



MIGRANT CONSTRUCTION WORKERS AND THEIR HOUSING CONDITIONS IN JAIPUR

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SAATH

Creating Inclusive Societies

The research and analysis for this report was carried out during the months of August 2019 to March 2020. However, due to the Covid Pandemic, the report could not be made available at that time. However, the authors hope that the information in the report is still relevant and can be used by relevant stakeholders.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AHP: Affordable Housing in Partnership -----	9
ARHCs: Affordable Rental Housing Complexes -----	12
BSUP: Basic Services for Urban Poor -----	8
CLS: Credit Linked Subsidy -----	11
CMAY: Chief Minister's Jan Aawas Yojna -----	13
COVID-19: Coronavirus Diseases -----	12
CWWB: Construction Workers Welfare Board -----	5
DAY-NULM: Deendayal Antyodaya Yojana - National Urban Livelihoods Mission -----	10, 35
DUs: Dwelling Units -----	8
EWS: Economically Weaker Sections -----	8
FAR: Floor Area Ratio -----	9
GIS: Geographic Information System -----	27
JDA: Jaipur Development Authority -----	6
JMC: Jaipur Municipal Corporation -----	10, 35
JNNURM: Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission -----	8
LIG: Low Income Group -----	8
MIS: Management Information System -----	9
MoHUA: Ministry of Housing and Urban Affairs -----	37
NBO: National Building Organisation -----	37
NPV: Net Present Value -----	11
NSSO: National Sample Survey Office -----	1
NULM: National Urban Livelihoods Mission -----	10
PMAY: Pradhan Mantri Aawas Yojana -----	11
PPP: Public-Private Partnership -----	12
RAY: Rajiv Aawas Yojana -----	9
RIICO: Rajasthan State Industrial Development and Investment Corporation -----	13
SC: Scheduled Caste -----	17
SFCPoA: Slum Free City Plan of Action -----	9
SMS: Sawai Man Singh -----	6
ST: Scheduled Tribes -----	17
SUH: Shelters for Urban Homeless -----	10, 35
TDR: Transferable Development Rights -----	9
ULBs: Urban Local Bodies -----	9
UNDESA: United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs -----	1

UPR: Usual Place of Residence ----- 1

1 BACKGROUND

“Since the earliest times, humanity has been on the move. Some people move in search of work or economic opportunities, to join family, or to study. Others move to escape conflict, persecution, terrorism, or human rights violations. Some, move in response to the adverse effects of climate change, natural disasters, or other environmental factors.” (UN, 2018).

Migration takes place everywhere in the world, with movements both within nations and internationally across borders. The world has an estimated 244 million international migrants and 763 million internal migrants (World Economic Forum; PwC, 2017). Migration is an important factor that affects socio economic and urban development in India.

“A household member whose last usual place of residence (UPR), anytime in the past, was different from the present place of enumeration was considered as a migrant member in a household” (Government of India, 2011). In NSSO studies on migration, based on the nature of the movement, migration is of two types, i.e. Temporary and Permanent. Migration is treated as temporary if the migrant intended to move again to the last usual place of residence or any other place. If the migrant, in the normal course, was likely to stay at the place of enumeration and did not plan to move out of the place of enumeration, it can be treated as permanent migration. Those who migrated temporarily were further categorized into two groups, namely, those with an expected duration of stay less than 12 months and those with an expected duration of stay of 12 months or more (National Sample Survey Office, 2010).

Migrants migrate to other cities, states and countries due to many push and pull factors, aiming to improve their living standard. As per NSSO Report No. 533, there is a total of 17 reasons which act as a push or pull factor for migration that are as follows:

Table 1: List of Reasons for Migration as per NSSO Report No. 533.

Reasons for Migration	
In search of employment	Natural disaster
In search of better employment	Social/ political problems
To take up employment / better employment	Displacement by the development project
Business	Acquisition of own house/ flat
Transfer of service/ contract	Housing problems
Proximity to the place of work	Health care
Studies	Post-retirement
Marriage	Others
Migration of the Earning Member of the Family	

As per the Census of India 2011, out of the 1.21 billion population, nearly 453 million are migrants. The share of migrants to the total population was 37.4% in 2011 which is higher than in 2001, which was 31%. The migration rate in rural areas (26%) was far lower than the migration rate in urban areas (35%). Migration due to marriage is a dominant factor among women, particularly in rural to rural migration streams. For males, however migration due to employment related reasons is a the dominant cause.

Nearly 91% of the migrants were permanent. A substantial rural-urban differential was observed, with a higher proportion of the rural migrants moving permanently (95%) compared to urban migrants (83%).

The constitution of India guarantees its citizens the right to migrate to any place within India, to live and work as they see fit. There is a close link between the economic success of a city and the growth of informal settlements because dwellers residing in these settlements are part of a large informal economy. They are also a helping hand behind the formal economy by providing the necessary labour support in all sectors.

The Report of the Working Group on Migration, 2017 by MoHUA (Ministry of Housing and Urban Affairs) outlines the current situation of migrants in India. On one hand, it clearly states that the current government schemes for migrants need refinement in terms of their access and awareness. As per the report, most of the construction workers and other informal labourers are unaware of their rights and benefits accredited to them. Even the existence of CWWB (Construction Workers Welfare Board) has been a failure to address socio-economic and housing issues of both registered and unregistered construction workers. Migrant workers often lack the tools to formalize their involvement in the largely informal economic activities that they take part in.

On the other hand, the Working Group Report also highlights the various available options to improve the government schemes related to health, employment and housing, etc. for migrants. Specific to housing, the recommendations emphasize that part of the current housing demand can be fulfilled through rental housing and working men's and women's hostels. However, these recommendations lack detail and a framework to implement them on the ground.

Migrant construction workers are some of the most socio-economically vulnerable migrants within the Indian context, and this report aims to understand the socio economic and housing conditions of such migrants in the city of Jaipur. The report focuses on the reasons behind migrating to the city and how the workers find work and house themselves in the city. The study uses data collected from migrant workers at "Labour Chowks¹", which are one of the most important and in some cases the only ways for workers to find casual work in large cities. The report is also accompanied by 2 other publications – a detailed review of Shelters for the Urban Homeless in Jaipur and a profiling of some of the less well-known low-income neighbourhoods of Jaipur, where a lot of these migrant workers live.

1 Labour Chowks are locations within any city where large numbers of labourers gather in the morning. People who need casual labour can go to these chowks, negotiate with workers and hire them for the day. Labour chowks exist in every major city in India and are also known as Labour Nakas or Labour Sattis.

1.1 METHODOLOGY

Jaipur has a span of 467 km² and attracts a huge number of migrants for employment and other purposes. To identify the existing situation of migrants (both temporary and permanent), 25 labour chowks were identified for the primary survey. A total of 563 samples was collected from all chowks in which 97 samples were rejected due to errors.

466 samples were identified as correct and used to understand the migration pattern in Jaipur. Purposive and convenience sampling techniques were particularly used. During the surveys, only migrants (i.e. labourers) were surveyed and migrants involved in other informal works like balloons and toys selling were not taken into account due to accessibility, variable location and workforce. Also, the surveys were done irrespective of the gender of labourers, but it was observed that women were less interested and reluctant to engage while providing information, especially for primary surveys. These chowks were selected all across Jaipur to capture the nature of different types of migrants and cover the whole city. The main reason for selecting labour chowks and not slums as an initial point for surveys are as follows:

- 1) Labour chowks attract a large number of migrants from various locations in and outside of the city
- 2) Act as a hub for the source of employment for informal workers
- 3) Attracts both temporary and permanent migrants
- 4) Migrants who live in all types of housing come to labour chowks to find work

The primary survey aimed to collect data related to the following parameters:

- 1) Socio-economic data
- 2) Infrastructure Facilities at Chowk
- 3) Migration
- 4) Condition of Housing

Other than the primary surveys, face-to-face interviews, group discussions and visual surveys were also conducted on chowks. This helped to validate the collected data and get additional qualitative information.

1.2 SCOPE AND DATA LIMITATION

- 1) Only 25 labour chowks were surveyed due to limited resource of workforce and time and accessibility
- 2) Data does not capture details of floating population
- 3) Migrants indulged in sectors other than construction work were not surveyed
- 4) No. of samples of women are less due to lesser interest and comfort

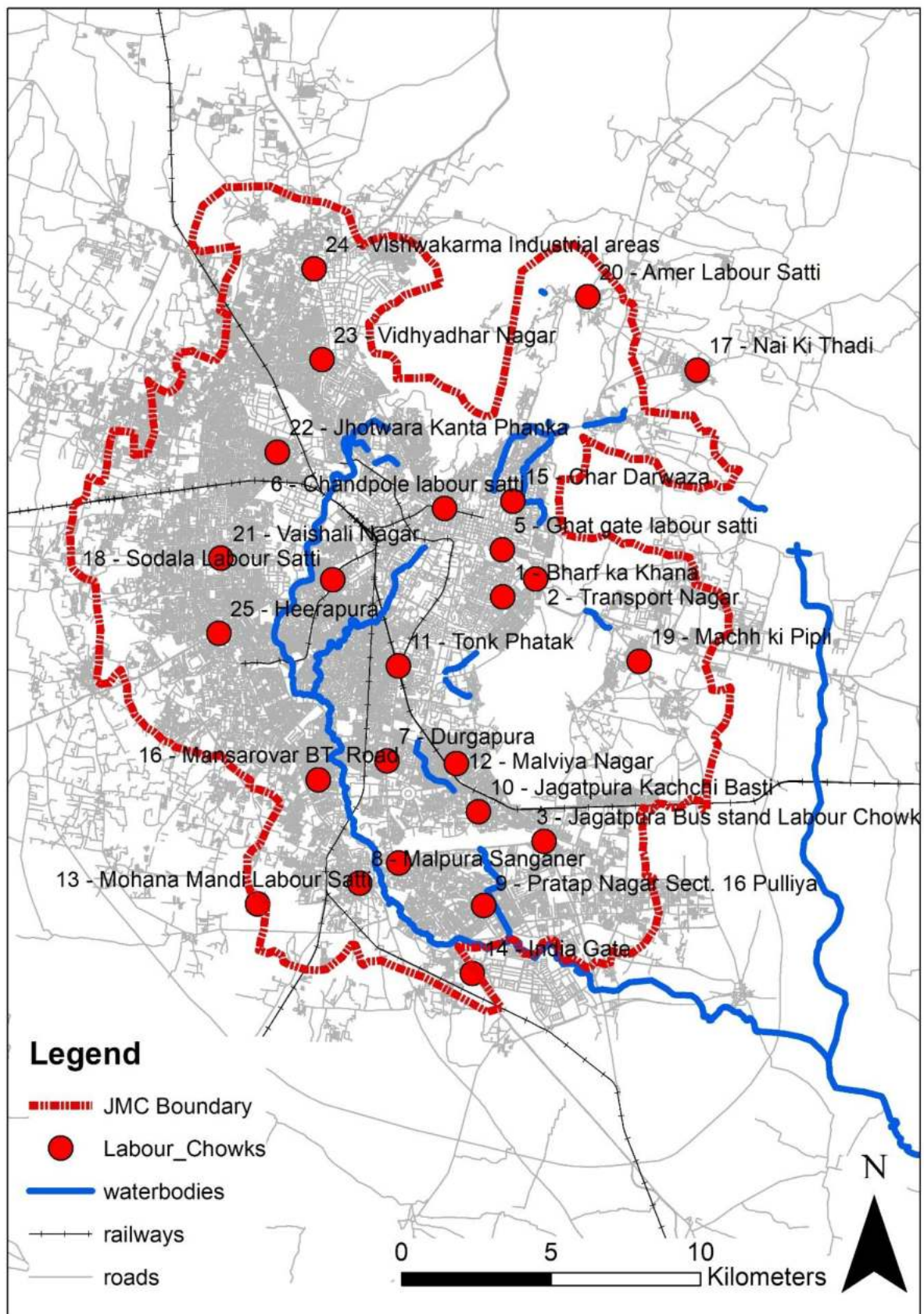


Figure 1: Mapping of 25 Surveyed Labour Chowks in Jaipur. (Source : Authors)

Table 2 : Number of Samples collected at each Labour Chowk

Labour Code	Labour Chowk Name	No. of Survey Sample
1	Bharf ka Karkhana	23
2	Transport Nagar	17
3	Jagatpura Bus stand no. 7	17
4	Sanganer Thana	18
5	Ghat Gate	14
6	Chandpole	8
7	Durgapura	10
8	Malpura Sanganer	16
9	Pratap Nagar Sect 16	20
10	Jagatpura Kacchi Basti	13
11	Tonk Phatak	25
12	Malviya Nagar sect 3	23
13	Mohana Mandi	8
14	India Gate	88
15	Char Darwaza	11
16	Mansarovar BT Road	20
17	Nai ki Thadi	9
18	Sodala Bus stand	27
19	Machh ki Pipli	16
20	Amer	18
21	Vaishali Nagar	24
22	Jhotwara kata phanka	12
23	Vidhyadhar Nagar	11
24	Vishwakarma	8
25	Heerapura	10
Total		466

1.3 CASE STUDY AREA: JAIPUR

Jaipur is named after Maharaja Jai Singh II (1693-1744) the great warrior and astronomer. *The “elevation of buildings and shops facing main roads were uniform and only pink colour was allowed for colouring the exterior portion of buildings, giving the city a unique identity, known as “Pink City” and attracting tourists from all over the world”* (JMC, 2020). The tourism sector is an important factor in the economy of the city and migrants from many sources come to the city seeking employment in this sector.

Jaipur has 91 wards and 8 zones. The 2 ULBs are: JMC (Jaipur Municipal Corporation), JDA (Jaipur Development Authority). There are a total of 211 slums in the city, of which 164 fall under JMC while others are under JDA (JMC, 2020).

The distance of Jaipur from various major cities is given below:

Table 3: Distance of Jaipur from other Important Cities. (Source : Authors)

Sr. No.	City	Distance (Km.)
1	Agra	246 connected by Roads and Trains
2	Delhi	261 connected by Roads and Trains
3	Ajmer	132 connected by Roads and Trains
4	Udaipur	420 connected by Air, Roads and Trains
5	Jodhpur	340 connected by Air, Roads and Trains
6	Jaisalmer	645 connected by Roads and Trains

Being one of the largest cities in Rajasthan and a magnet for tourism from within and outside India, many migrant workers come to Jaipur from the surrounding areas mentioned above.

