



RESEARCH ARTICLE

Attracting factors for Labour Migration: A Study in Mahabubnagar District of Telangana State

Saidulu Polam and Kandagatla Sravan Kumar

Department of Sociology,

Kakatiya University, Warangal, Telangana

Email: saidulsociology@gmail.com, sravansociology@gmail.com

Received: 28th Feb. 2016, Revised: 30th April 2016, Accepted: 2nd May 2016

ABSTRACT

Migration comprises a multitude of physical movements in space and time. It is a process which is spatially subdivided into sending areas, routes of migration and receiving areas. With regard to the motivations of migrants, three types of migration can be distinguished: enforced migration, voluntary migration and distress migration. The first is decided upon by external powers. Resettlement programmes of governments for instance fall into this category. The second is the outcome of a decision-making process of migrants and their families. It refers to labour migration for the purpose of education or marriage. The third type of migration is caused by deprivation. In this case the decision of migration is made in order to escape from an environment which is no longer felt to guarantee survival. Migration due to drought, crop failure and famine is among other causes covered by this category. Economic reasons were identified the main factors for migration of labourers in Mahabubnagar district as factors like poverty, attraction of getting higher wages as compared to the place of origin and indebtedness were ranked as first, second and third respectively. The study revealed that the migrant labourers were being exploited to the extent that they were made to work for more hours without being paid for. In spite of the exploitation, not good but satisfactory working conditions, not enjoying the benefits of a permanent labourer as most of them were working as temporary labourers and health being affected by the working conditions. Among the local labourers working in the state all were males while among the migrants that were working in the industries, some were females. A larger number of migrant labourers were married as compared to the locals and also they had larger number of children than the local labourers which explains their need to earn money to sustain their families. The need of the locals to have more than one earning individual is explainable by the fact that they have more social obligations are aware of good living and educational standards and thus required more money for the same.

Key words: Attracting factors, Labour Migration, Telangana State

©All Rights Reserved 'Council of Research & Sustainable Development', India

INTRODUCTION

Concentrates on labour migration, which is defined here as a movement of human beings away from home, undertaken with the intention of finding employment. The other fields of voluntary migration (education and marriage) as well as distress migration are considered only in those cases where they are not clearly separated from labour migration. Enforced migration is excluded from this study. The focus is on the economic and social repercussions of labour migration on the families and communities staying behind. The leading question is: what role labour migration has in securing the livelihood of the peasants who stay in the rural sending areas of migrants. Of late labour migration is getting feminized especially in developing countries. Trade liberalization and market orientation have had far reaching consequences on the pattern of demand for labour. In many developing countries export led economic growth and an invitation to foreign capital have given a big boost to electronic, chemical, information technology and garment industries which by and large employ significant number of females. While the international changes have had favorable impact on the highly skilled professional educated manpower, unskilled uneducated casual labour force faces an increasingly competitive labour market for a comparatively low wage under undesirable working conditions. Since working labours are ready to work for any wage, and perceived as passive and docile, they are in

great demand, contributing to feminization of labour and feminization of labour migration. No doubt these labour market changes have had their impact on rural-urban migration as well, female economic migration being more pronounced in the recent ten to fifteen years. Changes in the rural economy also have contributed to this increased female migration. Increasing productivity in agriculture has been associated with decreasing opportunities for wage employment in agriculture for labours when compared to that of men. Literature pertaining to India as well as South-East Asian Countries clearly indicates that the initial opposition to labourers migration had been overcome after seeing the remittances from working labourers who migrated earlier and the crucial role played by such remittances in the survival of rural households in this age of consumerism and commercialization. But unfortunately gender issues are not considered important in migration studies.

MIGRATION OF LABOUR IN INDIA

The problem of seasonalization in agro-based industries can be found in a large number of countries. Firstly, we have to define seasonal factory, seasonal factory is one which normally works for more than half the days of the year. The main feature of nearly all the seasonal factories is that the workers are still agriculturists and the great majority live in their village homes. The workers are generally quite unorganized and wages tend to be low. There are some of the important key questions, we need to seek answers like, (i) who are the migrant workers? (ii) Why do they migrate from their native places? (i) Where do they migrate? What is the status of migrant labour in respect of labour standards in India? Do they know about their labour rights?

