income of CWs is positively related with the total earning members and total dependant members of the family.

$$CW_{HHI} = 619.998 + 1505.871^{**} X_{TEM} + 231.538^{**} X_{TDM}$$

[442.764]	[210.536]	[102.648]
-----------	-----------	-----------

$$R^2 = 0.400^{**}$$

$^{**} = p < 0.01$

Where  $CW_{HHI}$  = Monthly household income of CWs.  
 $X_{TEM}$  = Total earning members of CWs  
 $X_{TDM}$  = Total dependant members of CWs.

#### **4.9.5 What Affects Consumption of CWs**

For monthly individual consumption of CWs a linear regression has been estimated as follows:

Monthly individual consumption of CWs is positively related with monthly individual income and total dependant members and negatively related with family size.

$$CW_{INDC} = 649.312^{**} + 0.635^{**} X_{INDI} + 168.578^{**} X_{TDM} - 113.068^{**} X_{FS}$$

[128.066]	[0.036]	[51.501]	[42.788]
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$$R^2 = 0.806^{**}$$

$^{**} = p < 0.01$

Where  $CW_{INDC}$ =Monthly individual consumption of CWs.

$X_{INDI}$  = Monthly individual income of CWs

$X_{TDM}$  = Total dependant members of CWs.

$X_{FS}$  = Family size.

For monthly household consumption of CWs a linear regression has been estimated as follows:

Monthly household consumption of CWs is positively related with monthly household income and total dependant members.

$$CW_{HHC} = 252.630 + 171.274^{**} X_{HHI} + 0.595^{**} X_{TDM}$$

[95.422] [25.267] [0.020]

$$R^2 = 0.924^{**}$$

$$^{**} = p < 0.01$$

Where  $CW_{HHC}$ =Monthly household consumption of CWs

$X_{HHI}$  = Monthly household income of CWs

$X_{TDM}$  = Total dependant members of CWs.

#### **4.9.6 What Affects Savings of CWs**

For monthly individual savings of CWs a linear regression has been estimated as follows:

Monthly individual savings of CWs is positively related with monthly individual income and monthly household savings and negatively related with monthly household income. The rationale behind the negative relation between individual savings and household income is that when other members of the house earn in a reasonable way then the propensity to save among construction workers decline.

$$CW_{INDS} = -268.686^{**} + 0.281^{**} X_{INDI} - 0.0767^{**} X_{HHI} + 0.307^{**} X_{HHS}$$

[128.066] [0.036] [51.501] [42.788]

$$R^2 = 0.688^{**}$$

\*\* = p<0.01

Where  $CW_{INDS}$  = Monthly individual savings of CWs.

$X_{INDI}$  = Monthly individual income of CWs

$X_{HI}$  = Monthly household income of CWs.

$X_{HS}$  = Monthly household savings of CWs.

For monthly household savings of CWs a regression has estimated as follows:

Monthly household savings of CWs is positively related with monthly household income and negatively related with total earning members in the family.

$$CW_{HHS} = -255.327^{**} + 0.405^{**} X_{HHI} - 171.695^{**} X_{TDM}$$

[95.560] [0.020] [25.303]

$$R^2 = 0.813^{**}$$

\*\* = p<0.01

Where  $CW_{HHS}$  = Monthly household savings of CWs

$X_{HHI}$  = Monthly household income of CWs

$X_{TDM}$  = Total dependant members of CWs.

## **CHAPTER- V**

### **CHARACTERISTICS OF MIGRANT RICKSHAW PULLERS AND CONSTRUCTION WORKERS**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

There is a large volume of inter and intra district migration in the SMCA induced by reduced income opportunities at villages, inadequate harvests, low wages in villages, easy absorption in the unorganised sector, economic stability and better access to public services such as electricity, clinics, schools, as well as better prospects for recreation in the city. With the multitudes of rural families migrating to cities due to lack of opportunities in rural areas and in search of a better job in the city, the formal sector finds it difficult to offer jobs to the migrants. It is ultimately the informal economic sector that absorbs these migrants and provides them opportunities to find jobs, create entrepreneurship and raise incomes in comparison to rural levels. Economic forces are very important in influencing migration to SMCA and the person, who migrates, is gain, most from it.

#### **5.2 Migration Status and Gender Profile of Rickshaw pullers and Construction workers**

People from diverse areas of the state do not take part equally in rickshaw pulling as well as in construction work. Migration according to home district is not homogenous between RPs and CWs [p<3.0604.10<sup>-19</sup>]. For RPs, two largest contributing districts are Jalpaiguri and Uttar Dinajpur from which more than half (about 55%) of the sample RPs have come with 30.59% from Jalpaiguri district

(Table-5.1). In case of CWs, two largest contributing districts are Jalpaiguri and Coochbehar from which more than two third (about 88%) of the sample CWs had come with 69.66% from Jalpaiguri district. Interstate migrants were found only among RPs with 3.82%. Intra district migration is higher among RPs with 15.29% than CWs (10.94%). Thus on a close scrutiny we can say that for RPs, a larger proportion of pullers have come from south of Jalpaiguri (about 32%) and for CWs , a larger portion of workers have come from east of Jalpaiguri (about 28%). Jalpaiguri alone contributes more than 52% of both RPs and construction workers taken together.

**Table-5.1**

**Distribution of Migrant RPs and CWs According to Home Districts**

District	Rickshaw Pullers	Construction Workers
Inter State	6[3.82]	0
Intra District	24[15.29]	22[10.94]
Coochbehar	30[19.10]	35[17.41]
Jalpaiguri	48[30.59]	140[69.66]
Malda	4[2.54]	4[1.99]
Mursidabad	5[3.18]	0
Uttar Dinajpur	40[25.48]	0
<b>Total</b>	<b>157[76.59]</b>	<b>201[98.05]</b>
Native	48[23.41]	4[1.95]
<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>205[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

Migration status is not homogenous between RPs and CWs [ $p < 1.05 \cdot 10^{-20}$ ]. Of the surveyed RPs and CWs, migrants among the CWs are higher with 98.05% than the RPs with 76.59% (Table-5.2). Temporary migrants among the RPs (56.68%) are higher than that of CWs with only 19.40% and conversely, circular migrants among the CWs (68.56%) are higher than the RPs with 34.39%. Again higher

percentage of permanent migrants is seen among CWs (11.94%) than RPs (8.93%). The reason behind the higher percentage of temporary migrants among the RPs is that earnings from pulling in Siliguri are much higher than other adjacent towns.

**Table-5.2**

**Distribution of RPs and CWs According to Migration Status**

	Non-Migrants	Migrants			<b>Total Migrants</b>
		<b>Temporary</b>	<b>Permanent</b>	<b>Circular</b>	
Rickshaw Pullers	48[23.41]	89[56.68]	14[8.93]	54[34.39]	<b>157[76.59]</b>
Construction Workers	4[1.95]	39[19.40]	24[11.94]	138[68.56]	<b>201[98.05]</b>

*Note: Row percentage in brackets*

Average rickshaw rent for hired rickshaws varies with the nature of migrating pullers (Table-5.3). Average rent paid by the pullers is highest among the temporary migrants (Rs.27.26) as opposed to permanent (Rs. 25.66) and circular (Rs. 24.04) migrants. On the contrary, native RPs paid lowest rental for their hired rickshaws @ Rs. 22.50 per day.

**Table-5.3**

**Distribution of RPs According to Average Rickshaw Rent per Day and Nature of Migration**

	<b>Temporary</b>	<b>Permanent</b>	<b>Circular</b>	<b>Native</b>
Average Rent Paid Per Day [Rs]	27.26	25.66	24.04	22.50

Gender profile of CWs by nature of migration is illustrated in Table-5.4. Gender profile is not homogenous between RPs and CWs [ $p<0.00011$ ]. Among the temporary and circular migrants, majority are from male CWs (76.93% and 81.15%). Among the permanent migrants

major proportion accounts female workers with 58.34%. Majority of both male and female CWs are circular migrated in nature.

**Table-5.4**  
**Gender Profile and Nature of Migration [CWs]**

	<b>Temporary</b>	<b>Permanent</b>	<b>Circular</b>	<b>Native</b>	<b>Total</b>
Male	30[76.93]	10[41.66]	112[81.15]	4[100]	156[76.09]
Female	9[23.07]	14[58.34]	26[18.85]	0	49[23.91]
<b>Total</b>	<b>39[100]</b>	<b>24[100]</b>	<b>138[100]</b>	<b>4[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

If we compare the migration status by duration of work at SMCA among RPs and CWs (Table-5.5), then we will see that higher percentage of native worker is found among RPs. Thus native people are more inclined in favour of pulling rather than working at construction sites. Again, among all the joiners of migrant CWs, major proportion are circular in nature [1-4years-55.73%; 5-15 years-75.40%; 15+ years-66.68%] and among all the joiners of migrant RPs, major portion constitutes temporary migrants [1-4years-45.84%; 5-15 years-60.45%; 15+ years-66.67%]. Thus major portion of migrant CWs are coming from adjacent places of Siliguri and major portion of the migrant RPs are coming from distant Siliguri.

**Table-5.5**  
**Migration Status of RPs and CWs by Duration of Pulling**

Years	Construction Work at SMCA				Rickshaw Pulling at SMCA			
	1-4	5-15	15+	Total	1-4	5 -15	15+	TOTAL
Native	2[50] [3.18]	2[50] [1.62]	0	4[100] [1.96]	20[42] [29.42]	22[46] [19.47]	6[12] [25.00]	48 [23.41]
<b>Migrant</b>								
Temporary /Seasonal	21[54] [34.42]	16[41] [13.12]	2[5] [11.11]	39[100] [19.40]	22[25] [45.84]	55[62] [60.45]	12[13] [66.67]	89[100] [56.68]
Permanent	6[25] [9.84]	14[58] [11.48]	4[17] [22.21]	24[100] [11.94]	8[57] [16.66]	6[43] [6.59]	0	14[100] [8.93]

Circular	34[24] [55.73]	92[67] [75.40]	12[9] [66.68]	138[100] [68.56]	18[33] [37.50]	30[56] [32.96]	6[11] [33.33]	54[100] [34.39]
<b>Total</b>	61[30] [96.84]	122[61] [98.38]	18[9] [100.00]	201[100] [98.06]	48[31] [70.58]	91[58] [80.55]	18[11] [75.00]	157[100] [76.59]
<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>63[31] [100]</b>	<b>124[60] [100]</b>	<b>18[9] [100]</b>	<b>205[100] [100]</b>	<b>68[33] [100]</b>	<b>113[55] [100]</b>	<b>24[12] [100]</b>	<b>205[100] [100]</b>

Note: Column percentage in brackets

1-4 years=new joiners; 5-15 years=core joiners; 15+years=deep joiners

As far as new joiner workers are concerned, higher percentage of native workers have been found in rickshaw pulling [29.42%] than construction work [3.18%]. Thus young native peoples are more inclined to rickshaw pulling rather than to construction work. Our survey revealed that, among the temporary migrant CWs, new joiner CWs [54%] hold higher percentage than core [41%] and deep joiner [5%] CWs. In case of rickshaw pulling, core joiner RPs hold higher percentage than new and deep joiner RPs among temporary migrant RPs. Higher percentage of new joiner RPs has been found among the permanent migrant RPs and the core joiner CWs hold higher percentage among permanent migrant CWs. In case of circular migrant workers, core joiner workers constitute major proportion both in rickshaw pulling and construction work.