1.4 POPULATION GROWTH

The population of Jaipur is expected to double from 2011 to 2025, as per the projections of the development plan for Jaipur. This growth puts the responsibility on authorities to meet their demands like housing, transportation, and other infrastructure. Jaipur has great potential to attract migrants for employment. There are also other factors like health care (SMS hospital) and education facilities (Rajasthan University) that attract temporary migrants. In this way, migration is likely to play a key role in the increase in size of the city. This increase in size is also likely to attract a large number of construction workers who will build the new housing and infrastructure required for the population.

Table 4: Population Growth and Growth Rate Comparison in Jaipur. (Source : Authors)

	1991	2001	2011	2021	2025
Population	15,18,235	23,22,575	30,46,163	54,19,208	64,95,000
Growth Rate	49.56	52.98	55.06	50.44	49.64

Source: Section 2.4, Master Plan-2025, Jaipur Region, Volume I

The city is enclosed by the Nahargarh hills in the north and Jhalana in the east, which is a part of the Aravalli hills ranges. The south and west part is covered by isolated and discontinuous hillocks. Due to the presence of physical barriers and increasing population, the city is likely to expand in the west and to the south.

Jaipur is home to many heritage spots like Amber fort, Jaigarh Fort, Jal Mahal, Hawa Mahal, City Palace and Nahargarh Fort which attract tourists from every part of the world. The old city can be entered through one of 8 gates - Sanganeri gate, Ajmeri gate, New gate, Ghat gate, Surajpole gate, Samrat gate, Zoravor Singh gate and Gangapole gate.



Figure 2: Hawa Mahal, Jaipur.



Figure 3: Jal Mahal, Jaipur.

1.5 STRUCTURE OF THE REPORT

This report is divided into the following sections:

- Section 2 – Review of Housing Schemes in Jaipur
- Section 3 – Socio Economic Profile of Migrants
- Section 4 - Travelling and Movement Patterns
- Section 5 – Labour Chowk and Housing Conditions
- Section 6 – Analysis
- Section 7 – Conclusions and Way Forward

2 REVIEW OF HOUSING SCHEMES IMPLEMENTED IN JAIPUR

A shortage of adequate housing is one of the most critical problems faced by the urban poor. It has increased over time, even after the launch of various housing schemes at different levels, i.e. Central level, State level and ULB level.

Each scheme has its own methodology of implementation and management to provide affordable housing to the urban poor. The various schemes that have provided housing to the urban poor in some or the other form are in this section.

2.1 BASIC SERVICES FOR URBAN POOR

The BSUP (Basic Services for Urban Poor), part of the JNNURM (Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission), was launched in 2005. 65 Mission Cities were identified based on urban population (Census 2001). Cultural importance and tourism potential were also considered while selecting the cities. Under BSUP, the project cost was to be shared between the state and central governments in the ratio of 50:50 for cities with a population of more than 1 million (as per Census 2001), 80:20 for other smaller Mission Cities and 90:10 for North Eastern and the Special Category States. The entire cost of construction of Dwelling Units (DUs) and associated infrastructure was to be shared as per the above-mentioned sharing pattern.

It was mandated to pursue 3 key pro-poor reforms as a part of BSUP, namely *“(a) earmarking of 25% of the municipal budget for the urban poor for provision of basic services including affordable housing to the urban poor; (b) implementation of 7- Point Charter, namely provision of land tenure, affordable housing, water, sanitation, education, health and social security to the poor in a time-bound manner ensuring convergence with other programmes and (c) reservation of 25% of developed land in all housing projects, public or private, critical for slum improvement”* (MoHUA, 2005).

As per the data collected from JDA, three slums were selected in Jaipur for relocation and rental housing, i.e. Keeron ki Dhani, Sanjay Nagar Bhatta Basti and Bagrana Basti. All slums were relocated to a new location. Total 5260 new DUs were constructed and 1091 DUs were occupied by the beneficiaries, as per data provided by JDA.

2.2 NATIONAL URBAN HOUSING AND HABITAT POLICY 2007

The National Urban Housing and Habitat policy was first launched in 1994 but continuous augmentation and changes were made over the years. According to the policy's guidelines, it focused on the provision of “Affordable Housing for All” with special emphasis on vulnerable sections of society. The National Housing Policy, 1994 in its section on “Goals” sought to increase the supply of land serviced by basic minimum services to promote a healthy environment. The National Housing & Habitat Policy, 1998 laid greater emphasis on the aspect of “Habitat” as a supplementary focus to housing.

2.3 RAJEEV AAWAS YOJANA

Rajiv Aawas Yojana (RAY) was launched in June 2011 in every city and UAs of India. The RAY was to be implemented in two phases; the preparatory phase (2011 – 2013) and implementation phase

(2013 – 2022) with a two-step implementation strategy i.e. preparation of Slum Free City Plan of Action (SFCPoA) and preparation of projects for selected slums. The scheme applied to all slums within a city, whether notified or non-notified. It was also applicable to “urbanized villages” inside the planning area of the city, and settlements of urban homeless and pavement dwellers.

The strategy covered two aspects which were as follows:

- Curative Strategy was focused on slum redevelopment of all existing slums
- Preventive Strategy for containment of future slums growth

Three types of housing were considered for slum up-gradation/redevelopment/relocation under the scheme that is discussed below:

- New Housing: slum dwellers living in kutcha houses must be provided pucca houses of carpet area between 21-27 sq. m. equipped with basic facilities.
- Incremental Housing: up-gradation of pucca houses built by slum dwellers
- Rental Housing: It may be a preferred choice to accommodate tenants of slums, labourers, floating population and urban homeless.

Affordable Housing in Partnership (AHP) was implemented and central support was provided at the rate of Rs. 75,000 per EWS/LIG DUs of size up to 40 sq. m. for housing and internal development components in affordable housing projects taken up under various kinds of partnerships. A project size of a minimum of 250 dwelling units will be considered under the scheme (MoHUA & Gol, 2011).

The work being carried out under BSUP seems to have been extended under the RAY scheme, as per the data shared by JMC.

2.4 SHELTER FOR URBAN HOMELESS, 2013

DAY-NULM (Deendayal Antyodaya Yojana - National Urban Livelihoods Mission), aims at providing permanent shelter equipped with essential services to the urban homeless in a phased manner under the Scheme of Shelter for Urban Homeless (SUH).

As per the list collected from the NULM (National Urban Livelihoods Mission) Department of JMC, there are 14 permanent homeless shelters and almost 20 temporary homeless shelters (organised in winters). A qualitative survey was conducted at every operational shelter to assess the present condition of infrastructure, accessibility and living conditions. This report has been published separately and can be accessed on the Saath Charitable Trust website. Based on the reconnaissance survey, qualitative assessment and direct interviews with caretakers and users, it was discovered that the usage of shelters depends on three major factors which are stated below in the given order:

- 1) The safe and secured environment inside and outside of the shelters
- 2) Access to the worksites like labour chowks
- 3) Availability of infrastructure facilities

During the interview with the homeless people at various open spaces, it was noticed that majority of the migrants were either unaware of the existence or location of free shelter facilities by JMC. Those who were aware preferred to stay homeless due to the following reasons:

- 1) Many workers were not allowed to stay there because of their drinking and smoking habits
- 2) Inadequacy or unavailability of facilities like electricity, cleanliness or drinking water make shelter unfit for long stays
- 3) Anti-social activities like drinking and gambling in the shelters
- 4) Homeless have more space and freedom in the open
- 5) Many labourers get employment at night for loading-unloading at the places where they sleep

During the visits to the shelters, it came to our knowledge that shelter users were mainly temporary migrants working in Jaipur. They normally stay there for a short period. As a part of their field intervention, Saath field officers had shifted several homeless construction workers to SUH in various locations. The team also made efforts to improve the cleanliness and electricity supply of Stadium Road and Jagatpura night shelters after addressing the issue to Deputy Commissioners of Health and Electricity departments, respectively.

2.5 PRADHAN MANTRI AAWAS YOJNA (HOUSING FOR ALL)

PMAY (Pradhan Mantri Aawas Yojana) was launched in June 2015 as a set of four other schemes or verticals that seeks to fulfil the housing requirement of the urban poor. It is a Centrally Sponsored Scheme.

2.5.1 IN-SITU SLUM REDEVELOPMENT USING LAND AS RESOURCE

Irrespective of the ownership, slums must be selected, and financially viable slum redevelopment projects must be implemented using FAR, FSI and TDR as tools. A slum rehabilitation grant of Rs.1 lakh per house, on average, would be admissible for all houses built for eligible slum dwellers. Beneficiary contribution in slum redevelopment project (if any) and eligibility criteria will be decided by States/UTs preferably through legislation. They will also decide whether the allotment will be based on ownership rights or renewable, mortgageable and inheritable leasehold rights.

2.5.2 CREDIT LINKED SUBSIDY

CLSS will provide an interest subsidy of 6.5 % for a tenure of 15 years or during the tenure of loan whichever is lower will be given to LIG and EWS. The Net Present Value (NPV) of the interest subsidy will be calculated at a discount rate of 9 %.

2.5.3 AFFORDABLE HOUSING IN PARTNERSHIP

As per the PMAY website, AHP is a supply-side intervention that provides central assistance to EWS houses being built with different partnerships by States/UTs/Cities at the rate of Rs.1.5 Lakh per EWS house. An affordable housing project but it will be eligible for central assistance if at least 35% of the houses in the project are reserved for the EWS category and a single project has at least 250 houses. Under this category, a total of 42 projects were started in Jaipur but the status of every

project varies because some projects are facing land disputes while others were not taken by any developer due to unsuitability of land for affordable housing.

2.5.4 BENEFICIARY-LED INDIVIDUAL HOUSE CONSTRUCTION OR ENHANCEMENT

It targets individual eligible EWS to either construct new houses or enhance existing houses on their own by availing central assistance of Rs.1.5 lakhs. States/UTs and ULBs can also contribute financially. Funds will be released in lump-sum to the beneficiaries in 3-4 instalments depending on the progress of construction of the house. The last instalment of Rs 30,000/- of Gol assistance will be released only after completion of the house. To work out the ownerships of land and other details of beneficiaries, the submitted building plan and other information must be validated.

In Jaipur, the team was only able to collect limited data about the scheme because the scheme was still in the initial phase. Under BLC, 14,766 registrations were done till 15th November 2019. To ease the registration process BLC camps were organised by JDA.

The scheme is not very viable in Jaipur due the factor given below:

- Most of the eligible slum-dwellers don't possess legal pattas² and government authorities were found reluctant to allot any new one after the year 2017
- Slum-dwellers who possess legal patta are not eligible for the scheme in terms of the carpet area of the dwelling unit.

2.6 AFFORDABLE RENTAL HOUSING COMPLEXES (ARHCs), 2020

The MoHUA, Gol, in light of the unprecedented challenge due to the global pandemic of COVID-19 (Coronavirus Disease), will be launching a scheme to promote Affordable Rental Housing Complex (ARHC) for migrant labour and urban poor to provide ease of living, access to dignified and planned housing close to their workplace in the industrial sector as well as in informal urban economy. This initiative could be targeted at Migrants, Urban poor in the Industrial sector, Service Industry, Manufacturing sectors, Institutions, Associations etc. The Government will launch the scheme under PMAY(U) to provide ease of living at affordable rent by using two models (MoHUA, 2020):

- Model-1: Using Existing Housing Stock (JNNURM / RAY) as ARHCs
- Model-2: Incentivising Private/ Public Agencies for construction of ARHCs

² Patta: A patta is a legal document awarded to a citizen by Housing Board, JDA or JMC that provides legal entitlement of encroached land. It is discussed in detail in later sections

2.7 STATE AFFORDABLE HOUSING POLICY- 2009

The policy was launched by the government of Rajasthan in 2009 to reduce the housing shortage by promoting investment in housing in urban sectors based on PPP (Public-Private Partnership). It involved Private developers in the construction of EWS/LIG categories of houses by offering various attractive incentives and creation of Rental Housing as transit accommodation for migrants to urban areas. It was comprised of five models and some of the provisions are as follows:

- Rajasthan Housing Board to construct at least 50% plots/ houses/ flats of EWS/LIG category in its schemes.
- All Urban Local Bodies including Jaipur Development Authority to allot/construct at least 25% plots/houses/flats of EWS/LIG category in their residential/ housing schemes.
- Private developers to reserve 15% of the dwelling units to be used for EWS/LIG housing in each of their Township/Group Housing Schemes.

2.8 RAJASTHAN TOWNSHIP POLICY- 2010

The policy aimed for the development of housing infrastructure on land parcels of area greater than 10 hectares. It detailed out the standards to build townships and details about reservation of plots/DUs/residential area for EWS and LIG housing on both private and government land. Reservation of 5% area for EWS / LIG group housing or 15% of total No. of Plots/dwelling units to be kept reserved for EWS/LIG category (whichever is higher) in the townships (Department of Urban Development, 2010).

2.9 CHIEF MINISTER'S JAN AAWAS YOJNA-2015

The CMAY (Chief Minister's Jan Aawas Yojna) was launched in 2015 to fulfil the housing requirement of the poor citizens of Rajasthan. This scheme aims to provide various incentives like FAR to private developers for the construction of houses for the EWS/LIG segment. Some of the provisions are given below:

1. Mandatory Provisions for Residential Schemes of ULBs / UITs / Development Authorities / RHB and Private Developers
2. Mandatory Provisions for the proposed industrial Areas of RIICO (Rajasthan State Industrial Development and Investment Corporation) and Private Developers.
3. Development of EWS/LIG flats by Private Developer on the whole of Private Land (flatted development, above G+3 format)
4. Development of EWS/LIG houses by Private Developer on the whole of Private Land (Plotted development with G+3 format)
5. Construction of EWS/LIG Houses on Government Land

Under this scheme, a total of 5 AHP projects have been proposed so far.

2.10 JAIPUR DEVELOPMENT AUTHORITY HOUSING SCHEME

JDA plays a crucial role in providing affordable houses to EWS and LIG groups in Jaipur. It has offered plots of various sizes under many residential schemes and holds an important position in the

development and rehabilitation of slums. JDA planned 15 and 12 residential schemes in the year 2014 and 2015, respectively. The constructed dwelling units comprises independent houses and flats. Baxawala Yojana was launched in 2017 by JDA to provide independent houses and flats. It also aids in the implementation of other housing schemes like RAY.

2.11 RAJASTHAN HOUSING BOARD HOUSING SCHEMES

Rajasthan Housing Board is one of the main bodies in Jaipur that caters for the housing demand of citizens including EWS and LIG. It has constructed 22400 and 24565 DUs for EWS and LIG under 11 housing schemes, out of which 21304 and 20387 DUs have been handed over to the beneficiaries. Some of the schemes are Jawahar Nagar, Lal Kothi and Ghat ki Guni, etc.

