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OUT-MIGRATION AND LIVELIHOOD IN RURAL INDIA

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ABSTRACT

Migration is an integral part of human civilization. It is barometer of changing socio-economic and political conditions at the national and international levels. Out-migration for employment is a livelihood strategy. Migration is not substitute strategy rather supplementary to rural livelihood in India. Major portion of remittances go rural India. Policy on migration especially rural distress migration must cover the issues of 'capability', 'equity', and 'sustainability' and inclusiveness which may ensure sustainable rural livelihood.



KEY WORD: Out-migration, remittances, rural livelihood, sustainability.

INTRODUCTION

Migration is an integral part of human civilization and it has been one of most dynamic processes of activities from the very beginning of human life. Migration is barometer of changing socio-economic and political conditions at the national and international levels. It is associated with number of various economic, demographic, social and political factors. It is a livelihood strategy for poor people of rural areas. Rural people are shifting towards the urban areas within border and cross-border in order to improve living standards and to reach better livelihood opportunities. Lack of employment opportunities in the rural areas motive people to migrate in urban areas. In rural areas sluggish agricultural growth and limited development of the rural non-farm sector raise the incidence of rural poverty, unemployment and under employment. Migrants contribute 10% of national GDP of the country(Deshingkar et al. 2009).

Migration is movement of individual or group of people for permanent or semi-permanent basis. Migrants by place of birth are those who are enumerated at a village/ town at the time of census other than their place of birth. Different types of migration are there on different basis. Classification of migration is discussed below briefly: On the basis of political boundary: a. internal migration – intra district, inter district, intra state, inter-state b. International. On the basis of stream – rural to rural migration, rural to urban migration, urban to rural migration. On temporal basis it is of two types: short term migration and long term migration. On the basis of nature it is of voluntary and forced migration. Distress migration from rural areas is a kind of forced migration which is one of the aspect of rural development. Out-migration rate of males from rural areas was nearly 9% and 5% from urban areas. Marriage is responsible for 91 percent of rural female migrants, 61 percent of the urban female migrants (NSSO Report 207-08). A sect of migrants move to grab diversified livelihood opportunities in destination place. Employment or better employment is responsible for migrants 14.7% in India (census 2001).

Livelihood in a simple word is a means of obtaining way of living. It includes income assets, human capability and their way of living. According to World Commission on Environment and Development WCED (1987) "livelihood is defined as adequate stocks and flows of food and cash to meet basic needs. Security refers to secure ownership of, or access to, resources and income-earning activities and including reserves

and assets to offset risk, ease shocks and meet contingencies". Migration is one of the strategy to secure employment attended by rural people in contemporary India.

DATA AND METHOD

Source of data is secondary nature. Data on migration in India has been utilized from census of India 2001 and National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO 64th Round (July 2007–June 2008). Definition of poverty is not unique or same in nature. State specific Poverty Lines for 2011-12 was based on Tendulkar method on Mixed Reference Period (MRP). Monthly per capita per day income was fixed at Rs. 27.2 (Rs. 816 monthly). In India in rural areas poverty ratio was 25.7% according to Planning Commission press note 2011-12. Relationship between poverty and migration is context specific. Cross tabulation has been done to accomplish the objectives.

OBJECTIVES:

- 1.To find out pattern of out-migration from rural areas of some states of India.
- 2.To examine impact of out-migration and volume of remittancesat household level in different states and livelihood issue.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

According to Census 2001 a person is considered as migrant by place of last residence, if the place in which he is enumerated during the census is other than his place of immediate last residence. By capturing the latest of the migrations in cases where persons have migrated more than once, this concept would give a better picture of current migration scenario.

According to NSSO Report 2007-08 a migrant is "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. In this survey, usual place of residence (UPR) of a person was defined as a place (village/town) where the person had stayed continuously for a period of six months or more."

Migration of human beings takes place for varied reasons causing multidimensional impacts on daily life. Causes of migration mentioned in NSSO report 2007-08 are- in search of employment or better employment, marriage- Business, studies, Natural disaster (earthquake, drought, flood, tsunami, etc.), social/ political problems (riots, terrorism, political refugee, bad law and order, etc.) displacement by development project, post retirement.