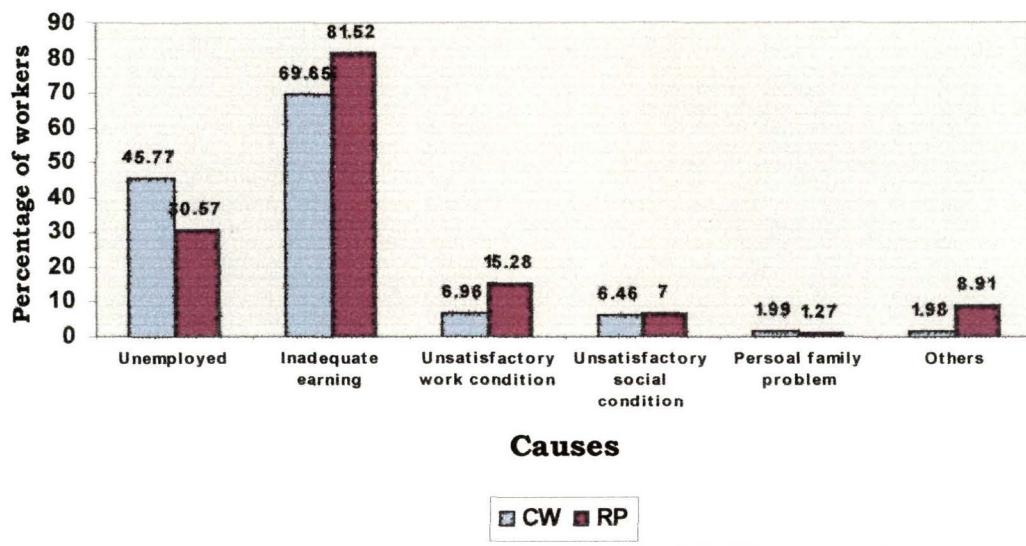
### 5.3 Causes of Migration

Movement is an integral part of human existence. Factors motivating migration are complex and intertwined. Motives for migration are frequently multiple. People move for a combination of several reasons, and they are not always aware of all the factors motivating their moves. Though many people are coming with the intention of permanent job, often circumstances force them to grab the opportunities in any manner. The majority of the workers came to the city only after being unable to maintain themselves in the villages. Causes of migration is not homogenous between RPs and CWs

[ $p < .002$ ]. A preponderant majority of both RPs (81.55%) and CWs (69.65%) leave their villages because of inadequate earnings (Chart-5.1). Again the great majority of them leave their ancestral homes only when forced to do, either by lack of employment or unsatisfactory social conditions.

**Chart-5.1**

### **Distribution of CW & RP According to Causes of Migration**



Note- CW – Construction Workers; RP – Rickshaw Pullers

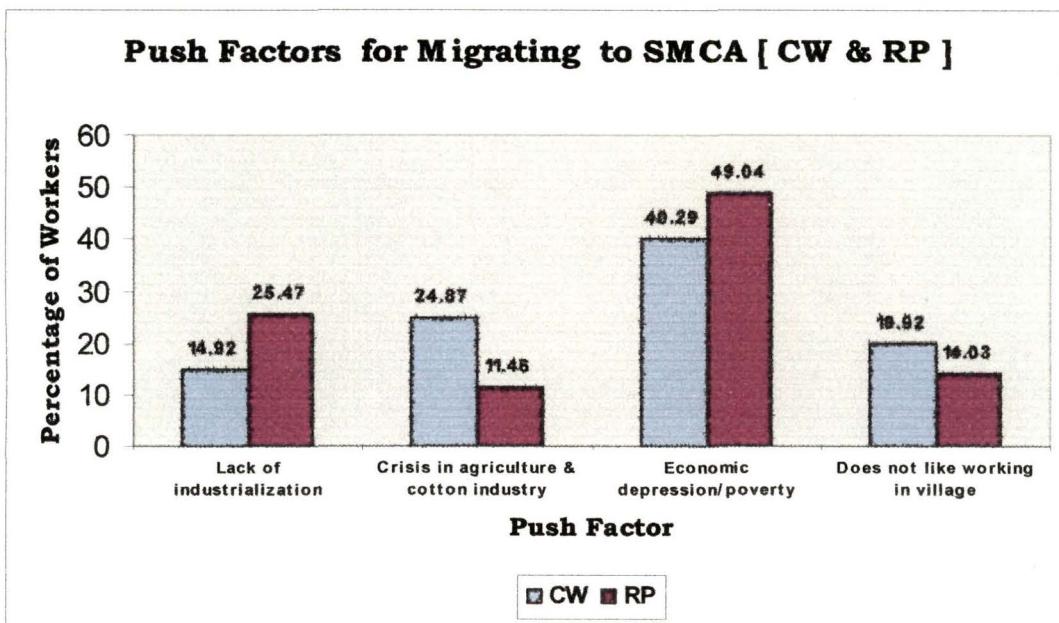
Causes of migration due to unsatisfactory working condition are more prevalent in rickshaw pulling [15.28%] than construction work [6.96%]. Migration due to unemployment problems in villages have been found more rampant among CWs [45.77%] than the RPs [30.57%].

#### **5.3.1. Push Factors**

Migration, any type, whether documented or undocumented, forced or voluntary can be explained in terms of push-pull factors (Datta, 1998). Push factors attribute to the negative characteristics operating at the

center of origin whereas pull factors identify the positive characteristics (Datta, 2002) at the center of destination. There are essentially two types of migrants. One is due to persecution for various reasons, and the other is economic reasons. Persecution is essentially either for political or religious reasons. In such cases, the persons are given asylum to adopt other places. An economic migrant does not receive these privileges. Push factor that worked predominantly among both the RPs and CWs is “economic depression or poverty” which accounts 49.04% for RPs and 40.29% for CWs. Here all the push factors that they outlined during interviewed are economic in nature [Chart-5.2]. Push factor for migration is not homogenous between RPs and CWs [ $p < .00083$ ].

**Chart-5.2**



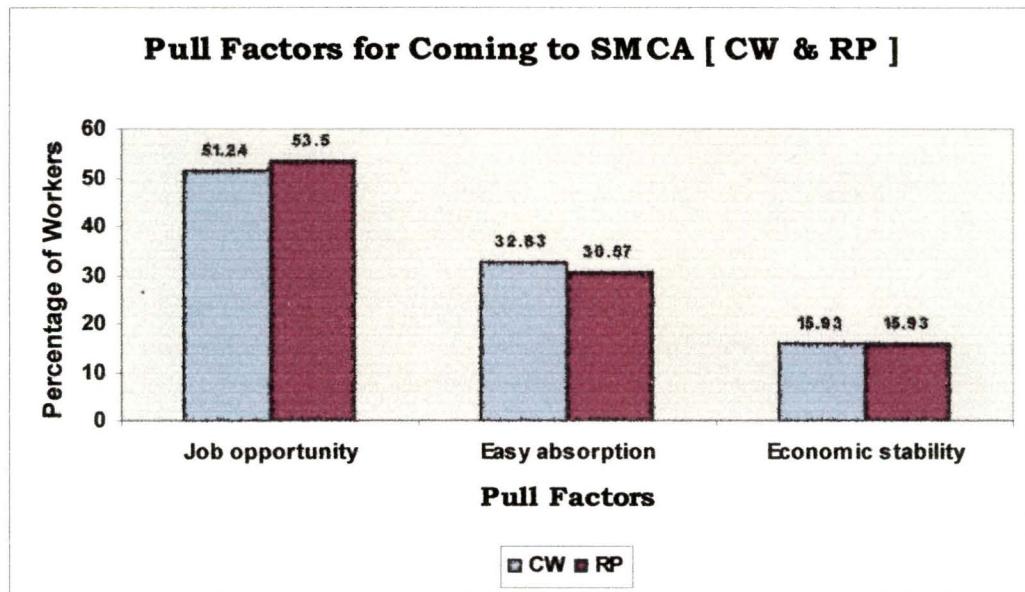
Note- CW – Construction Workers; RP – Rickshaw Pullers

### 5.3.2 Pull Factors

Motivation for migration can be explained by involuntary similes-centrifugal and centripetal forces. The centrifugal desire does not have

strong effect if the receptive desire is weak. The centrifugal impulse attribute to the push factors operating at the centre of origin, whereas the receptive impulse relates to pull factors that identify the positive characteristics at the center of destination. It appears that economic opportunities in terms of job availability in primary and informal sectors, economic stability, and easy absorption in SMCA worked as centripetal force for migrants. Such receptive forces are strengthened by centrifugal forces and have possibly caused migrants to come at SMCA. These can be easily established from the following opinion of the respondents of Chart-5.3. Preponderant majority of both RPs (53.50%) and CWs (51.24%) migrated to SMCA due to higher job opportunity in relation to other areas of north Bengal. Easy absorption and strong economic stability of Siliguri were the other pull factors stated by our surveyed respondents.

**Chart-5.3**



Note- CW – Construction Workers; RP – Rickshaw Pullers

## 5.4 Comparison between Rickshaw Pullers and Construction Workers by Migration Status

### Individual income

As far as individual income is concerned, there is no significant difference in average individual income among migrant CWs [Table-5.6]. Somewhat native CWs manage to grip higher individual average income [Rs. 2860] than all types of migrant pullers.

**Table-5.6**  
**Individual Income of CWs by Migration Status**

Nature of migration	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	Min	Max	CV[%]
Temporary	2156.47	548.31	132.98	1365	3250	25.43
Permanent	2005.00	582.57	168.17	1210	2850	29.06
Circular	2473.91	884.81	106.52	1155	7600	35.77
Native	2860.00	622.25	440.00	2420	3300	21.76
<b>Total</b>	<b>2371.40</b>	<b>815.05</b>	<b>81.50</b>	<b>1155</b>	<b>7600</b>	<b>34.37</b>

Table-11 reveals that the permanent migrant RPs have significantly higher average individual income than other categories of migrant RPs. It can be found from Table-5.7 that all categories of migrant pullers have significantly higher [ $p < .01$ ] average individual income than all categories of migrant CWs.

**Table-5.7**  
**Individual Income of RPs by Migration Status**

Nature of Migration	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	Min	Max	CV[%]
Temporary	2993.81**	624.50	96.36	2080	4500	20.86
Permanent	3921.43**	788.38	297.98	3000	5300	20.10
Circular	3379.63**	582.35	112.07	2250	4200	17.23

Native	3530.42	654.70	133.64	2700	5400	18.54
<b>Total</b>	<b>3291.70**</b>	<b>685.16</b>	<b>68.52</b>	<b>2080</b>	<b>5400</b>	<b>20.81</b>

Note: \*\*highly significant [p<.01]

In total, RPs hold higher average individual income than CWs [p<.01].

### Household income

Except native, there is no significant difference in total average household income among the migrant CWs [Table-5.8]. But native CWs [Rs.8110.01] hold significantly higher average household income than migrant CWs.

**Table-5.8**  
**Household Income of CWs by Migration Status**

Nature of Migration	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	Min	Max	CV[%]
Temporary	3281.76	1024.29	248.43	1650	5150	31.21
Permanent	3633.42	1681.54	485.42	1690	7280	46.28
Circular	3891.16	1856.02	223.44	1350	13400	47.70
Native	8110.01	1682.91	1190.00	6920	9300	20.75
<b>Total</b>	<b>3841.01</b>	<b>1818.60</b>	<b>181.86</b>	<b>1350</b>	<b>13400</b>	<b>47.35</b>

In case of RPs, there is no significant difference of average household income except for temporary migrants [Table-5.9]. Temporary migrant RPs hold significantly less average household income [Rs.3425.64] than native and other categories of migrant RPs. Significantly higher average household income is found among the permanent [Rs.5135.71] [p<.05] and circular [Rs.4917.78] [p<.01] migrant RPs than permanent [Rs.3633.42]

**Table-5.9**  
**Household Income of RPs by Migration Status**

<b>Nature of Migration</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>S.D.</b>	<b>S.E.</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>	<b>CV[%]</b>
Temporary	3425.64	768.76	118.62	2250	5050	22.44
Permanent	5135.71*	1304.07	492.89	3000	7100	25.39
Circular	4917.78**	1506.31	289.89	2250	8700	30.63
Native	5502.50	2348.02	479.29	3000	10100	42.67
<b>Total</b>	<b>4446.67**</b>	<b>1741.03</b>	<b>174.10</b>	<b>2250</b>	<b>10100</b>	<b>39.15</b>

Note: \*significant [p<.05]

\*\*highly significant [p<.01]

and circular [Rs.3891.16] migrant CWs. The average household income of RPs [Rs.4446.67] is significantly higher than CWs [Rs.3841.01] [p<.01].