2.12 HOUSING BOARD, JDA OR JMC'S PATTAS

Pattas provides a defined parcel of land (which may be encroached or otherwise occupied informally) on lease for 99 years' concomitant with certain conditions. Although, it does not entitle the awardee with land ownership rights because special permission is a pre-requisite from JDA/JMC for any kind of construction or upgradation in the plot or building. The awardee has to pay a certain amount known as "Sehri Jamawand" annually and there will be an increment of 25% of the previous payable amount after every 15 years. Also, resident on the land cannot change the usage of land from residential to any other without the permission of the respective authorities. They are not allowed to apply for any loan, using land as collateral.

As per the discussions with the JDA officials, one of their main concerns with handing over pattas is the haphazard development of pucca houses in slums after patta allotments, making them difficult to implement any governmental slum in-situ or rehabilitation development schemes in such areas.

2.13 LOCATION OF HOUSING SCHEMES

Location of Housing schemes is one of the main factors that influence the decision-making process of shifting slum-dwellers or homeless in the city to the allotted dwelling units by the government. *"Affordable housing is a trade-off between land costs, which are lower in the outskirts, and the transportation costs to the nearest employment centre, which typically increases as the distance from the city centre increases"* (Kalpana Gopalan & Madalasa Venkataraman, 2015).

Slum-dwellers do not like to shift to other places for accommodation which are far from their working sites due to the increase in travelling cost and time. These aspects lead to the failure of many implemented housing schemes that are discussed above. During interviews, the slum-dwellers of Chetan Basti who have been allotted dwelling units under BSUP reported that due to long distance from worksites and poor maintenance, most of them returned to their original settlement site.

According to figure 4, Housing Board schemes and SUH homeless shelters are mostly located within the periphery of the JMC boundary in Jaipur. Housing Board schemes were launched around 1974 and at that time, there was ample land under Housing Board within the municipal limits and the city expansion was in its initial stage. On the other hand, homeless shelters were constructed to provide temporary accommodation to poor migrants and the homeless. Other housing schemes are

mainly located on the periphery of the JMC boundary in south and west of Jaipur, especially JDA schemes that attract and accumulate more poor migrants in these areas.

To provide affordable housing solutions to the urban poor, a shift from dependency on newly built apartments to incremental housing has been seen over the years in public housing schemes. For example, RAY included but did not emphasise incremental and rental housing while PMAY provides a special position to it by launching BLC which promotes house enhancement and new house construction on beneficiary's land who have legal land ownership. On the other hand, the Affordable Rental Housing Complexes scheme focuses completely on rental housing. SUH focuses to provide free shelter for urban homeless and migrants. However, the overall outlook of the public housing delivery sector is still dominated by construction of new units, rather than focusing on incremental housing solutions.

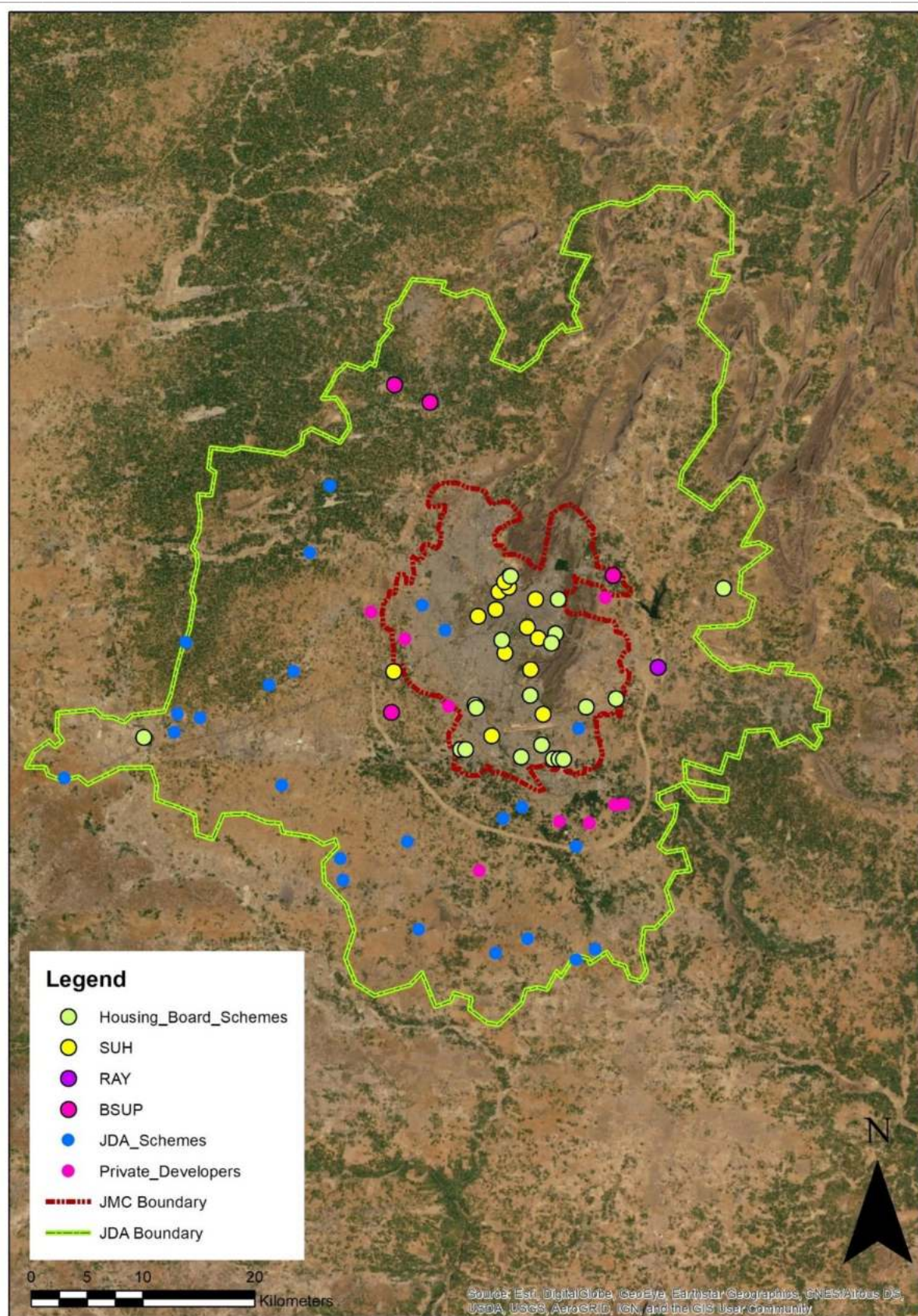


Figure 4: Map of Housing Schemes in Jaipur. (Source : Author)

3 SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROFILE

Migration is a phenomenon that results in the various changes of social, emotional, mental and economical states of a migrant. The characteristics of these individuals may or may not, change during the transition from origin to destination. “A person’s gender, age, religion, race, ethnicity, sexuality and health or disability shape every stage of the migration experience” (Birchall, 2016). To build a strong understanding of the diversity and attributes of the migrants and migration pattern in Jaipur, data of socio-economic factors like age, marital status, religion, education, type of work, household size, income and savings were collected.

The socio-economic assessment of migrants in Jaipur will be helpful to set a base of how these different characteristics mould their lives, needs and surroundings to sustain in the city at various stages of the migration cycle, for instance, the income level of a migrant may or may not affect the decision of educating their children.

As mentioned earlier, it should be noted that there is a male bias in the samples collected as majority of workers at labour chowks are males, and females were reluctant to respond to a questionnaire survey.

3.1 AGE OF MIGRANT WORKERS

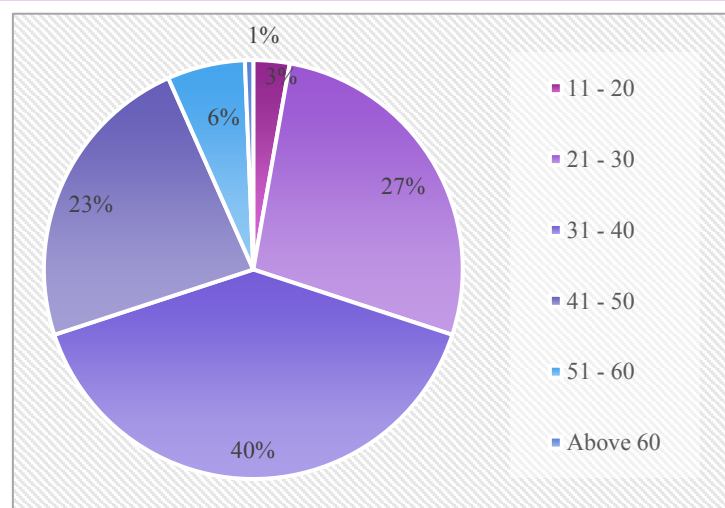


Figure 5: Age Division of Migrants in Jaipur.

40% and 27% of the migrants belong to the range of 31 – 40 and 21 – 30 age group, respectively. Also, it was noticed that many children were involved in casual labour work, mainly on the India gate chowk. Older (51-60 and above 60) labourers were seen on the Vidhyadhar Nagar chowk due to the availability of more employment opportunities.

3.2 MARITAL STATUS

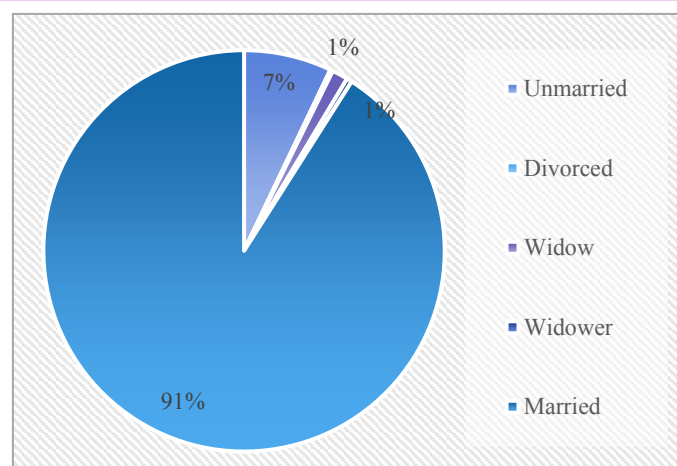


Figure 6: Marital Status of Migrants in Jaipur.

It is evident from figure 6, that a huge migrant population is already married and work to support their families. A very small number belongs to the unmarried category. As per the discussion on chowks, these are mainly young individuals who are working on labour chowks to acquire skills and more money. Many young workers come to the chowks so that they can be an extra earning member to support their family needs.

3.3 RELIGION

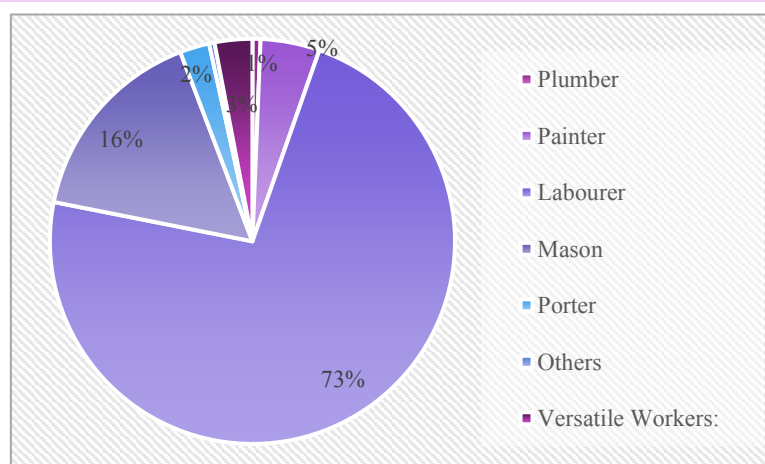


Figure 7: Division of Migrants Based on Religion.

As per the collected samples, there was only 3% of Muslims other than 97% were Hindus. Ghat gate and Chandpole labour chowks were the two main chowks that attract more Muslim labourers, as per the respondents at these chowks.

3.4 CASTE

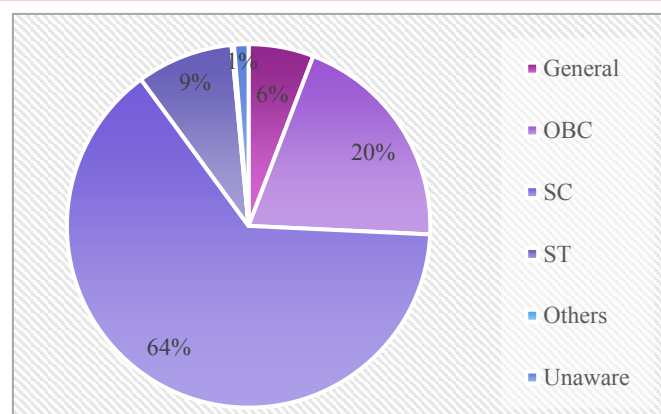


Figure 8: Division of Migrants Based on their Caste in Jaipur.

64% and 9% of the migrant labourers belong to Scheduled Caste (SC) and Scheduled Tribes (ST) division. If we compare this data with the percentage of SC and ST population in Rajasthan, i.e. 17.8% and 13.4%, respectively, we can conclude that even though the majority of the Rajasthan's population belongs to general castes, the majority of the population involved in casual labour belongs to the SC and ST categories.

3.5 EDUCATION

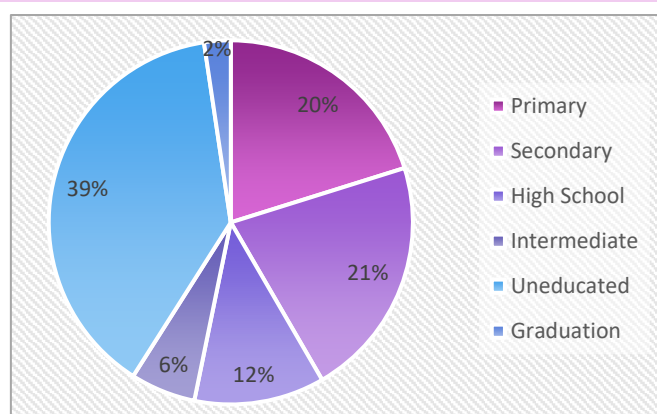


Figure 9: Division of Migrants Based on their Status of Education in Jaipur.

39% of the labourers are uneducated while 20% and 21% have done their primary and secondary education respectively. During the surveys and interviews, two interesting aspects were noticed that are as follows:

- Many children under the age group 11 – 20 years were working temporarily during their summer vacation to earn and support their family.
- Some graduates preferred to work as a labourer rather working in a tertiary sector due to low wage payment and high working hours. This highlights the difficulty of finding a well-paying formal job despite having a degree.

