LOCAL AGRICULTURAL LABOUR IN PUNJAB

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CONTENTS

PREFACE

The rising demand for labour in Punjab, during the initial phase of green revolution, attracted agricultural labour from other states of India. However, towards the end of eighties, the labour absorption capacity of agriculture in Punjab started declining. The employment in crop-sector experienced a significant decline during the 1990s as compared to the 1980s. The employment opportunities in agriculture might have further declined since then.

The substantial presence of migrant labour in Punjab and huge amount of surplus labour in agriculture has resulted in a paradoxical situation. The policy makers and social scientists are grappling with the predicament.

The Punjab State Farmers Commission was also seized of the phenomenon. The commission wanted to investigate the status of local agricultural labour in Punjab as it was a general notion that the cheap and docile migrant labour has pushed a significant proportion of local labour out of agriculture.

This study has tried to examine the changing status of local agricultural labour in Punjab, in the above mentioned context. It has also tried to estimate the extent of migrant labour and casualisation of labour in Punjab agriculture. Besides, the study has tried to analyse and discuss the occupational structure, wages and earnings of the local agricultural labour in Punjab. As such, the findings of the study, *inter alia*, bring out many new revelations about all the above mentioned aspects. The study supports some earlier findings as well negates certain general notions.

The study based on primary data and field observations pertaining to 36 villages, spread over 12 districts of Punjab. Out of these 12 districts, 3 are from *Majha*, 2 are from *Doaba* and 7 are from *Malwa*. In all, there were 7669 households in the 36 sampled villages. Nearly 67 per cent households are landless and 33 per cent are land owners.

The Punjab State Farmers Commission approached the Punjabi University, Patiala for undertaking this study. The Vice-Chancellor, Mr. Swarn Singh Boparai, in turn, entrusted this task to the below mentioned research team. The research team would like to express a deep sense of gratitude to the Vice-Chancellor, Mr. Swarn Singh Boparai, for providing an important opportunity to contribute to the cause of local labour in particular and to Punjabôs rural economy in general. The research

Sucha Singh Gill, Dean, Academic Affairs, Punjabi cussions with him proved very useful in articulating and fine tuning the various issues related to the study. We are also thankful to the former and present Registrars, Professor Parm Bakhshish Singh Sidhu and Professor Baldev Singh Sandhu, of this University for extending appropriate administrative help.

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The contribution of Mr. Gurpreet Singh and Rakesh Sharma, both Research Fellows in the project, in the collection and tabulation of enormous amount of data, is duly appreciated and acknowledged.

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Professor and	Professor and	Reader and
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The Green Revolution, ushered in during the later half of 1960s, transformed the food deficient Indian economy into a food self sufficient economy. Several states/regions demonstrated a spectacular success in the Green Revolution. Punjab has been at the top of such a success story. However, since the mid-1980s, the colour of Green Revolution in Punjab started fading as the yield and production experienced a tendency towards stagnation. The Punjab farmers faced a two-pronged squeeze on their income. *First*, the cost of inputs increased, both, on account of higher quantity and enhanced price. *Secondly*, the return did not keep pace with the rising cost. The annual trend growth rate as per hectare return on wheat, paddy and cotton over the variable costs was -0.35 per cent, -2.83 per cent and -14.24 per cent, respectively, during the decade of 1990s (Ghuman, 2001).

Besides, the cropping pattern and agricultural technology led to a decline in employment opportunities in Punjab agriculture. The employment in crop-sector in Punjab declined from 48.04 crore man days during the triennium ending 1983-84 to 43.17 crore man days during the triennium ending 1996-97 (Gill, 2002). The share of agricultural labourers in total rural main workers in Punjab, on the other hand, increased from 24.80 per cent in 1971 to 28.52 per cent and 30.75 per cent in 1981 and 1991, respectively.

Along with this, the Punjab agriculture witnessed an important change in the nature and character of hired labour input, during the same period. The share of hired labour in Punjab (unlike most of the other states, barring Maharashtra) increased both in wheat and paddy during the decade of 1970s. The decade of 1980s witnessed a further rise in share of hired labour in wheat and cotton. The startling feature of this was that casual hired labour constituted 68 to 84 per cent of hired labour across the three major crops: paddy, cotton and wheat (Gill and Ghuman, 2001).

The scenario presented in the foregoing discussion, along with an increased influx of migrant workers, led to the emergence of the peculiar scenario in Punjab. On the one hand, there is large scale unemployment prevailing amongst the local labour and on the other hand, there has been substantial in-migration of labour of Punjab. In 1991, ten lakh cultivators and 2.78 lakh migrant labourers were surplus (Gill, 2002). At the same time there were 3.63 lakh migrant labourers in Punjab

lean period (Sidhu, Rangi and Singh, 1997). It is also h migrant workers are there in Punjab in agriculture. At the same time, 10.40 lakh rural youth (both educated and uneducated), in the age group of 18-31 were unemployed in Punjab in 1998 (GOP, 1998).

Economic history of world, however, shows that the human labour migration is the natural manifestation of socio-economic and technological growth/development. The normal course of migration is that it takes place from relatively low developed to high developed regions/countries. The in-migration to Punjab, from other states of India, especially from UP and Bihar may be viewed in this context.

The Census of India, 2001 (GOI) recorded a substantial shift of rural workforce from agriculture to non-agriculture sectors during the decade of 1990s. The census show that the share of agricultural workers in total rural main workers declined from 73.5 per cent in 1991 to 53.5 per cent in 2001, a fall of 20 percentage points. The corresponding decline during the period of two decades (1971-1991) was just 6 percentage points. The proportion of agricultural workforce in Punjabôs total workforce declined from 55.26 per cent in 1991 to 39.40 per cent in 2001, a fall of approximately 2.77 and 4.24 percentage points during 1981-91 and 1971-81, respectively.

As per the Census (2001), 66 per cent population and 70 per cent of workforce in Punjab are living in rural areas. In this context, Punjab continues to be predominantly a rural economy in terms of share of population and workforce. In fact, agricultural development in Punjab experienced a partial dynamism of growth in Kaldor-Kuznets long-term dynamics of agrarian economy (Kaldor, 1967; Kuznets, 1965). Punjab agricultureôs share witnessed a substantial fall in NSDP whereas the workforce declined marginally during 1961-1991. The share of agriculture and livestock in NSDP, at current prices, declined from 52.00 per cent in 1960-61 to 44.10 per cent in 1990-91. As compared to it, the share of agricultural workforce in the total workforce in Punjab declined from 55.89 per cent in 1961 to 55.26 per cent in 1991.

According to a recent study (Ghuman, 2005), about 16 per cent workers were employed in non-farm activities, in three villages of the three districts of Punjab. The study further highlights that the shift of workers from the farm to non-farm employment was largely due to ñpush effectò in agriculture and not due to ñpull

sectors. A quantum shift of rural workforce from farm ver, in sharp contrast to employment growth scenario in Punjab during 1991-2001. The shrinking employment opportunities in agriculture sector, the drastic fall in the share of agricultural workforce in total workforce of Punjab and substantial presence of migrant labour in the rural Punjab raises many serious questions. The most important question, *inter alia*, is about the status of local agricultural labourers which have been shown shifted to non-farm sector.

Various studies have pointed out both positive and negative impacts of migratory labour on the socio-economic aspects of local labour and also on the economy of Punjab. The present work is an attempt to capture the socio-economic adjustment process of the local agricultural labour in response to large scale influx of migrant labour in Punjab.

Objectives

The production structure of the agriculture sector in the state has substituted: (a) local labour with migrant labour and (b) high wage labour with low wage labour. Complete occupational structure, income structure and asset structure of the economy has undergone a substantial change over the period of time. Accordingly, the specific objectives of the study as follows:

1. To determine the extent of local and migratory labour in agriculture;
2. To analyze the changes in the occupational structure of local agricultural labour;
3. To study the income and asset structure of the local agricultural labour;
4. To make policy recommendations regarding the emerging scenario pertaining to the local agricultural labour.

Methodology

The study, mainly a primary data based, also uses the secondary data sources like Census of India, Statistical Abstracts of Punjab and other sources such as ESO and CSO. The primary data was collected during the year 2006-07. For primary data collection, a well structured questionnaire (Appendix IV and V) has been used. Multistage sampling technique has been used to draw a representative sample of the entire state of Punjab. At the first stage, we randomly selected 12 development blocks in such a manner so that each block is located in a separate district. The selection of blocks has been done at random, three each from the first 25 ranks, 26-50 ranks, 51-

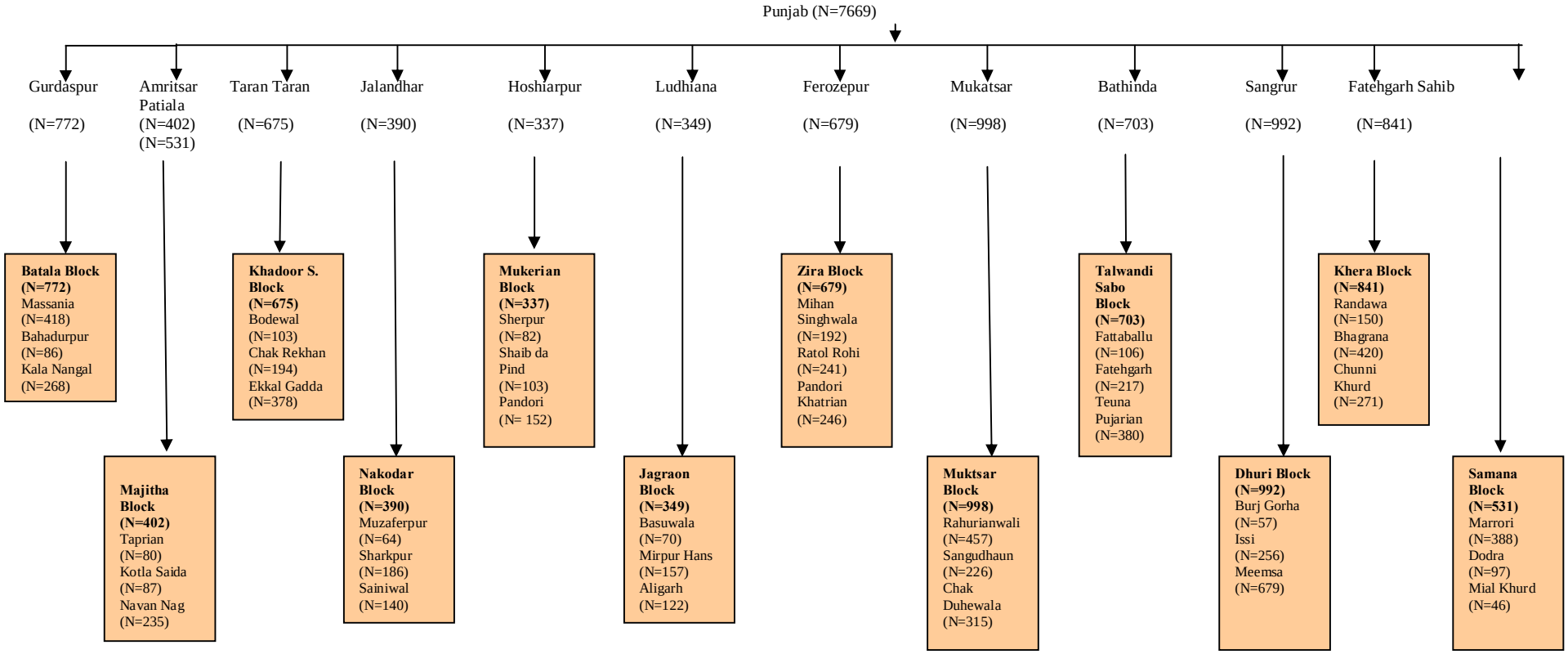
respectively. The selection of blocks has broadly been blocks in the descending order according to level of development. The ranking was done by the Economic and Statistical Organization (ESO), Punjab (Appendix III). In the process, we have taken three districts from *Majha*, two from *Doaba* and seven from *Malwa* regions of Punjab. *Malwa* has been given higher weightage, keeping in view its share in total population of Punjab. Further out of each of the selected blocks, three villages have been randomly selected. Each village was randomly selected out of a cluster of villages. One village each is randomly selected from the developed, moderately developed and low developed cluster of villages in each block. Thus, in all, 36 villages constitute the universe of the study (Appendix I, II).

To analyse the nature and extent of rural labour, a complete household census survey of the selected 36 villages has been done. The total number of households, in all the 36 villages, comes out to be 7669. The complete structure of this census survey is presented in figure 1. To analyse the occupational, income and asset structure of local agricultural labourers, a detailed sample survey has also been undertaken. Taking 25 respondents, randomly, from each of the 36 sampled villages, the total sample size of the study comes out to be 900 respondents. Structure of the sample survey of local agricultural labourers is presented in figure 2. For analysis, the tabular analysis has been supported with appropriate statistical techniques.

Structure of the Study

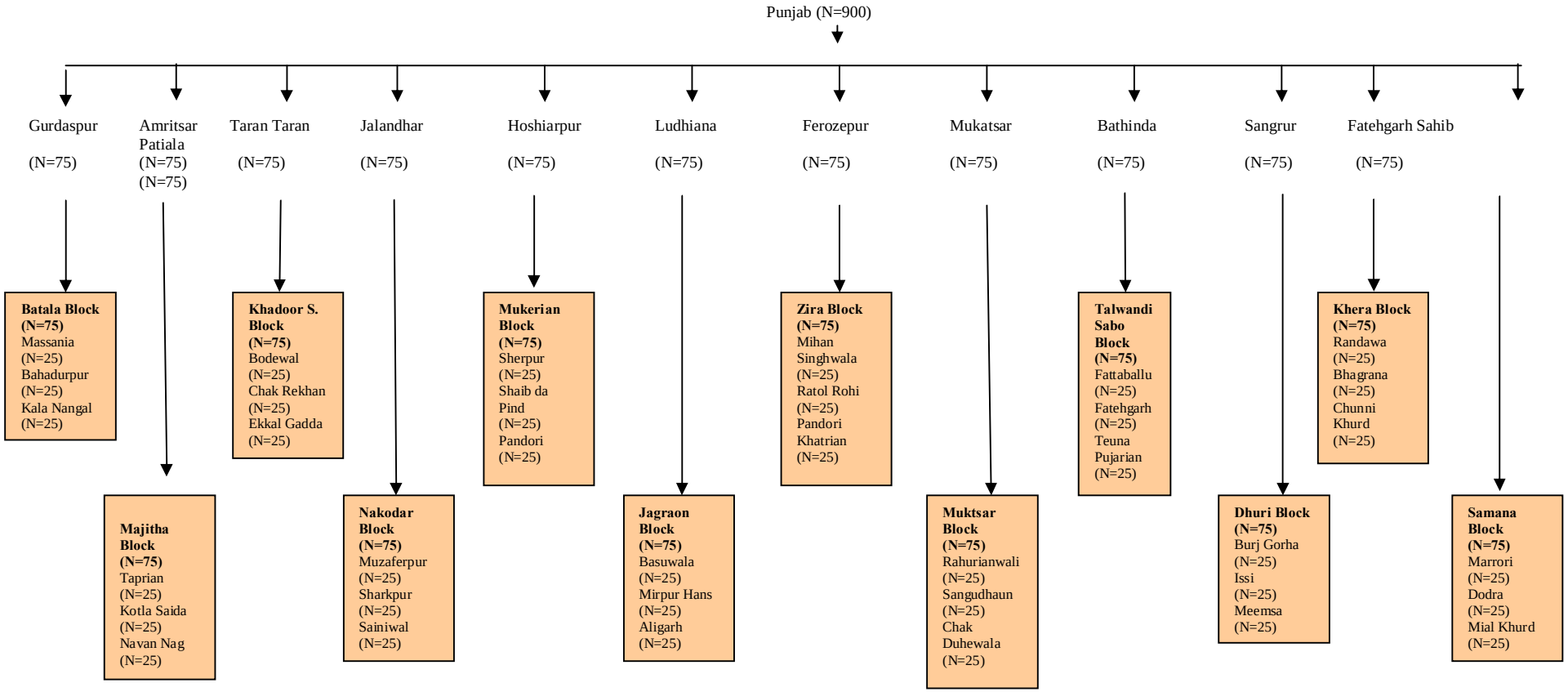
The study has been organized into eight chapters. The opening chapter introduces the study. It is followed by a chapter on structure of rural economy of Punjab state. Chapter third elaborates the macro dynamics of migrant labour in Punjab. The fourth chapter dwells upon overall scenario of agricultural labour in Punjab. Occupational structure of local casual labour in Punjab has been discussed in the next chapter. Wages, earnings and extent of loan in case of casual labour forms the subject matter of chapter sixth. Seventh chapter analyses the occupational structure, wages and assets of attached labourers. Main conclusions and policy implications have been summarized in the last chapter.

e 1: Structure Diagram of Census Survey: Districts, Blocks and Villages



Note: N stands for number.

Figure 2: Structure Diagram of Sample Survey: Districts, Blocks and Villages



Note: N stands for number.

CHAPTER 2

OF RURAL ECONOMY OF PUNJAB

Rural economic development assumes an added significance both as a need in the context of economic transformation and fast globalization of development. The rural population of Punjab, according to census 2001 was 1,60,96,488 persons which comes out to be 66.08 per cent of the total population. These persons are inhabited in 12,278 villages spread over 20 districts. Punjabôs rural economy has undergone significant economic growth and structural transformation during the early period of green revolution. However, the agriculture sector still remains the mainstay of majority of rural population. The structural transformation process has reduced the income generation in the rural economy but population more or less still dependent on agriculture. At the most, the shift of rural population from agriculture related activities to modern sector of the economy is pretty slow. When the productivity growth in the agriculture sector showed signs of fatigue, a process of turning green revolution pale, the crisis of rural economy surfaced on the scene. The resolution of the crisis ridden rural economy is urgently required. For enacting suitable policy measures, the examination of the structure of rural economy of Punjab is needed to identify the weak links. The weak links assume utmost significance from the point of view of rejuvenating the rural economy of Punjab. This is attempted in this chapter.

Development level and region wise distribution of rural households

Census of 36 villages across development levels and geographical regions was conducted to ascertain the composition of economic activates in which the rural workforce is engaged in. Total number of households of these villages comes out to 7669 (table 2.1). Accordingly average number of household inhabited by a village in Punjab is 213. Out of the 7669 households, 2167 households are inhabited in the relatively less economically developed villages of Punjab which comes out to be 28.26 per cent of the total households in all 36 sampled villages for which census was conducted. The average number of households in relatively less developed villages is 181, which is lower than the overall average. This implies that the less developed villages of Punjab are small in size and are away from major towns and cities. Among the examined villages, 42.14 per cent of the households, that is 3232, are hosted by the developed villages of rural Punjab. The average of the developed villages in turns of number of households is 269. This implies that the developed

compared with medium, and less developed villages. development leads to concentration of population and there is a positive relationship between size of the village and level of development. Some of these villages are having characteristics similar to the level of semi urban areas.

Table 2.1: Distribution of households in sampled villages across the regions and development levels in Punjab

Development level/regions	Number of Households	Percentage of Households
Low developed villages	2167	28.26
Medium developed villages	2270	29.60
Highly developed villages	3232	42.14
Total	7669	100.00
Majha	1849	24.11
Doaba	727	9.48
Malwa	5093	66.41
Total	7669	100.00

Source: Field Survey.
Note: 1. The source of all the following tables in this chapter is also field survey.
2. The low, medium and high developed villages belong to all the selected blocks in this study.

The regional distribution of the households is also presented in table 2.1. The 66.41 per cent of the households, that is, 5093 number of households belong to the *Malwa* region which is geographically the largest among the three regions of Punjab. The 24.11 per cent of the households covered in the survey (1849) belongs to the villages of *Majha* region. The rest of the 9.49 per cent of the households belongs to the *Doaba* region which is smaller according to the geographical area among the three regions.

The distribution of the households of 36 villages according to ownership of land shows that the majority of households, that is 5163 (67.32 per cent) are landless households (table 2.2). The rest of the 32.68 per cent of the households belong to the category of land owners. Out of total households, the largest number of households, that is 707 (9.20 per cent), belongs to the category of land owned between 2.5 acres to

rtant category according to land ownership is 5.0 to 10 seholds that come out to be 8.51 per cent. These two categories together showed that the large number of households in Punjab belongs to the small and medium category of farming. The number of households engaged in marginal farming in 36 villages of Punjab is 576 which are 7.51 per cent of the total number of households (table 2.2). These households are nearly one-forth of the total land owned households. Similarly, the upper two categories of households, that own land between 10.00 to 15.00 acres and above 15 acres, are 570 households. These households together constitute 7.44 per cent of the total number of households inhabited by the 36 villages of Punjab. Furthermore, these two categories of households together constitute 22.75 per cent of the land owner households. This means the remaining 77.26 per cent households own land up to 10 acres only. Nearly 51 per cent households own land only up to five acres.

Table 2.2: Distribution of households in sampled villages according to ownership of land in Punjab

Categories\Households	Number of Households	Percentage share of Households
Landless*	5163	67.32
Land Owners*	2506	32.68
Upto 2.5 acres	576 (22.98)	7.51 (22.98)
2.5 to 5 acres	707 (28.21)	9.22 (28.22)
5.0 to 10.00 acres	653 (26.06)	8.51 (26.06)
10.00 to 15.00 acres	239 (9.54)	3.12 (9.53)
Above 15.00 acres	331 (13.21)	4.32 (13.21)

Note: 1. The figures in parentheses represent the percentage share of households in each category of size-holding in the total land owning households.
2. The respective holding sizes are marginal, small, semi-medium, medium and large.
* These proportions are almost similar to the NSSO estimates (Govt. of India, 2005).

The dispersal of households across three regions of Punjab according to the area operated is presented in table 2.3. The perusal of the table reveals that there exists a wide differential among the regions so far so the areas operated by the households across size classes are concerned. The highest number of households according to area operated in *Malwa* region of Punjab falls in terms of size of holding between 5 to 10 acres of area operated. This category of farm size is generally being described as semi-medium. However, the largest proportion of households in the regions of *Doaba* and *Majha*, that is 35.85 per cent and 31.86 per cent, respectively, operated area between 2.5 to 5.0 acres. This implies that the majority proportion of

and *Majha* regions are small farmers. In the *Malwa* g households are cultivating area more than five acres. Whereas, the 45.28 per cent and 42.20 per cent farm households in the region of *Doaba* and *Majha*, respectively, are cultivating area higher than 5 acres. When we compared the large size (15 and above acres) farm households across three regions, *Malwa* region inhabited highest number of farm households, that is 16.14 per cent, which is followed by *Doaba* (14.15 per cent) and *Majha* (7.81 per cent) regions respectively (table 2.3). It is interesting to note that the proportion of marginal and small operational holdings in all the 36 sampled villages came out to be 48.53 per cent compared to it, the agriculture census 2000-01 (Govt. of Punjab, 2006) shows that the proportion of such operational holdings is 29.66 per cent. Similarly, as per our study, the proportion of semi-medium (5 to 10 acres) operational holdings is 26.56 per cent. According to Agricultural Census it is 32.91 per cent. Our study shows that there are 24.91 per cent operational holdings above 10 acres whereas the proportion of such holdings, according to agricultural census is 37.33 per cent.

Table 2.3: Distribution of households in sampled villages according to operational landholding in Punjab

Size of holding (acres)\Regions	Total	*Majha*	*Doaba*	*Malwa*
Up to 2.5	501 (23.07)	123 (25.95)	20 (18.87)	358 (22.49)
2.5 to 5.0	553 (25.46)	151 (31.85)	38 (35.85)	364 (22.86)
5.0 to 10.00	577 (26.56)	121 (25.53)	23 (21.70)	433 (27.20)
10.00 to 15.00	232 (10.68)	42 (8.86)	10 (9.43)	180 (11.31)
15 and above	309 (14.23)	37 (7.81)	15 (14.15)	257 (16.14)
Total	2172 (100.00)	474 (100.00)	106 (100.00)	1592 (100.00)
Proportion of households according to area operated and area owned	86.67%	90.29%	89.83%	86.00%

Note: Figures in parentheses are percentage shares of columns.

When we compared the land owning households with the land operating households, the land operating households are 86.67 per cent of land owning households. This ratio comes out to be 86 per cent in the *Malwa* region which is not only lower than the state average but also lower compared both with *Majha* and *Doaba* regions. The highest percentage (90.29 per cent) of households operating their

gion of *Majha*. Two farm size classes, that is, up to 2.5 lower proportion of households in terms of area operated to area owned. As the land operating households are the highest ones in the two categories, that is 10-15 acres (98.7 per cent) and 15 and above (94.2 per cent, this implies that these two categories may have been operating farms while reaping economies of scale. Furthermore, these two categories of households lease in land to exploit the operational economies of scale. Thus, Punjab farm economy is observing the reverse tenancy.

Education levels Across Rural Households

It is widely accepted fact that education and training convert the labour force in human capital. Accumulation of human capital and economic development are positively correlated. It is distressing to note here that the rural households of Punjab observed generally very low level of education of the family members. The perusal of table 2.4 clearly brings out the fact that the 72.96 per cent of the households of the less developed villages of Punjab devoid of any family member received education up to 10^{th} level. However, this percentage is 64.23 for medium development villages and 69.34 per cent in the case of highly developed villages of Punjab. The proportion of households in which one family member received education up to 10^{th} and beyond was higher in the medium development level of villages (21.45 per cent). It is important to note here that there exist marginal variations across developed and highly developed villages so far as number of family members received education beyond tenth class. According to one, two or three number of the family members received education up to tenth class, the proportion of households residing in the medium developed villages is higher compared to high and less developed villages of rural Punjab (table 2.4).