#### Individual consumption

Table-5.10 shows that there is no significant difference in individual average consumption among all migrant CWs. In case of RPs also, no significant differences has been found in

**Table-5.10**  
**Individual Consumption of CWs by Migration Status**

<b>Nature of Migration</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>S.D.</b>	<b>S.E.</b>	<b>CV[%]</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>
Temporary	2167.0	675.42	163.81	31.17	1200	3800
Permanent	1805.83	533.27	153.94	29.53	880	2500
Circular	2175.51	618.58	74.47	28.43	1000	6000
Native	2050.00	353.55	250.00	17.25	1800	2300
<b>Total</b>	<b>2127.20</b>	<b>619.63</b>	<b>61.96</b>	<b>29.13</b>	<b>880</b>	<b>6000</b>

[Table-5.11] the case of individual average consumption. Except native RPs all categories of migrant RPs hold significantly higher individual average consumption than that of

**Table-5.11**  
**Individual Consumption of RPs by Migration Status**

Nature of Migration	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	Min	Max	CV[%]
Temporary	2646.95**	386.94	59.71	14.62	2080	3550
Permanent	2841.43**	434.76	164.32	15.30	2300	3500
Circular	2662.59**	397.35	76.47	14.92	2000	3500
Native	2563.54	490.10	100.04	19.12	1500	3325
<b>Total</b>	<b>2644.77**</b>	<b>418.51</b>	<b>41.85</b>	<b>15.82</b>	<b>1500</b>	<b>3550</b>

Note: \*\*highly significant [p<.01]

CWs. In aggregate, the individual average consumption of RPs [rs.2644.77] is significantly higher than CWs [Rs.2127.20] [p<.01].

#### Household consumption

Except native there is no significant difference in household consumption among migrant CWs [Table-5.12].

**Table-5.12**  
**Household Consumption of CWs by Migration Status**

Nature of Migration	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	CV[%]	Min	Max
Temporary	2803.24	695.31	168.64	24.80	1600	3950
Permanent	2878.33	920.03	265.59	31.96	1690	4900
Circular	3047.25	1300.13	156.52	42.67	1350	10000
Native	5775.00	388.91	275.00	6.73	5500	6050
<b>Total</b>	<b>3040.05</b>	<b>1224.21</b>	<b>122.42</b>	<b>40.27</b>	<b>1350</b>	<b>10000</b>

Temporary migrant RPs have significantly lesser consumption expenditure than other migrant RPs [Table-5.13]. It could be found from the Table that except native and temporary migrant RPs, permanent and circular migrant RPs have significantly higher household consumption than that of CWs [ $p<.05$ ].

**Table-5.13**  
**Household Consumption of RPs by Migration Status**

Nature of Migration	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	Min	Max	CV[%]
Temporary	2825.64	473.57	73.07	16.76	2080	4400
Permanent	3627.14*	756.71	286.01	20.86	2740	5100
Circular	3597.59*	927.56	178.51	25.78	2000	6000
Native	3791.88	1137.57	232.21	30.00	2150	6000
<b>Total</b>	<b>3322.07*</b>	<b>916.25</b>	<b>91.63</b>	<b>27.58</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>6000</b>

Note: \*significant [ $p<.05$ ]

Average household consumption of rickshaw puller is significantly higher than CWs [ $p<.05$ ].

#### Individual savings

There is no significant difference in case of individual savings among migrant CWs [table-5.14]. There is also no significant difference in case of individual savings among RPs [Table-5.15].

**Table-5.14**  
**Individual Savings of CWs by Migration Status**

Nature of Migration	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	CV[%]	Min	Max
Temporary	265.29	267.49	64.87	100.83	0	1100
Permanent	235.92	330.33	95.36	140.02	0	900

<b>Circular</b>	376.67	261.06	43.47	95.86	0	1900
<b>Native</b>	810.00	268.70	190.00	33.17	620	1000
<b>Total</b>	<b>349.51</b>	<b>348.62</b>	<b>34.86</b>	<b>99.75</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1900</b>

Permanent migrant RPs comparatively hold higher average individual savings than other categories of migrant RPs. In comparison between RPs and CWs, except native, other migrant RPs hold significantly higher individual savings than that of CWs [p<.01].

**Table-5.15**  
**Individual Savings of RPs by Migration Status**

<b>Nature of Migration</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>S.D.</b>	<b>S.E.</b>	<b>CV[%]</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>
Temporary	535.60**	402.06	62.04	75.07	40	1550
Permanent	1094.29**	553.83	209.33	50.61	260	2100
Circular	907.04**	639.99	123.17	70.56	10	2500
Native	1026.46	985.00	201.06	95.96	100	3950
<b>Total</b>	<b>792.80**</b>	<b>685.42</b>	<b>68.54</b>	<b>86.46</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>3950</b>

Note: \*\*highly significant [p<.01]

Individual savings of RPs is significantly higher than the CWs [p<.01].

#### Household savings

There is no significant difference in case of average household savings among migrant CWs [table-5.16].

**Table-5.16**  
**Household Savings of CWs by Migration Status**

<b>Nature of Migration</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>S.D.</b>	<b>S.E.</b>	<b>CV[%]</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>
Temporary	478.53	403.75	97.92	84.37	0	1450
Permanent	755.08	1030.13	297.37	136.43	0	3780

Circular	841.74	748.36	90.09	88.91	0	3400
Native	2335.00	1294.01	915.00	55.42	1420	3250
<b>Total</b>	<b>799.46</b>	<b>782.72</b>	<b>78.27</b>	<b>97.91</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>3780</b>

RPs hold significantly higher average household savings than CWs. Household savings of temporary migrant RPs is significantly lesser than other migrant RPs. But circular migrant RPs possess higher household savings than circular migrant CWs  $p<.01$  [Table-5.17].

**Table-5.17**  
**Household Savings of RPs by Migration Status**

Nature of Migration	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	CV[%]	Min	Max
Temporary	623.57	454.60	70.15	72.90	40	1850
Permanent	1515.71	729.40	275.69	48.12	260	2375
Circular	1324.63**	887.27	170.75	66.98	250	4700
Native	1702.29	1468.86	299.83	86.29	100	4700
<b>Total</b>	<b>1134.20**</b>	<b>1017.28</b>	<b>101.73</b>	<b>89.69</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>4700</b>

Note: \*\*highly significant [ $p<.01$ ]

In total average household savings of RPs is significantly higher than CWs [ $p<.01$ ]

#### Per capita income

No significant difference has been found in case of average per capita income among migrant CWs [table-5.18].

**Table-5.18**  
**Per Capita Income of CWs by Migration Status**

Nature of Migration	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	CV[%]	Min	Max
Temporary	877.78**	344.87	83.64	39.29	538.33	1716.67

Permanent	988.31	563.08	162.55	56.97	400	2426.67
Circular	837.66	353.64	42.57	42.22	270	2680
Native	1362.50	703.57	497.50	51.64	865	1860
<b>Total</b>	<b>873.05</b>	<b>390.74</b>	<b>39.07</b>	<b>44.76</b>	<b>270</b>	<b>2680</b>

Note: \*\*highly significant [p<.01]

The temporary migrant CWs hold significantly higher average per capita income than temporary migrant RPs. In the case of RPs, higher difference in per capita income between temporary and circular migrant has been found [Table-5.19].

**Table-5.19**  
**Per Capita Income of RPs by Migration Status**

Nature of migration	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	CV[%]	Min	Max
Temporary	686.21	201.45	31.08	29.36	303.75	1091.75
Permanent	1054.34	378.20	142.95	35.87	642.86	1562.50
Circular	918.33	280.89	54.06	30.59	538.75	1740.00
Native	1090.43	360.67	73.62	33.08	433.33	1780
<b>Total</b>	<b>871.67</b>	<b>324.91</b>	<b>32.49</b>	<b>37.27</b>	<b>303.75</b>	<b>1780</b>

#### Monthly remittances

Temporary migrant RPs remit significantly more money per month to their native places than temporary migrant CWs [p<.01] [Table-5.20].

**Table-5.20**  
**Monthly Remittances of CWs and RPs by Temporary Migrants**

	Mean	S.D.	S.E.	CV[%]	Min	Max
Construction Workers	708.82	574.52	139.34	81.05	200	2500
Rickshaw Pullers	921.79**	472.92	75.73	51.30	500	3000

Note: \*\*highly significant [p<.01]

## **CHAPTER-VI**

# **CONSEQUENCES OF MIGRATION OF RICKSHAW PULLERS AND CONSTRUCTION WORKERS ON THEIR HOUSEHOLD ECONOMY AND THE ECONOMY OF SMCA**

### **6.1 Introduction**

Almost all developing countries that have been concerned with the size and growth of their urban populations believe that internal (rural-urban) migration has been the prominent factor contributing to urban growth. Although high population growth is a serious problem in most developing countries, internal migration puts even greater strain on cities. Internal migration takes different forms and patterns, but the most significant is the movement from rural areas to urban centers. Rural-urban migration is responsible for the depopulation of some rural areas and the influx of people into towns and cities. Migration of RPs and CWs to SMCA has a definite impact upon the household economy at the native places and the economy of SMCA. Among the migrant RPs and CWs, the temporary migrants only remit money to their native places to feed, dress and educate their family members. They have migrated to SMCA mainly due to inadequate earnings and unemployment at the villages. The other factors for migrating to SMCA are the job opportunity and easy absorption in rickshaw pulling and construction work.

### **6.2 Migration Status**

In our field survey we have found that migrants among the CWs are higher than the RPs (Table-6.1). Temporary migrants among the RPs

are higher than that of CWS and in opposition, circular migrants among the CWS is higher than the RPs. Once more higher percentage of permanent migrants is seen among CWS than RPs.

**Table-6.1**

**Distribution of RPs and CWS According to Migration Status**

	<b>Non migrants</b>	<b>Migrants</b>			<b>Total migrants</b>
		<b>Temporary</b>	<b>Permanent</b>	<b>Circular</b>	
<b>RPs</b>	48[23.41]	89[56.68]	14[8.91]	54[34.39]	157[76.59]
<b>CWs</b>	4[1.95]	39[19.40]	24[11.94]	138[68.56]	201[98.05]

*Source: field survey*

*Note: Row percentage in brackets*

### **6.3 Use of Remitted Money**

The average daily income of RPs is Rs. 110.30 and Rs. 85 for CWS. Our data reveal that the earnings of both RP and CW are adequate enough so that they can save and remit money to their families at villages [Table-6.2]. In case of CWS, 94% of them remit more than 65% of their earnings and 92% of the RPs remit the same to their native places. In aggregate 93% of RPs and CWS remit more than 65% of their earnings to their native places. The family members at villages spend the remitted money for different purposes for upgrading their levels of living. Among the families of RPs, 94.38% used the remitted money for daily consumption of food, 67.41% used money for education, 51.38% used for house repairing, 24.71% used for investment in agriculture and 22.48% used for loan repayment on mortgaged in land.

**Table-6.2**

**Distribution of RPs and CWs According to Percentage of Income Remitted to the Native Places**

	<50%	50%-65%	>65%
CWs	5.12	53.86	41.02
RPs	7.86	33.75	58.42
Total	7.03	39.84	53.19

*Source: field survey*

Among the CWS, 87.18% families used remitted money for daily consumption of food, 56.41% used for house repairing, 43.49% used for education and 41.02% used for investment in agriculture [Table-6.3]. Thus it is evident that the earnings of both RPs and CWS contributed a lot to their household economy in the form of daily food consumption, investment in agriculture, education and house repairing. There is no doubt that the household economy of both RPs and CWS are getting benefited from the money remitted by them.

**Table-6.3**

**Distribution of RPs and CWs According to Use of Remitted Money to the Native Places**

	RP	CW
Consumption	94.38	87.18
Investment	24.71	41.02
Loan repayment	13.48	10.25
Mortgaged in land	9	5.12
Education	67.41	43.49
House repair	51.68	56.41

*Source: field survey*

On the other hand, expansion of village markets is taking place with the increase of the village consumption with the remitted money. In this way both the household economy and the economy of the villages is improving day by day with the remitted money which is earned by plying rickshaws and doing construction work at SMCA by the two

groups of workers. In this way a large amount of money is getting transferred day by day from urban economy to village economy and improving the living standards of the village residents. Or we can say that the money getting is redistributed among the poor peoples from rich people.

On the other side of the picture, the economy of SMCA is also getting benefited from the existence of the migrant workers of both Rickshaw Pulling and Construction Work. Most of the circular and temporary migrant RPs take their meal at the hotels and deposit their daily earnings to the hotel owners. The owners then subtract the hotel bill from the deposited money and return to the puller at the end of the week. Most of the circular and temporary migrant CWs also do take their meals at the hotels. In this way a portion of their earnings is invested at the SMCA economy. They also invest their earning in the form of rent paid to the rickshaw owners, commission given to the middleman, rent paid for rented house, purchasing of cloth, consumption of pan, bidi, cigarettes, tea etc.