A substantial portion of internal migration in India including the states of Rajasthan and Orissa in particular, is 'distress-led'(Bhatt, 2009). Collapse of rural employment, disguised labour in agricultural farms, a little bit profit from agricultural crops in order to rising price of fertilizer, pesticide etc. resulting into sluggish agricultural growth are combine contributing in distress migration from rural India. Seasonal migration is both a part of and an outcome of the structures of social and economic relations in the Indian countryside (Rogaly, 1998).

Regional disparity is considered as key factor of migration. Regional disparity in large country like India has gone down with economic growth over years that affect the pattern of labour migration in India. A large number of population out-migrate from rural areas due to illiteracy and lack of employment opportunities (Kundu et al. 1996). Connell et al. (1976) argue from their village studies in India that land availability at the village level is the primary economic force driving emigration. Many small farmers are forced to sell their land to the large land owners and seek wage labour in the area, to work as temporary or seasonal workers in other areas or to migrate permanently away from the area. It is said that "the more an individual is poor, landless and socio-economically deprived, the greater the chance of his migration from rural to urban areas". (Mukherjee, 2001). Patterns of landownership plays diversified role in out-migration from rural India. Connell et al.(1976) depicts that the landless were least likely to migrate. Yadava et al. (1996/97) find a positive relationship between landholding and migration in India (and that migrant households are socio-economically and educationally relatively better-off.

Oberai et al. (1989) show that the poor and landless were more likely to migrate in Bihar; in Kerala the middle peasantry migrated more often, and in Uttar Pradesh all landed groups except the largest cultivators migrated frequently. While there is some degree of path dependency, these patterns change over time.

Das (1985) narrated for a village in Bihar where sons of landowners were amongst the first to migrate, followed by less well-off. De Haan mentioned that Breman's (1985) seminar work in western India stressed the over-representation of lower castes and *Harijans* in circular migration.

In fact, the type of migration that has been growing is seasonal or cyclic migration. Seasonal or circular migration could be largely distress- driven and stimulated by partial or complete collapse of rural employment generation, the economic difficulties of cultivation and absence of alternative employment opportunities in the underdeveloped regions of the country. In reality migration has become an integral part of the livelihood strategies pursued by a large number of poor people living in the agriculturally underdeveloped areas (Korra, 2011). 93% of total work force is in informal or unorganized sector in India. In Indian subcontinent, migration of workers or labour is old phenomenon. "This depends on changing patterns of economic development, and is partly related to levels of poverty, but with little evidence that migration contributes to reducing regional disparities." (De Haan, 2011).

MIGRATION IN INDIA

It has recorded that India is largest recipient of overseas remittances in developing world (World Bank 2003). In India 9.83 crore (0-9 years duration) persons took participated in migration in census, 2001. (Male-3.28 crore, female -6.54 crore). For rural male, migration rate was lowest (nearly 4 per cent) among the 'not literates. It is observed from figure 1 that Maharashtra is state receiving the highest number of inmigrants followed by Delhi, Haryana, and Gujarat. Uttar Pradesh ranks first in sending out-migrants followed by Bihar, Rajasthan.

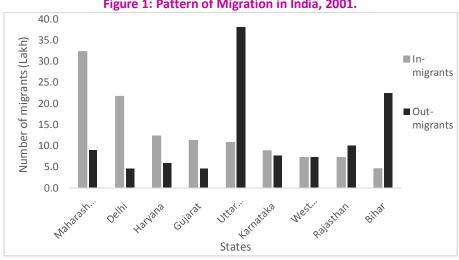


Figure 1: Pattern of Migration in India, 2001.

Source: Datahighlights by Census of India, 2001, p.14

It is evident from the data that higher is the population below poverty line, higher is the number of out-migration is well marked with Indian BIMARU states especially Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and Bihar.