For the purpose of migration, some studies and reports have tried to seek answers of these questions, and they have discussed the problem of migrant workers in India. Agriculture is the main source of the population of India. The agriculture on which the bulk of the rural population in our country has to depend for the main source of livelihood. Which is itself largely dependent on the precipitation and distribution of rainfall; failure of rain and consequent failure of agriculture greatly reduce the purchasing power of this large segment of population, recurrence of such situation called as drought.

In India, droughts occur once in every five years in some parts of India viz., West Bengal, Madhya Pradesh, Kerala, Coastal parts of Andhra Pradesh, some parts of Maharashtra state, like Marathwada, east and west parts of Maharashtra, inferior of south Karnataka, Bihar, Orissa, Rajasthan and other parts of India. At present, Cultivators, small and marginal farmers, agricultural labourers, landless labourers etc, have to face the problems of natural calamities in India. Drought is not caused by niggardliness of nature, but failure of the system properly plan and use the resources of land and water, he further emphatically stressed that water resources of India are colossal but they are seasonally, regionally distributed and very compressive water resources, planning is reduced to combat recurrent droughts and raving floods. At present, about 27.5 per cent of the population is below the poverty line in India, (in which section of the society is unable to fulfil its basic necessities of life like food, clothes and shelter etc.).

The planning Commission of India in its Approach to the 11th Five year Plan, 2006 estimated that 27.8 per cent of population was below the poverty line in 2004-05. State level data on poverty ratios during 2004-05. States with poverty of less than 15 per cent were Jammu and Kashmir, Punjab, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Delhi, Andhra Pradesh. As against them States with poverty ratios above 30 per cent were Maharashtra, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh, Chattisgarh, Uttarakhand and Orissa.

The problem of poverty is directly related to the existence of unemployment, under employment and low productivity. Agriculture is a seasonal occupation, which cannot open job opportunities round the year to all. In the absence of irrigation facilities permitting multiple cropping, the monsoon agriculture enjoins on a majority of the rural labour force on an extended period of seasonal unemployment. These helplessness dispirited unemployed labour leave their village homes and join to swell the already over populated areas not only in India but also in other parts of the developing and developed countries, whose agricultural labourers are shifting to industrial sector. The National Commission on Rural Labour in India estimates more than 10 million circular

migrants in the rural areas alone. These include an estimated 4.5 million inter-state migrants and 6 million intra-state migrants. The Commission pointed out that there are large number of seasonally migrant workers in the agriculture and plantations, brickkilns, quarries, construction site sand fish processing. The problem of seasonal migrant workers in the sugar industry and other agro-based industries is not a new phenomenon in India. There are more than 500 sugar factories in India. The average crushing season of the sugar factories varies from 116 to 165 days. In the country, Agricultural workers migrate from drought prone areas of Maharashtra state to irrigated areas or industrially developed areas of the state for seasonal work in the sugar factories. There are about 12 lakh sugarcane cutters, transporters, sugarcane harvesting seasonal migrant workers in the Maharashtra state. The majority of seasonal workers or poorer live in the rural areas and belong to the categories of landless labourers, small and marginal farmers, scheduled castes and scheduled tribes and other backward classes. These people have either no assets with very productivity, a few relevant skills and no regular time or very low paid jobs seasonal. Besides, migrant workers are engaged in different types of jobs such as brick kilns, salt pans, stone quarries, construction (irrigation, canals, dams, road building) in agri-business like harvesting of sugarcane. Large numbers of bonded labourers nowadays are seasonal migrants.

TYPES OF MIGRATION

The real world phenomenon indicates three distinct types of people migration (a) Autonomous migration: Many middle and upper middle class labours migrate to cities for improving their educational credentials and also to get suitable employment apparently in a quest for social advancement and also to enhance their status in the marriage market.

Among the semi-literate, young girls migrating to towns/cities to work in export processing units, garment industry, electronic assembling and food processing units is continuously on the increase in the recent years; (b) Relay migration: To augment family income, families which have some land holdings in the rural area, send the daughters to work mostly as domestic servants where they are safe in the custody of a mistress. First the elder son is sent out and he is replaced by the second, third and so on, as one by one get married; (C) Family migration: Here the wife instead of staying back in the village prefers to join her husband in the hope of getting some employment in the destination area. Family migration among agricultural wage labourers who have no land or other assets to fall back at times of crisis is becoming increasingly common. It is such groups which migrate in family units to urban destinations in search of employment prospects for both.

