



Labour Migration from Rural Odisha

Surada Block, Ganjam

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Design & Layout

Bijoy Jacob | bejoie05@gmail.com

Images

Ajaya Behera, Gram Vikas

Gram Vikas

📍 Plot No. 72/B, Forest Park,

Bhubaneswar, Odisha - 751009, India

☎ +91-674-2596366

🌐 gramvikas.org ✉ info@gramvikas.org

Centre for Migration and Inclusive Development

📍 PMC.XX/1229, Near Town Hall,

Perumbavoor, Kerala - 683542, India

☎ +91-484-2595256

🌐 cmid.org.in ✉ contact@cmid.org.in

Labour Migration from Rural Odisha

**Profiling Labour Migration from Surada Block,
Ganjam District**

Gram Vikas

Centre for Migration and Inclusive Development

Foreword

Gram Vikas has been working with the village communities in Odisha since 1979, helping to build a sustainable and dignified quality of life. The opportunities for secure and sustainable livelihoods in the villages of Odisha are limited by a variety of resource constraints. The North-Eastern Ghats and the Western Undulating Zone, two agro-climatic regions of Odisha, where most of Gram Vikas' work is focused, are characterised by a mixture of moist and deciduous forests and rain-fed agricultural economy. Reduced access to forest resources, over-exploitation of available land, and limited access to irrigation have resulted in widespread food and nutrition insecurity in these areas. Non-agricultural wage labour is hard to come by, except through public employment generation schemes. Farm labour is available for limited periods and provides very low wages. These challenges are now exacerbated by climate change, affecting these communities pointedly through increasing incidences of heat waves and unpredictable monsoon patterns.

On the other hand, increased access to education and exposure to new technologies are transforming the aspirations of the younger generation. Under these circumstances, migration for work is seen as an intermediate livelihood option, aiding the transition from a society completely based on primary sector to a more diversified one. Increasingly, migration is also being seen as a mechanism to cope with the changes in climate patterns. Across Odisha, we find that many communities that Gram Vikas works with have learned how to make the most of migration. It is a choice fraught with many emotional, social and cultural challenges, many of which came into sharp relief during the COVID-19 pandemic and the lockdowns.

At Gram Vikas, it is our position that whether or not to migrate for work is an individual's decision as it is the right of every citizen of India to do so. We believe that no one should be without a choice as to be forced to undertake distress migration. We want to ensure that everyone has adequate and appropriate opportunities within his/her native place and the decision to migrate is a conscious and informed one for the benefit of the person and his/her family. Besides, at the destination, the person should be able to pursue his/her job with dignity and social protection. Every migrant worker and his/her family should be able to enjoy occupational, emotional, financial and social security, and should have the capabilities to cope with uncertainties caused by pandemics and other disasters. The Safe and Dignified Migration Programme was launched in partnership with the Centre for Migration and Inclusive Development (CMID) in the year 2019, to work towards these.

CMID and Gram Vikas have been working together to understand and address the issues faced by migrant workers and their families. We have taken up detailed studies to understand the socioeconomic context and profile of migration at the block level. During 2020-2022, we prepared Block Migration Profiles of four blocks - Thuamul Rampur in Kalahandi district, Jagannathprasad in Ganjam district, Rayagada in Gajapati district, and Baliguda in Kandhamal district. These reports capture the various facets of the migration of people from these areas, in their pursuit to build better lives for themselves and families.

The Migration Profile of Surada block in Ganjam district is an addition to this repertoire which provides grounded insights to understand the issues in greater depth and support the development of appropriate programme elements. The Profile will also serve as the baseline to measure the changes that may take place over the next few years. I hope that the report is found useful by all those interested in the issues of rural poverty in general and migration in particular.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Liby Johnson', with a horizontal line underneath.

Liby Johnson
Executive Director
Gram Vikas

Acknowledgements

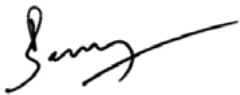
Migrant workers have been an indispensable part of India's economy and the backbone of the bustling cities. People from disadvantaged communities form the bulk of the temporary migrants in India. Engaged at lower wages than locals, with limited or no social security, these workers generally are deprived of access to public services and entitlements. The barriers to access get complicated as one crosses the state borders or takes the family along. While the precarious jobs these workers take up thousands of kilometres away from home help their families tide over their crises, alleviate poverty, pay off debts, adapt to changes in the climate, cope with conflicts, break free of the caste discriminations or move up the social ladder, it currently comes at the cost of the toxic exposure of the worker, impacting his/her health as well as longevity of life.

Migration has played a transformative role in the lives of millions of Indians including most of us. I agree with Liby Johnson, that being home with family and earning a monthly income of ₹10000 locally will remain quite a distant dream for the youth in India's rural hinterlands. With the evolving climate change impacting agriculture, I am afraid food security in rural areas could be eventually at stake, intensifying distress migration. While rural Odisha offers very low wages, with regular employment hard to come by, safe migration offers a world of opportunities. It is this shared vision that prompted CMID and Gram Vikas to jointly explore the avenues to revive and transform rural economies to be resilient and adaptive. Not only the remittances, the diffusion of social development from destinations to source villages can be a powerful vehicle of social change. Our collaborative inquiries from 2019 onwards endorsed and reinforced this vision which motivated us to profile migration from Surada block. During the analysis, we found that migration from Surada was exceptionally high. I personally visited even some remote parts of the block and reconfirmed that it is a reality.

Gram Vikas and CMID thankfully acknowledge the financial support of the Axis Bank Foundation for conducting this study. We are grateful to Dhruvi Shah, Jaison Jacob and Isha Ayyer for leading this from the Axis Bank Foundation. I congratulate and thank Gram Vikas for embracing migration as a development agenda and taking a road less travelled to promote safe migration. My heartfelt gratitude to Liby Johnson, Executive Director, Gram Vikas, and an avid development practitioner, for the trust he has placed in CMID and his genuine interest in exploring the dynamics of migration from rural Odisha. Sincere thanks to Nirmal Mohanty, Jobin Chacko, Varun Namineni, Kabir Rana, Alex Sam Thomas and Runal Toppo of Gram Vikas who led the fieldwork, ensuring rigour and process quality. I am grateful to the entire team of research investigators who participated in the laborious process of house listing and conducting interviews. The Gram Vikas team in Surada, Aruna Kumar Gamango, Bairagi Karjee, Bikram Kumar Pradhan and Sinash Raita, deserve mention for aiding in the sampling and helping the study team on the ground. I also acknowledge the contributions of the dedicated staff of Gram Vikas in Ganjam and Kandhamal districts and Bhubaneswar who ensured all support to CMID.

Sincere thanks to the Department of English, Government College Mananthavady, Kerala, particularly to Vidya S. Chandran, Assistant Professor, for copy editing the report meticulously. Our heartfelt thanks to Bijoy Jacob for his remote but outstanding support in the design and layout of the document. I thank my colleague Baishali Goswami, Director, Knowledge Management, for leading the research, and the entire CMID team for their valuable support. Finally, on behalf of Gram Vikas and CMID, I thank all our respondents, village heads, panchayat representatives, key informants and government officials at the block, district and state levels for the warm hospitality and genuine inputs for the successful completion of this study that unravels the migration from Surada in Odisha.

Sincerely

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Benoy Peter', with a long horizontal stroke extending to the right.

Benoy Peter
Executive Director
Centre for Migration and Inclusive Development

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Executive Summary

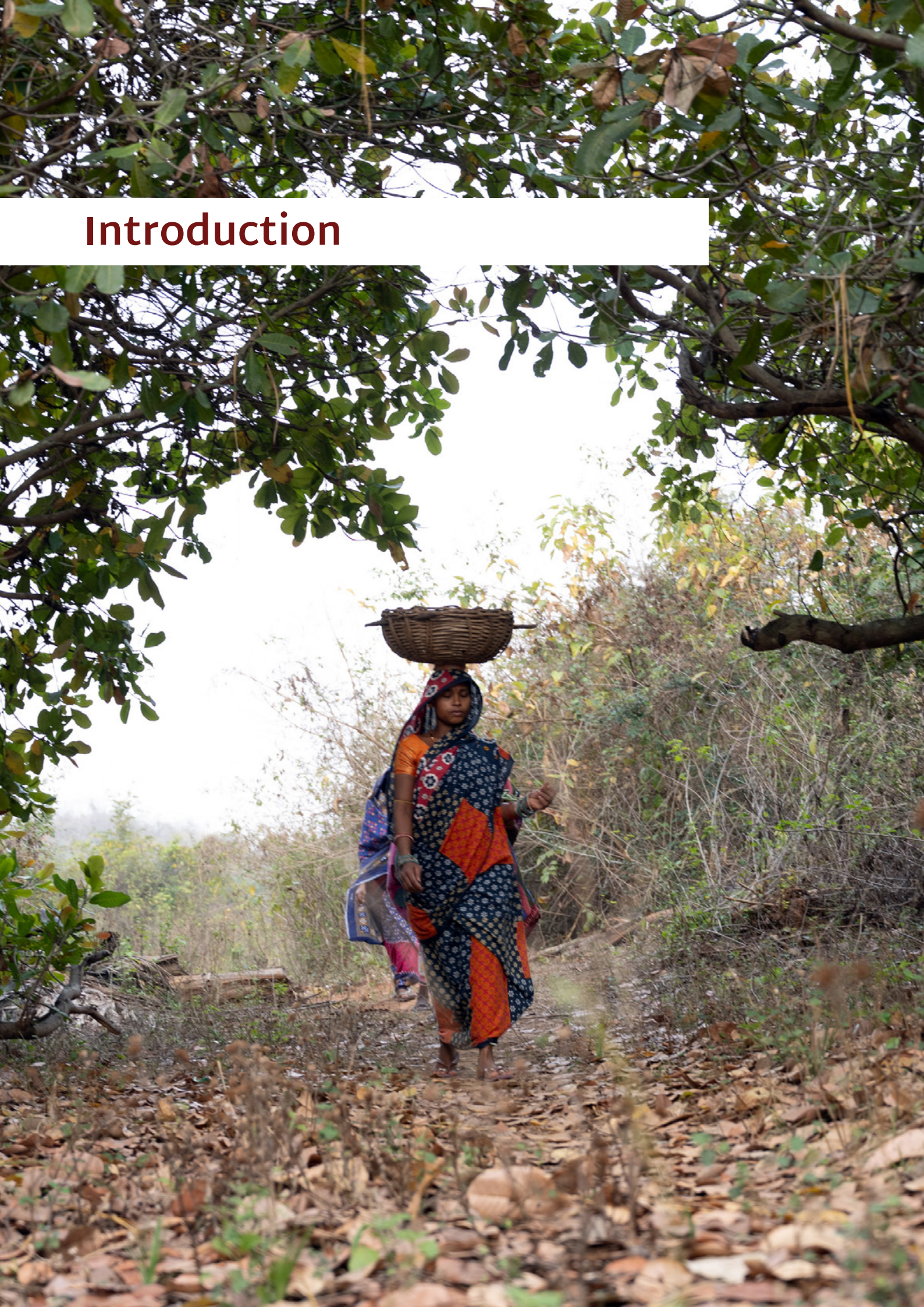
Gram Vikas has been engaged in improving the lives of the communities in Ganjam district since 1979. The organisation has been closely observing the increasing migration for work from its programme areas in Odisha. Surada block of Ganjam district of Odisha substantially depends on migration. In order to understand the migration from Surada in depth, Gram Vikas conducted a profiling of the migration from the block in partnership with CMID. The overall purpose of the study was to gather evidence on the migration scenario of Surada so that appropriate interventions can be made to promote safe migration, and the household and village economies can be revived, leveraging migration as a solution rather than a problem. A sample survey of 431 households was conducted during the period from June 2023 to September 2023, randomly selecting 22 villages/NACs and 20 households from each selected village/NAC.

Findings revealed that socially and economically disadvantaged populations comprise the majority of the households in Surada. High prevalence of landlessness, small size of the landholdings, dependence on public/natural water sources for irrigation and changes in climatic conditions have made the households in Surada rely less on agriculture for livelihood. However, the majority of households in Surada continue to be engaged in agriculture, primarily for domestic consumption. Although agriculture/agricultural labour continues to be the single largest source of local income, the majority of the households in Surada depend on other income sources. Households in Surada have not optimally leveraged/benefited from NREGS, an important government intervention to guarantee employment opportunities to the rural poor. Irrespective of the source of livelihood, the income generated locally by the households is meagre and as a result there is heavy outmigration from Surada.

Eight out of every ten households in Surada had a person who had migrated for work in the past ten years. At the time of the survey, 74.5 per cent of the households had a member who had migrated for work elsewhere outside the district. One out of every five persons from Surada worked elsewhere outside the district at the time of the survey. The total estimated number of migrant workers from Surada in 2023 was 30247. Gujarat and Kerala were the two major destination states. Unlike the typical labour migration to take up unskilled construction work in India's urban centres, a sizeable share of the migrant workers from Surada were skilled and worked in shops, establishments or factories. Most of the workers have been at their respective destination states for several years. However, they have been informally employed without any social protection with an average monthly wage of about ₹15000. A moderate estimate reveals that Surada receives about ₹180 million monthly as remittances from migrant workers.

Although Ganjam district is historically known for labour migration, the level of migration from Surada is exceptionally high and is almost saturated. While there is a component of distress, migration from Surada is driven more by aspirations. Interstate migrant workers from Surada were primarily men who moved mostly to Gujarat or Kerala, leveraging their social networks. Migration has become a way of life for young men from Surada whereas labour migration of women is unusually low. Beyond Ganjam-Surat, a labour migration corridor has evolved between Ganjam and Kerala state in southern India. Migration brings nearly two billion rupees to Surada block annually as remittances, reviving the economy of the block and improving the resilience of the households.

Introduction



Context

Migration for work has been a major means of survival for millions from the socially disadvantaged communities of rural India. Such migration remains unabated as the continuous investment in development is yet to transform the lives of people living in poverty in rural India. A host of factors have been fuelling their migration, the latest addition being the changing climatic conditions. A deeper enquiry into the dynamics of rural households is key to understanding the context of labour migration in India.

The state of Odisha, with a historically high poverty ratio, is one of the major sending states in the context of temporary labour migration. The Labour Directorate of Odisha has identified 14 migration-prone districts in the state.¹ Factors such as fluctuating agricultural production, extreme poverty, low level of literacy and recurrent natural disasters result in distress migration from several districts of the state.² The state witnessed remarkable progress in addressing the deprivation as the proportion of the multidimensionally poor fell from 29.3 per cent during 2015-16 to 15.7 per cent during 2019-2021.³ While Odisha was among the top ten states with the largest share of the multidimensionally poor during 2015-16, it was also among the top five states with the steepest decline in the number of persons with multidimensional poverty.

Ganjam district is historically known for its significant migration to the rest of India and even beyond.⁴ Ganjam-Surat has been one of the major labour migration corridors in the country. The district has witnessed a significant fall in the proportion of population who are multidimensionally poor; from 21.88 per cent during 2015-16 to 6.31 per cent during 2019-21.⁵ Labour migration appears to be one of the key contributors in the reduction of poverty. A modest estimate reveals that the district received an estimated ₹1.2 billion every month as remittances prior to March 2020.⁶

Surada block of Ganjam substantially depends on migration. A recent ethnographic study revealed that in addition to Gujarat, Kerala, has evolved as one of the major destinations of workers from Surada. The study also unravelled the key role played by caste in the evolution of labour migration corridors from Surada. While those from the socially advantaged caste groups migrated to Surat in Gujarat, the Adivasis, the Dalits and Christians preferred to move to southern Indian states.⁷

Gram Vikas has been engaged in improving the lives of the communities in Ganjam since 1979. The organisation has been closely observing the increasing migration for work from its programme areas in Odisha. Research by Gram Vikas, in collaboration with CMID, has revealed that migration contributes substantially to promoting the resilience of its partner communities. Given the context, a detailed profiling of the migration from Surada block in Ganjam district was done by conducting a sample survey. This report summarises the context, methodology and key findings of the study.

Objectives of the Study

The purpose of the study was to gather evidence on the migration scenario in Surada block so as to make appropriate interventions to ensure safe migration and revive the household and the village economies, leveraging migration as a solution rather than a problem. For Gram Vikas, which is dedicated to finding innovative solutions for the development of remote rural areas of Odisha and Jharkhand, this is also a deep dive into understanding the nuances of labour migration from its programme geographies.

The specific objectives of the study were:

- ♦ To profile labour migration from Surada block
- ♦ To estimate the household migration rates from the community development block
- ♦ To understand the sociodemographic profile of households in Surada

Methodology

In order to obtain a good one-time estimate of household migration rates, a sample size of 400 was determined. Assuming a ten per cent non-response, the sample was inflated to 440. From the villages in Surada, 22 villages were randomly selected by probability proportionate to size (PPS) and from each selected village, 20 households were selected by systematic sampling. In addition to the household survey, which aimed to understand the household characteristics and estimate household migration rates, a survey of current migrant workers was also carried out. From among the members in the household sample, who were migrants at the time of the survey, the person who made the largest contribution to the income of the household was selected for the survey of migrant workers.

In order to select 22 sample villages, villages in Surada were listed based on the number of households extracted from the Primary Census Abstract (PCA) from Census 2011 and villages with less than 40 households were merged with adjacent villages to obtain a minimum of 40 households per Primary Sampling Unit (PSU). The list of PSUs thus prepared was then sorted by panchayat and within panchayat by the percentage of the Scheduled Tribe population and then by the percentage of male marginal workers to total male workers in the village. PSUs with a population of 300 or above were segmented into clusters of around 100 households by merging adjacent paras within the PSU. Two such segments were then randomly selected from all segments. In the selected PSUs, a house listing was carried out to obtain the sampling frame for the selection of households. Details on caste, total number of household members, number of interdistrict migrants and number of interstate migrants in each household were collected under the house listing. From each selected PSU, 22 households were selected for the sample survey through systematic random sampling.

A migrant was operationally defined for the study as a member of the household, who has been working outside the district (could be outside the state or country also) and staying there for a continuous period of 30 days or more. S/he may or may not have visited the household during the survey period or could be currently at the household for a short visit after which s/he will return to worksite. A return migrant was defined as a person who had migrated and stayed outside the district for work for a continuous period of 30 days or more, but not a migrant at the time of the house listing. However, the definition of a return migrant excludes the ever migrant/s present at the household at the time of the household interview, who has an intention to go for work outside the district later/again to the same place or a different place, but currently not on a short visit for leave/festivals/other familial purpose.

A semi-structured interview schedule in Odia, digitised using mWater survey platform, was used for data collection. Data regarding the socioeconomic profile, agriculture, land use, access to public services, state of financial inclusion and also data relevant to migration, including seasonal migration, were collected from the households. Data about return migrants were also collected. The migrant survey covered areas such as the sociodemographic profile of the migrant workers, current destination, factors that influenced migration, work profile, wages, living arrangements, income, expenditure, savings and remittances, access to services and social protection.

A team of eight investigators, with a minimum educational qualification of higher secondary and above, who were conversant in the local language, were recruited and provided a two-day training for the house listing. The investigators were provided a six-day residential training on the household and migrant survey. The house listing was carried out in two phases. In the rural areas, the house listing was conducted during the period from February 2, 2023 to May 21, 2023 while the house listing for the urban block Budagada was conducted from August 19-21, 2023. Based on the house listing, the sample households were selected, and a household survey was conducted during the period from June 19, 2023 to August 01, 2023 for rural households and from August 24-28, 2023 for urban households. Each household interview took twenty to thirty minutes.

Face-to-face interviews were undertaken if the migrant respondents were available at the households during the survey. All the respondents who were at the destination were interviewed telephonically at their convenience. The survey of migrant workers took place during the period from June 19, 2023 to September 11, 2023. A total of 3973 households were covered under the house listing. The final sample size achieved for the household survey was 431 and the achieved sample size for the migrant survey was 309. Response rate was 98 per cent for the household interviews and 96 per cent for the migrant interviews. The data collected from both the surveys were analysed by the CMID research team. Bivariate analyses were undertaken based on ethnicity in order to understand the migration dynamics and patterns. Percentages have been calculated only for frequencies 30 or above. The study does not cover households that have migrated as an entire unit. It also does not cover the migration for work within Ganjam district (intradistrict migration). Migration for periods less than 30 days is also excluded.

Household Profile



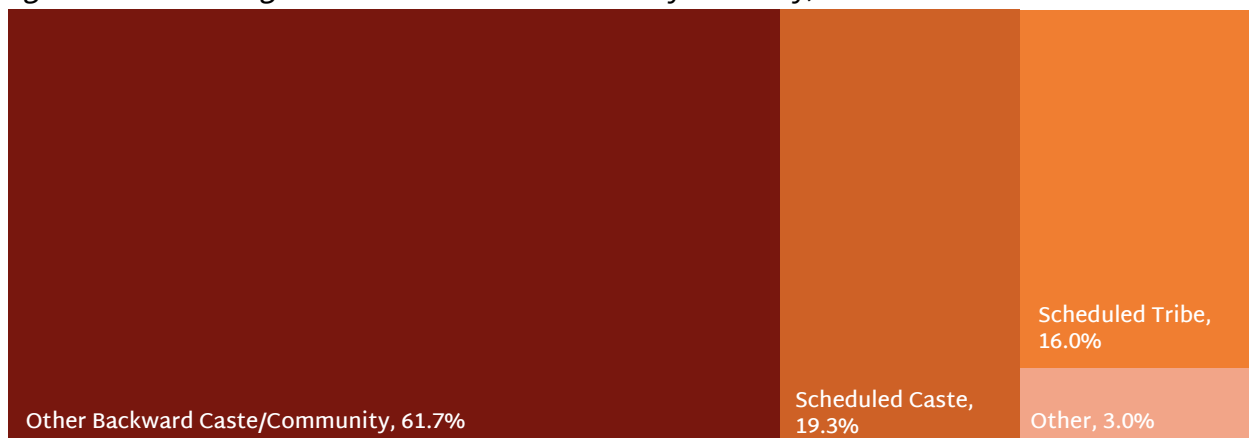


Socioeconomic Profile

The study explored the distribution of households in Surada by characteristics such as religion, caste, household size, education, type of ration card, employment under NREGS and household income. Almost 96 per cent of the households lived in rural areas of the block. Except about less than three per cent of the households that reported Christianity as their religion, all the households followed Hinduism. Almost the entire population of the block belonged to socially marginalised communities, with over three-fifths of the households hailing from Other Backward Castes/Communities (OBC). Nearly one-fifth of the households belonged to Scheduled Castes. Tribal households constituted about 16 per cent of the total households in Surada (Figure.1.1). The caste composition of the households from the study is in sync with the caste composition of the population of the block from Census 2011.

In the subsequent analysis, characteristics of the households are analysed separately for the Scheduled Castes, the Scheduled Tribes and the Other Backward Castes/Communities. Since there were only a few households (thirteen only) from communities other than the Scheduled Tribes, the Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Castes/Communities, the category is not separately analysed but included in the column 'Total' in the tables in the 'Household Profile' and 'Migration from Surada' sections of this report.

Figure.1.1: Percentage distribution of households by ethnicity, N:431



Household Size

Information on the number of members in a household, number of usual residents, those who were above 15 years of age, and total earning members in the household was obtained (Table.1.1). It was found that except among the Scheduled Castes, the average household size was five across the ethnic groups. While two-fifths of the households belonging to the Scheduled Castes had three to four members, nearly three-fifths of the tribal households reported having five or more members.



Table.1.1: Percentage distribution of households by select background characteristics and ethnicity

Variable/Category	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	OBC	
Total Number of Members in the Household				
1 to 2	10.8	11.6	7.9	9.0
3 to 4	39.8	30.4	39.8	38.3
5 to 6	36.1	47.8	39.1	39.9
7 and above	13.3	10.1	13.2	12.8
Median	4	5	5	5
Total Number of Usual Residents				
1 to 2	32.5	30.4	24.8	26.9
3 to 4	39.8	31.8	50.8	45.7
5 and above	27.7	37.7	24.4	27.4
Median	3	4	4	3
Total Number of Members in the Household Aged 15 Years and above				
1 to 2	38.6	37.7	26.3	29.9
3 to 4	43.4	40.6	44.7	44.5
5 and above	18.1	21.7	28.9	25.5
Median	3	3	3	3
Number of Members above 15 Years Who Earn				
None	1.2	0.0	0.4	0.5
1	42.2	36.2	38.3	38.7
2	34.9	37.7	37.2	37.4
3 and above	21.7	26.1	24.1	23.4
Median	2	2	2	2
Highest Education Level Attained by Any Member of the Household				
No education	8.4	13.0	6.0	7.4
Lower primary	13.3	1.4	3.0	4.6
Upper primary	31.3	27.5	22.2	24.4
High school	34.9	42.0	47.7	44.3
Higher secondary	8.4	11.6	7.9	8.6
Graduation and higher	3.6	4.3	13.2	10.7
Median educational attainment (years)	7	8	9	9
Total	100	100	100	100
Number	83	69	266	431

Median number of usual residents, excluding those who were away for education/work or other purposes for 30 days or more, was three. Nearly three in every ten of the total households had only one to two members who usually stayed in the household and a similar proportion of the total households also reported having five or more usual residents in Surada. The median number of the usual residents was three in the case of the Scheduled Castes and four in the case of both the other groups. While about one-third of the Scheduled Caste households had less than three usual residents, a quarter of the households among the Other Backward Castes/Communities reported the same. On average, there were three persons in the households aged 15 years and above and two earning members above the age of 15 years, irrespective of the ethnic background. Over a quarter of the tribal households reported having three or more earning members in the family.

Education

The highest educational attainment of any member in the household, on average, was nine years, taking all households. When compared across the ethnic groups, the median years of the highest educational attainment was the lowest among households belonging to the Scheduled Castes. For the Scheduled Tribes, it was eight years, and nine years in the case of Other Backward Castes/Communities. Over ten per cent of the tribal households in the community development block had no one who had ever gone to school. About 13 per cent of the households among Other Backward Castes/Communities had members having education up to graduation and above.

Household Income

Information about household income was also collected although it is generally not reported realistically. Both monthly income from usual residents and total monthly income of the household in the last month preceding the survey from all sources, were explored (Table.1.2). The findings here indicated that the median monthly income of households from usual residents in Surada was merely ₹1500 which ranged from ₹1000 for households belonging to the Scheduled Castes to ₹2000 for the tribal households. Nearly one-third of the households reported that they did not have any income from the usual residents. This proportion was the highest among the households of the Scheduled Castes. Nearly 45 per cent of the tribal households reported a monthly income of ₹3000 or below. On average, less than ten per cent of the households reported a monthly income greater than ₹10000, indicating the critical importance of the remittances from migrant members of the family to manage the household economy in Surada. Only about one per cent of the households from the Scheduled Tribes had a monthly income of more than ₹10000 from their usual residents whereas about ten per cent of the households from the Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Castes/Communities had a monthly income of over ₹10000 from usual residents of the household.

During the last month preceding the survey, average monthly income from all sources including the remittances from the migrant members was found to be ₹16500 for the households in Surada. It ranged between ₹13000 for the tribal households to ₹17500 for households belonging to Other Backward Castes/Communities. One in every four households reported a monthly income below ₹10000 from all sources and nearly two-fifths of the tribal households fell in this category. Only about 13 per cent of the total households reported having a total monthly income of more than ₹30000 in the month preceding the survey.