The relationship between farm size classes and members of farm households received education up to 10^{th} or beyond is positive. As the size of farm increases, the number of household members received education upto 10^{th} or beyond also increases. Region wise distribution of households shows that the *Malwa* region having households more than 70.12 per cent which do not have even one family member who has received education up to tenth or beyond. However, the *Doaba* region has lower proportion of family member who has not received education up to 10^{th} level or beyond. This proportion of households is slightly higher in *Majha* compared with

region. Two and more members of the family received l, the proportion of households is higher (4.43 per cent) in *Majha*, followed by *Malwa* and *Doaba*. This may be because of *Malwa* region inhabited more rural households having large farm size. Moreover the farm size and higher education of family members is positively correlated. This means that the capacity of afford higher education is probably higher with the farm households possessing large sized farms.

Table 2.4: Distribution of households in sampled villages with education up to matric class and above in Punjab

	Nil		One person		Two persons		Three persons	
Group/ Sub group	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Village Devp. Level								
1. Low	1581	72.96	342	15.78	192	8.86	52	2.40
2. Medium	1458	64.23	487	21.45	239	10.53	86	3.79
3. High	2241	69.34	595	18.41	287	8.88	109	3.37
Land Holding (Acre)								
1. Upto 2.5	389	67.53	126	21.88	52	9.03	9	1.56
2. 2.5-5.0	384	54.31	191	27.02	99	14.00	33	4.67
3. 5.0-10.0	305	46.71	189	28.94	117	17.92	42	6.43
4. 10.0-15.0	98	41.00	64	26.78	52	21.76	25	10.46
5. 15.0 and above	111	33.53	101	30.51	74	22.36	45	13.60
Type of Household								
1. Farm	1093	50.65	595	27.57	339	15.71	131	6.07
2. Non-Farm	1425	58.62	597	24.56	305	12.55	104	4.28
3. Labour (L)	2762	89.68	232	7.53	74	2.40	12	0.39
Zone								
1. *Majha*	1240	67.06	312	16.87	215	11.63	82	4.43
2. *Doaba*	469	54.51	172	23.66	71	9.77	15	2.06
3. *Malwa*	3571	70.12	940	18.46	432	8.48	150	2.95
Total	5280	68.85	1424	18.57	718	9.36	247	3.22

Source: Field survey.

Family Size in the Rural Punjab

Punjab has been considered one of the highly developed and progressive states of India. It is thus expected that the size of the family in the rural areas may become small. The village survey results reveal the fact that the average size of the family is 5.54 persons (table 2.5). The total number of persons inhabited by the 36 villages of Punjab was 42,518 persons. When we divide the 36 villages into three categories of development, the high level of development villages have relatively small size of the family. Even in this case, the average number of family members comes out to be 5.4. It is just 0.1 point lower than the overall average. The low levels of development

ng exactly equivalent mean size of the family compared standard deviation for the low level of development villages is 2,614 which are higher than the high level of development villages (2.31). This reveals that the variations in the family size across households of the low level of development villages are perceptibly higher than that of the high level of development villages. The medium development villages have family size nearly six persons which is higher than, the overall average as well as higher than the low and high level of development villages. The estimated standard deviation for these households is 2.6 which are on the higher side compared with the high level of development villages.

An important feature needs to be noted here is that the family size of the farm households is higher than the family size of the non-farm and also of the labour households. The average size of the family of the farm households is 6.4 persons. However, the family size of the non-farm families was 5.2 persons. The variations, as revealed by the estimated value of the standard deviation, across households were higher compared to the non-farm households. The family size (5.2 persons) of rural labour households was 5.2 persons and the variations across households were the lowest (2.1 standard deviation). This clearly brings out the fact that across the rural labour households the family size is almost same.

The perusal of the table 2.5 reveals that there exists a positive relationship between size of the farm and the average size of the family. The households owning land up to 2.5 acres, the average size of the family is 5.3 persons per household. The estimated value of the standard deviation comes out to be 2.2. These variations revealed from the estimated value of standard deviation are the lowest one. This implies that small farm size households more tended towards nuclear family. The average size of the family for the farm households owning land between 2.5 and 5.0 acres is 5.7 persons. The estimated standard deviation is 2.4. The average size of family and the variations across households are higher compared to marginal farming family households. The average size of family for the farm categories of 10.0 to 15.0 acres and 15 and above acres is 7.3 and 7.6 persons, respectively. The variations, as observed from the estimated value of standard deviation, across these farm households increased as the average size of the family increases.

households in sample villages across the regions and levels in Punjab

	Mean	S.D.	Number of persons
Village development levels			
1. Low	5.475	2.614	11864
2. Medium	5.761	2.588	13078
3. High	5.438	2.311	17576
Land Holding (Acre)			
Upto 2.5	5.296	2.226	3183
2.5-5.0	5.703	2.438	4032
5.0-10.0	6.443	2.894	4207
10.0-15.0	7.314	3.684	1748
Above 15.0	7.595	3.833	2514
Type of household			
1. Farm	6.416	3.005	13845
2. Non-farm	5.227	2.279	12706
3. Labour	5.184	2.058	15967
Regions			
1. *Majha*	5.532	2.531	10228
2. *Doaba*	5.354	2.329	3892
3. *Malwa*	5.576	2.492	28398
Total	5.544	2.487	45518

The regional variations of the average size of family are quite small. The *Malwa* region recorded higher size of family compared to that of *Majha* and *Doaba*. The average number of family members in *Malwa* region is 5.6 persons. However, the average family size in the *Majha* region is 5.5 which are exactly matching with the overall average size of the family in rural Punjab. It is worth mentioning that the average family size of the rural households inhabited in the *Doaba* region of Punjab is small than the overall average and also compared with the average family size of rural *Malwa* and *Majha* regions.

Rural Non-Farm Economic Activities

The rural households of Punjab are being engaged broadly in farm and non-farm activities. There is a sharp division of the households earning their livelihood from farm and non-farm activities. Some of the households are doing activities which are either complementary to agriculture such as repair of agricultural machinery or supportive activities to rural population. The non-farm households engaged in self employed occupations and services both public and private are presented in table 2.6. The perusal of the table 2.6 clearly brings out the fact that the majority of the rural

aged in self generated petty economic activities. Some ve shown similar results (Ghuman, et. al., 2002; Sidhu and Toor, 2002 and Ghuman, 2005).

These activities are grocery shops, mechanics, wheat floor and rice shelling mills, repair workshops, painter and plumbers and dairying. It is important to note that the proportion of households engaged in non-farm activities in the total households of 36 villages comes out to be 24.36 per cent. An earlier study (Ghuman, 2005) of three villages in three districts shows rural non-farm employment only up to 16 per cent. However, the (Govt. of India, Census, 2001) shows that the extent of non-farm employment in total rural workers was 46.5 per cent. The corresponding proportion in 1991 was 26.50 per cent. Our census study of 36 sampled villages, spread over 12 districts of Punjab, does not support the census data. Out of the 1868 non-farm households, 1009 households which come out to be 54.01 per cent of the total non-farm households engaged in such activities mentioned above. Those who are engaged in services account for 45.99 per cent of the households.

The non farm households are dependent on employment in both public and private sector jobs such as teaching, bank clerks, army-personnel, drivers (bus driver, truck driver, car driver, tractor driver and auto driver). These are relatively low paid jobs but better than work available in agriculture. The distribution of rural non-farm households between self employed and engaged in services reveals the fact that the households of less developed villages of Punjab are more occupied in self created economic activities. This is because of the fact that educational achievements are also quite low and thus, these households can not seek jobs both in the public and private sector economic activities. Some what similar trends are found in the case of developed villages. However, it needs to be noted that the proportion of households engaged in services is marginally higher. The middle level development of villages recorded equal proportion of households in both the economic activities. Why the proportion of services is higher in medium development villages compared with the other two categories of villages because of the fact that educated persons up to matric level and beyond were also reported higher in these villages. Formal education, thus, allows people to seek jobs in the service sector both public and private.

of rural non-farm households in sampled villages conomic activities across development levels and regions

Activity / Development Level and Regions	Self-employed		Employed in services		Percentage Share in Total Households
	No.	Percentage	No.	Percentage	
Low developed villages	251 (24.88)	57.44	186 (21.65)	42.56	20.17
Medium developed villages	300 (29.73)	50.00	300 (34.92)	50.00	26.43
Developed villages	458 (45.39)	55.11	373 (43.43)	44.89	25.71
Total	1009 (100.00)	54.01	859 (100.00)	45.99	24.36
Majha	185	43.94	236	56.06	22.77
Doaba	212	66.46	107	33.54	43.88
Malwa	612	54.25	516	45.75	22.15

Note: Figures in parentheses are percentages of the respective column.

The region wise distribution of non-farm households reveals an interesting fact that the majority of the *Malwa* and *Doaba* households are engaged in self generated occupations. However, this proportion is higher for *Doaba* (two-third of households in self employed activities) region compared with *Malwa* region. The *Majha* region, surprisingly, recorded majority of the households engaged themselves into services that is 56.06 per cent. This is quite contrary to the trend observed in the case of *Malwa* and *Doaba* regions.

Extent of Attached Local Labour in Rural Punjab

Agriculture sector of an economy generates work of two kinds. Some of the operations of agriculture sector do require to be attended on regular basis such as animal care, irrigation, fertilizer, and spraying the crops. Sowing and harvesting generates second category of work which increases the demand for casual labour. The regular kind of work needs to be attended either by the farm household with its own labour or hired labour. Small sized farm usually fulfils the demand for labour from the household itself. But the medium and large size farms depend more or less on the hired labour. Such households do hire labour on contract basis for one year or more which is called as attached labour or ó*Seeri'* in local language. The other source of contract labour is migrants. Therefore, the local labour hired on a regular contract basis has been on the decline. The factor behind the contract based labour is the

bour markets. The inter-linked agrarian markets in rural spite the development of agrarian economy on modern capitalist lines of production (Gill, 2004). This labour force is an exploited lot mainly due to longer hours put in work and the nature of work also remained undefined. These workers are usually hired as a farm labour. However, the majority of the farm households themselves are engaged in such activities which are indicative of the fact that 79 per cent of the farm households do not hire at all the contract labour on regular basis. The rest of the twenty one per cent of the households hire contract labour on regular basis. The analysis of the table 2.7 reveals that nearly 17 per cent of the farm households hire one worker on regular contract basis.

Table 2.7: The extent of attached local labour in sampled villages in Punjab

No. of workers / Farm Size	Households with no hired workers		Households with one hired worker		Households with two hired workers		Households with three or more hired workers	
	Number	%age	Number	%age	Number	%age	Number	%age
Up to 2.5	498	99.40	2	0.40	1	0.20	-	-
2.5-5.0	514	92.95	36	6.51	2	0.36	1	0.18
5.0-10.0	454	78.68	119	20.62	2	0.35	2	0.35
10.0-15.0	140	60.34	81	34.91	9	3.88	2	0.86
Above 15.0	113	36.57	122	39.48	43	13.92	31	10.03
Total	1719	79.15	360	16.57	57	02.62	36	01.66

Source: Field survey.

Two labourers on contract basis were hired by the 2.62 per cent of the farm households. A few households that is, 1.66 per cent, hired three or more workers on regular contract basis in rural Punjab. The perusal of the table 2.7 reveals that 99.40 per cent small and marginal farmerôs households owning land up to 2.5 acres do not hire any worker on regular or contract basis. Furthermore, the analysis of the table 2.7 shows that as the farm size increases, the hired contract based labour also increases. Thus, there is a positive relationship between the practice of hiring contract based farm labour and farm size. The medium, semi-medium and large farm households are hiring large number of farm labourers as attached labourers. The farm households owning large size farms are hiring two, three and more workers as attached labourers. So tying of labour is still more common with the farm households those are having large size of the land holdings.

mployment of local casual labour in sampled villages in
of operational holding

Farm size group \ man days	Number of man days in a year									
	Nil	%	0-25	%	25-50	%	50-75	%	75 or more	%
Upto 2.5	337	64.68	94	18.04	83	15.93	3	0.58	4	0.77
2.5-5.0	197	35.62	121	21.88	155	28.03	55	9.95	25	4.52
5.0-10.0	255	44.19	54	9.36	57	9.88	64	11.09	147	25.48
10.0-15.0	99	42.67	29	12.50	15	6.47	9	3.88	80	34.48
Above 15.0	115	37.22	31	10.03	9	2.91	6	1.94	148	47.90

The sowing and harvesting season generates huge amount of work and demand for casual labour. All farm households across the farm size classes hire labour for this kind of work. The analysis of the table 2.8 reveals the fact that 54 per cent of the farm households generate demand for casual labour. The pattern of hiring casual labour follow an inverted óUô shape curve because of the face that the farm households, which belong to the category of small and marginal, depend more on family labour for sowing and harvesting of crops. However, there is a positive relationship between number of workers hired as casual labourers and farm size upto 10 acres and reverses thereafter. The reasons for such kind of relationship are well known because of the fact that the farm households possessing the large size farms depend more on farm machinery (Singh and Singhôs study (2006), too, came up with such findings). The mechanization of Punjab agriculture has increased dramatically over the last two decades due to uncertainties. One, the weather conditions have changed dramatically due to global warming and untimely rainfall especially during the harvesting period increases the intensity of mechanization. Two, the maturity period of the high yielding variety crops has shortened and harvesting takes place simultaneously. This generally creates shortage of labour during the time of harvesting. In fact, the duration of peak period, both at the time of sowing and harvesting, has shrunk over the period of time. Thus, shortening of peak period, along with declining employment elasticity in agriculture has resulted in reduction of labour absorption in agriculture in rural economy of Punjab (Bhalla, 1987; Gill, 2002).

Hence to sum up, the agriculture sector still remains the mainstay of majority of rural population. There are wide differentials among the regions so far as the area

is concerned. Punjab farm economy is observing the The employment of attached labour is positively associated with the farm size, and the pattern of hiring casual labour follows an inverted óUô shape curve. The family size of the farm households is larger than the family size of the labour households and there exists a positive relationship between size of the farm and the average size of the family. The process of self employment and tertiarization of the system is picking up in the state but the poor school education is a bottleneck in the process.

CHAPTER 3

LABOUR IN RURAL PUNJAB

Migration and economic development are intimately linked. Dualistic development literature viewed internal migration as natural process in which surplus labour can gradually be withdrawn from the agriculture sector to fulfil the increasing demand in the urban industrial sector. This process of economic transformation has been considered socially beneficial because of human resources can be shifted from low paid economic activities (marginal product nearly zero) to rapidly growing economic activities where marginal product is positive (Todaro and Smith, 2004). Thus, economic theory of migration suggests that migration takes place in response to urban-rural differences in expected income. Contrary to this, Jolly (1970) argued that most of these concern looks irrelevant today. The rates of rural-urban migration in less developed countries continue to exceed rates of urban job creation. Dualistic theory of economic development and migration has been criticized that it completely ignored the empirical realities of most of the developing economies where the rural-rural migration is the dominant form than rural to urban. It is being generally observed from empirical literature on migration that the skill levels required for urban migration have increased over time. The skill requirements in urban areas and skill possessed by the agricultural workers have widened substantially. Therefore, the people of poorest areas do not have access to the most rewarding activities in the urban areas.

They migrate to activities which are seasonal agriculture and also less rewarding. Another important factor that contributes to the flow of rural to rural migration is the improvement of agricultural productivity due to technological progress which resulted into the improvements in mean income in such regions. The people of the less developed areas are likely candidates for such migration (Haan, 2007). The rural economy of Punjab do attract huge amount of flow of people from other poorer states of India. These workers do engage themselves into low paid agriculture sector related activities both regular and seasonal. Rural to rural migration which is largely seasonal and the stay of workers in most of the cases is less than six months, therefore, excluded from the official records. The place of residence of migrant workers is usually at the place of work, that is, farm and thus is not being recorded during the period of conduct of census. Therefore, the official statistics on

d the rural to rural migration. In this chapter, an attempt

Migration Inflows in Punjab

There was a dramatic improvement in agricultural productivity with the advent of green revolution which resulted into rise in per capita income. Intensive agriculture has also increased the demand for labour. The high yielding variety of seeds, irrigation network of canals and tubewells have given big push to multiple cropping pattern. This process of agricultural development created shortage of labour force required for intensive agriculture. The successful and sustained agricultural transformation widened the gap of per capita income of Punjab compared to other states of India (Gill, 1990). The poor people of poorer states have started gradually flowing in the state of Punjab.

Table 3.1: Trends of migration in Punjab: 1981-2001

Year / State	1981	1991	2001	Growth rate (per cent per annum)		
				1981-91	1991-01	1981-01
Bihar	50235 (06.43)	90732 (09.20)	267409 (17.01)	6.09	11.42	8.72
Haryana	248043 (31.74)	298192 (30.41)	361766 (23.02)	1.85	1.95	1.90
Himachal Pradesh	112289 (14.37)	136134 (13.80)	165158 (10.51)	1.94	1.95	1.94
Rajasthan	91879 (11.76)	110853 (11.24)	136168 (8.66)	1.90	2.08	1.99
Uttar Pradesh	220216 (28.18)	280350 (28.42)	517351 (32.92)	2.44	6.32	4.36
Madhya Pradesh	15556 (01.99)	15717 (1.58)	30559 (1.95)	0.10	6.87	3.43
West Bengal	12970 (01.66)	18635 (01.89)	45902 (2.92)	3.69	9.43	6.52
Jammu & Kashmir	30223 (03.87)	36108 (03.66)	47349 (3.01)	1.80	2.75	2.27
Total of eight states	781411 (95.02)	986621 (87.61)	1571662 (89.67)	2.36	4.77	3.56
Total	822377 (100.00)	1126149 (100.00)	1752718 (100.00)	2.59	4.52	3.55

Source: Government of India, **Census** (various issues).
Note: Figures in parentheses are percentages.

The total migrants reported in the census 1981 were of the order of 8,22,377 persons (table 3.1). This was increased to 11,26,149 persons in 1991. The annual rate of growth of migrants in Punjab during the period 1981 to 1991 was of the order of

s increased sharply during the decade of 1991 to 2001. increased from 11,26,149 in 1991 to 17,52,718 persons in 2001. The rise in flows of migrants in Punjab during the period 1991-2001 was quite sharp. The annual rate of growth comes out to be 4.52 per cent which is higher than the previous decade.

The compound growth rate of migrant inflows to Punjab was 3.55 per cent per annum during the period 1981 to 2001. The overall growth rate is higher than the first decade that is 1981 to 1991 compared with the 1991 to 2001. This implies that the migrant flow to Punjab was higher in the decade of 1991 to 2001 than that of the 1981 to 1991. However, the similar trends can also be seen from table 3.1 so far as the growth rates of migrants coming from other important states are concerned.

The perusal of table 3.1 reveals an important fact that the compound rate of growth of migrant inflows from Bihar was the highest compared to other states. There was a sharp rise in the migrant inflows from Bihar state to Punjab. When we compare the structure of migrant inflows, Haryana tops in the year 1981 with 31.74 per cent migrants recorded in Punjab were from Haryana. Uttar Pradesh with 28.18 per cent of the migrant inflows to Punjab was ranked number two. Himachal Pradesh and Rajasthan ranked number 3 and 4 recorded migrant inflows shares 14.37 and 11.76 per cent respectively. Bihar state comes at number 5 so far as migrant inflow proportion in 1981 is concerned. The eight important states in terms of migrant inflows together covered nearly 90 per cent of migrant inflows to Punjab. The analysis of the changing structure of migrant inflows presented in table 3.1 clearly shows that Uttar Pradesh has emerged as the most important state that sends migrants to Punjab. This is contrary to the widely held belief that the majority migrants inflows are from Bihar (Singh, 2006). However, the proportion of Bihar migrants in total migrants from other states to Punjab has sharply increased and Bihar is now ranked at number 3rd in 2001 and improved its rank from 5th in 1981. On the whole, the higher growth rate than the average of all states of India was recorded by four states, that is, Bihar, West Bengal, Madhya Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh during the period 1991 to 2001. The relative shares of migrant inflows in Punjab from these four states improved, but the share of migrants declined for rest of the states included in the analysis.

Punjab

wth rates of migration inflows to urban Punjab from rest of the states are presented in table 3.2. The perusal of the table 3.2 reveals that the highest proportion of migrant inflows in the year 1981 was from Uttar Pradesh. The share of Uttar Pradesh was 38.02 per cent among the eight states. Haryana, Himachal Pradesh and Rajasthan occupied 2nd, 3rd and 4th position in terms of migrant inflows to urban Punjab in the year 1981. Bihar state having its share of urban migrants only 6.41 per cent in 1981 and was ranked number 5th. However, the average annual growth rates for the two decade period under consideration clearly shows that the migrant inflows to urban Punjab took place from Bihar has grown at a fast rate. West Bengal, Uttar Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh have recorded higher annual compound growth rates compared with the overall average of all the states.

Table 3.2: Structure and trends of urban migration in Punjab: 1981-2001

Year / State	1981	1991	2001	Growth rate (per cent per annum)		
				1981-91	1991-01	1981-01
Bihar	26039 (06.41)	58348 (10.88)	184992 (19.42)	8.40	12.23	10.30
Haryana	101607 (24.99)	117582 (21.92)	162931 (17.10)	1.47	3.32	2.39
Himachal Pradesh	58719 (14.44)	70812 (13.20)	93063 (09.77)	1.89	2.77	2.33
Rajasthan	38092 (09.37)	45603 (08.50)	59632 (06.26)	1.82	2.72	2.27
Uttar Pradesh	154568 (38.02)	206480 (38.49)	381625 (40.05)	2.94	6.39	4.62
Madhya Pradesh	6125 (01.51)	9537 (01.78)	16749 (01.76)	4.53	5.79	5.16
West Bengal	6297 (01.55)	10255 (01.91)	30553 (03.21)	5.00	11.53	8.22
Jammu & Kashmir	15092 (3.71)	17822 (03.32)	23265 (02.44)	1.68	2.70	2.19
Total	406539	536439	952810	2.81	5.91	4.35

Source: As in table 3.1.
Note: Figures in parentheses are percentages.

The structure of migrant inflows has changed dramatically during the period 1981 to 2001. Uttar Pradesh not only retained its first position rather improved its share in urban migrants. It is important to note that nearly 40 per cent of the urban Punjab migrants just came from the state of Uttar Pradesh as per the census of 1991.

largest so far as migrant inflows to urban areas of Punjab Himachal Pradesh relegated to third and fourth position.

The West Bengal state has improved its relative position from 1.55 per cent in 1981 to 3.21 per cent in 2001 and recorded 8.22 per cent per annum growth rate between the period 1981 and 2001. The growth rate of migrant inflows from West Bengal to urban areas of Punjab is comparable to Bihar during the period 1991 to 2001.

Rural Migration in Punjab

Rural economy of Punjab received 4,04,657 persons from other states of India in the year 1981. Rural migrants registered increasing trend between the period 1981 and 1991. However, the rate of growth was 2.08 per cent during the same period. Rural migrants registered fast growth between the period 1991 and 2001 and the growth rate was nearly 3 per cent per annum. Among the eight states, which cover nearly 93 per cent of the total rural inflow of migration from other states, have been selected for analysis. Haryana occupies first position from where largest migrants came from. The proportion of migrants from Haryana was 39.06 per cent in 1981 which increased 40.10 per cent in 1991 and dwindled to 32.13 per cent in 2001. It is important to note here that Haryana state occupied rank one during the period of analysis. The rate of growth of migrant inflows from Haryana to rural Punjab was more than 2 per cent during the period 1981-1991 which was higher than overall as well as of the eight states average growth rate. However, the growth rate of migrant inflows declined to nearly one per cent during the period 1991 to 2001. This increase was lower than overall growth rate as well as of the eight states average growth rate.

The total number of migrants which came to rural areas of Punjab from rural areas of Uttar Pradesh was of the order of 65,648 in the year 1981. The proportion comes out to be 17.51 per cent. According to the proportion of migrants, Uttar Pradesh was ranked number two among the eight important states under consideration. The rate of growth of migrants from Uttar Pradesh to rural areas of Punjab was nearly one per cent during the period 1981 to 1991 which was below the overall as well as combined eight states growth rate. Therefore, the proportion of migrants declined to 16.41 per cent in 1991 (table 3.3).

There was sharp rise in the growth rate of migrants from Uttar Pradesh to rural areas of Punjab during the period 1991 to 2001 which was 6.62 per cent per annum. Therefore, the relative share of Uttar Pradesh dramatically improved to 21.93 per cent

entage point shift. Rajasthan and Himachal Pradesh the year 1981 lost to the state of Bihar where the rate of growth was very high during both the decades. Bihar rose to the 3rd position in the year 2001 so far as relative shares of migrant inflows to rural areas of Punjab are concerned. Another important source which has been sending substantial number of migrants to rural Punjab was the state of Jammu and Kashmir. However, the rate of growth of migrants from J&K remained slightly below average of other states. Thus, the relative share of migrants from Jammu and Kashmir declined marginally in 2001 compared with 1981 and 1991. The growth rate of migrant inflows from West Bengal to rural areas of Punjab was 2.30 per cent per annum between 1981 and 1991. This growth rate dramatically increased during the period 1991 to 2001 and was of the order of 6.24 per cent per annum. The structure of rural migrants from other states remained quite stable except that the relative share of Bihar improved dramatically. Rural to rural migration from other states to Punjab has increased during the period of analysis but the growth was slow compared with the migrant inflows to urban areas of Punjab.