COUNTRIES OF ORIGIN

1. Migration can alleviate pressures on local labour markets, land and natural resources, but it may also create labour shortages in rural communities, pushing to young men, thus lowering household productivity and food security and exacerbating risks of child labour.
2. Lack of jobs in rural areas intensifies rural out migration, which puts pressure on urban labour markets as well as the quality of life in urban areas.
3. Environmental degradation and climate changes are accelerating the displacement of rural population who would otherwise prefer to stay in their place of origin. They are often compelled to migrate due to the lack of fundamental needs such as access to fertile land and adequate infrastructure and basic service support.
4. Warfare, mass violations of human rights and major political upheavals also provoke displacement of populations notably in rural areas.

FACTS AND FIGURES

1. The estimated number of people living outside their country of origin increased from 155 million in 1990 to 214 million in 2010. About half of these most of the adults are economically active.
2. Over the last 50 years, 800 million people have migrated from rural to urban areas.
3. Lack of decent work combined with widening disparities in incomes and human security are main push factors in rural areas. Degradation of land, decreased agricultural productivity, lack

of access to credit and to arable land and conversion of farmland to capital intensive agricultural export industry contribute to rural out-migration.

4. Rural out migrants typically swell the ranks of the informal economy in urban areas and abroad.
5. Today half of all migrants worldwide migrant workers are particularly at risk.
6. Remittances from family members abroad supplement the incomes of rural households. In some origin countries such as Senegal migrants remittances account for up to 70 per cent of household earnings.
7. Officially recorded remittance flows to developing countries were estimated at USD 325 billion in 2010.

CAUSES FOR INVISIBILITY IN NATIONAL SURVEYS

But it is a pity that national level large scale surveys are unable to capture the above reality. With the result working labours are treated still as secondary earners, invisible in the official data system, and consequently no policy measures are directed to alleviate the sufferings of these migrant labours who lack even basic amenities in the destination area. Why large scale national surveys underscore people migration is attributed to certain reasons. The respondents are required to give only one reason for migration and in the case of labours invariably the reason for migration is identified with marriage. The woman may be working prior to marriage and intend to get married with an urbanite to enhance her potential for employment but it does not get captured. Moreover in the Indian cultural setting it is inappropriate for a woman to emphasize her economic role especially if the interviewer is a stranger and a male. Moreover the emphasis on primary and full time work and longer reference period often lead to underestimation of people employment. Depending on the respondent's and enumerator's perception and gender sensitivity, labours work force participation and economic contribution get captured or not. Questions as to who migrated first, whether the male or the female and in associational migration whether employment opportunity was reckoned or not at the time of migration etc., are not posed to the sample population and hence it is difficult to identify 'autonomous people migrants'. Despite these shortcomings, in the absence of any other data on migration, one has to necessarily depend on the Census and the NSSO the two sources of data for migration. The 2001 Census data on Migration was not published at the time of writing the current research paper and so NSSO 55th Round data had been used.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In this section, apart from presenting literature on migration theories, the study also presents literature in relation to seasonal or circular migration. There are several migration theories which discuss the migration process and its economic implications. Theory of migration talks about the dual economy comprising the subsistence agricultural sector characterised by surplus labour and unemployment/ underemployment and the modern industrial sector characterised by full employment. In the modern sector, wages are maintained at levels much higher than the average wage in agriculture sector. This theory says in the case of individual utility maximisation, the decision to migrate to cities would be determined by wage differentials, plus the expected probability of obtaining employment at the destination.

Shaw, (2010) very few have attempted to study internal migration in the context of Sri Lanka and they did not address the economic impact of the internal labour migration and remittances on sending communities. Most of the studies have been attempted to identify the migration patterns and economic and social consequences of international migration in Sri Lanka. Therefore, it can be seen a huge gap in internal migration literature in Sri Lanka. This effort is to fill this literature gap by measuring the economic impact of rural-urban migration in Sri Lanka targeting agriculture communities. Further this study adds value to the Sri Lankan migration literature by offering a new empirical evaluation of the characteristics the rural to urban labour migrants and their families, determinants and usage of remittances in sending communities. With regard to seasonal/circular labour migration a study by the National Commission on Rural Labour Report (NCRL) in 1991 revealed that there were about 6 million Indians who left their homes seeking

employment in other than their native place in India. Most of them are seasonal migrants who belong to Scheduled Tribes (ST) and Scheduled Castes (SC), tend to be relatively young, and with low education levels.