Table.1.2: Percentage distribution of households by self-reported monthly income from all sources and ethnicity

Variable/Category	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	OBC	
Monthly Income from Usual Residents				
No Income	34.9	27.5	32.7	31.6
3000 or Less	32.5	44.9	28.9	32.0
3001 to 6000	13.3	14.5	18.0	16.7
6001 to 10000	8.4	11.6	10.5	10.7
Above 10000	10.8	1.4	9.8	9.0
Median	1000	2000	1500	1500
Total Monthly Income in the Last Month from All Sources				
10000 or Less	26.5	39.1	21.1	25.3
10001 to 20000	42.2	36.2	44.0	42.7
20001 to 30000	15.7	17.4	21.4	19.5
Above 30000	15.7	7.2	13.5	12.5
Median	16000	13000	17500	16500
Total	100	100	100	100
Number	83	69	266	431

Housing and Living Conditions

This section describes the existing housing conditions in Surada block. In addition to the type of housing, the study examined access to basic services such as water supply, sanitation and electricity. The sources of finance for improving the housing and living conditions were also explored. As evident from Table.1.3, almost all the respondents lived in their own houses. Nearly one-fifth of the households in Surada had Kachha dwelling units. Two out of every five households from the Scheduled Tribes resided in Kachha houses.

Table.1.3: Percentage distribution of households by select housing characteristics and ethnicity

Variable/Category	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	OBC	
Type of House				
Pukka	80.7	58.0	85.7	80.5
Kachha	19.3	42.0	14.3	19.5
House Ownership				
Own	98.8	98.6	98.5	98.6
Rented	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.4
Total	100	100	100	100
Number	83	69	266	431

In order to understand whether the remittances have impacted the construction/renovation of the houses, data regarding the source of income for construction/ last renovation were collected. Over two-fifths of the households that undertook the construction/renovation of the house did it with the financial support from government schemes. A little over one-third of them used household income other than remittances (Table.1.4). One in every five households constructed/renovated houses using the remittances from the migrant members. While the households from the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes depended heavily on the government schemes for the construction/ renovation of houses, households from Other Backward Castes/Communities relied more on their household income and the remittances of migrant members for this purpose.

Table.1.4: Percentage distribution of households that constructed/renovated the house in the past five years by source of financing and ethnicity

Source of Financing	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	OBC	
Government Scheme	68.7	56.7	29.9	41.8
NGO Scheme	0.0	3.0	0.0	0.5
Household Income Other Than Remittances	18.1	20.9	45.1	35.9
Remittances of Migrant Member	13.3	19.4	25.0	21.8
Total	100	100	100	100
Number	83	67	264	426

The households were then enquired about the availability of water, toilet, kitchen facilities, cooking fuel and electricity, as access to these services is crucial to determine the standard of living. Piped water supply into the dwelling was available to only four per cent of all households (Table.1.5). However, nearly a quarter of all households reported having access to piped water into their yard or plot. While nearly three in every ten of the households from the Scheduled Castes and from Other Backward Castes/Communities reported access to some form of piped water, only less than one-fifth of the tribal households reported having such access. Compared to the other two ethnic groups, even the access to public tap or standpipe was found to be least among the tribal households. Hand pumps were reported as the major source of drinking water by one in every two tribal households.



Table.1.5: Percentage distribution of households by select amenities at the current residence and ethnicity

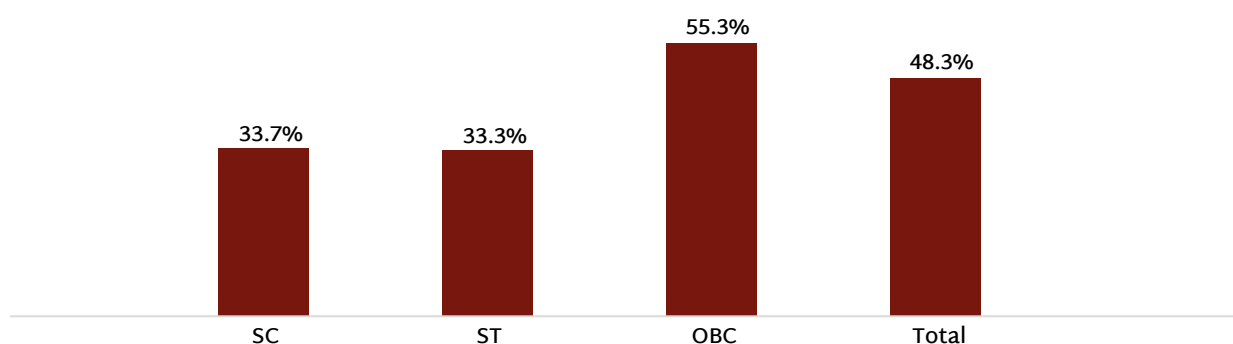
Variable/Category	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	OBC	
Main Source of Drinking Water				
Piped into the Dwelling	3.6	0.0	5.6	4.2
Piped into Yard or Plot	25.3	18.8	25.9	24.6
Public Tap or Standpipe	34.9	20.3	30.1	29.0
Hand Pump within 100m of House	21.7	27.5	25.6	25.3
Hand Pump more than 100m away from House	6.0	23.2	5.3	8.4
Dug Well within 100m of House	7.2	7.2	3.0	5.1
Other	1.2	2.9	4.5	3.5
Separate Kitchen Facility				
Available	63.9	75.4	74.8	73.1
Not Available	36.1	24.6	25.2	26.9
Source of Fuel				
LPG/Natural Gas	7.2	2.9	23.7	18.1
Biogas	1.2	0.0	5.6	3.7
Wood	91.6	97.1	69.9	77.7
Other	0.0	0.0	0.8	0.5
Source of Lighting				
Electricity from Grid	90.4	82.6	97.4	93.3
Sharing Electricity from Grid through Another Household	4.8	7.2	1.5	3.2
Kerosene	4.8	10.1	0.8	3.0
Other	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.5
Total	100	100	100	100
Number	83	69	266	431

A little more than a quarter of all households did not have a separate kitchen facility within the house. The proportion of households with a separate kitchen was significantly larger in the case of the Scheduled Tribe households and households from Other Backward Castes/Communities in Surada compared to the Scheduled Castes. Further, firewood emerged as the main cooking fuel for over three-fourths of all households. Nine out of every ten households among the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes were dependent on firewood as their main source of fuel for cooking. Use of LPG/natural gas was relatively low in the community development block, with disproportionately lower share of households from the Scheduled Tribes. Nearly one in every four households from Other Backward Castes/Communities reported using mainly LPG as cooking fuel.

Most of the households had an electricity connection. The majority of the households got electricity from a personal connection from the grid for lighting. Although over four-fifths of the tribal households reported having a personal connection from the grid, one in every ten tribal households reported using kerosene for lighting.

Overall, less than half of the households had access to functional toilets (Figure.1.2). Availability of a functional toilet varies widely across ethnic groups. While more than half of the households from Other Backward Communities reported having a functional toilet, only one in every three households reported the same in the other two categories.

Figure.1.2: Percentage of households in Surada with a functional toilet, N:431



The households which had a functional toilet were asked how regularly it was used and if water supply was available inside the toilet. The source of finance for the construction of toilets was also enquired to understand if remittances from migrant workers had resulted in an improvement in the sanitary conditions of the families in Surada.

Among those who reported having access to functional toilets, water supply was available in the toilets for only one-fifth of the households (Table.1.6). A large majority of the households reported regular use of the toilets by the members. Most of these toilets were constructed with funding from a government scheme. Remittances from migrant members had also contributed to the construction of the toilets as evident from Table.1.6. Nearly one-fifth of the households from the Other Backward Castes/Communities reported having constructed toilets using remittances.

Table.1.6: Percentage distribution of households with functional toilets by select characteristics and ethnicity

Variable/Category	Ethnicity		Total
	SC/ST	OBC	
Availability of Water Supply in the Toilet			
Available	9.8	24.5	21.2
Not Available	90.0	75.5	78.8
Regular Use of the Toilet by Members of the Household			
Use	66.7	89.8	84.6
Do Not Use	33.3	10.2	15.4
Source of Finance for Construction of Toilet			
Government Scheme	82.4	68.7	72.1
Household Income Other Than Remittances	7.8	12.9	12.5
Remittances of Migrant Member	9.8	18.4	15.4
Total	100	100	100
Number	51	147	208

Ownership of Select Assets

Ownership of select assets was explored among the households to understand the standard of living. Assets owned, provided in Table.1.7, indicate the consumption patterns among the households of Surada. The households from Other Backward Castes/Communities were significantly better off in terms of ownership of assets and amenities. Ownership of most of the assets was found to be lower among the tribal households. An electric fan was one of the most common assets across the household categories.



Table.1.7: Percentage of households by ownership of select assets and ethnicity

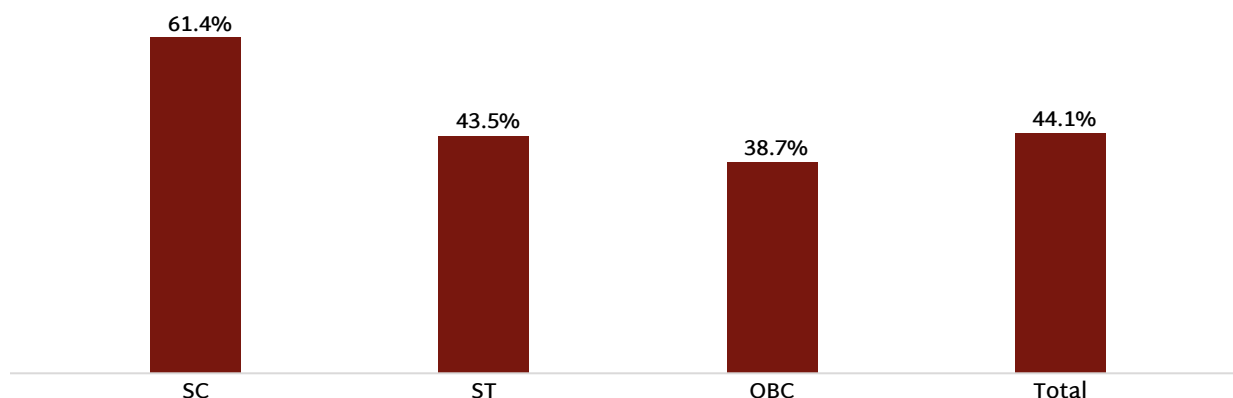
Asset	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	OBC	
Electric Fan	81.9	59.4	88.3	82.8
Chair	72.3	59.4	73.7	71.2
Wooden Cot/Bed	54.2	44.9	66.2	60.6
Table	60.2	31.9	64.7	59.2
Watch or Clock	45.8	29.0	67.7	57.8
Bicycle	55.4	39.1	58.6	55.2
Smartphone	39.8	34.8	53.0	48.0
Basic Mobile Phone	41.0	37.7	52.3	47.1
Television	18.1	23.2	40.2	33.6
Pressure Cooker	18.1	17.4	28.9	25.8
Motorcycle/Scooter	16.9	18.8	18.8	19.3
Mattress	8.4	7.2	22.9	18.3
DTH Connection	7.2	17.4	18.0	16.2
Refrigerator	2.4	2.9	5.3	4.2
Sewing Machine	1.2	0.0	4.1	3.2
Autorickshaw	1.2	0.0	3.4	2.6
Radio or Transistor	0.0	1.4	1.5	1.4
Steel Cot or Bed	2.4	0.0	1.1	1.2
Computer/Laptop	0.0	0.0	1.1	0.7
Thresher	1.2	0.0	0.8	0.7
Other Four-wheeled Vehicle	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.2
Any Other Telephone	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.2
Number	83	69	266	431

Overall, nearly half of the households in Surada had a smartphone and a similar proportion reported having a basic mobile phone. Possession of mobile phones, both smartphones and basic phones, was found to be highest among Other Backward Castes/Communities. About one-fifth of the total households had motorcycles or scooters and over half of them had bicycles. Ownership of assets which have an income-generating potential such as sewing machines, autorickshaw or other four-wheeled vehicles was found to be low across all ethnic groups and in turn has an impact on household productivity and income diversification.

Land and Agriculture

Agriculture has traditionally been one of the main sources of livelihood among rural households. However, there has been a gradual shift in rural economies because of the reduction and fragmentation of landholdings, changing climatic conditions, employment in non-agrarian rural markets and migration to urban centres. Landownership and agricultural practice also play a role in determining the nature of migration. Households with land may have seasonal migrant members who return to the village during the farming season to assist family members in agriculture. This section examines landownership and agricultural practices of the households in Surada block. The households were asked details about their landownership, their engagement in agriculture and current family occupation. An attempt was also made to understand the impact of climate change on the agricultural practices in the region.

Figure.1.3: Percentage of landless households in Surada, N:431



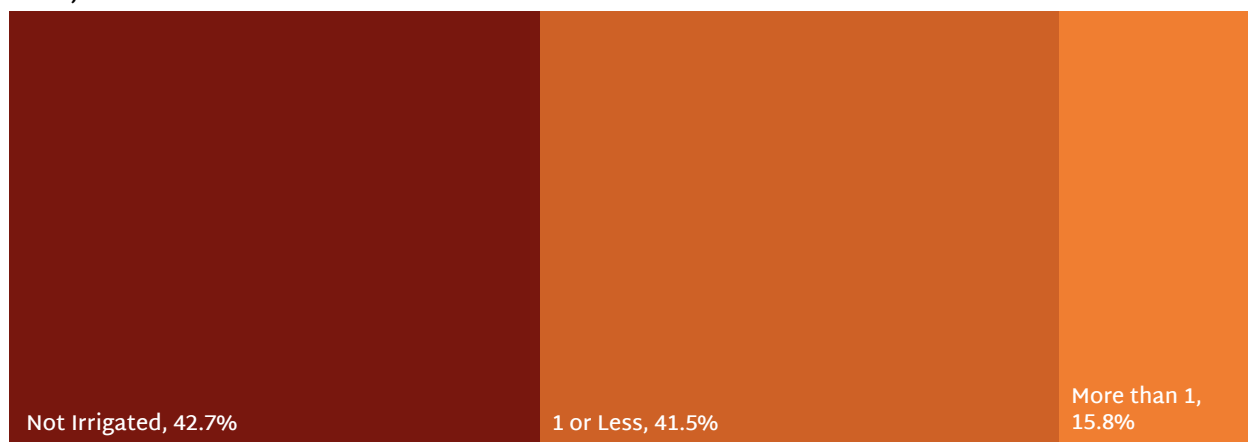
As evident from Figure.1.3, over two-fifths of the households in Surada did not own any agricultural land, with a large share from the Scheduled Castes. The households were enquired about the quantum of patta land they owned (Table.1.8). Over one-third of all households owned one acre of patta land or less. Over a quarter of the tribal households owned more than one acre of land, the highest across all ethnic groups. Overall, the median area of patta land owned by the households was half an acre. The median size of patta landholding was one acre for households among the Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Castes/Communities.

Table 1.8: Percentage distribution of households by ownership of patta land and ethnicity

Land Owned (in Acres)	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	OBC	
Landless	61.4	43.5	38.7	44.1
1 or Less	28.9	30.4	41.0	36.4
1.01 to 2.00	6.0	20.3	12.8	13.2
More than 2	3.6	5.8	7.5	6.3
Median	0.0	1.0	1.0	0.5
Total	100	100	100	100
Number	83	69	266	431

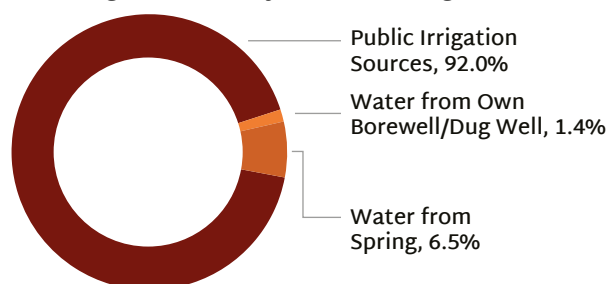
Information regarding the area of irrigated patta land was obtained from the households which reported ownership of such land (Figure.1.4). The mode of irrigation was also explored (Figure.1.5). Two-fifths of the households which owned patta land reported that their land was not at all irrigated. A similar proportion of households owned irrigated patta land of maximum one acre. About 16 per cent of the households with patta land had over one acre of their land irrigated.

Figure.1.4: Percentage distribution of households with patta land (acres) by irrigation status, N:241



Nine out of every ten households with irrigated land depended on public water sources. Another seven per cent of the households reported using water from the nearby springs to irrigate their land. Very few households with irrigated land owned a dug well or a borewell.

Figure.1.5: Percentage distribution of households with irrigated land by mode of irrigation, N:138



Although agriculture/agricultural labour continues to be the single largest source of local income, the majority of the households depend on other income sources

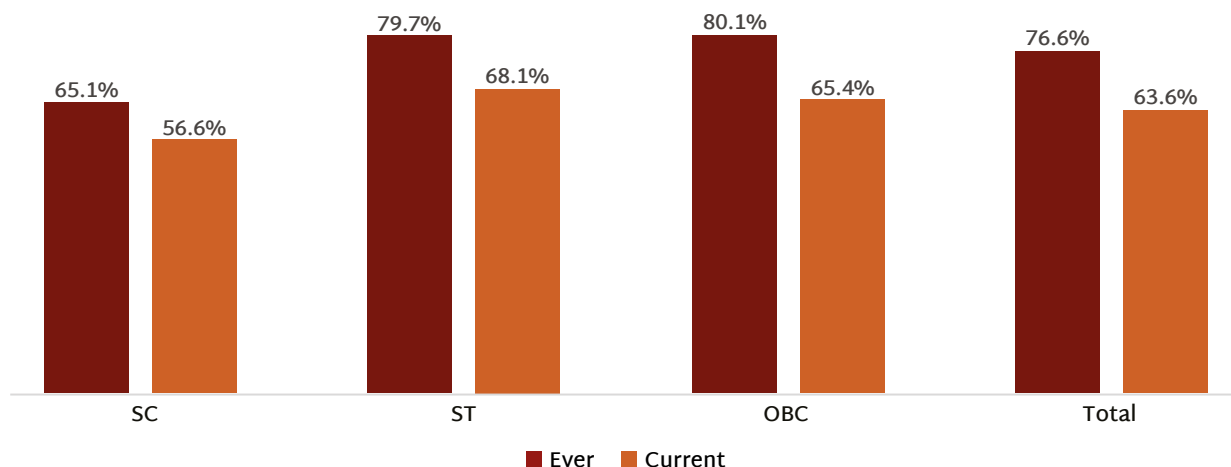
An enquiry was made into the major source of local income of the households. About two-fifths of all households reported agriculture or agricultural labour as the major source of income. Nearly three in every ten households cited wage labour in sectors other than agriculture as their major source of income. More than half of the tribal households reported agriculture/agricultural labour as the primary source of local income. Agriculture/agricultural labour was the key source of local income for the households from Other Backward Castes/Communities as well. However, the households from the Scheduled Castes primarily depended on non-agricultural daily wage labour. About five per cent of the households had no local source of income.

Table.1.9: Percentage distribution of households by major source of local income and ethnicity

Major Source of Household Income	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	OBC	
Agriculture/Agricultural Labour	28.9	52.2	40.2	39.9
Other Daily Wage Labour	36.1	20.3	28.9	29.0
Business	6.0	2.9	5.6	5.1
Other	25.3	21.7	19.5	20.9
None	3.6	2.9	5.6	5.1
Total	100	100	100	100
Number	83	69	266	431

The households were asked whether they had a history of engaging in agricultural activity and if they were engaged in agriculture at the time of survey. As evident from Figure.1.6, three-fourths of the total households had a history of engagement in agricultural activities and the majority of them continued the practice at the time of the survey. Engagement in farming was historically lower among the households from the Scheduled Castes compared to other ethnic groups. Nearly two-thirds of the households from the Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Castes/Communities reported continuing agricultural activities. The shift from agriculture was starker in the case of the Other Backward Castes/Communities compared to the other two ethnic groups.

Figure.1.6: Percentage of households by their engagement in agriculture, N:431

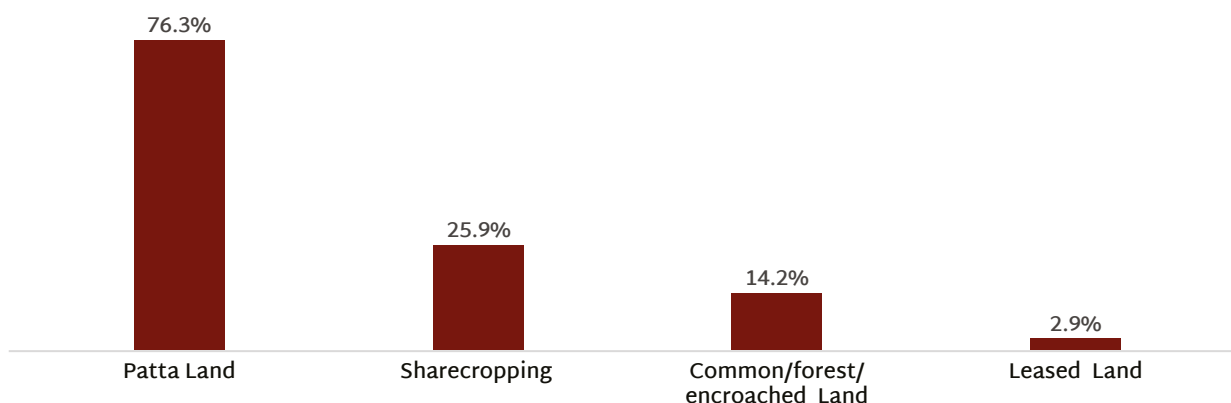


Out of 330 households that were ever engaged in agricultural practices, 56 reported having discontinued the practice at the time of the survey. According to them agriculture was no longer profitable to continue with and they hardly had anyone in the family to take it up.

Cultivation Practices

The cultivation practices of the households currently engaged in agriculture were explored, such as the type of land used for agriculture, the number of crop cycles in a year, the employment of agricultural labourers in the past 12 months and the sale of agricultural produce.

Figure.1.7: Percentage of households by typology of land used for agriculture, N:274



In Surada, households used patta land, forest/common/encroached land and leased land for cultivation. Among those who were currently engaged in agriculture, over three-fourths reported cultivating their patta land (Figure.1.7). Forest/common/encroached land was used by about 14 per cent and a few households cultivated leased land. Nearly 55 per cent of the households who cultivated patta land used up to one acre of land for cultivation and 17 per cent used two acres or more. Over a quarter of the households practised share cropping in Surada.

As evident from Table.1.10, three-fourths of all households practicing agriculture were engaged in only one crop cycle in the year prior to the survey. This proportion ranged between 73 per cent for households from Other Backward Castes/Communities to 87 per cent for households from the Scheduled Castes. Overall, two-thirds of the households employed agricultural labourers along with family members. Three in every ten households did not employ any labourer other than the household members. A little over half of the tribal households undertook farming relying exclusively on family members. Over a quarter of the households engaged in agriculture from the Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Castes/Communities, fully depended on family members.

Table.1.10: Percentage distribution of households currently engaged in agriculture by select cultivation practices and ethnicity

Variable/Category	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	OBC	
Number of Crop Cycles in the Previous Year				
One	87.2	78.7	72.4	76.3
Two	12.8	21.3	27.6	23.7
Employment of Labourers in the Past 12 Months				
Only Household Members	27.7	53.2	25.9	31.4
Only Labourers	2.1	0.0	2.3	2.6
Household Members and Labourers	70.2	46.8	71.8	66.1
Sale of Agricultural Produce				
Used only for Consumption	57.4	57.4	45.4	50.0
Sold during Financial Crisis	25.5	31.9	20.1	22.6
Sold Surplus Produce	17.0	10.6	34.5	27.4
Total	100	100	100	100
Number	47	47	174	274

Half of the households which engaged in agriculture in Surada, used the agricultural produce exclusively for household consumption and over a quarter of the households reported that they sold the surplus produce. However, the capacity to sell the surplus produce varied across ethnic groups. While one-third of households from Other Backward Castes/Communities had surplus produce to sell, only about ten per cent of the households from the Scheduled Castes did so. Nearly one-third of the tribal households and one-fifth of the households from Other Backward Castes/Communities reported that they sold agriculture produce only during financial crisis.

Impact of Climate Change on Agriculture

Climate change is one of the major deterrents in pursuing agriculture. It is often found to be responsible for pushing people out of the primary sector in rural areas and in the absence of any other decent livelihood opportunities in villages, people migrate to the urban areas. An exploration was made to understand whether any change in weather over time has negatively affected the ability of the households in Surada to engage in agriculture.

Table 1.11: Percentage distribution of households currently engaged in agriculture by reported impact of climate change on farming

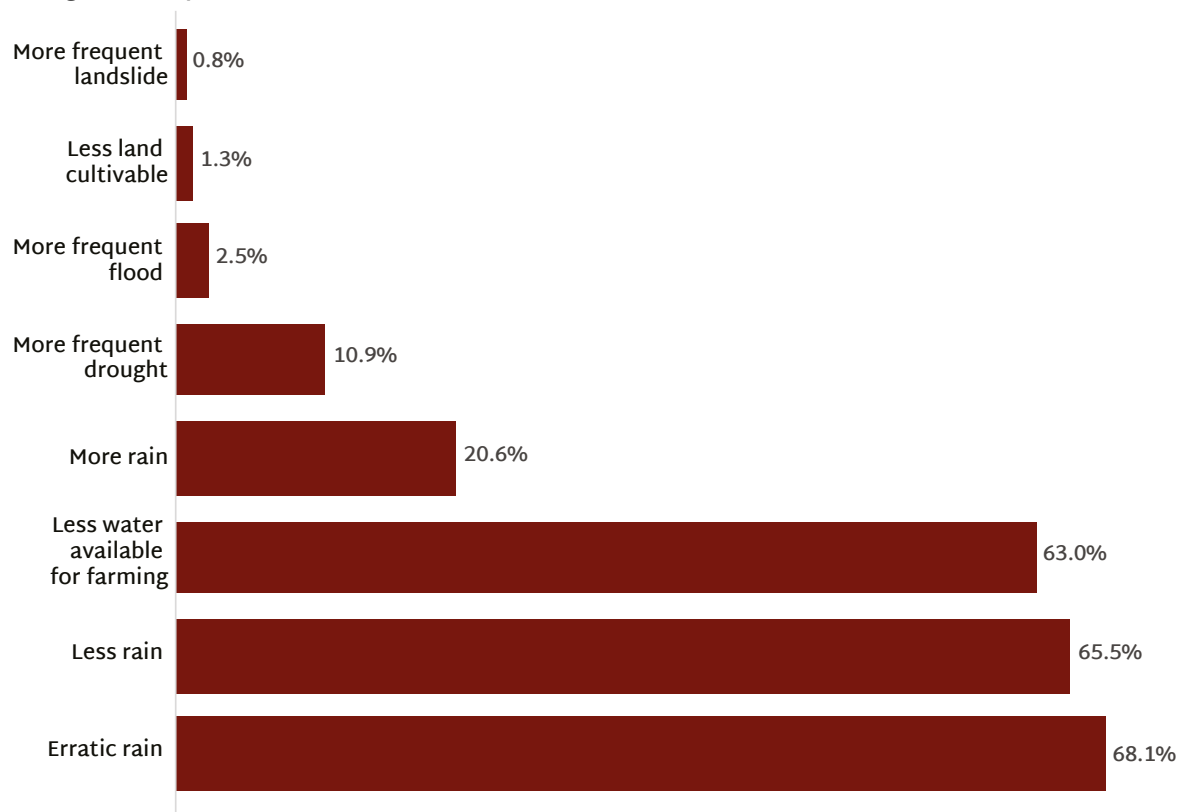
Impact of climate change	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	OBC	
Negatively Impacted	93.6	89.4	84.5	86.9
No Impact	4.3	8.5	13.2	10.9
Cannot Say	2.1	2.1	2.3	2.2
Total	100	100	100	100
Number	47	47	174	274

Four out of every five households currently engaged in agriculture in Surada, irrespective of their ethnic background, reported that the changes in the climate had a negative impact on their ability to engage in profitable agriculture (Table.1.11). Two-thirds of the households reported erratic/inadequate rains affecting farming negatively. Over three-fifths of the households also reported less availability of water for farming. Excessive rains were also reported by one-fifth of the households currently engaged in agriculture (Figure.1.8).