3.6 TYPE OF WORK AND INCOME

Migrant workers are generally engaged in manual unskilled/semi-skilled jobs and struggle to find decent work at destination cities (MRD; Gol, 2015). The same situation was visible on chowks in Jaipur, where most of the workers were unskilled. 73% and 16% of the workers are solely working as labourers and masons, respectively. Most of these workers choose to be labourers because it does not require any special skill.

Skill development of migrant construction workers takes place slowly and informally, leaving most of them unskilled. As per the results of the survey, only a few migrants have acquired multiple skills to become versatile workers.³ This helps them to increase their chances of getting employment daily. This has enabled them to demand more money depending on the skill.

As per the interviews of labourers, on average, masons earn Rs.500 – 600, labourer Rs.400 – 500 while porter, painter and plumber earn between Rs.350 – 400. The daily income fluctuates because of various reasons like availability of work, the number of labourers on chowk, seasonal issues and natural or man-made disasters, etc. 45% and 29% workers responded that they were able to get work for 15 and 20 days in a month respectively if we consider other factors constant. Also, there was no discrimination regarding wage payment based on gender.

Table 5: List of Wage Rate in Jaipur for Workers Involved in the Construction Sector. (Source : Source: <https://clc.gov.in/clc/node/645>)

Category of Workers	Rates of wages including V.D.A ⁴ per day (in Rs.)
Unskilled	420
Semi-Skilled/Unskilled Supervisory	492
Skilled/Clerical	593
Highly Skilled	695

As seen in table 6, 47% of the respondents said that they were the sole earning members of their family. 35% stated that other family members also looked for work at the same or a different labour chowk. 8% stated that their families members also worked in jobs other than casual construction labour. Figure 10 describes the type of labourers found at each labour chowk.

Table 6: Sources of Income of Migrants in Jaipur other than Construction Sector.

Unclear Responses	No Other source of Income	Other family members work on Chowks too	Family has an Income Source other than Casual Labour
46	221	162	37
10%	47%	35%	8%

³ Versatile Worker: For this research work, workers who prefer or do more than one job are considered as versatile workers. For example: A person who can be a painter and mason; labourer, painter & mason and porter and labourer.

⁴ VDA: Variable Dearness Allowance is an allowance that was introduced to safeguard the wages against inflation.

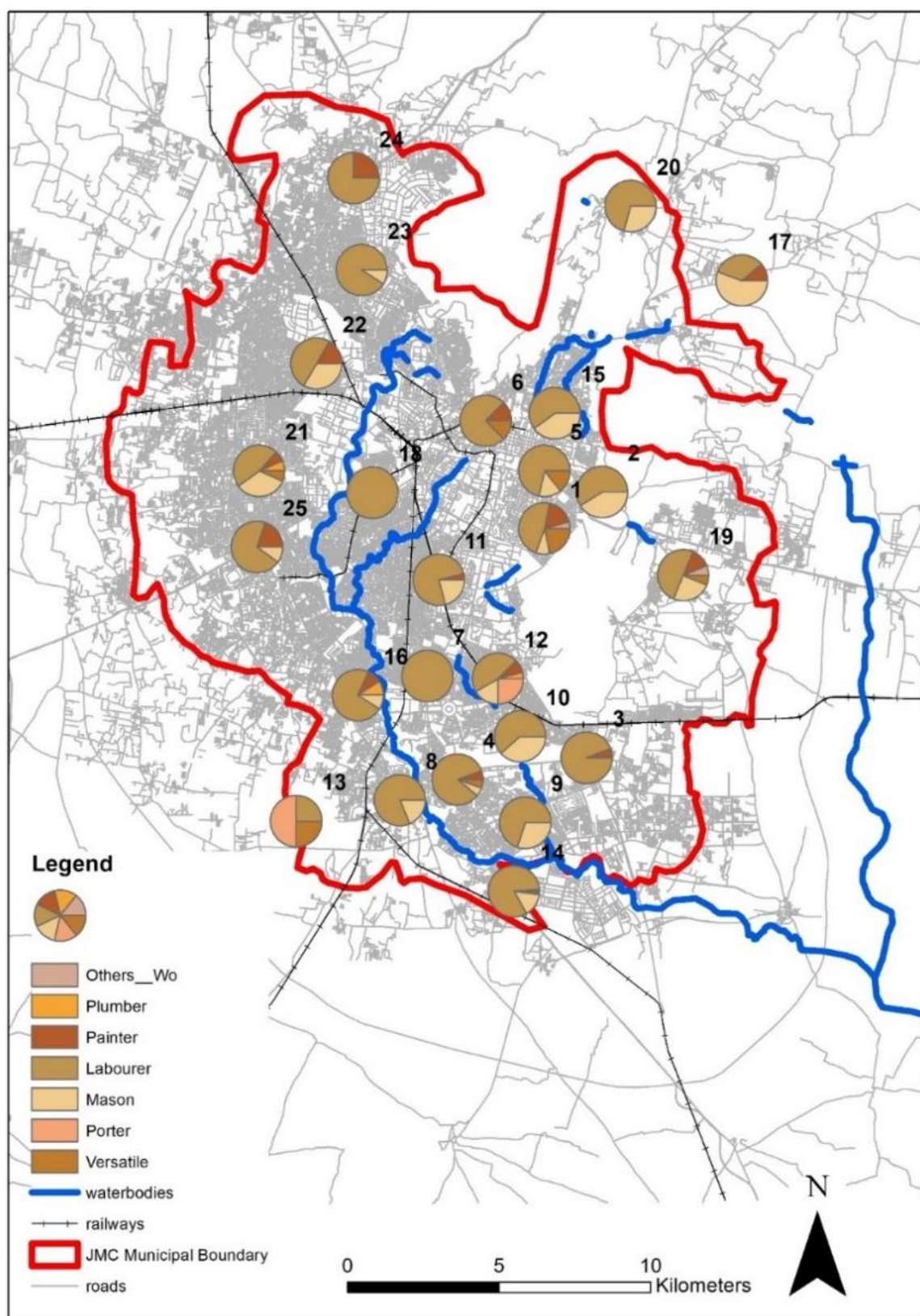


Figure 10: Map of Type of Workers on Labour Chowks.

3.7 HOUSEHOLD SIZE

According to table 7, 52% of the families are either equal to or below 5 HHs size in comparison to the Census with 67% for the same. Only 21.4% of labourers with HH size of 5 or more stated that they were staying with their any relative other than family members.

Table 7: HHs Size details of migrants in Jaipur.

HHs Size	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 or Above	Median HH Size
Migrants in Jaipur	14	34	21	45	106	102	99	5
In Percent	3.33%	8.08%	4.99%	10.69%	25.18%	24.23%	23.52%	
Commuters ⁵	1	2	3	6	15	8	10	5
In Percent	2.22%	4.44%	6.67%	13.33%	33.33%	17.78%	22.22%	

3.8 HOUSEHOLD INCOME, EXPENDITURE AND SAVING



Figure 11: Variation of HHs Income and Expenditure of Migrants.

The monthly average income of the household of the respondents is Rs 10,000. The minimum income reported was Rs 2,000. 42% of the surveyed population belongs to this category. If we remove outliers, the maximum monthly HH income was reported to be Rs 18,000. On the other hand, the average monthly savings (for those who reported that they can save money) was Rs 745.

Table 8: Division of Earning Members in Migrant Families.

Earning Members	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
No. of Respondents	240	197	18	5	3	2	1
In Percentage	52%	42%	4%	1%	1%	0%	0%

⁵ Commuters refers to construction workers who travel to Jaipur every day from surrounding villages and towns looking for work

Most of the respondents reported that their family has only 1 or 2 earning members.

3.9 KEY FINDINGS

The key findings regarding the socio-economic background of the workers at labour chowks were:

- Majority of the workers belong to SC and ST category and work as a labourer due to lack of skills. Some of the migrants have acquired different or multiple skills to increase their earnings.
- Most of the labourers are Hindus and married.
- The average HHs size and income are 5.1 and Rs 10,000, respectively.
- Most of the labourers are literate
- Some graduates prefer to work as labourers rather than working in the formal/office jobs due to flexibility in time and work and the fact that the income was same whether working as a labourer or in an office
- The monthly HHs income of migrants fluctuates between Rs 2,000 to Rs 18,000, except in some cases where HHs has either more earning members or income sources.

4 MOVEMENT AND TRAVELLING PATTERN OF MIGRANTS

This section discusses the origins, travel and intra-city movement patterns of migrants, as seen in the survey.

4.1 PERMANENT V/S TEMPORARY MIGRANTS

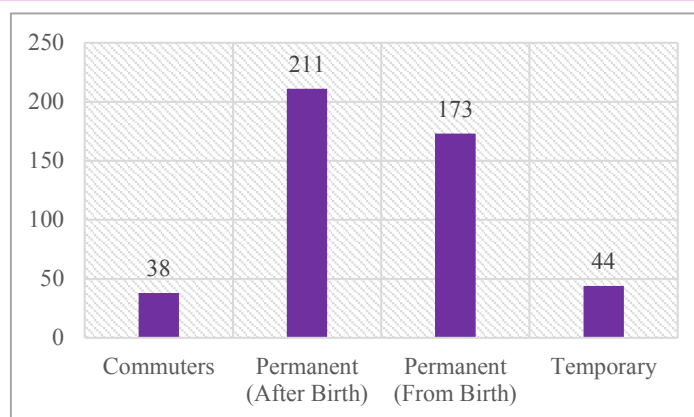


Figure 12: Nature of Movement of Workers in Jaipur.

45% of the workers have migrated to Jaipur after their birth. 37% of the workers were those whose parents had migrated, but they themselves were born in Jaipur. 9% of the labourers said that they were seasonal migrants who usually stay for 6-8 months or less in the city and then go back to their villages/cities, mainly in the rainy season when there is no work. 8% of workers were commuters, who visit Jaipur daily by various mode of transportation in search of employment.

4.2 ORIGIN OF WORKERS

"People migrate due to compelling circumstances which pushed them out of the place of origin or they are lured by the attractive conditions in the new place" (Kala Seetharam Sridhar, 2010). In response to push factors, migrants leave all their comforts and entitlements at their origin and move to urban centres like Jaipur.

Being a major tourism centre, Jaipur attracts many workers from nearby regions. However, it has been seen that nationally it is not as important a magnet of migration as Ahmedabad or Bangalore. Many of the rural poor of Rajasthan also migrate to Gujarat and Maharashtra, making the number of migrants in Jaipur comparatively lower.

Table 9 signifies that intra-state migration is the most prevalent type of migration in Jaipur. People mainly migrate from nearby villages and cities. Though their initial intention may not have been to settle permanently in Jaipur, many respondents decided subsequently to settle in Jaipur because of the better economic opportunities they found here. A small portion of the migrants has migrated from other states, mainly from Madhya Pradesh, Bihar and Uttar Pradesh.

Table 9: Origin of Workers Migrated to Jaipur after their Birth.

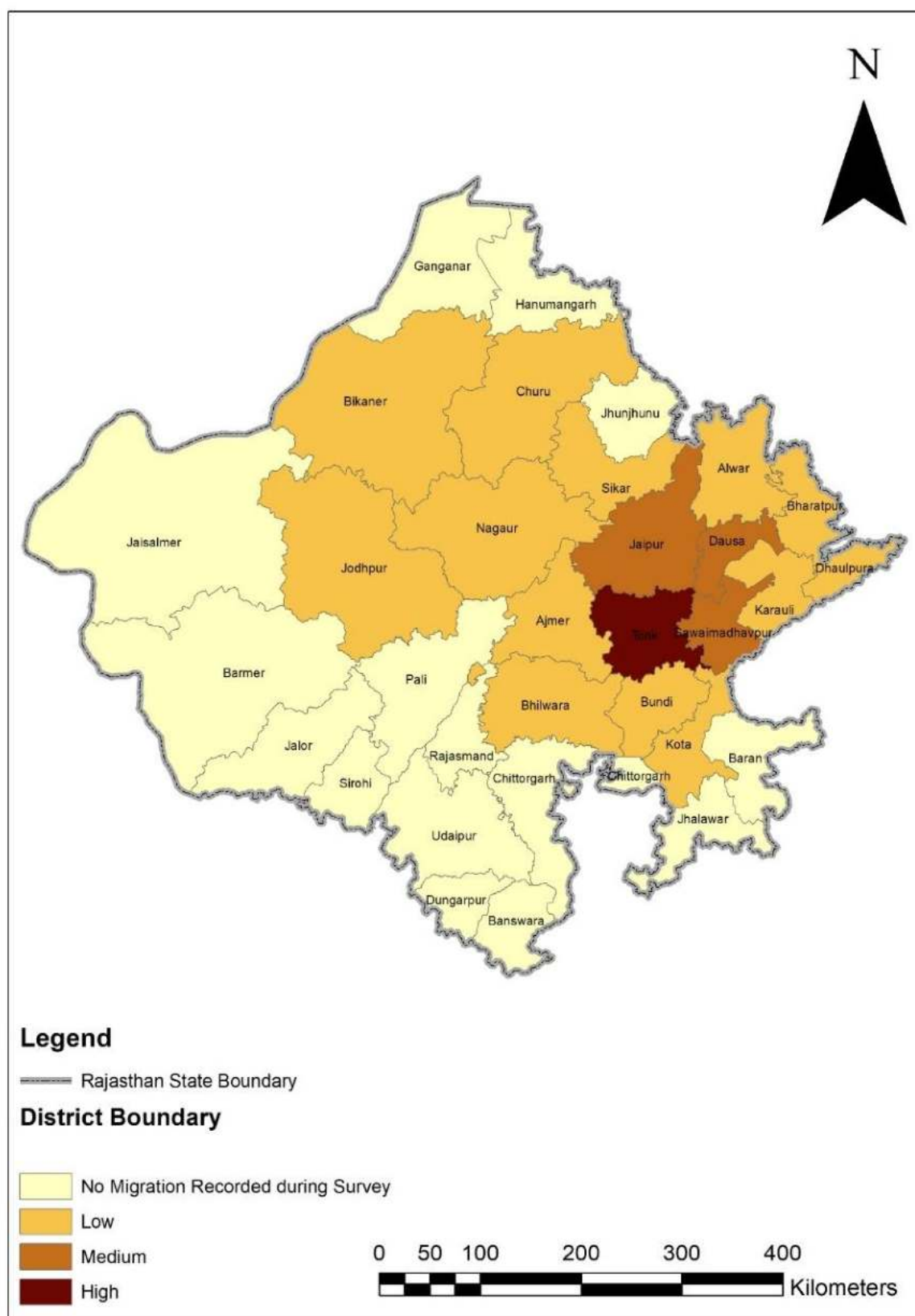
State	Migrants	In %
Bihar	13	5
Gujarat	1	0
Madhya Pradesh	15	6
Uttar Pradesh	8	3
West Bengal	1	0
Rajasthan	216	85
Unclear Response	1	0
Total	255	100

The main districts from where migrant construction workers come to Jaipur are highlighted in the map below. Since the sampling is not randomized, it cannot be said for certain which districts account for most of the migration into Jaipur or whether or not migrants from other districts also come to Jaipur. The responses have been divided into four categories which are as follows:

- 1) No migration recorded from the districts during the survey: No respondents said that they had migrated from these districts
- 2) Low (0.1 to 10% of the migrant population): districts that are far from Jaipur in comparison to other districts
- 3) Medium (10.1 to 20% of the migrant population): districts that are adjacent to Jaipur districts like Dausa and Sawai Madhopur. It also includes Jaipur that includes migrants who moved to Jaipur city from the near town and villages in the Jaipur district.
- 4) High (20.1 to 25% of the migrant population): 25% of the migrant moved from Tonk district.