Srivastava and Bhattacharya, (2002), this period shows a sharp increase in urban male mobility, with a significantly larger percentage of male migrants reporting economic and employment-related reasons for mobility, while other migrant streams showed a decline in the percentage of migrants moving for economic reasons. These results, along with the decline in short-term migration, which we discuss below, suggest that the 1990s may have provided greater opportunities for labour mobility to those who were better positioned, e.g. males in urban areas and in the non-agricultural sector.

Hollifield, (2000) discussed about Politics matter in migration theory, as migration laws and thus the right to cross a border legally directly influence migration flows. These laws of nation states are the result of the relative power of different interest groups. They are influenced by profits (thus linking up with Priors dual labour market theory), national identity, considerations of national security and the extent of multiculturalism in the state. In a historical analysis it is important to point out that acquired rights, laws or existing institutions will always influence migration flows, irrespective of economic considerations, like the business cycle.

Harbison, (1981) paper is entitled "Family Structure and Family Strategy in Migration Decision Making". However, the migration decision is still not seen as a strategic family decision; the paper only acknowledges that families can influence the individual migrant's decision, e.g. through the demographic structure. When looking at migration from a gender perspective, family structure can influence the migration decisions of women in particular. Women migrate not only because of economic motives, but also to get married, due to social constraints, low rights and lack of protection against domestic violence.

Another important rural-urban migration theory put forward by Harris-Todaro, (1970) is that migration is stimulated primarily by economic implications. The theory explains that the decision to migrate would depend upon expected higher wages (real wage differentials) and the probability of successfully obtaining an urban job.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The Objectives of the Research Study are drawn as follows-

1. To study about the Impact of urbanization on Migrant Labourers
2. To understand the problems of Migrant Labourers
3. To examine the socio economic conditions of Migrant Labourers

METHODOLOGY

For the present paper, Mahabubnagar district has been selected to collect information pertain to research by using simple random sampling method. The researcher has taken only the migrants who are situated in different localities of the Mahabubnagar District. From each locality the head of the family was taken and later it was added up for all localities.

The paper reviews that migration from the village in essential seasonal and cyclical in nature and differs for both rural and urban migrants. Indeed, the main objective of the nature and characteristics of seasonal migrant households is that it is taking place for their survival and repayment of debts.

The sample design consists of 300 respondents from Jadcharla, Makthal and Kalwakurthymandals in Mahabubnagar district. 10 villages from each mandals and 10 respondents from each village were selected from the purpose of the study.

PROFILE OF THE MAHABUBNAGAR DISTRICT

Mahabubnagar district which is a part of the Telangana Region. The Telangana Region is most backward in general and Mahabubnagar District is the most backward in particular. The district is derived from its name Mahabubnagar, its headquarters which was named after Mir Mahbub Ali Khan, the sixth Nizam of Hyderabad. The district is divided into five Revenue divisions, sixty four Mandals comprising 1550 Revenue Villages including seventy three uninhabited villages and 1351

Gram Panchayats. Mahabubnagar district has an area of 18,432 sq. km. and a population of 3.56 lakh in 2011. The district is predominantly with rural villages housing a population of 3.1 million. It is the second largest district in the state. Literacy rate is very low at 44.61 per cent as against the state average of 60.5 per cent. In the Human development Index of 2001, Mahabubnagar district occupies the lowest position among the 10 districts because of its lowest position in income as well as education.

Mahabubnagar is more of a traditional type of Caste society with the dominant Reddy Caste controlling the land and the villages through Gram Panchayat and the traditional village administrative system called Patel-Patwari system. From the 1980s onwards, the conditions started changing with increasing opportunities for education and employment outside the village. In most of the Telangana region, OBCs have emerged as an economic and political force due to these opportunities and the reservations enjoyed by them in the local bodies. With the enactment of 73rd Constitutional Amendment Act in 1993 it gave further scope for members from marginalized communities to enter the citadels of power and expand their political class. Now the OBCs have considerable Percentage of reservations and manage to get elected even in open seats. Naxalite activity exists in Mahabubnagar district but it is limited to very few mandals particularly those that border the Nallamala forest range. Three of the interior villages in Amangalmandal were considered to have Naxalite presence.