Table 1: Below Poverty Line population	i and out- mi	gration in some ma	ior states in india.
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						Proportion
			Percentage		Number	(%) of out-
	Rural BPL	All BPL	of BPL	Percentage	(lakh) of	migrants
	Population	Population	Population*	of BPL	Out-	to BPL
State	(lakh)*	(lakh)*	(rural)	Population*	Migrants #	population
Uttar Pradesh	479.4	598.2	30.4	29.43	38.1	6.4
Bihar	320.4	358.2	34.06	33.74	22.4	6.3
Madhya Pradesh	191.0	234.1	35.74	31.65	8.4	3.6
Maharashtra	150.6	197.9	24.22	17.35	9.0	4.5
West Bengal	141.1	185.0	22.52	19.98	7.3	3.9
Rajasthan	84.2	102.9	16.05	14.71	10.0	9.7

Source: *Press Note on Poverty, Planning Commission July 2013 p.6,

Datahighlights by Census of India, 2001, p.14

Impact of Migration and Remittances on Rural Livelihood

Impact of out-migration is multidimensional in nature. Out-migrants generally send remittances at place of origin. Remittances are generally defined as the portion of migrants earnings sent from the migration destination to the place of origin. Among cross-border migrants from rural India, 82% sent remittances and it is 58% of those residing in urban India (NSSO, 2007-08). Migration helps in reduction of poverty, human capital formation through remittances which would help accelerate overall economic growth in rural India(Parida et al.2015). Ali et al. (2016) also opine 'positive effect of remittances on reducing rural and urban household poverty' and also help to 'increase investment in developing countries'

Migration from rural India is for better earning to cope up with existing 'stress and shocks'. Migration causes changes in consumption, nature of housing, level of education, health and overall standard of living in rural areas. In a case study, Sundari (2005) mentions "after migration there seems to be a sizeable improvement in self-employment and regular salaried jobs for women".

Migration is, nevertheless, expected to have an empowering impact on women in terms of increased participation in the labour force, economic independence, decline in fertility, and improved self- esteem (Bhatt, 2009).Internal migration from poorer areas is a form of 'safety valve'. The author continues that migration reduced borrowing for consumption, improved debt repayment capacity, and enhanced migrants' confidence(De haan,2011). Labour migrants make enormous contribution to the Indian economy through development of major sectors of economy such as construction, textiles, small industries, brick-making, stone quarries, mines, fish prawn processing and hospitality services (Deshingkar and Akhter, 2009).It is evident from various literature that migrants face problems at destination place related to health, water, security, changes in food habits etc.

In international migration from India, in case of Kerala, 89% emigrants from Kerala are to the gulf. Remittances constituted one third (31%) of Kerala's state Domestic products in 2008 (Kerala Return Migration survey, 2009).India received US \$ 52 billion from Gulf in 2008. Kerala share more than 20% (US \$ 10.4 billion) of that. Per capita income (excluding) of state was Rs. 41,814 but when remittances was included it was Rs. 54,664.

Table 2 shows Kerala (14.21%) ranks the first in sending out-migrants from rural households followed by Punjab (5%), Tamil Nadu(2.62%), and Goa (1.7%) in case of international migration. Rural Goa receives highest remittances followed by Punjab, Kerala. At national level 1.18% household participate in international migration receiving Rs. 58709 at average.

Internal out-migrants may not have access to PDS and housing schemes. Migrants may not be able to obtain health care facilities because of an absence of/or long distance to health care centers. Children of migrants may face problem of not getting immunization properly. Children of seasonal migrants generally

lack of proper schooling. Sometimes, contractors/middlemen do not pay money to the workers or they delay to pay generally in informal sector. All these problems need special attention of policy makers.

Table 2: International Remittances received by Households by some major Indian states.

	Donasantaga	of Household	Intono	ational	
	Percentage	of Household	International		
	Received I	nternational	Remittances Per		
	Remi	ttances	Househo	olds (Rs.)	
State	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	
Kerala	14.21	11.99	65255	71640	
Punjab	4.99	1.5	108498	97547	
Tamil Nadu	2.62	1.96	41632	70685	
Goa	1.7	5.29	296506	201454	
Rajasthan	1.29	1.55	47689	65628	
Uttar Pradesh	0.7	0.61	40931	44854	
West Bengal	0.17	0.43	41399	54404	
India	1.18	1.13	58709	79782	

Source: NSSO Report, 2007-08

In case of domestic remittances(see table 3) received by rural household Bihar (18.62%) is at top followed by Uttar Pradesh (16.4%), Orissa (14.65%), and Rajasthan(13.05) in India. Uttar Pradeshreceives highest annual volume of remittances (5468 crore) followed by Bihar, Rajasthan. Rural areas bring more than 80% domestic annual volume remittances of the states.