Table 3.3: Structure and tends in rural migration in Punjab: 1981-2001

Year / State	1981	1991	2001	Growth rate (per cent per annum)		
				1981-91	1991-01	1981-01
Bihar	24196 (06.45)	32375 (07.19)	82417 (13.32)	2.95	9.79	6.32
Haryana	146436 (39.06)	180519 (40.10)	198935 (32.15)	2.11	0.97	1.54
Himachal Pradesh	53570 (14.29)	65322 (14.51)	72095 (11.65)	2.00	0.99	1.50
Rajasthan	53787 (14.35)	65250 (14.49)	76536 (12.37)	1.95	1.61	1.78
Uttar Pradesh	65648 (17.51)	738701 (16.41)	135726 (21.93)	1.19	6.62	3.70
Madhya Pradesh	9431 (02.52)	6181 (01.37)	13810 (02.23)	-4.14	8.37	1.92
West Bengal	6673 (01.78)	8380 (01.86)	15349 (02.48)	2.30	6.24	4.25
Jammu & Kashmir	15131 (04.04)	18286 (04.07)	24084 (03.87)	1.91	2.79	2.35
Total of eight states	374872 (92.64)	450182 (90.52)	618852 (93.13)	1.85	3.23	2.54
Total Punjab	404657 (100.00)	497312 (100.00)	664468 (100.00)	2.08	2.94	2.51

Source: As in table 3.1.

ır in Rural Punjab

The pattern of migrant inflows in rural economy of Punjab as ascertained from 36 sampled villages is presented in table 3.4. The analysis of the table 3.4 reveals that there are two types of migrant workers working in the agrarian economy of Punjab. One, the workers engaged in regular kind of activities being done by agriculture households and enter into a contract for one year or beyond are called attached or regular workers. Two, the workers hired by the farm households during the peak season, that is, harvesting and sowing are called casual workers. The highly developed villages of Punjab hire major proportion of both types of migrant workers, that is, regular and casual. The hiring pattern of casual workers across village development levels clearly shows that level of development of village and hiring practices are positively correlated. This pattern also holds true across farm size classes. Region wise distribution of regular/attached migrant workers and casual migrant workers brings out the fact that more than 75 per cent of migrant workers work in *Malwa* region. *Majha* region attracted more than 16 per cent of the migrant workers both regular and casual. The migration inflows in rural areas of *Doaba* region are quite low.

On the basis of inflows of migrant workers in the 36 villages of Punjab, we have estimated total number of migrants from other states to rural Punjab and the same are presented in table 3.5. Total estimated number of migrant workers working in rural areas of Punjab comes out to be 8,19,254 persons. This is 23.04 per cent of the agricultural workforce engaged in the agriculture sector activities. It comes out to be 58.35 per cent of the rural agricultural labour in Punjab. The casual migrant workers working in agriculture sector of Punjab were 6,95,615 persons. The casual or seasonal migrant workers alone come out to be 19.57 per cent of the total agricultural workers of Punjab. Their proportion in rural agriculture labour comes out to be 49.54 per cent. The higher migrant inflows were recorded in *Malwa* region of Punjab.

ched and casual labour in sampled villages across the velopment levels in Punjab

		Number of attached labourers		Number of casual labourers	
Village development levels		Total	Per village	Total	Per village
1.	Low	146	12.17	618	51.50
2.	Medium	80	6.67	793	66.08
3.	High	162	13.50	841	70.08
Total		**388**		**2252**	
Size of Holdings		Total	Per operational holding	Total	Per operational holding
1.	Upto 2.5	13	0.03	51	0.10
2.	2.5-5.0	101	0.18	305	0.55
3.	5.0-10.0	99	0.17	455	0.79
4.	10.0-15.0	51	0.22	343	1.48
5.	15 and above	124	0.40	1095	3.54
Total		**388**		**2252**	
Regions		Total	Per village	Total	Per village
1.	*Majha*	62	6.89	375	41.67
2.	*Doaba*	33	5.50	117	19.50
3.	*Malwa*	293	13.95	1760	83.81
Total		**388**	**10.78**	**2252**	**62.56**

Source: Field survey.

This region has hosted 6,01,944 persons both regular and causal. *Majha* region is ranked 2nd as far as the migration inflows are concerned. The total number of migrant workers which came to *Majha* region were 1,32,236 persons in the survey year. The proportion of the estimated number of migrant workers of *Majha* region comes out to be more than 16 per cent. The incidence of casual migrant inflows of workers is quite low in the *Doaba* region. The proportion of regular migrant workers hired by the *Doaba* region was 15.14 per cent of the total estimated number of regular/attached migrant workers. This proportion is nearly equivalent to the *Majha* region. The perusal of the table 3.5 shows that the high degree of concentration of migration inflows in the *Malwa* region. This is because of the fact that the size of villages, farm size and geographical area is large. Therefore, the inflows of migrant workers are also higher.

of migrant workers across the regions in Rural Punjab

Regions \ workers	Regular/attached workers in numbers	Casual/seasonal workers in numbers
Majha	19.019 (15.38)	1,13,217 (16.28)
Doaba	18,716 (15.14)	66,358 (09.54)
Malwa	85904 (69.48)	5,16,040 (74.18)
Total	1,23,639 (100.00)	6,95,615 (100.00)

Note: Figures in parentheses are percentages.

The estimates of number of migrant workers are based on the actual data collected from 36 sampled villages spread over to 12 districts of Punjab. From the actual number of migrant workers, we have derived the average number of migrant workers employed in a village in each region of Punjab. This derived average, then was multiplied with the total number of villages of each region to arrive at the estimated number of total migrant workers employed in Punjab. It needs to be mentioned here that the mechanization, new variety of seeds and use of herbicides have squeezed the peak period of employment of farm labour in Punjab.

Our study shows that peak season employment of casual labour in a year is at the maximum between 50 to 75 days, across the operational holdings. More than 90 per cent of the casual workers can only get employment upto 50 days in rural Punjab. Another study (Rangi, Sidhu and Singh, 2001) also shows nearly the same results. The study of the migrant workers from other states of India is being continuously reduced due to the shrinkage of the peak period work in rural Punjab. This fact needs to be taken care of when one views the implications of the influx of migrant farm labour in Punjab.

To conclude, traditionally, the state of Uttar Pradesh has been the single largest supplier of migrant labour to Punjab but keeping in view the pace, the Bihar is going to be the future one. There are significant spatial variations in the nature and quantum of this migrant labour to Punjab. As regards the composition of migrant agriculture labour in Punjab, the proportion of casual and seasonal labour is very high.

CHAPTER 4

LTURAL LABOUR IN RURAL PUNJAB

As mentioned earlier, the migration of human resources is a natural manifestation of economic development. The process of economic transformation is considered socially beneficial because human resources can be shifted from low paid economic activities to rapidly growing economic activities where marginal product is higher. In the context of heavy influx of migrant labour to Punjab, there is a need of the time to analyze the living condition of local labour also.

This chapter dwells on the general profile of 900 local agricultural labourers, selected at random from 36 villages, spread over 12 blocks in 12 districts of Punjab. Out of 900 sampled labourers 225, 150 and 525 are from ó*Majha*ô, ó*Doaba*ô and ó*Malwa*ô regions of Punjab, respectively. The percentage share of sampled labourers from ó*Majha*ô, ó*Doaba*ô and ó*Malwa*ô regions is, 25, 16.67 and 58.33 per cent, respectively. The rationale for varying proportion of labourers from the three regions is given in Chapter 1.

As regards the villages they have been classified as low, medium and high developed selected from each of the blocks. Since there are equal number of villages (12 in each category) the distribution of labourers is equal (300 in each category) in every category of village.

Table 4.1: Region-wise and development level-wise classification of sampled local labourers in sampled villages in Punjab

Group/Sub Group	Total	Region			Development Level of Village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
Casual	726 (80.67)	201 (89.33)	129 (86.00)	396 (75.43)	254 (84.67)	246 (82.00)	226 (75.34)
Attached	174 (19.33)	24 (10.77)	21 (14.00)	129 (24.57)	46 (15.33)	54 (18.00)	74 (24.66)
Number	900 (100.00)	225 (100.00)	150 (100.00)	525 (100.00)	300 (100.00)	300 (100.00)	300 (100.00)

Source: Field survey.
Note: The source of all the following tables is in this chapter is also field survey.

Further, there are 726 casual labourers and 174 attached labourers in the sample. Accordingly, the share of casual and attached labourers in the total sample is 80.67 and 19.33 per cent, respectively. The share of casual and attached labourers in *Majha* is 89.33 and 10.77 per cent, respectively. The corresponding share in *Doaba*

The proportion of casual and attached labour in *Malwa* cent, respectively. Thus, there are wide variations in the nature of hired labour amongst all the three regions of Punjab. The casualization of labour is highest in Majha and lowest in Malwa. Though the proportion of casual labour is quite high in Malwa, as compared to the attached labour, yet the proportion of attached labour is quite high as compared to the other two regions. One may attribute the tradition of attached labour in Malwa to the relatively large holdings and/or to the low level of socio-economic development.

As compared to the regions, the share of casual labour is highest (84.61 per cent) in low developed and lowest (75.33 per cent) in high developed villages. And the share of attached labour is lowest (15.33 per cent) in low developed villages and highest (24.67 per cent) in high developed villages. It may seem to be contradicting the conclusion drawn in the case of regions. This may not be so taking into account the fact that the low, medium and high developed villages belong to the low, medium and high developed blocks.

While collecting information about local agricultural labourers in Punjab, we also inquired about their housing status. Table 4.2 shows that 98.33 per cent labourers have their own house across the regions. Inter-regional variation is negligible. Only 1.67 per cent labourers are living in hired houses. It is significant to note that no rural labourer is living without roof on his head. As regards house ownership status, more than 98 per cent labourers own the houses across the low, medium and high developed villages. There is almost negligible variation with regard to ownership of house across the various levels of development.

As regards the type of house, 87.56 per cent labourers, out of all the 900 sampled labourers, have semi-pacca (Brick and Mud) houses, 5.55 per cent have pacca (Bricked) houses and 6.89 per cent have kacha (Mud) houses. It is interesting to note that in *Malwa* the percentage share of labourers having pacca houses is highest (8.00 per cent) among all the three regions. At the same time, the proportion of labourers, having kacha houses, is also highest (7.81 per cent) in *Malwa*. Clearly the proportion of labourers, having semi-pacca houses, is lowest (84.19 per cent) in *Malwa*.

As regards the type of house in low, medium and high developed villages the variation is nearly on expected lines. The only exception is in the case of semi-pacca

the high developed villages have the lowest proportion ouses. Compared to it, the labourers in high developed villages have the highest proportion (8.67 per cent) of pacca houses and lowest proportion (6.33 per cent) of kacha houses. The labourers in the medium developed villages have the lowest proportion (2.33 per cent) of pacca houses. However, 90.33 per cent of such labourers have semi-pacca houses. On the whole, we may say that there is no significant variation in the ownership of kacha houses across the various levels of development. However, the variation in the case of pacca houses between the medium and high developed villages seems to be significant. Nevertheless, the labourers in Punjab own the house across the regions and across the levels of development.

Table 4.2: Classification of sampled local labourers in terms of ownership status and type of house in sampled villages across the region and development levels in Punjab

Group/Sub Group		Total	Region			Development Level of Village		
			Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
House ownership	Owned	885 (98.33)	221 (98.22)	148 (98.67)	516 (98.29)	294 (98.00)	296 (98.67)	295 (98.33)
	Hired	15 (1.67)	4 (1.78)	2 (1.33)	9 (1.71)	6 (2.00)	4 (1.33)	5 (1.67)
House Type	Kacha	62 (6.89)	16 (7.11)	5 (3.33)	41 (7.81)	21 (7.00)	22 (7.33)	19 (6.33)
	Semi Pacca	788 (87.56)	205 (91.11)	141 (94.00)	442 (84.19)	262 (87.33)	271 (90.33)	255 (85.00)
	Pacca	50 (5.55)	4 (1.78)	4 (2.67)	42 (8.00)	17 (5.67)	7 (2.33)	26 (8.67)
Total		900 (100.00)	225 (100.00)	150 (100.00)	525 (100.00)	300 (100.00)	300 (100.00)	300 (100.00)

Table 4.3 highlights the household assets of the local agricultural labourers in Punjab. All the labourers have beds and utensils, across the regions and levels of development. It has, however, been observed that the quality of beds and utensils varies across the development level of villages. In the case of cycles, the ownership ratio is quite high. Out of all the 900 labourers, 95.56 per cent own the cycles. The respective proportion in *Majha*, *Doaba* and *Malwa* is 98.22, 96.67 and 94.10 per cent, respectively. The corresponding proportion in high, medium and low developed villages/blocks is 96.67, 94.67 and 95.33 per cent, respectively.

As regards scooter/motor cycle, only 2.44 per cent labourers have scooter/ motorcycle among the sampled labourers. Across the regions, the ratio varied

iha to 3.33 per cent in *Doaba*. From amongst the low, ed villages only 0.33 per cent labourers have the scooter/motorcycle in medium developed villages. It has been observed, that only those labourers have the scooter/motorcycle that use it as a necessity. The extremely low proportion of labourers having scooters is largely due to non-affordability.

Nearly 95 per cent sampled labourers own one fan. A very thin proportion of them own the second fan. *Malwa* has the lowest proportion (93.52 per cent) of labourers with fans whereas *Majha* and *Doaba* have almost the same proportion in this regard. As regards the ownership of fan across the various levels of development, the lowest proportion (93.52 per cent) is in high developed villages. It is something strange. This is a crude indicator that level of development has not helped 7 per cent of labourers in the developed villages to own a fan. Nevertheless, fan has become a necessity of labourers in Punjab, largely because of extreme hot weather for well over five months. Not even a single sampled labourer in Punjab owns cooler. This again is due to the non-affordability of the labourers.

The television penetration is higher than the radio, as is evident from table 4.3. About 50 per cent of labourers own television. Compared to it, only 32.44 per cent labourers own radio. Across the regions, 68 per cent of labourers in *Doaba*, followed by *Majha* (48.00 per cent) and *Malwa* (45.52 per cent), have television. The corresponding proportion of labourers having radio is 46.67, 30.67 and 29.14 per cent, respectively. The variation across the development level of villages is, however, not that wide. It is interesting to note that proportion of labourers having television in low and high developed villages is almost the same. Compared to it, the proportion of radio owners in low developed villages is higher than the high developed villages. Interestingly the proportion of labourers having television and radio is lowest in medium developed villages. Across the regions, *Malwa* has the lowest penetration of television and radio among the labourers.

About 97 per cent of the labourers do not have refrigerators. Across the regions 10.67 per cent labourers have refrigerators in *Doaba* where as the proportion is less than 2 per cent in other regions. Interestingly the proportion of labourers having refrigerators is slightly higher in *Malwa* than that in *Majha*. Amongst low, medium and high developed villages, the proportion of labourers varies between 3 to

ed villages the highest and medium developed villages

Table 4.3: Classification of sampled local labourers of ownership of household assets in sampled villages across the region and development levels in Punjab

Assets	Total	Region			Development Level of Village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
Bed etc.	900 (100.00)	225 (100.00)	150 (100.00)	525 (100.00)	300 (100.00)	300 (100.00)	300 (100.00)
Utensils	900 (100.00)	225 (100.00)	150 (100.00)	525 (100.00)	300 (100.00)	300 (100.00)	300 (100.00)
Cycle	860 (95.56)	221 (98.22)	145 (96.67)	494 (94.10)	286 (95.33)	284 (94.67)	290 (96.67)
Scooter/ Motor Cycle	22 (2.44)	4 (1.78)	5 (3.33)	13 (2.48)	10 (3.33)	1 (0.33)	11 (3.67)
Fan	854 (94.89)	218 (96.89)	145 (96.57)	491 (93.52)	291 (97.00)	284 (94.67)	279 (93.52)
Air Cooler	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil
Television	449 (49.89)	108 (48.00)	102 (68.00)	239 (45.52)	158 (52.67)	131 (43.67)	160 (53.33)
Radio	292 (32.44)	69 (30.67)	70 (46.67)	153 (29.14)	114 (38.00)	75 (25.00)	103 (34.33)
Refrigerator	31 (3.44)	4 (1.78)	16 (10.67)	11 (2.10)	10 (3.33)	9 (3.00)	12 (4.00)
Cooking gas	84 (9.33)	18 (8.00)	26 (17.33)	40 (7.62)	37 (12.33)	26 (8.67)	21 (7.00)
Phone/ Mobile	126 (14.00)	33 (14.67)	38 (25.33)	55 (10.48)	50 (16.67)	31 (10.33)	45 (15.00)
Almirah/ Peti	841 (93.44)	205 (91.11)	140 (93.33)	496 (94.48)	287 (95.67)	278 (92.67)	276 (92.00)
Clothings	781 (86.71)	180 (80.00)	138 (92.00)	463 (88.19)	264 (88.00)	268 (89.33)	249 (83.00)
Livestock	352 (39.11)	83 (36.89)	66 (44.00)	203 (38.67)	128 (42.67)	98 (32.67)	126 (42.00)

Note: Figures in brackets indicate percentage share.

As is also clear form table 4.3, little more than 9 per cent labourers have cooking gas connection. This means nearly 91 per cent labourers still use wood and cow-dung for cooking. Across the regions, *Doaba* labourers have the highest (17.33 per cent) proportion in terms of gas connections. As per the level of development, the labourers in low developed villages have the highest proportion (12.33 per cent) and the high developed villages have the lowest proportion (7 per cent).

As regards the penetration of phones (both land line and mobile) 14 per cent of labourers own phones. This proportion is highest in *Doaba* (25.33 per cent), followed by *Majha* (14.67 per cent) and *Malwa* (10.48 per cent). Astonishingly, the proportion of labourers having phones in low developed villages is highest (16.67 per cent) followed by high and medium developed villages, respectively. It shows that level of

nant of ownership of phones in the case of labourers. It e labourers in *Doaba* have the highest proportion of televisions, radio, refrigerators, gas connections and phones. Such a phenomenon may be attributed to relatively higher out-migration to foreign countries from the region.

As regards owning of almirah/ôPetiô, a little more than 93 per cent labourers own almirah. The difference is not very high across the regions and across the development level of villages. It is however, important to note that nearly 13 per cent of the labourers do not have adequate clothing, particularly winter clothing. Astonishingly, *Majha* is the worst in this regard where 20 per cent labourers lack sufficient quantity of clothing. Amongst the low, medium and high developed villages, nearly 11 per cent in medium, 12 per cent in low and 17 per cent labourers in high developed villages do not have adequate quantity of clothing. It is very important revelation of the study, as it is often understood that poor people in Punjab have a sufficient quantity of clothing.

Approximately 39 per cent of the labourers rear live stock (mainly milch animals) to meet their demand for milk and to supplement the family income. The proportion is highest (44 per cent) in *Doaba* followed by *Malwa* and *Majha*. Across the levels of development, it is 42 to 43 per cent in high and low developed villages and 33 per cent in medium developed villages.

Table 4.4: Classification of sampled local labourers in terms of drinking water in sampled villages across the region and development levels in Punjab

Source	Total	Region			Development Level of Village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
Tap Water	605 (67.22)	124 (55.11)	116 (77.33)	365 (69.53)	199 (66.34)	201 (67.00)	205 (68.34)
Owned Pump	257 (28.56)	97 (43.11)	34 (22.67)	126 (24.00)	85 (28.33)	88 (29.33)	84 (28.00)
Neighbourer	29 (3.32)	4 (1.78)	-	25 (4.76)	15 (5.00)	4 (1.33)	10 (3.33)
Well	3 (0.33)	-	-	3 (0.57)	-	2 (0.67)	1 (0.33)
Miscellaneous	6 (0.67)	-	-	6 (1.14)	1 (0.33)	5 (1.67)	-

Note: Figures in brackets indicate percentage share.

Table 4.4 presents labourersô access to drinking water in rural Punjab. Out of the 900 sampled labourers, two-third has the access to tap-water. Another 28.56 per cent own hand-pumps and 3 per cent use well-water. It means nearly one-third do not

gion wise 77.33 per cent, 69.53 per cent and 55.11 per *lwa* and *Majha*, respectively have access to tap water. Accordingly the proportion of labourers using owned pump water is highest (43.11 per cent) in *Majha*. One of the reasons for this may be that the quality of ground water in *Majha* is relatively better than the other two regions. In terms of development level, the access to tap water does not indicate any significant difference. Accordingly, the access to water from owned pumps is almost the same across the various levels of development. It is clear from the foregoing discussion that access to tap water is quite high in Punjab.

Hence, regional specificity and economic determinants are associated with recruitment of local attached labour in Punjab. Across the state, about four-fifth of the local agricultural labourers are casual. Local labour prefers its own house; no matter it is *kacha* or *semi-pacca*. Almost all have the basic necessities like beds, utensils, cloths, fan and cycle but majority are deprived of necessities like radio, television, scooter, motorcycle, air cooler, refrigerator, cooking gas, etc. The problem of drinking water is not visible.

CHAPTER 5

RUCTURE OF LOCAL CASUAL LABOUR IN RURAL PUNJAB

In all, there were 726 casual labourers in a total of 900 sampled local labourers. Table 5.1 highlights the sectoral employment of local casual labourers in the sampled villages and across the regions. The 28.92 per cent labourers were employed in agriculture and 40.50 per cent in non-agricultural activities. The remaining 30.58 per cent were working both in agricultural and non-agricultural activities.

Table 5.1: Sectoral Distribution of sampled local casual labourers in sampled villages across the regions and development levels in Punjab

Group/ Sub Group	Total	Region			Development Level of Village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
Agriculture	210 (28.92)	84 (41.79)	22 (17.05)	104 (26.26)	65 (25.59)	62 (25.20)	83 (36.72)
Non-agriculture	294 (40.50)	77 (38.31)	51 (39.54)	166 (41.92)	110 (43.31)	96 (39.03)	88 (38.94)
Both Agriculture & Non-agriculture	222 (30.58)	40 (19.90)	56 (43.41)	126 (31.82)	79 (31.10)	88 (35.77)	55 (24.34)
Total	726 (100.00)	201 (100.00)	129 (100.00)	396 (100.00)	254 (100.00)	246 (100.00)	226 (100.00)

Note: Figures in brackets indicate percentage share.

The intra-regional sectoral composition shows that *Majha* has the highest proportion (41.79 per cent) in agriculture followed by *Malwa* (26.26 per cent) and *Doaba* (17.05 per cent). As regards non-agricultural activities, the highest proportion (41.92 per cent) is in *Malwa* followed by 39.54 per cent in *Doaba* and 38.31 per cent in *Majha*. In the case of labourers working both in agricultural and non-agricultural activities, the highest proportion (43.41 per cent) is in *Doaba*, followed by 31.82 per cent in *Malwa* and 19.90 per cent in *Majha*.

It is clear from the foregoing discussion that a sizeable proportion of local casual labourers in rural Punjab are either not able to find sufficient amount of work in agriculture or they are not willing to work in agriculture. About two fifth of these workers are earning their livelihood in non-agricultural activities. Such a proportion is significantly high in *Doaba* region followed by *Malwa*. Another explanation for low proportion of local labourers in agriculture may be due to the significant presence of migrant workers in the agriculture sector in Punjab.

ution of casual labourers in sampled villages working in village in Punjab

Groups	Agriculture	Non-Agriculture	Both Agriculture and Non-Agriculture	Total
In the Village	208 (99.05) [44.07]	72 (24.49) [15.25]	192 (86.49) [40.68]	472 (65.01) [100]
Out Side the Village	02 (0.95) [0.79]	222 (75.51) [87.40]	30 (13.51) [11.81]	254 (34.99) [100]
Total	210 (28.92)	294 (40.50)	222 (30.58)	726 (100.00)

Note: Figures in lower and upper brackets indicates column-wise and row-wise percentage share, respectively.

It is also interesting to note (table 5.1) that in high developed villages the proportion of agricultural labourers is significantly higher as compared to low and medium developed villages. The proportion is 36.72, 25.59 and 25.20 per cent, in high, low and medium developed villages, respectively. One may like to construe from this that the higher level of development has not generated additional employment opportunities in non-agricultural sectors. In fact, the proportion of labourers in non-agricultural sectors is highest (43.31 per cent) in low developed villages. As compared to it, it is near 39 per cent in medium and high developed villages. As regards the proportion of labourers in both agricultural and non-agricultural activities it was highest (35.77 per cent) in medium developed villages followed by the low and high developed villages. The location of the villages, across the regions and levels of development do affect the proportion of labour across the sectors.