#### **6.4 Population Growth Rate**

Siliguri municipal corporation area have witnessed high rate of population growth owing to the process of natural growth supplemented by migration. It is evident from Table-6.4 that while for both West Bengal and Darjeeling district the decadal population growth during 1991-2001 ( 17.77 and 23.79) exhibits lower than the decade 1981-1991 ( 24.73 and 26.91), SMCA experiences much higher growth rate in 1991-2003 ( 117.73) than 1981-1991 (40.53), which is highest among all cities and towns in west Bengal.

**Table-6.4**  
**Population Growth Rate (Decadal)**

	<b>1971-1981</b>	<b>1981-1991</b>	<b>1991-2001</b>	<b>1991-2003</b>
<b>West Bengal</b>		68077965 (24.73)	80366461 (17.77)	-
<b>Darjeeling</b>		1299919 (26.91)	1582754 (23.79)	-
<b>SMCA</b>	154378 (58.36)	216950 (40.53)	284602 (31.18)	472374 (118)

*Source: District census handbook 2001, 2004*

*Value in the parenthesis shows percentage.*

## **6.5 Population Density and Sex Ratio**

Table-6.5 exhibits that, the population density in SMCA (14160) for 2001 is much higher compared to West Bengal (903) and Darjeeling district (511). But in case of sex ratio, SMCA represents (877) lower than West Bengal (934) and Darjeeling district (937). The overall sex ratio for 2001 in SMCA is 884 and the sex ratio among the slum population is 888. Thus the percentage of women among the slum areas is higher than the non slum areas of the SMCA.

**Table-6.5**  
**Population Density and Sex Ratio**

	<b>Population density</b>		<b>Sex ratio</b>	
	1991	2001	1991	2001
<b>West Bengal</b>	767	903	917	934
<b>Darjeeling</b>	413	511	914	937
<b>SMCA</b>	13961	14160	824	877

*Source: district census handbook 2001, 2004*

## **6.6 Number of Households at SMCA**

Total number of house hold at SMCA has increased from 42700 in 1991 to 58126 in 2001 showing 36.12% growth [Table-6.6]. The growth rate of household in west Bengal (25.58) is much lower than the SMCA. Population below poverty line has declined to 22.40% as compared to above 26% in 1991.

**Table-6.6**  
**Number and Growth of Households at SMCA**

	<b>1991</b>	<b>2001</b>	<b>Growth rate</b>
<b>SMCA</b>	42700	58126	36.12
<b>West Bengal</b>	12514414	15715915	25.58

*Source: district census handbook 2001, 2004*

## **6.7 Slum Population at SMCA**

There are total 151 slums in the city and 35.77 % of the total population (1, 68,217 persons) lives in slums in 47 wards as compared to 48 slums (in 1 – 30 wards) in 1991with 21.30% within limits. Total 34,330 households live in slums at present having average household size of 4.9.

### **Slum Profile:**

Slums are located along the River Mahananda, Fuleswari and Jorapani on the Railway lands and in the heart of the city near railway town station. Due to ineffective development controls and regulations slums have developed on the riverbeds and on the railway lands resulting into degrading urban environment and unhealthy living conditions. 80% of the slum dwellers are migrants from Bihar, Assam, other parts of West Bengal, Bangladesh, Nepal and Bhutan and 69 % of are staying for more than 10 to 15 years. Except for some slums on

railway lands all other slums are notified slums. 76 % of the households are living in the Kutcha house and 18.3 % of the households live in semi pucca and pucca house.

## **6.8 Urban Amenities**

Siliguri is located in the narrow corridor connecting Northeast with the rest of India with Bhutan in the Northeast, Bangladesh in the south and Nepal in the west. Proximity to the international borders with Bangladesh, Nepal, Bhutan, and also China places Siliguri at a strategic significance. In respect of trade, commerce and tourist traffic Siliguri occupies an extremely important position for Sikkim, Assam, Nepal, Bhutan and Bangladesh.

Over the years SMCA has been the terminus of the poor and migrant people of different adjacent districts and neighbouring states/countries. 80% of the permanent migrants at SMCA are from Nepal, Bhutan and Bangladesh. About one lakh people are coming daily to this city for earning their livelihoods. In order to accommodate these vast numbers of influx of people, SMCA had to provide all sorts of infrastructural and commercial facilities to these people matching with their demands. Total Educational institutions (formal and non-formal schools and colleges) have increased from 113 in 1991 to 332 in 2004 showing a growth of 193.80% over the decade [District Census hand book 1991 and 2004] [Table-6.7].

**Table-6.7**  
**Educational institutions in SMCA**

<b>Educational institutions</b>	<b>1991</b>	<b>2004</b>	<b>Growth rate</b>
Primary school	80	173	116.25
Middle school	6	7	16.66
High school	14	19	35.71

Higher secondary school	9	19	111.11
College/open university	3	7	133.33
Technical school and colleges	1	7	600
Non formal institution	00	100	10000
Total	113	332	193.80

*Source: district census handbook 2001, 2004*

Total number of private nursing homes almost doubled in 2001 compared to 1991 level (37 and 20 respectively [BCDA, 2007, Siliguri]. Total number of medical institutions has increased from 3 in 2000 to 14 in 2003. But total number of beds and doctors available remains stagnant through out the period [Table-6.8]. Total number of hotels and lodges has increased from 234 in 1991 to 619 in 2001[hotels owner association, Siliguri]. Medical shops of both retail and wholesale has increased remarkably from 420 in 1991 to 700 in 2001 of which 60% are unregistered [BCDA, 2007, Siliguri]. Total number of commercial establishments has grown to 45230 (33% are registered and 67% are unregistered) in 2001 from 23876 in 1991 showing 100% growth rate [FOCIN, 2007, Siliguri]. Over the years migrant peoples are getting absorbed in occupations like motor garage assistant, sweet shop assistant causing number of garages to increase from only 8 in 1984 to 160 in 2001. Factory and workshops has grown to 1140 in 2001 from 367 in 1991.

**Table-6.8**  
**Medical Institutions at SMCA**

Medical institutions	2000	2003
Hospitals	1	1
Health centers	0	11
Clinics	1	1
Dispensaries	1	1
Total beds	250	250
Doctors	42	44

*Source: district census handbook 2001, 2004*

Number of motor vehicles has increased enormously in Darjeeling districts showing a growth rate of 150.17% during 1996-2004 of which more than 50% are at SMCA [Table-6.9].

**Table-6.9**  
**Distribution of Motor Vehicles at Darjeeling District**

<b>Vehicles</b>	<b>Year</b>	<b>1996</b>	<b>2004</b>	<b>Growth Rate</b>
Scooters and motor cycles	13592	52172	283.84	
Goods vehicle	6319	6573	4.01	
Motor cars	14183	28117	98.24	
Taxi	3255	3925	2.58	
auto	155	3039	1860.64	
Total	37504	93826	150.17	

*Source: district census handbook 2001, 2004*

The law and order situation in Siliguri is under control reflecting the total number of cognizable cases (dacoity, robbery, burglary, murder, rioting, arson offence against women etc) over the period of 1998 to 2006 with in Siliguri subdivision has revealed stable situation [Table-6.10]. The rationale behind the stable situation is that, the peoples are earning satisfactory income and fulfilling their needs with peace and harmony.

**Table-6.10**  
**Total Number of Cognizable Cases Reported with in Siliguri Subdivision**

<b>Cases</b>	<b>Total case Reported</b>
<b>Year</b>	
1998	1212
1999	1283

2000	1203
2001	1246
2002	1576
2003	1404
2004	1292
2005	1222
2006	1316

*Source: Office of the additional  
Super-intendant of police, Siliguri.*

## 6.9 Markets

Considering the need for commercial facilities of the town and lack of adequate infrastructure three markets have been established in the town through Integrated Development of Small and Medium Towns [I.D.S.M.T.] funds. They are D. I Fund market, Vivekananda Mini Market, and Subhaspally Market at three different locations of the town. Establishment of these markets has no doubt helped in improving the commercial activities of the town.

A good number of markets / shopping complexes have already been set up in different areas of Siliguri and outskirts of the town. Some important market complexes are:

Vivekananda Super Market, B.R. Ambedkar Market Complex, Khudiram Bose Market, Champasari Road Side Market, D.I Fund Market (a new shed has been erected), Haider Para Market Complex, S.J.D.A Market, Bidhan Market, Fuleswari Fish & Meat market.

We could know that to construct some more market complexes with aim of meeting every day demand of the common people and also to create job opportunity or business opportunity for the educated/uneducated youths of the localities. In view of this, the following market complexes have been identified and taken up and few have already been started under I.D.S.M.T. – programme.

Siliguri Corporation has taken numbers of developmental activities under various Government projects and various self-employment programmes to upgrade their living standards. Three Centrally Sponsored and State Sponsored programmes including National Slum Development Program (NSDP), Integrated Low Cost Sanitation Scheme (ILCS), and Valmiki Ambedkar Awas Yojana (VAMBAY) are in operation for slum improvement in Siliguri city. These programs are taken up by Urban Poverty Eradication Cell of Siliguri Municipal Corporation and implemented by CDS (Community Development Societies) in different wards. ILCS is a very successful programme. Total 12,547 low cost sanitation units are constructed under this scheme and total 80 % of the slum dwellers have access to safe mode of sanitation due to this program. Total 881 families have benefited under shelter for shelter less Scheme of NSDP. However, as the slum population increases over time due to immigration of different categories of informal sector workers due to push and especially pull factors, it becomes difficult to the part of the city administration to improve the living environment of the slum dwellers on a substantive basis.

From the above delineation the increasing scale of development activities undertaken and completed by the city managers is clearly visible. All these activities are making the SMCA a centre of attraction where the migrant population can enjoy the greater opportunities of employment, health, education and better amenities than in other areas to make life and lifestyle more easy, comfortable, modern and worth living. Values of land and property in the SMCA are therefore soaring of unimaginable heights.

Congestions in the city roads are naturally increasing with in the number of vehicles and population. However, the number of crimes is more or less stable over the last several years. Number of vehicular accidents is also increased.

Thus growth of informal sector in SMCA gives rise to economies of scale. Industries benefit from concentrations of suppliers and consumers which allow savings in communications and transport costs. SMCA also provides big differentiated labour markets and helps in accelerating the pace of technological innovation. Growth also allows economies of scale in such services as water supply and electric power to be exploited. Educational institutions, hotels, medical institutions and other market places have shown substantial growth. Against these benefits, a major consequence of rural-urban migration in SMCA is over-urbanisation. Along with the rapid spread of urbanisation show the way to prolific growth of huge slums. Today, slum settlements represent over 35% of the urban population in SMCA. With the expansion of the city, the cost of providing basic services also rises enormously. Over-urbanisation and its related problems (pollution, noise and congestion) are examples of negative externalities. The presence of such externalities causes a market to operate inefficiently.

## **CHAPTER-VII**

### **NEED FOR SOCIAL SECURITY FOR THE SELECTED TWO GROUPS OF WORKERS IN SMCA**

#### **7.1 Introduction**

With the growth of the informal sector in the wake of globalization, liberalization and privatization over the past one and half decade there has been a drastic change in employment relations which has resulted in a diminishing collective strength of workers (Venkata Ratnam 2001; Planning Commission 2002; National Commission on Labour 2002). Informalisation of work implies insecurity in terms of employment and income (Ginneken, 1998; Prabhu, 2001, Deb 2002; Dreze and Sen, 2002). In this backdrop, strengthening the existing social security measures as well as introducing workable new measures with maximum coverage becomes imperative.

Social security is both a concept as well as a system (Planning Commission, 2001). It represents basically a system of protection of individuals who are in the need of such protection by the state as an agent of society. Such protection is relevant in contingencies such as retirement, resignation, retrenchment, death and disablement that are beyond the control of the individual members of the society. There are differences among individual with respect to their birth, work and thinking. The state as an agent of the society has an important mandate to harmonize such differences through a protective cover to the poor, the weak, the deprived and the disadvantaged.