Table 3: Domestic Remittances to Households by some major Indian states, 2007-08

States	Percentage o	f Households	Annual Volume of	Domestic	
	received domestic remittance		Households Remittances (Rs. In Crore)		
	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	
Bihar	18.62	10.15	3686	361	
Himachal Pradesh	22.97	5.64	712	36	
Kerala	9.65	6.23	1338	340	
Orissa	14.65	7.13	1425	306	
Rajasthan	13.05	4.78	2953	605	
Uttarakhand	21.18	5.81	544	134	
Uttar Pradesh	1640	5.33	5468	923	
West Bengal	9.94	4.55	1920	652	
India	9.96	3.56	25444	6975	

Source: NSSO Report, 2007-08.

Migration especially rural distress migration must answer the questions of 'capability', 'equity', and 'sustainability' which may ensure sustainable rural livelihood. Out-migration for longer period of time is not good indicator that is why Chambers et al. (1991) raises issues of preventing migration to urban areas and voluntary reversals of rural-urban migration. It may be applicable in cross- border migration similarly. Enhancement of capability in education, health, communication, transport, supporting agricultural farmersis required for better strategy of livelihood. Minorities and women and poorer must be ensured right to land, water, trees, and other resources, proper management of common property resources and equitable rights of access for the poorer is to be ensured. Thus out-migration and livelihood issues are to be linked up here well.

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GOVERNMENT POLICY ON MIGRANTS

A socially sustainable livelihood is one which can cope with stress and shock, considering the future generations of various sections of society. Generally no one like to migrate to other place unless there are questions of satisfaction or security of employment to ensure the means of living. If migration especially short term migration is resilient to livelihood strategy, proper policy approach must be for out-migrants on governments' part.

Government attitudes to migration – internal and external – have changed radically in recent years. Formerly migration was seen as evidence of chronic social and economic breakdown, internal migration is now seen as a major mechanism for the redistribution of resources from richer to poorer localities and a vital means of raising the incomes of the poor (Harrris, 2005).

The major push factor was lack of employment opportunities in the place of origin caused by drought and the pull factor was a favourable employment situation in the destination areas .To alleviate poverty, the government's attention should be directed towards combating population movement via rural development and also improving the living conditions of those who had alreadymoved (Sundari, 2005)

Emerging evidence from studies by Drèze and Khera and by the India School of Women's Studies and Development highlights that [M]NREGA leads to decreases in distress migration from villages, with workers stating preference to work in and around their villages, rather than bearing the social and other costs of migrating elsewhere in search of work (quoted in NCEUIS 2009: 220, 223). This emphasizes on reducing migration per se is problematic. In the first place, evidence shows that it is as likely that migration will continue or even increase with developmentas enhanced resources become available and access improved. Patterns of migration will change, but mobility is clearly part of societies' development paths. Policy makers and the public need to become more sensitive to its manifold implications and take the necessary measures to ensure that distress-led migration does not degenerate into further trauma (Bhatt, 2009).

India's high growth model is simultaneously well marked with high inequality and has failed to absorb labour in modern of formal sector (De Haan2011). Labour laws should be strictly followed. Like other Asian countries, India need to focus on housing, health, education of migrants family and positive policy.

CONCLUSION

India is diversified country showing regional disparity in economic development. BIMARU states show more proportion of out-migrants. Now government should make arrangement for education of children of migrants, betterment of health condition of migrants, ensure the due payment timely to out-migrant labour. Non-Government Organizations may be encouraged for betterment. Poorer portion of population, women, children and other socially deprived communities must be included in government policy properly which paves the way to inclusive growthensuring the 'sustainable' and 'inclusive development'.

Migration is not substitute strategy rather supplementary to rural livelihood in India. To ensure employment and better livelihood, Government of India had launched MGNREGA, NRLM etc. which are important steps to check distress migration to a certain extent from rural India. Short term migration is good for those who have no access to job opportunity or better job. Here job satisfaction is not matter, rather job security is prime aim of people. Distress led migration from rural areas is not sign of sustainability of livelihood. A group of authors suggested better rural livelihood through rural development by 'remain at village' approach. Pattern of migration may change, but it will not stop. The issues of 'capability', 'equity', and 'sustainability' must be considered in policy prescriptions for out-migrants for sustainable rural livelihood.

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