Climate change negatively impacted the ability of the households to engage in profitable agriculture

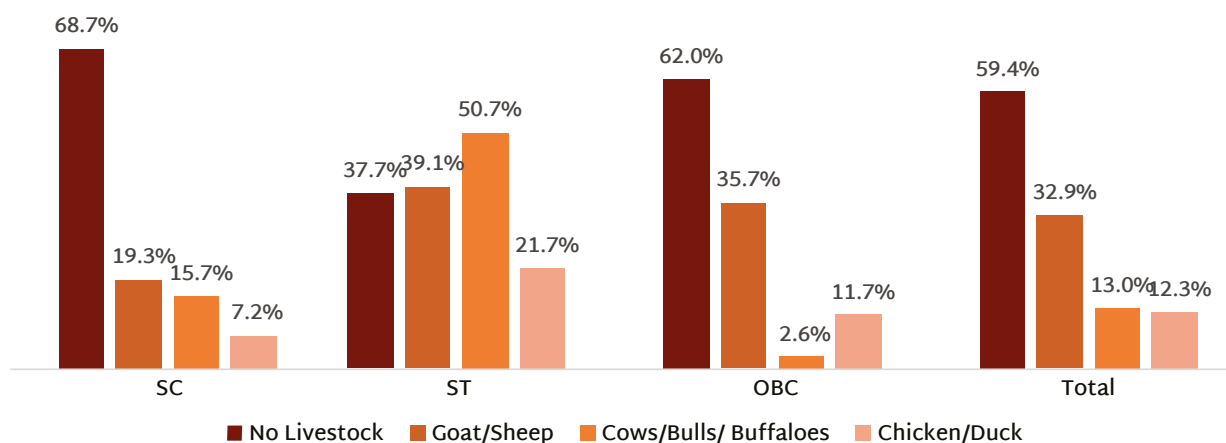
Figure.1.8 : Percentage of households currently engaged in agriculture by select negative impacts of climate, N:238



Livestock

Raising of livestock can have a significant impact on reducing poverty in rural areas. It has the potential to fill the income gaps of rural households especially during seasonal fluctuations in agriculture, particularly for small and marginal farmers. Most of the households did not rear any livestock. About one-third of all households reared cows/buffalos/bulls. Around 13 per cent of the total households had poultry and 12 per cent of all households were engaged in goat/sheep rearing (Figure.1.9).

Figure.1.9: Percentage of households with select livestock, N:431



The tribal households were more engaged in rearing livestock compared to the other ethnic groups. Over half of the households from the tribal communities raised poultry and nearly two-fifths reported having cows/buffalos/bulls. Over one-fifth of the tribal households reared goat/sheep as well. Only about six per cent of the total households earned income from livestock in the past three months preceding the survey.

Social Security

The state of social security of the households in Surada block was explored. Information about the availability of ration card, access to schemes such as NREGS, state of financial inclusion such as banking, insurance, etc. and access to select services was examined under this section.

Ration Card and BPL Card

Data on the type of ration card possessed by the households were elicited to examine the extent of food security and socioeconomic conditions in Surada. About 12 per cent of the households in Surada did not have a ration card at all (Table.1.12). This ranged from about three per cent in the case of the households from the Scheduled Tribes to 16 per cent in the case of the households from Other Backward Castes/Communities. Overall, one per cent of the households in Surada had Antyodaya Anna Yojana (AAY) cards for the ultra-poor, which was primarily limited to around four per cent of the tribal households. Overall, over four-fifths of the households had Priority Households (PHH) ration cards. The proportion of households with PHH cards was similar among the households from the Scheduled Castes as well as the households from the Scheduled Tribes. About one-fourth of the households in Surada had ration cards signifying their Below Poverty Line (BPL) status. The share of BPL households was relatively lesser among the Scheduled Tribes whereas it was largest among the Other Backward Castes/Communities.

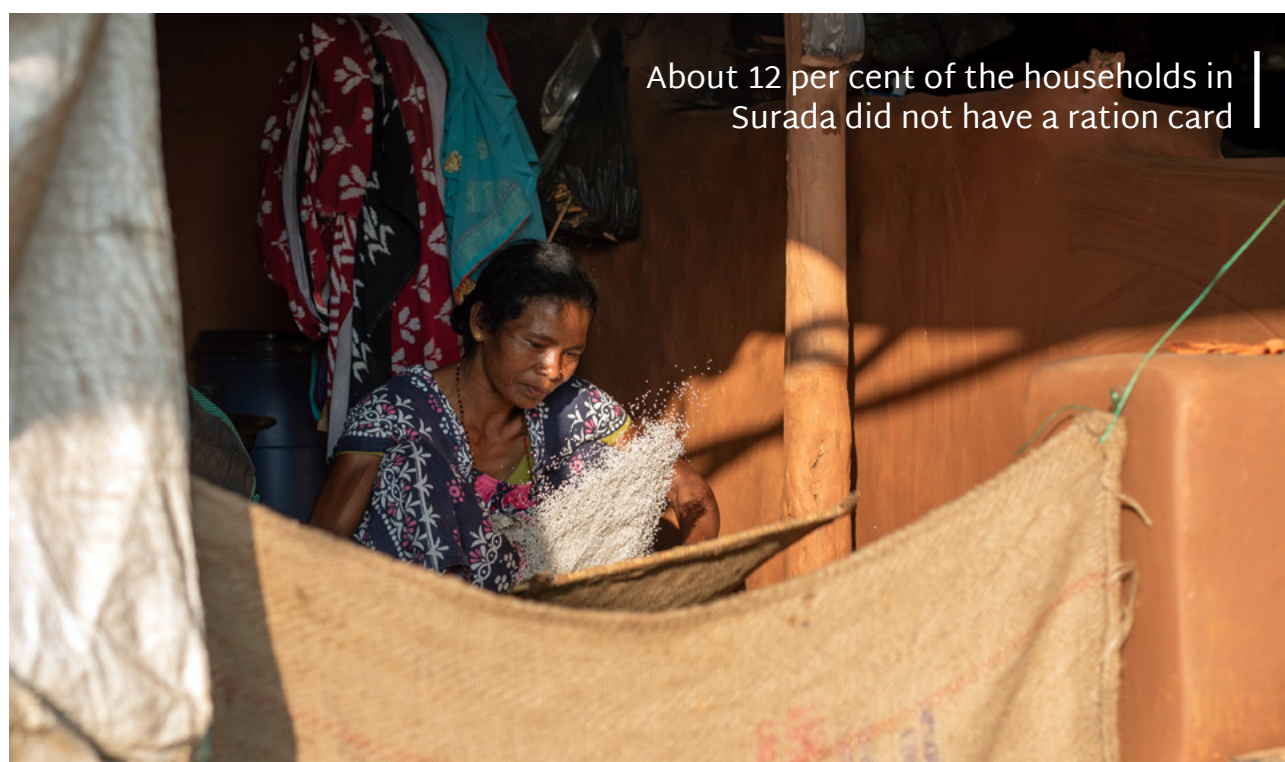


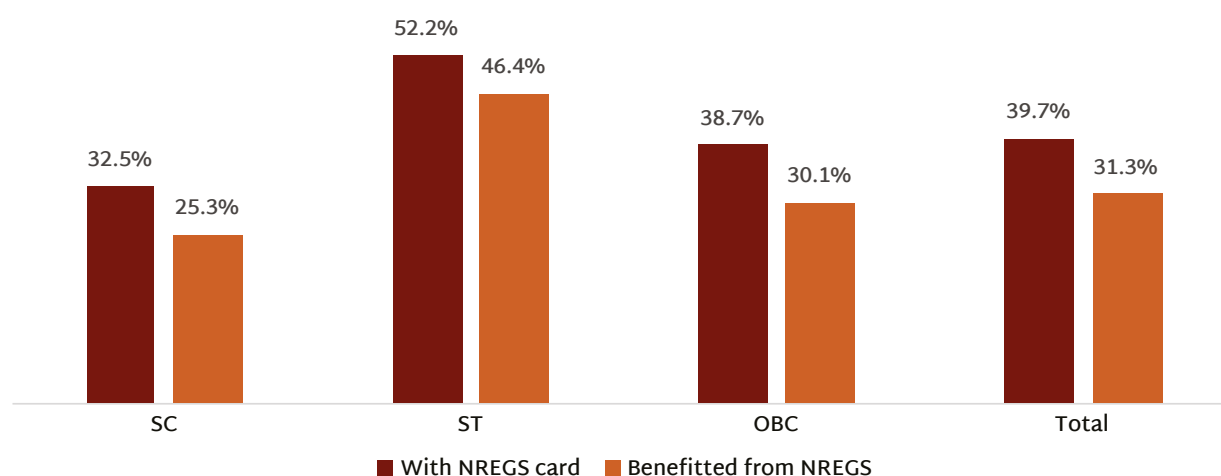
Table.1.12: Percentage distribution of households by type of ration card, possession of BPL card and ethnicity

Variable/Category	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	OBC	
Type of Ration Card				
No Ration Card	8.4	2.9	15.8	12.3
AAY Card	0.0	4.3	0.8	1.2
PHH Card	89.2	92.8	82.7	85.6
Do Not Know	2.4	0.0	0.8	0.9
BPL Status				
BPL Card	25.3	18.8	30.8	27.6
Other Card	71.1	78.3	67.7	70.3
Do Not Know	3.6	2.9	1.5	2.1
Total	100	100	100	100
Number	83	69	266	431

Participation in National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (NREGS)

The National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (NREGS) was introduced to ensure a minimum of 100 days of employment to the vulnerable households in rural areas. During the survey, the households were asked whether they had a job card which would entitle them to work under the scheme. About two-fifths of the households in Surada reported that they had an NREGS card (Figure.1.10). Over half of the tribal households, nearly two-fifths of the households from Other Backward Castes/Communities and one-third of the households from the Scheduled Castes had NREGS job cards.

Figure.1.10: Percentage of households with NREGS card and those benefitted from it in the past 12 months, N:431



Overall, slightly more than one in every ten households of Surada reported having obtained work from NREGS during the past 12 months preceding the survey. While 46 per cent of the tribal families benefited from MGNREGS work during the past 12 months, nearly 30 per cent of the households from Other Backward Castes/Communities had benefited from NREGS during the same time period. Four-fifths of all households which had an NREGS card, reported having benefited from it in the past 12 months preceding the survey (Table.1.13). The median number of days of NREGS work secured by the households with the job card was 40 days. This was similar in the case of the households from the Scheduled Castes as well as Other Backward Castes/Communities. The median number of NREGS work secured by the Scheduled Tribes was 30 days, significantly lower compared to the other two ethnic categories.

Over one-fifth of the households in Surada, that had a job card, reported that they did not work at all under NREGS in the past 12 months preceding the survey. Nearly a quarter of the households with an NREGS card from Other Backward Castes/Communities did not work under NREGS in the past 12 months. For the households from the Scheduled Tribes, this was around 13 per cent. A little over one-third of the households from the Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Castes/Communities with NREGS cards received more than 50 workdays and about 27 per cent each received 26 to 50 days of work in the past 12 months preceding the survey.

Table.1.13: Percentage distribution of households with NREGS cards by number of workdays in the past 12 months and ethnicity

Days of NREGS Work in the Past 12 Months	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	OBC	
No Work	-	13.5	23.1	22.4
1 to 25	-	21.6	12.5	14.4
26 to 50	-	27.0	27.9	28.2
Above 50	-	37.8	36.5	35.1
Median Workdays	40	30	40	40
Total	100	100	100	100
Number	28	37	104	174

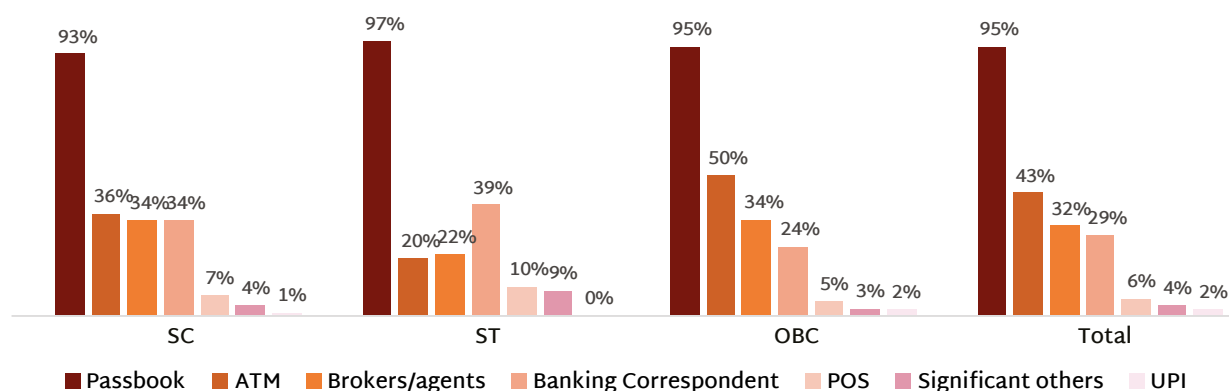


State of Financial Inclusion and Access to Services

Access to banking services is increasingly significant for rural households as it provides safer and more reliable sources of savings and credit. Besides, the state also transfers NREGS wages and other cash subsidies directly into the bank accounts of beneficiaries in order to reduce leakages and corruption. Access of households in Surada to financial services was explored in the survey in terms of whether the households have at least one member with a functional bank/post office account. By a functional bank account, it was meant that there was at least one transaction in the form of deposit or withdrawal in the past six months from the date of the survey. Findings indicated that in Surada, every household, irrespective of their ethnic background, had at least one member with a functional bank account at the time of the survey and about five per cent of the total households had a functional post office account as well.

The households were asked about the methods used by household members with bank or post office accounts to withdraw money. Overall, 95 per cent of the households primarily used passbooks to withdraw money from the bank or post office account (Figure.1.11). More than two-fifths of the households withdrew money from ATMs. Half of the households from Other Backward Caste/Communities and over one-third of the households from the Scheduled Castes withdrew money from their account using ATM cards.

Figure.1.11: Percentage of households with members having bank/post office accounts by select means of withdrawal of money, N:431

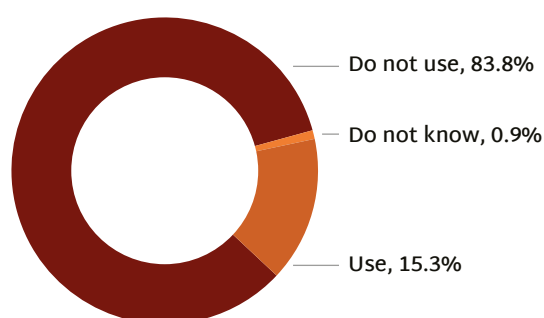


About one-third of the households in Surada withdrew money through brokers/agents. One in every three households, each from the Scheduled castes and Other Backward Caste/Communities, relied on brokers for withdrawing money from their accounts. Overall, about 29 per cent of the households leveraged Banking Correspondents. One in every three households from the Scheduled Castes, two-fifths of the tribal households and nearly a quarter of households from Other Backward Castes/Communities mentioned leveraging Banking Correspondents for withdrawing money.

Households with bank accounts were asked generally how much time they took to fetch money or update the passbook from the bank/post office if the usual mode of commuting was followed. On average, it took four hours for a household member in Surada for completing one visit to the bank or post office from where they generally withdrew money. The time taken for a visit to bank/post office was found to be shortest (three hours) for households from Other Backward Castes/Communities and longest (five hours) for tribal households. It took four hours for a household member from Scheduled Castes to commute to bank/post office to withdraw money or update passbooks.

Use of Unique Payment Interfaces (UPIs), the new normal in financial transactions, was explored among the household members in Surada. The respondents were enquired if any of the usual members of the household had used any UPIs such as Google Pay/Paytm/Airtel Payment Bank etc.

Figure.1.12: Percentage distribution of households by use of UPI, N:431



Four-fifths of the households with UPI users reported having received remittances through UPI

As evident from Figure.1.12, 15 per cent of the households in Surada had members who used such channels for transactions, at the time of the survey. All of them used UPIs for purchases. Four-fifths of the households with UPI users reported having received remittances through UPI payments (Figure.1.13). Use of UPIs not only promotes inclusion, but also saves a lot of money that otherwise needs to be paid to the intermediaries or financial agents for remittances.

Figure.1.13: Percentage of households by purpose of using UPI, N:66

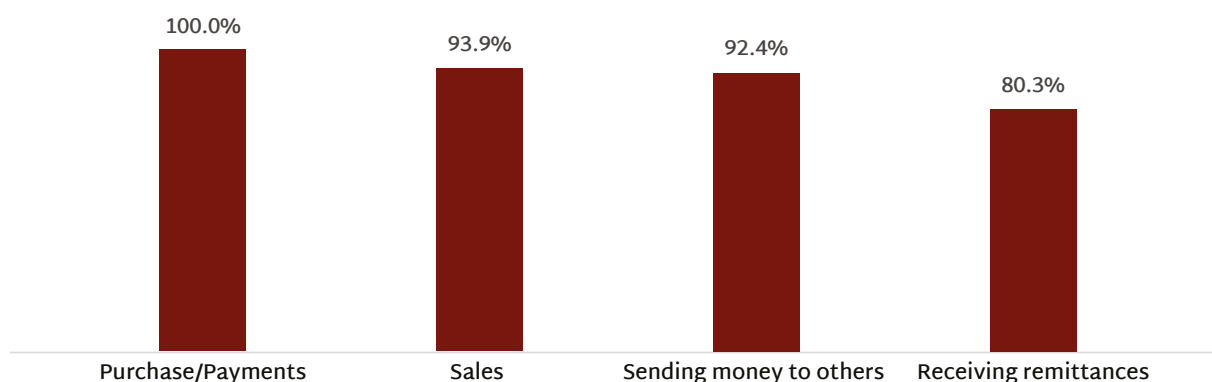
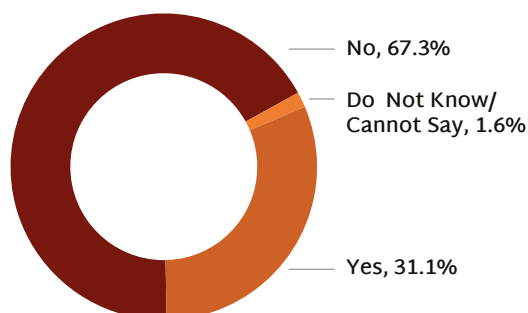


Figure.1.14: Percentage distribution of households by membership in SHG, N:431



Members of the majority of the households in Surada were not part of any SHGs. But most households had a member enrolled under the universal free healthcare scheme of the Government of Odisha

Membership of household members in Self-Help Groups (SHGs), another major channel to access formal credit as well as a step forward towards financial inclusion at the community level, was explored. Three in every ten households had membership in SHGs (Figure.1.14). The proportion of households with membership in SHGs was the highest among Other Backward Castes/Communities (37 per cent) and the lowest (12 per cent) among the tribal households.

Health Insurance

To understand the potential out-of-pocket expenditure of the households in the case of catastrophic health spending, the enrolment of households in various health insurance schemes was explored. The households were asked if at least one person in the household was a member of any health insurance scheme, by probing each medical insurance scheme. Around 95 per cent of the households had a member enrolled under the Biju Swasthya Kalyan Yojana, the universal free healthcare scheme of Government of Odisha. The enrolment in Biju Swasthya Kalyan Yojana was over 94 per cent across ethnic groups including the Scheduled Tribes where it was 95.7 per cent. The penetration of Ayushman Bharat Pradhan Mantri Jan Arogya Yojana, the national public health insurance scheme of the Government of India was very low in Surada and so was the situation of Employees' State Insurance Scheme (ESIS) (Figure.1.15).

Figure.1.15: Percentage of households with at least one member enrolled in select health insurance scheme, N:431



Access to Services

Table.1.14 documents the distance travelled by households to avail essential services such as a bank where the members had at least one functional account, the nearest functional public health facility or the nearest school where free education is available. The time taken to reach the nearest public transport on foot was also explored. Nearly a quarter of the households had access to a bank within two kilometres of their residence. One in every five households reported that the distance to the bank was 10 km and above. The median distance travelled by the households to reach a bank where they had an account was five km. For an overwhelming proportion of seven in every ten tribal households, the distance to the bank was more than five km. The median distance the tribal households had to travel to access banking services was nine km as against four km for households from the Scheduled Caste/Communities and five km for those from Other Backward Castes/Communities.

Only less than one-fifth of the households in Surada reported existence of a health facility within two kilometres. Over one-fourth of the households had to travel 10 km or more to reach the nearest functional health facility. This proportion was highest among the tribal households where 42 per cent of them had to travel over 10 km. The median distance to the nearest functional health facility was seven km for all households, irrespective of their ethnic background.

In Surada, over half of all households reported that the distance to the nearest high school where free education was available was less than three kilometres. The access to free high school education was tougher for the tribal households compared to the others. For nearly half of the tribal households, the nearest high school where free education was available was at least five kilometres away. While for households from the Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Castes/Communities, the median distance to a high school where free education was available was found to be two kilometres, it was four kilometres for the tribal households.



Table.1.14: Percentage distribution of households by proximity to select services and ethnicity

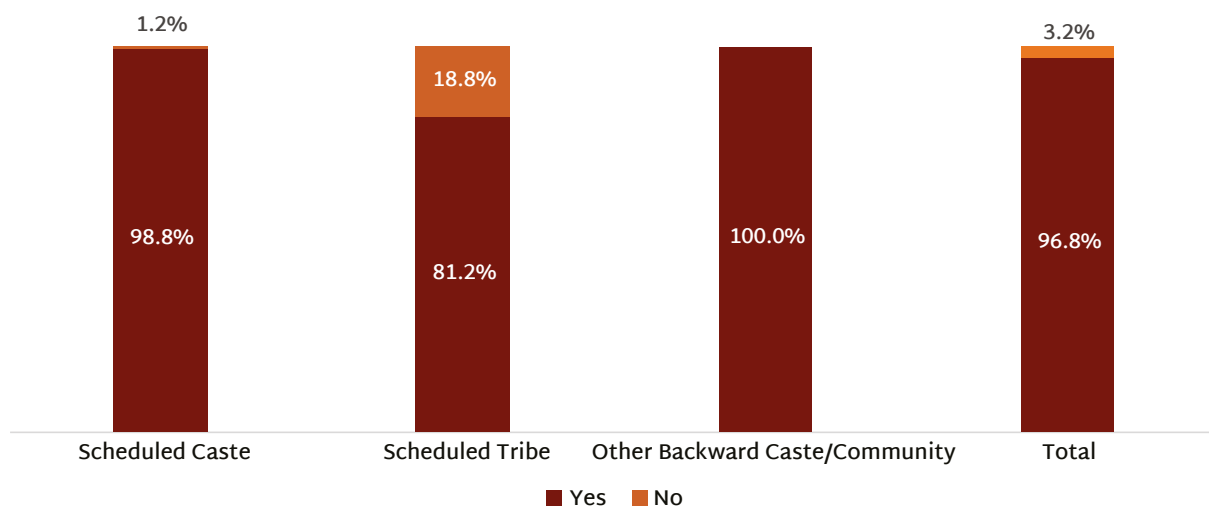
Variable/Category	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	OBC	
Distance to the Nearest Bank (km)				
Up to 2	31.3	13.0	23.7	23.2
2.1 to 5.0	22.9	15.9	36.1	31.1
5.1 to 9.9	24.1	27.5	22.6	23.4
10.0 and above	21.7	43.5	17.7	22.3
Median	4	9	5	5
Distance to the Nearest Functional Health Facility (km)				
Within 2	28.9	21.7	15.0	18.6
2.1 to 6.0	13.3	10.1	27.4	21.8
6.1 to 10.0	30.1	26.1	34.2	32.0
More than 10	27.7	42.0	23.3	27.6
Median	7	7	7	7
Distance to the Nearest High School Where Free Education Is Available (km)				
Up to 1	30.1	14.5	31.6	28.3
1.1 to 2.9	32.5	10.1	25.9	24.1
3.0 to 4.9	22.9	26.1	28.2	28.1
5 and above	14.5	49.3	14.3	19.5
Median	2	4	2	2
Time Taken to Reach the Nearest Public Transit Point on Foot				
10 Minutes or Less	44.6	17.4	40.2	37.1
11 to 25 Minutes	16.9	14.5	41.0	31.8
26 to 45	12.0	15.9	18.0	17.2
Above 45 Minutes	26.5	52.2	0.8	13.9
Median	15	60	15	15
Total	100	100	100	100
Number	83	69	266	431

Nearly two-fifths of the households interviewed mentioned that the nearest point from where they have access to public transport, can be reached by foot in 10 minutes or less. About one-third of households reported that they can reach within 11 to 25 minutes. Over half of the households from the Scheduled Tribes had to walk more than 45 minutes to reach a point from where public transport was available. The median time taken to reach the point from where public transport was available was 15 minutes, both for the households from the Scheduled Castes and the Other Backward Castes/Communities, while it was one hour for tribal households.

Mobile Phone Connectivity

Mobile connectivity is poor in several parts of Odisha given the remoteness of villages and the undulating terrain. Gram Vikas has been exploring innovative strategies to resolve the challenges in mobile connectivity and connect the villagers with their family members who are away from home. Figure.1.16 explores the mobile connectivity of the households in Surada. Except 14 households, predominantly from tribal communities, all the households in Surada had access to mobile phone network in their village. Almost all the households belonging to the Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Castes/Communities had access to mobile network in their village. However, nearly one-fifth of the tribal households did not have connectivity within their village and the median distance they had to travel to make phone calls was one kilometre.

Figure.1.16: Percentage distribution of households by status of mobile phone connectivity in the village and ethnicity, N:431



Indebtedness

Information on outstanding loans or advances taken by the households in the past twelve months was sought. One in every three households in Surada was indebted at the time of the survey (Figure. 1.17) with three-fifths of the indebted households being from Other Backward Castes/Communities.