#### **7.2 A Review of Current Social Security Measures for Urban Informal Sector Workers**

In India the term social security is generally used in its broadest sense. It may consist of all types of measures – preventive,

promotional and protective as the case may be. The measures may be statutory, public or private. The term encompasses social insurance, social assistance, social protection, social safety net and other measures. According to World Labour Report 2000 (ILO, 2001), the total public expenditure on social security in India as percentage of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in 1996 was 1.8 whereas for the corresponding period the social security expenditure in Sri Lanka was 4.7, Malaysia 2.9 and China 3.6. In Argentina, the social security expenditure for the same period as percentage of GDP reached the level of 12.4 and in case of Brazil 12.2. Thus, in comparison to all the countries mentioned the expenditure on social security in India is lower.

The unorganised nature of the work force in the urban informal sector, dispersed nature of operational processes and lack of institutional back up reduces their bargaining power and their ability to take full benefits from the legislation enacted. Moreover, low levels of skills of this workforce provide little scope for them to move vertically in the occupational ladder to improve their financial situation. The growth of informal unprotected work with shrinking formal employment compels the workers to bear an increasing direct burden of financial social needs, with adverse effects on their quality of life. That burden may also undermine the capacity of enterprises to compete with global economy.

The present social security arrangements in the informal sector can be broadly classified in to five groups as follows:

- a) Social Assistance Programmes of Central Government.
- b) Social Insurance schemes.
- c) Social Assistance through Welfare Funds of Central and State Government.
- d) State Government schemes.
- e) Public Initiatives.

**Feature of Social Security Measures are As Follows:**

**a) Social Assistance Programmes of Central Government:**

The centrally funded social assistance programmes include schemes for both rural and urban areas under the National Social Assistance Programme (NSAP). The programme has three components, viz, National Old Age Pension Scheme (NOAPS), National Family Benefit Scheme (NFBS) and National Maternity Benefit Scheme (NMBS).

**b) Social Insurance Schemes**

The social insurance schemes available to the unorganized sector are operated through the Life Insurance Corporation of India (LICI). As per Social Security Group Insurance Scheme, all persons in the age group of 18 to 60 years belonging to the 24 approved occupation groups ARE covered. All these schemes are now merged with the Janshree Bima Yojana by LICI since August 2000 (Varma, 2003).

The Janashree Bima Yojana provides benefits of insurance cover in the case of death, permanent or partial disability. The premium for about benefits is Rs. 200 per beneficiary and 50 percent of this premium, i.e., Rs. 100/- is contributed from the 'Social Security Fund'. The scheme is available to persons in the age group of 18 to 60 years and living below poverty line. It has been observed that coverage under the scheme is very slow. Lack of awareness, problems in constituting workers into groups to take advantage of the scheme, non-availability of incentives to the agencies at the grass root level to organize the workers etc. are some of the reasons of low coverage under the scheme.

Basic handicap in the matter of registration and coverage of eligible categories of workers under social security schemes, whether being run by Central Government agencies or State Government

agencies is the lack of a national enumeration for the workforce. Even amongst the workers who are covered by different schemes in operation under control of Central Government or State Government, no nationally unique number is prevalent or available. Each agency that registers such workers and delivers benefit allots its own separate number, some of which are nationally unique.

The registering of the workforce is a key concern and a key prerequisite for any social security or social assistance programme where accounts have to be maintained, workers identified and benefits delivered to the appropriate person. The Employees Provident Fund, which has the largest, converge, is faced with the problem of the same worker having multiple numbers resulting from change in employment. Workers withdraw accumulated benefits entirely at the time of change in employment, which defeats the very purposes of social security in the form of old-age income protection.

### c) Welfare Fund

At present, the Central Government through the Ministry of Labour operates Five Welfare Funds for Beedi Workers, Limestone and Dolomite Mine Workers, Iron Ore & Manganese Ore Mine Workers, Mica Mine Workers & Lime Workers. Source of funding of these Funds is collection through cess on mica export, export of iron ore, internal consumption of iron ore, manganese ore and chrome ore as well as limestone and dolomite. These funds are used to provide various kind of welfare amenities to the workers in the field of health care, housing, educational assistance for children, drinking water supply etc. The medical assistance provided under the welfare fund includes purchase of spectacles to mine and beedi workers, reservation of beds in T.B. hospitals, treatment and subsistence allowance in case of tuberculosis, reimbursement of expenditure up to Rs. 1 lakh for heart disease and kidney transplant etc. Maternity benefits @ Rs. 500/- for

delivery to a female beedi worker for first two deliveries and assistance for family welfare are also provided.

#### d) State Government Schemes

State governments in India are also implementing schemes to provide social security measures to the workers in the informal sector. As far as specific programmes are concerned, an overview of State level initiatives is presented in Table-7.1.

**Table-7.1**

**State Level Social Security Measures to the Workers in the Informal Sector in India**

<u>1. Old age pension</u> Andhra Pradesh (1960) Assam (1983) Bihar (1970) Gujarat (1978) Haryana Himachal Pradesh (1968) Jammu & Kashmir (1976) Karnataka (1965) Kerala (1960) Madhya Pradesh(1970) Maharashtra (1980) Orissa (1975) Punjab (1968) Rajasthan (1964) Tamil Nadu (1962) Uttar Pradesh (1957) West Bengal (1964)	<u>6. Health &amp; Medical under voluntary agency</u> Tamil Nadu Voluntary health services (1963)
<u>2. Pension for agricultural landless laborers</u> Andhra Pradesh (1984) Gujarat (1981)	<u>7. Employment</u> Maharashtra (EGS)

Kerala (1982)'	
Tamil Nadu (1981)	
<u>3. Destitute Women</u>	<u>8. Relief for the educated unemployed</u>
Tamil Nadu (1975, 1986)	Gujarat (1979), Kerala (1982) Maharashtra(1979) Tamil Nadu (1980) West Bengal 1985
<u>4. Maternity Benefit</u>	<u>9. Self employment</u>
Gujarat (1975, 1986)	Kerala (1982)
Karnataka (1984) Kerala	Maharashtra (1980) Tamil Nadu (1985-86) Gujarat 1981
<u>5. Physically Handicapped</u>	<u>10. Group Insurance schemes</u>
Haryana	Gujarat
Gujarat(1978)	Kerala
Kerala (1982)	Maharashtra
Tamil Nadu (1974)	Orissa
West Bengal	Tamil Nadu Bihar West Bengal Karnataka

Source: Centre for Monitoring Indian Economy, March 2002.

#### New Schemes for Unorganised Sector Workers

In addition to the schemes mentioned in Table-7.1 new schemes launched by some of the State Governments are noted below.

The Government of Kerala has set up Welfare Funds for different categories of occupational groups and sectors (Kannan, 2002). These welfare funds cater to the need of agricultural workers, auto rickshaw workers, cashew workers, coir workers, CWS, fishermen and women,

Khadi workers, handloom workers etc. With the help of Welfare Funds, Government of Kerala is implementing the social security and welfare schemes such as pension, death benefits, ex-gratia for treatment, maternity benefit, marriage benefit, funeral assistant, and free medical treatment for different categories of workers covered under the respective funds. There are, however, some problems with the welfare funds of Kerala. It has been found that in some non-statutory welfare funds, workers have not been enthusiastic enough to enroll themselves because they consider the benefits to be too insignificant (Kannan, 1999).

In Madhya Pradesh, there are social security schemes funded from the State budget. These comprise mostly of insurance schemes implemented in the tribal areas covering women, school-going children etc. The insurance benefits are extended in case of body injury and death.

The Government of Tamil Nadu introduced Tamil Nadu Social Security and Welfare Scheme 2001. The schemes cover manual worker, auto rickshaws and taxi drivers, washer men, hairdressers, tailoring workers, handicraft workers and palm tree workers. The funds are to be initialized for paying premium towards insurance cover, assistance for the education/ marriage of the son or daughter.

In Punjab scheme for payment of unemployment allowance to matriculate, under graduate and postgraduate applicants registered in Employment Exchanges of the state of Punjab is implemented since 1st April 1978. It also implements a scheme financed from the funds available with the Marketing Committees and Boards to provide financial assistance to the farmers and labourers in case of death or injury by operating the agricultural or machinery/ implements and undertaking other operations both at the level of farm or mandi since 1984.

The Government of Andhra Pradesh is in the process of introducing a comprehensive social security scheme for the unorganized workers. The modalities of the scheme are yet to be finalized.

The Government of Karnataka proposes to set up a Social Security Authority of Karnataka and create a Welfare Board to cater to the needs of the identified occupational groups shortly. Further occupational groups can be added to it as and when the need be. A Welfare Fund is proposed to be created by levying a cess on transport vehicles, contribution from employers and workers and the State Government when there is no employer. The fund created there in will be utilized to implement schemes and programmes concerning pension, health, housing and insurance in case of death and disability aspects for the benefit of workers.

From the above it can be seen that there are a multiplicity of schemes and programmes both at the centre and state levels aiming at social protection of the underprivileged. But these have been criticised on the ground that the social security situation in India is characterized by lack of policy (Varma, 2003). It is argued that they have been formed at various times at random responding to the exigencies of the day and do not conform to any overall design. These schemes do not represent a uniform policy or plan. But it can be said that although these schemes cater to the requirements of an insignificant portion of the total informal sector workers, yet their importance and role in addressing social security issues must be recognized.

#### e) Public Initiatives

In addition to government efforts, some initiatives are also there from different social partners such as trade unions, employers' organizations, tripartite boards, non-governmental organizations and so on. Two of the important examples are those of Self-Employed

Women Association (SEWA) in Gujarat and the Mathadi Workers Board in Maharashtra.

The social security experiment of SEWA started in 1975 with a demand from members for a maternal protection scheme followed by health care and child care. This was followed by starting of an insurance programme in collaboration with insurance companies. The insurance scheme started by the State Bank of India was based on a realistic estimate of the capacity of the members to pay the premium. An integrated insurance scheme introduced by SEWA for its members, offers several benefits for a consolidated premium of Rs. 45/- per annum. While SEWA itself provides some of the benefits, it works as a nodal agency to get cover under various policies separately for specific benefits from different insurance companies. The risk covered includes health costs up to Rs. 1000/-; maternity benefit of Rs. 300/- and payment of varying amounts up to Rs. 10,000/- in case of natural and accidental deaths including disability of the member or her husband. The insurance scheme has turned out to be both popular and financially viable. The total coverage of SEWA social security scheme is about 50,000 women. The experience of SEWA reveals that in order to become effective, the social security scheme for the unorganized sector should be locally managed and controlled. Further only such schemes will become viable which is need based and integrated with the economic activities of the local people. If poor people are supported through capacity building and necessary linkages provided with their own economic activities the chances of success of social security efforts increased significantly. Moreover, it has been demonstrated that it is not only necessary to search new social security programmes but new social security organization are also needed to run them.

A Mathadi worker is a worker who carries a load on his head, back, neck or shoulders. Normally his work consists of loading, unloading, carrying, weighing, and stacking goods. In the state of

Maharashtra the Mathadi labour market is regulated by Mathadi Tripartite Boards set up since 1969. There are about 50,000 registered employers and 1,50,000 workers registered under 30 different Boards of the State.

The Mathadi Workers Boards, besides settling disputes between unions and employers, are actively involved in imparting social security benefits to their members by setting up of hospitals and dispensaries. At present there are two hospitals with an annual budget of Rs. 2 crores which are run by six Mathadi Boards. In addition to this, there are 12 dispensaries. Each of the 6 Boards contributes 2 percent of their levy and each worker contributes Rs.20/- per month. These hospitals provide diagnostic services for around 40,000 workers and their families. During the last few years, some of the Mathadi Boards have been able to get the workers registered with them insured against accident, injuries and death. This scheme has been worked out by the Mathadi Board with the General Insurance Corporation.

From above it is evident that many promotional and protective social security programmes are in operation in India. But the main problem is the inefficient utilisation of funds under Government programmes as well as by some of the Non Government Organisations (NGO) (Dev, 2002). In a poor country like India, perhaps, we need more social expenditure as compared to the relatively rich developing countries in Asia. However, importance should be given to the effectiveness of implementation of these schemes, i.e., we have to examine how efficiently the funds are being utilised and what proportion of these funds is reaching the poor.