The low proportion of local labourers in agriculture shows that they are trying to find employment opportunities outside their village. Table 5.2 highlights that nearly 35 per cent local casual labourers are going out of their village in search of work. The remaining 65 per cent, though work in the village, too, are not working in agriculture alone. About 41 per cent (192 out of 472) of them are earning their livelihood both from agriculture and non-agriculture. Out of total 472 labourers working in the village, 44 per cent were in agriculture. Another 15.25 were in non-agricultural activities. As regards the sectoral composition of labourers, working outside the village less than one per cent were in agriculture. More than 87 per cent

ities and about 12 per cent were both in agricultural and

Within agriculture, less than one per cent labourers were working outside the village. Compared to it, 99 per cent were working in the village only. Thus, those who work in agriculture only, they are more interested to work in the village itself. In the case of non-agricultural activities, only 24.49 per cent were working in the village and 75.51 per cent were working outside the village. Thus, three-fourth workers, engaged in non-agricultural activities alone, were working outside their village. As regards the labourers engaged both in agricultural and non-agricultural activities, 86.49 per cent were working in the village and the remaining 13.51 per cent were working outside the village.

It is clear from the foregoing discussion that a sizeable proportion of labourers (nearly two-third; on the assumption that of those working both in agriculture and non-agriculture, are employed 50 per cent of their time in agriculture alone), working in the village, are absorbed in agriculture. On the same assumption, the proportion of labourers, working outside the village, in non-agricultural activities comes out to be about 93 per cent. Thus, the rural labourers who are going outside the village (due to push factor of agriculture or due to pull factor of non-agricultural sector) prefer to work only in non-agricultural activities.

Table 5.3, depicts the classification of labourers, as per number of days, in agricultural and non-agricultural activities. A very high proportion (63.48 per cent) of labourers working in agriculture finds work only between 8 to 10 days in a month. Another 36.57 per cent find work between 10 to 20 days per month. This means the availability of work in agriculture is quite low.

Across the regions, 82.05 per cent labourers are working only between 8 to 10 days per month in agriculture in *Doaba*. The corresponding proportion is 69.56 per cent in *Malwa* and 40.32 per cent in *Majha*. However, 59.68 per cent agricultural labourers in *Majha* are working for 10-20 days per month. Such a proportion in the other two regions is quite low.

are of sampled local casual labourers employed in d non-agricultural activities in sampled villages across l development levels in Punjab

Groups	No. of Days per month	Total	Region			Development Level of Village		
			Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
Agriculture	8-10	63.43	40.32	82.05	69.56	73.61	64.00	52.17
	10-20	36.57	59.68	17.95	30.44	26.39	35.33	47.83
Non-Agriculture	8-10	37.99	35.04	48.60	35.27	37.04	36.96	40.56
	10-20	56.78	55.56	42.06	62.67	55.55	58.15	56.64
	20+	15.23	9.40	9.34	2.56	7.41	4.89	2.80

Note: The absolute number of labourers is given in the appendix 5.1 A.

A majority of agricultural labourers in low, medium and high developed villages has been working only between 8 to 10 days per month in agriculture. The proportion is highest (73.61 per cent) in low developed villages and lowest (52.17 per cent) in high developed villages. Contrary to it, the corresponding proportion of labourers working in agriculture between 10 to 20 days per moth is highest (47.83 per cent) in high developed villages and lowest (26.39 per cent) in low developed villages.

Compared to agriculture, majority of labourers find work from 10 to 20 days in a month in non-agricultural activities, as is evident from table 5.3. Interestingly 15.23 per cent labourers are working for more than 20 days a month in non-agricultural activities. About 57 per cent labourers are working between 10 to 20 days per month, in all the sampled villages, in non-agricultural activities. The corresponding proportions across the regions are 55.56 per cent in *Majha*, 42.06 per cent in *Doaba* and 62.67 per cent in *Malwa*. The proportion of labourers working for more than 20 days in a month is around 9 per cent in *Majha* and *Doaba* and a mere 2.56 per cent in *Malwa*. Interestingly, *Malwa* (known as predominantly agrarian region) has a very high proportion of labourers working for more than 10 days per month in non-agricultural activities.

As regards the proportion of labourers, working in non-agricultural activities between 10 to 20 days per month, in low, medium and high developed villages, it ranges from 55 to 58 per cent. The proportion of labourers in non-agricultural

ays per month varies from 37 to 40 per cent across the oped villages. It means the availability of work in non-agricultural activities is not very sensitive to the level of development in rural Punjab.

Table 5.4 presents the distribution of casual labourers, in terms of availability of work, in agriculture, non-agriculture and both in agriculture, non-agricultural sectors. Out of all the labourers, working for 8 to 10 days, 56.78 per cent are in agriculture. Compared to it, the proportion of such labourers in non-agriculture are 18.64 per cent whereas 24.58 per cent labourers working partly in agriculture and non-agriculture are in this work range.

The proportion of labourers, in the working range of 10 to 20 days, in agriculture and non-agriculture is 24.57 per cent and 42.68 per cent, respectively. The proportion of such workers, working partly in agriculture and partly in non-agricultural activities is 32.75 per cent. As regards work availability for more than 20 days, only 5.88 per cent labourers are in agriculture. The proportion of such labourers in non-agricultural activities is 79.41 per cent. The remaining 14.71 per cent labourers in this category are partly working in agriculture and party in non-agricultural activities.

Table 5.4: Sectoral distribution of casual labourers in terms of availability of work in sampled villages in Punjab

Groups	No. of days per month			
	8-10	10-20	20+	Total
Agriculture	67 (56.78) [31.91]	141 (24.57) [67.14]	02 (5.88) [0.95]	210
Non-Agriculture	22 (18.64) [7.48]	245 (42.68) [83.33]	27 (79.41) [9.19]	294
Both Agriculture and Non-Agricultural	29 (24.58) [13.06]	188 (32.75) [84.69]	05 (14.71) [2.25]	222
Total	118 [16.26]	574 [79.06]	34 [4.68]	726 (100.00)

Note: Figures in lower and upper brackets indicates column-wise and row-wise percentage share, respectively.

Out of all the 210 labourers in agriculture, nearly 32 per cent work for 8-10 days per month. Another 67.14 per cent work for 10-20 days per month. A less than one per cent labourers work for more than 20 days per month. The corresponding proportion of labourers in non-agricultural activities is 7.48, 83.33 and 9.19 per cent,

he labourers, working both in agriculture and non-spective proportion is 13.06, 84.69 and 2.25 per cent. Clearly, the majority of labourers, across all the activities, work for 10 to 20 days a month. Out of all the 726 casual labourers only 4.68 per cent work for more than 20 days and 16.26 per cent work for less than 10 days per month. The remaining 79 per cent work for 10 to 20 days per month.

Table 5.5, displays the overall availability of work for casual labourers, across the regions and levels of development. Out of all the 726 sampled casual labourers about 79 per cent find work from 10 to 20 days in a month. About 16 per cent work for 8-10 days and another 5 per cent work for more than 20 days a month. The non-availability of work for a good number of days in a month yields an adverse affect on their monthly earnings.

Across the regions, 84.08 per cent labourers in *Majha* work for 10-20 days in an agriculture in a month. The corresponding proportion of workers in *Malwa* and *Doaba* regions are 78.28 per cent and 73.64 per cent, respectively. Approximately one-fifth labourers in these two regions work for 8 to 10 days in a month. The proportion of workers who work for more than 20 days per month is around 8 per cent in *Majha* and *Doaba* and just 2 per cent in *Malwa*.

Table 5.5: Percentage share of sampled local casual labourers in terms of availability of work in sampled villages across the regions and development levels in Punjab

No of days/ month	Total	Region			Development Level of Village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
8-10	16.26	7.96	18.60	19.70	17.32	11.38	20.35
10-20	79.06	84.08	73.64	78.28	75.98	84.15	76.99
20+	4.68	7.96	7.76	2.02	6.69	4.47	2.65
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Note: The absolute number is given in the appendix 5.2 A.

As regards the availability of work is concerned across the low, medium and high developed villages, between 76 and 84 per cent workers have work for 10 to 20 days in a month. About one-fifth workers in high developed villages work just for 8 to 10 days per month. Here again the high level of development has not very favourable effect on the availability of work.

nge of working hours in day, across the agricultural and hin agriculture, 59.05 per cent labourers work for 7 to 8 hours per day, 28.10 per cent work for 5 to 7 hours a day and about 12.85 per cent work for 8 to 10 hours a day. In non-agricultural sectors 70.07 per cent labourers work for 7 to 8 hours per day, where as 17.35 and 12.58 per cent workers work for 5 to 7 and 8 to 10 hours, respectively, in a day. Out of those who work both in agricultural and non-agricultural activities, 56.31 per cent work for 7 to 8 hours a day, 32.88 pr cent for 5 to 7 hours and 10.81 per cent work for 8 to 10 hours a day. Thus, the highest proportion of labourers who work for 7 to 8 hours a day is in non-agricultural sectors. However, across the sectors, 62.27 per cent labourers work for 7 to 8 hours per day and 25.21 pr cent work for 5 to 7 hours per day. Only 12.12 per cent workers work for more than 8 hours a day.

Out of all the 726 casual labourers about 31 per cent in agriculture, 42 per cent in non-agriculture and 27 per cent in both the sectors, work for 8-10 hours a day. The corresponding proportion of workers who work for 7 to 8 hours a day is 27.25, 45.27 and 27.47 per cent, respectively. As compared to it, 32.24, 27.87 and 39.90 per cent workers, respectively, work for 5 to 7 hours in a day across the various sectors. Thus, the proportion of labourers who work for more than 8 hours a day, within the same sector is between 11 to 13 per cent.

Table 5.6: Percentage share of sampled local casual labourers in agricultural and non-agricultural activities, as per working hours, in sampled villages in Punjab

Sector	Working Hours(per day)			
	Total	5-7	7-8	8-10
Agricultural	100.00 (28.93)	28.10 (32.24)	59.05 (27.25)	12.85 (30.68)
Non-agricultural	100.00 (40.50)	17.35 (27.87)	70.07 (45.27)	12.58 (42.05)
Both Agri. & Non-Agri.	100.00 (30.57)	32.88 (39.90)	56.31 (27.47)	10.81 (27.27)
Total	100.00 (100.00)	25.21 (100.00)	62.27 (100.00)	12.12 (100.00)

Note: 1. Figures in brackets indicate column-wise percentage share.
2. The absolute number is given in the appendix 5.3 A.

The working hours of casual labourers across the three regions and three levels of development are given in table 5.7. Approximately 63 per cent labourers work for 7 to 8 hours per day whereas 25 per cent and 12 per cent labourers work for 5 to 7 per

y. As regards intra-region scenario of working hours it thin *Majha* 29.85, 59.20 and 10.95 per cent labourers, work, respectively, for 5 to 7, 7 to 8 and 8 to 10 hours a day. The corresponding proportion of labourers in *Doaba* is 33.33, 51.17 and 15.50 per cent, respectively. In *Malwa*, 20.20, 68.18 and 11.62 per cent labourers, respectively, work for 5 to 7, 7 to 8 and 8 to 10 hours per day. Thus, intra-region variation in terms of working hours is substantial in *Malwa* as compared to other regions. The figures in brackets (table 5.7) depict inter-regional variation in working hours across the regions. The proportion of workers in each range of working hours is higher in *Malwa* as compared to other two regions. This, however, is due to large sample size in *Malwa* region.

Table 5.7 also presents variation in working hours within and between the various levels of development. Within the category of low developed villages nearly 67 per cent labourers work for 7 to 8 hours per day. The corresponding proportion in medium and high developed villages is around 60 per cent. The proportion of labourers working for 5 to 7 hours in low, medium and high developed villages is 23.62, 24.80 and 27.43 per cent, respectively. The corresponding proportion of labourers in the range of 8 to 10 hours is 9.45, 15.04 and 11.95 per cent, respectively. Thus, within the region, the variation in working hours is wider in low developed villages as compared to medium and high developed villages.

Table 5.7: Percentage share of sampled local casual labourers in terms of working hours in sampled villages across the regions and development levels in Punjab

Working Hours per Day	Total	Region			Development Level of Villages		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
5-7	25.21	29.85	33.33	20.20	23.62	24.80	27.43
7-8	62.67	59.20	51.17	68.18	66.93	60.16	60.62
8-10	12.12	10.95	15.50	11.62	9.45	15.04	11.95
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Note: The absolute number is given in the appendix 5.4 A.

All the casual labourers are not working in the villages. The field survey revealed that only 35 per cent labourers are working in their respective villages. The remaining 65 per cent go out of the village for employment (table 5.8). It indicates that a very large proportion of local rural labourers are working out of the villages.

Majha has the highest proportion (73.63 per cent) of villages. The respective share in the case of *Doaba* and *Malwa* is 63.57 and 61.11 per cent, respectively. Clearly, the labourers in *Majha* are more mobile; whatever may be the reasons, than their counterparts in *Doaba* and *Malwa*.

Amongst low, medium and high developed villages, the proportion of labourers, working out of the village, is highest (68.50 per cent) in low developed villages. It is followed by high developed villages (65.49 per cent) and medium developed villages (60.98 per cent). One may like to conclude that low level of development pushes the labourers for working out of the village. However, inter-development level, variation does not seem to be very significant.

Table 5.8: Percentage share of sampled local casual labourers working out of the village in sampled villages across the regions and development levels in Punjab

Work Out	Total	Region			Development Level of Village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
No	34.99	26.37	36.43	38.89	34.50	39.02	34.51
Yes	65.01	73.63	63.57	61.11	68.50	60.98	65.49
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Note: The absolute number is given in the appendix 5.5 A.

The reasons for working out of the village, as given by the labourers, are presented in table 5.9. Out of all the 472 labourers 63.78 per cent labourers go out for work because of higher wage rate. Nearly 23 per cent stated that they go out due to non-availability of work in the village. ñBetter working conditionsò is the reason stated by the remaining 13.39 per cent labourers. Thus, the most important reason for working out of the village is the higher wage rate.

ñThe higher wage rateò to be the reason for working outside the village, is more prominent in *Majha* followed by *Doaba* and *Malwa* as is evident from table 5.9. A little more than 77 per cent labourers in *Majha* go out of the village mainly because of higher wage rate. The corresponding proportion in *Doaba* and *Malwa* is 63.83 and 59.09 per cent, respectively. With regard to non-availability of work *Malwa* is at the top with 29.22 per cent labourers stating this as the reason for going out of the village. The proportion of such labourers in *Doaba* and *Majha* is, respectively, 10.64 and 15.09 per cent. The labourers in *Doaba* region are more responsive to the better

portion of labourers in this respect in *Majha*, *Doaba* and and 11.69 per cent, respectively.

Table 5.9: Percentage share of sampled local casual labourers in terms of causes for working out of the village, in sampled villages across the regions and development levels in Punjab

Cause	Total	Region			Development Level of Village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
Higher wage rate	63.78	77.36	63.83	59.09	58.75	61.46	71.79
Non-availability of work	22.83	15.09	10.64	29.22	27.50	23.96	16.67
Better working conditions	13.39	7.55	25.53	11.69	13.75	14.58	11.54
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Note: The absolute number is given in the appendix 5.6 A.

It is astonishing to note that the proportion of labourers, going out of the village for high wage rate is highest (71.79 per cent) in high developed villages. It is followed by medium and low developed villages with 61.46 and 58.75 per cent, respectively.

It is, thus, clear that level of development in the rural area has a high positive correlation with wage-differential in and outside the village. As regards non-availability of work, the proportion is highest (27.50 per cent) in low developed villages followed by medium developed villages (23.96 per cent) and high developed villages (16.67 per cent). Clearly, level of development has a positive bearing on the availability of work in the rural area. As regards better working conditions, this reason does not weigh very high across the low, medium and high developed villages. In other words, there is no clear cut indication with regard to correlation between the level of development and the better working conditions as a reason for going out for work.

The labourers use various modes of travelling to reach their work place, as is displayed in table 5.10. The labourers going out for working in agriculture use only bus as the mode of travelling. However, the labourers in the non-agricultural activities use cycle, bus and rickshaw for travelling. Those who partly work in agriculture as well as in non-agricultural activities travel by cycle and bus.

Out of the 224 labourers, travelling by cycle, nearly 88 per cent go in for non-agricultural activities. The remaining 12 per cent work in agriculture as well as non-

f 17 labourers, travelling by bus, more than 71 per cent ties. Thirteen labourers use rickshaw for travelling as well as for earning livelihood.

Table 5.10: Sector-wise mode of travelling out distance travelled by casual labourers in sampled villages working outside the village in Punjab

Groups	Total	Mode of Travelling			Distance Travelled (Kms., both way)		
		Cycle	Bus	Rickshaw	2-8	8-12	12-16
Agriculture	02	_	02 (11.76) [100.00]	_	_	01 (0.82) [50.00]	01 (0.96) [50.00]
Non-Agriculture	222	197 (87.95) [88.74]	12 (70.59) [5.41]	13 (100.00) [5.85]	24 (85.71) [10.81]	110 (90.16) [49.55]	88 (84.62) [39.64]
Both Agriculture and Non-Agricultural	30	27 (12.05) [90.00]	03 (17.65) [10.00]	_	04 (14.29) [13.33]	11 (9.01) [36.67]	15 (14.42) [50.00]
Total	254	224 (88.19)	17 (6.69)	13 (5.12)	28 (11.02)	122 (48.03)	104 (40.95)

Note: Figures in lower and upper brackets indicates column-wise and row-wise percentage share, respectively.

Within non-agricultural activities, 88.74 per cent use cycle, 5.41 per cent bus and 5.85 per cent rickshaw. Out of those who are partly working in agricultural and non-agricultural activities, 90 per cent use cycles. Thus, the popular mode of travelling within and across the sectors is cycle. Out of all, the 254 workers 88 per cent use cycles. This is largely so because cycle is the cheapest mode of travelling as it has negligible recurring cost. And more so, the labourers do not travel a long distance for going to work.

The distance travelled by such workers ranged from 2 to 16 kilometers. Out of all the workers, travelling between 2 to 8 kms, nearly 86 per cent work in non-agricultural sectors. Similarly, about 90 per cent workers, travelling 8-12 kms, are in non-agricultural activities. Nearly 85 per cent, travelling 12-16 kms, are also in non-agricultural sectors. Within the non-agricultural activities, nearly 50 per cent labourers travel from 8 to 12 kms. And about 40 per cent travel from 12 to 16 kms, daily.

Table 5.11 presents the classification of labourers in terms of distance travelled by them for going out for work. About 48 per cent labourers have to travel 8 to 12 kms and nearly 41 per cent travel from 12 to 16 kms, daily. Only 11 per cent

o go to their work outside the village. *Malwa* has the rs (52.6 per cent) in the range of 12 to 16 kms. The proportion of labourers, travelling this distance, in *Majha* and *Doaba* regions is 28.30 and 17.02 per cent, respectively. Compared to it, 68 to 70 per cent of labourers in *Majha* and *Doaba* travel 8-12 kms to reach their work place. It is interesting to note that less than 2 per cent labourers in *Majha* travel up to 8 kms. This means most of the labourers in *Majha* have to travel more than 4 kms, a day.

Table 5.11: Percentage share of sampled local casual labourers in terms of distance travelled while going for work out of the village, in sampled villages across the regions and development levels in Punjab

Distance (Km)	Total	Region			Development Level of Village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
2-8	11.02	1.89	14.89	12.99	5.00	12.50	15.39
8-12	48.03	69.81	68.09	34.41	62.50	43.75	38.46
12-16	40.95	28.30	17.02	52.60	32.50	43.75	46.15
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Note: The absolute number is given in the appendix 5.7 A.

As regards the level of development, 62.50 per cent (highest) labourers in low developed villages travel from 8-12 kms. The corresponding proportion of labourers in medium and high developed villages is 43.75 and 38.46 per cent, respectively. The proportion of labourers, travelling between 12 to 16 kms, is ranging from 32.50 per cent in low and 46.15 per cent in high developed villages. In the lowest range of distance travelled, the proportion of labourers is lowest in low developed villages and highest in high developed villages.

Thus, on an average, 89 per cent labourers have to travel between 8 to 16 kms, daily (to and fro) for their work. Such a proportion of labourers in *Majha*, *Doaba* and *Malwa* regions are 98 per cent, 85 per cent and 87 per cent respectively. The corresponding proportion of labourers in low, medium and high developed villages is 95 per cent, 87 per cent and 85 per cent respectively. In other words, a very high proportion has to devote an hour or two daily to travelling.

Though, from the foregoing discussion, it is clear that the usual mode of conveyance is cycle, yet it will be appropriate to analyse this aspect across the regions and levels of development. This has been highlighted in table 5.12. Across the regions, nearly 90 per cent labourers in *Malwa*, 87 per cent in *Doaba* and 85 per cent

to their work. The proportion of rickshaw owners is it is about 11 per cent in other two regions.

It is interesting to note that the proportion of labourers using cycle as mode of conveyance is the highest (94.88 per cent) in high developed villages and lowest (76.25 per cent) in low developed villages. Thus, owning of cycle and travelling by cycle has a positive correlation with the level of development. Interestingly, a relatively high proportion of labourers in low developed villages travel by bus. The proportion of labourers earning their livelihood by running rickshaw is also higher in low developed villages compared to medium and high developed regions.

Table 5.12: Percentage share of sampled local casual labourers in terms of mode of convergence while going for work out of the village, in sampled villages across the regions and development levels in Punjab

Mode of Travelling	Total	Region			Development Level of Village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
Cycle	88.19	84.91	87.23	89.61	76.25	92.71	94.88
Bus	6.69	3.77	2.13	3.09	10.00	7.29	2.56
Rikshaw (owned)	5.12	11.32	10.64	7.30	13.75	-	2.56
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Note: The absolute number is given in the appendix 5.8 A.

Though a very large majority of casual labourers do not get any snacks/meals from the employer yet some of them do get some snacks/meals, as is evident from table 5.13. About 25 per cent casual labourers across the regions and levels of development do get snacks/meals along with cash wages. In *Doaba* and *Majha* 32 to 34 per cent labourers fall in this category and in *Malwa* there are only 18.18 per cent such labourers. In the low, medium and high developed villages, the proportion of such labourers is 33.46, 21.95 and 18.14 per cent, respectively. It seems to be a natural behaviour pattern since movement from low to high developed regions discourages serving meals to the labourers. The emerging trend is largely for cash wages.

of sampled local casual labourers in terms of ith and without meals in sampled villages across the velopment levels in Punjab

Employment without meal	Total	Region			Development Level of Village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
Yes	546 (75.21)	137 (68.16)	85 (65.89)	324 (81.82)	169 (66.54)	192 (78.05)	185 (81.86)
No	180 (24.79)	64 (31.84)	44 (34.11)	72 (18.18)	85 (33.46)	54 (21.95)	41 (18.14)

Note: Figures in brackets indicate percentage share.

Hence to sum up, a sizeable proportion of labourers get work only between eight to ten days in a month in agriculture. Eight hours working day is emerging standard and very few works for more than it. The non-agriculture sector outside the village is picking up and labour prefers to commute daily for it. Cycle is the only mode of transportation with masses to commute to work place. Better working conditions and higher wage rate are the incentives for this movement.

Appendix to tables

mpled local casual labourers employed in agricultural and non-agricultural activities, in terms of days, in sampled villages across the regions and development levels in Punjab

Groups	No. Days per month	Total	Region			Development Level of Village		
			Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
Agriculture	8-10	274	50	64	160	106	96	72
	10-20	158	74	14	70	38	53	66
	Total	432	124	78	230	144	150	138
Non-Agriculture	Up to 10	196	41	52	103	70	68	58
	10-20	293	65	45	183	105	107	81
	20+	27	11	10	6	14	9	4
	Total	516	117	107	292	189	184	143

Note: Totals in agriculture and non-agriculture will not tally with table 5.2 as the labourers working in both the activities are including both in agriculture and non-agriculture.

Table 5.2 (A): Work availability to sampled local casual labourers in sampled villages across the regions and development levels in Punjab

No of days/ month	Total	Region			Development Level of Village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
8-10	118	16	24	78	44	28	46
10-20	574	169	95	310	193	207	174
20+	34	16	10	8	17	11	6
Total	726	201	129	396	254	246	226

Table 5.3 (A): Sectoral distribution of sampled local casual labourers in agricultural and non-agricultural activities as per working hours in Punjab

Sector	Working Hours(per day)			
	Total	5-7	7-8	8-10
Agricultural	210	59	124	27
Non-agricultural	294	51	206	37
Both Agri. & Non-Agri.	222	73	125	24
Total	726	183	455	88

s of sampled local casual labourers in sampled villages
ons and development levels in Punjab

Hours (per Day)		Region			Development Level of Villages		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
5-7	183	60	43	80	60	61	62
7-8	455	119	66	270	170	148	137
8-10	88	22	20	46	24	37	27
Total	726	201	129	396	254	246	226

Table 5.5 (A): Number of sampled local casual labourers working out of the village in sampled villages across the regions and development levels in Punjab

	Total	Region			Development Level of Village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
Yes	254	53	47	154	80	96	78
No	472	148	82	242	174	150	148
Total	726	201	129	396	254	246	226

Table 5.6 (A): Classification of sampled local casual labourers in terms of causes for working out of the village, in sampled villages across the regions and development levels in Punjab

Cause	Total	Region			Development Level of Village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
Higher wage rate	162	41	30	91	47	59	56
Non-availability of work	58	8	5	45	22	23	13
Better working conditions	34	4	12	18	11	14	9
Total	254	53	47	154	80	96	78

Table 5.7 (A): Distance travelled by sampled local casual labourers while going for work out of the village, in sampled villages across the regions and development levels in Punjab

Distance (Km)	Total	Region			Development Level of Village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
2-8	28	1	7	20	4	12	12
8-12	122	37	32	53	50	42	30
12-16	104	15	8	81	26	42	36
Total	254	53	47	154	80	96	78

lling by sampled local casual labourers while going for ne village, in sampled villages across the regions and evels in Punjab

Mode of Travelling	Total	Region			Development Level of Village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
Cycle	224	45	41	138	61	89	74
Bus	17	2	1	14	8	7	2
Rikshaw (owned)	13	6	5	2	11	-	2
Total	254	53	47	154	80	96	78

CHAPTER 6

WAGES, EARNINGS AND EXTENT OF LOCAL CASUAL LABOUR IN RURAL PUNJAB

The wages are by and large the only source of income of casual labourers in rural Punjab. As such the only determinant of their family earnings is the wage rate and the extent of availability of work in a month/year. The employment scenario and availability of work have been discussed in the preceding chapter. Wages, earnings and extent of loan are being discussed in this chapter. In fact, there is a close relationship between wages, earnings and the burden of loan.