Economy of the district is backward and primarily agricultural. Out of a total geographical area of 18.47 lakh hectares, 14.13 lakh hectares is cultivable land and 2.68 lakh hectares is forest land. It has an irrigated area of only 1.47 lakh hectors and the accounts for only eight per cent of the total land and ten per cent of the cultivable area. Sorghum, Castor, Rice, Groundnut and Cotton are the main crops accounting for seventy five per cent of the total cultivated area of 8.4 lakh hectares of land. As mentioned earlier, the district is severely drought prone and its agriculture is mainly rain fed. But the region is close to Hyderabad and migration takes place on a large scale not only to Hyderabad but also to the other parts of the country. Migrants are mostly employed in construction labour in large scale projects like dams and highways.

Table 1: Type of Motivators Among Respondents

| Name of the Mandal | Relatives | Friends | Own Family Members | Others | Total |
|--------------------|----------------|---------------|--------------------|--------------|-----------------|
| Jadcharla | 38 (12.66) | 33 (11.00) | 23 (7.67) | 6 (2.00) | 100 (33.33) |
| Makthal | 30 (10.00) | 34 (11.34) | 26 (8.67) | 10 (3.33) | 100 (33.34) |
| Kalwakurthy | 45 (15.00) | 31 (10.33) | 19 (6.33) | 5 (1.67) | 100 (33.33) |
| Total | 113 (37.66) | 98 (32.67) | 68 (22.67) | 21 (7.00) | 300 (100.00) |

(Source: Field Study, figures in brackets indicating Percentages)

The above table shows that out of 300 respondents of the Motivators for Migration are in Jadcharlamandal, the highest number of 38 (12.66 per cent) respondents motivated for migration through Relatives followed by Friends are 33 (11.00 per cent), Own Family Members are 23 (7.67 per cent), and the lowest are in the mandal is others 06 (2.00 per cent) respectively.

In the Makthalmandal the highest number of 34 (11.34 per cent) respondents motivated for migration by Friends, followed by Relatives are 30 (10.00 per cent), by own Family Members are 26 (8.67 per cent), and the lowest are in the mandal is others are 10 respondents (3.33 per cent) respectively.

In Kalwakurthymandal, the highest number of 45 (15.00 per cent) respondents motivators for migration by Relatives, followed by Friends are 31 (10.33 per cent), by the influence of own Family Members are 19 (6.33 per cent), and the lowest are in the mandal is others are 5 (1.67 per cent) respondents respectively.

There are higher number of respondents migrated by the motivation made by relatives, because relatives play a vital role to think about their betterment.

Table 2: Attracting Factors for Migration Among Respondents

| Name of the Mandal | Regular Employment | Higher Wages | Improving Economic Condition | Improving Study of Children | Information of friends & Relations | Other Factors | Total |
|--------------------|--------------------|---------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------------------|---------------|-----------------|
| Jadcharla | 42 (14.00) | 15 (5.00) | 24 (8.00) | 13 (4.33) | 04 (1.33) | 02 (0.67) | 100 (33.33) |
| Makthal | 30 (10.00) | 26 (8.67) | 29 (9.67) | 11 (3.67) | 03 (1.00) | 01 (0.33) | 100 (33.34) |
| Kalwakurthy | 47 (15.67) | 12 (4.00) | 30 (10.00) | 07 (2.33) | 03 (1.00) | 01 (0.33) | 100 (33.33) |
| Total | 119 (39.67) | 53 (17.67) | 83 (27.67) | 31 (10.33) | 10 (3.33) | 04 (1.33) | 300 (100.00) |

(Source: Field Study, figures in brackets indicating Percentages)

The above table shows that out of 300 respondents attracting factors for migrant families are in Jadcharlamandal, 42 (14.00 per cent) respondents are Regular employment, followed by Improving economic conditions are 24 (8.00 per cent) respondents, Higher wages are 15 (5.00 per cent) respondents, Improving study of children are 13 (4.33 per cent), information of friends and relations are in the mandal are 04 (1.33 per cent) respondents and other factors is 01 (0.33 per cent) respondent respectively.