It has been held that due to lack of political will most of the social security policies and poverty eradication programmes have not succeeded in achieving the objective-oriented results so far ((Kumar and Subbayamma, 2001). It is also said that at the initial stages of planning social engineering for these programmes is very strong, but

when it comes to implementation stage, dilution takes place largely because of political interference which results in a poor outreach and outcome of the scheme. However, it is good politics that can make a big difference. For example, the impact of social security programmes on the poor and vulnerable sections seems to be substantial in Kerala. The effectiveness of these programmes is not as significant as in Kerala.

Political, economic and institutional factors have helped in the successful implementation of the social security schemes in Kerala. In other states, particularly in northern India, political support for social security programmes has been missing (Dev, 2002).

### **7.3 Social Security Measures for Unorganised Workers in West Bengal**

The West Bengal Government has introduced “State Assisted Scheme of Provident Fund for Unorganised Workers” (SASPFUW), in West Bengal. With a view to providing some social security & welfare measures to the workers in the unorganised sector, on 19th February 2001, West Bengal Government has introduced this State Assisted Provident Fund Account Scheme for the Unorganised Workers in West Bengal. This Scheme is applicable throughout the State of West Bengal for both wage employed and self employed workers in the unorganised sector. Any wage labourers and self employed workers (he / she should be between 18 and 55 years of age) whose average family monthly income does not exceed rupees 3500, are included in this scheme. A family includes the beneficiary, beneficiary's wife / husband, totally dependent daughter, dependent minor son and dependent parents. The other necessary criteria required to fulfill are:

- ✓ He / She should be employed in the listed employments / self-employed in the listed employments / occupations.

- ✓ His / Her major source of family income should be from the listed employment / occupations.
- ✓ He / She should not be covered under the Employees' Provident Fund and Miscellaneous Provisions Act, 1952.

Each beneficiary worker will contribute a sum of Rs.20/- per month into the account under the scheme and the State Government will contribute an equal amount into the account. The total contribution along with interest will be paid to the beneficiary on attaining 55 years of age. In the event of the death of the beneficiary before attaining 55 year of age, the total amount including interest will be paid to his / her nominee soon after the death. State Government will give interest on the deposit yearly according to the rate determined by State Government.

#### The Beneficiaries:

The State Labour Department published a list of 50 industries and 13 self-employed occupations which may be covered by this scheme (Government of West Bengal, 2000, pp.325 –326). The State Labour Department in its circular no.1 of this scheme has identified 13 unorganised employments and 8 self-employed occupations whose workers are included in this scheme initially.

These 13 unorganised employments are:

1. Tailoring industries (having less than 20 workers).
2. Shops (having less than 20 workers) and Establishments (having less than 20 workers).
3. Bakery (having less than 20 workers).
4. Linesman engaged in supply of Bakery Products.
5. Handloom.
6. Cottage / village based Cottage Industry (Boatman Service, Bangle-Making, Fire works, Chakki Mills, Kite and Kite Stick Manufacturing, Earthen Pottery Work, Paddy Husking, Embroidery & Zari Chicon Work).

7. Construction (having less than 20 workers).
8. Lac industry (having less than 20 workers).
9. Stone crushing (having less than 20 workers).
10. I. C. D. S., IPP-VIII & CUDP-III.
11. Automobile repairing Garages (having less than 20 workers).
12. Public Motor Transport service.
13. Hired Motor Vehicle Services.

Unorganised self-employed occupations:

1. Cycle rickshaw and Van Puller including Hand pulled Cart ones.
2. Head-load workers and workers engaged in loading & unloading.
3. Railway Hawkers.
4. Street Hawkers including Newspaper Hawker.
5. Auto-Rickshaw Operator.
6. Mason & other workers engaged in Masonry work.
7. Cobbler / Shoe-maker.
8. Gold smith & Silver smith.

Performance of the scheme [SASPFUW]:

The scheme entails a simple security package where a subscriber has to contribute Rs20 a month, with an equal contribution from the State. But it took nearly a year to fix the modalities. It took the State nearly a year to fix the modalities of the account-cum-pass books and place them under the Regional Labour Officers. Over 23,000 workers have applied initially but their applications are lying with the Government since February 2001. As a result, State Government has lost at least Rs.1.56 crores in subscriber contribution.

As on 31.3.03 the Directorate has received 502656 applications from the intending beneficiaries under this scheme. Out of these above applications 431237 have been enrolled and Identity Card-Cum-Pass Books issued. The remaining applications are under process for enrolment.

Table-7.2 highlights the progress of the scheme and shows district-wise break-up of the applications received, number of beneficiaries enrolled and the amount of subscription collected.

**Table-7.2**

**Cumulative Progress Report on “SASPFUW” (up to March, 2003)**

Name of the Districts	No. of Collecting Agents Engaged	No. of Bank Account Opened	No. of Application Received	No. of Beneficiaries Enrolled	Amount of Money Collected
Bankura	229	28	21603	19346	2552340
Birbhum	151	25	8741	13079	1054180
Burdwan	432	45	44814	37851	4330740
Hooghly	284	36	25965	20408	1950860
Howrah	309	17	37339	36010	4567080
Kolkata	53	15	8863	6622	726940
Malda	92	16	14465	8979	1314840
Nadia	286	44	59306	46271	4110240
Purulia	98	15	2925	2682	377280
Pashim Medinipur	301	36	16732	16226	1724440
Purba Medinipur	249	29	48726	46412	6404860
Mursidabad	312	32	21657	17767	1821420
North 24 Pgs	546	52	96106	83279	11099160
South 24 Pgs	357	35	48556	42475	6563320
Coochbehar	170	17	6978	6079	577200
Dakshin-Dinajpur	67	10	5132	4748	578680
Uttar-Dinajpur	140	13	3714	3141	230200
<b>Darjeeling</b>	<b>175</b>	<b>27</b>	<b>7859</b>	<b>7820</b>	<b>546480</b>
Jalpaiguri	208	35	3175	12042	1031000
<b>Total</b>	<b>4459</b>	<b>527</b>	<b>502656</b>	<b>31237</b>	<b>51561260</b>

Source: "Labour in West Bengal" 2002 Government of West Bengal, page 43

Finally, West Bengal Government gives a matching grant of rupees 20 per month to every unorganised worker in ‘SASPFUW’ programme but in this welfare scheme state government is reluctant to pay any subsidy to the CWs.

## **7.4 Social and Economic Securities of Rickshaw Pullers and Construction Workers**

To understand the nature of social security need of informal sector workers and the implied role of government we undertook a field survey of two groups of informal sector workers, viz., RPs and CWs in SMCA. We surveyed 205 respondents each from the RPs and CWs and collected data on their social security need along with data on other aspects. We present below an analysis of different aspects of social security need and its availability to the selected two groups of workers. Since membership of any trade union may enable the RPs and CWs to receive social security benefits, we made an attempt to ascertain as to how many of them have such membership. Our investigation revealed that preponderant majority of both RPS (85.85%) and CW (98.04%) does not belong to any labour union at SMCA. Field level data is presented in Table-7.3. Very insignificant number of membership of any trade union for both the groups of workers indicates that they remain out of any kind of social security and welfare measures. Thus most of the workers were deprived of the economic protection of safety nets of the state governments.

**Table-7.3**  
**Distributions of RPS and CWs by Having Membership of Any Labour Union**

	<b>Rickshaw Puller</b>	<b>Construction Worker</b>			<b>Total</b>
		<b>Skilled</b>	<b>Semi skilled</b>	<b>Un skilled</b>	
<b>Yes</b>	29[14.14]	2[2.85]	2[3.63]	0[00]	4[1.95]
<b>No</b>	176[85.85]	68[97.14]	53[96.36]	80[100]	201[98.04]
<b>Total</b>	<b>205[100]</b>	<b>70[100]</b>	<b>55[100]</b>	<b>80[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

*Source: Field Survey;*

*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

Some essential commodities like rice, wheat, sugar, kerosene, etc. are distributed through Public Distribution System (PDS) at subsidized prices. To avail the benefit holding of ration card is essential. Therefore, we wanted to know from the respondents of the two groups of workers whether they possess ration card of SMCA. It could be found that all the migrants in both rickshaw pulling and construction work do not possess ration card of SMCA. Only the native workers possess SMCA ration card (Table-7.4).

**Table-7.4**

**Distributions of RPs and CWs by Having Ration Card of SMCA**

	<b>Rickshaw Puller</b>	<b>Construction Worker</b>			<b>Total</b>	
		<b>Skilled</b>	<b>Semi skilled</b>	<b>Un skilled</b>	<b>Rickshaw Puller</b>	<b>Construction Worker</b>
Yes	10[4.87]	2[2.85]	0[00]	2[2.5]	104.87]	4[1.95]
No	195[95.12]	68[97.14]	55[100]	78[97.5]	195[95.12]	201[98.04]
<b>Total</b>	<b>205[100]</b>	<b>70[100]</b>	<b>55[100]</b>	<b>80[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

*Source: Field Survey;*

*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

Possession of voter ID card enables the workers to exercise their voting right and power. Possession of voting power also makes the worker capable of getting patronage from political parties to uphold the illness related to the improvement of their wages, employment, working condition in the SMCA. Our field survey exposed that on this case both RPs and CWs are in advantageous position as majority of them possess voter ID cards. To state more precisely, more than 90% of RPs and construction workers possess voter ID card (Table-7.5).

**Table-7.5**  
**Distributions of RPs and CWs by Having Voter card**

	<b>Rickshaw puller</b>	<b>Construction worker</b>			<b>Total</b>	
		<b>Skilled</b>	<b>Semi skilled</b>	<b>Un skilled</b>	<b>Rickshaw puller</b>	<b>Construction worker</b>
Yes	197[96.09]	68[97.14]	50[90.9]	78[97.5]	197[96.09]	196[95.6]
No	8[3.9]	2[2.85]	5[9.09]	2[2.5]	8[3.9]	9[4.39]
<b>Total</b>	<b>205[100]</b>	<b>70[100]</b>	<b>55[100]</b>	<b>80[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

*Source: Field Survey;*

*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

We tried to ascertain the Below Poverty Line (BPL) status of the RPs and CWs. From field survey data it is clear that majority of the RPs and CWs belong to BPL category on the basis of per capita income level. More specifically among RPs, as many as 58% reported that they belong to BPL category. Among CWs 77.56% belongs to BPL. Below poverty Level is more predominant among the unskilled CWs than skilled and semiskilled workers [Table-7.6].

**Table-7.6**  
**Distributions of RPs and CWs by BPL Group**

	<b>Rickshaw puller</b>	<b>Construction worker</b>			<b>Total</b>	
		<b>Skilled</b>	<b>Semi skilled</b>	<b>Un skilled</b>	<b>Rickshaw puller</b>	<b>Construction worker</b>
Yes	119[58]	54[77.14]	37[67.27]	68[85]	119[58]	159[77.56]
No	86[41.95]	16[22.85]	18[32.72]	12[15]	86[41.95]	46[22.43]
<b>Total</b>	<b>205[100]</b>	<b>70[100]</b>	<b>55[100]</b>	<b>80[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

*Source: Field Survey;*

*Note: Column percentage in brackets*

We asked the respondents whether they get any sort of security assistance either in cash or in kind from SMCA. In reply they reported that they do not get any assistance from SMCA. Only two persons out of 205 CWs get one-time monetary assistance from SMCA to build house and they belong to skilled category CWs. [Table-7.7].

**Table-7.7****Distributions of RPs and CWs by Assistance get from SMCA**

	Rickshaw puller	Construction worker			Total	
		Skilled	Semiskilled	Unskilled	Rickshaw puller	Construction worker
Yes	0	2[2.85]	0[00]	0[00]	0[00]	2[.97]
No	205	68[97.14]	55[100]	80[100]	205[100]	203[99]
<b>Total</b>	<b>205[100]</b>	<b>70[100]</b>	<b>55[100]</b>	<b>80[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

*Source: Field Survey;**Note: Column percentage in brackets*

Rickshaw pulling or working at construction sites involve lot of chance of having accidents while performing. As, most of the RPs and CWs are economically poor and do not get any sort of social security assistance from SMCA, so it becomes very difficult for them to bear the cost of treatment while meeting with accidents. We tried to know from them that who bears the cost of treatment. Majority of the RPs replied that they bear the cost of their own [78.57%]. In case of CWs, majority [47.61%] of them replied that employers or owner of the building born the cost of treatment while fall in accidents during work (Table-7.8).