Table 6.1 highlights the sectoral and work place wise average wage rate of all the sampled labourers. It is important to note that the average wage of agricultural labourers is lowest (Rs. 73.07 per day). The highest average wage rate (Rs. 95.17 per day) is in non-agricultural sector. Those labourers, who partly work in agriculture and partly in non-agricultural activities, earn Rs. 77.39 per day. Thus, the average wage rate in non-agricultural sector is significantly higher than that in agricultural sector. The variation in wage rate is also highest within the non-agricultural sector.

Table 6.1: Sector-wise and work wise place-wise average wage rate of casual labourers in sampled villages in Punjab

(Rs. per day)

Groups	Sector			Work Place	
	Agriculture	Non-Agriculture	Both Agri. and Non-Agri.	In Village	Out of Village
Average Wage rate	73.07	95.17	77.39	76.22	96.58
C.V.	15.33	21.70	14.72	16.91	20.80

Source: Field survey.
Note: The source of all the following tables in this chapter is also field survey.

By juxtaposing table 6.1 on table 5.1, we can say that 28.92 per cent casual labourers in Punjab earn only Rs. 73 in a day, on an average. Another 40.50 per cent casual labourers earn Rs. 95 per day whereas 30.58 per cent earn Rs. 77.39 per day. A comparative analysis of tables 5.4 and 6.1 would reveal that the monthly wages of 31.91 per cent casual labourers in agriculture are only Rs. 657.63 in a month. Another 67.14 per cent labourers in agriculture earn only Rs. 1096.05 per month. Only 0.95 per cent earns Rs. 1461.40 in a month, on an average. The underlying

ations is that the labourers in each range of working days he class interval.

Analogously, the monthly wages of 7.48, 83.33 and 9.19 per cent labourers in the non-agricultural sector came out to be Rs. 856.53, Rs. 1427.55 and Rs. 1903.40 respectively. Compared to it, the monthly wages of 13.06, 84.69 and 2.25 per cent labourers (working partly in agriculture and partly in non-agricultural sectors) were Rs. 696.51, Rs. 1160.85 and Rs. 1547.80, respectively. It is clear from the foregoing discussion that the monthly wages of agricultural labourers are far less than their counterparts in non-agricultural sectors. As such the majority of local casual labourers prefer to work in non-agricultural activities.

Table 6.1 also highlights the average daily wage rate for labourers working in and outside the village. It is rather revealing that the average wage rate (Rs. 76.22 per day) within the village is significantly less than the average wage rate of Rs. 96.58 outside the village. Clearly, all those workers who are going in for work out of the village are earning much higher monthly wages than those left behind in the village. The variation of wage rate among the workers is, however, much higher outside the village as compared to within the village. In fact, differential wage rate is the single most important reason for in-migration of labour in Punjab.

Table 6.2 presents the range of wage rate in agricultural and non-agricultural sectors. The wage rate varies from as low of Rs. 40 to as high as Rs. 100 across the sectors. Within agriculture, a little more than two-third of labourers are getting a wage rate between Rs. 60 and Rs. 80 per day. It is really very revealing that in a developed state like Punjab about 27 per cent casual labourers are getting wages between Rs. 40 and Rs. 60 per day. Perhaps these labourers are working for lesser number of hours and also getting meals etc. It is clear from table 5.6 and 5.13, in the previous chapter. The proportion of labourers getting wage between Rs. 80 to Rs. 100 is just 4.76 per cent. Only 0.48 per cent labourers in agriculture earn more than Rs. 100 a day.

As compared to agriculture, a high proportion of labourers is getting higher wage rate in non-agricultural sector, as is clear from table 6.2. Approximately two-third labourers in non-agricultural sectors are getting wages between Rs. 80 to Rs. 100 per day. Another 24.15 per cent labourers are getting wages between Rs. 60 to 80 per day. Another 4.76 per cent labourers are getting a wage rate above Rs. 100

in non-agricultural activities as compared to agricultural labourers engaged in both the agricultural and non-agricultural activities, a little less than three-forth are getting wages between Rs. 60-80 per day, on an average. Nearly 15 per cent are in the range of Rs. 40 to Rs. 60 and 12 per cent get between Rs. 80 and Rs. 100. In this category no labourers is getting wages more than Rs. 100 a day.

Table 6.2: Percentage share of sampled local casual labourers in sampled villages in agricultural and non-agricultural activities as per wage rate in Punjab

Sector	Wage rate (Rs., per day)				
	Total	40-60	60-80	80-100	Above 100
Agriculture	100.00 (28.92)	27.14 (53.77)	67.62 (37.87)	4.76 (4.35)	0.48 (6.67)
Non-agriculture	100.00 (40.50)	5.44 (15.09)	24.15 (18.93)	65.65 (83.91)	4.76 (93.33)
Both Agri. & Non-Agri.	100.00 (30.58)	14.86 (31.13)	72.97 (43.20)	12.16 (11.74)	-
Total	100.00 (100.00)	14.60 (100.00)	51.65 (100.00)	31.68 (100.00)	2.07 (100.00)

Note: 1. Figures in brackets indicate column-wise percentage share.
2. The absolute figures are given in appendix 6.1A.

On an average, 14.60 per cent labourers are getting a wage rate between Rs. 40 and Rs. 60 per day, across all the three sectors. About 52 per cent labourers get between Rs. 60 and Rs. 80 per day. Approximately 32 per cent labourers are getting a wage rate between Rs. 80 and Rs. 100 a day. Only 2 per cent labourers get more than Rs. 100 per day.

It is interesting to note that nearly two-third of the casual labourers is getting a wage rate which is less than the minimum daily wage.

Table 6.3 presents the daily average wage rate across the regions and the levels of development. The average wage rate is highest (Rs. 76.12 per day) in *Majha*, followed by Rs. 75.33 and Rs. 61.12 in *Doaba* and *Malwa*. Thus, *Malwa* is much behind the other two regions as far as daily average wage rate is concerned. At the same time, the variation in wage rate is highest in *Malwa*, followed by *Doaba* and *Majha*.

Table 6.3 also makes a paradoxical revelation in the sense that the average wage rate is highest in low developed villages and lowest in high developed villages. The difference is that of Rs. 9.35 per day. It does not seem compatible with the

ion in wage rate is, however, highest in high developed veloped villages.

Table 6.3: Region-wise and Development level-wise average wage rate of casual labourers in sampled villages in Punjab

(Rs. per day)

Groups	Region			Development level		
	Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
Average Wage rate	76.12	75.33	61.12	70.77	69.50	61.42
C.V.	40.67	47.19	62.25	51.36	52.18	60.76

A comparative analysis of tables 6.3 and 5.5 may reveal the proportion of labourers earning various levels of monthly wages among various regions and levels of development. About 8 per cent labourers in *Majha* earn monthly wages of Rs. 685.08. Nearly 84 per cent and 8 per cent labourers, in this region earn monthly wages of Rs. 1141.80 and Rs. 1522.40, respectively. The proportion of labourers, in *Doaba*, having monthly wages of Rs. 677.97, Rs. 1129.96 and Rs. 1506.60 is 18.60, 73.64 and 7.76, respectively. Compared to it, 19.70, 78.28 and 2.02 per cent labourers in *Malwa* have monthly wages of Rs. 550.08, Rs. 916.80 and Rs. 1222.40, respectively.

The comparison of tables 6.3 and 5.5 also brings out that the average monthly wages for labourers in the low, medium and high developed villages. The proportion of labourers in low, medium and high developed regions, having monthly wage rate of Rs. 1061.55, Rs. 1042.50 and Rs. 921.30 is 76, 84 and 77 per cent, respectively. It implies that a significant majority of labourers in low developed villages are getting a higher monthly wage rate compared to high developed villages.

The wage rate across the regions and levels of development has been highlighted in table 6.4. In *Majha* region around 8 per cent labourers are receiving a wage rate between Rs. 40 to 60. The proportion of labourers earning between Rs. 60-80 and Rs. 80-100 is 55 per cent and 36 per cent, respectively. Only one per cent labourers are getting a wage rate above Rs. 100.

Compared to it, nearly 10 per cent labourers are getting a wage rate between Rs. 40-60 per day in *Doaba*. The proportion of labourers in the wage rate range of Rs. 60-80 and Rs. 80-100 is 50.39 and 37.21 per cent, respectively. The proportion of labourers receiving a wage rate above Rs. 100 is 2.33 per cent.

ent labourers are getting average wage rate between Rs. d 28 per cent labourers get a wage rate between Rs. 60-80 and Rs. 80-100, respectively. The proportion of labourers getting a wage rate above Rs. 100 is only 2.53 per cent.

An inter-regional comparison, thus, shows that the proportion of labourers in the lowest wage group is highest in *Malwa* and lowest in *Doaba*. In the next higher range of wages, *Majha* has the highest proportion of labourers whereas *Doaba* and *Malwa* are very near to each other. Still in the next higher wage group, it is *Doaba* which has the highest proportion of labourers followed by *Majha* and *Malwa*. Contrary to it, *Malwa* has the highest proportion of labourers getting wages above Rs. 100. The proportion of labourers getting a wage rate above Rs. 80 a day is the highest (39.54 per cent) in *Doaba*, followed by *Majha* (36.82 per cent) and *Malwa* (30.31 per cent). Compared to it, the proportion of labourers getting a wage rate less than Rs. 80 is highest (72.51 per cent) in *Malwa*, followed by *Majha* (63.18 per cent) and *Doaba* (60.47 per cent). The relative position of labourers is better in *Doaba* compared to *Majha* and *Malwa*. Relatively higher out-migration of workers may be one of the plausible explanations for this.

Table 6.4: Percentage share of sampled local casual labourers in terms of wage rate in sampled villages across the regions and development levels in Punjab

Wage rate (Rs., per Day)	Total	Region			Development Level of Village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
40-60	14.60	7.96	10.08	19.44	18.90	10.98	13.72
60-80	51.65	55.22	50.39	50.25	46.06	54.07	55.31
80-100	31.68	35.82	37.21	27.78	31.50	32.93	30.53
100+	2.07	1.00	2.33	2.53	3.54	2.03	0.44
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Note: 1. Figures in brackets indicate row-wise percentage share.
2. The absolute figures are given in appendix 6.2 A.

The variation in wage rate within and across the low, medium and high developed villages is also presented in table 6.4. Within the low developed villages, the proportion of labourers is highest (46.06 per cent) in the wage range of Rs. 60-80,

bourers in the wage range of Rs. 80-100. The proportion nd highest range of wages is 18.90 and 3.54 per cent, respectively. Thus, in low developed villages 65.56 per cent labourers get less than Rs. 80 per day.

The proportion of labourers getting wages between Rs. 60-80 in medium and high developed villages is 54.07 and 55.31 per cent, respectively. The corresponding proportion in the range of Rs. 80-100 is 32.93 and 30.53 per cent, respectively. Only 2.03 and 0.44 per cent labourers, respectively, are getting wages above Rs. 100 a day. About 11 per cent labourers in medium and nearly 14 per cent labourers in high developed villages get a wage rate between Rs. 40-60.

It is interesting to note that the proportion of labourers getting wage above Rs. 80 is equal (about 35 per cent) in low and medium developed villages. Compared to it, this proportion is 31 per cent in high developed villages. It means in the range of higher wages the variation rate in wage is neutral to level of development. Almost similar are the results in the wages below Rs. 80. The proportion of labourers getting wage below Rs. 80 are 64.96, 65.05 and 69.03 per cent, respectively, in low, medium and high developed villages. It is astonishing to note that the proportion of labourers getting wages below Rs. 80 is highest in the high developed villages. It does not go well along the development theory. One of the plausible explanations for such a scenario may be the lesser working hours and the participation of child labour.

It is clear from the foregoing analysis of intra- and inter-levels of development that wages are not strictly determined by the development level of villages. The wage rate may be lower in high developed villages and higher in low developed villages.

Table 6.5 presents sectoral distribution of labourers in terms of total family earnings. The family earnings range from as low as Rs. 500 per month to Rs. 1500 per month. Amongst all the 726 casual labourers, 27.13 per cent labourers have family income between Rs. 500 and Rs. 100 pr month. The proportion of labourers in the range of Rs. 100 to 1500 is 40.50 per cent. Only 32.37 per cent labourers have family income above Rs. 1500 per month.

The sectoral distribution of labourers, having family income between Rs. 500-1000 is, respectively, 55.33 per cent in agriculture, 14.21 per cent in non-agricultural sectors. Another 30.46 per cent labourers are earning their livelihood both from agricultural and non-agricultural activities also fall in this range of family earnings.

ntage share of sampled casual labourers according to rnings in sampled villages in Punjab

	al	Agriculture	Non-agriculture	Both
500-1000	27.13 (100.00)	51.91 (55.33)	9.52 (14.21)	27.03 (30.46)
1000-1500	40.50 (100.00)	38.57 (27.55)	32.65 (32.65)	52.70 (39.80)
1500+	32.37 (100.00)	9.52 (8.51)	57.83 (72.34)	20.27 (19.15)

Note: 1. Figures in brackets indicate row-wise percentage share.
2. Absolute figures are given in appendix 6.3 A.

The proportion of labourers, having family earnings between Rs. 1000-1500, across the sectors (agriculture, non-agriculture and both) is 27.55, 32.65 and 39.80 per cent, respectively. As regards the proportion of labourers, in the highest range of family earnings, it is highest (72.34 per cent) in non-agricultural sectors, followed by earnings from both agricultural and non-agricultural sectors. The proportion of labourers in agriculture in this range is just 8.51 per cent. Clearly the earnings in the non-agricultural sectors are higher than that in the agricultural sector. This is mainly because of this reason that local rural labourers in Punjab are seeking employment outside agriculture. It is significant to note that the proportion of agricultural labourers in Punjab declined from 30.70 per cent in 1991 to 22 per cent in 2001 (Census 1991, 2001).

Within agriculture, nearly 52 per cent labourers have family income below Rs. 1000 per month. Another 38.57 per cent have between Rs. 1000-1500 as family earnings per month. Only 9.52 per cent labourers have family earnings above Rs. 1500 per month. Clearly, majority of labourers in agriculture end up with a very low level of family income. It is very significant to note that 94.76 per cent labourersô monthly wages are below Rs. 960 per month (table 6.2). It is further important to note that there is wide variation in family earnings with the agricultural sector.

With non-agriculture sectors, the proportion of labourers is highest (57.83 per cent) in the highest range of family earnings. The corresponding proportion of labourers in the lowest and medium range is 9.52 per cent and 32.65 per cent, respectively. The variation in the family earnings here is also very wide. It is interesting to note that nearly 70 per cent labourers in the non-agricultural sector have monthly wages of more than Rs. 980 per month (table 6.2). The family earnings have

e wage rate and availability of employment since the ricultural labourers largely consist of wage-income.

As regards, labourers engaged both in agriculture and non-agricultural activities, nearly 53 per cent labourers have family earnings in the range of Rs. 1000-1500 per month. The variation in wages in these activities is also significantly visible. It is interesting to note (table 6.2) that the monthly wages of nearly 88 per cent labourers, working both in agriculture and non-agriculture, are less than Rs. 980 per month. In other words, only 12 per cent labourersô monthly wages are above Rs. 980 per month. Compared to it, the proportion of labourers having family earnings more than Rs. 1000 is 72.97 per cent. This means the other family members of such labourers do supplement the family income in significant manner.

Table 6.5 also makes another significant revelation that 27.13 per cent labourersô families have an annual income below Rs. 12000, which is very low by any standards. Per day family income of such labourers comes out to be Rs. 32.88. For a family of five persons it comes out to be Rs. 6.59 per day. This is far below Rs. 12 a day. As per a recent National Report (Govt. of India, 2007), 77 per cent of Indian population is below Rs. 12 a day. This proportion becomes all the more significant if we add labourersô families whose annual earnings range between Rs. 12000 to Rs. 18000. Together, nearly 68 per cent labourer families end up with family earnings up to Rs. 18000 per annum. This means 68 per cent labourer families have less than Rs. 10 per capita per day. This is very disappointing situation in a prosperous state like Punjab.

After discussing the sectoral shares in family income, it would be appropriate to analyse the size of family income across the regions and levels of development. Table 6.6 presents this scenario. The inter-regional analysis shows that about 17 per cent families in *Majha* have monthly earnings below Rs. 1000. The corresponding proportions in *Doaba* and *Malwa* are 27.13 and 32.32 per cent, respectively. This means the labourer families in *Majha* are relatively better-off than the other two regions. As regards the monthly income between Rs. 1000-1500, the proportion of families is almost the same, as is evident from table 6.6. However, *Majha* is better placed than the other two regions as far as the highest income bracket is concerned. Approximately 42 per cent families in *Majha* have monthly income above Rs. 1500

uch families in *Doaba* and *Malwa* are about 32 and 28

The foregoing discussion, thus, reveals that the labourers, in terms of family income, in *Majha* region are better off than *Doaba* and *Malwa*. The difference seems to be more pronounced in the higher income range, as is clear from table 6.6. Given the large size of labourers in the sample from *Malwa* region (396 from *Malwa* and 201 from *Majha*) the difference becomes rather perceptible.

Table 6.6: Percentage share of sampled local casual labourers as per total family earnings, in sampled villages across the regions and development levels in Punjab

Earnings (Rs., per month)	Total	Region			Development level of village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
500-1000	27.13	16.92	27.13	32.32	31.89	18.70	30.97
1000-1500	40.50	41.29	41.09	39.90	31.50	44.31	46.46
1500+	32.37	41.97	31.78	27.78	36.61	36.99	22.57

Note: Absolute figures are given in appendix 6.4 A.

The inter-regional analysis highlights that only nearly 42 per cent families in *Majha* have an annual income more than Rs. 18,000. The remaining 58 per cent families have annual income below Rs. 18,000. The corresponding proportions in *Doaba* and *Malwa* regions are nearly 32 and 28 per cent, respectively. However, family earnings in these two regions are less skewed than that in *Malwa*. A simple juxtaposing of table 6.6 on table 6.4, reveals that other family members of the labourers also supplement the family earnings across the regions. Table 6.4 reveals that about 98 per cent labourersô annual wages are only up to Rs. 12,000.

The analysis of intra- and inter-levels of development also presents wide variations in family income of labourers (table 6.6). Across the three levels of development the proportion of labourers whose monthly income is between Rs. 500-1000 ranges between 19 per cent (medium developed villages) and 32 per cent (low developed villages). The proportion of labourers in this range of family income is about 31 per cent in high developed villages. Clearly, the level of development does not make any significant difference, as far as the family earnings in the lowest bracket are concerned. The only exception is medium level of development.

In the family earnings, range of Rs. 1000-1500, the proportion so labourers in the low, medium and high developed villages are 31.50, 44.31 and 46.46 per cent,

evelopment on family earnings is clearly visible in this he situation is almost contrary in the family earnings above Rs. 1500. The proportion of labourers, from low and medium developed villages, is almost the same (37 per cent) in this bracket. Compared to it, the proportion is just 22.57 per cent in high developed villages. One may like to construe that level of development has a negative correlation with family earnings beyond a certain income level. Though it is paradoxical situation it is not compatible with theory. One may further like to construe that the proportionate increase in the earnings of labour families is lower than the proportionate increase in growth rate.

As a result of low wages and low family earnings, a little more than 70 per cent of casual labourers are under loan, ranging from Rs. 1000 to above Rs. 20,000 (table 6.7). In other words, nearly 30 per cent labourers have not taken any loan. About 58 per cent labourers have raised loan between Rs. 1000 to Rs. 10,000. Another 10.47 per cent are under loan from Rs. 10,000 to Rs. 20,000. There are only 2.48 per cent labourers who are under loan of more than Rs. 20,000.

The proportion of labourers without any loan in agriculture, non-agricultural activities and in both these activities is 10.28, 55.61 and 34.11 per cent, respectively. Within agriculture 10.48 per cent labourers are without loan. The corresponding proportion of labourers within non-agricultural sector and within agricultural and non-agriculture is 40.48 per cent and 32.88 per cent, respectively. Thus, the proportion of labourers without loan, both inter- and intra-sectoral is highest in non-agricultural sector. This may be because of higher wages and higher family earnings in this sector as compared to other sectors.

A little more than three-fourth labourers within agriculture are under loan up to Rs. 10,000. Compare to it, 44.90 per cent labourers within non-agricultural sector are in this range of loan. The proportion of those labourers, who partly work in both agricultural and non-agricultural sectors, in this range of loan is 56.31 per cent. In the loan range of Rs. 10,000 to 20,000 the intra-sector proportion of labourers under loan is 10.48, 11.22 and 9.46 per cent, respectively. The inter-sector proportion of labourers, in this range, is 28.95, 43.42 and 27.63 per cent, respectively.

ntage share properties of local casual labourers under d villages in Punjab

Amount of Loan (Rs. ó000)	Labourers in			
	Agriculture	Non-Agriculture	Both Agriculture and Non-Agricultural	Total
Nil	22 (10.48) [10.28]	119 (40.48) [55.61]	73 (32.88) [34.11]	214 (29.48) [100]
1-10	161 (76.66) [38.52]	132 (44.90) [31.58]	125 (56.31) [29.90]	418 (57.57) [100]
10.20	22 (10.48) [28.95]	33 (11.22) [43.42]	21 (9.46) [27.63]	76 (10.47) [100]
20+	05 (2.38) [27.78]	10 (3.40) [55.55]	03 (1.35) [16.67]	18 (2.48) [100]
Total	210 (100.00)	294 (100.00)	222 (100.00)	726 (100)

Note: Figures in upper and lower brackets indicates column-wise and row-wise percentage share, respectively.

Again, the intra-sector proportion of labourers, having loan of more than Rs. 20,000, is 2.38 per cent in agriculture, 3.40 in non-agriculture and 1.35 per cent in both in agriculture and non-agriculture. The inter-sectoral proportion of labourers in this range of loan is 27.78, 55.55 and 16.67 per cent, respectively. It is clear form the foregoing discussion that the proportion labourers in the higher range of loan are highest in non-agricultural sector as compared to other two sectors. It may be attributed to relatively high earnings and there by greater repaying capacity in non-agricultural sectors.

The proportion of labourers in different ranges of loan varies from region to region as is evident from table 6.8. For example, 31 per cent labourers in *Malwa* region do not have any loan on them. The corresponding proportions of labourers in *Doaba* and *Majha* are 30.23 and 25.87 per cent, respectively. This means a higher proportion of labourers are under loan in *Majha* region.

About 62 per cent of labourers in *Majha* are under loan up to Rs. 10,000. This proportion for *Doaba* and *Malwa* is 55 and 56 per cent, respectively. *Doaba* has the highest proportion (14 per cent) of labourers with loan between Rs. 10,000-20,000, followed by *Majha* (12.44 per cent) and *Malwa* (8.33 per cent). As compared to it,

a with loan above Rs. 20,000 whereas 4.29 per cent loan above Rs. 20,000. Such a proportion in *Doaba* is just 0.78 per cent.

It is clear form the foregoing discussion that majority of the labourers have under loan between Rs. 10,000 and Rs. 20,000 across the three regions. A simple comparison of the extent of loan and family income (table 6.8 and 6.6, respectively) highlights that 58 pr cent labourers are under loan up to Rs. 20,000 whereas 68 per cent families have annual earnings loess than Rs. 18,000. This means the extent of loan is higher than their annual earnings. This is a situation like debt-trap as their annual income is lower than their debt stock. More so, this loan is largely for unproductive purposes. Similar results have been brought out by a report compiled by the National Commission for Enterprises in the Unorganized Sector (NEUS). The Commissionôs Report on Conditions of Work and Promotion of Livelihood in the Unorganized Sector (2007), highlights that 84 per cent small and marginal farmers in India are caught in debt trap as they spent more than they earned. At the top of it these workers do not have any social security cover. A comparison of the findings of the above mentioned report and our study shows that the casual rural labourers in Punjab are in a better position than the all India average of small and marginal farmers, as far as the debt position is concerned.

Table 6.8: Percentage share of sampled local casual labourers under loan in sampled villages across the regions and development levels in Punjab

Amount of Loan ('000 Rs.)	Total	Region			Development Level of Village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
Nil	29.48	25.87	30.23	31.06	30.31	32.52	25.22
1-10	57.57	61.69	55.04	56.31	53.15	54.07	66.37
10-20	10.39	12.44	13.95	8.33	12.20	11.79	7.08
20+	2.48	-	0.78	4.29	4.33	1.63	1.33

Note: Absolute figures are given in appendix 6.5 A.