Commuters are casual labourers who travel daily from nearby villages/cities of Jaipur or different districts like Sawai Madhopur, Dausa and Jamdoli from trains, buses, or own vehicles.

Figure 13: Mapping of Intra-state migration of Workers in Jaipur.



4.3 STREAMS OF MIGRATION

The distribution of migrants into different migration streams is normally associated with the degree of economic and social development. From among the respondents, 54% of the intrastate migrants reported that they were from urban areas, whereas 46% reported that they were from rural areas. In the case of interstate migrants, it was not possible to determine whether the origin was urban or rural from the collected data.

Table 10: Detailed Information of Streams of Migration of Workers.

Streams of Migration	No. of Migrants with Origin in Rajasthan	Percentage
Urban	116	54
Rural	100	46
Total	216	100

4.4 REASONS FOR MIGRATION

57% of the workers said that they came to Jaipur (including commuters) in search of employment. 40% of the workers stated that they had worked in their hometowns but had come to Jaipur in search of better work. Both reasons are related to employment but reflect very different dimensions of origin and needs of workers – one reason says that there were jobs in the place of origin, but they did not pay well enough, and the other states that there were no jobs to found in the place of origin.

Table 11: Reasons for Migration of Workers in Jaipur.

Reasons for Migration	Commuters	Permanent (After Birth)	Temporary	Total	%
Education	1	1	-	2	1
In search of better employment	14	85	18	117	40
In search of Employment	23	120	25	168	57
Migration of Earning member of the family	-	1	-	1	0
Post-retirement	-	2	-	2	1
Proximity to the place of work	-	-	1	1	0
To take up Employment / Better Employment	-	2	-	2	1
Grand Total	38	211	44	293	100

4.5 DURATION OF STAY AND COMMUTING IN JAIPUR

During the survey, labourers on chowks were asked to give details about their duration of stay in Jaipur. The data collected from the survey suggests that among permanent migrants, ~50% have come to the city in the last 10 years. ~39% have responded that they have been here for 11-20 years, whereas the remaining ~11% have stated that they have been here for than 20 years. Temporary migrants have also reported a similar duration since when they have been coming to Jaipur.

Table 12: Duration of Stay in Jaipur of Migrants.

Type of Migrant	Less than a Year	1 - 5	6 - 10	11 - 20	21 - 30	31 - 40	41 - 50	More than 50	Grand Total
Permanent (After Birth)	1	47	57	83	20	2	1	0	211
Percent	0.47 %	22.27 %	27.01 %	39.34 %	9.48 %	0.95 %	0.47 %	0.00%	
Temporary	1	10	13	16	3	1		0	44
Percent	2.27 %	22.73 %	29.55 %	36.36 %	6.82 %	2.27 %	0.00 %	0.00%	
Total	2	57	70	99	23	3	1	0	255
Percent	0.78 %	22.35 %	27.45 %	38.82 %	9.02 %	1.18 %	0.39 %	0.00%	100

Table 13: Duration of Commuting to Jaipur daily for work from surrounding villages.

	Less than a Year	1 - 5	6 - 10	11 - 20	21 - 30	31 - 40	41 - 50	51 - 60	Total
Commuters	2	8	15	11	1	0	1	0	38
Percentage	5	21	39	29	3	0	3	0	100

Better regional connectivity and cheaper transport may be a factor in allowing more migrants to commute to Jaipur daily in search of work. Given that this can reduce costs for housing, etc. better and more affordable regional connectivity for urban areas, may help to decrease the load on the already low supply of affordable housing in urban areas.

4.6 ARRIVAL TIME AND DURATION OF GETTING WORK ON CHOWKS

Most of the workers usually arrive at labour chowks between 6:00 to 8:00 am while others arrive after that for various reasons like travelling time. Many commuters travel a long distance and use various modes of transport but still arrive on time to avoid any chance of losing any opportunity to get work. There is a lot of competition among workers for employment in the construction sector.

Table 14: Arrival Time of Workers on Labour Chowks in Jaipur.

Arrival Time at Chowk (am)	05:00 - 06:00	06:01 - 07:00	07:01 - 08:00	08:01 - 09:00	09:01 - 10:00	After 10	Grand Total
Commuters	1	4	21	11	1		38
Workers staying in Jaipur	7	95	271	53	0	2	428
Grand Total	8	99	292	64	1	2	466
Percentage	2	21	63	14	0	0	100

Workers who arrive early on chowks, before 6 am or after 10 am were able to find employment within 2 hrs. After 10 am the opportunities of employment also reduce. On the other hand, when the strength of workers on chowks is very high, i.e. 6:00 to 9:00 am, employment opportunities also increase but due to high competition, the average duration of getting work falls between 2 – 4 hrs.

Table 15: Arrival Time Vs Duration of Getting Work on Labour Chowk.

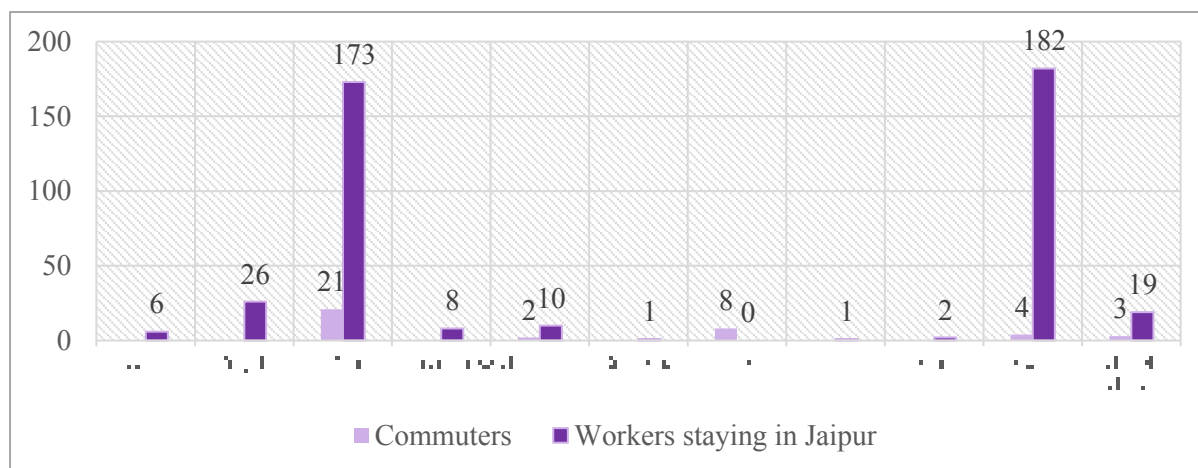
Arrival Time at Chowk (am)	Duration of Getting Work							Grand Total
	1 - 2 hrs	2 - 3 hrs	3 - 4 hrs	4 - 5 hrs	5 - 6 hrs	Less than 1 hr	More than 6 hrs	
05:00 - 06:00	5					3		8
06:01 - 07:00	6	50	32	8	2	1		99
07:01 - 08:00	37	140	89	17	3	6		292
08:01 - 09:00	18	24	16	3		2	1	64
09:01 - 10:00		1						1
After 10	1					1		2
Grand Total	67	215	137	28	5	13	1	466
Percentage	14	46	29	6	1	3	0	100

4.7 MODAL SPLIT OF WORKERS

According to figure 14, 42% and 40% of the workers either walk or travel by bus from their home to labour chowks in Jaipur which shows that workers live in areas that were either close or have direct connectivity to the chowks. The majority of the commuters used buses while some relied on trains for the daily commute. A very small portion of them uses different and multiple modes to reach labour chowk which indicates that either their homes were far from the chowks or a lack of direct connectivity between the chowk and their place of residence.

Since a large number of workers reach chowks by walking, they barely spend any money on travelling. 61% told that they spend around Rs. (10 – 50) to reach chowks or working site from chowk if the employer didn't have any mode of transportation to give a free ride to the worker. Only 9% had travel expenses of more than Rs.50, which mainly includes commuters travelling from trains or workers staying far away from chowks and travelling by bus.

Figure 14: Modal Split of Workers Travelling from Home to Labour Chowks in Jaipur.



4.8 ORIGIN OF THE TRIP

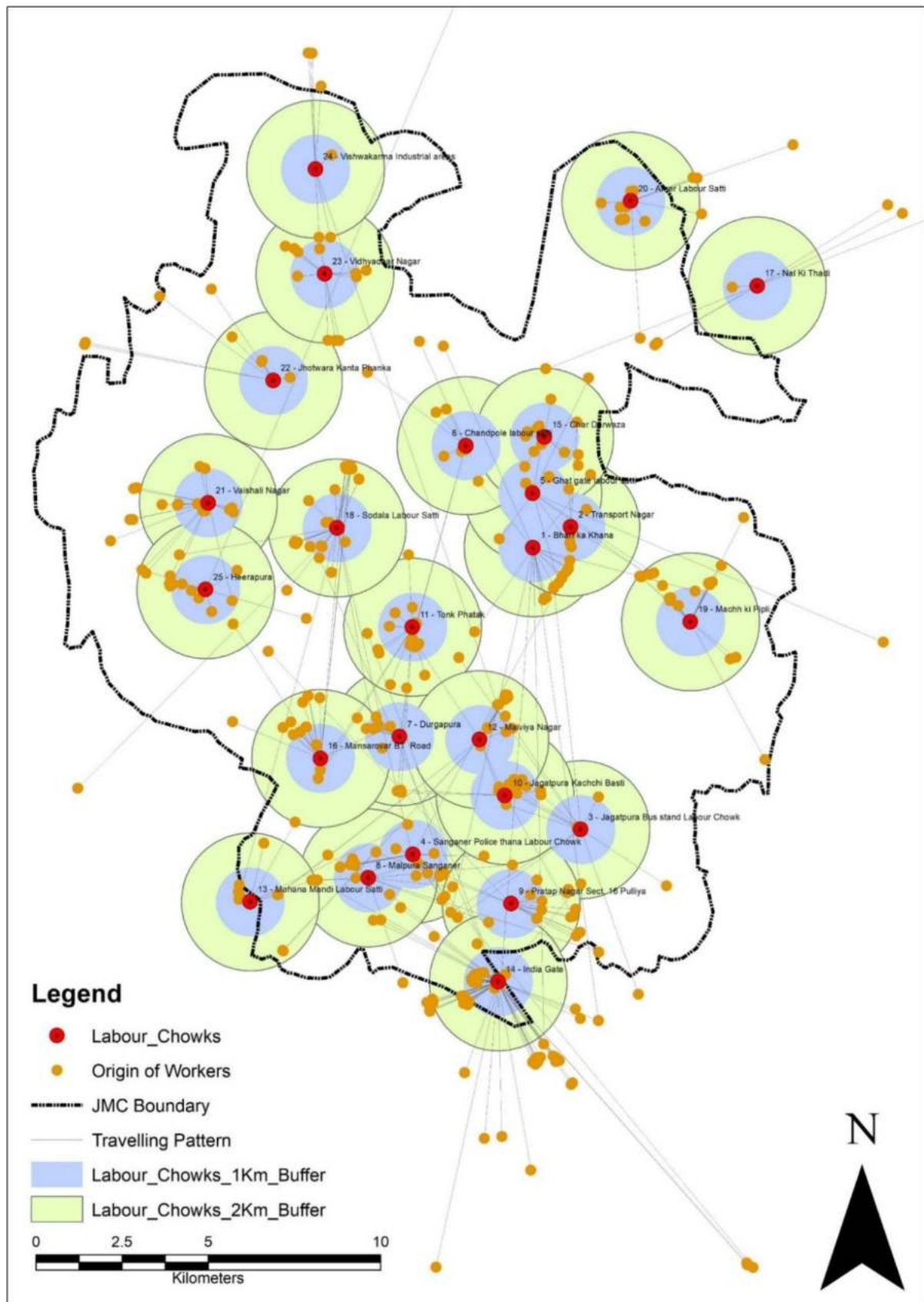
The respondents reported that they take approx. 13- 15 minutes to cover a 1 km distance. As per the survey, only 16% of the workers were travelling a distance of more than 2 km. During the labour chowk survey, home addresses of workers were recorded and those locations, as precisely as possible, were mapped with labour chowks by using GIS (Geographic Information System) to understand the daily travel pattern of the workers with 1 and 2 km buffers around the chowks.

Based on the map, it was found that 84% of the workers live within the range of 2 km of labour chowks in different slums, open spaces and colonies while 16% use different transportation modes for daily travelling because of the long distance from their houses to chowks. Most of the workers who travel long distances live in the periphery or sub-urban areas of Jaipur.

4.9 KEY FINDINGS

- Inter-state migration is the most consequential, attracting migrants from the nearby districts, especially Tonk district
- Streams of migration are almost equal in percentage from both rural and urban areas
- The search for employment and better opportunities are the main pull factors in Jaipur
- Better connectivity and public transportation is a leading factor for the increase in commuters
- Labours arrive early on chowks to get employment easily
- Most of the labourers stay near chowks to reduce travelling expenditure, prefer walking while others depend on buses

Figure 15: Respondents' location of stay and relations with labour chowks



5 CONDITIONS AT LABOUR CHOWK AND HOUSING CONDITIONS

This section of the report first focuses on the conditions at the labour chowks themselves. Then it discusses the housing conditions of the workers who come to the labour chowks seeking employment.