Figure.1.17: Percentage distribution of households by indebtedness, N:431

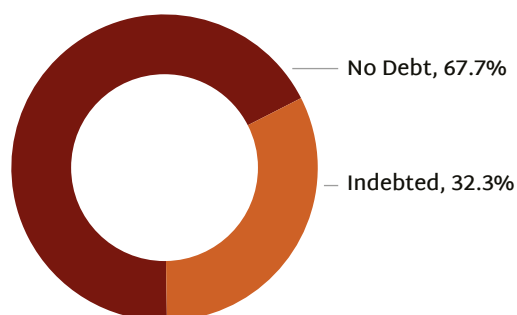
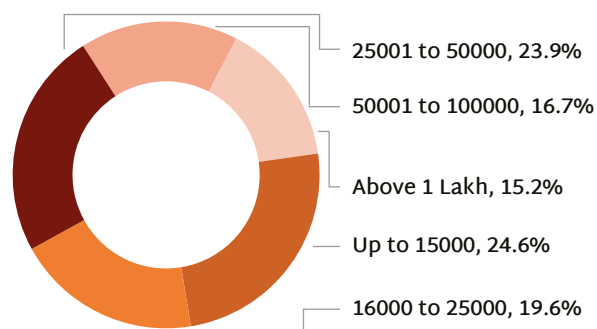


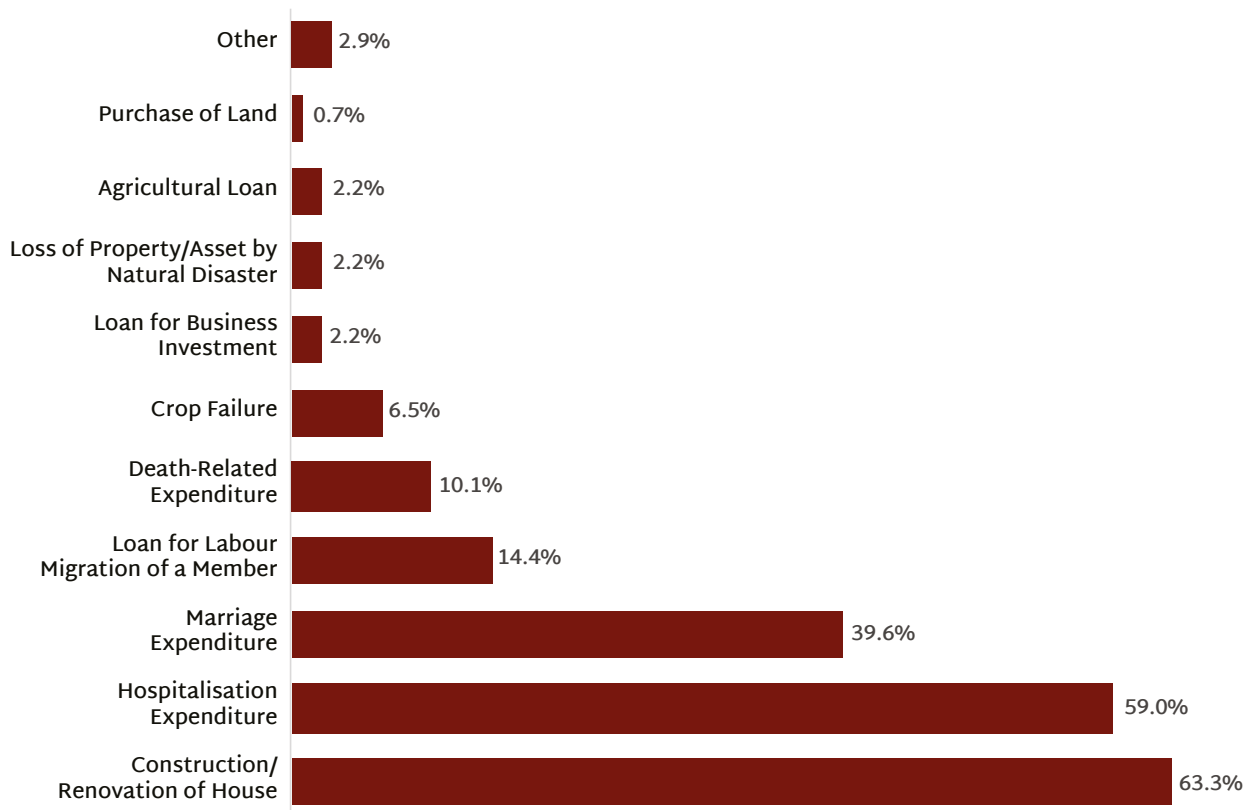
Figure.1.18: Percentage distribution of households by the amount of outstanding debt, N:139



Nearly a quarter of the indebted households were liable to pay up to ₹15000 and for over two-fifths of the indebted households, the amount of outstanding debt ranged from ₹16000 to ₹50000. Fifteen per cent of the total households reported an outstanding debt of more than ₹1 Lakh (Figure.1.18). On average, the amount of outstanding debt on the indebted household was ₹30000.

The respondents were then asked about the multiple reasons for which loans or advances were taken and the sources of such loans as well. In Surada, construction/renovation of houses, expenditure on hospitalisation of family members and weddings were the major reasons for taking loans/advances (Figure.1.19).

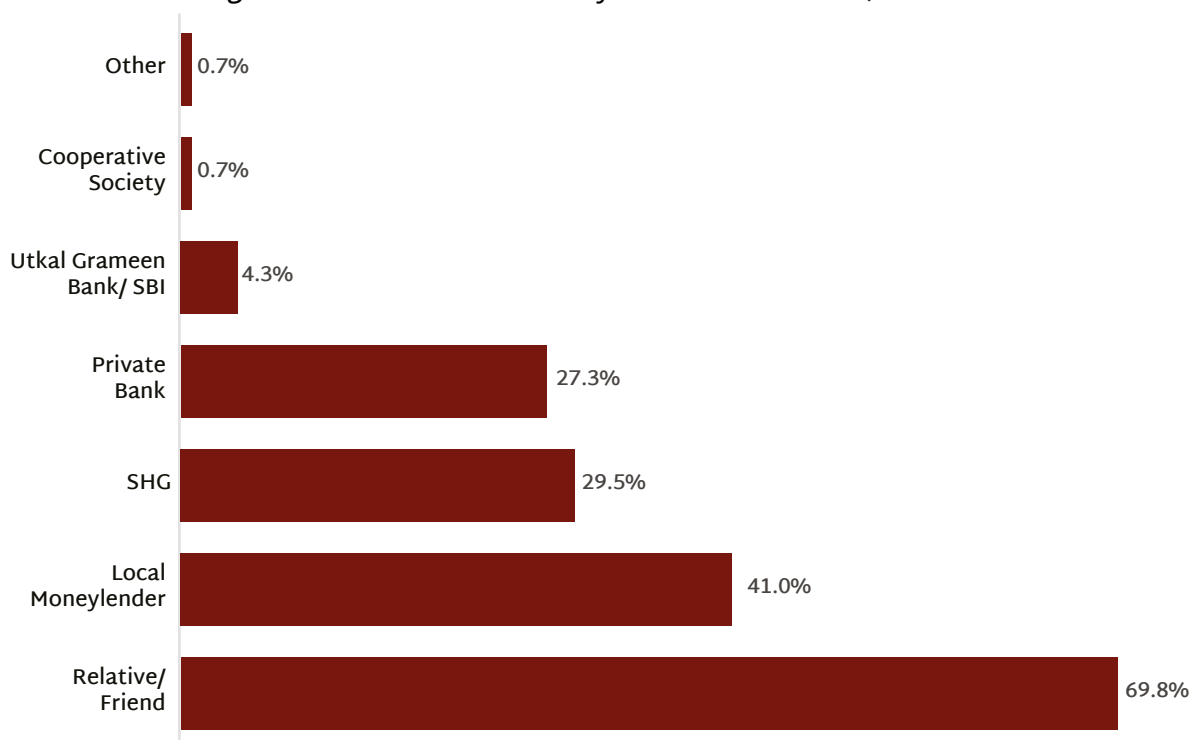
Figure.1.19: Percentage of households by reasons for indebtedness, N:139



One in every three households in Surada was indebted. The average outstanding debt was ₹30000

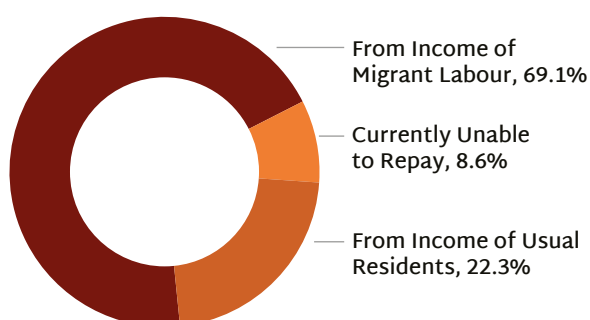
The indebted households depended both on informal and formal sources for credit (Figure.1.20). Seven out of every ten indebted households had borrowed money from relatives or friends. Two in every five had borrowed from the local moneylenders. About 30 per cent of the indebted households utilised formal sources like SHGs or private banks.

Figure.1.20: Percentage of indebted households by sources of the loan, N:139



The households currently in debt were enquired about their current major source of repayment of the loans/advances. Seven in every ten indebted households reported remittances of the migrant members of the household as the source of repayment of loans. For over one-fifth of the households, income of the usual residents was the prominent source for repaying their outstanding debts (Figure.1.21). Nearly ten per cent of the indebted households were not in a position to repay the loan at the time of the survey.

Figure.1.21: Percentage distribution of households by major means of repayment of outstanding debt, N:139



Remittances were the major source of repayment of loans for over two-thirds of the indebted households

Rural Misery

In order to understand the extent of rural misery in Surada, a set of statements were read out to the respondents, and they were requested to respond if they agree, disagree, do not wish to respond or cannot say. The investigators presented it in the manner given here: "I was talking to members of various households in the villages here about their circumstances. Different people said different things. I am reading out some of the statements they made. Please let me know if you agree, disagree, do not know or if you cannot answer this". They were also asked to respond if a statement was not applicable to them. The statements read out are provided below:

1. It is very difficult to practice agriculture here because we have no money.
2. This household had to sell/mortgage land in the past 12 months.
3. If someone from this household falls ill, we are unable to seek quality treatment because our income is not sufficient for that.
4. We currently do not have any savings as our income is too meagre.
5. Some of the members of this household had to skip at least one regular meal for more than one day in the past seven days because there was no food stock or there was no money to buy food.

Table.1.15 summarises the responses where the respondents agreed with the above statements. Overall, nearly seven out of every ten households reported that they were unable to invest in agriculture due to the shortage of money. Three-fourths of the tribal households in Surada reported such a situation. A large majority of the households reported that they were unable to seek quality treatment in the case of any illness because of insufficient income. About four-fifths of the households across the ethnic groups shared this status. Almost nine out of every ten households revealed that they did not have any savings since their income was too meagre. The proportion of households without any savings was largest among the tribal households and smallest among the households from the Scheduled Castes. One in every ten of the tribal households had to sell/mortgage land in the past 12 months. Irrespective of the ethnicity, about ten per cent households reported that they had members who had to skip at least one regular meal for more than one day in the past seven days because there was no food stock or there was no money to buy food.

Table.1.15: Percentage of households by select indicators of misery and ethnicity

Indicator	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	OBC	
Difficult to practice agriculture here because we have no money	66.3	76.8	67.3	67.7
This household had to sell/mortgage land in the past 12 months	4.8	10.1	6.0	6.3
If someone from this household falls ill, we are unable to seek quality treatment because our income is not sufficient for that	78.3	87.0	84.6	83.8
We currently do not have any savings as our income is too meagre	84.3	94.2	86.5	87.5
Some of the members of this household had to skip at least one regular meal for more than one day in the past seven days because there was no food stock or there was no money to buy food	9.6	10.1	9.8	9.5
Number	83	69	266	431

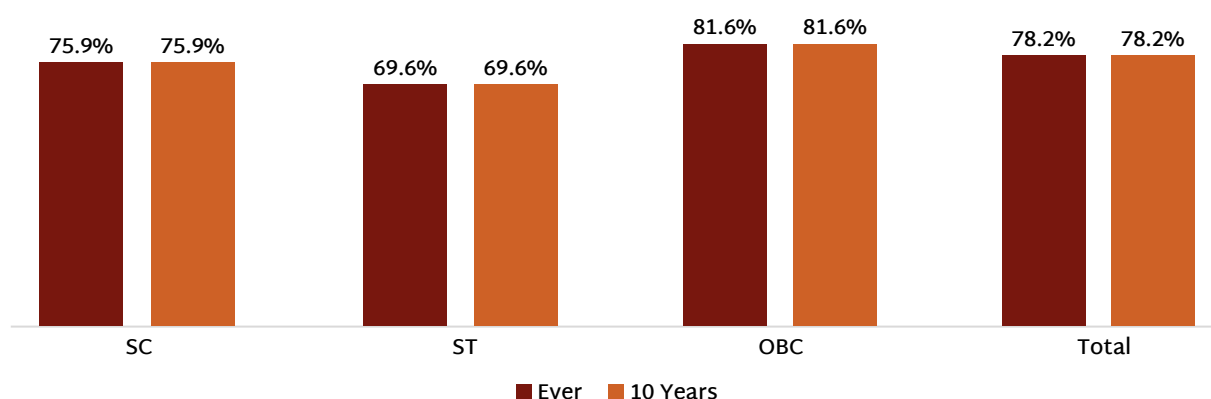
Migration from Surada



Migration History

In order to understand the migration profile of Surada block, the sample households were enquired whether any member of the household, currently alive or dead, had ever stayed continuously for a period of 30 or more days for work outside the district. Further, to gather insights on recent migration, history of labour migration from the households in the past 10 years was explored. Figure.2.1 summarises the labour migration from the households to places outside Ganjam district.

Figure.2.1: History of labour migration of households in Surada, N:431

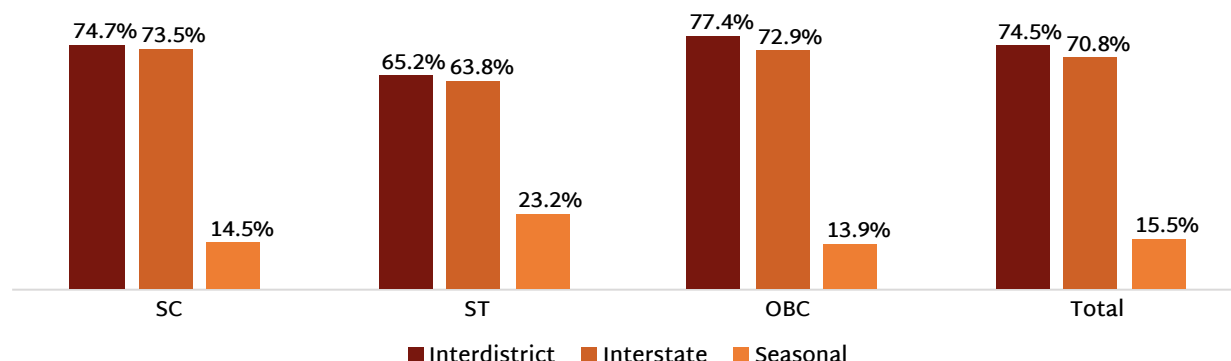


It was found that nearly four-fifths of the households in Surada had at least one person who had ever worked 30 days or more outside the district. The household migration rates during the past ten years were also similar. The migration rates were highest for the households from Other Backward Castes/Communities (81.6 per cent) and lowest for the Scheduled Tribes where seven in every ten households had a history of labour migration in the past ten years. Three-fourths of the Scheduled Caste households had one person migrating for work outside the district in the past ten years.

Migration at the Time of the Survey

Households in the sample were enquired about the number of members who at the time of the survey stayed outside the district for thirty days or more for work. This also included persons who were temporarily home for the festivals/other purposes. The details of current migrants were obtained to understand the interdistrict, interstate and seasonal migration patterns. Three out of every four households in Surada had at least one member working outside Ganjam district at the time of the survey (Figure.2.2). Seven out of every ten households in Surada had members working outside Odisha at the time of the survey. As revealed by the rates, workers from Surada predominantly made interstate movements. In order to understand the seasonal migration from Surada, information was elicited about current migrants who generally work six months or less outside the district and the remaining time in Surada. Seasonal migrant workers were present in less than one-fifth of the households. Seasonal migration was more common among the tribal households compared to other ethnic groups. Nearly a quarter of the tribal households had seasonal migrants at the time of the survey who moved primarily to other states.

Figure.2.2: Current migration rates in Surada, N:431



Household migration rates were also calculated by select background characteristics such as BPL status, family occupation, access to NREGS, access to public transport etc. (Table.2.1). Except in the case of seasonal migration, the household migration rates were higher for households without NREGS cards compared to those who possessed such cards. Household migration rates were as high as 90 per cent in the case of households without any local source of income. Those who were engaged in non-agricultural daily wage labour had higher migration rates compared to those engaged in agriculture/agricultural labour. Those who were landless had higher migration rates compared to households that possessed land. Households with PHH ration cards had higher migration rates compared to those who did not have ration cards. Seasonal migration was more prominent in the case of households with Kachha dwellings as well as households engaged in agriculture/agricultural labour. Regular migration rates did not differ much by the BPL status of the households whereas seasonal migration was less prominent among households with BPL status. Except in the case of seasonal migration, the household migration rates were higher from areas with better access to public transport compared to those with poorer access.



Table.2.1: Household labour migration rates (households with labour migrants per 100 households), Surada Block, 2023

Variable/Category	Migration in Past 10 Years	Interdistrict Migration	Interstate Migration	Seasonal Migration	Sample Households
Ethnicity					
Scheduled Castes	75.9	74.7	73.5	14.5	83
Scheduled Tribes	69.6	65.2	63.8	23.2	69
Other Backward Castes/Communities	81.6	77.4	72.9	13.9	266
NREGS Job Card					
Possess NREGS Card	76.0	71.9	67.8	16.4	171
Do Not Possess NREGS Card	79.6	76.2	72.7	15.0	260
House Type					
Pukka	79.8	76.4	72.3	13.5	347
Kachha	71.4	66.7	64.3	23.8	84
Current Family Occupation					
No income	93.3	93.3	90.0	15.6	90
Agriculture/Agricultural Labour	69.8	66.3	63.4	18.6	172
Other Daily Wage Labour	88.0	81.6	76.8	16.0	125
Other	52.3	47.7	43.2	2.3	44
Landownership					
Do Not Own Land	82.1	79.5	75.3	13.7	190
Own Land	75.1	70.5	67.2	17.0	241
Current Engagement in Agriculture					
Engaged in Agriculture	73.7	69.3	66.4	16.4	274
Not Engaged in Agriculture	86.0	83.4	78.3	14.0	157
Ration Card					
No Ration Card	71.7	69.8	67.9	3.8	53
PHH Card	79.1	75.1	71.0	17.1	369
BPL Status					
Yes	78.2	73.1	70.6	7.6	119
No	78.2	75.0	70.8	18.6	312
Access to Public Transport					
Less than 30 Minutes	81.5	77.8	73.4	15.5	297
30 Minutes and above	70.9	67.2	64.9	15.7	134
Total	78.2	74.5	70.8	15.5	431

Note: Interdistrict migration also includes interstate migration

Seasonal migration is one of the major forms of distress migration in India. Hence the extent of seasonal migration within current migration was explored. At the time of the survey, one-fifth of the households with migrant members had seasonal migrants (Figure.2.3).

Figure.2.3: Percentage distribution of households with migrants by seasonality of migration, N:321

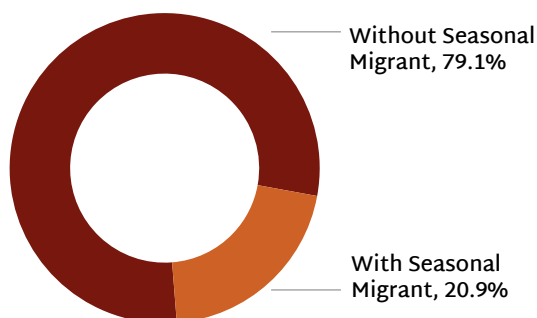
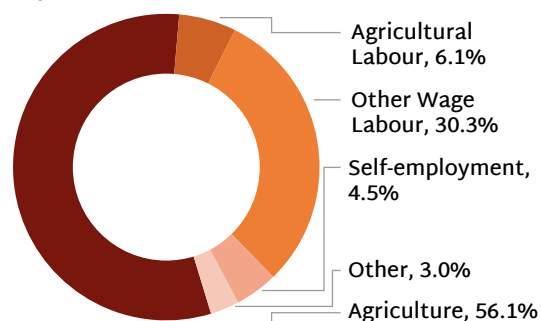


Figure.2.4: Percentage distribution of households with seasonal migrants by their occupation at source, N:66

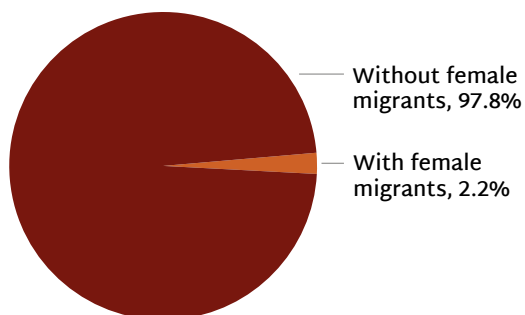


Over three-fifths of the seasonal migrants were involved in agricultural activity either as cultivators or as agricultural labourers for the rest of the year in Surada (Figure.2.4). About 30 per cent of the seasonal migrants worked as wage labourers in sectors other than agriculture. About five per cent of the seasonal migrants were self-employed.

Female Migration for Work

The extent of migration of women and girls from the households in Surada at the time of the survey was also explored. Although migration of men was very high from the block, only two per cent of the total households (seven households) had women/girls who had migrated out of Ganjam district for work (Figure.2.5). The median age of the female workers who had migrated last from the household was 30 years. Female labourers primarily moved to the cities in southern India leveraging their personal networks.

Figure.2.5: Percentage distribution of households with female migrants, N:321

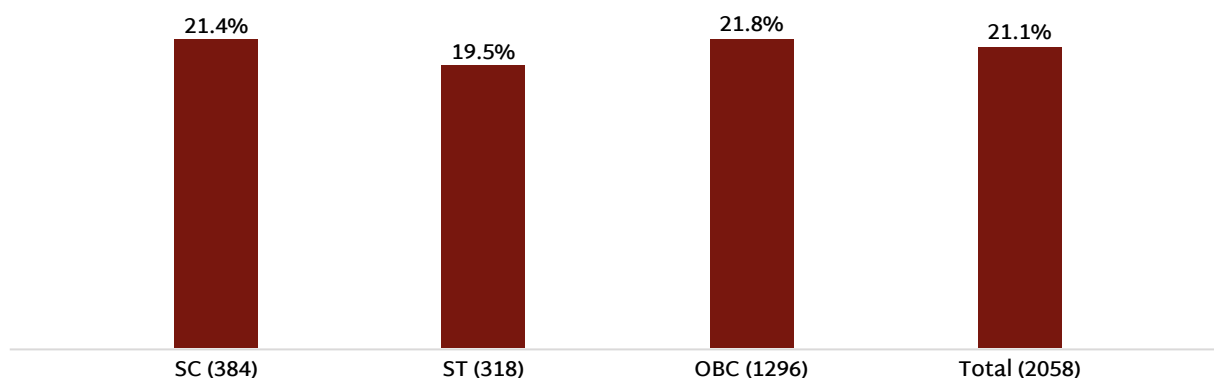


One-fifth of the households with migrants had seasonal migrants who were engaged in agriculture/ agricultural labour while in Surada. Migration of women was exceptionally low

Migrant Workers in the Population of Surada

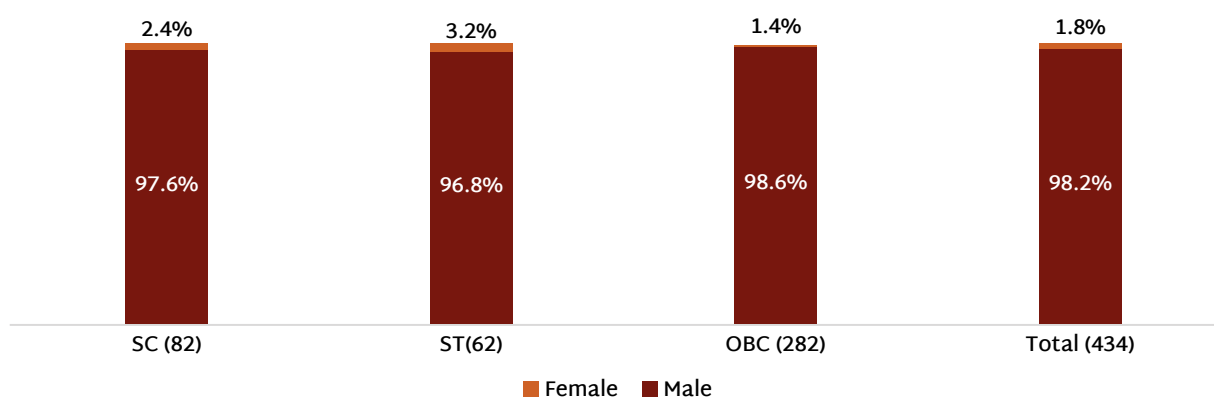
In order to understand the magnitude of migration from Surada block, the percentage of migrant workers in the total population was calculated from the sample. Figure.2.6 provides the percentage of migrant workers in the sample population by ethnicity. It was found that one in every five persons in Surada was a migrant worker at the time of the survey. This proportion was consistent across the ethnic groups.

Figure.2.6: Percentage of migrant workers in the total population and ethnicity, Surada, N:2058



The proportion of female migrants among total migrants was also calculated based on the household survey. It was found that overall, about two per cent of the migrant workers were women and this proportion did not vary much across the ethnic groups (Figure. 2.7).

Figure. 2.7: Percentage distribution of migrant workers in Surada by sex and ethnicity, N:434



Estimate of Migrant Workers

Based on the sample proportions, the number of interdistrict migrant labourers from Surada was estimated. A total of 30,247 migrants from Surada worked in various parts of India outside Ganjam. Among them 29,689 persons were males. Out of the total migrant workers, 20,649 workers belonged to communities other than Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and a majority of them were from Other Backward Castes/Communities.

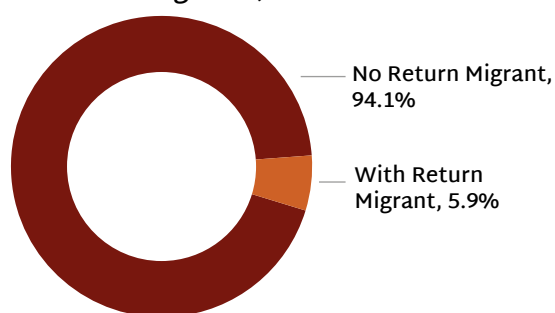
Table.2.2: Estimate of migrant workers in Surada block by sex and ethnicity

Sex	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	Other	
Male	6109	3228	20352	29689
Female	153	108	297	558
Total	6261	3336	20649	30247

Return Migration

To understand the history of return migration, the households were also asked if any of the current usual residents had ever worked 30 days or more outside Ganjam district but did not have an intention to migrate again. Only six per cent of the households with a history of migration had at least one current usual resident who had ever migrated but did not have an intention to migrate again for work (Figure.2.8).