In the MakthalMandal, 30 (10.00 per cent) highest number of respondents are Regular employment, followed by Improving Economic conditions are 29 (9.67 per cent), Higher wages are 26 (8.67 per cent), improving study of children are 11 (3.67 per cent), Information of friends and relations are 03 (1.00 per cent) and other factors in this mandal are 01 (0.33 per cent) respondent respectively.

In Kalwakurthymandal, the highest number of respondents are 47 (15.67 per cent) respondents are on Regular Employment category, followed by Improving economic condition are 30 (10.00 per cent), Higher wagger are 12 (4.00 per cent), Improving study of children are 07 (2.33 per cent), information of friends and relations are 03 (1.00 per cent), other factors are 01 (0.33 per cent) respondent respectively.

On the whole, the above data shows that 119 (39.67 per cent) of migrant respondents are migrated for regular employment, 53 (17.67 per cent) are for higher wages, 83 (27.67 per cent) are for improving their economic conditions, 31 (10.33 per cent) are for improving status of children, 10 (3.33 per cent) are went to migrate with other factors to Mahabubnagar District.

Table 3: Reasons for Migration of Respondents

| Name of the Mandal | Lack of Water Resources | Large Scale Family | To get rid of the debt | Poor economic Condition | Total |
|--------------------|-------------------------|--------------------|------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------|
| Jadcharla | 17 (5.67) | 14 (4.67) | 47 (15.67) | 22 (7.33) | 100 (33.34) |
| Makthal | 23 (7.66) | 20 (6.67) | 39 (13.00) | 18 (6.00) | 100 (33.33) |
| Kalwakurthy | 45 (15.00) | 16 (5.33) | 23 (7.67) | 16 (5.33) | 100 (33.33) |
| Total | 85 (28.33) | 50 (16.67) | 109 (36.34) | 56 (18.66) | 300 (100.00) |

(Source: Field Study, figures in brackets indicating Percentages)

The above table describes that out of 300 respondents of Reasons for Migration of Migrant families are in Jadcharlamandal, the highest number of 47 (15.67 per cent) respondents' reason for

migration is to get rid of the debts, followed by poor economic condition are 22 (7.33 per cent), Lack of water resources are 17 (5.67 per cent), and the lowest are in the mandal is Large scale families are 14 (4.67 per cent) respondents respectively.

In the Makthaland, the highest number of 39 (13.00 per cent) respondents' reasons for migration of migrant families is to get rid of debts, followed by Lack of water resources are 23 (7.66 per cent), Large scale family Members are 20 (6.67 per cent), and the lowest are in the mandal is poor economic conditions are 18 (6.00 per cent) respondents respectively.

In Kalwakurthymandal, the highest number of 45 (15.00 per cent) respondents migrant families are Lack of water resources, followed by to get rid of the debts are 23 (7.66 per cent), Poor economic conditions and Large scale families are equal in 16 (5.37 per cent) respondents respectively.

On the whole, the above table indicates that maximum respondents 109 (36.34 per cent) are went to migrate to get rid of the debts, 85 (28.33 per cent) respondents are lack of water resources, 50 (16.67 per cent) respondents are large sized family and 56 (18.66 per cent) respondents are went to migrate by poor economic conditions. Through this data we may understand that the majority of respondents are migrating for their survival and repayment of debts.

CONCLUSION

Economic reasons were identified the main factors for migration of labourers in Mahabubnagar district as factors like poverty, attraction of getting higher wages as compared to the place of origin and indebtedness were ranked as first, second and third respectively. The least important factor was marital purpose. Relatives were the most common source for selecting nearest cities as the destination place for migration and majority travelled through bus or train. This coincides with the fact that majority migrated from different places to Mahabubnagar town and the distance can be conveniently and cheaply covered with a maximum expenditure being up-to Rs. 300. Majority of the migrants complained of being troubled by railway police as they were harassed by them for financial purposes.

The study revealed that the migrant labourers were being exploited to the extent that they were made to work for more hours without being paid for. In spite of the exploitation, not good but satisfactory working conditions, not enjoying the benefits of a permanent labourer as most of them were working as temporary labourers and health being affected by the working conditions. The workers still continued working in the present place of work shows the helplessness and desperation to earn money. The meager amount of monthly saving highlights the plight of these labourers and their families back home that depended upon such small amounts. Majority of these labourers preferred to work with migrant labourer which explains the need to be respected and liked by the labourers they worked with and also, since majority of them lived together in rented places, it gave them the benefit of putting up at the same place with the migrant labourers they work with.