**Table-7.8****Distribution of RPs and CWs According to Cost Born for Accidents during Work**

	RPs	CWs
Employer	6[7.14]	40[47.61]
Parents	10[11.90]	0[00]
Self	66[78.57]	36[42.85]
Others	2[2.38]	6[7.14]
<b>Total</b>	<b>84[40.97]</b>	<b>82[40]</b>
Na	121[59.02]	123[60]
<b>Grand total</b>	<b>205[100]</b>	<b>205[100]</b>

*Source: Field Survey;**Note: Column percentage in brackets*

On detailed conversation with RPs and CWs reveal that, their first expectation is regular employment and income [86.82% and 66.34% respectively] [Table-7.9]. Their next expectation is basic necessities of life [45.85% and 43.9% respectively]. Some of them expect the Government to provide them shelter under Indira Awas Yojna or under any other similar schemes. It could be found that incidence of morbidity is not much high between both groups of workers and they are also not much worried about their health insurance. Presently, if they fall ill or meet with any accident they are to depend mainly on their own to tide over the difficulty and in few cases their employers bear a part of the expenses involved. However, being informed about Janashree Bima Yojana and SASPFUW all the 410 workers expressed their willingness to avail of these social security schemes.

**Table-7.9**

**Distribution of RPs and CWs according to the type of protection expected from the Govt regarding social security**

	<b>Rickshaw Pullers</b>	<b>Construction Workers</b>
Employment and income	178[86.82]	136[66.34]
Health	14[6.82]	24[11.7]
Education for children	90[43.9]	66[32.19]
Basic necessities of life	94[45.85]	90[43.9]
Financial help/housing	22[10.73]	34[16.58]

*Source: Field Survey*

Our field survey revealed the fact that none of the two groups of workers are included in any social security scheme of the Government. But they are subject to all types of insecurities and vulnerabilities of life, viz, loss of income due to loss of employment, accident leading to injury or death, illness, lack of provision for old age, health of family

members and education of children etc. That is they are in need of both protective and promotional security. None of them are aware about the welfare schemes such as Janashree Bima Yojana of LIC and SASPFUW run by the state government for both of which they are eligible. It appeared to us that there are three main reasons of not having access to any formal social security measures. First, no one, that is, their employer, or any political party, or governmental and non-governmental agencies, have informed them about the governmental social security measures that are available to these two groups of labourers. Secondly, there is the problem of their identity as the eligible specific group of workers. Since majority of them are migrants they have no voter ID card or ration card under Siliguri Municipal Corporation area. RPs has the specific problem that they do not possess the peddler's license also. But these documents are very much essential to prove the identity as specified groups of workers to be entitled for social security measures. The third reason is the unorganized nature of these two groups of workers. They are dispersed and not unionized. Political parties are not interested in their welfare as these workers are not voters in the Assembly Constituency (no. 25) in which they are working.

On elaborate discussions with these two groups of workers it emerged that the prime security they need is the guarantee of employment. They would prefer to work hard even on all the 365 days in a year to earn as much as they can rather than running after any kind of financial assistance from any corner. The survey reveals that in Siliguri and its downtown areas the rickshaws pulled by the peddlers are not owned by them. They are owned by different persons from whom they hire them on daily basis, daily rate being Rs. 16/- to Rs. 30/- per rickshaw. The RPs are allowed to take the rickshaws in the morning and returned them in the evening direct to their owners paying the hiring charge. It has been revealed also that there is an

over supply of rickshaw peddlers in Siliguri and consequently big chunk of them do not get rickshaws daily from their owners to peddle. So they remain jobless that day. Likewise large number of CWs does not get work everyday.

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## **CHAPTER-VIII**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS**

#### **8.1 Summary of Findings**

As regards characteristics and growth of urban informal sector in India and West Bengal the findings of our study as follows:

We have tried to express the concept and characteristics of urban informal sector (UIS) in respect of India and west Bengal. The concept and definition of informal sector adopted by System of National Accounts (United Nations) at International Conference of Labour Statisticians 1993 characterized informal sector as units engaged in the production of goods or services with the primary objective of generating employment and incomes to the persons concerned with little or no division between labour and capital as factors of production and on a small scale. Conceptually, the term "informal sector" concept adopted in Indian official statistical system [NAS] as "unorganised" sector where 'Informal Own Account Enterprises' and 'Enterprises of the Informal Employers' as mentioned in International Conference of Labour Statisticians -1993 are conceptually close to that defined in the Indian Statistical System', i.e., 'Own Account Enterprises' and 'Establishments' with at least one hired worker. The National Sample Survey Organisation has made first ever nation-wide survey in India on informal sector non-agricultural enterprises during 55th round (July 1999 - June 2000), defined informal sector comprising workers of all unincorporated proprietary and partnership enterprises. But in unorganised sector, in addition to the unincorporated proprietary or partnership enterprises, enterprises run by cooperative societies, trusts, private and public limited companies (Non ASI) are also covered. In this way we can say that informal sector is the subset of

unorganised sector. In India, the share of informal sector in rural areas is higher than urban areas. The male-female ratio in informal sector is higher in rural areas than urban areas.

The informal sector workers are broadly characterized as “visible” and “less-visible” occupational groups. Visible workers work in open air [barbers, cobblers, garbage collectors, waste recyclers, and vendors of vegetables, fruit, meat, fish, snack-foods, etc] and the least visible/invisible[most of them are women] workers work in small shops and workshops. Conditions of work and the level of earnings differ markedly among different informal group of workers.

The break-up of the informal sector workers in India reveals that agriculture comprises predominant percentage [59.7%] among all other informal activities. The main source of employment generation is the unorganized sector of the economy including self employment and small business with 92 per cent of the total employed labour force. Small and medium enterprises contribute to nearly 80 per cent of manufacturing employment and its employment elasticity is 3.8 times more than the organized sector. Employment in the organized sector has been hardly 8.34 per cent, of which public sector accounts for 5.77 per cent and private sector holds only 2.57 per cent in the total employment generated in 1999-2000. The average growth rate during 1983 to 2000 in organised sector is 1.02% and unorganised sector comprise 2%. Thus unorganised sector acts as a buffer for the workforce when the employment opportunity in organised sector ~~has~~ dwindled. The share of informal sector work force to total workforce in West Bengal is slightly better off than the India level. Compare to India level, in West Bengal, higher percentage of female workers are engaged in informal activities. Manufacturing enterprises comprises highest percentage of informal activities in West Bengal (40.5%) and in India it is trading and repairing services [39.67%]. In West Bengal, percentage of OAE [91.54%] is higher than national level [87.36%]. Annual value

added per worker in informal sector is lower in west Bengal as compared to India level.

Our study on the nature, magnitude and causes of growth of urban informal sector in SMCA brings forth the following findings:

Nature and activities of informal sector workers in SMCA is more or less same with India level. some of the dominant characteristics of the informal sector in SMCA are range of production from petty commodity to small factories, low and limited structure and coverage of organisation, low levels of fixed investment and labour capital mix, difficulties in separating business and personal or household expenses leading to insecure working capital, lack of access to training leading to low productivity as informal workers lack skills, labour relations based on verbal contract dominated by casual employment and social relations as opposed to formal contracts, home based/family based pattern of production,etc. Population growth at SMCA is highest among all other cities and towns in west Bengal. Percentage of main, marginal and non-workers have shown a higher growth rate compared to India level. Decadal population growth in SMCA is highest among all cities and towns of west Bengal. Contribution of informal sector workers to the total workforce is increasing and formal sector contribution is decreasing over time. Reasons for joining informal sector in SMCA are comparatively higher income opportunities, easy entry, accessible facilities etc. The slum population in SMCA has grown enormously during 1991 (46200 persons) [census 1991] to 2001[census 2001] (168217 persons). The rate of growth of literacy rate (24.50%) in SMCA is much lower than the rate of growth of population in SMCA (118%). Types of unorganised sector activities in SMCA involve both legal and illegal activities.

Findings of our survey on the income employment and living conditions of rickshaw pullers and construction workers are furnished below:

### **Rickshaw pullers**

Of our surveyed 205 rickshaw pullers, major proportion of rickshaw pullers [29%] is of the opinion that rickshaw pulling is much more self determined job than construction work and that is why they have joined this particular occupation. It could be found that 55.12% rickshaw pullers have come to this profession through their friends. Only a tiny portion of our surveyed rickshaw pullers possess ownership of rickshaw [12.68%]. On average, rickshaw pullers worked 11 hours per day. Majority of them charged different fares to different passengers. As far as rent for hired rickshaws are concerned, temporary migrant rickshaw pullers had to pay higher rent compared to native, permanent and circular migrant rickshaw pullers. Majority of the pullers admit that it is a highly physical tiring job. Most of them are of the opinion that pulling is risky and notably prone to vehicular accidents. Rickshaw pullers are very much upset and unhappy due to the introduction of city auto rickshaws in the town in terms of their earnings, road traffic and police tortures. It appears that 67.81% pullers are not happy by plying rickshaws of which 70.58% comprise new joiner pullers. Per day average net earning of the rickshaw pullers is Rs. 110 which shows a negative co-relationship with their age. Average monthly earning of rickshaw pullers is Rs. 3291.70. It could be found that 5-9 years duration rickshaw pullers embrace significantly higher monthly individual income than all other duration pullers. Moreover, 5-9 years duration rickshaw pullers hold significantly higher individual consumption than 1-4 years duration rickshaw pullers. The new joiner rickshaw pullers have significantly higher [ $p < .01$ ] monthly individual savings than the core [5-14 years]

and deep [15-20 years] joiner rickshaw pullers [34% of them save Rs. 501-1000 per month]. Savings decreases with the increase of the age of rickshaw pullers. It may be noted that 1-4 years duration rickshaw pullers possess significantly higher monthly household income than the other categories duration of rickshaw pullers. The 10-14 years duration rickshaw pullers comprise significantly higher monthly household consumption than 1-4 years and 5-9 years duration rickshaw pullers. The new joiner rickshaw pullers embrace higher monthly household savings per month compared to 10-14 years and 15-20 years duration rickshaw pullers. As far as per capita income is concerned, new joiner rickshaw pullers hold higher per capita income compared to deep joiner rickshaw pullers.

### **Construction workers**

We have investigated 205 construction workers of which 34.14% is skilled; 26.84% is semi skilled and 39.02% is unskilled. Of the surveyed 205 construction workers, 56% of them are literate of which 74.28% are from skilled workers. Majority of the skilled construction workers are from middle age group [26-39 years]. We have found a positive co-relationship between skills acquired and work experience. We have found lowest levels of skilled workers are employed in the construction of government buildings which are high quality buildings. Our survey reveals that 65% of the construction workers pay commission to the middleman or "sardar" to confirm work availability daily. Bad working condition at place of work exists for the unskilled construction workers compared to skilled and semiskilled construction workers. Majority of the skilled and semi skilled construction workers get wages on weekly basis and most of the unskilled workers are paid on daily basis. Per day net earning of construction workers is Rs. 87.45, which is significantly lower than per day earning of rickshaw pullers. Skilled construction workers hold higher average daily and

monthly income than semi skilled and unskilled construction workers. Middle age group construction workers embrace higher monthly income than younger and old age group. Sex wise, highly significant differences in monthly individual income are found among construction workers. As far as Monthly individual income is concerned, 10-14 years duration construction workers earn more than 1-4 years and 15-20 years duration construction workers. A positive co relationship prevails between per day net earnings and work experience among construction workers. It is also noticeable that 1-4 years duration construction workers have significantly lower monthly individual consumption level compared to all other duration construction workers. Core duration [5-14 years] construction workers comprise significantly higher [ $p<.01$ ] monthly Individual savings than new [1-4 years] and deep [15-20 years] joiner construction workers. No significant difference has been found in monthly household income among construction workers by duration of work and sex wise. Skilled construction workers hold higher monthly household income compared to semi skilled and unskilled construction workers. Majority of the skilled construction workers comprise in middle age group [26-39 years]. The 10-14 years duration construction workers hold significantly higher monthly household consumption than 1-4 years and 5-9 years duration construction workers. The 10-14 years duration construction workers embrace significantly higher monthly household savings than 1-4 years and 15-20 years duration construction workers. In case of per capita income of construction workers no significant difference has been found among them by duration of work.