5.1 DRINKING WATER SOURCES

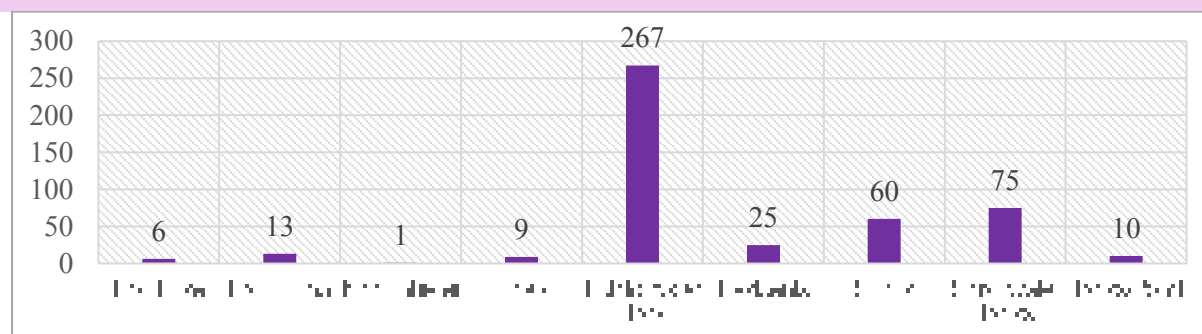


Figure 16: Drinking Water Facilities at Labour Chowks in Jaipur.

Only 6 labour chowks have drinking water facilities within the premises in the form of taps, water coolers, water tanks or earthen pots for public use, i.e. Jagatpura Kachchi Basti, Mohana Mandi, Char Darwaza, Machh ki Pipli, Amer and Vidhyadhar Nagar. For 57% of the population, drinking water is available either at the chowk or in the vicinity of the chowk. 16% rely on small water tanks while 13% are dependent on nearby shopkeepers for water. Shopkeepers may provide water free of cost but in return workers need to buy something from them like tea, biscuits or tobacco. In this way, labourers always try to keep a good relationship with various people who help them to survive on chowk directly or indirectly. In the case of construction workers, the employer is entitled to make drinking water arrangements, legibly marked “Drinking Water” in a language understood by a majority of the persons, at points where building or other construction work is in progress⁶. Though, there were no guidelines, even by the Department of Labour, Rajasthan, for such arrangement at labour chowks which is one main reason that most of the chowks lack effective drinking water arrangements.

Table 16: Drinking Water Facilities at Labour Chowks for Workers.

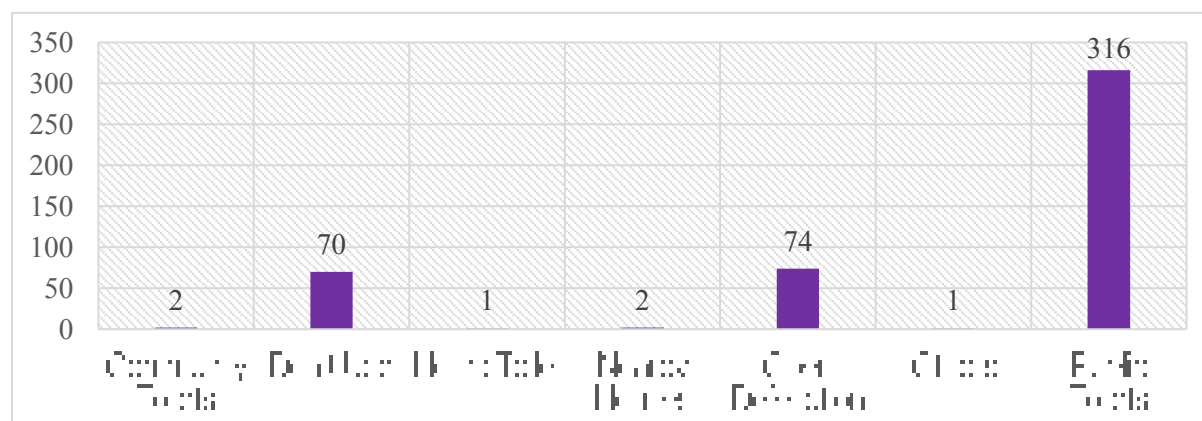
Drinking Water Facility at Chowk	Don't use	Hand pump	Night Shelter	Others	Public Water Tap	Residents	Shops	Small Water Tanks	Tanks/Pond
No. of Workers	6	13	1	9	267	25	60	75	10
Percentage	1%	3%	0%	2%	57%	5%	13%	16%	2%

⁶ Under sub-section (1) and (2), section no. 32, Chapter VI under “Building and Other Construction Workers (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Act, 1996”.

5.2 DEFECATION FACILITIES

68% of the workers use public toilets for defecation. Public convenience complex managers mainly charge Rs.5 to 20 for defecation and bathing. To avoid expenditure or travelling to distant public toilets, 16% of workers prefer open defecation while 15% avoid defecating at the working place. 47% of the workers reported that the condition of the toilet facilities, both paid and free, is good while 31% says it is fine and useable. Only 16% were unsatisfied with the condition and cleanliness of toilets.

Figure 17: Defecation Facilities at Labour Chowks for Workers.



In the case of construction workers, an employer is entitled to make urinal and latrine arrangements that may be accessible at all times to workers, where building or other construction work is in progress. Though, it is not mandatory to provide separate urinals in any place where less than fifty persons are employed or where the latrines are connected to a water-borne sewage system⁷.

5.3 URINATION FACILITIES

39% of the workers urinate in the open drains or on the roadsides because either toilets were unavailable on chowks or located at a significant distance. Workers mostly avoid travelling for toilets due to the fear of losing the opportunity of getting employment because of the high competition. On the other hand, 54% of labourers were using free public toilets or urinals.

Table 17: Urination Facilities at Labour Chowks for Workers.

	Community Toilets	Don't Use	No Response	In open	Paid Public Toilets	Paid Urinals	Public Toilets	Public Urinals	Total
Labourers	1	3	22	182	6	1	160	91	466
In %	0	1	5	39	1	0	34	20	100

⁷ Under section no. 33, Chapter VI under "Building and Other Construction Workers (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Act, 1996".

5.4 TYPE OF HOUSE

Out of the 255 samples 66% were living on rent, 19% owned their dwelling and 15% did not have their own dwelling. Some of these migrants spend their night at the railway station, bus stops, or footpaths and the rest don't go back to a particular place. 70% of those who are living on rent are living in a Kutchha or Semi-Pucca house. Some of them have opted for different shelters like Dharmshalas where they pay a monthly rent of Rs.1200 in return of shelter and provision of necessities.

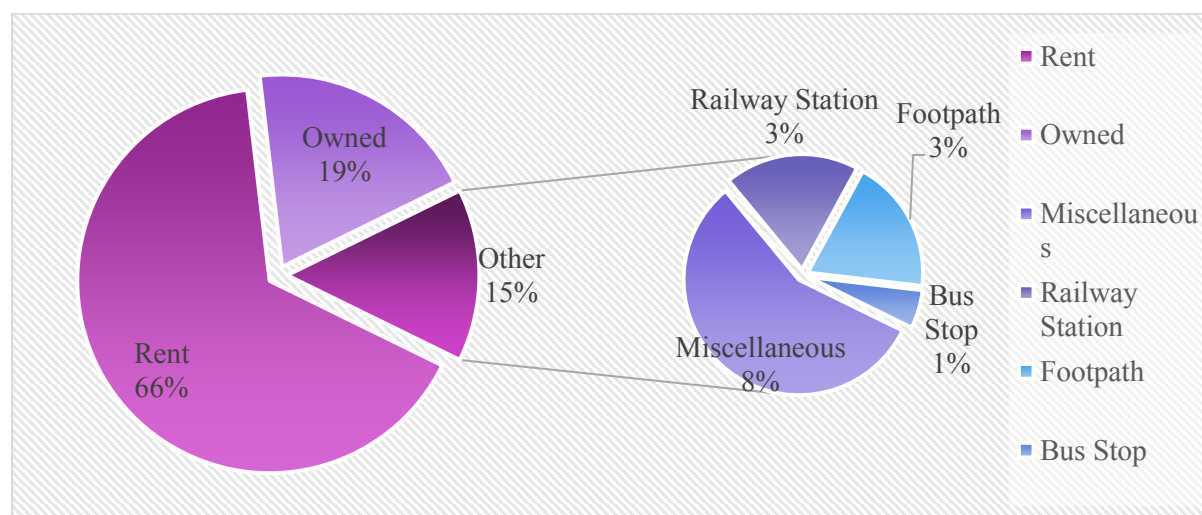


Figure 18: Type of Ownership of Migrants in Jaipur.

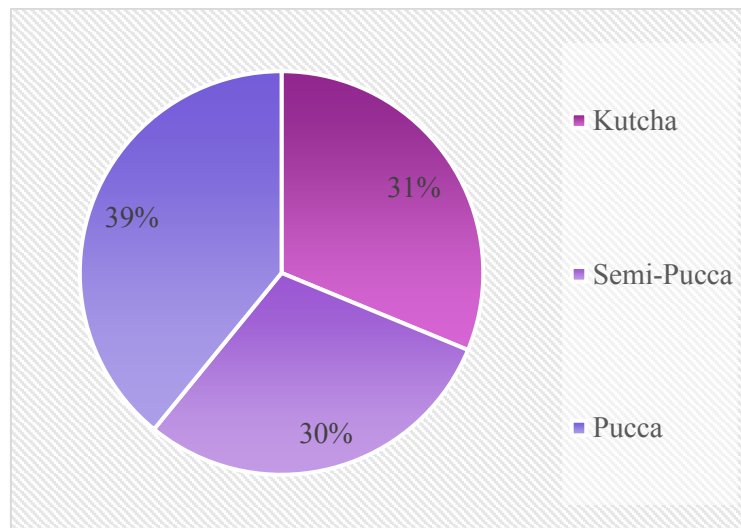


Figure 19: Type of House of Workers in Jaipur.

5.5 HOUSING OPTIONS IN USE BY WORKERS IN JAIPUR

The different housing options used by migrant construction workers as reported during the survey are described below. These included homeless shelters, rental housing, informal settlements, dharmshalas and open spaces.

5.5.1 HOMELESS SHELTERS

A few workers reported that they slept at homeless shelters run by the JMC. A separate, accompanying study on homeless shelters has been completed by the Saath team and is available at the Saath Charitable Trust website. While none of the respondents told us that they were staying in the SUH, some of them mentioned that they had stayed in a SUH previously and went to temporary shelters during the winter, when it is too cold to sleep outside.

Case Study – A Homeless Construction Worker

Laxman is a resident of Jaswar, Bharatpur district and sleeps on the footpath near Gandhi Nagar railway station. His elder brother also sleeps on the footpath near Bajari mandi because it is a peaceful place. He used to do farming but due to water scarcity, it became difficult to survive and rely only on agriculture. Now, he works as a labourer and search work on Tonk Phatak labour chowk which is almost 1 km away from the railway station where he currently sleeps. Many people from his village also sleep here.

He has his own house with 15 - 16 members in the joint family staying in his village. His monthly income is around Rs.9000 from which he spends Rs.3000 for his survival in Jaipur. His daily expenditure is around Rs.100 (Rs.80 for two meals per day).

When he arrived in Jaipur, he saw other labourers sleeping on the footpath. Because of this, he also started sleeping on the footpath near the station. He tried to find a house on rent on cheap rates near the chowk in areas like Mahesh Nagar and Barkat Nagar but the house rents of Rs.2000 to Rs.3000 were very high. He gathered information about the availability of rental houses from the people on the sites where he worked. He pays Rs.5 for using toilets, Rs.10 for a bath and told that most people who sleep here do open defecation. Around 100 – 150 people sleep here but the count is more when it is not a rainy season.

He is ready to stay in a rented house if it is cheap and near his work place (labour chowk). He can afford the rental cost between Rs.1000 to Rs.2000, including electricity, water and rent bills. He used a night shelter under Triveni Nagar Puliya but stopped going there after he was pickpocketed at the shelter.

Box 1 – Case Study of a Homeless Construction Worker

5.5.2 DHARMSHALAS

Some migrants stay in Dharmshalas that provides basic facilities like drinking water, bathrooms and toilets. The accommodation facilities mainly include a small space with a mattress and pillow to sleep at cheap rates. The facilities are subject to change based on applied charges. While none of the selected respondents stayed in dharmshalas, this option came up during discussions with different groups on the labour chowks.

5.5.3 RENTAL HOUSING AND INFORMAL SETTLEMENTS

Rental and owned housing in informal settlements comprised the largest portion of the housing options in use by the respondents. Out of 466 respondents, 214 stated that they stayed in a rented house in an informal settlement and 175 stated that they owned a house in an informal settlement. The location of these settlements varies but lies mostly around 1-2 km from the labour chowk. A map of these locations can be seen in figure 15. These locations have been documented and profiled in a separate study, available on the Saath Website.

5.5.4 ILLEGAL OCCUPANCY OF GOVERNMENT SCHEMES HOUSES

During the primary surveys and interview at labour chowks, it was found that a step taken by the workers to get shelter is the illegal occupancy of the houses under the Rajasthan Housing Board Scheme in Pratap Nagar. These migrants refused to be part of the survey but still were willing to share information about where they lived on condition of anonymity. Our team made a visit to the location of the scheme in Pratap Nagar and it was reported to us that some of the migrants there may have broken into the locked houses and occupied them. Though allotment of some apartments has been done, these are currently not in use by their owners. It was also noted that the apartments were not equipped with basic infrastructure facilities like drinking water supply and electricity. Residents use public water taps and go in open spaces for defecation.

5.5.5 OPEN SPACES

Among the respondents, a total of 17 out of 466 respondents stated that they lived in open or public spaces, out of which 3 said that they slept at a bus stop, 7 said that they slept at the railway station and 7 said that they slept on the roadside. After finding the locations from the migrants, about where they slept, the team went to the location described and interviewed other people who were found on these sites.

According to the surveys conducted at various such homeless spots in Jaipur, most of the homeless got their knowledge about the city and work opportunities from relatives staying in Jaipur. According to them, sleeping in open spaces was the most convenient and affordable option in the initial stage of their migration cycle. It also helped them to save more money and send more remittance to their homes. Also, many migrants mentioned that they tried to search a small room on a rental basis nearby to the chowks but failed due to high rents. Everyone was willing to live under a roof, however. Most of the people were unaware of the shelter homes but few homeless people mentioned the insecure and unsafe environment of the shelter when they tried to stay there. So, they eventually preferred to sleep in open spaces.

The case study on the following page describes the difficult environment in which some of the construction workers live, especially in open spaces.

Case Study 2: Homeless Hotspot Sanganer Flyover

Kanhaiyalal Verma (age: 40) sleeps under the flyover from a very long time, almost when it was constructed and works as a labourer on Sanganer chowk. He is from Gangapur, Sawai Madhopur district. He stays here with his younger brother (age: 35), wife (age: 35), son (age: 6) and daughter (age: 13 months). He also has a mother and three more sons and a daughter staying in a kutchra house in his village. The eldest son (age:19) works in a hotel to support the studies of his younger brother.