Figure.2.8: Percentage distribution of households with return migrants, N:337



One in every five persons in Surada was a migrant worker. Most of them belonged to the Other Backward Castes/Communities

The return migrants in the sample used to work in cities like Surat in western India and in the southern Indian states, predominantly in Kerala. The return migrants worked in various sectors such as construction, garment manufacturing, or weaving, etc. On average, the return migrants worked for four years outside Ganjam before settling down in Surada. The return migrant workers had come back to Surada either due to the absence of someone to take care of the family members in the village or when the outstanding debt was cleared. COVID-19 and the resulting loss of job/work was also mentioned as a reason. Some of the workers had returned to start a business in Surada. Return migrants were primarily engaged in agricultural activities. Both agricultural and non-agricultural daily wage labour were reported as the current source of livelihood by the households with return migrants. A few of them initiated new self-employment ventures in Surada.

Impact of Labour Migration

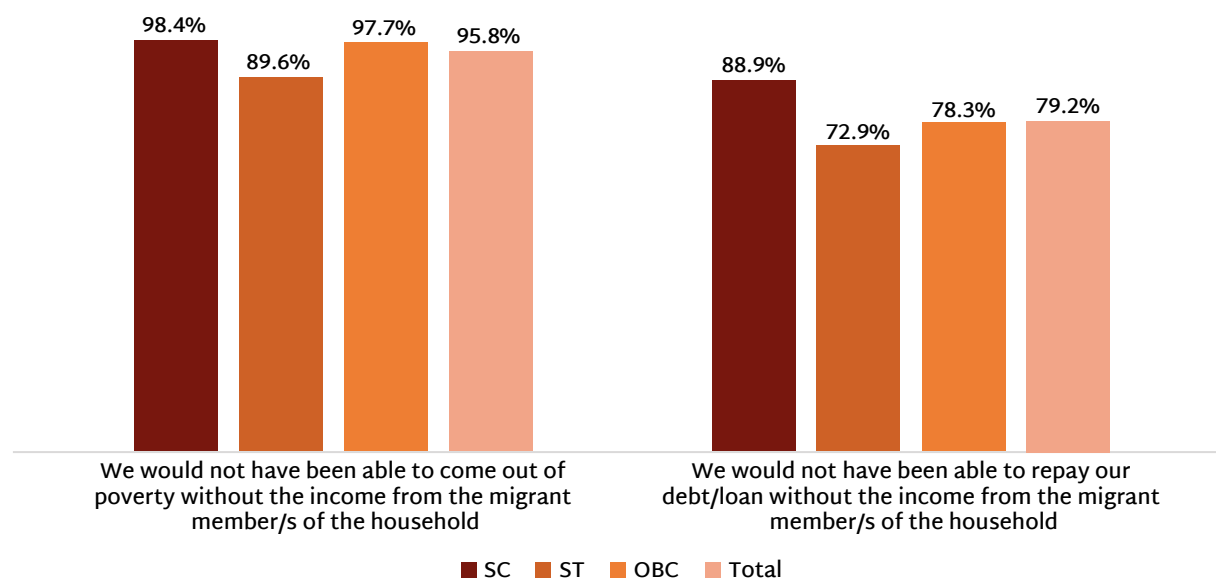
The households with a history of labour migration were enquired how the migration of the member/s impacted the households. Migration had both positive and negative impacts, as reported by the households. The impact on indebtedness, agriculture, housing, ownership of assets and status in the village was explored.

Indebtedness

Nine out of every ten households in Surada with a history of migration reported that they would not have been able to come out of poverty without the income of the migrant members of the households (Figure.2.9). Almost all the families from the Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Castes/Communities endorsed this while it was about 90 per cent in the case of households from the Scheduled Tribes.

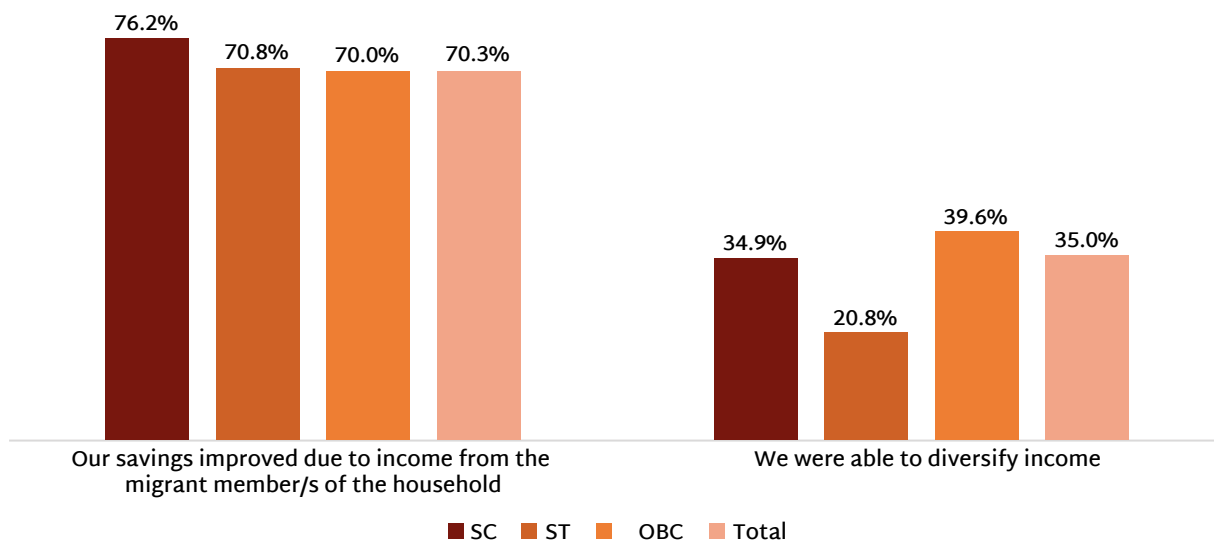
Nearly four-fifths of all households with a history of migration reported that they would not have been able to repay their debts/loans without the income of the migrant member/s in the household. While nearly 90 per cent of the households with migrants from the Scheduled Castes shared that they would not have been able to repay their debts/loans without migration, three-fourths of the households from the Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Castes/Communities attested this.

Figure.2.9: Percentage of households with migration history by impact on poverty/indebtedness, N:337



Seven in every ten households in Surada with a history of migration reported that their savings improved due to the income contributed by the migrant members (Figure.2.10). This was the case of three-fourths of the households from the Scheduled Castes. One-third of the households with a history of labour migration reported that they were able to initiate an income-generating activity using the remittances from the migrant members. While two-fifths of the households from Other Backward Castes/Communities and one-third of the households from the Scheduled Castes were able to diversify income sources through earnings from migration, only about one-fifth of the tribal households were able to do so.

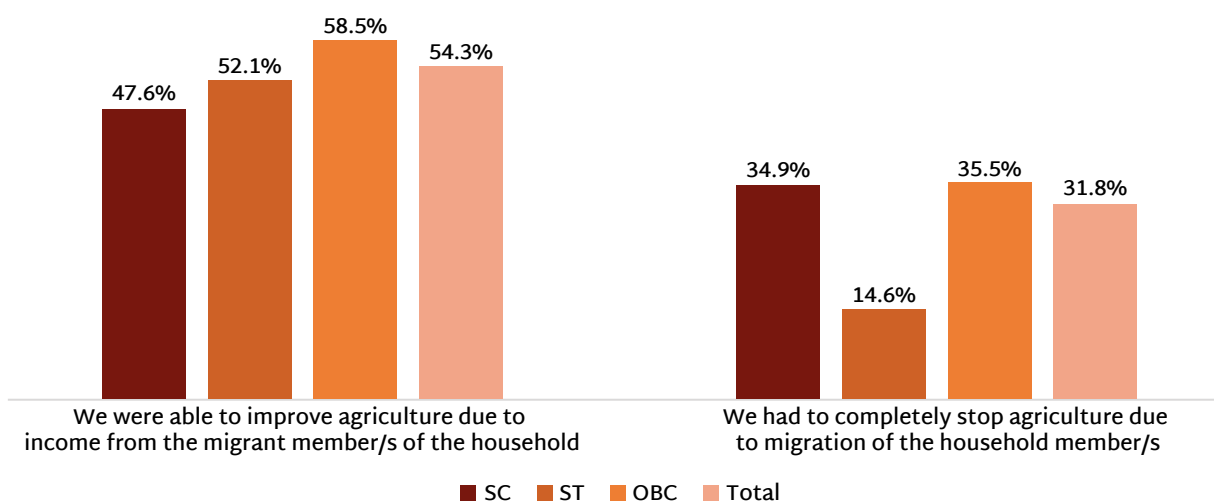
Figure.2.10: Percentage of households with migration history that were able to improve savings and diversify income by ethnicity, N:337



Agriculture

Over half of all households with a history of labour migration reported that they were able to improve agriculture with the income of the migrant members. While nearly three-fifths of the households from the Other Backward Castes/Communities benefited by improving agriculture with the income from migration, slightly less than half of the households from the Scheduled Castes reported so. At the same time, about one-third of the households with a history of migration, primarily from the Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Castes/Communities, revealed that they had to completely give up agriculture due to the migration of household members (Figure.2.11).

Figure.2.11: Percentage of households with migration history by impact on agriculture, N:337



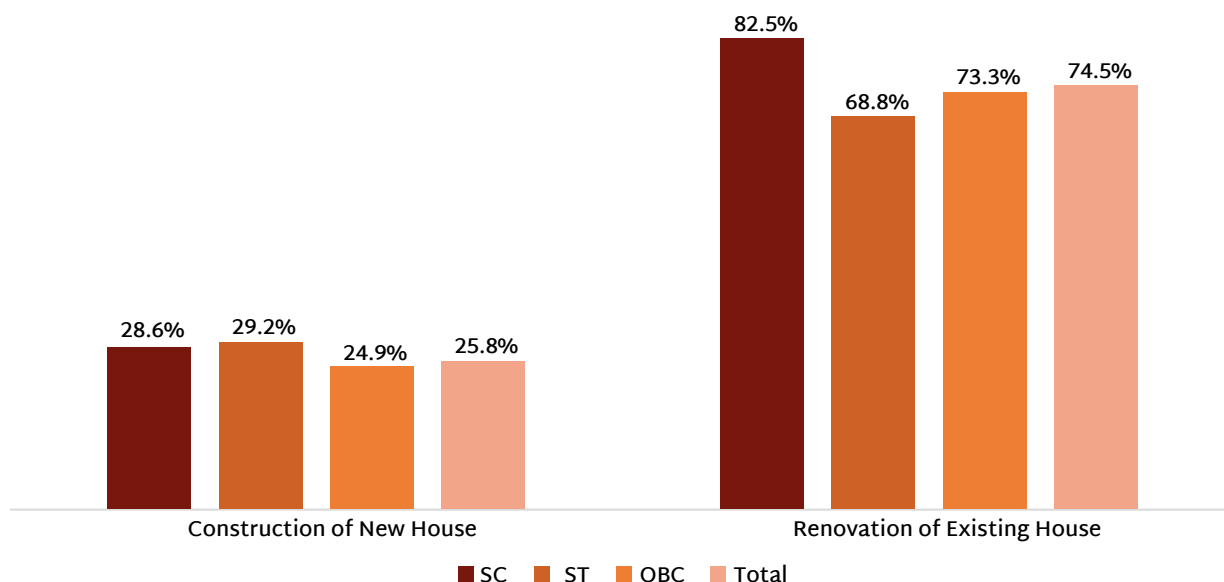


The households with a history of migration were also asked if they had purchased land with the income of the migrant members. A total of 33 households, predominantly from Other Backward Castes/Communities, responded that they had purchased land in the past ten years with such income. Only six households with a history of migration had utilised the remittances of the migrants to dig wells and all of them belonged to Other Backward Castes/Communities.

Housing

The households with a history of migration were enquired if they were able to build new houses or renovate their houses with the income from migration. Over a quarter of the total households with migrant members had built a new house in the past ten years exclusively from the income of the migrant members. The pattern was almost similar across all ethnic groups (Figure.2.12). Nearly three-fourths of all households also used the remittances from the migrant members to renovate their houses. The proportion of such households ranged from 83 per cent in the case of the Scheduled Castes to 69 per cent for the tribal communities.

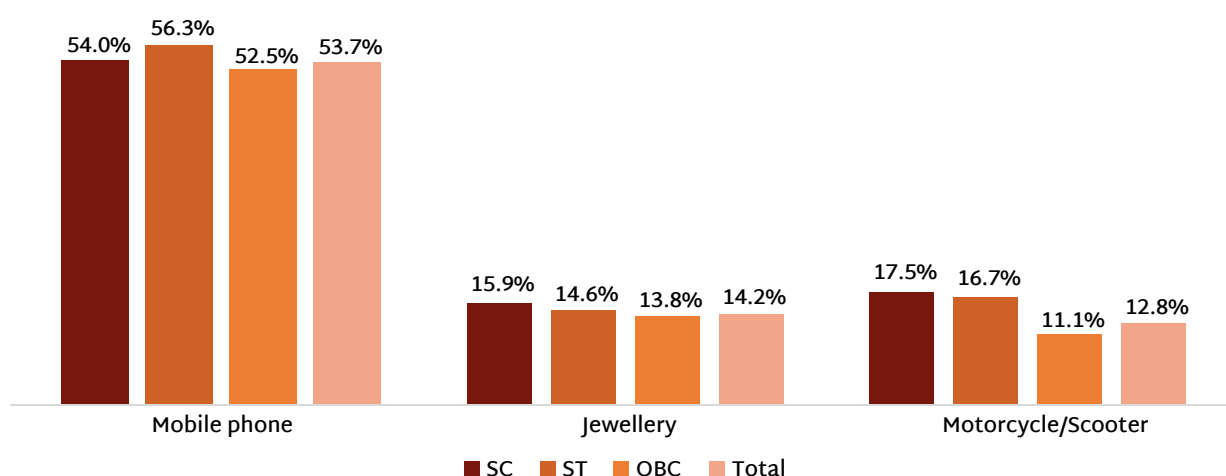
Figure.2.12: Percentage of households with migration history by impact on housing from the exclusive income of migrant members, N:337



Ownership of Assets

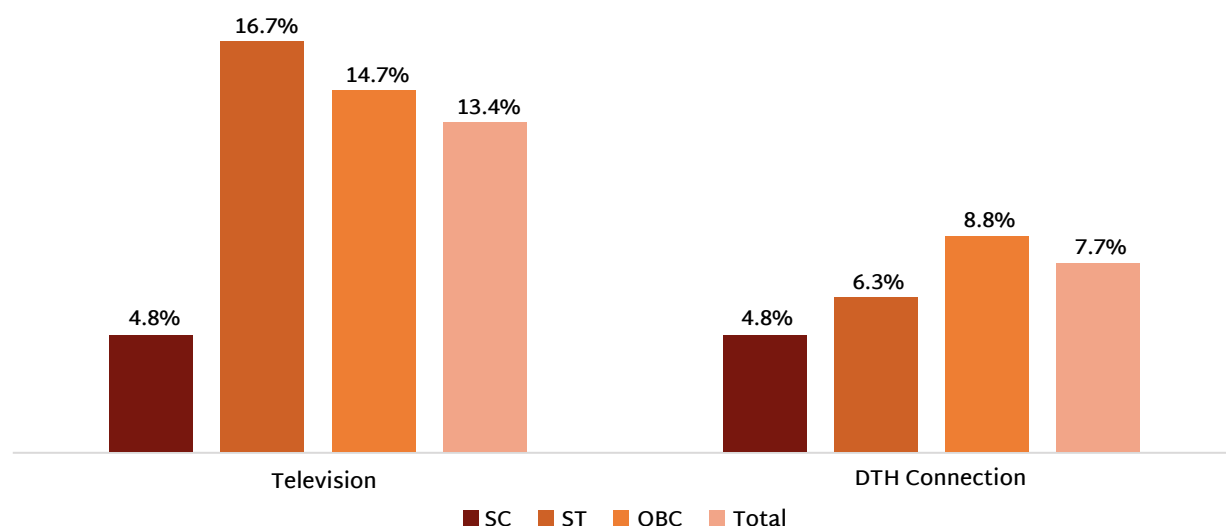
Over half of the households with a history of migration had purchased a mobile phone (Figure.2.13). The trends were similar across the ethnic groups. About 14 per cent of the households in Surada had purchased jewellery from the income of the migrants. In this case also ethnic groups did not differ significantly. Thirteen per cent of the households with a history of migration reported that they were able to purchase a motorcycle or a scooter with the income of a migrant member in the household.

Figure.2.13: Percentage of households with migration history by select assets created/purchased in the past 10 years from the exclusive income of migrant members, N:337



About 13 per cent of the households with a history of migration reported that they had purchased a television using the income of the migrant members. While 18 per cent of the tribal households did so, only nearly five per cent of the households from the Scheduled Castes reported purchasing a television using the remittances from the migrant workers of the households. On average, eight per cent of all households reported taking a DTH connection using the income of their migrant members (Figure.2.14).

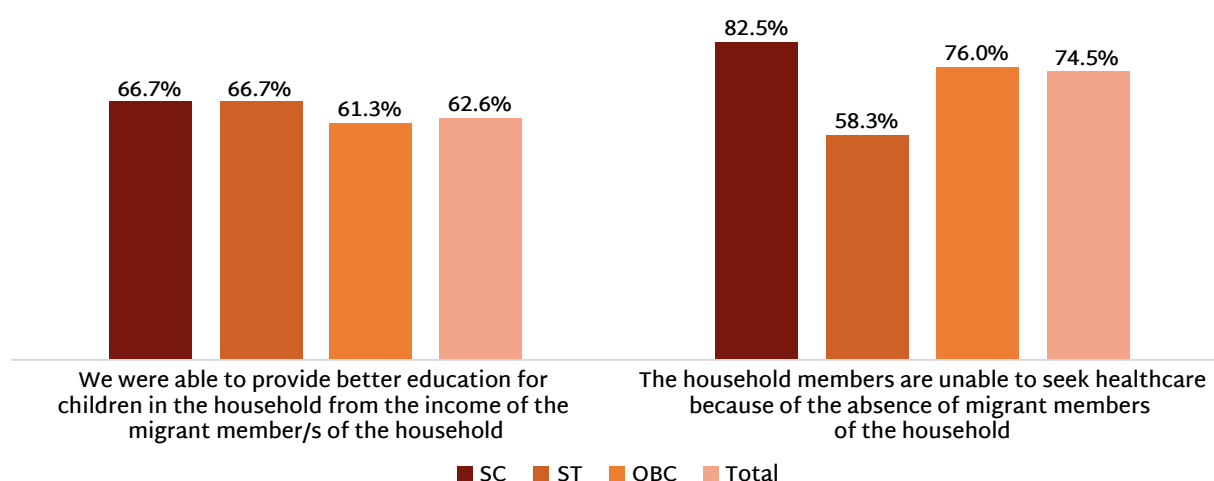
Figure.2.14: Percentage of households with current migrants by select assets created/purchased in the past 10 years from the exclusive income of migrant members, N:337



Education and Health

The impact of migration on the education and health of the members of the household was also explored. Over three-fifths of the households with a history of migration acknowledged that migration has positively impacted the education of the children of the households (Figure.2.15). The impact did not vary widely across the ethnic groups. Migration of members had negative impacts on the households as well. Nearly three-quarters of all households with a history of migration reported that they were unable to seek healthcare because of the absence of the members due to migration. The situation was relatively severe for households from the Scheduled Castes where over four-fifths of the households with a history of labour migration shared this constraint.

Figure.2.15: Percentage of households with migration history by impact on education and health, N:337

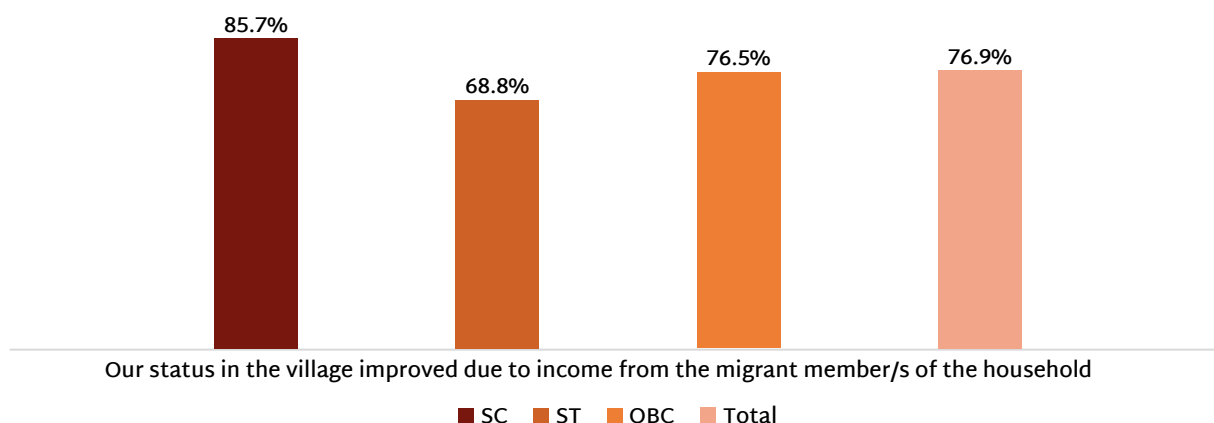




Status in the Village

The households were asked to rate the changes in their status in the village following the income from migration. The findings are presented in Figure.2.16. Three out of every four households with a history of migration reported that their status in the village had improved due to the income of the member/s who worked elsewhere outside the district.

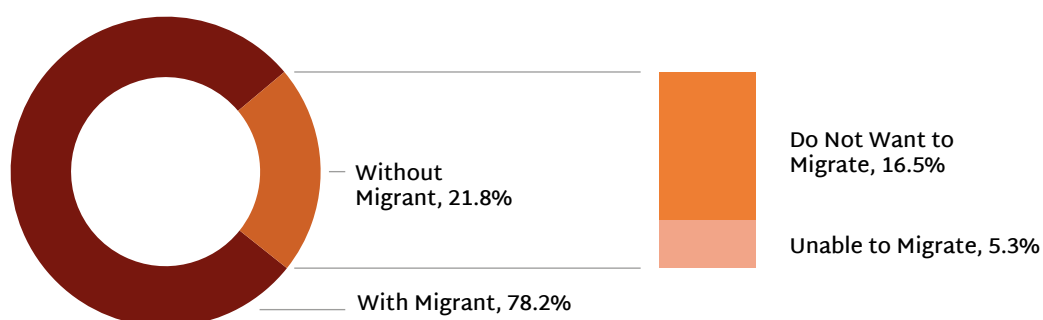
Figure.2.16: Percentage of households with migration history that reported improvement in status in the village due to income from migrant member and ethnicity, N:337



Barriers to Migration

Overall, about 78 per cent of the households in Surada had the history of labour migration (Figure.2.17). Households without a history of labour migration were asked the reason why members of the household did not migrate for work. Among the households without any history of labour migration, nearly three-fourths had members who did not want to migrate.

Figure.2.17: Distribution of households in Surada by migration status, N:431



Over four-fifths of the households from Other Backward Castes/Communities and one-third each from the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes without a history of migration shared that their members did not want to migrate. Family responsibilities were cited as the major reason for this decision. About five per cent of the households had members who could not migrate despite aspiring to do so. Presence of aged persons and absence of male members in the household were cited as reasons for the inability to migrate.



Profile of Migrant Workers

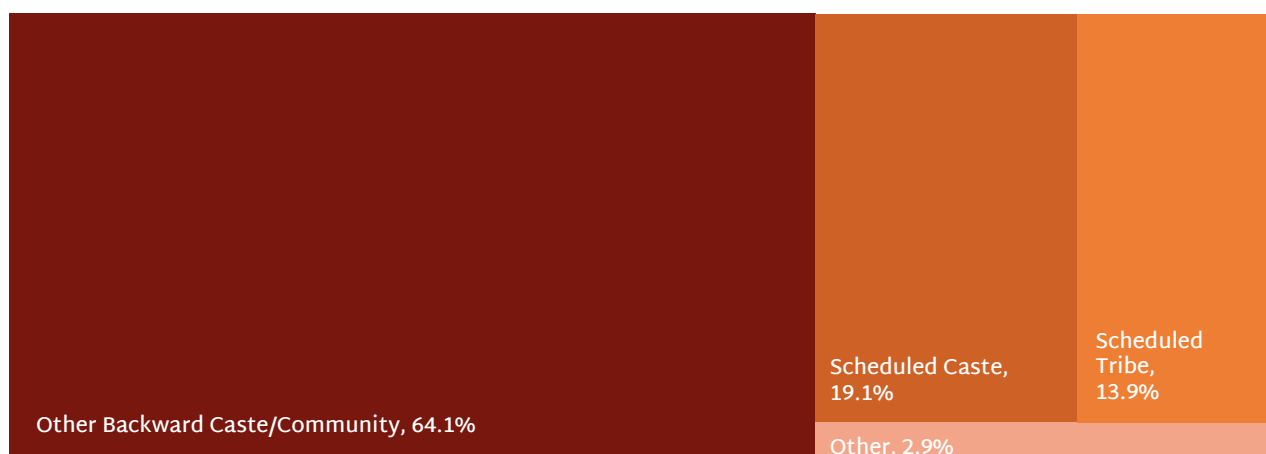


Sociodemographic Profile

From all the sample households with the history of labour migration in Surada block, the members who were migrant workers at the time of the survey were listed during the household interviews. From among the migrant workers in each sample household, the person who had made the largest financial contribution to the household income was interviewed for this section of the report. In case this migrant was at the village at the time of the survey, direct interviews were conducted. In other cases, telephonic interviews were conducted. This section summarises the findings from the interviews with 309 such migrant workers from the sample households. In order to understand the profile of migrant workers from Surada, information such as ethnic background, age, educational attainment and marital status was elicited.

It was found that over three-fifths of the migrant workers from Surada belonged to Other Backward Castes/Communities (Figure.3.1). Nearly one-fifth of the workers were from the Scheduled Caste/Communities households. One in every seven migrant workers from Surada belonged to the households from the Scheduled Tribes and three per cent of the workers were from other ethnic groups. Almost all the migrant workers who made a major economic contribution to the household were males while only two out of 309 migrants were females.

Figure.3.1: Percentage distribution of households by ethnicity, N:309



Since the ethnic background is a key variable that determines various attributes of the migration of people, further analysis was carried out by examining the profile of the migrant workers across the ethnic groups. There were only nine workers from communities other than Scheduled Tribes, Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Castes/Communities. Hence, this category was not separately analysed but was included in the column 'Total' in the analysis.

Overall, almost one in every five migrants was aged 25 years or less (Table.3.1) and their proportion was higher among the migrants from the Scheduled Castes compared to other ethnic groups. Nearly two-fifths of the migrant workers were aged between 26 to 35 years. About half of the migrants from the Scheduled Tribes belonged to the category. One in every three migrant workers from the Scheduled Castes was aged between 36 to 45 years. Overall, the median age of the workers was 35 years. The median age of migrant workers from the Scheduled Tribes was 32 years, three years less compared to the other two groups.