## **Comparison between Rickshaw Pullers and Construction Workers**

### **✓ Social condition**

1. Average age of RPs is higher than CWs.
2. RPs are more educated than CWs. New joiner workers of both rickshaw pulling and construction work comprise higher education level than core and deep joiner workers.
3. Major proportion of both RPs than CWs are landless. Landlessness is found predominant among RPs than CWs. New joiners of both RPs and CWs are from families with high landholding.
4. Majority of both RPs and CWs have no source of agricultural income.
5. Majority of the rickshaw pullers have joined occupation through "friends" and majority of the CWs joined construction work through "family".
6. Before migrating to SMCA for survival and better livelihood, majority of both RPs and CWs were attached to agriculture as labourers of which CWs holds higher percentage than RPs.
7. Greater part of both RPs and CWs have migrated to SMCA due to inadequate income in villages.
8. RPs manage to get more employment per month than the CWs.
9. Majority of the RPs holds that "Working condition is good" in rickshaw pulling and greater portion of CWs hold "average" working condition in construction sites.
10. Family size of RPs and CWs are not homogeneous.

### **✓ Economic condition**

1. RPs have higher monthly individual income than CWs. Except 10-14 years duration pullers, all other pullers hold significantly higher monthly individual income than that of CWs.

2. RPs have significantly higher monthly individual consumption than the CWs. Except 10-14 years duration pullers all other pullers comprise significantly higher monthly individual consumption than that of CW.

3. RPs have significantly higher monthly individual savings than the CWs. The RPs save significantly more than the CWs. Again the individual savings of 1-4 years and 5-9 years duration pullers is significantly higher than that of CWs [p<.01].

4. RPs encompass significantly higher per capita individual income than the CWs. Notably, 10-14 years duration CWs have significantly higher per capita income than that of RPs [p<.05].

5. RPs encompass significantly higher monthly household income than the CWs. 1-4 years and 5-9 years duration of pullers acquire significantly higher monthly household income than that of CW.

6. RPs contribute more income to monthly household income than CWs.

7. The monthly household consumption of RP is significantly higher than CW.

8. Monthly individual income of rickshaw pullers is significantly higher than construction workers.

9. RPs hold significantly higher [p<.01] monthly household savings than construction workers. 1-4 years and 5-9 years duration rickshaw pullers entail significantly higher monthly household savings than that of CWs.

10. No significant differences between RPs and CWs.

✓ Living condition at place of work and origin

Overwhelming majority of CWs (80.98%) live with family than the RPs with 53.65%. Migrant RPs visit home frequently than the CW. At place of work Quality of housing and location of housing between

RPs and CWs is not at all homogenous but homogenous at origin. Water facility between RPs and CWs are not at all homogenous at place of work as well as origin. Sanitation facility at place of work between RPs and CWs is not homogenous but homogenous at origin. Electricity facility at place of work is not homogenous between RPs and CWs but homogenous at origin. RPs remit more money to their native places than CWs. Acute illness suffered by CWs and RPs is not at all homogenous. Bearing of cost for treatment while meeting with accidents during work is not at all homogenous between CWs and RPs. Majority of the RPs and CWs do not posses insurance policy.

Our study on the characteristics of migrant rickshaw pullers and construction workers shows the following results:

Inter and intra district migration to SMCA induced by reduced income opportunities at villages, inadequate harvests, low wages in villages, easy absorption in the unorganised sector, economic stability and better access to public services such as electricity, clinics, schools, as well as better prospects for recreation in the city. Inadequate earnings, unemployment and unsatisfactory working condition are the most important causes which influence immigration to SMCA. There are push and pull factors which again enhance the migration to large cities. Of the surveyed RPs and CWs, major portion of migrant CWs [69.66%] and RPs [30.59%] are from Jalpaiguri district. Jalpaiguri district alone contributes more than 52% of both rickshaw pullers and construction workers taken into account. Among the temporary and circular migrant CWs, male constitute higher proportion than female and the opposite holds in case of permanent migrant CWs. All the native CWs are male. Total percentage of migrant workers is higher in CWs [98.05%] than RPs [76.59%]. Among the migrant RPs, temporary migrant constitute most [56.68%] and among the migrant CWs circular migrant constitute the majority [68.56%]. Our survey reveals that, temporary migrant RPs pay higher rental for their rickshaws

than the other categories of migrant RPs. New joiner and core joiner CWs are prevalent among temporary and permanent migrant construction worker respectively. Again, core joiner and new joiner RPs are rampant among temporary and permanent migrant RPs respectively. In case of circular migrant workers, core joiners of both RPs and CWs account major part. Permanent and circular migrant RPs account significantly higher monthly household income than permanent and circular migrants of CWs. monthly Individual average consumption expenditure of RPs is significantly higher than CWs. Permanent and circular migrant RPs have significantly higher monthly household consumption than that of CWs. Except native RPs, all migrant RPs have significantly higher monthly individual savings than that of CWs. In total average monthly household savings of RPs is significantly higher than CWs. The temporary migrant CWs hold significantly higher average per capita income than temporary migrant RPs. Temporary migrant RPs remit significantly more money per month than CWs.

As far as consequences of migration of rickshaw pullers and construction workers are concerned we have arrived at the following findings:

Majority of rickshaw pullers and construction workers at SMCA are migrants from rural areas of adjacent districts and states of SMCA. This vast majority of migrant rickshaw pullers and construction workers earns their livelihoods at SMCA and also remit money to their native places to feed, dress and educated their family members at villages. Village economies get benefited from these large amounts of remitted money to the villages by these migrants' rickshaw pullers and construction workers and thereby enhanced their standard of living at villages. As the migrant rickshaw pullers and construction workers stay at SMCA for earning livelihoods, they also consumes food, clothing and other living amenities, therefore the economy of SMCA

also boost up considerably. Population, basic urban amenities, motorised and non-motorised vehicles and other urban facilities has been increased significantly at SMCA during last 10-15 years. Thus informal sector growth in SMCA during the last couple of years set aside both positive and negative externalities.

On the need for social security of the two groups of workers (RPs and CWs) the findings of our study are as follows:

The term social security includes social insurance, social assistance, social protection, social safety net and other measures. The expenditure on social security in India is lower in comparison to many developed and developing countries. The unprotected work of informal sector with decrease formal employment obliges the workers to stomach an increasing direct burden of financial social beggary, with unfavorable effects on their quality of life. In India, there are five categories of centre, state and public initiatives social security arrangements for the informal sector. In addition to the existing schemes of social security for the informal sectors prevails in different states, few states have introduced new social security schemes for the informal sector workers e.g. Kerala has set up "Welfare Funds" for different categories of occupational groups and sectors, Madhya Pradesh, has introduced social security schemes funded from the State budget comprise mostly of insurance schemes implemented in the tribal areas covering women, school-going children etc, Tamil Nadu has introduced "Tamil Nadu Social Security and Welfare Scheme 2001" includes manual worker, auto rickshaws and taxi drivers, washer men, hairdressers, tailoring workers, handicraft workers and palm tree workers, West Bengal Government has introduced "State Assisted Scheme of Provident Fund for Unorganised Workers" (SASPFW), etc. Our field survey revealed the fact that majority of both RPs and CWs do not possess any voter ID card or ration card under Siliguri Municipal Corporation area and none of the two groups

of workers are included in any social security scheme of the Government. None of them are aware about the welfare schemes such as Janashree Bima Yojna of LIC and SASPFUW run by the state government for both of which they are eligible. Majority of the rickshaw pullers do not possess peddler license also. Thus they are in need of both protective and promotional security.

## **8.2 Conclusions**

The conclusions of the study are as follows

1. Informal sector is the subset of unorganised sector. In India the share of informal sector is higher in rural areas than urban areas. The male-female ratio in informal sector is higher in rural areas than urban areas.
2. Percentage of female workers engaged in informal sector is higher in west Bengal compared to India level. Annual value added per worker in informal sector is lower in west Bengal compared to all India level.
3. Nature and activities of informal sector workers in SMCA is more or less same as that in all India level.
4. Urban informal sector is growing up rapidly in SMCA.
5. Earnings of rickshaw pullers is negatively correlated with age and positively correlated with number of working days. Again earning of rickshaw pullers is very much influenced by the duration of pulling.
6. Individual consumption of rickshaw pullers is positively related with individual income and age rickshaw pullers.
7. For most rickshaw pullers the job is not socially respectable, risky (subject to vehicular accident) and physically tiring.
8. Introduction of city auto-rickshaw has resulted in lower earning to rickshaw pullers.
9. Both male and female construction workers earn highest level of income at their middle ages.

10. Earning of construction workers is positively correlated with duration of work and age of first employment.
11. Earnings and savings of rickshaw pullers are highly dependent in their skill also.
12. Unskilled construction workers suffer from lower earnings, low savings and inferior working conditions.
13. In case of any accident construction workers are fortunate as the employer/contractor bears the cost of treatment, while for rickshaw pullers, the cost is born by themselves.
14. Both push and pull factor have led to immigration of rickshaw pullers and construction workers in SMCA. But push factor is stronger to the rickshaw pullers while pull factor is of similar importance to both the groups of workers. Inadequate earnings or lack of rural employment opportunities as well as poverty are the most important causes behind rural urban migration to informal sector of the SMCA.
15. Average level of consumption of rickshaw pullers is significantly higher than the construction workers. Requirement of higher physical fitness and higher bodily strength appear to be the most important reason for this.
16. As a result of migration of rickshaw pullers and construction workers in SMCA, economy of SMCA as well as household economy of the workers benefits a lot.
17. Almost no social security measures are available to the two groups of workers except holding of ration cards by some of the workers, though the selected two groups of workers are entitled to receive benefit from the state assisted schemes of provident fund for unorganised workers (SASPFW). This happens due to their lack of awareness about the scheme and the lack of interest of governmental and non-governmental agencies.

### **8.3 Suggestions:**

From our study we would like to provide the following suggestions to improve the socio-economic and living conditions of the two selected groups of urban informal sector workers at SMCA:

1. Government and Non-Government Organisations should take the initiative to generate awareness about the different social security schemes among the rickshaw pullers and construction workers by disseminating information through various media.
2. Government should help in creation and management of welfare funds like those in operation in Kerala for these two groups of workers.
3. Proper training facilities should provide to the construction workers so that they can upgrade or enhance their skill status. Special attention should be given to women construction workers to promote their skill as because we have found in our survey that all women construction workers are unskilled.
4. Many high skilled construction workers are part time small contractors. Entrepreneurship development training should be provided to them with a view to improving their business potentialities.
5. Construction workers should be registered with SMCA so that it can be made known to the authorities whether they get minimum wages or not, safe working condition prevails or not, reporting of serious accidents etc. there must be provision of relief to the construction workers at times of emergency or accidents on the part of SMCA. Terms and conditions of service should be monitored by SMC authorities.
6. Our study reveals that all the rickshaw pullers save some amount of money. Credit facilities should be provided to them so that they can able to purchase their own rickshaws.
7. Savings and earnings of rickshaw pullers could be raised if they can work more days per month. But health problems and cost associated with it hinders their earnings. If better health care facilities

can be made available to them then their earnings level and living standards can be improved to a great extent.

8. Majority of rickshaw pullers want to quite rickshaw pulling because they face physical tiredness and illness with the increase in age. As new joiner pullers are from relatively better economic background, therefore efforts should be made to provide them alternative occupations so that they can shift to other professions.

9. Building and other construction works act should be enforced in a proper way so that we can control these sections of people (construction workers) and also get clear information regarding the magnitude of construction activities and manpower requirements for construction work.

10. SMCA should give more attention to the slums improvement programmes (where rickshaw pullers and construction workers live) in order supply safe drinking water and electricity and maintain cleanliness and hygiene.

11. Rickshaw pullers and construction workers need to organise under a single umbrella so that they can strengthen their bargaining power (regarding wage and working condition) and satisfy their demands.

12. The most important policy prescriptions that arises out of our study is that the governmental and non-governmental agencies should come forward to assist these two sectors of urban informal sector workers to help them receive different kinds of social security measures from which they are entitled to get benefits.

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