His household income in Jaipur is Rs.8000 per months in which he and his brother work alternatively. One male takes care of the family while the other goes to work. His first wife left him and stole Rs 20,000 and 1.5 kg silver from him. He mentioned that the place is not safe because of anti-social activities like drinking, stealing and kidnapping. His six years old son was kidnapped by a baba who forced him to beg for him. He found his son after 18 days and spent Rs 20,000 in the whole process. He is still traumatized by that incident and for safety, he looks after his family while they all are sleeping till 01:00 pm and after that his brother watches over them.

He and his family use nearby public complex for bath and defecation by paying Rs.5 and Rs.10 respectively. For washing clothes, he has to pay Rs.10. He tried to find a rented room to stay nearby but everyone asks for an advance of Rs.2000 which he cannot afford. He can afford a house on rent under Rs.2000 but unable to pay security and advance.

He knows about night shelters near LMB hotel and airport but he does not use them. He slept 5-10 times in night shelters but now he cannot because he stays with his family. Although, he is ready to shift in a night shelter, if he is allowed to stay with his family and it has basic facilities with a labour chowk nearby.

Box 2: Homeless Case Study of a Migrant at Sanganer Flyover.

5.5.6 SOCIETY OR COLONIES

In the outskirts of the city, many construction workers found affordable housing through informal societies or colonies – these are agricultural plots being divided into residential units and sold without the proper registration of the sale deeds. The “society patta” is not a proper, legal transfer of land, but rather more like an informal agreement between 2 parties. 22 respondents in the survey were staying in either rented or owned houses in such colonies on the outskirts of the city.

6 ANALYSIS

6.1 ORIGIN

The findings about the origins of migrant workers suggest that Jaipur mainly attracts migrants from its surrounding districts. However, at the national level, Jaipur is not a major destination for migrants. This may be due to its proximity to Delhi-NCR, which is one of the most important destinations for migrants from across the country.

It was found that most of the inter-state migration has happened in the last 20 years, and even then, it has been dwarfed in comparison to the intra state migration to Jaipur.

6.2 INCOME AND SAVINGS VS AGE

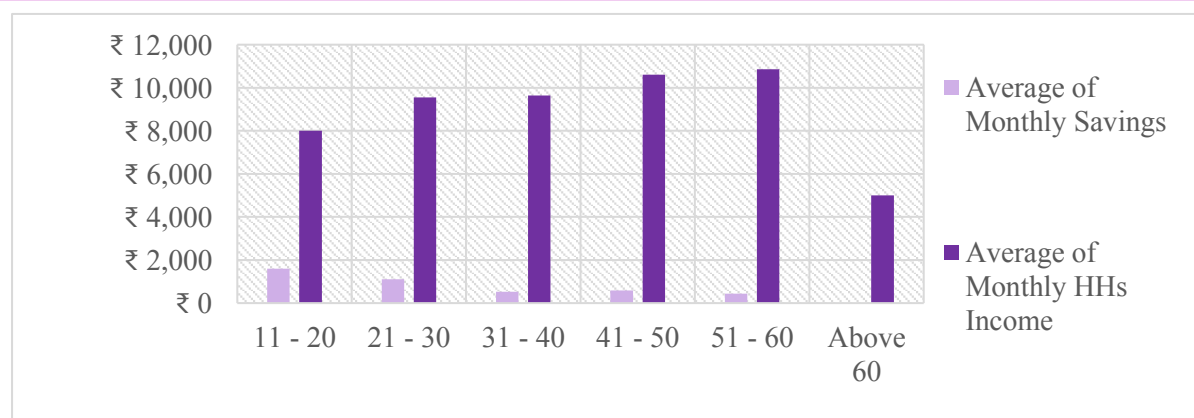


Figure 20: Income & Savings Vs Age of Migrants.

The average monthly income among the migrants sees a constant increase with the age of the migrant but with variable rates, with the maximum increase noticed in the first decade and the least in the second. While the income increases with age until 60, it is found that savings decrease, and the difference in income between age 20 and 60 is only ~ 3,000 Rs.

6.3 INCOME AND SAVINGS VS TYPE OF HOUSE

It was noted that the average income of migrants who lived in a house, whether rented or owned, was higher than the average income of migrants who slept in open or public spaces. However, it is unclear whether the difference is because migrants who earn more money were able to move to rented housing or whether it is because migrants who live in the open are able to work less due to issues such as security, health etc.

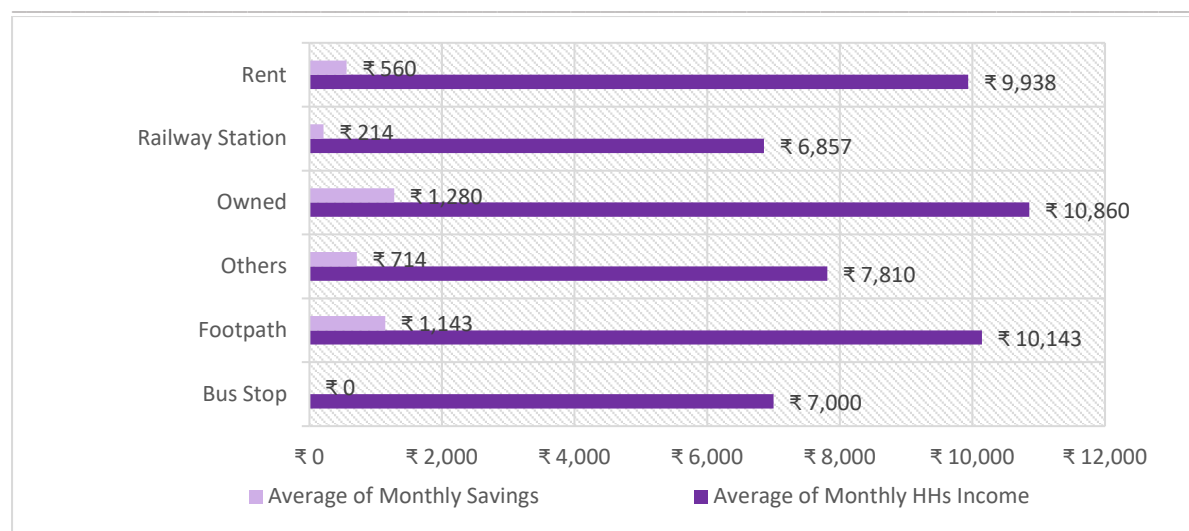


Figure 23: Income and Savings Vs Type of Ownership of Migrants.

6.4 TYPE OF HOUSE VS DURATION OF STAY

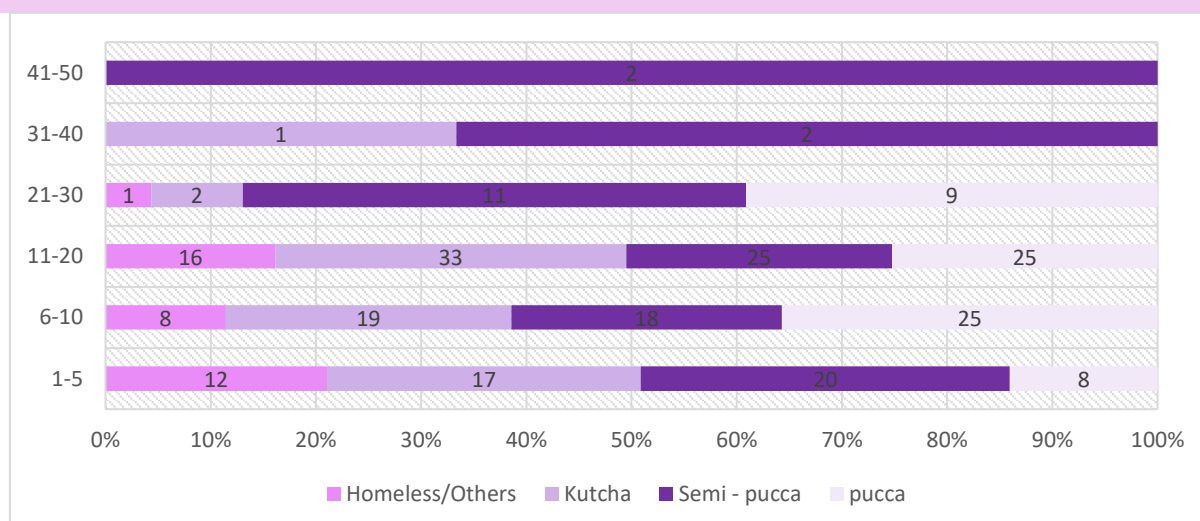


Figure 24: Type of House Vs Duration of Stay.

- Out of those migrants who have been in Jaipur 1-5 years 29.8% stay in kutcha houses, 14.03% in pucca, 35.08% in semi-pucca and the rest 21.05% stay in the open.
- Out of those migrants who have been in Jaipur 6-10 years 27.14% stay in kutcha houses, 35.7% in pucca, 25.71% in semi-pucca and the rest 11.4% stay in the open.
- Out of those migrants who have been in Jaipur 11-20 years 33.33% stay in kutcha houses, 25.25% in pucca, 25.25% in semi-pucca and the rest 16.16% stay in the open.
- Out of those migrants who have been in Jaipur 21-30 years 8.6% stay in kutcha houses, 39.13% in pucca, 47.82% in semi-pucca and the rest 4.34% stay in the open.

With the increase in the duration of stay, the share of homeless declines and migrants start living at a fixed place due to an increase in household size, income, savings, etc. on the other hand, the share of kutcha houses never fall to zero even after a long duration of stay. Several informal

settlements like Chetan Basti exist in Jaipur, where more than 90% of the houses are kutchra with even after residing for more than 35 years at the same place due to low earning and income sources.

It was also seen that 21.8% of permanent⁸ migrants own their dwelling, 64.9% live on rent and 13.2% choose other options like sleeping on footpath, bus stops, railway station, shelter homes and dharmshalas. On the other hand, 9.09% of temporary⁹ migrants live in an owned house with a relative. 70% of these migrants live on rent and 20.45% choose to sleep in the open and some choose shelter homes and Dharmshalas.

6.5 TYPE OF OWNERSHIP AND YEARS OF STAY

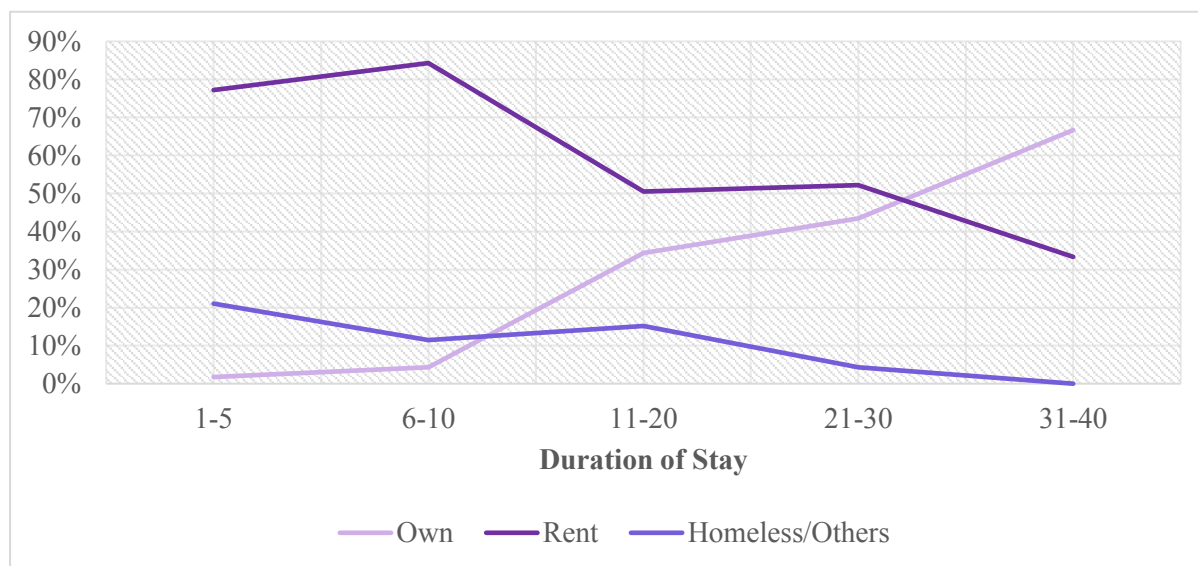


Figure 25: Type of Ownership and Years of Stay

A cogent relationship is noticed between the ownership status of housing among migrant workers and their years of stay in the city. It is seen that in the first five years the composition of ownership is dominated by rent with 77.19 % migrants living on rent, 1.7 % own their dwelling and 21 % choose other options like a footpath, bus-stop, railway station, shelter homes etc. In the next 5 years the composition shifts even more towards rental housing, with 84.2 % migrants living on rent, 4.2 % own their houses and around 11.4 % migrants choose other options. More people own their housing in the next decade, with 34.34 % owning their house, 50 % on rent and around 15 % choose other option. The situation improves steadily in the next decade with 43 percent becoming owners, 52 percent moving to rented housing and the 4.3 percent choosing other options. It improves even further in the next decade, with 66.66 percent owners, and 33.33 percent renters and none choosing to sleep in open.

The above relationship implies that most migrant workers need at least 10 years to develop some ground to stand on which can be seen in the pattern of the first 10 years, where very few migrants

⁸ Permanent Migrants: Migrants who are staying in Jaipur permanently and don't move to other origin cities seasonally.

⁹ Temporary Migrants: Migrants who usually temporarily stay in Jaipur and return to their hometown after. This movement varies with availability of work and seasons.

can avail themselves their own houses as a substitute, most of them choose rental housing and those who cannot afford the rents choose to sleep in open spaces. Still, the percentage of homeless remains significant which might be due to the temporary nature of the stay of migrants. But even after 30 years of stay in Jaipur, a significant population still reside in rented houses.

6.6 CHILDREN EDUCATION STATUS VS TYPE OF OWNERSHIP

56% of the respondents who said that they lived in a rented home send their children to school. The number increases to 71% if the worker lives in a house that they own. The number is significantly lower in cases of migrants sleeping in open spaces or other housing units like dharmshalas.

Table 18: Children Education Status Vs Type of Ownership.