Table.3.1: Distribution of migrant workers by select background characteristics and ethnicity

Variable/Category	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	OBC	
Age in Years				
Up to 25	27.1	23.3	17.2	19.7
26 to 35	30.5	48.8	40.4	39.5
36 to 45	33.9	18.6	29.8	29.4
46 to 55	6.8	2.3	10.6	8.7
Above 55	1.7	7.0	2.0	2.6
Median Age (Years)	35	32	35	35
Literacy				
Literate	81.4	76.7	89.4	86.1
Illiterate	18.6	23.3	10.6	13.9
Educational Attainment				
No Formal Education	28.8	23.3	15.2	18.8
Lower Primary	13.6	4.7	8.6	9.1
Upper Primary	39.0	41.9	41.9	41.1
Secondary (High School)	16.9	18.6	28.3	24.9
Senior Secondary (Higher Secondary)	0.0	11.6	3.0	3.6
Above Senior Secondary	1.7	0.0	3.0	2.6
Median Years of Education	5	6	6	5
Total	100	100	100	100
Number	59	43	198	309

One in every seven migrants was illiterate and about one-fifth of the workers had no formal education. Two-fifths of the migrant workers from Surada had an educational attainment of upper primary level and nearly another quarter of the workers had completed high school. Overall, only about three per cent of the migrant workers had educational attainment above senior secondary. About two per cent of the migrants from the Scheduled Castes and six per cent of the workers from Other Backward Castes/Communities had attained senior secondary and above. The corresponding proportion was 12 per cent for the migrant workers from the Scheduled Tribes. On average, the educational attainment of the workers was five years. The median number of years of educational attainment was six years for the workers from the Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Castes/Communities. Only three migrants had undertaken technical education like diploma/ITI.

The migrants were enquired about their marital status, the details of which are provided in Table.3.2. Three out of every four workers were married. While the trend was similar in the case of migrants from the Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Castes/Communities, about 30 per cent of the migrants from the Scheduled Tribes were unmarried.

Table.3.2: Percentage distribution of migrant workers by marital status and ethnicity

Variable/Category	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	OBC	
Marital Status				
Currently Married	74.6	69.8	77.8	76.1
Never Married	25.4	30.2	21.2	23.3
Separated/Divorced/Widower	0.0	0.0	1.0	0.6
Total	100	100	100	100
Number	59	43	198	309
Location of Spouse				
At Workplace	6.8	3.3	3.9	5.1
At Native Place	93.2	96.7	96.1	94.9
Location of Children				
All with Me at Workplace	2.3	3.3	1.3	2.6
Some with Me at Workplace	4.5	0.0	3.2	3.0
All at Native Place	88.6	90.0	89.0	88.5
No Children	4.5	6.7	5.8	5.5
Other	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.4
Total	100	100	100	100
Number	44	30	154	235

The migrant workers who reported that they were currently married were enquired about the location of residence of their spouses and children, at the time of the survey. Almost nine out of every ten migrants reported that their spouses as well as children stayed in their villages indicating the dominance of single male migration from Surada, the most typical form of long-distance labour migration across the country. Out of the 13 migrants who had reported that all or some of his/her children were at the destination with them, nine had children in the school-going age group (6-14 years). Out of these nine workers, three mentioned that their children were not going to school, at the time of the survey. They cited the absence of teachers speaking the mother tongue of the children as the major reason for not sending the children to school.

To understand the importance of the financial contribution of the migrant workers, they were asked to report the number of persons from the native household who were exclusively dependent on their income. As evident from Table.3.3, overall, except one per cent, all the migrant workers had people at the native place who were exclusively dependent on their income. Over half of the migrants, across all ethnic groups, had three to four dependents in their families. A quarter of the migrants had five or more members dependent on their income. On average, every migrant had four persons at the native household exclusively dependent on his/her income.



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Table.3.3: Percentage distribution of migrant workers by number of dependent members at native household and ethnicity

Persons exclusively dependent on income of migrants	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	OBC	
None	1.7	2.3	0.0	1.0
1 to 2	15.3	23.3	20.2	19.1
3 to 4	57.6	51.2	55.1	54.4
5 and above	25.4	23.3	24.7	25.6
Median	4	4	4	4
Total	100	100	100	100
Number	59	43	198	309

Migration History

The migration history of the workers was explored to gather insights into the factors that influenced their migration. Information was gathered about their age at first migration, occupation prior to migration, previous history of migration and the most important factors that pushed them to seek work elsewhere.

Table.3.4 provides the distribution of workers by select characteristics related to migration. Nearly three out of every ten workers first moved out from Surada for work at the age of 19 years or below. One in every four workers from Other Backward Castes/Communities and about two-fifths of the migrants from the Scheduled Castes had migrated at an age of 19 years or below. One-third of the workers from the Scheduled Tribes had moved out for work when they were 19 years or below. Two out of every five migrant workers reported that they had first migrated for work when they were in the age group of 20 to 24 years. Nearly 15 per cent of the migrants from the Scheduled Tribes and Other Backwards Castes/Communities had first migrated for work when they were in this age group. The median age at first migration, irrespective of ethnicity, was 20 years.

Table.3.4: Percentage distribution of migrant workers by migration history and ethnicity

Variable/Category	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	OBC	
Age at First Migration				
19 or Less	37.3	32.6	24.7	27.8
20 to 24	30.5	44.2	46.5	43.7
25 to 29	16.9	9.3	12.6	13.3
30 and above	15.3	14.0	16.2	15.2
Median Age (Years)	20.0	20.0	20.0	20.0
Occupation Prior to Migration				
Student	6.8	14.0	9.1	9.4
Unemployed	27.1	16.3	26.3	25.2
Farmer	25.4	41.9	30.3	30.4
Agricultural Labourer	8.5	7.0	6.6	7.1
Labourer - Service Sector	27.1	20.9	22.2	22.7
Self- Employed	3.4	0.0	5.1	4.2
Other	1.7	0.0	0.0	0.9
Number of Prior International Movements for Work				
None	94.9	95.3	98.5	97.4
Moved to Other Countries	5.1	4.7	1.5	2.6
Number of Prior Interstate Movements for Work				
None	40.7	48.8	55.1	51.1
One	23.7	27.9	21.2	22.0
Two and More	35.6	23.3	23.7	26.9
Reason for Moving Out				
Low Wage	45.8	32.6	39.9	39.8
Lack of Employment	49.2	65.1	52.0	53.7
Other	5.1	2.3	8.1	6.5
Total	100	100	100	100
Number	59	43	198	309

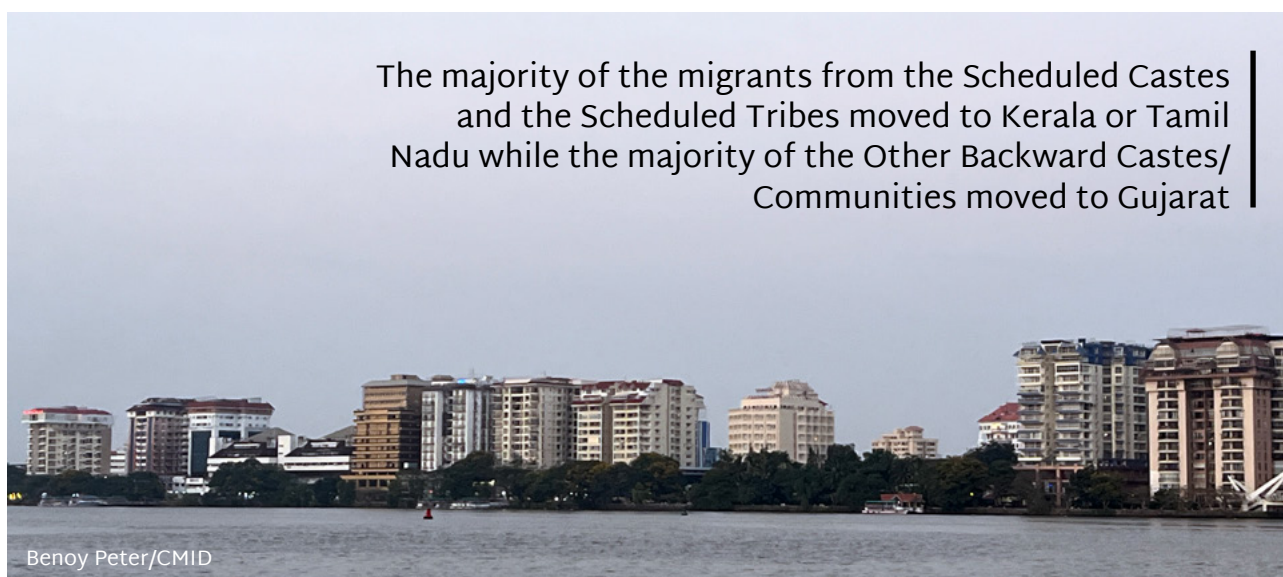
Thirty per cent of the migrant workers were engaged in farming before they first moved out of native place for work. This proportion varied from over two-fifths in the case of workers from the Scheduled Tribes to one in every four in the case of workers from the Scheduled Castes. Overall, a quarter of all workers were unemployed at the time of their maiden move out of the district for work. Unemployment was less prevalent among the tribal workers when compared to other ethnic groups. Nearly a quarter of the workers were engaged in non-agricultural labour prior to migration. About 15 per cent of the migrant workers from the Scheduled Tribes were students prior to their migration. Nearly seven per cent of the workers were agricultural labourers prior to their migration for work.

A small proportion of the workers reported a history of international migration for work. While overall it was about three per cent, five per cent of the migrants from the Scheduled Tribes and the Scheduled Castes reported making such international moves. Over half of the workers had not worked in any other Indian state prior to moving to the current destination. Over a quarter of the workers worked in two or more states before moving to the current destination. Around 36 per cent of the workers from the Scheduled Castes reported having worked in multiple states in the past. Lack of employment was the primary reason for migration for the majority of the workers. The other prominent reason was low wages.

Current Destination

In order to understand the pull factors of migration, all the migrants were asked about their current destination state and district. The reasons for choosing the particular destination and the type of destination were also explored. The details are presented in Table.3.4. Nine out of every ten current migrants reported their destinations outside Odisha. Almost all of them moved to cities. Gujarat and Kerala were the two major destinations states for workers from Surada. About 38 per cent of the workers went to Gujarat and a slightly lesser proportion of workers went to Kerala. Gujarat, historically the major destination state for workers from Ganjam, was found to be relatively more popular among workers from Other Backward Castes/Communities. One in every two workers from Other Backward Castes/Communities reported Gujarat as their current destination.

The majority of the migrants from the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes moved to Kerala or Tamil Nadu while the majority of the Other Backward Castes/Communities moved to Gujarat



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Table.3.5: Percentage distribution of migrant workers by select characteristics related to current destination and ethnicity

Variable/Category	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	OBC	
Current Destination State				
Odisha	1.7	4.7	5.1	5.2
West Bengal	1.7	4.7	2.5	2.6
Kerala	47.5	69.8	25.3	35.6
Tamil Nadu	25.4	14.0	4.0	9.4
Other Southern States	5.1	4.7	6.1	5.5
Gujarat	13.6	2.3	52.5	37.9
Other	5.1	0.0	4.5	3.9
Current Destination District				
Khorda, Odisha	1.7	4.7	3.5	3.9
Rest of Odisha	0.0	0.0	1.5	1.3
Kolkata, West Bengal	1.7	4.7	2.5	2.6
Ernakulam, Kerala	28.8	48.8	15.2	22.0
Kannur, Kerala	13.6	2.3	7.6	8.4
Rest of Kerala	3.4	4.7	2.0	2.6
Chennai, Tamil Nadu	23.7	14.0	3.5	8.7
Hyderabad, Telangana	0.0	0.0	2.5	1.6
Kakinada/Vijayawada/Visakhapatnam	3.4	2.3	2.0	2.3
Surat, Gujarat	13.6	2.3	52.0	37.5
Mumbai, Maharashtra	1.7	0.0	3.0	2.3
Other	8.5	16.3	4.5	6.8
Category of Destination				
City	98.3	97.7	99.5	99.0
Village	1.7	2.3	0.5	1.0
Reason for Choosing This Destination				
High Wage Rates	35.6	58.1	35.4	37.9
Continuous Employment	35.6	30.2	28.3	30.7
Better Work Environment	0.0	0.0	4.0	2.6
Presence of Friends/Relatives/Villagers	28.8	11.6	32.3	28.5
Other	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3
Total	100	100	100	100
Number	59	43	198	309

Analysing the destination districts, over one-fifth of all workers from Surada, with a disproportionately higher share of workers from the tribal communities, had gone to Ernakulam district in Kerala. On the other hand, nearly two-fifths of the workers, with over half of the workers from Other Backward Castes/Communities, had moved to Surat. Nearly a quarter of the workers from the Scheduled Castes reported Chennai in Tamil Nadu as their current destination. The findings suggest that while Gujarat is preferred by workers from Other Backward Castes/Communities, Kerala has emerged as a preferred destination for workers from the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes in Surada. High wage rates, availability of employment opportunities and presence of friends/relatives were the most important reasons for the choice of the destination.

Networking at Current Destination

The workers were asked about the presence of their significant others at the current destination in order to understand their social network. Language is often a barrier for migrant workers in accessing basic services such as health and education at the destination and hence the fluency of the migrants in the local language of their destination was also explored. Findings from the analysis are presented in Table.3.5. Overall, 77 per cent of the workers reported that they had their friends at the current destination and this proportion ranged from about 70 per cent among the tribal communities to 81 per cent for workers from Other Backward Castes/Communities. Over two-fifths of the workers mentioned that people from their village were present at the current destination before their first arrival. While reliance on familial networks was found to be more common among the workers from the Scheduled Tribes, dependence on the network of friends and villagers was more prominent among the workers from other two categories.

Table.3.5: Percentage of migrant workers by presence of significant others at current destination before their arrival, ability to speak local language and ethnicity

Variable/Category	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	OBC	
Presence of Significant Others at Current Destination before Arrival				
Family Members	18.6	20.9	10.1	13.3
Relatives Other Than Family Members	22.0	20.9	20.7	20.7
Friends	72.9	69.8	80.8	77.0
Villagers Other Than Friends	49.2	27.9	44.4	43.0
No one	6.8	0.0	2.0	2.9
Fluency in Local Language (Destination)				
Speak	94.9	76.7	94.9	92.6
Comprehend	91.5	86.0	99.0	95.8
Read	5.1	0.0	11.1	6.1
Write	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
No Knowledge of Local Language	1.7	16.3	1.5	3.6
Number	59	43	198	309



Two-thirds of the workers mentioned that they were recruited by someone at the destination. However, none of them mentioned receiving any advance amount for the recruitment. Nine out of every ten workers reported that they were able to speak and comprehend the local language where they worked. The proportion of the tribal workers who could comprehend and speak the local language was slightly lower compared to the other two communities. Only six per cent workers, with a slightly higher percentage of workers from the Other Backward Castes/Communities, reported their ability to read the local language. None of the workers had the ability to write in the local language. Nearly four per cent of all workers reported that they had no knowledge of the local language. This was most prominent among the workers from the Scheduled Tribes.

Work Profile

The duration of residence at the current state, district and place was explored (Table.3.6). About one-fifth of all migrants had been working in the current destination state for a period of less than two years. Over a quarter of the workers had been working in the current destination state for a period of two to five years and slightly less than one-fifth of them were working for more than 12 years. Overall, the average duration of stay in the current state was seven years. The median duration of stay at the current state was eight years for the workers from the Other Backward Castes/Communities, the highest across the ethnic groups. This indicates labour migration from this community has matured over the years compared to the other two ethnic groups. The same trend is visible in the case of both the duration of residence at the current district and at the current place of work. A trend of moving to different destinations within the state is also evident from the table. The median duration of work at the current district and at the current place of work was the least for the tribal workers.

Table.3.6: Percentage distribution of migrant workers by duration of residence at current destination (years) and ethnicity

Variable/Category	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	OBC	
Current State				
Two Years or Less	11.9	30.2	20.2	19.7
2.1 to 5.0 Years	39.0	37.2	19.7	26.2
5.1 to 8.0 Years	13.6	16.3	13.6	14.2
8.1 to 12 Years	27.1	11.6	23.7	22.3
Above 12 Years	8.5	4.7	22.7	17.5
Median Duration (Years)	5	5	8	7
Current District				
Two Years or Less	37.3	65.1	31.8	37.9
2.1 to 5.0 Years	30.5	27.9	25.3	25.9
5.1 to 8.0 Years	10.2	2.3	13.1	11.3
Above 8 Years	22.0	4.7	29.8	24.9
Median Duration (Years)	4	1.4	5	4.2
Current Place				
One Year or Less	27.1	60.5	23.7	29.4
1.1 to 3.0 Years	27.1	20.9	26.3	25.6
3.1 to 5.0 Years	22.0	11.6	16.2	16.5
Above 5 Years	23.7	7.0	33.8	28.5
Median Duration (Years)	3	1	3.2	3
Total	100	100	100	100
Number	59	43	198	309

The workers were enquired about the category of their work, duration of such work arrangement, the sector of employment and their skill levels (Table.3.7). Less than ten per cent of them were footloose labourers who sought work on a daily basis. Two-thirds of the migrants worked in shops, establishments or factories and this proportion was the highest for the workers from Other Backward Castes/Communities. Over one-fifth of all workers moved with a contractor. About two-fifths of the tribal workers and one-third of the workers from the Scheduled Castes moved with contractors. Fourteen per cent of the tribal workers, as against four per cent of all workers, were engaged in domestic work. On average, the workers had been in the current arrangement for the past three years. While the median duration of work in the current arrangement was four years, both in the case of workers from Other Backward Castes/Communities and the Scheduled Castes, it was one year for workers from the Scheduled Tribes.

Table.3.7: Percentage distribution of migrant workers by select characteristics related to their current work and ethnicity

Variable/Category	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	OBC	
Category of Work				
Naka Worker	13.6	9.3	6.1	7.8
Employee at Shop/Establishment/Factory	49.2	37.2	74.7	65.0
Moves with Contractor	33.9	39.5	16.2	22.3
Domestic Worker	3.4	14.0	2.0	3.9
Other	0.0	0.0	1.0	1.0
How Long in Such Work? (Years)				
Up to 1 Year	33.9	74.4	30.3	36.6
1.1 to 3 Years	13.6	4.7	18.7	15.9
3.1 to 5 Years	18.6	4.7	13.1	12.9
Above 5 Years	33.9	16.3	37.9	34.6
Median Duration (Years)	4.0	1.0	4.0	3
Sector of Employment				
Construction Worker	45.8	55.8	20.7	29.8
Hotel Employee	10.2	11.6	9.1	10.4
Factory Worker	28.8	16.3	33.8	30.1
Garment Worker	8.5	2.3	30.8	22.7
Domestic Worker	5.1	14.0	1.0	3.6
Other	1.7	0.0	4.5	3.6
Skill Levels				
Unskilled/Semi-Skilled Worker	74.6	86.0	69.7	72.8
Skilled Worker	25.4	9.3	29.8	25.6
Other	0.0	4.7	0.5	1.6
Total	100	100	100	100
Number	59	43	198	309

Overall, about thirty per cent of the total workers were engaged in construction work. More than half of the workers from tribal communities and 46 per cent of the workers from Scheduled Castes were employed in the construction sector. Thirty per cent of the migrants worked in factories and nearly a quarter of them worked in the garment sector. About sixty-four per cent of the workers from Other Backward Communities were engaged either as a factory worker or in the garment sector. About three quarters of all workers were unskilled or semi-skilled workers. The proportion of skilled workers was disproportionately lower among the migrants from the Scheduled Tribes compared to others.

Work Duration and Overtime Allowances

The migrant workers were enquired about the average number of hours they worked in a single shift and if they received overtime allowances (Table.3.8). The median duration of work in a single shift was eight hours for the workers irrespective of the ethnic group. Three out of every five migrants reported that their single shift was of eight hours. Three in every ten migrants worked more than ten hours. The proportion of migrants who worked for longer durations was more among the Other Backward Communities who were employed mostly in factories and the garment sector (as evident from Table.3.7).

Table.3.8: Percentage distribution of migrant workers by duration of work, overtime allowances and ethnicity

Variable/Category	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	OBC	
Number of Hours of Work in Single Shift				
8 Hours	76.3	85.4	50.8	59.9
9 to 10 Hours	11.9	9.8	9.6	10.5
More than 10 Hours	11.9	4.9	39.6	29.6
Median Hours	8	8	8	8
Whether Getting Overtime Allowance				
Yes	59.3	70.7	56.3	58.6
No	40.7	29.3	43.7	41.4
Total	100	100	100	100
Number	59	41	197	304

Nearly three-fifths of the workers reported that they received overtime allowances. The proportion of workers who received overtime allowances was the highest among the workers from tribal communities compared to those from other two communities.

Wages and Benefits

The workers were enquired about the wage arrangements and who paid their wages (Table.3.9). Seven out of every ten workers reported that they were paid by their respective employers and contractors were responsible for the payment of wages for the rest of the workers. While only one-fifth of the workers from Other Backward Communities were paid by the contractors, the corresponding proportion was 44 per cent for the Scheduled Castes and more than half for the Scheduled Tribes. About 47 per cent of the workers received the wages monthly. One-fifth of the workers reported that they were paid on a weekly basis and about ten per cent received wages on a fortnightly basis. Wage arrangements such as daily, weekly or piece rate payment were more common among the workers from the Scheduled Tribes and the Scheduled Castes compared to those from the Other Backward Castes/Communities.

Table.3.9: Percentage distribution of migrant workers by wage characteristics and ethnicity

Variable/Category	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	OBC	
Person in Charge of Payment of Wages				
Employer	55.9	48.8	80.2	71.7
Contractor	44.1	51.2	19.8	28.3
Wage Arrangements				
Daily Wage	13.6	19.5	3.0	7.2
Monthly Salary	40.7	31.7	51.3	46.4
Piece Rate	16.9	26.8	14.2	16.4
Weekly	27.1	19.5	17.8	19.7
Fortnightly	1.7	0.0	13.7	9.9
Other	0.0	2.4	0.0	0.3
Total	100	100	100	100
Number	59	41	197	304

Information on the average monthly income from the wages/work at the destination and the mode of the wage payments was elicited (Table.3.10). Three in every ten migrant workers received a monthly income of less than ₹15000. On average, the workers received a monthly income of ₹15000, irrespective of their ethnic status. Overall, seven in every ten workers gained a monthly income of ₹15000 and above from their wages. The proportion of workers with an income of ₹20000 or above was abysmally low among the tribal workers compared to others. The majority of the workers received their wages in cash indicating the informal work engagement.

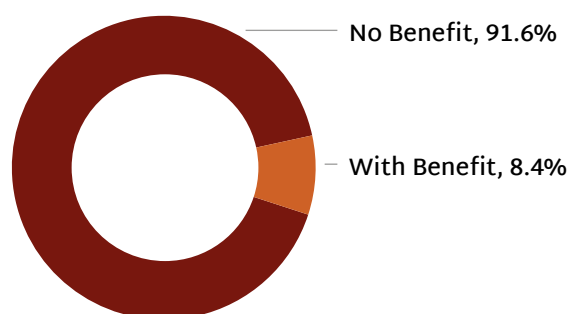
Table.3.10: Percentage distribution of migrant workers by income characteristics and ethnicity

Variable/Category	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	OBC	
Monthly Income from Wages (₹)				
Less than 10000	8.5	4.7	6.1	6.5
10000 to 14999	25.4	39.5	21.2	24.6
15000 to 19999	44.1	53.5	54.0	51.8
20000 and above	22.0	2.3	18.7	17.2
Median Income (₹)	15000.0	15000.0	15000.0	15000.0
Mode of Payment				
Cash	79.7	86.0	72.2	75.7
Bank Account	20.3	14.0	27.8	24.3
Total	100	100	100	100
Number	59	43	198	309

Employment-Related Benefits

The workers were enquired about their access to social security benefits at the respective destinations. As evident from Figure.3.2, nine out of every ten workers had no access to employment-related benefits such as Employees' State Insurance (ESI), Provident Fund, gratuity, pension etc. Only a handful of workers, predominantly from Other Backward Castes/Communities, reported having social security benefits.

Figure.3.2: Percentage distribution of migrants with employment benefits, N:309



Nine out of every ten migrant workers had no access to employment-related benefits at the destination



Living Arrangements

Details about accommodation arrangements, type of accommodation, sharing of the rooms, rent paid, and access to basic services at the place of stay were elicited from the migrant workers (Table.3.11). Nine out of every ten workers reported that they stayed with other workers. Nearly one-fifth of all workers stayed with their family or friends. A slightly larger proportion of workers from Other Backward Caste/Communities were found sharing accommodation with their family or friends compared to the tribal communities.

Table.3.11: Percentage distribution of workers by select attributes related to living arrangements and ethnicity

Variable/Category	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	OBC	
Accommodation Arrangement (Percentage)				
Other Workers	96.6	95.3	92.9	93.5
Family or Relatives	15.3	18.6	22.2	20.4
Friends or Villagers	1.7	0.0	2.0	1.9
Type of Accommodation				
Workers' Quarters by Employer	28.8	39.5	18.7	23.3
Rented Room	52.5	30.2	63.1	57.3
Independent Rented House	11.9	14.0	13.1	12.6
Own House	0.0	4.7	3.5	2.9
Worksite	6.8	11.6	1.0	3.6
Street/Under Flyover	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.3
Monthly Rent				
No Rent	33.9	55.8	20.7	27.8
1000 or Less	44.1	30.2	39.4	38.5
Above 1000	22.0	14.0	39.9	33.7
Median	1000	0.0	1000	1000
Number of Persons Sleeping in the Same Room				
3 or Less	20.3	4.7	22.2	20.1
4 to 5	45.8	34.9	51.0	47.6
6 and above	33.9	60.5	26.8	32.4
Median	5	6	5	5
Availability of Select Facilities at Place of Accommodation (Percentage)				
Electricity	100.0	100.0	99.5	99.7
At Least One Functional Toilet	98.3	97.7	98.5	98.4
Drinking Water	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number	59	43	198	309

About a quarter of the workers stayed in the workers' quarters provided by the employers. Over half of the tribal workers stayed either in the workers' quarters or at the worksite. This indicates larger dependency of the workers from tribal communities on the employer for residential arrangement compared to other ethnic groups. Over half of the workers from the Scheduled Castes and three-fifths of the workers from the Other Backward Castes/Communities stayed in rented rooms.

Overall, 28 per cent of the workers had free accommodation arrangements. While 56 per cent of the workers from tribal communities had free accommodation, one-third of the workers from the Scheduled Castes and one-fifth from the Other Backward Castes/Communities had similar arrangements. Nearly two-fifths of the labourers, with a relatively higher proportion of the labourers from Scheduled Castes, paid ₹1000 or less per month as rent. Around one-third of the workers paid more than ₹1000 per month towards rent. On average, the workers from the Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Castes/Communities paid ₹1000 per month for their accommodation. The average rent paid by workers from the Scheduled Tribes was zero.

On average, five people shared a single room to sleep. Nearly half of the migrant labourers reported that four to five people shared their room. The percentage of workers from tribal communities sharing their room with six or more workers was disproportionately higher compared to that in all the other ethnic categories. Almost all the workers reported that their residence had electricity, drinking water and at least one functional toilet.