The variation in the extent and amount of loan is also noticeable across the three levels of development (table 6.8). The proportion of labourers with no loan is highest (32.52 per cent) in medium developed villages and lowest (25.22 per cent) in high developed villages. Compared to it, the proportion of labourers, with loan up to Rs. 10,000, is highest (66.37 per cent) in high developed villages and lowest (53.15

llages. In the range of loan between Rs. 10,000-20,000, highest (12.20 per cent) in low developed villages and lowest (7.08 per cent) in high developed villages. The pattern is same above Rs. 20,000 also. The proportion of labourers under loan above Rs. 20,000 is highest (4.33 per cent) in low and lowest (1.33 per cent) in high developed villages.

It is clear from above that the proportion of labourers with loan above Rs. 10,000 is highest in low developed villages followed by medium and high developed villages. This means, there is an inverse relationship between the amount and extent of loan on one side and the level of development on the other side.

A comparison of table 6.6 with table 6.8 makes a sense. In the low developed villages 63.39 per cent families have income up to Rs. 18,000 per annum whereas 65.35 per cent families are under loan up to Rs. 20,000. Similarly, 63 per cent families in medium developed villages have family earnings up to Rs. 18000 whereas 65.86 per cent families are under loan of up to Rs. 20,000. In the case of high developed villages 77.43 per cent families have annual income up to Rs. 18,000 but 73.45 per cent families are under loan up to Rs. 20,000. In addition to that small proportion (ranging from 1.33 to 4.33 per cent) families are under loan above Rs. 20,000. Thus, the comparison of annual family income and the burden of loan, across the three levels of development, also highlight a debt-trap like situation.

The main sources of loan are zamindars, kariana shops (provision stores) and relatives, as is evident from table 6.9. Within agriculture, the most important source of loan is zamindars (landlords) as nearly 63 per cent labourers take loan from them. Kariana shops (provision stores) give goods on short term credit to labourers. The proportion of such labourers is 34 per cent. A very small proportion of labourers (3.19 per cent) take loan from relatives. It is, thus, clear that the labourers entirely depend on non-institutional source of loan. The fact of the matter is that these labourers are either not aware of institutional sources of loan or do not have nay access to such sources.

It is very interesting to note that 72.57 per cent labourers, from the non-agricultural sector, too, take loan from the zamindars. Only about 23 per cent labourers in this sector take loan (in the form of goods on credit) from kariana shops. Similarly, a little more than three-fourth labourers, working partly in agriculture and partly in non-agricultural activities, depend on zamindars for loan.

findings emerge out of the loan scenario. One, a very nt) of casual labourers, not attached to zamindars but working across the sectors, depend on zamindars for loan. Two, about one-fourth labourers purchase goods on credit from kariana shops (mostly located in the village). Three, the dependence of labourers for loan on their relatives is almost negligible. It seems to be a natural phenomenon, as their relatives, being poor, too, have no surplus for credit.

Table: 6.9: Sectoral proportion of casual labourers in terms of sources of loan in sampled villages in Punjab

Sources	Agriculture	Non-Agriculture	Both Agriculture and Non-Agricultural	Total
Zamindar	118 (62.77) [32.96]	127 (72.57) [35.48]	113 (75.84) [31.56]	358 (69.92) [100]
Kariana	64 (34.04) [49.23]	40 (22.86) [30.77]	26 (17.45) [20.00]	130 (25.39) [100]
Relatives	06 (3.19) [25.00]	08 (4.57) [33.33]	10 (6.71) [41.67]	24 (4.69) [100]
Total	188 (100) [36.72]	175 (100) [34.18]	149 (100) [29.10]	512 (100) [100]

Note: Figures in upper and lower brackets indicates column-wise and row-wise percentage share, respectively. In few cases there were more than one sources of loan, but the main source of loan is largely one.

Out of all the 358 labourers taking loan from zamindars, nearly one third is from each sector, as is evident from table 6.9. As regards their dependence on kariana shops, almost half the workers are from agriculture, less than one third from non-agriculture and one fifth from both agriculture and non-agriculture, less than one third from non-agriculture and one fifth from both agriculture and non-agriculture. The proportion of labourers, across the sectors, taking loan from their relatives is highest in combined agriculture and non-agriculture. The distribution of all the 512 labourers, under loan, across the sectors is 36.72, 34.18 and 29.18 per cent, respectively.

Table 6.10 highlights the region-wise and level of development wise sources of loan. Region-wise, *Malwa* ranks at number one as far as the proportion of labourers is concerned in loan from zamindars. With 73.33 per cent share of labourers in this category *Doaba* comes next. The corresponding proportion of labourers in *Majha* is only 52.35 per cent. However, *Majha* has the highest

3 per cent) in the case of loan from kariana shops. The g loan from relatives across the regions, varies from 2.22 per cent in *Doaba* to 5.31 per cent in *Majha*. The interest rate on loan from zamindars is quite high, ranging from 18 to 30 per cent per annum. Similarly, the kariana shop owner charges a relatively high price of commodities sold on credit and if this amount gets accumulated, the shop-owner starts charging a high rate of interest, often at compound interest rate. As such, once a labourer falls in debt, it becomes almost impossible for him to get rid of this problem. His meagre earnings and rising expenditure on consumption and social needs make this problem worse.

It is interesting to note that the proportion labourers taking loan from zamindars are highest (74.58 per cent) in low developed villages. The corresponding proportion in medium and high developed villages is 68.67 and 66.27 per cent, respectively. The position is altogether in the reverse order in the case of kariana shop, as is visible from table 6.10. As regards the proportion of labourers, getting loan from relatives, it is highest (5.65 per cent) in low, followed by medium and high developed villages. This indicates the relatives help, though very meagre, is higher in low developed villages than in high developed villages.

Table 6.10: Percentage share of sampled local casual labourers as per source of loan, in sampled villages across the regions and development levels in Punjab

Source of loan	Total	Region			Development Level of Village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
Zamindar	69.92	52.35	73.33	78.39	74.58	68.67	66.27
Kariana shop	25.39	42.28	24.44	16.48	19.77	25.90	30.77
Relatives	4.69	5.37	2.22	5.13	5.65	5.42	2.96

Note: Absolute figures are given in appendix 6.6 A.

The purpose of loan and the proportion of labourers in each of these purposes, across the sectors, are presented in table 6.11. Broadly, the labourers take loan for four types of purposes. A large majority of labourers (54.49 per cent) use the loan to meet their obligations towards household consumption expenditure. The proportion of labourers who use loan to meet expenditure towards illness, marriage and purchase of live stocks is 21.48, 20.51 and 3.52 per cent, respectively.

The sectoral distribution of labourers under loan presents a different scenario as far as purpose of loan is concerned. Within the sectors, 19.15 per cent labourers in

purpose of marriage of their daughters and sons. The ture is 16.57 per cent. The proportion of labourers, working in both the activities, using loan for marriage is 26.85 per cent. Across the sectors, the proportion of labourers using loan for marriage, is 34.29, 27.62 and 38.09 per cent, respectively. Thus, within and across the sectors, the proportions of labourers using loan for marriage and working both in agriculture and non-agriculture, are highest.

In the case of loan used for meeting household consumption expenditure, within sectors, non-agricultural labourers have the highest proportion (61.71 per cent). Agricultural labourers come next followed by labourers working in both the activities. Across the sectors, too, non-agricultural workers have the highest proportion (38.71 per cent) that spent loan on household needs. The proportion of labourers in this category of loan users is lowest in the third activity (i.e. labourers working both in agriculture and non-agriculture).

Table: 6.11: Sectoral proportion of casual labourers in terms of purpose of loan in sampled villages in Punjab

Purpose	Agriculture	Non-Agriculture	Both Agriculture and Non-Agricultural	Total
Household expenditure	104 (55.32) [37.28]	108 (61.71) [38.71]	67 (44.97) [24.01]	279 (54.49) [100]
Expenditure on illness	42 (22.34) [38.18]	32 (18.29) [29.09]	36 (24.16) [32.73]	110 (21.48) [100]
Purchase of live stock	06 (3.19) [33.33]	06 (3.43) [33.33]	06 (4.03) [33.33	18 (3.52) [100]
Marriage	36 (19.15) [34.29]	29 (16.57) [27.62]	40 (26.85) [38.09]	105 (20.51) [100]
Total	188 (100) [36.72]	175 (100) [34.18]	149 (100) [29.10]	512 (100) [100]

Note: Figures in lower and upper brackets indicates column-wise and row-wise percentage share, respectively.

As regards use of loan to meet expenditure towards illness, within the sectors, the highest proportion (24.16 per cent) of labourers is in the third category of activities. The lowest (18.29 per cent) of labourers is in non-agriculture. Across the sectors, agriculture labourers have the highest proportion (38.18) in this category of

oportion (29.09 per cent) is that of non-agricultural

A very small proportion of labourers (3 to 4 per cent), within the sectors, are using loan to purchase live stock. Across the sectors the proportion of such labourers is exactly equal.

The last row of table 6.11 highlights that out of 512 casual labourers under loan the highest proportion (36.72 per cent) is that of agricultural labourers. The proportion of non-agricultural labourers is 34.18 per cent. The remaining 29 per cent labourers are those who are working partly in agriculture and partly in non-agricultural activities.

Across the regions, the highest proportion of labourers use loan for household expenditure is 59.06 per cent in *Majha*. This is followed by *Doaba* (57.78 per cent) and *Malwa* (50.92 per cent). It is clear from table 6.12 that the proportion of labourers, using loan on treatment of illness, varies from 15.56 per cent in *Doaba* to 24.16 per cent in *Majha*. The proportion of labourers, using loan for marriage expenses, is highest (22.71 per cent) in *Malwa*, *Doaba* and *Majha* comes next (21.11 per cent and 16.11 per cent, respectively) in the descending order. The proportion of labourers using loan to purchase live stock is 5.56 per cent, 4.40 per cent and 0.67 per cent in *Doaba*, *Malwa* and *Majha*, respectively.

In the case of various levels of development, the labourers in high developed villages have the highest proportion (62.13 per cent) who use loan to meet household expenses. This is followed by medium (53.61 per cent) and low developed villages (48.02 per cent) respectively. The proportion of labourers using loan for treatment of illness ranges from 17.75 per cent in high developed villages to 24.29 per cent in low developed villages. Again the proportion of labourers using loan for marriage purposes is highest (24.86 per cent) in low developed villages, followed by medium (20.48 per cent) and high developed (15.98 per cent) villages. The shares of labourers who are using loan to purchase live stock are 2.82, 3.61 and 4.14 per cent, respectively, in low, medium and high developed villages.

re of sampled local casual labourers as per purpose of
d villages across the regions and development levels in

Purpose of loan	Total	Region			Development Level of Village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
Household expend	54.49	59.06	57.78	50.92	48.02	53.61	62.13
Exp. On illness	21.48	24.16	15.56	21.98	24.29	22.19	17.75
Marriage	20.51	16.11	21.11	22.71	24.86	20.48	15.98
Purchase of live stock	3.52	0.67	5.56	4.40	2.82	3.61	4.14

Note: Absolute figures are given in appendix 6.7 A.

It is important too, from the foregoing discussion, that a very high proportion of labourers use loan for meeting household consumption needs and that, too, when the cost of loan is very high. Taking the purchase of live stock as the only productive use of loan, 96.48 per cent labourers make unproductive use of loan. Such a proportion is highest (99.33 per cent) in *Majha* followed by 95.60 per cent in *Malwa* and 94.44 per cent in *Doaba* regions, respectively. It is, again, very interesting phenomenon that the proportion of labourers making unproductive use of loan is highest (97.18 per cent) in low developed villages. The proportion of such labourers declines with the increasing level of development. However, the difference is not significant. The proportion of such labourers in medium and high developed villages is 96.39 and 95.86 per cent, respectively. Enormously high proportion of labourers in the unproductive use of loan is a serious phenomenon. Though the reason behind it is largely their low earnings yet they will not be able to come out of this trap unless serious measures are taken at the policy level.

Appendix to tables

ɔution of sampled local casual labourers in agricultural and non-agricultural activities, as per wage rate in sampled villages in Punjab

Sector	Wage rate (Rs., per day)				
	Total	40-60	60-80	80-100	Above 100
Agriculture	210	57	142	10	1
Non-agriculture	294	16	71	193	14
Both Agri. & Non-Agri.	222	33	162	27	-
Total	726	106	375	230	15

Table 6.2 A: Wage rate of sampled local casual labourers in sampled villages across the regions and development levels in Punjab

Wage rate (Rs., per Day)	Total	Region			Development Level of Village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
40-60	106	16	13	77	48	27	31
60-80	375	111	65	199	117	133	125
80-100	230	72	48	110	80	81	69
100+	15	2	3	10	9	5	1
Total	726	201	129	396	254	246	226

Table 6.3 A: Sectoral distribution of sampled local casual labourers according to total family earnings in sampled villages in Punjab

Earnings per month	Total	Agriculture	Non-agriculture	Both
500-1000	197	109	28	60
1000-1500	294	81	96	117
1500+	235	20	170	45
Total	726	210	294	222

Table 6.4 A: Total family earnings of sampled local casual labourers in sampled villages across the regions and development levels in Punjab

(Rs. Per month)

Earnings (Rs., per month)	Total	Region			Development level of village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
500-1000	197	34	35	128	81	46	70
1000-1500	294	83	53	158	80	109	105
1500+	235	84	41	110	93	91	51
Total	726	201	129	396	254	246	226

mpled local casual labourers in terms of loan burden in
es across the regions and development levels in Punjab

Loan ('000 Rs.)	Total	Region			Development Level of Village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
Nil	214	77	80	57	52	39	120
1-10	418	135	133	150	124	71	223
10-20	76	31	29	16	25	18	33
20+	18	11	4	3	-	1	17
Total	726	254	246	226	201	129	396

Table 6.6 A: Number of sampled local casual labourers in terms of source of loan in sampled villages across the regions and development levels in Punjab

Source of loan	Total	Region			Development Level of Village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
Zamindar	358	78	66	214	132	114	112
Kariana shop	130	63	22	45	35	43	52
Relatives	24	8	2	14	10	9	5
Total	512	149	90	273	177	166	169

Table 6.7 A: Number of sampled local casual labourers in terms of purpose of loan in sampled villages across the regions and development levels in Punjab

Purpose of loan	Total	Region			Development Level of Village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
Household expend	279	88	52	139	85	89	105
Exp. On illness	110	36	14	60	43	37	30
Marriage	105	24	19	62	44	34	27
Purchase of live stock	18	1	5	12	5	6	7
Total	512	149	90	273	177	166	169

CHAPTER 7

OCCUPATIONAL STRUCTURE, WAGES AND ASSETS OF LOCAL ATTACHED LABOUR IN RURAL PUNJAB

Though most of employers in rural area do not want to employ labourers on permanent/regular basis yet there were 174 attached labourers in the sample of 900 labourers. It has also been observed that even the majority of labourers do not offer them for attached labour. In our sample 80.44 per cent labourers were casually employed. In fact, casualization of employment in rural India, in general, and that in agriculture, in particular, is on the rise. The proportion of casual labourers in total hired labour, across the major states in India, in agriculture reached to near 90 per cent (Gill and Ghuman, 2001). In Punjab, the share of casual labour in hired labour in major crops was around 75 per cent during the 1990s.

Table 7.1 shows that out of 174 attached labourers, 74.14 per cent in *Malwa* region, 12.07 per cent in *Doaba* and 13.79 per cent in *Majha*. It is important to note that the proportion of labourers, from *Malwa*, in total sample of 900 labourers is 58.33 per cent. The proportion of *Malwa* in the sample of 726 casual labourers is 54.54 per cent. Clearly, the tradition of hiring attached labourers is more prevalent in *Malwa* is compared to the other two regions.

Table 7.1: Number of percentage share of sampled local attached labourers in sampled villages across the regions and development levels in Punjab

	Total	Region			Development level of village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
Number	174	24	21	129	46	54	74
Percentage share	100.00	13.79	12.07	74.14	26.44	31.03	42.53

Source: Field survey.
Note: 1. The source of all the following tables in this chapter is also field survey.
2. There was no female labourer in the category of attached labourers.

With regard to development level of villages, the tradition of hiring attached labour has a positive correlation with the level of development as is evident from table 7.1. The proportion of casual labourers in low, medium and high developed villages is 26.44, 31.10 and 42.53 per cent, respectively. Compared to it, all the 900 sampled labourers are evenly spread over all the development levels. The proportion of casual labourers in low, medium and high developed villages, too, displays a similar

ar that the proportion of attached labourers is higher in ch a phenomenon seems some what paradoxical.

Table 7.2: Age structure of sampled local attached labourers in sampled villages across the regions and development levels in Punjab

Age (Years)	Total	Region			Development level of village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
Below 14	7 (4.02)	1 (4.17)	1 (4.76)	5 (3.88)	1 (2.17)	3 (5.56)	3 (4.05)
14-20	65 (37.36)	8 (33.33)	6 (28.57)	51 (39.53)	20 (43.48)	20 (37.04)	25 (33.78)
21-25	78 (44.83)	14 (58.33)	11 (52.38)	53 (41.09)	20 (43.48)	25 (46.30)	33 (44.59)
26-30	17 (9.77)	1 (4.17)	3 (14.24)	13 (10.8)	4 (8.70)	5 (9.26)	8 (18.81)
31 and above	7 (4.02)	-	-	7 (5.43)	1 (2.17)	1 (1.85)	5 (6.76)
Total	174 (100.00)	24 (100.00)	21 (100.00)	129 (100.00)	46 (100.00)	54 (100.00)	74 (100.00)

Note: Figures in brackets indicate percentage share.

The age structure of local attached labour is presented in table 7.2. It is important to note here that there exists child labour even in the attached local labour in Punjab. The perusal of table 7.2 reveals that 4.02 per cent of the total sampled attached labour was found below the age of 14 years, which is a child labour. The attached labourers working in rural Punjab is between the age group of 14-20 is 37.36 per cent. The highest proportion of attached labourers (44.83 per cent) falls in the age category of 21-25 years. Nearly ten per cent of attached labourers in rural Punjab are in the age group of 26-30 years. There are only 4.02 per cent who are above 31 years of age. Some what similar patterns of the attached labourers are observed from the distribution of the workers across the regions such as *Majha*, *Doaba* and *Malwa*. The perusal of the distribution of attached labourers across levels of development reveals that the highest proportion of attached labourers lies in the age group of 21-25 years. The proportion of attached labourers of low, medium and high development villages are 43.48 per cent, 37.04 per cent and 33.78 per cent respectively. The analysis of the table 7.2 clearly shows that more than 80 per cent of the attached labourers are in the two categories of age, that is, 14-20 and 21-25. The incidence of child labour is quite low but still persisting in the rural areas of Punjab.

As regards period of stay with the same employer, it varies from 1 to 4 year (table 7.3). To begin with majority of the labourers enter into contract for one year

cent labourers continue to stay with the same employer be specific, 40.23 per cent labourers continue to work with the same employer between one to two years. Another 32.18 per cent labourers stick to the same employer for two to four years. And 27.59 per cent labourers continue to work with the same employer for more than four years.

Table 7.3: Number and percentage share of sampled local attached labourers in terms of period of stay with the same employer in sampled villages across the regions and development levels in Punjab

Stay (Years)	Total	Region			Development level of village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
1-2	70 (40.23)	5 (20.83)	7 (33.33)	58 (44.96)	27 (58.70)	196 (35.19)	24 (32.43)
2-4	56 (32.18)	14 (58.34)	9 (42.86)	33 (25.58)	11 (23.91)	23 (42.59)	22 (29.93)
4+	48 (27.59)	5 (20.83)	5 (23.81)	38 (29.46)	8 (17.39)	12 (22.22)	28 (37.84)
Total	174 (100.00)	24 (100.00)	21 (100.00)	129 (100.00)	46 (100.00)	54 (100.00)	74 (100.00)

Note: 1. Figures in brackets indicate percentage share.
2. Though 40.23 per cent labourers have been staying with their present employment between 1-2 years yet 95.40 per cent labourers enter into contract for only one year, to begin with.

Across the regions the proportion of labourers, working between one to two years with the same employer, is 20.83, 33.33 and 44.96 per cent in *Majha*, *Doaba* and *Malwa*. The situation is altogether reversed in the case of labourers sticking with the same employer between two to four years. It is 58.34, 42.86 and 25.58 per cent in *Majha*, *Doaba* and *Malwa*, respectively. The situation again reverses in the attachment period beyond 4 years. The proportion is the highest in *Malwa* and lowest in *Majha*. Thus, in the short period the mutual contract of labourers and employers is higher in *Malwa*. In the medium period it is higher in *Majha* where as the loyalty is higher in *Malwa* a bit longer period.

In terms of development level, nearly 59 per cent labourers in low developed villages remain with the same employer from one to 2 years. The proportion is 35.19 and 32.43 per cent, respectively, in medium and high developed villages. The proportion of labourers remaining with the same employer between two to four years in low, medium and high developed villages is 23.91, 42.59 and 29.93 per cent, respectively. The corresponding proportion of labourers for an attachment period beyond four years is 17.39, 22.22 and 38 per cent, respectively. It is clear from the

loyalty between the labourer and the cultivator, across ...opment, varies with time. During the short period, the loyalty is highest in low developed villages whereas it is highest in medium developed villages during the medium period. It is highest in the high developed villages during a period beyond four years.

As regards working hours, very high proportions (63.79 per cent) of attached labourers work between 8 to 12 hours a day (table 7.4). A very small proportion (1.73 per cent) of labourers, work for more than 12 hours a day. Compared to it, 34.48 per cent labourers work between 7 to 8 hours a day.

Table 7.4: Number and percentage share of sampled local attached labourers in terms of working hours in sampled villages across the region and development levels in Punjab

Working hours (per day)	Total	Region			Development level of village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
7-8	60 (34.48)	10 (41.67)	12 (57.14)	38 (29.46)	17 (36.95)	23 (42.59)	20 (27.03)
8-12	111 (63.79)	14 (58.33)	9 (42.86)	88 (68.22)	27 (58.70)	31 (57.41)	53 (71.62)
12+	3 (1.73)	-	-	3 (2.32)	2 (4.35)	-	1 (1.35)
Total	174 (100.00)	24 (100.00)	21 (100.00)	129 (100.00)	46 (100.00)	54 (100.00)	74 (100.00)

Note: Figures in brackets indicate percentage share.

Region-wise, the highest proportion (68.22 per cent) of labourers works between 8 to 12 hours a day in *Malwa*, followed by *Majha* (58.33 per cent) and *Doaba* (42.86 per cent). The proportion of labourers working from 7 to 8 hours per day is 41.67, 57.14 and 29.46 per cent, respectively, in *Majha*, *Doaba* and *Malwa* regions. Only 2.32 per cent labourers have to work for more than 12 hours a day and that too, in *Malwa*. It is, thus, clear that the proportion of labourers, who work beyond the stipulated period of 8 hours, is highest in *Malwa*.

As regards the relationship between working hours and the level of development, the proportion of labourers working beyond 8 hours is highest (72.97 per cent) in high developed villages. The proportion of labourers, working up to 8 hours, is highest (42.59 per cent) in medium developed villages and lowest (27.03 per cent) in high developed villages. This implies that employers in high developed regions make the labourers work beyond 8 hours a day.

wage structure of attached labourers across the regions elopment. About 5 per cent labourers work on annual wages of less than Rs. 10,000. In addition to cash wages, they may also be receiving something in kind also. About 14 per cent of labourers are getting wages more than Rs. 25,000 per annum. Thus, the lower and upper brackets of wages are below Rs. 10,000 and Rs. 25,000 per annum. Within this bracket, 7.47 per cent labourersô annual wage package is between Rs. 10,000 to 15,000. About 32 per cent and 42 per cent labourers are getting wages between Rs. 15-20 thousands and Rs. 20-25 thousands, respectively. Thus, nearly 13 per cent labourers receive wages between Rs. 15 thousands per annum and another 73.56 per cent get wages between 15 to 25 thousands.

Table 7.5: Number and percentage share of sampled local attached labourers, in annual wages, in sampled villages across the regions and development levels in Punjab

Annual Wages (ó000 Rs.)	Total	Region			Development level of village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
Upto 10	9 (5.17)	2 (8.33)	1 (4.76)	6 (4.65)	4 (8.70)	1 (1.85)	4 (5.41)
10-15	13 (7.47)	-	-	13 (10.08)	7 (15.22)	4 (7.41)	2 (2.70)
15-20	55 (31.61)	8 (33.33)	5 (23.81)	42 (32.56)	11 (23.91)	19 (35.19)	25 (33.78)
20-25	73 (41.96)	11 (45.84)	9 (42.86)	53 (41.08)	18 (39.13)	23 (42.59)	32 (42.24)
25+	24 (13.79)	3 (12.50)	6 (28.57)	15 (11.63)	6 (13.04)	7 (12.97)	11 (14.86)
Total	174 (100.00)	24 (100.00)	21 (100.00)	129 (100.00)	46 (100.00)	54 (100.00)	74 (100.00)

Note: 1. Figures in brackets indicate percentage share.
2. In addition to wages in cash 96.59 per cent of attached labourers, on an average, have been getting something in kind in one form or the other such as meals, tea, snacks etc., and occasionally fodder for their cattles.