Type of Ownership	No. of HHs sending their children to school	Total No. of Responses (Excluding Unmarried)	Percent HH who send their children to School
Owned	35	49	71%
Rent	89	158	56%
Opens Spaces	2	14	14%
Others	1	17	6%
<i>*Note: Responses do not include any unmarried surveyed individual/HHs.</i>			

6.8 SPATIAL ANALYSIS OF SPREAD OF CONSTRUCTION WORKERS

Like it was mentioned earlier in section 4.3, Jaipur is surrounded by the Nahargarh hills in the north and Jhalana in the east, which is a part of the Aravalli hills ranges. The south and west part is covered by isolated and discontinuous hillocks. The southern end of the city is an open plain stretching far and wide towards Sanganer and beyond. The geographical advantage of the southern region of Jaipur is one of the main reasons, why the first phase of expansion in the post-modern era was seen in the south of Jaipur.

Since the city was expanding on the southern side, most of the opportunities for construction work were concentrated there due to the construction of new buildings, houses, roads, and physical infrastructure.

Between 1984- 1990, the expansion was seen in the west of Jaipur. After 1990 and till 2000, a major expansion was seen in the southern and western part of Jaipur. After 2000, the west saw further expansion and the south followed a similar trajectory of expansion and densification for the next decade. In 2010, the west saw limited expansion compared to previous decades, the expansion in the south continued with lesser density and the east saw the development of sporadic settlements outside the barrier caused by the hills. This expansion was concomitant with the series of settlements of migrant workers on all three sides.

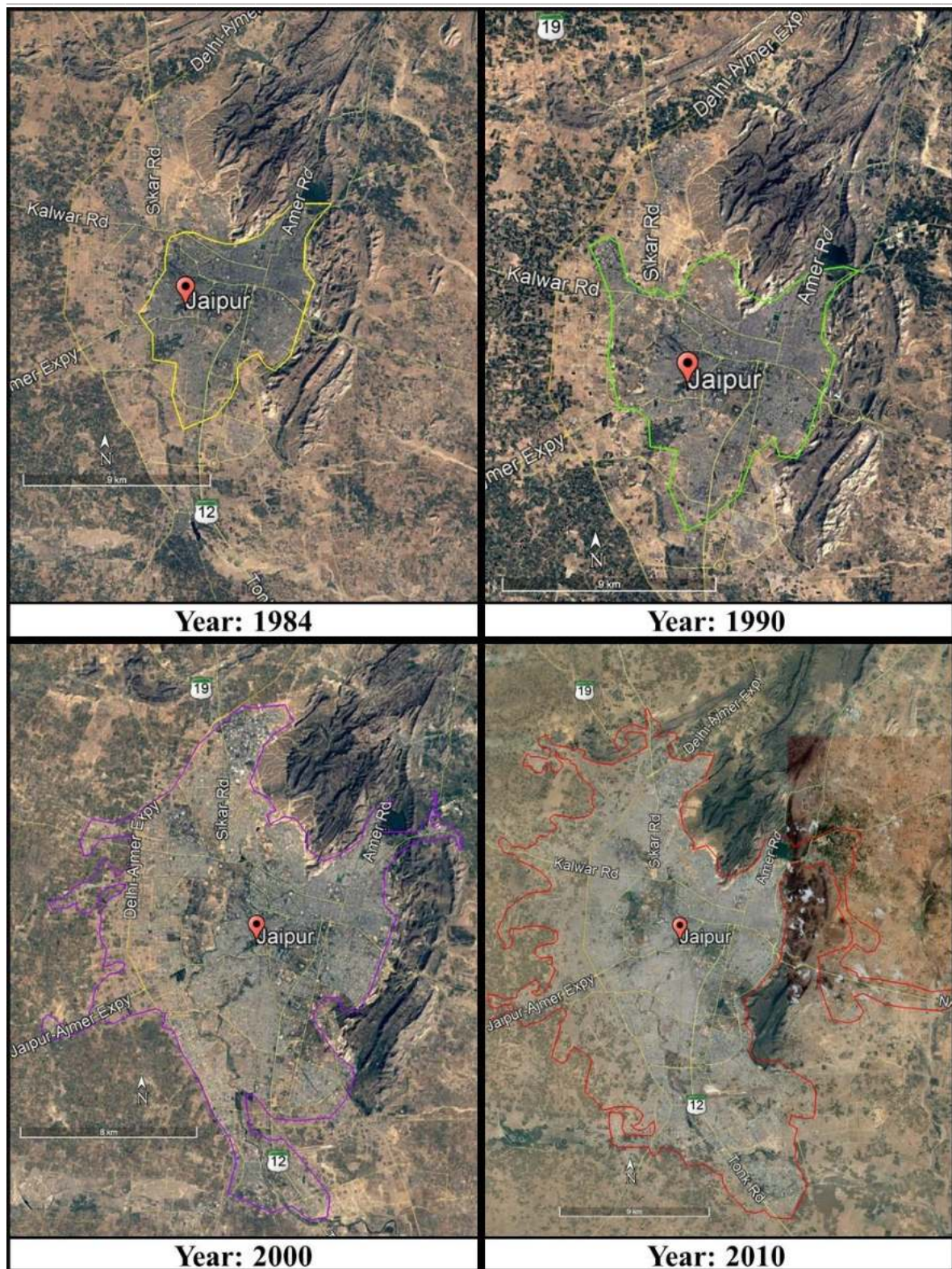


Figure 26: Expansion of Settlement Boundary of Jaipur from 1984 to 2010.

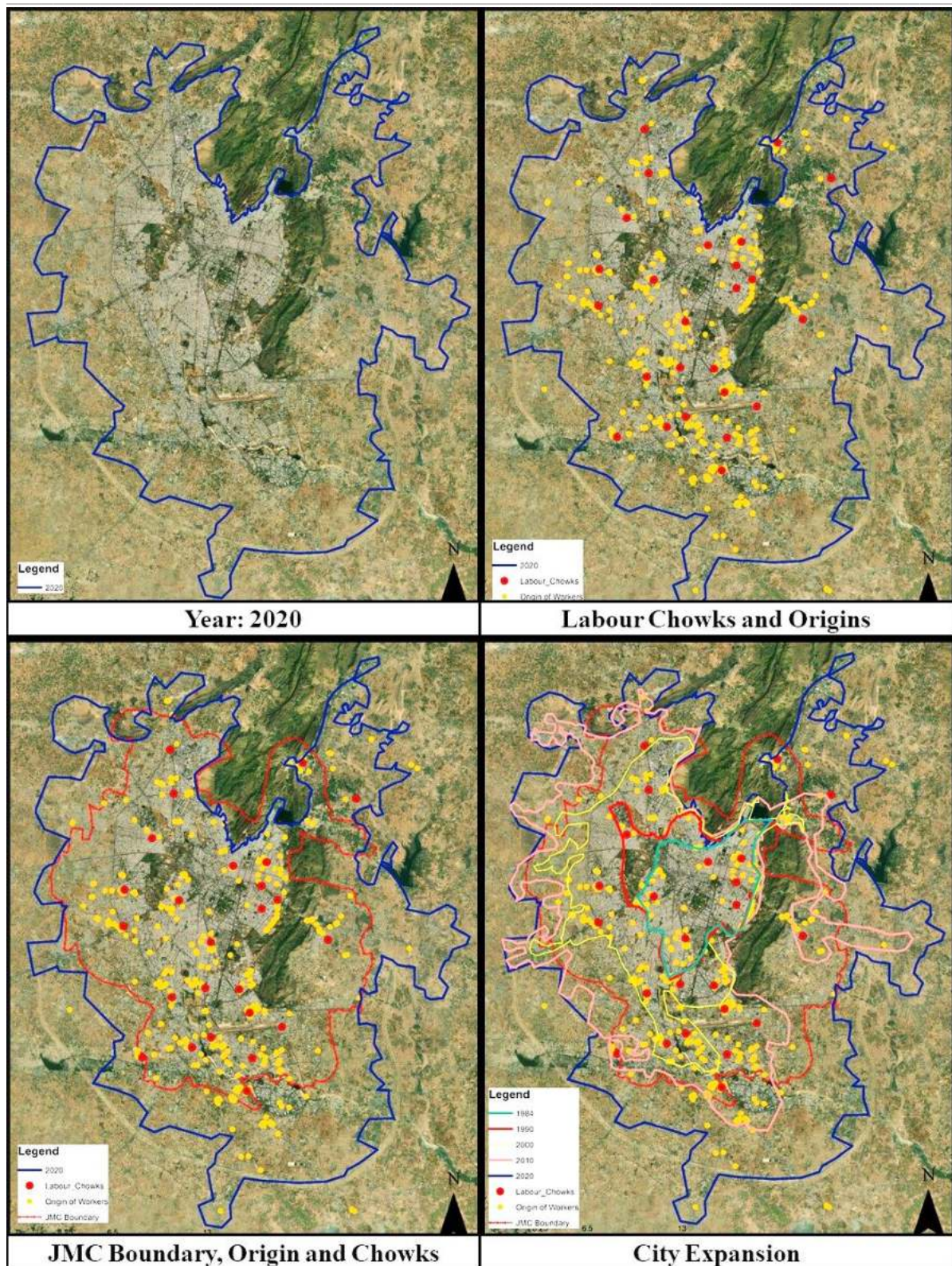


Figure 27: Overall Expansion of Jaipur from 1984 to 2020.

7 KEY FINDINGS AND WAY FORWARD

7.1 KEY FINDINGS ABOUT THE MIGRATION PATTERN AND IT'S RELATIONSHIP WITH URBAN HOUSING IN JAIPUR

Through the analysis, it has been established that the initial movement of a migrant from its origin and within the city is in search of work, followed by the search of habitable space, be it rental housing, informal squatters, dharmshalas, footpaths, railways stations, etc. In recent time, it has been replaced by rental housing, dharmshalas, open spaces and government housing schemes.

Upgradation to own housing takes up to 15 years (even 25) in some cases depending on factors like average monthly income, average monthly savings, the obligation of remittances etc. These factors are further connected to factors like years of stay, age of the migrant, work experience, HHs size, nature of migration, type of work, the stream of migration, drinking and smoking problems, etc. This stage decides the lifestyle of a migrant which includes characteristics like children education status, incremental housing/ quality of housing and how early he switches to other employment options with lesser physical investment and better monetary returns.

Developing on the argument of sparse owned housing among the migrants, the percentage of migrants who own their squatters was calculated and the result was surprisingly low which can only be rationalised by the argument posed in "Peri-urbanisation in India: A Review of Literature and Evidences", 2013 which states that peri-urbanization draws a migrant workforce and abruptly changes many rural residents' economic activity from agriculture to manufacturing and services because due to availability of cheap land and direction of city expansion, city development takes in such areas that attract stakeholders involved in the construction sector to build new houses, commercial units, industries and other big infrastructure projects in the peri-urban areas (Vishal Narain, Pooja Anand & Poulomi Bannerji, 2013). In Jaipur, most government infrastructure projects, especially housing schemes were carried in the South and West as mentioned in section 5.13.

Several obstacles to accessing appropriate housing were identified such as-

- High rental charges
- Scarcity of well-functioning homeless shelters
- High competition for securing habitable space
- Lack of monetarily rewarding employment
- Minimal increase in average monthly income
- A high increase in expenditure
- Vulnerability to external factors which may cause loss of income

7.2 THE WAY FORWARD - INCREMENTAL HOUSING SOLUTIONS

Everyone in the world dreams to have their own house where they can stay with their family members. Though in urban areas, many citizens struggle hard for years to have their own house in the city. Poor migrants who are barely earning enough money to support their family's basic needs can only dream of it. They work hard for years and still fail to own a legal house in the city. Their life needs interjections that offer various affordable and incremental housing options either by increasing their income or reducing their expenditures.

Provision of affordable houses under government affordable housing schemes is the only way to tackle this problem but it is associated with many drawbacks like a long process, lack of single-window system, rehabilitation during the construction period, location of housing scheme, scarcity of land, and lack of platform for the community to express their say. Other than government housing schemes at Central, State and ULB level, there are many different affordable and incremental housing options which have been already discussed in chapter 11, like shelter homes, dharmshalas and legal patta allotments. But with innovation interventions and ideas many illegal housing options can be recognised legally to augment the affordable housing options for urban poor. Some of the suggestion for incremental housing are discussed below:

7.2.1 VACANT PUBLIC HOUSING

Vacant public housing units may be converted into rental housing units offering accommodation to poor migrant families or groups of individuals. These shall include renting a complete apartment unit for the use of the tenant/s and equipped with all basic facilities like drinking water supply, sanitation and solid waste management. Rent must be fixed based on charges of pucca rental housing units in slums to increase the affordability and interest of urban migrants. The recent Affordable Rental Housing Complexes Scheme aims to do this, but the economics and feasibility of such a system are still highly particular to the specific city. JMC and JDA need to take more concrete steps towards analysing the feasibility of these schemes.

7.2.2 WORKERS' HOSTELS

Homeless shelters should not be perceived as the destination of homeless migrants. Workers' hostel with accommodation facilities for men, woman and families should be constructed near labour chowks and users should be charged a minimal rent as given in section 5.2¹⁰ of Scheme of Shelters for Urban Homeless, Revised Operational Guidelines.

7.2.3 CONVERSION OF VEHICLE INTO SLEEPING SPACES

There were many cases of migrants who were car, auto and E-rickshaw drivers and sleep in their vehicle. For bathroom and toilet facilities, they use public convenience or open defecation. These vehicles can be transformed into a better sleeping space with small intervention by adding folding

10 Section 5.2: Shelters are not the destiny for the homeless; working men/women's hostel, rental housings, affordable/social housings may also be promoted by the states/ULBs for mainstreaming homeless.

beds in the place of normal seats and battery fans as shown in figure 35. Modified vehicles will provide a better sleeping space to the drivers

7.2.4 IN SITU UPGRADATION OF HOUSES IN INFORMAL SETTLEMENTS

One of the main issues in informal settlements is the poor quality of houses in these settlements which can be improved using affordable resources like bamboo, mud bricks reinforced by natural fibres from straw and coconut, fly ash Hollow bricks, shipping containers, etc. which has minimal construction cost and significant durability. Most of the slum-dwellers are unaware of such materials and techniques.

Institutions like NGOs, Government authorities, architecture colleges and others can play a major role in the provision of these materials and assistance in the installation of these in their house.

7.2.5 TRANSFORMATION OF HOUSING CLUSTERS

Depending on the choice and intent of the slum-dweller, a group of 3 to 4 households that are located adjacent to each other can be provided with an option of getting a legal tenure on lease for a long term period (50- 100years), if they agree to transform their squatters into a building up to G+3 for whom the design floor plans will be provided by the government development authorities with subsidised construction materials and assistance from the authority. Each floor will be allotted to separate households based on the investment put in and the need of the beneficiary. Basic facilities including electricity, water supply and solid waste management facilities will be provided by the government at market rates.

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