Table.3.12 Percentage distribution of migrant workers by select attributes related to practices of cooking and ethnicity

Variable/Category	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	OBC	
Practice of Cooking				
Yes	96.6	88.4	92.9	93.2
No	3.4	11.6	7.1	6.8
Number	59	43	198	309
Availability of Separate Kitchen				
Yes	59.6	52.6	74.5	68.4
No	40.4	47.4	25.5	31.6
Major Cooking Fuel				
Cooking Gas	80.7	60.5	88.6	83.3
Kerosene	7.0	15.8	2.2	4.9
Diesel	0.0	5.3	0.5	1.0
Firewood	12.3	18.4	8.7	10.8
Total	100	100	100	100
Number	57	38	184	288

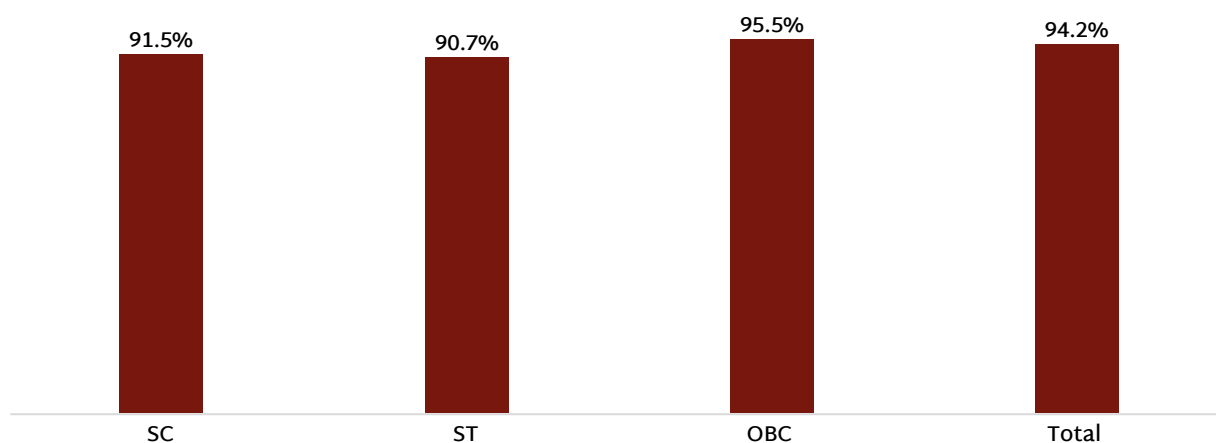
It was found that overall, more than 90 per cent of the workers practiced cooking, the proportion being slightly lower for tribal workers. Among those who cooked, over two-thirds of the workers reported the availability of a separate kitchen in their respective place of accommodation. About

three-quarters of the workers from Other Backward Caste/ Communities reported having a separate kitchen. Over four-fifths of the workers used cooking gas as fuel. Another 11 per cent used firewood for cooking. Access to safer fuels like cooking gas was found to be much lower for the tribal workers compared to others.

Bank Accounts

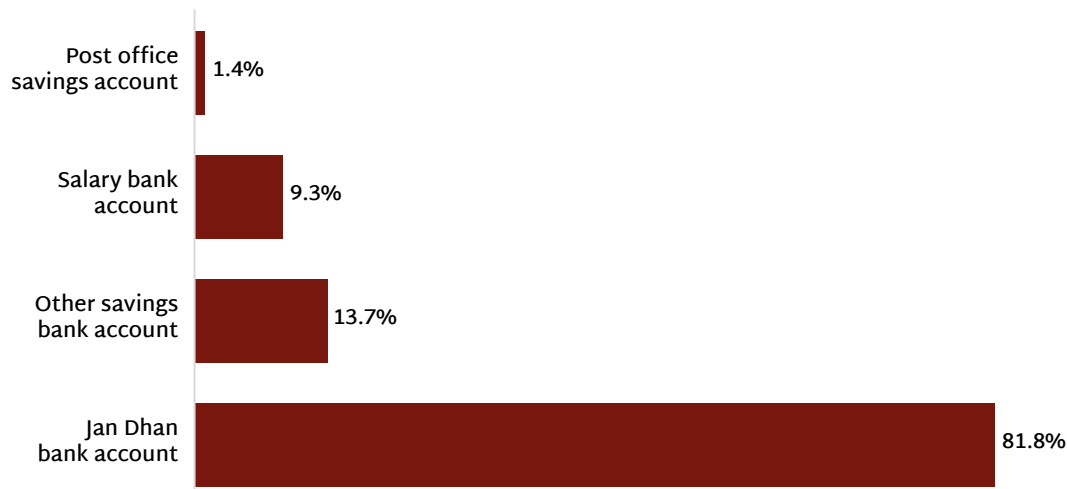
The study examined if the workers had bank/post office accounts of their own. The type of the accounts they possessed was also probed. Results are presented in Figure.3.3 and 3.4. It was found that nine out of every ten migrant workers had a bank/post office account of their own, irrespective of the ethnic background.

Figure.3.3: Percentage of workers with own bank/post office account, N:309



The workers who reported having bank/post office accounts were further requested to provide information about the type of accounts they had. Figure.3.4 presents the findings from the same. It was found that over four-fifths of the workers had Jan Dhan accounts and 14 per cent of them had other savings accounts. Nearly ten per cent of the workers reported having salary accounts.

Figure.3.4: Percentage of migrant workers with bank/post office account by type of account, N:291



Expenditure and Remittances

The study explored the spending and remittance behaviour of the workers from Surada. Workers were enquired about their average monthly expenditure in the month preceding the survey, the frequency of sending money home and the average remittances during the last three months prior to the survey. The findings are summarised in Table.3.13. The median monthly expenditure of the migrant workers at their respective destination was ₹4000. Over two-fifths of the workers had a monthly expenditure of ₹3000 to ₹4000. Nearly one-third of the tribal workers had an expenditure of more than ₹5000. A quarter of the workers from the Scheduled Castes and over one-fifth of the workers from the Other Backward Castes/Communities had a monthly expenditure of more than ₹5000.

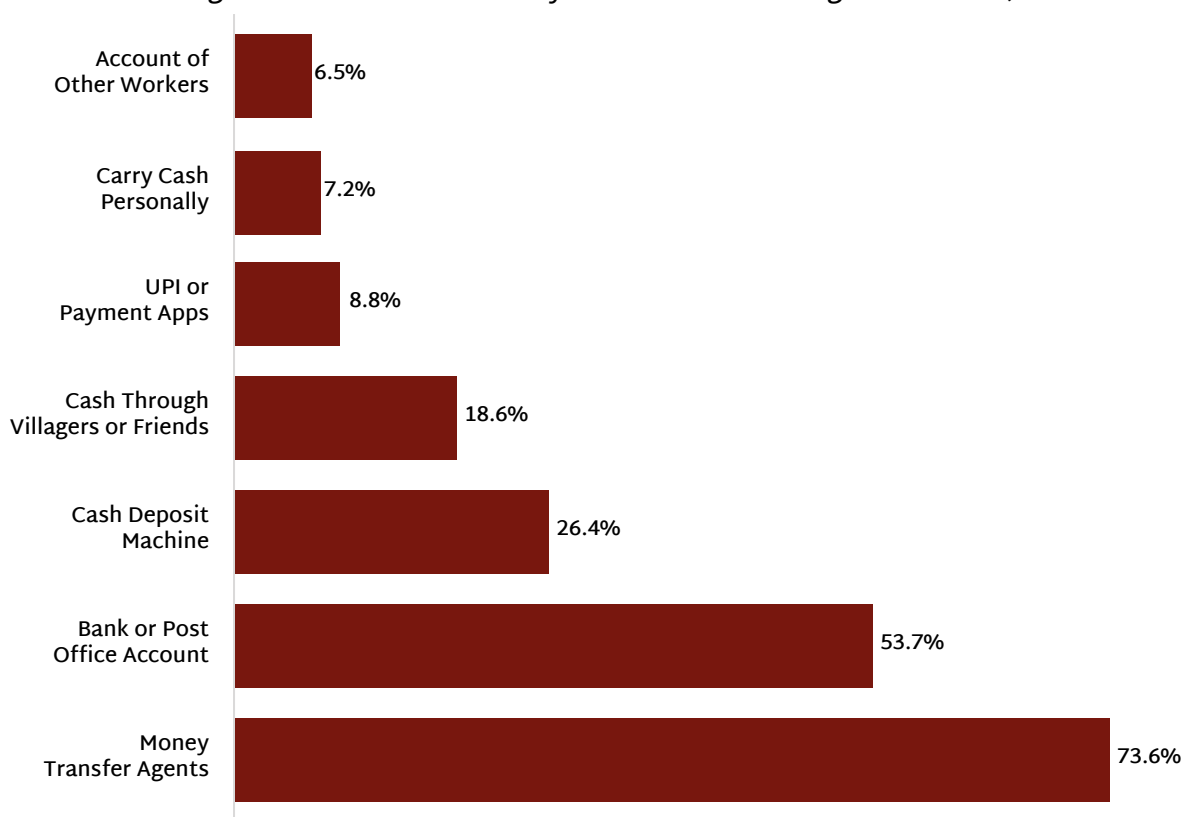
Table.3.13: Percentage distribution of workers by monthly expenditure, frequency and average amount of remittance and ethnicity

Variable/Category	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	OBC	
Average Monthly Expenditure (₹)				
Less than 3000	11.9	7.0	9.6	9.4
3000 to 4000	35.6	44.2	43.9	43.4
4001 to 5000	27.1	16.3	23.7	22.7
Above 5000	25.4	32.6	22.7	24.6
Median Expenditure	4500	4000	4000	4000
Frequency of Sending Money Home				
Never	0.0	2.3	0.0	0.6
Weekly	10.2	4.7	9.6	9.1
Monthly	18.6	32.6	32.3	29.4
Fortnightly	0.0	0.0	2.0	1.3
As and When Required	71.2	60.5	56.1	59.5
Average Remittance in the Last Three Months (₹)				
10000 or below	8.5	7.1	6.1	6.8
10001 to 15000	40.7	42.9	31.3	34.9
15001 to 20000	18.6	26.2	31.8	28.3
20001 to 25000	25.4	11.9	19.2	19.5
Above 25000	6.8	11.9	11.6	10.4
Median Remittance	18000	16500	20000	18000
Total	100	100	100	100
Number	59	43	198	309

Nearly three-fifths of the migrant workers reported that they sent money home as and when required. Three out of every ten migrant workers sent money on a monthly basis. Nearly one-third of the workers from the Scheduled Tribes and the Other Backward Castes/Communities sent money on a monthly basis and about one-fifth of the workers from Scheduled Castes also reported doing so. The median remittance sent by the workers in the last three months prior to the survey was ₹18000. It ranged between ₹16500 for the tribal workers to ₹20000 for workers among Other Backward Communities. Nearly three-fifths of all workers remitted ₹10001 to ₹20000 in the last three months prior to the survey. One in every ten workers from the Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Castes/Communities remitted more than ₹25000 in the three months preceding the survey. The estimated monthly remittances to Surada from the migrant workers were ₹180 million.

Information on the mode of transferring remittances was also elicited from the workers interviewed (Figure.3.5). Nearly three quarters of the workers relied on money transfer agents for transferring remittances. Nearly six out of every ten workers who sent money reported using bank or post office accounts for the purpose. Over a quarter of the workers sent money using cash deposit machines and nearly one-fifth of them sent it through villagers or friends. Only a small proportion of the workers used payment apps or relied on others' accounts for sending remittances. A few of them reported carrying cash personally when they travelled back to their native place.

Figure.3.5: Percentage of workers who remit by mode of transferring remittances, N:307



Savings

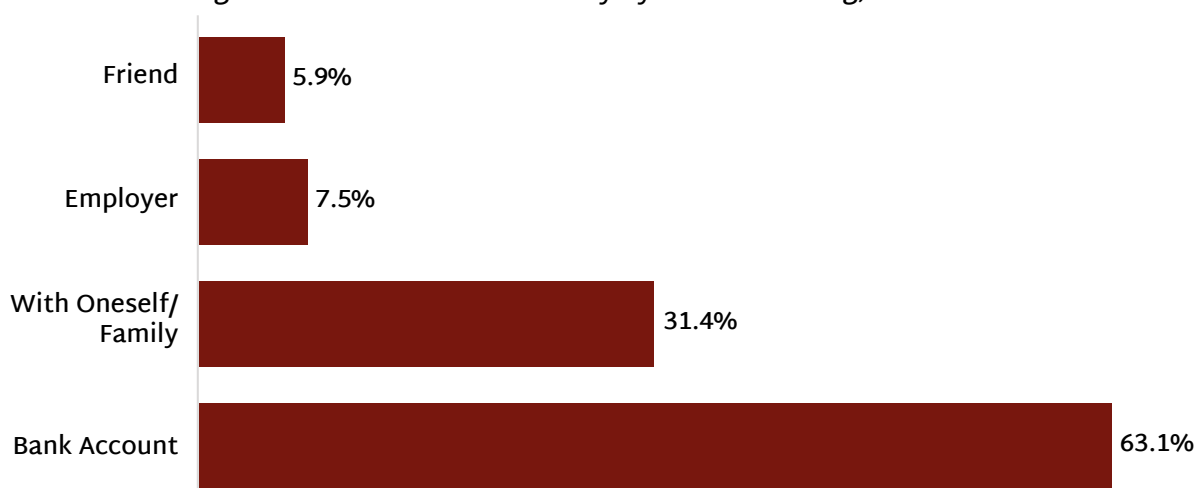
Information was elicited on the average amount the workers saved every month other than the remittances. The workers from Surada saved ₹2000 per month, on average, besides what they sent home (Table.3.14). At least 30 per cent of the workers from all ethnic groups saved in the range of ₹1001 to ₹2000 in a month. One-third of the workers from the Scheduled Castes and one-fifth of the workers from the tribal communities reported saving more than ₹2000 per month. Among those who saved money, over three-fifths deposited it in bank accounts.

Table.3.14: Percentage distribution of workers by average monthly savings and ethnicity

Variable/Category	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	OBC	
Average Monthly Savings (₹)				
No Savings	1.7	0.0	1.0	1.0
1000 or Less	33.9	37.2	33.3	34.3
1001 to 2000	30.5	41.9	36.4	35.6
Above 2000	33.9	20.9	29.3	29.1
Median Savings	2000	2000	2000	2000
Total	100	100	100	100
Number	59	43	198	309

Six out of every ten workers with savings kept their savings in banks (Figure.3.6). Nearly one-third of the workers kept the money with the family. People also reported entrusting the money saved with their employers or friends.

Figure.3.6: Percentage of workers who save money by mode of saving, N:306



Indebtedness

The extent of indebtedness among the migrant workers in Surada was explored. The workers were asked if they had any outstanding debt that needs to be repaid solely by them. Information on the amount of the loan, reasons for taking such a loan, major source of the loan as well as the major means to repay it were elicited from the workers in the sample. As evident from Figure.3.7, about one-third of the workers were indebted at the time of the survey. Three in every ten indebted workers had an outstanding debt of more than ₹50000 (Figure.3.8). On average, the indebted workers were liable to pay ₹40000 at the time of the survey.

Figure.3.7: Percentage distribution of workers by indebtedness, N:309

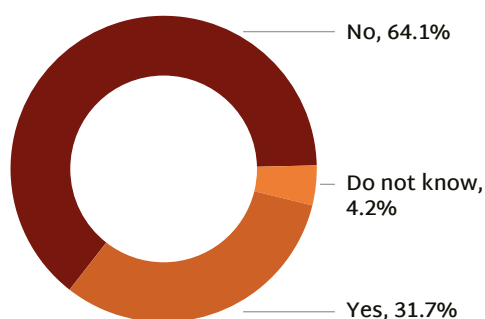
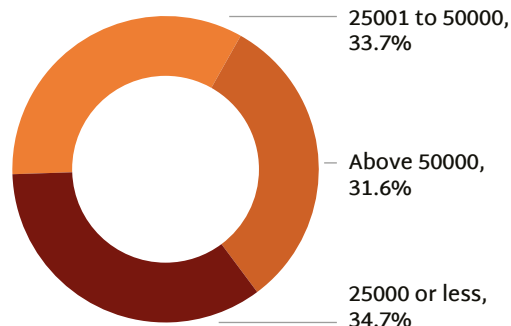


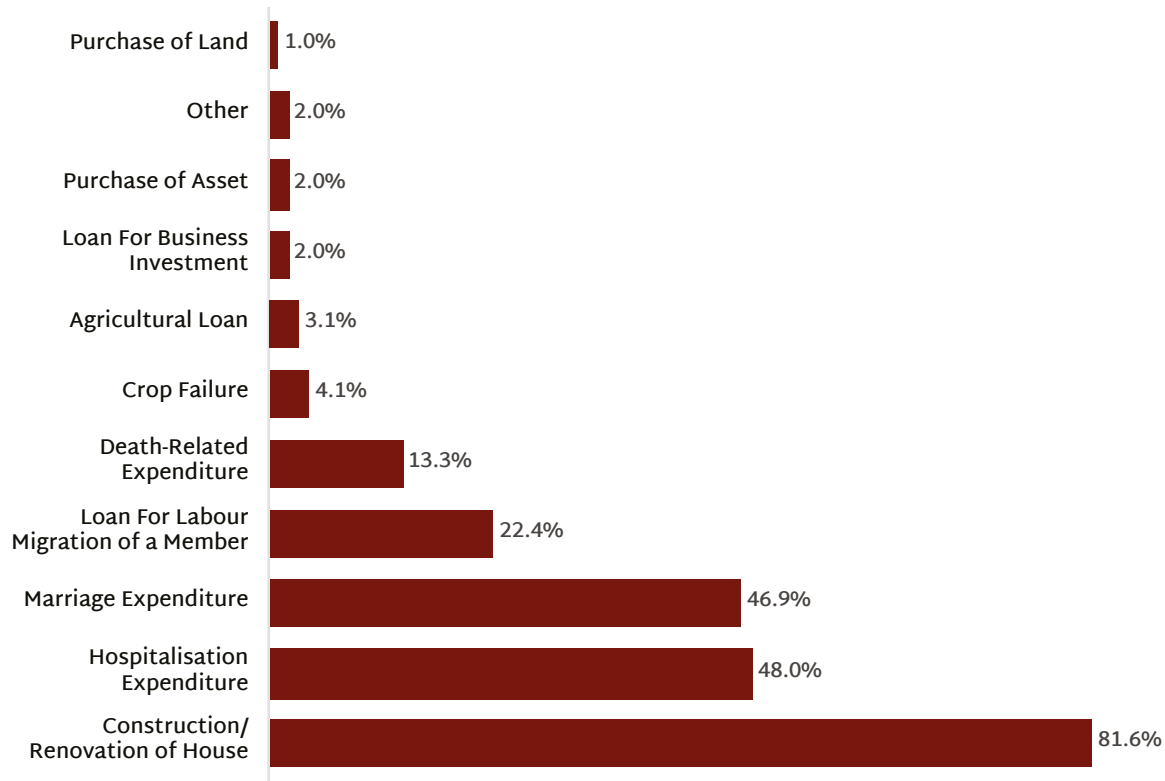
Figure.3.8: Percentage distribution of workers by the amount of outstanding debt, N:98



Construction of a new house or the renovation of the existing one emerged as the major reason for indebtedness (Figure.3.9). Slightly less than half of the indebted workers reported that the loans were taken to meet the hospitalisation expenditure or expenditures related to weddings in the family. Financing the migration of the members in the household was also cited by over one-fifth of the workers as the purpose of the loan.

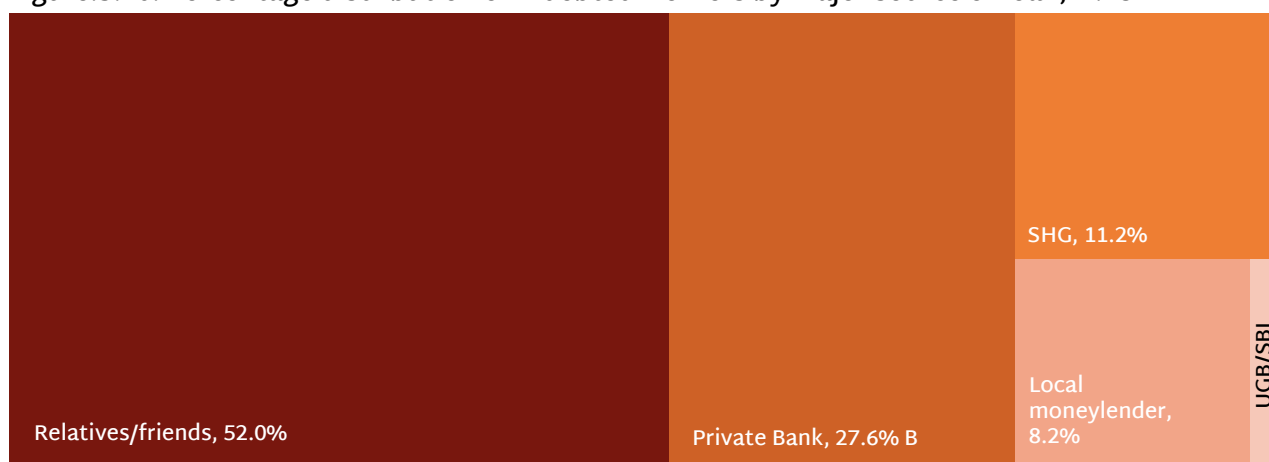


Figure.3.9: Percentage of workers by reasons for indebtedness, N:98



For nearly half of the indebted workers, the loan was arranged leveraging the personal network of friends and relatives (Figure.3.10). Over a quarter of the workers had resorted to private banks for credit. Self-help groups were the sources for one out of every ten workers who were indebted. Utkal Grameen Bank or State Bank of India was the source of loan for about one per cent of the workers.

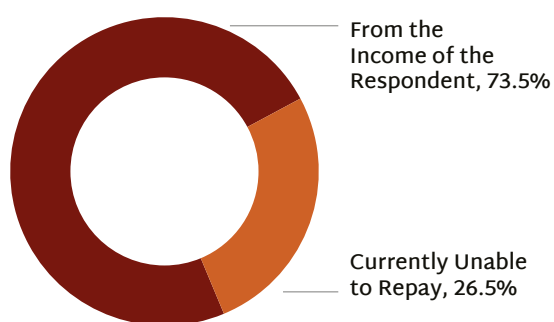
Figure.3.10: Percentage distribution of indebted workers by major source of loan, N:98



For about three-fourths of the indebted workers from Surada, their income was the major means to repay the outstanding debt. Rest of the workers mentioned that they were currently unable to repay the debt (Figure.3.11).



Figure.3.11: Percentage distribution of workers by the major means of repayment of outstanding debt, N:98



About one-third of the workers were indebted. The average outstanding debt was ₹40000. At the time of the survey one-fourth of them were not in a position to repay their loans

Communicating with Family

The ownership of mobile phones and the means of communication between migrant members and their family members at the native place were explored. Only two of the workers reported that they did not have mobile phones and hence were unable to communicate with family members (Table.3.15). Seven out of every ten workers had smartphones, and the rest of the workers had basic phones. Share of workers having smartphones varied from 61 per cent among the tribal workers to 76 per cent among the workers from the Other Backward Castes/Communities. Nearly two-fifths of the workers from the Scheduled Tribes relied on basic phones to communicate with their family members. Almost all the workers made regular audio phone calls to families. Over one-fourth of the workers made WhatsApp audio calls too. One in every three workers made WhatsApp video calls with families.

Table.3.15: Percentage distribution of workers by selected indicators of communication with family and ethnicity

Variable/Category	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	OBC	
Access to Phone				
Smartphone	67.8	60.5	75.8	71.5
Basic Phone	30.5	39.5	23.7	27.8
No Mobile Phone	1.7	0.0	0.5	0.6
Type of Calls (Percentage)				
Regular Audio Call	93.2	100.0	98.0	97.4
WhatsApp Audio Call	27.1	11.6	24.2	23.0
WhatsApp Video Call	33.9	27.9	39.9	36.6
Audio/Video through Other Applications	3.4	14.0	1.5	3.6
Unable to Communicate	1.7	0.0	0.5	0.6
Number	59	43	198	309
Monthly Expenditure (₹)				
200 or Less	29.3	37.2	22.3	26.4
201 to 250	48.3	44.2	55.8	52.4
Above 250	22.4	18.6	21.8	21.2
Median	240.0	250.0	249.0	240.0
Total	100	100	100	100
Number	58	43	197	307

Overall, half of the workers spent between ₹201 to ₹250 for phone recharge for voice/data in a month. Around one-fifth of the workers incurred an expenditure of over ₹250 per month towards recharging the phone. On average, workers spent ₹240 per month towards phone recharge.



Collectivisation and Social Security

In order to understand how empowered the workers were at the respective destinations to bargain for their rights, each one of them was asked if he/she was a member of any trade union at the destination. Findings revealed that despite having a long history of migration, only a negligible proportion of the workers from Surada were part of any trade union at their respective destinations. The workers were also enquired if they had specific entitlement documents that would help them avail benefits at the destination. In addition, details on the possession of labour cards, health insurance, accident insurance or life insurance and membership in welfare funds at their respective destinations were also explored. The percentage of workers who have specific documents or membership in select schemes is provided in Table.3.16.

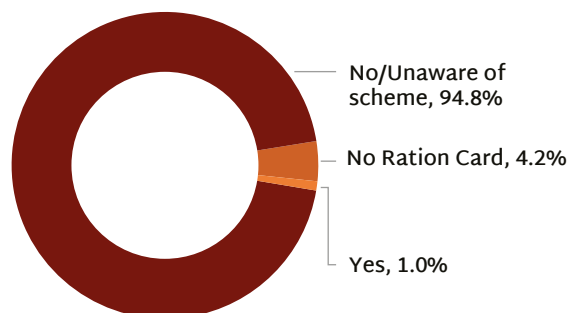
Table.3.16: Percentage of workers by access to select entitlements at the destination and ethnicity

Variable	Ethnicity			Total
	SC	ST	OBC	
Membership in Trade Union	1.7	2.3	0.5	1.3
Voter ID at Destination	0.0	4.7	3.0	2.6
Labour Card at Destination	0.0	2.3	1.5	1.3
Health Insurance Scheme	0.0	2.3	4.5	4.2
Accident Insurance Scheme	1.7	4.7	3.5	4.2
Life/Any Other Insurance	3.4	2.3	12.6	9.4
Welfare Fund	1.7	4.7	1.0	2.6
Number	59	43	198	309

Except a few, most workers, irrespective of the ethnic background, had no access to measures of social security that they could leverage at the destination. Only three per cent of the workers had voter identity card at the destination. Less than two per cent of the workers reported having a labour card at the destination. The proportion of workers who had any of these documents was lower in the case of workers from the Scheduled Castes compared to those from the other two ethnic groups. Four per cent each of workers mentioned having a health insurance and/ or accident insurance scheme at the destination. Slightly less than ten per cent of the workers reported having any other insurance. Nearly five per cent of the workers from the Scheduled Tribes, the highest among the ethnic categories, reported having membership in a welfare fund at the destination.

To assess the access of the workers to subsidised food grains, their possession of ration cards, either at source or destination was explored. Overall, only two per cent of the workers reported having a ration card at the destination. At source, 97 per cent of the workers had Priority Households (PHH) ration cards. With the launch of One Nation One Ration Card (ONORC), all NFSA beneficiaries are able to claim either full or part of the subsidised food grains from any Fair Price Shop (FPS) in the country with biometric/Aadhaar authentication. During the survey, the workers were asked whether they were able to obtain ration at least once in the past 12 months preceding the survey under the scheme. The findings are summarised in Figure.3.12. Only one per cent of the workers reported having obtained ration under the scheme.