The proportion of labourers, getting wages below Rs. 10,000 per annum, is 8.33, 4.76 and 4.65 per cent in *Majha*, *Doaba* and *Malwa* regions, respectively. The corresponding proportion of labourers in the highest bracket of wages is 12.50, 28.57 and 11.63 per cent, respectively. Only 10 per cent labourers in *Malwa* region get wages between Rs. 10 to 15 thousands per annum. The proportion of labourers in the wage bracket of Rs. 15-20 thousands is 33.33, 23.81 and 32.56, respectively, across

ng proportion of labourers in the wage group of Rs. 20- and 41.08 per cent, respectively. It is, thus, clear that amongst the regions a very high proportion of labourers (71 per cent) in *Doaba* get wages above Rs. 20,000 per annum. This proportion in *Majha* and *Malwa* regions is 58 per cent and 53 per cent, respectively. Thus, across the regions labourers in *Doaba* are better placed in terms of annual wages.

Across the levels of development, the share of labourers in the lowest and highest wage groups is relatively quite low compared to other two brackets. The proportion of labourers, getting wages below Rs. 10,000 per annum, is 8.70, 1.85 and 5.41 per cent in low, medium and high developed villages. The corresponding proportion in the highest wage group ranges from 13 to 15 per cent. Thus, there is a wide variation among the various levels of development as far as the lowest bracket of wages is concerned. Inter-development level variation in wages is almost negligible. In other words, wages in lowest bracket are sensitive to the development level of the region but not sensitive to development level in the highest wage bracket.

The proportion of labourers in the wage group of 10 to 15 thousand is 15.22, 7.41 and 2.70 per cent, respectively, in low, medium and high levels of development. It is interesting to note that the proportion of labourers in the wage bracket of Rs. 15-20 thousands is 23.91, 35.19 and 33.78 per cent, respectively, in low, medium and high developed villages. The corresponding proportion of labourers in the wage group of Rs. 20-25 thousands is 39.13, 42.59 and 42.24 per cent, respectively. Thus, the variation in wages across the various levels of development does not seem to be a significant one in both the above mentioned wage brackets. The variation in wages within the same level of development is, however significant as is evident from table 7.5. On an average, from about 52 per cent to about 58 per cent of labourers, across, the various levels of development, get wages above Rs. 20,000. The highest proportion of such labourers is in high developed villages and the lowest proportion in low developed villages. This means level of development has a favourable effect on wages as far as the wages in the higher brackets are concerned.

The attached labourers are given paid holidays, as shown in table 7.6. About 34 per cent of labourers get only 3 to 10 holidays in a year. Another nearly 64 per cent get paid holidays from 10 to 15 days in a year. And only 2.30 per cent receive

0 days in a year. Clearly, compared to organized sector, d holidays.

Table 7.6: Number and percentage share of sampled local attached labourers in terms of paid holidays in sampled villages across the regions and development levels in Punjab

Paid Holidays (Annual)	Total	Region			Development level of village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
3-10	59 (33.91)	4 (16.67)	10 (47.62)	45 (34.88)	16 (34.78)	19 (35.19)	24 (32.43)
10-15	111 (63.79)	19 (79.17)	11 (52.38)	81 (62.79)	28 (60.87)	35 (64.81)	48 (64.87)
15-20	4 (2.30)	1 (4.16)	-	3. (2.33)	2 (4.35)	-	2 (2.70)
Total	174 (100.00)	24 (100.00)	21 (100.00)	129 (100.00)	46 (100.00)	54 (100.00)	74 (100.00)

Note: Figures in brackets indicate percentage share.

Across the regions, the labourers in *Majha* are better placed in terms of annual paid holidays. Nearly 79 per cent labourers get 10 to 15 days holidays in a year. Another 4 per cent are given such holidays between 15 to 20 days. The worst is *Doaba* in this context. About 48 per cent labourers in this region get 3-10 holidays and another 52.38 per cent receive 10-15 holidays in a year. The labourers in *Malwa* are better placed than *Doaba*. Here 63 per cent labourers get 10-15 holidays and 2.33 per cent between 15-20 holidays in a year. As regards the relationship between paid holidays and levels of development is concerned, no significance difference is visible across the various levels of development. The only exception is medium developed villages where no labourer is getting more than 15 holidays in a year. Another significant observation in the context of holidays is that these paid holidays are not given at a stretch. These are just like casual leaves.

Table 7.7 shows the family size and educational attainment of the attached labourers. The average family size of the labour households is 4.4 in which 2.59 are adults. Only 0.41 per cent labourers are matric pass. In fact, a vast majority of these labourers are illiterate or dropouts at the primary school level. A very small proportion is dropouts at the middle school level.

y size, number of adults and educational attainment of attached labourers in sampled villages across the regions nt levels in Punjab

Group/ Sub group)	Total	Region			Development level of village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
Family size	4.40	4.60	4.39	4.32	4.30	4.42	4.49
No. of adult members	2.59	2.86	2.56	2.53	2.57	2.71	2.57
10^{th} pass	0.41	0.47	0.56	0.31	0.41	0.42	0.35

Across the regions, the family size varies from 4.32 (*Malwa*) to 4.60 (*Majha*). Across the levels of development the family size varies between 4.30 in low developed region to 4.49 in high developed region. Two very significant observations are cropping up from the foregoing analysis. One the average family size of the labourer households is quite reasonable in the context of overall average family size in Punjab. Two, the average family size of labourer households is lower in relatively backwards area, viz. *Malwa*. At the same time the family size is large in high developed villages and small in low developed villages. It further implies that in the labourer households, the level of educational attainment does not have any bearing on the family size. It is clear from table 7.7, that the family size is lower in *Malwa* whereas only 0.31 per cent labourers posses matric certificate. At the same time, the proportion of labourers with matriculation is lowest (0.35 per cent) in high developed villages but the average family size is largest. Thus, the often held view that educational attainment limits the family size has not been upheld by these labourer households.

As regards the average number of adult members is concerned, it varies from 2.53 per cent in *Malwa* to 2.86 per cent in *Majha*. Across the levels of development, it varies from 2.57 per cent in low and high developed villages to 2.71 per cent in medium developed villages.

The value of family assets, across the regions and levels of development, is shown in table 7.8. The average value asset is Rs. 15829 per household. There is high degree of variation as is clear from the value of standard deviation. The labourers in *Doaba* have the highest (Rs. 18338) value of assets followed by *Majha* and *Malwa*. The intra-region variation is highest in *Doaba* followed by *Malwa* and *Majha*. It is astonishing to note that the average value of assets of labourers is highest (Rs. 15836) in low developed villages and lowest in medium developed villages. The

in high developed villages, as is clear from the standard of family assets, in various regions and various levels of development, however, is very low.

Table 7.8: Average family assets of sampled local attached labourers in sampled villages across the regions and development levels in Punjab

Assets (Rs.)	Total	Region			Development level of village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
Average	15829	14818	18338	14093	15836	13865	15243
Standard Deviation	10978	6560	10161	8680	8387	6615	10521

Almost all the labourers have raised loan from their employers. The amount of loan ranges from 4000 to over Rs. 15,000 plus (table 7.9). Nearly 23 per cent labourers have raised loan from the employer above Rs. 15,000. Another 22.41 per cent labourers are under loan from Rs. 10,000 to Rs. 15,000. Approximately 34 pr cent labourers are under loan from Rs. 5,000 to Rs. 10,000. The remaining 20.69 per cent labourers are having loan burden between Rs. 4 to 5 thousands.

Across the regions, 21.71 per cent labourers in Malwa are under loan and/or have taken advance payment below Rs. 5,000. Compared to it, the proportion of such labourers in *Majha* and *Doaba* is 20.83 per cent and 14.29 per cent, respectively. The proportion of labourers having taken loan between Rs. 5 to 10 thousands is 37.21, 28.57 and 20.83 per cent in *Malwa*, *Doaba* and *Majha* regions, respectively. The corresponding proportion in the range of Rs. 10 to 15 thousands is 20.93, 28.57 and 25 per cent, respectively. Within the region, the highest proportion of labourers under loan above Rs. 15,000 is in *Majha* (33.34 per cent). It is followed by *Doaba* (28.57 per cent) and *Malwa* (20.15 per cent).

Table 7.9: Percentage share of sampled local attached labourers in terms of loan liability towards the employer, in sampled villages across the regions and development levels in Punjab

Range of loan (ó000 Rs.)	Total	Region			Development level of village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
4-5	20.69	20.83	14.29	21.71	17.39	27.78	17.57
5-10	33.91	20.83	28.57	37.21	23.91	37.04	37.84
10-15	22.41	25.00	28.57	20.93	26.09	26.09	18.92
15+	22.99	33.34	28.57	20.15	32.61	11.11	25.68
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Note: Absolute figure are given in appendix 7.1 A.

ls of development, the proportion of labourers having 9, 27.78 and 17.57 per cent in low, medium and high developed villages, respectively. The corresponding proportions of labourers in the loan range of 5 to 10 thousands is 23.91, 37.04 and 37.84 per cent, respectively. It is interesting to note that the proportion of labourers having loan below Rs. 5,000 is almost same in low and high developed regions. It is almost same in medium and high developed villages in the range of Rs. 5 to 10 thousands. Again the proportion of labourers in the loan range of Rs. 10 to 15 thousands is same (26.09 per cent) in low and medium developed villages. The highest proportion of labourers under loan above Rs. 15,000 is 32.61 per cent in low developed villages followed by high and medium developed villages. It is clear from the foregoing discussion that amount of loan and the proportion of labourers in a particular range do not depict any clear cut relationship with the level of development.

Appendix to table

of sampled local attached labourers towards the employer in sampled villages across the regions and development levels in Punjab

Range of loan (ó000 Rs.)	Total	Region			Development level of village		
		Majha	*Doaba*	*Malwa*	Low	Medium	High
4-5	36	5	3	28	8	15	13
5-10	59	5	6	48	11	20	28
10-15	39	6	6	27	12	13	14
15+	40	8	6	26	15	6	19
Total	174	24	21	129	46	54	74

CHAPTER 8

AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

The substantial presence of migrant labour and huge surplus workforce in agriculture and rural economy of Punjab presents a paradoxical situation. During the last about two decades, the labour absorption capacity of Punjab agriculture has been declining continuously. As such the availability of employment, in terms of man-days, has reduced in a big way over the period of time. Both the cultivators and local agricultural labour are becoming surplus. At the same time, there has been a continuous inflow of migrant labour in Punjab agriculture.

Such a paradoxical situation poses a serious question about the status of local agricultural labour in Punjab. It has been disturbing the minds of social scientists and policy makers in Punjab. The issue needs a serious inquiry. The present study is an effort in this direction. In fact, one of the major objectives of the study is to examine the status of local agricultural labour in Punjab.

The findings of this scientifically designed empirical study are based largely on actual primary data pertaining to 36 villages in Punjab. These villages are located in 12 development blocks, in 12 districts of Punjab. The selected 12 districts represent all the three regions of Punjab, namely, *Majha, Doaba* and *Malwa*. The districts are Gurdaspur, Amritsar, Tarantaran (*Majha*); Jalandhar, Hoshiarpur (*Doaba*) and Ludhiana, Ferozepur, Mukatsar, Bathinda, Sangrur, Fatehgarh Sahib and Patiala (*Malwa*). Thus, there are three districts from *Majha*, two from *Doaba* and seven from *Malwa*. The selection of these districts is via blocks. Based on the ranking (in the descending order) of blocks, by Economic and Statistical Organization (ESO) of Punjab, we selected 12 blocks. Accordingly, three blocks were randomly selected from the first 25 ranks (highly developed blocks). Six blocks were randomly selected from the medium developed blocks. Out of these six blocks, three were from 26-50 ranks, and another three were from 51-80 ranks, respectively. The remaining three blocks were randomly selected from 81 to 122 blocks. Thus, our sample represents various regions having different levels of development, spread over the entire state of Punjab. And the selected 12 blocks are located in the above mentioned 12 districts. So, there is one block from one district. It is important to mention that there were only 122 blocks in Punjab when the ESO did the ranking

based on a number of representative socio-economic

At the second stage, we randomly selected three villages from each block. The selection of villages was made out of the cluster of villages. One village each was randomly selected from the high developed, medium developed and low developed cluster of villages in each block. Thus, the entire sampling exercise has been done with the help of multistage stratified random sampling technique.

On the basis of census survey of all the households, it has been found that there were 7669 households in all the 36 sampled villages at the time of survey. The survey pertains to the period; January to May 2007. To analyse the occupational, income and asset structure of local rural agricultural labourers, we have randomly selected 25 respondents from each selected village. Thus, in all, there were 900 respondents.

Out of all the 7669 households in the sampled 36 villages, 66.41 per cent are from *Malwa* region and the remaining 9.48 per cent and 24.11 per cent are from *Doaba* and *Majha* regions, respectively. It is nearly proportionate sample from the respective shares of their population in Punjabôs total population. From amongst the various levels of development, 28.26, 29.60 and 42.14 per cent households are from amongst the low, medium and high developed villages, respectively.

Nearly, 67 per cent households are landless and about 33 per cent own land. These estimates are almost similar to the latest NSSO estimates. From amongst land owners, 51.20 per cent are marginal and small holders (up to 5 acres), 26 per cent between 5 to 10 acres, 9.53 per cent between 10 to 15 acres and 13.21 per cent above 15 acres. The corresponding share of operational land holding is 48.53, 26.56, 10.68 and 14.23 per cent respectively. This means 2.67 per cent marginal and small land owners are not engaged in agriculture. It indicates that there has already started a slow process of de-peasantisation of small and medium farmers in Punjab. The impact is more noticeable in the case of small farmers. Nevertheless, there is net-leasing-out of land by every size-class of land holdings.

It is important to note that out of 2506 land owning households only 2172 (86.67 per cent) households are actually engaged in farming. It means 13.33 per

ds are not operating their land. The proportion of own holding in that category is 78.22 per cent.

The average family size and the size of land holding have a positive correlation. The small sized land owners have relatively smaller family size as compared to large sized land owners. May be land is a uniting factor. Again **the farm households have a higher size of family as compared to non-farm and labour households. There is no significant variation in the family size across the regions and levels of development.**

As regards level of education about 69 per cent households did not have even a single member with qualification up to matric. Nearly 51 per cent farm-households did not have any member with qualification up to matric. Amongst the land owning households, a little more than two third households amongst marginal land holders do not have any family member up to matric. This proportion, however, falls as we move to higher level of land holdings. This proportion is 54.31, 46.71, 41.00 and 33.53 per cent, respectively, in small, semi-medium, medium and large land holders.

The relationship between educational level and level of development presents a mixed picture. Nearly 73 per cent households in low developed villages did not have a single family member with qualification up to matric. The corresponding proportion in medium and high developed villages was 64.23 and 69.34 per cent, respectively. Across the regions *Malwa* has the highest proportion of families (73 per cent) in which there is no member even up to matric. The corresponding proportions in *Doaba* and *Majha* are 35.49 and 33 per cent, respectively.

As regards non-farm employment, the average share of households in non-farm activities in all the 36 villages came out to be 24.36 per cent. Across the levels of development, 20.17, 26.43 and 25.71 per cent households, respectively in low, medium and high developed villages, have employment in non-farm activities. Out of the non-farm employment, 57.44, 50 and 55.11 per cent households, respectively, across the three levels of development, are engaged in small time self-employment. The remaining are in wage employment.

Across the regions, the proportion of households engaged in non-farm activities are 22.77, 43.88 and 22.15 per cent in *Majha*, *Doaba* and *Malwa*,

these households, 43.94, 66.46 and 54.25 per cent are ective regions. The rest are in wage employment.

As regards the attached employment of local rural labour, 99.31 per cent marginal and 91.51 per cent small farmers did not have any attached labourer. The corresponding proportion of such households in semi-medium, medium and large holdings is 81.78, 63.60 and 44.71 per cent, respectively. Similarly, the proportion of households having one or more than one attached labourer also increases with the holding size. The proportion of households who are having two attached labourers is 4.18 and 11.78 in the case of medium and large holding size, respectively. Only 10 per cent of the big farmers are having three attached labourers. **This means that the demand for attached labour increases with the increase in farm size**.

Heavy mechanization, massive use of herbicides, and short duration of peak season in Punjab agriculture have led to a strange phenomenon. On the one hand, demand for labour has declined and on the other hand, there is heavy demand for casual labour during sowing and harvesting periods, which are termed as peak periods.

The employment of casual labour and the farm size has a positive relation. As we move to higher level of operational holdings, the proportion of households hiring casual labour goes on increasing. The small farmers, however, are an exception. Nearly 64 per cent of them hire casual labour. This proportion is 32, 56, 57 and 63 per cent, respectively in the case of marginal, semi-medium, medium and large operational holdings. Our study shows that 96 per cent marginal and 78 per cent small farmers employ up to 50 man-days during one year. The corresponding proportions in the case of semi-medium, medium and large operational holdings are, however, 34, 26 and 21 per cent, respectively. In fact, 20 per cent semi-medium farmers hire casual labour between 50 to 75 man days and 46 per cent hire them for more than 75 man-days in a year. The proportion of medium and large farmers, hiring casual labour above 75 man days in a year, is 60 per cent and 76 per cent, respectively. Thus, the maximum demand for casual labour is coming from semi-medium, medium and large farmers.

It is widely held view that migration and economic development are closely connected. The workforce, especially of poorer households and relatively poorer

better employment opportunities. Punjab state has been ntial amount of migrant work force since the ushering in of green revolution. The total number of migrants increased from 8,72,377 in 1981 to 17,52,718 persons in 2001. The growth rate of migrant population during the period 1981-2001 was 3.55 per cent per annum. The inflow of migrants increased at a fast rate during the 1990s compared with the eighties. Uttar Pradesh and Haryana were the major sources which have supplied migrants to Punjab state. The growth of migrants also increased in Punjab from Bihar but still their proportion remained quite less compared with the proportion of migrants from Uttar Pradesh and Haryana. However, the urban migrants are predominantly from Uttar Pradesh and Bihar. The proportion of Uttar Pradesh, among the eight major sender states, migrants in urban areas of Punjab was 40 per cent and that of Bihar was only 19.42 per cent in the year 2001. Haryana and Uttar Pradesh remained predominant so far as rural-rural migrants from other states to Punjab are concerned. The rural to rural migration has increased but at a lower pace compared with influx of migrants to urban areas of Punjab. It is generally believed that Census do not record migrants whose stay in the state is less than six months. Therefore, this leads to an under estimation of migrant inflows.

The study has attempted to provide estimates related to regular/attached and casual workforce coming to Punjab in search of earning livelihood. **The total estimated number of migrant labourers working in agriculture sector in Punjab comes out to be 8,19,254 persons. This is 23.04 per cent of the agricultural workforce in the state. The regular/attached labourers were just 1,23,639 persons. However, the large chunk of migrant workforce comes to Punjab as casual labourers. The estimated number of casual migrant labourers is 6,95,615 persons. The majority of these migrant workers (more than 90 per cent) are able to find work in agriculture only up to 50 days in a year**. There are three peak seasons ï wheat harvesting, paddy sowing and paddy harvesting ï when the migrant workers are most needed in Punjab and after the peak season they usually go back to their respective native places. Some of them shift to urban areas of Punjab, during the lean season of agriculture.

On the basis of 900 sampled local labourers from 36 villages, we found that 80.67 per cent were casual labourers and only 19.33 per cent were attached labourers. The extent of casualization of agricultural labour is highest in *Majha*, 89.33 per cent,

a. From amongst the various levels of development, the bour is highest (84.67 per cent) in low developed and lowest (75.33 per cent) in high developed villages.

It is important to note that all the local labourers in Punjab have their own houses. Nearly 88 per cent of the labourers have semi-pacca houses and only 5.55 per cent have pacca houses. As regards household assets, majority of the labourers own the basic minimum household goods. Only 3.44 per cent have refrigerator, 32.44 per cent have radio-transistor, 9.33 per cent have cooking gas, 2.44 per cent have scooter/motor cycle, 95 per cent have fan and no household has cooler. Nearly 39 per cent households have live-stock, mainly one milch animal. All the labour-households have access to drinking water in the form of tap water (67.22 per cent) and owned pump (28.56 per cent).

The occupational structure of all the 726 sampled casual labourers shows that the share of agriculture, non-agriculture and partly in both is 28.92, 40.50 and 30.58 per cent, respectively. About 65 per cent work in their respective villages; out of them 44.00, 15.25 and 40.68 per cent, respectively, work in agriculture, non-agriculture and partly in agriculture and non-agricultural sectors. Out of the remaining 35 per cent, working outside the village, the respective proportions are 0.79, 87.40 and 11.81 per cent.

The predominant reason for the above mentioned phenomenon is relatively higher wage rate in non-rural and non-agriculture sectors. Nearly 64 per cent of the labourers came out with such an explanation. About 23 per cent labourers are going out for work because of non-availability of work in the village. Nearly 13 per cent have mentioned that they are going out of their village because of better working conditions. Thus, low wage in agriculture and rural area, along with non-availability of work, is pushing the local rural labour out of agriculture and rural area in Punjab. In fact, labour is being pushed out of agriculture due to shrinking and low-wage-employment in agriculture in Punjab (Ghuman, 2005). These labourers have to travel between 8 to 16 kms daily. More than 88 per cent travel bicycle.

A comparative analysis of availability of work in agriculture, non-agriculture and partly in agriculture and non-agriculture further shows that within agriculture 32 per cent labourers get work only for 8 to 10 days in a

ural sectors, such a proportion is only 7.48 per cent. in agriculture get work for 10 to 20 days in a month. The proportion of such labourers in non-agricultural activities is 83.33 per cent. A little less than one per cent workers in agriculture get work for more than 20 days in a month. In the non-agricultural sectors, such a proportion is 9.19 per cent.

The proportion of those labourers who work partly in agriculture and partly in non-agricultural activities in a range of 8-10 days per month is 13.06 per cent. Another 84.69 per cent of such labourers could get work between 10 to 20 days in a month. Only 2.25 per cent labourers in this category could find work beyond 20 days in a month. Clearly, agriculture provides work for a lesser number of days than the other sectors.

Amongst various regions the highest proportion of casual labourers (92%), getting work for more than 10 days in a month, is in *Majha*. Around 80 per cent of the labourers in *Doaba* and *Malwa* regions get work for more than 10 days in a month. Amongst the levels of development, medium developed villages provide work for more than 10 days to the highest proportions (88.62 per cent).

Amongst all the local casual labourers across the sectors, regions and development levels, 62.27 per cent work for 7 to 8 hours, 25.21 per cent for 5 to 7 hours and 12.12 per cent for 8 to 10 hours in a day. Within the various categories of employment 59 per cent in agriculture, 70 per cent in non-agricultural activities and 56 per cent in both agriculture and non-agriculture work for 7 to 8 hours a day. Out of all the casual labourers, working for 5 to 7 hours in day, 40 per cent are partly in agriculture and non-agricultural activities. However, out of all the labourers having a working day of 7 to 8 hours and 8 to 10 hours, the highest proportion is in non-agriculture sectors.

There is wide intra-regional variation in working hours. Within *Majha* 30, 59 and 11 per cent casual labourers work from 5 to 7, 7 to 8 and 8 to 10 hours a day. The corresponding proportion of labourers in *Doaba* is 33, 51 and 16 per cent, respectively. It is 20, 68 and 12 per cent in *Malwa*, respectively. The intra-regional variations in terms of working hours are more pronounced in *Malwa*.

Within the category of low developed villages about 67 per cent labourers work for 7 to 8 hours a day. The corresponding proportion in medium and high

60 per cent. The proportions of labourers, with working 15 and 12 per cent in low, medium and high developed villages. The proportion of labourers with working day of 5 to 7 hours, across the level of development, ranges from 24 to 27 per cent.

The per day average wage rate of local casual labourers working in agriculture, non-agriculture and partly in both is Rs. 73, 95 and 77, respectively. Given the working days in a month the average monthly wages of 8, 83 and 9 per cent of local rural labourers in non-agricultural activities came out to be Rs. 856, Rs. 1428 and Rs. 1903, respectively. As compared to it, the average monthly wages of labourers working partly in both the sectors came out to be Rs. 697, Rs. 1161 and Rs. 1548 for 13, 85 and 2 per cent of the labourers. It is clear from the foregoing discussion that the average monthly wages of agricultural labourers are far less than their counter parts in non-agricultural activities. That is why the majority of local rural labourers prefer to work outside agriculture. But the problem is that the non-agriculture sector, too, is not in a position to provide them enough employment opportunities. It is, however, significant to note that the daily average wage rates are Rs. 76 and Rs. 97 for workers working in the village and out of the village, respectively.

The wage rate varies from Rs. 40 to Rs. 100 per day across the sectors. The proportion of labourers getting more than Rs. 100 in agriculture and non-agriculture is 0.48 and 4.76 per cent, respectively. On an average 14.60 per cent labourers get a daily wage rate between Rs. 40 and Rs. 60 only. About 52 per cent labourers get between Rs. 60 and Rs. 80 per day. Approximately 32 per cent labourers are getting a wage rate between Rs. 80 and Rs. 100 a day. And only 2 per cent labourers get a wage of more than Rs. 100 per day.