Among the local labourers working in the state all were males while among the migrants that were working in the industries, some were females. A larger number of migrant labourers were married as compared to the locals and also they had larger number of children than the local labourers which explains their need to earn money to sustain their families. However, they need to earn more money and uplift of the economic status was observed more in the locals as compared to the migrants as most of the local labourers had their wives working in the city other than the industries. The need of the locals to have more than one earning individual is explainable by the fact that they have more social obligations are aware of good living and educational standards and thus required more money for the same.

REFERENCES

1. Acharya Binoy (1987): "Beyond Bricks and Stone" PRIA, New Delhi.
2. Arizpe Lourdes (1981): "Relay Migration and the Survival of the Peasant Household" (ed.) Jorge Balan 'Why People Move' UNESCO Press, Paris.
3. Benarjee B. (1984): 'Information Flow, Expectations and Job Search: Rural-to-Urban Migration Process in India'. Journal of Development Economics. Vol.15 pp.239-257.
4. Breman Jan (2008): On bondage old and New, The Indian Journal of Labour Economics, Vol.51 No.1, January -

March.

5. Datta Ruddar and Sundhram K.P.M. (2008): Indian Economy, Chand and Company Ltd. New Delhi.
6. Desarda H.M. (1987): Faulty plans results in droughts. Seminar on Rural Poor, organized by Centre for Social studies, Surat, Daily Indian Express, March 6.
7. Deshingkar P. and Grimm S. (2005): 'Internal Migration and Development: A Global Perspective'. Switzerland.
8. FAO (2004): Till to Litter: Linkages between International Remittances and Access to Land, LSP working paper (Rome: 2004).
9. FAO (2007): T. Sakuyama: The Roles of Agriculture, Project Brief No. 2 (Rome: 2007).
10. Fawcett J.T., Khoo S. and Smith P.C. (1984): "Women in the Cities of Asia: Migration and Urban Adaptation", West view Press Boulder Colorado.
11. GOI (1931): Report of the Royal Commission on Labour in India, Central publication branch, Calcutta,
12. Harbison S.F. (1981): Family Structure and Family Strategy in Migration Decision Making. Migration Decision Making. G.d. Jong and R. Gardner. NewYork, Pergamon Press.
13. Hollifield J.F. (2000): The Politics of International Migration. Migration Theory Talking Across Disciplines. C.B. Brettell and J.F. Hollifield. NewYork, Routledge.
14. ILO (2010): Towards a Rights Based Approach to Labour Migration (Geneva: 2010).
15. MEDC (1974): Drought in Mahaarashtra, Bombay.
16. Myrdal Gunner (1970): The challenge of world poverty, and antipoverty, International edition, Penguin Books Ltd. London.
17. Rogaly B., Biswas J., Coppard D., Rafique A., Rana K. and Sengupta A. (2001): 'Seasonal Migration, Social Change and Migrants Rights, Lessons from West Bengal'. Economic and Political Weekly, pp. 45:47-58.
18. Salve W.N. (1990): A Socio-Economic Study of Seasonal Migrants in Co-operative sugar Factories with special Reference to Kolhapur District. PhD Dissertation, Shivaji University, Kolhapur.
19. Salve W.N. (1990): A Socio-Economic Study of Seasonal Migrants in Co-operative sugar Factories with special Reference to Kolhapur District. PhD Dissertation, Shivaji University, Kolhapur.
20. Shaw J. (2010): From Kuwait to Korea: The diversification of Sri Lankan labour migration. Journal of the Asia Pacific Economy, 15(1), 59-70.
21. Srivastava R. and Bhattacharyya S. (2002): Globalisation, Reforms and Internal Labour Mobility: Analysis of Recent Indian Trends, paper presented at the Seminar on Labour Mobility and Globalising World: Conceptual and Empirical Issues, September 18-19.
22. Todaro M.P. (1969): A model of labour migration and urban unemployment in less development countries, American Economic Review, vol.59, No.1.

How to cite this article:

Polam S. and Kumar K.S. (2016): Attracting factors for Labour Migration: A Study in Mahabubnagar District of Telangana State. Annals of Education, Vol. 2[3]: Sept., 2016: 8-16.