Figure.3.12: Percentage distribution of workers by access to ONORC scheme, N:309



Most migrant workers were unaware about the One Nation One Ration Card (ONORC) Scheme. Only one per cent of the workers reported having obtained ration under the scheme

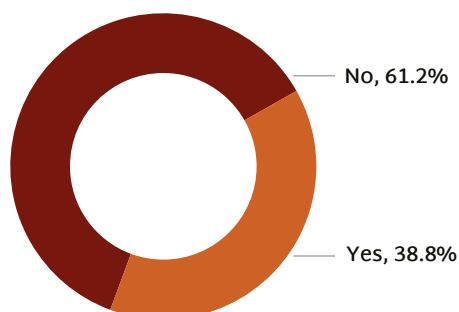
Grievance Redressal

Though wage theft, physical or verbal abuse, and expulsion without any prior notice were some common forms of exploitation and violation of the rights of the migrant workers at the destination, around 97 per cent of the workers mentioned that they did not experience cheating, wage theft, or physical or verbal abuse at the destination in the past 12 months. Among those who faced such issues, only five workers mentioned that they reported such experience and one of them mentioned that it was resolved.

Income That Prevents Migration

In order to understand the kind of interventions that could limit distress migration, the workers were enquired about the factors at source that would prevent them from leaving their native place for work. While about three-fifths of the workers mentioned that there was nothing at the native place that could prevent their migration for work, nearly two-fifths of the workers responded in the affirmative (Figure.3.13).

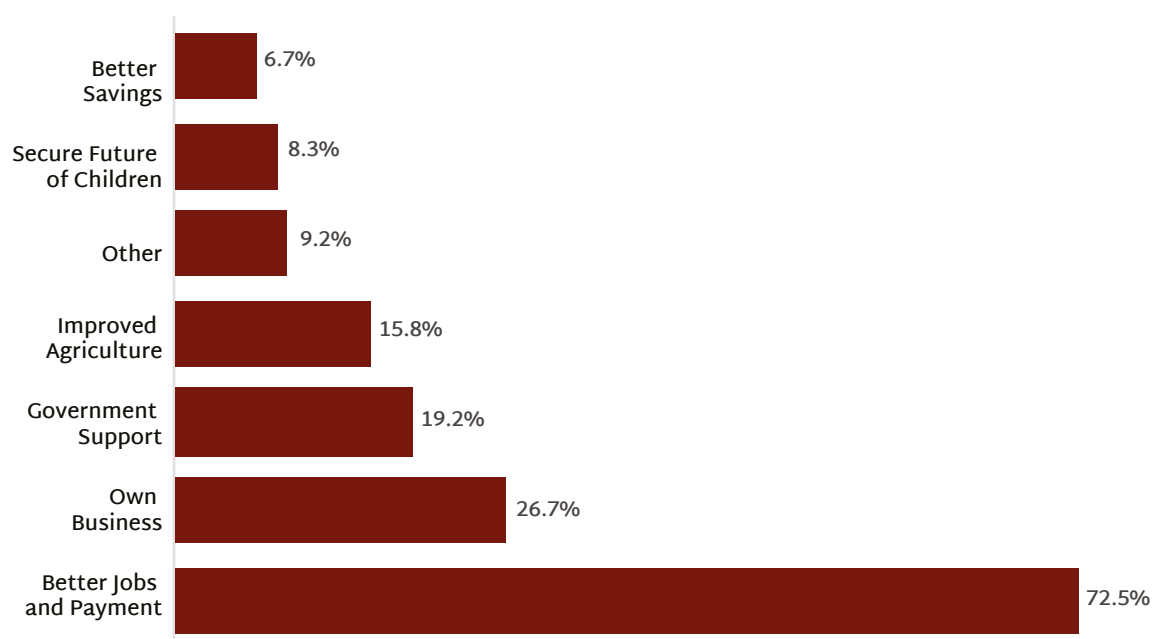
Figure.3.13: Percentage distribution of workers by opinion on whether their migration can be prevented, N:309



A regular monthly income of ₹15000 to ₹20000 at the native place is regarded as sufficient by the migrant workers from Surada to avoid such migration

The workers, who opined that their migration can be prevented, were specifically asked about the three most important things/actions at native place that would prevent their migration for work. Opportunities for better jobs and payment emerged as the most important factor (Figure.3.14). About a quarter of the workers hoped that if they were able to start their own business, there would not be a need to migrate for work. Improvement in agriculture, in terms of availability of water, access to credit, and ownership of patta land was also mentioned as an incentive to avoid migration.

Figure.3.14: Percentage of workers by reasons preventing migration in future, N:120

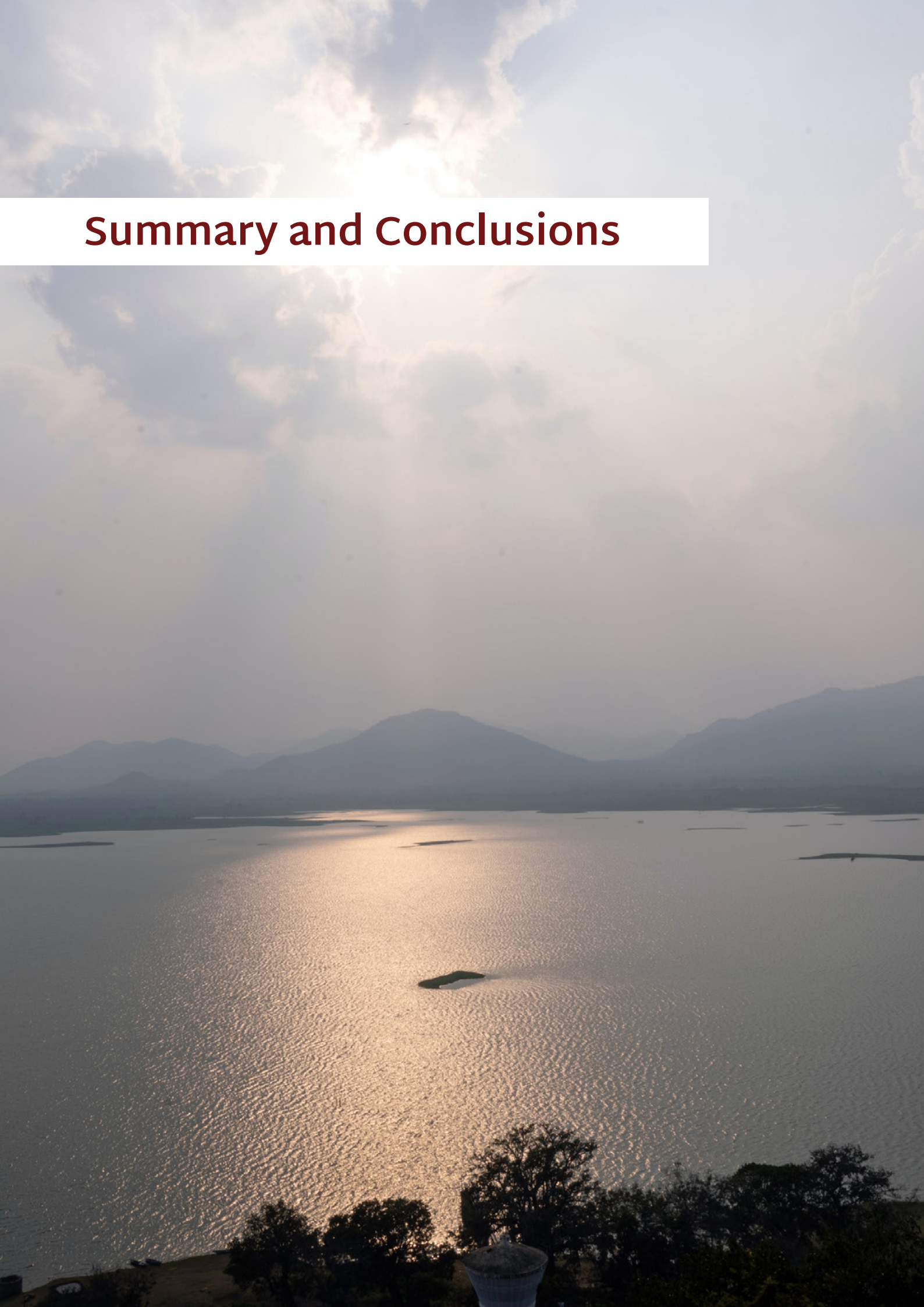


The workers were asked to report the minimum regular monthly wages they expected if they were to return to their native place and work there. The responses are presented in Table.3.17. Overall, 37 per cent of the workers responded that if they got a minimum monthly income between ₹15000 and ₹20000, they would prefer to stay back and work in the village. The median monthly income that would prevent labour migration from Surada was ₹20000. The expected monthly income to prevent migration was ₹25000 for workers from Other Backward Castes/Communities.

Table.3.17: Percentage distribution of workers by expected average monthly income at native place that would prevent their migration and ethnicity

Minimum Income to Prevent Migration	Ethnicity		Total
	SC/ST	OBC	
15000 or Less	18.9	15.2	16.7
15001 to 20000	48.6	31.6	36.7
Above 20000	32.4	53.2	46.7
Median Income (₹)	20000	25000	20000
Total	100	100	100
Number	37	79	120

Summary and Conclusions



Introduction

Surada block of Ganjam district of Odisha substantially depends on migration. Surat in Gujarat has been a traditional destination of workers from Surada. Recent research revealed that in addition to Gujarat, southern Indian states have evolved as major destinations of workers from Surada. Gram Vikas has been engaged in improving the lives of the communities in Ganjam since 1979. The organisation has been closely observing the increasing migration for work from Surada. In order to understand the migration from Surada in depth, Gram Vikas conducted a profiling of the migration from the block in partnership with Centre for Migration and Inclusive Development (CMID). The overall purpose of the study was to gather evidence on the migration scenario of Surada so as to make appropriate interventions to promote safe migration and revive the household and village economies, leveraging migration as a solution rather than a problem. For Gram Vikas, which is dedicated to finding innovative solutions for the development of remote rural areas of Odisha and Jharkhand, this is also a deep dive into the nuances of labour migration from its programme geographies. The objectives of the study included understanding the sociodemographic profile of the households in the block, and exploring the migration scenario, including the estimation of the household migration rates.

Methodology

In order to obtain a good one-time estimate of household migration rates, a sample size of 400 was determined. Assuming a ten per cent non-response, the sample was inflated to 440. From the villages and Census Towns in Surada, 22 Primary Sampling Units (PSUs) were randomly selected by probability proportionate to size (PPS) and from each selected village, 20 households were selected by systematic sampling. In addition to the household survey which aimed to understand the household characteristics and estimate household migration rates, a survey of current migrant workers was also carried out. From among the members in the household sample, who were migrants at the time of the survey, the person who made the largest contribution to the income of the household was selected for the survey of migrant workers. A migrant was operationally defined for the study as a member of the household who has been working outside the district and staying there for a continuous period of 30 days or more. A semi-structured interview schedule in Odia, digitised using mWater survey platform, was used for data collection. A team of eight investigators with a minimum educational qualification of higher secondary and above, who were conversant in the local language, were engaged for data collection. The final sample size achieved for the household survey was 431 and the achieved sample size for the migrant survey was 309. The surveys were conducted during the period from June 2023 to September 2023.

Key Findings

This section summarises the key findings from the study. A profile of the households is summarised in the first subsection which covers the sociodemographic profile, land and agriculture, livelihoods, and social protection. Migration from Surada is summarised in the second subsection and the third section summarises the profile of the migrant workers and the features of migration.



Household Profile

Except about less than three per cent of Christians, all the households in Surada followed Hinduism. The majority of the households belonged to Other Backward Castes/Communities, followed by the Scheduled Castes. The average household size was five. The median number of years of education of the highest educated member of the household was nine. The majority of the households had Priority Household (PHH) ration cards. However, there were also about 12 per cent households which reported that they did not have ration cards. Over a quarter of the households possessed Below Poverty Line (BPL) cards. Only about two-fifths of the households had NREGS job cards and a little over 30 per cent households in Surada benefited from NREGS employment in the past 12 months. The average number of days of employment in the past 12 months was 40 for the households in the block that had NREGS job cards. The median monthly income of the households from the usual residents was ₹1500 and ₹16500 from all sources. Most of the households had their own pukka houses. The majority depended on piped water, public tap or hand pumps for drinking water. Most of the houses were electrified and relied on wood as cooking fuel. Nearly half of all households had functional toilets. The access to functional toilets was poorer for households from the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes. The majority of the toilets were constructed with the support of the government and most of them lacked water supply. Most of the households with functional toilets regularly used them.

About 45 per cent of the households did not have any land and landlessness was most prominent among the households from the Scheduled Castes. Median size of landholding for those who had land was 0.5 acres. Two-fifths of the households with land reported that their land was not irrigated

and those who irrigated land primarily depended on public irrigation sources. About 40 per cent of the households in Surada reported agriculture as the major source of income. Nearly two-thirds of the households in the block were engaged in agriculture. The majority of the households cultivated their patta land. Most of them had only one crop in the previous year and the majority used the produce for household consumption. Most households engaged in agriculture reported that with the changes in climate, agriculture had become less profitable. About 40 per cent of the households raised cattle primarily for domestic purposes.

Every household in Surada had at least one person with a bank account, and mostly used passbooks for withdrawing money. About 15 per cent of the households used UPI for transactions. Nearly one-third of the households reported having membership in Self-Help Groups and 95 per cent of the households were enrolled in Biju Swasthya Kalyan Yojana, a social health insurance scheme of the state of Odisha. In terms of access to services, the median distance to the nearest bank was about five km, and the nearest functional health facility was about seven km away. People, on average, walked about 15 minutes to reach the nearest place from where public transport was available. The average distance to the nearest high school where free education was available was about two km for the households in Surada. Almost 97 per cent of the households had mobile phone connectivity in their respective villages. One in every three households in Surada was indebted at the time of the survey. The average outstanding debt of the indebted households was about ₹30000. Construction/renovation of houses and hospitalisation expenditure were the two major reasons for such indebtedness. Friends, relatives or private moneylenders were the major sources for loans. Income of the migrant members of the households was a major means of repayment of loans. Absence of a sustained source of reasonable income was evident in the case of the majority of the households in Surada. As a result, most households found it difficult to practice agriculture and were also unable to save money. Inability to access quality healthcare when needed was another challenge faced by the households. One out of every ten households in Surada had household members who had to skip at least one regular meal for more than a day in the past seven days because there was no food stock or there was no money to buy food.

Migration from Surada

The majority of the households in Surada had a history of labour migration and 78 per cent of the households reported having at least one member who had migrated for work within the past ten years. Migration from Surada was primarily interstate movements. At the time of the survey 74.5 per cent of the households had members who had migrated for work. About 15 per cent of the households had seasonal migrants who spend no more than six months at the destination. Only two per cent of all migrants were women/girls. One out of every five persons from Surada worked elsewhere outside the district at the time of the survey. The total estimated number of migrant workers from Surada in 2023 was 30,247. About six per cent of the households in Surada had usual residents who had worked elsewhere outside the district for more than 30 days but currently did not have an intention to go out of the district for work. The absence of any one else to take care of the family members and the clearance of debts were the major reasons for such return migration. Most of such returnees were engaged as agricultural/non-agricultural daily wage labourers. About 22 per cent of the households did not have migrant members. The majority of them did not want to migrate; but there were also a minority who wanted to migrate but were unable to do so. In both cases, family responsibilities at the native place were the key reasons.

Examining the impact of labour migration from Surada, it was found that the majority of the households with migrant workers were able to cope with their poverty through labour migration. It also helped such households to improve their savings. About one-third of the households with migrants were able to diversify their income. A little above half of the households with migrants reported that they were able to improve agriculture with the income of the migrant members of the households. Among the households with a history of migration, about a quarter were able to build new houses while about 75 per cent were able to renovate their houses with the income. About 63 per cent of the households with migration history mentioned that they were able to improve the education of the children with the income of the migrant members of the household. The majority of the households with migration history mentioned that their status in the village improved due to the income of the migrant members of the family. There were also negative impacts of migration as mentioned by the households with migrants. Three in every four households with migrants shared that they were not able to seek quality healthcare in the absence of the member/s who had migrated for work. Also, about 32 per cent of the households had to completely give up agriculture due to the migration of members from the household.

Profile of Migrant Workers

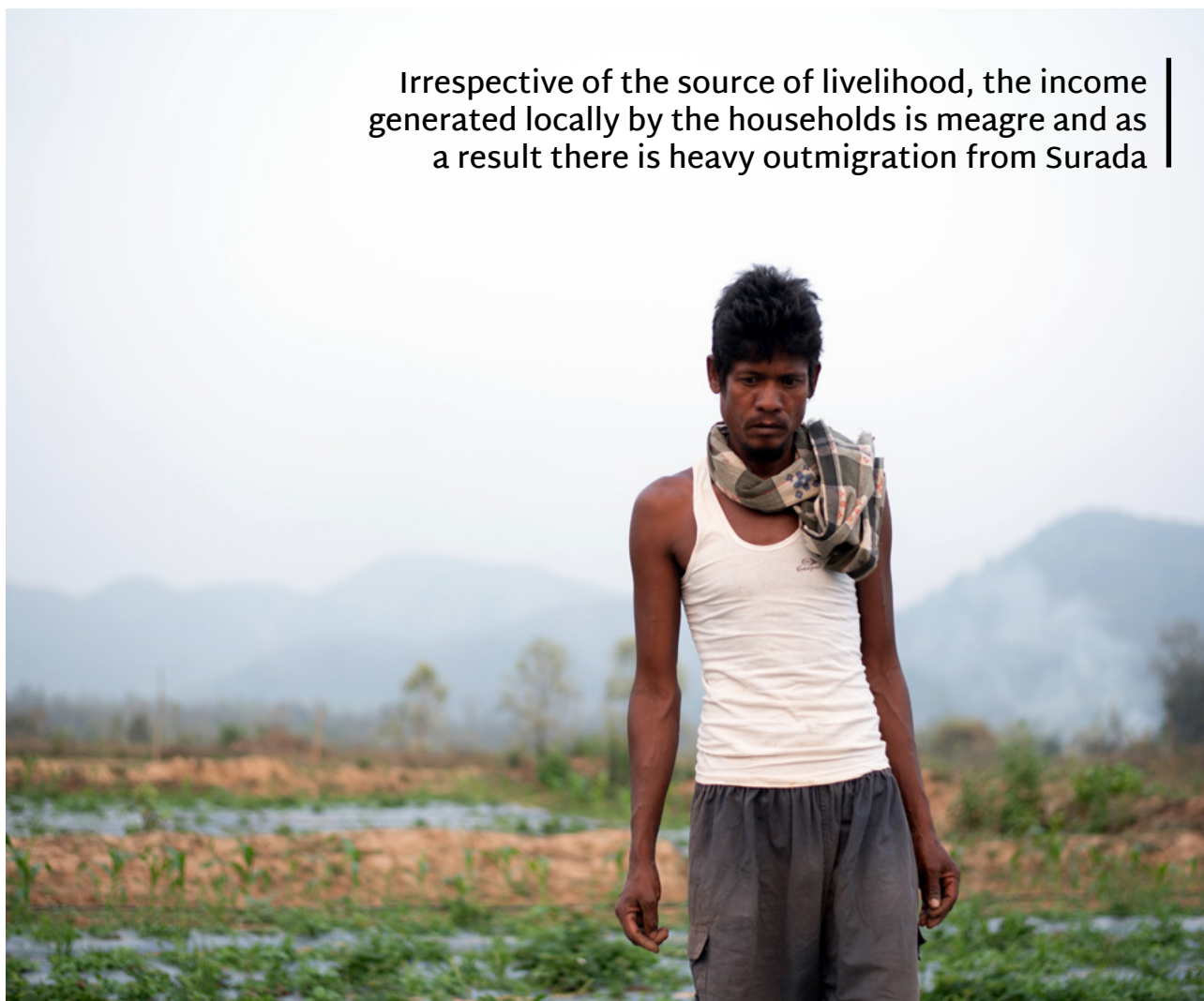
Overall, 64 per cent of the migrant workers belonged to Other Backward Castes/Communities, 19 per cent were from Scheduled Castes and 14 per cent from the Scheduled Tribes. Except two females, all migrants were males (99 per cent) with an average age of 35 years. The median number of years of education was five and three-fourths of the migrant workers were married. Among those who were married, most migrated without spouse and children. Most of the workers were either unemployed, engaged in agriculture/agricultural labour or worked as labourers in the service sector prior to their migration. They made their first move out of the district for work at the age of 20 years. Unemployment and low wages were the two major reasons cited for moving out of the district for work. On average, most migrant workers had four dependents back home. At the time of the survey, almost 95 per cent of the migrant labourers from Surada were working outside the state, and Gujarat and Kerala were the most important destination states. About five per cent of the workers moved within Odisha, primarily to the state capital Bhubaneswar. Almost every worker from Surada had moved to urban destinations and most of them were recruited by someone at the destination. None of them had received any advance payment prior to departure. Most migrants had been working at the same state for an average of seven years. They were primarily engaged as employees in shops, establishments or factories. The majority of the migrants were unskilled/semi-skilled workers. Garment sector and other factory work engaged nearly 53 per cent of the workers and construction was the other major sector of employment which absorbed about 30 per cent of the workers from Surada.

The migrants worked eight hours a day, on average, drawing a monthly wage of about ₹15000 and received the wages in cash. Nearly half of the workers were paid on a monthly basis. Most workers did not enjoy employment benefits such as ESI or PF. They lived in rented rooms or workers' quarters, the majority sharing a room with four others and cooking their own food. Most of them had access to electricity, drinking water and at least one functional toilet at the place of residence. The median rent paid was ₹1000. About 95 per cent of the workers had bank accounts and most of such accounts were Jan Dhan accounts. In the past three months prior to the survey, the migrant workers had sent home ₹18000 on average. The estimated total monthly remittances received by

households in Surada from migrant workers were about ₹180 million. Workers primarily relied on money transfer agents or bank accounts for remittances. About 32 per cent of the workers were indebted at the time of the survey and the average outstanding debt was ₹40000. Construction of a new house or renovation of the existing house was the major reason for such indebtedness.

Except a few workers, all had mobile phones. The majority had smartphones and workers used regular audio calls to communicate with family members. WhatsApp video and audio calls were also popular. Only about three per cent of the migrants had electoral identity cards at the place where they worked. Two per cent of the migrant workers had ration cards at the destination. Most workers had neither heard of nor availed the One Nation One Ration Card (ONORC) Scheme. Nine out of every ten workers were not part of any trade union at the destination. Only about three percent were enrolled in any of the welfare funds for workers at the destination. Around 97 per cent of the workers mentioned that they did not experience any cheating, wage theft or physical or verbal abuse at the destination in the past 12 months. When asked if their migration can be prevented, the majority mentioned that it is not possible. Among those who said it is possible, most reported that if they get better jobs and payment at the native place, they prefer to stay back and work at the native place. They reported that if they get an average monthly income of ₹20000 at the native place they prefer not to migrate for work.

Irrespective of the source of livelihood, the income generated locally by the households is meagre and as a result there is heavy outmigration from Surada



Conclusions

- ♦ Socially and economically disadvantaged populations comprise the majority of the households in Surada. High prevalence of landlessness, small size of the landholdings, dependence on public/natural water sources for irrigation and changes in climatic conditions have made agriculture less profitable for households in Surada. However, the majority of the households in Surada continue to engage in agriculture, primarily for domestic consumption.
- ♦ Although agriculture/agricultural labour continues to be the single largest source of local income, the majority of the households in Surada depend on other income sources. Households in Surada have not optimally leveraged/benefited from NREGS, an important government intervention to guarantee employment opportunities to the rural poor. Irrespective of the source of livelihood, the income generated locally by the households is meagre and as a result there is heavy outmigration from Surada.
- ♦ Households in Surada, by and large, have fairly good access to services such as electricity, water and mobile phone network, with near universal availability. There is universal access to banking services. Although households still rely on passbooks for withdrawing money, new forms of transactions such as UPI have started picking up.
- ♦ Although suboptimal, households in Surada have access to formal credit through SHGs and banks. The indebtedness of the households in Surada appears to evolve partially from the ability of the households to avail loans that they seem to be confident of repaying through remittances. Although they have access to sources of formal credit, the households predominantly rely on relatives, friends and private moneylenders for loans/advances.
- ♦ There is near universal enrolment of the households in Surada in the social health insurance scheme of the state government. However, such enrolment does not seem to have reduced their high out-of-pocket expenditure on health as healthcare expenditure has been one of the key reasons for indebtedness in Surada. Unlocking the social health insurance and ensuring access to quality and affordable healthcare services appear to be challenging for the households in Surada.
- ♦ Households from Surada heavily depend on labour migration. Although Ganjam district is historically known for labour migration, the level of migration from Surada is exceptionally high and is almost saturated. While there is a component of distress, migration from Surada is driven more by aspirations.
- ♦ Interstate migrant workers from Surada were primarily men who moved mostly to Gujarat or Kerala, leveraging their social networks. Migration has become a way of life for young men from Surada whereas labour migration of women is unusually low. Beyond Ganjam-Surat, a labour migration corridor has evolved between Ganjam and Kerala state in southern India. While age and gender appear to be playing key roles in deciding the mobility of an individual, caste seems to be key determinant in the choice of destination.

- ♦ Migration brings nearly two billion rupees (₹180 crore) to Surada block annually as remittances, reviving the economy of the block and improving the resilience of the households. It has contributed to reducing the poverty of the households with migrants, helping the households pay off debts and save more, improve their housing and asset base, provide better education for children, and elevate their status in the locality. Migration of members has also affected the access to quality healthcare of the remaining members of many households.
- ♦ Unlike the typical labour migration to take up unskilled construction work in India's urban centres, a sizeable share of migrant workers from Surada were skilled and worked in shops, establishments or factories. Most of the workers have been at their respective destination states for several years. However, they have been informally employed without any social protection.
- ♦ Access to higher education continues to be a challenge for households in Surada. Only a very low proportion of the households have members with educational attainment above higher secondary level. Focussed long-term investments in education can substantially transform the migration trajectory of Surada.
- ♦ A steady monthly income of ₹15000 to ₹20000 at the native place is regarded sufficient by migrant workers to avoid migration for work. They also seem to be well aware that avenues for earning such income are limited in Surada.

Endnotes

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Gram Vikas is a community development organization working in Odisha and Jharkhand since 1979. Gram Vikas works with rural poor and tribal communities to help them lead a dignified life, by building capacities, strengthening community institutions and mobilising resources. We focus on issues around water, livelihoods, sanitation and hygiene, habitat and technologies, education, and mitigating the effects of natural disasters. Lives of more than 600,000 people in 1700 villages have benefitted from the partnership with Gram Vikas. The Safe and Dignified Migration Programme was launched in 2019 as part of the Gram Vikas Decade Five programmatic framework.



Centre for Migration and
Inclusive Development.

The Centre for Migration and Inclusive Development is an independent non-profit that advocates for and promotes social inclusion of migrants in India. Established in 2016, CMID's priorities include designing, piloting and implementing programmes for mainstreaming as well as improving the quality of life of migrants. CMID's work also includes technical support in the formulation, refinement and implementation of strategies, policies and programmes that promote inclusive and sustainable development, working with diverse state and non-state actors.