Across the regions, the daily average wage rate in *Majha*, *Doaba* and *Malwa* is Rs. 76, Rs. 75 and Rs. 61, respectively. The average wage rate in low, medium and high developed villages is Rs. 71, Rs. 70 and Rs. 61 per day, respectively. About 84, 74, 78 per cent labourers in *Majha*, *Doaba* and *Malwa*, respectively get average monthly wages between Rs. 917 and Rs. 1142. The proportion of labourers in low, medium and high developed villages, having monthly wages of Rs. 1062, Rs. 1043 and Rs. 921 is 76, 84 and 77 per cent, respectively. It implies that average monthly wages are higher in low developed villages than the medium and high developed

ortion of labourers. It is clear from above that wage rate he development levels of the villages. This tantamounts to a paradoxical situation.

As regards family earnings, 27 per cent local casual labourers have a meagre income between Rs. 500 to Rs. 1000 per month; 40.50 per cent earn between Rs. 1000 and Rs. 1500 per month. The monthly earnings of the remaining 32.37 per cent labourers are above Rs. 1500 per month. Nearly one-third of the labourer families have daily earnings of Rs. 6.59 per person. Together, nearly 68 per cent families end up with less than Rs. 10 per day per person.

As a result of low wags and low family earnings about 70 per cent labourers are under loan ranging from Rs. 1000 to Rs. 20000. Nearly 58 per cent of them have a loan burden between Rs. 1000 and Rs. 10000. Another 10 per cent are under loan between Rs. 10000 and Rs. 20000. There are only 2.48 per cent labourers having loan more than Rs. 20000.

Across the sectors about 89, 44 and 66 per cent labourers in agriculture, non-agriculture and in both are under loan burden. This means the incidence of loan is much higher in agriculture than in non-agriculture sector.

The main sources of loan are *Zamindars* (landlords) and *Kariana* shops (retail merchants). About 70 per cent labourers have taken loan from *Zamindars* and 25 per cent from *Kariana* shops. It is strange to note that the proportion of labourers taking loan from *Zamindars* is lower in agriculture than in non-agricultural activities.

In view of the low earnings, most of the labourers are constrained to use a very high proportion of loan for meeting routine household expenses and social obligations. Such a proportion is 96.48 per cent across the sectors, regions and development levels. From the economists' stand point, such a use of loan is not desirable. However, the labourers are compelled to do so even to meet their minimum household requirements. Out of total casual labourers under loan, 54.49 per cent use the loan to meet household expenses. Another 21.48 per cent spend the loan amount on medical treatment and 20.51 per cent spend the loan amount on marriage of sister, brother, son or daughter. Only 3.52 per cent of the labourers use loan to purchase livestock.

oportion of labourers using loan for meeting basic e and low family earnings have pushed the labourers to a virtual debt-trap.

Though the proportion of casual labour in the hired labour is substantial yet the share of attached labour in total labour came out to be 19 per cent in sampled villages of Punjab. There is positive correlation between the proportion of attached labourers and the level of development. Out of the total 174 attached labourers, 26.44 per cent are in low developed villages and 42.53 per cent are in high developed villages. Within the low, medium and high developed villages, the proportion of attached labour in respective total is 15.33, 18 and 24.67 per cent, respectively.

It is significant to note that about 4 per cent of the attached labour falls in the category of child labour. The proportion of child labour may be higher in casual labour as the parents normally take their grown up children for work along with them. The present study, however, has not recorded the age of casual labourers. These children should have been in schools. Another 37 per cent of the attached labour is in the age group of 14-20 years. It supplements the fact that 90 per cent of the labour households do not have even one person with matric qualifications.

The duration of working day of attached labour is well beyond 8 hours. About 64 per cent labourers have to work between 8 to 12 hours in a day. Such a proportion is highest in *Malwa* and lowest in *Majha*. The proportion of such labourers is 72 per cent in high developed villages and 59 per cent in low developed villages. Thus, across the regions and levels of development the working day of a high proportion of attached labourers goes well beyond 8 hours. The length of the working day and the level of development move in the same direction.

As regards annual wages, about 32 per cent attached labourers get wages between Rs. 15 and Rs. 20 thousands. Another 42 per cent get wages between Rs. 20,000 to 25,000 per annum. About 14 per cent of these labourers earn more than Rs. 25 thousands per annum. **The annual earnings of attached labourers are significantly higher than the annual earnings of casual labourers. About 62 per cent causal labourers earn less than Rs. 15 thousands per annum. Approximately 34 per cent casual labourers' monthly earnings vary between Rs.**

nnum. Only 4 per cent casual labourers earn more The lower earnings are largely because of the lesser number of working days on the one hand and lower wage rate on the other. The former factor is much more significant. Contrary to it, 94 per cent of the attached labourers earn more than Rs. 15000 per annum. The proportion of such labourers increases as we move from the lower level to higher level of development.

About 34 per cent of attached labourers get 3 to 10 paid holidays in a year. Another 64 per cent get 10 to 15 paid holidays. The average family size of the attached labourers is 4.4 persons per family with average number of adults being 2.59 per family. Only 0.41 per cent of the attached labourers are qualified up to 10^{th} class. The rest are either illiterate or semi-literate. A very small proportion of them are literate.

On an average, the family assets of the attached labourers are worth Rs. 15829. The value of such assets is Rs. 18338 in *Doaba*, Rs. 14818 in *Majha* and Rs. 14093 in *Malwa*. It is interesting to note that the worth of family assets of the labourers is highest (Rs. 15836) in low developed villages and lowest in medium developed villages.

All the attached labourers are under loan ranging from Rs. 4000 to above Rs. 15,000. About 45 per cent of the attached labourers are under a loan of more than Rs. 10,000. Another 34 per cent of labourers are under a loan of Rs. 5000 to Rs. 10,000. Their single most important source of loan is *Zamindar* and a very high proportion of it is for meeting basic household consumption needs.

Policy implications and Recommendations

The substantial presence of migrant labour and prevalence of huge surplus workforce in Punjab agriculture have wide ranging socio-economic implications for the state. The skill and education level of the surplus workforce is not only low but also irrelevant for most of the emerging non-farm employment opportunities. At the same time, a good proportion of educated unemployed workforce, some how or the other, is feeling shy to enter into non-farm employment which is largely available in informal sector. May be most of the emerging employment opportunities in the informal sector, *inter alia*, are below the aspirations of the unemployed youth in Punjab.

on of rural non-farm employment is far below the pushing out the surplus labour but there is no pull effect from the non-farm sectors. It has generated a serious crisis for agricultural workforce and agrarian economy in particular and for rural economy in general.

In view of this, the main policy implications and recommendations of the study, on the basis of analysis and field observations, are as under:

1. **The development dynamism of the state has pushed substantial amount of workforce, both cultivators and labourers, out of agriculture. The transition would be very painful in the absence of some suitable policy measures. The State should draw out short, medium and long term policies to address this phenomenon.**
2. **In view of the shrinking employment elasticity, surplus workforce (both labourers and cultivators) in agriculture and future additions to that, a substantial proportion of agricultural workers need a systematic withdrawal out of agriculture. There is, thus, an urgent need to generate non-farm employment in the rural areas. That would require serious efforts and initiatives on the part of the government so that investment is encouraged in the relevant non-farm activities. In fact, development of rural-non-farm sector is sine qua non for smooth shifting of surplus workforce from agriculture to non-agricultural sectors in particular and for the development of rural economy, in general.**
3. **About 69 per cent rural households and 90 per cent of the rural labour households do not have even one member with matriculation. Such a dismal situation necessitates revamping of the rural school education in Punjab. The government must assume a lead role in making quality education available, accessible and affordable to the rural people.**
4. **In view of the low level of skill and non-employability of rural labour in non-farm sector, there is an urgent need to start short term skill oriented courses for updating their skill and make them employable. This should be a regular feature.**
5. **In view of the continuous inflow of migrant workers, there is a need to chalk-out suitable plans for the migrant as well as local labour.**
6. **The low wage rate, along with the lesser number of employment days, has worsened the economic plight of agricultural labourers. It is important to note that no casual labourer in agriculture is earning more than Rs. 1500 per month, on an average. Even in the case of family earnings, nearly 67 per cent families end up with a monthly income of less than Rs. 1500. Even in non-agricultural activities, 91 per cent casual labourers are earning less than Rs. 1500 per month. There is, thus, an urgent need to address this phenomenon by way of empowering workforce with skill and other measures.**

gnificant difference in wage rate in agriculture and activities, there is a need to take suitable measures to agriculture sector also.

8. As a result of low wages, low availability of work and low family earnings, more than 70 per cent of the casual labourers are under loan. They had taken loan from non-institutional sources at a very high interest rate. The fact of the matter is that a very high proportion of labourers take loan to meet household expenses, health, care and social commitments. These labourers are in a debt-trap. In view of this, their family income needs to be raised along with providing them institutional loan.

9. About 4 per cent of the attached agricultural labourers fall in the category of child labour which is not a healthy sign for a developed state like Punjab. The children should have been in the school rather than working as attached labour. Another 37 per cent of the attached labourers are in the age group of 14 to 20 years. This should be the serious concern of the government and policy makers.

10. The longer duration of working hours (64 per cent of the labourers work for 8 to 12 hours in a day) in the case of attached labour should also be a matter of concern for the government and policy makers.

11. The plight of agricultural/rural labour is closely connected with agrarian economy in particular and with the rural economy in general. As such, the government and policy makers should have to work out a holistic approach towards the development of rural economy as a whole. No partial or half-hearted measures would make any significant improvement. This should be topmost priority of the state. However, much would depend upon the political will and commitment.

12. Since the wage rate and total family earnings, even in the rural non-farm activities, are quite low the existing rural non farm activities need to be revamped keeping in view the minimum needs of labourers. Accordingly there is a need to promote agro-based industries in the rural areas so that the rural workers could get employment for a reasonable number of days at a decent wage rate. In fact setting up of new industrial units should be encouraged in the rural area.

13. Efforts must be made to bring more and more agro-based industries into the organized sector, preferably in the modern member based autonomous cooperatives which must be established without bureaucratic controls.

14. The provision of social security for the rural labour is imperative to take care of the education, health and marriage of their wards.

15. The Government should set up the **Rural Labour Commission**, to study and address the problems of rural labour.

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pled Villages

Sr. No.	Village
1	Aligarh
2	Bahadurpur
3	Basuwala
4	Bhagrana
5	Bodewal
6	Burj Gorha
7	Chak Duhewala
8	Chak Rekhan
9	Chunni Khurd
10	Dodra
11	Ekkal Gadda
12	Fatehgarh
13	Fattaballu
14	Issi
15	Kala Nangal
16	Kotla Saida
17	Marrori
18	Massania
19	Meemsa
20	Mihan Singhwala
21	Mirpur Hans
22	Muzaferpur
23	Navan Nag
24	Mial Khurd
25	Pandori
26	Pandori Khatrian
27	Rahurianwali
28	Randhawa
29	Ratol Rohi
30	Sanghaun
31	Shaib da Pind
32	Sharkpur
33	Sherpur
34	Sianiwal
35	Taprian
36	Teuna Pujarian

t and Block-wise List of Sampled Villages

District	Block	Low Developed Village	Medium Developed Village	Highly Developed Village
Amritsar	Khadoor Sahib	Bodewal	Chak Rekhan	Ekkal Gadda
Amritsar	Majitha	Taprian	Kotla Saida	Navan Nag
Bhatinda	Talwandi Sabo	Fattaballu	Fatehgarh	Teuna Pujarian
Fatehgarh Sahib	Khera	Randhawa	Bhagrana	Chunni Khurd
Firozepur	Zira	Mihan Singhwala	Ratol Rohi	Pandori Khatrian
Gurdaspur	Batala	Massania	Bahadurpur	Kala Nangal
Hoshiarpur	Mukerian	Sherpur	Shaib da Pind	Pandori
Jalandhar	Nakodar	Muzaferpur	Sharkpur	Sianiwal
Ludhiana	Jagraon	Basuwala	Mirpur Hans	Aligarh
Mukatsar	Mukatsar	Rahurianwali	Sanghaun	Chak Duhewala
Patiala	Samana	Marrori	Dodra	Mial Khurd
Sangrur	Dhuri	Burj Gorha	Issi	Meemsa

...on of Sampled Villages

Village	Location
Aligarh	2 kms from Jagraon (Jagraon to Ludhiana road).
Bahadurpur	2 kms from Batala (Batala to Gurdaspur road)
Basuwala	10 kms from Jagraon (Jagraon to Raikot road).
Bhagrana	8 kms from Rajpura (Rajpura to Chuni-Khurd road).
Bodewal	6 kms from Raia (Raia to Khadoor Sahib road via Khalchian).
Burj Gorha	6 kms from Bagrian (Bagrian to Duri road).
Chak Duhewala	8 kms from Muktsar (Muktsar to Malot road).
Chak Rekhan	8 kms from Khadoor Sahib (Khadoor Sahib to Khalchian road).
Chunni Khurd	10 kms from Sirhind.
Dodra	5 kms from Samana (Samana to Bhawanigarh).
Ekkal Gadda	8 kms from Khadoor Sahib (Khadoor Sahib to Khalchian road).
Fatehgarh	4 kms from Talwandi Sabo (Talwandi Sabo to Mansa road).
Fattaballu	12 kms from Talwandi Sabo (Talwandi Sabo to Mansa road).
Issi	8 kms from Dhuri.
Kala Nangal	3 kms from Batala (Batala to Gurdaspur road).
Kotla Saida	2 kms from Kathu Nangal.
Marrori	6 kms from Samana town.
Massania	6 kms from Batala town.
Meemsa	10 kms from Dhuri (Dhuri to Bagrian road).
Mihan Singhwala	6 kms from Zira.
Mirpur Hans	4 kms from Jagraon.

	rom Nakodar.
Navan Nag	5 kms from Majitha (Majitha to Amritsar road).
Mial Khurd	4 kms from Samana town.
Pandori	8 kms from Mukerian.
Pandori Khatrian	7 kms from Zira (Zira to Talwandi Bhai ki road).
Rahurianwali	7 kms from Muktsar (Muktsar to Abohar Road).
Randhawa	4 kms from Sarhind.
Ratol Rohi	5 kms from Zira (Zira to Talwandi Bhai Ki Road).
Sangudhaun	3 kms from Muktsar.
Shaib da Pind	5 kms from Mukerian.
Sharkpur	2 kms from Nakodar.
Sherpur	6 kms from Mukerian.
Sianiwal	4 kms from Nakodar.
Taprian	6 kms from Majitha (Majitha to Kathu Nangal road).
Teuna Pujarian	4 kms from Talwandi Sabo.

ng of Blocks in Punjab on the Basis of Level velopment

Block	District	Rank	Sampled Blocks
Moga-1	Moga	1	
Khamanon	Fatehgarh Sahib	2	
Khera	Fatehgarh Sahib	3	Yes
Amargarh	Sangrur	4	
Banga	Nawan Shehar	5	
Jalandhar East	Jalandhar	6	
Phagwara	Kapurthala	7	
Aur	Nawan Shehar	8	
Rurka Kalan	Jalandhar	9	
Taran Taran	Amritsar	10	
Bagha Purana	Moga	11	
Pakhowal	Ludhiana	12	
Ludhiana-I	Ludhiana	13	
Rayya	Amritsar	14	
Dera Baba Nanak	Gurdaspur	15	
Rupnagar	Rupnagar	16	
Verka	Amritsar	17	
Nihal Singh Wala	Moga	18	
Jagraon	Ludhiana	19	Yes
Jandiala	Amritsar	20	
Moga-2	Moga	20	
Saroya	Nawan Shehar	21	
Fatehgarh Churian	Gurdaspur	22	
Khadoor Sahib	Amritsar	23	Yes
Patti	Amritsar	24	
Phul	Bhatinda	25	
Sudhar	Ludhiana	26	
Naushera Pannuan	Amritsar	27	
Tarsika	Amritsar	28	
Dharkalan	Gurdaspur	29	
Jalandhar West	Jalandhar	29	
Adampur	Jalandhar	30	
Tanda	Hoshiarpur	31	
Dehlon	Ludhiana	32	
Dhilwan	Kapurthala	33	
Nurour Bedi	Rupnagar	34	
Majri	Rupnagar	35	
Dhuri	Sangrur	36	Yes
Nadala	Kapurthala	37	
Nakodar	Jalandhar	38	Yes
Doraha	Ludhiana	39	
Kapurthala	Kapurthala	40	
Barnala	Sangrur	41	
Bhikhi	Mansa	42	

	Rupnagar	42	
	Firozepur	43	
	Bhatinda	44	
Kot Bhai	Mukatsar	45	
Khanna	Ludhiana	46	
Harsha Chhina	Amritsar	47	
Dera Bassi	Patiala	48	
Dhariwal	Gurdaspur	48	
Nurmahal	Jalandhar	49	
Majitha	Amritsar	50	Yes
Sehna	Sangrur	50	
Sirhind	Fatehgarh Sahib	51	
Lambi	Mukatsar	52	
Rampura	Bhatinda	52	
Phillaur	Jalandhar	53	
Chohla Sahib	Amritsar	54	
Bassi Pathanan	Fatehgarh Sahib	55	
Bhawani Garh	Sangrur	55	
Sidhwanbet	Ludhiana	56	
Patiala	Patiala	57	
Khara	Rupnagar	58	
Nawan Shehar	Nawan Shehar	58	
Malaut	Mukatsar	59	
Mehal Kalan	Sangrur	60	
Chamkaur Sahib	Rupnagar	61	
Kotakpura	Faridkot	62	
Talwara	Hoshiarpur	62	
Shahkot	Jalandhar	63	
Samrala	Ludhiana	64	
Malerkotla-2	Sangrur	65	
Anandpur	Rupnagar	66	
Chogawan	Amritsar	67	
Gandhiwind	Amritsar	67	
Sunam	Sangrur	68	
Bhikhiwind	Amritsar	69	
Mukerian	Hoshiarpur	70	Yes
Zira	Firozepur	71	Yes
Sangrur	Sangrur	72	
Valtoha	Amritsar	73	
Ajnala	Amritsar	74	
Amloh	Fatehgarh Sahib	75	
Bamial	Gurdaspur	76	
Dharmkot	Firozepur	76	
Malerkotla-1	Sangrur	76	
Batala	Gurdaspur	77	Yes
Nathana	Bhatinda	77	
Bhogpur	Jalandhar	78	
Sherpur	Sangrur	79	

	Firozepur	80	
	Jalandhar	81	
	Kapurthala	82	
Machhiwara	Ludhiana	83	
Shri Hargobindpur	Gurdaspur	84	
Lehra Gaga	Sangrur	85	
Balachaur	Nawan Shehar	86	
Dasuya	Hoshiarpur	87	
Mukatsar	Mukatsar	88	Yes
Hoshiarpur-I	Hoshiarpur	89	
Garhshankar	Hoshiarpur	90	
Kalanaur	Gurdaspur	90	
Sangat	Bhatinda	90	
Faridkot	Faridkot	91	
Bhunerheri	Patiala	92	
Nabha	Patiala	93	
Hoshiarpur-II	Hoshiarpur	94	
Dinanagar	Gurdaspur	95	
Samana	Patiala	96	Yes
Qadian	Gurdaspur	97	
Gurdaspur	Gurdaspur	98	
Ghanaur	Patiala	99	
Ludhiana-II	Ludhiana	100	
Mahilpur	Hoshiarpur	101	
Talwandi Sabo	Bhatinda	102	Yes
Rajpura	Patiala	103	
Andana	Sangrur	104	
Bhunga	Hoshiarpur	105	
Mour	Bhatinda	106	
Fazilka	Firozepur	107	
Abohar	Firozepur	108	
Hazipur	Hoshiarpur	109	
Budhlada	Mansa	110	
Jalalabad	Firozepur	111	
Sanaur	Patiala	112	
Mansa	Mansa	113	
Makhu	Firozepur	114	
Mamdot	Firozepur	115	
Kahnuwan	Gurdaspur	116	
Jhunir	Mansa	117	
Narot Jaimal Singh	Gurdaspur	117	
Gurur Har Sahai	Firozepur	118	
Pathankot	Gurdaspur	119	
Sardulgarh	Mansa	120	
Patran	Patiala	121	
Ferozpur	Firozepur	122	

Code: ……

Status of Local Agricultural Labour in Punjab
(Punjab State Farmers Commission Project)
Pilot Census Survey

Districté é é . Blocké é é é .

Villageé é é é ..

Household Type: Farm Non-Farm Labour (Local) Labour (Migrated)

Respondent é é é é é é é é Relation with Head of HH é é é é é é .

Activity é é é é é é é é é

No. of Members é é é é é .. No. of Adult Members é é é é é é ..

No. of Member(s) Educated above 10th é é é .... Specify é é é é é

Institution(s) é é é é é é

Farm Household

Area (in Acres): Owned é é é é é é Operated é é é é é ..

Cropping Pattern é ..

No. of Tractors é é é é No. of Combine Harvesters é é é é é **Total No. of**

Workers Employed (Local)

Regular é é é é é é .. Season-wise (Rabbi)é é é .. Kharif é é ..

Wages Paidé é é é é é é (Cash/Kind)

Casual é é é é é é .. Season-wise (Rabbi)é é é .. Kharif é é ..

Wages Paidé é é é é é é (Cash/Kind)

Total No. of Workers Employed (Migratory)

Regular é é é é é é .. Season-wise (Rabbi)é é é .. Kharif é é ..
Wages Paidé é é é é é é é é . (Cash/Kind)

Casual é é é é é é .. Season-wise (Rabbi)é é é .. Kharif é é ..
Wages Paidé é é é é é é é é . (Cash/Kind)

nterprise Capital Investment é é é é é ..

Employed: Family Membersé é é .. Local é é .. Migratory é é é

Wages: Local é é .. Migratory é é é

Monthly Income é é é é . Annual Income é é é é é é ..

Labor Household

Monthly Income é é é é é é é é é ..

Labour Details

Type	Attached		Casual		Origin
	No.	Activity	No.	Activity	
Local Employed					
Migratory Employed					
Outsourced					

Any Other Information é ..

ocal Agricultural Labour in Punjab
tate Farmers Commission Project)
Sample Survey

Districté é é . Blocké é é é .

Villageé é é é ..

1. Name of the Respondent é é é é é é é é é é ..
2. House Ownership: Own Hired
   a) If owned, Whené é é Value é é é é . Plot Size é é é é ..
   b) If hired, Rent é é é é ..
3. House Type: Kacha Semi Pacca Pacca
4. Source of Drinking Water:

   Well Water works Neighborers Own Pump

5. Assets

Assets	Description (No./Detail)	Age (Yrs.)	Value (Rs.)
Beds and Furniture			
Utensils			
Cycle			
Scooter /Motor Cycle			
Fan			
Cooler			
TV			
Audio Deck			
Fridge			

Phone/ Mobile			
Almirah/Peti/Bed Box			
Winter/Summer Clothing			
Livestock			
Any Other é é é é é é é é é é .			

6. Skill/Any Other Productive activity é é é Annual Income (Rs.)é

7. Household Information

Sr.No.	Name	Relation with HH	Sex	Age	Marital Status	Education Status Adults	children

8. Permanent Attached labour in Agriculture and Livestock

a) Type of Labour: Local Migrant

No. of Male é é é .. No. of Female é é é .

; as an Attached Labour é é é é é é é ..

Present Employer since é é é é é é . (years)

d) Agreement to Work for a Period é é é é é é é é é é ..

e) Working Hours é é é (per day) Wage Rate (Rs.) é é é é é

f) Wage Periodicity é é é é é é Wages in kind é é .é é é é

g) Annual Wage Package (Rs.) é é é Annual Paid Leavesé é é é .

h) Response of employer in case of exceeding permitted leaves é é é

i) Under what circumstances employer can be left é é é é é é é

j) Any mal-treatment by the employer é é é é é é é é é

k) Whether any other family member works as wage laborer with your employer é é é é é .. His/Her Wages (Rs.)é é é é é é é é

l) Present debt towards the employer é é é é é é é é ..

m) Can you get loan in case of need from employer: Yes / No

n) If yes: Total Amount é é é é é Amount (Without Interest) é é é Amount (With Interest) é é é é é . Rate of interesté é é é é

o) No. of other family members working as Agricultural Labour é é é . Wage Rate é é é é é é é é é é é .

p) No. of members engaged in picking up cow-dung é é é é . Wage Rateé é é é é é é ..

q) Household workers é é é é é é é ..

Wage Rate é é é é é .

9. Casual Worker

a) Gender: Male/ Female Employed: With Meal/Without Meal

b) Wage rate per day é é é é é Working Hours per day é é é é é é

c) If working outside the village

eled (kms) é é é é Mode é é é é é é é é .
enses é é é é é é é é é

Cause(s): Higher Wage Rate Non-Availability of Work

Working Conditions Skill Use appropriateness

Status/Prestige Any Other

d) Work Periodicity (No. of days in a month) é é é é é .

e) Financial Assistance from employer in case of ailment/disability

é é é é é ..

f) No. of days employed as Agriculture Worker é é é

g) The No. of days employed outside the agriculture é é é é

h) Total family earnings per month é é é é é é ..

i) Under Loan/Debt? é é é é é é é

j) Source of Loan/debt é é é é é é é é é .

k) Purpose of Loan é é é é é é é é .

Comments:

é .